Optimal vector quantization in terms of Wasserstein distance

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Abstract

The optimal quantizer in memory-size constrained vector quantization induces a quantization error which is equal to a Wasserstein distortion. However, for the optimal (Shannon-)entropy constrained quantization error a proof for a similar identity is still missing. Relying on principal results of the optimal mass transportation theory, we will prove that the optimal quantization error is equal to a Wasserstein distance. Since we will state the quantization problem in a very general setting, our approach includes the Rényi-\(\alpha\)-entropy as a complexity constraint, which includes the special case of (Shannon-)entropy constrained (\(\alpha = 1\)) and memory-size constrained (\(\alpha = 0\)) quantization. Additionally, we will derive for certain distance functions codecell convexity for quantizers with a finite codebook. Using other methods, this regularity in codecell geometry has already been proved earlier by György and Linder \cite{12,13}.

Key words: Wasserstein distance, optimal quantization error, codecell convexity, Rényi-\(\alpha\)-entropy

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1. Introduction

Optimal quantization often arises in electrical engineering in connection with signal processing and data compression. The survey article of Gray and Neuhoff \cite{9} provides a comprehensive overview of this subject. In mathematical terms, quantization is concerned with the approximation of a given proba-

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bility by another probability which is induced as an image under a quantizer. In doing so, the complexity of the quantizer must not exceed a certain bound. Optimal quantization is achieved if the quantization error between the original distribution and the approximation is, subject to the given bound, minimal. A first rigorous treatment of this problem in a higher dimensional space apparently goes back to Steinhaus [30]. The complexity of a quantizer can be measured by different mappings. Standard choices are the support cardinality of the approximating distribution [8] or its (Shannon-)entropy [12, 13]. In the first case, we are talking about memory-size (or fixed-rate) quantization, the second one is called (Shannon-)entropy constrained quantization. Recently, Rényi-$\alpha$-entropy has been suggested as complexity mapping [16, 17], which contains the special case of (Shannon-)entropy constrained ($\alpha = 1$) and memory-size constrained ($\alpha = 0$) quantization. Alternatively, the quantization error between the original probability and its approximation can be interpreted as the costs arising out of the mass transport between these two distributions. Indeed, in case of $\alpha = 0$ and for distance mapping $l(x) = x^r$ with $r \geq 1$, it is well-known (see e.g. [8, Lemma 3.4], [24]) that the optimal quantization error is equal to the Wasserstein distance between original and (optimal) approximation, which reflects these costs and is a key term in the theory of optimal mass transportation. Our main goal is to prove that this identity remains valid also for general complexity and distance mappings.

By using principal results in optimal mass transportation theory, we will show in this paper for a fairly large class of distance mappings $l$ that the optimal quantization error is equivalent to the minimization of a Wasserstein distance (cf. Thm. 3.2). Because we make only very few assumptions regarding the complexity mapping (cf. Definition 2.1), the case of Rényi-$\alpha$-entropy and, therefore, the special cases of memory-size and (Shannon-)entropy constrained optimal quantization are included. Results from mass transportation theory yield that the codecells, i.e. the preimages of the quantizer, have the shape of convex polytopes if the distance mapping is quadratic. Moreover, the codecells are intervals for a large class of distance mappings in the one-dimensional setting. Using other methods, this regularity in codecell geometry has already been proved earlier by Győrgy and Linder [12, 13].

The rest of this paper is organized as follows: The second section contains the setup of optimal quantization and mass transportation theory. In the third section, we introduce different types of quantization errors and Wasserstein distances. Our main result (Theorem 3.2) shows that these different notions coincide under very general assumptions on distance and
complexity mapping. In particular, we obtain codecell regularity for special distance mappings. Additionally, for distance mapping \( d(x) = x^r \) with \( r \geq 1 \), we will generalize a consistency result for the optimal quantization error (cf. Corollary [3.9]). The last section introduces Rényi-\( \alpha \)-entropy as complexity mapping and compares the results of this paper with known results for the cases \( \alpha \in \{0, 1\} \). Most of our proofs are given in the appendix.

2. Setup and notation

2.1. Optimal quantization

We begin with a very general definition of optimal quantization. Let \( d \in \mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, \ldots\} \) and \( \mu \) be a Borel probability measure on \( \mathbb{R}^d \). Let \( I \subset \mathbb{N} \) and \( S = \{S_i : i \in I\} \) be a countable and measurable partition of \( \mathbb{R}^d \). Moreover, let \( C = \{c_i : i \in I\} \) be a countable set of points in \( \mathbb{R}^d \). Now \((S_i, c_i)_{i \in I}\) defines a quantizer \( q : \mathbb{R}^d \to C \) with

\[
q(x) = c_i \quad \text{if and only if} \quad x \in S_i.
\]

We call \( C \) a codebook consisting of codepoints \( c_i \). Every \( S_i \in S \) is called a codecell. Clearly, \( C = q(\mathbb{R}^d) \). Moreover, if we assume w.l.o.g. that \( c_i \neq c_j \) for every \( i, j \in I, i \neq j \), then

\[
S = \{q^{-1}(z) : z \in q(\mathbb{R}^d)\}.
\]

Denote by \( Q_d \) the set of all quantizers and by \( \delta_a \) the Dirac measure in \( a \in \mathbb{R}^d \). For every \( q \in Q_d \), the image measure

\[
\mu \circ q^{-1}(\cdot) = \sum_{i \in I} \mu(S_i) \delta_{c_i}(\cdot)
\]

has a countable support and defines an approximation of \( \mu \), the so-called quantization of \( \mu \) by \( q \). Now let \( \mathcal{P} \) be the space of all probability vectors on \([0, 1]^\mathbb{N}\), i.e., for every \( p = (p_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathcal{P} \) we have \( p_i \in [0, 1] \) and \( \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i = 1 \).

**Definition 2.1.** We call a mapping \( \mathcal{P} \ni p \to H(p) \in [0, \infty) \) a complexity mapping if

(a) for any bijection \( \tau : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N} \) and \( (p_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathcal{P} \) we have \( H((p_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}) = H((p_{\tau(i)})_{i \in \mathbb{N}}) \), and
(b) for every \( p \in \mathcal{P} \) and \( k \geq 2 \) with \( p^k = (p_1, \ldots, p_{k-1}, \sum_{i \geq k} p_i, 0, \ldots) \in \mathcal{P} \) we have \( H(p^k) \leq H(p) \).

With any enumeration \( \{i_1, i_2, \ldots\} \) of \( I \) we define

\[
H_\mu(q) = H((\mu(S_{i_1}), \mu(S_{i_2}), \ldots))
\]

as the \( H \)-complexity of \( q \) w.r.t \( \mu \). Now we intend to quantify the distance between \( \mu \) and its approximation under \( q \). To this end, let \( \| \cdot \| \) be the Euclidean norm on \( \mathbb{R}^d \) and \( l : [0, \infty) \to [0, \infty) \) a strictly increasing (and therefore Borel-measurable) distance mapping with \( l(0) = 0 \). For \( q \in \mathcal{Q}_d \) we define as the distance between \( \mu \) and \( \mu \circ q^{-1} \) the quantization error

\[
D_\mu(q) = \int l(\| x - q(x) \|) d\mu(x). \tag{1}
\]

For any \( R \geq 0 \) we denote

\[
D_\mu^H(R) = \inf \{ D_\mu(q) : q \in \mathcal{Q}_d, H_\mu(q) \leq R \} \tag{2}
\]

as the optimal quantization error of \( \mu \) under \( H \)-complexity bound \( R \). We call a quantizer \( q \) optimal for \( \mu \) under \( H \)-complexity bound \( R \) if \( D_\mu(q) = D_\mu^H(R) \).

Denote by \( \mathcal{Q}_d^* \) the set of all quantizers whose range is finite. It is essential for this paper and also of principal interest that we can replace \( \mathcal{Q}_d \) with \( \mathcal{Q}_d^* \) in relation (2) under a moment condition on \( \mu \). To this end, let \( \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d) \) be the set of all Borel probability measures on \( \mathbb{R}^d \) with finite \( l \)-moment, i.e. \( \int l(\| x \|) d\mu(x) < \infty \) for every \( \mu \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d) \). The following statement is proved in the appendix.

**Proposition 2.2.** Let \( \mu \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d) \). For every complexity mapping \( H \) and bound \( R \geq 0 \) we have

\[
D_\mu^H(R) = \inf \{ D_\mu(q) : q \in \mathcal{Q}_d^*, H_\mu(q) \leq R \}.
\]

As already stated in the introduction, two choices for the complexity mapping are of great practical importance. Quantization with the complexity mapping

\[
\mathcal{P} \ni p \mapsto H(p) = \log \left( \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} 1_{(0,1]}(p_i) \right) \tag{3}
\]
is called memory-size constrained quantization if we denote by $1_A$ the characteristic function on a set $A \subset \mathbb{R}^d$. If

$$\mathcal{P} \ni p \rightarrow H(p) = -\sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} p_i \log(p_i),$$

then we are talking of (Shannon-)entropy constrained quantization. Rényi-$\alpha$-entropy as a more general complexity constraint is discussed in section 4. For memory-size constrained quantization, optimal quantizers exist under weak assumptions on $\mu$ (see e.g. [8, Thm. 4.12], [24]). If $\mu$ is non-atomic, György and Linder [12, Thm. 3] have shown for (Shannon-)entropy constrained quantization in the one-dimensional case that always optimal quantizers exist. If $\mu$ is absolutely continuous with respect to the Lebesgue measure and $l(x) = x^2$, then this existence results holds also for higher dimensions (cf. [13, Thm. 3]). Unfortunately, optimal quantizers do not exist in general. There are complexity mappings $\hat{H}$ which lead to the non-existence of optimal quantizers (cf. [16, Thm. 3.1]).

2.2. Transportation theory and its relation to quantization and the Wasserstein distance

The problem of optimal transportation in the sense of Kantorovich [15] can be stated on finite dimensional spaces as follows: Let $X$ and $Y$ be closed and non-empty subsets of $\mathbb{R}^d$. Let $\mu$ be a Borel probability measure on $X$ and $\nu$ be a Borel probability measure on $Y$. Consider the set $\Gamma(\mu, \nu)$ of all Borel probability measures on $X \times Y$ with first marginal $\mu$ and second marginal $\nu$. Kantorovich’s problem was to determine the minimal transport cost

$$w(\mu, \nu) = \inf \{\int_{X \times Y} c(x, y) d\gamma(x, y) : \gamma \in \Gamma(\mu, \nu)\}$$

with the measurable cost function $c(\cdot, \cdot) : X \times Y \rightarrow [0, \infty)$. We call $\gamma \in \Gamma(\mu, \nu)$ an optimal transport plan if

$$w(\mu, \nu) = \int_{X \times Y} c(x, y) d\gamma(x, y).$$

Because the cost function has only non-negative values in our setting, an optimal solution always exists (cf. [31 Thm. 4.1]). Now we specify for the rest of this paper

$$c(x, y) = l(\|x - y\|) \quad \text{for every } (x, y) \in X \times Y.$$
Definition 2.3. A transport plan \( \gamma \in \Gamma(\mu, \nu) \) is said to be deterministic if a measurable mapping \( q : X \to Y \) exists, such that \( \gamma = \mu \circ \phi^{-1} \) with the mapping
\[
X \ni x \to \phi(x) = (x, q(x)).
\]
The mapping \( q \) is called Monge mapping or transport mapping.

Consequently, every deterministic transport plan is induced by a Monge mapping \( q \) which is \( \mu \)-almost surely uniquely defined (when the transport plan has been fixed). Moreover, \( \nu = \mu \circ q^{-1} \). Roughly speaking, one could say that the Monge mapping \( q \) transports the mass represented by the measure \( \mu \) to the mass represented by the measure \( \nu \).

If we restrict the transport plans in (5) to be deterministic, the problem of optimal transport turns into the so-called Monge transportation problem, where we have to determine the optimal Monge mapping \( q \), such that
\[
\int l(\|x - q(x)\|)d\mu(x)
= \inf \left\{ \int l(\|x - t(x)\|)d\mu(x) : t \text{ measurable}, \mu \circ t^{-1} = \nu \right\}
= \inf \left\{ \int_{X \times Y} c(x, y)d\gamma(x, y) : \gamma \in \Gamma(\mu, \nu), \gamma \text{ deterministic } \right\}.
\]

Now, if we compare (5), (6) and (1), it turns out that the optimal total cost of transportation would be a quantization error if the optimal transport plan would be deterministic and the related optimal Monge map would be a quantizer. The following Theorem 2.6 states that this is the case if the target distribution \( \nu \) is discrete and the source distribution \( \mu \) satisfies a certain continuity assumption. Our proof of this fundamental statement relies on principal results in the theory of optimal mass transportation. We need the following definition:

Definition 2.4. [37, Definition 5.2 and Remark 5.6] A mapping \( f : X \to \mathbb{R} \) is said to be \( c \)-convex if there exists a mapping \( g : Y \to \mathbb{R} \) such that
\[
f(x) = \sup \{ g(y) - c(x, y) : y \in Y \}
\]
for every \( x \in X \).

Moreover, the \( c \)-subdifferential or \( c \)-subgradient \( \partial_c f(x) \) of the mapping \( f \) at the point \( x \in X \) is defined by
\[
\partial_c f(x) = \{ y \in Y : f(x) + c(x, y) \leq f(z) + c(z, y) \text{ for every } z \in X \}.
\]
We rely in this paper on the following fundamental result. Recall definition (5) of $w(\mu, \nu)$. Denote by $\text{card}$ the cardinality of a set.

**Theorem 2.5.** \cite[Theorem 5.30]{31} Assume that $w(\mu, \nu) < \infty$. If for any $c-$convex mapping $f : X \to \mathbb{R}$ the set

$$\{ x \in X : \text{card}(\partial_c f(x)) > 1 \}$$

is contained in a $\mu-$measure-zero set, then there exists a unique optimal transport plan $\gamma$ which is deterministic. The Monge map $q$ which induces $\gamma$ is characterized by the existence of a $c-$convex function $\tilde{f}$ such that

$$q(x) \in \partial_c \tilde{f}(x) \text{ for } \mu - \text{a.e. } x \in X.$$ 

Now we intend to apply Theorem 2.5 to a discrete target distribution $\nu$ on $\mathbb{R}^d$. To be precise, let $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $a_1, \ldots, a_m \in \mathbb{R}^d$ be $m$ different points in $\mathbb{R}^d$. Let $p_1, \ldots, p_m \in (0, 1]$ be such that $\sum_{i=1}^m p_i = 1$ and let

$$\nu = \sum_{i=1}^m p_i \delta_{a_i} \quad (7)$$

For $(\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m) \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and $i \in \{1, \ldots, m\}$, we define the set

$$A_i = A_i(\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m) = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^d : l(\|x - a_i\|) - \lambda_i = \min\{l(\|x - a_j\|) - \lambda_j : j \in \{1, \ldots, m\}\} \}.$$ 

Moreover, let

$$\mathcal{Q}(\nu) = \{ q \in \mathcal{Q}^*_d : q(\mathbb{R}^d) = \{a_1, \ldots, a_m\} \text{ with } \mu(q^{-1}(a_i)) = p_i \text{ for every } i \in \{1, \ldots, m\} \}.$$ 

**Theorem 2.6.** Let $\nu$ be a discrete probability on $\mathbb{R}^d$ as defined in (7). Assume that $\mu$ vanishes on the boundary of $A_i(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_m)$ for every $(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_m) \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and $i \in \{1, \ldots, m\}$. If $w(\mu, \nu) < \infty$, then a quantizer $q \in \mathcal{Q}(\nu)$ and $(\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m) \in \mathbb{R}^m$ exist, such that

$$w(\mu, \nu) = \int l(\|x - q(x)\|)d\mu(x)$$

$$= \min\{ \int l(\|x - \tilde{q}(x)\|)d\mu(x) : \tilde{q} \in \mathcal{Q}(\nu) \}.$$
and
\[ q^{-1}(a_i) = A_i(\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m) \quad \mu - \text{almost surely for every } i \in \{1, \ldots, m\}. \]

The quantizer \( q \) is \( \mu \)-almost surely uniquely defined, i.e. we have \( \mu \circ q^{-1} = \mu \circ \tilde{q}^{-1} \) for every \( \tilde{q} \in Q(\nu) \) which attains the above minimum.

Theorem 2.6 is proved in the appendix by applying Theorem 2.5. If \( r \geq 1 \) and \( l(x) = x^r \), then the mapping
\[ \rho_r(\cdot, \cdot) = l^{-1} \circ w(\cdot, \cdot) = w(\cdot, \cdot)^{1/r} \]
is a metric on \( \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d) \times \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d) \) (see e.g. [31, Definition 6.1]) and often called Wasserstein distance. In this paper, we are generally interested in such continuous distance mappings \( l \), where \( l^{-1} \circ w \) satisfies the triangle inequality, i.e. if for every \( \mu_1, \mu_2, \mu_3 \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d) \) with \( w(\mu_1, \mu_3) < \infty \) the relation
\[ l^{-1}(w(\mu_1, \mu_3)) \leq l^{-1}(w(\mu_1, \mu_2)) + l^{-1}(w(\mu_2, \mu_3)) \]
holds. Even if the triangle inequality is satisfied, it is not clear if the mapping \( l^{-1} \circ w \) has always finite values. Thus \( l^{-1} \circ w \) does not satisfy a priori all axioms of a metric, even if the triangle inequality is in force. For a historical overview of Kantorovich’s problem and further aspects of transportation theory, the reader is referred to Rüschendorf [28] and the references therein. Ambrosio et.al. [4] is also a good source of information for Wasserstein distances.

3. The optimal quantization error in terms of a Wasserstein distortion

Recall \( \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d) \) as the set of all Borel probability measures on \( \mathbb{R}^d \) with finite \( l \)-moment. We denote by \( \text{supp}(\mu) \) the support of \( \mu \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d) \) and define
\[ \mathcal{M}^*(\mathbb{R}^d) = \{ \mu \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d) : \text{card}(\text{supp}(\mu)) < \infty \}, \]
\[ \mathcal{M}^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d) = \{ \mu \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d) : \text{card}(\text{supp}(\mu)) \leq \text{card}((\mathbb{N}) \}. \]

Let \( \nu \in \mathcal{M}^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d) \) and denote \( \text{supp}(\nu) = \{ a_i : i \in I \} \) with \( I \subset \mathbb{N} \). By adding zeros - if necessary - the distribution \( \nu \) induces a probability vector \( p^\nu \in \mathcal{P} \), where \( \sum_{i=1}^\infty p_i^\nu = \sum_{i\in I} \nu(a_i) = 1 \). According to property (a) of \( H \) the mapping \( \nu \to H(p^\nu) \) is well-defined. For \( \mu \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d) \) and \( R \geq 0 \) we define
\[ V^H_\mu(R) = \inf \{ w(\mu, \nu) : \nu \in \mathcal{M}^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d), H(p^\nu) \leq R \} \]
as the optimal total cost of transportation for source distribution \( \mu \), where the target distributions \( \nu \) have countable support and induce a \( H \)-complexity which is lower or equal than the bound \( R \). If \( l \circ w^{-1} \) satisfies the triangle inequality or \( l \) is bounded, then we can replace \( \mathcal{M}^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d) \) by \( \mathcal{M}^*(\mathbb{R}^d) \) in the definition of \( V_{\mu}^H(R) \). The following statement is proved in the appendix.

**Proposition 3.1.** Let \( \mu \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d) \) and assume that \( l \) is continuous and \( l \circ w^{-1} \) satisfies the triangle inequality or assume that \( l \) is bounded and continuous. For every complexity mapping \( H \) and bound \( R \geq 0 \) we have

\[
V_{\mu}^H(R) = \inf \{ w(\mu, \nu) : \nu \in \mathcal{M}^*(\mathbb{R}^d), H(\nu) \leq R \}. \tag{10}
\]

Because we are interested in the case where the target distributions \( \nu \) are induced by a quantizer whose range is finite, we also define

\[
W_{\mu}^H(R) = \inf \{ w(\mu, \mu \circ q^{-1}) : q \in \mathcal{Q}^*_d, H_\mu(q) \leq R \}. \tag{11}
\]

Obviously,

\[
V_{\mu}^H(R) \leq W_{\mu}^H(R). \tag{12}
\]

Example 4.3 will show that inequality (12) can be strict. Recall definition (2) of the optimal quantization error \( \mathcal{D}_{\mu}^H(R) \). In view of Proposition 2.2 and Proposition 3.1 it is natural to ask under which conditions (if any) the quantities \( W_{\mu}^H(R), V_{\mu}^H(R) \) and \( \mathcal{D}_{\mu}^H(R) \) coincide. In addition to this question (which will be answered in Theorem 3.2), we want to know more about the codecell geometry of the quantizers. Such knowledge has proved very useful in analyzing optimal scalar and vector quantizer performance [9]. Of particular interest is the question if it suffices to consider in definition (2) only quantizers whose image has finite cardinality and whose codecells are convex polytopes. To be precise, let \( a \in \mathbb{R}^d \) and \( b \in \mathbb{R}^d, a \neq b \). We define the closed halfspace

\[
T(a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^d : \|x - a\| \leq \|x - b\|\}. \tag{13}
\]

We call a set \( P \subset \mathbb{R}^d \) a convex polytope, if \( P \) is a finite intersection of closed or open halfspaces. Let \( \mathcal{Q}^\circ_d \subset \mathcal{Q}^*_d \) be the set of all quantizers where each codecell is a convex polytope and every codepoint of such codecell lies in the closure of the codecell. We define

\[
\mathcal{D}_{\mu}^{H, \circ}(R) = \inf \{ D_{\mu}(q) : q \in \mathcal{Q}^\circ_d, H_\mu(q) \leq R \}.
\]
From the definition we immediately obtain for any $R \geq 0$ that

\[ D_H^\mu(R) \leq D_{H,c}^\mu(R). \tag{14} \]

Inequality (14) can be strict (cf. [12, Example 1]), but Theorem 3.2 below states conditions under which (14) turns into an equation. We are interested in two subclasses of distance functions, namely

(C1) $l$ is continuous, twice continuously differentiable with $l'' \geq 0$ in $(0, \infty)$ and $l^{-1} \circ w$ satisfies the triangle inequality

(C2) $l$ is continuous, twice continuously differentiable with $l'' \leq 0$ in $(0, \infty)$ and bounded.

Now we can state the main result of this paper. Theorem 3.2 will be proved in the appendix.

**Theorem 3.2.** Let $\mu \in M(\mathbb{R}^d)$ and assume that $\mu$ vanishes on continuously differentiable $(d-1)$-dimensional submanifolds of $\mathbb{R}^d$. Let the distance function $l$ be of type (C1) or (C2). For every $R \geq 0$ we have

\[ V_H^\mu(R) = W_H^\mu(R) = D_H^\mu(R). \tag{15} \]

Additionally, if

(a) $d = 1$ and $l$ is of type (C1), or
(b) $d > 1$ and $l(x) = x^2$ for every $x \geq 0$, then

\[ D_{H,c}^\mu(R) = D_H^\mu(R). \tag{16} \]

As already stated, (cf. 9) the distance mappings $l(x) = x^r$ satisfy condition (C1). Now we state a criterion for distance mappings ensuring that they satisfy condition (C1). To this end, we need the following definition.

**Definition 3.3.** A mapping $f : [0, \infty) \to [0, \infty)$ is called superadditive, if

\[ f(x + y) \geq f(x) + f(y) \text{ for every } x, y \in [0, \infty). \]

**Remark 3.4.** Consider the following classes of distance functions


\[(D1) l \text{ is continuous, twice continuously differentiable with } l'' > 0 \text{ in } (0, \infty) \text{ and the mapping } \frac{1}{l''} \text{ is superadditive in } (0, \infty)\]
(D2) \( l(x) = x \) for every \( x \in [0, \infty) \).

Lemma \[A.2\] states that every distance mapping which satisfies (D1) or (D2) also satisfies condition (C1). Insofar, Theorem 3.2 holds also for distance mappings which satisfy (D1) or (D2).

**Example 3.5.** The function \( l(x) = x \exp(-1/x) \) for \( x > 0 \), \( l(0) = 0 \) lies in class (D1) and thus according to Remark 3.4 also in class (C1). Theorem 3.2 is also applicable for the concave distance mappings \( l(x) = \arctan(x) \) or \( l(x) = \tanh(x) \) as elements of class (C2).

**Remark 3.6.** Common distance mappings are those who satisfy an Orlicz’s condition (see e.g. [25, Example 2.2.1])

\[
\sup \{ l(2x)/l(x) : x > 0 \} < \infty. \tag{17}
\]

It is not difficult to construct distance mappings which are continuous, twice continuously differentiable with \( l'' \geq 0 \) in \((0, \infty)\) and satisfying (17), but are not superadditive. It remains open whether Theorem 3.2 is still true if we replace the triangle inequality for \( l^{-1} \circ w \) in (C1) by condition (17).

Example 4.3 will show that Theorem 3.2 becomes invalid in general if we drop that \( \mu \) vanishes on continuously differentiable \((d-1)\)-dimensional submanifolds of \( \mathbb{R}^d \). We denote by \( \lambda^d \) the \( d \)-dimensional Lebesgue measure on \( \mathbb{R}^d \).

**Remark 3.7.** Every Borel measure \( \mu \) on \( \mathbb{R}^d \) which is absolutely continuous with respect to \( \lambda^d \), vanishes on continuously differentiable \((d-1)\)-dimensional submanifolds of \( \mathbb{R}^d \). By a result of Mattila [23], also the Hausdorff measure restricted to a self-similar set whose span equals \( \mathbb{R}^d \) and satisfies the open set condition, vanishes on continuously differentiable \((d-1)\)-dimensional submanifolds of \( \mathbb{R}^d \).

**Remark 3.8.** The boundedness of the distance mapping in the definition of class (C2) and the triangle inequality in (C1) is only needed in the proof of Proposition 3.1. These are sufficient conditions to ensure that equation (10) is true. It remains open to characterize those distance mappings \( l \) for which equation (10) is true.

The identity (16) has already been shown by György and Linder [12, 13]. Although they investigate only the case of (Shannon-)entropy constrained
quantization, their proof works also in our more general setting, because their construction of a (finite) quantizer with convex codecells always starts from an arbitrary one by redefining the codecells to convex ones but having the same probability.

For the special distance mapping \( l(x) = x^r \) with fixed norm exponent \( r \geq 1 \), we can easily derive a consistency result for the optimal quantization error. In the special case of memory-size constrained quantization, the result is well-known (see e.g. [8, p. 57], [24, Thm. 9]). Recall the definition (9) of Wasserstein distance \( \rho_r \).

**Corollary 3.9.** Let \( \mu_1, \mu_2 \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d) \) and assume that \( \mu_i \) vanishes on continuously differentiable \((d - 1)\)-dimensional submanifolds of \( \mathbb{R}^d \) for \( i \in \{1, 2\} \). Let \( r \geq 1 \) and assume that \( l(x) = x^r \) for every \( x \geq 0 \). Let \( R \geq 0 \). Then

\[
|\left(D^H_{\mu_1}(R)\right)^{1/r} - \left(D^H_{\mu_2}(R)\right)^{1/r}| \leq \rho_r(\mu_1, \mu_2). \tag{18}
\]

**Proof.** We distinguish two cases.

1. \( D^H_{\mu_1}(R) \geq D^H_{\mu_2}(R) \).

Let \( \varepsilon > 0 \). According to Theorem 3.2 let \( \nu_2 \in \mathcal{M}^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d) \), such that \( H(p^{\nu_2}) \leq R \) and

\[
\left(D^H_{\mu_2}(R)\right)^{1/r} \geq \rho_r(\mu_2, \nu_2) - \varepsilon.
\]

Again by Theorem 3.2 we obtain

\[
|\left(D^H_{\mu_1}(R)\right)^{1/r} - \left(D^H_{\mu_2}(R)\right)^{1/r}| = \left(D^H_{\mu_1}(R)\right)^{1/r} - \left(D^H_{\mu_2}(R)\right)^{1/r} \\
\leq \inf\{\rho_r(\mu_1, \nu) - \rho_r(\mu_2, \nu_2) : \nu \in \mathcal{M}^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d), H(p^{\nu'}) \leq R\} + \varepsilon \\
\leq \inf\{\rho_r(\mu_1, \mu_2) + \rho_r(\nu, \nu_2) : \nu \in \mathcal{M}^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d), H(p^{\nu'}) \leq R\} + \varepsilon \\
= \rho_r(\mu_1, \mu_2) + \varepsilon.
\]

By letting \( \varepsilon \to 0 \), we obtain (18).

2. \( D^H_{\mu_1}(R) < D^H_{\mu_2}(R) \).

This case is handled similarly to the first one. \( \square \)

Corollary 3.9 becomes invalid if we drop the condition that \( \mu_i \) vanishes on continuously differentiable \((d - 1)\)-dimensional submanifolds of \( \mathbb{R}^d \) for \( i \in \{1, 2\} \). For a (counter-)example, the reader is referred to [12, Example 2]. Insofar we cannot apply Corollary 3.9 to the important case, where
\( \mu_2 = \mu_2^{(n)} \) is the empirical \((n-\text{sample})\) version of \( \mu_1 \). Although we know that consistency in this empirical case holds for memory-size constrained quantization (\([8, \text{Corollary 4.24}]\)), it remains open if this is true in general.

Nevertheless, Corollary 3.9 could also be of practical relevance for algorithmic quantizer design. Algorithms for designing optimal quantizers often converge to a local error minimum which is not a global one. To avoid this effect, a perturbation approach has been proposed \([1, 19]\) in case of memory-size constrained quantization. The original distribution \( \mu \) is approximated (in a weak sense) by \( \mu_n = (1 - a_n)\mu + a_n\nu \), where \( (a_n) \subset (0, 1) \) is a sequence decreasing to zero. \( \nu \) represents a distribution which has a unique local (and global) optimal quantizer. Now if an optimal quantizer for \( \mu_n \) is used as the initial (suboptimal) quantizer for \( \mu_{n+1} \), the algorithm is likely to converge to a (global) optimal quantizer for \( \mu_{n+1} \). Corollary 3.9 ensures that the quantization errors of these (global) optimal quantizers converge towards the optimal quantization error for \( \mu \). It needs further research to determine if this approach also works for general complexity mappings.

4. Rényi-\( \alpha \)-entropy as complexity and comparison with known results

Let us give an exact definition of Rényi-\( \alpha \)-entropy \([26, 29]\). Let \( \mathbb{N} := \{1, 2, \ldots\} \). Let \( \alpha \in [-\infty, \infty] \) and \( p = (p_1, p_2, \ldots) \in \mathcal{P} \). The Rényi-\( \alpha \)-entropy \( H^\alpha(p) \in [0, \infty] \) is defined as (cf. \([3, \text{Definition 5.2.35}]\), see also \([14]\), p.1)

\[
H^\alpha(p) = \begin{cases} 
- \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i \log(p_i), & \text{if } \alpha = 1 \\
- \log(\sup\{p_i : i \in \mathbb{N}\}), & \text{if } \alpha = \infty \\
- \log(\inf\{p_i : i \in \mathbb{N}, p_i > 0\}), & \text{if } \alpha = -\infty \\
\frac{1}{1-\alpha} \log(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i^\alpha), & \text{if } \alpha \in (-\infty, \infty) \setminus \{1\}.
\end{cases}
\]

We use the conventions \( 0 \cdot \log(0) := 0 \) and \( 0^x := 0 \) for all real \( x \geq 0 \). Moreover, \( 1/0 := \infty \). The logarithm \log is based on \( e \).

Remark 4.1. With these conventions we obtain

\[ H^0(p) = \log(\sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} 1_{[0,1]}(p_i)). \]

Using l’Hôpital’s rule it is easy to see, that the case \( \alpha = 1 \) will be reached from \( \alpha \neq 1 \) by taking the limit \( \alpha \to 1 \). (see e.g. \([3, \text{Remark 5.2.34}]\)).
Moreover, one has

\[
\lim_{\alpha \to \infty} H^\alpha(\cdot) = H^\infty(\cdot) \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{\alpha \to -\infty} H^\alpha(\cdot) = H^{-\infty}(\cdot).
\]

Now let us show that \( H^\alpha \) is a complexity mapping in the sense of definition 2.1.

**Proposition 4.2.** The mapping \( H^\alpha \) is a complexity mapping for every \( \alpha \in [-\infty, \infty] \).

**Proof.** Clearly, \( H^\alpha \) satisfies condition (a) of a complexity mapping. To show that condition (b) of a complexity mapping is also satisfied, we distinguish several cases.

1. \( \alpha \in \{-\infty, 0, \infty\} \)
   In this case, we deduce immediately from the definition that \( H^\alpha \) satisfies condition (b).

2. \( \alpha = 1 \)
   Let \( p \in \mathcal{P} \) and \( k \geq 2 \) with \( p^k = (p_1, \ldots, p_{k-1}, \sum_{i \geq k} p_i, 0, \ldots) \in \mathcal{P} \). If \( H^1(p) = \infty \), then we have nothing to prove. So, let us assume that \( H^1(p) < \infty \). From recursivity of Shannon entropy (cf. [3, relation (1.2.8)]), we obtain
   \[
   H^1(p^k) \leq H^1(p^{k+1})
   \]
   Due to \( H^1(p^k) \to H^1(p) < \infty \) if \( k \to \infty \) we obtain that condition (b) is satisfied.

3. \( \alpha \in (-\infty, 1) \setminus \{0\} \).
   Let \( p \in \mathcal{P} \) and \( k \geq 2 \). Due to \( \alpha < 1 \) we obtain with the convention \( 1/0 := \infty \) that
   \[
   \sum_{i=k}^\infty p_i^\alpha \geq \big( \sum_{i=k}^\infty p_i \big)^\alpha,
   \]
   yielding \( H^\alpha(p^k) \leq H^\alpha(p) \).

4. \( \alpha \in (1, \infty) \).
   In this case, inequality (19) holds in reversed order, yielding again \( H^\alpha(p^k) \leq H^\alpha(p) \).

In view of relation (3) memory-size constrained quantization is quantization with complexity \( \tilde{H}^0 \) and according to (4) Shannon-entropy constrained
quantization uses $H^1$ as complexity mapping. Quantization with Rényi-$\alpha$-entropy as complexity has been investigated in [16, 17, 18].

As already announced in section 3 we will now give an example showing that Theorem 3.2 becomes invalid in general if $\mu$ does not vanish on continuously differentiable $(d-1)$-dimensional submanifolds of $\mathbb{R}^d$.

**Example 4.3.** Let $l(x) = x^2$ for $x \geq 0$ and $d = 1$. Let $z \in (1/2, 1)$ and
\[ \mu = (1/3) \cdot (\delta_0 + \delta_z + \delta_1). \]

Let $\alpha > 0$ and $p = (1/3, 2/3, 0, ..) \in \mathcal{P}$. Define $R_0 = H^\alpha(p)$. Now let
\[ \nu = (1/5) \cdot \delta_0 + (4/5) \cdot \delta_{(1+z)/2}. \]

It is plain to see that $H^\alpha(p^\nu) < R_0$. Now let $R \in (0, R_0)$. Let $q \in \mathcal{Q}_1$ with $H^\alpha_\mu(q) \leq R$. From the definition of $R_0$ we obtain that $q$ consists of only one codecell. As shown in [8, Example 2.3(b)], the optimal codepoint $\{c\} = q(\mathbb{R})$ equals the centre of mass, i.e.
\[ c = \frac{1 + z}{3}. \]

We calculate
\[
D_\mu(q) = \frac{1}{3}((0 - c)^2 + (z - c)^2 + (1 - c)^2)
\]
\[
= \frac{2}{9}(1 - z + z^2) = D^H_\mu(R')
\]

for every $R' \leq R$. Because $q$ consists of only one codecell, we obtain
\[
W^H_\mu(R) = D_\mu(q) = D^{H^\alpha,c}_\mu(R).
\]

On the other hand we have
\[
\rho^2_2(\mu, \nu) \leq \frac{1}{5} \cdot 0^2 + \left(\frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{5}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{1 + z}{2}\right)^2 + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{1 + z}{2} - z\right)^2
\]
\[
= \frac{1}{5}(1 - 4z + z^2).
\]

Together with (12) and (20) we deduce
\[
V^H_\mu(R) < W^H_\mu(R) = D^H_\mu(R) = D^{H^\alpha,c}_\mu(R).
\]
Remark 4.4. For distance mapping $l(x) = x^2$ and Shannon-entropy as complexity ($\alpha = 1$), an identity similar to (15) has been proved by Linder [20, Lemma 1] for the so-called Lagrangian distortion. But for an entropy bound $R > 0$, this modified distortion only coincides with the quantization error (2) if the point $(R, D^{H^1}_\mu(R))$ lies on the lower convex hull of the mapping $D^{H^1}_\mu(\cdot)$, which is not the case in general (cf. [11, 16]).

Remark 4.5. Assume that $l$ is of class (D2), i.e. equals the identity, and $\alpha = 1$. Moreover, assume that $\mu$ is absolutely continuous with respect to $\lambda^d$ and has a compact support. In this special case, Matloub et.al. [22] have shown for every $\varepsilon > 0$ that

$$D^{H^1}_\mu(R + \varepsilon) \leq V^{H}_\mu(R) \leq D^{H^1}_\mu(R). \quad (21)$$

This result follows from Theorem 3.2. If $\alpha = 0$ and $l(x) = x^r$ with $r \geq 1$, then it is well-known (see e.g. [8, Lemma 3.3, Lemma 3.4], [24]) that the equations (15) and (16) are true.

Remark 4.6. If $\alpha = 1$ and $l$ is of type (D2), then we could immediately deduce equation (15) from relation (21) if the mapping $D^{H^1}_\mu(\cdot)$ would be continuous. Although Theorem 3.2 is true for every $\alpha \in [-\infty, \infty]$, the mapping $D^{H^1}_\mu(\cdot)$ is generally non-continuous for $\alpha \leq 0$ (see e.g. [18, Lemma 7.2], [8, Example 5.5]). In case of $\alpha > 0$, the mapping $D^{H^1}_\mu(\cdot)$ has been completely determined and is Lipschitz continuous if $U([0,1])$ denotes the uniform distribution on $[0,1]$ (cf. [16]). It remains open if $D^{H^1}_\mu(\cdot)$ is Lipschitz continuous for $\alpha > 0$ and distributions $\mu$ which are vanishing on continuously differentiable $(d-1)$-dimensional submanifolds of $\mathbb{R}^d$.

Remark 4.7. In view of (8), optimal codecells for finite quantizers are no polytopes in general if $l(x) \neq x^2$. For illustrations of such codecells, the reader is referred to [27, chapter 1.2], [10, Fig. 2] and [2]. For a detailed study of the topological properties of the codecells defined by (8), the author recommends [5]. If $l(x) = x^2$, then the polytopes defined in (8) are often called Laguerre tesselations in the literature (cf. [10]).

A. Appendix

Recall $1_A$ as the characteristic function on a set $A \subset \mathbb{R}^d$. 

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Proof of Proposition 2.2.

Obviously, we can assume w.l.o.g. that $D^H_\mu(R) < \infty$. Let $\varepsilon > 0$. According to relation (2), let $q \in Q_d$ with $H_\mu(q) \leq R$ and $D^H_\mu(R) \geq D_\mu(q) - \varepsilon$. Denote $q(\mathbb{R}^d) = \{a_i : i \in I\}$ with a countable set $I \subset \mathbb{N}$ and points $a_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$, such that $a_i \neq a_j$ for every $i,j \in I$ with $i \neq j$. Because $\int l(\|x\|) d\mu(x) < \infty$ and due to

$$\infty > D_\mu(q) = \sum_{i \in I} \int_{q^{-1}(a_i)} l(\|x - a_i\|) d\mu(x),$$

a finite set $J \subset I$ exists, such that

$$\int_{\cup_{i \in I \setminus J} q^{-1}(a_i)} l(\|x - a_i\|) d\mu(x) < \varepsilon \quad (22)$$

and

$$\int_{\cup_{i \in I \setminus J} q^{-1}(a_i)} l(\|x\|) d\mu(x) < \varepsilon. \quad (23)$$

Now we define the quantizer

$$q_J = \sum_{j \in J} a_j 1_{q^{-1}(a_j)} + 0 \cdot 1_{\cup_{i \in I \setminus J} q^{-1}(a_i)}.$$

Let $M < \infty$ be the cardinality of $J$ and $\{j_1, \ldots, j_M\}$ be an enumeration of $J$. Let us first assume that $0 \in \{a_j : j \in J\}$, i.e. a $k \in \{1, \ldots, M\}$ exists, such that $a_{j_k} = 0$. Applying property (a) and (b) of $H$ from definition 2.1, we obtain

$$H_\mu(q_J) = H(\mu(q^{-1}(a_{j_1})), \ldots, \mu(q^{-1}(a_{j_{k-1}})), \mu(\cup_{i \in \{j_{k+1}, \ldots, j_M\}} q^{-1}(a_i)),
 \mu(q^{-1}(a_{j_{k+1}})), \ldots, \mu(q^{-1}(a_{j_M})), 0, \ldots)
 \leq H(\mu(q^{-1}(a_{j_1})), \ldots, \mu(q^{-1}(a_{j_M})), \mu(\cup_{i \in I \setminus J} q^{-1}(a_i)), 0, \ldots). \quad (24)$$

If $0 \notin \{a_j : j \in J\}$, then (24) turns into an equation. Again, by property (a) and (b) of $H$ from definition 2.1, we deduce in any case that

$$H_\mu(q_J) \leq H(\mu(q^{-1}(a_{j_1})), \ldots, \mu(q^{-1}(a_{j_M})), \mu(\cup_{i \in \{j_{k+1}, \ldots, j_M\}} q^{-1}(a_i)), 0, \ldots)
 \leq H_\mu(q) \leq R.$$
Now we derive from (22) and (23) that
\[ D_H^\mu(R) \geq D_\mu(q) - \varepsilon \]
\[ \geq D_\mu(q) - \left| D_\mu(q) - D_\mu(q_J) \right| - \varepsilon \]
\[ \geq D_\mu(q_J) - | l(\|x - q(x)\| - l(\|x\|))d\mu(x) | - \varepsilon \]
\[ \geq D_\mu(q_J) - 3\varepsilon. \]

By letting \( \varepsilon \to 0 \) we get
\[ D_H^\mu(R) \geq \inf \{ D_\mu(q) : q \in Q_\mu^d, H_\mu(q) \leq R \} \]
\[ \geq \inf \{ D_\mu(q) : q \in Q_\mu, H_\mu(q) \leq R \} = D_H^\mu(R), \]
which yields the assertion.

\[ \square \]

Proof of Theorem 2.6.

From definition (5) we obtain
\[ w(\mu, \nu) = \inf \int_{\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d} l(\|x - y\|)d\gamma(x, y) : \gamma \in \Gamma(\mu, \nu). \]

For every \( \gamma \in \Gamma(\mu, \nu) \), the second marginal of \( \gamma \) equals \( \nu \) and, therefore, has support \( \{a_1, \ldots, a_m\} \). Let \( \tilde{\nu} \) be the restriction of \( \nu \) to \( \{a_1, \ldots, a_m\} \). Recall (cf. [31, Thm. 4.1]) that an optimal solution always exists, i.e. choose \( \tilde{\gamma} \in \Gamma(\mu, \tilde{\nu}) \), such that \( w(\mu, \nu) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d} l(\|x - y\|)d\tilde{\gamma}(x, y) \). Because the support of \( \tilde{\gamma} \) is concentrated on \( \mathbb{R}^d \times \{a_1, \ldots, a_m\} \) (see also [31, Thm. 5.19]), we deduce that
\[ w(\mu, \nu) = \inf \int_{\mathbb{R}^d \times \{a_1, \ldots, a_m\}} l(\|x - y\|)d\gamma(x, y) : \gamma \in \Gamma(\mu, \tilde{\nu}) \]
\[ = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d \times \{a_1, \ldots, a_m\}} l(\|x - y\|)d\gamma_0(x, y) \]
with \( \gamma_0 \) as the restriction of \( \tilde{\gamma} \) to \( \mathbb{R}^d \times \{a_1, \ldots, a_m\} \). If we denote by \( \tilde{c} \) the restriction of \( c \) to \( \mathbb{R}^d \times \{a_1, \ldots, a_m\} \), then \( \gamma_0 \) is also an optimal solution of the Kantorovich problem for source \( \mu \) and target \( \tilde{\nu} \) on \( \mathbb{R}^d \times \{a_1, \ldots, a_m\} \). Now let \( f \) be a \( \tilde{c} \)-convex mapping on \( \mathbb{R}^d \). According to Definition 2.4 let \( \beta_1, \ldots, \beta_m \in \mathbb{R} \) such that
\[ f(x) = \max \{ \beta_i - l(\|x - a_i\|) : i \in \{1, \ldots, m\} \} \quad \text{for every } x \in \mathbb{R}^d. \]
Next we will show that

\[ A_i(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_m) = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^d : a_i \in \partial_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) \} \]  
(25)

To this end, let \( x \in A_i(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_m) \). Applying (8) we obtain for every \( z \in \mathbb{R}^d \) that

\[
f(x) = \beta_i - l(\|x - a_i\|) \\
= l(\|z - a_i\|) + \beta_i - l(\|z - a_i\|) - l(\|x - a_i\|) \\
\leq l(\|z - a_i\|) + \max\{\beta_j - l(\|z - a_j\|) : j \in \{1, \ldots, m\}\} - l(\|x - a_i\|) \\
= \tilde{c}(z, a_i) + f(z) - \tilde{c}(x, a_i).
\]

Consequently, \( a_i \in \partial_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) \) according to Definition 2.4. Now let \( x \in \mathbb{R}^d \), such that \( a_i \in \partial_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) \). Let \( z \in \mathbb{R}^d \). Choose \( i_x, i_z \in \{1, \ldots, m\} \), such that

\[
f(z) = \beta_{i_z} - l(\|z - a_{i_z}\|) \quad \text{and} \quad f(x) = \beta_{i_x} - l(\|x - a_{i_x}\|).
\]

Using \( a_i \in \partial_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) \) we deduce

\[ f(x) + l(\|x - a_i\|) \leq f(z) + l(\|z - a_i\|). \]  
(27)

Combining (26) and (27) we obtain

\[
l(\|x - a_i\|) - \beta_{i_x} \leq l(\|x - a_{i_x}\|) - \beta_{i_x} - l(\|z - a_{i_x}\|) + l(\|z - a_i\|). \]  
(28)

Now specialize \( z \in \mathbb{R}^d \), such that \( i_z = i \). Because \( A_i(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_m) \) is non-empty for every \( i \in \{1, \ldots, m\} \) such a choice for \( z \) is always possible. From (28) we get

\[
l(\|x - a_i\|) - \beta_i \leq l(\|x - a_{i_x}\|) - \beta_{i_x} \\\n= \min\{l(\|x - a_j\|) - \beta_j : j \in \{1, \ldots, m\}\}.
\]

Thus, \( x \in A_i(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_m) \) which proves (25). Now let \( x \in \mathbb{R}^d \) with \( \text{card}(\partial_{\mathbb{R}} f(x)) > 1 \). In view of (25), we know that \( i, j \in \{1, \ldots, m\} \) exist with \( i \neq j \) such that \( x \in A_i(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_m) \cap A_j(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_m) \). Hence,

\[ l(\|x - a_i\|) - \beta_i = l(\|x - a_j\|) - \beta_j \]

Because \( a_i \neq a_j \), we will assume w.l.o.g. that \( x \neq a_j \). According to Definition (8), we can find for every \( \varepsilon > 0 \) a point \( z \in \mathbb{R}^d \) such that

\[ \|z - x\| < \varepsilon, \quad \|x - a_j\| = \|z - a_j\| \quad \text{and} \quad \|x - a_i\| < \|z - a_i\|. \]
Because $l$ is strictly increasing, we obtain
\[ l(\|z - a_i\|) - \beta_i > l(\|z - a_j\|) - \beta_j, \]
yielding that $z$ lies in the complement of $A_i(\beta_1, .., \beta_m)$. This implies that $x$ is an element of the boundary of $A_i(\beta_1, .., \beta_m)$, i.e. the set $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^d : \text{card}(\partial \mathcal{E} f(x)) > 1\}$ is contained in a $\mu$-measure zero set by our assumption.

Now we can apply Theorem 2.5 which implies that $\gamma_0$ is deterministic. Let $q_0$ be the Monge map which induces $\gamma_0$ and let $\tilde{f}$ be the $\tilde{c}$-convex function, such that
\[ q_0(x) \in \partial \tilde{f}(x) \text{ for } \mu - \text{a.e. } x \in \mathbb{R}^d. \]
From above and Definition 2.4 we deduce that for $\mu$-almost every $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ exactly one $i \in \{1, .., m\}$ exist, such that $a_i \in \partial \tilde{f}(x)$, i.e. $q_0(x) = a_i$. Now let $B_1, .., B_m$ be a partition of $\mathbb{R}^d$ with
\[ B_i = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^d : a_i \in \partial \tilde{f}(x)\} \mu - \text{almost surely.} \]
According to Definition 2.4 and relation (25), we obtain that $(\lambda_1, .., \lambda_m) \in \mathbb{R}^m$ exist such that for every $i \in \{1, .., m\}$ the set $B_i$ equals $\mu$-almost surely the set $A_i(\lambda_1, .., \lambda_m)$. Consequently, we can assume w.l.o.g. that $B_i$ is measurable for every $i \in \{1, .., m\}$. Now we define the quantizer $q$ with $q(x) = a_i$ if $x \in B_i$. Because $q(x) = q_0(x)$ for $\mu$-almost every $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $q_0$ is a Monge map for $\gamma_0 \in \Gamma(\mu, \nu)$ we obtain that $\mu \circ q^{-1} = \nu$, which yields $\mu \circ q^{-1}(a_i) = \nu(\{a_i\}) = p_i$ for every $i \in \{1, .., m\}$. We get
\[ w(\mu, \nu) = \int l(\|x - q_0(x)\|)d\mu(x) = \int l(\|x - q(x)\|)d\mu(x). \]
Now let $\tilde{q} \in Q(\nu)$. Because $\tilde{q}$ induces a transport plan $\pi \in \Gamma(\mu, \nu)$, we have $w(\mu, \nu) \leq \int l(\|x - \tilde{q}(x)\|)d\mu(x)$. If $w(\mu, \nu) = \int l(\|x - \tilde{q}(x)\|)d\mu(x)$, then $\pi = \gamma_0$ according to Theorem 2.5. Thus, we obtain again from above considerations that $\tilde{q}(x) = q(x)$ for $\mu$-almost every $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, which finally proves the assertion. 

We denote with $\nabla F$ the gradient of a differentiable mapping $F : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}.$

**Lemma A.1.** Let $\mu \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ and assume that $\mu$ vanishes on continuously differentiable $(d - 1)$-dimensional submanifolds of $\mathbb{R}^d$. Let $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $a_1, .., a_m \in \mathbb{R}^d$ be $m$ different points in $\mathbb{R}^d$. Let $\lambda_1, .., \lambda_m \in \mathbb{R}$ and $A_j = A_j(\lambda_1, .., \lambda_m)$ as defined in (8). If $l$ is of type (C1) or (C2), then
the boundary of $A_j$ has zero $\mu$–measure. Additionally, if $d = 1$ and $l$ is of type (C1), then $A_j$ is an interval.

If $d > 1$ and $l(x) = x^2$ for every $x \geq 0$, then $A_j$ is a convex polytope.

Proof. Let $j \in \{1, \ldots, m\}$. Obviously, we can write
\[
A_j = \cap_{i=1, i\neq j}^m \{x \in \mathbb{R}^d : l(\|x - a_j\|) - l(\|x - a_i\|) \leq \lambda_j - \lambda_i\} \quad (29)
\]
For every $i \in \{1, \ldots, m\}\{j\}$ we define
\[
G_{j,i} = \{a_j + \lambda(a_j - a_i) : \lambda \in \mathbb{R}\}
\]
and for every $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ let
\[
\Psi_{j,i}(x) = l(\|x - a_j\|) - l(\|x - a_i\|).
\]
Let $G_j = \bigcup_{i=1, i\neq j}^m G_{j,i}$. In order to show that the boundary of $A_j$ has zero $\mu$–measure, we distinguish several cases.

1. $d = 1$.

1.1. $l$ is of type (C1).

We proceed as in the proof of [12, Lemma 1]. Let $i \in \{1, \ldots, m\}\{j\}$ and assume w.l.o.g. that $a_i > a_j$. If $x < a_j$, then
\[
\Psi'_{j,i}(x) = l'(a_i - x) - l'(a_j - x).
\]
Due to $l'' \geq 0$ we obtain that $\Psi'_{j,i}$ is monotone increasing on $(-\infty, a_j)$. If $x > a_i$, then we deduce by similar considerations that $\Psi'_{j,i}(x) \geq 0$, i.e. $\Psi_{j,i}$ is monotone increasing on $(a_i, \infty)$. If $a_j < x < a_i$, then we obtain that
\[
\Psi'_{j,i}(x) = l'(a_i - x) + l'(x - a_j).
\]
Due to $l' > 0$ we get that $\Psi'_{j,i}$ is strictly increasing on $(a_j, a_i)$. Obviously, $\Psi_{j,i}$ is continuous on $\mathbb{R}$. Hence, $\Psi_{j,i}^{-1}((-\infty, \lambda_j - \lambda_i])$ is an (possibly empty or degenerate) interval. Due to (29), $A_j$ is a finite intersection of intervals, yielding that the boundary of $A_j$ consists of a finite set. Because $\mu$ is nonatomic, the assertion is proved in this case.

1.2. $l$ is of type (C2).

Due to $l'' \leq 0$, we obtain similar to above that $\Psi_{j,i}$ is monotone decreasing on $(-\infty, a_j)$ and $(a_i, \infty)$. Moreover, $\Psi_{j,i}$ is strictly increasing on $(a_j, a_i)$ and
continuous on $\mathbb{R}$. Note also that $\Psi_{j,i}$ is negative on $(-\infty, a_j)$ and positive on $(a_i, \infty)$. Hence, $\Psi_{j,i}^{-1}((-\infty, \lambda_j - \lambda_i])$ consists of at most two intervals. Hence, the assertion is proved as in case 1.2.

2. $d > 1$.

Let $i \in \{1, \ldots, m\} \setminus \{j\}$. Let $x \in \mathbb{R}^d \setminus G_j$. The mapping $\Psi_{j,i}$ is differentiable on $\mathbb{R}^d \setminus G_j$ and we obtain

$$\nabla \Psi_{j,i}(x) = l'(\|x - a_j\|) \frac{x - a_j}{\|x - a_j\|} - l'(\|x - a_i\|) \frac{x - a_i}{\|x - a_i\|}.$$ 

Because $x \notin G_j$, we know that $x - a_j$ and $x - a_i$ are linearly independent and $\min(\|x - a_j\|, \|x - a_i\|) > 0$. Because $l'$ has no zeros on $(0, \infty)$, we obtain $\nabla \Psi_{j,i}(x) \neq 0$. If $\lambda_j - \lambda_i \in \Psi_{j,i}(\mathbb{R}^d \setminus G_j)$, then the submersion theorem yields that $\Psi_{j,i}^{-1}(\lambda_j - \lambda_i) \setminus G_j$ is covered by a continuously differentiable $(d - 1)$-dimensional submanifold of $\mathbb{R}^d \setminus G_j$. Because $G_j$ as a finite union of lines can be covered by a finite union of $(d - 1)$-dimensional hyperplanes, we finally obtain that $\Psi_{j,i}^{-1}(\lambda_j - \lambda_i)$ is always covered by a finite union of continuously differentiable $(d - 1)$-dimensional submanifolds of $\mathbb{R}^d$. Note that the boundary of $A_j$ is contained in $\bigcup_{i=1, i \neq j}^{m} \Psi_{j,i}^{-1}(\lambda_j - \lambda_i)$, which yields the assertion also in this case.

Now let $d = 1$ and assume that $l$ is of type (C1). From 1.1. we obtain that $A_j$ is an interval. Finally assume that $d > 1$ and $l(x) = x^2$ for every $x \geq 0$. For any $i \in \{1, \ldots, m\} \setminus \{j\}$ let $\lambda = (\lambda_j - \lambda_i)/(2\|a_i - a_j\|^2)$ and

$$b_i = a_i + \lambda(a_i - a_j), \quad b_j = a_j + \lambda(a_i - a_j).$$

Now recall the definition (13) of a closed halfspace. A simple calculation shows that

$$A_j = \bigcap_{i=1, i \neq j}^{m} T(b_j, b_i)$$

is a finite intersection of closed halfspaces and, therefore, a convex polytope.

Lemma A.2. If the distance mapping $l$ is of type (D1) or (D2), then the triangle inequality holds.

Proof. Let $\mu_i \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d)$, $i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $w(\mu_1, \mu_3) < \infty$. We have to show that

$$l^{-1}(w(\mu_1, \mu_3)) \leq l^{-1}(w(\mu_1, \mu_2)) + l^{-1}(w(\mu_2, \mu_3)).$$

(30)
We are following the standard argumentation for $\rho_r$ to satisfy the triangle inequality (see e.g. \cite{31} p.94) or \cite{7} Proposition 2]) and apply a generalization of the Minkowski inequality (cf. \cite{21} Thm. 3). Obviously, we can assume w.l.o.g. that $w(\mu_1, \mu_2) < \infty$ and $w(\mu_2, \mu_3) < \infty$. If $l$ is of type (D2), then the assertion follows immediately from the triangle inequality of the Wasserstein distance. Hence, let us assume that $l$ is of type (D1). Because $l$ is continuous, we deduce from general existence results in optimal transportation theory (cf. \cite{31} Thm. 4.1) that distributions $P_1$ and $P_2$ on $\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d$ exist, such that

$$w(\mu_1, \mu_2) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d} l(\|x - y\|) dP_1(x, y)$$

and

$$w(\mu_2, \mu_3) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d} l(\|x - y\|) dP_2(x, y),$$

where $P_1$ has marginals $\mu_1$ and $\mu_2$ and $P_2$ has marginals $\mu_2$ and $\mu_3$. Moreover, let $P$ be a distribution on $\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d$ with marginal distribution $P_1$ when projecting on the first two components and $P_2$ when projecting on the last two components. Regarding the existence of such a distribution, see e.g. \cite{4} Remark 5.3.3] or \cite{31} chapter 1. Denote $P_3$ as the marginal of $P$ by projecting on the first and the last component. The first marginal of $P_3$ equals $\mu_1$ and the second marginal of $P_3$ equals $\mu_3$. Because $l$ and $l^{-1}$ are increasing we deduce

$$l^{-1}(w(\mu_1, \mu_3)) \leq l^{-1}\left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d} l(\|x - y\|) dP_3(x, y)\right)$$

$$= l^{-1}\left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d} l(\|x - z\|) dP(x, y, z)\right)$$

$$\leq l^{-1}\left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d} l(\|x - y\| + \|y - z\|) dP(x, y, z)\right).$$

Now let $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $(v_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be sequences of step functions on $\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d$ with $u_n \leq u_{n+1}$, $v_n \leq v_{n+1}$ and

$$\sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} u_n(x, y, z) = \|x - y\|, \quad \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} v_n(x, y, z) = \|y - z\|.$$ 

Note that $l$ is continuous, monotone increasing and $l^{-1}$ is continuous. Thus, by monotone convergence we obtain

$$l^{-1}(w(\mu_1, \mu_3)) \leq \lim_{n \to \infty} l^{-1}\left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d} l(u_n(x, y, z) + v_n(x, y, z)) dP(x, y, z)\right).$$
Now we distinguish two cases. Let us first assume that \( \mu_i(A) \in \{0, 1\} \) for every measurable \( A \subset \mathbb{R}^d \) and \( i \in \{1, 2, 3\} \). Consequently, \( a_i \in \mathbb{R}^d \) exist, such that \( \mu_i = \delta_{a_i} \). But then relation (30) follows immediately from the triangle inequality. Hence, we can assume that a measurable set \( A \subset \mathbb{R}^d \) and \( j \in \{1, 2, 3\} \) exists with \( \mu_j(A) \in (0, 1) \). Let \( B = \prod_{i \in \{1, 2, 3\}} A_i \) with \( A_j = A \) and \( A_i = \mathbb{R}^d \) for every \( i \neq j \). Hence, \( P(B) = \mu_j(A) \in (0, 1) \). Due to the assumptions on \( l \) we can apply a generalized version of the Minkowski inequality [21, Thm. 3] and deduce

\[
\begin{align*}
&l^{-1}(w(\mu_1, \mu_3)) \\
&\leq \lim_{n \to \infty} l^{-1} \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d} l(u_n(x, y, z) + v_n(x, y, z)) dP(x, y, z) \right) \\
&\leq \lim_{n \to \infty} \left( l^{-1} \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d} l(u_n(x, y, z)) dP(x, y, z) \right) \\
&\quad + l^{-1} \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d} l(v_n(x, y, z)) dP(x, y, z) \right) \right) \\
&= l^{-1} \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d} l(\|x - y\|) dP_1(x, y) \right) + l^{-1} \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d} l(\|y - z\|) dP_2(y, z) \right)
\end{align*}
\]

Applying the identities (31) and (32), we obtain inequality (30).

Proof of Proposition 3.7. Obviously, we can assume w.l.o.g. that \( V^H_\mu(R) < \infty \). Let \( \nu \in \mathcal{M}^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d) \setminus \mathcal{M}^*(\mathbb{R}^d) \) with \( H(p^\nu) \leq R \) and \( w(\mu, \nu) < \infty \). Let \( \{a_1, a_2, \ldots\} = \text{supp}(\nu) \) and define for every \( k \geq 2 \) the distribution

\[
\nu_k = \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \nu(a_i) \delta_{a_i} + \sum_{i \geq k} \nu(a_i) \delta_0.
\]

Property (b) of the mapping \( H \) implies

\[
H(p^{\nu_k}) \leq H(p^\nu) \leq R.
\]

1. Let us first assume that \( l \) is continuous and \( l^{-1} \circ w \) satisfies the triangle inequality. We define the transport mapping

\[
q_k = \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} a_i 1_{\{a_i\}} + 0 \cdot 1_{\mathbb{R}^d \setminus \{a_1, \ldots, a_{k-1}\}}.
\]
with \( \nu \circ q_k^{-1} = \nu_k \). Denote \( \pi_k \in \Gamma(\nu, \nu_k) \) as the (deterministic) transport plan which is induced by \( q_k \). Thus, we get
\[
 w(\nu, \nu_k) \leq \int l(\|x - y\|) d\pi_k(x, y) = \sum_{i \geq k} \nu(a_i) l(\|a_i\|).
\] (33)

Because \( \nu \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d) \) we obtain
\[
\int l(\|x\|) d\nu(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \nu(a_i) l(\|a_i\|) < \infty
\]
which together with (33) yields that \( w(\nu, \nu_k) \to 0 \) as \( k \to \infty \). Using the triangle inequality for \( l^{-1} \circ w \) we conclude that
\[
\infty \geq l^{-1}(w(\mu, \nu)) \geq l^{-1}(w(\mu, \nu_k)) - l^{-1}(w(\nu_k, \nu)).
\]

Letting \( k \to \infty \), we obtain from the continuity of \( l \) and \( l^{-1} \)
\[
w(\mu, \nu) \geq \liminf_{k \to \infty} w(\mu, \nu_k).
\]

This implies
\[
V_H^H(\mathcal{R}) \geq \inf \{ w(\mu, \kappa) : \kappa \in \mathcal{M}^*(\mathbb{R}^d), H(p^\kappa) \leq R \}
\] (34)
and yields the assertion in this first case.

2. Now we assume that \( l \) is bounded. Note that \( \nu_k \) weakly converges to \( \nu \). Moreover,
\[
\liminf_{k \to \infty} w(\mu, \nu_k) \leq \sup_{x \in [0, \infty)} l(x) < \infty.
\]

Denote by \( \pi_k \) an optimal transport plan for source \( \mu \) and target \( \nu_k \), i.e.
\[
w(\mu, \nu_k) = \int l(\|x - y\|) d\pi_k(x, y).
\]

Applying a stability result for optimal transport plans (cf. [31, Thm. 5.20]) we obtain a subsequence of \( (\pi_k) \), also denote by \( (\pi_k) \) such that \( (\pi_k) \) weakly converges to an optimal transport plan \( \pi \) for source \( \mu \) and target \( \nu \), i.e.
\[
w(\mu, \nu) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d} l(\|x - y\|) d\pi(x, y).
\]

Because \( l \) is bounded, weak convergence implies
\[
w(\mu, \nu_k) \to \int l(\|x - y\|) d\pi(x, y) = w(\mu, \nu), \text{ as } k \to \infty.
\]
As an immediate consequence we obtain
\[ w(\mu, \nu) \geq \inf \{ w(\mu, \kappa) : \kappa \in \mathcal{M}^*(\mathbb{R}^d), H(p^\kappa) \leq R \}, \]
which yields (34) and, hence, proves the assertion also in this second case. \(\square\)

For any set \(A \subset \mathbb{R}^d\) we denote \(\overset{\circ}{A}\) as the interior of \(A\). Recall 1\(A\) as the characteristic function on \(A\). Now we can prove the main result of this paper.

**Proof of Theorem 3.2.** We will proceed in several steps.
1. We will prove that \(W^H_\mu(R) \leq D^H_\mu(R)\).
   Let \(q \in \mathbb{Q}_d^\ast\) with \(H_\mu(q) \leq R\). With the measurable mapping
   \(\mathbb{R}^d \ni x \mapsto \phi(x) = (x, q(x)) \in \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d\)
   and in view of (5), we obtain
   \[
   D_\mu(q) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} l(\|x - q(x)\|) d\mu(x)
   = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d} l(\|x - y\|) d\mu \circ \phi^{-1}(x, y) \geq w(\mu, \mu \circ q^{-1}).
   \]
   Hence, relation (11) and Proposition 2.2 imply that \(W^H_\mu(R) \leq D^H_\mu(R)\).
2. We will prove that \(V^H_\mu(R) \geq D^H_\mu(R)\).
   Let us assume w.l.o.g. that \(V^H_\mu(R) < \infty\). Let \(m \in \mathbb{N}\) and \(\nu \in \mathcal{M}^*(\mathbb{R}^d)\) with \(\text{card}(\text{supp}(\nu)) = m\), \(H(p^\nu) \leq R\) and \(w(\mu, \nu) < \infty\). Let us denote \(\text{supp}(\nu) = \{a_1, \ldots, a_m\}\). For any shifts \(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_m \in \mathbb{R}\) recall the definition (8) of the set \(A_j(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_m)\). We obtain from Lemma 1.1 that the boundary of \(A_j(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_m)\) has zero \(\mu\)-measure. Thus, we deduce from Theorem 2.6 that a quantizer \(q\) and uniquely determined constants \(\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m \in \mathbb{R}\) exist, such that \(q(\mathbb{R}^d) = \{a_1, \ldots, a_m\}\) and
   \[
   w(\mu, \nu) = D_\mu(q) = \sum_{j=1}^m \int_{A_j(\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m)} l(\|x - a_j\|) d\mu(x), \tag{35}
   \]
   where
   \[
   \mu(q^{-1}(a_j)) = \mu(A_j(\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m)) = \nu(a_j) > 0 \text{ for every } j \in \{1, \ldots, m\}.
   \]
Note that \[ H_\mu(q) = H(p') \leq R. \]

Using (35) we obtain \[ w(\mu, \nu) = D_\mu(q) \geq D_{H, c}^H(R). \]

Because \( l \) satisfies (C1) or (C2), the assertion of step 2 follows from Proposition 3.1.

3. Rest of the proof.

Combining (12) with step 1 and step 2, we obtain \[ V_H^\mu(R) \leq W_H^\mu(R) \leq D_{H, c}^H(R) \leq V_H^\mu(R) \]
which proves equation (15). Now, additionally, assume that condition (a) or (b) in our assumptions of this theorem is satisfied. In view of (14) and (15) it suffices to prove that \( V_H^\mu(R) \geq D_{H, c}^H(R) \). Again, we can assume w.l.o.g. that \( V_H^\mu(R) < \infty \). Let \( \nu \in \mathcal{M}^\ast(\mathbb{R}^d) \) and \( q \) as in step 2. Due to Lemma A.1, the source distribution \( \mu \) vanishes on the boundary of \( A_j(\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_m) \). Thus, we can assume w.l.o.g. that \[ \overset{\circ}{A}_j(\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_m) \subset q^{-1}(a_j) \subset A_j(\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_m), \quad j \in \{1, ..., m\}, \]
and that \( q^{-1}(a_j) \) is either an interval \( (d = 1) \) or a convex polytope \( (d > 1) \). If \( d = 1 \), then we can clearly assume w.l.o.g. that \( a_j \) is contained in \( A_j \). Moreover, if \( d > 1 \) let us assume w.l.o.g. according to [8, Example 2.3(b)] that \( a_j \) is the centroid and therefore optimal for \( \mu \) restricted to \( A_j \), i.e.

\[
\int_{A_j} \| x - a_j \|^2 d\mu(x) = \inf \left\{ \int_{A_j} \| x - b \|^2 d\mu(x) : b \in \mathbb{R}^d \right\}.
\]

Because we are operating with the Euclidean norm, we obtain by exactly the same argument as in the proof of [8, Lemma 2.6 (a)] that \( a_j \) is contained in \( A_j \), which is the closure of \( q^{-1}(a_j) \). By (35) we get

\[ w(\mu, \nu) = D_\mu(q) \geq D_{H, c}^H(R). \]

Because \( l \) is of type (C1) or (C2), Proposition 3.1 yields \( V_H^\mu(R) \geq D_{H, c}^H(R) \), which finishes the proof.

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