

To mix or not to mix?

- Desirable and undesirable levels of segregation between groups

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https://luis-r-izquierdo.github.io/micopro/

Outline

- The question
- Related literature
 - The approach and the model
- A mean-dynamics (MD) approximation
- Analysis of the MD
 - Robustness
 - Conclusions

How does mixing affect contagion processes?

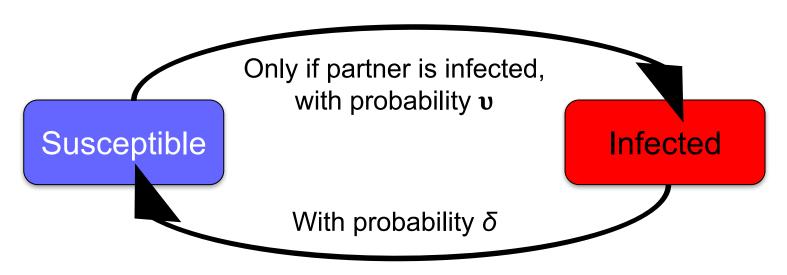
homophily diffusion

assortativity

segregation

Homophily	Random	Heterophily
Assortativity	Random	Disassortativity
Segregation	Random	No segregation
100% intragroup	50% intragroup	0% intragroup
0% intergroup	50% intergroup	100% intergroup
No mixing	Some mixing	Full mixing

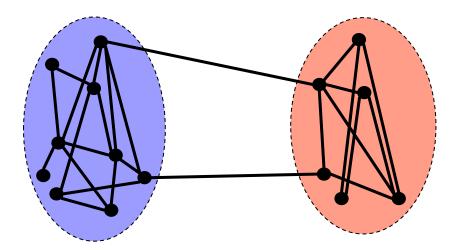
How does mixing affect contagion processes? diffusion



Some examples:

- Biological infections (e.g. common cold and influenza)
- Adoption of the latest technology
- Motivation in the classroom or at work

How does mixing affect contagion processes?

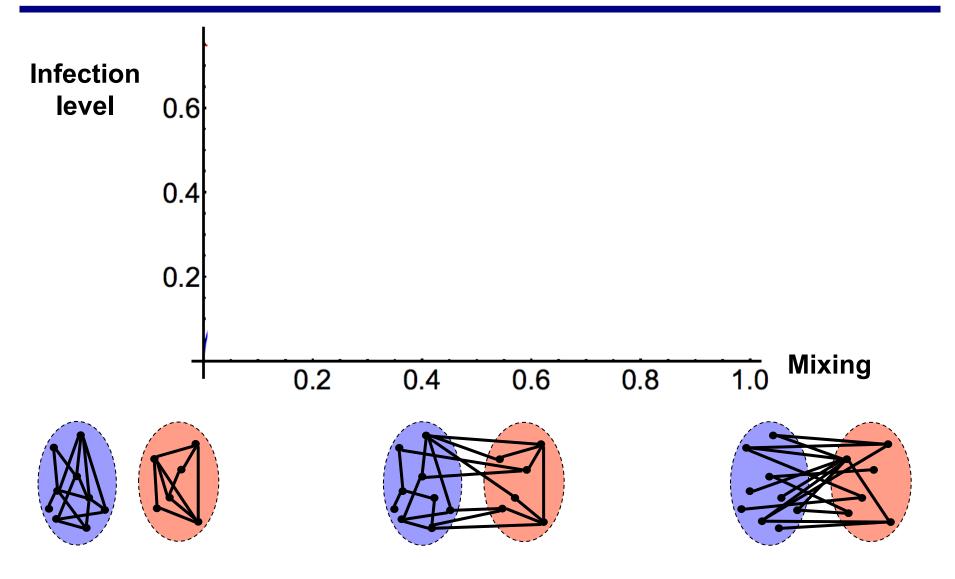


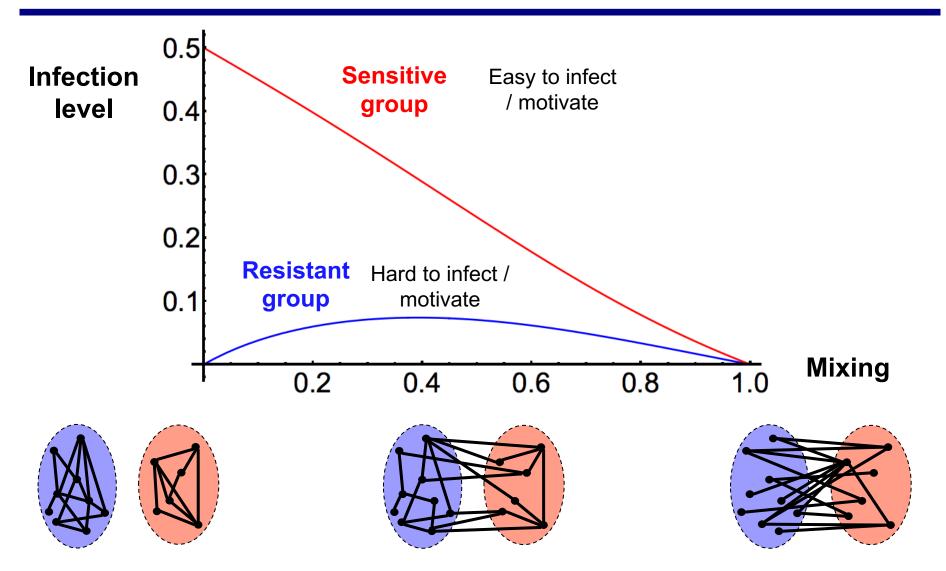
Resistant group

Hard to infect / motivate

Sensitive group

Easy to infect / motivate





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Related literature

- Axelrod, R. (1997) The dissemination of culture A model with local convergence and global polarization. *Journal of Conflict Resolution* 41(2), 203-226.
- McPherson, M., Smith-Lovin, L., & Cook, J. M. (2001). Birds of a feather: Homophily in social networks. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 27, 415–444.
- Jackson, M. O. & López-Pintado, D. (2013). Diffusion and contagion in networks with heterogeneous agents and homophily. *Network Science*, 1, 49-67.
- Yavaş, M., & Yücel, G. (2014). Impact of Homophily on Diffusion Dynamics over Social Networks. Social Science Computer Review, 32 (3), 354–372.

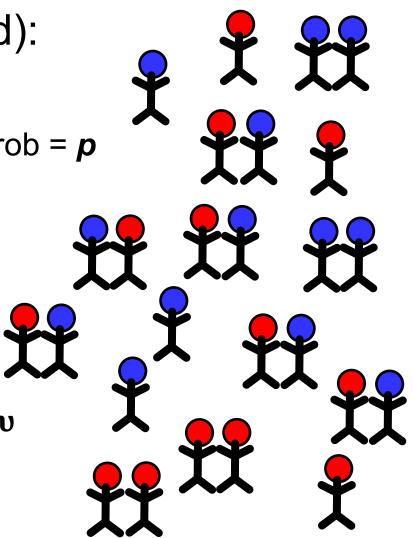
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The model

Matching model (undirected):

- 1. Two groups of equal size
- 2. Agents selected to interact with prob = p
- 3. Do matching according to *mixing*
- 4. For each agent:
 - If infected:
 recover with prob = δ
 - Else: if mate infected, become infected with prob = υ



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When the population is very large, the law of large numbers enables us to:

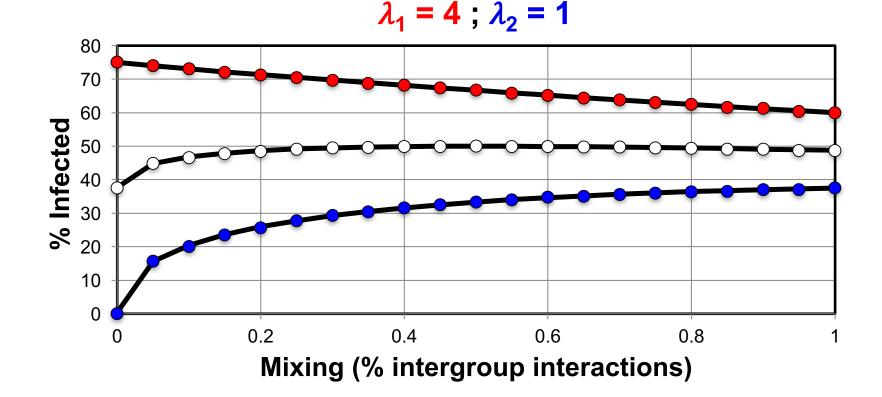
- identify *expected* recoveries with *average* recoveries, and
- identify *expected* infections with *average* infections.

$$\frac{d\rho_1}{dt} = p(1-\rho_1)v_1((1-m)\rho_1 + m\rho_2) - \rho_1\delta_1$$
$$\frac{d\rho_2}{dt} = p(1-\rho_2)v_2((1-m)\rho_2 + m\rho_1) - \rho_2\delta_2$$

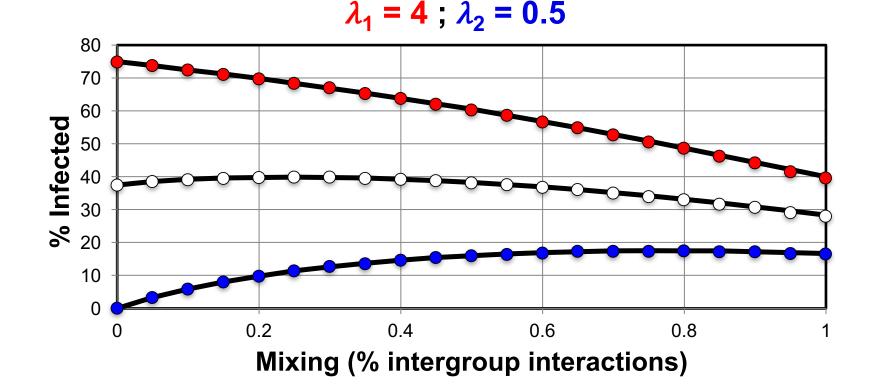
When the population is very large, the law of large numbers enables us to:

- identify expected recoveries with average recoveries, and
- identify *expected* infections with *average* infections.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{\delta_1} \frac{d\rho_1}{dt} &= \lambda_1 (1 - \rho_1) \big((1 - m)\rho_1 + m\rho_2 \big) - \rho_1 \\ \frac{1}{\delta_2} \frac{d\rho_2}{dt} &= \lambda_2 (1 - \rho_2) \big((1 - m)\rho_2 + m\rho_1 \big) - \rho_2 \\ \lambda_i &= p \frac{v_i}{\delta_i} \end{aligned}$$
 Effective adoption rate



Circles are calculated using the ABM (1000 agents). Each circle is the average of 10 runs. For each run we have computed the average of the % infected from t = 1001 to t = 2000. Standard errors are below 1% in all cases. Black lines are computed using the MD.



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$$\frac{1}{\delta_1} \frac{d\rho_1}{dt} = \lambda_1 (1 - \rho_1) \big((1 - m)\rho_1 + m\rho_2 \big) - \rho_1 = 0$$

$$\frac{1}{\delta_2} \frac{d\rho_2}{dt} = \lambda_2 (1 - \rho_2) \big((1 - m)\rho_2 + m\rho_1 \big) - \rho_2 = 0$$

Existence and uniqueness of a stable solution, for all parameter values, regardless of initial conditions.

Result 1. Assume $\lambda_1 < \lambda_2$. A unique solution $(\rho_1^s, \rho_2^s) \neq (0,0)$ exists iff

$$\lambda_2(1-m) \ge 1$$
 [a]

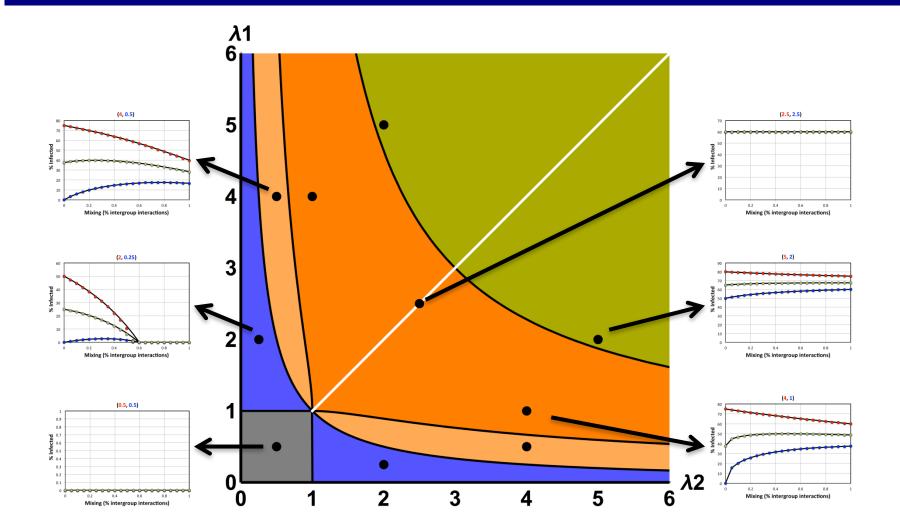
or $\frac{\lambda_1 m}{1 - \lambda_1 (1 - m)} \frac{\lambda_2 m}{1 - \lambda_2 (1 - m)} > 1$ [b]

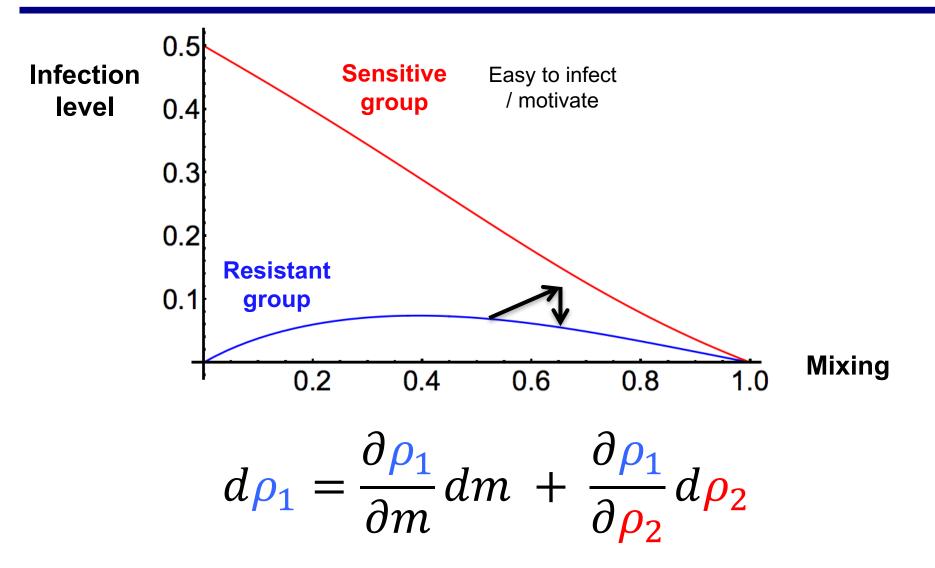
Corollary 1.1: If $\lambda_1 \lambda_2 > 1$ then there is a unique positive solution.

Corollary 1.2: If $\lambda_2 \leq 1$ then $(\rho_1, \rho_2) = (0, 0)$ is the only solution.

Corollary 1.3: If $\lambda_2 > 1$ but $\lambda_1 \lambda_2 \le 1$ then there is a unique positive solution iff the mixing level *m* is lower than some critical level

$$m_{critical} = \frac{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 - \lambda_1 \lambda_2 - 1}{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 - 2\lambda_1 \lambda_2}$$





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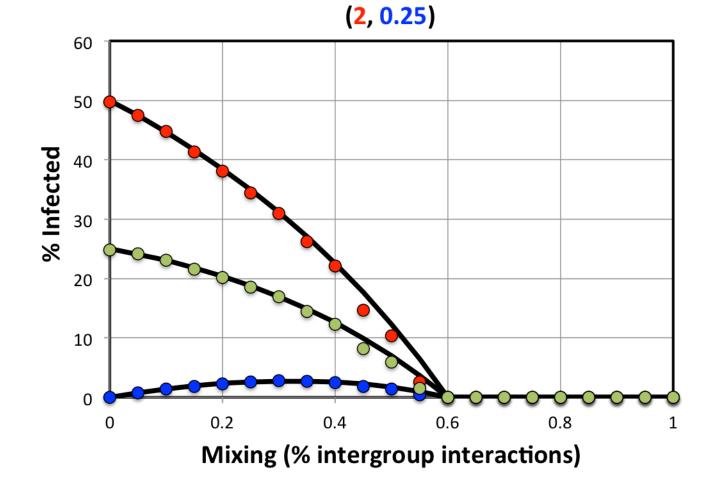
Robustness

More general model

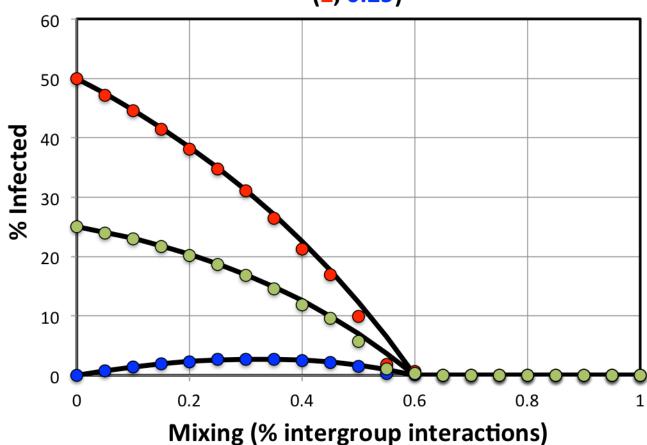
- P(Not Infected -> Infected | paired with infected) (v)
- P(Not Infected -> Infected | paired with Not infected) (0)
- P(Infected -> Not Infected | paired with infected) (δ)
- P(Infected -> Not Infected | paired with Not infected) (δ)

Heterogeneity in agents' susceptibilities

Robustness: variability = 0%

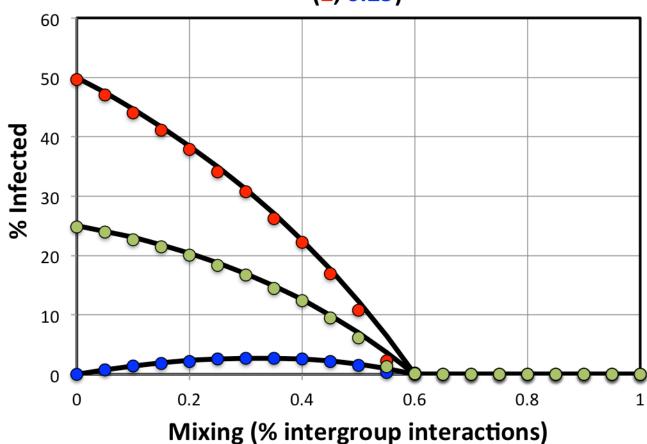


Robustness: variability = 10%



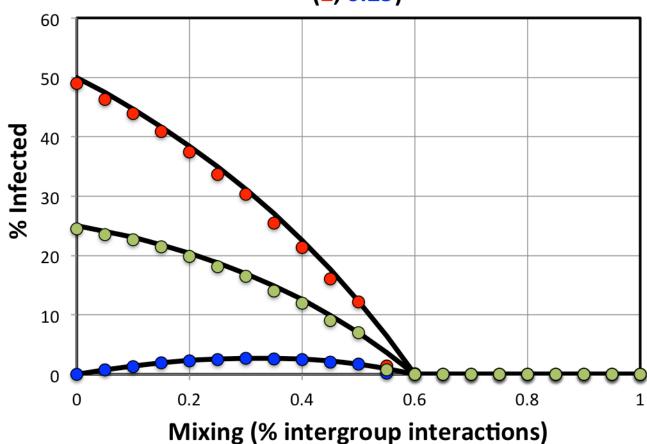
(<mark>2, 0.25</mark>)

Robustness: variability = 20%



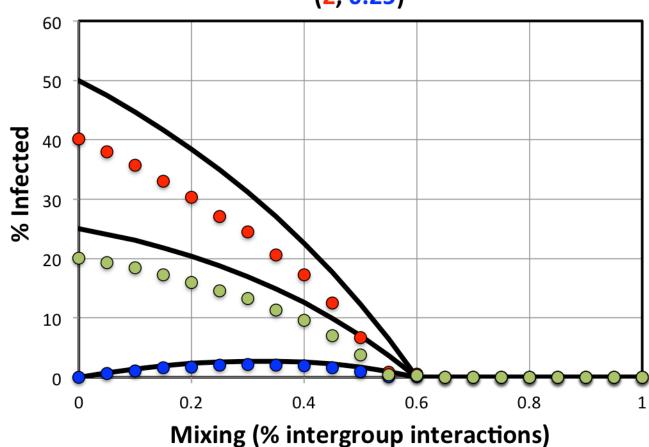
(<mark>2, 0.25</mark>)

Robustness: variability = 30%



(<mark>2, 0.25</mark>)

Robustness: variability = 100%



(2, 0.25)

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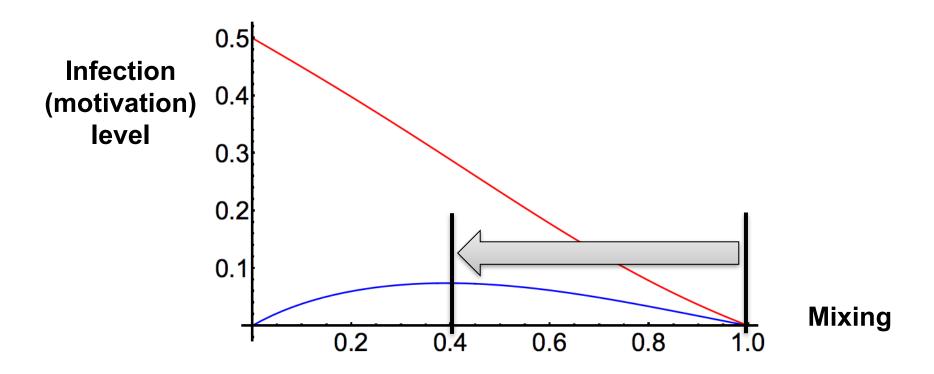
 Overall optimum levels of mixing (or segregation) may not be at the extremes (for the resistant group and for the whole group).
 Some levels of segregation are not Pareto optimal.

(4, 0.5)

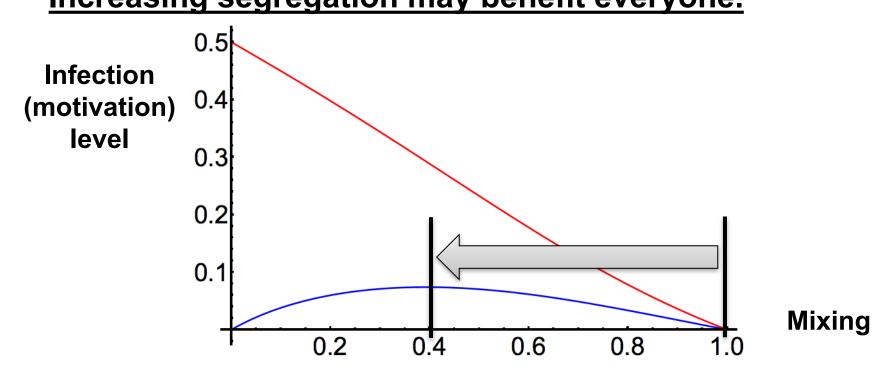
80 70 60 % Infected 50 40 30 20 10 0 0.2 0.4 0.6 0.8 0 1

Mixing (% intergroup interactions)

School case: It may well be in the harder-to-motivate group's interest to protect the easier-to-motivate group from interacting too much with them.

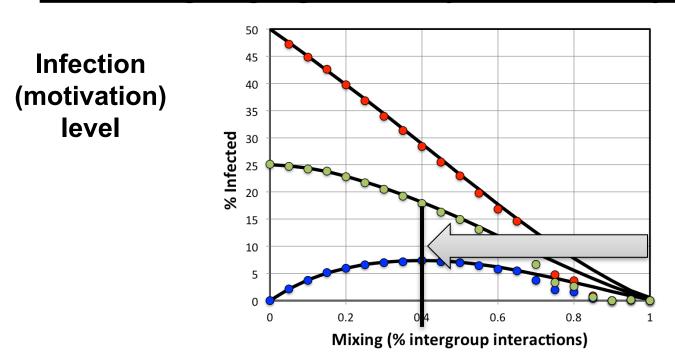


 <u>School case</u>: Policies which assume that, in order to improve the performance of <u>lower-performance</u> students, it will always be good to increase their mixing with <u>higherperformance</u> students, can be misguided.
 <u>Increasing segregation may benefit everyone.</u>

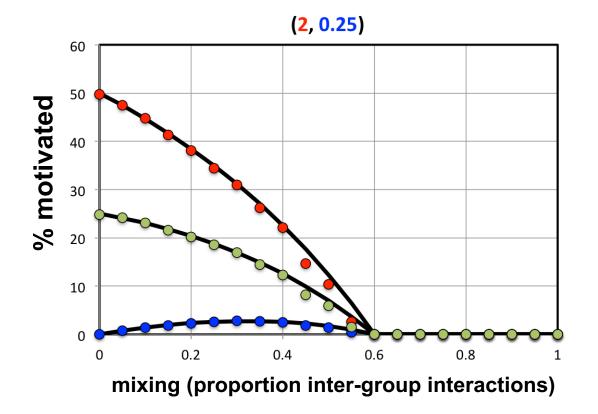


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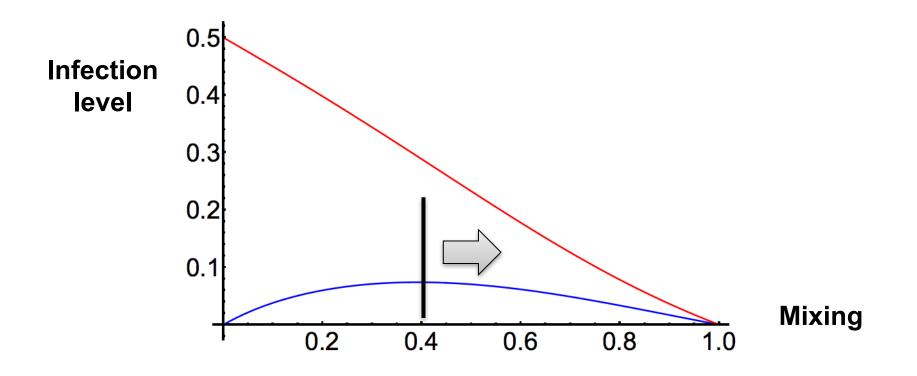
Mixing



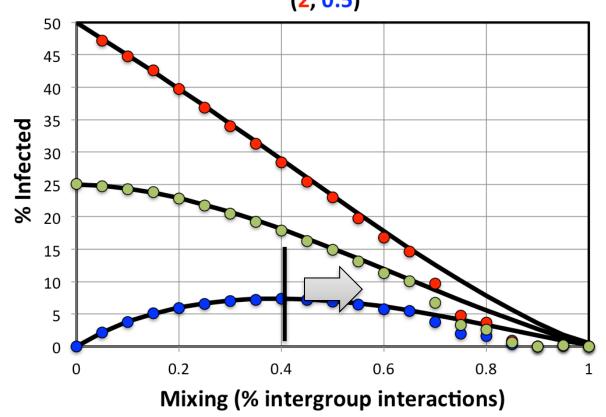
School case: In extreme cases, the harder-to-motivate group may "kill" everyone's motivation if they interact too much with the easier-to-motivate group.

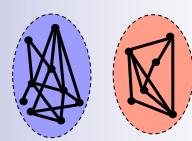


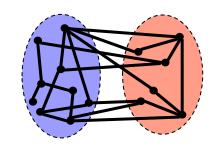
 <u>Disease case</u>: Increasing your mixing with a group that has a greater level of infection than you can be beneficial for you (and, naturally, for them).

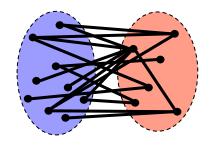


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