

Digital epidemiology

Lesson 8

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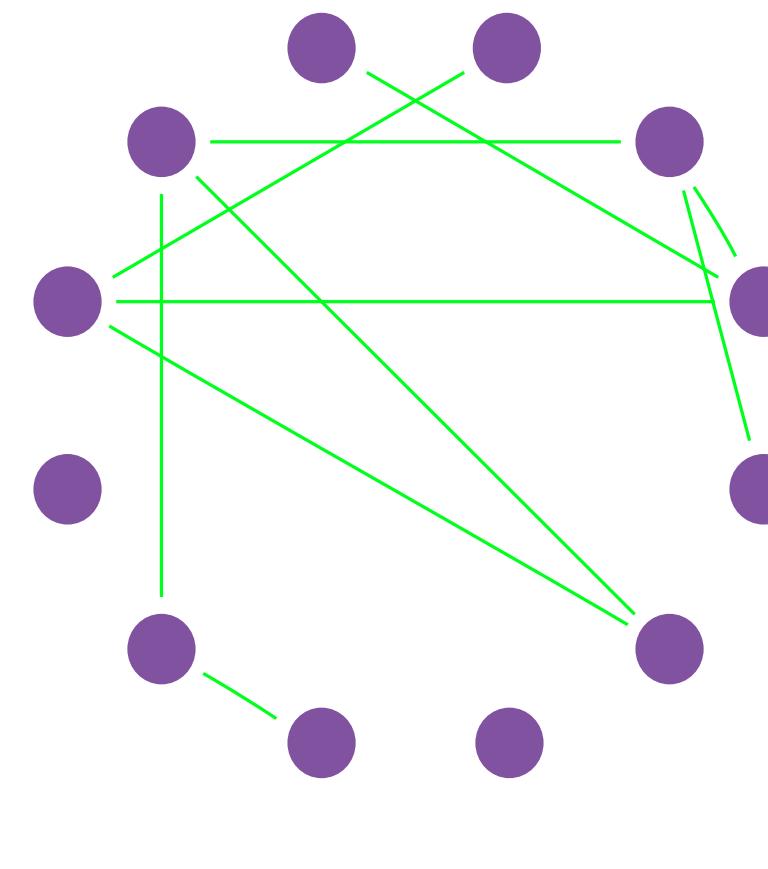


Network theory: models

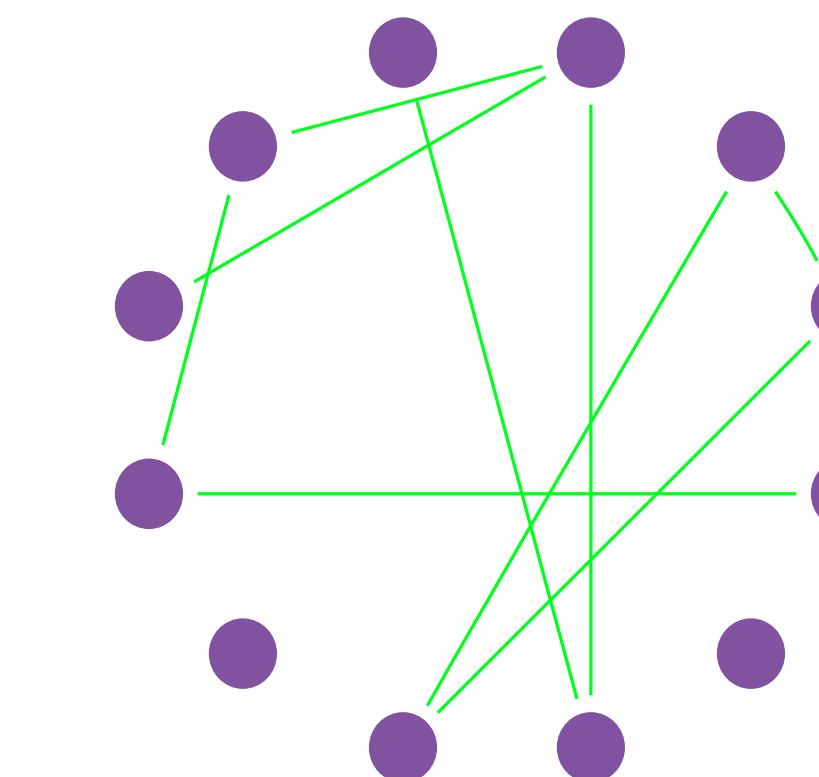
Erdős-Renyi random model

$G(N, L)$ Model

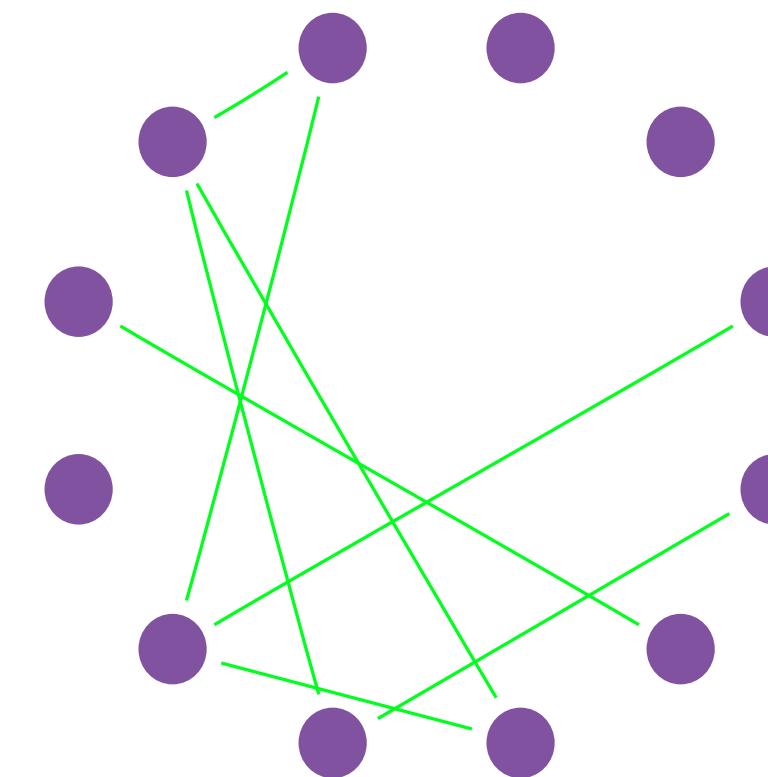
N labeled nodes are connected with L randomly placed links. Erdős and Rényi used this definition in their string of papers on random networks [2-9].



$L=8$



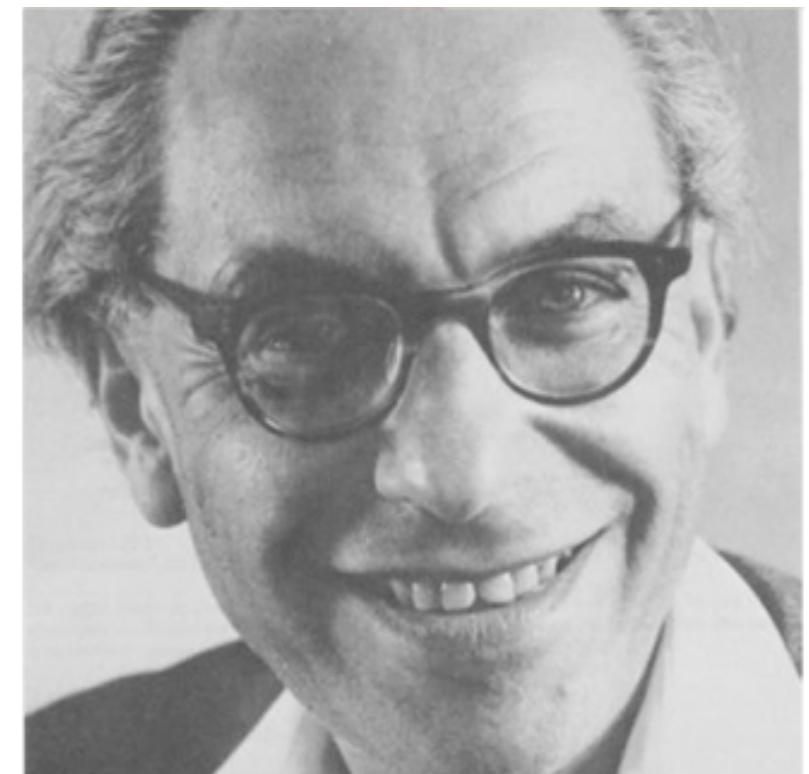
$L=10$



$L=7$

$N = 12$

Pál Erdős
(1913-1996)



Alfréd Rényi
(1921-1970)

Erdős-Rényi model (1960)

Erdős-Renyi random model

Probability to have exactly L links in a network of N nodes and probability p of placing a link:

$$P(L) = \binom{\binom{N}{2}}{L} p^L (1-p)^{\frac{N(N-1)}{2} - L}$$

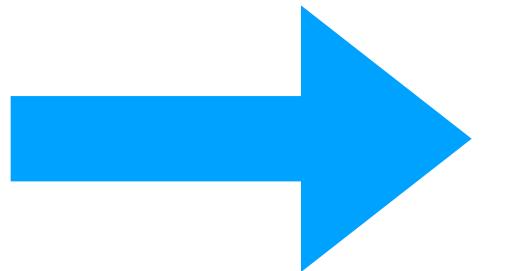
- ▶ Probability that we have L links with L successful attempts: p^L
- ▶ Probability that the remaining attempts didn't create a link: $(1-p)^{\frac{N(N-1)}{2} - L}$
- ▶ The binomial coefficient counting the number of different ways we can place L links among N nodes

Degree distribution

$$P(L) = \binom{\binom{N}{2}}{L} p^L (1-p)^{\frac{N(N-1)}{2} - L}$$

$$\langle L \rangle = p \frac{N(N-1)}{2}$$

$$\langle k \rangle = p(N-1)$$



We are constraining the average degree!
So if we want SPARSENESS, we need small p

Degree distribution

$$p(k) = \binom{N-1}{k} p^k (1-p)^{(N-1)-k}$$

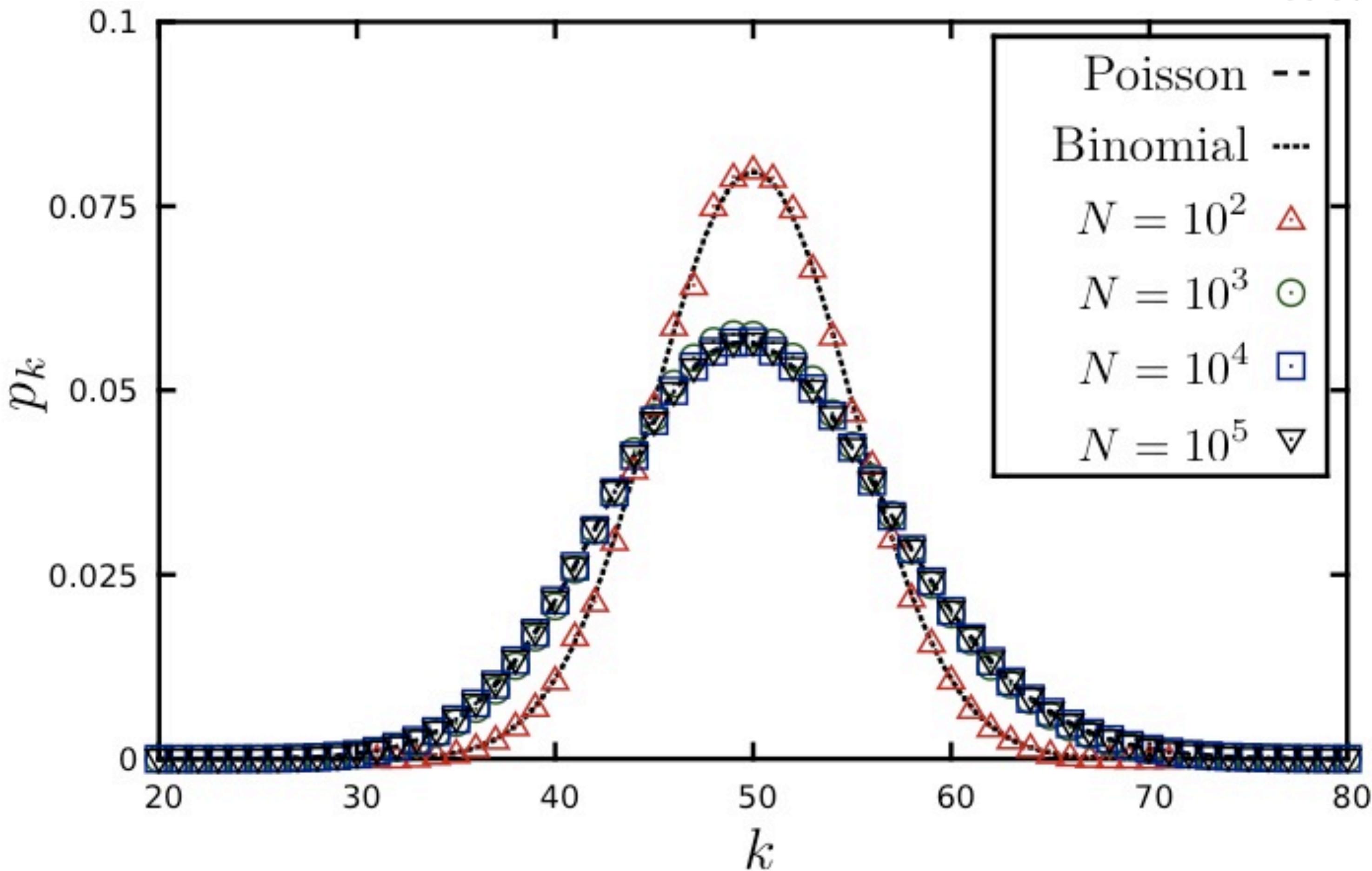
- ▶ Probability that we have degree k with k successful attempts: p^k
- ▶ Probability that the remaining attempts didn't create a link: $(1-p)^{N-1-k}$
- ▶ The binomial coefficient counting the number of different ways we can place k links among the $N-1$ nodes

Degree distribution

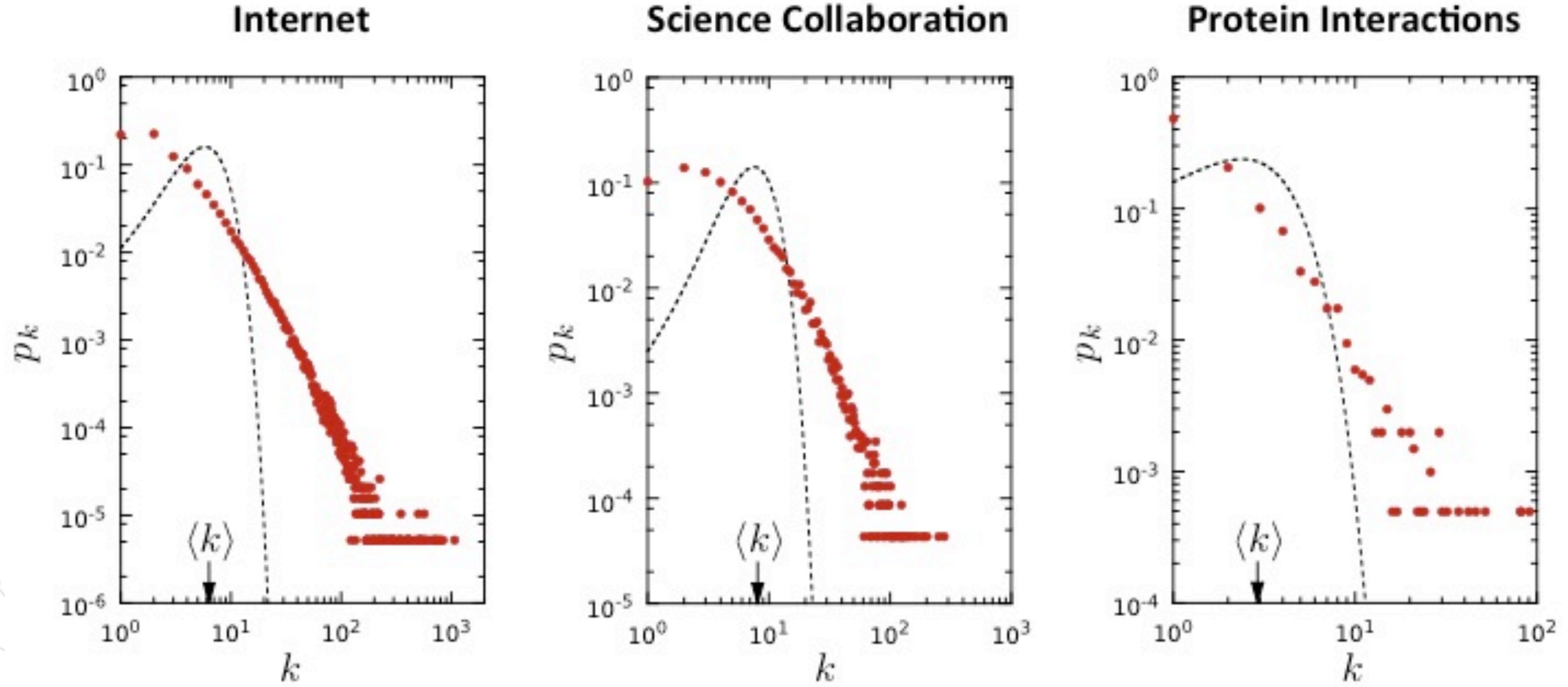
$$p(k) = \binom{N-1}{k} p^k (1-p)^{(N-1)-k}$$

For large N , and $\langle k \rangle \ll N$

$$p(k) = e^{-\langle k \rangle} \frac{\langle k \rangle^k}{k!}$$



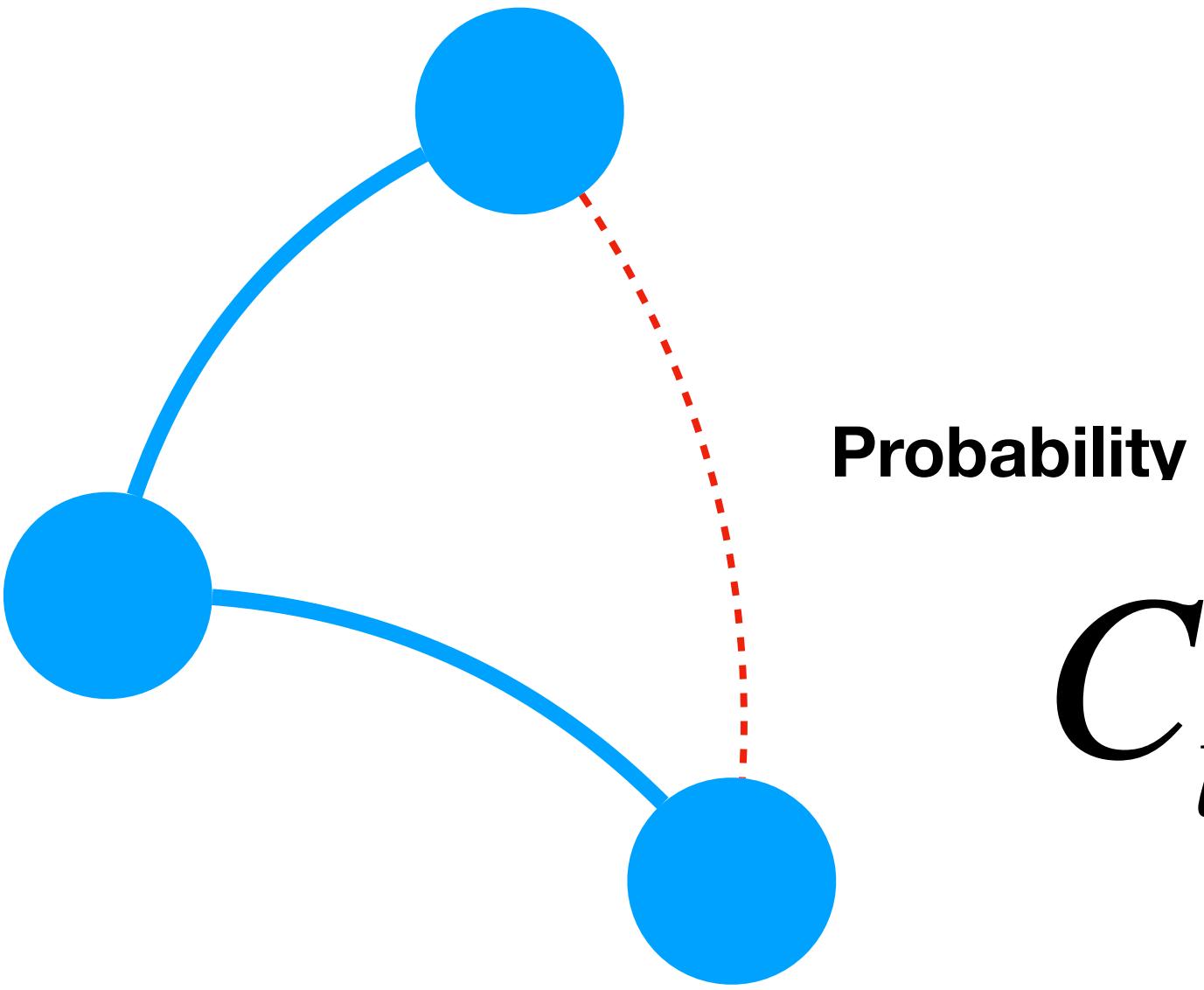
Degree distribution



Clustering

What about clustering?

$$C_i = \frac{2L_i}{k_i(k_i - 1)}$$



Probability

$$C_i = p$$

We CAN constrain the clustering (but uniform)!

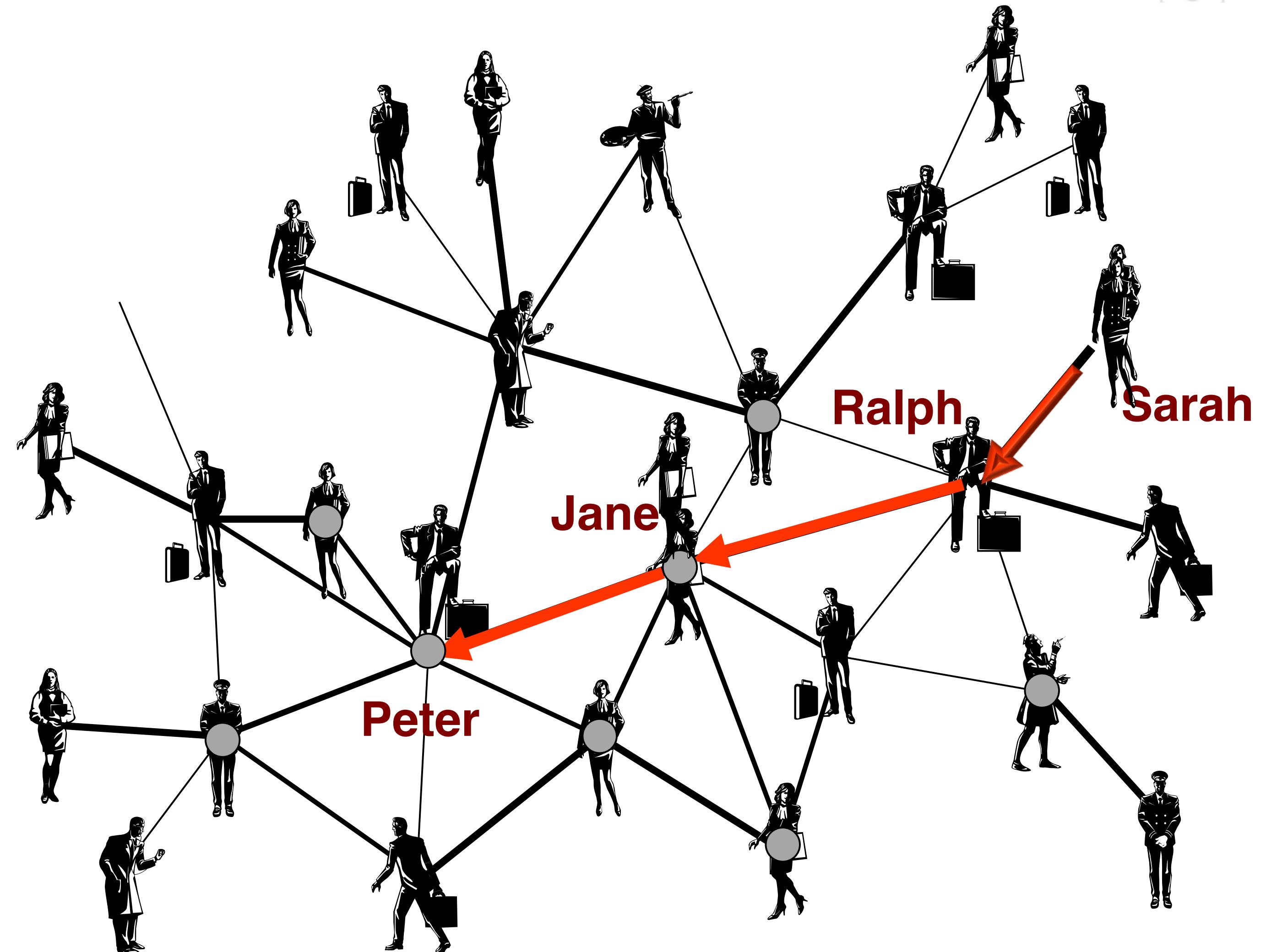
So if we want high clustering, we need large p!

We are constraining the average degree!

So if we want SPARSENESS, we need small p

Distances

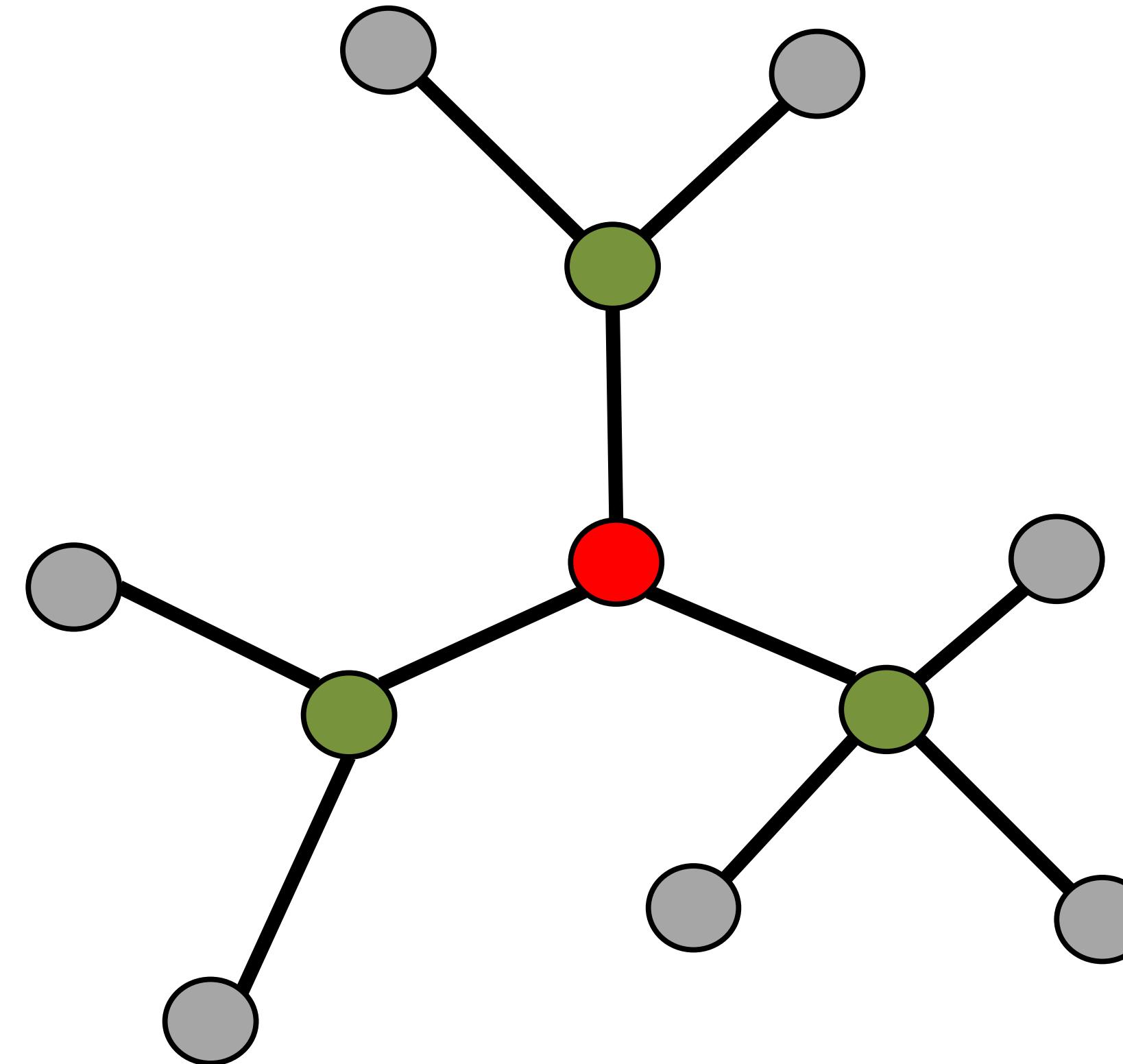
What about distances?



Frigyes Karinthy, 1929
Stanley Milgram, 1967

Distances

Let's try an easy case



$\langle k \rangle$ nodes at distance $d=1$

$\langle k \rangle^2$ nodes at distance $d=2$

$\langle k \rangle^3$ nodes at distance $d=3$

...

$$1 + \langle k \rangle + \langle k \rangle^2 + \langle k \rangle^3 + \dots + \langle k \rangle^{d_{max}} = N$$

$$\frac{\langle k \rangle^{d_{max}+1} - 1}{\langle k \rangle - 1} = N \rightarrow d_{max} \simeq \frac{\log N}{\log \langle k \rangle}$$

Wrong! This is actually closer to the average distance!

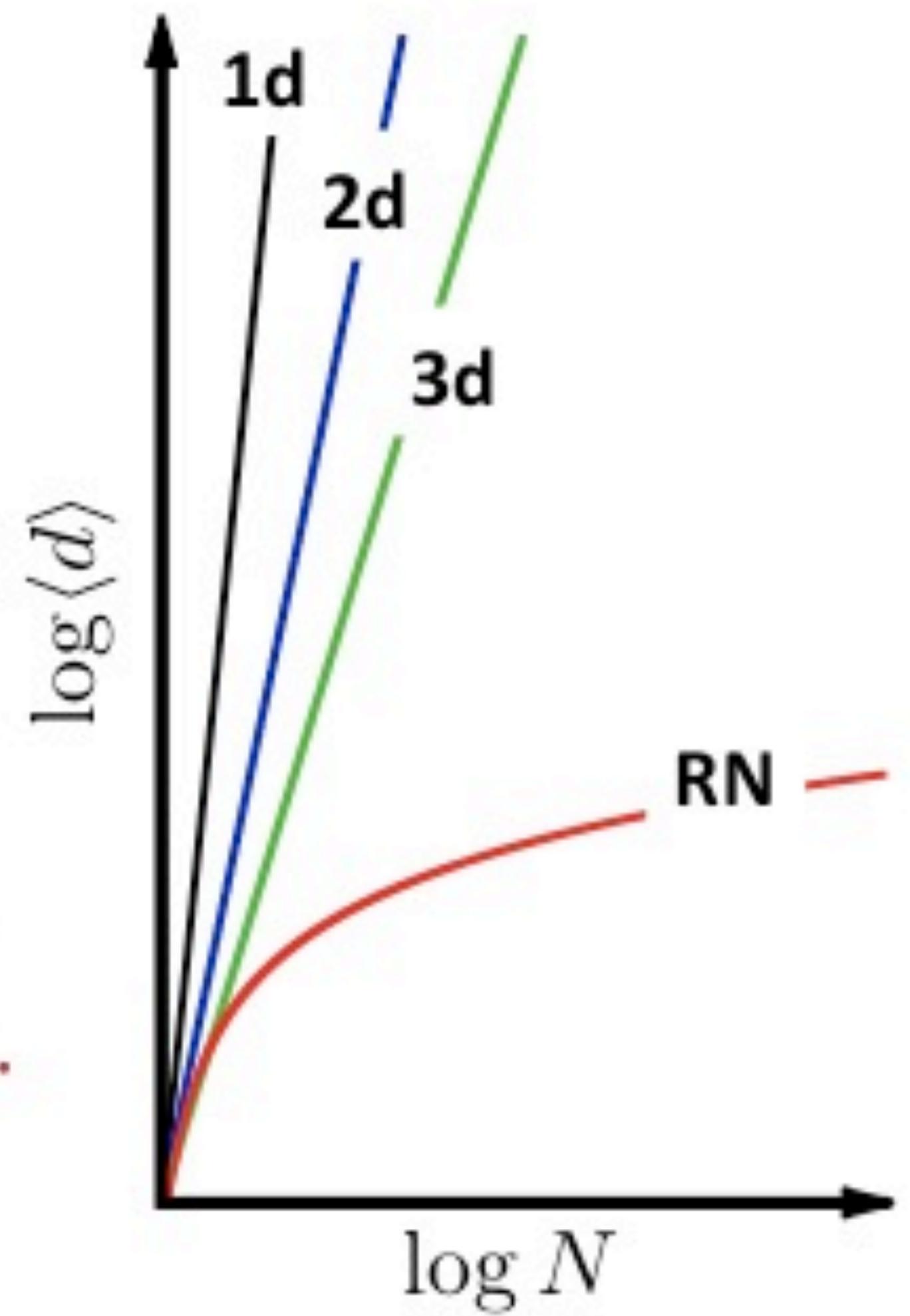
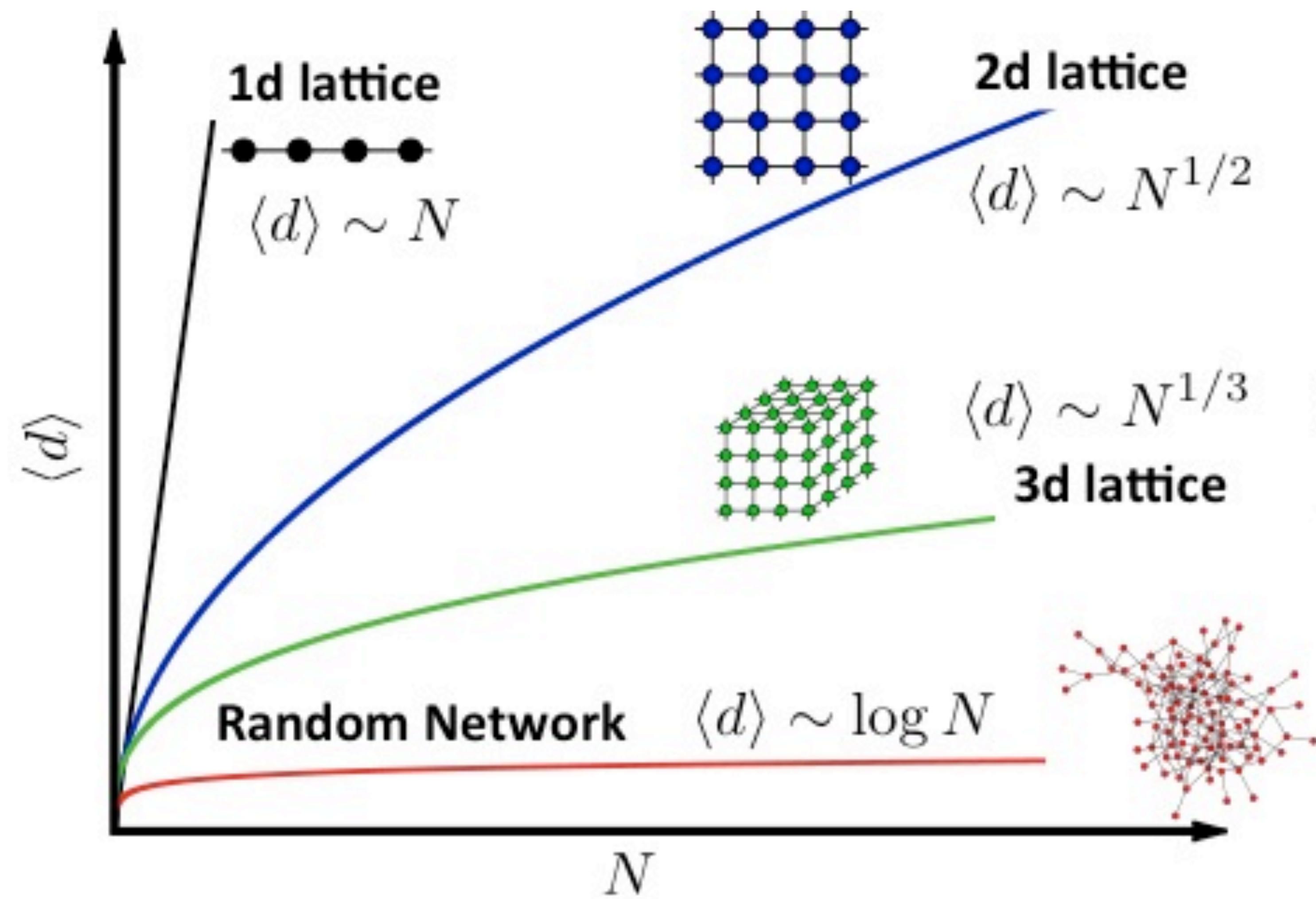
$$\langle d \rangle \simeq \frac{\log N}{\log \langle k \rangle}$$

Erdős-Renyi random model

List of main results:

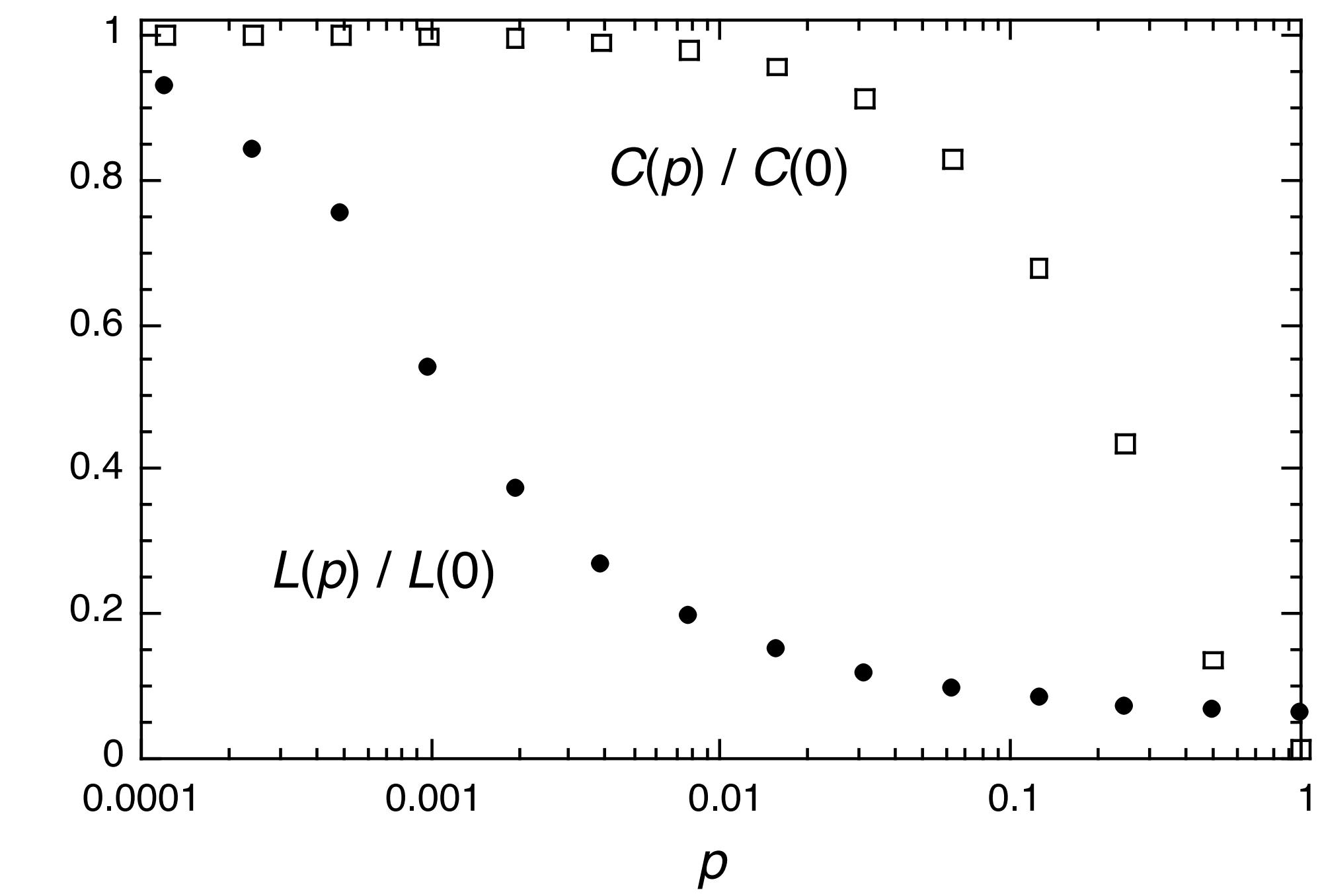
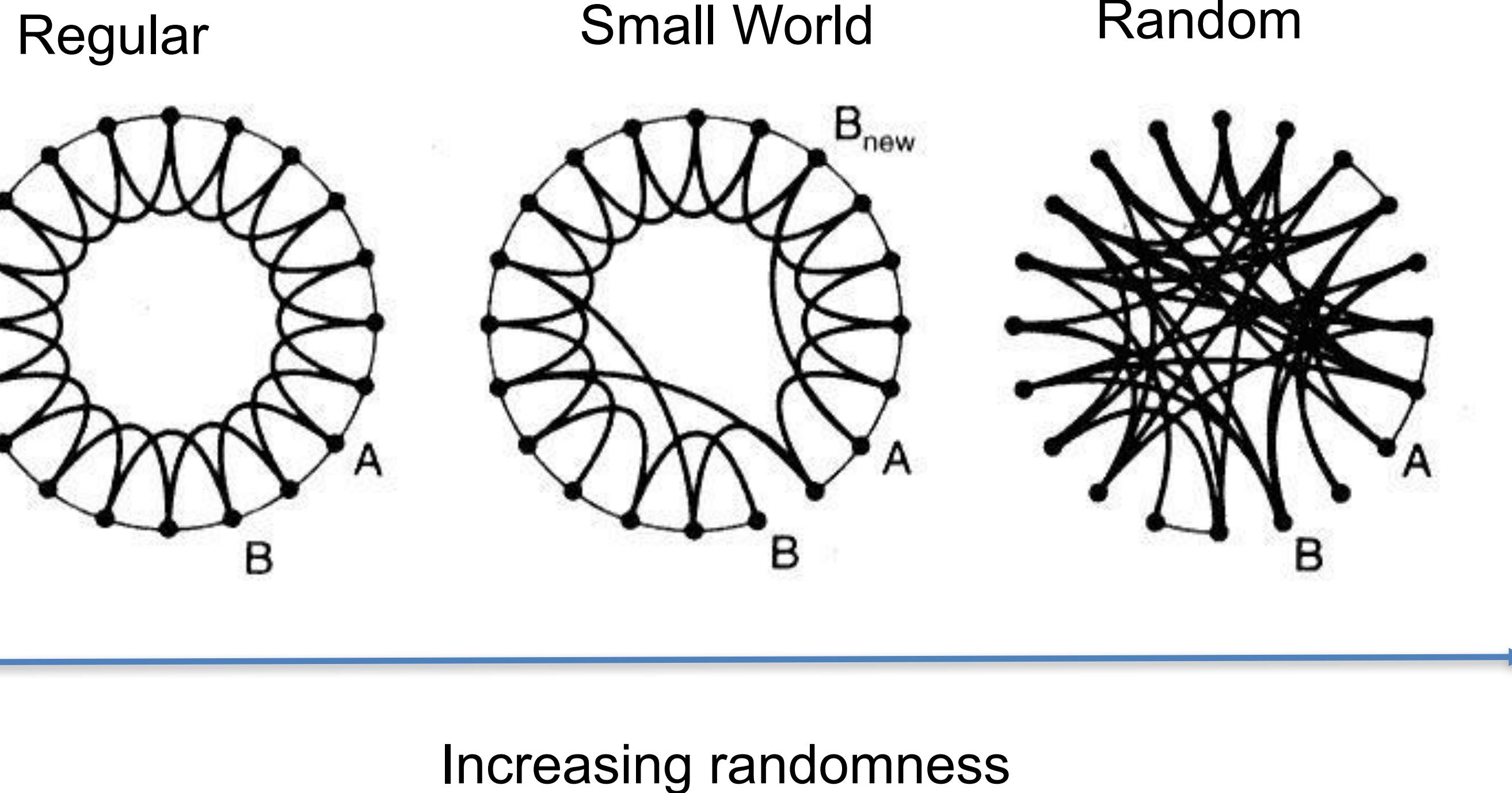
- ▶ We can reproduce sparseness using N and p
- ▶ Degree distribution is Poissonian and not power-law/broad
- ▶ We can reproduce high-clustering but not low density, or viceversa
- ▶ Small world property emerges naturally

Distances

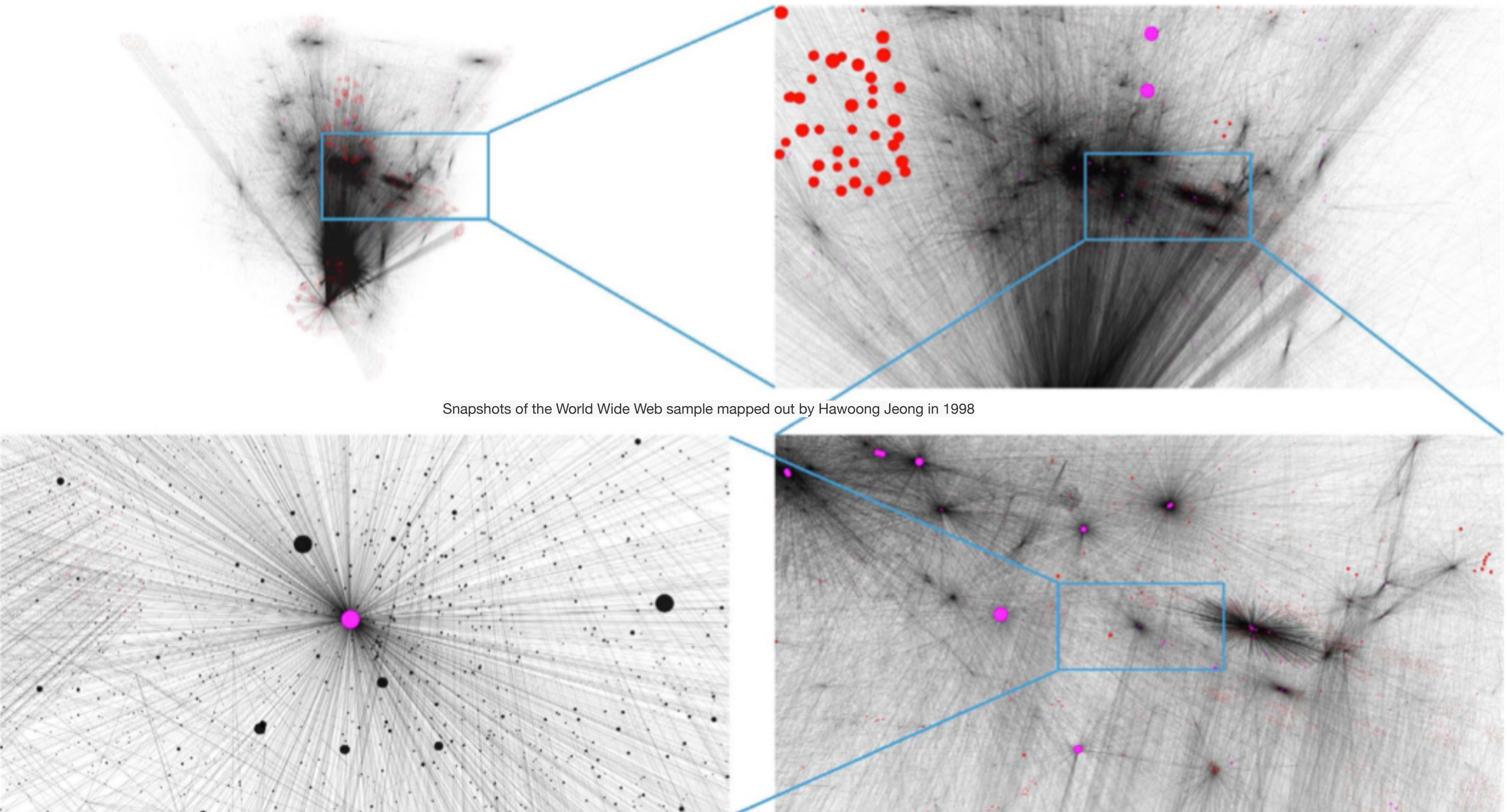


Watts-Strogatz random model

Can we reconcile small world and high clustering in a single model? Yes



The meaning of scale-free



The meaning of scale-free

A **scale-free network** is a network whose degree distribution follows **a power law**.

Discrete formalism

$$p_k = Ck^{-\gamma}$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} p_k = 1$$

$$C \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k^{-\gamma} = 1 \quad C = \frac{1}{\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k^{-\gamma}} = \frac{1}{\zeta(\gamma)}$$

$$p_k = \frac{k^{-\gamma}}{\zeta(\gamma)}$$

Continuous formalism

$$p(k) = Ck^{-\gamma}$$

$$\int_{k_{min}}^{\infty} p(k) dk = 1$$

$$C = \frac{1}{\int_{k_{min}}^{\infty} p(k) dk} = (\gamma - 1)k_{min}^{\gamma-1}$$

$$p(k) = (\gamma - 1)k_{min}^{\gamma-1}k^{-\gamma}$$

Scale-free networks

- ▶ Real world networks can be very large but they are finite.
- ▶ It exists a **maximum degree** in each finite network.

$$\int_{k_{max}}^{\infty} p(k)dk \simeq \frac{1}{N}$$

We **assume** there is only one node with degree \max or above.

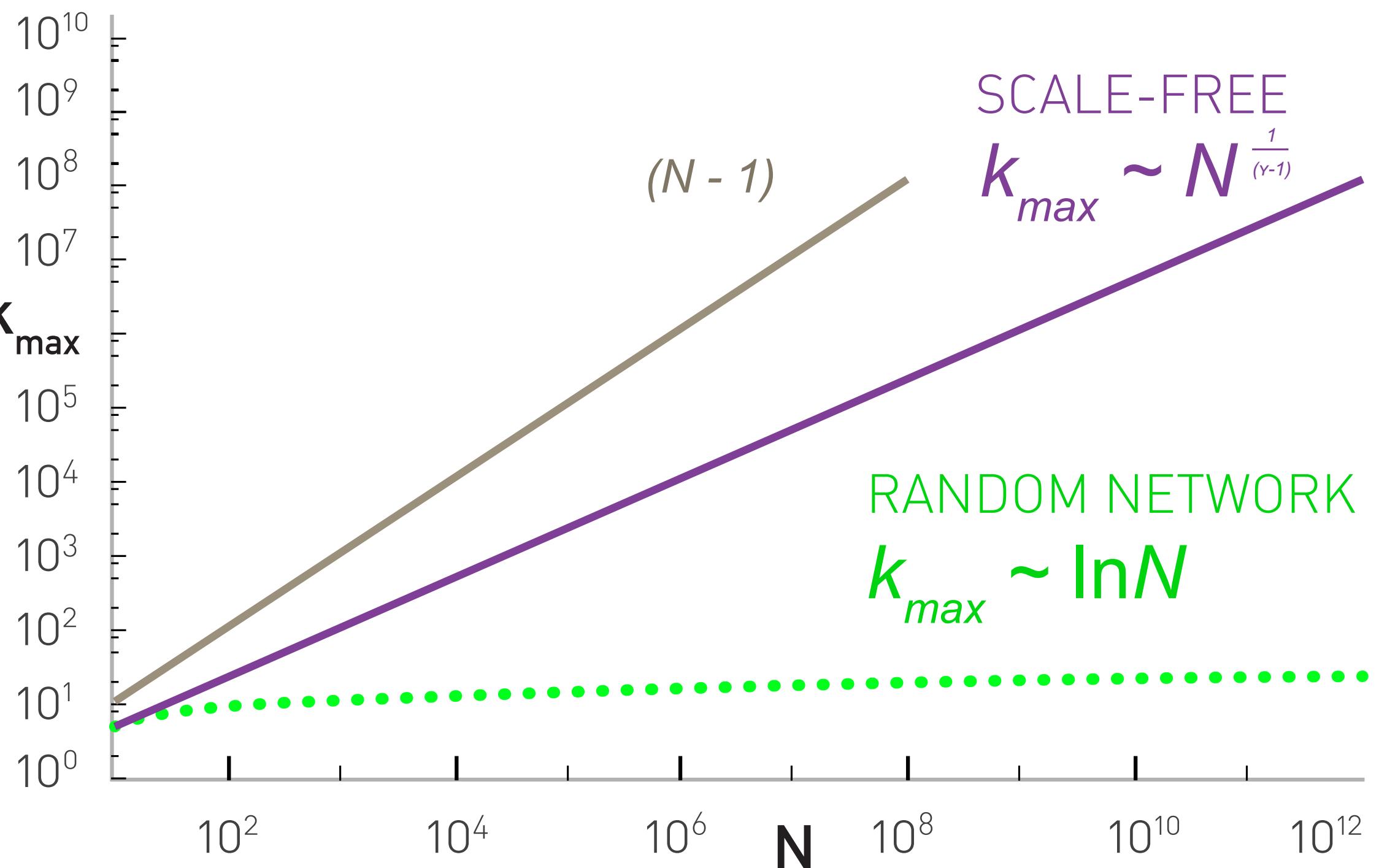
$$\int_{k_{max}}^{\infty} p(k)dk = (\gamma - 1)k_{min}^{\gamma-1} \int_{k_{max}}^{\infty} k^{-\gamma} dk = \frac{\gamma - 1}{-\gamma + 1} k_{min}^{\gamma-1} [k^{-\gamma+1}]_{k_{max}}^{\infty} = \frac{k_{min}^{\gamma-1}}{k_{max}^{\gamma-1}} \simeq \frac{1}{N}$$

$$k_{max} = k_{min} N^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}}$$

Scale-free networks

$$k_{max} = k_{min} N^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}}$$

- ▶ k_{max} increases with the size of the network ==> bigger system, bigger hub
- ▶ For $\gamma > 2$, k_{max} increases slower than N ==> decreasing fraction of links as N increases.
- ▶ For $\gamma = 2$, $k_{max} \sim N$ ==> The size of the biggest hub is $O(N)$
- ▶ For $\gamma < 2$ k_{max} increases faster than N : condensation phenomena ==> the largest hub will grab an increasing fraction of links.



More divergences

$$\langle k^m \rangle = \int_{k_{min}}^{\infty} k^m p(k) dk \quad p(k) = (\gamma - 1) k_{min}^{\gamma-1} k^{-\gamma}$$

$$\langle k^m \rangle = (\gamma - 1) k_{min}^{\gamma-1} \int_{k_{min}}^{\infty} k^{m-\gamma} dk = \frac{\gamma - 1}{m - \gamma + 1} k_{min}^{\gamma-1} [k^{m-\gamma+1}]_{k_{min}}^{\infty}$$

if $m - \gamma + 1 < 0$: $\langle k^m \rangle = \frac{\gamma - 1}{m - \gamma + 1} k_{min}^m$

if $m - \gamma + 1 > 0$: $\langle k^m \rangle \rightarrow \infty$

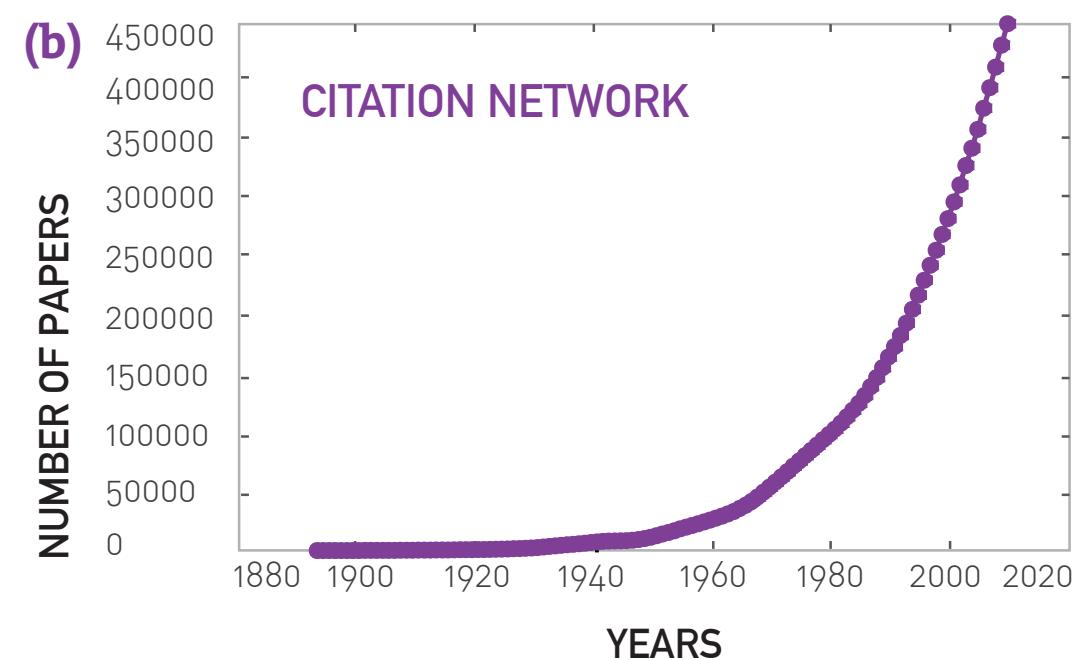
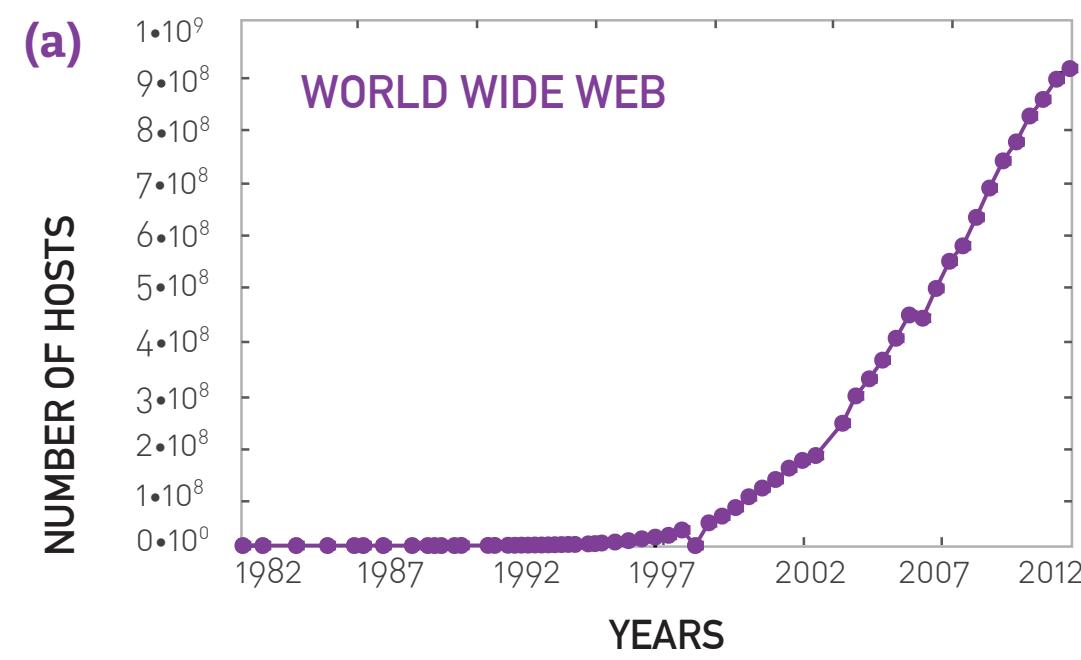
This implies:
For $\gamma < 3$, $\langle k^2 \rangle \rightarrow \infty$

Barabási-Albert model

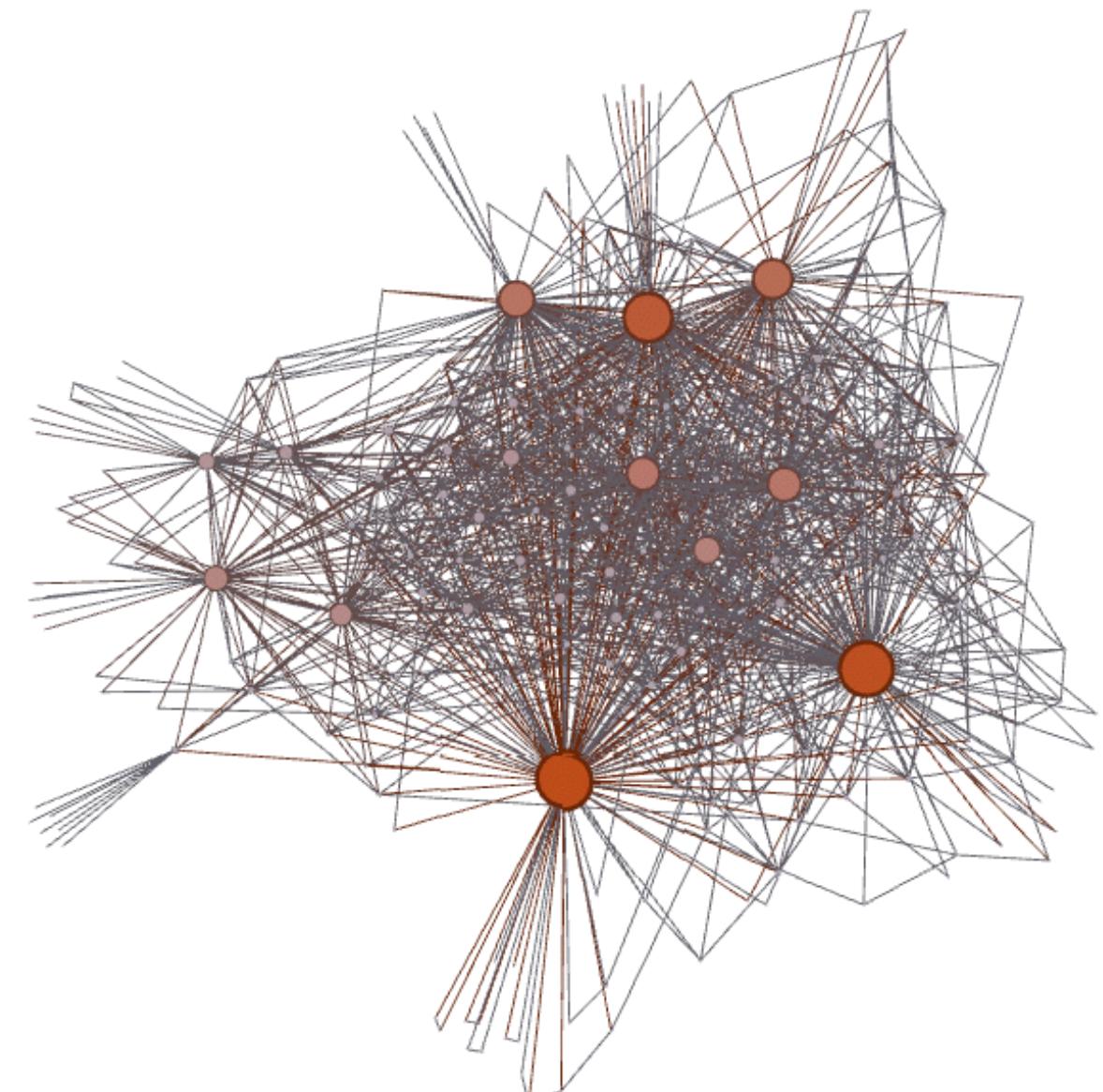
- ▶ In static ensemble models we defined network by constraints.
- ▶ In evolving/growing network, we **define growth rules** and look for asymptotic stationary behaviour

Barabási-Albert model

First ingredient:
Growth/time



Second ingredient:
Not all links are equally likely!



GROWTH:

At each timestep we add a new node with m ($\leq m_0$) links that connect the new node to m nodes already in the network.

PREFERENTIAL ATTACHMENT:

the probability that a node connects to a node with k links is proportional to k .

$$\Pi(k_i) = \frac{k_i}{\sum_j k_j}$$

BA degree dynamics

$$\frac{dk_i}{dt} = m\Pi(k_i) = m \frac{k_i}{\sum_{j=1}^{N-1} k_j}$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{N-1} k_j = 2mt - m \stackrel{t \gg 1}{\sim} 2mt$$

$$\frac{\partial k_i}{k_i} = \frac{\partial t}{2t}$$

$$\int_m^k \frac{\partial k_1}{k_i} = \int_{t_i}^t \frac{\partial t}{2t}$$

$$\ln\left(\frac{k}{m}\right) = \frac{1}{2} \ln\left(\frac{t}{t_i}\right)$$

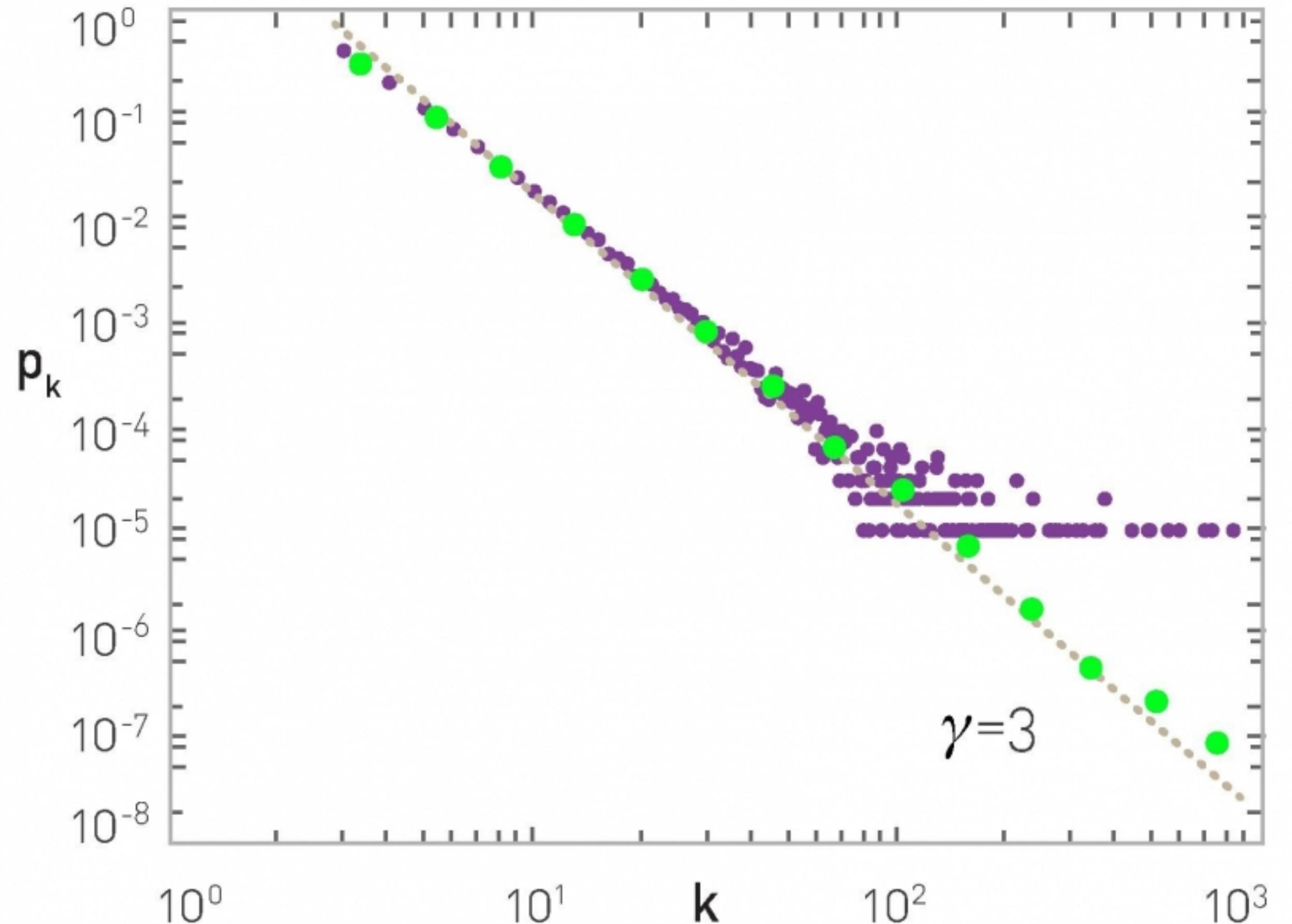
$$k_i(t) = m \left(\frac{t}{t_i} \right)^\beta \quad \beta = \frac{1}{2}$$

First mover advantage!

BA degree distribution

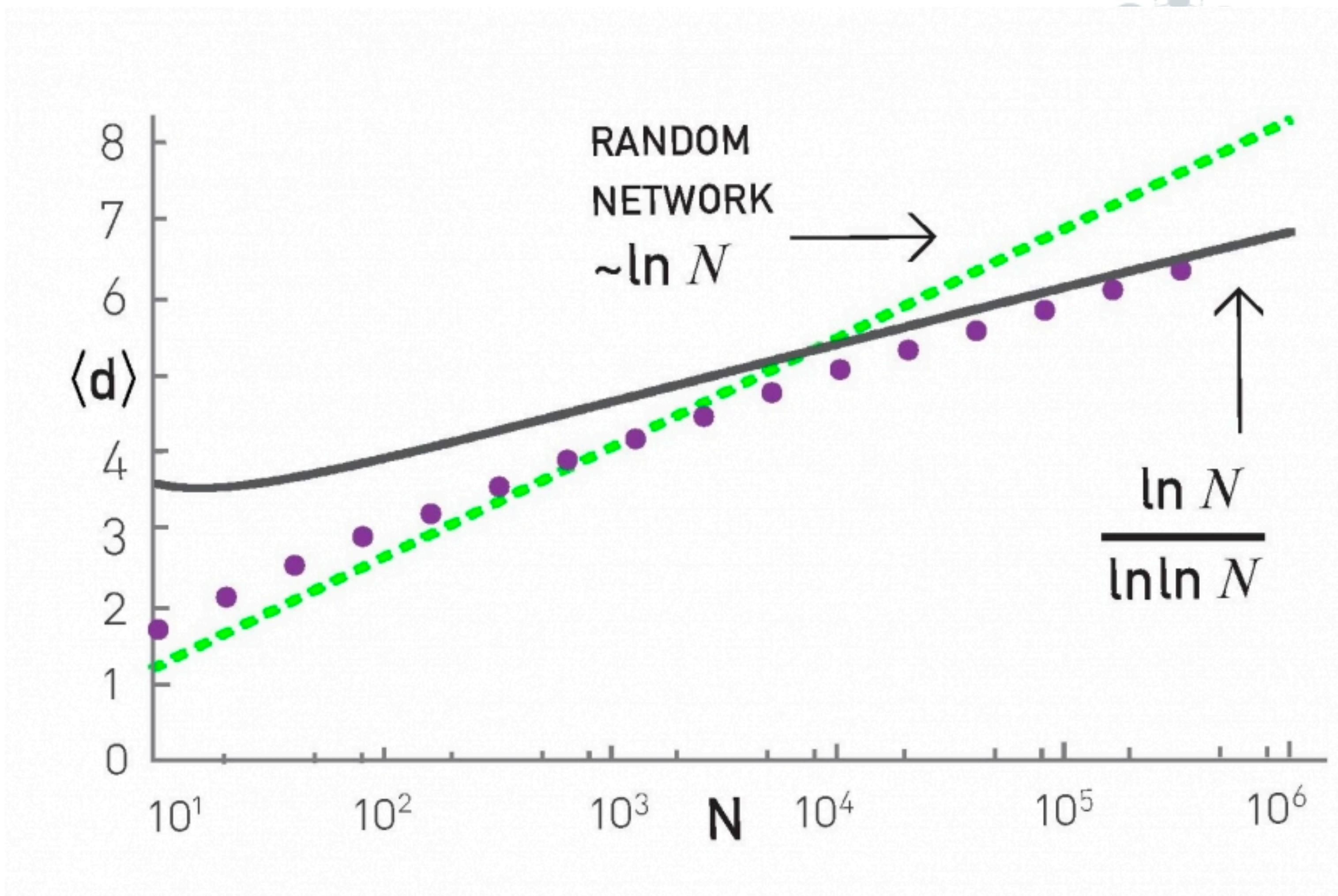
$$P(k) = \frac{2m(2m+1)}{k(k+1)(k+2)} \sim k^{-3}$$

Power-law degree distribution with
fixed decay exponent: -3



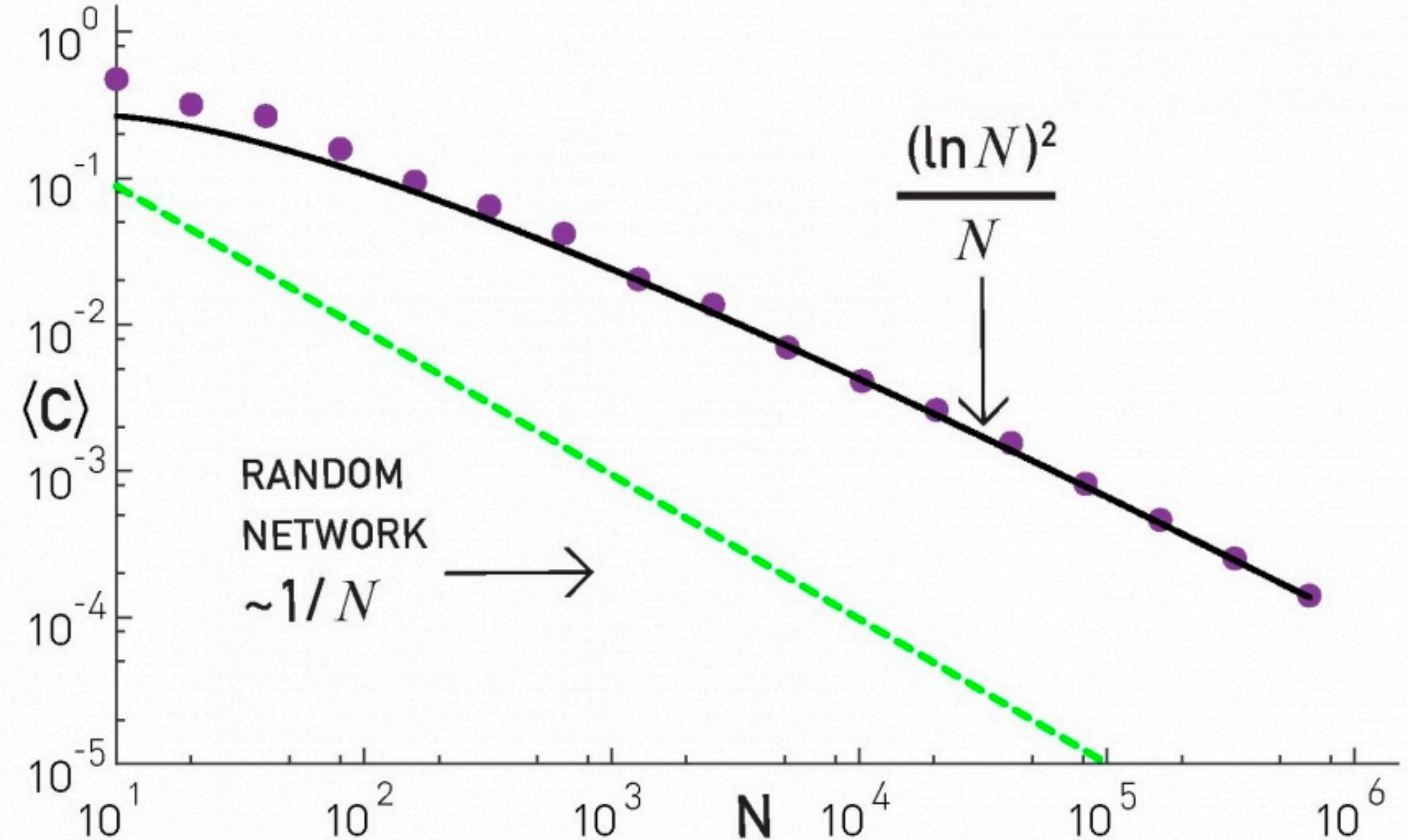
BA diameter

$$\langle d \rangle \sim \frac{\ln N}{\ln(\ln N)}$$



BA clustering

$$\langle C \rangle \simeq \frac{m}{4} \frac{(\ln N)^2}{N}$$



Barabási-Albert summary

- ▶ Power law with fixed exponent, equal to -3
- ▶ Ultrasmall world
- ▶ Undirected
- ▶ Vanishing clustering
- ▶ Does not capture:
 - ▶ variations in the shape of the degree distribution
 - ▶ variations in the degree exponent
 - ▶ size-independent clustering coefficient

Number of Nodes

$$N = t$$

Number of Links

$$N = mt$$

Average Degree

$$\langle k \rangle = 2m$$

Degree Dynamics

$$k_i(t) = m (t/t_i)^\beta$$

Dynamical Exponent

$$\beta = 1/2$$

Degree Distribution

$$p_k \sim k^\gamma$$

Degree Exponent

$$\gamma = 3$$

Average Distance

$$\langle d \rangle \sim \log N / \log \log N$$

Clustering Coefficient

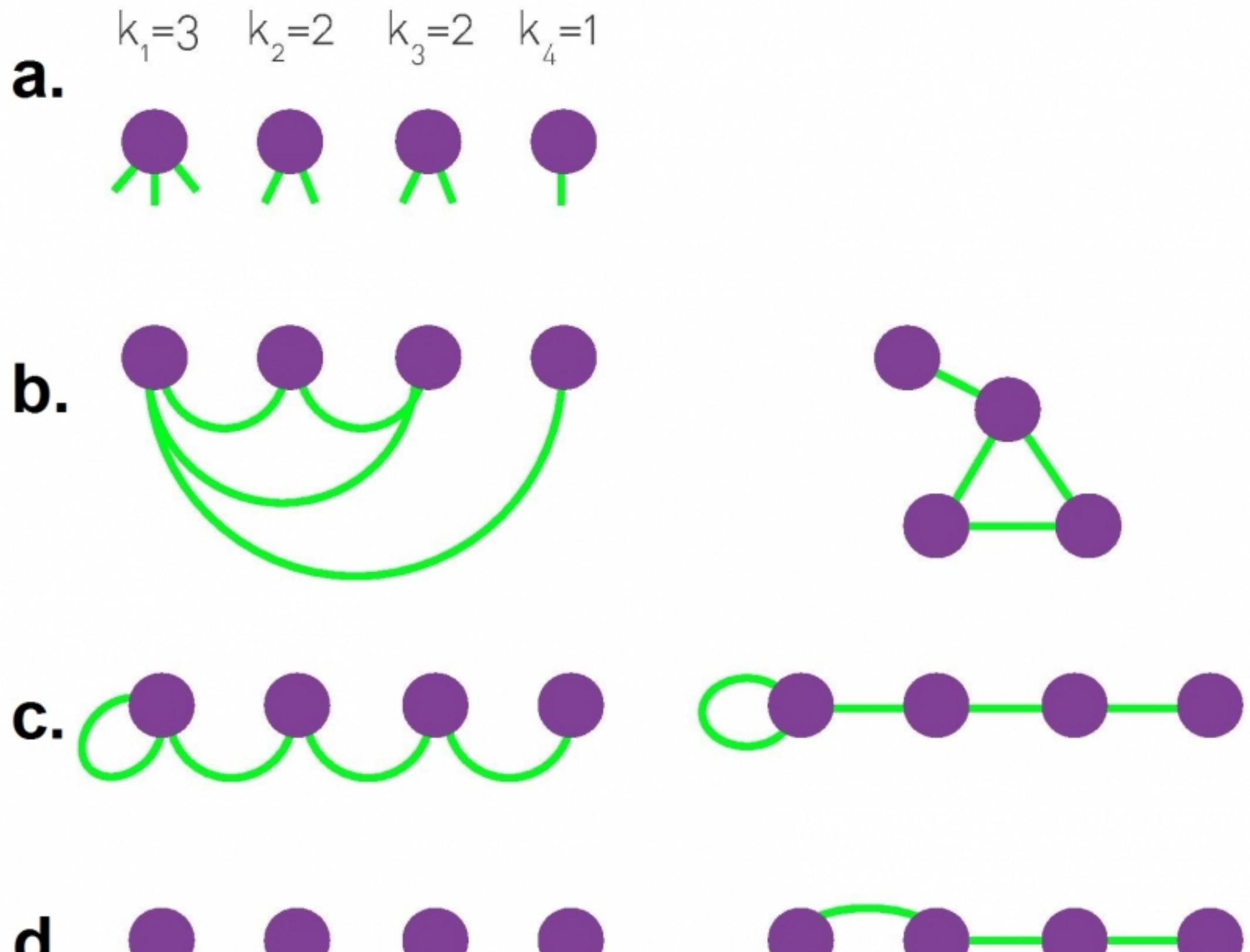
$$\langle C \rangle \sim (\ln N)^2 / N$$

Configuration model

- ▶ Can we constrain a random model of a static network to be scale-free?
- ▶ We can do it by **fixing the degree sequence** and then wire nodes together preserving the degree of each node

Configuration model

1. Given a degree sequence $k = \{k_1, k_2, k_3, \dots, k_n\}$
2. Assign to each node k_i stubs
3. Select random pairs of unmatched stubs and connect them
4. Repeat 3 while there are unmatched stubs



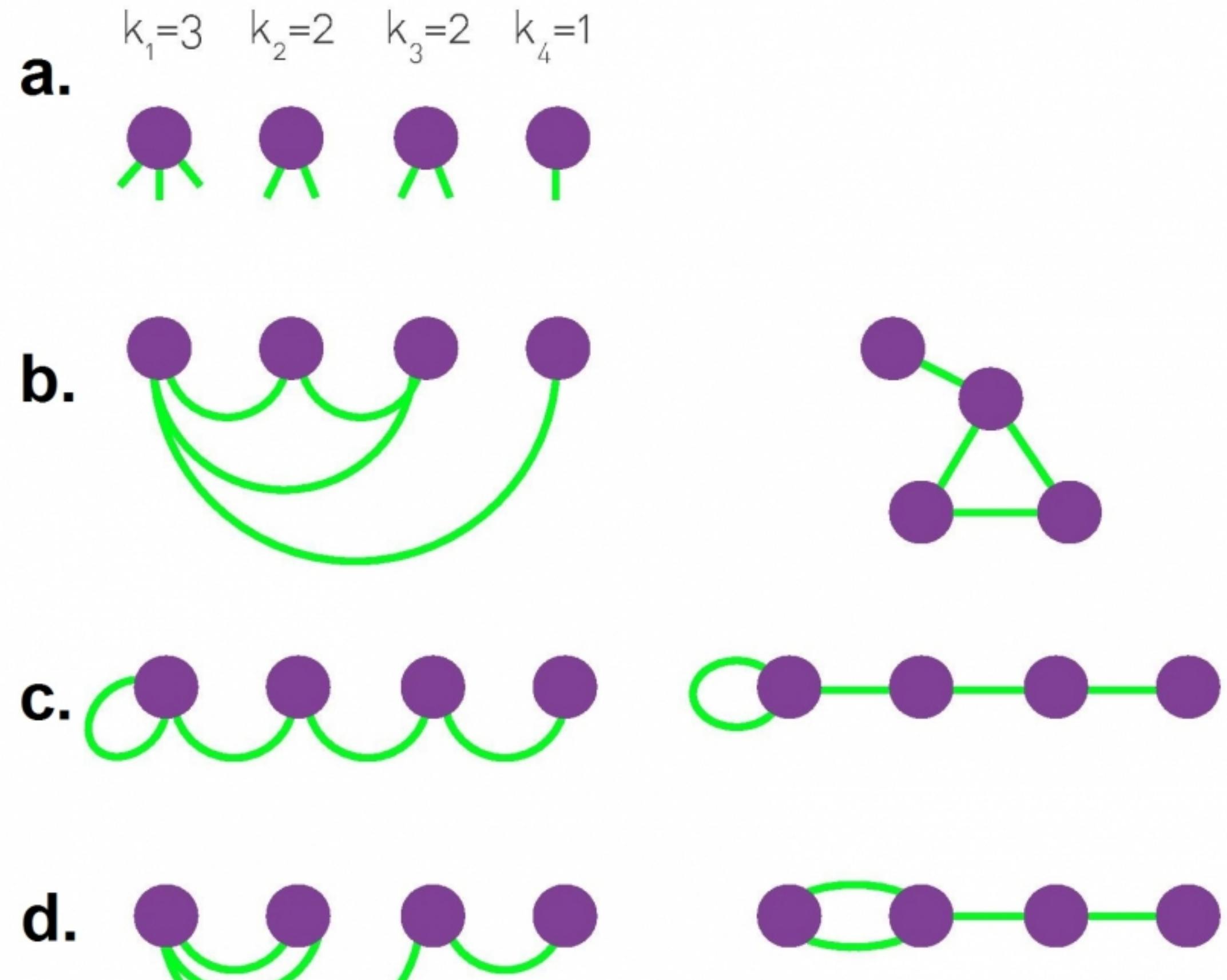
Configuration model

- ▶ The probability of having a link between two nodes of degree k_i and k_j is

$$p_{ij} = \frac{k_i k_j}{2L - 1}$$

- ▶ Often, this quantity is approximated as

$$p_{ij} = \frac{k_i k_j}{2L}$$



Correlations

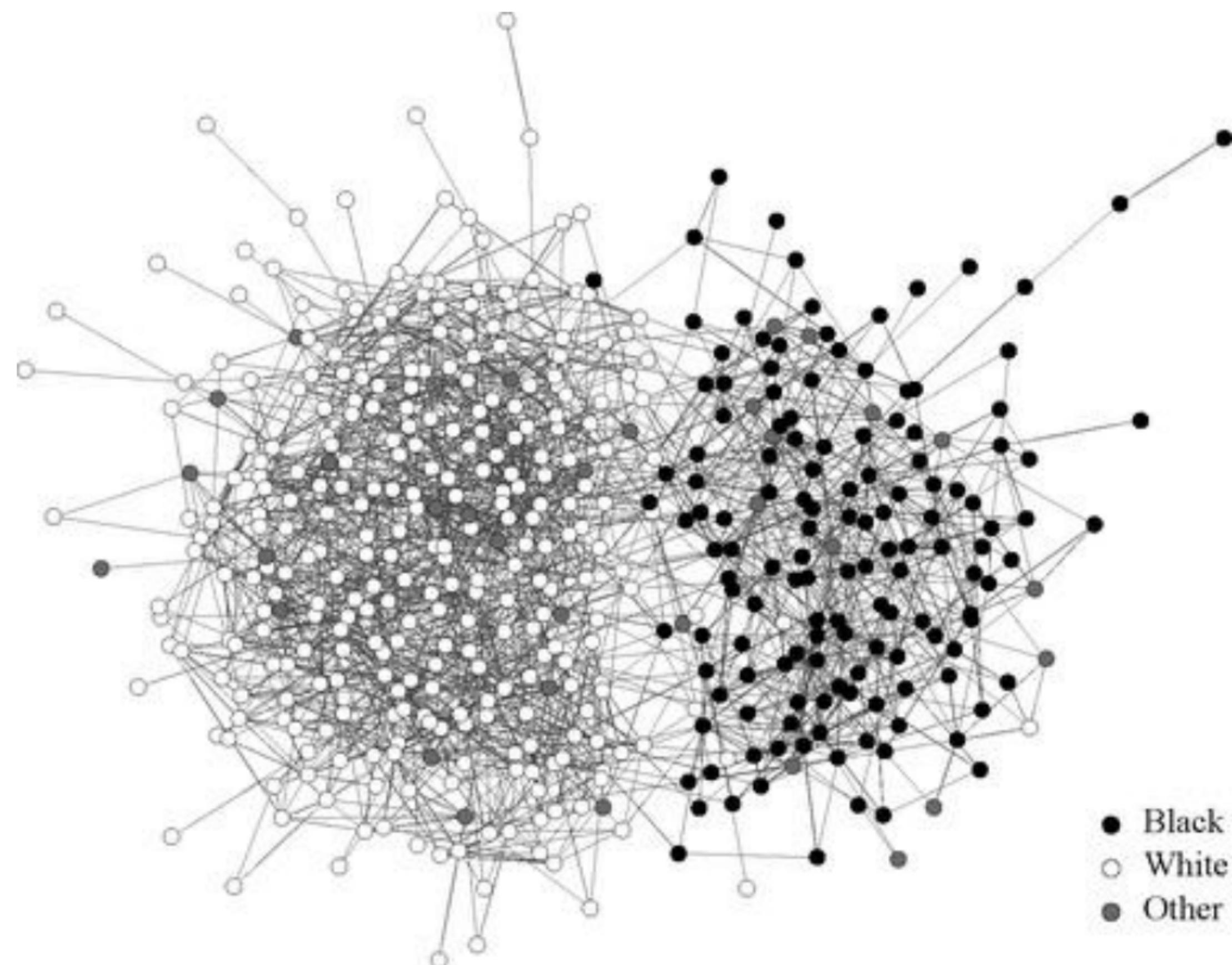
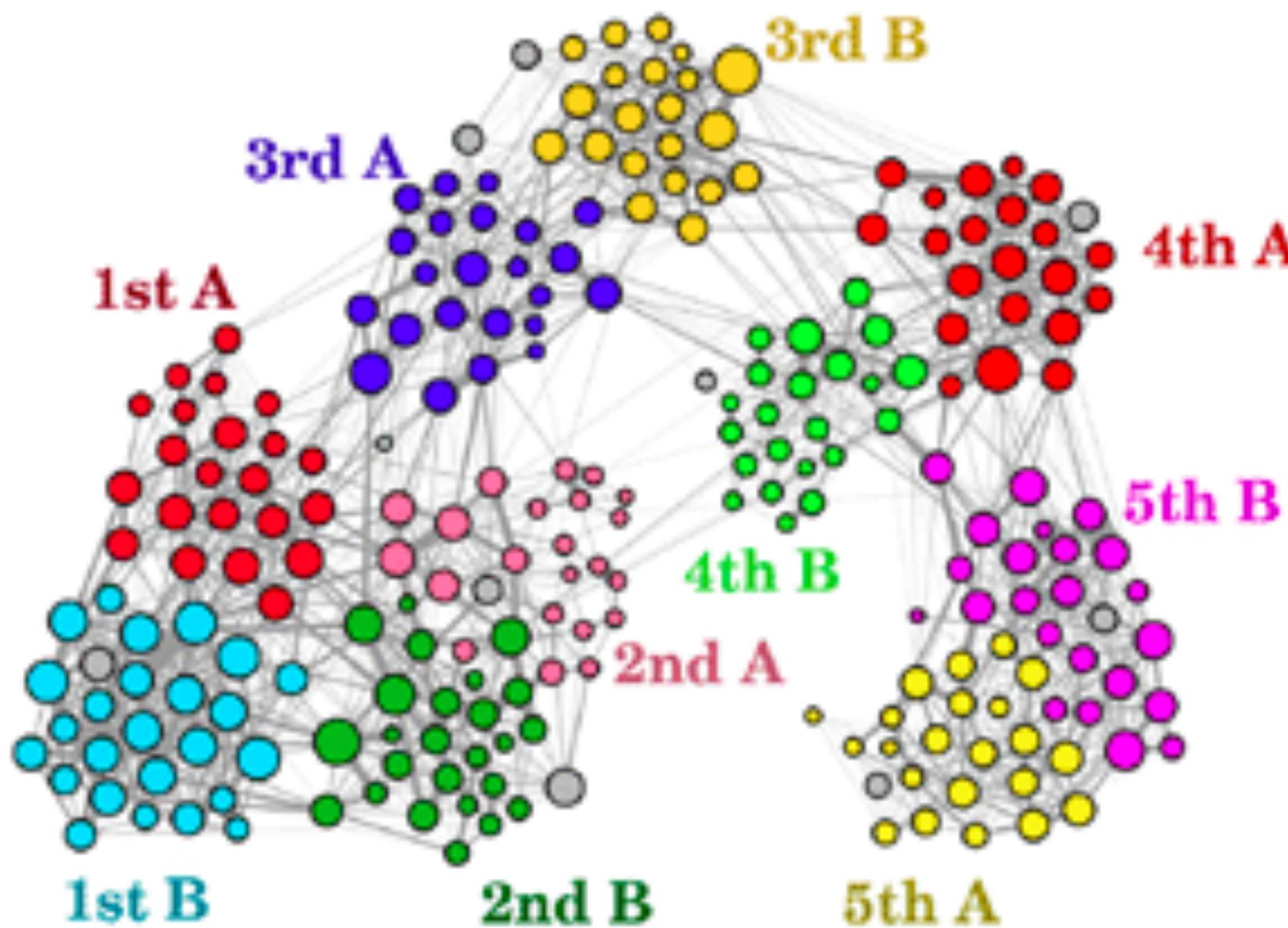


Figure 7.10: Friendship network at a US high school. The vertices in this network represent 470 students at a US high school (ages 14 to 18 years). The vertices are color coded by race as indicated in the key. Data from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health [34, 314].

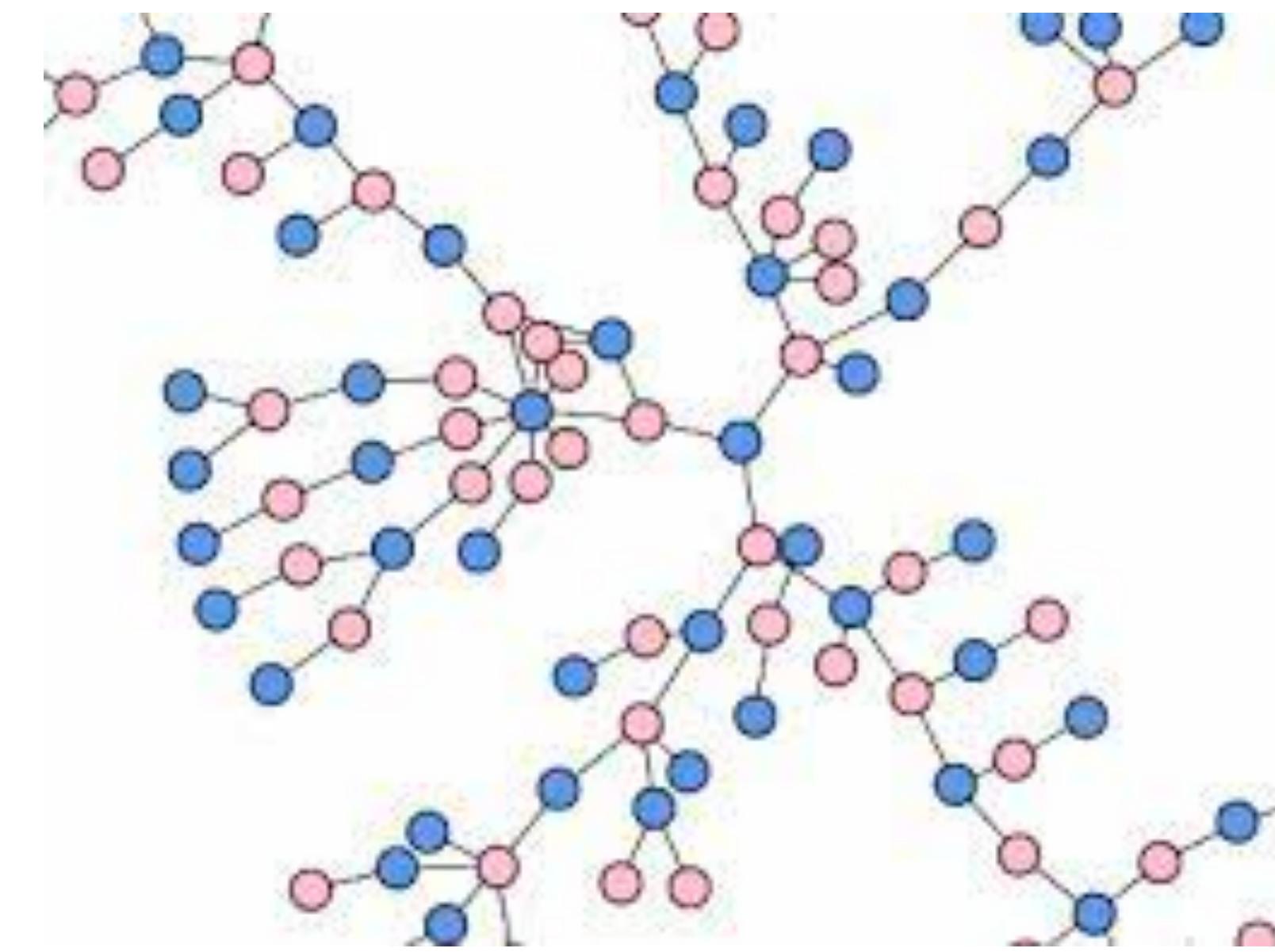
Correlations

Homophily: This is not news to sociologists, who have long observed and discussed such divisions.

Assortative: like is associated with like



Disassortative: like is associated with not-like

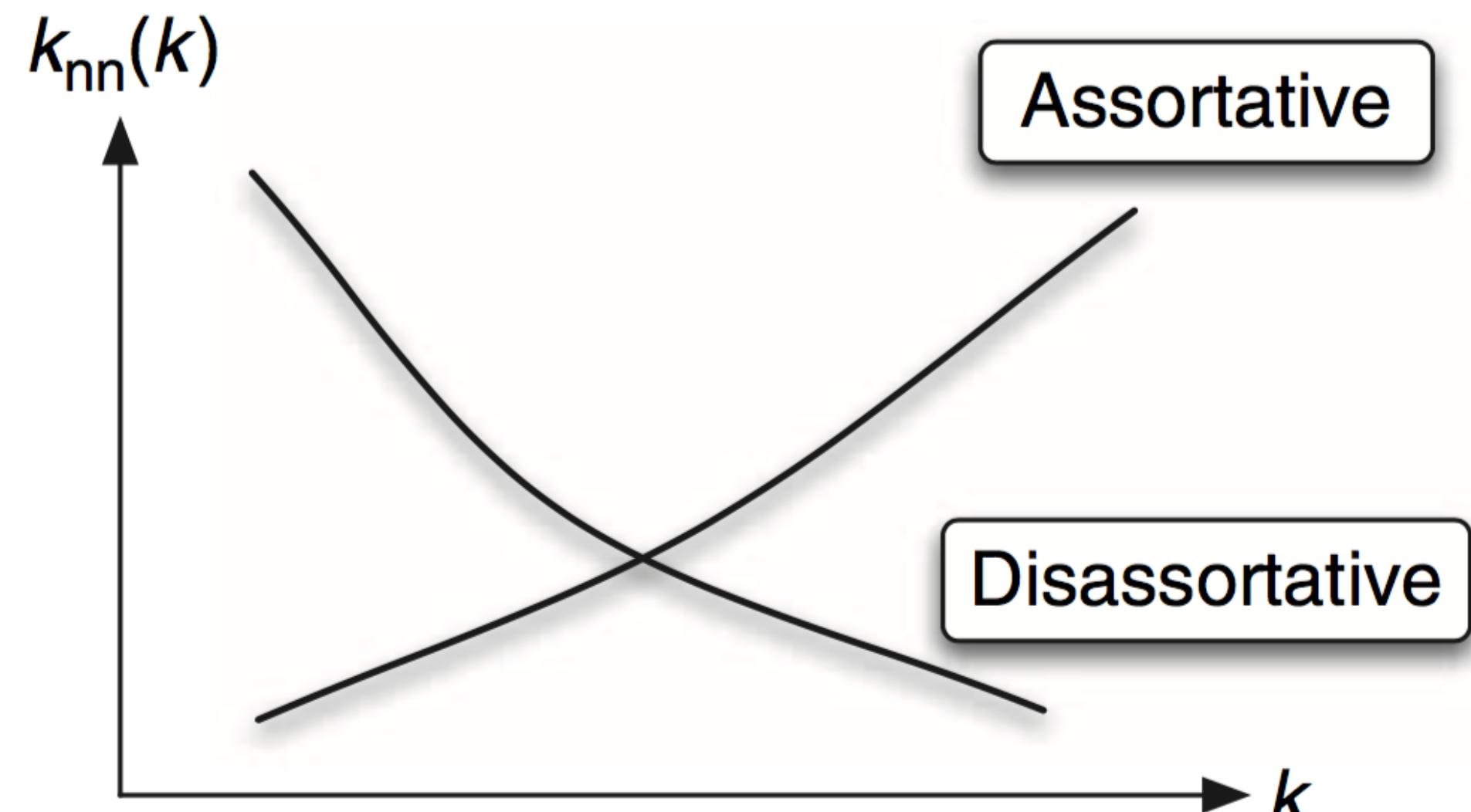


Degree correlations

Average nearest neighbours degree

$$k_{nn,i} = \frac{1}{k_i} \sum_{j \in \nu(i)} k_j$$

$$k_{nn} = \frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{i, k_j = k} k_{nn,i} = \sum_{k'} k' P(k'|k)$$



Random baseline

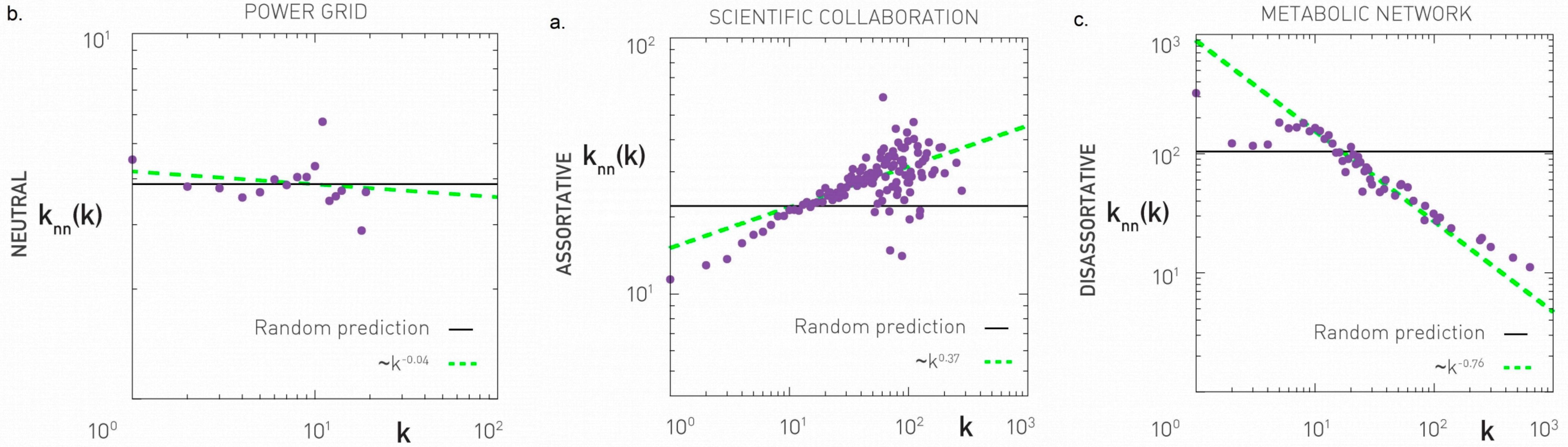
$$k_{nn}^{\text{unc}} = \sum_{k'} k' P^{\text{unc}}(k' | k) = \sum_{k'} k' \frac{k' P(k')}{\langle k \rangle} = \frac{\langle k^2 \rangle}{\langle k \rangle}$$

$$P^{\text{unc}}(k' | k) = \frac{k'}{2L} P(k') N = \frac{k' P(k')}{\langle k \rangle}$$

This observation will be extensively used to simplify analytical calculations when dealing with dynamical processes (SIR, SIS) on networks.

Random baseline

$$k_{nn}^{\text{unc}} = \sum_{k'} k' P^{\text{unc}}(k' | k) = \sum_{k'} k' \frac{k' P(k')}{\langle k \rangle} = \frac{\langle k^2 \rangle}{\langle k \rangle}$$



Next.. Epidemics on networks