

L5, Modeling using networks and other heterogeneities

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July, 2019



Different heterogeneities

In reality individuals behave differently both

- in terms of susceptibility and infectivity given that a "contact" takes place, and
- in terms of whom they have contact with

Previous results assumed individuals have equal susceptibility and infectivity AND that they "mix" uniformly

Question: Does this simplification make results useless?

Qualitative answer: The more infectious a disease is the less "problematic" is this simplification

⇒ ok for measles (except immunity) but not "valid" for STDs





Individual heterogeneities

In several situations individuals can be grouped into different types of individual

Different types may differ in terms of susceptibility + infectivity

Examples: infants – school children – adults, male – females, partially immune (vaccinated) - fully susceptible

Natural extension: Multitype epidemic model

- Let $\pi_i = \text{community fraction of type } j, j = 1, \dots, k$
- Suppose an i-individual infects a given type-i individual at rate β_{ii}/n and recovers at rate $1/\nu$

Exercise 21 How many *j*-individuals does an *i*-individual on average infect when everyone is susceptible?



Multitype epidemics

Answer: $n_j \frac{\beta_{ij}}{n} \nu$ (=numbers at risk * infection rate * average length of infectious period) = $\beta_{ij} \nu \pi_j$

The matrix with these elements defines the expected number of new infections of various types caused by individuals of various types:

$$M = (m_{ij}) = (\beta_{ij} \nu \pi_j)$$

Often referred to as next generation matrix

 R_0 = largest eigenvalue to this matrix (same interpretations as before)

In general no explicit expression, but if $\beta_{ij} = \alpha_i \gamma_j$ ("separable mixing") then $R_0 = \sum_i \alpha_i \gamma_i \nu \pi_i$

Multitype epidemics

Exercise 22 Interpret α_i and γ_j

Exercise 23 Compute R_0 for the case: $\pi_1 = \pi_2 = 0.5$, $\nu = 1$ and $\beta_{11} = 1$, $\beta_{12} = \beta_{21} = 2$ and $\beta_{22} = 4$ which obeys separable mixing assumption. Is the answer surprising?

Household epidemics

Previous heterogeneity mainly for "individual heterogeneities"

Equally (or more!) important: which individuals people have contact with

For many diseases (influenza, childhood disease, common cold) transmission within *households* is high

⇒ Important with models allowing for higher transmission within households

Households are small ⇒ randomness important

More about household epidemic models later in module

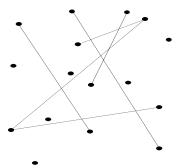




Networks

For other diseases (e.g. STDs) individuals are not connected in small sub-units

Common representation of social structure: network/graph **nodes** (individuals) and **edges** ("friendship")





Random networks

Social structure only partly known: modelled using random graph/network with structure

Some (potentially observed) local structures

- D = # friends of randomly selected individual (degree distribution)
- c = P(two friends of an individual are friends) (clustering)
- $\rho =$ correlation of degrees in a randomly selected friendship (degree correlation)

Other features unobserved \Longrightarrow Random network





Stochastic epidemic model "on" network

Also spreading is uncertain \Longrightarrow stochastic epidemic model "on" the (random) network

Simplest model: an infected person infects each susceptible friend independently with prob p and then recovers (one index case)

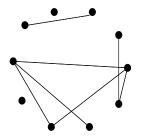
Effect on graph: thinning – each **edge** is removed with prob 1-p

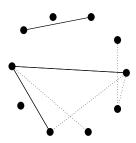
Interpretation: remaining edges reflect "potential spreading"





Graph and its thinned version





Those connected to index case make up final outbreak





Case study: Network epidemic model with arbitrary degree distribution $\{p_k\}$

- Social structure: Individuals have degree distribution $D \sim \{p_k\}$ and "friends" are chosen completely at random
- Epidemic model: each susc. friend is infected with prob p
- 1 randomly selected index case, n-1 susceptibles





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The basic reproduction number

What is the degree distribution of infectives (during early stages)?







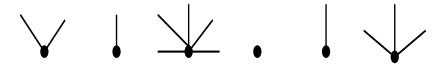






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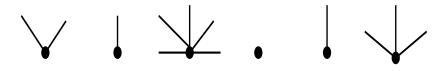


Answer: $\{\tilde{p}_k; k \geq 1\}$, where $\tilde{p}_k = const \cdot kp_k = kp_k/E(D)$



The basic reproduction number

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Answer: $\{\tilde{p}_k; k \geq 1\}$, where $\tilde{p}_k = const \cdot kp_k = kp_k/E(D)$

$$\implies R_0 = p(E(\tilde{D}) - 1) = \cdots = p\left(E(D) + \frac{V(D) - E(D)}{E(D)}\right)$$

Empirical networks have heavy-tailed degree distributions ...





Suppose a fraction v are vaccinated prior to outbreak



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Who are vaccinated?



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Who are vaccinated?

a) Randomly chosen individuals

$$\implies R_v = p(1-v)(E(\tilde{D})-1) = (1-v)R_0$$

 $\implies \text{if } v \ge 1 - 1/R_0 \text{ then } R_v \le 1 \implies \text{no outbreak!}$

• Critical vaccination coverage: $v_c = 1 - 1/R_0$

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- Critical vaccination coverage: $v_c = 1 1/R_0$
- **Problem**: If R_0 large (e.g. due to large V(D)), $v_c \approx 1 \implies$ impossible!



Can we do better than selecting vaccinees randomly?



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But social network usually not observed ...



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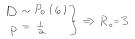
Vaccinees will have degree distribution $\{\tilde{p}_k\}$ rather than $\{p_k\}$

⇒ much more efficient





Proportion infected as function of v, $D \sim \text{Poisson}$



GRAPHS, EPIDEMICS AND VACCINATION STRATEGIES

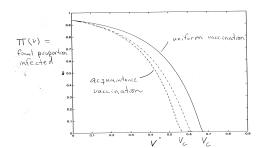


Figure 2. Final proportion infected τ as a function of the vaccination coverage v for four vaccination strategies: uni-





Proportion infected as function of v, $D \sim$ heavy-tailed

D~ Heavy tail
$$(E(D)=6)$$

p=0.5

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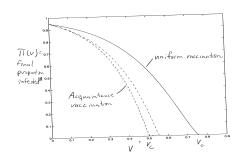


FIGURE 3. Final proportion infected as a function of the vaccination coverage for four vaccination strategies: uniform (—), acquaintance (···), E1 (···) and E2 (·····). The degree distribution is heavy-tailed $(p_d \propto d^{-3.5})$ with mean





Network epidemics: summary and exercise

Main conclusion:

- Not only mean number of partners but also variance important!
- Core-groups play important roll
- Large variance of degree distribution imply large R_0 (but not necessarily large outbreak)

Important extensions: time-dynamic network, clustering, varying/dependent transmission probabilities, degree correlation

Exercise 24. Suppose the mean degree equals E(D) = 3 and the transmission probability per relationship equals p = 0.25. Compute R_0 and v_c (assuming uniform vaccination) assuming the standard deviation $\sqrt{V(D)}$ of number of partners equal 0, 1, 3, 10.





- D = # sex-partners (e.g. during a year)
- p = P(transmission in a relationship)



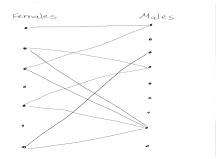
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- Heterosexual community: D_f , D_m , p_f , p_m



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It can be shown that

$$R_0 = \sqrt{p_f \left(E(D_f) + \frac{V(D_f) - E(D_f)}{E(D_f)} \right)} \times \sqrt{p_m \left(E(D_m) + \frac{V(D_m) - E(D_m)}{E(D_m)} \right)}$$

Similar to before:

A heavy-tailed degree distribution makes R_0 large.



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Similar to before:

A heavy-tailed degree distribution makes R_0 large. \Longrightarrow

promiscuous people (super-spreaders) play an important role



Improved analysis

However:

P(transmission) depends on # sex-acts in relationship



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Improved analysis

However:

- P(transmission) depends on # sex-acts in relationship
- Promiscuous individuals tend to have fewer sex-acts per partner
- This should reduce R₀!



Improved analysis: continued

Extended model: short and long term relationships



Improved analysis: continued

Extended model: short and long term relationships

⇒ two types of edges (with different trans prob)

New (complicated) expression for R_0

The effect of different transmission probabilities depends on calibration





Calibration using survey on sexual habits

Data:

- (Anonymous) study of sexual habits in Gotland
- $\bullet \approx 800$ people (17-28 yrs)
- Among other things: How many sex-partners during last year and how many sex-acts in each relationship



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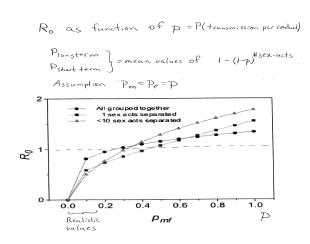
$$P(\text{transmission}) = 1 - (1 - p)^{\text{\# sex-acts}}, \quad p = \text{per sex-act trans prob}$$

 R_0 fitted to data and computed as a function of p: for one type of relationship, and two separations of short vs long





R_0 as function of p (fitted to Gotland data)





Conclusions:

- 1. Heavy-tailed degree distribution (promiscuity) increases R_0
- Acknowledging short and long-term relationships reduces this effect
- 3. Endemicity not possible (for realistic p's)



Conclusions:

- 1. Heavy-tailed degree distribution (promiscuity) increases R_0
- Acknowledging short and long-term relationships reduces this effect
- 3. Endemicity not possible (for realistic p's) but maybe in sub-communities ...



Homogeneous vs Heterogeneous: qualitative results

We now illustrate a general conclusion with an example (from the network model defined earlier)

Recall that
$$R_0 = p\left(E(D) + \frac{V(D) - E(D)}{E(D)}\right)$$

Consider two networks with the same mean degree E(D) = 4

Network 1:
$$D \equiv 4$$
, so $V(D) = 0$ and $E(D) + \frac{V(D) - E(D)}{E(D)} = 3$

Network 2:
$$P(D=1) = P(D=7) = 0.5$$
, so $V(D) = 9$ and $E(D) + \frac{V(D) - E(D)}{E(D)} = 5.25$

Consider two diseases: Disease 1: p = 0.25

Network 1:
$$R_0 = 3/4 = 0.75$$
, Network 2: $R_0 = 5.25/4 = 1.31$

 \implies R_0 larger for Network 2. Outbreak not possible in Network 1 but possible for Network 2



Homogeneous vs Heterogeneous: qualitative results, cont'd

Disease 2: p=0.75

Network 1: $R_0 = 3 \cdot 0.75 = 2.25$, Network 2:

 $R_0 = 5.25 \cdot 0.75 = 3.93$

 \implies R_0 larger for Network 2. Outbreak possible in both networks

Which outbreak will be bigger?



Homogeneous vs Heterogeneous: qualitative results, cont'd

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 \implies R_0 larger for Network 2. Outbreak possible in both networks

Which outbreak will be bigger? Outbreak in Network 1 since in Network 2 individuals with degree 1 have a good chance of escaping!

General conclusion. (Starting with a homogeneous situation):

- Heterogenizing always increases R_0
- If original (=homogeneous case) R_0 is small, then outbreak will be bigger in heterogeneous case
- But if original R_0 is large, then heterogenizing makes outbreak smaller!!!