



Disease spreading

part II



Today

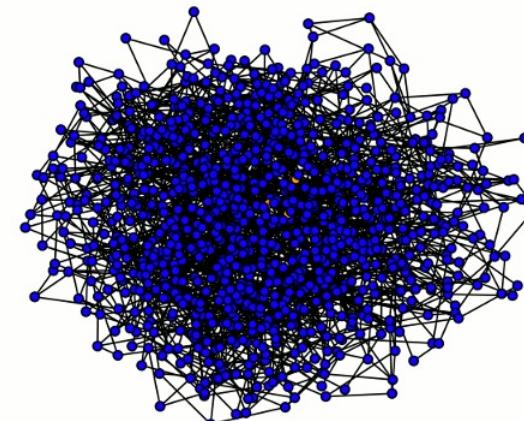
Part I (last class)



Introduction to theoretical
epidemiology

Part II

Network at Age 4



Network epidemics

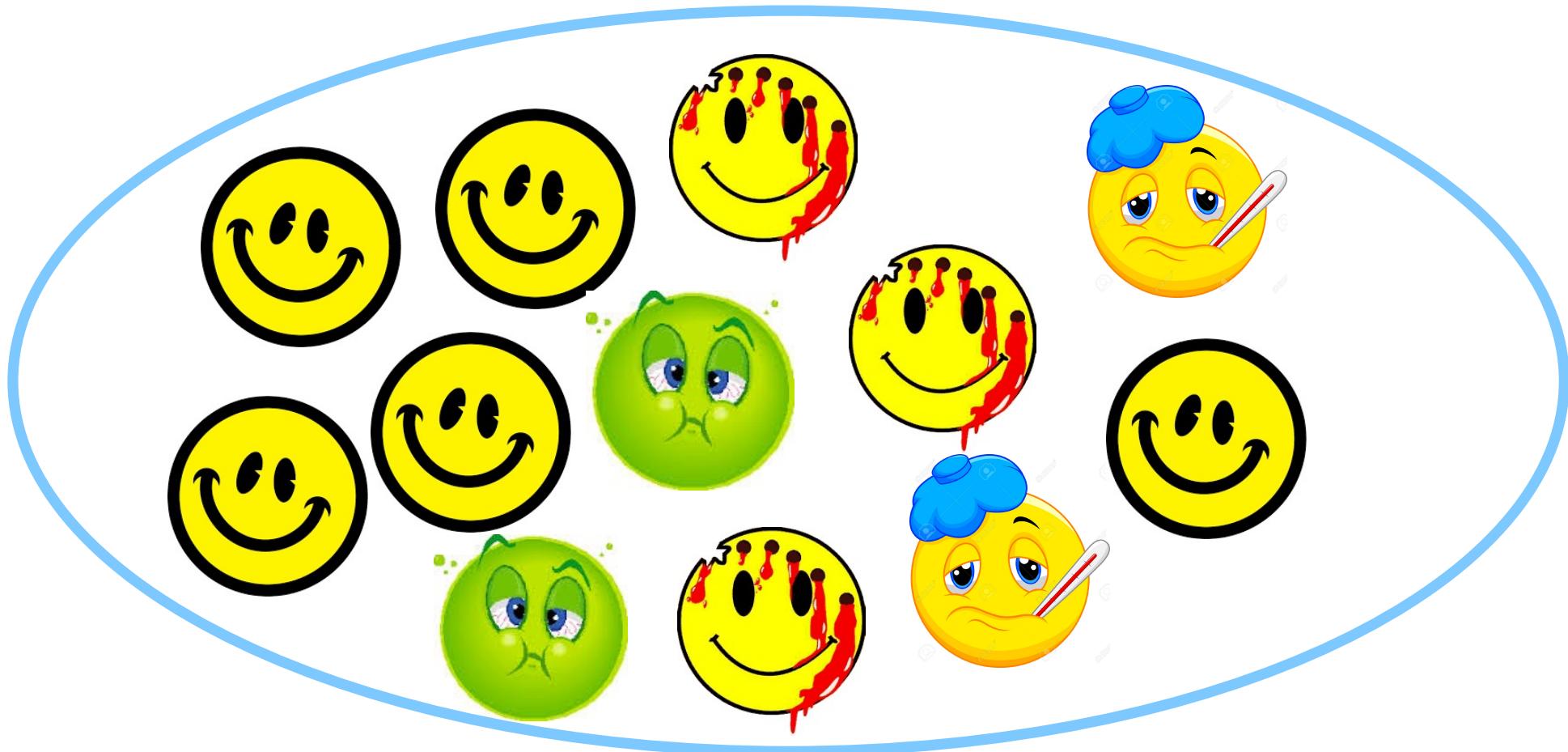
Part III



Social
Dynamics

Compartment models of disease spreading

Consider a population where each individual has a disease state

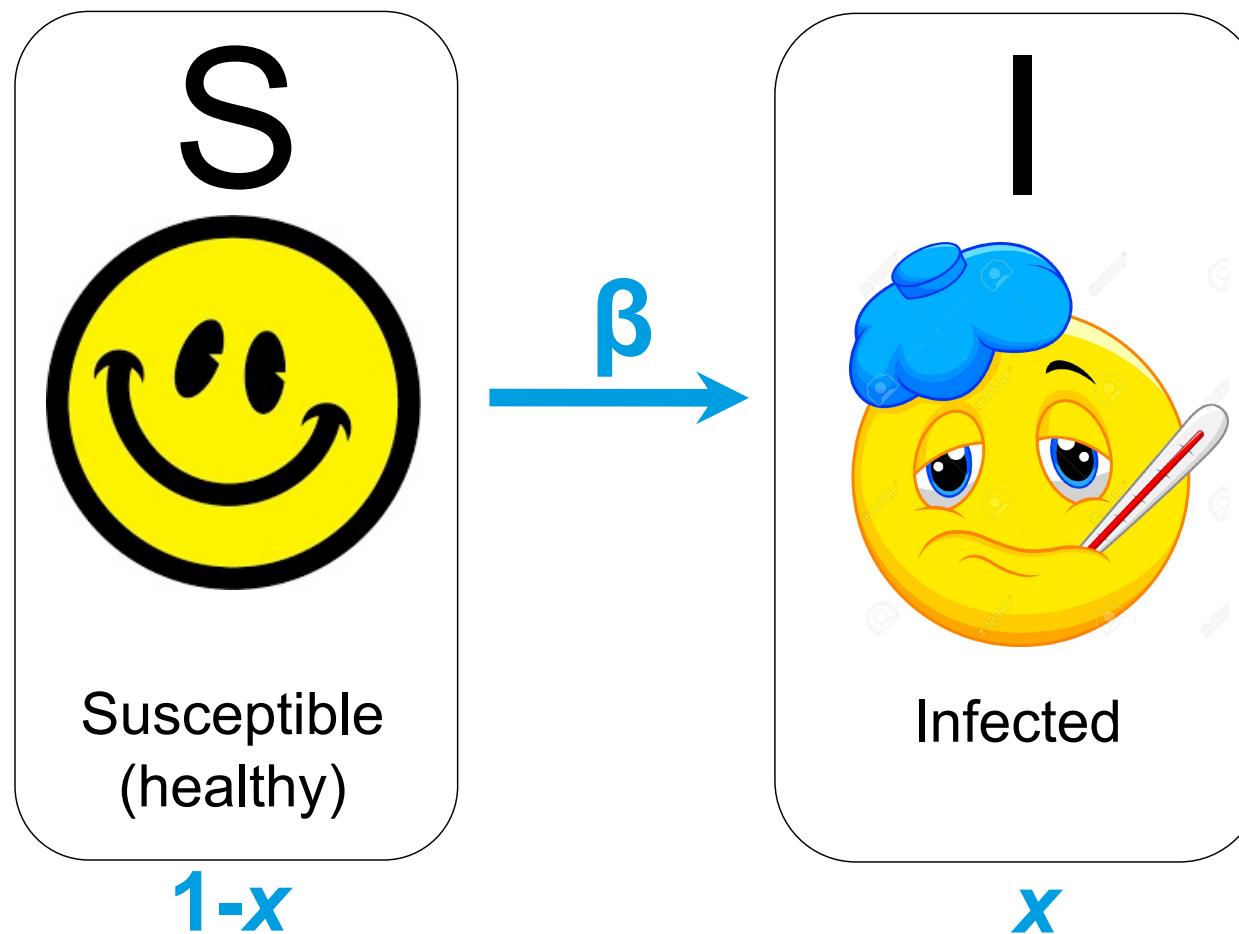


SI model

Ex: AIDS

β : infection rate per contact

The most elementary model...



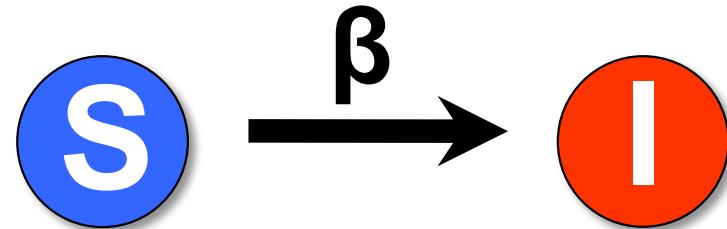
SI model

β = infection rate

$\langle k \rangle$ = average number of contacts of a given individual

x = fraction of infected in the population

$y = 1 - x$ = fraction of susceptible



$$\frac{dx}{dt} = x(1-x)\beta\langle k \rangle$$

Transmission rate / force of infection = $\beta\langle k \rangle$

i.e., an infected individual is able to transmit the disease with $\beta\langle k \rangle$ others per unit time. Or, if you prefer, the characteristic timescale of the disease is

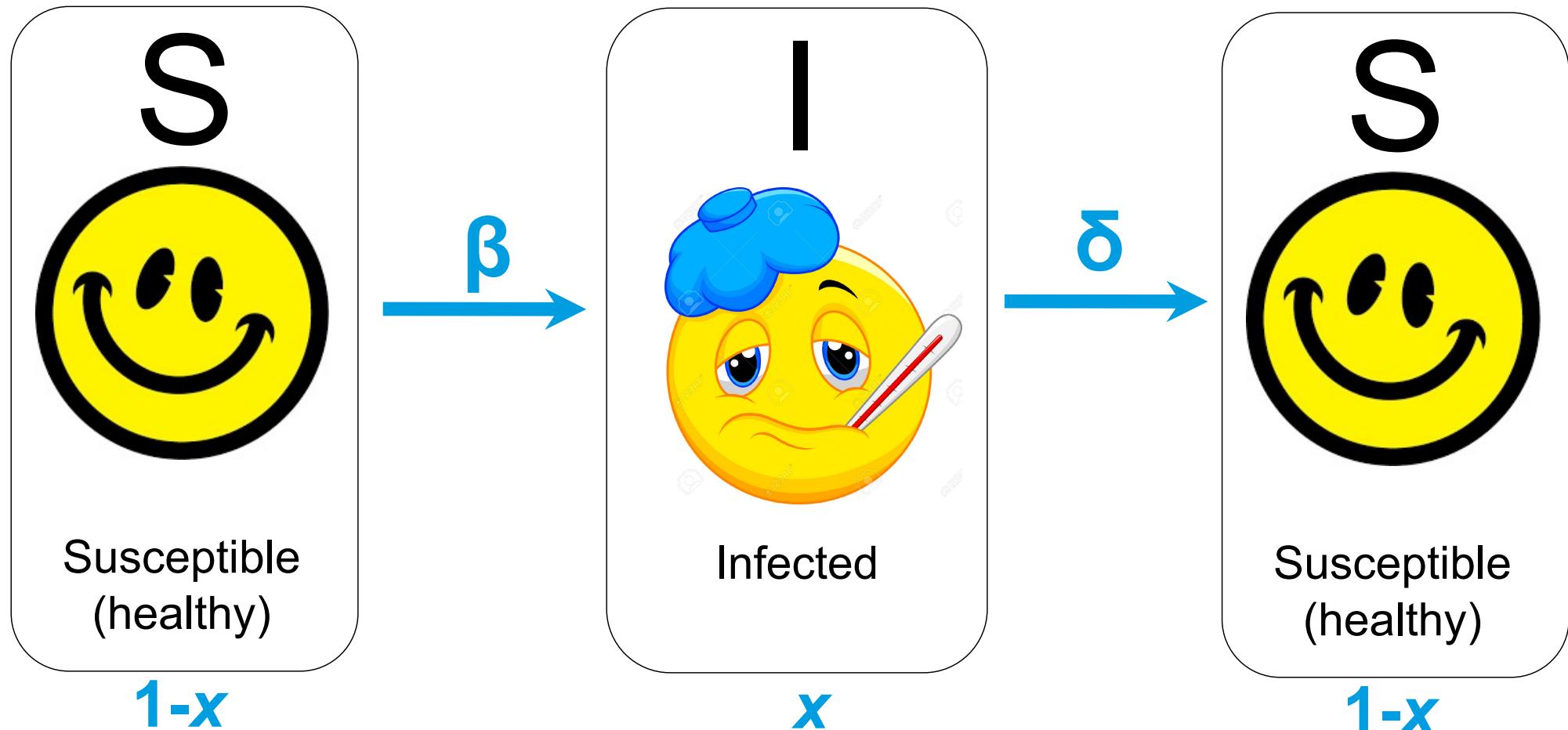
$$\tau = (\beta\langle k \rangle)^{-1}$$

SIS model

Ex: gonorrhea, athlete's foot, ...

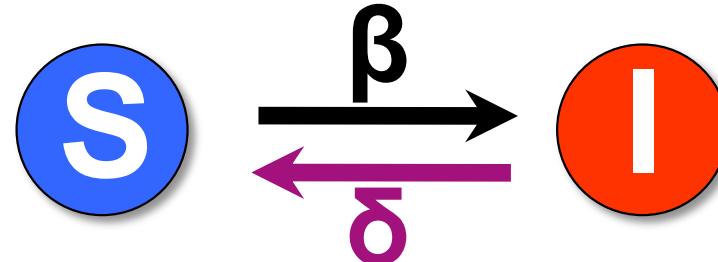
β : contact infection rate
 δ : recovery rate

Let's add recovery!



SIS model

β : contact infection rate
 δ : recovery rate



$$\dot{x} \equiv \frac{dx}{dt} = x(1-x)\beta\langle k \rangle - \delta x$$

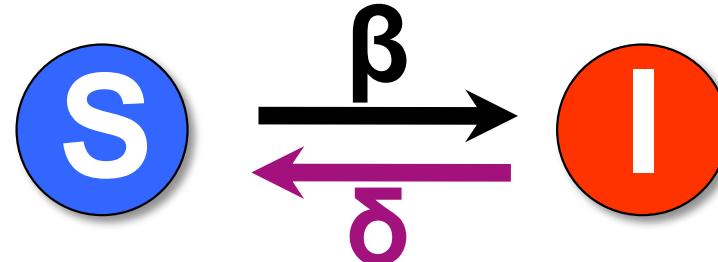
infection	recovery
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$\langle k \rangle$ – average number of contacts of a given individual
 x – fraction of infected in the population
 $y = 1-x$ – fraction of susceptible

Traditional models

β : contact infection rate
 δ : recovery rate

SIS model



- **Endemic state:**

For low recovery rate, the disease will never disappear.

$$\delta < \beta \langle k \rangle$$

- **Disease free-state:**

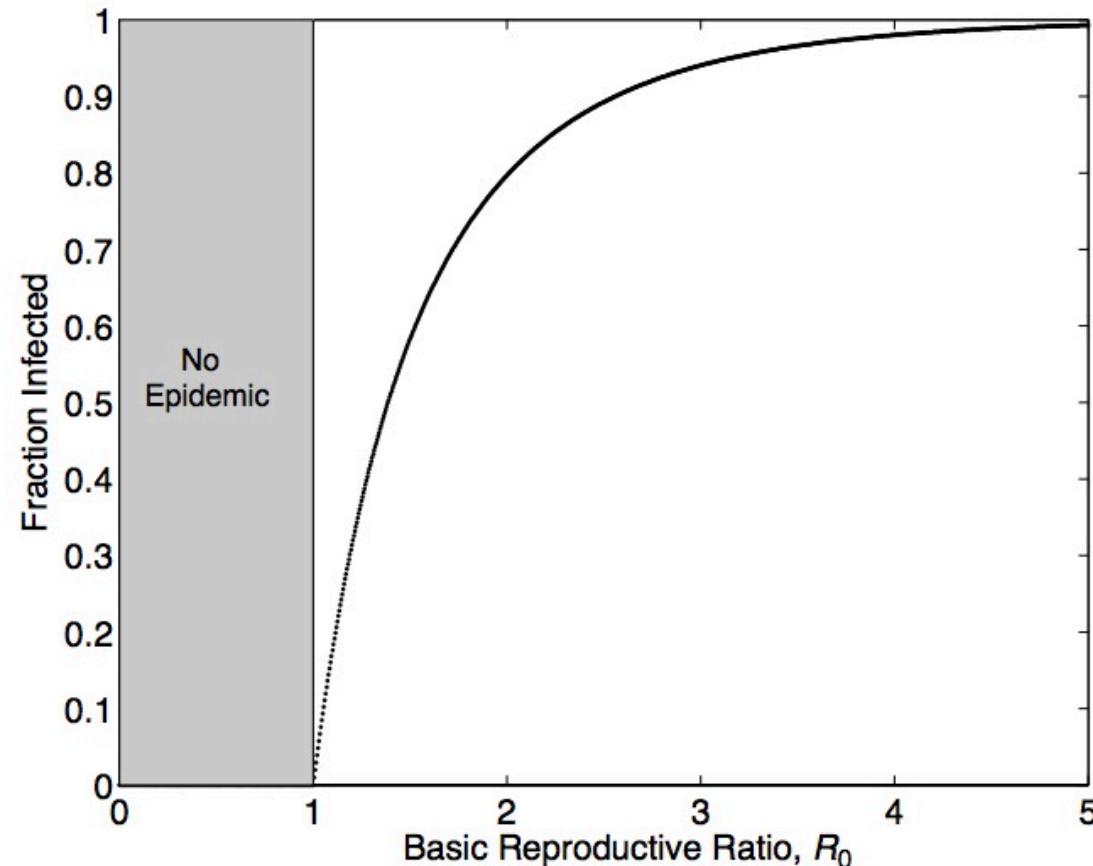
For large recovery rates the number of new infections will be lower than the number of new recovered individuals, and the disease decreases exponentially in time.

$$\delta > \beta \langle k \rangle$$

The basic reproductive number

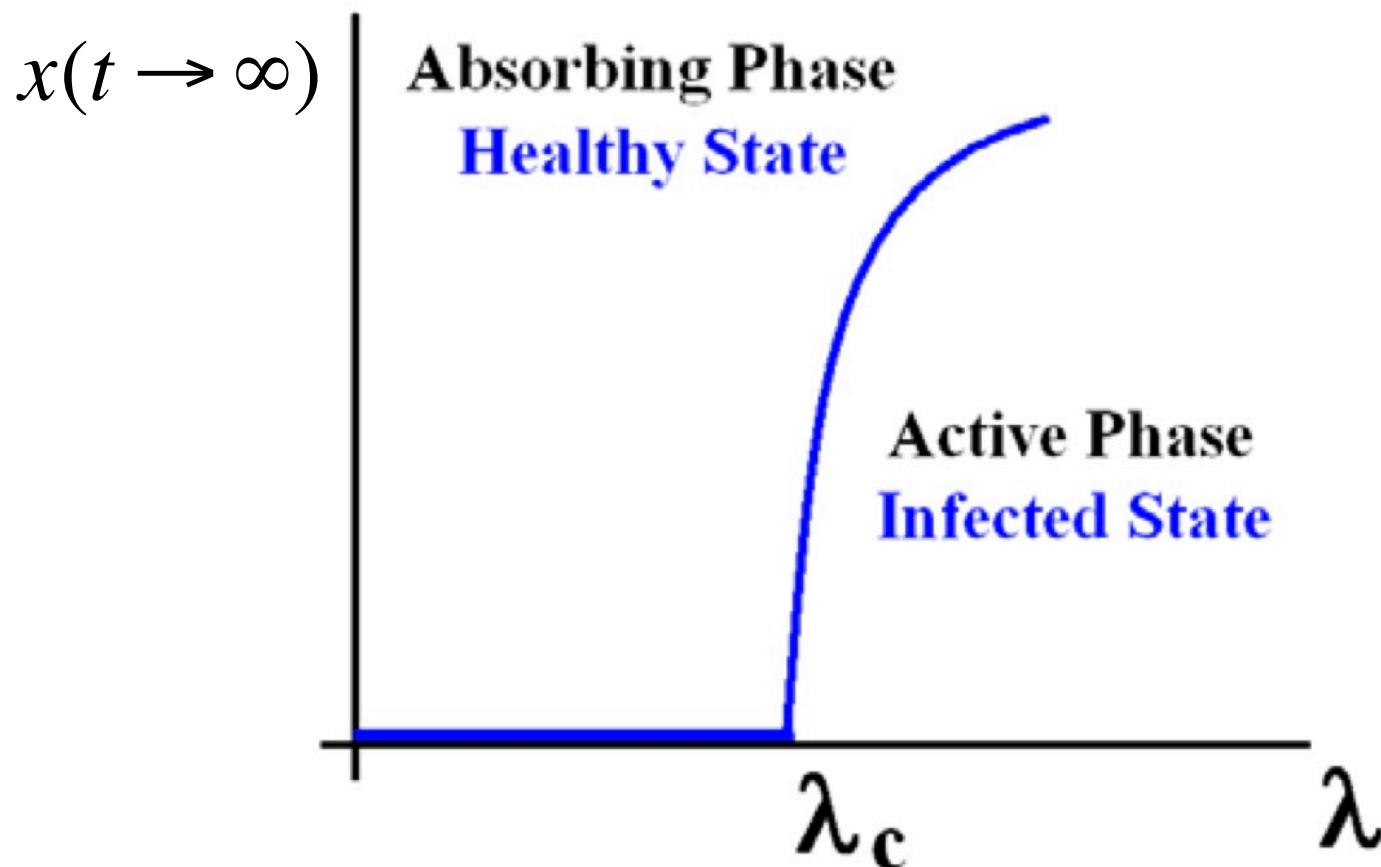
The reproductive number R_0 provides the number of individuals an infected infects if all its contacts are susceptible.

$$R_0^{SIS,SIR} \equiv \frac{\beta \langle k \rangle}{\delta}$$



Epidemic threshold

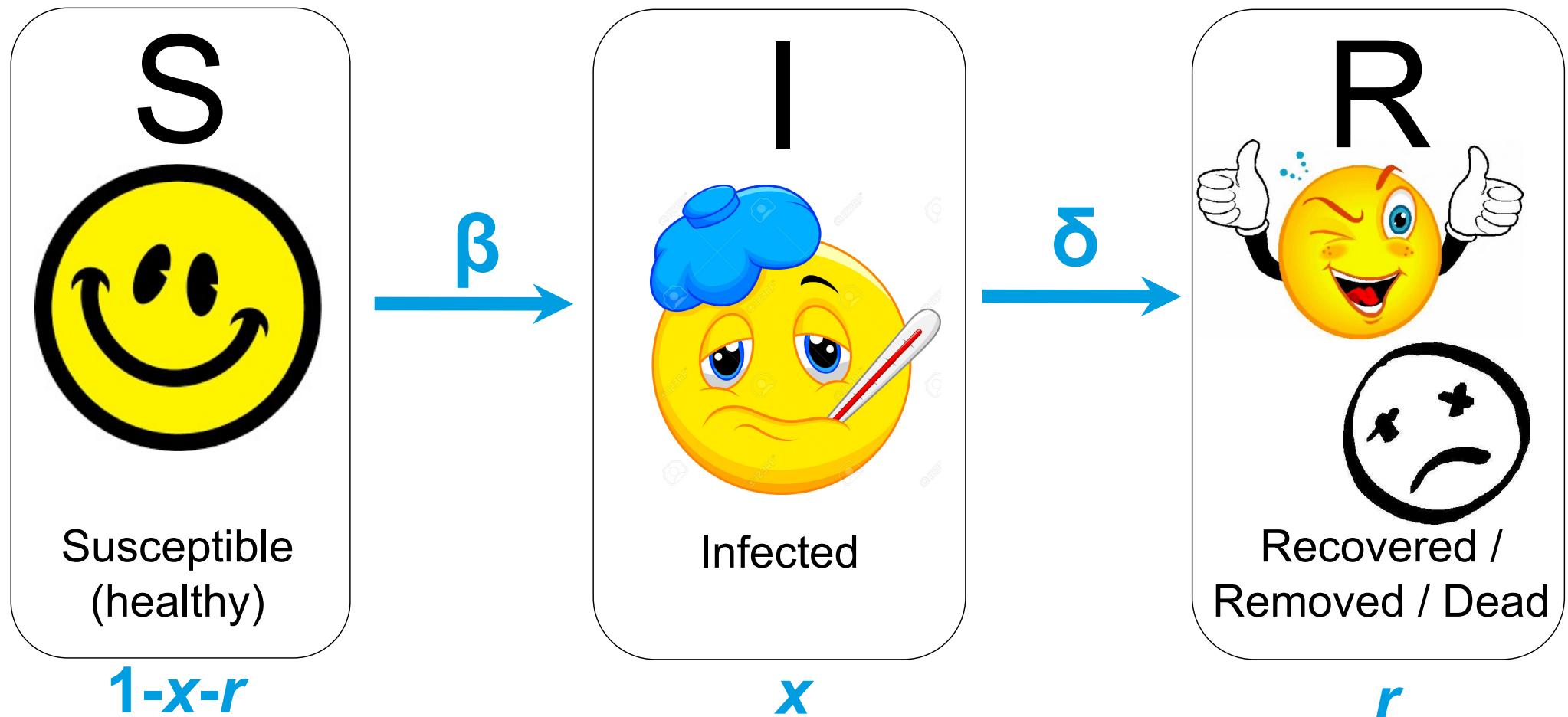
Equivalently, one may define an epidemic threshold $\lambda_c = \beta_c / \delta$ which also splits the phase space into the endemic state and the healthy state.



SIR model

β : contact infection rate
 δ : recovery rate

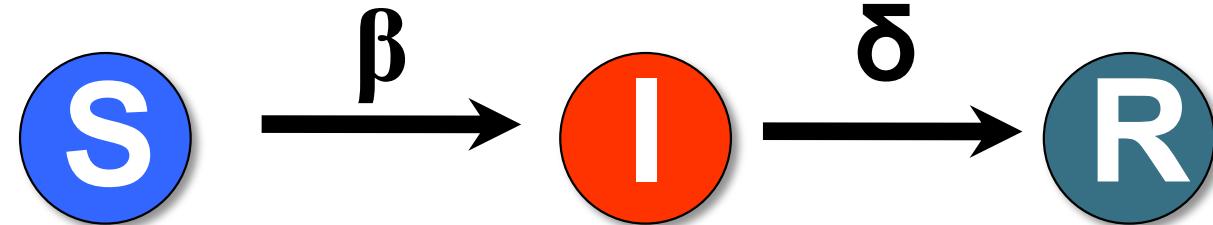
Often individuals develop immunity after recovery (e.g., Influenza) or can be removed from the population.



Traditional models

β : contact infection rate
 δ : recovery rate

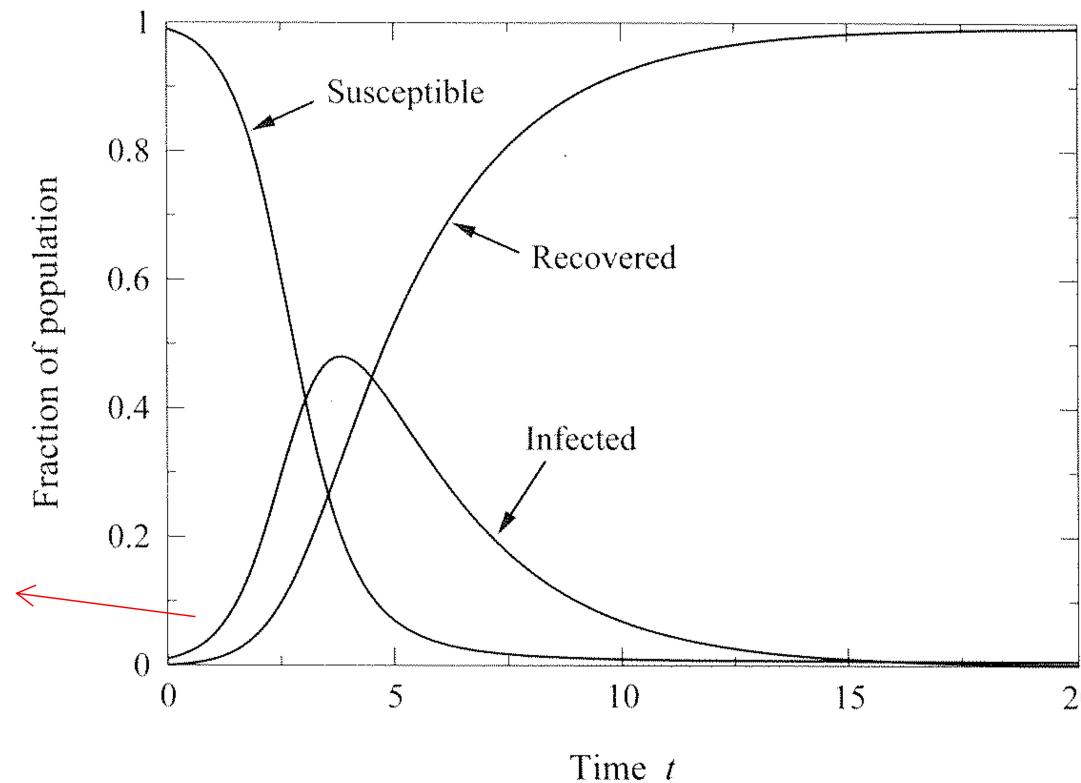
SIR model



$$\dot{x} = \beta \langle k \rangle x(1 - x - r) - \delta x$$

$$\dot{r} = \delta x$$

$$R_0 = \frac{\beta \langle k \rangle}{\delta} > 1$$



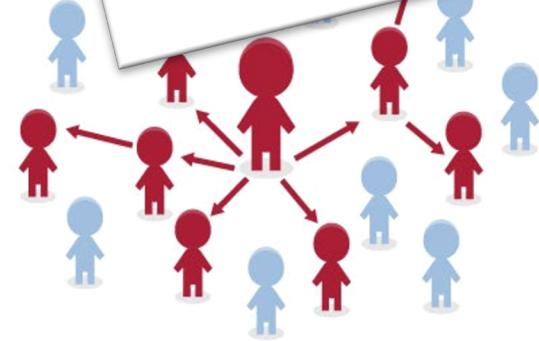
Epidemic control

Aiming at β

Trans-

Pre-

Air



No herd immunity

Susceptible

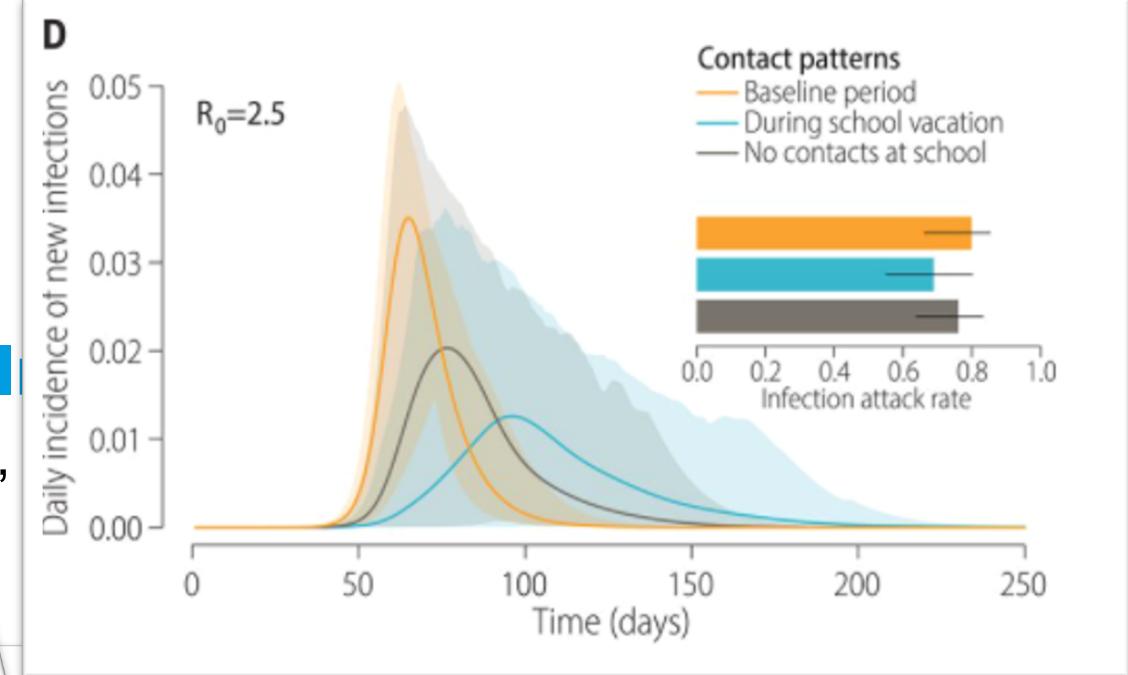
Infected

Immune

Herd immunity achieved

Disease transmission

Source: GAO adaptation of NIH graphic. | GAO-20-646SP



in quarantine
d public spaces, like
owns.

links. Reduces the
dies out.

Epidemic control

Contact patterns
— Baseline period
— During school vacation
— No contacts at school

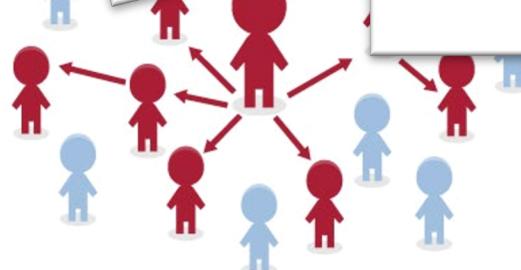
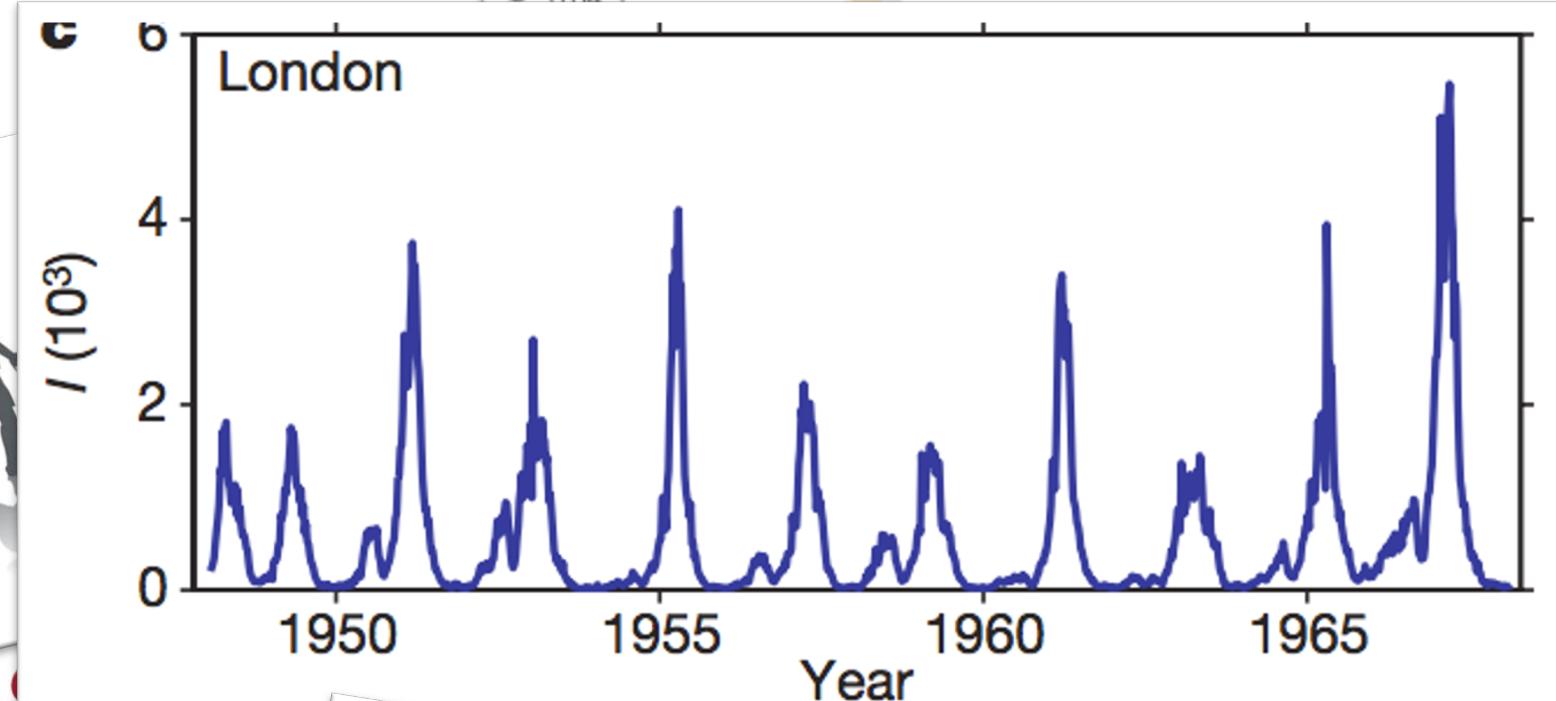
Aiming at β

Trans-

Pre-

Air

Human



No herd immunity

Susceptible

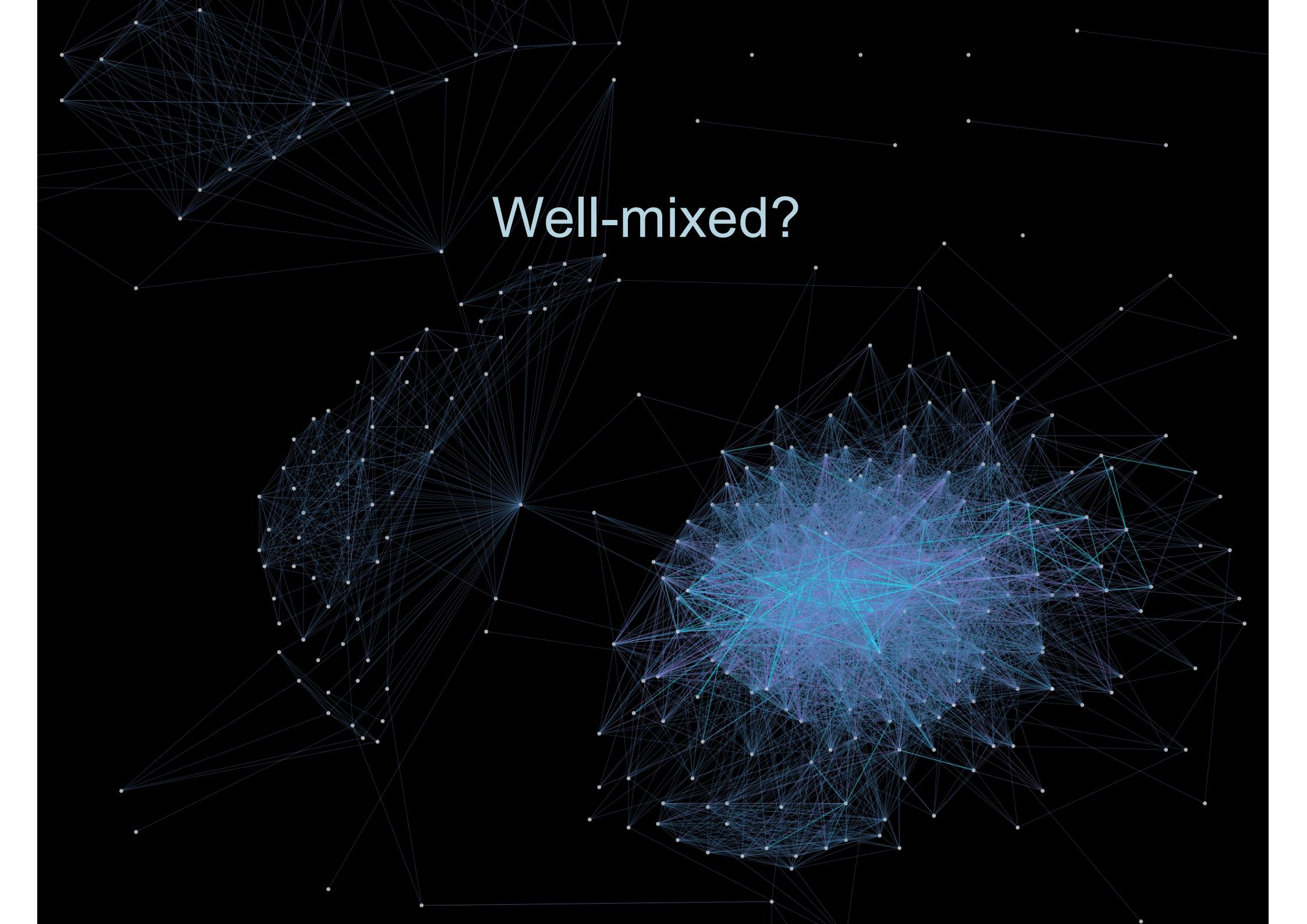
Infected

Immune

→ Disease transmission

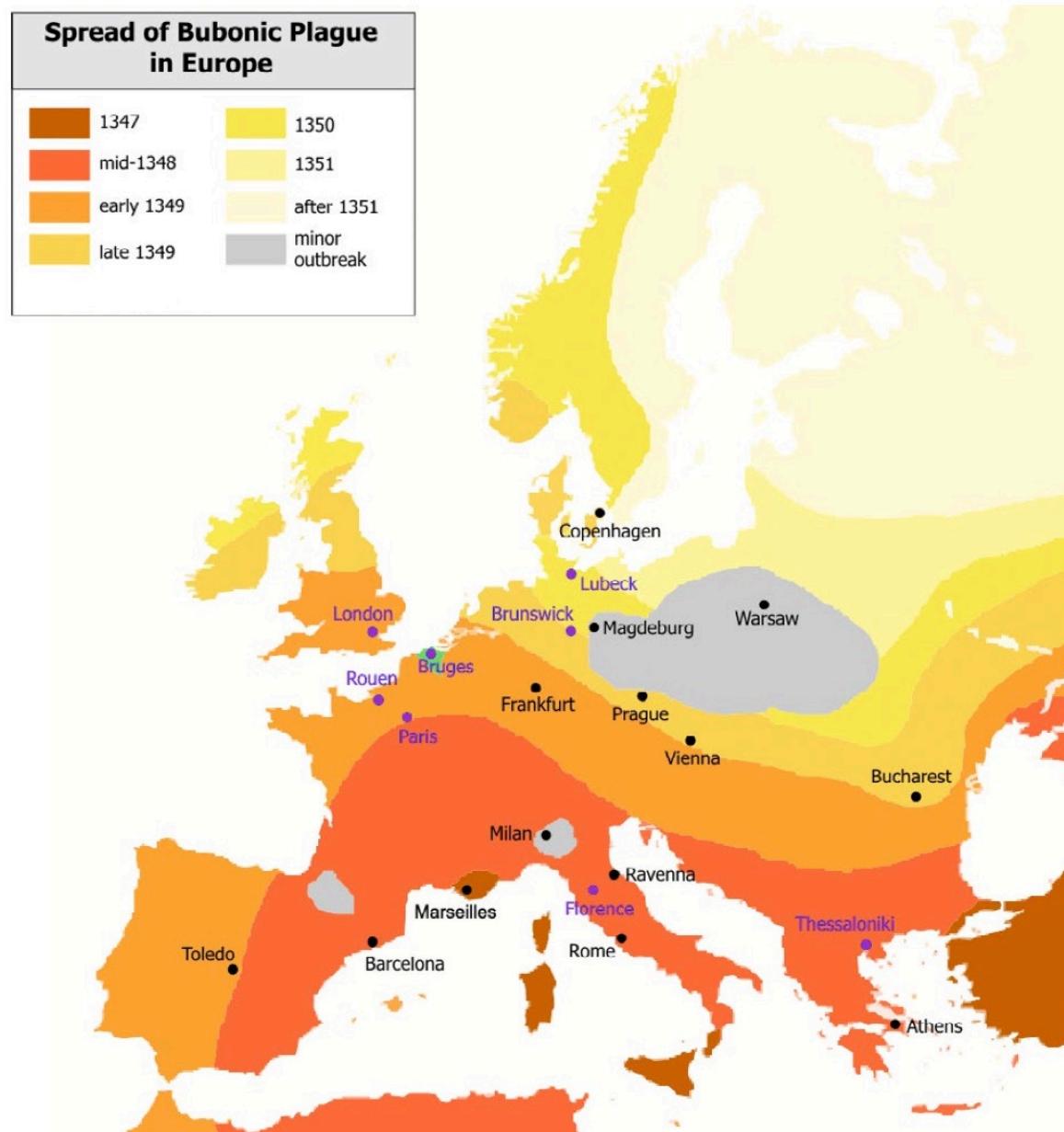
Source: GAO adaptation of NIH graphic. | GAO-20-646SP



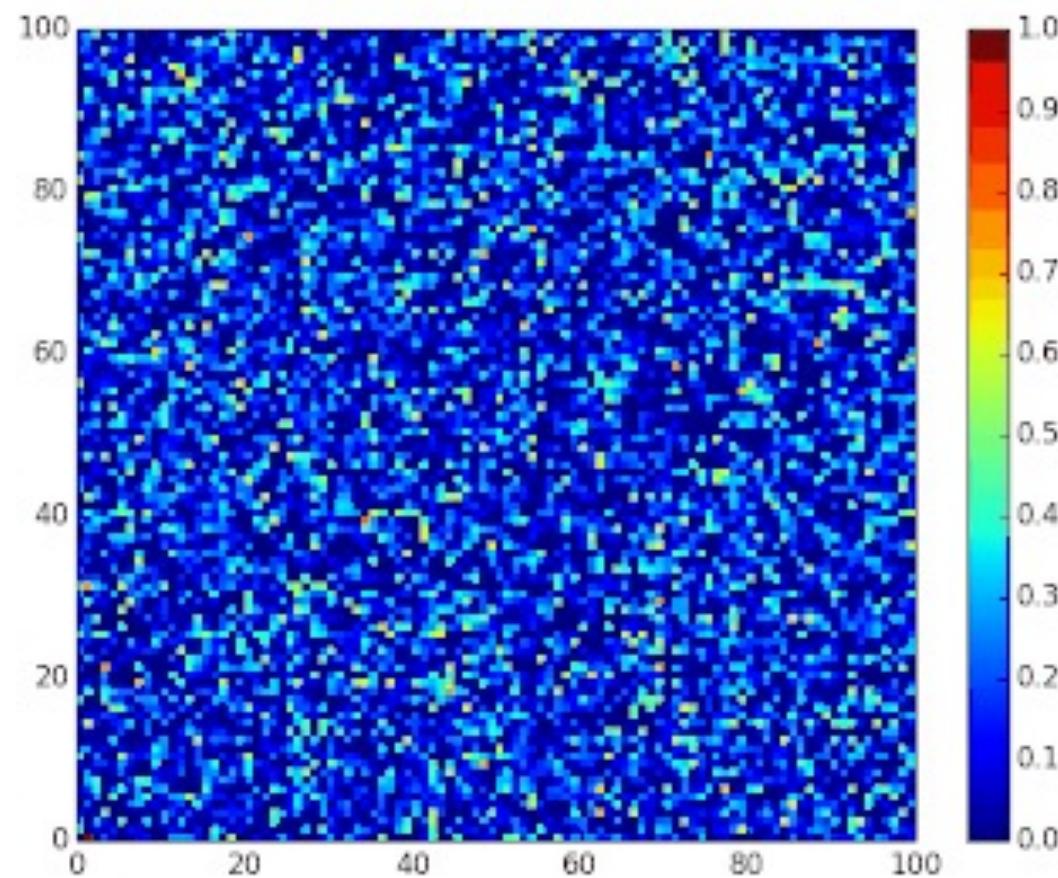


Well-mixed?

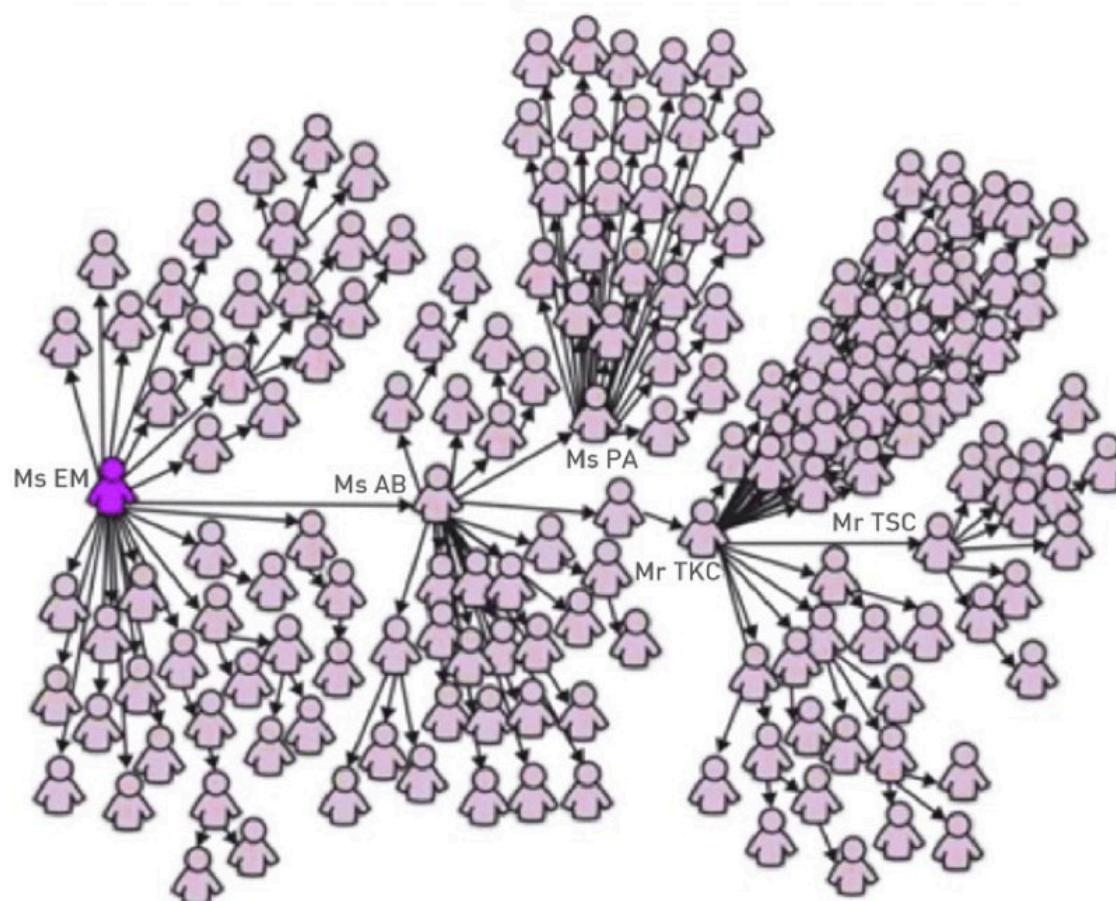
Spatial spreading



Spatial SIR model simulation

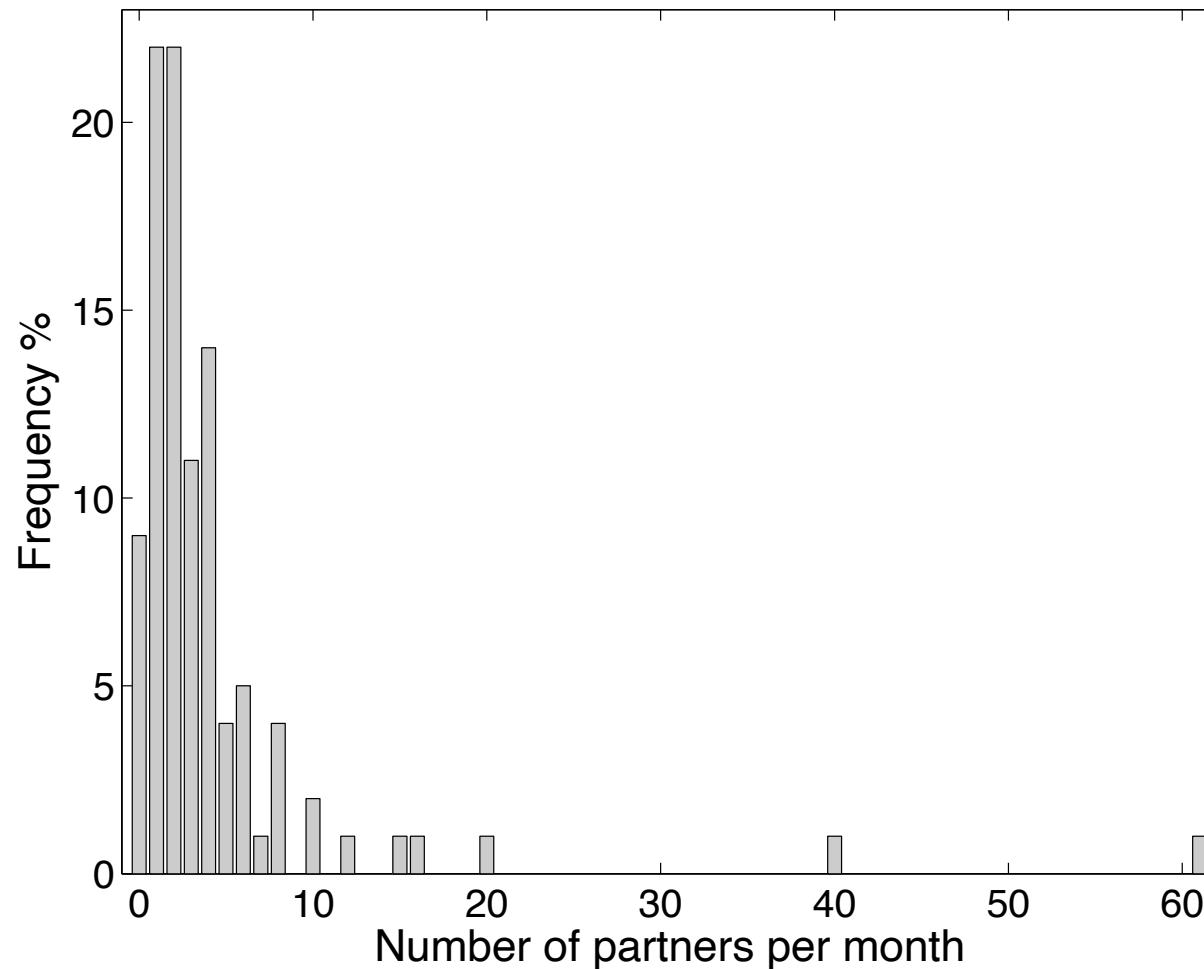


Heterogeneous networks and super-spreaders



Sexually transmitted infections (STIs)

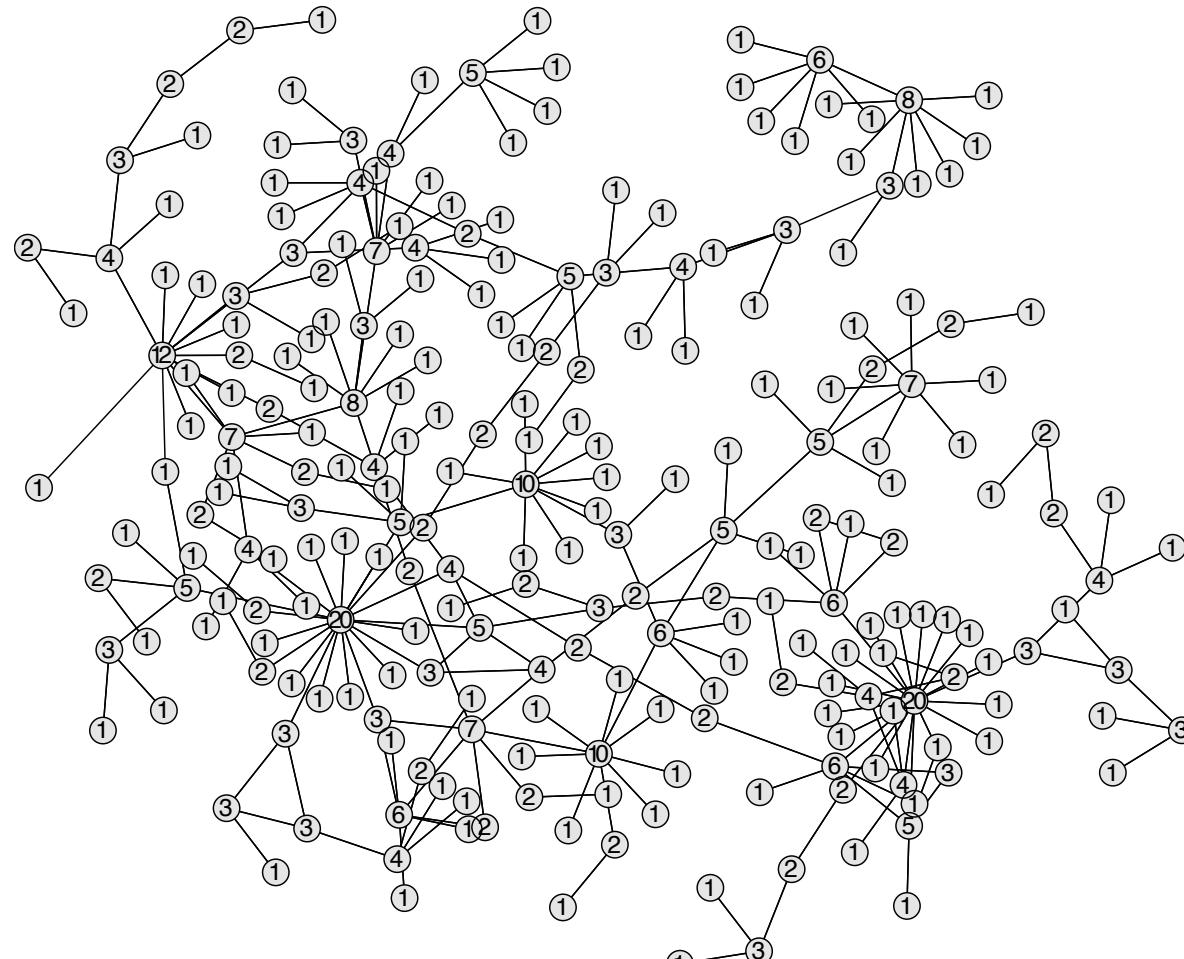
Networks are everywhere



Frequency distribution of the number of sexual partners of male homosexuals
in London in the mid-1980's (MacManus and McEnvoy, 1987) (Anderson & May, 1991)

Sexually transmitted infections (STIs)

Networks are everywhere



An example of a sexual contact network,
taken from the study of HIV transmission in Colorado Springs
(Potterat et al. 2002)

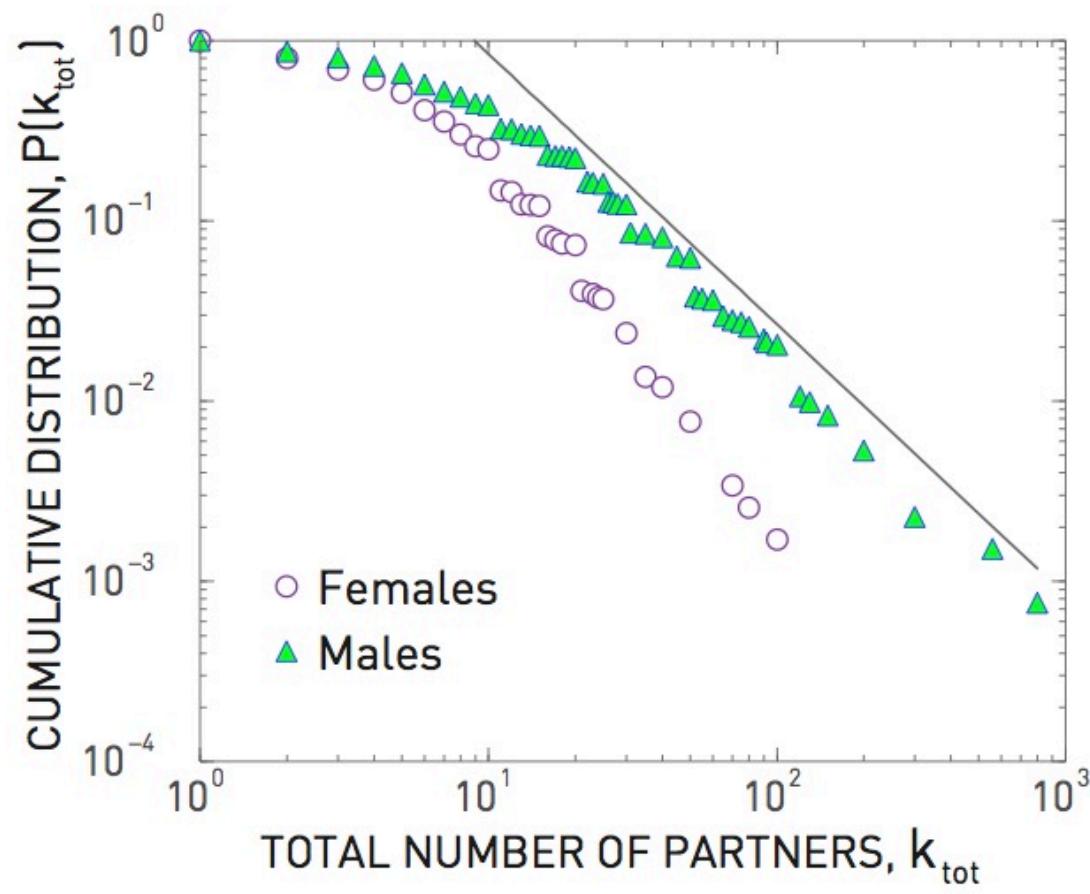
Sexually transmitted infections (STIs)

Networks are everywhere



Fredrik Liljeros
Dep. Sociology,
Stockholm Univ.

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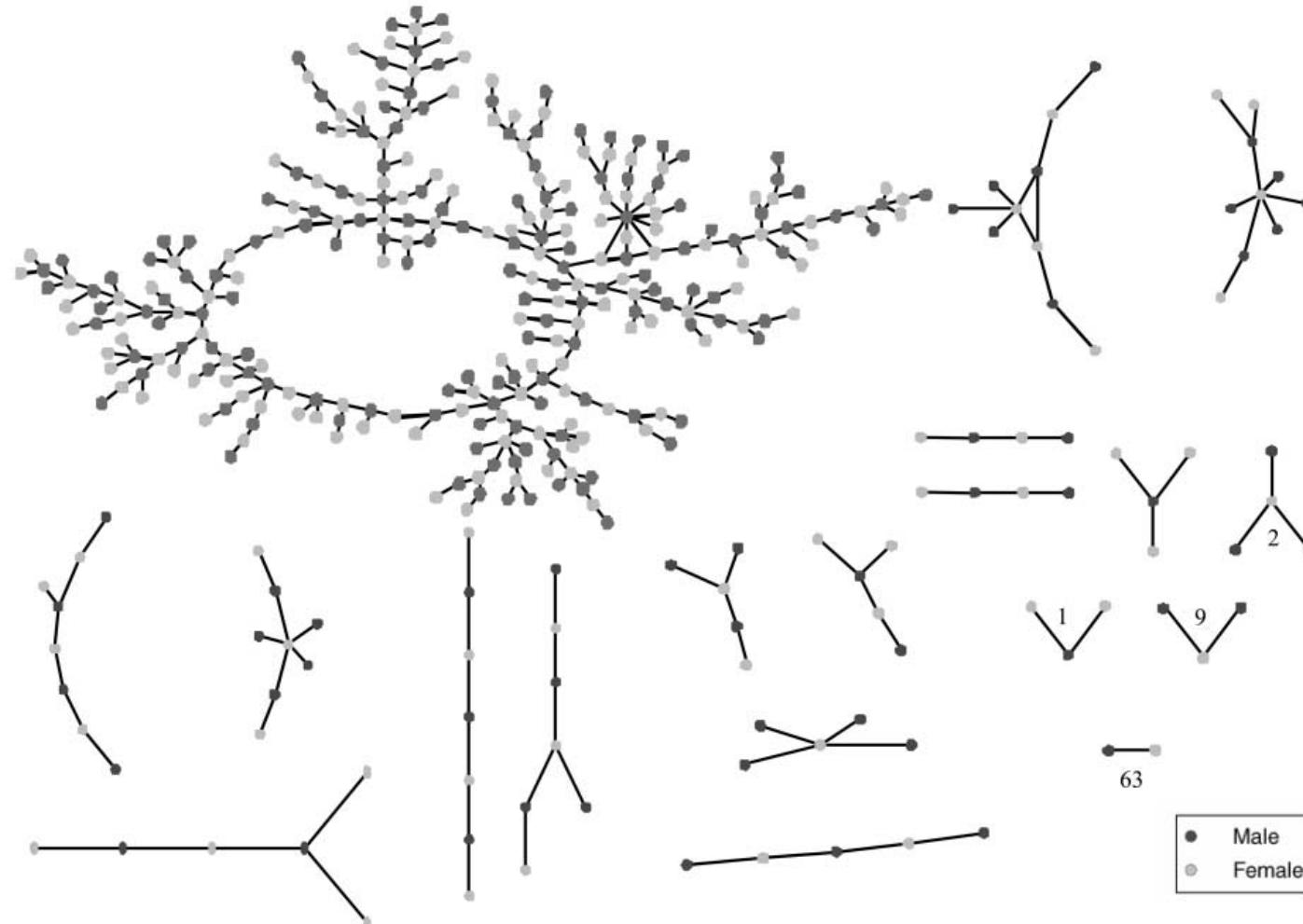
Liljeros, F., Edling, C. R., Amaral, L. A. N., Stanley, H. E., & Åberg, Y. (2001). The web of human sexual contacts. *Nature*, 411(6840), 907-908.

Network Science, 2021/22

Sexually transmitted infections (STIs)

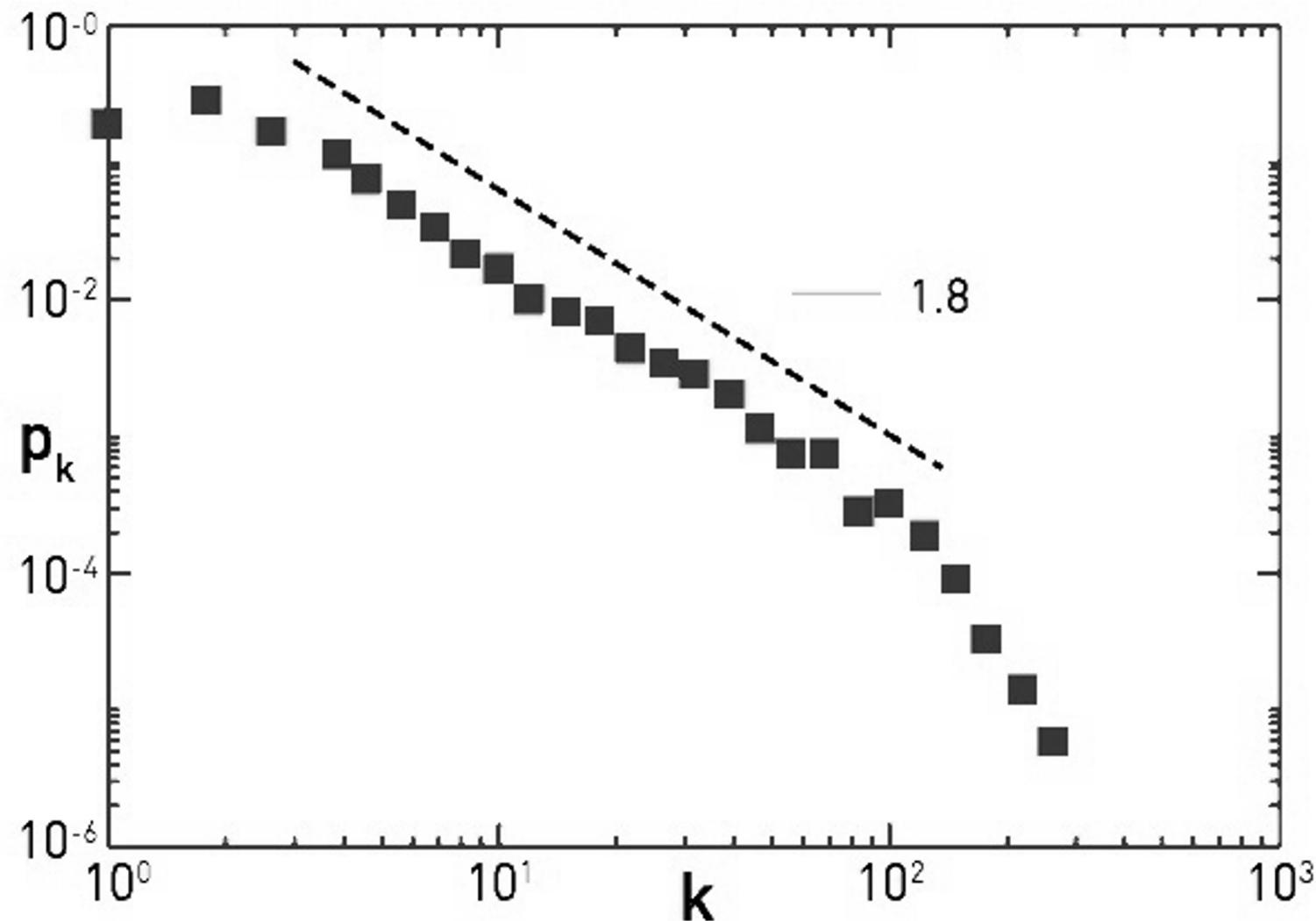
Connected components

P. S. Bearman, J. Moody, and K. Stovel. Chains of affection: the structure of adolescent romantic and sexual networks. *Am J Sociol.*, 110:44-91, 2004.



Global contact networks

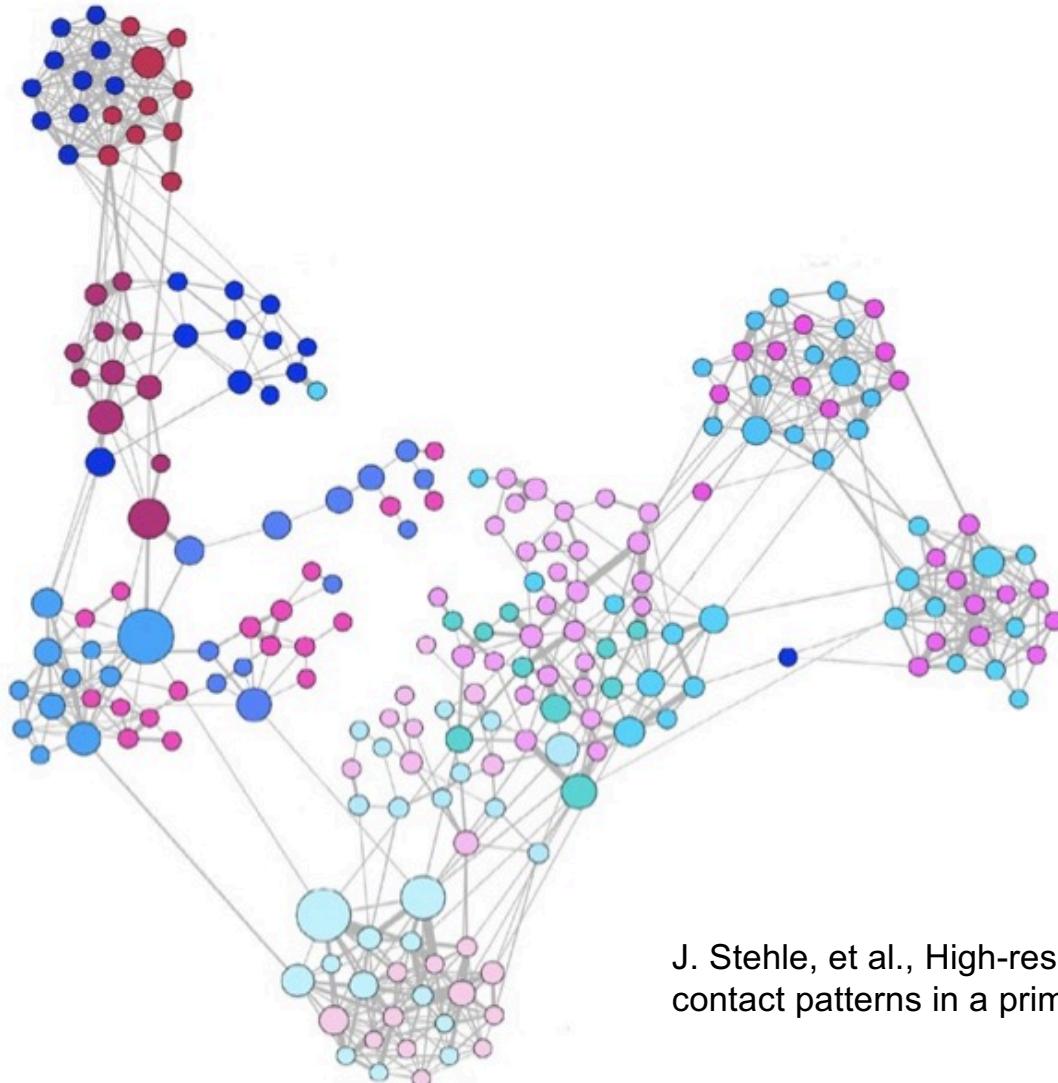
Air transportation network



Local contact networks

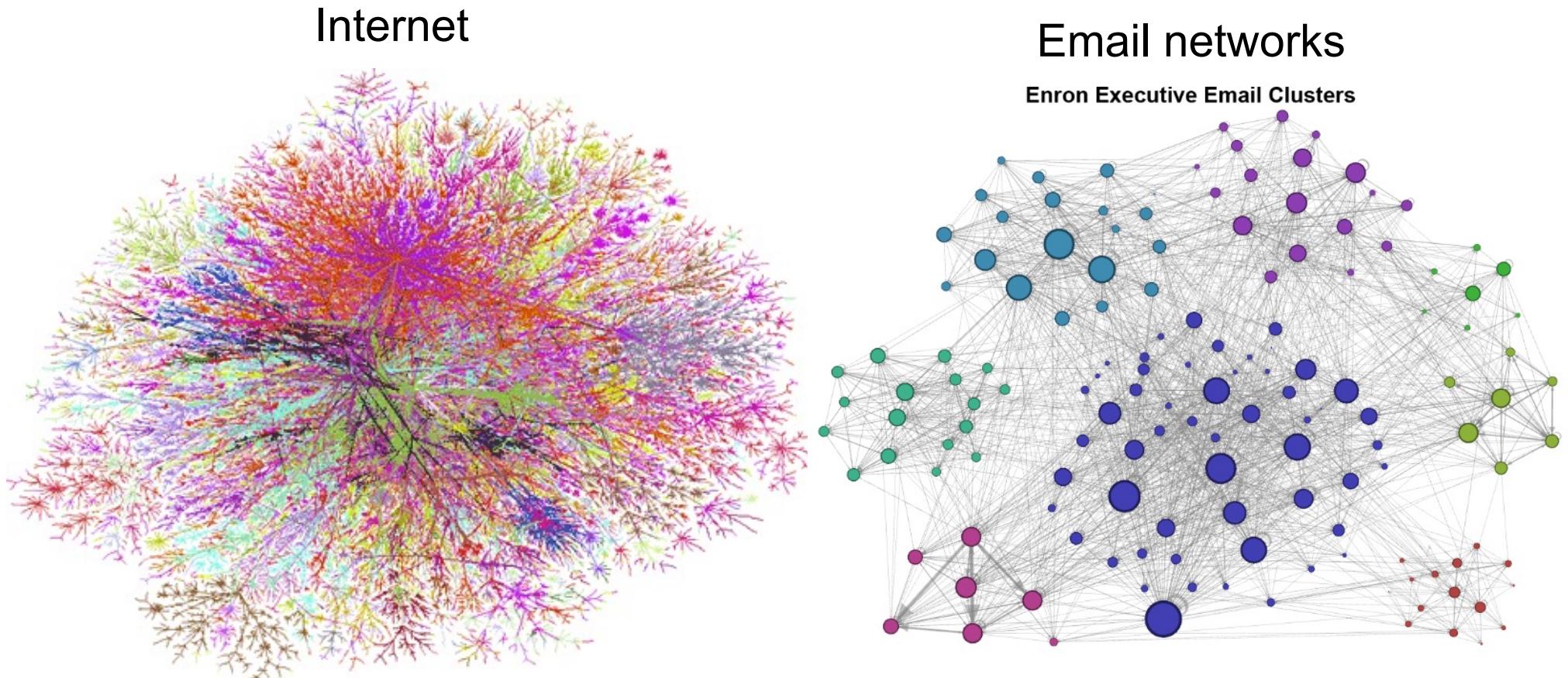
Face-to-face interactions (RFID experiments)

Radio-frequency identification

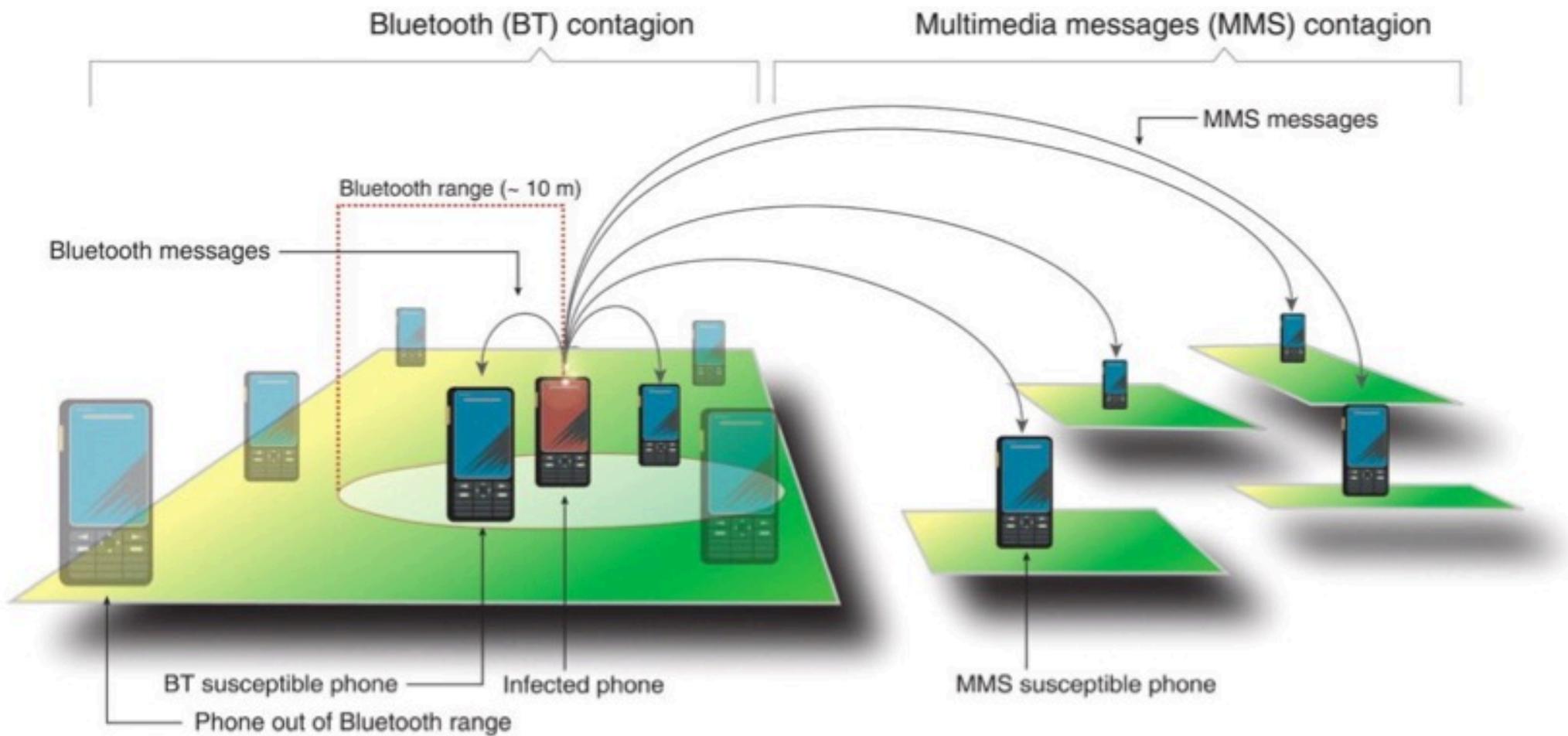


J. Stehle, et al., High-resolution measurements of face-to-face contact patterns in a primary school. PLoS ONE, 6:e23176, 2011.

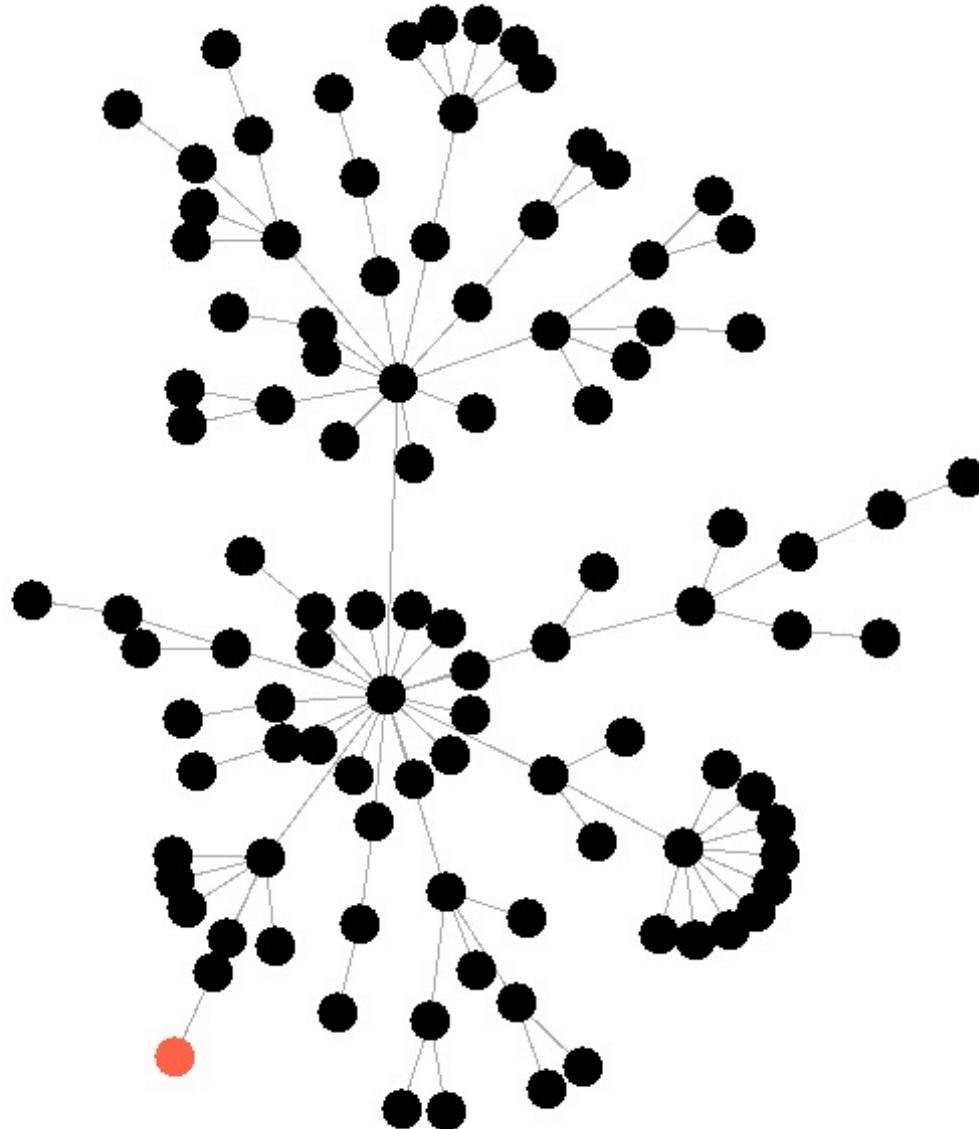
Computer viruses, mobile phone viruses, etc.



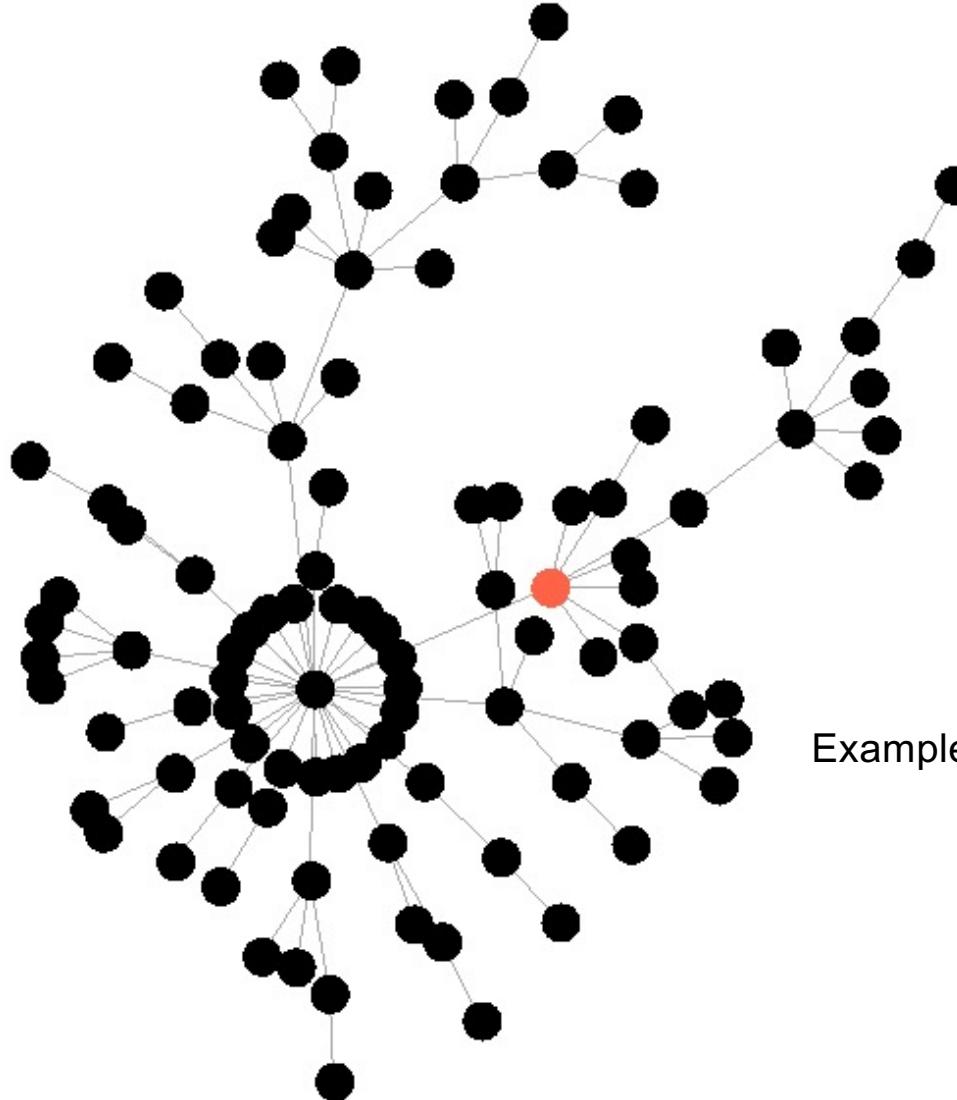
Computer viruses, mobile phone viruses, etc.



Example: SI model on networks

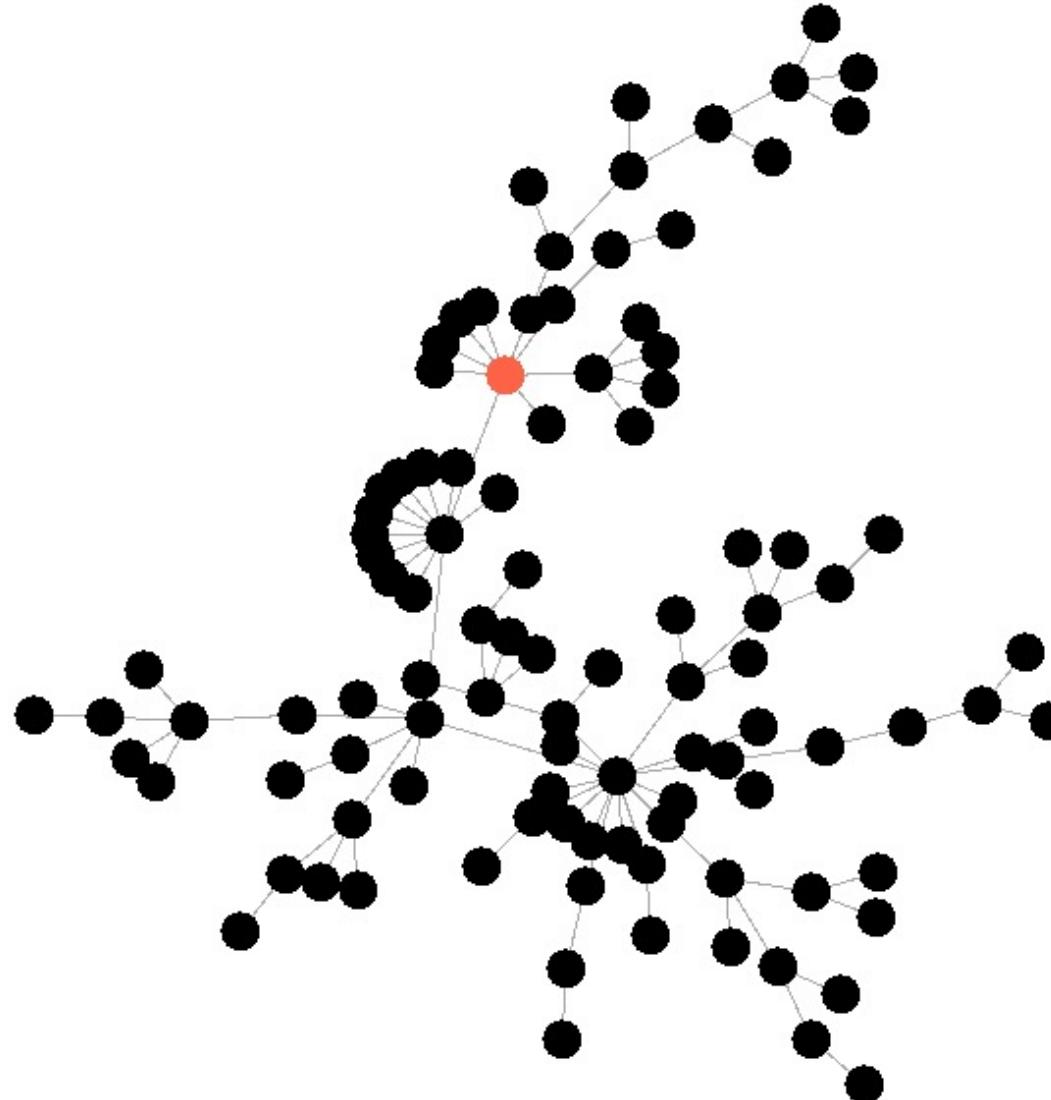


Example: SIS model on networks



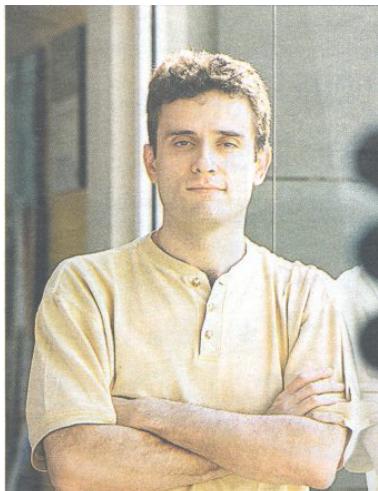
Example of an endemic state

Example: SIR model on networks



Minimal approach to network epidemics

(Pastor-Satorras & Vespignani, PRL 2001)



Romualdo Pastor-Satorras
Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya



Alessandro Vespignani
Northeastern University, Boston

Minimal approach to network epidemics

(Pastor-Satorras & Vespignani, PRL 2001)

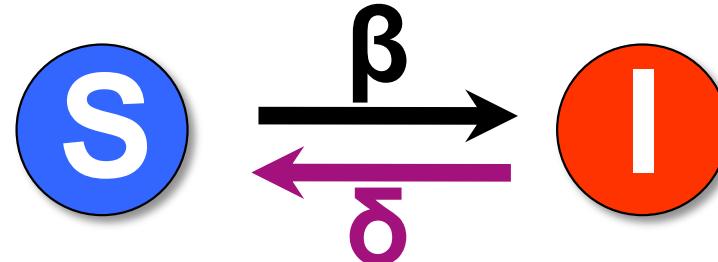
- populations are infinite (or very large)
- network of contacts
 1. Individuals are vertices of a network
 1. Edges define who interacts with whom
 2. The graph is infinite and uncorrelated
 3. The degree distribution $P(k)$ such that

$$\text{and } \langle k^n \rangle = \int dk P(k) k^n$$

$$\int dk P(k) = 1$$

The general idea (e.g., SIS model)

β : contact infection rate
 δ : recovery rate



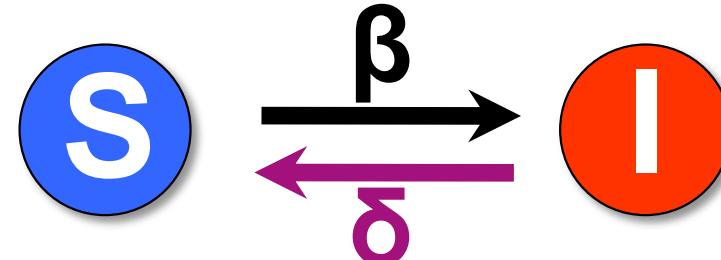
$$\dot{x} \equiv \frac{dx}{dt} = (1 - x)\beta \langle k \rangle x - \delta x$$

infection recovery

$\langle k \rangle$ – average number of contacts of a given individual
 x – fraction of infected in the population
 $y = 1 - x$ – fraction of susceptible

The general idea (e.g., SIS model)

β : contact infection rate
 δ : recovery rate



$$\dot{x} \equiv \frac{dx}{dt} = (1 - x)\beta \langle k \rangle x - \delta x$$

Now, this will depend on the density of infected in a neighborhood!

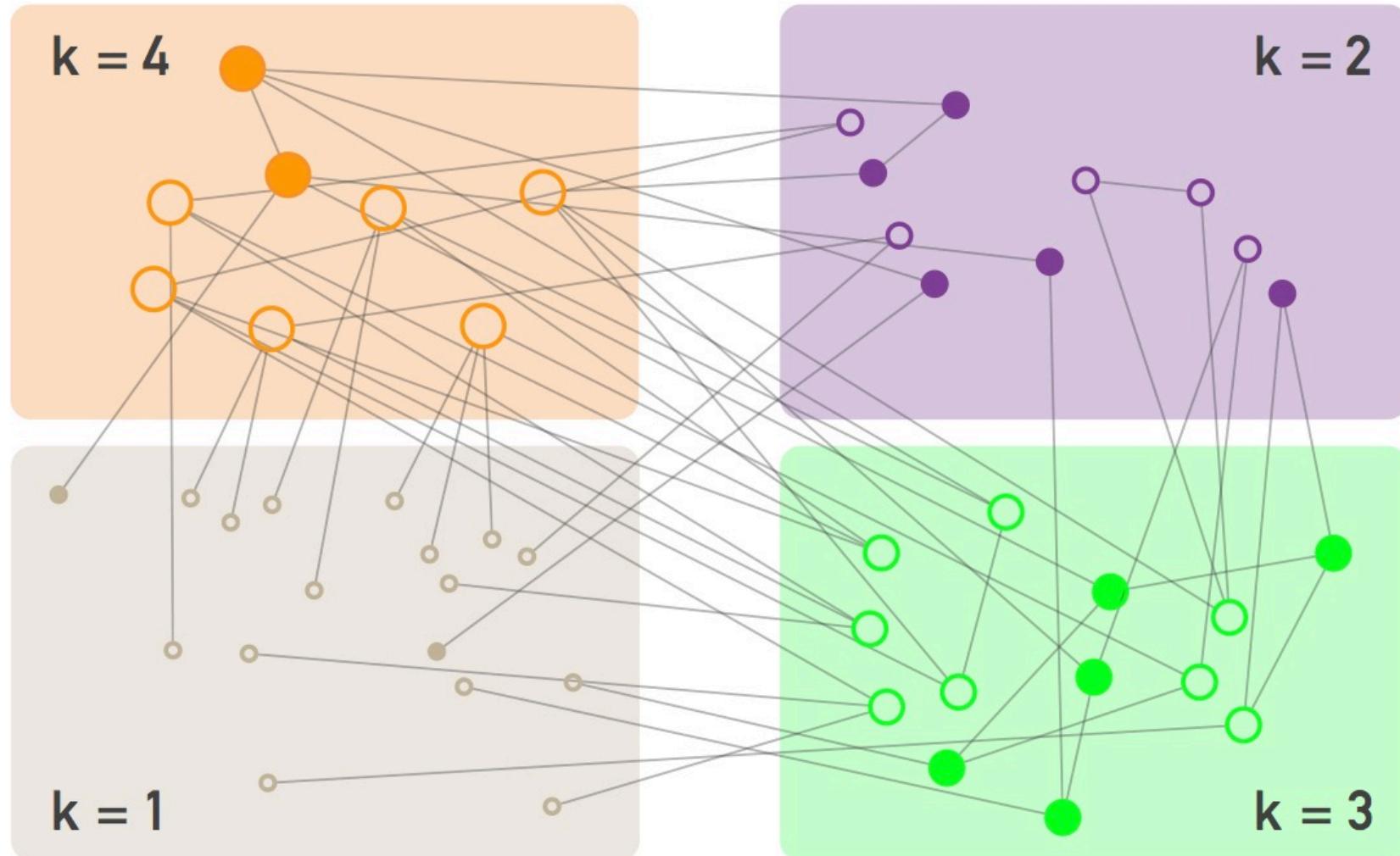
$\langle k \rangle$ – average number of contacts of a given individual

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$y = 1 - x$ – fraction of susceptible

The general idea

(Pastor-Satorras & Vespignani, PRL 2001)



The general idea (e.g., SIS model)

(Pastor-Satorras & Vespignani, PRL 2001)

- In networks, we shall have, for each degree

$$\frac{dx_k}{dt} = (1 - x_k) \beta k \Theta_k(t) - \delta x_k$$

Fraction of infected nodes

$$x = \sum_k P(k) x_k$$

Degree dist.

fraction of nodes with degree k that
are infected

Density function, representing
the fraction of infected neighbors of
a susceptible node with degree k
**(this was equal to x in the previous
well-mixed & homogeneous scenarios)**

The general idea (e.g., SIS model)

(Pastor-Satorras & Vespignani, PRL 2001)

- In networks, we shall have, for each degree

$$\frac{dx_k}{dt} = (1 - x_k) \beta k \Theta_k(t) - \delta x_k$$

Fraction of infected nodes

$$x = \sum_k P(k) x_k$$

Degree dist.

fraction of nodes with degree k that
are infected

This quantity redefines our previous “transmission rate”, into something which is time, model and network dependent... Yet $\Theta(t)$ is degree independent.

The general idea (e.g., SIS model)

(Pastor-Satorras & Vespignani, PRL 2001)

- For each degree k we have (for small x)

$$\frac{dx_k}{dt} \approx x_0 \beta k \frac{\langle k \rangle - 1}{\langle k \rangle} e^{-t/\tau}$$

Fraction of infected nodes

$$x = \sum_k P(k) x_k$$

$$\tau_{\text{well-mixed}} = (\beta \langle k \rangle - \delta)^{-1}$$

$$\tau_{\text{networks}} = \frac{\langle k \rangle}{\beta \langle k^2 \rangle - \delta \langle k \rangle}$$

Degree dist.

fraction of nodes with degree k that
are infected

The general idea (e.g., SIS model)

(Pastor-Satorras & Vespignani, PRL 2001)

- For each degree k we have (for small x)

$$x_k \approx x_0 \left[1 + \frac{k(\langle k \rangle - 1)}{\langle k^2 \rangle - \langle k \rangle} \left(e^{\frac{t}{\tau}} - 1 \right) \right]$$

When $\beta \langle k^2 \rangle - \delta \langle k \rangle > 0$

the disease persists.

$$\tau = \frac{\langle k \rangle}{\beta \langle k^2 \rangle - \delta \langle k \rangle}$$

When $\beta \langle k^2 \rangle - \delta \langle k \rangle < 0$

the disease dies out.

The general idea (e.g., SIS model)

(Pastor-Satorras & Vespignani, PRL 2001)

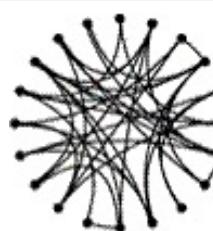
- For each degree k we have (for small x)

$$x_k \approx x_0 \left[1 + \frac{k(\langle k \rangle - 1)}{\langle k^2 \rangle - \langle k \rangle} \left(e^{\frac{t}{\tau}} - 1 \right) \right]$$

Using a convenient definition of spreading rate $\lambda = \frac{\beta}{\delta}$

for **random networks** we get an endemic state if

$$\langle k^2 \rangle = \langle k \rangle (\langle k \rangle + 1)$$



$$\lambda = \frac{\beta}{\delta} > \frac{\langle k \rangle}{\langle k^2 \rangle} = \frac{1}{\langle k \rangle + 1}$$

The general idea (e.g., SIS model)

(Pastor-Satorras & Vespignani, PRL 2001)

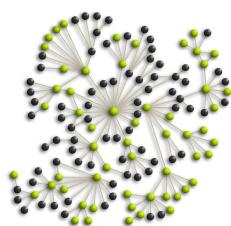
- For each degree k we have (for small x)

$$x_k \approx x_0 \left[1 + \frac{k(\langle k \rangle - 1)}{\langle k^2 \rangle - \langle k \rangle} \left(e^{\frac{t}{\tau}} - 1 \right) \right]$$

Using a convenient definition of spreading rate $\lambda = \frac{\beta}{\delta}$

for **scale-free networks** we get an endemic state if

$$\langle k^2 \rangle \xrightarrow{N \rightarrow \infty} \infty$$



$$\lambda = \frac{\beta}{\delta} > \frac{\langle k \rangle}{\langle k^2 \rangle} \rightarrow 0$$

Vanishing epidemic threshold in SF nets (SIS)

In large scale-free networks,

$$\tau = \frac{\langle k \rangle}{\beta \langle k^2 \rangle - \delta \langle k \rangle} \rightarrow 0$$

which means that

*a virus can
instantaneously reach
most nodes*

In large scale-free networks,

$$\lambda_c = \frac{\beta}{\delta} = \frac{\langle k \rangle}{\langle k^2 \rangle} \rightarrow 0$$

which means that,

*even a virus with a small
spreading rate can persist
and spread.*

Vanishing epidemic threshold in SF nets (SIR)

In large scale-free

Same as a percolation
threshold
(see robustness class)

In large scale-free networks,

$$\tau = \frac{\langle k \rangle}{\beta \langle k^2 \rangle - (\delta + \beta) \langle k \rangle} \rightarrow 0$$

which means that

*a virus can
instantaneously reach
most nodes*

$$\lambda_C = \frac{\beta}{\delta} = \frac{1}{\frac{\langle k^2 \rangle}{\langle k \rangle} - 1} \rightarrow 0$$

which means that,

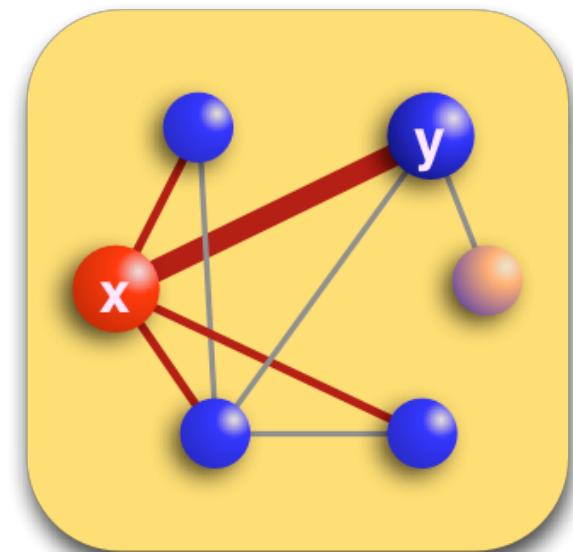
*even a virus with a small
spreading rate can persist
and spread.*

Vanishing epidemic threshold in SF nets (SIS)

Simulations:

1. For each node, if S check if there's any I in the neighborhood. In that case, S will become I with a probability β . If the node is infected, it will recover with a given probability δ .
2. Repeat 1. until you reach an equilibrium.
3. Repeat this simulation for many networks and different values of β .
4. For each class of network, compute the value of

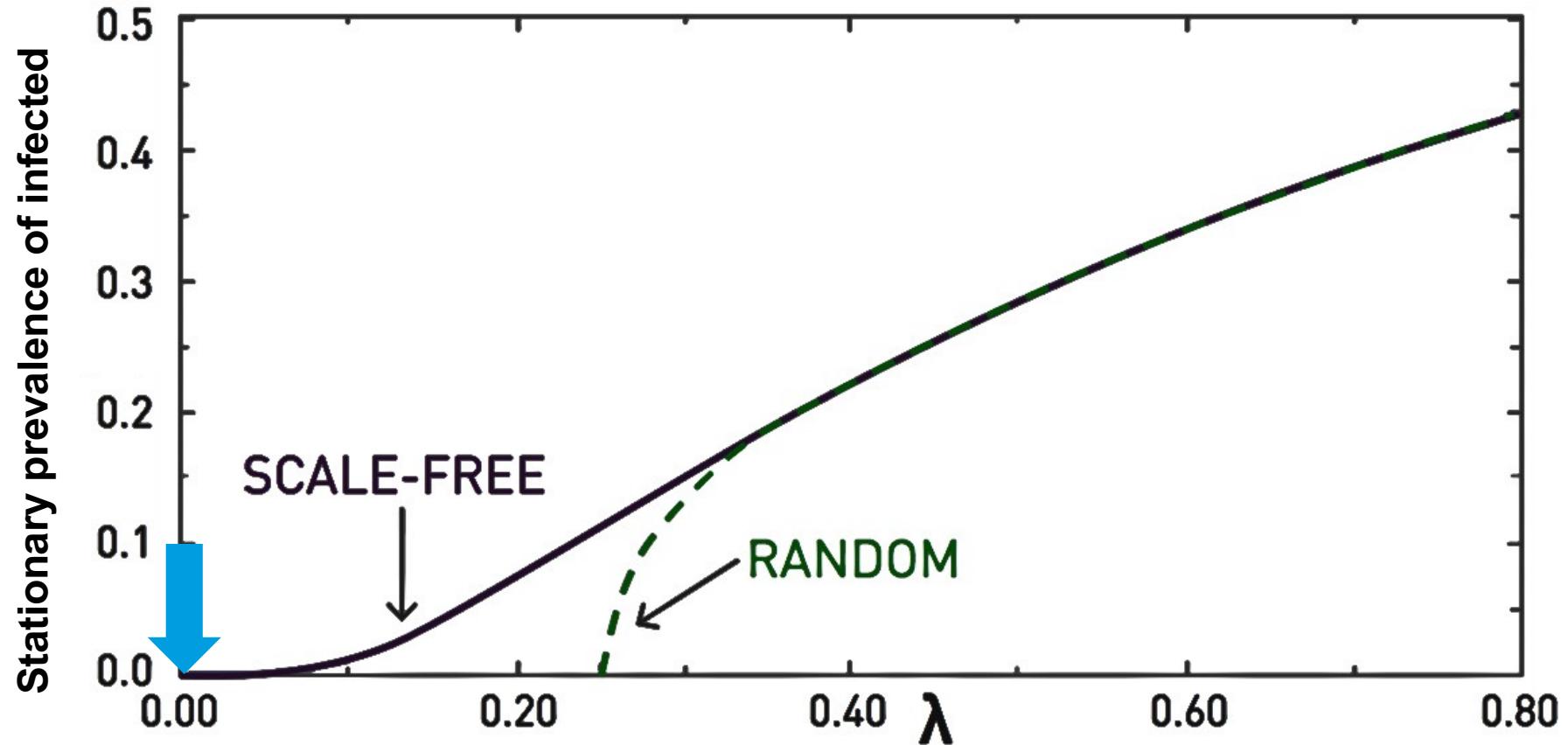
$$\lambda = \frac{\beta}{\delta}$$



below which the disease disappears.

Note: Please note that previously δ and β were rates.
Now they are referred as probabilities.

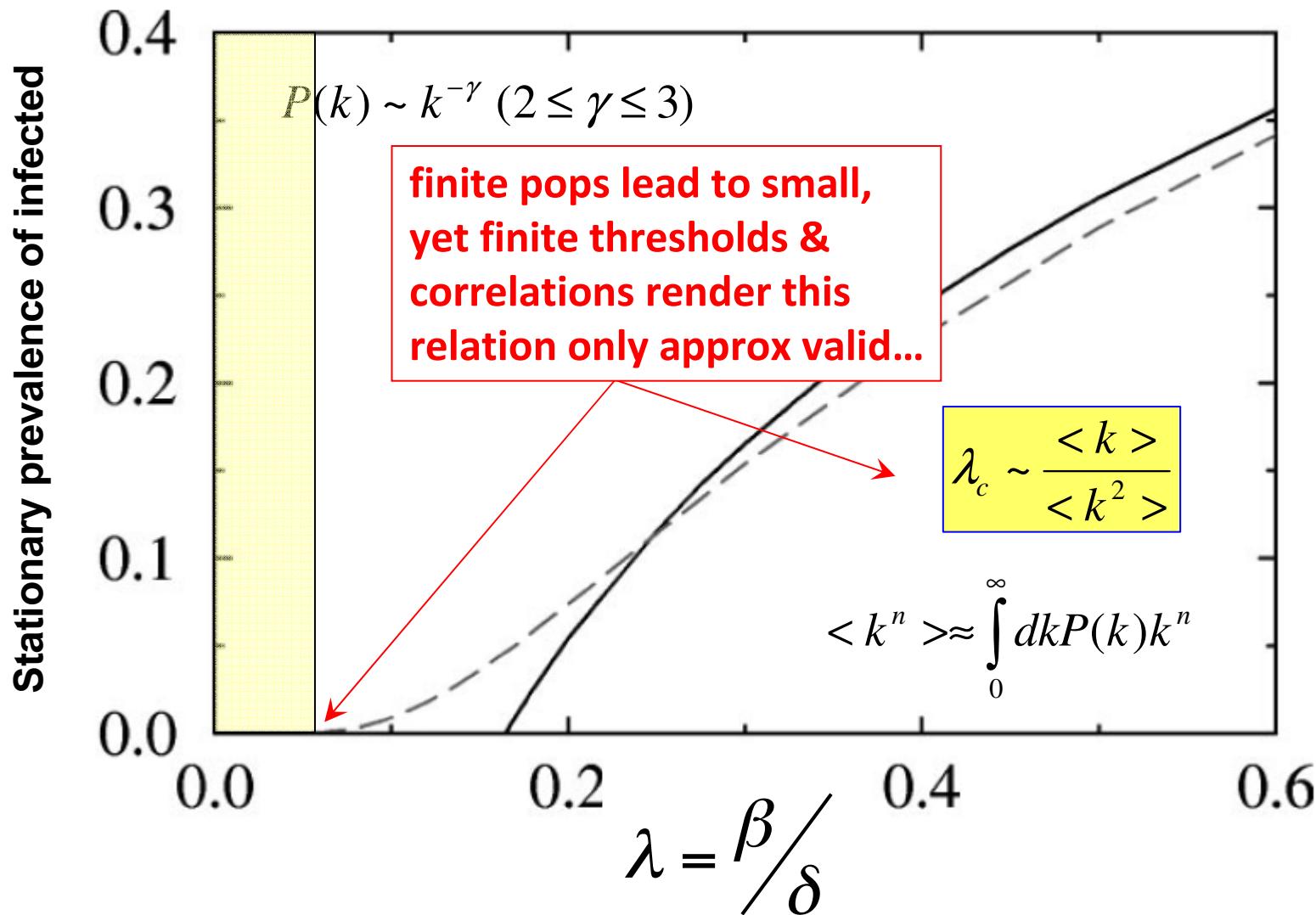
Vanishing epidemic threshold in SF nets (SIS)



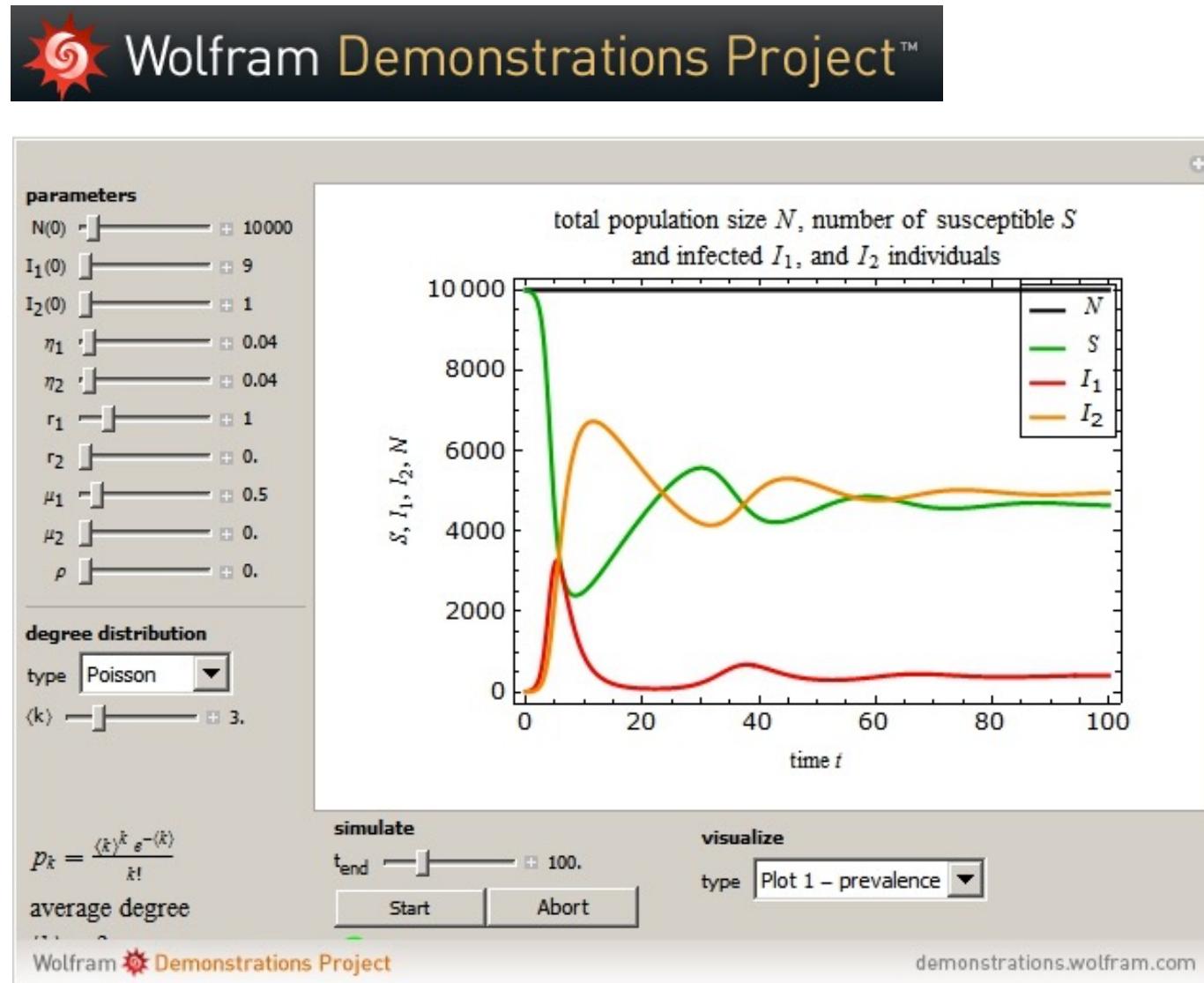
$$\lambda = \frac{\beta}{\delta}$$

Disease spreading in finite networks

Challenge: Reproduce this result via computer simulations



Online simulation tools



Example: "Epidemic Spread and Transmission Network Dynamics" from the Wolfram Demonstrations Project
<http://demonstrations.wolfram.com/EpidemicSpreadAndTransmissionNetworkDynamics/>

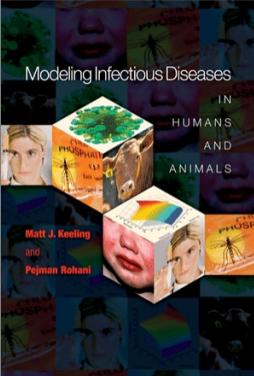
Online simulation tools

<http://www.modelinginfectiousdiseases.org/>



Modeling Infectious Diseases in Humans and Animals
Matt J. Keeling & Pejman Rohani

Simple SIR model (page 19)



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Parameters

β	is the transmission rate and incorporates the encounter rate between susceptible and infectious individuals together with the probability of transmission.
γ	is called the removal or recovery rate, though often we are more interested in its reciprocal ($1/\gamma$) which determines the average infectious period.
$S(0)$	is the initial proportion of the population that are susceptible.
$I(0)$	is the initial proportion of the population that are infectious.

All rates are specified in **days**.

Requirements.

All parameters must be positive, and $S(0)+I(0) \leq 1$

Files

[C++ Program](#), [Python Program](#), [Fortran Program](#), [Parameters](#), [MATLAB Code](#).

Back to our previous question:
How should we halt an epidemic?

Aiming at β

Transmission-Reducing Interventions

Face masks, gloves, hand washing, condoms, etc.

Aiming at $\langle k \rangle$

Contact-Reducing Interventions

For diseases with severe health consequences officials can quarantine patients, close schools and limit access to frequently visited public spaces, like movie theaters and malls, or impose global or partial lockdowns.

Aiming at the number of susceptible nodes

Vaccination

Removal of vaccinated nodes from the network and their links. Reduces the spreading rate, enhancing the likelihood that the pathogen dies out.

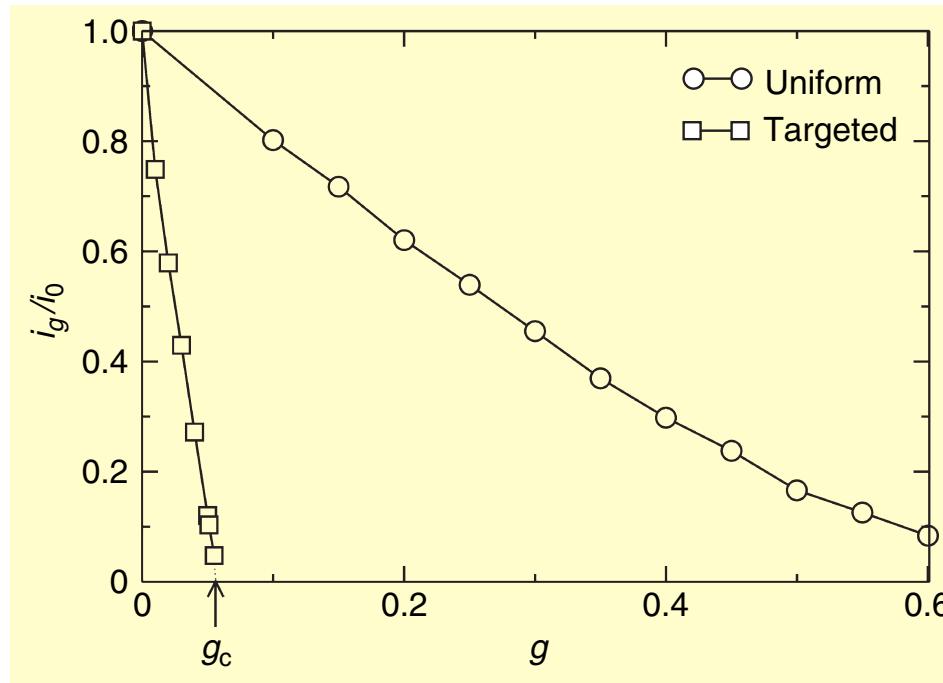
Vaccination strategies

(Pastor-Satorras & Vespignani, 2002)

The immunization (ex: vaccination) of a fraction g **randomly chosen** from the population is equivalent to a simple rescaling of the effective spreading rate:

$$\lambda_c \rightarrow \lambda_c(1 - g_c) \sim \frac{\langle k \rangle}{\langle k^2 \rangle}$$

Differently, we may try a **targeted immunization**, aiming at high degree nodes. In this case, the immunization threshold:



$$g_c \sim e^{-2\delta/\lambda k_{\min}}$$

What's the
biggest
problem with
with this
strategy?

Agent-based
simulations

Vaccination strategies

Cohen, Havlin and ben Avraham, 2003



Vaccination without global knowledge?

Group 0. Choose randomly a p fraction of nodes, like we do during random immunization. Call these nodes Group 0.

Group 1. Select randomly a partner for each node in Group 0. We call these partners, Group 1. For example, we ask each individual from Group 0 to nominate one of its acquaintance with whom he/she engaged in an activity that could have resulted in the transmission of the pathogen. In the case of HIV, ask them to name a sexual partner. Vaccinate group 1.

Repeat the same procedure for partners of group 1.

IS THIS
STRATEGY
EFFICIENT?

CAN YOU
SIMULATE IT?

Vaccination as an optimization process

Holme, Petter, and Nelly Litvak. "Cost-efficient vaccination protocols for network epidemiology." PLoS Computational Biology 13, no. 9 (2017): e1005696.



To carry out a targeted vaccination campaign, one would first need to gather information about the network, then use this information to vaccinate.

Thus, there are 3 major costs involved :

- the cost of the disease itself,
- the cost of gathering the information about the network (c_{info})
- the cost of vaccinating (c_{vac}).

Vaccination may then be framed as an optimization process with a goal function that combines these variables.

$$N\chi(f) = \Omega - \Omega'(f) - Nfc_{\text{vac}} - n(f)c_{\text{info}}$$

Fraction vaccinated *Number of inquiries needed*

Outbreak size without and with vaccination

Annotations with arrows point from the terms in the equation to their respective definitions:

- An arrow points from $\Omega - \Omega'(f)$ to *Fraction vaccinated*.
- An arrow points from $n(f)c_{\text{info}}$ to *Number of inquiries needed*.
- Two arrows point from Nfc_{vac} to *Outbreak size without and with vaccination*.

Vaccination as an optimization process

Holme, Petter, and Nelly Litvak. "Cost-efficient vaccination protocols for network epidemiology." PLoS Computational Biology 13, no. 9 (2017): e1005696.

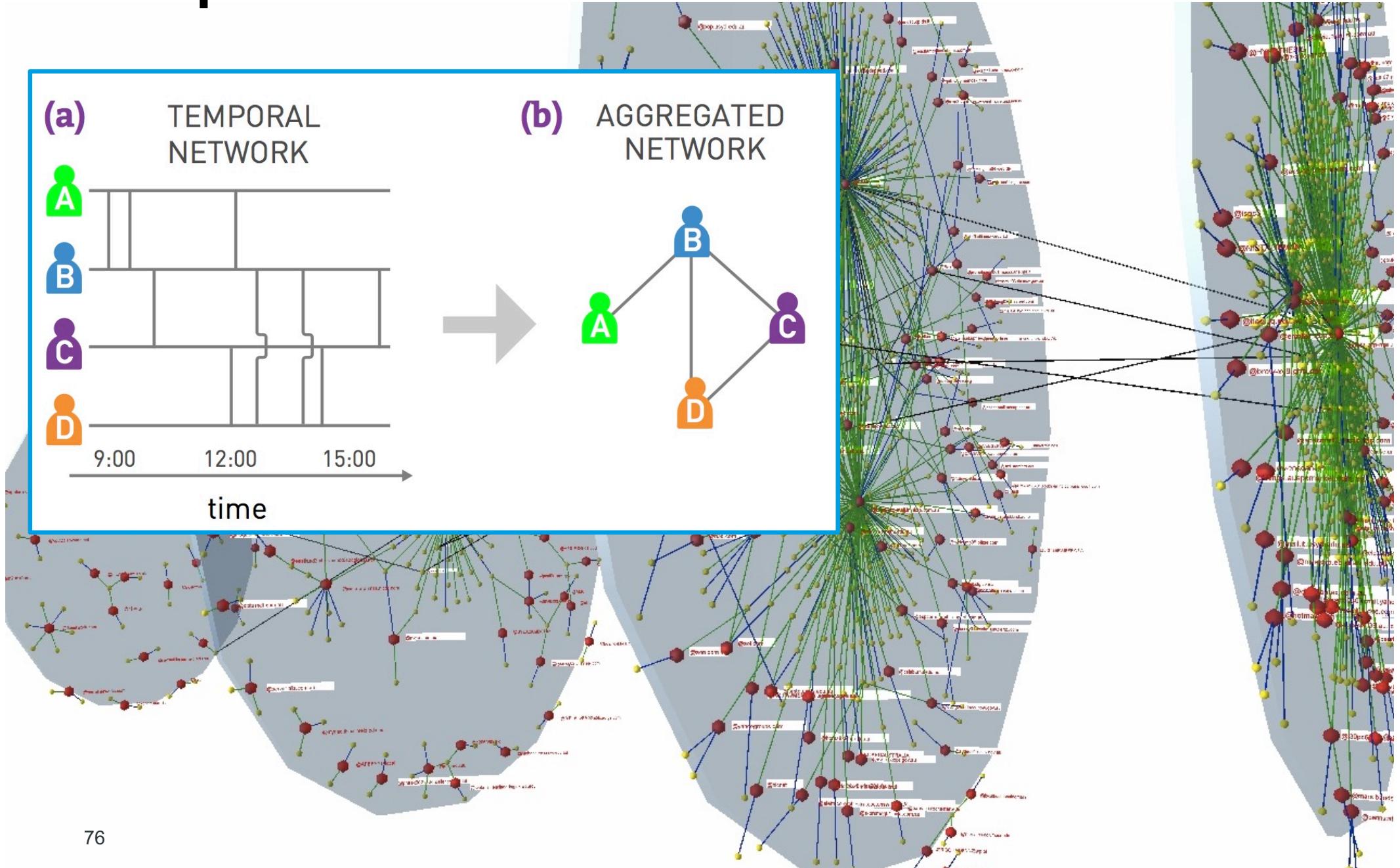


Strategies:

1. *Random*. Null model, low information cost.
2. *Acquaintance vaccination*. slighter larger information cost.
3. *Random-walk vaccination*. random walks can be an efficient method to find high-degree nodes.
4. *Two-step heuristic*. random walk on a sample.
5. *Degree centrality*. high information cost
6. *K-coreness*. high information cost.
7. *Collective influence*. similar to closeness centrality, high information cost.

**Project/Challenge:
Optimize vaccination!**

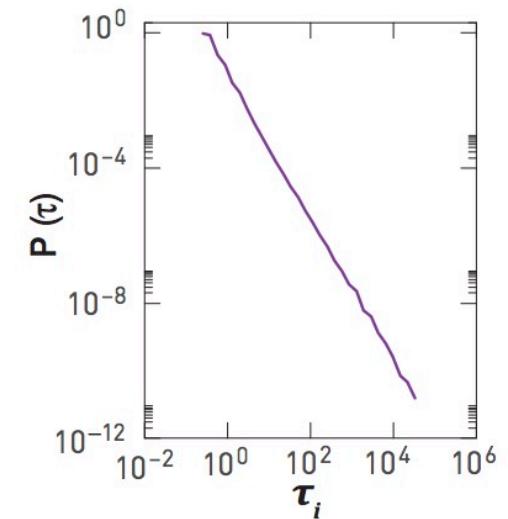
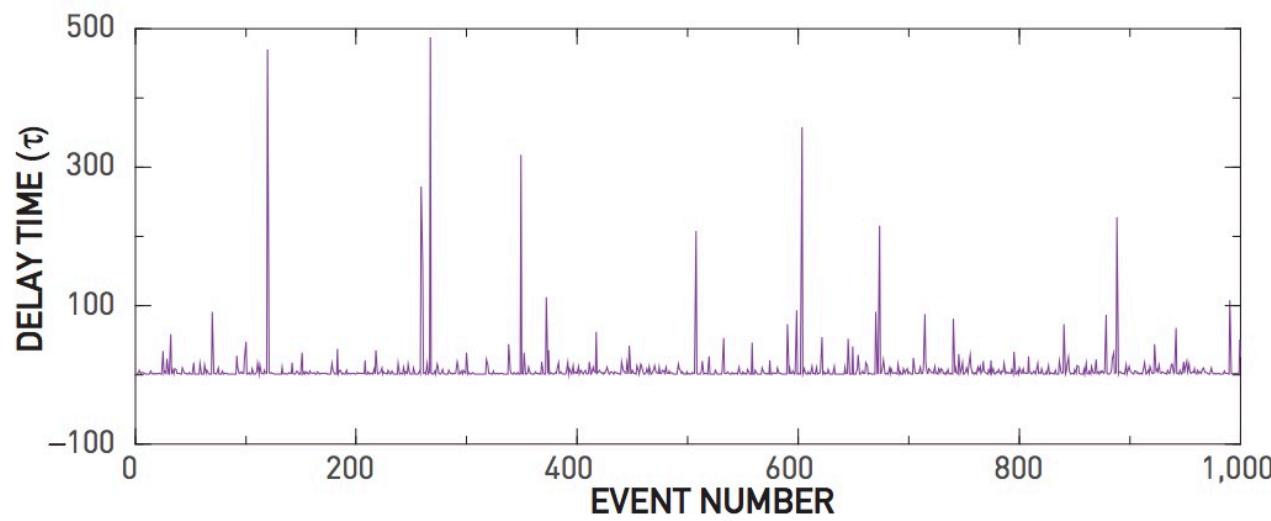
Beyond degree distributions: Temporal networks



Beyond degree distributions: Bursty interactions

Project/Challenge:
What's the impact of Bursty contact patterns in disease spreading?

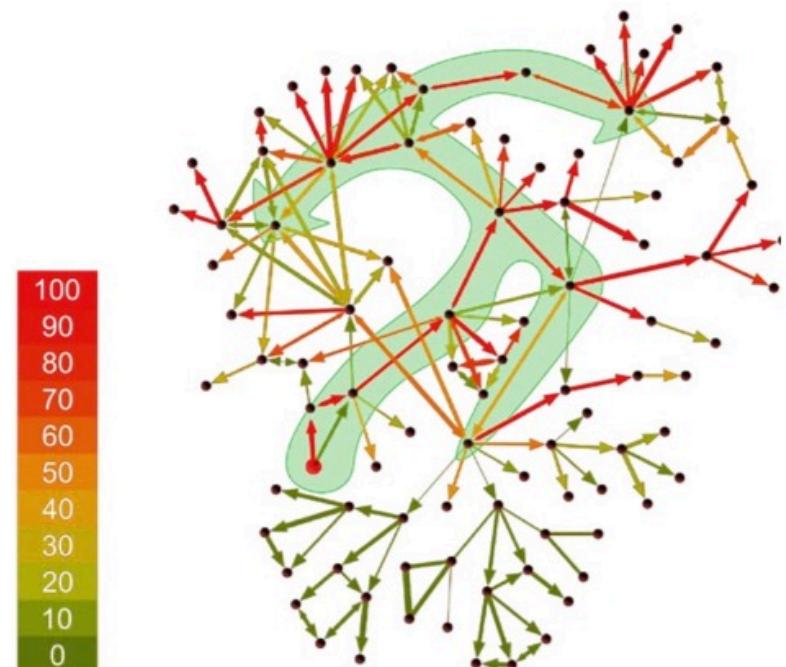
Measurements indicate each connected pair of individuals will have periods of frequent interactions, when multiple contacts follow each other within a relatively short time frame, and long periods without any further contact.



Beyond degree distributions: Communities, assortativity, clustering, and weights

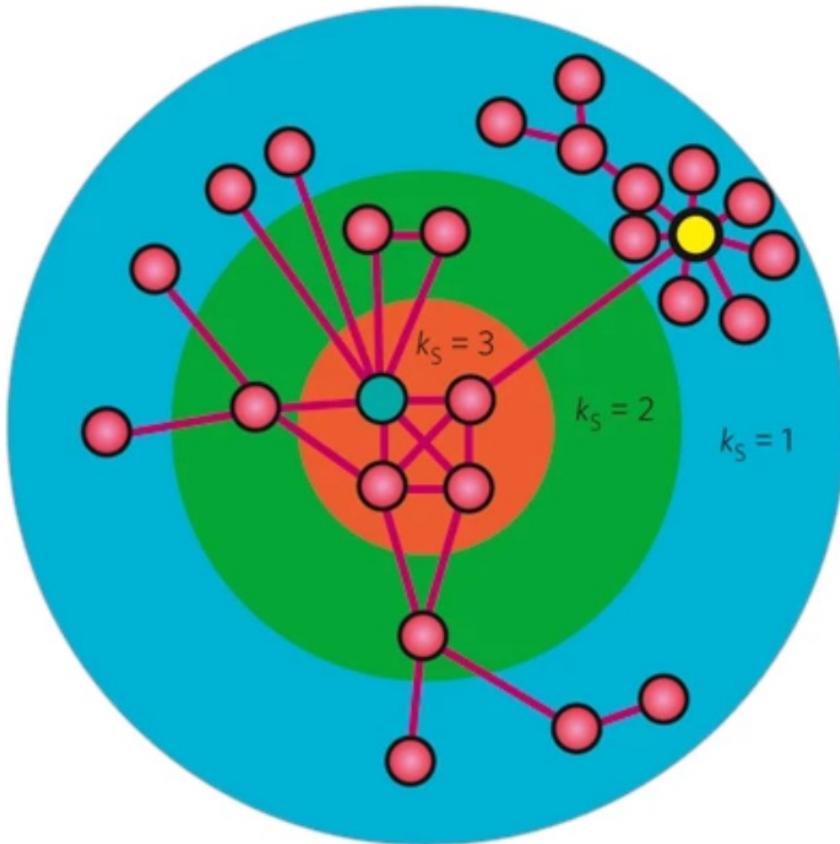
- Degree correlations. What should be the impact of degree correlations in disease spreading?
- Weights and community structure?
- What about clustering?

NOTE: Plenty of nice projects here...



Beyond degree distributions

Example: when the hubs are not the best spreaders



Identifying the most efficient ‘spreaders’ in a network is crucial.

Often the best spreaders do not correspond to the most highly connected or the most central people.

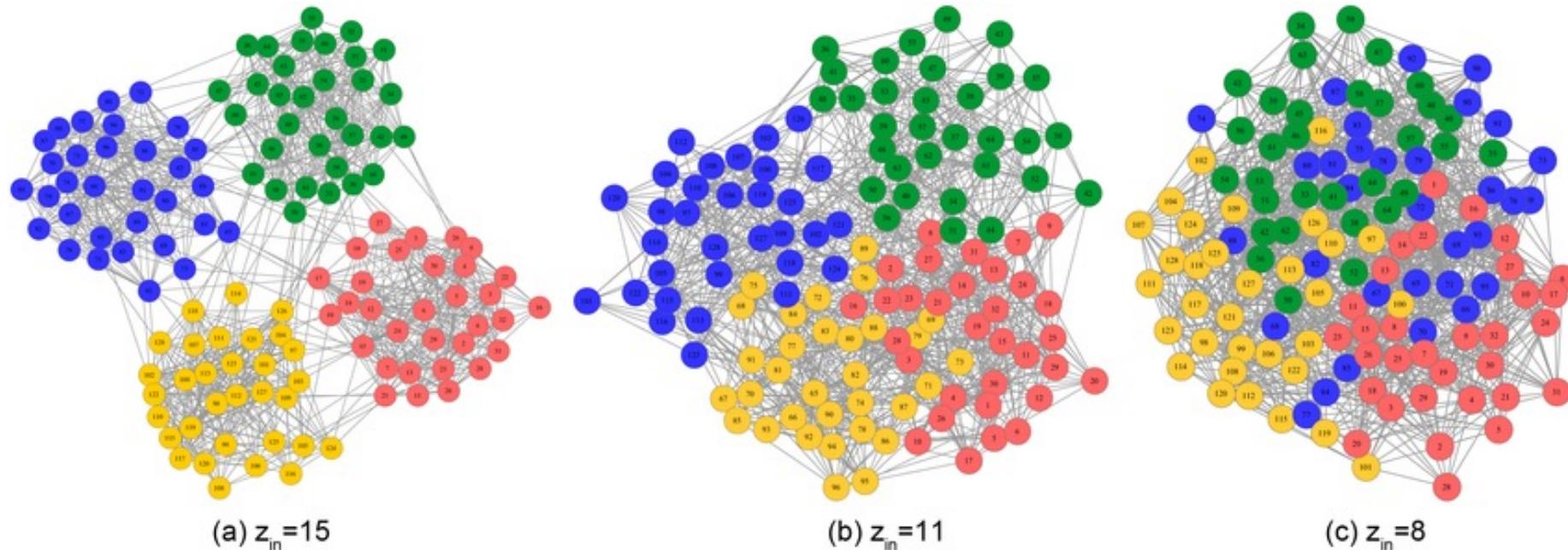
Instead, the most efficient spreaders are those located within the core of the network (identified by the k-shell decomposition).

Maksim, et al. "Identification of influential spreaders in complex networks." *Nature physics* 6.11 (2010): 888-893.

NOTE: Plenty of nice projects here...

Beyond degree distributions

Example: What about communities?



Suggestion: Simulate a given epidemic dynamics with GN or LFT benchmarks of synthetic networks with different levels of community structure

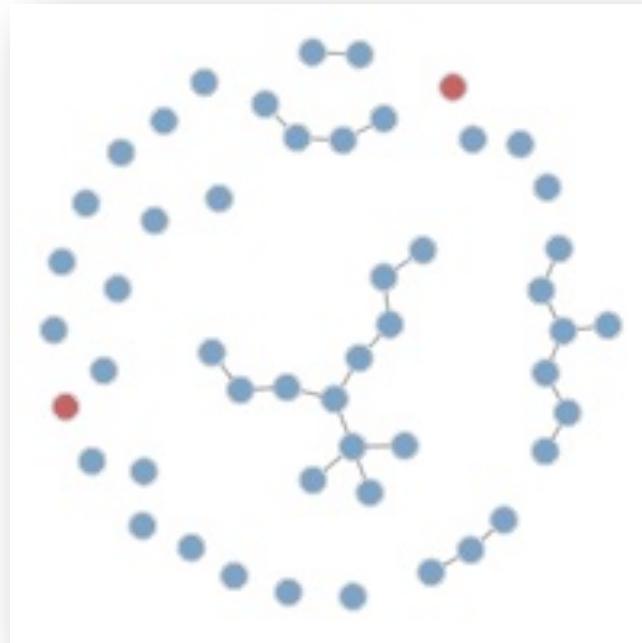
See also: Salathé, M., & Jones, J. H. (2010). Dynamics and control of diseases in networks with community structure. *PLoS computational biology*, 6(4), e1000736.

NOTE: Plenty of nice projects here...

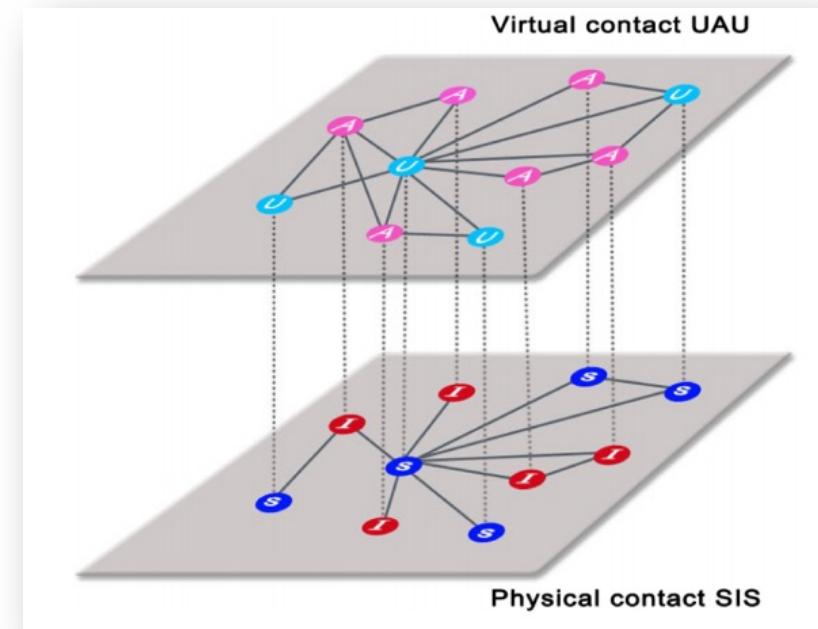
Beyond degree distributions

Behaviour matters! Awareness and epidemics

Temporal networks



Multi-layer networks



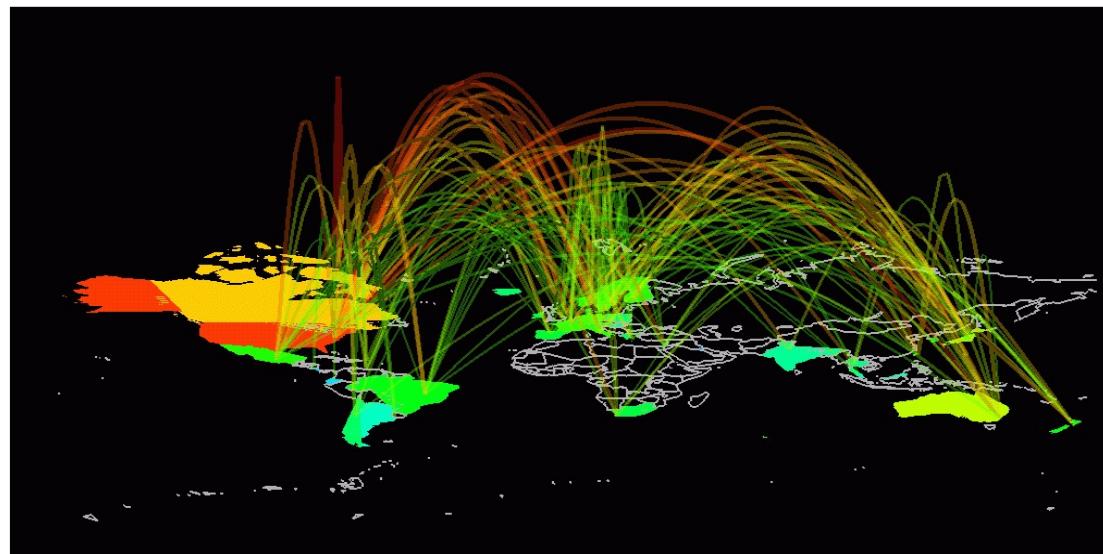
Ex: Van Segbroeck, S., Santos, F. C., & Pacheco, J. M. (2010). Adaptive contact networks change effective disease infectiousness and dynamics. *PLoS Comput Biol*, 6(8), e1000895.

NOTE: Plenty of nice projects here...

Ex: Granell, C., Gómez, S., & Arenas, A. (2013). Dynamical interplay between awareness and epidemic spreading in multiplex networks. *Physical review letters*, 111(12), 128701.



Computational epidemiology at a global scale

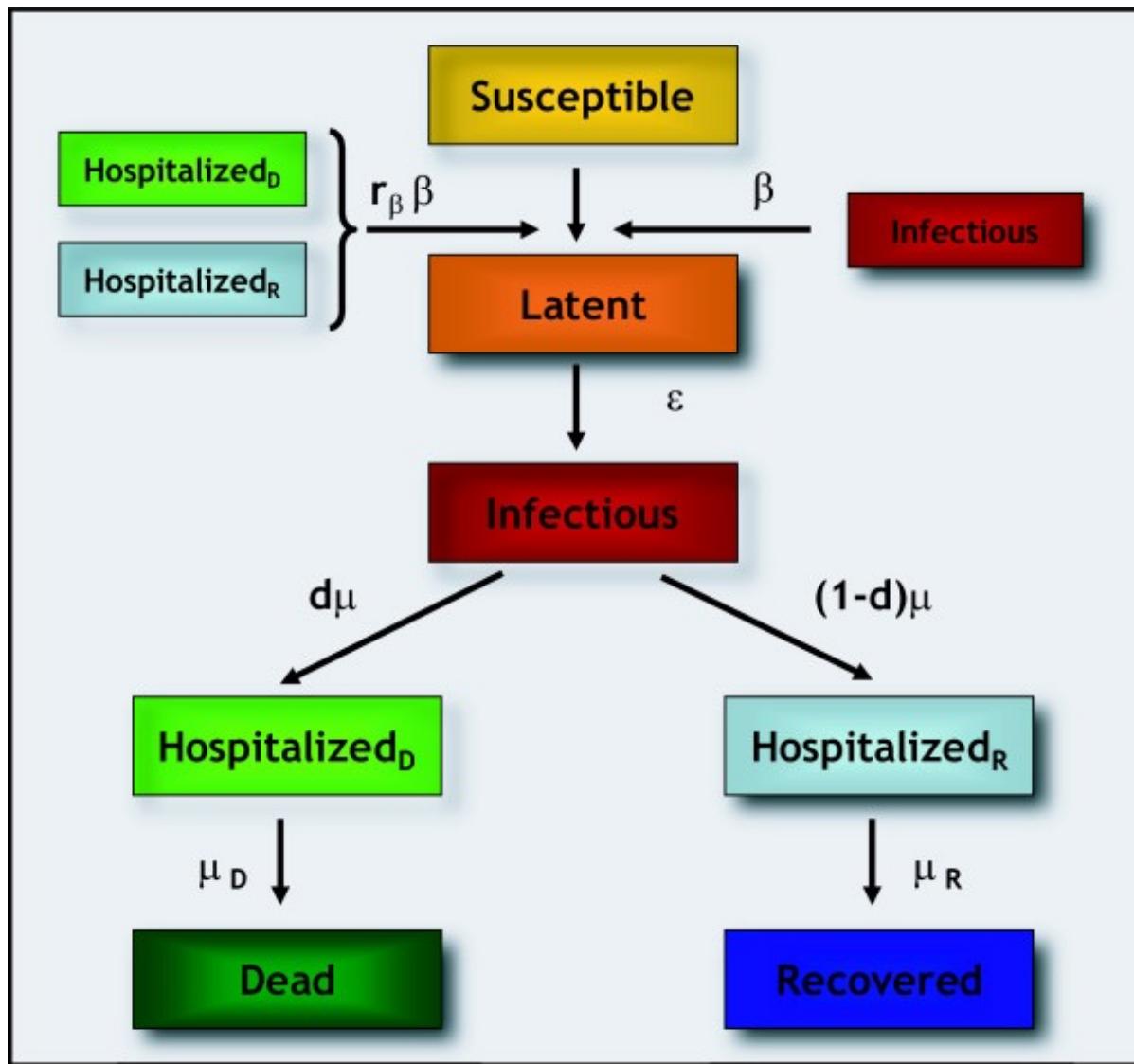


Network Science, 2021/2022

Overview

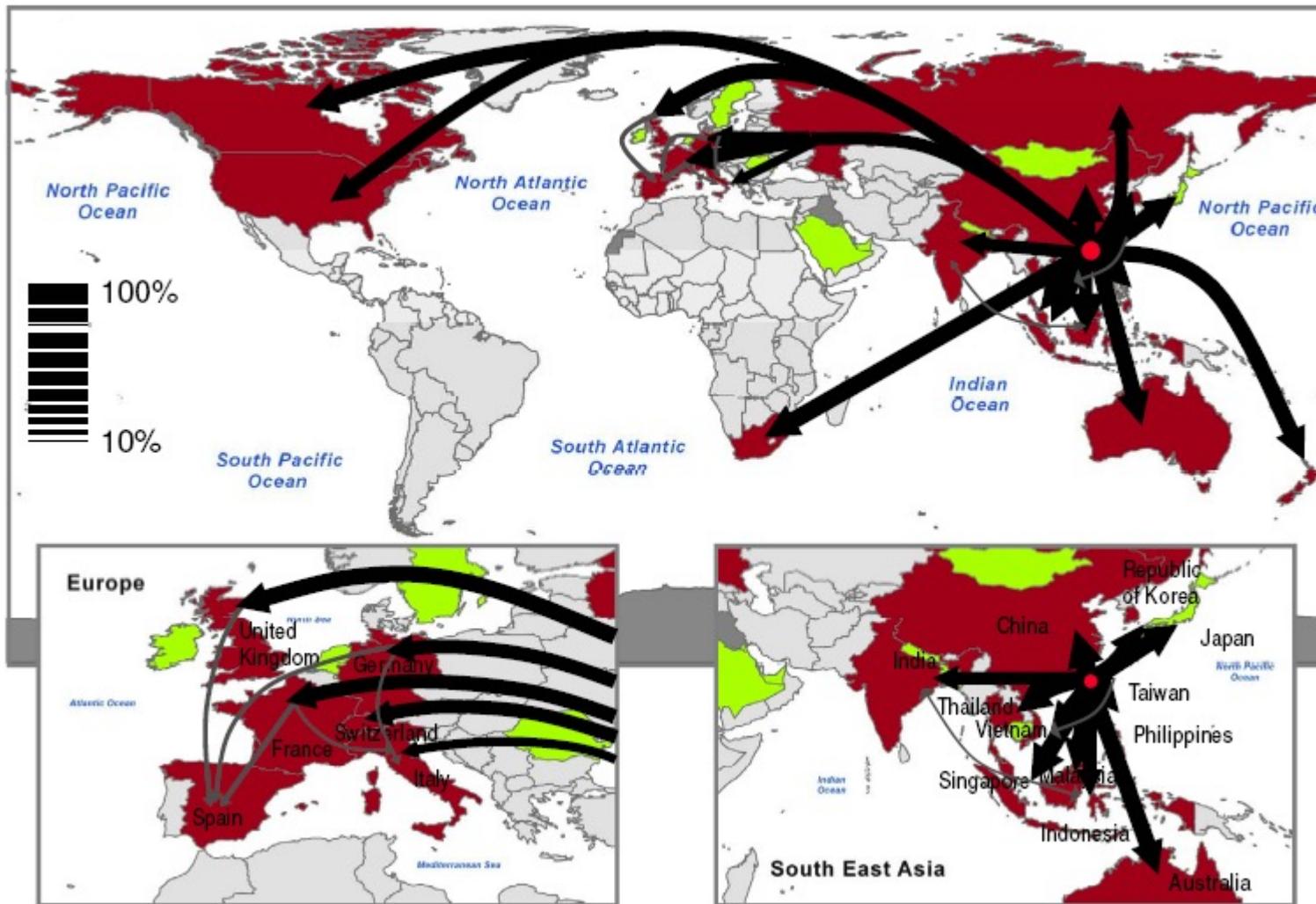
- Example: SARS (2002-03), H1N1 (2009), COVID-19, some future pandemia . . .
- can one make large scale predictions of pandemic scenarios in the same way as we can predict the weather ?
- so-far yes, on a global scale, combining well-mixed (in city) disease models (with lots of local parameters) with weighted networks describing global population mobility (air-transportation).
- Health governance: test the impact of travel restrictions, antiviral treatment, modifications on effective distances, etc.

Models used in SARS pandemic



Vittoria Colizza

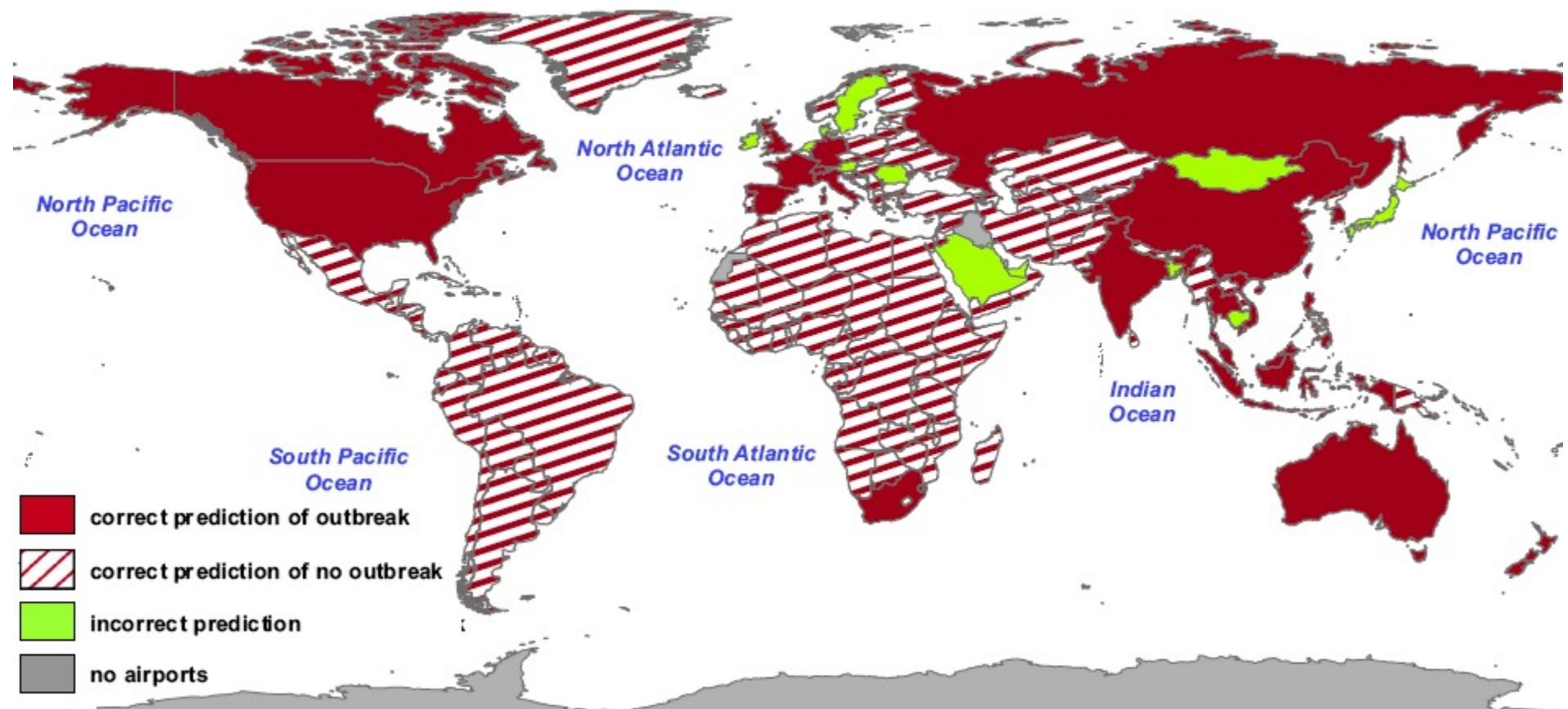
Computacional SARS



network: air-traffic between airports

weight : #-pass-year-on-route / #-tot-pass

Computacional SARS



network: air-traffic between airports

weight : #-pass-year-on-route / #-tot-pass



Example: GLEAM



GLEAM
GLOBAL EPIDEMIC AND MOBILITY MODEL

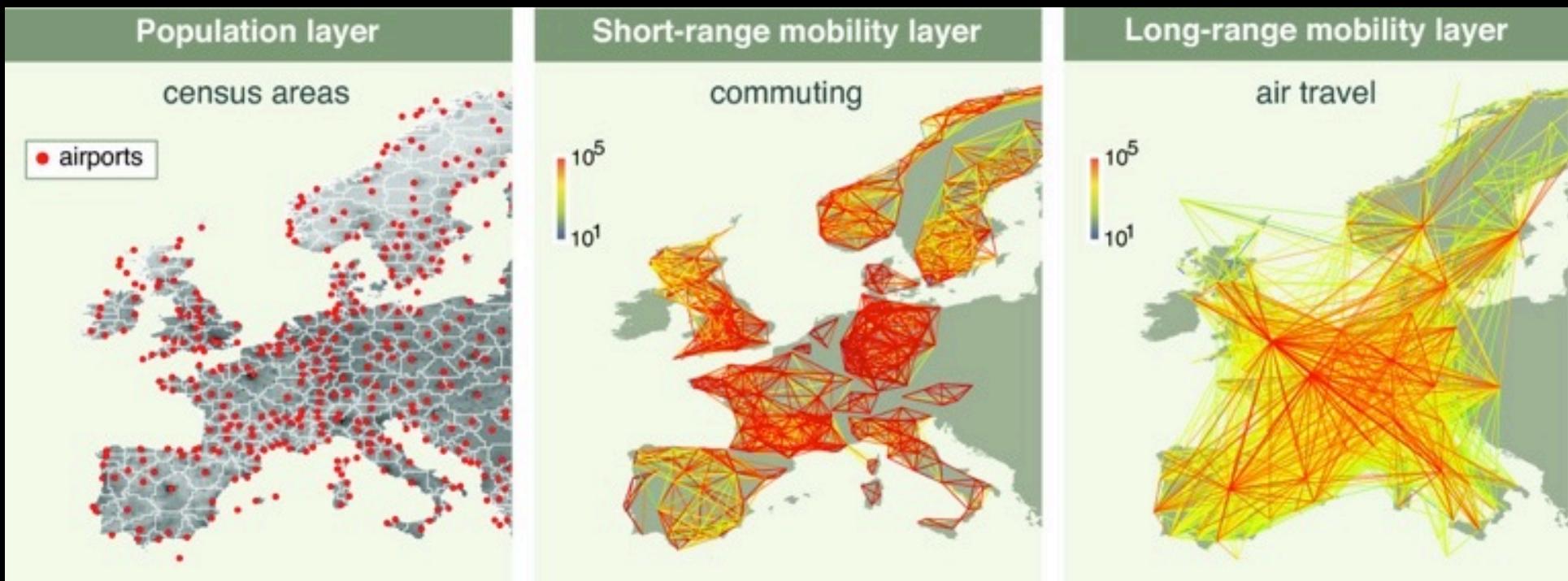


Van den Broeck et al, The GLEaMviz computational tool, a publicly available software to explore realistic epidemic spreading scenarios at the global scale, BMC Infectious Diseases 11:37 (2011)

Network Science, 2021/22



Example: GLEAM

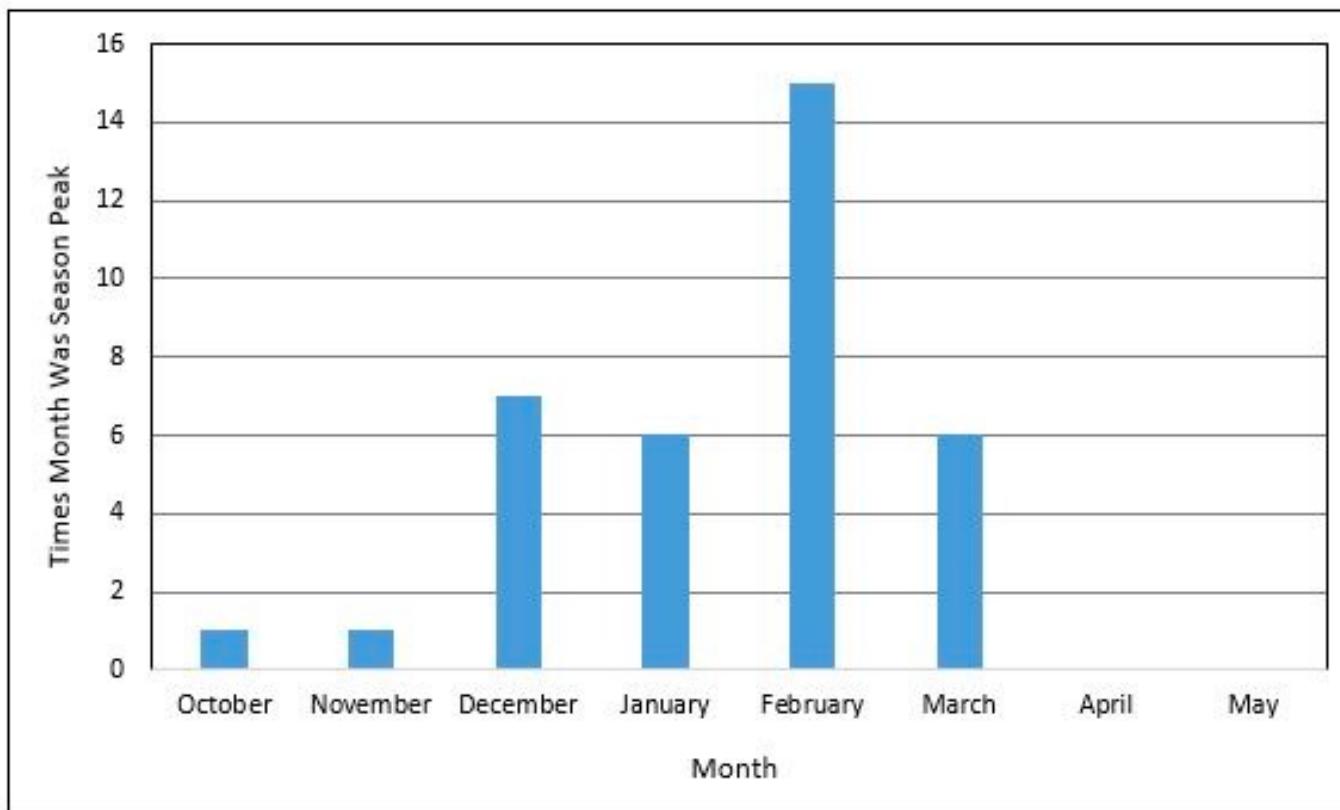


Van den Broeck et al, The GLEaMviz computational tool, a publicly available software to explore realistic epidemic spreading scenarios at the global scale, BMC Infectious Diseases 11:37 (2011)

Peak Month of Flu Activity 1982-1983 through 2017-2018



Centers for Disease Control and Prevention
CDC 24/7: Saving Lives, Protecting People™



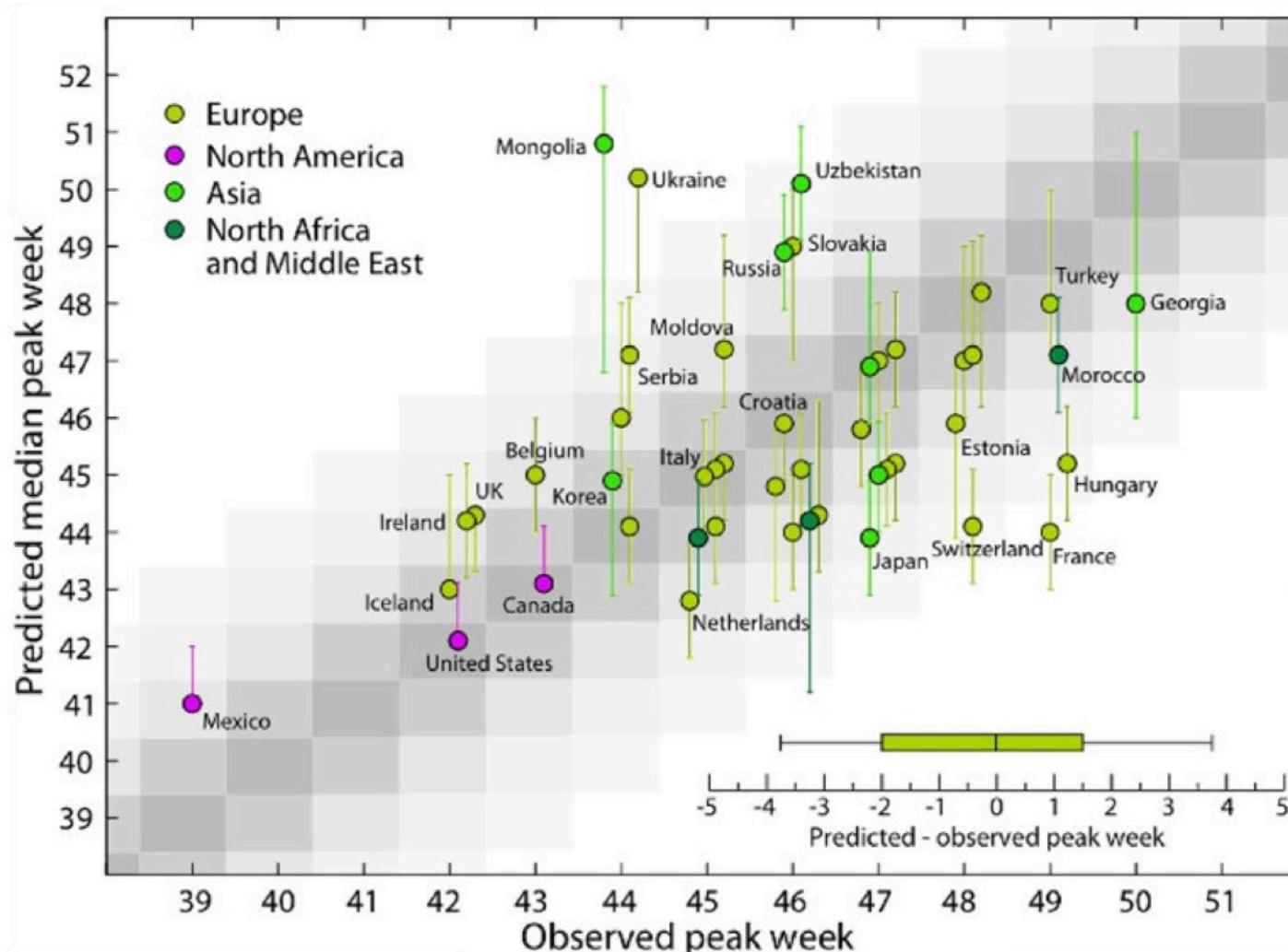
The exact timing and duration of flu seasons can vary, but influenza activity often begins to increase in October. Most of the time flu activity peaks between December and February, although activity can last as late as May.

Spread of H1N1 virus (2009)



GLEAM predicted that the H1N1-2009 epidemic will peak out in November, rather than in January or February, the typical peak time of influenza-like viruses.

Spread of H1N1 virus (2009)



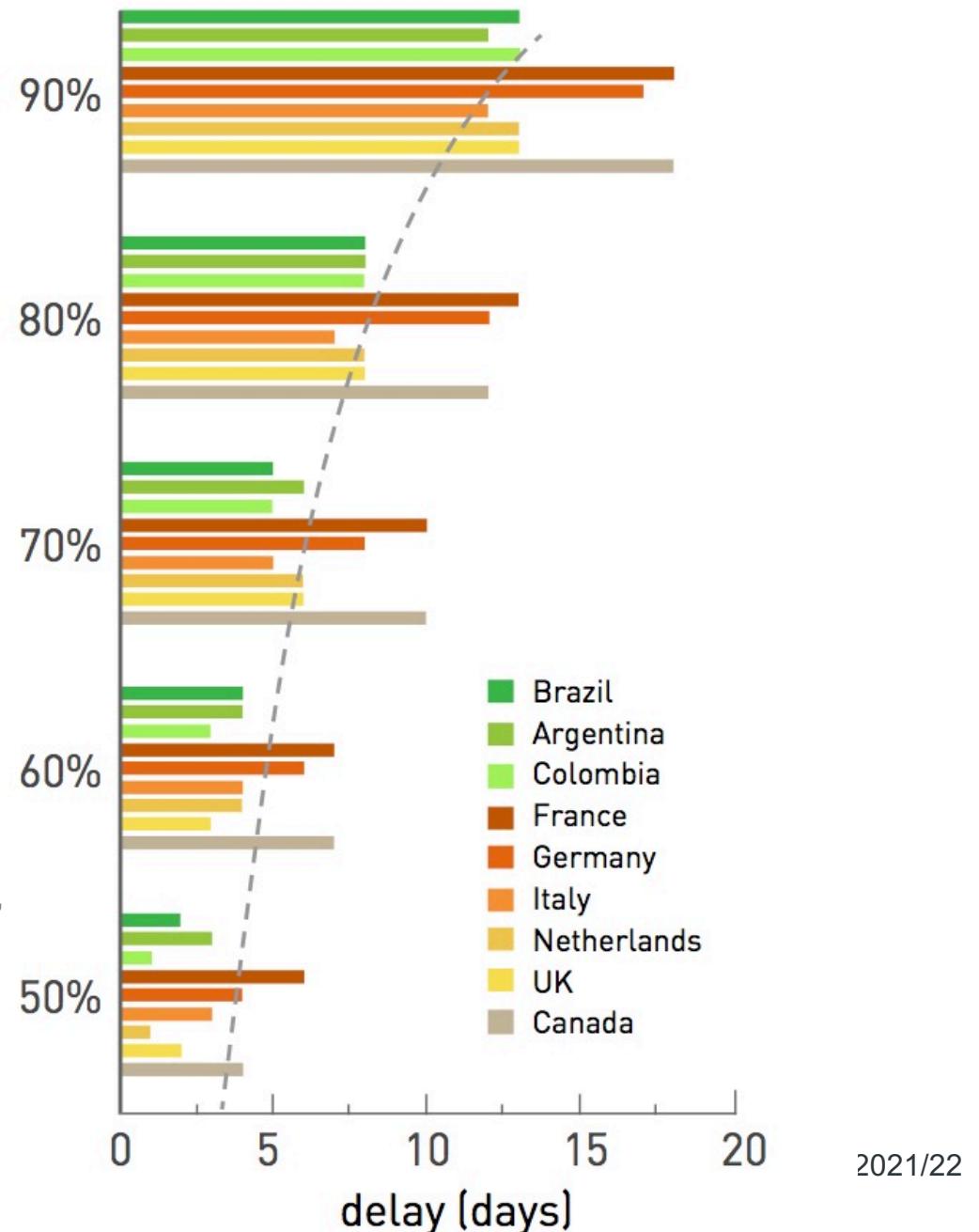
Travel restrictions and the spread of H1N1 (2009)

Similar studies predicted marginal impact in case of significant travel restrictions.

T. D. Hollingsworth et al. Nature Medicine, 12:497-499, 2006.

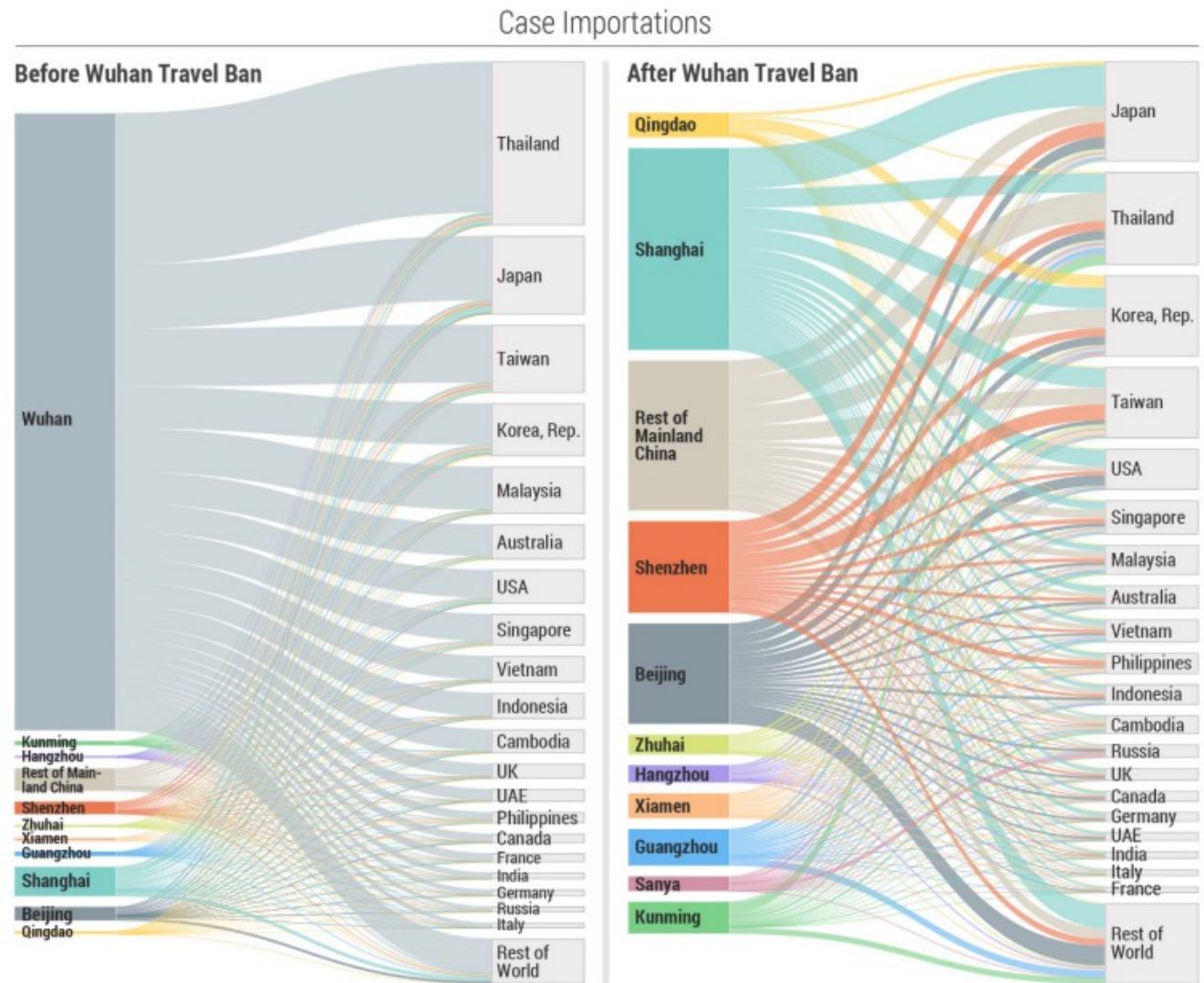
Yet, widespread antiviral treatment may have delayed in 3-4 weeks.

A.C. Singer, et al. Environ Health Perspect., 116:1563-1567, 2008.



Travel restrictions and the spread of Covid-19 (2020-21)

The travel quarantine of Wuhan (Jan, 2020) delayed the overall epidemic progression by only 3 to 5 days in Mainland China; yet at the international scale, importation were reduced by nearly 80% until mid February.

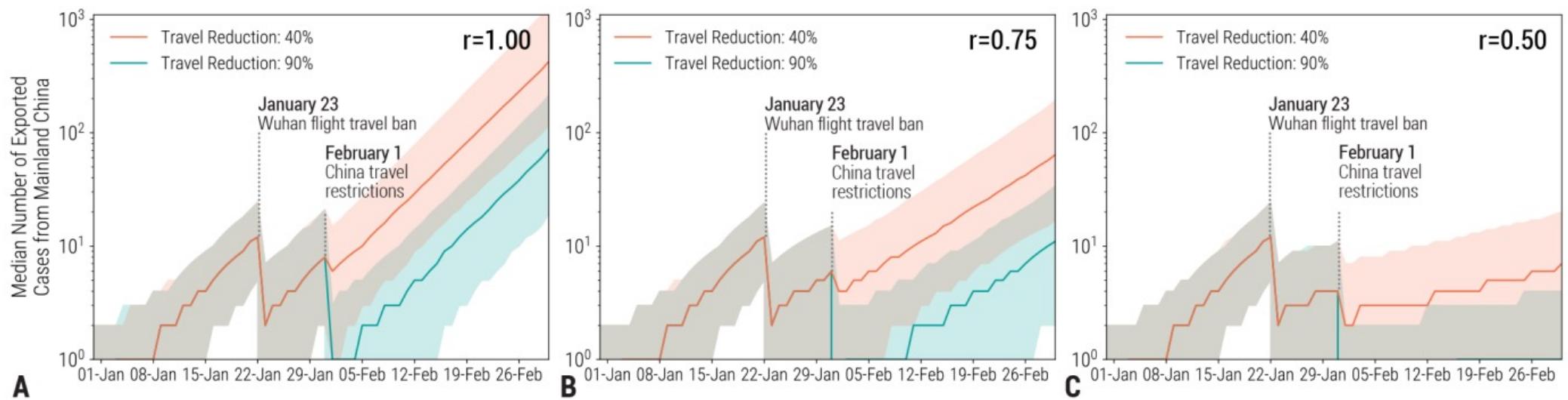


Chinazzi, M., Davis, J. T., Ajelli, M., Gioannini, C., Litvinova, M., Merler, S., ... & Vespignani, A. (2020). The effect of travel restrictions on the spread of the 2019 novel coronavirus (COVID-19) outbreak. *Science*, 368(6489), 395-400.

Network Science, 2021/22

Travel restrictions and the spread of Covid-19 (2020-21)

r = transmissibility reduction factor



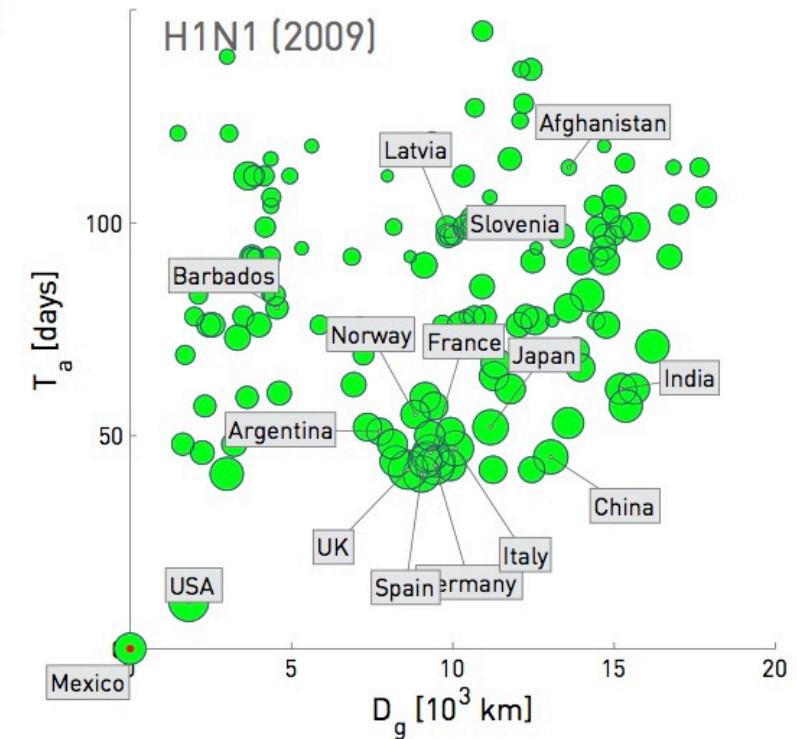
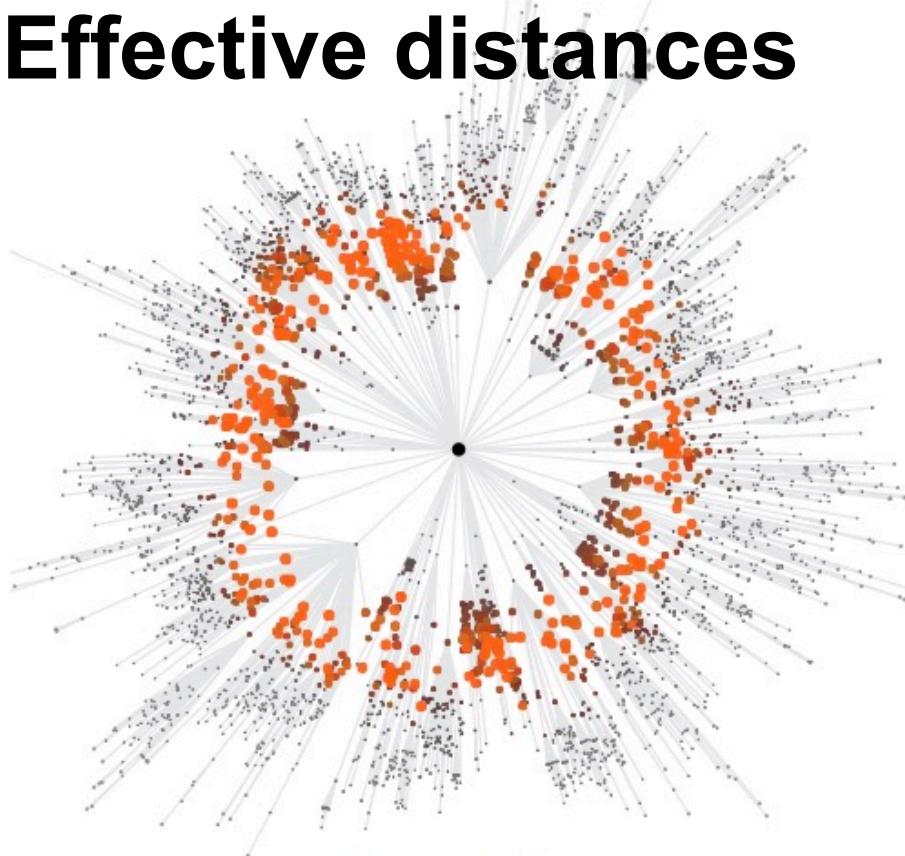
Results also indicate that sustained 90% travel restrictions to and from Mainland China only modestly affect the epidemic trajectory unless combined with a 50% or higher reduction of transmission in the community.

Chinazzi, M., Davis, J. T., Ajelli, M., Gioannini, C., Litvinova, M., Merler, S., ... & Vespignani, A. (2020).

The effect of travel restrictions on the spread of the 2019 novel coronavirus (COVID-19) outbreak. *Science*, 368(6489), 395-400.

Network Science, 2021/22

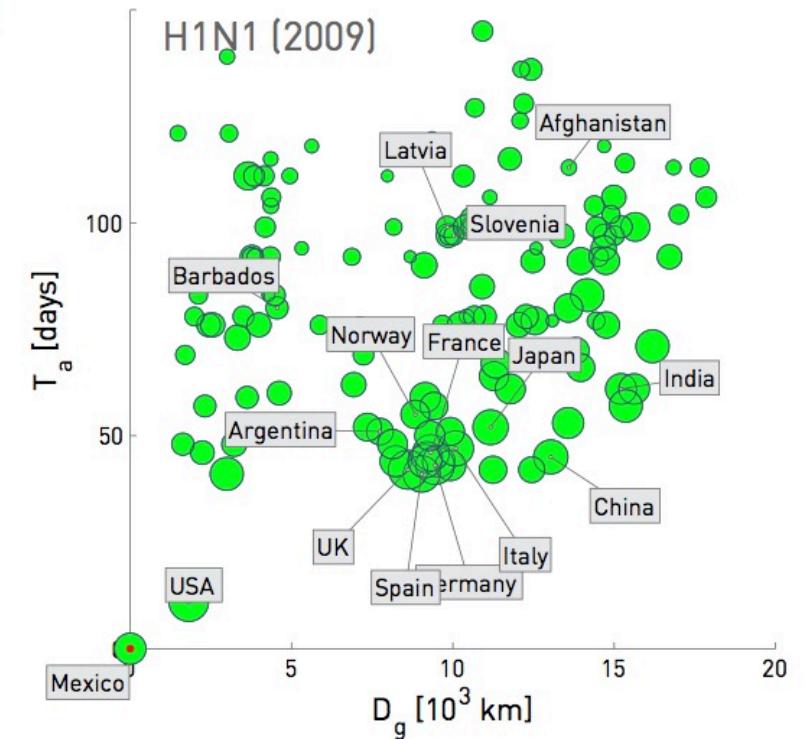
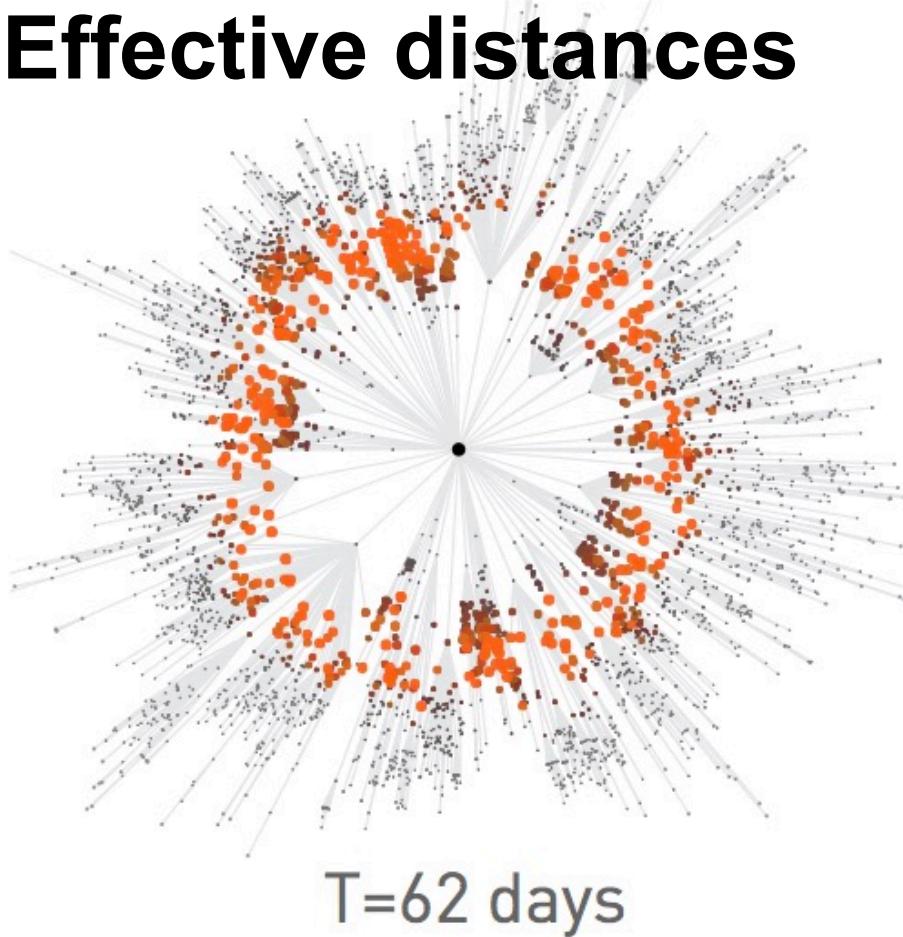
Effective distances



Is there a better space to view the spread of an epidemic than the physical space?

What if we replace the geographic distance with an **effective distance** derived from the mobility network?

Effective distances

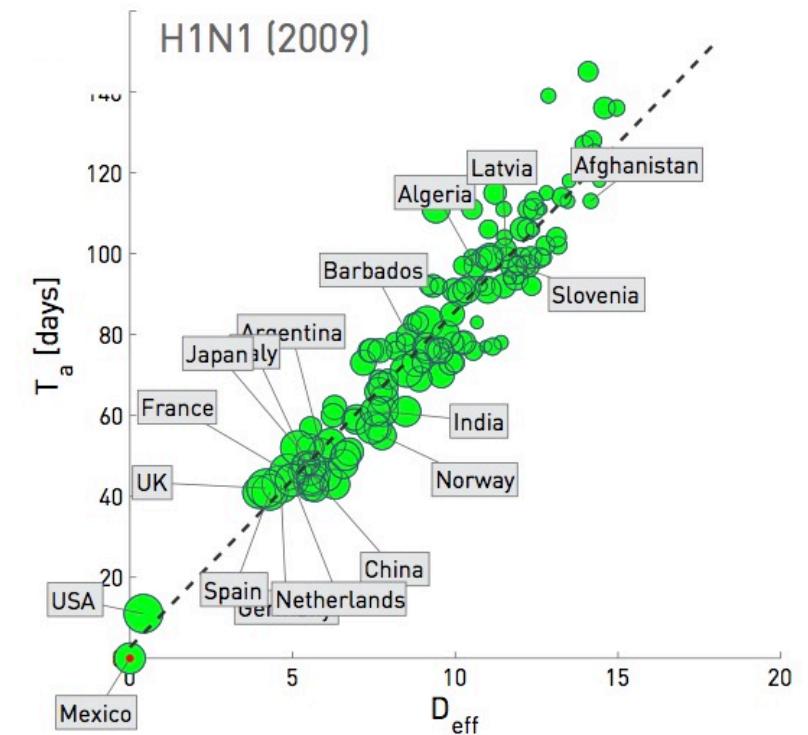
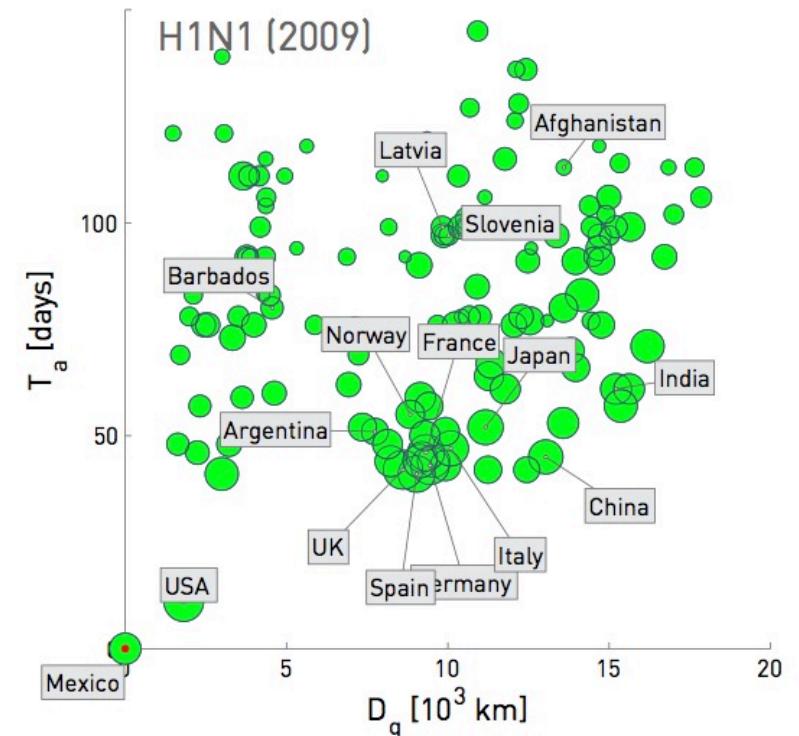
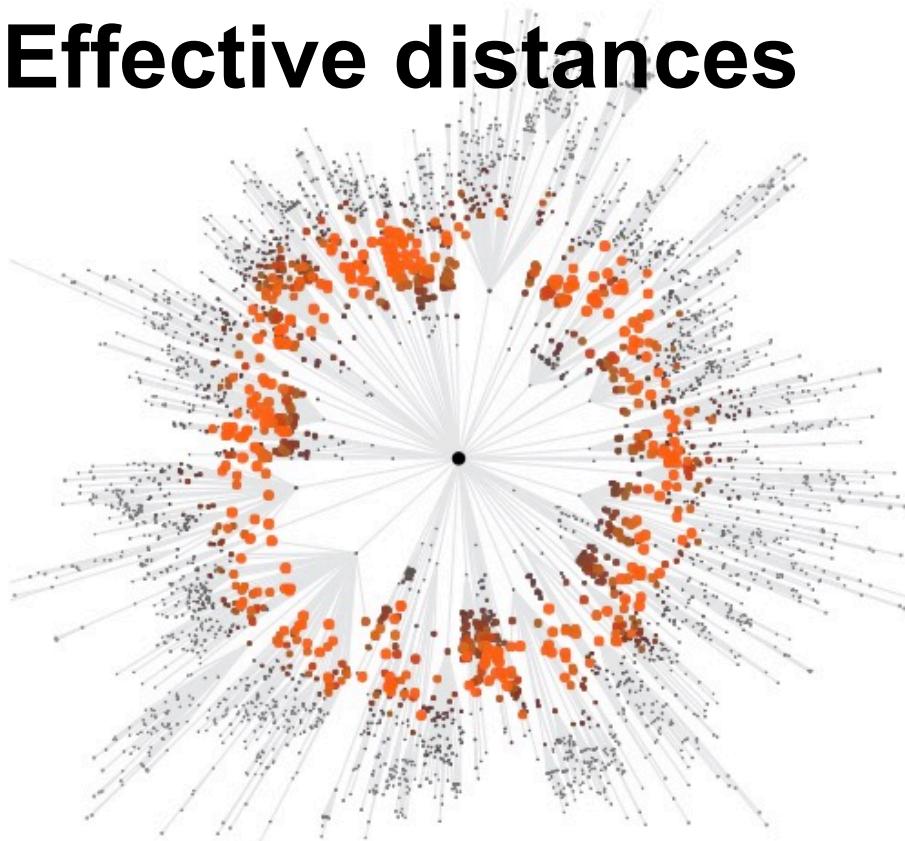


$$d_{ij} = (1 - \ln p_{ij})$$

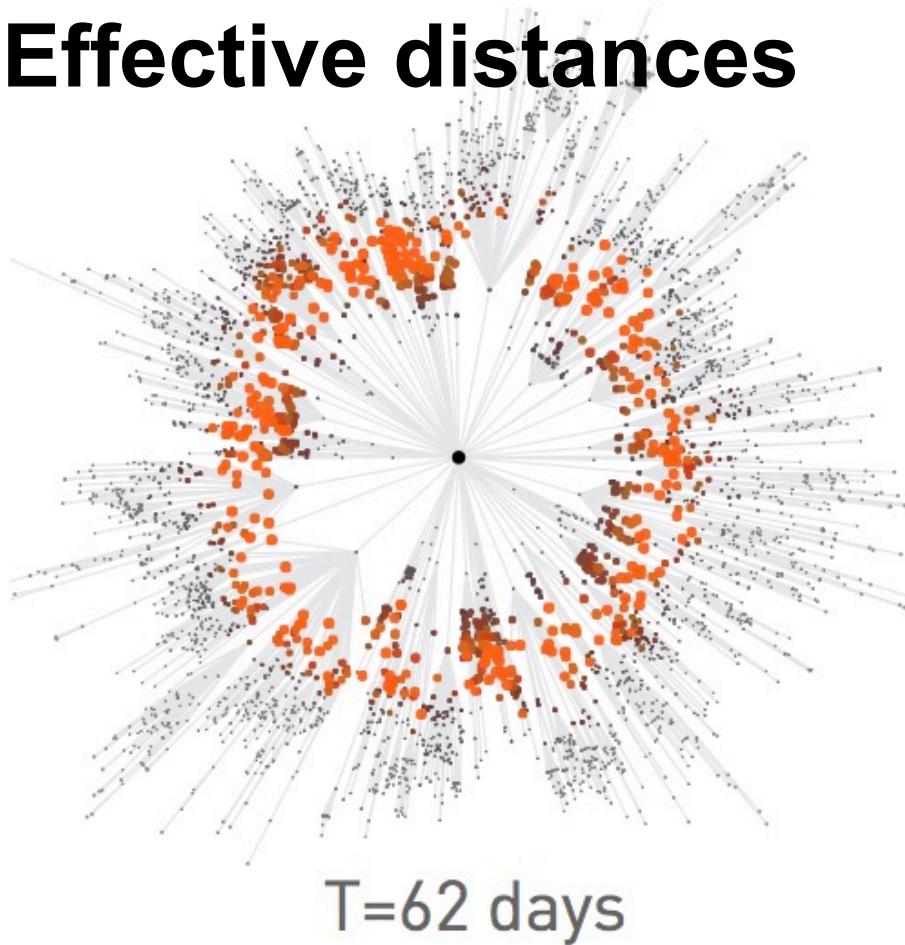
Effective distance
between cities i and j.

Normalized flux of people
traveling from i to j

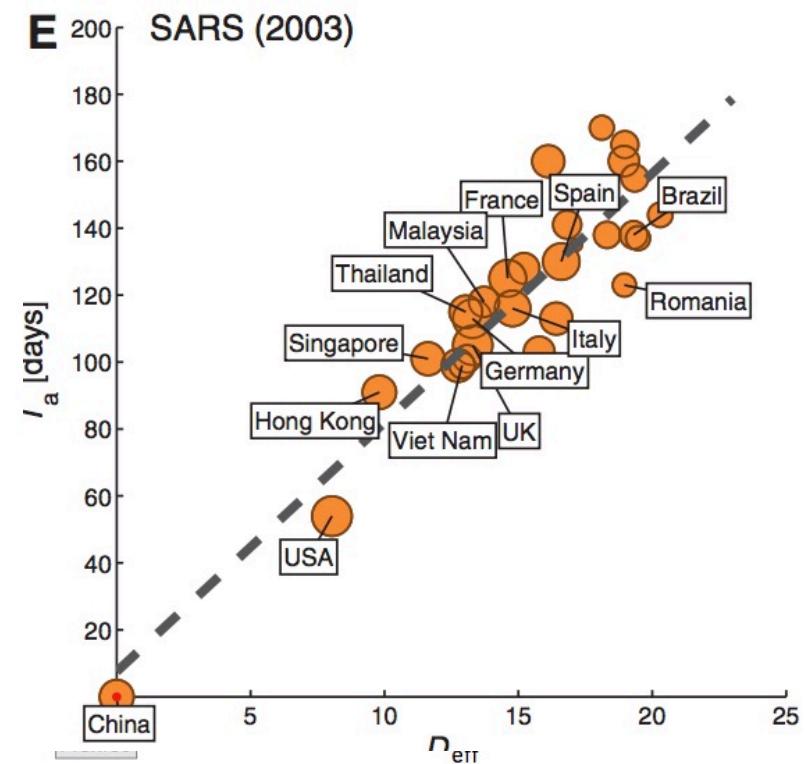
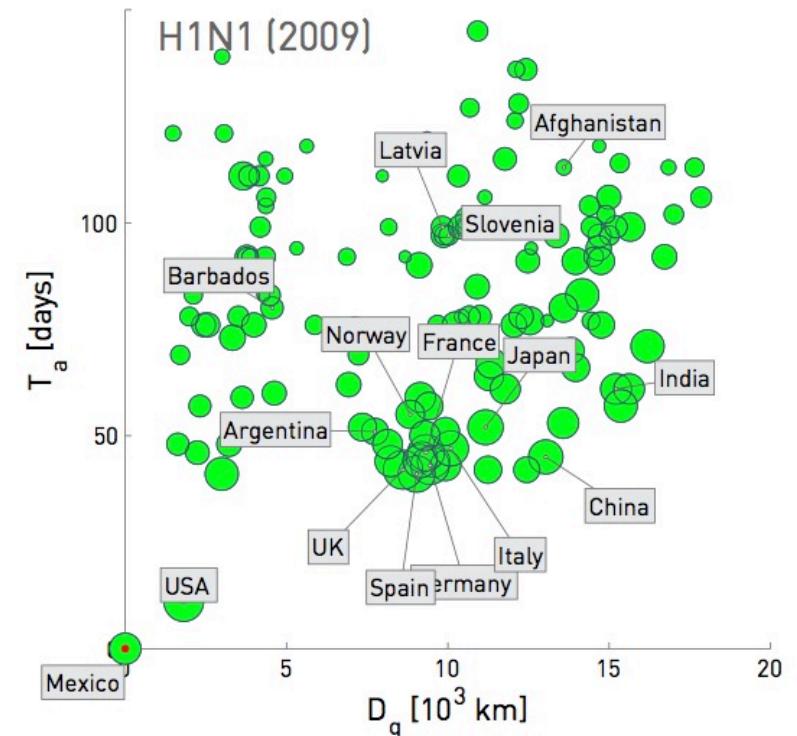
Effective distances

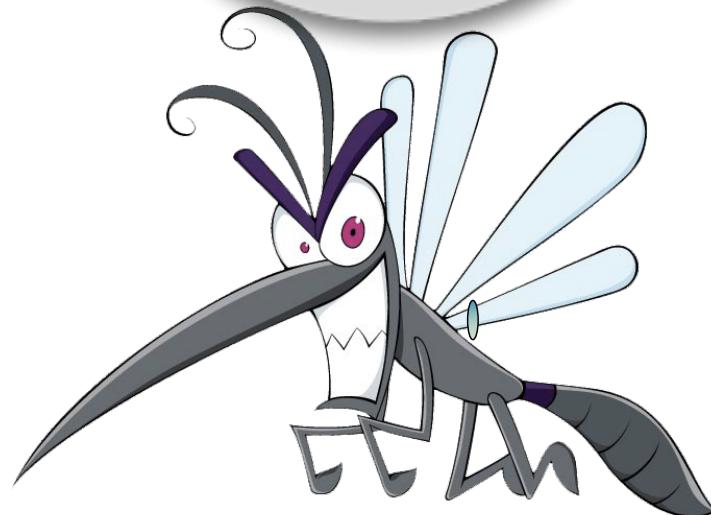
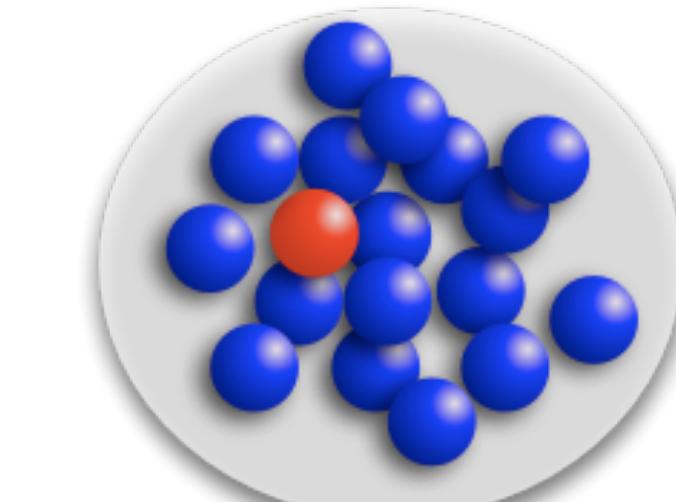


Effective distances



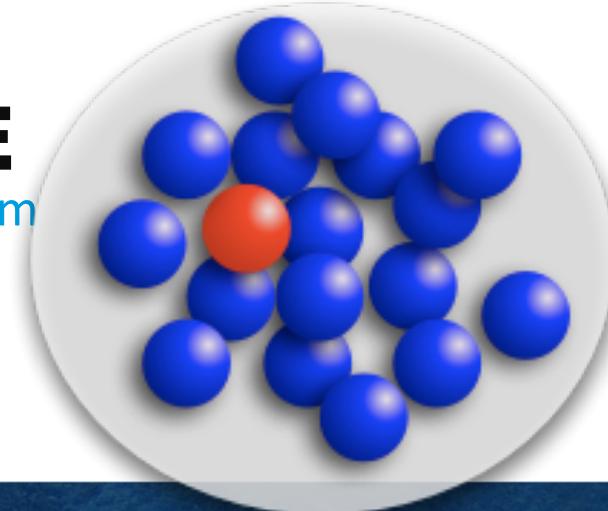
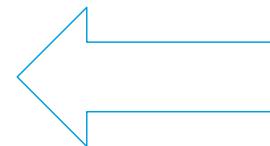
D. Brockmann and D. Helbing. The Hidden Geometry of Complex, Network-Driven Contagion Phenomena. Science, 342:1337-1342, 2014.





DENGUE

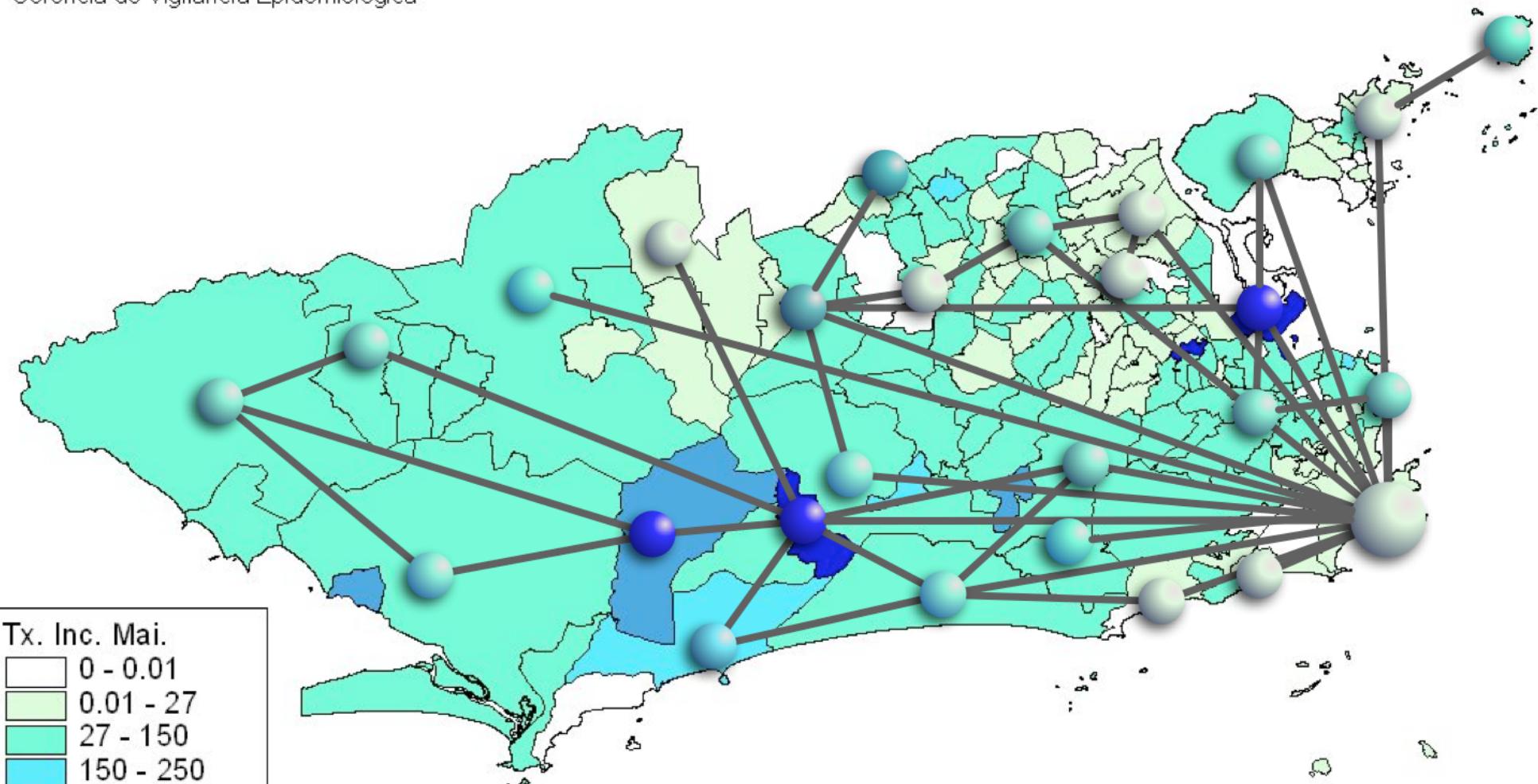
Not only a Brazilian problem



Two interacting populations

Dengue - Taxa de Incidência por Bairro - MRJ Maio 2008

Taxa de Incidência por 100.000 habitantes
Mapa Atualizado em 10-06-2008

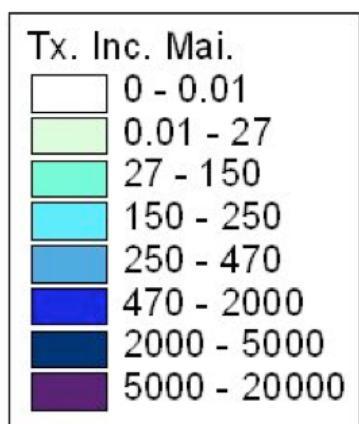
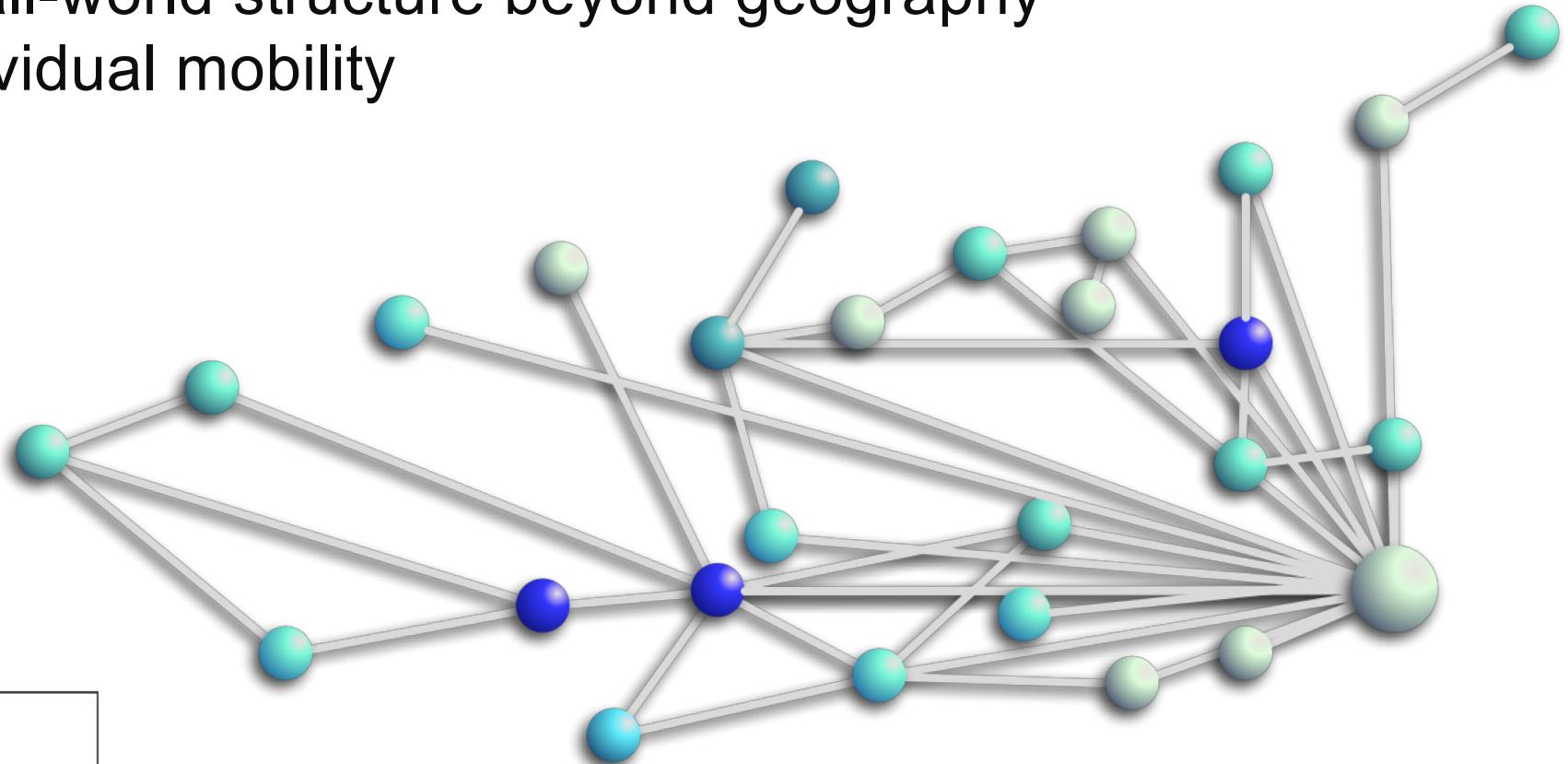


contact network between boroughs

8000 0 8000 Meters

network theory

- heterogeneous graphs
- small-world structure beyond geography
- individual mobility

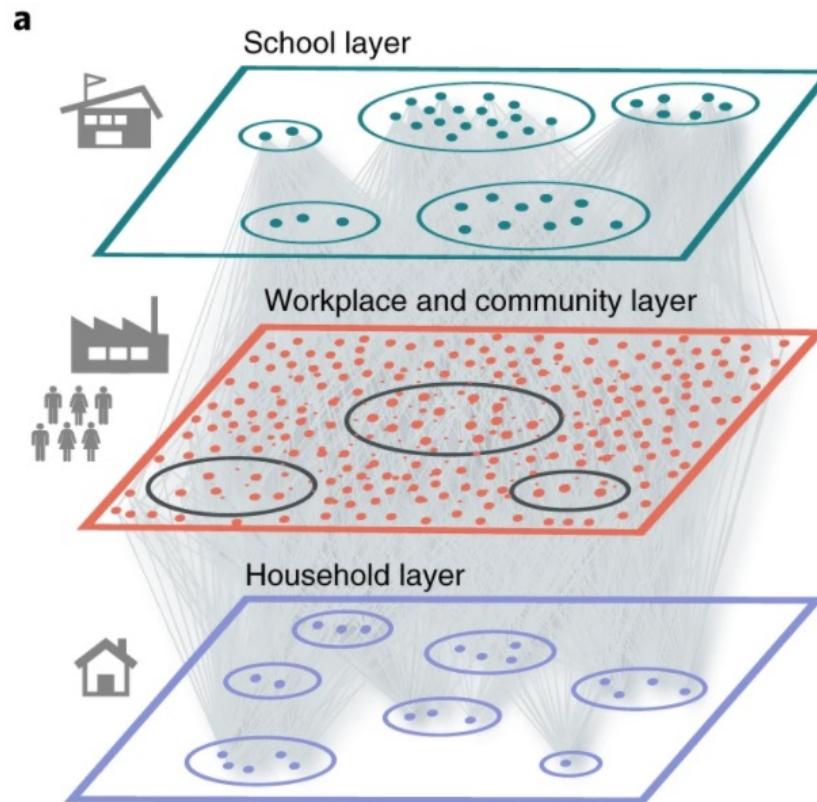


Agent-based models

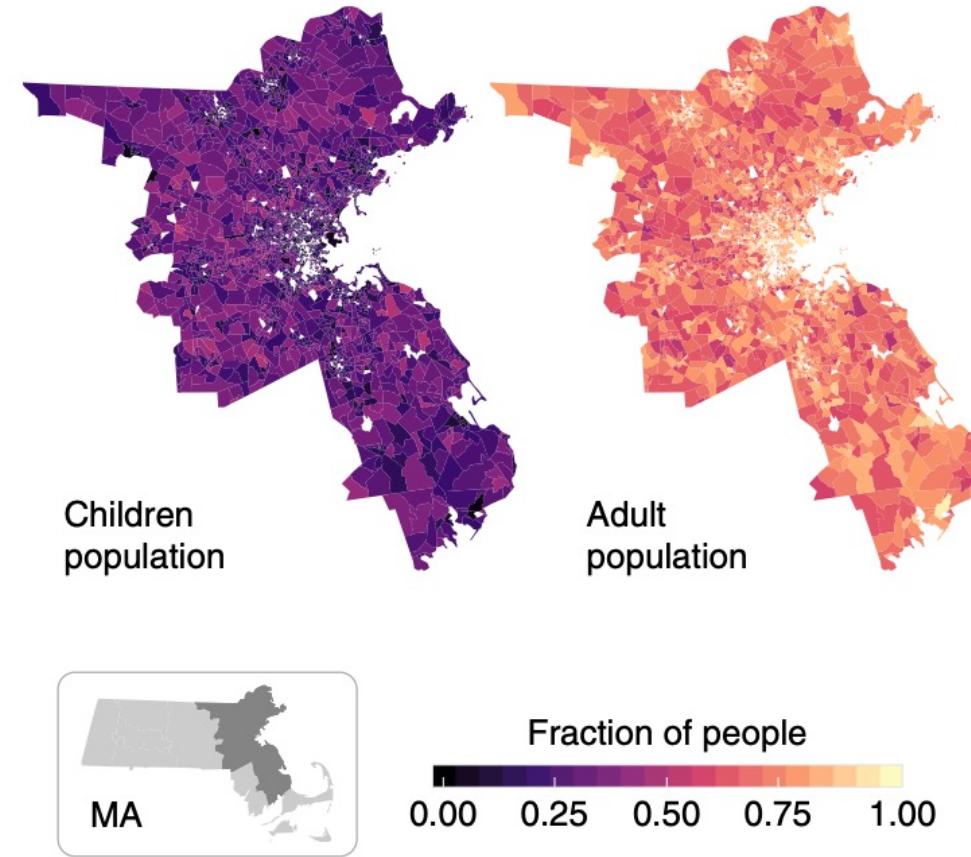
(COVID-19, 2020)



FOURSQUARE

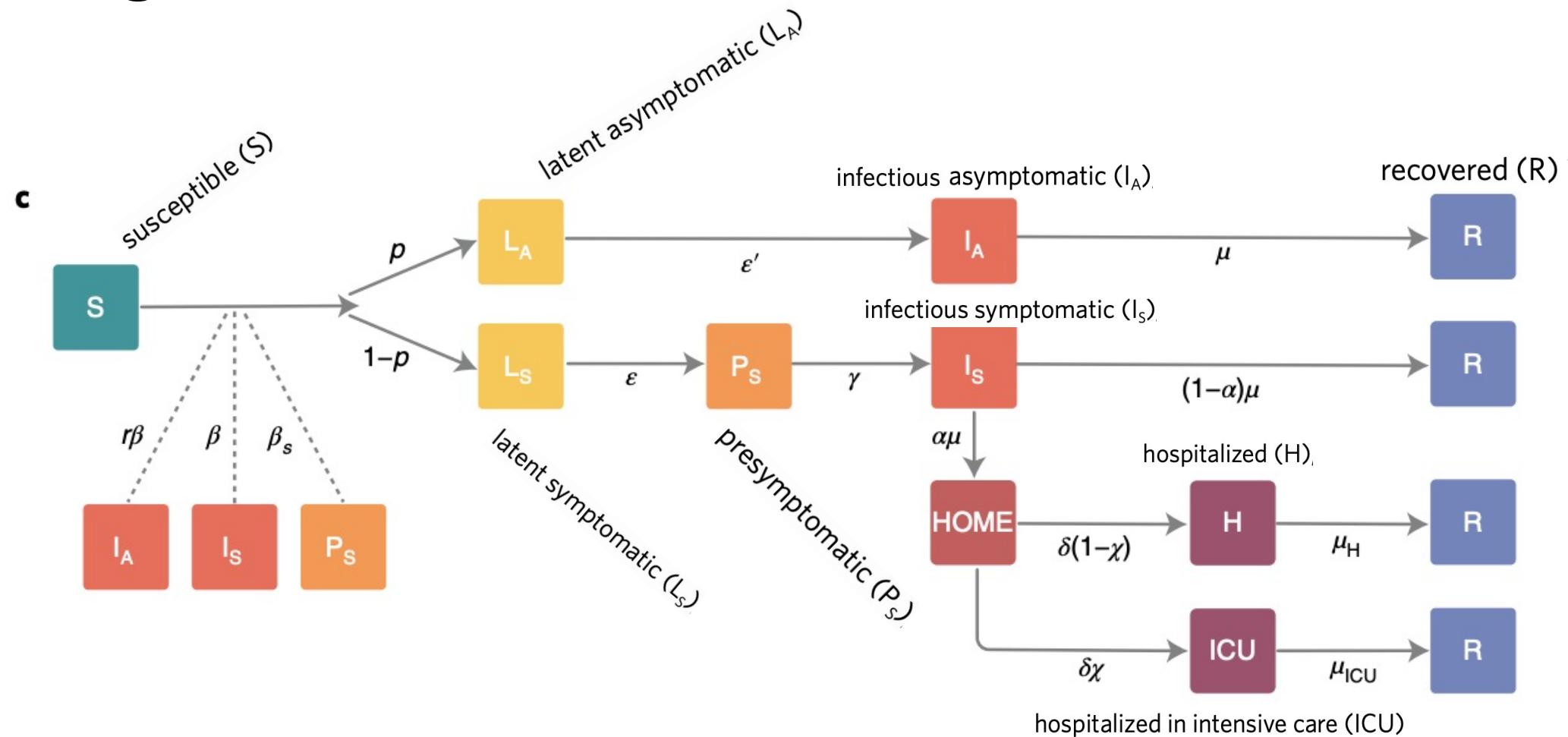


Schematic illustration of the weighted multilayer synthetic population built from mobility data in the metropolitan area of Boston. The agent-based system comprises around 64,000 adults and 21,000 children



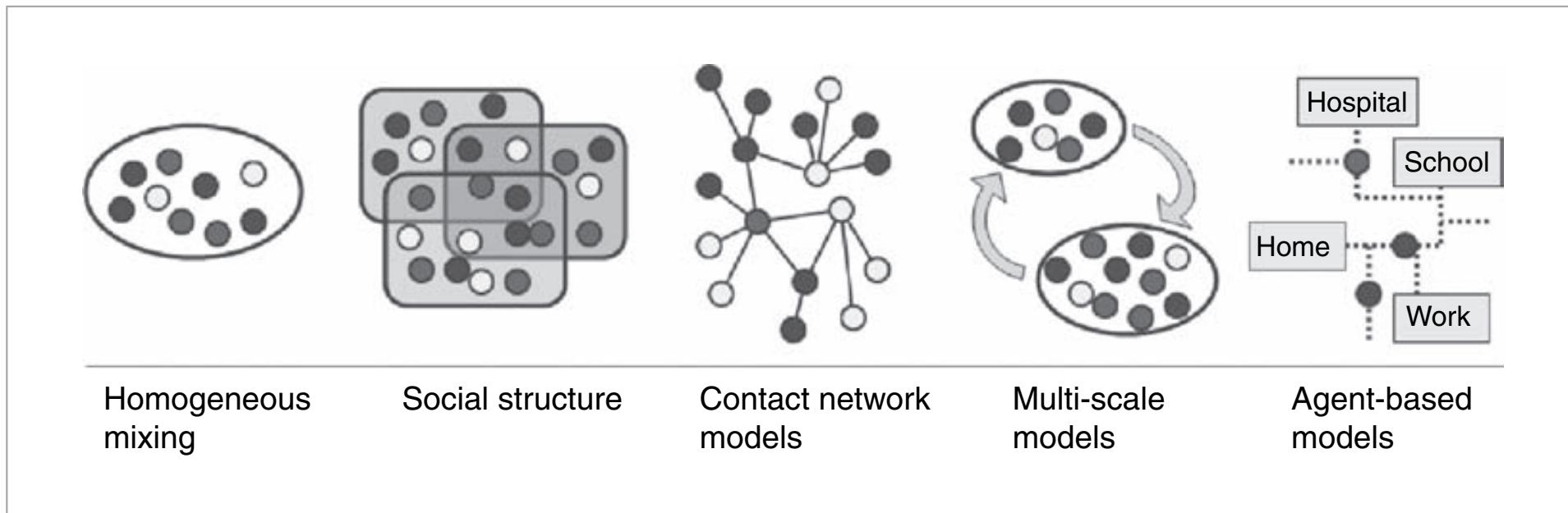
Geographical distribution of the agents.

Agent-based models



Stochastic simulations of COVID-19 dynamics

OVERVIEW: Classes of models in computational epidemiology



Homogeneous
mixing

Social structure

Contact network
models

Multi-scale
models

Agent-based
models



Can we resort to similar techniques to address social systems?

