

Random directed and on-line spatial graphs

Andrew Wade

Department of Mathematical Sciences



Durham
University

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A partial survey, including some joint work with
Nicholas Georgiou, Jonathan Jordan, Mathew Penrose, Qasem Tawhari

Introduction: Spatial networks

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- It is natural to study simple models of **random** spatial networks, for inference or prediction, for insight into typical behaviour, or for assessing performance of algorithms or processes that take place on networks.
- In this talk I will survey some results on some networks constructed on random points in Euclidean space with a connectivity rule that incorporates **proximity** and some **ordering constraint**.

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- More generally, **α -weighted** total length: $\sum_{\text{edges } (i,j)} \|U_i - U_j\|^\alpha$, for a fixed parameter $\alpha > 0$.
- Main question: What can we say about the (asymptotic) distribution of \mathcal{L}_n in the **large sample** limit $n \rightarrow \infty$?

Outline

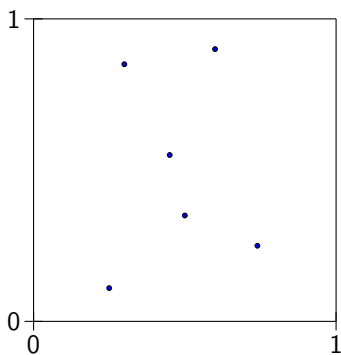
- 1 Introduction
- 2 Nearest-neighbour graph
- 3 On-line nearest-neighbour graph
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- 5 Closing remarks
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Nearest-neighbour graph

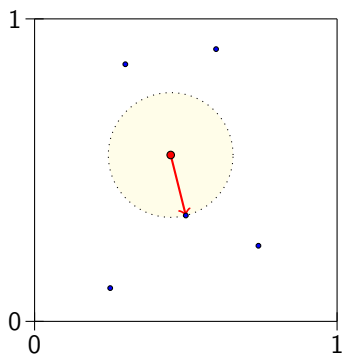
Vertices $1, \dots, n$ are given independent, uniformly random locations U_1, \dots, U_n in the unit d -cube $[0, 1]^d$. For every vertex, insert a (directed) edge from that vertex to its **nearest neighbour**, i.e., the closest (Euclidean distance) other vertex. (Ties have probability 0.) Here is a picture for $d = 2$, $n = 6$:



Points are distributed uniformly at random.

Nearest-neighbour graph

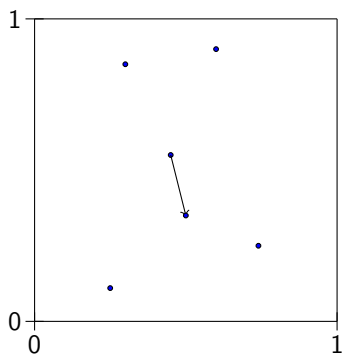
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For each point, identify its nearest neighbour, and add an edge.

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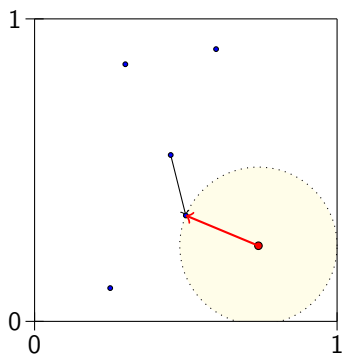
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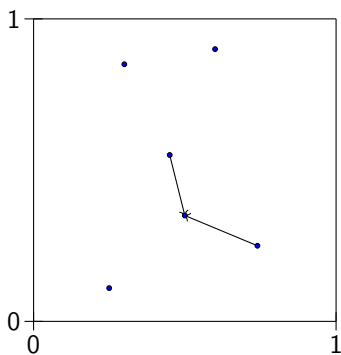
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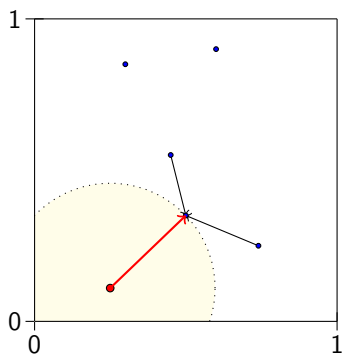
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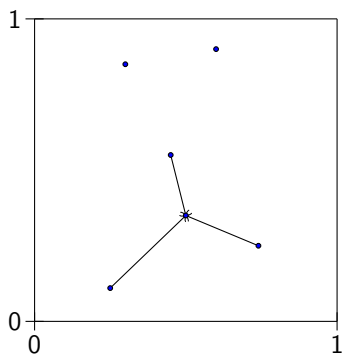
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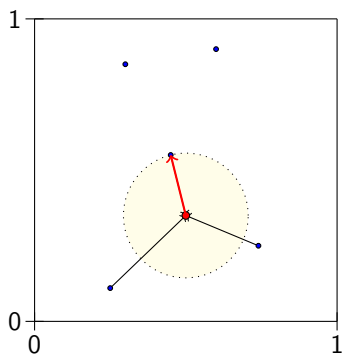
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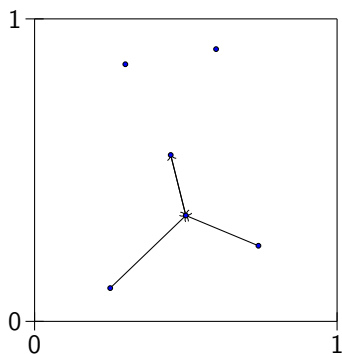
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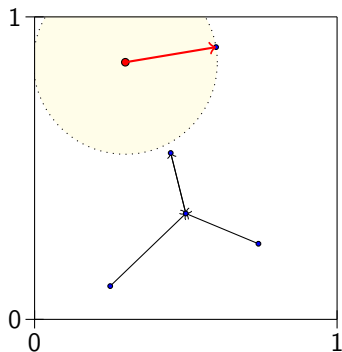
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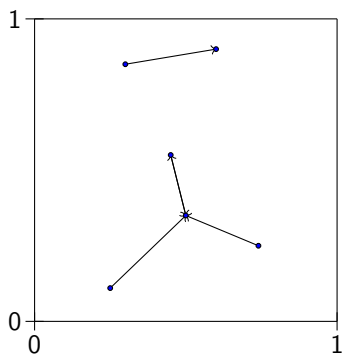
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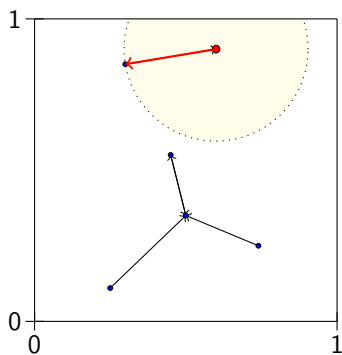
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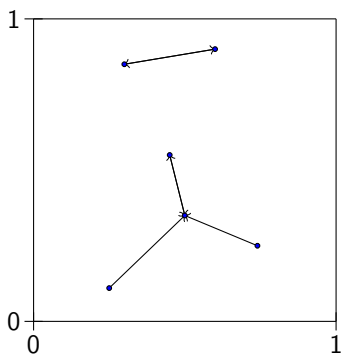
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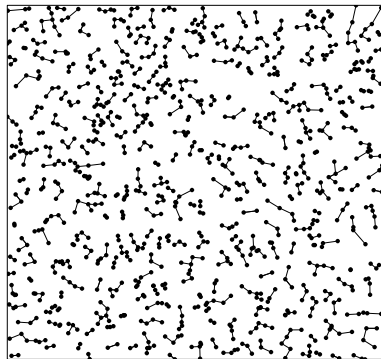
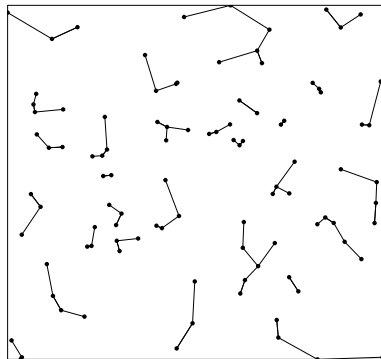
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Simulations of nearest-neighbour graph (NNG) in $[0, 1]^2$, on $n = 100$ points (*left*) and $n = 1000$ points (*right*).

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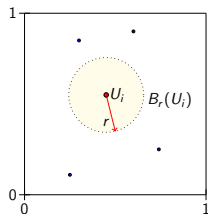
We consider the **total power-weighted edge length**

$$\mathcal{N}_n^{d,\alpha} := \sum_{i=1}^n \min_{1 \leq j \leq n, j \neq i} \|U_j - U_i\|^\alpha,$$

where $\alpha > 0$ (e.g., $\alpha = 1$ is the total edge length).

The limit theory of $\mathcal{N}_n^{d,\alpha}$ was considered by BICKEL & BREIMAN (1983), AVRAM & BERTSIMAS (1993), and PENROSE & YUKICH (2001), among others.

Nearest-neighbour graph: Heuristics

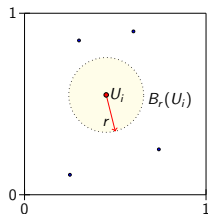


What is the n -dependence in $\mathcal{N}_n^{d,\alpha}$? Say in $\mathbb{E} \mathcal{N}_n^{d,\alpha}$?

Consider vertex $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ at $U_i \in [0, 1]^d$.

What is the distribution of its **nearest-neighbour distance** $D_{n,i} := \min_{j \neq i} \|U_j - U_i\|$?

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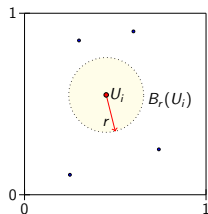
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Observe that $D_{n,i} > r$ if and only if all of U_j , $j \neq i$, lie in $[0, 1]^d \setminus B_r(U_i)$, where $B_r(x) := \{y \in \mathbb{R}^d : \|y - x\| \leq r\}$.

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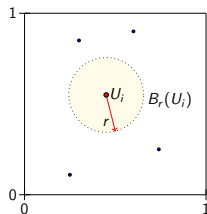
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From here it is not hard to see that $\text{med}(D_{n,i}) \asymp n^{-1/d}$, and indeed

$$\mathbb{E} D_{n,i}^\alpha \asymp n^{-\alpha/d}, \text{ and } \text{Var} D_{n,i}^\alpha \asymp n^{-2\alpha/d}.$$

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An appropriate formulation of this local dependence allows one to obtain **laws of large numbers** and **central limit theorems**, involving scale factors $\mathbb{E} \mathcal{N}_n^{d,\alpha} \asymp n^{1-(\alpha/d)}$ and $\text{Var} \mathcal{N}_n^{d,\alpha} \asymp n^{1-(2\alpha/d)}$.

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Now an extensive theory of **stabilization** to obtain such results for spatial random graphs with local dependence: ALDOUS & STEELE (1992), AVRAM & BERTSIMAS (1993), KESTEN & LEE (1996), **PENROSE & YUKICH** (2001–), many others.

Nearest-neighbour graph: Limit theory

Theorem (Bickel & Breiman 1983, Avram & Bertsimas 1993, Penrose & Yukich 2001, etc.)

For $d \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\alpha > 0$, as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

$$n^{(\alpha/d)-1} \mathcal{N}_n^{d,\alpha} \rightarrow c_{d,\alpha} := \pi^{-\alpha/2} \Gamma(1 + \frac{\alpha}{d}) \Gamma(1 + \frac{d}{2})^{\alpha/d}, \text{ in } L^1.$$

Moreover, as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

$$n^{(\alpha/d)-(1/2)} (\mathcal{N}^{d,\alpha} - \mathbb{E} \mathcal{N}^{d,\alpha}) \xrightarrow{d} Z,$$

where Z has a mean zero, finite variance* *normal distribution*.

* Variance depends on d and α ; explicit values known only for $d = 1$ (PENROSE & WADE, 2008).

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Example. When $d = 2$, $\alpha = 1$, we have that the total edge length of the nearest-neighbour graph on $[0, 1]^2$ satisfies

$$\mathbb{E} \mathcal{N}^{2,1} \sim \frac{\sqrt{n}}{2}, \text{ and } \mathcal{N}^{2,1} - \mathbb{E} \mathcal{N}^{2,1} \xrightarrow{d} \text{non-degenerate normal.}$$

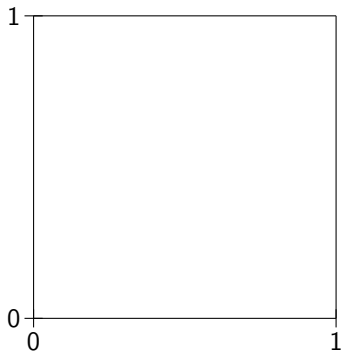
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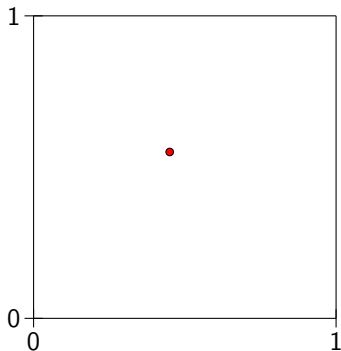
Vertices $1, \dots, n$ arrive sequentially, with independent, uniformly random locations U_1, \dots, U_n in the unit d -cube $[0, 1]^d$. Each vertex after the first is joined by an edge to its nearest predecessor (Euclidean distance). Here is a picture for $d = 2$:



$n = 0$: empty graph!

On-line nearest-neighbour graph

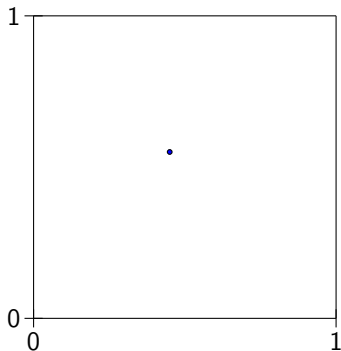
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$n = 1$: first vertex arrives at a uniform random location.

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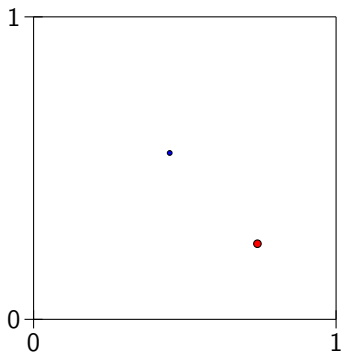
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$n = 1$: first vertex has no neighbours, so no edge.

On-line nearest-neighbour graph

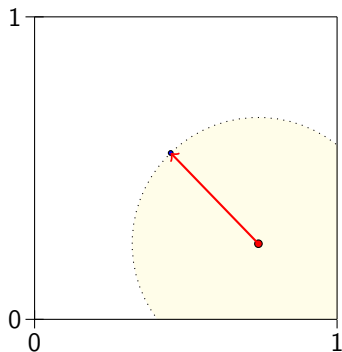
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$n = 2$: next vertex arrives.

On-line nearest-neighbour graph

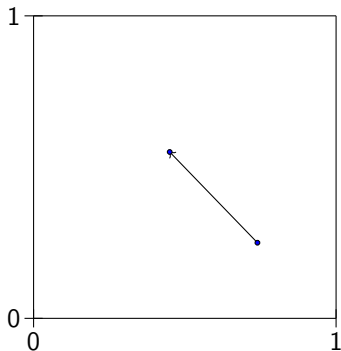
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$n = 2$: new vertex joins to nearest existing vertex.

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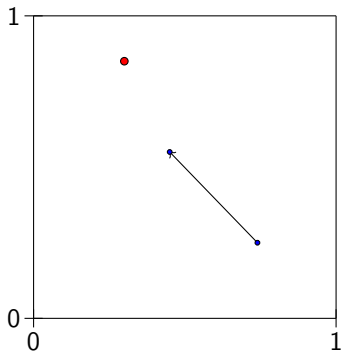
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$n \geq 2$: new vertex joins to nearest existing vertex.

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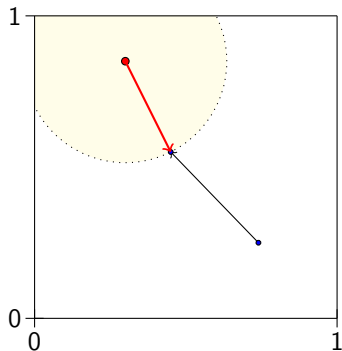
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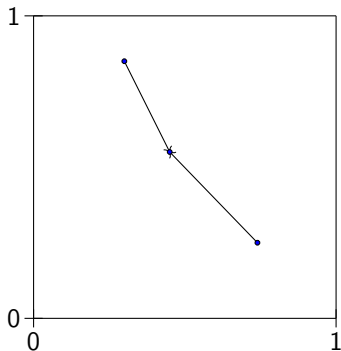
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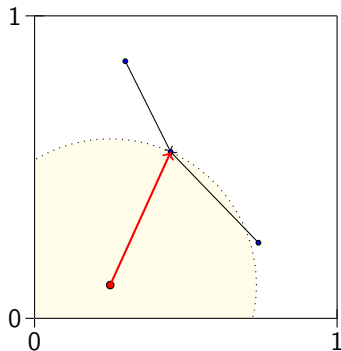
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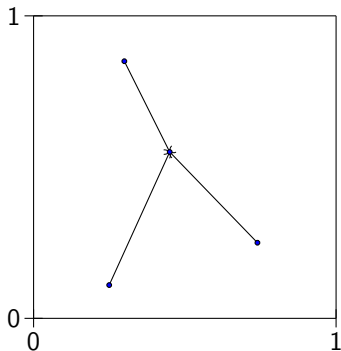
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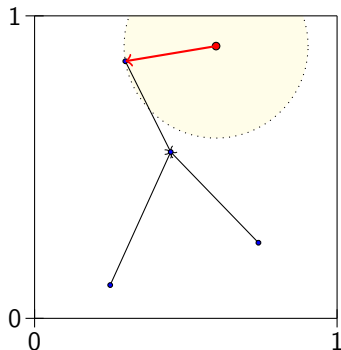
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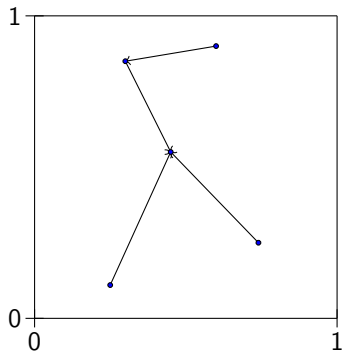
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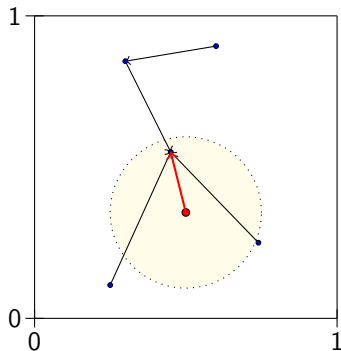
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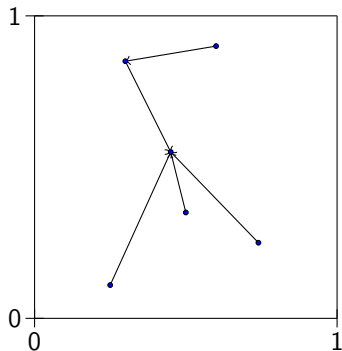
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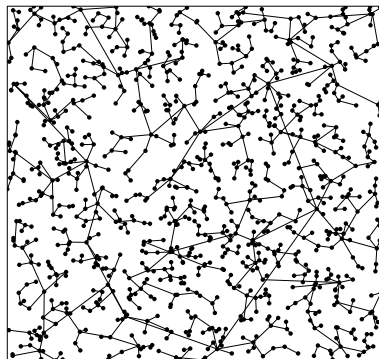
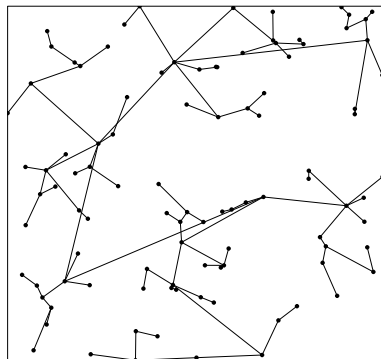
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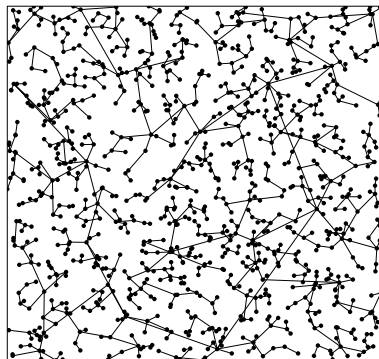
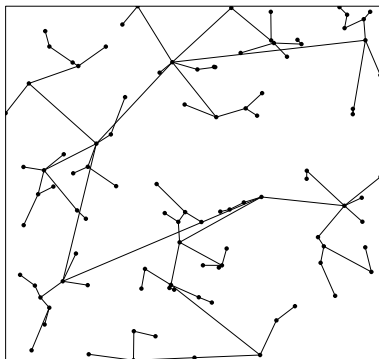
NB. Graph is a **tree**; different **order** will give **different** graph.

On-line nearest-neighbour graph



Simulations of on-line nearest-neighbour graph (ONG) in $[0, 1]^2$, on $n = 100$ points (*left*) and $n = 1000$ points (*right*).

On-line nearest-neighbour graph



Simulations of on-line nearest-neighbour graph (ONG) in $[0, 1]^2$, on $n = 100$ points (*left*) and $n = 1000$ points (*right*).

Note the ONG is more **inhomogeneous** than the ordinary NNG: Old vertices tend to be more highly connected; old edges tend to be longer.

On-line nearest-neighbour graph

Although it is a natural model of a **time-evolving spatial network**, the earliest appearance of the on-line nearest-neighbour graph (ONG) that I am aware of is in STEELE (1989). It also appears as a limiting case of network models of FABRIKANT *et al.* (2002), MANNA & SEN (2002) and FLAXMAN *et al.* (2006). The name “on-line nearest-neighbour graph” is due to PENROSE (2005).

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We consider the **total power-weighted edge length**

$$\mathcal{O}_n^{d,\alpha} := \sum_{i=2}^n \min_{1 \leq j < i} \|U_j - U_i\|^\alpha,$$

as studied by PENROSE (2005), PENROSE & WADE (2008), and WADE (2007–9).

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As in the heuristic for the nearest-neighbour graph, $\mathbb{E} D_{i,i}^\alpha \asymp i^{-\alpha/d}$ and $\text{Var} D_{i,i}^\alpha \asymp i^{-2\alpha/d}$, so

$$\mathbb{E} \mathcal{O}_n^{d,\alpha} \begin{cases} \rightarrow \text{const.} & \text{if } \alpha > d, \\ \asymp \log n & \text{if } \alpha = d, \\ \asymp n^{1-(\alpha/d)} & \text{if } \alpha < d. \end{cases}$$

Moreover, assuming local dependence, one might guess

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On-line nearest-neighbour graph: Law of large numbers

Theorem (Wade 2007, Penrose & Wade 2008)

Let $d \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\alpha > 0$. Then, as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

$$n^{(\alpha/d)-1} \mathcal{O}_n^{d,\alpha} \rightarrow c'_{d,\alpha}, \text{ in } L^1, \text{ if } 0 < \alpha < d.$$

On the other hand for $\alpha = d$ we have

$\mathbb{E} \mathcal{O}_n^{d,d} \sim \pi^{-d/2} \Gamma(1 + (d/2)) \log n$, and, for $\alpha > d$ we have $\mathcal{O}_n^{d,\alpha} \rightarrow W^{d,\alpha}$ in L^2 , where $W^{d,\alpha}$ is an \mathbb{R}_+ -valued random variable with finite variance (not Gaussian).

Here

$$c'_{d,\alpha} := \frac{d}{d-\alpha} c_{d,\alpha} \text{ for } \alpha \in (0, d).$$

For example, $c'_{2,1} = 2c_{2,1} = 1$.

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Intuition: Increasing α increases the relative importance of **long** (\approx early) edges. For example, if $\alpha > d/2$ then the very first edge contributes a positive fraction of the total variance (order 1).

On-line nearest-neighbour graph: Large α

Theorem (Penrose & Wade 2008, Wade 2009)

Let $d \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\alpha > d/2$. Then, as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

$$\mathcal{O}_n^{d,\alpha} - \mathbb{E} \mathcal{O}_n^{d,\alpha} \rightarrow Q_{d,\alpha}, \text{ in } L^2,$$

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- Note if $\alpha \in (d/2, d]$ one has $\mathbb{E} \mathcal{O}_n^{d,\alpha} \rightarrow \infty$, so the centering is non-trivial.
- We know $Q_{d,\alpha}$ is non-Gaussian for $d = 1$, $\alpha > 1/2$ (when it is characterized by a distributional fixed-point equation), and when $d \geq 2$, $\alpha > d$ (when $Q_{d,\alpha} = W_{d,\alpha} - \mathbb{E} W_{d,\alpha}$ from above). Conjecture is that $Q_{d,\alpha}$ is non-Gaussian for all $\alpha > d/2$.

On-line nearest-neighbour graph: Small α

Conjecture (Penrose 2005, Wade 2009)

Let $d \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\alpha \in (0, d/2)$. Then, as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

$$n^{(\alpha/d)-(1/2)} (\mathcal{O}_n^{d,\alpha} - \mathbb{E} \mathcal{O}_n^{d,\alpha}) \xrightarrow{d} \text{non-degenerate normal}.$$

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Example. For the case of the total length ($\alpha = 1$) we have that the central limit theorem holds for $d \geq 5$; it is conjectured for $d \geq 3$. When $d = 1$, we have $\mathcal{O}_n^{1,1} - \mathbb{E} \mathcal{O}_n^{1,1} \rightarrow Q_{1,1}$, non-Gaussian distribution characterized by a fixed point.

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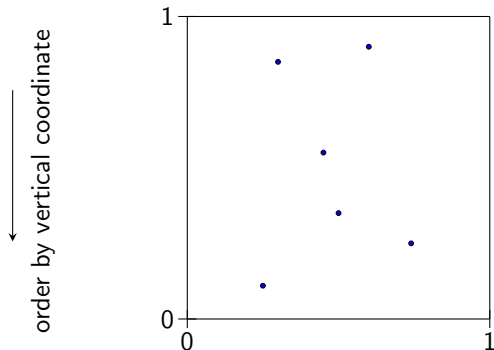
Example. For the case of the total length ($\alpha = 1$) we have that the central limit theorem holds for $d \geq 5$; it is conjectured for $d \geq 3$. When $d = 1$, we have $\mathcal{O}_n^{1,1} - \mathbb{E} \mathcal{O}_n^{1,1} \rightarrow Q_{1,1}$, non-Gaussian distribution characterized by a fixed point. In the critical case $\alpha = d/2$ one also anticipates a central limit theorem, with a logarithmic variance scaling.

Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Nearest-neighbour graph
- 3 On-line nearest-neighbour graph
- 4 Minimal directed spanning tree**
- 5 Closing remarks
- 6 References

Minimal directed spanning tree

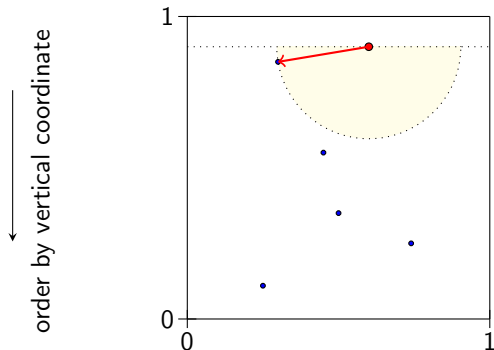
Vertices $1, \dots, n$ have uniform random locations U_1, \dots, U_n in $[0, 1]^d$. For every vertex, insert a (directed) edge from that vertex to its **directed nearest neighbour**, i.e., the closest vertex with **strictly smaller d th coordinate**. (The vertex with minimal d th coordinate does not emit an edge.) Here is a picture for $d = 2$, $n = 6$:



Points are distributed uniformly at random.

Minimal directed spanning tree

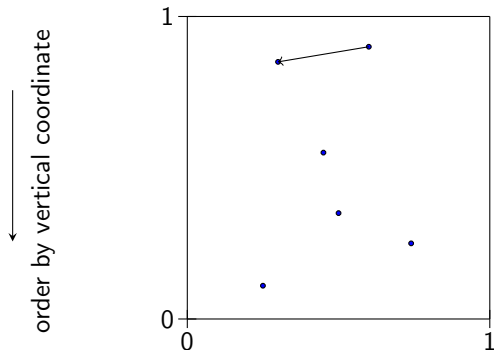
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Join each point to its nearest neighbour **below**.

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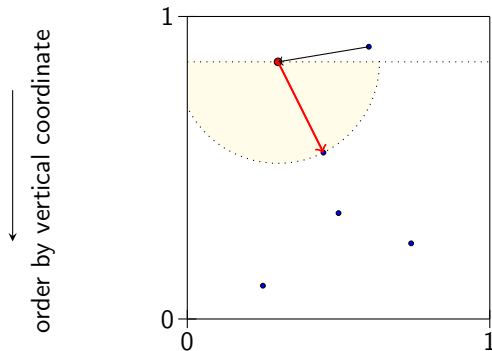
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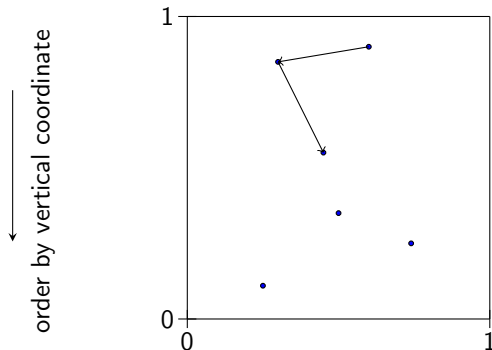
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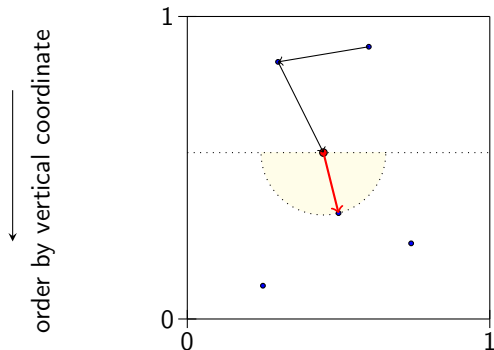
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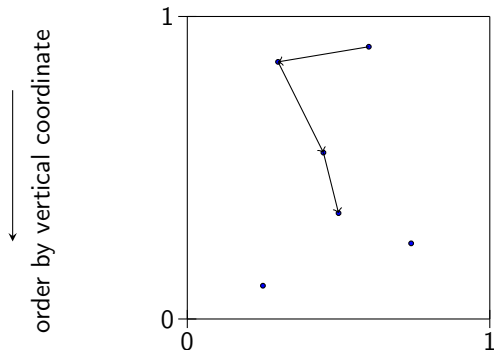
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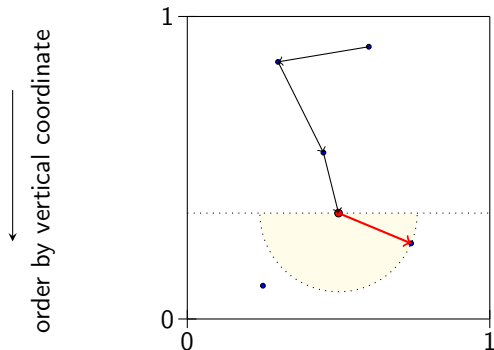
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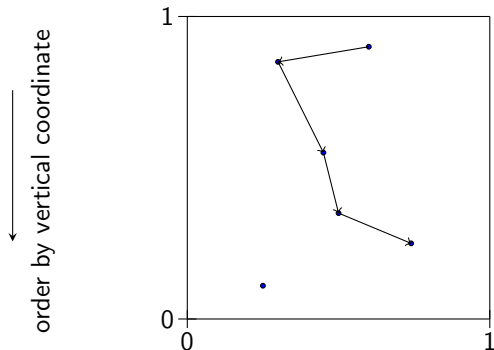
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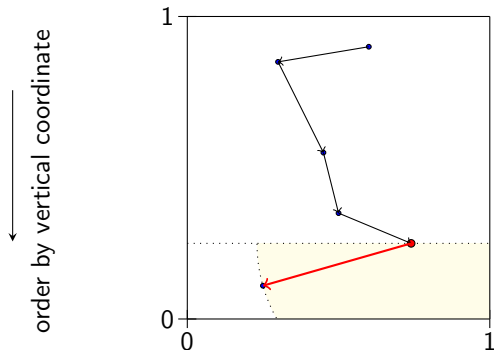
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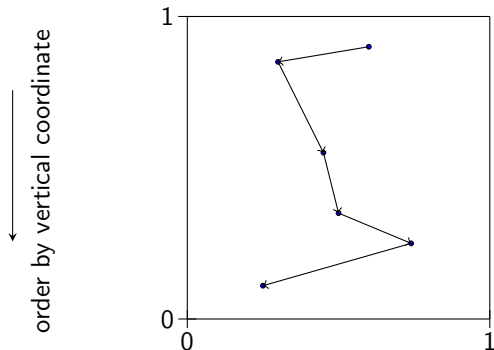
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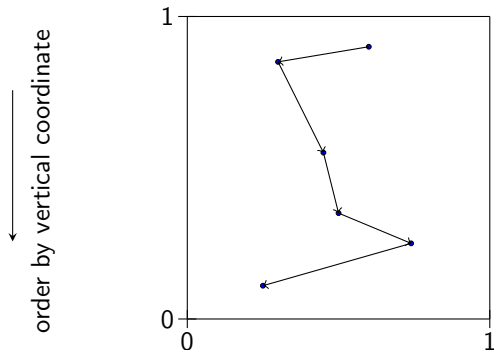
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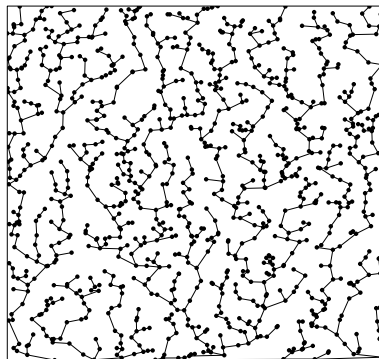
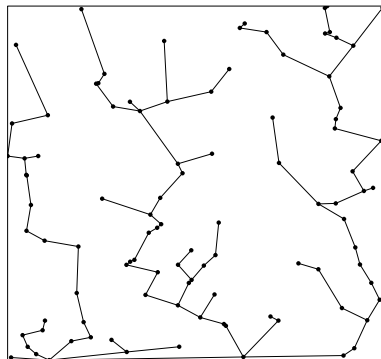
Minimal directed spanning tree

Vertices $1, \dots, n$ have uniform random locations U_1, \dots, U_n in $[0, 1]^d$. For every vertex, insert a (directed) edge from that vertex to its **directed nearest neighbour**, i.e., the closest vertex with **strictly smaller** d th coordinate. (The vertex with minimal d th coordinate does not emit an edge.) Here is a picture for $d = 2$, $n = 6$:



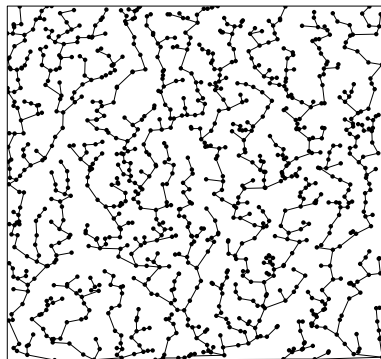
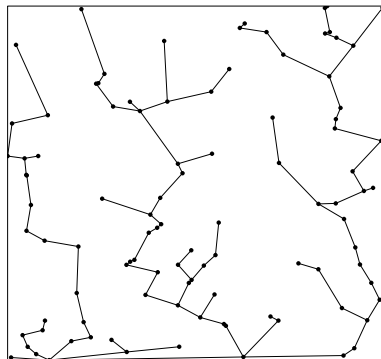
NB. The graph is **tree**.

Minimal directed spanning tree



Simulations of minimal directed spanning tree (MDST) in $[0, 1]^2$, on $n = 100$ points (*left*) and $n = 1000$ points (*right*).

Minimal directed spanning tree



Simulations of minimal directed spanning tree (MDST) in $[0, 1]^2$, on $n = 100$ points (*left*) and $n = 1000$ points (*right*).

Note again some **inhomogeneity**, this time due to spatial **boundary effects** near the base of the d -cube, where edges are typically much longer than the edges in the **bulk**.

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Model is a variant of the **minimal directed spanning tree** introduced by BHATT & ROY (2004); also a limiting case of NANDI & MANNA (2007). Motivation is from the modelling of **drainage** or **river networks**.

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$$\mathcal{M}_n^{d,\alpha} := \sum_{i=1}^n \min_{1 \leq j \leq n, j \neq i} \|U_j - U_i\|^\alpha,$$

where $\alpha > 0$ (e.g., $\alpha = 1$ is the total edge length).

The limit theory of $\mathcal{M}_n^{d,\alpha}$ was considered by PENROSE & WADE (2010).

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Distinguishing feature: Unlike the ordinary nearest-neighbour graph, one gets some **long edges** near to the bottom boundary. These **boundary effects** may disrupt the Gaussian limit law, and can be described in terms of the **on-line nearest-neighbour graph** in **one lower dimension**.

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Increasing α increases relative importance of long edges, and leads to a Gaussian/non-Gaussian phase transition. Small α : only bulk contributes (Gaussian), large α only boundary contributes (non-Gaussian).

Minimal directed spanning tree: Limit theory

Theorem (Penrose & Wade* 2010)

- If $0 < \alpha < d/2$, then, as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

$$n^{(\alpha/d)-(1/2)} (\mathcal{M}_n^{d,\alpha} - \mathbb{E} \mathcal{M}_n^{d,\alpha}) \xrightarrow{d} Z,$$

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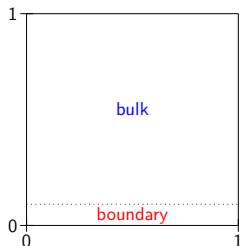
$$\mathcal{M}_n^{d,d/2} - \mathbb{E} \mathcal{M}_n^{d,d/2} \xrightarrow{d} Z + Q_{d-1,d/2},$$

where Z is non-degenerate normal, independent of $Q_{d-1,d/2}$.

* Caveat: PENROSE & WADE actually prove this for the Poissonized version.

Minimal directed spanning tree: Heuristics

Define $\varepsilon_n = n^{-\beta}$ for $\beta \approx 1/2$.

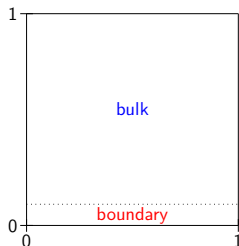


The **normal component** (when present) in the limit theorem arises from the **bulk** of the domain, vertices in $[0, 1]^{d-1} \times [\varepsilon_n, 1]$.

The **ONG component** (when present) arises from edges very close to the **boundary**, i.e., vertices in $[0, 1]^{d-1} \times [0, \varepsilon_n]$.

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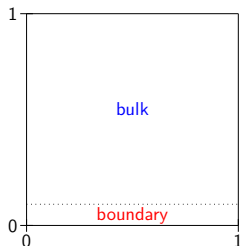
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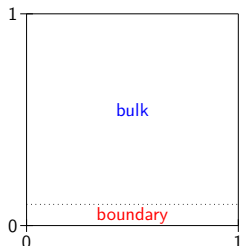
Similarly to the ordinary nearest-neighbour graph, local dependence and roughly homogeneous edge lengths imply

$$n^{(\alpha/d)-(1/2)} (\mathcal{M}_n^{d,\alpha:\text{bulk}} - \mathbb{E} \mathcal{M}_n^{d,\alpha:\text{bulk}}) \xrightarrow{d} Z.$$

In particular, if $\alpha = d/2$, there's no scaling, while if $\alpha > d/2$, then $\mathcal{M}_n^{d,\alpha:\text{bulk}} - \mathbb{E} \mathcal{M}_n^{d,\alpha:\text{bulk}} \rightarrow 0$ in probability.

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On the other hand, we claim $\mathcal{M}_n^{d,\alpha:\text{bndry}} \approx \mathcal{O}_{N_n}^{d-1,\alpha}$ for $N_n \rightarrow \infty$. If $\alpha \geq d/2$, then $\alpha > (d-1)/2$, and, by limit theorem for the ONG, $\mathcal{M}_n^{d,\alpha:\text{bndry}} - \mathbb{E} \mathcal{M}_n^{d,\alpha:\text{bndry}} \xrightarrow{d} Q_{d-1,\alpha}$. If $\alpha < d/2$, then

$$n^{(\alpha/d)-(1/2)} (\mathcal{M}_n^{d,\alpha:\text{bndry}} - \mathbb{E} \mathcal{M}_n^{d,\alpha:\text{bndry}}) \rightarrow 0,$$

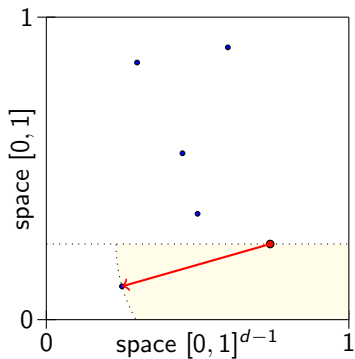
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Minimal directed spanning tree: Heuristics

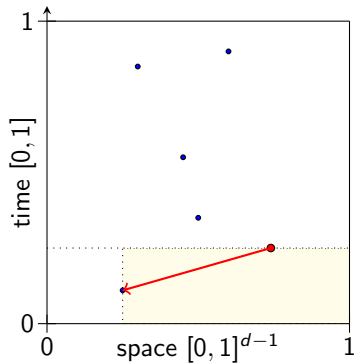
Why the approximation by the ONG near the boundary?

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Why the approximation by the ONG near the boundary? Couple MDST on $[0, 1]^d$ to an ONG on $[0, 1]^{d-1}$ by projecting points onto the first $d - 1$ coordinates, and use d th coordinate order for the **time** in the ONG.



MDST on $[0, 1]^d$

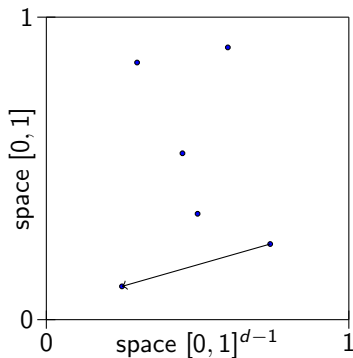


ONG on $[0, 1]^{d-1}$

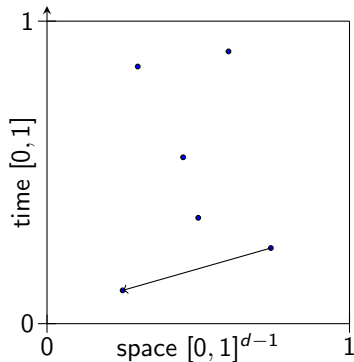
Distance on $[0, 1]^d$ in MDST but distance on $[0, 1]^{d-1}$ in ONG.

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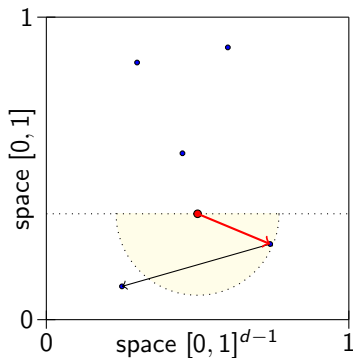


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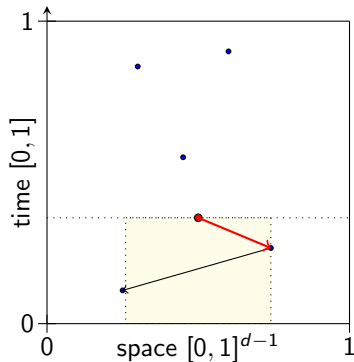
Edge is the "same" but length will be different.

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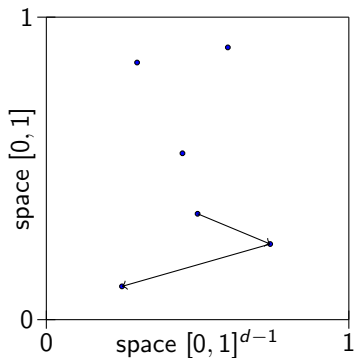


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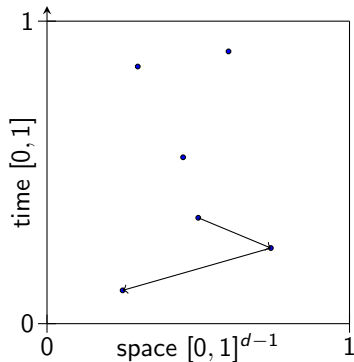
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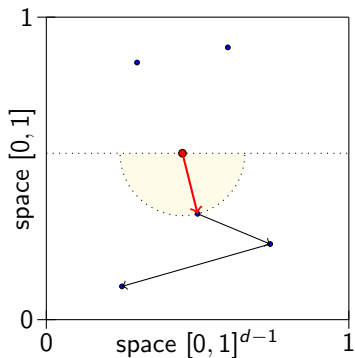


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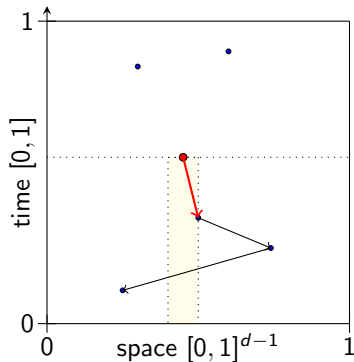
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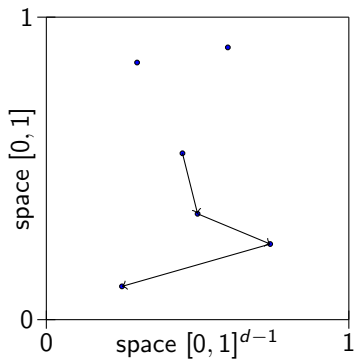


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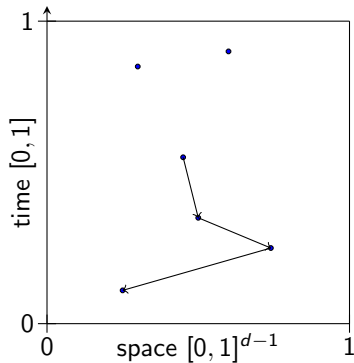
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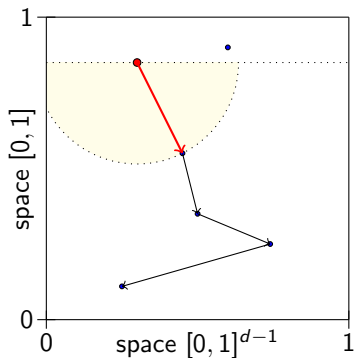


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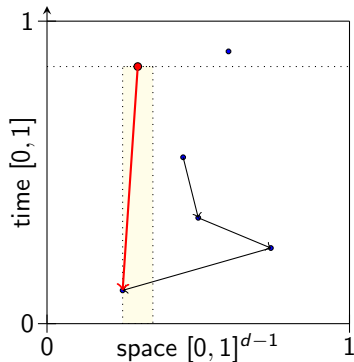
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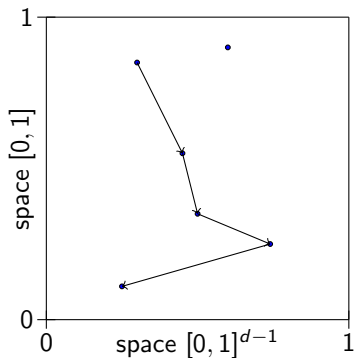


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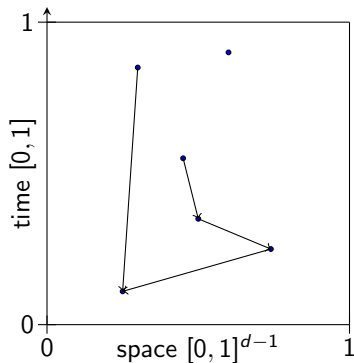
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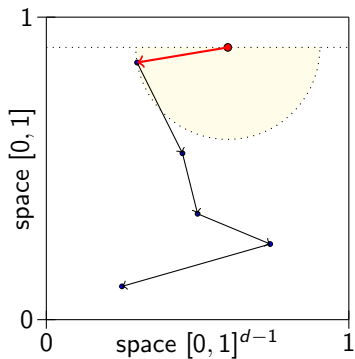


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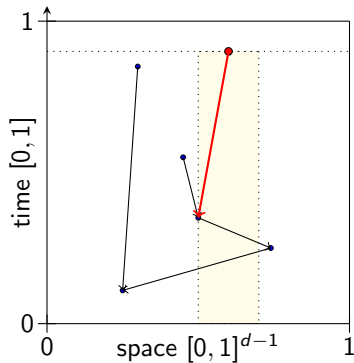
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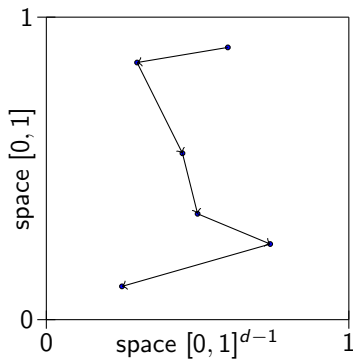


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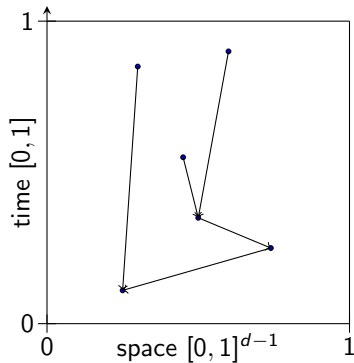
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Thus one obtains that the MDST length in the boundary zone is well approximated by the ONG in $(d - 1)$ dimensions.

Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Nearest-neighbour graph
- 3 On-line nearest-neighbour graph
- 4 Minimal directed spanning tree
- 5 Closing remarks**
- 6 References

Closing remarks

Some other directions:

- Rates of convergence: AVRAM, BERTSIMAS, PENROSE, YUKICH, SCHULTE, EICHELSBACHER, THÄLE, LACHIÈZE-REY, PECCATI, YANG, BHATTACHARJEE (2022), ...

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Thank you for listening!

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