## Channel Optimized Vector Quantization over Communication Channels with Memory and Feedback

by

#### Timothy Liu

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### Abstract

This thesis investigates joint source-channel coding schemes (JSCC) for noisy discrete channels with memory and noiseless feedback. While feedback does not increase the capacity of discrete memoryless channels or additive-noise channels with memory, Amanullah and Salehi have shown that feedback-adapted schemes can outperform non-adaptive schemes under the same rate in terms of mean square error distortion or signal-to-noise ratio (SNR). Building on this result, this thesis explores alternative ways in which channel feedback can enhance such adaptive coding methods. We begin by examining channel-matched tree structured vector quantization (CM-TSVQ) and generalize its necessary conditions for optimality when adapted to noiseless feedback. We then prove that these conditions are equivalent to necessary conditions for optimality for the adaptive channel optimized vector quantization (ACOVQ) scheme introduced by Amanullah and Salehi. Leveraging the tree-like structure of ACOVQ, we study pruning and growing tree algorithms for TSVQ and generalize a growing algorithm for ACOVQ. Simulation results demonstrate that under the same average rate constraints, variable-rate ACOVQ outperforms fixed-rate ACOVQ in terms of SNR. Furthermore, in general the performance SNR gap increases with higher average rates and a more concentrated source distribution.

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# Chapter 1

## Introduction

#### 1.1 Joint Source-Channel Coding

A fundamental problem in communication engineering is the reliable transmission of information — such as text, speech, or images — over noisy communication channels, such as satellite or wireless links. In the 1940s, Claude E. Shannon pioneered the foundations of Information Theory in his paper, "A Mathematical Theory of Communication" [30], by introducing mathematical models for data sources and communication channels. Shannon modeled the source as a stochastic process and mathematically quantified the intrinsic information the source contained as "source entropy," and quantified the maximum achievable rate at which information can be reliably transferred over a channel as its "channel capacity." Two cornerstone theorems emerged from this work: the source coding theorem and the noisy-channel coding theorem. The source coding theorem states that it is possible for a source to

be losslessly compressed at any rate above its entropy; compression below this limit results in information loss. The channel coding theorem states that it is possible for a source to be reliably transmitted over a noisy channel at a rate below the channel's capacity and conversely that any attempt to transmit a message at a rate above the channel's capacity will lead to completely unreliable transmissions. Together, the source channel and the noisy-channel coding theorems support what is know as Shannon's source-channel separation principle, which state that source compression and channel coding can be done independently without loss of optimality — provided sufficient delay and computational resources are available.

The separation principle supports the optimality of tandem coding, a coding scheme comprising of two independent and separately designed components: the source codes and channel codes. The source codes removes statistical redundancies in the source. This however makes the source's encoded representation susceptible to channel noise. The channel codes then adds controlled redundancies to the output of the source encoder, to protect it from channel errors. Tandem coding provides flexibility in designing source and channel codes as they can be interchangeably replaced without affecting reliability. However, this scheme's reliability depends on source and channel codes with arbitrarily large block lengths. Thus, optimal performance is only guaranteed with infinite delay and computational resources. This can make tandem encoding infeasible to implement in practical situations. As a result, joint source-channel coding (JSCC) has emerged as an alternative approach that jointly designs source and channel encoders and decoders — or combines each pair into a single operation — to achieve better performance under practical constraints.

#### 1.2 Literature Review

Various JSCC schemes have been introduced in literature in the past decades. One of the earliest and well-known JSCC techniques is channel optimized vector quantization (COVQ), which jointly designs a vector quantizer and channel code to minimize the expected distortion at the decoder [11]. However, a drawback of COVQ is scalability: as the codebook size increases, the search complexity and storage requirements increase, making the COVQ suffer from complexity constraints at high rates [13].

To address this drawback, channel optimized sample adaptive product quantizers (COSAPQ) [24, 25], channel matched tree structured vector quantization (CM-TSVQ) [21, 23], and channel matched multi-stage vector quantization (CM-MSVQ) [21, 23] were proposed as alternative schemes to COVQ aimed to reduce the complexity of COVQ at the cost of acceptable reductions in performance. COSAPQ reduces the complexity of COVQ by taking a high dimensional source and quantizing subvectors of the source with multiple, lower dimensional COVQs. The COSAPQ codebook would then be the cartesian product of these lower dimensional COVQ codebooks. Simulation results show that COSAPQ performs similarly to COVQ (within 0.2-0.8 dB) despite having an encoding complexity half of COVQ [24]. CM-TSVQ and CM-MSVQ are multi-stage successive refinement quantization schemes. An initial approximation is made in the first stage, with subsequent stages refining the residual expected error [21, 23]. CM-TSVQ reduces the encoding complexity by imposing a tree structure in its codebook. CM-MSVQ is a more constricted scheme: the scheme is equivalent to CM-TSVQ with the added constraint that all codebooks for a given stage are the same. In both cases, the resulting designs are not optimal and in general perform worse than a full-search COVQ. Simulation results in [21, 23] show that CM-TSVQ outperforms CM-MSVQ (under the same dimension, rate, and number of stages) in noiseless channels and that the CM-MSVQ outperforms CM-TSVQ in channels with high noise. This suggests that CM-TSVQ is more prone to channel noise as a single decoding error can propagate into further decoding errors for subsequent stages.

Another JSCC is maximum a posteriori (MAP) decoding. In MAP decoding JSCC schemes, channel and source properties are given to the decoder. The decoder observes a sequence of channel outputs and determines the most probable source sequence. Although the MAP detection can be computationally expensive to implement, in some cases the MAP decoder can be simplified down to simple rules such as "believe what you see" or "guess zero (or one) regardless of what you see." In [4], the authors derive necessary and sufficient conditions under which these simple rules are true for a binary symmetric Markov source over a Polya contagion channel with memory, introduced in [3]. Simulation results in [4] show that the performance of MAP detection improves with higher source redundancy and channel noise correlation. In [29], MAP decoding for non-binary noise discrete channels with finite queue based correlated noise was studied and conditions were derived for which a sequential MAP decoder, with large delay, can be reduced to an instantaneous symbol-by-symbol MAP decoder.

One challenge in analyzing JSCC systems — particular those using COVQ — is the difficulty in finding an analytical expression for expected distortion, due to the nonuniform transition probability between channel inputs and outputs. In [34], a tandem VQ and channel coding system is considered with random index assignment. By taking the expected distortion over all possible index assignments, the expected distortion of a tandem VQ and channel coding system is decomposed into three components: distortion from the quantizer, from the source variance, and from the "scatter factor" of the codebook. Necessary conditions for the optimality of jointly designed VQs and channel coders under random index assignment are derived in [34]. Also a high-rate analysis shows a gain of 4.77 dB using the joint source-channel scheme over the tandem scheme for a two-dimensional Gaussian source.

The study of channels with noiseless feedback is motivated by the fact that such models capture realistic communication scenarios. For example, uplink communication between a mobile cell user and a base tower can be paired with a downlink feedback channel. The base tower is assumed to have significantly more transmission power and resources, making the assumption of noiseless downlink transmission reasonable, since strong error-correcting codes and/or higher transmission power can be used. One of the earliest results on the effects of feedback on channel capacity was derived by Shannon, who proved that the presence of feedback, even if noiseless, does not increase the capacity of a discrete memoryless channel (DMC) [31]. This result was then extended in [1] to show that feedback does not increase the capacity of discrete channels with additive random noise in the most general case. Note that the Polya contagion channel, which will be considered for the simulations of this thesis, falls into this class of channels with memory. But under input cost constraints, feedback can increase capacity for both discrete additive noise channels [32] and additive Gaussian noise channels [10]. It can also be used to increase the channel's zero-error

capacity [31]. Note however that channel capacity provides a theoretical limit on the performance of the best error correcting codes under sufficiently long block lengths. In practice, coding schemes use finite-block lengths. Thus even if feedback cannot increase capacity for certain channels, it can still yield significant performance improvements for finite coding lengths. Indeed, results in [5] show that JSCC schemes that use feedback perform better than schemes that do not over the memoryless binary symmetric channel. Simulation results in [26] show that the adaptive scheme introduced in [5] outperforms channel optimized scalar quantization without feedback when transmitting over the Polya contagion channel with a noiseless feedback link. Although channel memory is generally seen as an unfavorable condition, since currently deployed error-correcting codes cannot properly handle long error bursts that typically occur in fading channels, these simulations show that the average distortion decreases the more correlated the channel noise is. This indicates that the adaptive scheme effectively exploits channel memory.

#### 1.3 Thesis Contributions

The contributions of this thesis are as follows:

1. The necessary conditions for optimality of the CM-TSVQ scheme of [21] are generalized to adapt to noiseless feedback from a discrete channel with memory. We then show that these necessary conditions are equivalent to those of the adaptive COVQ scheme in [5] and show that, with equivalent initializations, the performance of the adaptive COVQ scheme in [5] match the performance of

- the derived adaptive CM-TSVQ scheme. This result helps unify two previously distinct JSCC approaches.
- 2. We introduce a variable-rate version of the ACOVQ, by generalizing a tree pruning algorithm introduced in [27] to the ACOVQ scheme. Simulations are then systematically carried to compare the performance of the two schemes under the same average rate constraints. The simulation code is available at: https://github.com/timothyliutl/VR-ACOVQ.git. We show a significant increase in performance for the variable-rate ACOVQ compared to its fixed-rate counterpart comes, albeit with an increased encoding complexity. We also show that as the channel noise becomes more correlated, the performance for variable-rate ACOVQ increases, indicating that the scheme is able to effectively exploit channel memory.

#### 1.4 Thesis Outline

The remainder of the thesis is organized as follows:

Chapter 2 introduces various discrete channel models with memory. We then study vector quantization (VQ) and the necessary conditions for optimal VQs as well as an algorithm for designing locally optimal VQs. Afterwards, we introduce various discrete noise communication channel models and JSCC schemes
 — COVQ, CM-TSVQ, and ACOVQ — as well as their respective necessary conditions for optimality.

- Chapter 3 presents generalized necessary conditions for optimality for the CM-TSVQ when adapted to noiseless feedback. We then prove that the conditions are equivalent to those of ACOVQ and validate this result through simulation.
- In Chapter 4, we study various variable rate tree structured schemes for VQs. We then extend the pruning method introduced in [27] for the design of variable rate ACOVQ and compare the encoding complexity and performance of fixed-rate and variable rate ACOVQ.
- Chapter 5 concludes the thesis with a summary of main results and a discussion of possible directions for future work.

# Chapter 2

## **Preliminaries**

#### 2.1 Communication Channel Models

#### 2.1.1 Discrete Channels

A discrete communication channel can be characterized by input X with finite alphabet  $\mathcal{X}$ , output Y with finite alphabet  $\mathcal{Y}$ , and a sequence of i-dimensional transition probabilities

$$\{P(Y^i = y^i | X^i = x^i)\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$$
 (2.1)

for  $i \geq 1$ , where  $x^i = (x_1, \dots, x_i) \in \mathcal{X}^i$  and  $y^i = (y_1, \dots, y_i) \in \mathcal{Y}^i$ . A discrete channel is called a discrete memoryless channel (DMC) if the following property holds:

$$P(Y^n = y^n | X^n = x^n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(Y_i = y_i | X_i = x_i)$$
(2.2)

for all  $x^n \in \mathcal{X}^n$  and  $y^n \in \mathcal{Y}^n$ . This property implies that the transition at time i only depends on the input  $x_i$  and does not depend on the previous input and output sequences. A simple example of a discrete memoryless channel is the binary symmetric channel (BSC). In this model we have that  $\mathcal{X} = \{0,1\}, \mathcal{Y} = \{0,1\}$  and  $P(Y = 1|X = 0) = P(Y = 0|X = 1) = \epsilon$ ,  $P(Y = 1|X = 1) = P(Y = 0|X = 0) = 1 - \epsilon$ , where  $0 \le \epsilon \le 1$  is the cross-over probability.

#### 2.1.2 Discrete Channels with Memory

The memoryless assumption allows for a simple transition probability calculations; however, it does not accurately reflect how errors in real-world communication channel often come in bursts (such as in wireless fading channels). Here we describe a few widely used discrete channel models with memory.

The Gilbert-Elliot channel (GEC) extends the BSC by incorporating a time varying cross-over probability governed by a first-order Markov process. The Markov process contains 2 states: a "good" state, in which  $\epsilon$  is low, and a "bad" state, in which  $\epsilon$  is high. This model does account for the burst-like behaviour of real-world models. However, the resulting noise process is a hidden Markov process and hence hard to analyze since its transition distribution and entropy rate (and resulting GEC capacity) do not admit simple analytical expressions.

Another model is the binary additive Markov noise channel model whose output  $Y_i$  at time  $i \geq 1$  is given by  $Y_i = X_i \oplus Z_i$ , where  $\oplus$  denotes addition modulo-2 and  $\{Z_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  is a binary (i.e., with alphabet  $\mathcal{Z} = \{0,1\}$ ) Markov noise process of memory order M. While this model has a closed form capacity formula, its noise transition

matrix, has size  $2^M \times 2^M$ , which makes it computationally infeasible for large memory values M.

The Polya contagion model with finite memory, proposed in [3], is a specific case of the binary additive Markov noise channel model. Here we have that for Markov memory M, cross-over probability  $\epsilon$ , and memory  $\delta$ ,

$$P(Z_i = 1 | Z_{i-1} = e_{i-1}, \dots, Z_1 = e_1)$$
(2.3)

$$= P(Z_i = 1 | Z_{i-1} = e_{i-1}, \dots, Z_{i-M} = e_{i-M})$$
 (2.4)

$$= \begin{cases} \frac{\epsilon + \sum_{j=i-M}^{i-1} e_j \delta}{1 + M \delta}, & i \ge M + 1\\ \frac{\epsilon + \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} e_j \delta}{1 + (i-1)\delta}, & i \le M \end{cases}$$
 (2.5)

where  $e_i \in \{0, 1\}$ . In this model,  $Z_i$  only depends on the sum of the previous M noise samples. Here  $\delta$  denotes the correlation in  $\{Z_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  — the higher  $\delta$  is the more likely the noise will occur in bursts. Note that when there is no noise correlation ( $\delta = 0$ ) the model reduces down to the memoryless BSC with crossover probability  $\epsilon$ .

Let  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$  and  $\mathbf{Y} = (Y_1, \dots, Y_n)$  be the input and output block, respectively, such that  $\mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{X} \oplus \mathbf{Y} = (X_1 \oplus Y_1, \dots, X_n \oplus Y_n)$ . For cases where  $n \leq M$ , the channel block transition probability is [3]

$$P(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}) = P(\mathbf{Z} = (e_1, \dots, e_n))$$
(2.6)

$$= P(Z_1 = e_1) \prod_{i=2}^{n} P(Z_n = e_n | Z_{n-1} = e_{n-1}, \dots, Z_1 = e_1)$$
 (2.7)

$$= P(Z_1 = e_1) \prod_{i=2}^{n} P(Z_n = e_n | Z_{n-1} = e_{n-1}, \dots, Z_1 = e_1)$$

$$= \frac{\prod_{i=0}^{s_n-1} (\epsilon + i\delta) \prod_{j=0}^{n-s_n-1} (1 - \epsilon + j\delta)}{\prod_{l=1}^{n-1} (1 + l\delta)},$$
(2.8)

where  $e_i = x_i \oplus y_i$  and  $s_n = e_1 + e_2 + \ldots + e_n$ . For cases where  $n \ge M + 1$  the channel block transition probability is [3]

$$P(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}) = L \prod_{i=M+1}^{n} \left(\frac{\epsilon + \tilde{s}_{i-1}\delta}{1 + M\delta}\right)^{e_i} \left(\frac{1 - \epsilon + (M - \tilde{s}_{i-1})\delta}{1 + M\delta}\right)^{1 - e_i}$$
(2.9)

where  $\tilde{s}_{i-1} = e_{i-M} + \ldots + e_{i-1} + e_{i-1}$ , and

$$L = \frac{\prod_{i=0}^{s_M - 1} (\epsilon + i\delta) \prod_{j=0}^{n - s_M - 1} (1 - \epsilon + j\delta)}{\prod_{l=1}^{M - 1} (1 + l\delta)}.$$
 (2.10)

Throughout this thesis, only Polya contagion channels with Markov memory of 1 (i.e., M = 1) will be considered. For M = 1, the one-step transition probability matrix of  $\{Z_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  is given by

$$\begin{bmatrix} P(Z_i = 0 | Z_{i-1} = 0) & P(Z_i = 1 | Z_{i-1} = 0) \\ P(Z_i = 0 | Z_{i-1} = 1) & P(Z_i = 1 | Z_{i-1} = 1) \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{1+\delta} \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \epsilon + \delta & \epsilon \\ 1 - \epsilon & \epsilon + \delta \end{bmatrix}. \quad (2.11)$$

The capacity of the Polya contagion channel with Markov memory of one (i.e., M = 1) is shown in [3] to be given by

$$C = 1 - H(Z_2|Z_1) (2.12)$$

$$=1-\left(\epsilon \times h_b\left(\frac{\epsilon+\delta}{1+\delta}\right)+(1-\epsilon)\times h_b\left(\frac{\epsilon}{1+\delta}\right)\right)$$
 (2.13)

where  $h_b(p) = -p \log(p) - (1-p) \log(1-p)$  is the binary entropy function and  $H(Z_2|Z_1) = -\sum_{a\in\mathcal{Z}} \sum_{b\in\mathcal{Z}} P(Z_1 = a, Z_2 = b) \log_2 P(Z_2 = b|Z_1 = a)$  is the conditional entropy of  $Z_2$  given  $Z_1$ .

#### 2.2 Source and Channel Encoding

The goal of source encoding is to represent source samples using fewer bits than their original representation, before transmission through a channel. There are two types of source encoding: lossless encoding and lossy encoding. In lossless encoding, statistical redundancies embodied by the source entropy are removed, allowing the original sample to be perfectly recovered from its compressed representation described at a rate above entropy. This redundancy can come from memory in the source and from the non-uniformity of the source distribution and can be mathematically quantified. In lossy encoding, both non-statistical and statistical redundancies are reduced so that the compressed representation is described at a rate below entropy. In this case, the original sample cannot be perfectly recovered from the compressed representation, but this process typically results in smaller compression rates compared to lossless encoding (and hence higher compression efficiency).

We will first mathematically quantify the redundancies in lossless encoding. Shannon quantified the information gained when observing an random variable as entropy. For a random variable X with a discrete finite alphabet  $\mathcal{X}$ , the entropy of X is defined as

$$H(X) := -\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} P(X = x) \cdot \log_2 P(X = x) \quad \text{(bits)}. \tag{2.14}$$

Note that entropy is maximized when the distribution of X is uniform. For a stochas-

tic process  $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ , the entropy rate is defined as

$$H(\mathcal{X}) := \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} H(X_n, \dots, X_1), \tag{2.15}$$

where

$$H(X_n, \dots, X_1) := -\sum_{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathcal{X}^n} P(X_n = x_n, \dots, X_1 = x_1) \cdot \log_2 P(X_n = x_n, \dots, X_1 = x_1).$$
 (2.16)

When  $\{X\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  is an independently and identically distributed process,  $H(\mathcal{X}) = H(X_1)$ . A uniform and memoryless source will achieve the highest entropy rate of  $H(\mathcal{X}) = \log_2 |\mathcal{X}|$ , where  $|\mathcal{X}|$  denotes the number of elements in  $\mathcal{X}$ . According to Shannon's source coding theorem, a stationary ergodic source  $\{X\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  can be encoded with a rate of  $H(\mathcal{X})$  bits per source symbol losslessly for a sufficiently long blocklength. Further, the theorem states that any block codes with a rate less than  $H(\mathcal{X})$  bits per source symbol cannot encode the source with an arbitrarily small probability of decoding error. The redundancy can then be quantified as the difference between  $\log_2 |\mathcal{X}|$ , the rate for uncompressed source representation, and  $H(\mathcal{X})$ . We then have the following,

$$\rho_t := \log_2 |\mathcal{X}| - H(\mathcal{X}) \tag{2.17}$$

$$\rho_d := \log_2 |\mathcal{X}| - H(X_1) \tag{2.18}$$

$$\rho_m := H(X_1) - H(\mathcal{X}), \tag{2.19}$$

where  $\rho_t$  represents the total redundancy,  $\rho_d$  represents the redundancy due to the nonuniformity of the distribution of X, and  $\rho_m$  represents the redundancy due to the statistical memory of the source. Note that  $\rho_t = \rho_d + \rho_m$ .

#### 2.3 Joint Source Channel Encoding

In his renowned paper [30], Shannon, proved that channel coding does not depend on the source it is transmitting, as long as the rate of the channel code transmitted does not exceed the channel's capacity. Therefore, channel codes can be created independently from source codes and still achieve asymptotically error-free performances. However, this proof assumes block-lengths of infinite lengths in order for this to be achieved, introducing large delay and requiring large processing power to encode and decode. In cases where modest amounts of distortion is allowed and minimal delay is needed, it is favorable to combine channel and source encoding in a low-delay joint source encoder. We next examine different lossy joint source-coding schemes for effective quantization and transmission of real-valued sources over noisy channels. Before doing so, we first describe the vector quantization lossy source coding method.

#### 2.4 Vector Quantization

Conceptually, a vector quantizer (VQ) is a function that takes in a vector of source samples and outputs the nearest approximation from a finite set of predetermined vectors. This finite set is called the codebook and the elements in this set are called reproduction codevectors. In general, the input space is partitioned into encoding regions, in which values within the same encoding region share the same vector quantizer output. Let Q represent a vector quantizer of dimension k and size N. Then Q is the function,

$$Q: \mathbb{R}^k \to \mathcal{C}, \tag{2.20}$$

where  $C = \{\mathbf{c}_1, \dots, \mathbf{c}_N\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ , which assumes that the support of the source vector  $\mathbf{u}$  is  $\mathbb{R}^k$ . Here C is called the codebook and  $\mathbf{c}_i \in \mathbb{R}^k$ , for  $i \in \{0, \dots, N-1\}$ , are called codevectors. Every codevector  $\mathbf{c}_i$  has a corresponding encoding region given by

$$S_i := \left\{ \mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^k : Q(\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{c}_i \right\}, \tag{2.21}$$

such that  $\bigcup_{i=0}^{N-1} S_i = \mathbb{R}^k$  and  $S_i \cap S_j = \emptyset$  for  $i \neq j \in \{0, \dots, N-1\}$ . We will denote the set of encoding regions or partition by  $\mathcal{S} = \{S_0, \dots, S_{N-1}\}$ . The quantizer Q can be represented as the composition of two functions: the encoder and decoder, denoted by  $\mathcal{E}$  and  $\mathcal{D}$ , respectively. The encoder and decoder are defined as:

$$\mathcal{E}: \mathbb{R}^k \to \{0, \dots, N-1\} \quad \text{s.t. } \mathcal{E}(\mathbf{u}) = i \iff \mathbf{u} \in S_i$$
 (2.22)

$$\mathcal{D}: \{0, \dots, N-1\} \to \mathcal{C} \quad \text{s.t. } \mathcal{D}(i) = \mathbf{c}_i,$$
 (2.23)

such that  $Q(\mathbf{u}) = \mathcal{D} \circ \mathcal{E}(\mathbf{u})$ , for all  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^k$ . The encoder can be defined by the partition  $\mathcal{S}$  and the decoder likewise can be defined by the codebook  $\mathcal{C}$ . In general, the encoding regions and codevectors are selected to minimize the expected distortion

of Q defined as

$$E[d(\mathbf{U}, Q(\mathbf{U}))], \tag{2.24}$$

where  $d: \mathbb{R}^k \times \mathbb{R}^k \to [0, \infty)$  is called a distortion measure. For this thesis, the square error distortion measure will be used, which is given by the squared Euclidean distance  $\|\cdot\|^2$ :

$$d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2 \tag{2.25}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{k} (x_i - y_i)^2, \quad \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^k,$$
 (2.26)

where  $x_i, y_i$  are the *i*th component of vectors  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$ , respectively. For a codebook  $\mathcal{C}$  and partition  $\mathcal{P}$ , the expected distortion of Q is given by

$$E[d(\mathbf{U}, Q(\mathbf{U}))] = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \int_{S_i} f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u}) d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{c}_i) d\mathbf{u}$$
(2.27)

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \int_{S_i} f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u}) \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{c}_i\|^2 d\mathbf{u}, \qquad (2.28)$$

where  $f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u})$  is the probability density function of the source. Let  $\mathcal{Q}_N$  denote the family of all N-level quantizers (quantizers where  $|\mathcal{C}| = N$ ). An N-level quantizer  $Q^* \in \mathcal{Q}_N$  is called an *optimal quantizer* if it satisfies

$$Q^* = \arg\min_{Q \in \mathcal{Q}_n} E[d(\mathbf{U}, Q(\mathbf{U}))]. \tag{2.29}$$

A practical challenge is determining an optimal quantizer - that is, determining the optimal codebook and partition that define it. In general, the interdependence between the codebook (decoder) and the partition (encoder) makes simultaneous optimization difficult. As a result, it is advantageous to decompose the problem and alternately optimize the encoder or decoder while holding the other fixed. There are two necessary conditions for a quantizer to be optimal called the nearest neighbor condition and the centroid condition. The centroid condition states that for a fixed partition  $S = \{S_0, \ldots, S_{N-1}\}$ , the optimal codevectors (that minimize expected distortion) satisfy [15]

$$\mathbf{c}_i = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\omega} \in \mathbb{R}^k} E[d(\mathbf{U}, \boldsymbol{\omega}) | \mathbf{U} \in S_i], \quad i \in \{0, \dots, N-1\}.$$
 (2.30)

In other words, the decoder of an optimal quantizer must assign each region  $S_i$  a codevector  $\mathbf{c}_i \in \mathbb{R}^k$  that minimizes the expected distortion for the source  $\mathbf{U}$  conditioned on  $\mathbf{U} \in S_i$ . Under mean squared distortion, the centroid condition reduces down to

$$\mathbf{c}_i = E[\mathbf{U}|\mathbf{U} \in S_i] \tag{2.31}$$

$$= \frac{\int_{S_i} \mathbf{u} f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}}{\int_{S_i} f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}}, \quad i \in \{0, \dots, N-1\}.$$
 (2.32)

The nearest neighbor condition states that for a fixed codebook  $C = \{\mathbf{c}_0, \dots, \mathbf{c}_{N-1}\}$  the optimal encoding regions satisfy [15]

$$S_i = \left\{ \mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^k : d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{c}_i) \le d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{c}_j), \quad j \in \{0, \dots, N-1\} \right\},$$

$$i \in \{0, \dots, N-1\}. \tag{2.33}$$

In other words, the encoder of an optimal quantizer maps each source vector to the codeword that minimizes distortion. Equivalently the optimal encoder  $\mathcal{E}^*$  is given by

$$\mathcal{E}^*(\mathbf{u}) = i \iff d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{c}_i) \le d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{c}_i), \quad j \in \{0, \dots, N-1\}, \tag{2.34}$$

for fixed codebook C, where  $i \in \{0, 1, ..., N-1\}$ . Note that for a given source vector, the indices that correspond to the minimum distortion may not be unique (i.e., a source vector may be equidistant from 2 different centroids). In these cases, the source vector can be encoded arbitrarily from the minima without changing the expected distortion of the quantizer [15].

While these conditions are defined for a continuous random variable with a density function, in practice, the density function of the source is not always available. In these cases, a training set can be used with slight modifications to the nearest neighbor and centroid conditions. Let  $A = (\mathbf{a}_0, \mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{\eta}) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$  be a training set of size  $\eta$  that are independenty and identically drawn from the random variable  $\mathbf{U}$ . Here we approximate the distribution of  $\mathbf{U}$  with discrete random variable with probability  $\frac{1}{\eta}$  for each value in the sequence A. Thus, the nearest neighbor condition can

be expressed as

$$S_i = \{ \mathbf{a} \in A : d(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{c}_i) \le d(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{c}_j), \quad j \in \{0, \dots, N-1\} \}, \quad i \in \{0, \dots, N-1\}.$$

$$(2.35)$$

The centroid condition can also be modified by replacing the integral with summations as follows:

$$E[d(\mathbf{U}, Q(\mathbf{U}))] = \frac{1}{\eta} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \sum_{\mathbf{a} \in S_i} \|\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{c}_i\|^2.$$
 (2.36)

A vector quantizer that satisfies both the centroid and nearest neighbor condition is called a Lloyd-Max quantizer. Note that every optimal quantizer (i.e., a quantizer that minimizes the distortion for a given N) is a Lloyd-Max quantizer, but a Lloyd-Max quantizer is not necessarily optimal. A natural question that follows is how do we find a quantizer with encoding regions and a codebook that satisfy these necessary optimality conditions. In general, it is difficult to jointly optimize the encoder and decoder; however, if either the encoder or decoder is fixed, the other component can be easily optimized by applying the conditions in (2.30) or (2.33). Given an initial encoder and decoder, a simple algorithm to find a Lloyd-Max quantizer is to successively fix the encoder and optimize the decoder and vise-versa until the expected distortion of the quantizer converges. This algorithm is called the LBG-Algorithm [18], which is the generalization of Lloyd's algorithm [19] from scalar quantization (when k = 1) to vector quantization (when k > 1). Details of the LBG-algorithm are shown below.

- 1. Let  $D^{(m)}, Q^{(m)}$  represent the expected distortion and quantizer at the m-th iteration, respectively. Set m=0 and  $D^{(m)}=\infty$ . Choose an initial  $\mathcal{S}^{(m)}=\{S_0^{(m)},\ldots,S_{N-1}^{(m)}\}, \mathcal{C}^{(m)}=\{\mathbf{c}_0^{(m)},\ldots,\mathbf{c}_{N-1}^{(m)}\},$  and T. Here  $\mathcal{S}^{(m)}, \mathcal{C}^{(m)}$  represents the m-th iteration of the encoding regions and codebook, respectively.
- 2. Using the fixed codebook  $C^{(m)}$ , for all  $i \in \{0, ..., N-1\}$ , set  $S_i^{(m+1)} = \{\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^k : d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{c}_i^{(m)}) \leq d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{c}_i^{(m)}), \quad j \in \{0, ..., N-1\}\}.$
- 3. Using the fixed encoding regions  $S^{(m+1)}$ , set  $\mathbf{c}_i^{(m+1)} = E[\mathbf{U}|\mathbf{U} \in S_i]$ .
- 4. Using  $\mathcal{C}^{(m+1)}$  and  $\mathcal{S}^{(m+1)}$ , calculate  $D^{(m+1)} = E[d(\mathbf{U}, Q^{(m+1)}(\mathbf{U}))]$ . If

$$\frac{D^{(m)} - D^{(m+1)}}{D^{(m)}} < T,$$

then return  $C^{(m+1)}$  and  $S^{(m+1)}$ . Otherwise, set m=m+1 and go to step 2.

The distortion in the LBG-algorithm is monotonically decreasing for each iteration and eventually converges. The produced quantizer will satisfy the centroid and nearest neighbor conditions of an optimal quantizer, but it is not necessarily globally optimal. However, [14] shows that in cases where the source probability density function is log concave, these conditions become *sufficient* for an optimal quantizer. Therefore, Lloyd-Max quantizers are optimal for distributions such as Gaussian, Laplacian and uniform distributions. Further, the initial choice of the codebook and encoding regions plays a large role in whether the LBG-algorithm converges to a "bad" local minimum. The LBG-algorithm assumes that all source values are encoded without noise. In the presence of channel noise, the performance

of the LBG quantizer degrades significantly with increasing noise. However, the nearest neighbor and centroid conditions can be modified to make the quantizer more robust to channel noise.

#### 2.5 Channel Optimized Vector Quantization

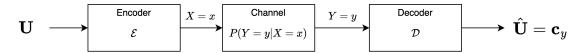


Figure 2.1: A block diagram for a COVQ communication system.

The channel optimized vector quantization (COVQ) scheme, introduced among others in [11] [13], generalizes the nearest neighbor and centroid condition of the LBG-algorithm to account for channel noise. Consider the communication system in Figure 2.1. A COVQ is a VQ that accounts for a noisy channel between the encoder and decoder. In this scheme, knowledge of the channel's block transition probability and memory is assumed. However, when the memory in the channel is not known, an interleaver can be used to effectively turn the channel into a memoryless channel. In [22], it was shown that the channel memory can be exploited to improve the performance of a COVQ and that in general the COVQ outperforms a COVQ with an interleaver.

#### 2.5.1 Optimality Conditions

Similar to a VQ, a COVQ will have a codebook and a set of encoding regions denoted by  $\mathcal{C}$  and  $\mathcal{S}$ , respectively. Let  $\mathcal{E}$  and  $\mathcal{D}$  represent the encoder and decoder of the COVQ, respectively, and let  $\mathcal{I} = \{0, \ldots, N-1\}$  represent the channel index set. In this system we have that the encoder takes in a source vector  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^k$  and outputs an index  $x \in \mathcal{I}$ . Afterwards the index x is transmitted through a noisy channel and the index  $y \in \mathcal{I}$  is received by the decoder. The decoder then takes in the index y and outputs the corresponding value from the codebook  $\mathbf{c}_y$ . Here and throughout the thesis, we assume that the channel has identical input and output alphabets (i.e.,  $\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{Y} = \mathcal{I}$ ). The expected distortion of this communication system is given by

$$D = \int_{\mathbb{R}^k} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{I}} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{I}} P(Y = y | X = x) \| \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{c}_y \|^2 1_{\{\mathbf{u} \in S_x\}} f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}$$
(2.37)

$$= \sum_{x \in \mathcal{I}} \int_{S_x} \left[ \sum_{y \in \mathcal{I}} P(Y = y | X = x) \| \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{c}_y \|^2 \right] f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}$$
 (2.38)

where  $1_A$  is the indicator function of event A. The rate of the COVQ is defined as  $R = \frac{1}{k} \log_2 N$  bits per source sample. The term in brackets is called the *modified* distortion and is denoted as

$$d': \mathbb{R}^k \times \mathcal{I} \to \mathbb{R} \tag{2.39}$$

$$d'(\mathbf{u}, x) = \sum_{y \in \mathcal{I}} P(Y = y | X = x) \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{c}_y\|^2.$$
 (2.40)

The modified distortion describes the expected distortion for a source vector  $\mathbf{u}$  when encoded with a given index x. We can see in (2.38) that the distortion expression is analogous to that for VQ in (2.27) with distortion being replaced with the modified distortion. Note that the modified distortion is a generalization of the distortion in

the VQ case: when the channel is noiseless, it reduces to the square error distortion. The generalized nearest neighbor condition for the COVQ states that for a fixed codebook  $\mathcal{C}$  an optimal COVQ will have a partition that satisfy [11]

$$S_x = \{ \mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^k : d'(\mathbf{u}, x) \le d'(\mathbf{u}, x'), \quad x' \in \mathcal{I} \}, \quad x \in \mathcal{I}.$$
 (2.41)

The proof for this statement is as follows. Let  $\mathcal{Q}$  denote the family of N-level, k-dimensional quantizers. Let  $\mathcal{Q} \in \mathcal{Q}$  be an arbitrary quantizer with partition  $\mathcal{S}$  and codebook  $\mathcal{C}$ . We then have that

$$E[d(\mathbf{U}, Q(\mathbf{U}))] = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{I}} \int_{S_x} \left[ \sum_{y \in \mathcal{I}} P(Y = y | X = x) \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{c}_y\|^2 \right] f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}$$
(2.42)

$$= \sum_{x \in \mathcal{I}} \int_{S_x} d'(\mathbf{u}, x) f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}$$
 (2.43)

$$\geq \int_{\mathbb{R}^k} \arg\min_{x'\in\mathcal{I}} d'(\mathbf{u}, x') f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}$$
 (2.44)

$$= E[d(\mathbf{U}, Q'(\mathbf{U}))], \tag{2.45}$$

where  $Q' \in \mathcal{Q}$  is a quantizer that shares the same codebook as Q and satisfies the COVQ nearest neighbor condition. Hence it is necessary for an optimal COVQ to satisfy the generalized nearest neighbor condition. The centroid condition for the COVQ states that for a fixed partition  $\mathcal{S}$ , the corresponding optimal centroids satisfy

$$\mathbf{c}_y = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\omega} \in \mathbb{R}^k} E[d(\mathbf{U}, \boldsymbol{\omega})|Y = y].$$
 (2.46)

The proof for this statement is as follows. Let Q denote the family of N-level, k-dimensional quantizers. We have that

$$E[d(\mathbf{U}, Q(\mathbf{U}))] = \sum_{y \in \mathcal{I}} E[d(\mathbf{U}, Q(\mathbf{U}))|Y = y]P(Y = y)$$
(2.47)

$$= \sum_{y \in \mathcal{I}} E[d(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{c}_y)|Y = y]P(Y = y)$$
(2.48)

$$\geq \sum_{y \in \mathcal{I}} \arg \min_{\boldsymbol{\omega} \in \mathbb{R}^k} E[d(\mathbf{U}, \boldsymbol{\omega})|Y = y]P(Y = y)$$
 (2.49)

$$= E[d(\mathbf{U}, Q'(\mathbf{U}))], \tag{2.50}$$

where  $Q' \in \mathcal{Q}$  is a quantizer that shares the same partition as Q and satisfies the generalized centroid condition. Hence it is necessary for an optimal COVQ to satisfy the centroid condition. Under square error distortion, the COVQ centroid condition becomes

$$\mathbf{c}_y = E[\mathbf{U}|Y = y]. \tag{2.51}$$

This is similar to the VQ case, with the difference being that the distortion is conditioned on the received index at the channel output rather than the encoded index. Note that in cases of high channel noise and a high rate for the COVQ, empty encoding regions may be present when applying the generalized LBG-algorithm.

# 2.6 Channel Matched Tree Structured Vector Quantization

In this section, we introduce the Channel Matched Tree Structured Vector Quantization (CM-TSVQ) scheme, proposed in [23]. The CM-TSVQ is a multistage, residual quantization scheme, designed to reduce the encoding complexity of a COVQ with the tradeoff of decreased performance and increased memory complexity compared to a full-search COVQ. Let  $\mathbf{b} = (b_1, \ldots, b_n)$  denote the bit allocation for an n-stage CM-TSVQ, such that  $b_i$  represents the number of bits allocated for the i-th stage for all  $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ . The overall rate of the quantizer is  $\frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i$  bits per source sample. Let  $(N_1, \ldots, N_n) = (2^{b_1}, \ldots, 2^{b_n})$  denote the number of codewords in each stage quantizer. The first stage of the CM-TSVQ is a COVQ without any modifications. The second and subsequent stages are COVQs optimized to quantize the quantization error resultant from all previous stages. All quantized values from the codebook of each stage are then added together for the reconstructed vector.

#### 2.6.1 Two-Stage Optimality Conditions

Consider a two-stage CM-TSVQ as depicted in Figure 2.2, with bit allocation  $\mathbf{b} = (b_1, b_2)$ , where  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  correspond to the bits allocated to the first stage and second stage, respectively. Set  $N_1 = 2^{b_1}$  and  $N_2 = 2^{b_2}$ . Let  $\mathcal{S}^{(1)} = \{S_0^{(1)}, \dots, S_{N_1-1}^{(1)}\}$  and  $\mathcal{C}^{(1)} = \{\mathbf{c}_0^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{c}_{N_1-1}^{(1)}\}$  denote the encoding regions and codebook for the first stage, respectively. Also, let  $\mathcal{E}^{(1)}$  and  $\mathcal{D}^{(1)}$  be the encoder and decoder, respectively, for the first stage, and let  $\mathcal{I}^{(1)} = \{0, \dots, N_1 - 1\}$  and  $\mathcal{I}^{(2)} = \{0, \dots, N_2 - 1\}$ . The encoder

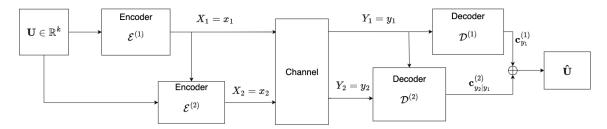


Figure 2.2: Block diagram for a two-stage CM-TSVQ.

and decoder at the second stage can be expressed as the following functions:

$$\mathcal{E}^{(2)}: \mathbb{R}^k \times \mathcal{I}^{(1)} \to \mathcal{I}^{(2)} \tag{2.52}$$

$$\mathcal{D}^{(2)}: \mathcal{I}^{(1)} \times \mathcal{I}^{(2)} \to \mathbb{R}^k. \tag{2.53}$$

Unlike COVQ, the encoder in this case takes in the source value and the encoded index in the first stage  $(x_1)$ . Further, the decoder takes in both the first and second stage received channel indices  $(y_1 \text{ and } y_2)$ . In Figure 2.2,  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are sent through the channel one after the other. The channel can be represented as having identical input and output alphabets given by  $\mathcal{I}^{(1)} \times \mathcal{I}^{(2)}$  and having block transition probability for receiving  $(y_1, y_2)$  given that  $(x_1, x_2)$  was sent given by  $P(Y_2 = y_2, Y_1 = y_1 | X_2 = x_2, X_1 = x_1)$ . We then have that the expected quantization error for source value  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^k$  given that  $\mathbf{u} \in S_{x_1}^{(1)}$  for  $x_1 \in \mathcal{I}$  is

$$d_{2}'(\mathbf{u}; x_{1}, x_{2}) = E\left[\left\|\mathbf{u} - (\mathbf{c}_{Y_{1}}^{(1)} + \mathbf{c}_{Y_{2}|Y_{1}}^{(2)})\right\|^{2} | X_{1} = x_{1}, X_{2} = x_{2}\right]$$

$$= \sum_{y_{1} \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}} \sum_{y_{2} \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}} P(Y_{2} = y_{2}, Y_{1} = y_{1}|X_{2} = x_{2}, X_{1} = x_{1}) \left\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{c}_{y_{1}}^{(1)} - \mathbf{c}_{y_{2}|y_{1}}^{(2)}\right\|^{2}.$$

$$(2.55)$$

Note that  $d_2'$  is a generalization of the modified distortion from the stage one case for the stage two case. Let  $S_{x_1}^{(2)} = \{S_{0|x_1}^{(2)}, \dots, S_{N_2-1|x_1}^{(2)}\}$  denote the set of encoding regions used in the second stage quantizer given that the inputted source value was encoded with  $x_1 \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}$  in the first stage (i.e.,  $S_{x_1}^{(2)}$  is the partition that further refines the encoding region  $S_{x_1}^{(1)}$ ). Let  $C_{y_1}^{(2)} = \{\mathbf{c}_{0|y_1}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{c}_{N_2-1|y_1}^{(2)}\}$  be the codebook for the second stage when  $y_1 \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}$  is received in the first stage. The expected distortion of the second stage quantizer conditioned on  $X_1 = x_1$  is

$$E[d(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{c}_{Y_{1}}^{(1)} + \mathbf{c}_{Y_{2}|Y_{1}}^{(2)})|X_{1} = x_{1}] = \sum_{y_{1} \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}} \sum_{x_{2}, y_{2} \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}} P(Y_{2} = y_{2}, Y_{1} = y_{1}|X_{2} = x_{2}, X_{1} = x_{1})$$

$$\times \int_{S_{x_{2}|x_{1}}^{(2)}} \left\| \mathbf{u} - (\mathbf{c}_{y_{1}}^{(1)} + \mathbf{c}_{y_{2}|y_{1}}^{(2)}) \right\|^{2} f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}.$$

$$(2.56)$$

As a result, the overall distortion of the two stage quantizer is given by

$$E[d(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{c}_{Y_{1}}^{(1)} + \mathbf{c}_{Y_{2}|Y_{1}}^{(2)})] = \sum_{y_{1}, x_{1} \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}} \sum_{x_{2}, y_{2} \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}} P(Y_{2} = y_{2}, Y_{1} = y_{1}|X_{2} = x_{2}, X_{1} = x_{1})$$

$$\times \int_{S_{x_{2}|x_{1}}^{(2)}} \left\| \mathbf{u} - (\mathbf{c}_{y_{1}}^{(1)} + \mathbf{c}_{y_{2}|y_{1}}^{(2)}) \right\|^{2} f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}.$$

$$(2.57)$$

Note that, when deriving the necessary conditions for the optimal second stage quantizer, we will assume that  $\mathcal{S}^{(1)}$  and  $\mathcal{C}^{(1)}$  are fixed. To derive the nearest neighbor and centroid conditions, the expected distortion of the second stage quantizer  $Q^{(2)} \in \mathcal{Q}_{N_2}$ 

can be expressed as [12]

$$E[d(\mathbf{U}, Q^{(2)}(\mathbf{U}))]$$

$$= \sum_{x_1 \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}} \sum_{x_2 \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}} \int_{S_{x_2|x_1}^{(2)}} d'_2(\mathbf{u}; x_2, x_1) f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}$$

$$= \sum_{y_1 \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}} \sum_{y_2 \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}} E[d(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(1)} + \mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2)}) | Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2] \times P(Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2).$$
(2.59)

The identities in (2.58) and (2.59) are analogous to those in (2.43) and (2.48), respectively. Following a similar proof, we can derive the following optimality conditions for the COVQ. The nearest neighbor condition for the second stage encoding regions for fixed codebook  $C_{y_1}^{(2)}$  for all  $y_1 \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}$  is [12]

$$S_{x_2|x_1} = \{ \mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^k : d_2'(\mathbf{u}; x_1, x_2) \le d_2'(\mathbf{u}; x_1, x_2'), \quad x_2' \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)} \}, \quad x_2 \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}.$$
 (2.60)

The centroid condition for the second stage codebook given fixed partition  $\mathcal{S}_{x_1}^{(2)}$  for all  $x_1 \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}$  is

$$\mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2)} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\omega} \in \mathbb{R}^k} E[d(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{c}_{Y_1}^{(1)} + \boldsymbol{\omega})|Y_1 = y_1], \quad y_1 \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}, y_2 \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}.$$
 (2.61)

Under the square error distortion, the centroid condition reduces to

$$\mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2)} = E[\mathbf{U} - \mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(1)}|Y_2 = y_2, Y_1 = y_1]$$
(2.62)

$$= E[\mathbf{U}|Y_2 = y_2, Y_1 = y_1] - \mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(1)}, \quad y_1 \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}, y_2 \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}. \tag{2.63}$$

#### 2.6.2 Generalization for Multiple Stages

We next consider optimality conditions for CM-TSVQ for multiple stages greater than 2. Let n be the number of stages in the CM-TSVQ and let  $\mathbf{b} = (b_1, \ldots, b_n)$  be the bit allocation vector, such that  $b_j$  bits are allocated for the j-th stage for all  $j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ . Let  $\mathcal{C}_{y_{i-1}, \ldots, y_1}^{(i)}$  be the codebook for the i-th stage used when the sequence  $(y_1, \ldots, y_{i-1})$  is received from the previous i-1 stages. Let  $\mathcal{S}_{x_{i-1}, \ldots, x_1}^{(i)}$  be the set of encoding regions for the i-th stage used for source values encoded with the sequence  $(x_1, \ldots, x_{i-1})$  in the previous i-1 stages. For brevity, let  $X^i = (X_i, \ldots, X_1), Y^i = (Y_i, \ldots, Y_1)$  and let  $x^i = (x_i, \ldots, x_1), y^i = (y_i, \ldots, y_1)$ . Further, we will denote  $\mathcal{I}^i = \mathcal{I}^{(1)} \times \cdots \times \mathcal{I}^{(i)}$ , where  $\mathcal{I}^{(j)} = \{0, 1, \ldots, 2^{b_j} - 1\}$  for  $j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ , and  $\hat{\mathbf{u}}^{(i)} = \mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(1)} + \mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2)} + \cdots + \mathbf{c}_{y_i|y^{i-1}}^{(i)}$ . The encoders and decoders at stage i of the CM-TSVQ can be described by the following functions,

$$\mathcal{E}^{(i)}: \mathbb{R}^k \times \mathcal{I}^{i-1} \to \mathcal{I}^{(i)} \tag{2.64}$$

$$\mathcal{D}^{(i)}: \mathcal{I}^i \to \mathbb{R}^k. \tag{2.65}$$

Specifically, at stage i, the encoder takes in the source vector and the previous i-1 encoding indices and outputs a channel index. The decoder takes in all received channel indices and outputs the reconstructed value  $\hat{\mathbf{u}}^{(i)}$  for the source vector  $\mathbf{u}$ . The overall expected distortion of the CM-TSVQ at stage i is given by

$$D^{(i)} = \sum_{x^i \in \mathcal{I}^i} \sum_{y^i \in \mathcal{I}^i} P(Y^i = y^i | X^i = x^i) \int_{S_{x_i|x^{i-1}}^{(i)}} \left\| \mathbf{u} - \hat{\mathbf{u}}^{(i)} \right\|^2 f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}.$$
 (2.66)

Let

$$d'_{i}(\mathbf{u}; \mathbf{x}^{i}) = \sum_{x^{i} \in \mathcal{I}^{i}} \sum_{y^{i} \in \mathcal{I}^{i}} P(Y^{i} = y^{i} | X^{i} = x^{i}) \left\| \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{c}_{y_{1}} - \mathbf{c}_{y_{2} | y_{1}} - \dots - \mathbf{c}_{y_{i} | y^{i-1}} \right\|^{2}$$
(2.67)

denote the expected distortion when source vector  $\mathbf{u}$  is quantized with the sequence  $x_i, \ldots, x_1$ . Note that when describing the necessary conditions for optimality in the ith stage, we assume that all partitions and codebooks from the previous i-1 stages are fixed. The nearest neighbor condition for the i-th stage encoding region given fixed codebook  $\mathcal{C}_{y^i}^{(i)}$  for all  $\mathbf{y}^i \in \mathcal{I}^i$  is

$$S_{x_{i}|x_{i-1},\dots,x_{1}}^{(i)} = \{ \mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^{k} : d'_{i}(\mathbf{u}; x_{i}, x_{i-1}, \dots, x_{1}) \le d'_{i}(\mathbf{u}; x'_{i}, x_{i-1}, \dots, x_{1}), \quad x'_{i} \in \mathcal{I}^{(i)} \}$$

$$(2.68)$$

for  $(x_i, \dots, x_1) \in \mathcal{I}^{(i)} \times \dots \times \mathcal{I}^{(1)}$ . The centroid condition given fixed partition  $\mathcal{S}_{x^{i-1}}^{(i)}$  for all  $x^{i-1} \in \mathcal{I}^{i-1}$  is

$$\mathbf{c}_{y_i|y^{i-1}}^{(i)} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\omega} \in \mathbb{R}^k} E[d(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{c}_{Y_1}^{(1)} + \mathbf{c}_{Y_2|Y_1}^{(2)} + \dots + \boldsymbol{\omega})|Y^i = y^i], \quad y^i \in \mathcal{I}^i$$
 (2.69)

which under the square error distortion, reduces to

$$\mathbf{c}_{y_i|y^{i-1}}^{(i)} = E[\mathbf{U}|Y^i = y^i] - \mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(1)} - \mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2)} - \dots - \mathbf{c}_{y_{i-1}|y^{i-2}}^{(i-1)}, \quad y^i \in \mathcal{I}^i.$$
 (2.70)

As pointed out, for source value  $\mathbf{u}$  and received sequences  $y_i, \dots, y_1$ , the reconstructed codeword from the decoder is  $\hat{\mathbf{u}}^{(i)} = \mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(1)} + \mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2)} + \dots + \mathbf{c}_{y_i|\mathbf{y}^{i-1}}^{(i)}$ .

#### 2.6.3 Algorithm for Designing Locally Optimal CM-TSVQs

Given the optimality conditions for the CM-TSVQ, a natural question is how to design an optimal CM-TSVQ. One method for finding locally optimal quantizers follows from the LBG-algorithm, in which the generalized nearest neighbor and centroid conditions are applied successively until convergence. Below is a generalization of the LBG-algorithm for CM-TSVQs at stage i, given all codebooks and encoding regions in stages  $1, \ldots, i-1$ . Note that at stage i all the codebooks and partitions from the previous i-1 stages are fixed.

- 1. Given  $\mathcal{S}_{x^{j-1}}^{(j)}$  and  $\mathcal{C}_{y^{j-1}}^{(j)}$  for all  $j=1,\ldots,i-1$ , let  $D^{(m)}$  represent the distortion at the m-th iteration respectively. Set m=0 and  $D^{(m)}=\infty$ . Choose an initial  $\mathcal{S}_{x^{i-1}}^{(i,m)}$ ,  $\mathcal{C}_{y^{i-1}}^{(i,m)}$ , and T. For this algorithm let  $\mathcal{S}_{x^{i-1}}^{(i,m)}$ ,  $\mathcal{C}_{y^{i-1}}^{(i,m)}$  represent the m-th iteration of the i-th stage encoding regions and codebook respectively.
- 2. Using  $C_{y^{i-1}}^{(i,m)}$ , for all  $x_i \in \mathcal{I}^{(i)}$  set  $S_{x^{i-1}}^{(i,m+1)} = \{ \mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^k : d'_i(\mathbf{u}; x_i, x_{i-1}, \dots, x_1) \le d'_i(\mathbf{u}; x'_i, x_{i-1}, \dots, x_1), \quad x'_i \in \mathcal{I}^{(i)} \}.$
- 3. Using  $\mathcal{S}_{x^{i-1}}^{(i,m+1)}$ , set  $\mathcal{C}_{y^{i-1}}^{(i,m+1)} = E[\mathbf{U}|Y^i = y^i] \mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(1)} \mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2)} \dots \mathbf{c}_{y_{i-1}|y^{i-2}}^{(i-1)}$ .
- 4. Set m=m+1. Calculate  $D^{(m+1)}$ . If  $\frac{D^{(m)}-D^{(m+1)}}{D^{(m)}}\geq T$ , then go to step 2. Otherwise, return  $\mathcal{S}^{(i,m)}_{x^{i-1}}, \mathcal{C}^{(i,m)}_{y^{i-1}}$ .

# 2.7 Adaptive Channel Optimized Vector Quantization

In this section, we describe the Adaptive Channel Optimized Vector Quantization (ACOVQ) method, proposed in [5], for channels with feedback. The difference between the ACOVQ and CM-TSVQ schemes is that in the ACOVQ the encoder has access to a noiseless feedback link to the channel outputs as well as the previous encoding indices. This feedback is then used to *update* the source distribution by calculating the posterior distribution. This posterior distribution is then treated as a new source distribution and refined further by another quantizer. Additionally in this scheme, only the codebook in the *final stage* is used to reconstruct the source vector, unlike in the CM-TSVQ scheme, where the reconstructed codeword is the sum of the codeword from each stage.

#### 2.7.1 Two-Stage Optimality Conditions

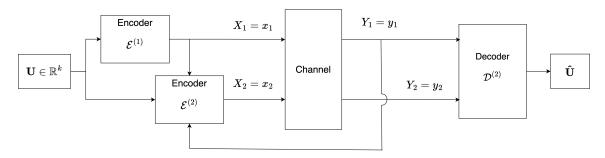


Figure 2.3: Block diagram for two-stage ACOVQ.

Similar to CM-TSVQ, the first stage of ACOVQ is a COVQ without any modifications. Consider a two stage ACOVQ with bit allocation  $\mathbf{b} = (b_1, b_2)$  depicted in Figure 2.3. Let  $Y_1 = y_1 \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}$  be the index received by the decoder in the first stage. This index is then sent to the second stage encoder noiselessly via a unit-delay feedback-link. Unlike CM-TSVQ, the first stage decoder is not used in this scheme. Instead, only the codebook in the last stage is used to reconstruct the source vector. Let  $f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u})$  represent the probability density function for the source. For each  $y_1 \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}$ , the source distribution is updated at the encoder by calculating the following posterior distribution:

$$f_{\mathbf{U}|Y_{1}}(\mathbf{u}|y_{1}) = \frac{f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u})P(Y_{1} = y_{1}|\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{u})}{P(Y_{1} = y_{1})}$$

$$= \frac{f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u})\sum_{x_{1}\in\mathcal{I}^{(1)}}P(Y_{1} = y_{1}|X_{1} = x_{1}, \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{u})P(X_{1} = x_{1}|\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{u})}{\sum_{x_{1}\in\mathcal{I}^{(1)}}P(Y_{1} = y_{1}|X_{1} = x_{1})P(X_{1} = x_{1})}$$
(2.71)

$$= \frac{f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u}) \sum_{x_1 \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}} P(Y_1 = y_1 | X_1 = x_1) 1\{\mathbf{u} \in S_{x_1}^{(1)}\}}{\sum_{x_1 \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}} P(Y_1 = y_1 | X_1 = x_1) \int_{S_{x_1}^{(1)}} f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}}$$
(2.73)

$$= \frac{f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u})P(Y_1 = y_1|X_1 = \mathcal{E}^{(1)}(\mathbf{u}))}{\sum_{x_1 \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}} P(Y_1 = y_1|X_1 = x_1) \int_{S_{x_1}^{(1)}} f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}}.$$
 (2.74)

Note that the simplification in (2.73) is due to the causality channel condition by nature in which the channel is operated, where it is assumed that the following Markov chain holds [2, p. 160]:

$$\mathbf{U} \to (X^i, Y^{i-1}) \to Y_i, \quad i = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$
 (2.75)

Note that under feedback, the property in (2.2) for memoryless channels may not necessarily hold since the feedback may affect the probability of the next encoded output [2]. In this case, the causality condition in (2.75) simplifies to [2, p. 161],

$$(\mathbf{U}, X^{i-1}, Y^{i-1}) \to X_i \to Y_i.$$
 (2.76)

Further, for the simplification in (2.74), recall that the encoding regions form a partition over  $\mathbb{R}^k$ . Therefore  $\mathbf{u}$  can only belong to one encoding region and  $1_{\{\mathbf{u} \in S_{x_1}^{(1)}\}} = 1 \iff \mathcal{E}^{(1)}(\mathbf{u}) = x_1$ . Therefore the only term in the summation  $\sum_{x_1 \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}} P(Y_1 = y_1|X_1 = x_1)1\{\mathbf{u} \in S_{x_1}^{(1)}\}$  that is non-zero is the term where  $x_1 \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}$  corresponds to the encoding region that  $\mathbf{u}$  is in (where  $x_1 = \mathcal{E}^{(1)}(\mathbf{u})$ ). The encoder and decoder for the second stage can be represented as

$$\mathcal{E}^{(2)}: \mathbb{R}^k \times \mathcal{I}^{(1)} \times \mathcal{I}^{(1)} \to \mathcal{I}^{(2)} \tag{2.77}$$

$$\mathcal{D}^{(2)}: \mathcal{I}^{(1)} \times \mathcal{I}^{(2)} \to \mathbb{R}^k. \tag{2.78}$$

Let  $y_1$  be the received index via the feedback link. We have encoding regions  $S_{y_1}^{(2)} = \{S_{0|y_1}^{(2)}, S_{1|y_1}^{(2)}, \dots S_{N_2-1|y_1}^{(2)}\}$  and codebook  $C_{y_1}^{(2)} = \{\mathbf{c}_{0|y_1}^{(2)}, \mathbf{c}_{1|y_1}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{c}_{N_2-1|y_1}^{(2)}\}$  corresponding to the posterior distribution  $f_{\mathbf{U}|\mathbf{y_1}}$ . The expected distortion given  $Y_1 = y_1$  can be expressed as

$$E[d(\mathbf{U}, Q(\mathbf{U}))|Y_1 = y_1] = \int_{\mathbb{R}^k} d(\mathbf{u}, Q(\mathbf{u})) f_{\mathbf{U}|y_1}(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}$$

$$= \sum_{x_2, y_2 \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}} \sum_{x_1 \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}} \int_{S_{x_1}^{(1)} \cap S_{x_2|y_1}^{(1)}} P(Y_2 = y_2 | X_2 = x_2, Y_1 = y_1, X_1 = x_1)$$
(2.79)

$$\times d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{c}_{y_{2}|y_{1}}) f_{\mathbf{U}|y_{1}}(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}$$

$$= \sum_{x_{2}, y_{2} \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}} \sum_{x_{1} \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}} \int_{S_{x_{1}}^{(1)} \cap S_{x_{2}|y_{1}}^{(1)}} P(Y_{2} = y_{2}|X_{2} = x_{2}, Y_{1} = y_{1}, X_{1} = x_{1})$$

$$\times \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{c}_{y_{2}|y_{1}}\|^{2} f_{\mathbf{U}|y_{1}}(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}.$$

$$(2.81)$$

With an abuse of notation, let

$$d_2'(\mathbf{u}; y_1, \mathcal{E}^{(1)}(\mathbf{u}), x_2) = \sum_{y_2 \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}} P(Y_2 = y_2 | X_2 = x_2, Y_1 = y_1, X_1 = \mathcal{E}^{(1)}(\mathbf{u})) \left\| \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{c}_{y_2 | y_1}^{(2)} \right\|^2$$
(2.82)

represent the expected distortion when source value  $\mathbf{u}$  is quantized with index  $x_2$  given  $Y_1 = y_1$  and  $X_1 = \mathcal{E}^{(1)}(\mathbf{u})$ . We can then rewrite the expected distortion in terms of the modified distortion in (2.81) as follows

$$E[d(\mathbf{U}, Q(\mathbf{U}))|Y_1 = y_1] = \sum_{x_2 \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}} \sum_{x_1 \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}} \int_{S_{x_1}^{(1)} \cap S_{x_2|y_1}^{(1)}} d'_2(\mathbf{u}; y_1, x_1, x_2) f_{\mathbf{U}|y_1}(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}. \quad (2.83)$$

It then follows that given fixed codebook  $C_{y_1}^{(2)}$ , an optimal second stage quantizer must have encoding regions that satisfy the following generalized nearest neighbor condition:

$$S_{x_2|y_1}^{(2)} = \{ \mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^k : d_2'(\mathbf{u}; y_1, \mathcal{E}^{(1)}(\mathbf{u}), x_2) \le d_2'(\mathbf{u}; y_1, \mathcal{E}^{(1)}(\mathbf{u}), x_2'), \quad x_2' \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)} \},$$

$$x_2 \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}, y_1 \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}. \quad (2.84)$$

The above expected distortion can also be expressed as

$$E[d(\mathbf{U}, Q(\mathbf{U}))|Y_1 = y_1] = \sum_{y_2 \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}} P(Y_2 = y_2|Y_1 = y_1) E[d(\mathbf{U}, Q(\mathbf{U}))|Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2].$$
(2.85)

Therefore, it follows that for a fixed partition  $S_{y_1}^{(2)}$  an optimal second stage quantizer must have a codebook that satisfies the following generalized centroid condition:

$$\mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2)} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\omega} \in \mathbb{R}^k} E[d(\mathbf{U}, \boldsymbol{\omega})|Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2]$$
 (2.86)

which, under the square error distortion, reduces to

$$\mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2)} = E[\mathbf{U}|Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2]. \tag{2.87}$$

Figure 2.4 depicts the posterior distributions of an ACOVQ scheme in the scalar case with bit allocation  $\mathbf{b}=(2,2)$  over the Polya Contagion Channel with memory  $M=1,\ \epsilon=0.05,\ \mathrm{and}\ \delta=5$  (details on how indices are sent over this binary channel are provided in Section 3.4.1). Each box represents a COVQ in the ACOVQ framework, displaying the source density function (blue line) and the corresponding centroids (red dots). Arrows connecting the first-stage quantizer to the second-stage quantizers indicate the channel output for the posterior distribution each second-stage quantizer is responsible for refining. For the second-stage quantizer boxes, the plot of the source density function is accompanied by the probability of the channel output and the expected distortion of the COVQ when quantizing the respective

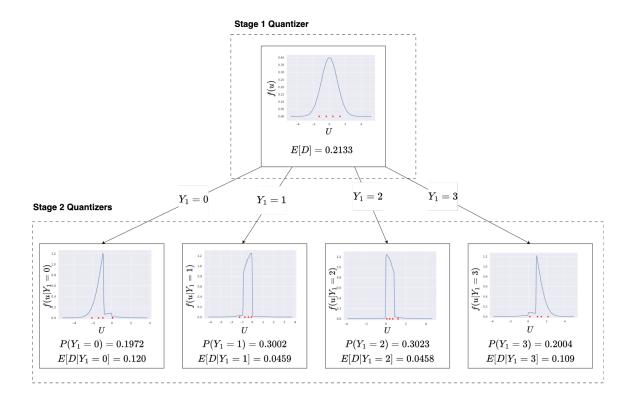


Figure 2.4: Posterior distributions of ACOVQ with bit allocation  $\mathbf{b} = (2, 2)$  over the Polya contagion channel with memory M = 1,  $\epsilon = 0.05$ , and  $\delta = 5$ .

posterior distribution. We can see that with feedback, the variance of the posterior source distribution decreases. That is, with noiseless feedback, the decoder has more certainty about the source value that was sent. The more stages added, the more the posterior distributions will resemble the delta function. In Chapter 4, we will explore these properties and how we can use these differences to improve the performance of ACOVQ. We also observe from the figure that ACOVQ, similar to CM-TSVQ, successively refines the initial source distribution and has a tree like structure.

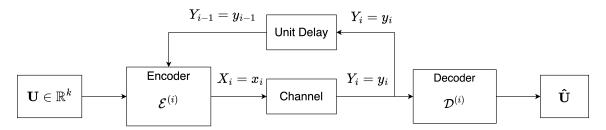


Figure 2.5: Block diagram for the ith stage of ACOVQ in a noiseless feedback communication system.

#### 2.7.2 Generalization for Multiple Stages

The *i*th stage of an ACOVQ scheme is shown in Figure 2.5. Although not explicitly depicted in the figure, the encoder at stage *i* has access to all previous encoders (i.e.,  $X_1 = x_1, \ldots, X_{i-1} = x_{i-1}$ ). Let  $y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_{i-1}$  be the sequence of channel outputs received at the encoder via the noiseless feedback link at the *i*-th stage and let  $\mathcal{S}^{(1)}, \mathcal{S}^{(2)}_{y_1}, \ldots, \mathcal{S}^{(i-1)}_{y_{i-2}}$  be the fixed partitions from the previous stages. Here we will show the necessary optimality conditions for the encoder and decoder in the *i*th stage. The posterior distribution can be calculated recursively as follows:

$$f_{\mathbf{U}|Y^{i-1}}(\mathbf{u}|y^{i-1}) = \frac{f_{\mathbf{U}|Y^{i-2}}(\mathbf{u}|y^{i-2})P(Y_{i-1} = y_{i-1}|Y^{i-2} = y^{i-2}, \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{u})}{P(Y_{i-1} = y_{i-1}|Y^{i-2} = y^{i-2})}$$
(2.88)

$$= \frac{f_{\mathbf{U}|\mathbf{Y}^{i-2}}(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y}^{i-2})P(Y_{i-1} = y_{i-1}|Y^{i-2} = y^{i-2}, \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{u})}{\sum_{\mathbf{x}^{i-1} \in \mathcal{I}^{i-1}} P(Y_{i-1} = y_{i-1}|Y^{i-2} = y^{i-2}, X^{i-1} = x^{i-1}) \int_{\alpha(\mathbf{x}^{i-1})} f_{\mathbf{U}|Y^{i-2}}(\mathbf{u}|y^{i-2})},$$
(2.89)

where  $\alpha(x^{i-1}) = S_{x_{i-1}|y^{i-2}}^{(i-1)} \cap S_{x_{i-2}|y^{i-3}}^{(i-2)} \cap S_{x_{i-3}|y^{i-4}}^{(i-3)} \cap \cdots \cap S_{x_1}^{(1)}$  (i.e., the intersection of the encoding regions corresponding to received sequence  $y^{i-2}$  and encoded sequence  $x^{i-1}$ ).

The encoded sequence for source vector  $\mathbf{u}$  is built recursively, where the encoded index at the *i*-th stage depends on all the previous encoded indices  $x_{i-1}, \ldots, x_1$ . Correspondingly, for notational simplicity, we represent the indices for each stage as a recursive formula. For  $Y^{i-1} = y^{i-1}$  let

$$\gamma^{(1)}(\mathbf{u}) = \mathcal{E}^{(1)}(\mathbf{u}) \tag{2.90}$$

$$\gamma_{y_1}^{(2)}(\mathbf{u}) = \mathcal{E}^{(2)}(\mathcal{E}^{(1)}(\mathbf{u}), y_1, \mathbf{u})$$
 (2.91)

$$= \mathcal{E}^{(2)}(\gamma^{(1)}(\mathbf{u}), y_1, \mathbf{u}) \tag{2.92}$$

$$\gamma_{y^2}^{(3)}(\mathbf{u}) = \mathcal{E}^{(3)}(\mathcal{E}^{(2)}(\mathcal{E}^{(1)}(\mathbf{u}), y_1, \mathbf{u}), \mathcal{E}^{(1)}(\mathbf{u}), y_2, y_1, \mathbf{u})$$
(2.93)

$$= \mathcal{E}^{(3)}(\gamma_{y_1}^{(2)}(\mathbf{u}), \gamma^{(1)}(\mathbf{u}), y_2, y_1, \mathbf{u})$$
(2.94)

$$\vdots (2.95)$$

$$\gamma_{y^{i-1}}^{(i)}(\mathbf{u}) = \mathcal{E}^{(i)}(\gamma_{y^{i-2}}^{(i-1)}(\mathbf{u}), \dots, \gamma^{(1)}(\mathbf{u}), y^{i-1}, \mathbf{u}). \tag{2.96}$$

That is, for received sequence  $y^{j-1}$ ,  $\gamma_{y^{j-1}}^{(j)}(\mathbf{u})$  represents the encoded index at stage j for all  $j=1,\ldots,i$ . Let  $\gamma_{y^{i-1}}^i(\mathbf{u})=(\gamma_{y^{i-1}}^{(i)}(\mathbf{u}),\ldots,\gamma^{(1)}(\mathbf{u}))$  With an abuse of notation, let

$$d'_{i}(\mathbf{u}; y^{i-1}, \gamma_{y^{i-2}}^{i-1}(\mathbf{u}), x_{i}) = \sum_{y_{i} \in \mathcal{I}^{(i)}} P(Y_{i} = y_{i} | X_{i} = x_{i}, Y^{i-1} = y^{i-1}, X^{i-1} = \gamma_{y^{i-2}}^{i-1}(\mathbf{u})) \left\| \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{c}_{y_{i} | y^{i-1}}^{(i)} \right\|^{2}$$
(2.97)

be the expected distortion at stage i, when  $\mathbf{u}$  is encoded with  $x_i \in \mathcal{I}^{(i)}$  given received sequence  $Y^{i-1} = y^{i-1}$  and encoded sequence  $X^{i-1} = x^{i-1}$ . Note that at stage i,  $y^{i-1}$  and  $\gamma_{y^{i-2}}^{i-1}(\mathbf{u})$  are fixed values. It then follows that given fixed codebook  $\mathcal{C}_{y^{i-1}}^{(i)}$ ,

an optimal *i*th stage quantizer will have encoding regions that satisfy the following generalized nearest neighbor condition:

$$S_{x_{i}|y^{i-1}}^{(i)} = \{ \mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^{k} : d'_{i}(\mathbf{u}; y^{i-1}, \gamma_{y^{i-2}}^{i-1}(\mathbf{u}), x_{i}) \le d'_{i}(\mathbf{u}; y^{i-1}, \gamma_{y^{i-2}}^{i-1}(\mathbf{u}), x'_{i}),$$

$$x'_{i} \in \mathcal{I}^{(i)} \} \quad x_{i} \in \mathcal{I}^{(i)}, y^{i-1} \in \mathcal{I}^{i-1}.$$

$$(2.98)$$

Conversely, it follows that for fixed partition  $S_{y^{i-1}}^{(i)}$  that an optimal *i*th stage quantizer will have encoding regions that satisfy the following generalized centroid condition:

$$\mathbf{c}_{y_i|y^{i-1}}^{(i)} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\omega} \in \mathbb{R}^k} E[d(\mathbf{U}, \boldsymbol{\omega})|Y^i = y^i]$$
(2.99)

which, under the square error distortion, reduces to

$$\mathbf{c}_{u_i|u^{i-1}}^{(i)} = E[\mathbf{U}|Y^i = y^i]. \tag{2.100}$$

Similar to CM-TSVQ and the LBG quantizer, locally optimal ACOVQs can be designed, given an initial set of encoding regions and codebook, by repeatedly applying the nearest neighbor and centroid conditions until convergence. However, unlike CM-TSVQ, the value of the reconstructed vector is

$$\hat{\mathbf{u}}^{(i)} = \mathbf{c}_{y_i|y^{i-1}}^{(i)} \tag{2.101}$$

for channel output sequence  $Y^i = y^i$ . Note that in this case, only the last set of codebooks are used for the reconstructed vector, whereas in CM-TSVQ, all codewords

from all previous stage codebooks are used.

#### 2.8 Initial Codebook Design

As noted earlier, the generalized LBG-Algorithm converges to a local minimum and requires an initial codebook to find an optimal quantizer. The choice of the initial codebook is important to avoid "bad" local minima. A naive method would be to select N random vectors for a codebook with N codewords. However, in [11] [13], the authors proposed an algorithm for index assignment that, in general, outperforms random assignment. The distortion for a VQ through a noisy channel can be rewritten as [17]:

$$D = E[d(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{c_Y})] \tag{2.102}$$

$$= \sum_{x \in \mathcal{I}} \int_{S_x} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{I}} \left[ P(Y = y | X = x) \| \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{c}_y \|^2 \right] f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}$$
 (2.103)

$$= \sum_{x \in \mathcal{I}} \int_{S_x} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{I}} \left[ P(Y = y | X = x) \left\| (\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{c}_x) + (\mathbf{c}_x - \mathbf{c}_y) \right\|^2 \right] f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}$$
 (2.104)

$$= \sum_{x \in \mathcal{I}} \int_{S_x} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{I}} \left[ P(Y = y | X = x) (\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{c}_x\|^2 + \|\mathbf{c}_x - \mathbf{c}_y\|^2 + (2.105) \right]$$

$$(\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{c}_{x})(\mathbf{c}_{x} - \mathbf{c}_{y})^{T}) \int f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}$$

$$= \underbrace{\sum_{x \in \mathcal{I}} \int_{S_{x}} \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{c}_{x}\|^{2} f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}}_{D_{q}} + \underbrace{\sum_{x \in \mathcal{I}} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{I}} P(Y = y | X = x) \|\mathbf{c}_{x} - \mathbf{c}_{y}\|^{2}}_{D_{c}}$$

$$+ \underbrace{\sum_{x \in \mathcal{I}} \int_{S_{x}} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{I}} \left( (\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{c}_{x}) (\mathbf{c}_{x} - \mathbf{c}_{y})^{T} \right) f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}}_{D_{x}}.$$

$$(2.106)$$

Therefore, the overall distortion can be decomposed into the following components:  $D_q$ ,  $D_c$ , and  $D_*$ , the distortions from the quantizer, the channel, and the cross-term, respectively. However, for a quantizer satisfying the VQ centroid condition,  $D_* = 0$  and the overall distortion can be written as

$$D = D_q + D_c. (2.107)$$

Let  $\tau$  represent an index assignment such that

$$\tau: \mathcal{I} \to \mathcal{I} \tag{2.108}$$

is a 1-to-1 function. The goal of the simulated annealing algorithm proposed in [11] is to find an index  $\tau$  that minimizes  $D_c$ , where

$$D_c(\tau) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{I}} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{I}} P(Y = \tau(y)|X = \tau(x)) \|\mathbf{c}_y - \mathbf{c}_x\|^2$$
(2.109)

is the channel distortion given the index assignment  $\tau$ . The simulated annealing algorithm is as follows.

- 1. Let T represent an effective temperature and set  $T = T_0$  as the initial temperature. Set initial values for  $\alpha$ ,  $N_{success}$ ,  $N_{failure}$ ,  $N_{cut}$ . Choose a random state  $\tau$ .
- 2. Randomly choose another state  $\tau'$  and let  $\Delta D_c = D_c(\tau') D_c(\tau)$ . If  $\Delta D_c < 0$ , then set b = b' and go to step 3. Otherwise, set b = b' with probability  $e^{-\Delta D_c/T}$  and go to step 3.

$T_0$	10
$T_f$	$2.5 \times 10^{-4}$
α	0.97
$N_{failure}$	50000
$N_{success}$	5
$N_{cut}$	200

Table 2.1: Simulated annealing parameters.

- 3. If the number of decreases in distortion, or "energy drops," exceeds  $N_{success}$  then go to step 4. If the number of attempts exceeds  $N_{cut}$ , then go to step 4.
- 4. Set  $T = \alpha T$ . If  $T < T_f$  or the number of unsuccessful "energy drop" attempts exceed  $N_{failure}$ , then stop the algorithm and return  $\tau$ . Otherwise go to step 2.

Table 2.1 lists the parameter values used for initialization in this thesis for the simulated annealing algorithm.

# Chapter 3

Tree Structured Vector

Quantization With Noiseless

### Feedback

#### 3.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, different multi-stage quantization schemes were explored, including CM-TSVQ and ACOVQ. As noted earlier, CM-TSVQ is optimized for systems without noiseless feedback, while ACOVQ is optimized for systems with noiseless feedback. Given that both schemes are tree structured and have a successive refinement approach to quantizing the source, a natural question is whether CM-TSVQ can be generalized for systems with noiseless feedback and how it would compare to ACOVQ. We will call the CM-TSVQ generalized for noiseless feedback

the Adaptive Tree Structured Vector Quantizer (ATSVQ). In this section, we will derive the nearest neighbor and centroid conditions for ATSVQ and show that the resulting quantizer is in fact equivalent to ACOVQ (i.e., both schemes have equivalent nearest neighbor and centroid conditions).

#### 3.2 Preliminaries

Let **U** be a k-dimensional random vector with probability density function  $f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u})$  and support  $\mathbb{R}^k$ . Let  $\mathbf{b} = (b_1, \dots, b_n)$  be the bit allocation vector for a n-stage ATSVQ and let  $N_i = 2^{bi}$  represent the size of the codebook at stage i. Let  $\mathcal{S}^{(1,AT)} = \{S_0^{(1,AT)}, \dots, S_{N_1-1}^{(1,AT)}\}$  and  $\mathcal{C}^{(1,AT)} = \{\mathbf{c}_0^{(1,AT)}, \dots, \mathbf{c}_{N_1-1}^{(1,AT)}\}$  denote the encoding regions and codebook for the first stage of the ATSVQ, respectively. For  $i \in \{2, \dots, n\}$ , let  $\mathcal{S}_{y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)} = \{S_{0|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)}, \dots, S_{N_i-1|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)}\}$  and  $\mathcal{C}_{y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)} = \{\mathbf{c}_{0|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)}, \dots, \mathbf{c}_{N_i-1|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)}\}$  be the encoding regions and codebook for the i-th stage with received sequence  $Y^{i-1} = y^{i-1}$ , respectively. The first stage of ATSVQ consists of a COVQ without any modifications.

#### 3.2.1 Second Stage Derivations

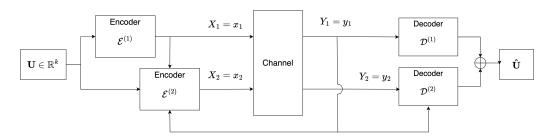


Figure 3.1: Communication block diagram for a two-stage ATSVQ.

The goal of each stage of CM-TSVQ after the first stage is to estimate the expected coding error from all the preceding quantizers and refine the quantization by adding a codeword to the existing quantization. In this section, we examine how noiseless feedback affects the optimality conditions for the second stage ATSVQ. When deriving the necessary conditions for optimality, we will assume that  $\mathcal{S}^{(1)}$  and  $\mathcal{C}^{(1)}$  are fixed. Consider the system's block diagram in Figure 3.1. The ATSVQ encoder and decoder can be described by the following functions:

$$\mathcal{E}^{(2,AT)}: \mathbb{R}^k \times \mathcal{I}^{(1)} \times \mathcal{I}^{(1)} \to \mathcal{I}^{(2)}$$
(3.1)

$$\mathcal{D}^{(2,AT)}: \mathcal{I}^{(2)} \times \mathcal{I}^{(1)} \to \mathbb{R}^k. \tag{3.2}$$

Given the channel feedback output  $Y_1 = y_1$ , the expected distortion of the second stage quantizer is

$$\begin{split} E[d(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{c}_{Y_{1}}^{(1,AT)} + \mathbf{c}_{Y_{2}|Y_{1}}^{(2,AT)})|Y_{1} &= y_{1}] \\ &= \sum_{y_{2}, x_{2} \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}} \sum_{x_{1} \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}} P(Y_{2} = y_{2}|X_{2} = x_{2}, Y_{1} = y_{1}, X_{1} = x_{1}) \\ &\times \int_{S_{x_{1}}^{(1,AT)} \cap S_{x_{2}|y_{1}}^{(2,AT)}} d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{c}_{y_{1}}^{(1,AT)} + \mathbf{c}_{y_{2}|y_{1}}^{(2,AT)}) f_{\mathbf{U}|Y_{1}}(\mathbf{u}|y_{1}) d\mathbf{u}. \end{split}$$

The expected distortion of the entire ATSVQ (without knowledge of  $Y_1$ ) is

$$E[d(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{c}_{Y_1}^{(1,AT)} + \mathbf{c}_{Y_2|Y_1}^{(2,AT)})] = \sum_{y_1 \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}} E[d(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{c}_{Y_1}^{(1,AT)} + \mathbf{c}_{Y_2|Y_1}^{(2,AT)})|Y_1 = y_1]P(Y_1 = y_1) \quad (3.3)$$

$$= \sum_{y_2, x_2 \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}} \sum_{y_1, x_1 \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}} P(Y_2 = y_2 | X_2 = x_2, Y_1 = y_1, X_1 = x_1)$$

$$\times \int_{S_{x_1}^{(1,AT)} \cap S_{x_2|y_1}^{(2,AT)}} d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(1,AT)} + \mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2,AT)}) f_{\mathbf{U}|Y_1}(\mathbf{u}|y_1) d\mathbf{u}.$$
(3.4)

Given feedback  $y_1$ , the modified distortion function is

$$d'_{2}(\mathbf{u}; \mathcal{E}^{(1,AT)}(\mathbf{u}), x_{2}, y_{1})$$

$$= \sum_{y_{2} \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}} P(Y_{2} = y_{2} | X_{2} = x_{2}, Y_{1} = y_{1}, X_{1} = \mathcal{E}^{(1,AT)}(\mathbf{u})) \left\| \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{c}_{y_{1}}^{(1,AT)} - \mathbf{c}_{y_{2}|y_{1}}^{(2,AT)} \right\|^{2}.$$
(3.5)

Thus as in the ACOVQ case, we can rewrite the expected distortion of the second stage quantizer as

$$E[d(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{c}_{Y_{1}}^{(1,AT)} + \mathbf{c}_{Y_{2}|Y_{1}}^{(1,AT)})|Y_{1} = y_{1}]$$

$$= \sum_{x_{1} \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}} \sum_{x_{2} \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}} \int_{S_{x_{1}}^{(1,AT)} \cap S_{x_{2}|y_{1}}^{(2,AT)}} d'(\mathbf{u}; x_{1}, x_{2}, y_{1}) f_{\mathbf{U}|Y_{1}}(\mathbf{u}|y_{1}) d\mathbf{u}$$

$$= \sum_{y_{2} \in \mathcal{I}^{(\epsilon)}} E[d(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{c}_{Y_{1}}^{(1,AT)} + \mathbf{c}_{Y_{2}|Y_{1}}^{(1,AT)})|Y_{1} = y_{1}, Y_{2} = y_{2}] P(Y_{2} = y_{2}|Y_{1} = y_{1}).$$
 (3.7)

It then follows from (3.7) that for fixed codebook  $C_{y_1}^{(2)}$ , the partition of the optimal second stage quantizer satisfies the following generalized nearest neighbor condition:

$$S_{x_2|y_1}^{(2)} = \{ \mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^k : d_2'(\mathbf{u}; \mathcal{E}^{(1)}(\mathbf{u}), x_2, y_1) \le d_2'(\mathbf{u}; \mathcal{E}^{(1)}(\mathbf{u}), x_2', y_1), x_2' \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)} \},$$

$$x_2 \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}, y_1 \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}. \tag{3.8}$$

It also follows from (3.6) that for fixed partition  $S_{y_1}^{(2,AT)}$ , the codebook of the optimal second stage quantizer satisfies the following generalized centroid condition:

$$\mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2,AT)} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\omega} \in \mathbb{R}^k} E[d(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{c}_{Y_1}^{(1,AT)} + \boldsymbol{\omega})|Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2]. \tag{3.9}$$

Under the square error distortion, this reduces to

$$\mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2,AT)} = E[\mathbf{U}|Y_2 = y_2, Y_1 = y_1] - \mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(1,AT)}.$$
(3.10)

#### 3.2.2 Generalization for Multiple Stages

Here, we will derive the ATSVQ nearest neighbor and centroid conditions for stage  $i \geq 2$ . Assume that we have the received sequence  $Y^{i-1} = y^{i-1}$  and fixed partitions and fixed codebooks  $\mathcal{S}^{(1,AT)}, \mathcal{S}^{(2,AT)}_{y_1}, \ldots, \mathcal{S}^{(i-1,AT)}_{y^{i-2}}$  and  $\mathcal{C}^{(1,AT)}, \mathcal{C}^{(2,AT)}_{y_1}, \ldots, \mathcal{C}^{(i-1,AT)}_{y^{i-2}}$ , respectively. Let  $\mathcal{S}^{(i,AT)}_{y^{i-1}}$  and  $\mathcal{C}^{(i,AT)}_{y^{i-1}}$  be the partitions and codebook for the *i*-th stage quantizer with feedback  $Y^{i-1} = y^{i-1}$ . The encoder and decoder for the ATSVQ at the *i*-th stage can be characterized by the following functions:

$$\mathcal{E}^{(i,AT)}: \mathbb{R}^k \times \mathcal{I}^{i-1} \times \mathcal{I}^{i-1} \to \mathcal{I}^{(i)}$$
(3.11)

$$\mathcal{D}^{(i,AT)}: \mathcal{I}^i \to \mathbb{R}^k, \tag{3.12}$$

where  $\mathcal{I}^i = \mathcal{I}^{(1)} \times \mathcal{I}^{(2)} \times \cdots \times \mathcal{I}^{(i)}$ . Similar to the ACOVQ recursive encoding functions in (2.90) - (2.96), we recursively use  $\zeta_{y^{i-1}}^{(i)}$  to denote the encoded sequence for the

i stages of ATSVQ. For  $Y^{i-1} = y^{i-1}$ , let

$$\zeta^{(1)}(\mathbf{u}) = \mathcal{E}^{(1,AT)}(\mathbf{u}) \tag{3.13}$$

$$\zeta_{u^1}^{(2)}(\mathbf{u}) = \mathcal{E}^{(2,AT)}(\mathcal{E}^{(1,AT)}(\mathbf{u}), y_1, \mathbf{u})$$
(3.14)

$$= \mathcal{E}^{(2,AT)}(\zeta^{(1)}(\mathbf{u}), y_1, \mathbf{u}) \tag{3.15}$$

$$\vdots (3.16)$$

$$\zeta_{y^{i-1}}^{(i)}(\mathbf{u}) = \mathcal{E}^{(i,AT)}(\zeta_{y^{i-2}}^{(i-1)}(\mathbf{u}), \dots, \zeta^{(1)}(\mathbf{u}), y^{i-1}, \mathbf{u}). \tag{3.17}$$

That is, for the received sequence  $y^{i-1}$ ,  $\zeta_{y^{j-1}}^{(j)}(\mathbf{u})$  represents the encoded index at stage j for all  $j=1,\ldots,i$ . Let  $\zeta_{y^{i-1}}^i(\mathbf{u})=(\zeta_{y^{i-1}}^{(i)}(\mathbf{u}),\zeta_{y^{i-2}}^{(i-1)}(\mathbf{u}),\ldots,\zeta^{(1)}(\mathbf{u}))$ . Given feedback  $Y^{i-1}=y^{i-1}$ , we have that the expected distortion at the ith stage is given by

$$E[d(\mathbf{U}, Q(\mathbf{U}))|Y^{i-1} = y^{i-1}]$$

$$= \sum_{y_i \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}} \sum_{x^i \in \mathcal{I}^i} \int_{\alpha(x^{i-1})} P(Y_i = y_i | Y^{i-1} = y^{i-1}, X^i = x^i)$$
(3.18)

$$\times d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(1,AT)} + \mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2,AT)} + \dots + \mathbf{c}_{y_i|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)}) f_{\mathbf{U}|\mathbf{Y}^{i-1}}(\mathbf{u}|y^i) d\mathbf{u}$$
(3.19)

$$= \sum_{y_i \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}} \sum_{x^i \in \mathcal{I}^i} \int_{\alpha(x^{i-1})} P(Y_i = y_i | Y^{i-1} = y^{i-1}, X^i = x^i)$$

$$\times \left\| \mathbf{u} - (\mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(1,AT)} + \mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2,AT)} + \dots + \mathbf{c}_{y_i|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)}) \right\|^2 f_{\mathbf{U}|\mathbf{Y}^{i-1}}(\mathbf{u}|y^i) d\mathbf{u}$$
(3.20)

where  $\alpha(x^{i-1}) = S_{x_{i-1}|y^{i-2}}^{(i-1,AT)} \cap S_{x_{i-2}|y^{i-3}}^{(i-2,AT)} \cap S_{x_{i-3}|y^{i-4}}^{(i-3,AT)} \cap \cdots \cap S_{x_1}^{(1,AT)}$ , which are the encoding regions corresponding to the sequence  $X^{i-1} = x^{i-1}$  given feedback  $Y^{i-2} = y^{i-2}$ . Let  $d_i'(\mathbf{u}; x_i, \zeta_{y^{i-2}}^{i-1}(\mathbf{u}), y^{i-1})$  represent the modified distortion at the ith stage, which can

be expressed as

$$d'_{i}(\mathbf{u}; x_{i}, \zeta_{y^{i-2}}^{i-1}(\mathbf{u}), y^{i-1})$$

$$= \sum_{y_{i} \in \mathcal{I}^{(i)}} P(Y_{i} = y_{i} | X_{i} = x_{i}, X^{i-1} = \zeta_{y^{i-2}}^{i-1}(\mathbf{u}), Y^{i-1} = y^{i-1})$$

$$\times d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{c}_{y_{1}}^{(1,AT)} + \mathbf{c}_{y_{2}|y_{1}}^{(2,AT)} + \dots + \mathbf{c}_{y_{i}|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)})$$

$$= \sum_{y_{i} \in \mathcal{I}^{(i)}} P(Y_{i} = y_{i} | X_{i} = x_{i}, X^{i-1} = \zeta_{y^{i-2}}^{i-1}(\mathbf{u}), Y^{i-1} = y^{i-1})$$

$$\times \left\| \mathbf{u} - (\mathbf{c}_{y_{1}}^{(1,AT)} + \mathbf{c}_{y_{2}|y_{1}}^{(2,AT)} + \dots + \mathbf{c}_{y_{i}|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)}) \right\|^{2}.$$

$$(3.22)$$

The expected distortion can then be rewritten as

$$E[d(\mathbf{U}, Q(\mathbf{U}))|Y^{i-1} = y^{i-1}]$$

$$= \sum_{x^{i} \in \mathcal{I}^{i}} \int_{\alpha(x^{i-1})} d'(\mathbf{u}; x_{i}, x^{i-1}, y^{i-1}) f_{\mathbf{U}|Y^{i-1}}(\mathbf{u}|y^{i-1}) d\mathbf{u}$$

$$= \sum_{y^{i} \in \mathcal{I}^{(i)}} P(Y_{i} = y_{i}|Y^{i-1} = y^{i-1}) E[d(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{c}_{y_{1}}^{(1,AT)} + \dots + \mathbf{c}_{y_{i}|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)})|Y^{i} = y^{i}]. \quad (3.24)$$

It follows from (3.23) that for fixed codebook  $C_{y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)}$ , the optimal *i*-th stage quantizer will have encoding regions satisfying

$$S_{x_{i}|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)} = \{ \mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^{k} : d'_{i}(\mathbf{u}; x_{i}, \zeta_{y^{i-2}}^{i-1}(\mathbf{u}), y^{i-1}) \le d'_{i}(\mathbf{u}; x'_{i}, \zeta_{y^{i-2}}^{i-1}(\mathbf{u}), y^{i-1}), \quad x'_{i} \in \mathcal{I}^{(i)} \},$$

$$x_{i} \in \mathcal{I}^{(i)}, y^{i-1} \in \mathcal{I}^{i-1}.$$

$$(3.25)$$

It also follows from (3.24) that for fixed partition  $S_{y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)}$ , the optimal *i*-th stage quantizer will have a codebook with codewords given by

$$\mathbf{c}_{y_{i}|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\omega} \in \mathbb{R}^{k}} E[d(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{c}_{y_{1}}^{(1,AT)} + \dots + \mathbf{c}_{y_{i}|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)} + \boldsymbol{\omega})|Y^{i} = y^{i}], \tag{3.26}$$

which under the square error distortion, becomes (as shown in Appendix A)

$$\mathbf{c}_{y_i|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)} = E[\mathbf{U}|Y^i = y^i] - (\mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(1,AT)} + \dots + \mathbf{c}_{y_i|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)}). \tag{3.27}$$

In addition to the tree like structures present, we can already see that ACOVQ and ATSVQ share similarities in their generalized nearest neighbor and centroid conditions. In the next section, we show that these conditions are indeed equivalent.

#### 3.3 Equivalence of ATSVQ and ACOVQ

The *overall* encoder and decoder at stage i of ATSVQ is given by

$$\mathcal{E}_{AT}^i: \mathbb{R}^k \times \mathcal{I}^{i-1} \to \mathcal{I}^i$$
, such that  $\mathcal{E}_{AT}^i(\mathbf{u}, y^{i-1}) = \zeta_{u^{i-1}}^i(\mathbf{u})$  (3.28)

 $\mathcal{D}_{AT}^i:\mathcal{I}^i\to\mathbb{R}^k$ , such that

$$\mathcal{D}_{AT}^{i}(y^{i}) = \mathcal{D}^{(1,AT)}(y_{1}) + \mathcal{D}^{(2,AT)}(y_{2}, y_{1}) + \dots + \mathcal{D}^{(i,AT)}(y^{i}), \tag{3.29}$$

and let the overall encoder and decoder at stage i of the ACOVQ be defined as

$$\mathcal{E}_{AC}^i: \mathbb{R}^k \times \mathcal{I}^{i-1} \to \mathcal{I}^i$$
, such that  $\mathcal{E}_{AC}^i(\mathbf{u}, y^{i-1}) = \gamma_{y^{i-1}}^i(\mathbf{u})$  (3.30)

$$\mathcal{D}_{AC}^i: \mathcal{I}^i \to \mathbb{R}^k$$
, such that  $\mathcal{D}_{AC}^i(y^i) = \mathcal{D}^{(i,AC)}(y^i)$ . (3.31)

In this section, we show that the generalized nearest neighbor and centroid conditions of the ATSVQ and ACOVQ will lead to equivalent overall encoders under certain conditions.

#### 3.3.1 Conditions for Equivalence

Let  $C^{(1,AC)}$ ,  $C^{(2,AC)}_{y_1}$  and  $S^{(1,AC)}$ ,  $S^{(2,AC)}_{y_1}$  be the codebook and partitions for a 2 stage ACOVQ, respectively, and let  $C^{(1,AT)}$ ,  $C^{(2,AT)}_{y_1}$  and  $S^{(1,AT)}$ ,  $S^{(2,AT)}_{y_1}$  be the codebook and partitions for a 2 stage ATSVQ, respectively, with channel output  $Y_1 = y_1$  received at the encoders via a noiseless feedback link. We assume that the bit allocations for both quantizers and the first stage quantizers for ATSVQ and ACOVQ are equivalent (i.e.,  $C^{(1,AC)} = C^{(1,AT)}$  and  $S^{(1,AC)} = S^{(1,AT)}$ ). Consider the ATSVQ generalized centroid condition given in (3.9), which states that for a fixed first stage quantizer and fixed partitions  $S^{(2,AT)}_{y_1}$  an optimal second stage quantizer must have a codebook that satisfies

$$\mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2,AT)} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\omega} \in \mathbb{R}^k} E[d(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{c}_{Y_1}^{(1,AT)} + \boldsymbol{\omega})|Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2]$$
(3.32)

$$= \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\omega} \in \mathbb{R}^k} E[d(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(1,AT)} + \boldsymbol{\omega})|Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2].$$
 (3.33)

Let  $z = \mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(1,AT)} + \boldsymbol{\omega} \implies \boldsymbol{\omega} = z - \mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(1,AT)}$ . Since  $\mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(2,AT)}$  is constant given  $Y_1 = y_1$ , we have (after a change of variables) that

$$\mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2,AT)} = \arg\min_{z - \mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(1,AT)}} E[d(\mathbf{U}, z)|Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2]$$
(3.34)

$$\implies \mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2,AT)} + \mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(1,AT)} = \arg\min_{z \in \mathbb{R}^k} E[d(\mathbf{U}, z)|Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2], \tag{3.35}$$

which under square error distortion becomes

$$\mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2,AT)} + \mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(1,AT)} = E[\mathbf{U}|Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2], \tag{3.36}$$

Note that the right-hand side of (3.36) is exactly the centroid condition of ACOVQ in (2.87). The value of the expectation is solely defined by the partitions in the first and second stage and the channel. Thus, assuming that the partitions of ATSVQ and ACOVQ are equivalent and satisfy the nearest neighbor condition, under the square error distortion we have that  $\mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2,AT)} + \mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(2,AT)} = \mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2,AC)}$  for all  $y_2 \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}$ . Note that this implies that the overall second stage decoders are equivalent (i.e.,  $\mathcal{D}_{AT}^2(y_1, y_2) = \mathcal{D}_{AC}^2(y_1, y_2)$ ).

Now assume that  $\mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2,AT)} + \mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(2,AT)} = \mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2,AC)}$  for all  $y_2 \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}$  (i.e., equivalent overall decoders). The generalized nearest neighbor condition states that for a fixed first stage quantizer and fixed codebook  $\mathcal{C}_{y_2}^{(2,AT)}$ , the optimal second stage quantizer for

ATSVQ will have partitions that satisfy

$$S_{x_{2}|y_{1}}^{(2,AT)} = \{ \mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^{k} : d_{2}'(\mathbf{u}; \mathcal{E}^{(1,AT)}(\mathbf{u}), x_{2}, y_{1}) \leq d_{2}'(\mathbf{u}; \mathcal{E}^{(1,AT)}(\mathbf{u}), x_{2}', y_{1}), \quad x_{2}' \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)} \},$$

$$x_{2} \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}, y_{1} \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)},$$

$$(3.37)$$

where the modified distortion is given by

$$d'_{2}(\mathbf{u}; \mathcal{E}^{(1,AT)}(\mathbf{u}), x_{2}, y_{1})$$

$$= \sum_{y_{2} \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}} P(Y_{2} = y_{2} | X_{2} = x_{2}, Y_{1} = y_{1}, X_{1} = \mathcal{E}^{(1,AT)}(\mathbf{u})) \left\| \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{c}_{y_{1}}^{(1,AT)} - \mathbf{c}_{y_{2} | y_{1}}^{(2,AT)} \right\|^{2}.$$
(3.38)

With the assumption that  $\mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2,AT)} + \mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(2,AT)} = \mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2,AC)}$  for all  $y_2 \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}$  and equivalent first stage encoders, the modified distortion can be rewritten as

$$d'_{2}(\mathbf{u}; \mathcal{E}^{(1,AT)}(\mathbf{u}), x_{2}, y_{1})$$

$$= \sum_{y_{2} \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}} P(Y_{2} = y_{2} | X_{2} = x_{2}, Y_{1} = y_{1}, X_{1} = \mathcal{E}^{(1,AC)}(\mathbf{u})) \left\| \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{c}_{y_{2}|y_{1}}^{(2,AC)} \right\|^{2}, \quad (3.39)$$

which is the modified distortion for ACOVQ in (2.82), implying that the second stage generalized nearest neighbor conditions are equivalent.

Note that the codebooks and partitions satisfying the generalized nearest neighbor and centroid conditions may not be unique, but may be chosen arbitrarily without affecting the expected distortion. The consequences of these properties is that when initializing the second stage with either the same partitions or codebooks such that  $\mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2,AT)} + \mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(2,AT)} = \mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2,AC)}$  for all  $y_2 \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}$  and applying the generalized LBG-algorithm, we can see that ATSVQ and ACOVQ will converge to equivalent encoders and decoders. Consequently, this shows that in the communication model with feedback, there is no difference between successively refining by quantizing the coding error and refining by quantizing a distribution conditioned on feedback. A similar proof can be done in the general case for a quantizer at stage i with received sequence  $Y^{i-1} = y^{i-1}$ .

#### 3.4 Simulations Results

In this section, we present the results of experimental simulations evaluating the performance of ACOVQ and demonstrate the empirical equivalence between the ATSVQ and ACOVQ. We begin by describing the channel model and the computation of block transition probabilities, followed by a presentation of the simulation results. Up to this point, the transition probabilities for the channel indices have been kept general. However, only the binary Polya contagion channel with Markov memory 1 (M = 1) is considered for simulations in this thesis. In the following section, we detail how these transition probabilities are assigned.

#### 3.4.1 Channel Properties

The way that the channel indices are transmitted in the simulations is that an input index is converted into a binary vector. Afterwards the vector is transmitted through the Polya contagion channel bit-by-bit. Also, if the channel has memory, the channel memory is preserved between stages (i.e., the channel noise in the current stage is correlated with the channel noise in the previous stages). Let  $\beta_l : \mathbb{N} \to \{0,1\}^l$  be a function that outputs the l-bit binary representation of an integer (e.g.,  $\beta_4(3) = (0,0,1,1)$ ), and let  $\oplus$  represent modulo-2 bit-wise addition. Recall from Chapter 2 that the Polya channel with memory M=1 is a discrete channel where the channel noise  $\{Z_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  is characterized by  $P(Z_i=1)=\epsilon$ , for i=1, and

$$P(Z_i = 1 | Z_{i-1} = e_{i-1}, \dots, Z_1 = e_1) = P(Z_i = 1 | Z_{i-1} = e_{i-1})$$
 (3.40)

$$=\frac{\epsilon + e_{i-1}\delta}{1+\delta},\tag{3.41}$$

for  $i \geq 2$ , where  $e_j \in \{0,1\}, j = 1,2,\ldots,i-1$ . Let  $\mathbf{b} = (b_1,\ldots,b_i)$  be the bit allocation vector and let  $x^i \in \mathcal{I}^i$  and  $y^{i-1} \in \mathcal{I}^{i-1}$  represent the encoded and received indices respectively. Let  $B_j = \sum_{l=1}^j b_l$  and let  $Z_l^p = (Z_{l+1}, Z_{l+2}, \ldots, Z_p)$ , for l < p, and  $Z^l = (Z_1, \ldots, Z_l)$  for  $l \geq 2$ . Then the binary noise at stage-j can be represented as

$$Z_{B_j}^{B_{j+1}} = \beta_{b_j}(x_j) \oplus \beta_{b_j}(y_j). \tag{3.42}$$

Note that we can also "concatenate" the binary representation of the channel indices as follows

$$Z^{B_j} = \beta_{B_j} \left( \sum_{l=1}^{j} x_l \cdot 2^{B_l} \right) \oplus \beta_{B_j} \left( \sum_{l=1}^{j} y_l \cdot 2^{B_l} \right), \tag{3.43}$$

for all j = 1, ..., i. Note that  $\left(\sum_{l=1}^{j} x_l \cdot 2^{B_l}\right)$  and  $\left(\sum_{l=1}^{j} y_l \cdot 2^{B_l}\right)$  are integers in  $\{0, 1, ..., 2^{B_j} - 1\}$ . The results in (3.43) are equivalent to calculating the entire noise sequence using (3.42), but (3.43) can serve as a practical alternative to calculating the binary sequence. We then have that the transition probability of  $Y_i = y_i$  given  $X^i = x^i$  and  $Y^{i-1} = y^{i-1}$  is

$$P(Y_{i} = y_{i}|X^{i} = x^{i}, Y^{i-1} = y^{i-1})$$

$$= P(Z_{B_{i-1}}^{B_{i}} = \beta_{b_{i}}(x_{i}) \oplus \beta_{b_{i}}(y_{i})|Z_{B_{i-2}}^{B_{i-1}} = \beta_{b_{i-1}}(x_{i-1}) \oplus \beta_{b_{i-1}}(y_{i-1}), \dots,$$

$$Z^{b_{1}} = \beta_{b_{1}}(x_{1}) \oplus \beta_{b_{1}}(y_{1})) \qquad (3.44)$$

$$= P\left(Z_{B_{i-1}}^{B_{i}} = \beta_{b_{i}}(x_{i}) \oplus \beta_{b_{i}}(y_{i}) \middle| Z^{B_{i-1}} = \beta_{B_{i-1}} \left(\sum_{l=1}^{i-1} x_{l} \cdot 2^{B_{l}}\right) \right)$$

$$\oplus \beta_{B_{i-1}} \left(\sum_{l=1}^{i-1} y_{l} \cdot 2^{B_{l}}\right) \right). \qquad (3.45)$$

Let  $z_{B_{i-1}}^{B_i} = \beta_{b_i}(x_i) \oplus \beta_{b_i}(y_i)$  and  $z_{l-1}^{B_{i-1}} = \beta_{B_{i-1}} \left( \sum_{l=1}^{i-1} x_l \cdot 2^{B_l} \right) \oplus \beta_{B_{i-1}} \left( \sum_{l=1}^{i-1} y_l \cdot 2^{B_l} \right)$ . For a Polya channel with memory (M = 1), we then have that (3.45) evaluates to

$$P(Z_{B_{i-1}}^{B_i} = z_{B_{i-1}}^{B_i} | Z^{B_{i-1}} = z^{B_{i-1}}) = P(Z_{B_{i-1}}^{B_i} = z_{B_{i-1}}^{B_i} | Z_{B_{i-1}} = z_{B_{i-1}})$$
(3.46)

$$= \prod_{j=B_{i-1}+1}^{B_i} P(Z_j = z_j | Z_{j-1} = z_{j-1}).$$
 (3.47)

Expression (3.45) will then be used to calculate the transition probabilities used in the modified distortion calculations in the generalized nearest neighbor conditions and when generating noise samples in the simulations.

#### 3.4.2 ACOVQ and ATSVQ Performance Results

#### **ACOVQ** Results

The following tables show the results of ACOVQ for various bit allocations. In these simulations, the initial codebook values were determined by the VQ generalized Lloyd's algorithm with indexing determined by the simulated annealing algorithm. Each quantizer in the ACOVQ is then trained using the generalized LBG-algorithm along a sequence of increasing and decreasing channel error rate  $\epsilon$  values ranging from 0 and 0.1, using the increase-decrease method in [12], while keeping the noise correlation parameter  $\delta$  fixed. The highest performing quantizer for each set of channel parameters is reported in Tables 3.1 - 3.6. The performance of each quantizer here and throughout this thesis will be measured by its signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) in decibels (dB), which is defined as

$$SNR = 10\log_{10}\left(\frac{\sigma^2}{\frac{1}{k}E[(\mathbf{U} - Q(\mathbf{U}))^2]}\right),\tag{3.48}$$

where  $\sigma^2$  is the variance of the source distribution. Note that the highest SNR value in each row is put in bold. The source used in each simulation is a memoryless, independently and identically distributed Gaussian source.

$\epsilon$	(4)	(1,3)	(2,2)	(3,1)	(1,1,2)	(1,2,1)	(2,1,1)	(1,1,1,1)
0.0000	20.221	20.217	20.134	20.160	20.136	20.205	20.081	20.116
0.0005	18.658	19.439	19.373	19.042	19.649	19.608	19.372	19.664
0.0010	17.601	18.765	18.713	18.318	19.200	19.119	18.776	19.274
0.0050	14.373	15.793	15.940	14.809	16.738	16.452	15.782	16.955
0.0100	12.652	14.072	14.224	13.308	15.060	14.617	14.423	15.199
0.0500	8.292	9.205	9.132	9.375	9.778	9.895	9.914	10.404
0.1000	5.888	6.296	6.410	6.579	6.813	6.909	7.092	7.397

Table 3.1: ACOVQ SNR performance (in dB) on a 1-dimensional memoryless Gaussian source (k = 1) for  $\delta = 0$  and various bit allocations and  $\epsilon$  values.

$\epsilon$	(4)	(1,3)	(2,2)	(3,1)	(1,1,2)	(1,2,1)	(2,1,1)	(1,1,1,1)
0.0000	20.223	20.227	20.127	20.154	20.153	20.204	20.096	20.099
0.0005	19.599	19.713	19.736	19.726	19.673	19.704	19.723	19.684
0.0010	19.129	19.259	19.333	19.393	19.290	19.195	19.379	19.253
0.0050	16.695	16.868	17.198	17.284	16.960	16.888	17.359	17.013
0.0100	15.229	15.209	15.769	15.605	15.574	15.149	15.772	15.333
0.0500	11.069	11.366	11.504	11.047	11.668	11.227	11.760	11.837
0.1000	8.942	8.901	9.366	9.077	9.594	9.345	9.932	9.995

Table 3.2: ACOVQ SNR performance (in dB) on a 1-dimensional memoryless Gaussian source (k = 1) for  $\delta = 5$  and various bit allocations and  $\epsilon$  values.

$\epsilon$	(4)	(1,3)	(2,2)	(3,1)	(1,1,2)	(1,2,1)	(2,1,1)	(1,1,1,1)
0.0000	20.218	20.228	20.126	20.199	20.134	20.191	20.099	20.107
0.0005	19.865	19.767	19.845	19.897	19.786	19.772	19.836	19.741
0.0010	19.575	19.349	19.536	19.671	19.414	19.446	19.645	19.429
0.0050	17.786	17.295	17.970	18.126	17.554	17.421	18.060	17.442
0.0100	16.466	16.312	16.690	16.833	16.592	15.950	16.732	16.307
0.0500	12.666	12.144	13.188	12.474	12.912	12.689	13.303	13.000
0.1000	10.342	10.260	11.255	10.539	11.224	10.739	11.657	11.511

Table 3.3: ACOVQ SNR performance (in dB) on a 1-dimensional memoryless Gaussian source (k = 1) for  $\delta = 10$  and various bit allocations and  $\epsilon$  values.

$\epsilon$	(4)	(1,3)	(2,2)	(3,1)	(1,1,2)	(1,2,1)	(2,1,1)	(1,1,1,1)
0	9.674	9.588	9.393	9.095	9.387	9.062	9.281	9.303
0.0005	9.527	9.471	9.335	9.032	9.339	9.010	9.247	9.250
0.001	9.454	9.403	9.282	8.968	9.280	8.959	9.196	9.197
0.005	8.791	8.904	8.869	8.511	8.871	8.573	8.791	8.795
0.01	8.152	8.345	8.410	8.022	8.414	8.146	8.349	8.350
0.05	5.530	5.806	6.037	5.709	6.037	5.860	6.020	6.008
0.1	3.875	4.103	4.308	4.066	4.309	4.231	4.306	4.314

Table 3.4: ACOVQ SNR performance (in dB) on a 2-dimensional memoryless Gaussian source (k=2) for  $\delta=0$  and various bit allocations and  $\epsilon$  values.

$\epsilon$	(4)	(1,3)	(2,2)	(3,1)	(1,1,2)	(1,2,1)	(2,1,1)	(1,1,1,1)
0	9.685	9.588	9.394	9.093	9.390	9.063	9.301	9.303
0.0005	9.635	9.543	9.358	9.065	9.360	9.028	9.270	9.272
0.001	9.587	9.507	9.324	9.187	9.329	8.998	9.237	9.236
0.005	9.258	9.178	9.078	8.804	9.086	8.775	8.989	8.991
0.01	8.972	8.902	8.786	8.544	8.808	8.502	8.692	8.708
0.05	7.184	7.066	7.181	7.095	7.199	6.933	7.030	7.026
0.1	5.920	5.975	6.112	6.069	6.109	5.928	5.902	5.918

Table 3.5: ACOVQ SNR performance (in dB) on a 2-dimensional memoryless Gaussian source (k=2) for  $\delta=5$  and various bit allocations and  $\epsilon$  values.

$\epsilon$	(4)	(1,3)	(2,2)	(3,1)	(1,1,2)	(1,2,1)	(2,1,1)	(1,1,1,1)
0	9.680	9.589	9.393	9.093	9.391	9.064	9.301	9.301
0.0005	9.641	9.551	9.369	9.221	9.363	9.038	9.269	9.280
0.001	9.612	9.492	9.336	9.204	9.343	9.011	9.254	9.252
0.005	9.369	9.267	9.127	8.876	9.147	8.826	9.054	9.057
0.01	9.167	9.038	8.916	8.837	8.904	8.610	8.824	8.826
0.05	7.566	7.607	7.601	7.638	7.588	7.314	7.421	7.424
0.1	6.684	6.686	6.824	6.605	6.824	6.562	6.354	6.268

Table 3.6: ACOVQ SNR performance (in dB) on a 2-dimensional memoryless Gaussian source (k=2) for  $\delta=10$  and various bit allocations and  $\epsilon$  values.

The results indicate that as the channel gets noisier, ACOVQ benefits from additional stages of feedback. Furthermore, as  $\delta$  increases, the performance of ACOVQ improves regardless of the bit allocation, suggesting that the quantizer is able to exploit the memory in the channel.

#### ACOVQ and ATSVQ results

We next train ACOVQ and ATSVQ on a sample of 4 million vectors drawn from a memoryless Gaussian source, using the generalized LBG-algorithm. Each stage is trained under equivalent channel parameters and equivalent initializations— i.e., settings in which the nearest-neighbor and centroid conditions are equivalent for ACOVQ and ATSVQ, as discussed in Section 3.3.1. After training the final code-books of each quantizer are compared. The comparison is based on the maximum codeword distance: the largest Euclidean distance between any pair of corresponding codewords for the ACOVQ and ATSVQ codebooks, evaluated across all stages and channel output sequences. This is defined as:

$$\arg\max_{j\in\{1,\dots,n\},y^{j}\in\mathcal{I}^{j}}\left\|\mathbf{c}_{y_{j}|y^{j-1}}^{(j,AC)}-\left(\mathbf{c}_{y_{j}|y^{j-1}}^{(j,AT)}+\mathbf{c}_{y_{j-1}|y^{j-2}}^{(j-1,AT)}+\dots+\mathbf{c}_{y_{1}}^{(1,AT)}\right)\right\|. \tag{3.49}$$

Simulation results for various channel parameters and bit allocations are presented in Tables 3.7 - 3.10.

Dim. $k$	δ	$\epsilon$	SNR (TSVQ)	SNR (ACOVQ)	Greatest Codeword Distance
1	0	0.00	20.087198	20.087198	$2.47 \times 10^{-14}$
1	0	0.05	10.375423	10.367799	$8.20 \times 10^{-3}$
1	0	0.10	7.376438	7.382376	$3.87 \times 10^{-2}$
1	5	0.00	20.082411	20.082411	$2.93 \times 10^{-14}$
1	5	0.05	11.615976	11.586737	$3.07 \times 10^{-2}$
1	5	0.10	9.977197	9.984788	$9.77 \times 10^{-3}$
4	0	0.00	4.395605	4.395605	$3.75 \times 10^{-14}$
4	0	0.05	3.147361	3.149369	$1.28 \times 10^{-2}$
4	0	0.10	2.274173	2.274005	$2.08 \times 10^{-2}$
4	5	0.00	4.399283	4.399283	$2.80 \times 10^{-14}$
4	5	0.05	3.728805	3.727707	$8.46 \times 10^{-3}$
4	5	0.10	3.221204	3.219431	$1.31 \times 10^{-2}$

Table 3.7: Comparison of ACOVQ and ATSVQ SNRs and codebooks for bit allocation (1, 1, 1, 1) and memoryless Gaussian source.

	Dim. $k$	δ	$\epsilon$	SNR (TSVQ)	SNR (ACOVQ)	Greatest Codeword Distance
	1	0	0.00	20.169320	20.169320	$2.73 \times 10^{-14}$
	1	0	0.05	8.802735	8.800211	$5.54 \times 10^{-3}$
	1	0	0.10	6.040480	6.030800	$5.14 \times 10^{-3}$
	1	5	0.00	20.172459	20.169811	$4.31 \times 10^{-5}$
	1	5	0.05	10.566610	10.582667	$1.43 \times 10^{-2}$
	1	5	0.10	8.737369	8.725517	$8.91 \times 10^{-3}$
	4	0	0.00	4.460133	4.460133	$4.78 \times 10^{-14}$
	4	0	0.05	3.052052	3.051580	$5.00 \times 10^{-2}$
	4	0	0.10	2.158082	2.158576	$3.81 \times 10^{-2}$
	4	5	0.00	4.450385	4.450385	$3.14 \times 10^{-14}$
	4	5	0.05	3.582166	3.581317	$1.30 \times 10^{-2}$
_	4	5	0.10	3.017881	3.022005	$8.69 \times 10^{-2}$

Table 3.8: Comparison of ACOVQ and ATSVQ SNRs and codebooks for bit allocation (1,3) and memoryless Gaussian source.

Dim.	k	δ	$\epsilon$	SNR (TSVQ)	SNR (ACOVQ)	Greatest Codeword Distance
1		0	0.00	20.103408	20.103408	$2.39 \times 10^{-14}$
1		0	0.05	8.535109	8.534380	$4.55 \times 10^{-2}$
1		0	0.10	5.988914	5.993359	$5.98 \times 10^{-3}$
1		5	0.00	20.127089	20.127089	$3.05 \times 10^{-14}$
1		5	0.05	9.829185	9.849087	$1.76 \times 10^{-2}$
1		5	0.10	8.829142	8.823401	$8.92 \times 10^{-3}$
4		0	0.00	4.360361	4.360361	$3.55 \times 10^{-14}$
4		0	0.05	2.927418	2.924842	$2.15 \times 10^{-2}$
4		0	0.10	2.134878	2.135311	$5.56 \times 10^{-2}$
4		5	0.00	4.359788	4.359788	$3.59 \times 10^{-14}$
4		5	0.05	3.595184	3.589755	$1.05 \times 10^{-2}$
4		5	0.10	3.057900	3.055866	$1.43 \times 10^{-2}$

Table 3.9: Comparison of ACOVQ and ATSVQ SNRs and codebooks for bit allocation (2,2) and memoryless Gaussian source.

Dim. $k$	δ	$\epsilon$	SNR (TSVQ)	SNR (ACOVQ)	Greatest Codeword Distance
1	0	0.00	20.125013	20.125013	$1.86 \times 10^{-14}$
1	0	0.05	8.442011	8.468965	$1.11 \times 10^{-2}$
1	0	0.10	6.445608	6.459866	$6.74 \times 10^{-3}$
1	5	0.00	20.110080	20.110080	$1.03 \times 10^{-14}$
1	5	0.05	10.539527	10.525425	$1.26 \times 10^{-2}$
1	5	0.10	9.098137	9.089128	$1.24 \times 10^{-2}$
4	0	0.00	4.190830	4.190830	$2.29 \times 10^{-14}$
4	0	0.05	2.810843	2.817062	$5.39 \times 10^{-2}$
4	0	0.10	2.210464	2.212517	$1.27 \times 10^{-2}$
4	5	0.00	4.195522	4.195522	$2.39 \times 10^{-14}$
4	5	0.05	3.466058	3.468024	$9.11 \times 10^{-3}$
4	5	0.10	2.903744	2.905105	$2.44 \times 10^{-2}$

Table 3.10: Comparison of ACOVQ and ATSVQ SNRs and codebooks for bit allocation (3,1) and memoryless Gaussian source.

As shown in Tables 3.7 - 3.10, regardless of the channel parameters, bit allocation or dimension, the maximum codeword distance is minimal relative to the source variance. This distance is notably smaller in the noiseless channel case than in the presence of channel noise. The discrepancy arises because the noise sequences for ATSVQ and ACOVQ are generated independently (i.e., separate noise sequence realizations are used for each quantizer). Nevertheless, even under noisy conditions, the distance remains modest, indicating that the equivalence between the codebooks is robust to different noise sequences from the same distribution. Additionally, the SNR performances for ACOVQ and TSVQ match within hundredths of a decibel in all cases. These results demonstrate that ACOVQ and ATSVQ, with the same initializations, produce equivalent encoders, decoders, and overall performances.

## Chapter 4

# Variable-Rate Adaptive Tree Structure Vector Quantization

#### 4.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, we showed that the necessary conditions for optimality for ACOVQ is equivalent to those of ATSVQ. Up to this point, ACOVQ has only been studied for fixed rates (i.e., all quantizers in a given stage have the same number of bits). However, the posterior distributions at each stage of the ACOVQ, in general, exhibit different variances and shapes, especially when the channel is noisy. This suggests that a better performance can be obtained if we allocate bits non-uniformly across the quantizers for that stage. In this chapter, we explore the performance of a variable-rate ACOVQ (VR-ACOVQ) and algorithms to find an optimal bit allocation for each stage given a constraint. We then compare the performance of

VR-ACOVQ to that of the fixed-rate ACOVQ (FR-ACOVQ) under the same average rate constraints.

# 4.2 Variable-Rate Quantization

In variable-rate quantization, the number of bits used to quantize a source can vary depending on the input source value. There are multiple well-studied methods for variable-rate quantization such as quadtree-based quantization, pruned tree structured quantization, and greedy tree growing quantization [15]. The central principle underlying these methods is that not all input vectors require a high rate quantization; consequently, different rate quantizers can be used based on the characteristics of the input vector. A common application of variable-rate vector quantization is image compression: fairly homogeneous regions of an image, such as a solid colored background, can be compressed at a low rate without incurring excessive distortion, while high rate quantization can be reserved for highly detailed regions, such as edges of objects. This allows the variable-rate quantizer to perform similarly to a high fixed-rate quantizer while using a lower average rate. The same principle can be applied in ACOVQ. As shown in Figure 2.4 not all posterior distributions have the same variances or shapes. This suggests that a nonuniform bit allocation for each posterior distribution of a given stage in the ACOVQ can lead to performance gains on average compared to its fixed-rate counterpart. However, a question that arises is how we allocate bits optimally. In the next section, we discuss existing literature on optimal bit allocation in transform coding and TSVQ and extend those methods to the VR-ACOVQ bit allocation problem.

# 4.3 Optimal Bit Allocation Problem

The VR-ACOVQ bit allocation problem is as follows. Consider a VR-ACOVQ at the  $i \geq 2$  stage with a set of  $m_{i-1}$  channel output index sequences  $\mathcal{H}^{i-1} = \{\mathbf{h}_1, \mathbf{h}_2, \dots, \mathbf{h}_{m_{i-1}}\}$ , where  $\mathbf{h}_j \in \mathbb{N}^{i-1}$  for  $j = 1, \dots, m_{i-1}$ , from stage i - 1, with corresponding posterior probability density functions  $f_{\mathbf{U}|\mathbf{Y}^{i-1}}(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{h}_j)$  for  $j = 1, \dots, m_{i-1}$ . Here  $m_{i-1}$  is an arbitrary number denoting the size of  $\mathcal{H}^{i-1}$ . Specific details on how the set  $\mathcal{H}^{i-1}$  is constructed are included in Section 4.4.1. Let  $\boldsymbol{\phi}^{(i)} = (\phi_1^{(i)}, \dots, \phi_{m_{i-1}}^{(i)})$  be the bit allocation of the ith stage of the VR-ACOVQ, such that  $\phi_j^{(i)}$  bits are allocated to the quantizer, at stage i, corresponding to the posterior source distribution with density function  $f_{\mathbf{U}|\mathbf{Y}^{i-1}}(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{h}_j)$ . Let  $D(\phi_j^{(i)}, \mathbf{h}_j)$  be the expected distortion when quantizing a source with density function  $f_{\mathbf{U}|\mathbf{Y}^{i-1}}(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{h}_j)$  with a  $\phi_j^{(i)}$  bit COVQ. The VR-ACOVQ bit allocation problem is to find an optimal  $\boldsymbol{\phi}^{(i)}$  that minimizes

$$E[D^{(i)}] = \sum_{j=1}^{m_{i-1}} P(Y^i = \mathbf{h}_j) D(\phi_j^{(i)}, \mathbf{h}_j), \tag{4.1}$$

where  $E[D^{(i)}]$  is the expected distortion of the ACOVQ at stage i, such that

$$\bar{\phi}^{(i)} = \sum_{i=1}^{m_{i-1}} P(Y^i = \mathbf{h}_j) \phi_j^{(i)} \le \Phi^{(i)}, \tag{4.2}$$

where  $\bar{\phi}^{(i)}$  is the average bits at stage i and  $\Phi^{(i)}$  is a given average bit allocation constraint.

A similar bit allocation problem has been explored in [15, p. 226-231] for quantizing a block of Gaussian random variables under a bit allocation constraint. Consider a set of m scalar random variables  $U_1, \ldots, U_m$ . Let  $Q_j$  denote the quantizer optimized to quantize random variable  $U_j$ , and with an abuse of notation, let  $\phi_j$  be the bits allocated to  $Q_j$  such that  $Q_j$  is a  $2^{\phi_j}$ -level quantizer. Let  $D_j(\phi_j)$  denote the expected distortion of  $Q_j$  with  $\phi_j$  bits allocated when quantizing  $U_j$ . The optimal bit allocation problem is to find optimal  $\phi = (\phi_1, \ldots, \phi_m)$  such that the total distortion

$$D = \sum_{j=1}^{m} D_j(\phi_j), \tag{4.3}$$

is minimized given the constraint

$$\sum_{j=1}^{m} \phi_j \le \Phi, \tag{4.4}$$

where  $\Phi$  is the given fixed quota of total bits used. Using a high rate approximation for VQs, the optimal bit allocation is given by [15, p. 229]

$$\phi_j = \frac{\Phi}{m} + \frac{1}{2} \log_2 \frac{\sigma_j^2}{\rho^2},\tag{4.5}$$

where  $\sigma_j^2$  is the variance of  $U_j$  and

$$\rho^2 = (\prod_{j=1}^m \sigma_j^2)^{\frac{1}{m}},\tag{4.6}$$

which is the geometric mean of the random variable variances. However, the derived

optimal bit allocation result permits non-integer and even negative bit values, which are impractical in real-world applications. Further, the solution in (4.5) assumes a high-rate, closed form approximation for the distortion-rate function  $D_j$ , which may not hold for low-rate COVQ with high channel noise, let alone low-rate VQs. A greedy algorithm, introduced in [33], addresses these issues in the context of optimal bit allocation when quantizing a block of discrete cosine transform (DCT) coefficients. This algorithm was then extended to a system where the DCT coefficients were quantized by a COVQ and transmitted over a noisy channel in [7] [8].

Given the structural similarities between TSVQ and ACOVQ, it is natural to examine existing variable-rate TSVQ algorithms to determine whether they can be adapted or extended to the ACOVQ framework. Several pruning algorithms have been proposed in [20] [9] [6] [27] [16] to find an optimal bit allocation for variable-rate TSVQs. In these algorithms, a large fixed-rate tree is created, then the nodes that produced the lowest decrease in distortion per bits used (i.e., the "least efficient" nodes) from the tree is pruned repeatedly until only the root node remains, creating a sequence of sub-trees. The sub-tree in the sequence, that provides the best performance for a given average rate, is then selected. For best results, a large initial TSVQ would need to be trained to allow for a larger sub-tree sequence, which can be computationally expensive. However, rather than pruning a large TSVQ, additional bits and nodes can be allocated to an existing tree greedily, until a constraint can no longer be held. A greedy growing tree algorithm is discussed in [28] to split nodes; however, the steps in the pruning methods in [27] can be done in reverse to also create a greedy growing tree algorithm. In the next section, we will detail the

growing version of the pruning algorithm in [27] and extend it to the ACOVQ bit allocation problem.

## 4.3.1 The Generalized BFOS Algorithm

The generalized Breiman, Friedman, Olshen, and Stone (BFOS) algorithm, proposed in [27], provides a greedy bit allocation method for TSVQ. Although the algorithm is detailed as a pruning method, the author notes that the algorithm steps can be done in reverse to greedily "grow" the tree structured quantizer. Here we describe the "growing" version of the algorithm detailed in [27]. Assume we have a "root" VQ with m encoding regions  $S_1, S_2, \ldots, S_m$ . We then have m additional VQs  $Q_1, Q_2, \ldots, Q_m$ , such that  $Q_j$  further refines source values in  $S_j$ , for  $j = 1, \ldots, m$ . Let  $\phi_j$  be the number of bits allocated for  $Q_j$  for  $j = 1, \ldots, m$ . Let  $P(\mathbf{u} \in S_j)$  be the probability a source vector is in  $S_j$ . Let  $D_j(\phi_j)$  represent the distortion of a  $\phi_j$ -bit quantizer on  $S_j$  for  $j = 1, \ldots, m$ . Let  $D, \bar{\phi}$  represent the average distortion and rate of the m quantizers, respectively, as shown:

$$D = \sum_{j=1}^{m} P(\mathbf{u} \in S_j) D_j(\phi_j)$$
(4.7)

$$\bar{\phi} = \sum_{j=1}^{m} P(\mathbf{u} \in S_j) \phi_j. \tag{4.8}$$

The objective of this algorithm is to find  $\phi_1, \ldots, \phi_m$  that minimizes D and satisfies  $\bar{\phi} \leq \Phi$ , where  $\Phi$  is a given average bit allocation constraint. The generalized BFOS algorithm is detailed in the following steps:

- 1. For j = 1, ..., m, set  $\phi_j = 0$  for the initial bit allocation.
- 2. Determine  $I = \arg \max_{j \in \{1,...,m\}} \{D_j(\phi_i) D_j(\phi_j + 1)\}.$
- 3. Calculate D and  $\bar{\phi}$ . Check if  $\bar{\phi} \geq \Phi$ . If so, stop. Else set  $\phi_I = \phi_I + 1$  and repeat Step 2.

In each iteration, the algorithm uses a simple resource allocation strategy: find the quantizer with the highest performance increase per additional bit allocated, then increment the bits for that quantizer until we exceed our constraint. In the next section we extend this algorithm to the ACOVQ bit allocation problem.

# 4.4 VR-ACOVQ Bit Allocation Algorithm

#### 4.4.1 Algorithm Overview

In this section, we present a high-level overview of the bit allocation algorithm, focusing on its inputs, outputs, and how it is applied recursively to construct each stage of a VR-ACOVQ. The algorithm is treated as a "black box"; the specific steps will be detailed in the next section. Consider a VR-ACOVQ with a maximum of n stages and a sequence of non-zero constraints  $\Phi^{(1)}, \Phi^{(2)}, \ldots, \Phi^{(n)}$ . Let  $\mathcal{H}^{i-1}$  be the set of channel output sequences up to the ith stage of the VR-ACOVQ for  $i=1,\ldots,n$ , and let  $\mathcal{G}_{\mathbf{h}}^{(i)}=\{0,1,\ldots,2^{\phi_{\mathbf{h}}^{(i)}}-1\}$  for  $\mathbf{h}\in\mathcal{H}^{i-1}$ , where, with abuse of notation,  $\phi_{\mathbf{h}}^{(i)}$  is the number of bits allocated given  $Y^{i-1}=\mathbf{h}$ .

#### First Stage Overview

The first stage of the VR-ACOVQ is a  $\lfloor \Phi^{(1)} \rfloor$ -bit COVQ with channel indices  $\mathcal{I}^{(1)} = \{0, 1, \dots, 2^{\lfloor \Phi^{(1)} \rfloor} - 1\}$ . The algorithm, given  $\Phi^{(2)}$ ,  $\mathcal{H}^1$ , and associated probabilities for each sequence in  $\mathcal{H}^1$  (i.e.,  $P(Y_1 = h)$  for  $h \in \mathcal{H}^1$ ), will output a bit allocation  $\phi_h^{(2)}$  for each  $h \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}$ .

#### Second and Subsequent Stages Overview

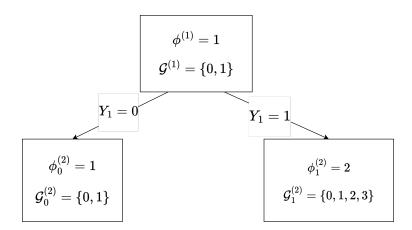


Figure 4.1: Tree diagram for a two-stage VR-ACOVQ

After finding  $\phi^{(2)}$ , we construct  $\mathcal{H}^2$  using  $\phi^{(2)}$  and  $\mathcal{H}^1$ . The set  $\mathcal{H}^1$  provides the channel output received by the encoder via noiseless feedback and  $\phi^{(2)}$  provides the bits allocated to each COVQ for each corresponding feedback value. COVQs in the second stage are then added to the VR-ACOVQ with bit allocations provided by  $\phi^{(2)}$ . We can then construct  $\mathcal{H}^2$  as follows:

$$\mathcal{H}^2 = \bigcup_{h_1 \in \mathcal{H}^1} \{h_1\} \times \mathcal{G}_{h_1}^{(2)} \tag{4.9}$$

$$= \bigcup_{h_1 \in \mathcal{H}^1} \{h_1\} \times \left\{0, 1, \dots, 2^{\phi_{h_1}^{(2)}} - 1\right\}. \tag{4.10}$$

A tree-structured visual depiction of (4.10) can be seen in Figure 4.1. Each rectangle represents a COVQ in the VR-ACOVQ. The rectangle on top is the stage 1 COVQ and the rectangles below are the stage 2 COVQs. Source samples whose stage 1 channel outputs match the labels on the arrows will be further quantized by the corresponding COVQs. Visually, the construction of  $\mathcal{H}^2$  is taking all "paths" of the tree and concatenating the "paths" with the corresponding channel indices for the stage 2 COVQs. In this example, the possible channel outputs on the left side of the tree up to stage 2 (i.e., the outputs corresponding with  $Y_1 = 0$ ) is  $\{0\} \times \{\mathcal{G}_0^{(2)}\}$  and the possible channel outputs on the right side of the tree at stage 2 is  $\{1\} \times \{\mathcal{G}_1^{(2)}\}$ . We then have that  $\mathcal{H}^2 = \{0\} \times \{\mathcal{G}_0^{(2)}\} \cup \{1\} \times \{\mathcal{G}_1^{(2)}\}$ .

The algorithm will then be applied recursively for subsequent stages. Consider stage  $i \geq 2$ . The algorithm, given  $\mathcal{H}^{i-1}$ , associated probabilities for each sequence in  $\mathcal{H}^{i-1}$  (i.e.,  $P(Y^{i-1} = \mathbf{h})$  for  $\mathbf{h} \in \mathcal{H}^{i-1}$ ), and  $\Phi^{(i)}$  will output  $\phi^{(i)}$ . We then construct  $\mathcal{H}^{i}$  as follows:

$$\mathcal{H}^{i} = \bigcup_{\mathbf{h} \in \mathcal{H}^{i-1}} \{h_1\} \times \{h_2\} \times \dots \times \{h_{i-1}\} \times \mathcal{G}_{\mathbf{h}}^{(i)}. \tag{4.11}$$

Specifically,  $\{h_1\} \times \{h_2\} \times \cdots \times \{h_{i-1}\}$  in (4.11) denotes a sequence from stages 1 up to i-1. We then append the new channel indices at stage i, given by the bit allocation  $\phi_{\mathbf{h}}^{(i)}$ .

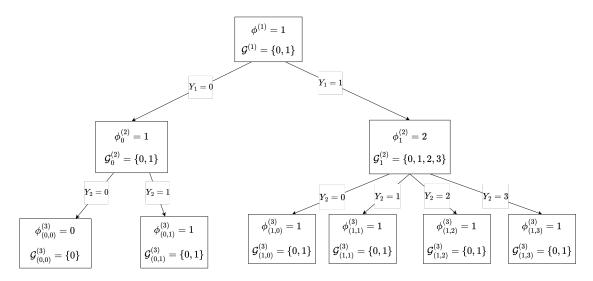


Figure 4.2: Tree diagram for a three-stage VR-ACOVQ.

We can see in Figure 4.2 a three-stage VR-ACOVQ tree diagram, which is a continuation of the 2-stage VR-ACOVQ depicted in Figure 4.1. In this case, we have that  $\mathcal{H}^2 = \{(0,0), (0,1), (1,0), (1,1), (1,2), (1,3)\}$ , which represents the set of all channel indices up to stage 2. Due to the size of  $\mathcal{H}^3$ , we will only exhaustively list elements in the set corresponding to  $h_1 = 0$ . The set of channel indices up to stage 3 corresponding to  $h_1 = 0$  (i.e., the "left side" of Figure 4.2) is  $\{(0,0,0), (0,1,0), (0,1,1)\}$ .

# 4.4.2 Steepest Descent Bit Allocation Algorithm

In this section, we detail the bit allocation algorithm that will be applied in between stages of VR-ACOVQ. At a given stage  $i \geq 2$  in a VR-ACOVQ, assume we have a set of  $m_{i-1}$  channel output sequences,  $\mathcal{H}^{i-1} = \{\mathbf{h}_1, \dots, \mathbf{h}_{m_{i-1}}\}$ , received by the encoder via noiseless feedback link at stage i. Let  $\boldsymbol{\phi}^{(i)} = (\phi_1^{(i)}, \dots, \phi_{m_{i-1}}^{(i)})$  be the bit allocation vector such that  $\phi_j^{(i)}$  corresponds to the bits allocated to the COVQ

quantizing the posterior distribution corresponding to channel output  $\mathbf{h}_j$  for  $j = 1, \ldots, m_{i-1}$ . Let the maximum bits allocated to any single quantizer be  $\Phi_{max}$ , such that  $\phi_j^{(i)} \leq \Phi_{max}$ , for  $j = 1, \ldots, m_{i-1}$ . Let  $\Phi^{(i)}$  be the maximum average rate such that  $\overline{\phi}^{(i)} := \sum_{j=1}^{m_{i-1}} P(Y^{i-1} = \mathbf{h}_j) \phi_j^{(i)} \leq \Phi^{(i)}$ . For all  $j = 1, \ldots, m_{i-1}$ , let  $D(\phi_j, \mathbf{h}_j)$  be the expected distortion of a  $\phi_j$  bit quantizer with source distribution  $f_{\mathbf{U}|\mathbf{h}_j} := f_{\mathbf{U}|Y^{i-1}}(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{h}_j)$ , and let

$$D^{(i)} = \sum_{j=1}^{m_{i-1}} P(Y^{i-1} = \mathbf{h}_j) D(\phi_j^{(i)}, \mathbf{h}_j)$$
(4.12)

represent the average distortion at stage i for a given  $\boldsymbol{\phi}^{(i)}$ . Further, if  $\phi_j^{(i)} = 0$ , let  $D(\phi_j^{(i)}, \mathbf{h}_j) = \sigma_{f_{\mathbf{U}|\mathbf{h}_j}}^2$ , where  $\sigma_{f_{\mathbf{U}|\mathbf{h}_j}}^2 = \sum_{j=1}^k \mathrm{Var}(f_{u_j|\mathbf{h}_j})$  is the sum of the marginal variances of the conditional source distribution.

- 1. Set  $\phi_j^{(i)} = 0$  for all  $j = 1, ..., m_{i-1}$ . This will be the initial state of the bit allocation algorithm. Set  $\mathcal{J} = \{1, ..., m_{i-1}\}$ . The set  $\mathcal{J}$  will represent the indices of all quantizers whose bit allocation can be incremented without violating any constraints. Elements of  $\mathcal{J}$  will be removed if a bit increase for the corresponding index violate the constraint.
- 2. Set

$$\lambda_j = \frac{\Delta D^{(i)}}{\Delta \overline{\phi}^{(i)}} \tag{4.13}$$

$$= \frac{P(Y^{i-1} = \mathbf{h}_j) \left( D(\phi_j^{(i)}, \mathbf{h}_j) - D(\phi_j^{(i)} + 1, \mathbf{h}_j) \right)}{P(Y^{i-1} = \mathbf{h}_j) \left( (\phi_j^{(i)} + 1) - (\phi_j^{(i)}) \right)}$$
(4.14)

$$= D(\phi_j^{(i)}, \mathbf{h}_j) - D(\phi_j^{(i)} + 1, \mathbf{h}_j), \quad \forall j \in \mathcal{J}.$$

$$(4.15)$$

Each element  $\lambda_j$  represents the ratio of the decrease in average distortion per increase in average rate by allocating an extra bit to the quantizer corresponding to sequence  $\mathbf{h}_j$  for all  $j = 1, \ldots, m_{i-1}$ .

3. Find  $j_{max} = \arg \max_{j \in \mathcal{J}} \lambda_j$ . Determine if

$$\sum_{l \in \{1, \dots, m_{i-1}\} \setminus \{j_{max}\}} P(Y^{i-1} = \mathbf{h}_l) \phi_l^{(i)} + P(Y^{i-1} = \mathbf{h}_{j_{max}}) \left(\phi_{j_{max}}^{(i)} + 1\right) > \Phi^{(i)}$$

or if  $\phi_{j_{max}}^{(i)} = \Phi_{max}$ . The inequality determines whether this increase in allocation would violate the average bit allocation constraint for the given stage. If either statement is true, set  $\mathcal{J} = \mathcal{J} \setminus j_{max}$  and set  $\lambda_{j_{max}} = 0$ . Else set  $\phi_{j_{max}}^{(i)} = \phi_{j_{max}}^{(i)} + 1$ .

4. If  $\mathcal{J} = \emptyset$  or  $\lambda_j \leq 0$  for all  $j = 1, \dots, m_{i-1}$  stop and return  $\boldsymbol{\phi}^{(i)}$ . Else repeat steps 2 and 3.

In the absence of an analytical distortion-rate function for COVQ, we evaluate  $D(\phi_j^{(i)}, \mathbf{h}_j)$  by training and evaluating the expected distortion of a COVQ for each value of  $\phi_j^{(i)}$  and distribution  $f_{\mathbf{U}|\mathbf{h}_j}$  for  $j=1,\ldots,m_{i-1}$ . The training for these quantizers and distortion calculations will be done offline, and only the final quantizers (i.e., quantizers whose allocated bits correspond to the final values in  $\phi$ ) will be stored and used in the VR-ACOVQ.

# 4.5 Complexity Analysis

# 4.5.1 Computational and Storage Complexity of FR-ACOVQ Encoder

Methods for reducing the complexity of CM-TSVQ and COVQ are detailed in [21] and [13], respectively. In this section, we extend this method to ACOVQ. Consider an ACOVQ at stage  $i \geq 2$  that satisfies the generalized nearest neighbor and centroid conditions with partitions  $\mathcal{S}^{(1)}, \mathcal{S}_{y_1}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathcal{S}_{y^{i-1}}^{(i)}$ . Let  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^k$  be the source vector,  $Y^{i-1} = y^{i-1}$  be the channel output sequence received by the encoder via noiseless feedback link, and  $X^{i-1} = x^{i-1} = \gamma_{y^{i-2}}^{i-1}(\mathbf{u})$  be the encoded sequence for the previous i-1 stages. Recall from (2.99) that an ith stage ACOVQ satisfying the generalized nearest neighbor condition has encoding regions given by

$$S_{x_{i}|y^{i-1}}^{(i)} = \{ \mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^{k} : d'_{i}(\mathbf{u}; y^{i-1}, \gamma_{y^{i-2}}^{i-1}(\mathbf{u}), x_{i}) \le d'_{i}(\mathbf{u}; y^{i-1}, \gamma_{y^{i-2}}^{i-1}(\mathbf{u}), x'_{i}),$$

$$(4.16)$$

$$x'_{i} \in \mathcal{I}^{(i)}\} \quad x_{i} \in \mathcal{I}^{(i)}, y^{i-1} \in \mathcal{I}^{i-1}.$$

We then have that

$$\mathcal{E}^{(i)}(\gamma_{y^{i-2}}^{i-1}(\mathbf{u}), y^{i-1}, \mathbf{u}) = x_i \iff x_i \in S_{x_i|y^{i-1}}^{(i)}$$
(4.17)

$$\implies \mathcal{E}^{(i)}(\gamma_{y^{i-1}}^{i-1}(\mathbf{u}), y^{i-1}, \mathbf{u}) = \arg\min_{x_i \in \mathcal{I}^{(i)}} \{ d'(\mathbf{u}; \gamma_{y^{i-1}}^{i-1}(\mathbf{u}), x_i, y^{i-1}) \}, \tag{4.18}$$

where

$$d'(\mathbf{u}; x^{i-1}, x_i, y^{i-1})$$

$$= \sum_{y_i \in \mathcal{I}^{(i)}} P(Y_i = y_i | X^i = x^i, Y^{i-1} = y^{i-1}) \left\| \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{c}_{y_i | y^{i-1}}^{(i, AC)} \right\|^2$$

$$= \sum_{y_i \in \mathcal{I}^{(i)}} P(Y_i = y_i | X^i = x^i, Y^{i-1} = y^{i-1})$$

$$\times \left( \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 - 2 < \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{c}_{y_i | y^{i-1}}^{(i, AC)} > + \left\| \mathbf{c}_{y_i | y^{i-1}}^{(i, AC)} \right\|^2 \right).$$

$$(4.20)$$

Let

$$\kappa_1^{(i)}(y^{i-1}, x^i) = \sum_{y_i \in \mathcal{T}^{(i)}} P(Y_i = y_i | X^i = x^i, Y^{i-1} = y^{i-1}) \mathbf{c}_{y_i | y^{i-1}}^{(i, AC)}$$
(4.21)

$$\kappa_2^{(i)}(y^{i-1}, x^i) = \sum_{y_i \in \mathcal{I}^{(i)}} P(Y_i = y_i | X^i = x^i, Y^{i-1} = y^{i-1}) \left\| \mathbf{c}_{y_i | y^{i-1}}^{(i, AC)} \right\|^2.$$
 (4.22)

The encoding function can then be reduced as follows:

$$\mathcal{E}^{(i)}(\gamma_{u^{i-2}}^{i-1}(\mathbf{u}), y^{i-1}, \mathbf{u}) \tag{4.23}$$

$$= \arg\min_{x \in \mathcal{T}^{(i)}} \{ d'(\mathbf{u}; \gamma_{y^{i-1}}^{i-1}(\mathbf{u}), x_i, y^{i-1}) \}$$
(4.24)

$$= \arg\min_{x_i \in \mathcal{I}^{(i)}} \left\{ \sum_{y_i \in \mathcal{I}^{(i)}} P(Y_i = y_i | X^i = x^i, Y^{i-1} = y^{i-1}) \right.$$

$$\times \left( \|\mathbf{u}\|^{2} - 2 < \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{c}_{y_{i}|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AC)} > + \left\| \mathbf{c}_{y_{i}|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AC)} \right\|^{2} \right)$$
(4.25)

$$= \arg\min_{x_i \in \mathcal{I}^{(i)}} \left\{ \left( \sum_{y_i \in \mathcal{I}^{(i)}} P(Y_i = y_i | X^i = x^i, Y^{i-1} = y^{i-1}) \right) \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 - 2 < \mathbf{u}, \kappa_1^{(i)}(y^{i-1}, x^i) > + \kappa_2^{(i)}(y^{i-1}, x^i) \right\}$$
(4.26)

$$= \arg\min_{x_i \in \mathcal{I}^{(i)}} \{ \mathbf{u} - 2 < \mathbf{u}, \kappa_1^{(i)}(y^i, x^i) > + \kappa_2^{(i)}(y^i, x^i) \}$$
(4.27)

$$= \arg\min_{x_i \in \mathcal{I}^{(i)}} \{-2 < \mathbf{u}, \kappa_1^{(i)}(y^i, x^i) > + \kappa_2^{(i)}(y^i, x^i)\}. \tag{4.28}$$

Assuming  $b_i > 0$ , the encoding computational complexity of (4.28) is  $k \cdot 2^{b_i}$  floating point operations (FLOPs), or  $2^{b_i}$  FLOPs per sample, which comes from the inner product. If  $b_i = 0$ , then  $|\mathcal{I}^{(i)}| = 1$  and no computations are needed to encode any values. Note the encoder does not need to consider indices that correspond to empty encoding regions when finding the encoding sequence corresponding to the minimum value in (4.28). If a quantizer has empty encoding regions, we can replace  $x_i \in \mathcal{I}^{(i)}$ , in (4.28), with  $x_i \in \mathcal{I}^{(i)}_{nonempty}$ , where  $\mathcal{I}^{(i)}_{nonempty} \subset \mathcal{I}^{(i)}$  is the set of indices corresponding to nonempty encoding regions. As a result, the complexity can be further reduced to  $k \cdot |\mathcal{I}^{(i)}_{nonempty}|$  FLOPs or  $|\mathcal{I}^{(i)}_{nonempty}|$  FLOPs per sample.

To reduce the computational complexity, the encoder stores all outputs from  $\kappa_1^{(i)}$  and  $\kappa_2^{(i)}$ . The total number of inputs for  $\kappa_1^{(i)}$  and  $\kappa_2^{(i)}$  is  $|\mathcal{I}^{i-1}| \cdot |\mathcal{I}^i|$  for each function. Consequently, we have that the number of scalars stored for all outputs of  $\kappa_1^{(i)}$  is  $k \cdot (|\mathcal{I}^{i-1}| \cdot |\mathcal{I}^i|)$ , and for  $\kappa_2^{(i)}$  is  $|\mathcal{I}^{i-1}| \cdot |\mathcal{I}^i|$ . Note that when the channel has finite memory, (4.21) and (4.22) may depend only on a subsequence of  $X^i$ , allowing for further reductions in storage complexity. For example, consider a  $\mathbf{b} = (2, 1)$  ACOVQ, with codebooks  $\mathcal{C}^{(1)}, \mathcal{C}_{y_1}^{(2)}$  for  $y_1 \in \mathcal{I}^{(1)}$ , and a Polya contagion channel

with memory M=1, detailed in Section 3.4.1, satisfying the following transition probability property

$$P(Z_i = z_i | Z^{i-1} = z^{i-1}) = P(Z_i = z_i | Z_{i-1} = z_{i-1}).$$
(4.29)

For stage i = 2, we have

$$\kappa_1^{(2)}(y_1, x^2) = \sum_{y_2 \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}} P(Y_2 = y_2 | X^2 = x^2, Y_1 = y_1) \mathbf{c}_{y_2 | y_1}^{(2, AC)}$$
(4.30)

$$= \sum_{y_2 \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}} P(Z_3 = \beta_1(x_2) \oplus \beta_1(y_2) | Z^2 = \beta_2(x_1) \oplus \beta_2(y_1)) \mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2,AC)}$$
(4.31)

$$= \sum_{y_2 \in \mathcal{I}^{(2)}} P(Z_3 = \beta_1(x_2) \oplus \beta_1(y_2) | Z_2 = (\beta_2(x_1) \oplus \beta_2(y_1))_2) \mathbf{c}_{y_2|y_1}^{(2,AC)}, \quad (4.32)$$

where  $\beta_{\eta}(x)$ , is the  $\eta$ -bit binary representation of the integer x (see Section 3.4.1) and  $(\beta_2(x_1) \oplus \beta_2(y_1))_2$  refers to the 2nd component of the binary vector. We can see that  $\kappa_1^{(2)}$  does not vary with the term  $(\beta_2(x_1))_1$ . Hence, we have that  $\kappa_1^{(2)}$  only depends on the 2 of the 3 binary vector values of  $(x_1, x_2)$ . Thus instead of accounting for all 8 values for  $(x_1, x_2) \in \mathcal{I}^2$ , we only need to account for the first 2 bits. Therefore the storage complexity can be reduced from  $|\mathcal{I}^2| \cdot |\mathcal{I}^1| = 32$  scalar values to  $4 \cdot |\mathcal{I}^1| = 16$  scalar values. A similar argument can be used to show that the storage complexity of  $\kappa_2^{(2)}$  can be reduced from  $k \cdot 32$  scalar values to  $k \cdot 16$  scalar values in this example.

#### 4.5.2 Encoding Complexity of VR-ACOVQ

In this section, we compare the average encoding computational complexity and average rate of the VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ. Assume that we have an n stage, k-dimensional, FR-ACOVQ with bit allocation  $\mathbf{b}$  and an n stage, k-dimensional, VR-ACOVQ with bit allocation  $\phi^{(i)}$  such that  $\bar{\phi}^{(i)} = b_i$  for  $i = 1, \ldots, n$ . Further, we assume that  $\phi_j^{(i)} \geq 1$  for  $j = 1, \ldots, m_{i-1}$  and that there are no empty encoding regions for all quantizers at this stage. The average rate of the VR-ACOVQ for a given stage  $2 \leq i \leq n$  is given by

$$\frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=1}^{m_{i-1}} P(Y^{i-1} = \mathbf{h}_j) \phi_j^{(i)} = \frac{1}{k} \bar{\phi}^{(i)}$$
(4.33)

$$=\frac{1}{k}b_i\tag{4.34}$$

bits per source sample, which is equivalent to the average rate of its FR-ACOVQ counterpart. From (4.28), the encoding complexity of a  $\phi$ -bit quantizer is

$$g(\phi) = \begin{cases} 2^{\phi} & \phi \ge 1\\ 0 & \phi = 0 \end{cases} \tag{4.35}$$

FLOPs per source sample. However, if we restrict the domain such that  $\phi \geq 1$ , the piecewise function reduces to  $g(\phi) = 2^{\phi}$ , which is a convex function. The encoding complexity of a VR-ACOVQ for a given stage  $2 \leq i \leq n$  is then

$$\sum_{j=1}^{m_{i-1}} P(Y^i = \mathbf{h}_j) 2^{\phi_j^{(i)}} \ge 2^{\sum_{j=1}^{m_{i-1}} P(Y^{i-1} = \mathbf{h}_j)\phi_j^{(i)}}$$
(4.36)

$$=2^{\bar{\phi}^{(i)}} \tag{4.37}$$

$$=2^{b_i} (4.38)$$

FLOPs per source sample. Note that the inequality from (4.36) comes from Jensen's inequality and from the convexity of the function  $g(\phi) = 2^{\phi}$ . We can see from (4.38) that the encoding complexity of the VR-ACOVQ will be lower bounded by the complexity of the FR-ACOVQ. Thus, in addition to the multiple quantizers that need to be trained for the VR-ACOVQ, the encoding complexity on average will be higher than its FR-ACOVQ counterpart.

However, the encoding complexity can be upper bounded based on the selected value of  $\Phi_{max}$ , the maximum bits that can be allocated to any quantizer in a VR-ACOVQ. Consider a VR-ACOVQ at stage i with an average bit allocation constraint  $\Phi^{(i)}$ , maximum bit allocation for any quantizer of  $\Phi_{max}$ , such that  $\Phi_{max} \geq \Phi^{(i)}$ , and the set of channel output sequences  $\mathcal{H}^{i-1} = \{\mathbf{h}_1, \dots, \mathbf{h}_{m_{i-1}}\}$ . Let  $p_j = P(Y^{i-1} = \mathbf{h}_j)$  for  $j = 1, \dots, m_{i-1}$ . We want to find  $p_1, \dots, p_{m_{i-1}}$  and  $\phi_1^{(i)}, \dots, \phi_{m_{i-1}}^{(i)}$  that satisfy

$$\sum_{l=1}^{m_{i-1}} p_l \phi_l^{(i)} \le \Phi^{(i)} \tag{4.39}$$

$$\sum_{l=1}^{m_{i-1}} p_l = 1 \tag{4.40}$$

$$0 \le \phi_j^{(i)} \le \Phi_{max} \tag{4.41}$$

$$p_j \ge 0, \tag{4.42}$$

for  $j = 1, \ldots, m_{i-1}$ , and maximizes

$$V(p_1, \dots, p_{m_{i-1}}, \boldsymbol{\phi}^{(i)}) := \sum_{l=1}^{m_{i-1}} p_l g(\phi_l^{(i)}), \tag{4.43}$$

the average encoding complexity of stage i. Because  $g(\cdot)$  is a strictly increasing function, the maximum of  $V(\cdot)$  will be found when  $\phi_l^{(i)} = 0$  or  $\Phi_{max}$  for  $l = 1, \ldots, m_{i-1}$  (i.e., only values on the boundaries of the intervals in (4.41) are used). Equivalently, we can let  $\phi_1^{(i)} = 0$  and  $\phi_2^{(i)} = \Phi_{max}$  and let  $p_3 = p_4 = \cdots p_{m_{i-1}} = 0$ . Furthermore, the maximum complexity is achieved when the maximum average rate is achieved in (4.40) (i.e., when  $\sum_{l=1}^{m_{i-1}} p_l \phi_l^{(i)} = \Phi^{(i)}$ ). We then have that the maximum complexity is achieved when

$$p_1 + p_2 = 1 (4.44)$$

$$p_1 * 0 + p_2 \Phi_{max} = \Phi^{(i)}, \tag{4.45}$$

which implies that  $p_2 = \frac{\Phi^{(i)}}{\Phi_{max}}$ ,  $p_1 = 1 - \frac{\Phi^{(i)}}{\Phi_{max}}$ . Plugging these values into (4.43) we then have that the upper bound for complexity is

$$V(p_1, \dots, p_{m_{i-1}}, \boldsymbol{\phi}^{(i)}) = p_1 g(0) + p_2 g(\Phi_{max})$$
(4.46)

$$=\frac{\Phi^{(i)}}{\Phi_{max}}2^{\Phi_{max}} \tag{4.47}$$

FLOPs per source sample. Hence, the encoding complexity of the VR-ACOVQ is dominated by  $\Phi_{max}$ .

## 4.6 Simulation Results

The following tables compare the performances of a VR-ACOVQ to a FR-ACOVQ. Note that the first stage for both quantizers is a COVQ. Let n denote the total number of stages for both quantizers and let  $\Phi = (\Phi^{(1)}, \Phi^{(2)}, \dots, \Phi^{(n)})$  denote the average bit allocation constraints for the n stages. The VR-ACOVQ will be trained by recursively adding stages with a bit allocation given by the steepest decent algorithm in Section 4.4.2. The FR-ACOVQ will have bit allocation  $\mathbf{b} = (\Phi^{(1)}, \Phi^{(2)}, \dots, \Phi^{(n)}).$ Note that although  $\Phi^{(j)}$  for  $j=1,\ldots,n$  do not need to be integers when used as a constraint for the VR-ACOVQ, only integer values will be considered for the simulations to allow  $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{\Phi}$  to be a valid FR-ACOVQ bit allocation, allowing the two quantizers to have similar, if not equal, average rates. For the cases where "Balanced Tree" is true, the FR-ACOVQ and VR-ACOVQ are expected to have similar performances. The quantizers were trained on a source of 4 million vectors over a sequence of increasing and decreasing  $\epsilon$  values for various  $\delta$  and average bit allocations constraints with the best performing quantizers stored. Various 4-bit and 6-bit VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ are trained and compared with each other over memoryless Laplacian and Gaussian sources. For the 4-bit quantizers we have  $\Phi_{max} = 5$ , and for the 6-bit quantizers we have  $\Phi_{max} = 8$ .

Tables 4.1 - 4.6 and Tables 4.13 - 4.16 display the performance of FR-ACOVQ and VR-ACOVQ for various 4-bit and 6-bit bit allocations respectively. Each have a column called "Balanced Tree", which contains booleans: when true, the optimal bit allocation from the steepest descent algorithm is equivalent to a fixed-rate ACOVQ. Further for the columns "VR-ACOVQ SNR" and "FR-ACOVQ SNR," the greater

value in each row is bolded. Tables 4.13 - 4.13 and Tables 4.21 - 4.30 display the performance differences between FR-ACOVQ and VR-ACOVQ. Note that in these tables, unbolded values correspond to when the VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ bit allocations are equal (i.e., when the corresponding "Balanced Tree" value is true), while bolded values indicate a difference between the bit allocations. In this thesis, only specific bit allocations will be selected for brevity. Additional simulation results can be seen in Appendix B.

#### 4.6.1 4-Bit VR-ACOVQ Simulation Results

Tables 4.1 - 4.6 show the performances for the VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ for various 4-bit bit allocations. Note that the Bit Allocation Average column depicts a vector of bit allocation averages for each stage of the VR-ACOVQ (i.e.,  $(\bar{\phi}^{(1)}, \bar{\phi}^{(2)}, \dots, \bar{\phi}^{(n)})$ ). We can see that in general, the VR-ACOVQ outperforms the FR-ACOVQ regardless of the  $\epsilon$  and  $\delta$  communication channel parameters despite having a lower average rate. Further, from Tables 4.7 - 4.12 we can see that performance gap between the VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ is greater for a memoryless Laplacian source compared to a memoryless Gaussian source. This indicates that the gap between a VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ widens with a more biased source distribution. An explanation for this behavior is that a bit allocation determined by the steepest descent bit allocation algorithm outperforms a fixed-rate bit when the posterior distributions at the given stage vary greatly. With a biased source distribution, such as the Laplacian distribution, the posterior distributions exhibit greater variation, leading to poorer performance of fixed-rate allocation and improved pervariation, leading to poorer performance of fixed-rate allocation and improved per-

formance of the algorithm-driven allocation. Table 4.29 shows that for 2-dimensional memoryless Gaussian sources, the bit allocation significantly affects the performance difference between FR-ACOVQ and VR-ACOVQ. Overall, the bit allocations (3,1) and (1,2,1) resulted in the most consistent performance improvements. In contrast, bit allocations (1,1,2),(1,3), and (2,1,1) consistently resulted in VR-ACOVQs with bit allocations equivalent to FR-ACOVQ, leading to negligible performance differences. This suggests that, at low rates, VR-ACOVQ offers little to no benefit when the average bit allocation constraint for the first and intermediate stages are 1 bit with some exceptions.

## 4.6.2 6-Bit VR-ACOVQ Simulation Results

Tables 4.13 - 4.20 present the performances of VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ for various 6-bit bit allocations on 1 and 2 dimensional memoryless Gaussian and Laplacian sources. We can see that in Tables 4.21 and 4.23 the SNR gain of VR-ACOVQ over FR-ACOVQ ranges from 0.6 dB - 2.1 dB for bit allocations (4,1,1) and (3,1,1,1) on a 1-dimensional Gaussian source. On a 1-dimensional Laplacian source, we can see in Tables 4.25 and 4.27 the SNR gain of VR-ACOVQ over FR-ACOVQ ranges from 1.2 dB - 4 dB for bit allocations (4,1,1) and (3,1,1,1). In the 4-bit bit allocations, the SNR gain between the two schemes goes up to 1.7 dB and 3 dB on Gaussian and Laplacian sources, respectively. This indicates that the SNR gain between VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ is increased with a higher rate and a more concentrated source distribution. Furthermore, in Table 4.30, negligible gain is observed with the bit allocation (1,1,4), while consistent gain is observed with allocations such

as (1,4,1) and (4,1,1). This suggests that the bit allocation algorithm generally defaults to a fixed-rate allocation when all stages—except the last—are constrained to 1 bit for a 2-dimensional Gaussian source.

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0.0000	0	20.674	20.116	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0005	0	20.004	19.664	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0010	0	19.562	19.274	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 0.961)
0.0050	0	17.158	16.955	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 0.97)
0.0100	0	15.377	15.199	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 0.956)
0.0500	0	10.624	10.404	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 0.995)
0.1000	0	7.523	7.397	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 0.99)
0.0000	5	20.674	20.099	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0005	5	20.011	19.684	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 0.955)
0.0010	5	19.573	19.253	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 0.959)
0.0050	5	17.469	17.013	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 0.986)
0.0100	5	15.711	15.333	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 0.955)
0.0500	5	11.644	11.837	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.1000	5	10.407	9.995	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 0.999)
0.0000	10	20.667	20.107	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0005	10	20.087	19.741	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 0.956)
0.0010	10	19.749	19.429	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 0.957)
0.0050	10	17.669	17.442	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 0.965)
0.0100	10	16.433	16.307	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 0.983)
0.0500	10	13.233	13.000	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 0.983)
0.1000	10	11.977	11.511	False	(1.0, 1.0, 0.999, 0.989)

Table 4.1: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1, 1, 1, 1) and 1-dimensional (k = 1) memoryless Gaussian source.

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0.0000	0	20.588	20.160	False	(3.0, 0.993)
0.0005	0	19.758	19.042	False	(3.0, 0.985)
0.0010	0	19.173	18.318	False	(3.0, 0.986)
0.0050	0	16.503	14.809	False	(3.0, 0.995)
0.0100	0	14.709	13.308	False	(3.0, 0.995)
0.0500	0	10.245	9.375	False	(3.0, 0.993)
0.1000	0	7.164	6.579	False	(3.0, 0.998)
0.0000	5	20.556	20.154	False	(3.0, 0.99)
0.0005	5	20.206	19.726	False	(3.0, 0.998)
0.0010	5	19.798	19.393	False	(3.0, 0.994)
0.0050	5	18.100	17.284	False	(3.0, 0.981)
0.0100	5	16.901	15.605	False	(3.0, 0.988)
0.0500	5	12.424	11.047	False	(3.0, 0.952)
0.1000	5	10.156	9.077	False	(3.0, 0.963)
0.0000	10	20.528	20.199	False	(3.0, 0.987)
0.0005	10	20.288	19.897	False	(3.0, 0.989)
0.0010	10	20.184	19.671	False	(3.0, 0.997)
0.0050	10	18.775	18.126	False	(3.0, 0.981)
0.0100	10	17.836	16.833	False	(3.0, 0.993)
0.0500	10	13.897	12.474	False	(3.0, 0.948)
0.1000	10	11.918	10.539	False	(3.0, 0.988)

Table 4.2: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (3,1) and 1-dimensional (k=1) memoryless Gaussian source.

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0.0000	0	20.666	20.081	False	(2.0, 1.0, 0.999)
0.0005	0	19.766	19.372	False	(2.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0010	0	19.119	18.776	False	(2.0, 1.0, 0.962)
0.0050	0	17.405	15.782	False	(2.0, 0.993, 0.999)
0.0100	0	16.032	14.423	False	(2.0, 0.837, 0.999)
0.0500	0	11.073	9.914	False	(2.0, 0.956, 0.995)
0.1000	0	7.283	7.092	False	(2.0, 0.813, 0.995)
0.0000	5	20.674	20.096	False	(2.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0005	5	20.150	19.723	False	(2.0, 1.0, 0.999)
0.0010	5	19.803	19.379	False	(2.0, 1.0, 0.964)
0.0050	5	17.868	17.359	False	(2.0, 1.0, 0.965)
0.0100	5	16.716	15.772	False	(2.0, 1.0, 0.959)
0.0500	5	13.079	11.760	False	(2.0, 0.989, 1.0)
0.1000	5	10.382	9.932	False	(2.0, 0.88, 0.995)
0.0000	10	20.527	20.099	False	(2.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0005	10	20.402	19.836	False	(2.0, 1.0, 0.999)
0.0010	10	19.980	19.645	False	(2.0, 1.0, 0.957)
0.0050	10	18.425	18.060	False	(2.0, 1.0, 0.962)
0.0100	10	17.428	16.732	False	(2.0, 1.0, 0.949)
0.0500	10	14.136	13.303	False	(2.0, 0.967, 0.994)
0.1000	10	11.750	11.657	False	(2.0, 0.85, 0.996)

Table 4.3: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (2,1,1) and 1-dimensional (k=1) memoryless Gaussian source.

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0	0	16.857	14.945	False	(1.0, 1.0, 0.986, 1.0)
0.001	0	15.982	14.590	False	(1.0, 1.0, 0.94, 0.999)
0.001	0	15.610	14.249	False	(1.0, 1.0, 0.937, 0.999)
0.005	0	13.109	12.267	False	(1.0, 1.0, 0.904, 0.996)
0.010	0	11.630	10.672	False	(1.0, 1.0, 0.966, 0.999)
0.050	0	6.371	5.940	False	(1.0, 1.0, 0.923, 0.999)
0.100	0	3.389	3.244	False	(1.0, 1.0, 0.925, 1.0)
0	5	16.931	14.950	False	(1.0, 1.0, 0.995, 1.0)
0.001	5	15.991	14.628	False	(1.0, 1.0, 0.94, 0.999)
0.001	5	15.215	14.329	False	(1.0, 1.0, 0.913, 0.998)
0.005	5	13.518	12.572	False	(1.0, 1.0, 0.925, 1.0)
0.010	5	12.467	11.092	False	(1.0, 1.0, 0.941, 0.997)
0.050	5	7.997	7.516	False	(1.0, 1.0, 0.941, 0.999)
0.100	5	6.873	5.878	False	(1.0, 1.0, 0.982, 0.987)
0	10	16.893	14.935	False	(1.0, 1.0, 0.993, 1.0)
0.001	10	15.544	14.699	False	(1.0, 1.0, 0.91, 0.999)
0.001	10	15.402	14.470	False	(1.0, 1.0, 0.937, 0.998)
0.005	10	14.246	13.019	False	(1.0, 1.0, 0.943, 1.0)
0.010	10	12.556	11.718	False	(1.0, 1.0, 0.932, 0.998)
0.050	10	8.750	8.506	False	(1.0, 1.0, 0.977, 1.0)
0.100	10	7.724	7.221	False	(1.0, 1.0, 0.935, 0.996)

Table 4.4: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1, 1, 1, 1) and 1-dimensional (k = 1) memoryless Laplacian source.

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0.000	0	16.670	15.094	False	(3.0, 1.0)
0.001	0	15.840	14.082	False	(3.0, 0.987)
0.001	0	15.324	13.293	False	(3.0, 0.984)
0.005	0	13.062	10.776	False	(3.0, 0.999)
0.010	0	11.140	8.235	False	(3.0, 0.987)
0.050	0	$\boldsymbol{6.537}$	4.989	False	(3.0, 0.988)
0.100	0	3.445	2.390	False	(3.0, 0.986)
0.000	5	16.624	15.086	False	(3.0, 0.999)
0.001	5	16.268	14.652	False	(3.0, 0.991)
0.001	5	15.950	14.107	False	(3.0, 0.987)
0.005	5	14.713	12.324	False	(3.0, 0.971)
0.010	5	13.683	10.581	False	(3.0, 0.958)
0.050	5	9.394	6.610	False	(3.0, 0.981)
0.100	5	7.026	4.861	False	(3.0, 0.983)
0.000	10	16.602	15.089	False	(3.0, 0.999)
0.001	10	16.377	14.785	False	(3.0, 0.989)
0.001	10	16.204	14.542	False	(3.0, 0.999)
0.005	10	15.062	12.831	False	(3.0, 0.999)
0.010	10	14.524	11.988	False	(3.0, 0.997)
0.050	10	10.797	7.943	False	(3.0, 0.992)
0.100	10	8.349	6.159	False	(3.0, 0.953)

Table 4.5: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (3,1) and 1-dimensional (k=1) memoryless Laplacian source.

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0	0	16.901	14.931	False	(2.0, 0.997, 1.0)
0.001	0	15.307	14.396	False	(2.0, 0.923, 1.0)
0.001	0	15.175	13.877	False	(2.0, 0.971, 1.0)
0.005	0	13.780	11.140	False	(2.0, 0.943, 0.996)
0.010	0	12.531	10.022	False	(2.0, 0.921, 0.999)
0.050	0	7.238	5.331	False	(2.0, 0.861, 0.999)
0.100	0	3.901	2.862	False	(2.0, 0.841, 0.995)
0.000	5	16.922	14.937	False	(2.0, 0.991, 1.0)
0.001	5	15.522	14.546	False	(2.0, 0.915, 1.0)
0.001	5	15.363	14.242	False	(2.0, 0.92, 0.997)
0.005	5	14.441	12.333	False	(2.0, 0.995, 1.0)
0.010	5	13.500	10.867	False	(2.0, 0.929, 1.0)
0.050	5	9.681	7.368	False	(2.0, 0.931, 0.999)
0.100	5	6.914	5.575	False	(2.0, 0.912, 0.999)
0.000	10	16.946	14.951	False	(2.0, 0.996, 1.0)
0.001	10	16.625	14.665	False	(2.0, 0.998, 1.0)
0.001	10	15.524	14.426	False	(2.0, 0.93, 0.999)
0.005	10	14.834	12.939	False	(2.0, 0.99, 0.999)
0.010	10	14.086	11.745	False	(2.0, 0.978, 0.995)
0.050	10	10.448	8.649	False	(2.0, 0.905, 1.0)
0.100	10	7.987	7.167	False	(2.0, 0.875, 0.998)

Table 4.6: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (2,1,1) and 1-dimensional (k=1) memoryless Laplacian source.

		$\delta$	
$\epsilon$	0	5	10
0.0	0.559	0.576	0.559
0.0005	0.34	0.327	0.346
0.001	0.288	0.32	0.32
0.005	0.203	0.456	0.227
0.01	0.178	0.378	0.126
0.05	0.22	-0.193	0.233
0.1	0.125	0.411	0.466

Table 4.7: SNR gain of VR-ACOVQ over
FR-ACOVQ for bit allocation $(1, 1, 1, 1)$
and memoryless 1-dimensional $(k = 1)$
Gaussian source.

		$\delta$	
$\epsilon$	0	5	10
0.0	1.915	1.977	1.964
0.0005	1.39	1.364	0.845
0.001	1.364	0.882	0.919
0.005	0.833	0.944	1.221
0.01	0.97	1.375	0.838
0.05	0.44	0.484	0.255
0.1	0.151	1.0	0.503

Table 4.8: SNR gain of VR-ACOVQ over FR-ACOVQ for bit allocation (1,1,1,1) and 1-dimensional (k=1) memoryless Laplacian source.

		$\delta$	
$\epsilon$	0	5	10
0.000000	0.428	0.402	0.33
0.000500	0.717	0.48	0.392
0.001000	0.855	0.405	0.512
0.005000	1.695	0.816	0.649
0.010000	1.401	1.296	1.003
0.050000	0.87	1.377	1.423
0.100000	0.585	1.079	1.379

Table 4.9: SNR gain of VR-ACOVQ over FR-ACOVQ for bit allocation (3,1) and 1-dimensional (k=1) memoryless Gaussian source.

		$\delta$				
$\epsilon$	0	5	10			
0.000000	1.576	1.55	1.522			
0.000500	1.749	1.616	1.597			
0.001000	2.031	1.848	1.662			
0.005000	2.277	2.389	2.229			
0.010000	2.912	3.094	2.535			
0.050000	1.556	2.773	2.848			
0.100000	1.058	2.158	2.186			

Table 4.10: SNR gain of VR-ACOVQ over FR-ACOVQ for bit allocation (3,1) and 1-dimensional (k=1) memoryless Laplacian source.

		$\delta$					$\delta$	
$\epsilon$	0	5	10		$\epsilon$	0	5	10
0.000000	0.584	0.578	0.428	-	0.000000	1.976	1.985	1.99
0.000500	0.393	0.427	0.566		0.000500	0.912	0.975	1.96
0.001000	0.343	0.424	0.335		0.001000	1.297	1.116	1.098
0.005000	1.623	0.508	0.364		0.005000	2.641	2.101	1.906
0.010000	1.608	0.943	0.696		0.010000	2.516	2.635	2.34
0.050000	1.159	1.319	0.833		0.050000	1.91	2.314	1.8
0.100000	0.191	0.45	0.093	_	0.100000	1.033	1.339	0.818

Table 4.11: SNR gain of VR-ACOVQ over FR-ACOVQ for bit allocation (2,1,1) and 1-dimensional (k=1) memoryless Gaussian source.

Table 4.12: SNR gain of VR-ACOVQ over FR-ACOVQ for bit allocation (2,1,1) and 1-dimensional (k=1) memoryless Laplacian source.

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0.0000	0	32.709	31.670	False	(4.0, 0.994, 1.0)
0.0005	0	27.194	25.679	False	(4.0, 0.999, 1.0)
0.0010	0	25.607	24.225	False	(4.0, 0.999, 1.0)
0.0050	0	22.581	21.333	False	(4.0, 0.988, 1.0)
0.0100	0	20.994	19.451	False	(4.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0500	0	14.221	13.331	False	(4.0, 0.997, 1.0)
0.1000	0	10.310	9.472	False	(4.0, 0.997, 1.0)
0.0000	5	32.684	31.651	False	(4.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0005	5	29.257	27.544	False	(4.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0010	5	28.062	26.045	False	(4.0, 0.995, 1.0)
0.0050	5	23.556	22.292	False	(4.0, 0.995, 1.0)
0.0100	5	21.578	20.815	False	(4.0, 0.984, 1.0)
0.0500	5	17.598	15.623	False	(4.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.1000	5	15.237	13.404	False	(4.0, 0.998, 1.0)
0.0000	10	32.693	31.680	False	(4.0, 0.999, 1.0)
0.0005	10	30.508	28.889	False	(4.0, 0.996, 1.0)
0.0010	10	29.515	27.395	False	(4.0, 0.998, 1.0)
0.0050	10	25.444	23.960	False	(4.0, 0.999, 1.0)
0.0100	10	23.729	22.271	False	(4.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0500	10	19.605	18.197	False	(4.0, 0.999, 1.0)
0.1000	10	16.994	16.054	False	(4.0, 0.997, 1.0)

Table 4.13: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (4,1,1) and 1-dimensional (k=1) memoryless Gaussian source.

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0.0000	0	32.858	31.630	False	(3.0, 0.992, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0005	0	28.664	26.867	False	(3.0, 0.987, 0.999, 1.0)
0.0010	0	27.770	25.976	False	(3.0, 0.991, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0050	0	24.722	23.199	False	(3.0, 0.951, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0100	0	22.438	21.541	False	(3.0, 0.951, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0500	0	15.476	14.094	False	(3.0, 0.991, 1.0, 1.0)
0.1000	0	10.449	9.754	False	(3.0, 0.994, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0000	5	32.814	31.653	False	(3.0, 0.989, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0005	5	29.990	28.232	False	(3.0, 0.978, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0010	5	28.287	26.886	False	(3.0, 0.973, 0.999, 1.0)
0.0050	5	24.534	23.102	False	(3.0, 0.991, 0.999, 1.0)
0.0100	5	22.746	21.089	False	(3.0, 0.97, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0500	5	17.657	16.006	False	(3.0, 0.954, 1.0, 1.0)
0.1000	5	15.522	13.611	False	(3.0, 0.974, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0000	10	32.758	31.616	False	(3.0, 0.983, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0005	10	30.732	29.299	False	(3.0, 0.991, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0010	10	29.646	27.905	False	(3.0, 0.978, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0050	10	26.245	24.650	False	(3.0, 0.988, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0100	10	24.752	23.050	False	(3.0, 0.989, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0500	10	20.535	18.469	False	(3.0, 0.97, 1.0, 1.0)
0.1000	10	17.956	16.515	False	(3.0, 0.968, 1.0, 1.0)

Table 4.14: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (3,1,1,1) and 1-dimensional (k=1) memoryless Gaussian source.

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0.0000	0	15.221	14.935	False	(4.0, 0.994, 0.998)
0.0005	0	14.878	14.651	False	(4.0, 0.972, 0.999)
0.0010	0	14.572	14.400	False	(4.0, 0.997, 0.999)
0.0050	0	13.284	12.987	False	(4.0, 0.995, 1.0)
0.0100	0	12.230	11.835	False	(4.0, 0.985, 1.0)
0.0500	0	8.459	8.372	False	(4.0, 0.999, 1.0)
0.1000	0	6.208	5.974	False	(4.0, 0.982, 1.0)
0.0000	5	15.209	14.944	False	(4.0, 0.995, 0.997)
0.0005	5	15.047	14.797	False	(4.0, 0.994, 0.998)
0.0010	5	14.861	14.697	False	(4.0, 0.999, 0.996)
0.0050	5	14.059	13.880	False	(4.0, 0.978, 1.0)
0.0100	5	13.342	13.189	False	(4.0, 0.982, 0.999)
0.0500	5	10.739	10.137	False	(4.0, 0.97, 0.999)
0.1000	5	9.098	8.687	False	(4.0, 0.998, 0.998)
0.0000	10	15.183	14.900	False	(4.0, 1.0, 0.997)
0.0005	10	15.072	14.842	False	(4.0, 0.981, 1.0)
0.0010	10	15.042	14.760	False	(4.0, 0.994, 0.998)
0.0050	10	14.436	14.250	False	(4.0, 0.967, 0.997)
0.0100	10	13.860	13.647	False	(4.0, 0.991, 0.997)
0.0500	10	11.311	11.000	False	(4.0, 0.991, 1.0)
0.1000	10	10.244	9.792	False	(4.0, 0.986, 0.999)

Table 4.15: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (4,1,1) and 2-dimensional (k=2) memoryless Gaussian source.

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0.0000	0	14.942	14.533	False	(3.0, 1.0, 0.993, 0.995)
0.0005	0	14.641	14.366	False	(3.0, 0.946, 0.99, 1.0)
0.0010	0	14.497	14.449	False	(3.0, 1.0, 0.994, 1.0)
0.0050	0	13.552	13.111	False	(3.0, 0.965, 0.999, 1.0)
0.0100	0	12.610	12.292	False	(3.0, 1.0, 0.994, 1.0)
0.0500	0	8.531	8.671	False	(3.0, 0.925, 1.0, 0.998)
0.1000	0	6.196	6.187	False	(3.0, 1.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0000	5	15.022	14.851	False	(3.0, 1.0, 1.0, 0.999)
0.0005	5	14.837	14.750	False	(3.0, 1.0, 0.998, 1.0)
0.0010	5	14.865	14.395	False	(3.0, 0.961, 0.993, 0.997)
0.0050	5	14.101	13.743	False	(3.0, 1.0, 1.0, 0.988)
0.0100	5	13.370	13.119	False	(3.0, 1.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0500	5	10.680	10.515	False	(3.0, 0.914, 0.995, 1.0)
0.1000	5	9.278	9.010	False	(3.0, 0.965, 0.989, 1.0)
0.0000	10	14.888	14.847	False	(3.0, 1.0, 0.997, 0.996)
0.0005	10	14.780	14.787	False	(3.0, 1.0, 0.985, 1.0)
0.0010	10	14.899	14.428	False	(3.0, 1.0, 0.996, 1.0)
0.0050	10	14.560	13.975	False	(3.0, 1.0, 0.984, 0.999)
0.0100	10	13.842	13.477	False	(3.0, 1.0, 0.994, 0.996)
0.0500	10	11.576	11.388	False	(3.0, 1.0, 1.0, 0.992)
0.1000	10	10.452	10.212	False	(3.0, 1.0, 1.0, 0.993)

Table 4.16: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (3,1,1,1) and 2-dimensional (k=2) memoryless Gaussian source.

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0.0000	0	31.699	29.546	False	(1.0, 3.0, 1.0, 0.999)
0.0005	0	27.390	25.177	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.998, 1.0)
0.0010	0	26.483	23.728	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.998, 1.0)
0.0050	0	23.026	20.163	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.999, 1.0)
0.0100	0	21.450	18.568	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.994, 1.0)
0.0500	0	14.426	12.551	False	(1.0, 3.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.1000	0	10.339	8.568	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.99, 1.0)
0.0000	5	31.655	29.669	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.999, 1.0)
0.0005	5	28.322	26.021	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.999, 1.0)
0.0010	5	26.853	24.611	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.999, 1.0)
0.0050	5	23.925	21.306	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.999, 1.0)
0.0100	5	22.221	19.342	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.995, 1.0)
0.0500	5	17.903	14.616	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.996, 1.0)
0.1000	5	14.650	12.278	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.999, 1.0)
0.0000	10	31.658	29.546	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.999, 0.999)
0.0005	10	28.806	26.943	False	(1.0, 3.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0010	10	27.837	25.843	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.999, 1.0)
0.0050	10	25.327	22.395	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.997, 1.0)
0.0100	10	24.192	20.557	False	(1.0, 3.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0500	10	20.083	16.441	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.999, 1.0)
0.1000	10	17.406	14.299	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.996, 1.0)

Table 4.17: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1,3,1,1) and 1-dimensional (k=1) memoryless Laplacian source.

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0.0000	0	31.797	29.671	False	(4.0, 0.997, 1.0)
0.0005	0	27.423	23.974	False	(4.0, 0.997, 1.0)
0.0010	0	25.727	22.978	False	(4.0, 0.996, 1.0)
0.0050	0	22.455	19.560	False	(4.0, 0.999, 1.0)
0.0100	0	21.021	18.271	False	(4.0, 0.998, 1.0)
0.0500	0	13.419	11.906	False	(4.0, 0.998, 1.0)
0.1000	0	$\boldsymbol{9.957}$	8.131	False	(4.0, 0.998, 1.0)
0.0000	5	31.775	29.700	False	(4.0, 1.0, 0.999)
0.0005	5	29.221	25.232	False	(4.0, 0.997, 1.0)
0.0010	5	27.898	23.917	False	(4.0, 0.996, 1.0)
0.0050	5	23.431	20.640	False	(4.0, 0.997, 1.0)
0.0100	5	21.975	19.091	False	(4.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0500	5	17.319	14.280	False	(4.0, 0.997, 1.0)
0.1000	5	14.750	11.893	False	(4.0, 0.999, 1.0)
0.0000	10	31.796	29.564	False	(4.0, 1.0, 0.999)
0.0005	10	30.031	26.928	False	(4.0, 0.992, 1.0)
0.0010	10	29.301	25.442	False	(4.0, 0.997, 1.0)
0.0050	10	25.152	21.890	False	(4.0, 0.997, 1.0)
0.0100	10	23.686	20.244	False	(4.0, 0.996, 1.0)
0.0500	10	19.339	16.301	False	(4.0, 0.999, 1.0)
0.1000	10	16.651	14.132	False	(4.0, 0.997, 1.0)

Table 4.18: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (4,1,1) and 1-dimensional (k=1) memoryless Laplacian source.

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0.0000	0	14.698	13.749	False	(1.0, 3.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0005	0	14.435	13.567	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.996, 1.0)
0.0010	0	14.140	13.394	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.997, 1.0)
0.0050	0	13.593	12.217	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.994, 1.0)
0.0100	0	12.566	11.198	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.997, 1.0)
0.0500	0	8.581	7.741	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.99, 1.0)
0.1000	0	$\boldsymbol{5.925}$	5.446	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.982, 0.999)
0.0000	5	15.007	13.798	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.994, 1.0)
0.0005	5	14.808	13.670	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.996, 1.0)
0.0010	5	14.590	13.598	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.988, 1.0)
0.0050	5	13.997	12.928	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.989, 1.0)
0.0100	5	13.300	12.267	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.998, 1.0)
0.0500	5	10.562	9.580	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.99, 1.0)
0.1000	5	9.323	7.922	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.987, 1.0)
0.0000	10	14.805	13.800	False	(1.0, 3.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0005	10	14.879	13.749	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.995, 1.0)
0.0010	10	14.732	13.667	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.992, 1.0)
0.0050	10	14.152	13.120	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.998, 1.0)
0.0100	10	13.444	12.585	False	(1.0, 3.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0500	10	11.653	10.332	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.992, 1.0)
0.1000	10	10.620	9.108	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.996, 1.0)

Table 4.19: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1,3,1,1) and 2-dimensional (k=2) memoryless Laplacian source.

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0.0000	0	15.165	13.772	False	(4.0, 0.992, 1.0)
0.0005	0	14.907	13.525	False	(4.0, 0.99, 1.0)
0.0010	0	14.642	13.257	False	(4.0, 0.982, 1.0)
0.0050	0	13.461	11.959	False	(4.0, 0.997, 1.0)
0.0100	0	12.493	11.063	False	(4.0, 0.998, 1.0)
0.0500	0	8.616	7.567	False	(4.0, 0.998, 1.0)
0.1000	0	<b>5.846</b>	5.327	False	(4.0, 0.99, 1.0)
0.0000	5	15.412	13.816	False	(4.0, 0.997, 1.0)
0.0005	5	15.033	13.662	False	(4.0, 0.989, 1.0)
0.0010	5	15.075	13.561	False	(4.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0050	5	14.529	12.843	False	(4.0, 0.983, 1.0)
0.0100	5	13.768	12.219	False	(4.0, 0.981, 1.0)
0.0500	5	10.889	9.318	False	(4.0, 0.978, 0.999)
0.1000	5	9.079	7.909	False	(4.0, 0.995, 1.0)
0.0000	10	15.289	13.829	False	(4.0, 0.997, 1.0)
0.0005	10	15.039	13.697	False	(4.0, 0.984, 1.0)
0.0010	10	15.096	13.674	False	(4.0, 0.984, 1.0)
0.0050	10	14.456	13.065	False	(4.0, 0.983, 1.0)
0.0100	10	14.047	12.587	False	(4.0, 0.997, 1.0)
0.0500	10	11.913	10.184	False	(4.0, 0.992, 1.0)
0.1000	10	10.611	9.025	False	(4.0, 0.99, 1.0)

Table 4.20: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (4,1,1) and 2-dimensional (k=2) memoryless Laplacian source.

		$\delta$	
$\epsilon$	0	5	10
0.0000	1.04	1.033	1.013
0.0005	1.516	1.712	1.619
0.0010	1.382	2.017	2.12
0.0050	1.248	1.264	1.483
0.0100	1.544	0.763	1.458
0.0500	0.891	1.975	1.408
0.1000	0.838	1.833	0.941

Table 4.21: SNR gain of VR-ACOVQ over FR-ACOVQ for bit allocation (4,1,1) and 1-dimensional (k=1) memoryless Gaussian source.

		$\delta$				
$\epsilon$	0	5	10			
0.0000	0.285	0.265	0.282			
0.0005	0.227	0.25	0.23			
0.0010	0.172	0.164	0.283			
0.0050	0.297	0.179	0.186			
0.0100	0.394	0.153	0.214			
0.0500	0.087	0.602	0.312			
0.1000	0.233	0.411	0.453			

Table 4.22: SNR gain of VR-ACOVQ over FR-ACOVQ for bit allocation (4,1,1) and 2-dimensional (k=2) memoryless Gaussian source.

		$\delta$	
$\epsilon$	0	5	10
0.000000	1.228	1.16	1.142
0.000500	1.798	1.758	1.433
0.001000	1.794	1.4	1.741
0.005000	1.523	1.432	1.595
0.010000	0.897	1.657	1.703
0.050000	1.382	1.651	2.066
0.100000	0.696	1.911	1.441

Table 4.23: SNR gain of VR-ACOVQ over FR-ACOVQ for bit allocation (3, 1, 1, 1) and 1-dimensional (k = 1) memoryless Gaussian source.

		$\delta$				
$\epsilon$	0	5	10			
0.000000	0.409	0.171	0.042			
0.000500	0.275	0.088	-0.006			
0.001000	0.049	0.47	0.472			
0.005000	0.441	0.358	0.585			
0.010000	0.317	0.251	0.364			
0.050000	-0.14	0.165	0.188			
0.100000	0.008	0.268	0.239			

Table 4.24: SNR gain of VR-ACOVQ over FR-ACOVQ for bit allocation (3,1,1,1) and 2-dimensional (k=2) memoryless Gaussian source.

		$\delta$					$\delta$	
$\epsilon$	0	5	10		$\epsilon$	0	5	10
0.0000	2.246	2.3	2.303	•	0.0000	-0.035	0.124	0.175
0.0005	2.858	2.692	2.565		0.0005	-0.503	0.663	0.089
0.0010	2.412	2.624	2.678		0.0010	0.366	0.503	0.184
0.0050	2.142	3.258	2.975		0.0050	0.703	0.371	-0.728
0.0100	1.739	3.189	3.251		0.0100	1.062	0.856	-0.176
0.0500	2.149	2.793	2.862		0.0500	1.297	1.339	1.135
0.1000	1.204	2.461	2.474		0.1000	0.793	0.772	0.66

Table 4.25: SNR gain of VR-ACOVQ over FR-ACOVQ for bit allocation (3, 1, 1, 1) and 1-dimensional (k = 1) memoryless Laplacian source.

Table 4.26: SNR gain of VR-ACOVQ over FR-ACOVQ for bit allocation (3,1,1,1) and 2-dimensional (k=2) memoryless Laplacian source.

		$\delta$					$\delta$	
$\epsilon$	0	5	10		$\epsilon$	0	5	10
0.0000	2.126	2.074	2.231		0.0000	1.392	1.595	1.46
0.0005	3.449	3.988	3.103		0.0005	1.382	1.371	1.342
0.0010	2.75	3.981	3.859		0.0010	1.384	1.514	1.422
0.0050	2.895	2.791	3.262		0.0050	1.502	1.686	1.392
0.0100	2.75	2.884	3.441		0.0100	1.429	1.55	1.46
0.0500	1.513	3.038	3.038		0.0500	1.049	1.571	1.729
0.1000	1.826	2.857	2.518	_	0.1000	0.519	1.17	1.587

Table 4.27: SNR gain of VR-ACOVQ over FR-ACOVQ for bit allocation (4, 1, 1) and 1-dimensional (k = 1) memoryless Laplacian source.

Table 4.28: SNR gain of VR-ACOVQ over FR-ACOVQ for bit allocation (4, 1, 1) and 2-dimensional (k = 2) memoryless Laplacian source.

	Bit Allocation	(1, 1, 2)	(1, 2, 1)	(1, 3)	(2, 1, 1)	(3, 1)
δ	$\epsilon$					
0	0.0000	0.005	0.152	-0.070	0.017	0.105
	0.0005	-0.002	0.152	0.032	0.001	-0.001
	0.0010	0.005	0.120	0.035	-0.001	0.275
	0.0050	-0.000	0.067	-0.090	-0.028	0.262
	0.0100	-0.002	0.225	-0.006	0.003	0.360
	0.0500	-0.005	0.010	-0.001	-0.014	-0.004
	0.1000	-0.004	0.014	-0.001	0.002	0.021
5	0.0000	-0.004	0.286	-0.000	-0.000	0.253
	0.0005	0.002	0.211	0.003	-0.005	0.195
	0.0010	-0.011	0.280	-0.040	0.003	0.037
	0.0050	-0.009	0.118	0.045	0.002	0.250
	0.0100	0.003	0.207	-0.011	-0.004	0.047
	0.0500	-0.005	0.066	0.032	0.011	0.060
	0.1000	0.001	-0.005	-0.007	-0.016	0.108
10	0.0000	-0.000	0.292	0.000	0.000	0.242
	0.0005	0.002	-0.002	0.002	0.005	0.048
	0.0010	-0.002	0.283	0.033	-0.002	0.056
	0.0050	0.005	0.002	0.014	0.000	0.134
	0.0100	0.027	0.004	-0.000	-0.001	0.115
	0.0500	-0.014	0.114	-0.019	0.011	0.002
	0.1000	0.001	0.000	0.007	0.002	0.135

Table 4.29: SNR gain of VR-ACOVQ over FR-ACOVQ for various 4-bit bit allocations on a 2-dimensional (k=2) memoryless Gaussian source.

	Bit Allocation	(1, 1, 4)	(1, 4, 1)	(4, 1, 1)
$\delta$	$\epsilon$	,	,	· · · · /
0	0.0000	-0.000	0.404	0.285
	0.0005	0.000	0.438	0.227
	0.0010	-0.004	0.312	0.172
	0.0050	-0.011	0.362	0.297
	0.0100	0.009	0.253	0.394
	0.0500	0.009	0.310	0.087
	0.1000	-0.016	0.184	0.233
5	0.0000	-0.000	0.525	0.265
	0.0005	-0.004	0.413	0.250
	0.0010	-0.010	0.509	0.164
	0.0050	0.008	0.442	0.179
	0.0100	-0.031	0.386	0.153
	0.0500	0.055	0.325	0.602
	0.1000	0.050	0.307	0.411
10	0.0000	-0.006	0.436	0.282
	0.0005	0.001	0.481	0.230
	0.0010	-0.006	0.562	0.283
	0.0050	0.024	0.516	0.186
	0.0100	-0.028	0.369	0.214
	0.0500	-0.053	0.281	0.312
	0.1000	-0.002	0.256	0.453

Table 4.30: SNR gain of VR-ACOVQ over FR-ACOVQ for various 6-bit bit allocations on a 2-dimensional (k=2) memoryless Gaussian source.

### Chapter 5

#### Conclusion

#### 5.1 Summary of Work

This thesis explored the design and performance of JSCC schemes in communication systems with a noisy discrete channel with memory and noiseless feedback. The work focused on extending existing JSCC vector quantization schemes to such communication systems.

In Chapter 2, we introduced various discrete channel models, such as the Polya contagion and binary symmetric channel. We then introduced COVQ, ACOVQ, and CM-TSVQ along with their respective necessary conditions for optimality. Afterwards, we described the generalized LBG-algorithm to design locally optimal COVQs.

In Chapter 3, we extended the necessary conditions of optimality for CM-TSVQ in communication systems with noiseless feedback. We then showed that the nearest

neighbor and centroid conditions are equivalent to those in ACOVQ. The simulations supported this claim as ACOVQ and ATSVQ with equivalent initializations converged to the same codebooks and encoding regions under the generalized LGB-algorithm and had near equivalent performances.

In Chapter 4, we leveraged the tree-structured nature of ACOVQ and explored various variable rate schemes for tree-strictured quantization that could be generalized to ACOVQ. We then extended the generalized BFOS algorithm, introduced in [27], to ACOVQ. Simulations showed that in general, the VR-ACOVQ outperformed FR-ACOVQ under the same average rate constraints at the cost of a higher encoding complexity. Further, simulations indicate that the performance gap between the quantizers increases with a higher rate and with a more biased source distribution.

#### 5.2 Future Work

For ACOVQ, this thesis only considered discrete one way channels with a noiseless feedback link. Future work may include generalizing the ACOVQ scheme to account for communication systems with noisy feedback. Additionally, the VR-ACOVQ bit allocation algorithm in Chapter 4 determines a bit allocation given an average rate constraint for each stage and a predetermined number of stages. Additional work may include developing an algorithm to output a bit allocation that is constrained by an overall rate.

### Appendix A

# Proof for ATSVQ Generalized Centroid Condition Reduction

In this section we will prove that (3.26) under the square error distortion reduces to (3.27). Let  $i \geq 2$  denote the quantizer stage. From (3.26) we have that

$$\mathbf{c}_{y_i|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\omega} \in \mathbb{R}^k} E[d(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(1,AT)} + \dots + \mathbf{c}_{y_i|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)} + \boldsymbol{\omega})|Y^i = y^i], \tag{A.1}$$

given feedback  $Y^i = y^i$  and fixed partitions  $\mathcal{S}^{(1,AT)}, \mathcal{S}^{(2,AT)}_{y_1}, \dots, \mathcal{S}^{(i,AT)}_{y^{i-1}}$  fixed codebooks  $\mathcal{C}^{(1,AT)}, \mathcal{C}^{(2,AT)}_{y_1}, \dots, \mathcal{C}^{(i-1,AT)}_{y^{i-2}}$ , which under square error distortion becomes

$$\mathbf{c}_{y_i|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\omega} \in \mathbb{R}^k} E\left[ \left\| \mathbf{U} - \left( \mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(1,AT)} + \ldots + \mathbf{c}_{y_i|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)} + \boldsymbol{\omega} \right) \right\|^2 \middle| Y^i = y^i \right]. \tag{A.2}$$

Because  $h(\mathbf{x}) = ||\mathbf{x}||^2$  is a convex function, we can find the global minimum of  $\boldsymbol{\omega} \in \mathbb{R}^k$  by holding all codewords constant and finding the critical points of the function

$$g(\boldsymbol{\omega}) = E\left[\left\|\mathbf{U} - \left(\mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(1,AT)} + \ldots + \mathbf{c}_{y_i|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)} + \boldsymbol{\omega}\right)\right\|^2 \middle| Y^i = y^i\right]. \tag{A.3}$$

That is, the global minimum is given by

$$0 = \frac{\partial}{\partial \omega_{i}} g(\omega) \implies \frac{\partial}{\partial \omega_{i}} E\left[\left\|\mathbf{U} - \left(\mathbf{c}_{y_{1}}^{(1,AT)} + \dots + \mathbf{c}_{y_{i}|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)} + \boldsymbol{\omega}\right)\right\|^{2} \middle| Y^{i} = y^{i}\right] = 0$$

$$(A.4)$$

$$\implies E\left[\frac{\partial}{\partial \omega_{i}}\left\|\mathbf{U} - \left(\mathbf{c}_{y_{1}}^{(1,AT)} + \dots + \mathbf{c}_{y_{i}|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)} + \boldsymbol{\omega}\right)\right\|^{2} \middle| Y^{i} = y^{i}\right] = 0$$

$$(A.5)$$

$$\implies E\left[2\left(U_{i} - \left(\mathbf{c}_{y_{1}}^{(1,AT)} + \dots + \mathbf{c}_{y_{i}|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)} + \boldsymbol{\omega}\right)_{i}\right)\middle| Y^{i} = y^{i}\right] = 0 \quad (A.6)$$

$$\implies \omega_{i} = E[U_{i}|Y^{i} = y^{i}] - \left(\mathbf{c}_{y_{1}}^{(1,AT)} + \dots + \mathbf{c}_{y_{i}|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)}\right)_{i}, \quad (A.7)$$

for all i = 1, ..., k, where  $(\mathbf{v})_i$  represents the *i*th component for any  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^k$ . Note that assuming the source is of finite variance, we can interchange the expectation and partial derivative in (A.5) by the dominated convergence theorem. Hence we have that

$$\omega = E[\mathbf{U}|Y^i = y^i] - \left(\mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(1,AT)} + \dots + \mathbf{c}_{y_i|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)}\right),$$
 (A.8)

implying that under square error distortion, the centroid condition reduces to

$$\mathbf{c}_{y_i|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)} = E[\mathbf{U}|Y^i = y^i] - \left(\mathbf{c}_{y_1}^{(1,AT)} + \dots + \mathbf{c}_{y_i|y^{i-1}}^{(i,AT)}\right). \tag{A.9}$$

## Appendix B

Additional Simulation Results for VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0.0000	0	32.683	31.819	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.999, 1.0)
0.0005	0	28.832	26.907	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.996, 1.0)
0.0010	0	27.871	26.089	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.996, 1.0)
0.0050	0	24.017	22.245	False	(1.0, 3.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0100	0	22.446	20.598	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.995, 1.0)
0.0500	0	15.658	13.811	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.994, 1.0)
0.1000	0	10.815	9.826	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.999, 1.0)
0.0000	5	32.695	31.793	False	(1.0, 3.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0005	5	28.766	27.937	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.992, 1.0)
0.0010	5	27.650	26.497	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.994, 1.0)
0.0050	5	25.560	22.978	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.992, 1.0)
0.0100	5	23.675	21.051	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.983, 1.0)
0.0500	5	18.839	16.247	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.998, 1.0)
0.1000	5	15.658	13.758	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.993, 1.0)
0.0000	10	32.718	31.781	False	(1.0, 3.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0005	10	29.897	28.666	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.997, 1.0)
0.0010	10	28.544	27.485	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.996, 1.0)
0.0050	10	26.007	24.429	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.996, 1.0)
0.0100	10	25.249	22.563	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.988, 1.0)
0.0500	10	20.793	17.985	False	(1.0, 3.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.1000	10	17.952	15.808	False	(1.0, 2.999, 1.0, 1.0)

Table B.1: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1,3,1,1) and 1-dimensional (k=1) memoryless Gaussian source.

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0.0000	0	32.810	31.662	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.99, 1.0)
0.0005	0	29.380	27.730	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.991, 1.0)
0.0010	0	28.723	26.814	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.993, 1.0)
0.0050	0	25.245	22.637	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 0.999)
0.0100	0	22.871	20.774	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.844, 1.0)
0.0500	0	16.193	13.791	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 0.999)
0.1000	0	10.977	9.554	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 0.992)
0.0000	5	32.768	31.669	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.99, 1.0)
0.0005	5	29.162	28.047	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.992, 1.0)
0.0010	5	27.893	26.986	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.992, 1.0)
0.0050	5	25.326	23.625	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 0.998)
0.0100	5	23.757	21.454	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 0.999)
0.0500	5	19.061	15.720	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 0.999)
0.1000	5	15.699	13.338	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 1.0)
0.0000	10	32.799	31.666	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.989, 1.0)
0.0005	10	29.955	29.065	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.99, 1.0)
0.0010	10	28.984	27.640	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.992, 1.0)
0.0050	10	26.968	24.929	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 1.0)
0.0100	10	25.149	22.697	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 1.0)
0.0500	10	20.985	17.711	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 0.999)
0.1000	10	18.524	15.752	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 0.999)

Table B.2: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1,1,3,1) and 1-dimensional (k=1) memoryless Gaussian source.

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0.0000	0	32.652	31.583	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 2.999)
0.0005	0	29.207	28.683	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 2.981)
0.0010	0	27.772	27.483	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 2.99)
0.0050	0	23.663	23.368	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 2.989)
0.0100	0	21.102	20.941	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 2.998)
0.0500	0	13.542	13.483	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 2.994)
0.1000	0	9.441	9.356	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 2.944)
0.0000	5	32.675	31.585	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 3.0)
0.0005	5	29.030	28.864	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 2.955)
0.0010	5	27.631	27.296	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 2.98)
0.0050	5	23.270	23.442	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 2.987)
0.0100	5	21.365	21.359	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 2.999)
0.0500	5	16.108	15.919	False	(1.0, 1.0, 0.807, 2.999)
0.1000	5	14.312	13.392	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 2.991)
0.0000	10	32.650	31.586	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 3.0)
0.0005	10	29.876	29.237	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 2.98)
0.0010	10	28.715	28.426	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 2.98)
0.0050	10	24.754	24.920	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 2.981)
0.0100	10	22.875	22.819	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 2.992)
0.0500	10	18.991	17.986	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 2.999)
0.1000	10	16.581	15.578	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 2.989)

Table B.3: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1,1,1,3) and 1-dimensional (k=1) memoryless Gaussian source.

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0.0000	0	32.767	31.597	False	(2.0, 2.0, 0.992, 1.0)
0.0005	0	28.930	28.178	False	(2.0, 2.0, 0.999, 1.0)
0.0010	0	29.130	26.708	False	(2.0, 1.995, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0050	0	24.733	23.667	False	(2.0, 1.891, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0100	0	22.688	21.430	False	(2.0, 1.84, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0500	0	15.632	13.870	False	(2.0, 1.957, 1.0, 1.0)
0.1000	0	11.195	9.742	False	(2.0, 2.0, 0.998, 1.0)
0.0000	5	32.727	31.609	False	(2.0, 2.0, 0.991, 1.0)
0.0005	5	29.550	28.185	False	(2.0, 2.0, 0.993, 1.0)
0.0010	5	28.364	27.056	False	(2.0, 1.999, 0.997, 1.0)
0.0050	5	25.390	23.421	False	(2.0, 1.999, 0.997, 1.0)
0.0100	5	23.339	21.586	False	(2.0, 1.849, 0.999, 1.0)
0.0500	5	18.855	16.225	False	(2.0, 1.989, 0.999, 1.0)
0.1000	5	15.795	13.889	False	(2.0, 1.88, 0.999, 1.0)
0.0000	10	32.728	31.594	False	(2.0, 2.0, 0.997, 1.0)
0.0005	10	30.556	29.349	False	(2.0, 2.0, 0.992, 1.0)
0.0010	10	29.343	27.932	False	(2.0, 1.998, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0050	10	26.969	24.915	False	(2.0, 1.994, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0100	10	24.514	23.361	False	(2.0, 1.866, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0500	10	20.635	18.699	False	(2.0, 1.964, 1.0, 1.0)
0.1000	10	17.477	16.295	False	(2.0, 1.844, 0.997, 1.0)

Table B.4: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (2,2,1,1) and 1-dimensional (k=1) memoryless Gaussian source.

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0.0000	0	32.608	31.700	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.978, 1.0)
0.0005	0	29.339	27.841	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.967, 1.0)
0.0010	0	28.411	27.112	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.974, 0.999)
0.0050	0	25.746	23.229	False	(1.0, 2.0, 2.0, 1.0)
0.0100	0	22.732	21.099	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.948, 1.0)
0.0500	0	15.152	13.579	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.925, 1.0)
0.1000	0	11.070	9.515	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.981, 1.0)
0.0000	5	32.598	31.706	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.976, 1.0)
0.0005	5	29.041	27.734	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.998, 1.0)
0.0010	5	27.990	26.959	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.976, 1.0)
0.0050	5	24.817	23.219	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.988, 1.0)
0.0100	5	23.110	21.458	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.962, 1.0)
0.0500	5	19.030	16.294	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.999, 1.0)
0.1000	5	16.047	13.552	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.996, 1.0)
0.0000	10	32.586	31.680	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.977, 1.0)
0.0005	10	29.822	28.913	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.979, 1.0)
0.0010	10	28.720	27.739	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.986, 1.0)
0.0050	10	26.183	24.752	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.978, 1.0)
0.0100	10	25.483	22.995	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.984, 1.0)
0.0500	10	21.386	18.367	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.991, 1.0)
0.1000	10	18.814	15.936	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.998, 1.0)

Table B.5: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1,2,2,1) and 1-dimensional (k=1) memoryless Gaussian source.

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0.0000	0	32.708	31.628	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.993)
0.0005	0	29.683	28.750	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.993)
0.0010	0	28.333	27.282	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.998)
0.0050	0	24.026	23.133	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.835, 1.999)
0.0100	0	22.446	21.439	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.986)
0.0500	0	14.995	13.472	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.994)
0.1000	0	10.355	9.335	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.99)
0.0000	5	32.686	31.603	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.991)
0.0005	5	29.408	28.572	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 2.0)
0.0010	5	27.992	27.453	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.999)
0.0050	5	23.564	23.432	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.835, 2.0)
0.0100	5	21.843	21.499	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.862, 2.0)
0.0500	5	18.185	16.072	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.997)
0.1000	5	15.275	13.518	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.965, 1.989)
0.0000	10	32.672	31.648	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.99)
0.0005	10	29.980	29.239	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.994)
0.0010	10	28.821	28.259	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.993)
0.0050	10	26.262	25.129	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.994)
0.0100	10	24.651	23.168	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.991)
0.0500	10	20.658	18.135	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.998)
0.1000	10	18.070	15.896	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.998)

Table B.6: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1,1,2,2) and 1-dimensional (k=1) memoryless Gaussian source.

_	δ	VR-ACOVQ	FR-ACOVQ	Dalaman J Than	Bit Allocation
$\epsilon$	0	SNR (dB)	SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Average
0.0000	0	32.711	31.824	False	(1.0, 4.0, 1.0)
0.0005	0	28.791	26.405	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.999)
0.0010	0	27.629	24.389	False	(1.0, 4.0, 1.0)
0.0050	0	23.509	21.131	False	(1.0, 4.0, 1.0)
0.0100	0	21.323	19.407	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.999)
0.0500	0	15.268	13.175	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.998)
0.1000	0	10.469	9.329	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.999)
0.0000	5	32.704	31.823	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.999)
0.0005	5	29.032	27.702	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.998)
0.0010	5	27.712	26.365	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.993)
0.0050	5	25.034	22.573	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.998)
0.0100	5	23.906	20.624	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.999)
0.0500	5	18.889	14.665	False	(1.0, 4.0, 1.0)
0.1000	5	16.055	12.802	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.999)
0.0000	10	32.669	31.840	False	(1.0, 4.0, 1.0)
0.0005	10	29.684	28.423	False	(1.0, 4.0, 1.0)
0.0010	10	28.622	27.572	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.998)
0.0050	10	26.144	24.222	False	(1.0, 4.0, 1.0)
0.0100	10	24.676	22.137	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.995)
0.0500	10	20.072	17.205	False	(1.0, 4.0, 1.0)
0.1000	10	17.824	15.249	False	(1.0, 4.0, 1.0)

Table B.7: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1,4,1) and 1-dimensional (k=1) memoryless Gaussian source.

		LID A COLIO	ED ACOUO		
$\epsilon$	$\delta$	VR-ACOVQ	FR-ACOVQ	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation
C		SNR (dB)	SNR (dB)	Balancea Tree	Average
0.0000	0	31.887	31.679	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.991)
0.0005	0	27.901	27.948	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.99)
0.0010	0	26.491	26.383	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.992)
0.0050	0	22.337	22.261	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.0100	0	19.938	19.835	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.0500	0	12.765	12.783	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.1000	0	$\boldsymbol{8.852}$	8.777	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.0000	5	31.945	31.689	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.993)
0.0005	5	28.631	28.209	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.992)
0.0010	5	27.090	26.802	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.994)
0.0050	5	22.853	23.029	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.0100	5	20.840	20.893	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.0500	5	15.253	15.320	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.1000	5	12.739	12.712	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.0000	10	31.906	31.698	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.989)
0.0005	10	29.118	29.128	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.989)
0.0010	10	27.746	27.827	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.0050	10	24.300	24.550	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.0100	10	22.309	22.376	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.0500	10	17.123	17.306	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.1000	10	14.852	14.736	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)

Table B.8: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1,1,4) and 1-dimensional (k=1) memoryless Gaussian source.

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0.0000	0	15.168	14.904	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.978, 0.999)
0.0005	0	14.878	14.666	False	(1.0, 3.0, 1.0, 1.0)
0.0010	0	14.633	14.483	False	(1.0, 3.0, 1.0, 0.997)
0.0050	0	13.599	13.340	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.996, 0.996)
0.0100	0	12.449	12.284	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.999, 0.999)
0.0500	0	8.905	8.533	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.992, 0.999)
0.1000	0	6.152	6.087	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.981, 0.999)
0.0000	5	15.051	14.918	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.971, 0.999)
0.0005	5	14.973	14.781	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.997, 0.999)
0.0010	5	14.874	14.650	False	(1.0, 3.0, 1.0, 0.999)
0.0050	5	14.033	13.882	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.991, 0.997)
0.0100	5	13.337	13.148	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.996, 0.999)
0.0500	5	10.644	10.456	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.997, 1.0)
0.1000	5	$\boldsymbol{9.425}$	8.825	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.991, 1.0)
0.0000	10	15.223	14.900	False	(1.0, 3.0, 1.0, 0.998)
0.0005	10	14.931	14.727	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.98, 0.999)
0.0010	10	14.837	14.693	False	(1.0, 3.0, 1.0, 0.996)
0.0050	10	14.322	14.122	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.977, 0.997)
0.0100	10	13.665	13.478	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.967, 0.998)
0.0500	10	11.762	11.462	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.998, 1.0)
0.1000	10	10.585	10.082	False	(1.0, 3.0, 0.995, 1.0)

Table B.9: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1,3,1,1) and 2-dimensional (k=2) memoryless Gaussian source.

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0.0000	0	14.992	14.592	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 0.991)
0.0005	0	14.771	14.436	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 0.992)
0.0010	0	14.586	14.288	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 0.996)
0.0050	0	13.559	13.232	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 0.994)
0.0100	0	12.463	12.180	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 0.99)
0.0500	0	8.728	8.611	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 0.999)
0.1000	0	6.178	6.084	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 0.997)
0.0000	5	15.116	14.598	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 0.994)
0.0005	5	14.861	14.492	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 0.996)
0.0010	5	14.769	14.390	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 0.997)
0.0050	5	14.094	13.708	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 0.998)
0.0100	5	13.389	13.036	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 0.991)
0.0500	5	10.647	10.314	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 0.997)
0.1000	5	9.116	8.745	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 0.997)
0.0000	10	14.994	14.597	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 0.996)
0.0005	10	14.960	14.492	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 0.998)
0.0010	10	14.838	14.424	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 0.993)
0.0050	10	14.302	13.890	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 0.99)
0.0100	10	13.672	13.352	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 0.999)
0.0500	10	11.758	11.203	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 1.0)
0.1000	10	10.318	9.977	False	(1.0, 1.0, 3.0, 1.0)

Table B.10: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1,1,3,1) and 2-dimensional (k=2) memoryless Gaussian source.

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0.0000	0	15.208	15.123	False	(1.0, 1.0, 0.999, 2.996)
0.0005	0	14.923	14.921	True	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 3.0)
0.0010	0	14.809	14.731	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 2.997)
0.0050	0	13.468	13.456	True	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 3.0)
0.0100	0	12.311	12.355	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 2.952)
0.0500	0	8.455	8.515	True	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 3.0)
0.1000	0	6.030	6.021	True	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 3.0)
0.0000	5	15.122	15.122	True	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 3.0)
0.0005	5	14.989	14.999	True	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 3.0)
0.0010	5	15.053	14.878	False	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 2.992)
0.0050	5	14.102	14.102	True	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 3.0)
0.0100	5	13.346	13.322	True	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 3.0)
0.0500	5	10.557	10.558	True	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 3.0)
0.1000	5	8.987	8.966	True	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 3.0)
0.0000	10	15.281	15.108	False	(1.0, 1.0, 0.994, 2.993)
0.0005	10	15.010	15.007	True	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 3.0)
0.0010	10	14.935	14.930	True	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 3.0)
0.0050	10	14.325	14.301	True	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 3.0)
0.0100	10	13.692	13.733	True	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 3.0)
0.0500	10	11.503	11.543	True	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 3.0)
0.1000	10	10.178	10.167	True	(1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 3.0)

Table B.11: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1,1,1,3) and 2-dimensional (k=2) memoryless Gaussian source.

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0.0000	0	14.996	14.825	False	(2.0, 2.0, 0.992, 1.0)
0.0005	0	14.812	14.657	False	(2.0, 2.0, 0.999, 1.0)
0.0010	0	14.727	14.506	False	(2.0, 2.0, 0.995, 1.0)
0.0050	0	13.561	13.424	False	(2.0, 2.0, 0.971, 0.997)
0.0100	0	12.500	12.395	False	(2.0, 2.0, 0.99, 0.998)
0.0500	0	9.027	8.883	False	(2.0, 2.0, 1.0, 0.989)
0.1000	0	6.390	6.343	False	(2.0, 2.0, 1.0, 0.988)
0.0000	5	15.120	14.826	False	(2.0, 2.0, 0.993, 0.998)
0.0005	5	15.092	14.717	False	(2.0, 2.0, 0.992, 1.0)
0.0010	5	14.656	14.634	False	(2.0, 2.0, 1.0, 0.997)
0.0050	5	14.239	13.932	False	(2.0, 2.0, 0.976, 0.999)
0.0100	5	13.477	13.254	False	(2.0, 2.0, 0.996, 1.0)
0.0500	5	10.746	10.671	False	(2.0, 2.0, 1.0, 0.997)
0.1000	5	9.319	8.966	False	(2.0, 2.0, 0.981, 1.0)
0.0000	10	15.113	14.821	False	(2.0, 2.0, 0.992, 0.999)
0.0005	10	14.976	14.750	False	(2.0, 2.0, 0.985, 1.0)
0.0010	10	14.887	14.679	False	(2.0, 2.0, 0.99, 0.999)
0.0050	10	14.294	14.128	False	(2.0, 2.0, 0.982, 0.998)
0.0100	10	13.691	13.553	False	(2.0, 2.0, 0.998, 0.998)
0.0500	10	11.734	11.640	False	(2.0, 2.0, 0.99, 1.0)
0.1000	10	10.451	10.210	False	(2.0, 2.0, 0.991, 1.0)

Table B.12: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (2,2,1,1) and 2-dimensional (k=2) memoryless Gaussian source.

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0.0000	0	15.036	14.528	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.942, 1.0)
0.0005	0	14.813	14.373	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.944, 0.999)
0.0010	0	14.635	14.227	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.947, 0.997)
0.0050	0	13.572	13.205	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.962, 1.0)
0.0100	0	12.456	12.320	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.973, 0.999)
0.0500	0	8.976	8.815	False	(1.0, 2.0, 2.0, 0.992)
0.1000	0	6.312	6.227	False	(1.0, 2.0, 2.0, 0.998)
0.0000	5	15.029	14.536	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.941, 0.999)
0.0005	5	14.775	14.401	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.943, 0.996)
0.0010	5	14.747	14.350	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.944, 0.996)
0.0050	5	14.044	13.679	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.95, 1.0)
0.0100	5	13.411	13.044	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.986, 0.999)
0.0500	5	10.788	10.531	False	(1.0, 2.0, 2.0, 0.999)
0.1000	5	9.288	9.091	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.998, 0.996)
0.0000	10	14.961	14.546	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.942, 1.0)
0.0005	10	14.940	14.459	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.971, 0.998)
0.0010	10	14.873	14.383	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.972, 0.996)
0.0050	10	14.280	13.845	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.95, 0.998)
0.0100	10	13.716	13.374	False	(1.0, 2.0, 1.957, 0.996)
0.0500	10	11.576	11.320	False	(1.0, 2.0, 2.0, 1.0)
0.1000	10	10.492	10.231	False	(1.0, 2.0, 2.0, 0.995)

Table B.13: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1,2,2,1) and 2-dimensional (k=2) memoryless Gaussian source.

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0.0000	0	15.428	14.942	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.983)
0.0005	0	15.146	14.681	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 2.0)
0.0010	0	15.079	14.585	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.99)
0.0050	0	13.851	13.470	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.997)
0.0100	0	12.758	12.475	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.975)
0.0500	0	8.837	8.837	True	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 2.0)
0.1000	0	6.240	6.246	True	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 2.0)
0.0000	5	15.428	14.917	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.982)
0.0005	5	15.339	14.849	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.985)
0.0010	5	15.229	14.667	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.99)
0.0050	5	14.382	13.974	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.968)
0.0100	5	13.628	13.294	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.973)
0.0500	5	10.849	10.722	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.998)
0.1000	5	9.403	9.002	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.995)
0.0000	10	15.438	14.953	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.982)
0.0005	10	15.211	14.825	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.979)
0.0010	10	15.290	14.788	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.988)
0.0050	10	14.686	14.197	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.998)
0.0100	10	14.047	13.657	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.999)
0.0500	10	11.820	11.671	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.975)
0.1000	10	10.537	10.311	False	(1.0, 1.0, 2.0, 1.987)

Table B.14: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1,1,2,2) and 2-dimensional (k=2) memoryless Gaussian source.

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0.0000	0	15.016	14.611	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.992)
0.0005	0	14.825	14.387	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.993)
0.0010	0	14.465	14.153	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.996)
0.0050	0	13.173	12.811	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.999)
0.0100	0	11.976	11.722	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.996)
0.0500	0	8.516	8.206	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.997)
0.1000	0	6.039	5.856	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.999)
0.0000	5	15.135	14.610	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.999)
0.0005	5	14.895	14.481	False	(1.0, 4.0, 1.0)
0.0010	5	14.876	14.367	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.989)
0.0050	5	13.877	13.436	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.991)
0.0100	5	13.108	12.722	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.988)
0.0500	5	10.428	10.103	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.997)
0.1000	5	8.747	8.440	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.999)
0.0000	10	15.017	14.582	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.999)
0.0005	10	14.919	14.438	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.998)
0.0010	10	14.917	14.355	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.993)
0.0050	10	14.241	13.726	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.999)
0.0100	10	13.531	13.162	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.997)
0.0500	10	11.218	10.937	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.998)
0.1000	10	9.891	9.634	False	(1.0, 4.0, 0.999)

Table B.15: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1,4,1) and 2-dimensional (k=2) memoryless Gaussian source.

$\epsilon$	δ	VR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	FR-ACOVQ SNR (dB)	Balanced Tree	Bit Allocation Average
0.0000	0	15.173	15.173	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.0005	0	14.946	14.946	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.0010	0	14.726	14.730	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.0050	0	13.364	13.374	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.0100	0	12.196	12.188	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.0500	0	8.231	8.222	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.1000	0	5.717	5.733	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.0000	5	15.164	15.164	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.0005	5	15.038	15.042	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.0010	5	14.910	14.920	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.0050	5	14.118	14.111	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.0100	5	13.303	13.334	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.0500	5	10.386	10.332	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.1000	5	8.600	8.551	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.0000	10	15.169	15.175	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.0005	10	15.063	15.062	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.0010	10	14.962	14.968	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.0050	10	14.321	14.298	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.0100	10	13.718	13.746	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.0500	10	11.257	11.310	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)
0.1000	10	9.822	9.824	True	(1.0, 1.0, 4.0)

Table B.16: VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1,1,4) and 2-dimensional (k=2) memoryless Gaussian source.

		$\delta$				$\delta$	
$\epsilon$	0	5	10	$\epsilon$	0	5	10
0.00000	0.864	0.903	0.938	0.00000	0.264	0.134	0.322
0.00050	1.924	0.829	1.231	0.00050	0.212	0.193	0.205
0.00100	1.781	1.153	1.059	0.00100	0.151	0.224	0.144
0.00500	1.772	2.581	1.578	0.00500	0.259	0.151	0.2
0.01000	1.848	2.624	2.686	0.01000	0.165	0.189	0.187
0.05000	1.847	2.593	2.808	0.05000	0.372	0.188	0.3
0.10000	0.99	1.9	2.143	0.10000	0.065	0.6	0.503

Table B.17: Difference between VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1,3,1,1) and 1-dimensional (k = 1) memoryless Gaussian source.

Table B.18: Difference between VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1,3,1,1) and 2-dimensional (k = 2) memoryless Gaussian source.

		$\delta$				$\delta$	
$\epsilon$	0	5	10	$\epsilon$	0	5	10
0.00000	1.148	1.099	1.133	0.00000	0.399	0.519	0.397
0.00050	1.65	1.115	0.89	0.00050	0.335	0.37	0.468
0.00100	1.909	0.906	1.345	0.00100	0.297	0.379	0.414
0.00500	2.608	1.7	2.039	0.00500	0.327	0.386	0.411
0.01000	2.097	2.303	2.453	0.01000	0.283	0.353	0.32
0.05000	2.402	3.342	3.274	0.05000	0.117	0.333	0.555
0.10000	1.423	2.361	2.772	0.10000	0.094	0.371	0.341

Table B.19: Difference between VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1, 1, 3, 1) and 1-dimensional (k = 1) memoryless Gaussian source.

Table B.20: Difference between VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1, 1, 3, 1) and 2-dimensional (k = 2) memoryless Gaussian source.

	$\delta$			$\delta$			$\delta$			
$\epsilon$	0	5	10		$\epsilon$	0	5	10		
0.00000	1.069	1.09	1.063	-	0.00000	0.086	0.000	0.173		
0.00050	0.524	0.166	0.639		0.00050	0.002	-0.009	0.003		
0.00100	0.289	0.335	0.289		0.00100	0.077	0.175	0.004		
0.00500	0.295	-0.172	-0.166		0.00500	0.012	0.001	0.024		
0.01000	0.162	0.006	0.055		0.01000	-0.044	0.023	-0.042		
0.05000	0.059	0.189	1.005		0.05000	-0.061	-0.000	-0.040		
0.10000	0.084	0.92	1.003		0.10000	0.009	0.020	0.011		

Table B.21: Difference between VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1,1,1,3) and 1-dimensional (k=1) memoryless Gaussian source.

Table B.22: Difference between VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1,1,1,3) and 2-dimensional (k=2) memoryless Gaussian source.

10

0.292

 $0.226 \\ 0.208$ 

0.167

 $\begin{array}{c} 0.138 \\ 0.095 \end{array}$ 

0.241

		$\delta$					$\delta$
$\epsilon$	0	5	10		$\epsilon$	0	5
0.00000	1.169	1.118	1.134	-	0.00000	0.171	0.295
0.00050	0.752	1.365	1.207		0.00050	0.154	0.375
0.00100	2.422	1.309	1.411		0.00100	0.221	0.021
0.00500	1.065	1.969	2.054		0.00500	0.137	0.307
0.01000	1.258	1.753	1.153		0.01000	0.105	0.222
0.05000	1.762	2.63	1.936		0.05000	0.144	0.075
0.10000	1.453	1.906	1.183		0.10000	0.047	0.353

Table B.23: Difference between VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (2, 2, 1, 1) and 1-dimensional (k = 1) memoryless Gaussian source.

Table B.24: Difference between VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (2, 2, 1, 1) and 2-dimensional (k = 2) memoryless Gaussian source.

		$\delta$				$\delta$
$\epsilon$	0	5	10	$\epsilon$	0	5
0.00000	0.908	0.892	0.906	0.00000	0.508	0.493
0.00050	1.498	1.306	0.909	0.00050	0.44	0.374
0.00100	1.3	1.031	0.982	0.00100	0.408	0.397
0.00500	2.517	1.598	1.431	0.00500	0.368	0.365
0.01000	1.633	1.651	2.488	0.01000	0.136	0.367
0.05000	1.573	2.736	3.019	0.05000	0.161	0.257
0.10000	1.556	2.495	2.879	0.10000	0.085	0.197

Table B.25: Difference between VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1, 2, 2, 1) and 1-dimensional (k = 1) memoryless Gaussian source.

Table B.26: Difference between VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1, 2, 2, 1) and 2-dimensional (k = 2) memoryless Gaussian source.

10 0.4150.4810.490.434 0.3420.2560.261

	$\delta$			$\delta$				$\delta$		
$\epsilon$	0	5	10	$\epsilon$	0	5	10			
0.00000	1.08	1.083	1.024	0.00000	0.486	0.511	0.486			
0.00050	0.933	0.836	0.741	0.00050	0.465	0.49	0.386			
0.00100	1.051	0.539	0.561	0.00100	0.494	0.562	0.501			
0.00500	0.893	0.132	1.134	0.00500	0.382	0.408	0.488			
0.01000	1.007	0.343	1.483	0.01000	0.283	0.334	0.39			
0.05000	1.523	2.113	2.523	0.05000	0.000000	0.126	0.15			
0.10000	1.02	1.757	2.173	0.10000	-0.006000	0.401	0.226			

Difference between VR-Table B.27: ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1, 1, 2, 2) and 1-dimensional (k = 1) memoryless Gaussian source.

Difference between VR-Table B.28: ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1, 1, 2, 2) and 2-dimensional (k=2) memoryless Gaussian source.

	$\delta$				$\delta$
0	5	10	$\epsilon$	0	5
000 <b>0.887</b>	0.881	0.829	0.00000	0.404	0.525
050 <b>2.386</b>	1.33	1.261	0.00050	0.438	0.413
100 <b>3.24</b>	1.348	1.051	0.00100	0.312	0.509
500 <b>2.378</b>	2.46	1.922	0.00500	0.362	0.442
000 <b>1.915</b>	3.282	2.539	0.01000	0.253	0.386
000 <b>2.094</b>	4.224	2.867	0.05000	0.31	0.325
00 <b>1.141</b>	3.253	2.575	0.10000	0.184	0.307

Table B.29: Difference between VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1, 4, 1) and 1-dimensional (k = 1) memoryless Gaussian source.

Table B.30: Difference between VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1, 4, 1) and 2-dimensional (k = 2) memoryless Gaussian source.

	$\delta$						$\delta$	
$\epsilon$	0	5	10		$\epsilon$	0	5	10
0.00000	0.208	0.256	0.208	-	0.00000	-0.000	-0.000	-0.006
0.00050	-0.047	0.422	-0.01		0.00050	0.000	-0.004	0.001
0.00100	0.107	0.288	-0.080		0.00100	-0.004	-0.010	-0.006
0.00500	0.075	-0.175	-0.250		0.00500	-0.011	0.008	0.024
0.01000	0.103	-0.053	-0.067		0.01000	0.009	-0.031	-0.028
0.05000	-0.018	-0.067	-0.183		0.05000	0.009	0.055	-0.053
0.10000	0.0750	0.027	0.116		0.10000	-0.016	0.050	-0.002

Table B.31: Difference between VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1, 1, 4) and 1-dimensional (k = 1) memoryless Gaussian source.

Table B.32: Difference between VR-ACOVQ and FR-ACOVQ SNRs for bit allocation (1, 1, 4) and 2-dimensional (k = 2) memoryless Gaussian source.

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