Contagion

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Complex Networks | @networksvox CSYS/MATH 303, Spring, 2019

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Contagion

Basic Contagion Models

Global spreading condition

Social Contagion Models

Network version All-to-all networks

Theory

Spreading possibility
Spreading probability
Physical explanation
Final size





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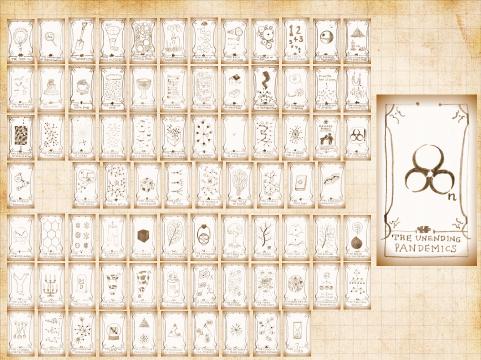
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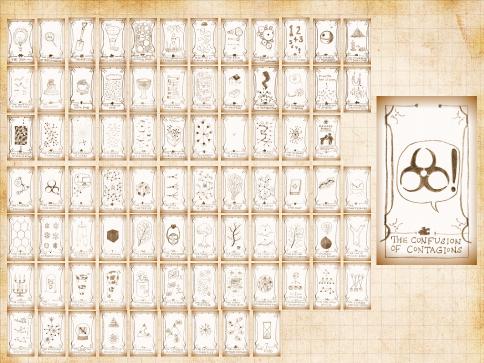
Theory

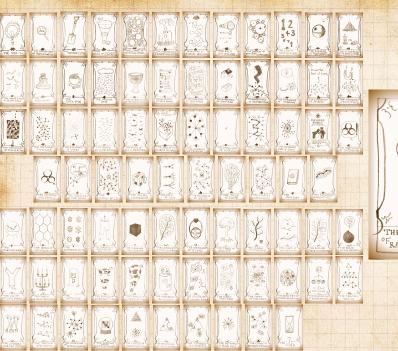
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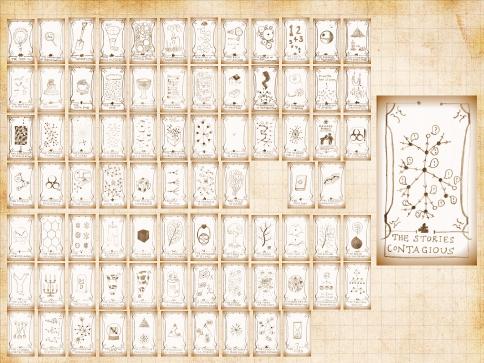


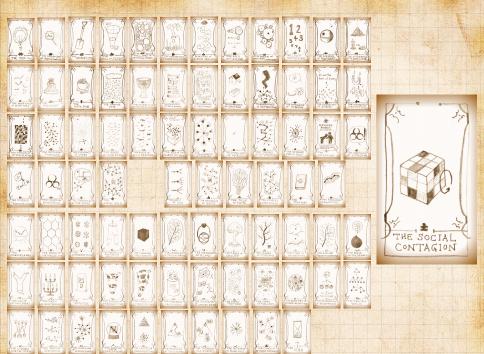


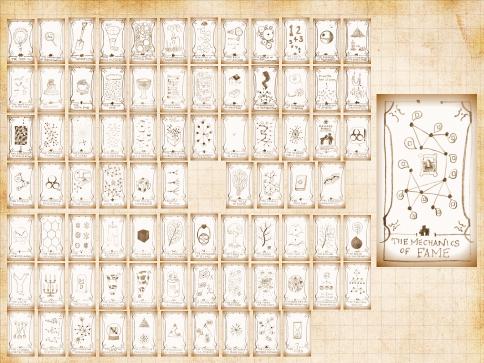












Contagion models

Some large questions concerning network contagion:

- 1. For a given spreading mechanism on a given network, what's the probability that there will be global spreading?
- 2. If spreading does take off, how far will it go?
- 3. How do the details of the network affect the outcome?
- 4. How do the details of the spreading mechanism affect the outcome?
- 5. What if the seed is one or many nodes?

Next up: We'll look at some fundamental kinds of spreading on generalized random networks.

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Spreading mechanisms

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General spreading mechanism:

> State of node i depends on history of i and i's neighbors' states.



Doses of entity may be stochastic and history-dependent.



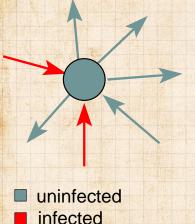
May have multiple, interacting entities spreading at once.











Spreading on Random Networks

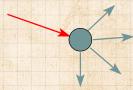
For random networks, we know local structure is pure branching.

Successful spreading is a contingent on single edges infecting nodes.

Success







Focus on binary case with edges and nodes either infected or not.

First big question: for a given network and contagion process, can global spreading from a single seed occur?

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We need to find: [5]

R = the average # of infected edges that one random infected edge brings about.

& Call **R** the gain ratio.

Define B_{k1} as the probability that a node of degree k is infected by a single infected edge.



$$\mathbf{R} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\underline{kP_k}}{\underline{\langle k \rangle}}$$
 prob. of connecting to a degree k node

$$\underbrace{(k-1)}_{\text{\# outgoing infected edges}}$$

$$+\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\frac{\widehat{kP_k}}{\langle k\rangle} \bullet \underbrace{0}_{\begin{subarray}{c} \# \mbox{ outgoing infected} \\ \mbox{ edges} \end{subarray}}$$

•
$$(1 - B_{k1})$$
Prob. of no infection

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Our global spreading condition is then:

$$\mathbf{R} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{k P_k}{\langle k \rangle} \bullet (k-1) \bullet B_{k1} > 1.$$

$$\mathbf{R} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{k P_k}{\langle k \rangle} \bullet (k-1) = \frac{\langle k(k-1) \rangle}{\langle k \rangle} > 1.$$

Good: This is just our giant component condition again.

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 $\red {\color{red} \&}$ Case 2: If $B_{k1}=\beta<1$ then

$$\mathbf{R} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{k P_k}{\langle k \rangle} \bullet (k-1) \bullet \beta > 1.$$

- \Leftrightarrow A fraction (1- β) of edges do not transmit infection.
- Analogous phase transition to giant component case but critical value of $\langle k \rangle$ is increased.
- Aka bond percolation .
- $ext{\&}$ Resulting degree distribution $ilde{P}_k$:

$$\tilde{P}_k = \beta^k \sum_{i=k}^{\infty} \binom{i}{k} (1-\beta)^{i-k} P_i.$$

Insert question from assignment 9 2

 $\red{\$}$ We can show $F_{\tilde{P}}(x) = F_{P}(\beta x + 1 - \beta)$.

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 $\red {\Bbb S}$ Cases 3, 4, 5, ...: Now allow B_{k1} to depend on k

Asymmetry: Transmission along an edge depends on node's degree at other end.

 $lap{3}{l}$ Possibility: B_{k1} increases with k... unlikely.

 $\ensuremath{ } ext{ } ext{ } ext{Possibility: } B_{k1} ext{ is not monotonic in } k... ext{ } ext{unlikely.}$

& Possibility: B_{k1} decreases with k... hmmm.

 $B_{k1} \searrow$ is a plausible representation of a simple kind of social contagion.

The story:

More well connected people are harder to influence.

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 \clubsuit Example: $B_{k,1} = 1/k$.



$$\begin{split} \mathbf{R} &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k P_k}{\langle k \rangle} \bullet (k-1) \bullet B_{k1} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (k-1) \bullet \frac{k P_k}{\langle k \rangle} \bullet \frac{1}{k} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{P_k}{\langle k \rangle} \bullet (k-1) = 1 - \frac{1 - P_0}{\langle k \rangle} \end{split}$$

- Since R is always less than 1, no spreading can occur for this mechanism.
- \bigotimes Decay of B_{k_1} is too fast.
- Result is independent of degree distribution.

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Models

Global spreading

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Example: $B_{k1} = H(\frac{1}{k} - \phi)$ where $0 < \phi \le 1$ is a threshold and H is the Heaviside function \square .

Infection only occurs for nodes with low degree.

Call these nodes vulnerables: they flip when only one of their friends flips.

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$$\mathbf{R} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k P_k}{\langle k \rangle} \bullet (k-1) \bullet B_{k1} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k P_k}{\langle k \rangle} \bullet (k-1) \bullet H \left(\frac{1}{k} - \phi\right)$$

$$=\sum_{k=1}^{\lfloor\frac{1}{\phi}\rfloor}(k-1)\bullet\frac{kP_k}{\langle k\rangle}\quad\text{where }\lfloor\cdot\rfloor\text{ means floor}.$$

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The uniform threshold model global spreading condition:

$$\mathbf{R} = \sum_{k=1}^{\lfloor \frac{1}{\phi} \rfloor} (k-1) \bullet \frac{k P_k}{\langle k \rangle} > 1.$$

- $As \phi \rightarrow 1$, all nodes become resilient and $r \rightarrow 0$.
- As $\phi \rightarrow 0$, all nodes become vulnerable and the contagion condition matches up with the giant component condition.
- & Key: If we fix ϕ and then vary $\langle k \rangle$, we may see two phase transitions.
- Added to our standard giant component transition, we will see a cut off in spreading as nodes become more connected.

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Virtual contagion: Corrupted Blood , a 2005 virtual plague in World of Warcraft:



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Social Contagion

Some important models (recap from CSYS 300)

- Tipping models—Schelling (1971) [11, 12, 13]
 - Simulation on checker boards.
 - ldea of thresholds.
- A Threshold models—Granovetter (1978) [8]
- A Herding models—Bikhchandani et al. (1992) [1, 2]
 - Social learning theory, Informational cascades,...

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Threshold model on a network

Original work:



"A simple model of global cascades on random networks"

Duncan J. Watts, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci., 99, 5766-5771, 2002. [15]

Mean field Granovetter model → network model

Individuals now have a limited view of the world

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Threshold model on a network

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Interactions between individuals now represented by a network

Models

Network is sparse

Global spreading

Individual i has k_i contacts

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Influence on each link is reciprocal and of unit weight

Network version All-to-all networks

 \Leftrightarrow Each individual i has a fixed threshold ϕ_i

Theory

Individuals repeatedly poll contacts on network

Spreading possibility

Synchronous, discrete time updating

A Individual i becomes active when number of active contacts $a_i \geq \phi_i k_i$

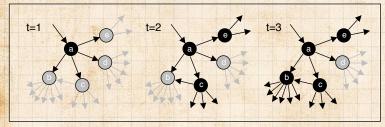
Activation is permanent (SI)







Threshold model on a network



All nodes have threshold $\phi = 0.2$.

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Global spreading

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The most gullible

Vulnerables:

- Recall definition: individuals who can be activated by just one contact being active are vulnerables.
- \clubsuit The vulnerability condition for node $i: 1/k_i \ge \phi_i$.
- $\red {\Bbb S}$ Means # contacts $k_i \leq \lfloor 1/\phi_i \rfloor$.
- Key: For global spreading events (cascades) on random networks, must have a global component of vulnerables [15]
- \Leftrightarrow For a uniform threshold ϕ , our global spreading condition tells us when such a component exists:

$$\mathbf{R} = \sum_{k=1}^{\lfloor \frac{1}{\phi} \rfloor} \frac{k P_k}{\langle k \rangle} \bullet (k-1) > 1.$$

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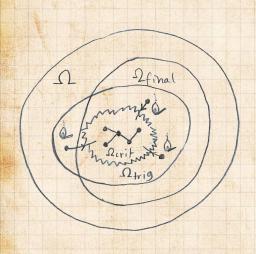
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Example random network structure:



 $\Re \Omega_{\rm crit} = {\rm critical}$ mass = global vulnerable component

 $\Re \Omega_{\text{trig}} =$ triggering component

 $\Omega_{\text{final}} =$ potential extent of spread

 Ω = entire network

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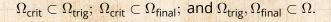
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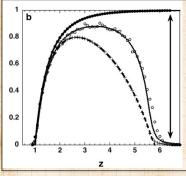








Global spreading events on random networks [15]



- Top curve: final fraction infected if successful.
- Middle curve: chance of starting a global spreading event (cascade).
 - Bottom curve: fractional size of vulnerable subcomponent. [15]

 $z = \langle k \rangle$

- Global spreading events occur only if size of vulnerable subcomponent > 0.
- System is robust-yet-fragile just below upper boundary [3, 4, 14]
- 🗞 'Ignorance' facilitates spreading.

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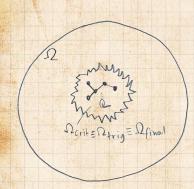
Final size



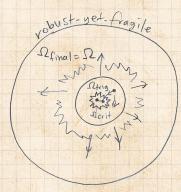




Cascades on random networks



Above lower phase transition



Just below upper phase transition

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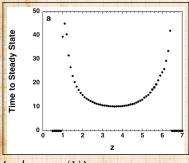
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Cascades on random networks



Time taken for cascade to spread through network. [15]

Two phase transitions.

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Models

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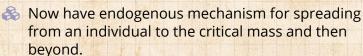
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(n.b., $z = \langle k \rangle$)

Largest vulnerable component = critical mass.

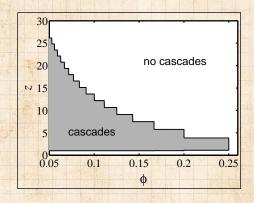








Cascade window for random networks



(n.b., $z = \langle k \rangle$)

Outline of cascade window for random networks.

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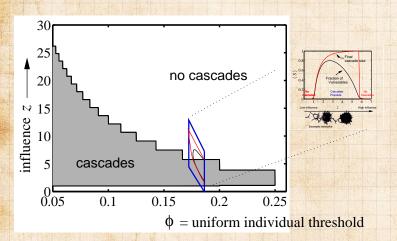
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Cascade window for random networks



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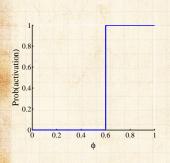




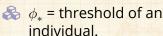


Social Contagion

Granovetter's Threshold model—recap



Assumes deterministic response functions



- $f(\phi_*)$ = distribution of thresholds in a population.
- $F(\phi_*)$ = cumulative distribution = $\int_{\phi'_*=0}^{\phi_*} f(\phi'_*) d\phi'_*$
- ϕ_t = fraction of people 'rioting' at time step t.

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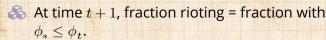
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Social Sciences—Threshold models



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$$\phi_{t+1} = \int_0^{\phi_t} f(\phi_*) \mathrm{d}\phi_* = F(\phi_*)|_0^{\phi_t} = F(\phi_t)$$

 \Leftrightarrow \Rightarrow Iterative maps of the unit interval [0,1].

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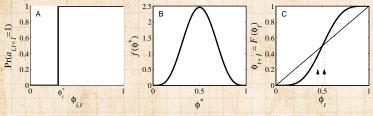
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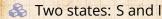


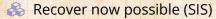


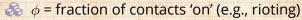
Social Sciences—Threshold models

Action based on perceived behavior of others.









Discrete time, synchronous update (strong assumption!)

This is a Critical mass model

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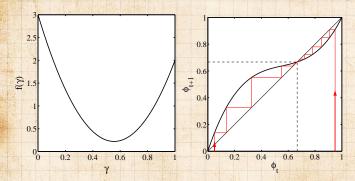
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Social Sciences—Threshold models



Example of single stable state model

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Social Sciences—Threshold models

Implications for collective action theory:

- 1. Collective uniformity ⇒ individual uniformity
- 2. Small individual changes ⇒ large global changes

Next:

- & Connect mean-field model to network model.
- \clubsuit Single seed for network model: $1/N \to 0$.
- Comparison between network and mean-field model sensible for vanishing seed size for the latter.

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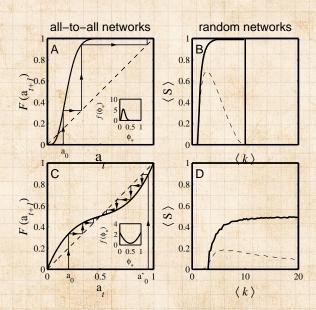
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All-to-all versus random networks



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Spreadworthiness: Cat videos

Bowling with Ragdolls:

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https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=XX-g2nmqL9Q?rel=0



Organic extreme outlier?



Success did not spread to other videos.



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Three key pieces to describe analytically:

- 1. The fractional size of the largest subcomponent of vulnerable nodes, S_{vuln} .
- 2. The chance of starting a global spreading event, $P_{\text{trig}} = S_{\text{trig}}$.
- 3. The expected final size of any successful spread, *S*.
 - \bigcirc n.b., the distribution of S is almost always bimodal.

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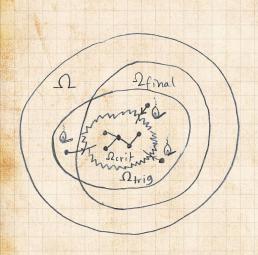
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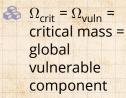






Example random network structure:





- Ω_{trig} =
 triggering
 component
- $\Omega_{\text{final}} =$ potential
 extent of
 spread
- Ω = entire network

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First goal: Find the largest component of vulnerable nodes.

Recall that for finding the giant component's size, we had to solve:

$$F_{\pi}(x) = x F_{P}\left(F_{\rho}(x)\right)$$
 and $F_{\rho}(x) = x F_{R}\left(F_{\rho}(x)\right)$

- We'll find a similar result for the subset of nodes that are vulnerable.
- This is a node-based percolation problem.
- For a general monotonic threshold distribution $f(\phi)$, a degree k node is vulnerable with probability

$$B_{k1} = \int_0^{1/k} f(\phi) \mathsf{d}\phi$$
 .

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We now have a generating function for the probability that a randomly chosen node is vulnerable and has degree k:

$$F_P^{(\mathrm{vuln})}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^\infty P_k B_{k1} x^k.$$

The generating function for friends-of-friends distribution is similar to before:

$$F_R^{(\mathrm{vuln})}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{k P_k}{\langle k \rangle} B_{k1} x^{k-1}$$

$$= \frac{\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} F_P^{(\mathrm{vuln})}(x)}{\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} F_P(x)|_{x=1}} = \frac{\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} F_P^{(\mathrm{vuln})}(x)}{F_R(1)}$$

Detail: We still have the underlying degree distribution involved in the denominator.

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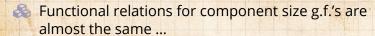
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$$F_{\pi}^{(\text{vuln})}(x) = \underbrace{1 - F_{P}^{(\text{vuln})}(1)}_{\text{central node}} + x F_{P}^{(\text{vuln})} \left(F_{\rho}^{(\text{vuln})}(x) \right)$$

$$F_{\rho}^{(\text{vuln})}(x) = \underbrace{1 - F_{R}^{(\text{vuln})}(1)}_{\begin{subarray}{c} \text{first node} \\ \text{is not} \\ \text{vulnerable} \end{subarray}}_{\begin{subarray}{c} \text{vulnerable} \\ \end{subarray}} + x F_{R}^{(\text{vuln})} \left(F_{\rho}^{(\text{vuln})}(x) \right)$$

Can now solve as before to find

$$S_{\text{vuln}} = 1 - F_{\pi}^{(\text{vuln})}(1).$$

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Second goal: Find probability of triggering largest vulnerable component.

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Assumption is first node is randomly chosen.

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Same set up as for vulnerable component except now we don't care if the initial node is vulnerable or not:

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$$\begin{split} F_{\pi}^{(\text{trig})}(x) &= x \textcolor{red}{F_P} \left(F_{\rho}^{(\text{vuln})}(x)\right) \\ F_{\rho}^{(\text{vuln})}(x) &= 1 - F_R^{(\text{vuln})}(1) + x F_R^{(\text{vuln})} \left(F_{\rho}^{(\text{vuln})}(x)\right) \end{split}$$

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Physical derivation of possibility and probability of global spreading:

- Possibility: binary indicator of phase. Global spreading events are either possible or can never happen.
- For random networks, global spreading possibility is understood as meaning a giant component of vulnerable nodes exists.
- Next: what's the probability that a randomly infected node will cause a global spreading event?
- & Call this P_{trig} .
- As usual, it's all about edges and we need to first determine the probability that an infected edge leads to a global spreading event.
- & Call this Q_{trig} .
- Later: Generalize to more complex networks involving assortativity of all kinds.

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Probability an infected edge leads to a global spreading event:

 $\&~Q_{
m trig}$ must satisfying a one-step recursion relation.

Follow an infected edge and use three pieces:

- 1. Probability of reaching a degree k node is $Q_k = \frac{kP_k}{\langle k \rangle}$.
- 2. The node reached is vulnerable with probability B_{k1} .
- 3. At least one of the node's outgoing edges leads to a global spreading event = 1 probability no edges do so = $1 (1 Q_{\rm trig})^{k-1}$.

& Put everything together and solve for Q_{trig} :

$$Q_{\mathrm{trig}} = \sum_{k} \frac{k P_k}{\langle k \rangle} \bullet B_{k1} \bullet \left[1 - (1 - Q_{\mathrm{trig}})^{k-1} \right].$$

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Good things about our equation for Q_{trig} :

$$Q_{\mathrm{trig}} = \sum_{k} \frac{kP_k}{\langle k \rangle} \bullet B_{k1} \bullet \left[1 - (1 - Q_{\mathrm{trig}})^{k-1}\right] = f(Q_{\mathrm{trig}}; P_k, B_{k1})$$

- $\bigotimes Q_{\text{trig}} = 0$ is always a solution.
- $\ensuremath{\&}$ Spreading occurs if a second solution exists for which $0 < Q_{\rm trig} \leq 1.$
- & Given P_k and B_{k1} , we can use any kind of root finder to solve for $Q_{\rm trig}$, but ...
- & The function f increases monotonically with Q_{trig} .
- We can therefore use an iterative cobwebbing approach to find the solution: $Q_{\rm trig}^{(n+1)} = f(Q_{\rm trig}^{(n)}; P_k, B_{k1}).$
- Start with a suitably small seed $Q_{\rm trig}^{(1)} > 0$ and iterate while rubbing hands together.

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Global spreading is possible if the fractional size S_{vuln} of the largest component of vulnerables is "giant".



Interpret S_{vulp} as the probability a randomly chosen node is vulnerable and that infecting it leads to a global spreading event:

$$S_{\mathrm{vuln}} = \sum_k P_k \bullet B_{k1} \bullet \left[1 - (1 - Q_{\mathrm{trig}})^k \right] > 0.$$



 $\red {A}$ Amounts to having $Q_{\rm trig} > 0$.

Probability of global spreading differs only in that we don't care if the initial seed is vulnerable or not:

$$P_{\mathrm{trig}} = S_{\mathrm{trig}} = \sum_{k} P_{k} \bullet \left[1 - (1 - Q_{\mathrm{trig}})^{k} \right]$$



& As for S_{vuln} , P_{trig} is non-zero when $Q_{\text{trig}} > 0$.



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Connection to generating function results:

We found that $F_{\rho}^{(\mathrm{vuln})}(1)$ —the probability that a random edge leads to a finite vulnerable component—satisfies

$$F_{\rho}^{(\mathrm{vuln})}(1) = 1 - F_{R}^{(\mathrm{vuln})}(1) + 1 \cdot F_{R}^{(\mathrm{vuln})} \left(F_{\rho}^{(\mathrm{vuln})}(1) \right).$$

$$1 - Q_{\rm trig} = 1 - \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{k P_k}{\langle k \rangle} B_{k1} + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{k P_k}{\langle k \rangle} B_{k1} \left(1 - Q_{\rm trig} \right)^{k-1}. \label{eq:trig}$$

Some breathless algebra it all matches:

$$Q_{\mathrm{trig}} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{k P_k}{\langle k \rangle} \bullet B_{k1} \bullet \left[1 - \left(1 - Q_{\mathrm{trig}} \right)^{k-1} \right].$$

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Fractional size of the largest vulnerable component:

The generating function approach gave $S_{\mathrm{vuln}} = 1 - F_{\pi}^{(\mathrm{vuln})}(1)$ where

$$F_\pi^{(\mathrm{vuln})}(1) = 1 - F_P^{(\mathrm{vuln})}(1) + 1 \cdot F_P^{(\mathrm{vuln})}\left(F_\rho^{(\mathrm{vuln})}(1)\right).$$

 $\text{Again using } F_{\rho}^{(\text{vuln})}(1) = 1 - Q_{\text{trig}} \text{ along with } \\ F_{P}^{(\text{vuln})}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_k B_{k1} x^k \text{, we have: }$

$$1 - S_{\rm vuln} = 1 - \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_k B_{k1} + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_k B_{k1} \left(1 - Q_{\rm trig} \right)^k.$$

Excited scrabbling about gives us, as before:

$$S_{\mathrm{vuln}} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_k B_{k1} \left[1 - \left(1 - Q_{\mathrm{trig}} \right)^k \right].$$

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Triggering probability for single-seed global spreading events:

Slight adjustment to the vulnerable component calculation.

$$\& S_{\rm trig} = 1 - F_{\pi}^{({\rm trig})}(1)$$
 where

$$F_{\pi}^{(\mathrm{trig})}(1) = 1 \cdot F_{P}\left(F_{\rho}^{(\mathrm{vuln})}(1)\right).$$

We play these cards: $F_{
ho}^{({
m vuln})}(1)=1-Q_{{
m trig}}$ and $F_P(x)=\sum_{k=0}^\infty P_k x^k$ to arrive at

$$1 - S_{\text{trig}} = 1 + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_k \left(1 - Q_{\text{trig}} \right)^k.$$

More scruffing around brings happiness:

$$S_{\rm trig} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_k \left[1 - \left(1 - Q_{\rm trig} \right)^k \right]. \label{eq:Strig}$$

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Connection to simple gain ratio argument:

Earlier, we showed the global spreading condition follows from the gain ratio ${\bf R}>1$:

$$\mathbf{R} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{kP_k}{\langle k \rangle} \bullet (k-1) \bullet B_{k1} > 1.$$

- We would very much like to see that ${\bf R}>1$ matches up with $Q_{\rm trig}>0$.
- It really would be just so totally awesome.
- Must come from our basic edge triggering probability equation:

$$Q_{\rm trig} = \sum_k \frac{k P_k}{\langle k \rangle} \bullet B_{k1} \bullet \left[1 - (1 - Q_{\rm trig})^{k-1}\right].$$

- $\red{\$}$ When does this equation have a solution $0 < Q_{\mathrm{trig}} \leq 1$?
- $\red{\&}$ We need to find out what happens as $Q_{\rm trig}
 ightarrow 0.^{[9]}$

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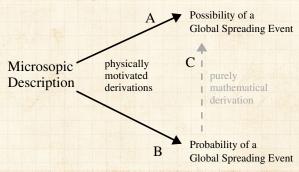
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What we're doing:



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$$\ragged Ref Property$$
 For $Q_{\mathrm{trig}}
ightarrow 0^+$, equation tends towards

$$\begin{split} Q_{\mathrm{trig}} &= \sum_{k} \frac{k P_{k}}{\langle k \rangle} \bullet B_{k1} \bullet \left[\cancel{1} + \left(\cancel{1} + (k-1) Q_{\mathrm{trig}} + \ldots \right) \right] \\ \\ &\Rightarrow Q_{\mathrm{trig}} = \sum_{k} \frac{k P_{k}}{\langle k \rangle} \bullet B_{k1} \bullet (k-1) Q_{\mathrm{trig}} \\ \\ &\Rightarrow 1 = \sum_{k} \frac{k P_{k}}{\langle k \rangle} \bullet (k-1) \bullet B_{k1} \end{split}$$

- 3 Only defines the phase transition points (i.e., $\mathbf{R} = 1$).
- & Inequality?

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 $\red {\$}$ Again take $Q_{\mathsf{trig}} o 0^+$, but keep next higher order term:

$$\begin{split} Q_{\mathrm{trig}} &= \sum_{k} \frac{k P_{k}}{\langle k \rangle} \bullet B_{k1} \bullet \left[\cancel{1} + \left(\cancel{1} + (k-1) Q_{\mathrm{trig}} - \binom{k-1}{2} Q_{\mathrm{trig}}^{2} \right) \right] \\ \Rightarrow Q_{\mathrm{trig}} &= \sum_{k} \frac{k P_{k}}{\langle k \rangle} \bullet B_{k1} \bullet \left[(k-1) Q_{\mathrm{trig}} - \binom{k-1}{2} Q_{\mathrm{trig}}^{2} \right] \\ \Rightarrow \sum_{k} \frac{k P_{k}}{\langle k \rangle} \bullet (k-1) \bullet B_{k1} &= 1 + \sum_{k} \frac{k P_{k}}{\langle k \rangle} B_{k1} \binom{k-1}{2} Q_{\mathrm{trig}} \end{split}$$

- & We have $Q_{\mathsf{trig}} > 0$ if $\sum_k \frac{kP_k}{\langle k \rangle} \bullet (k-1) \bullet B_{k1} > 1$.
- Repeat: Above is a mathematical connection between two physically derived equations.
- From this connection, we don't know anything about a gain ratio R or how to arrange the pieces.

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Third goal: Find expected fractional size of spread.

Not obvious even for uniform threshold problem.

Difficulty is in figuring out if and when nodes that $need \ge 2$ hits switch on.

Problem solved for infinite seed case by Gleeson and Cahalane:

"Seed size strongly affects cascades on random networks," Phys. Rev. E, 2007. [7]

Developed further by Gleeson in "Cascades on correlated and modular random networks," Phys. Rev. E, 2008. [6]

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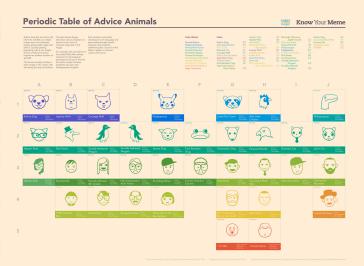
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Meme species:



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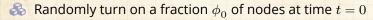
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Idea:



Capitalize on local branching network structure of random networks (again)

Now think about what must happen for a specific node *i* to become active at time *t*:

- t=0: i is one of the seeds (prob = ϕ_0)
- t=1: i was not a seed but enough of i's friends switched on at time t=0 so that i's threshold is now exceeded.
- t=2: enough of i's friends and friends-of-friends switched on at time t=0 so that i's threshold is now exceeded.
- t = n: enough nodes within n hops of i switched on at t = 0 and their effects have propagated to reach i.

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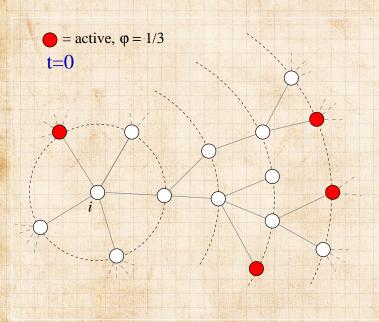
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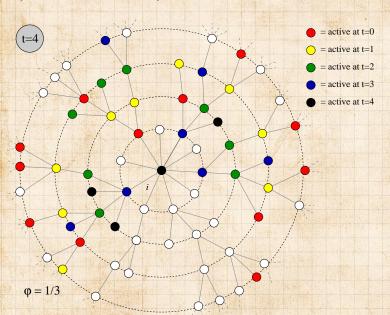
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Notes:

- Calculations presume nodes do not become inactive (strong restriction, liftable)
- Not just for threshold model—works for a wide range of contagion processes.
- We can analytically determine the entire time evolution, not just the final size.
- We can in fact determine Pr(node of degree k switches on at time t).
- Even more, we can compute: **Pr**(specific node i switches on at time t).
- Asynchronous updating can be handled too.

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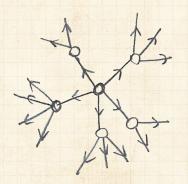


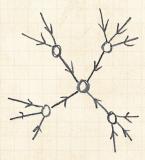


Pleasantness:

Taking off from a single seed story is about expansion away from a node.

Extent of spreading story is about contraction at a node.





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Notation:

 $\phi_{k,t} = \mathbf{Pr}(a \text{ degree } k \text{ node is active at time } t).$

- Notation: $B_{kj} = \mathbf{Pr}$ (a degree k node becomes active if j neighbors are active).
- $\red { } \Theta$ Our starting point: $\phi_{k,0} = \phi_0$.
- $\binom{k}{j}\phi_0^j(1-\phi_0)^{k-j} = \mathbf{Pr}$ (j of a degree k node's neighbors were seeded at time t=0).
- Probability a degree k node was a seed at t = 0 is ϕ_0 (as above).
- Probability a degree k node was not a seed at t = 0 is $(1 \phi_0)$.
- Combining everything, we have:

$$\phi_{k,1} = \phi_0 + (1 - \phi_0) \sum_{j=0}^k \binom{k}{j} \phi_0^j (1 - \phi_0)^{k-j} B_{kj}.$$

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For general t, we need to know the probability an edge coming into a degree k node at time t is active.

 $lap{Notation:}$ call this probability θ_t .

 $\red {\$}$ We already know $heta_0 = \phi_0$.

3 Story analogous to t=1 case. For specific node i:

$$\phi_{i,t+1} = \phi_0 + (1 - \phi_0) \sum_{j=0}^{k_i} \binom{k_i}{j} \theta_t^j (1 - \theta_t)^{k_i - j} B_{k_i j}.$$

Average over all nodes with degree k to obtain expression for ϕ_{t+1} :

$$\phi_{t+1} = \frac{\phi_0}{} + (1 - \phi_0) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_k \sum_{j=0}^{k} \binom{k}{j} \theta_t^{j} (1 - \theta_t)^{k-j} B_{kj}.$$

& So we need to compute θ_t ... massive excitement...

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First connect θ_0 to θ_1 :

$$\theta_1 = \phi_0 +$$

$$(1-\phi_0) \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k P_k}{\langle k \rangle} \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \binom{k-1}{j} \theta_0^{\ j} (1-\theta_0)^{k-1-j} B_{kj}$$

- $\frac{kP_k}{(k)} = Q_k$ = **Pr** (edge connects to a degree k node).
- $\sum_{j=0}^{k-1}$ piece gives **Pr** (degree node k activates if j of its k-1 incoming neighbors are active).
- $\ \phi_0$ and $(1-\phi_0)$ terms account for state of node at time t=0.
- & See this all generalizes to give θ_{t+1} in terms of θ_t ...

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Two pieces: edges first, and then nodes

1.
$$\theta_{t+1} = \underbrace{\phi_0}_{\text{exogenous}}$$

$$+(1-\phi_0)\underbrace{\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}\frac{kP_k}{\langle k\rangle}\sum_{j=0}^{k-1}\binom{k-1}{j}\theta_t^{\ j}(1-\theta_t)^{k-1-j}B_{kj}}_{\text{social effects}}$$

with
$$\theta_0 = \phi_0$$
.

2.
$$\phi_{t+1} =$$

$$\underbrace{\phi_0}_{\text{exogenous}} + (1 - \phi_0) \underbrace{\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_k \sum_{j=0}^k \binom{k}{j} \theta_t^{\,j} (1 - \theta_t)^{k-j} B_{kj}}_{\text{social effects}}.$$

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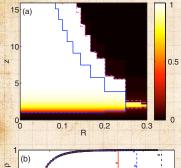
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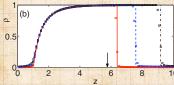
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Comparison between theory and simulations





From Gleeson and Cahalane [7]



Pure random netwo with simple thresho responses



R = uniform threshold(our ϕ_*); z = averagedegree; $\rho = \phi$; $q = \theta$; $N = 10^{5}$.



 $\phi_0 = 10^{-3}, 0.5 \times 10^{-2},$ and 10^{-2} .



Cascade window is for $\phi_0 = 10^{-2}$ case.



Sensible expansion of cascade window as ϕ_0 increases.

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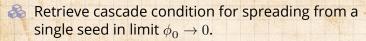
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Notes:



 $\red {f \&}$ Depends on map $heta_{t+1} = G(heta_t;\phi_0)$.

First: if self-starters are present, some activation is assured:

$$G(0;\phi_0) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{kP_k}{\langle k \rangle} \bullet B_{k0} > 0.$$

meaning $B_{k0} > 0$ for at least one value of $k \ge 1$.

All If $\theta=0$ is a fixed point of G (i.e., $G(0;\phi_0)=0$) then spreading occurs for a small seed if

$$G'(0;\phi_0) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{kP_k}{\langle k \rangle} \bullet (k-1) \bullet B_{k1} > 1.$$

Insert question from assignment 10 🗷

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Notes:

In words:

- If $G(0; \phi_0) > 0$, spreading must occur because some nodes turn on for free.
- \Re If G has an unstable fixed point at $\theta=0$, then cascades are also always possible.

Non-vanishing seed case:

- $\red {}$ Cascade condition is more complicated for $\phi_0>0.$
- If G has a stable fixed point at $\theta=0$, and an unstable fixed point for some $0<\theta_*<1$, then for $\theta_0>\theta_*$, spreading takes off.
- $\ref{Tricky point: } G$ depends on ϕ_0 , so as we change ϕ_0 , we also change G.

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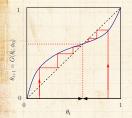
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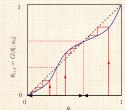
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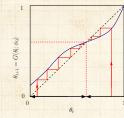




General fixed point story:







- Given $\theta_0 (= \phi_0)$, θ_∞ will be the nearest stable fixed point, either above or below.
- n.b., adjacent fixed points must have opposite stability types.
- Important: ϕ_t can only increase monotonically so ϕ_0 must shape G so that ϕ_0 is at or above an unstable fixed point.
- \Leftrightarrow First reason: $\phi_1 \ge \phi_0$.
- Second: $G'(\theta; \phi_0) \geq 0$, $0 \leq \theta \leq 1$.

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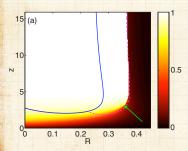
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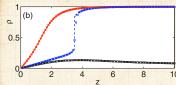






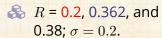
Interesting behavior:





From Gleeson and Cahalane [7]

Now allow thresholds to be distributed according to a Gaussian with mean R.



 $\phi_0=0$ but some nodes have thresholds ≤ 0 so effectively $\phi_0>0$.

Now see a (nasty) discontinuous phase transition for low $\langle k \rangle$.

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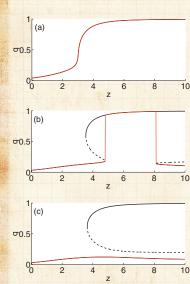
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Interesting behavior:



From Gleeson and Cahalane [7]

Plots of stability points for $\theta_{t+1} = G(\theta_t; \phi_0)$.



n.b.: 0 is not a fixed point here: $\theta_0 = 0$ always takes off.



Top to bottom: R =0.35, 0.371, and 0.375.



Saddle node bifurcations appear and merge (b and c). COCONUTS @networksvox Contagion

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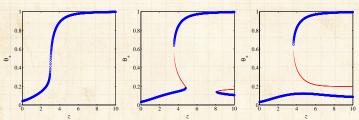
Spreading possibility Final size



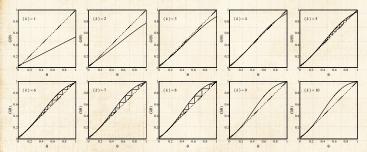




What's happening:



 \Leftrightarrow Fixed points slip above and below the $\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t$ line:



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Time-dependent solutions

Synchronous update

 $\ \ \,$ Done: Evolution of ϕ_t and θ_t given exactly by the maps we have derived.

Asynchronous updates

- & Update nodes with probability α .
- As $\alpha \to 0$, updates become effectively independent.
- $\red {8}$ Now can talk about $\phi(t)$ and $\theta(t)$.

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Nutshell:

- Solid dive into understanding contagion on generalized random networks.
- Threshold model leads to idea of vulnerables and a critical mass. [16, 8]
- Generating function approaches provided first breakthroughs and gave possibility and probability of spreading. [10, 16]
- Later: A probabilistic, physical method solved the whole story for a fractional seed—final size, dynamics, ... [7, 6]
- Much can be generalized for more realistic kinds of networks: degree-correlated, modular, bipartite, ...
- The single seed contagion condition and triggering probability can be fully developed using a physical story. [5, 9]
- Many connections to other kinds of models: Voter models, Ising models, ...

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