

Scalable and Consistent Estimation in Continuous-time Networks of Relational Events

Makan Arastuie
University of Toledo
Toledo, Ohio, USA
makan.arastuie@rockets.utoledo.edu

Subhadeep Paul
The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio, USA
paul.963@osu.edu

Kevin S. Xu
University of Toledo
Toledo, Ohio, USA
kevin.xu@utoledo.edu

ABSTRACT

In many application settings involving networks, such as messages between users of an on-line social network or transactions between traders in financial markets, the observed data consist of timestamped relational events, which form a continuous-time network. We propose the *Community Hawkes Independent Pairs (CHIP)* generative model for such networks. We show that applying spectral clustering to adjacency matrices constructed from relational events generated by the CHIP model provides *consistent community detection* for a growing number of nodes. We also develop consistent and computationally efficient estimators for the model parameters. We demonstrate that our proposed CHIP model and estimation procedure scales to large networks with tens of thousands of nodes and provides superior fits than existing continuous-time network models on several real networks.

This submission is a novel research paper.

CCS CONCEPTS

- Mathematics of computing → Random graphs; *Probabilistic representations*; Probabilistic reasoning algorithms; Stochastic processes;
- Computing methodologies → *Learning latent representations*; Spectral methods.

KEYWORDS

Community Hawkes Independent Pairs model, event-based network, continuous-time network, timestamped network, relational events, spectral clustering, Hawkes process

ACM Reference Format:

Makan Arastuie, Subhadeep Paul, and Kevin S. Xu. 2020. Scalable and Consistent Estimation in Continuous-time Networks of Relational Events. In *Proceedings of ACM Conference (Conference'17)*. ACM, New York, NY, USA, 8 pages. <https://doi.org/10.1145/nmnnnn.nmnnnn>

1 INTRODUCTION

A variety of complex systems in the computer, information, biological, and social sciences can be represented as a network, which consists of a set of objects (nodes) and relationships (edges) between the nodes. In many application settings, we observe edges in the

Permission to make digital or hard copies of all or part of this work for personal or classroom use is granted without fee provided that copies are not made or distributed for profit or commercial advantage and that copies bear this notice and the full citation on the first page. Copyrights for components of this work owned by others than ACM must be honored. Abstracting with credit is permitted. To copy otherwise, or republish, to post on servers or to redistribute to lists, requires prior specific permission and/or a fee. Request permissions from permissions@acm.org.

Conference'17, July 2017, Washington, DC, USA
© 2020 Association for Computing Machinery.
ACM ISBN 978-x-xxxx-xxxx-x/YY/MM...\$15.00
<https://doi.org/10.1145/nmnnnn.nmnnnn>

form of distinct events occurring between nodes over time. For example, in on-line social networks, users interact with each other through events that occur at specific time instances such as liking, mentioning, or sharing another user's content. Such interactions form *timestamped relational events*, where each event is a triplet (i, j, t) denoting events from node i (sender) to node j (receiver) at timestamp t . The observation of these triplets defines a dynamic network that continuously evolves over time.

Relational event data are usually modeled by combining a point process model for the event times with a network model for the sender and receiver [10, 13, 14, 33, 42, 43, 53, 57]. We refer to such models as *continuous-time network models* because they provide probabilities of observing events between two nodes during arbitrarily short time intervals. For model-based exploratory analysis and prediction of future events with relational event data, continuous-time network models are often superior to their discrete-time counterparts [41, 54–56, 58], which first aggregate events over time windows to form discrete-time network "snapshots" and thus lose granularity in modeling temporal dynamics. However, theoretical analysis of estimators is significantly more advanced for discrete-time network models [9, 19, 23, 45].

We propose the *Community Hawkes Independent Pairs (CHIP)* model which is inspired by the recently proposed Block Hawkes Model (BHM) [33] for timestamped relational event data. Both CHIP and BHM are based on the Stochastic Block Model (SBM) for static networks [29]. In the BHM, events between different pairs of nodes belonging to the same pair of communities are dependent, which makes it difficult to analyze. In contrast, for CHIP the pairs of nodes in the same community generate events according to *independent univariate Hawkes processes* with shared parameters, so that the number of parameters remains the same as in the BHM. The independence between node pairs enables tractable analysis of the CHIP model and more scalable estimation than the BHM.

Our main contributions are as follows. (1) We demonstrate that spectral clustering provides consistent community detection in the CHIP model for a growing number of nodes. (2) We propose consistent and computationally efficient estimators for the model parameters for a growing number of nodes and time duration. (3) We show that the CHIP model provides better fits to several real datasets and scales to much larger networks than existing models, including a Facebook network with over 40,000 nodes and over 800,000 events. Other point process network models have demonstrated good empirical results, but to the best of our knowledge, this work provides the first theoretical guarantee of estimation accuracy. Our asymptotic analysis also has tremendous practical value given the scalability of our model to large networks with tens of thousands of nodes.

2 BACKGROUND

2.1 Hawkes Processes

The Hawkes process [25] is a counting process designed to model continuous-time arrivals of events that naturally cluster together in time, where the arrival of an event increases the chance of the next event arrival immediately after. They have been used to model earthquakes [39], financial markets [8, 16], and user interactions on social media [13, 62].

A univariate Hawkes process is a *self-exciting* point process where its conditional intensity function given a sequence of event arrival times $\{t_1, t_2, t_3, \dots, t_l\}$ for l events up to time duration T takes the general form $\lambda(t) = \mu + \sum_{t_i < t} \gamma(t - t_i)$, where μ is the background intensity and $\gamma(\cdot)$ is the kernel or the excitation function. A frequent choice of kernel is an exponential kernel, parameterized by $\alpha, \beta > 0$ as $\gamma(t - t_i) = \alpha e^{-\beta(t-t_i)}$, where the arrival of an event instantaneously increases the conditional intensity by the jump size α , after which the intensity decays exponentially back towards μ at rate β . Restricting $\alpha < \beta$ yields a stationary process. We use an exponential kernel for the CHIP model, since it has been shown to provide a good fit for relational events in social media [22, 33, 40, 60].

2.2 The Stochastic Block Model

Statistical models for networks typically consider a static network rather than a network of relational events. Many static network models are discussed in the survey by Goldenberg et al. [20]. A static network with n nodes can be represented by an $n \times n$ adjacency matrix A where $A_{ij} = 1$ if there is an edge between nodes i and j and $A_{ij} = 0$ otherwise. We consider networks with no self-edges, so $A_{ii} = 0$ for all i . For a directed network, we let $A_{ij} = 1$ if there is an edge from node i to node j .

One model that has received significant attention is the *stochastic block model* (SBM), formalized by Holland et al. [29]. In the SBM, every node i is assigned to one and only one community or *block* $c_i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$, where k denotes the total number of blocks. Given the block membership vector $c = [c_i]_{i=1}^n$, all entries of the adjacency matrix A_{ij} are independent Bernoulli random variables with parameter p_{c_i, c_j} , where p is a $k \times k$ matrix of probabilities. Thus the probability of forming an edge between nodes i and j depends only on the block memberships c_i and c_j . There have been significant recent advancements in the analysis of estimators for the SBM. Several variants of spectral clustering [51], including regularized versions [4, 11], have been shown to be consistent estimators of the community assignments for a growing number of nodes in the SBM and various extensions [12, 18, 32, 35, 46–48, 52, 59]. Spectral clustering scales to large networks with tens of thousands of nodes and is generally not sensitive to initialization, so it is also a practically useful estimator.

2.3 Related Work

One approach for modeling continuous-time networks is to treat the edge strength of each node pair as a continuous-time function that increases when an event occurs between the node pair and then decays afterwards [3, 31, 63]. Another approach is to combine a point process model for the event times, typically some type of

Hawkes process, with a network model. The conditional intensity functions of the point processes then serve as the time-varying edge strengths. Point process network models are used in two main settings. The first involves estimating the structure of a latent or unobserved network from observed events at the nodes [17, 21, 27, 37, 38, 49]. These models are often used to estimate *static* networks or diffusion from information cascades.

In the second setting, which we consider in this paper, we directly observe events *between pairs of nodes* so that events take on the form (i, j, t) denoting an event from node i to node j at timestamp t . Our objective is to model the dynamics of such event sequences. In many applications, including messages on on-line social networks, most pairs of nodes either never interact and thus have no events between them. Thus, most prior work in this setting utilizes low-dimensional latent variable representations of the networks to parameterize the point processes.

The latent variable representations are often inspired by generative models for static networks such as continuous latent space models [28] and stochastic block models [29], resulting in the development of point process network models with continuous latent space representations [57] and latent block or community representations [10, 13, 14, 33, 42, 43, 53]. Point process network models with latent community representations are most closely related to the model we consider in this paper. Exact inference in such models is intractable due to the discrete nature of the community assignments. Approximate inference techniques including Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) [10, 13, 43] or variational inference [33, 42] have been used in prior work. While such techniques have demonstrated good empirical results, to the best of our knowledge, they come with no theoretical guarantees.

3 THE COMMUNITY HAWKES INDEPENDENT PAIRS (CHIP) MODEL

We consider a generative model for timestamped relational event networks that we call the *Community Hawkes Independent Pairs (CHIP)* model. The CHIP model has parameters $(\pi, \mu, \alpha, \beta)$. Each node is assigned to a community or block $a \in \{1, \dots, k\}$ with probability π_a , where each entry of π is non-negative and all entries sum to 1. We represent the block assignments of all nodes either by a length n vector $c = [c_i]_{i=1}^n$ or an $n \times k$ binary matrix C where $c_i = q$ is equivalent to $C_{iq} = 1, C_{il} = 0$ for all $l \neq q$. Each of the parameters μ, α, β is a $k \times k$ matrix. Event times between node pairs (i, j) within a block pair (a, b) follow independent exponential Hawkes processes with shared parameters: baseline rate μ_{ab} , jump size α_{ab} , and decay rate β_{ab} . The generative process for our proposed CHIP model is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} c_i &\sim \text{Categorical}(\pi) && \text{for all nodes } i \\ t_{ij} &\sim \text{Hawkes process}(\mu_{c_i c_j}, \alpha_{c_i c_j}, \beta_{c_i c_j}) && \text{for all } i \neq j \\ Y &= \text{Row concatenate } [(i1, j1, t_{ij})] && \text{over all } i \neq j \end{aligned}$$

Let T denote the end time of the Hawkes process, which would correspond to the duration of the data trace. The column vector of event times t_{ij} has length $N_{ij}(T)$, which denotes the number of events from node i to node j up to time T . Let Y denote the event matrix and has dimensions $l \times 3$, where $l = \sum_{i,j} N_{ij}(T)$ denotes the total number of observed events over all node pairs.

Algorithm 1 Estimation procedure for Community Hawkes Independent Pairs (CHIP) model

Input: Relational event matrix Y , number of blocks k
Result: Estimated block assignments \hat{C} and CHIP model parameters $(\hat{\pi}, \hat{\mu}, \hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta})$

- 1: **for all** node pairs $i \neq j$ **do**
- 2: N_{ij} = number of events from i to j in Y
- 3: $\hat{C} \leftarrow$ Spectral clustering(N, k)
- 4: **for all** block pairs (a, b) **do**
- 5: Compute estimates $(\hat{m}_{ab}, \hat{\mu}_{ab})$ using (1)
- 6: $\hat{\beta}_{ab} \leftarrow$ maximize log-likelihood by line search
- 7: $\hat{\alpha}_{ab} \leftarrow \hat{\beta}_{ab}\hat{m}_{ab}$
- 8: **return** $[\hat{C}, \hat{\pi}, \hat{\mu}, \hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}]$

It is constructed by row concatenating triplets $(i, j, t_{ij}(q))$ over all events $q \in \{1, \dots, N_{ij}(T)\}$ for all node pairs $i, j \in \{1, \dots, n\}, i \neq j$.

3.1 Relation to Other Models

Our proposed CHIP model has a generative structure inspired by the SBM for static networks. Other point process network models in the literature have also utilized similar block structures, but they have been incorporated in two different approaches.

One approach involves placing point process models at the level of block pairs [10, 33, 42, 53]. For a network with k blocks, k^2 different point processes are used to generate events between the k^2 block pairs. To generate events between pairs of nodes, rather than pairs of blocks, the point processes are thinned by randomly selecting nodes from the respective blocks so that all nodes in a block are stochastically equivalent, in the spirit of the SBM. Such models have demonstrated good empirical results, but the dependency between node pairs complicates analysis of the models.

The other approach involves modeling pairs of nodes with independent point processes that share parameters among nodes in the same block pair [13, 14]. By having node pairs in the same block pair share parameters, the number of parameters is the same as for the models with block pair-level point processes. However, by using independent point processes for all node pairs, there is no dependency between node pairs, which simplifies analysis of the model. We exploit this independence to perform the theoretical analysis of our estimator in Section 4.

3.2 Estimation Procedure

As with many other block models, the maximum-likelihood estimator for the discrete community assignments C is intractable except for extremely small networks (e.g. 10 nodes). We propose a scalable estimation procedure for the CHIP model that has two components as shown in Algorithm 1: a community detection component and a parameter estimation component. For the community detection component, we use spectral clustering on the weighted adjacency or count matrix $N(T)$ or simply N with entries $N_{ij}(T)$. Since this is a directed adjacency matrix, we use singular vectors rather than eigenvectors for spectral clustering.

For the parameter estimation component, we first consider estimating the Hawkes process parameters $(\mu_{ab}, \alpha_{ab}, \beta_{ab})$ for each

block pair (a, b) using only the count matrix N , which discards event timestamps. Even without access to the event timestamps, we are able to estimate μ_{ab} and the ratio $m_{ab} = \alpha_{ab}/\beta_{ab}$, but not the parameters α_{ab} and β_{ab} separately. Let n_{ab} denote the number of node pairs in block pair (a, b) , where $n_{ab} = |a||b|$ for $a \neq b$ and $n_{ab} = |a||a - 1|$ for $a = b$, with $|a|$ denoting the number of nodes in block a . Let \bar{N}_{ab} and S_{ab}^2 denote the sample mean and (unbiased) sample variance, respectively, of the counts of the number of events between all node pairs (i, j) in block pair (a, b) . Using \bar{N}_{ab} and S_{ab}^2 , we propose the following method of moments estimators (conditioned on the estimated blocks) for m_{ab} and μ_{ab} from the count matrix N :

$$\hat{m}_{ab} = 1 - \sqrt{\frac{\bar{N}_{ab}}{S_{ab}^2}}, \quad \hat{\mu}_{ab} = \frac{1}{T} \sqrt{\frac{(\bar{N}_{ab})^3}{S_{ab}^2}}. \quad (1)$$

Finally, the vector of block assignment probabilities π can be easily estimated using the proportion of nodes in each block, i.e. $\hat{\pi}_a = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{C}_{ia}$ for all $a = 1, \dots, k$.

In some prior work, exponential Hawkes processes are parameterized only in terms of m and μ , with β treated as a known parameter that is not estimated [6, 7, 61]. In this case, the estimation procedure is complete. On the other hand, if we want to estimate the values of both α and β rather than just their ratio, we have to use the actual event matrix Y with the event timestamps. To separately estimate the α_{ab} and β_{ab} parameters, we replace $\alpha_{ab} = \beta_{ab}m_{ab}$ in the exponential Hawkes log-likelihood for block pair (a, b) then plug in our estimate \hat{m}_{ab} for m_{ab} . Then the log-likelihood is purely a function of β_{ab} and can be maximized using a standard scalar optimization or line search method.

4 THEORETICAL ANALYSIS OF ESTIMATORS

We first derive non-asymptotic upper bounds on the misclustering error in a simplified setting typically employed in the literature. We then derive consistency and asymptotic normality properties of the estimators for the Hawkes process parameters. In an extended version of the paper on arXiv [5], we provide an analogous theorem for the general CHIP model, theorems for spectral clustering on an unweighted adjacency matrix, comparisons between the weighted (count) and unweighted adjacency matrices, and proofs of all theorems.

4.1 Analysis of Estimated Community Assignments

We define the error of community detection as the misclustering error rate $r = \inf_{\Pi} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n 1(c_i \neq \Pi(\hat{c}_i))$, where $\Pi(\cdot)$ denotes the set of all permutations of the community labels. Our proposed CHIP model considers directed events; however, we analyze community detection on undirected networks to better match up with the literature on analysis of spectral clustering for the SBM. The bounds and consistency properties we derive still apply to the directed case with only a change in the constants. We assume that $T \rightarrow \infty$, which can be achieved by rescaling the time unit for event times. Under this assumption, the mean and variance of the number of events between nodes (i, j) are [24, 26, 36]

$$\nu_{ab} = \frac{\mu_{ab}T}{1 - \alpha_{ab}/\beta_{ab}}, \quad \sigma_{ab}^2 = \frac{\mu_{ab}T}{(1 - \alpha_{ab}/\beta_{ab})^3}. \quad (2)$$

We analyze community detection error in a simplified special case of our CHIP model which is in similar spirit to a commonly-employed case in the stochastic block models literature [12, 18, 35, 44, 47]. In this special case, all communities have roughly equal number of elements $|a| \asymp n/k$, all intra-community processes (diagonal block pairs) have the same set of parameters μ_1, α_1, β_1 and all inter-community processes (off-diagonal block pairs) have the same set of parameters μ_2, α_2, β_2 . We use the notation $Y \sim \text{CHIP}(C, n, k, \mu_1, \alpha_1, \beta_1, \mu_2, \alpha_2, \beta_2)$ to denote a relational event matrix Y generated from this simplified model. Define $m_1 = \alpha_1/\beta_1$ and $m_2 = \alpha_2/\beta_2$. Let $v_1 = \mu_1/(1 - m_1)$ and $v_2 = \mu_2/(1 - m_2)$, while $\sigma_1^2 = \mu_1/(1 - m_1)^3$ and $\sigma_2^2 = \mu_2/(1 - m_2)^3$. Assume $v_1 > v_2$, $v_1 \asymp v_2$, and $\sigma_1 \asymp \sigma_2$, where the asymptotic equivalence is with respect to both n and T . These assumptions imply that the expected number of events are higher between two nodes in the same community compared to two nodes in different communities and that the asymptotic dependence on n and T are same for both set of parameters. This setting is useful to understand detectability limits and has been widely employed in the literature on stochastic block models [1, 2, 12, 18, 44, 52]. In this setting, we have the following upper bound on the misclustering error rate.

THEOREM 1. *Let $Y \sim \text{CHIP}(C, n, k, \mu_1, \alpha_1, \beta_1, \mu_2, \alpha_2, \beta_2)$. The misclustering error rate for spectral clustering on the weighted adjacency matrix N at time $T \rightarrow \infty$ is*

$$r \lesssim \frac{T\sigma_1^2 n}{(n/k)^2(v_2 - v_1)^2 T^2} \asymp \frac{k^2}{nT} \frac{\sigma_1^2}{(v_1 - v_2)^2}.$$

We note that if the set of parameters μ, α, β remain constant as a function of n and T then the misclustering error rate decreases as $1/T$ with increasing T , decreases as $1/n$ with increasing n , and increases as k^2 with increasing k . Hence, as we observe the process for more time, spectral clustering on N has lower error rate. The rate of convergence with increasing T is the same as one would obtain for detecting an average community structure if discrete snapshots of the network were available over time [9, 44, 45]. The dependence of the misclustering error rate on n and k is what one would expect from the SBM literature.

4.2 Analysis of Estimated Hawkes Process Parameters

As discussed in Section 3.2, we are able to estimate $m = \alpha/\beta$ and μ from the count matrix N using (1). We analyze these estimators assuming a growing number of nodes n and time duration T . We do not put any assumption on the distribution of the counts; we only require that T is large enough such that the asymptotic mean and variance equations in (2) hold. The sample mean \bar{N}_{ab} and sample variance S_{ab}^2 of the counts are unbiased estimators of v_{ab} and σ_{ab}^2 , respectively. The following theorem shows that these estimators are consistent and asymptotically normal.

THEOREM 2. *Define $n_{\min} = \min_{a,b} n_{ab}$. The estimators for m_{ab} and μ_{ab} have the following asymptotic distributions as $n_{\min} \rightarrow \infty$*

and $T \rightarrow \infty$:

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{n_{ab}} \left(\hat{m}_{ab} - \left(1 - \sqrt{\frac{v_{ab}}{\sigma_{ab}^2}} \right) \right) &\xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N} \left(0, \frac{1}{4v_{ab}} \right), \\ \sqrt{n_{ab}} \left(\hat{\mu}_{ab} T - \frac{(v_{ab})^{3/2}}{\sigma_{ab}} \right) &\xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N} \left(0, \frac{9}{4} v_{ab} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Using Theorem 2, we can obtain confidence intervals for μ and m , which we derive in the extended version of the paper [5]. In the simplified special case of Theorem 1, we have equal community sizes so $n_{ab} \asymp (n/k)^2$. Therefore, the condition $n_{\min} \rightarrow \infty$ boils down to $(n/k)^2 \rightarrow \infty$, which is a reasonable assumption. Theorem 2 guarantees convergence of our estimators for μ and m with the asymptotic mean-squared errors (MSEs) decreasing at the rate $n_{ab} \asymp (n/k)^2$ under the assumption that the community structure is correctly estimated. Next, we provide an “end-to-end” guarantee for the convergence of the asymptotic MSE to 0 for estimating the mean number of events in each block pair v_{ab} using the sample mean \bar{N}_{ab} over the estimated communities using spectral clustering.

THEOREM 3. *Assume $n_{ab} \asymp (n/k)^2$. The weighted average of asymptotic MSEs in estimating v_{ab} using the estimator \bar{N}_{ab} with communities estimated by spectral clustering is*

$$\frac{\sum_{ab} n_{ab} E[(\bar{N}_{ab} - v_{ab})^2]}{\sum_{ab} n_{ab}} \lesssim \frac{kT}{n} \max \left\{ \sigma_1^2, \frac{k^2 \sigma_1^2 v_2^2}{(v_1 - v_2)^2} \right\}.$$

For comparison, under the assumption that the community structure is correctly estimated, the weighted average of asymptotic MSEs in estimating v_{ab} using the estimator \bar{N}_{ab} is

$$\frac{\sum_{ab} n_{ab} E[(\bar{N}_{ab} - v_{ab})^2]}{\sum_{ab} n_{ab}} = \frac{k^2 T \sigma_1^2}{n^2}.$$

Theorem 3 guarantees that the MSE for estimating Hawkes process parameters decreases at least at a linear rate with increasing (n/k) when the error from community detection is taken into account instead of the quadratic rate when the error is not taken into account.

5 EXPERIMENTS

We begin with a set of simulation experiments to assess the accuracy of our proposed estimation procedure and verify our theoretical analysis. We then present several experiments on real data involving both prediction and model-based exploratory analysis. Additional experiments and code to replicate our experiments are provided in the extended version of the paper [5].

5.1 Community Detection on Simulated Networks with Varying T , n , and k

We simulate networks from the simplified CHIP model while varying two of T , n , and k simultaneously. We choose parameters $\mu_1 = 0.085$, $\mu_2 = 0.065$, $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = 0.06$, and $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = 0.08$. The upper bounds on the error rates in Theorem 1 involve all three parameters n, k, T simultaneously, making it difficult to interpret the result. To better observe the effects of n, k, T and their relationship with respect to each other, we perform three separate

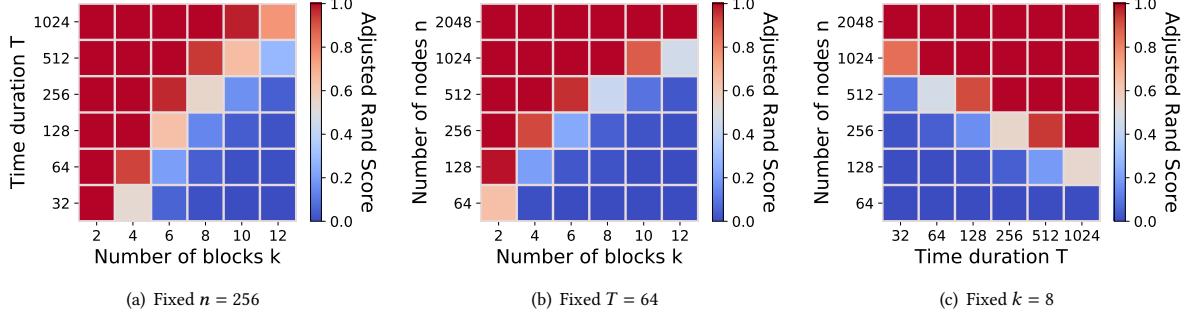


Figure 1: Heat map of adjusted Rand score of spectral clustering on weighted adjacency matrix, with varying T , n , and k , averaged over 30 simulated networks.

simulations each time varying two and fixing the other one. The community detection accuracy averaged over 30 simulations using the weighted adjacency matrix N as two of T , n , and k are varied is shown in Figure 1. Since the estimated community assignments will be permuted compared to the actual community labels, we evaluate the community detection accuracy using the adjusted Rand score [30], which is 1 for perfect community detection and has an expectation of 0 for a random assignment.

Note that Theorem 1 predicts that the misclustering error rate varies as $k^2/(nT)$ if all three parameters are varied. Figure 1(a) shows the accuracy to be low for small T and large k . As we simultaneously increase T and decrease k the accuracy improves until the adjusted Rand score reaches 1. We also note that it is possible to obtain high accuracy either with increasing T or decreasing k or with both even when n is fixed. This is in line with the prediction from Theorem 1 that the misclustering error rate varies as k^2/T if n remains fixed. We observe a similar effect of increasing accuracy with increasing n and decreasing k when T is kept fixed in Figure 1(b). Finally, Figure 1(c) verifies the prediction that accuracy increases with both increasing n and T for a fixed k .

5.2 Hawkes Process Parameter Estimation on Simulated Networks

Next, we examine the estimation accuracy of the Hawkes process parameter estimates as described in Section 4.2. We simulate networks from the simplified CHIP model with $k = 4$ blocks, duration $T = 10,000$ and parameters $\mu_1 = 0.0011$, $\mu_2 = 0.0010$, $\alpha_1 = 0.11$, $\alpha_2 = 0.09$, $\beta_1 = 0.14$, and $\beta_2 = 0.16$ so that each parameter is different between block pairs. We then run the CHIP estimation procedure: spectral clustering followed by Hawkes process parameter estimation.

Figure 2 shows the mean-squared errors (MSEs) of all four estimators decay quadratically as n increases. Theorem 2 states that \hat{m} and $\hat{\mu}$ are consistent estimators with MSE decreasing at a quadratic rate for growing n with known communities. Here, we observe the quadratic decay even with communities estimated by spectral clustering, where the mean adjusted Rand score is increasing from 0.6 to 1 as n grows. We observe that α and β are also accurately estimated for growing n even though β is estimated using a line search for which we have no guarantees.

5.3 Comparison with Other Models on Real Networks

We perform experiments on three real network datasets. Each dataset consists of a set of events where each event is denoted by a sender, a receiver, and a timestamp. The MIT Reality Mining [15] and Enron [34] datasets were loaded and preprocessed identically to DuBois et al. [13] to allow for a fair comparison with their reported values. On the Facebook wall posts dataset [50], we use the largest connected component of the network excluding self loops (43,953 nodes).

We fit our proposed Community Hawkes Independent Pairs (CHIP) model as well as the Block Hawkes Model (BHM) [33] to all three real datasets and evaluate their fit. We also compare against a simpler baseline: spectral clustering with a homogeneous Poisson process for each node pair. For each model, we also compare against the case $k = 1$, where no community detection is being performed. We do not have ground truth community labels for these real datasets so we cannot evaluate community detection accuracy. Instead, we use the mean test log-likelihood per event as the evaluation metric, which allows us to compare against the reported results in DuBois et al. [13] for the relational event model (REM). Since the log-likelihood is computed on the test data, this is a measure of the model's ability to *forecast future events* rather than detect communities.

As shown in Table 1, CHIP outperforms all other models in all three datasets. Note that test log-likelihood is maximized for CHIP at relatively small values of k compared to the BHM. This is because CHIP assumes independent node pairs whereas the BHM assumes all node pairs in a block pair are dependent. Thus, the BHM needs a higher value for k in order to model independence. This difference is particularly visible for the Reality Mining data, where CHIP with $k = 1$ is the best predictor of the test data, while the best BHM has $k = 50$ on a network with only 70 nodes! These both suggest a weak community structure that is not predictive of future events in the Reality Mining data, whereas community structure does appear to be predictive in the Enron and Facebook data.

In addition to the improved predictive ability of CHIP compared to the BHM, the computational demand is also significantly decreased. Fitting the CHIP model for each value of k took on average

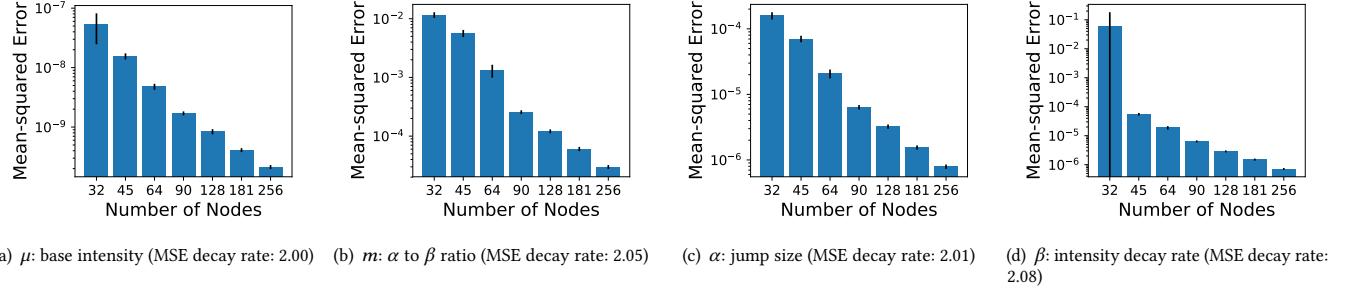


Figure 2: Mean-squared errors (MSEs) of CHIP’s Hawkes parameter estimators averaged over 100 simulations (± 2 standard errors) on a log-log plot. MSEs for all four parameters decreases as the number of nodes increases with the estimated decay rate (exponent) beginning at 90 nodes listed.

Table 1: Mean test log-likelihood per event for each real network dataset across all models. Larger (less negative) values indicate better predictive ability. Bold entry denotes best fit for a dataset. Results for REM are reported values from DuBois et al. [13]. Poisson denotes the spectral clustering + Poisson process baseline model. The BHM local search inference does not scale up to the Facebook network, so we only report results without community detection ($k = 1$).

Dataset	Statistics	Model	$k = 1$	$k = 2$	$k = 3$	$k = 10$	Best k
Reality	$n = 70$	CHIP	-4.83	-4.88	-5.06	-6.69	-4.83 ($k = 1$)
	$l_{\text{train}} = 1,500$	REM	-6.78	-7.42	-6.11	-6.61	-6.11 ($k = 3$)
	$l_{\text{test}} = 661$	BHM	-9.05	-7.56	-7.60	-5.74	-5.37 ($k = 50$)
		Poisson	-10.3	-10.4	-9.63	-9.38	-8.51 ($k = 32$)
Enron	$n = 142$	CHIP	-5.63	-5.61	-5.65	-7.15	-5.61 ($k = 2$)
	$l_{\text{train}} = 3,000$	REM	-7.02	-6.86	-6.84	-7.26	-6.84 ($k = 3$)
	$l_{\text{test}} = 1,000$	BHM	-8.72	-8.43	-8.39	-7.93	-7.49 ($k = 8$)
		Poisson	-11.9	-11.4	-11.5	-12.0	-11.4 ($k = 4$)
Facebook	$n = 43,953$	CHIP	-9.54	-9.58	-9.58	-9.61	-9.46 ($k = 9$)
	$l_{\text{train}} = 682,266$	BHM	-14.6	—	—	—	—
	$l_{\text{test}} = 170,567$	Poisson	-20.8	-21.1	-21.1	-20.6	-19.2 ($k = 55$)

0.15 s and 0.3 s on the Reality Mining and Enron datasets, respectively, while the BHM took on average 250 s and 30 m, mostly due to the time-consuming local search¹. We did not implement the MCMC-based inference procedure for the REM and thus do not have results for REM on the Facebook data or computation times.

5.4 Model-Based Exploratory Analysis

We use CHIP to perform model-based exploratory analysis to understand the behavior of different groups of users in the Facebook wall post network. We consider all 852,833 events and choose $k = 10$ blocks using the eigengap heuristic [51], which required 141 s to fit. Note that the CHIP estimation procedure can scale up to a much higher number of communities also—fitting CHIP to the Facebook data with $k = 1,000$ communities took just under 50 minutes! The adjacency matrix permuted by the block structure is shown in Figure 3(a), and heatmaps of the fitted CHIP parameters are shown in Figures 3(b) and 3(c). Diagonal block pairs on average have a base intensity μ of 2.8×10^{-7} , which is higher compared to 9.5×10^{-8} for off-diagonal block pairs, indicating an underlying assortative

community structure. However, not all blocks have higher rates of within-block posts, e.g. $\mu_{5,8} > \mu_{5,5}$ and $\mu_{8,5} > \mu_{5,5}$, as shown in red boxes in Figure 3(b), which illustrates that the CHIP model does not discourage inter-block events. These patterns often occur in social networks, for instance, if there are communities with opposite views on a particular subject.

While the structure of μ reveals insights on the baseline rates of events between block pairs, the structure of the α/β ratio m shown in Figure 3(c) reveals insights on the burstiness of events between block pairs. For some block pairs, such as (3, 10), there are very low values of α and β indicating the events are closely approximated by a homogeneous Poisson process, while some block pairs such as (2, 8) are extremely bursty despite low baseline rates. Both block pairs are shown in blue dashed boxes. The different levels of burstiness of block pairs cannot be seen from aggregate statistics such as the count matrix N or even the mean number of events per node pair in the block pair, as shown in Figure 3(d).

6 CONCLUSION

We introduced the Community Hawkes Independent Pairs (CHIP) model for timestamped relational event data. The CHIP model has

¹Experiments were run on a workstation with 2 Intel Xeon 2.3 GHz CPUs with a total of 36 cores.

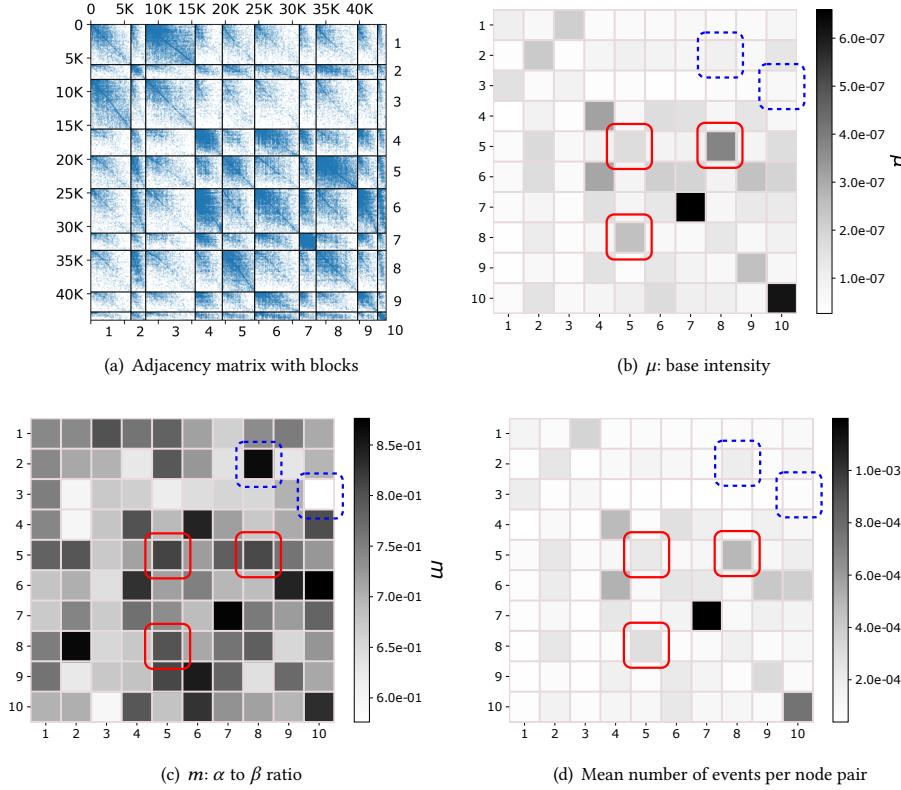


Figure 3: Inferred CHIP parameters on the largest connected component of the Facebook Wall Posts dataset with $k = 10$. Axis labels denote block numbers. Each tile corresponds to a block pair where (a, b) denotes row a and column b . Boxed block pairs in the heatmap are discussed in the body text.

many similarities with the Block Hawkes Model (BHM) [33]; however, in the CHIP model, events among any two node pairs are independent which enables both tractable theoretical analysis and scalable estimation. We demonstrated that an estimation procedure using spectral clustering followed by Hawkes process parameter estimation provides consistent estimates of the communities and Hawkes process parameters for a growing number of nodes. Lastly, we showed that CHIP also provides better fits to several real networks compared to the Relational Event Model [13] and the BHM. It also scales to considerably larger data sets, including a Facebook wall post network with over 40,000 nodes and 800,000 events.

There are several limitations to the CHIP model and our proposed estimation procedure. Assuming all node pairs to have independent Hawkes processes simplifies analysis and increases scalability but also reduces the flexibility of the model compared to multivariate Hawkes process-based models that specifically encourage reciprocity [10, 43]. Additionally, our estimation procedure uses unregularized spectral clustering to match our theoretical analysis in Section 4. We note that regularized versions of spectral clustering [4, 11, 32, 46, 59] have been found to perform better empirically and would likely improve the community detection accuracy in the CHIP model. Additionally, methods that jointly estimate the community structure and Hawkes process parameters, such as the local

search and variational inference approaches explored in Junuthula et al. [33] for the Block Hawkes Model could also improve estimation accuracy of both.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This material is based upon work supported by the National Science Foundation grants IIS-1755824 and DMS-1830412.

REFERENCES

- [1] Emmanuel Abbe. 2017. Community detection and stochastic block models: recent developments. *The Journal of Machine Learning Research* 18, 1 (2017), 6446–6531.
- [2] Emmanuel Abbe and Colin Sandon. 2015. Community detection in general stochastic block models: Fundamental limits and efficient algorithms for recovery. In *IEEE 56th Annual Symposium on Foundations of Computer Science (FOCS)*. IEEE, 670–688.
- [3] Walid Ahmad, Mason A Porter, and Mariano Beguerisse-Díaz. 2018. Tie-decay temporal networks in continuous time and eigenvector-based centralities. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1805.00193* (2018).
- [4] Arash A Amini, Aiyou Chen, Peter J Bickel, Elizaveta Levina, et al. 2013. Pseudo-likelihood methods for community detection in large sparse networks. *The Annals of Statistics* 41, 4 (2013), 2097–2122.
- [5] Makan Arastui, Subhadeep Paul, and Kevin S. Xu. 2020. Scalable and consistent community detection in continuous-time networks of relational events. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1908.06940* (2020).
- [6] Emmanuel Bacry, Martin Bompaire, Philip Deegan, Stéphane Gaiffas, and Søren V Poulsen. 2017. Tick: a Python library for statistical learning, with an emphasis on hawkes processes and time-dependent models. *The Journal of Machine Learning Research* 18, 1 (2017), 7937–7941.

- [7] Emmanuel Bacry, Stéphane Gaiffas, Iacopo Mastromatteo, and Jean-François Muzy. 2016. Mean-field inference of Hawkes point processes. *Journal of Physics A: Mathematical and Theoretical* 49, 17 (2016), 174006.
- [8] Emmanuel Bacry, Iacopo Mastromatteo, and Jean-François Muzy. 2015. Hawkes processes in finance. *Market Microstructure and Liquidity* 1, 01 (2015), 1550005.
- [9] Sharmodeep Bhattacharyya and Shirshendu Chatterjee. 2018. Spectral clustering for multiple sparse networks: I. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1805.10594* (2018).
- [10] Charles Blundell, Jeff Beck, and Katherine A. Heller. 2012. Modelling Reciprocating Relationships with Hawkes Processes. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems* 25, 2600–2608.
- [11] Kamalka Chaudhuri, Fan Chung, and Alexander Tsiatas. 2012. Spectral clustering of graphs with general degrees in the extended planted partition model. In *Conference on Learning Theory*, 35–1.
- [12] Peter Chin, Anup Rao, and Van Vu. 2015. Stochastic Block Model and Community Detection in Sparse Graphs: A spectral algorithm with optimal rate of recovery. In *COLT*. 391–423.
- [13] Christopher DuBois, Carter T. Butts, and Padhraic Smyth. 2013. Stochastic block-modeling of relational event dynamics. In *Proceedings of the 16th International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics*. 238–246.
- [14] Christopher DuBois and Padhraic Smyth. 2010. Modeling relational events via latent classes. In *Proceedings of the 16th ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining*. 803–812.
- [15] Nathan Eagle, Alex Sandy Pentland, and David Lazer. 2009. Inferring friendship network structure by using mobile phone data. *Proceedings of the national academy of sciences* 106, 36 (2009), 15274–15278.
- [16] Paul Embrechts, Thomas Liniger, and Lu Lin. 2011. Multivariate Hawkes processes: an application to financial data. *Journal of Applied Probability* 48, A (2011), 367–378.
- [17] Mehrdad Farajtabar, Yichen Wang, Manuel Gomez Rodriguez, Shuang Li, Hongyuan Zha, and Le Song. 2015. COEVOLVE: A joint point process model for information diffusion and network co-evolution. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems* 28. 1945–1953.
- [18] Chao Gao, Zongming Ma, Anderson Y Zhang, and Harrison H Zhou. 2017. Achieving optimal misclassification proportion in stochastic block models. *The Journal of Machine Learning Research* 18, 1 (2017), 1980–2024.
- [19] Amir Ghasemian, Pan Zhang, Aaron Clauset, Christopher Moore, and Leto Peel. 2016. Detectability thresholds and optimal algorithms for community structure in dynamic networks. *Physical Review X* 6, 3 (2016), 031005.
- [20] Anna Goldenberg, Alice X Zheng, Stephen E Fienberg, Edoardo M Airoldi, et al. 2010. A survey of statistical network models. *Foundations and Trends in Machine Learning* 2, 2 (2010), 129–233.
- [21] Eric C. Hall and Rebecca M. Willett. 2016. Tracking dynamic point processes on networks. *IEEE Transactions on Information Theory* 62, 7 (2016), 4327–4346.
- [22] Peter F Halpin and Paul De Boeck. 2013. Modelling dyadic interaction with Hawkes processes. *Psychometrika* 78, 4 (2013), 793–814.
- [23] Qiuyi Han, Kevin Xu, and Edoardo Airoldi. 2015. Consistent estimation of dynamic and multi-layer block models. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*. 1511–1520.
- [24] Alan G Hawkes. 1971. Point spectra of some mutually exciting point processes. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society. Series B (Methodological)* (1971), 438–443.
- [25] Alan G Hawkes. 1971. Spectra of some self-exciting and mutually exciting point processes. *Biometrika* 58, 1 (1971), 83–90.
- [26] Alan G Hawkes and David Oakes. 1974. A cluster process representation of a self-exciting process. *Journal of Applied Probability* 11, 3 (1974), 493–503.
- [27] Xinran He, Theodoros Rekatsinas, James Foulds, Lise Getoor, and Yan Liu. 2015. HawkesTopic: A joint model for network inference and topic modeling from text-based cascades. In *Proceedings of the 32nd International Conference on Machine Learning*. 871–880.
- [28] P. D. Hoff, A. E. Raftery, and M. S. Handcock. 2002. Latent space approaches to social network analysis. *J. Amer. Statist. Assoc.* 97 (2002), 1090–1098.
- [29] Paul W Holland, Kathryn Blackmond Laskey, and Samuel Leinhardt. 1983. Stochastic blockmodels: First steps. *Social networks* 5, 2 (1983), 109–137.
- [30] Lawrence Hubert and Phipps Arabie. 1985. Comparing partitions. *Journal of Classification* 2 (1985), 193–218.
- [31] Emily M Jin, Michelle Girvan, and Mark EJ Newman. 2001. Structure of growing social networks. *Physical review E* 64, 4 (2001), 046132.
- [32] Antony Joseph, Bin Yu, et al. 2016. Impact of regularization on spectral clustering. *The Annals of Statistics* 44, 4 (2016), 1765–1791.
- [33] Ruthwik R. Junuthula, Maysam Haghdan, Kevin S. Xu, and Vijay K. Devabhaktuni. 2019. The Block Point Process Model for continuous-time event-based dynamic networks. In *Proceedings of the World Wide Web Conference*. 829–839.
- [34] Bryan Klimt and Yiming Yang. 2004. The enron corpus: A new dataset for email classification research. In *European Conference on Machine Learning*. Springer, 217–226.
- [35] Jing Lei and Alessandro Rinaldo. 2015. Consistency of spectral clustering in stochastic block models. *The Annals of Statistics* 43, 1 (2015), 215–237.
- [36] P.A.W Lewis. 1969. Asymptotic properties and equilibrium conditions for branching Poisson processes. *Journal of Applied Probability* 6, 2 (1969), 355–371.
- [37] Scott W. Linderman and Ryan P. Adams. 2014. Discovering latent network structure in point process data. In *Proceedings of the 31st International Conference on Machine Learning*. 1413–1421.
- [38] Scott W. Linderman and Ryan P. Adams. 2015. Scalable Bayesian inference for excitatory point process networks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1507.03228* (2015). <https://arxiv.org/abs/1507.03228>
- [39] David Marsan and Olivier Lengline. 2008. Extending earthquakes' reach through cascading. *Science* 319, 5866 (2008), 1076–1079.
- [40] Naoki Masuda, Taro Takaguchi, Nobuo Sato, and Kazuo Yano. 2013. Self-exciting point process modeling of conversation event sequences. In *Temporal Networks*. Springer, 245–264.
- [41] Catherine Matias and Vincent Miele. 2017. Statistical clustering of temporal networks through a dynamic stochastic block model. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series B (Statistical Methodology)* 79, 4 (2017), 1119–1141.
- [42] Catherine Matias, Tabea Rebafka, and Fanny Villers. 2018. A semiparametric extension of the stochastic block model for longitudinal networks. *Biometrika* 105, 3 (2018), 665–680.
- [43] Xenia Misicouriou, François Caron, and Yee Whye Teh. 2018. Modelling sparsity, heterogeneity, reciprocity and community structure in temporal interaction data. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*. 2343–2352.
- [44] Subhadeep Paul, Yuguo Chen, et al. 2020. Spectral and matrix factorization methods for consistent community detection in multi-layer networks. *The Annals of Statistics* 48, 1 (2020), 230–250.
- [45] Marianna Pensky, Teng Zhang, et al. 2019. Spectral clustering in the dynamic stochastic block model. *Electronic Journal of Statistics* 13, 1 (2019), 678–709.
- [46] Tai Qin and Karl Rohe. 2013. Regularized spectral clustering under the degree-corrected stochastic blockmodel. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems* 26. 3120–3128.
- [47] K. Rohe, S. Chatterjee, and B. Yu. 2011. Spectral clustering and the high-dimensional stochastic blockmodel. *Ann. Statist.* 39, 4 (2011), 1878–1915.
- [48] Daniel L. Sussman, Minh Tang, Donniell E. Fishkind, and Carey E. Priebe. 2012. A consistent adjacency spectral embedding for stochastic blockmodel graphs. *J. Amer. Statist. Assoc.* 107, 499 (2012), 1119–1128.
- [49] Long Tran, Mehrdad Farajtabar, Le Song, and Hongyuan Zha. 2015. NetCodec: Community detection from individual activities. In *Proceedings of the SIAM International Conference on Data Mining*. 91–99.
- [50] Bimal Viswanath, Alan Mislove, Meeyoung Cha, and Krishna P Gummadi. 2009. On the evolution of user interaction in facebook. In *Proceedings of the 2nd ACM workshop on Online social networks*. ACM, 37–42.
- [51] Ulrike Von Luxburg. 2007. A tutorial on spectral clustering. *Statistics and computing* 17, 4 (2007), 395–416.
- [52] Van Vu. 2018. A simple SVD algorithm for finding hidden partitions. *Combinatorics, Probability and Computing* 27, 1 (2018), 124–140.
- [53] Lu Xin, Mu Zhu, and Hugh Chipman. 2017. A continuous-time stochastic block model for basketball networks. *The Annals of Applied Statistics* 11, 2 (2017), 553–597.
- [54] Eric P. Xing, Wenjie Fu, and Le Song. 2010. A state-space mixed membership blockmodel for dynamic network tomography. *The Annals of Applied Statistics* 4 (2010), 535–566.
- [55] Kevin S. Xu. 2015. Stochastic block transition models for dynamic networks. In *Proceedings of the 18th International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics*. 1079–1087.
- [56] Kevin S. Xu and Alfred O. Hero III. 2014. Dynamic stochastic blockmodels for time-evolving social networks. *IEEE Journal of Selected Topics in Signal Processing* 8, 4 (2014), 552–562.
- [57] Jiasen Yang, Vinayak Rao, and Jennifer Neville. 2017. Decoupling Homophily and Reciprocity with Latent Space Network Models. In *Proceedings of the Conference on Uncertainty in Artificial Intelligence*.
- [58] Tianbao Yang, Yun Chi, Shenghuo Zhu, Yihong Gong, and Rong Jin. 2011. Detecting communities and their evolutions in dynamic social networks—a Bayesian approach. *Machine Learning* 82, 2 (2011), 157–189.
- [59] Yilin Zhang and Karl Rohe. 2018. Understanding regularized spectral clustering via graph conductance. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*. 10631–10640.
- [60] Qingyuan Zhao, Murat A Erdogdu, Hera Y He, Anand Rajaraman, and Jure Leskovec. 2015. Seismic: A self-exciting point process model for predicting tweet popularity. In *Proceedings of the 21th ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining*. ACM, 1513–1522.
- [61] Ke Zhou, Hongyuan Zha, and Le Song. 2013. Learning social infectivity in sparse low-rank networks using multi-dimensional hawkes processes. In *Artificial Intelligence and Statistics*. 641–649.
- [62] Ke Zhou, Hongyuan Zha, and Le Song. 2013. Learning triggering kernels for multi-dimensional hawkes processes. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*. 1301–1309.
- [63] Xinzie Zuo and Mason A Porter. 2019. Models of Continuous-Time Networks with Tie Decay, Diffusion, and Convection. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1906.09394* (2019).