Epidemic spreading processes

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Dutch Institute for Emergent Phenomena and Institute for Theoretical Physics, UvA

May 13, 2024





Introduction

- Spreading processes are plentiful in Nature and society
 - Epidemic spreading
 - Social contagions (rumor spreading, opinion and voter models)
 - Diffusion on networks: traffic and transportation
 - Population dynamics and ecology
 - Forest fires
 - **...**

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- ▶ Mathematical modeling of spreading processes crosses into different disciplines:
 - Epidemiology (public health)
 - Computer science
 - Theoretical ecology
 - Statistical mechanics (physics)

Each discipline has their own favorite modeling schemes and literature, however the most basic models are quite similar

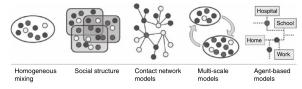
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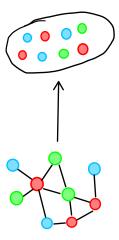
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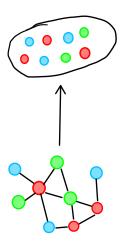
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► Different modeling scenarios:

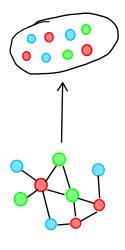


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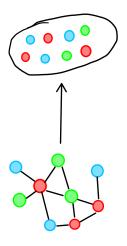




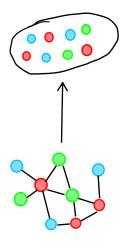
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 - Susceptible-Infected (SI) model
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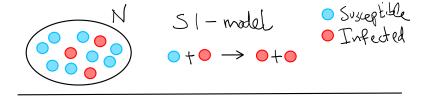
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 - Epidemic spreading on networks
 - Mean-field approximation in the context of epidemic models
 - Homogeneous vs. heterogeneous network models

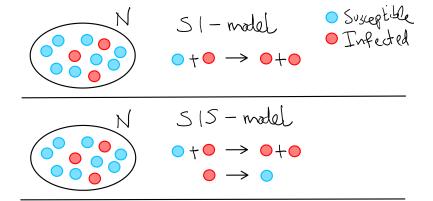


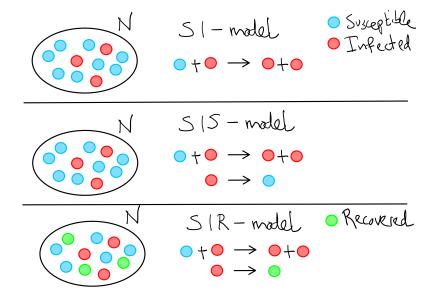
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Key concepts:

- Dynamical process (out-of-equilibrium)
- Dynamical (continuous) phase transition
- Mean-field approximations
- Network heterogeneity







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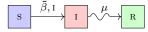


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 - Spontaneous transitions between compartments:

$$\stackrel{\mu}{\longrightarrow} R$$

$$I \xrightarrow{\mu} R$$

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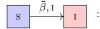
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Binary interaction transitions among individuals of different compartments

- The population is assumed to be homogeneously mixed: all individuals have equal probability of running into each other
- ▶ Interested in the rate of change of the fraction of infected $i(t) = \frac{1}{N}X^{[i]}(t)$



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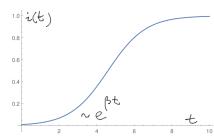
This is the logistic equation (Verhulst, 1840s), originally used to model population growth. It can solved analytically as

$$i(t) = \frac{i(0)e^{\tilde{\beta}t}}{1 + i(0)(e^{\tilde{\beta}t} - 1)}$$

At early times, when $i(t) \ll 1$:

$$\frac{di(t)}{dt} = \tilde{\beta}i(t)$$

And $i(t) \sim e^{\tilde{\beta}t}$.



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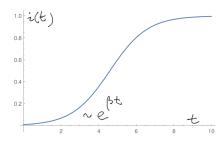
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And $i(t) \sim e^{\tilde{\beta}t}$.

ightharpoonup When i(t) = 1:

$$\frac{di(t)}{dt} = 0$$

So i(t) = 1 is a steady-state



$$\frac{\tilde{\beta},1}{\mu} : \frac{di(t)}{dt} = \tilde{\beta}i(t)s(t) - \mu i(t)$$

$$\frac{\tilde{\beta}, 1}{dt} : \frac{di(t)}{dt} = \tilde{\beta}i(t)s(t) - \mu i(t) = (\tilde{\beta} - \mu)i(t) - \tilde{\beta}i(t)^{2}$$

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$$i(t) \sim e^{t/ au}$$
 $au^{-1} = (\tilde{eta} - \mu) \equiv \mu(R_0 - 1)$

Here $R_0=rac{ ilde{eta}}{\mu}$ is the basic reproductive number.

$$\begin{array}{c} \overbrace{\beta,1} \\ \mu \end{array} : \qquad \frac{di(t)}{dt} = \widetilde{\beta}i(t)s(t) - \mu i(t) = (\widetilde{\beta} - \mu)i(t) - \widetilde{\beta}i(t)^2$$

This is still the Verhulst logistic equation, as long as $R_0 = \frac{\hat{\beta}}{\mu} > 1$. For small i(t), we now have:

$$i(t) \sim e^{t/\tau}$$
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Here $R_0 = \frac{\tilde{\beta}}{u}$ is the basic reproductive number.

Dynamical (continuous) phase transition between:

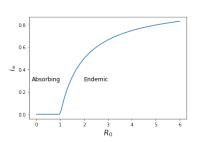
 $R_0 \le 1$: Absorbing phase: epidemic eventually dies out

$$i_{\infty}=0$$

 $R_0 > 1$: Endemic phase: logistic growth to a stable 'endemic' state

$$i_{\infty}=1-\frac{1}{R_0}$$





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Susceptible-Infected-Recovered (SIR) model

The SIR model adds recovery to a new R compartment for recovered (or removed)

$$\begin{array}{c} \beta, I \\ \end{array} \longrightarrow \begin{array}{c} \mu \\ R \end{array}$$

The rate of equations are now:

$$\frac{ds(t)}{dt} = -\tilde{\beta}i(t)s(t), \quad \frac{di(t)}{dt} = \tilde{\beta}i(t)s(t) - \mu i(t), \quad \frac{dr(t)}{dt} = \mu i(t)$$

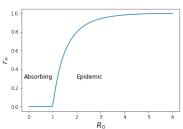
Now the epidemic will always die out eventually, but still two types of behaviour can be distinguished depending on $R_0 = \frac{\beta}{\mu}$

- $R_0 \le 1$: Absorbing regime: infection does not reach a finite fraction of the population $r_{\infty} = 0$.
- $R_0 > 1$: Epidemic regime: infection reaches a finite fraction of the population r_∞

At late time:

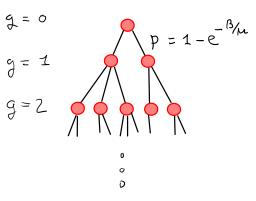
$$1 - r_{\infty} = e^{-R_0 r_{\infty}}$$

Exercise: derive this equation.



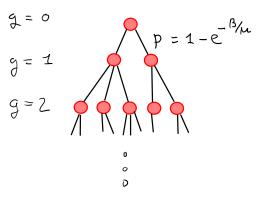
Map to directed percolation

Constructing r_{∞} as a percolation problem: start with the initial infected and trace the edges along which the infection has spread



Map to directed percolation

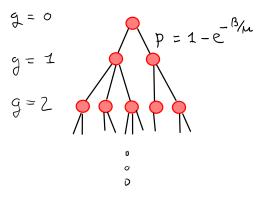
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Exactly like a percolation problem, where an edge is present with probability p and absent with probability 1-p.

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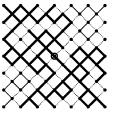


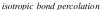
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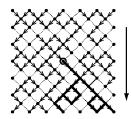
The **percolation threshold**, above which a giant connected component appears, is equal to the epidemic threshold.

Directed percolation

Difference with bond percolation: now the process is *directed*, as the infection cannot travel backwards in time.



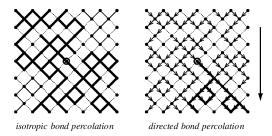




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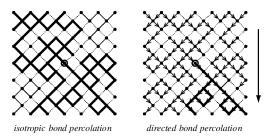
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SIS model is equivalent to the mean-field approximation of the directed percolation problem.

Universality of critical exponents: close to the critical threshold, the density of infected scales as

$$ho \sim (p-p_c)^{eta}$$

The value of p_c may differ between different models with absorbing state transition, but the critical exponent β is the same for many different models.

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Directed percolation critical exponents

Critical exponents for directed percolation: β for the density in the percolating cluster

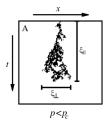
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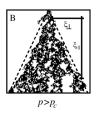
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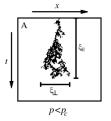
$$\xi_{\perp} \sim |p - p_c|^{-\nu_{\perp}}$$
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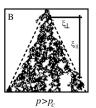
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| critical exponent | MF | d = 1 [168] | d = 2 [125] | d = 3 [170] |
|----------------------|-----|---------------|-------------|-------------|
| β | 1 | 0.276486(8) | 0.584(4) | 0.81(1) |
| $ u_{\perp}$ | 1/2 | 1.096 854 (4) | 0.734(4) | 0.581(5) |
| $ u_{\parallel}$ | 1 | 1.733 847 (6) | 1.295(6) | 1.105(5) |

 $d_c = 4$ is the upper critical dimension for DP

The SIS/SIR models are often extended to include more compartments, for instance

- Exposed individuals who are not yet infectious
- Asymptomatic infectious individuals
- Immune individuals (to model impact of a vaccination campaign)

The late-time behaviour is highly model dependent, but the **epidemic threshold** and a dynamical phase transition between an absorbing and epidemic phase is generic for most models

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- ▶ They are insensitive to the structure of the population
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 - We would like to characterize not only the mean number of infected, but also see the
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 - Due to random fluctuations, the infection can die out even for $R_0 > 1$.

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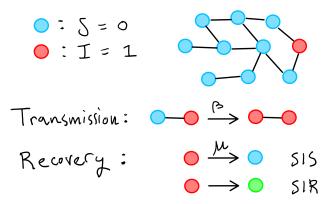
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Ultimately, a population is a complex system composed out of many individuals. The deterministic compartmental models should emerge from a stochastic microscopic model detailing the interactions of individuals.

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$$\mathbb{P}[X_i(t+dt)=0|X_i(t)=1]=\mu dt+o(dt)$$

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$$\mathbb{P}[X_i(t+dt) = 1 | X_i(t) = 0; A^{ij}X_i(t) = 1] = \beta dt + o(dt)$$

Here A^{ij} is the adjacency matrix of a contact network: $A^{ij}=1$ if i and j are connected, $A^{ij}=0$ otherwise

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This gives up to order dt:

$$\mathbb{P}[X_i(t+dt)=1] = \mathbb{P}[X_i(t)=1](1-\mu dt) + \sum_j A^{ij} \mathbb{P}[X_i(t)=0;X_j(t)=1]\beta dt.$$

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After some rearrangement and taking the limit $dt \rightarrow 0$:

$$\frac{d\mathbb{P}[X_i(t) = 1]}{dt} = -\mu \mathbb{P}[X_i(t) = 1] + \beta \sum_i A^{ij} \mathbb{P}[X_i(t) = 0; X_j(t) = 1].$$

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The expectation value for node i to be I depends on the probability of it forming an SI pair!

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The probability of any i, j forming an SI pair in turn depends on II and SI pairs and triples of the form SSI and ISI. (exercise: derive the eqn for SI pairs)

$$\frac{d}{dt} - 3(t) = -(3 - 3(t) - \mu - 3(t) + \mu - 3(t) + \mu - 3(t) + \mu - 3(t)$$

$$+ (3 \sum_{k} - 3 - k)(t) - (3 \sum_{k} - 3(t) - 3(t) + \mu - 3$$

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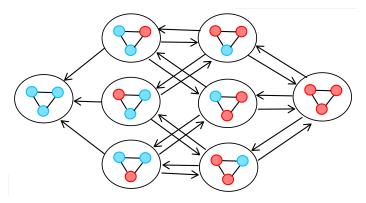
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The chain of dependencies can be closed by mean-field approximations, as we will see shortly.

May 13, 2024

Exact Markovian description

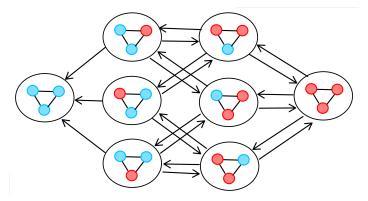
The exact problem is a Markov chain on the space of all possible network configurations. The SIS model on a graph with N=3:



Transitions to the right have rate $\sim \beta$, transitions to the left have rate μ . What do you notice from the Markov chain?

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Transitions to the right have rate $\sim \beta$, transitions to the left have rate μ . What do you notice from the Markov chain?

Hard problem: number of configurations grows $\sim 2^N$.

Using the mean-field approximation, we can bridge the stochastic network models to the deterministic compartmental models:

▶ Define the density of infected i(t):

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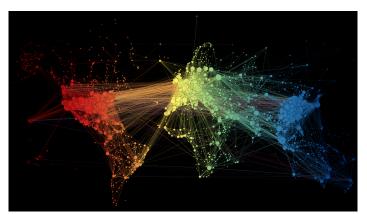
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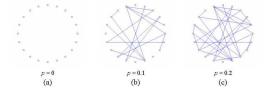
Human beings typically do not interact randomly. For instance, we fly around the world using airplanes. All airports and the flights connecting them form a complex network



What distinguishes 'real-world' networks from random networks?

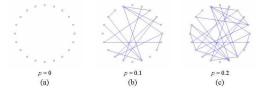
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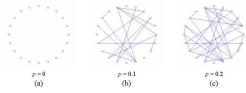
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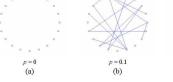


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 - There are $\binom{N-1}{k}$ different ways to select k distinct neighbors
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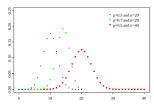
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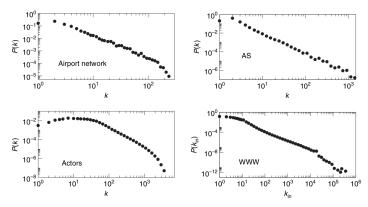


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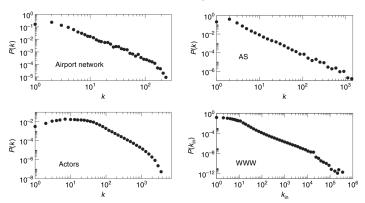
Do real-world networks have a similar degree distribution?

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May 13, 2024

Do real-world networks have a similar degree distribution?



Real-world networks are often **fat-tailed**. For a range of intermediate k values the distribution follows a power-law

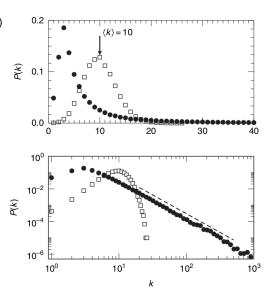
$$P(k) \sim k^{-\gamma}$$
, with: $2 < \gamma < 3$

These networks are called scale-free networks.

W. Merbis (DIEP, IoP)

Comparing binomial distribution (\square) vs power-law distribution (\bullet) with $\gamma=2.3$

Both networks have the same average degree $\langle k \rangle = 10$

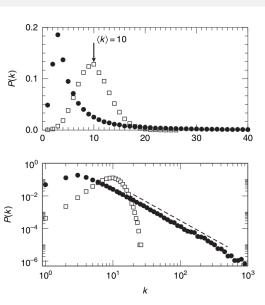


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Scale-free networks properties

Overabundance of hubs: nodes of high degree

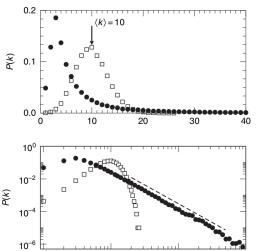


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10¹

k

10⁰

 10^{2}

 10^{3}

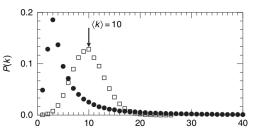
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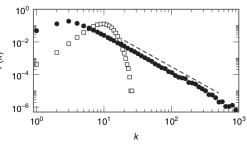
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$$\langle k^2 \rangle = \sum_k k^2 P(k) \to \infty$$





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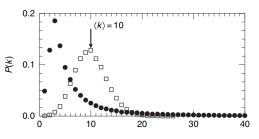
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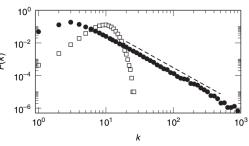
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► This means the average degree is not a characteristic scale





Degree block approximation: Assume all nodes with the same degree are statistically equivalent

Group all nodes of degree k in degree classes

$$i_k = \frac{I_k}{N_k}$$
, $s_k = \frac{S_k}{N_k}$, s.t. $i(t) = \sum_k i_k(t) P(k)$

 I_k, S_k : number of infected (resp. susceptible) nodes of degree k. $N_k = I_k + S_k$

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How does $i_k(t)$ change in time?

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Recovery is a Poisson process

$$\frac{di_k(t)}{dt} = -\mu i_k(t)$$

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Transmission contains a new quantity $\Theta_k(t)$:

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Where $\Theta_k(t)$ is the probability that a neighbor of a node of degree k is infected.

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Assume lack of degree correlations: Prob of arriving at a node with degree k' when following an edge starting from a node of degree k is independent of k

We want the probability that a neighbor of a node with degree k is infected $\Theta_k(t)$. First break it up in two parts:

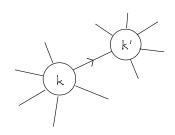
$$\Theta_k(t) = \sum_{k'} P(k'|k)i_{k'}(t)$$

P(k'|k): Probability that an edge starting from a degree k node ends in a node of degree k'

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Generic neighbor of degree k'

No degree correlations: Assume P(k'|k) is independent of k

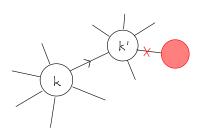
- ▶ prop. to probability P(k') of node having degree k'
- ▶ prop. to k': the no. of ways the neighboring node can be reached

$$P(k'|k) = \frac{k'}{\langle k \rangle} P(k')$$

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Infected neighbor of degree k'

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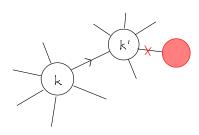
- ▶ prop. to probability P(k') of node having degree k'
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Putting it all together, we have:

$$\Theta_k(t) = \Theta(t) = \sum_{k'} rac{k'-1}{\langle k \rangle} P(k') i_{k'}(t)$$

Let's see how the degree fluctuations influence the epidemic threshold. We have:

$$\frac{di_k(t)}{dt} = -\mu i_k(t) + \beta k \left(1 - i_k(t)\right) \Theta(t), \quad \text{with: } \Theta(t) = \sum_{k'} \frac{k' - 1}{\langle k \rangle} P(k') i_{k'}(t)$$

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Assuming that in the early stage of the outbreak, $i_k(t) \ll 1$, so we neglect $\mathcal{O}(i_k^2)$ terms, such that:

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So at early times:

$$\Theta(t) \sim \mathrm{e}^{t/ au} \;, \qquad \mathrm{with:} \; au^{-1} = \mu \left(rac{eta}{\mu} rac{\langle k^2
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$$\frac{di_k(t)}{dt} = -\mu i_k(t) + \beta k \Theta(t),$$

$$\frac{d\Theta(t)}{dt} = \left(\beta \frac{\langle k^2 \rangle - \langle k \rangle}{\langle k \rangle} - \mu\right) \Theta(t)$$

So at early times:

$$\Theta(t) \sim e^{t/ au} \ , \qquad ext{with: } au^{-1} = \mu \left(rac{eta}{\mu} rac{\langle k^2
angle - \langle k
angle}{\langle k
angle} - 1
ight) \equiv \mu (extit{R}_0 - 1)$$

So the basic reproductive ratio R_0 increases with larger the degree fluctuation $\langle k^2 \rangle$

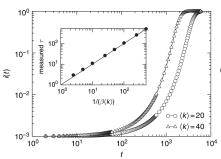
$$R_0 = rac{eta}{\mu} rac{\langle k^2
angle - \langle k
angle}{\langle k
angle}$$
 . at the epidemic threshold: $rac{eta}{\mu} = rac{\langle k
angle}{\langle k^2
angle - \langle k
angle}$

Bottom line: large degree fluctuations lower the epidemic threshold!

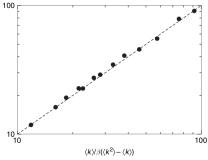
Discussion: why do you think this is true?

Bottom line: large degree fluctuations lower the epidemic threshold! Discussion: why do you think this is true?

Numerical simulations confirm initial outbreak rate



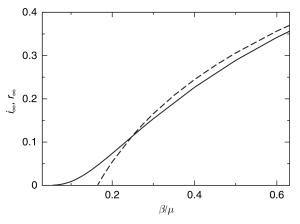
SI outbreaks on Erdös-Renyi random graphs



On (approximate) scale-free networks

Phase diagram

The phase diagram for the epidemic models with i_∞, r_∞ as order parameter and β/μ as control parameter



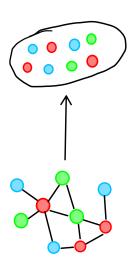
Dashed: homogeneous mixing

Solid: heterogeneous (scale-free) networks

Overview

Today we looked at epidemic models from a microscopic perspective

- Deterministic compartmental models describe the dynamics of well-mixed populations
- Stochastic network models can incorporate structure within the population
- Mean-field approximations relate the two modeling frameworks



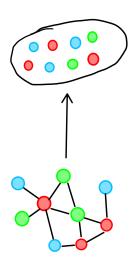
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- Markov process on networks
- Heterogeneity in contact networks (scale-free property)
- Universality of critical exponents



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Many more refined models can and have been proposed and studied! (see for instance this good [Review paper])

