Sequential Changepoint Approach for Online Community Detection

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Abstract—We present new algorithms for detecting the emergence of a community in large networks from sequential observations. The networks are modeled using Erdős-Renyi random graphs with edges forming between nodes in the community with higher probability. Based on statistical changepoint detection methodology, we develop three algorithms: the Exhaustive Search (ES), the Mixture, and the Hierarchical Mixture (H-Mix) methods. Performance of these methods is evaluated by the average run length (ARL), which captures the frequency of false alarms, and the detection delay. Numerical comparisons show that the ES method performs the best; however, it is exponentially complex. The Mixture method is polynomially complex by exploiting the fact that the size of the community is typically small in a large network. However, it may react to a group of active edges that do not form a community. This issue is resolved by the H-Mix method, which is based on a dendrogram decomposition of the network. We present an asymptotic analytical expression for ARL of the Mixture method when the threshold is large.

EDICS: SAS-STAT, MLSAS-SOC

I. Introduction

Community detection within a network is a problem which arises from a wide variety of applications, including social networks, biology, and speech processing [1]–[4]. These problems often consist of some graph $\mathcal G$ which contains a community $\mathcal C\subset \mathcal G$ where $\mathcal C$ and $\mathcal G\setminus \mathcal C$ differ in some fundamental characteristic, such as the frequency of interaction (see [5] for more details). For example, in social networks, a node would be an individual and an edge between two nodes would represent a friendship or kinship of some sort shared by these two individuals, and community detection is about clustering the nodes into groups with strong inner interaction and weak outer interaction.

Community detection problems can be divided into either one-shot [5]–[10] or dynamic categories [11]–[13]. The more commonly considered one-shot setting assumes observations from static networks. The dynamic setting is concerned with sequential observations from possibly dynamic networks, and has become increasingly important since such scenarios become prevalent in social networks [12]. These dynamic categories can be further divided into networks with (1) structures that either continuously change over time [11], or (2) structures that change abruptly after some changepoint [13], the latter of which will be the focus of this paper. In online community detection problems, due to the real time processing requirement, we cannot simply adopt the exponentially complex algorithms, especially for large networks.

In this paper, we propose a new sequential changepoint detection framework for detecting an abrupt emergence of

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a single community using sequential observations of random graphs. We also adopt the Erdős-Renyi model, but our methods differ from [9] in that we use a sequential hypothesis testing formulation and the methods are based on sequential likelihood ratios, which have statistically optimal properties. One the other hand, our work is a new addition to the field of online community detection: previous work such as [6] focus on empirical study, whereas we take an approach from the rigorous statistical methodology. From the likelihood formulations, three sequential procedures are derived: the Exhaustive Search (ES), the Mixture, and the Hierarchical Mixture (H-Mix) methods. The ES method performs the best but it is exponentially complex even if the community size is known; the Mixture method is polynomially complex and it exploits the fact that the size of the community inside a network is typically small. A limit of the Mixture method is that it may raise a false alarm due to a set of highly active edges that do not form a community. The H-Mix method addresses this problem by imposing a dendrogram decomposition of the graph. The performance of the changepoint detection procedures are evaluated using the average-run-length (ARL) and the detection delay. We derived a theoretical asymptotic approximation of the ARL of the Mixture method, which was numerically verified to be accurate even in the non-asymptotic regime. Hence, the theoretical approximation can be used to determine the detection threshold efficiently. The complexity and performance of the three methods are also analyzed using numerical examples.

II. FORMULATION AND METHODS

Assume a network with N nodes and an observed sequence of independent adjacency matrices over time X_1, X_2, \ldots with $X_t \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$, where X_i represents the interaction of these nodes at time i. Also assume when there is no community, there are only random interactions between all nodes in the network with relatively low frequency. There may exist an (unknown) time at which a community emerges and nodes inside the community have much higher frequencies of interaction.

We formulate this problem as a sequential changepoint detection problem. The null hypothesis is that the graph corresponding to the network at each time step is a realization of an Erdős-Renyi random graph, i.e., edges are independent Bernoulli random variables that take values of 1 with probability p_0 and values of 0 with probability $1-p_0$. Let $[X]_{ij}$ denote the ijth element of a matrix X, then

$$[X_t]_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{w. p. } p_0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad \forall (i,j). \tag{1}$$

The alternative hypothesis is that there exists an unknown time κ such that after κ , an *unknown* subset of nodes \mathcal{S}^* in the graph form edges between community nodes with a higher probability

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 p_1 , $p_1 > p_0$, implying that the interaction is stronger between nodes in the community:

$$[X_t]_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{w. p. } p_1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad \forall i, j \in \mathcal{S}^*, \quad t > \kappa, \tag{2}$$

and for all others

$$[X_t]_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{w. p. } p_0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \forall i \notin \mathcal{S}^* \text{ or } j \notin \mathcal{S}^*, \quad t > \kappa.$$
 (3)

We assume that p_0 is known, as it is a baseline parameter which can be estimated from historic data. We will consider both cases when p_1 is either unknown or known. Let |S| denote the cardinality of a set S. Here, to simplify problem, we assume that nodes within community take the a homogeneous probability of interaction p_1 .

Our goal is to define a stopping rule T such that for a given large average-run-length (ARL) value, $\mathbb{E}^{\infty}\{T\}$, the expected detection delay $\mathbb{E}^{\kappa}\{T-\kappa|T>\kappa\}$ is small. Here \mathbb{E}^{∞} and \mathbb{E}^{κ} consecutively denote the expectation when there is no changepoint, and when the changepoint occurs at time κ . This formulation corresponds the classic mini-max changepoint detection problem [14], and the desired stopping rules are determined by likelihood ratios that we describe below.

Define the following statistics for edge (i, j) and assumed changepoint time $\kappa = k$ for observations up to some time t,

$$U_{k,t,p_1}^{(i,j)} = \sum_{m=k+1}^{t} [X_m]_{ij} \log \left(\frac{p_1}{p_0}\right) + (1 - [X_m]_{ij}) \log \left(\frac{1 - p_1}{1 - p_0}\right). \tag{4}$$

Then for a given changepoint time $\kappa=k$ and a community \mathcal{S} , we can write the log-likelihood ratio for (1), (2) and (3) as follows:

$$\ell(\kappa = k | p_1, \mathcal{S}) \triangleq \log \left(\prod_{m=k+1}^{t} \prod_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{S}} \frac{p_1^{[X_m]_{ij}} (1 - p_1)^{1 - [X_m]_{ij}}}{p_0^{[X_m]_{ij}} (1 - p_0)^{1 - [X_m]_{ij}}} \right)$$

$$= \sum_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{S}} U_{k,t,p_1}^{(i,j)}.$$
(5)

Exhaustive Search (ES) method: Often, the probability of two community members interacting p_1 is unknown since it typically represents an anomaly (or new information) in the network. One approach is to set p_1 equal to a nominal value, say δ , which would be important to detect, and set a targeted size of the community s that may be a guess for $|\mathcal{S}^*|$. Thus, we define a stopping rule that detects a community whenever the likelihood ratio exceeds a threshold b at certain time t:

$$T_{\text{ES},1} = \inf\{t : \max_{t-m_1 \le k \le t-m_0} \max_{\mathcal{S} \subset [\![N]\!]: |\mathcal{S}| = s} \sum_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{S}} U_{k,t,\delta}^{(i,j)} \ge b\},\tag{6}$$

which we refer to as the *exhaustive search (ES)* procedure. Here $\llbracket N \rrbracket \triangleq \{1,\ldots,N\}$. In (6), the test statistic is the maximum log likelihood ratio (5) over all possible sets $\mathcal S$ of size s and all possible changepoint locations in a time window $k \in [t-m_1,t-m_0]$, with m_0 being the start and m_1 being the end of the window. There exists a recursive way to calculate the test statistic in (6), known as the CUSUM

statistic [14]. If $m_0=0$, for each possible \mathcal{S} , we calculate $W_{\mathcal{S},t+1}=\max\{W_{\mathcal{S},t}+\sum_{(i,j)\in\mathcal{S}}U_{t,t+1,\delta}^{(i,j)},0\}$, with $W_{\mathcal{S},0}=0$, and (6) can be implemented as

$$T_{\mathrm{ES},1} = \inf\{t : \max_{\mathcal{S} \subset [N]: |\mathcal{S}| = s} W_{\mathcal{S},k} \ge b\}. \tag{7}$$

An alternative approach is to replace p_1 by its maximum likelihood estimate, which can be found by taking the derivative of $\ell(\kappa = k|p_1, \mathcal{S})$ in (5) with respect to p_1 for fixed \mathcal{S} , k and t, setting it equal to 0 and solving for p_1 :

$$\widehat{p}_1(S) = \frac{2}{|S|(|S|-1)(t-k)} \sum_{(i,j)\in S} \sum_{m=k+1}^t [X_m]_{ij}, \quad (8)$$

and uses $U_{k,t,\widehat{p}_1}^{(i,j)}$ when forming the detection statistic, which we refer to as $T_{\rm ES,2}$:

$$T_{\text{ES},2} = \inf\{t : \max_{t-m_1 \le k \le t-m_0} \max_{\mathcal{S} \subset [\![N]\!] : |\mathcal{S}| = s} \sum_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{S}} U_{k,t,\widehat{p}_1(\mathcal{S})}^{(i,j)} \ge b\}.$$

However, for this approach, there is no recursive formula for calculating the statistic, due to a nonlinearity resulting from substituting \hat{p}_1 for p_1 .

Mixture method: Note that the testing statistic of the ES method in (6) searches over all 2^s possible communities. The Mixture method avoids the exponential complexity of the ES method by introducing a simple probabilistic mixture model, which exploits the fact that typically the size of the community is small, i.e. $|\mathcal{S}^*|/N \ll 1$. It is motivated by the mixture method developed for detecting a changepoint using multiple sensors [15] and detecting aligned changepoints in multiple DNA sequences [16]. Assume two nodes (i,j) are both in the community with probability α , which is indicated by a set of i.i.d. Bernoulli random variables Q_{ij}

$$Q_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{w. p. } \alpha \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad \forall i, j \in \mathcal{S}^*. \tag{10}$$

Here α can be interpreted as a guess for $|\mathcal{S}^*|/N$. Let

$$h(x) \triangleq \log\{1 - \alpha + \alpha \exp(x)\}. \tag{11}$$

Then after the changepoint, if nodes i and j both belong to the community, the likelihood ratio is given by exponential of (5); otherwise the likelihood ratio is 1. Hence, the likelihood ratio for the mixture model is given by

$$\ell(\kappa = k | p_1, \mathcal{S}) = \sum_{1 \le i < j \le N} \log \left\{ \mathbb{E}_{Q_{ij}} [(1 - Q_{ij}) + Q_{ij}] \right\}$$

$$Q_{ij} \prod_{m=k+1}^{t} \frac{p_1^{[X_m]_{ij}} (1 - p_1)^{1 - [X_m]_{ij}}}{p_0^{[X_m]_{ij}} (1 - p_0)^{1 - [X_m]_{ij}}} \right\} = \sum_{1 \le i < j \le N} h(U_{k,t,p_1}^{(i,j)}).$$
(12)

Again, similarly, for the unknown p_1 we can either replace it with a fixed nominal value δ , or with a maximum likelihood estimate. Forming the exact maximum likelihood estimate for p_1 in the mixture model is hard. One possible estimate would be $\tilde{p}_1 = \max_{\mathcal{S} \subset \llbracket N \rrbracket: |\mathcal{S}| = s} p_1(\mathcal{S})$, which, however, requires searching over all possible sets. Therefore, hereafter we only

consider the first approach

$$T_{\text{Mix}} = \inf\{t : \max_{t - m_1 \le k \le t - m_0} \sum_{1 < i < j \le N} h(U_{k,t,\delta}^{(i,j)}) \ge b\}, \quad (13)$$

where b is the threshold. Here h(x) can be viewed as a soft-thresholding function [15] that selects the edges which are more likely to be between community members.

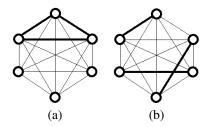


Fig. 1: (a): a community where all nodes in the community are connected with a higher probability than under the null hypothesis. (b): a model which would output the same mixture statistic that does not correspond to a community.

Hierarchical Mixture method (H-Mix): One problem with the Mixture method is that its statistic can be gathered from edges that do not form a community. Figure 1 below displays two scenarios where the mixture statistics will be identical, but Figure 1(b) does not correspond to a network forming a community. To solve this problem, we introduce the hierarchical Mixture method (H-Mix) that takes advantage of the low computational complexity of the Mixture method while enforcing the statistics to be calculated only over meaningful communities. The H-Mix method requires setting a targeted size of the community s that may be a guess for $|\mathcal{S}^*|$.

The H-Mix method enforces the community structure by constructing a dendrogram decomposition of the network, which is a hierarchical partitioning of the graphical network [17]. The hierarchical structure provided by dendrogram enables us to systematically remove nodes from being considered for the community. Suppose a network has a community of size s. Starting from the root level with all nodes belonging to the community, each of the nodes in the dendrogram tree decomposition is a subgraph of the entire network that contains all but one node. Then the mixture statistic from (13) is evaluated for each subgraph: using h(x) defined in (11), for a given set of nodes S_0 , nominal value $p_1 = \delta$, and a hypothesized changepoint location k, the mixture statistic is calculated as

$$M(\mathcal{S}_0) = \sum_{(i,j)\in\mathcal{S}_0} h\left(U_{k,t,\delta}^{(i,j)}\right). \tag{14}$$

We iteratively select the subgraph with the highest mixture statistic value, since it indicates that the associated node removed is most likely to be a non-member of the community and will be eliminated from subsequent steps. The algorithm repeats until there are only s nodes remaining in the subgraph. Denote the mixture statistic for the selected subgraph as P_k . Then $\{P_k\}_{k=1}^t$ is a series of test statistics at each hypothesized

changepoint location k. Finally, the H-Mix method is given by

$$T_{\text{H-Mix}} = \inf\{t : \max_{t-m_1 \le k \le t-m_0} P_k \ge b\},$$
 (15)

where b is the threshold. The idea for a dendrogram decomposition is similar to the edge removal method [18]. An illustration for the procedure described above and Algorithm 1 summarizes the H-Mix method can be found in [19].

Algorithm 1 Hierarchical Mixture Method

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1: Input: \{X_m\}_{m=1}^t, X_m \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}

2: Output: \{P_k\}_{k=1}^t \in \mathbb{R}^t, a set of statistics for each hypothesized changepoint location k.

3: for k = 1 \rightarrow t do

4: \mathcal{S} = \llbracket N \rrbracket

5: while |\mathcal{S}| > s do

6: i^* = \operatorname{argmax}_{i \in \mathcal{S}} M\left(\mathcal{S} \setminus \{i\}\right)

7: \mathcal{S} = \mathcal{S} \setminus \{i^*\}

8: end while

9: P_k = M(\mathcal{S})

10: end for
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The complexity for the algorithms are summarized as follows (derivations can be found in [19]): (1) when $s \ll N/2$, the complexity of the ES algorithm is $\mathcal{O}(N^s)$, of the Mixture method is $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$, of the H-Mix method is $\mathcal{O}(N^4)$; and (2) when s is on the order of N/2, the complexity of the ES algorithm is $\mathcal{O}(2^{s/2})$, of the Mixture method is $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$, of the H-Mix method is $\mathcal{O}(N^4)$. Note that the mixture and the H-Mix both have much lower complexity than the ES method.

III. THEORETICAL ANALYSIS FOR THE MIXTURE METHOD

In this section, we present a theoretical approximation for the ARL of the Mixture method with a nominal value $p_1 = \delta$ using techniques outlined as follows. In [16] a general expression for the tail probability of scan statistics is given, which can be used to derive the ARL of a related changepoint detection procedure. For example, in [15] a generalized form for ARL was found using the expression in [16]. The basic idea is to relate the probability of stopping a changepoint detection procedure when there is no change, $\mathbb{P}^{\infty}\{T\leq m\}$, to the tail probability of the maxima of a random field: $\mathbb{P}^{\infty}\{S \geq b\}$, where S is the statistic used for the changepoint detection procedure, b is the threshold, and \mathbb{P}^{∞} denotes the probability measure when there is no change. Hence, if we can write $\mathbb{P}^{\infty}\{S \geq b\} \approx m\lambda$ for some λ , by relying on the assumption that the stopping time is asymptotically exponentially distributed when $b \to \infty$, we can find the ARL is $1/\lambda$. However, the analysis for the Mixture method here differs from that in [15] in two major aspects: (1) the detection statistics here involve a binomial random variable, and we will use a normal random variable to approximate its distribution; (2) the change-of-variable parameter θ depends on t-k and, hence, the expression for ARL will be more complicated than that in [15].

Theorem 1: When $b \to \infty$, an upper approximation to the ARL $\mathbb{E}^{\infty}[T_{\text{mix}}]$ of the Mixture method with known p_1 is given

by:

$$ARL_{UA} = \left[\int_{\sqrt{2N/m_1}}^{\sqrt{2N/m_0}} \frac{y\nu^2(y\sqrt{\gamma(\theta_y)})}{H(N,\theta_y)} dy \right]^{-1}, \quad (16)$$

and a lower approximation to the ARL is given by:

$$ARL_{LA} = \left[\sum_{\tau=m_0}^{m_1} \frac{2N\nu^2 (2N\sqrt{\gamma(\theta_{\tau})}/\tau^2)}{\tau^2 H(N,\theta_{\tau})} \right]^{-1}, \quad (17)$$

where

$$\begin{split} c_0 &= \log(p_1/p_0), \quad c_1 = \log[(1-p_1)/(1-p_0)], \\ g_\tau(x) &= \tau[p_0(c_0-c_1)+c_1] + x\sqrt{\tau(c_0-c_1)^2p_0(1-p_0)}, \\ h_\tau(x) &\triangleq h(g_\tau(x)), \text{ for } h(x) \text{ defined in (11)}, \\ \psi_\tau(\theta) &= \log \mathbb{E}\{e^{\theta h_\tau(Z)}\}, \\ \dot{\psi}_\tau(\theta) &= \frac{\mathbb{E}\{h_\tau(Z)e^{\theta h_\tau(Z)}\}}{\mathbb{E}\{e^{\theta h_\tau(Z)}\}}, \\ \ddot{\psi}_\tau(\theta) &= \frac{\mathbb{E}\{h_\tau^2(Z)e^{\theta h_\tau(Z)}\}}{\mathbb{E}\{e^{\theta h_\tau(Z)}\}} - \frac{(\mathbb{E}\{h_\tau(Z)e^{\theta h_\tau(Z)}\})^2}{(\mathbb{E}\{e^{\theta h_\tau(Z)}\})^2}, \\ \gamma(\theta) &= \frac{1}{2}\theta^2\mathbb{E}\{[\dot{h}_\tau(Z)]^2\exp\{\theta h_\tau(Z)-\psi_\tau(\theta)\}, \\ \theta_\tau \text{ is solution to } \dot{\psi}_\tau(\theta_\tau) &= b/N, \\ H(N,\theta_\tau) &= \frac{\theta[2\pi\ddot{\psi}(\theta_\tau)]^{1/2}}{\gamma^2(\theta_\tau)\sqrt{N}}e^{N[\theta\dot{\psi}(\theta_\tau)-\psi(\theta_\tau)]}, \end{split}$$

and \dot{f} and \ddot{f} denote the first and second order derivatives of a function f, Z is a normal random variable with zero mean and unit variance, the expectation is with respect to Z, and the special function $\nu(x)$ is given by [15]

$$\nu(x) \approx \frac{(2/x)[\Phi(x/2) - 1/2]}{(x/2)\Phi(x/2) + \phi(x/2)}.$$

Here θ_{τ} is the solution to

$$\dot{\psi}_{\tau}(\theta_{\tau}) = b/N.$$

TABLE I: Theoretical vs. simulated thresholds for $p_0 = 0.3$, $p_1 = 0.8$, and N = 6. The threshold b calculated using theory is very close to the corresponding threshold obtained using simulation.

ARL	Theory b	Simulated ARL	Simulated b
5000	7.37	5049	7.04
10000	8.05	10210	7.64

Proof for this theorem can be found in [19]. We verify the theoretical upper and lower approximations for ARL of the Mixture method versus the simulated values, and consider a case with $p_0=0.3,\ p_1=0.8,$ and N=6. The comparison results are shown in Figure 2. These comparisons show that the lower approximation is an especially good approximation to the simulated ARL and, hence, it can be used to efficiently determine a threshold corresponding a desired ARL (which is typically set to a large number around 5000 or 10000), as shown in Table I.

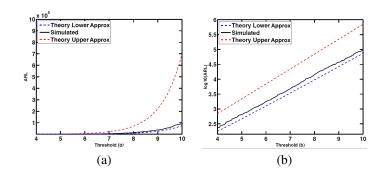


Fig. 2: Comparison of the theoretical upper and lower approximations with the simulated ARL for a case with N=6, $p_0=0.3$, and $p_1=0.8$

IV. NUMERICAL EXAMPLES

In this section, we compare the performance of our three methods via numerical simulations. We first use simulations to determine the threshold b for each method, so these methods all have the same average run length (ARL) which is equal to 5000, and then estimate the detection delays using these b's under different scenarios. The results are shown in Table II, including the detection delay and the thresholds (shown in brackets). The $\alpha = 0.3$ was set for all mixture model statistics and communities were formed. Note that the low-complexity mixture and H-Mix methods can both detect the community quickly. The detection delays in the first row are smaller than those in the second row, as the first row represents an easier case to detect. Similar explanation can be applied to the second and third row. Also note that when δ does not equal the true p_1 , the Mixture method can still be applied but the detection delay will be longer. For larger N, we only show the Mixture method as it has the lowest complexity.

TABLE II: Comparison of detection delays for various cases. The numbers inside the brackets are the threshold b such that ARL = 5000.

	$T_{\mathrm{ES},1}$	$T_{ m Mix}$	T	$T_{\rm Mix} \delta =$
	$\delta = p_1$	$\delta = p_1$	$T_{\mathrm{H-Mix}}$	$p_1 - 0.1$
N = 6, s = 3,	3.8	4.3	3.8	6.0
$p_0 = 0.2, p_1 = 0.9$	(9.96)	(6.71)	(9.95)	(6.71)
N = 6, s = 3,	9.5	12.8	10.8	23.3
$p_0 = 0.3, p_1 = 0.7$	(10.17)	(6.77)	(10.18)	(6.77)
N = 6, s = 4,	5.0	6.7	6.4	11.0
$p_0 = 0.3, p_1 = 0.7$	(8.48)	(6.88)	(10.17)	(6.88)
N = 50, s = 10,		27.5		
$p_0 = 0.3, p_1 = 0.7$	-	(-7.44)	-	_
N = 50, s = 20,		1.1		
$p_0 = 0.3, p_1 = 0.7$	_	(-7.41)	_	-

V. DISCUSSIONS

As we use simple stylized Erdős-Renyi models for the networks, this framework works for the communities with noticeable change of the frequency of members. Other kinds of communities with different characteristics such as friends, colleagues, special groups, etc. cannot be detected using this framework.

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