

# Unified mean-field framework for susceptible-infected-susceptible epidemics on networks, based on graph partitioning and the isoperimetric inequality

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We propose an approximation framework that unifies and generalizes a number of existing mean-field approximation methods for the susceptible-infected-susceptible (SIS) epidemic model on complex networks. We derive the framework, which we call the unified mean-field framework (UMFF), as a set of approximations of the exact Markovian SIS equations. Our main novelty is that we describe the mean-field approximations from the perspective of the isoperimetric problem, which results in bounds on the UMFF approximation error. These new bounds provide insight in the accuracy of existing mean-field methods, such as the N-intertwined mean-field approximation and heterogeneous mean-field method, which are contained by UMFF. Additionally, the isoperimetric inequality relates the UMFF approximation accuracy to the regularity notions of Szemerédi's regularity lemma.

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## I. INTRODUCTION

Epidemic spread on complex networks is a widely studied topic in the field of network science [1], covering many applications ranging from diseases and computer viruses, to the spreading of ideas and emotions. While the mathematical study of epidemics dates back to the work of Bernoulli in the 18th century, the focus on the role of the network topology only started at the end of the 20th century with the work of Kephart and White [2]. With the recent observations that networks seem ubiquitous in both natural and man-made systems, a better understanding of the interplay between dynamic processes and network topology has become an important pursuit.

In the theory of epidemics on complex networks, the compartmental model of Kermack and McKendrick [3] from 1927 is regarded as a landmark. In compartmental models, each entity in the population is assumed to be in a certain state, for instance healthy, contagious, immune, aware of the disease, exposed or others. The state of each entity, from now on called "node," can change based on the current state of the node itself and its neighboring nodes. By these local interactions the disease can spread, die out or show other behaviors depending on the model. A general overview of the basic models and current progress in the field of epidemics on complex networks is given in Ref. [1].

Like many network-epidemic studies, we will focus on one specific compartmental model: the susceptible-infected-susceptible (SIS) model. The SIS model is attractive and simple enough for a deep theoretical study, while still complex enough to exhibit global behavior that is nontrivially coupled to the small-scale process and the topology of the underlying network. In the SIS model, each node in the network can be in either of two states: susceptible (S) or infected (I). These states can change over time when an infected node is cured, or when a susceptible node is infected by a sick neighbor. These curing and infection events are stochastic processes that determine the dynamics of the epidemic. For a given initial distribution of infected nodes, basic questions are: What is the evolution of the state of the nodes in the network? How many nodes are infected in the metastable state? Does the

disease die out before reaching a significant fraction of the population?

To address these questions, further assumptions need to be made about the dynamics of the SIS process. In the continuous-time Markovian SIS model, on which this article focuses, the infection and healing events are modeled as independent Poisson processes. More general distributions are possible [4], but in Poisson processes, the waiting times for infection or healing events are exponentially distributed, which means that they satisfy the memoryless property. As a result, the transitions between different disease states in the network become equivalent to state transitions in a Markov chain, which allows the Markovian SIS model to be exactly described [5]. However, since the number of possible states grows exponentially with the number of nodes, this exact description is infeasible for large networks. Consequently, several approximate methods have been proposed. The N-intertwined mean-field approximation (NIMFA) [5] and the heterogeneous mean-field method (HMF) [6,7] are two widely used approximation methods, which are contained in our new framework. An overview of these two methods and other SIS approximation methods can be found in Refs. [1] and [8].

In this article, we present the unified mean-field framework (UMFF), which consists of two general approximation steps. First, a topological approximation leads to a coarse-grained description of the SIS process. Second, a moment-closure approximation further simplifies the SIS process description by omitting higher-order correlations. UMFF contains a number of existing mean-field methods, like NIMFA and HMF as mentioned earlier, and additionally extends the range of known SIS approximation methods. Linear stability analysis of the resulting UMFF equations also leads to the formulation of an epidemic threshold that depends on the choice of approximation steps. Apart from the unification and generalization, our main results are based on the close connection between the infection process in SIS epidemics and the well-studied isoperimetric problem [9,10]. This connection provides novel insights, e.g., about the scaling behavior of the SIS process on large graphs, and allows us to deduce powerful bounds on the UMFF approximations. To our knowledge, such

general bounds for mean-field approximations on graphs are derived for the first time.

Section II starts by defining the SIS epidemic model on networks and elaborates on the feasibility of the exact SIS description. In Sec. III, we present the unified mean-field framework, which consists of the UMFF topological approximation, the UMFF moment-closure approximation, the resulting set of UMFF equations and the UMFF epidemic threshold. In Sec. IV, we show how the UMFF equations follow from the exact SIS equations by subsequently introducing the two general UMFF approximations. Section V describes how existing mean-field methods are contained by UMFF and in particular, we show how UMFF encompasses both NIMFA and HMF. Section VI introduces the isoperimetric problem and describes its analogy with the infection process. This analogy leads to the topological UMFF approximation and bounds. In Sec. VII, we discuss the relation between UMFF and Szemerédi’s regularity lemma and explore the implications of this relation for the SIS process on large graphs. Section VIII overviews some related work. Finally, Sec. IX concludes by summarizing the main properties of UMFF and by suggesting future research directions.

**II. BACKGROUND: THE SIS EPIDEMIC MODEL**

The compartmental SIS epidemic model describes the spread of an epidemic on a network, which we represent by a graph  $G(\mathcal{N}, \mathcal{L})$ . Here,  $\mathcal{N}$  is the set of  $N$  nodes and  $\mathcal{L}$  the set of  $L$  undirected, unweighted links between pairs of nodes. The graph’s topology is conveniently represented by an  $N \times N$  adjacency matrix  $A$ , with elements:

$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (i, j) \in \mathcal{L} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} .$$

Since we consider undirected and unweighted graphs, the adjacency matrix  $A$  is real and symmetric, possessing the following eigendecomposition [11]:

$$A = X \Lambda X^T = \sum_{i=1}^N \lambda_i x_i x_i^T ,$$

where  $X$  is the orthogonal eigenmatrix with eigenvectors  $x_i$  as columns and  $\Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_N)$  is the diagonal matrix with eigenvalues on its diagonal. Because the adjacency matrix  $A$  is real and symmetric, all eigenvalues are real and can be ordered as  $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_N$ . Another graph-related matrix is the Laplacian matrix  $Q$ , defined as

$$Q = \Delta - A ,$$

where  $\Delta$  is the diagonal matrix containing the node degrees. Since the Laplacian  $Q$  is also a real and symmetric matrix, we can write the eigendecomposition:

$$Q = Z M Z^T = \sum_{i=1}^N \mu_i z_i z_i^T ,$$

where  $Z$  is the orthogonal eigenmatrix with eigenvectors  $z_i$  as columns and  $M = \text{diag}(\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_N)$ . Since all rows of  $Q$  sum to zero, it holds that  $Qu = 0$ , where  $u$  is the all-one vector. The eigenvalue equation  $Qu = \mu_N u$  with  $\mu_N = 0$  illustrates

that  $Q$  has at least one zero eigenvalue, belonging to the eigenvector  $\frac{u}{\sqrt{N}}$ . The Laplacian  $Q$  is positive semidefinite, which means that all eigenvalues are non-negative, i.e.,  $\mu_i \geq 0$  for all  $i \leq N$ . Additionally, the multiplicity of the zero eigenvalue  $\mu_N$  is known to be one for connected graphs [11]. Hence, for any connected graph, we can write the ordered sequence of Laplacian eigenvalues:  $0 = \mu_N < \mu_{N-1} \leq \dots \leq \mu_1$ .

The disease state of each node  $n \in \mathcal{N}$  at a given time  $t$ , is captured by a Bernoulli random variable  $W_n(t)$ ; the expression  $W_n(t) = 0$  means that node  $n$  is healthy, but susceptible (S) to the disease, while  $W_n(t) = 1$  means that the node is infected (I) and contagious. The evolution of the disease states over time is governed by the disease dynamics

$$S \rightarrow I \rightarrow S ,$$

which means that susceptible nodes can become infected nodes, which in turn can become susceptible. The  $S \rightarrow I$  transition is called *infection* and can occur when a susceptible node  $n$  has an infected neighbor  $j$  in the network. The  $I \rightarrow S$  transition is called *curing* and captures the process where each infected node has the possibility to cure. To make the SIS dynamics tractable, the infection and curing events are assumed to be independent Poisson processes. In particular, for the curing process,

$$\Pr[W_n(t+h) = 0 | W_n(t) = 1] = \delta e^{-\delta h} \quad (1)$$

means that, disregarding all other processes, the waiting time for the  $I \rightarrow S$  transition is exponentially distributed with rate  $\delta$ . In general, each node  $n$  can have a different, time-dependent rate  $\delta_n(t)$ , but further in this work we confine ourselves to a fixed and time-independent rate  $\delta$ . If we consider just one link between a susceptible node  $n$  and an infected node  $j$ , which we will call an *infective link*, then the infection process obeys

$$\Pr[W_n(t+h) = 1 | W_n(t) = 0] = \beta e^{-\beta h} , \quad (2)$$

where we assume that the infected neighbor node  $j$  stays infected and does not cure, i.e.,  $W_j(t+s) = 1$  for any time  $s \in [0, h]$ . Again, each link  $(n, j) \in \mathcal{L}$  can have a specific rate  $\beta_{nj}(t)$ , but for simplicity we assume a fixed and time-independent rate  $\beta$ . For notational purposes, we will often omit the time reference  $t$  in time-dependent variables by writing  $W_n$  instead of  $W_n(t)$  and similarly for other time-dependent variables. The infection and curing events can be modeled as more general renewal processes [12], which results in different distributions for the waiting times (1) and (2). The corresponding SIS process is described in Ref. [4].

By assuming the infection and curing processes to be independent Poisson processes, the SIS process constitutes a Markov process [12]. For the continuous-time SIS Markov process, the infinitesimal generator can be deduced from the SIS dynamics [5], which allows for an exact description of the SIS process. Unfortunately, there are  $2^N$  possible states for an SIS process on an  $N$  node network, which means that for roughly  $N > 20$ , finding a solution of the  $2^N$  linear equations becomes infeasible on current computers. The computational complexity of representing all possible disease states on a network is the main problem of SIS epidemics on networks. To resolve this complexity problem of the exact SIS equations, it is necessary to introduce approximations.

TABLE I. Overview of node-level and partition-level variables according to a specific partitioning.  $\mathbb{1}_{\{S\}} = 1$  if statement  $S$  is true and zero otherwise.

	Single node	Partition ( $\pi$ )
Node or partition indicator	Node $i \in \{0, 1, \dots, N\}$	Partition $k \in \{0, 1, \dots, K\}$
Indicator vector	$e_i \in \mathbb{R}^N$	$\tilde{e}_k \in \mathbb{R}^K$
Partition sum vector	$(e_i)_j = \mathbb{1}_{\{i=j\}}$ $s_k \in \mathbb{R}^N$ $(s_k)_i = \mathbb{1}_{\{i \in \mathcal{N}_k\}}$	$(\tilde{e}_k)_m = \mathbb{1}_{\{k=m\}}$ N.A.
All-one vector	$u = (1, 1, \dots, 1)^T$	$\tilde{u} = (N_1, N_2, \dots, N_K)^T$
State vector	$w = (w_1, w_2, \dots, w_N)^T$ $w_i = \mathbb{1}_{\{\text{node } i \text{ is infected}\}}$	$\tilde{w} = (\tilde{w}_1, \tilde{w}_2, \dots, \tilde{w}_K)^T$ $\tilde{w}_k = s_k^T w$
Adjacency matrix	$A \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ $a_{ij} = \mathbb{1}_{\{(i,j) \in \mathcal{L}\}}$	$\tilde{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times K}$ $\tilde{a}_{km} = \frac{s_k^T A s_m}{N_k N_m} = \frac{L_{km}}{N_k N_m}$
Submatrix	$A^{(km)}$ $a_{ij}^{(km)} = a_{ij} \mathbb{1}_{\{i \in \mathcal{N}_k \text{ and } j \in \mathcal{N}_m\}}$	$\tilde{A}^{(km)}$ $\tilde{a}_{ij}^{(km)} = \tilde{a}_{ij} \mathbb{1}_{\{i=k \text{ and } j=m\}}$

One family of approximation methods are the mean-field SIS approximations, which we unify and generalize below with our proposed framework.

### III. DEFINITION OF THE UNIFIED MEAN-FIELD FRAMEWORK

Before describing the unified mean-field framework (UMFF), we introduce definitions and notations.

As introduced earlier, we denote the stochastic disease state of node  $n$  at time  $t$  by the Bernoulli random variable  $W_n(t)$ . Because the disease state of each node in the network is a result of the Poissonian infection and curing processes, the disease probabilities of different nodes are not independent. This means that the disease probabilities should be described by the joint probability distribution  $\Pr[W_1(t) = w_1, W_2(t) = w_2, \dots, W_N(t) = w_N]$ , where  $W_n(t)$  is the Bernoulli random variable representing the disease state of node  $n$ , and  $w_n \in \{0, 1\}$  represents a specific outcome of this random variable. If we concatenate the random disease states into the  $N \times 1$  random vector  $W(t) = (W_1(t), W_2(t), \dots, W_N(t))^T$ , and the disease state realizations into the  $N \times 1$  disease-state vector  $w = (w_1, w_2, \dots, w_N)^T$ , then the probability of the network to be in a specific disease state  $w$ , can be written compactly as  $\Pr[W(t) = w]$ . The exact description of the SIS process consists of the probabilities  $\Pr[W(t) = w]$  for all possible disease states  $w \in \{0, 1\}^N$ , which shows, indeed, that the exact SIS description consists of  $2^N$  states.

In order to address the complexity problem of the exact SIS description, UMFF relies on partitions in a graph:

*Definition 1 (Partitioning).* A partitioning  $\pi$  of graph  $G$  defines a partitioning of the node set  $\mathcal{N}$  of  $G$  into  $K$  nonempty, disjoint partitions  $\mathcal{N}_k \subseteq \mathcal{N}$  such that  $\bigcup_{k=1}^K \mathcal{N}_k = \mathcal{N}$ .

By  $N_k = |\mathcal{N}_k|$ , we denote the number of nodes in partition  $k$ , and by  $L_{km}$ , the number of links between nodes from partition  $k$  and  $m$  (and twice the number of links if  $k = m$ , see Table I). For the specific case of  $K = N$  partitions, each node is in a separate partition,  $N_k = 1$  for each partition and  $L_{km} = a_{km}$ . Based on a graph partitioning, the disease information of nodes within a same partition can be grouped, which results in a lower-dimensional description of the disease state and thus of the SIS process. Specifically, for any partitioning  $\pi$ , UMFF

considers the  $K \times 1$  *reduced-state vector*  $\tilde{w}$  instead of the  $N \times 1$  full-state vector  $w$ . In the reduced-state vector  $\tilde{w}$ , the vector component  $\tilde{w}_k$  captures how many nodes are infected in partition  $k$  and equals

$$\tilde{w}_k = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}_k} w_i \quad \text{for any partition } k = 1, 2, \dots, K \quad (3)$$

so that  $\tilde{w}_k$  is an integer bounded by  $0 \leq \tilde{w}_k \leq N_k$ . The reduced-state vector  $\tilde{w}$  contains less information about the disease state than  $w$ , and is a coarser description. In other words, one reduced state  $\tilde{w}$  can correspond to a number of different full states  $w$  (see also Appendix B 2). The  $K \times 1$  reduced-state random vector  $\tilde{W}(t)$  is defined similarly as a simplified description of the random state vector  $W(t)$ , i.e.,  $\tilde{W}_k = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}_k} W_i$ . With this notation, the probability of the network to be in a certain reduced state  $\tilde{w}$  is denoted by  $\Pr[\tilde{W} = \tilde{w}]$ . Furthermore, the expected number of infected nodes in a partition  $k$  is given by  $\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k]$ . The variables that follow from grouping the disease states, together with some additional definitions, are summarized in Table I. Another important characteristic of the SIS process is the number of infective links, which are links with one end node infected and the other healthy, since the infection rate of a healthy node is proportional to the number of infected neighbors of this node. The infective links form the cut set between healthy and infected nodes in the graph [13]. In a partitioning  $\pi$  of the graph, the relations

$$\begin{aligned} (u - w)^T A^{(km)} w &= \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N a_{ij}^{(km)} (1 - w_i) w_j \\ &= \sum_{i \sim j} \mathbb{1}_{\{(1-w_i)w_j \in \mathcal{N}_m\}} \end{aligned}$$

show that  $(u - w)^T A^{(km)} w$  equals the number of infective links between susceptible nodes in partition  $k$  and infected nodes in partition  $m$ .

Based on the notion of a reduced state  $\tilde{w}$ , we present UMFF as

*Definition 2 (Unified mean-field framework).* Consider a graph  $G(\mathcal{N}, \mathcal{L})$ , an SIS epidemic process with rates  $(\beta, \delta)$  and a graph partitioning  $\pi$  of the nodes into  $K$  partitions. The

UMFF equations are approximate equations for the expected number of infected nodes in partition  $k$ :

$$\frac{d\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k]}{dt} \approx -\delta\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k] + \beta \sum_{m=1}^K \tilde{a}_{km}(N_k - \mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k])\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_m]. \quad (4)$$

The UMFF equations follow from simplifying the exact SIS process description, using two approximations:

*Approximation 1 (Topological approximation).* The number of infective links between susceptible nodes in partition  $k$  and infected nodes in partition  $m$  are approximated by

$$(u - w)^T A^{(km)} w \approx (\tilde{u} - \tilde{w})^T \tilde{A}^{(km)} \tilde{w} = \tilde{a}_{km}(N_k - \tilde{w}_k)\tilde{w}_m. \quad (5)$$

*Approximation 2 (Moment-closure approximation).* The covariance between the random variables  $\tilde{W}_k$  and  $\tilde{W}_m$  is approximated by zero:

$$\text{Cov}[\tilde{W}_k, \tilde{W}_m] \approx 0 \Rightarrow \mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k \tilde{W}_m] \approx \mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k]\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_m]. \quad (6)$$

In the next section, we show how the UMFF equations are deduced from the exact SIS process description subject to approximations (5) and (6). The idea behind the topological approximation is further discussed in Sec. VI, while the moment-closure approximation is addressed in Appendix C. Finally, the UMFF equations (4) also lead to the formulation of an epidemic threshold:

*Definition 3 (UMFF epidemic threshold).* For a graph  $G(\mathcal{N}, \mathcal{L})$  and a partitioning  $\pi$ , the UMFF epidemic threshold  $\tau_\pi$  obeys

$$\tau_\pi^{-1} = \lambda_{\max}(\tilde{A} \text{diag}(N_1, N_2, \dots, N_K)), \quad (7)$$

where  $\lambda_{\max}(M)$  denotes the largest eigenvalue or spectral radius of the matrix  $M$ . Furthermore, the UMFF epidemic threshold is lower bounded by  $\tau_\pi \geq \lambda_1^{-1}$  for any choice of partitioning the graph.

Equation (7) for the UMFF epidemic threshold and the lower bound are derived in Appendix A based on a linear stability analysis of the UMFF equations. The UMFF epidemic threshold  $\tau_\pi$  specifies the phase transition (after sufficiently long time) between the dying-out regime when  $\frac{\beta}{\delta} < \tau_\pi$ , and the very long survival regime when  $\frac{\beta}{\delta} > \tau_\pi$ . While the description of UMFF does not distinguish between different choices of partitioning the graph, which implies that any epidemic threshold  $\tau_\pi$  is equally valid, certain choices of partitioning are expected to lead to closer approximations of the real dynamics, and thus yield more reliable predictions for the epidemic threshold, than others. The accuracy of the UMFF approximations is further discussed in Sec. VI, where bounds are given for the topological approximation. Since every epidemic threshold is lower bounded by  $\tau_\pi \geq \lambda_1^{-1}$ , which equals the  $N$ -intertwined mean-field approximation (NIMFA) threshold [5], every UMFF threshold will predict that, for  $\frac{\beta}{\delta} < \lambda_1^{-1}$ , the disease dies out exponentially fast for sufficiently large time [13]. Hence, the NIMFA epidemic threshold provides a safe criterion for  $\frac{\beta}{\delta}$  to ensure that the epidemic dies out.

#### IV. DERIVATION OF THE UNIFIED MEAN-FIELD FRAMEWORK

Figure 1 overviews the variables and approximations involved in UMFF, and how the UMFF equations are derived from the exact SIS equations. Additionally, Fig. 1 shows for which particular choices of partitioning, UMFF is equivalent to existing mean-field methods (see also Sec. V). In the next sections, we follow the variables in Fig. 1 from left to right to derive the UMFF equations.

##### A. Exact SIS equations

The UMFF approximation of the SIS process is based on two process variables: the reduced-state probability  $\Pr[\tilde{W}(t) = \tilde{w}]$  for each reduced state  $\tilde{w}$ , and the expected number of infected nodes  $\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k(t)]$  for each partition  $k$ . In Appendix B 2, the reduced-state probabilities are derived based on the birth-death equations as

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\Pr[\tilde{W} = \tilde{w}]}{dt} = & -\delta \sum_{k=1}^K \tilde{w}_k \Pr[\tilde{W} = \tilde{w}] \\ & + \delta \sum_{k=1}^K (\tilde{w}_k + 1) \Pr[\tilde{W} = \tilde{w} + \tilde{e}_k] \\ & - \beta \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{m=1}^K \sum_{w \in \mathcal{W}_{\tilde{w}_k}^k \cap \mathcal{W}_{\tilde{w}_m}^m} (u - w)^T A^{(km)} w \\ & \times \Pr[W = w] \\ & + \beta \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{m=1}^K \sum_{w \in \mathcal{W}_{(\tilde{w}_k - 1)}^k \cap \mathcal{W}_{\tilde{w}_m}^m} (u - w)^T A^{(km)} w \\ & \times \Pr[W = w] \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

for any reduced-state vector  $\tilde{w}$ , where  $\mathcal{W}_x^k = \{w \in \{0, 1\}^N \mid w^T s_k = x\}$  is the set of all full states  $w$  with  $x$  infected nodes in partition  $k$ .

For each partition  $k$ , Appendix B 3 derives the governing equation for the expected number of infected nodes as

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k]}{dt} = & -\delta\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k] + \beta \sum_{m=1}^K \sum_{\tilde{w}_k=0}^{N_k} \sum_{\tilde{w}_m=0}^{N_m} \\ & \times \sum_{w \in \mathcal{W}_{\tilde{w}_k}^k \cap \mathcal{W}_{\tilde{w}_m}^m} (u - w)^T A^{(km)} w \Pr[W = w]. \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

##### B. Birth-death process

Appendix B 2 illustrates that the rate of the infection transitions  $\tilde{w} \rightarrow \tilde{w} + \tilde{e}_k$  and  $\tilde{w} - \tilde{e}_k \rightarrow \tilde{w}$ , which correspond to a node in partition  $k$  being infected, depends on the number of *infective links*. The consequence is that the reduced-state probability  $\Pr[\tilde{W} = \tilde{w}]$  in (8) depends on the full-state probability  $\Pr[W = w]$ , which means that Eqs. (8) are not closed. This closure problem is solved by invoking the UMFF topological approximation (5)

$$(u - w)^T A^{(km)} w \approx (\tilde{u} - \tilde{w})^T \tilde{A}^{(km)} \tilde{w},$$

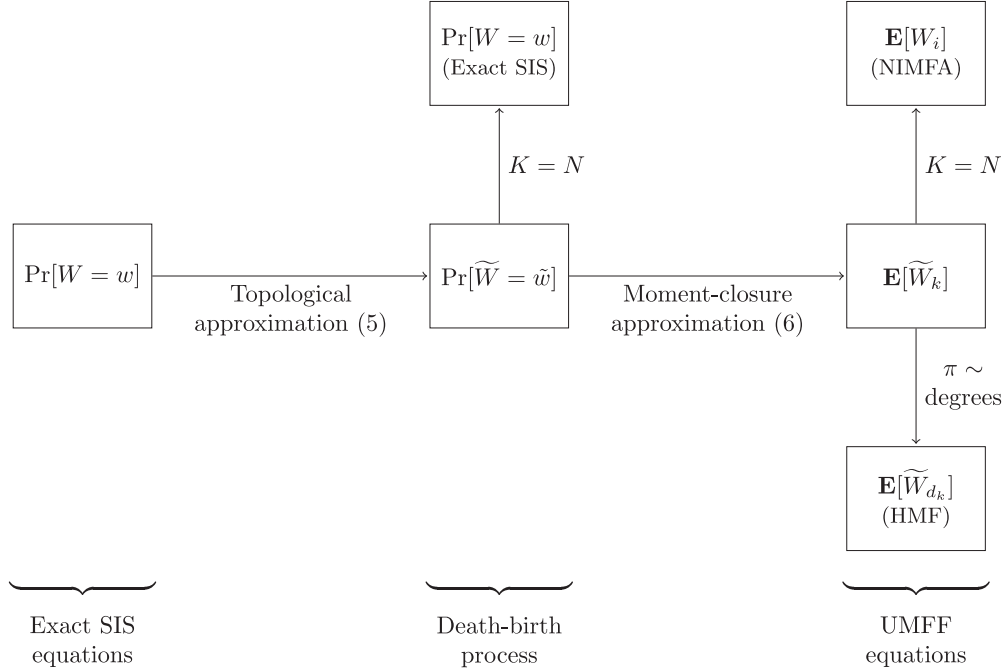


FIG. 1. Schematic representation of the relationship between the different variables involved in the UMFF approximation steps.

which enables the simplifications

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{w \in \mathcal{W}_{\tilde{w}_k}^k \cap \mathcal{W}_{\tilde{w}_m}^m} (u - w)^T A^{(km)} w \Pr[W = w] &\approx (\tilde{u} - \tilde{w})^T \tilde{A}^{(km)} \tilde{w} \Pr[\tilde{W}_k = \tilde{w}_k, \tilde{W}_m = \tilde{w}_m] \\
 \sum_{w \in \mathcal{W}_{(\tilde{w}_k-1)}^k \cap \mathcal{W}_{\tilde{w}_m}^m} (u - w)^T A^{(km)} w \Pr[W = w] &\approx (\tilde{u} - (\tilde{w} - \tilde{e}_k))^T \tilde{A}^{(km)} \tilde{w} \Pr[\tilde{W}_k = \tilde{w}_k - 1, \tilde{W}_m = \tilde{w}_m].
 \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

Substituting (10) in the exact Eqs. (8) yields

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{d \Pr[\tilde{W} = \tilde{w}]}{dt} &\approx -\delta \sum_{k=1}^K \tilde{w}_k \Pr[\tilde{W} = \tilde{w}] + \delta \sum_{k=1}^K (\tilde{w}_k + 1) \Pr[\tilde{W} = \tilde{w} + \tilde{e}_k] \\
 &\quad - \beta \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{m=1}^K (\tilde{u} - \tilde{w}) \tilde{A}^{(km)} \tilde{w} \Pr[\tilde{W}_k = \tilde{w}_k, \tilde{W}_m = \tilde{w}_m] \\
 &\quad + \beta \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{m=1}^K (\tilde{u} - (\tilde{w} - \tilde{e}_k)) \tilde{A}^{(km)} \tilde{w} \Pr[\tilde{W}_k = \tilde{w}_k - 1, \tilde{W}_m = \tilde{w}_m],
 \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

which no longer depends on the full-state probability  $\Pr[W = w]$ . Although cumbersome, (11) is a closed set of equations that completely characterizes  $\Pr[\tilde{W}(t) = \tilde{w}]$  for a given initial distribution  $\Pr[\tilde{W}(0) = \tilde{w}]$ .

Moreover, since only transitions of the form  $\tilde{w} \rightarrow \tilde{w} \pm \tilde{e}_k$  and  $\tilde{w} \pm \tilde{e}_k \rightarrow \tilde{w}$  exist (i.e., only single nodes are infected or cured during one event), Eq. (11) is equivalent to the description of a  $K$ -dimensional birth-death process. The reduced-state vector  $\tilde{w}$  can be regarded as a coordinate in the  $(N_1 + 1) \times (N_2 + 1) \times \dots \times (N_K + 1)$  lattice for this birth-death process. Figure 2 illustrates for the specific case of  $K = 1$  how the state reduction  $w \rightarrow \tilde{w}$  results in a lattice transition structure, i.e., a birth-death process. Furthermore, Eq. (11) indicates that the birth rates are quadratic in  $\tilde{w}$  and

the death rates are linear in  $\tilde{w}$ , which means that the SIS process is equivalent to a higher-dimensional quadratic birth-death process. The number of infected nodes in the complete graph  $K_N$  can be exactly described as a quadratic birth-death process [12,14]. While no analytical solutions exist for the quadratic birth-death process [14], the equivalence between the SIS and the quadratic birth-death process is an interesting observation and means that insights in one setting translate directly to the other (see also Sec. IX).

### C. UMFF equations

The exact Eq. (9) for the expected number of infected nodes  $\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k]$  is not “closed” for two reasons: the exact SIS dynamics

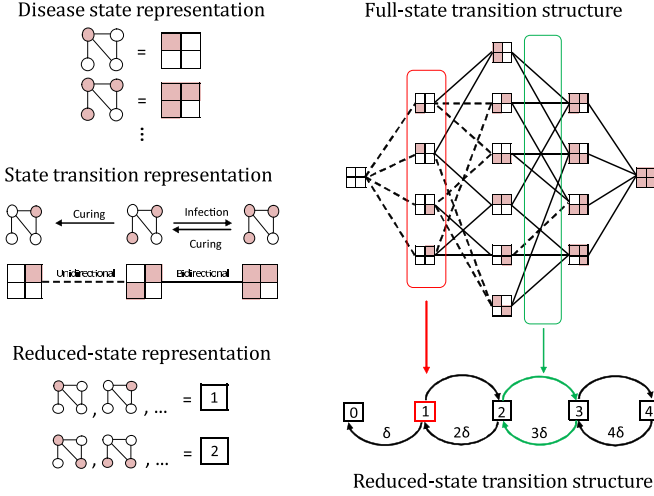


FIG. 2. Example of the transition structure of the SIS process on a four-node network. On the left, a network is shown together with its schematic representation. Sick nodes in the network are colored pink, which is encoded in the schematic representation as pink squares. State transitions are represented by connected squares. Full lines represent bidirectional transitions and dotted lines represent unidirectional transitions. The schematic representation of the reduced network disease state is simply the number of infected nodes in that state. On the right, the transition structure of the SIS process on this four-node network is shown. Already for a small network, the full-state transition structure turns out to be complex. As an illustration of the UMFF approach, the full-state transition structure is simplified to the reduced-state transition structure for a one-partitioning ( $K = 1$ ). This partitioning combines all the full states with the same number of infected nodes into a single reduced state. Additionally, the reduced-state transition rates are a combination of the full-state transition rates. Appendix B 2 describes this reduction in more detail.

depend on the number of infective links (i.e., on full-state probability  $\Pr[W = w]$ ) and on higher-order moments, i.e., the first-order moment Eqs. (9) depend on the second-order moments  $\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k \tilde{W}_m]$  (see also Appendix C). Similar to the derivation of the birth-death process, invoking the UMFF topological approximation (5) results in simplifications (10), which allows Eq. (9) to be approximated by

$$\frac{d\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k]}{dt} = -\delta\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k] + \beta \sum_{m=1}^K \sum_{\tilde{w}_k=0}^{N_k} \sum_{\tilde{w}_m=0}^{N_m} (\tilde{u} - \tilde{w})^T \tilde{A}^{(km)} \tilde{w} \times \Pr[\tilde{W}_k = \tilde{w}_k, \tilde{W}_m = \tilde{w}_m]. \quad (12)$$

While the dependence on the full-state probability  $\Pr[W = w]$  is solved, Eq. (12) still contains higher-order moment terms

$$\sum_{\tilde{w}_k=0}^{N_k} \sum_{\tilde{w}_m=0}^{N_m} \tilde{w}_k \tilde{w}_m \Pr[\tilde{W}_k = \tilde{w}_k, \tilde{W}_m = \tilde{w}_m] = \mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k \tilde{W}_m] \quad (13)$$

for partition pairs  $(k, m)$ . In general, these second-order moments  $\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k \tilde{W}_m]$  cannot be determined from  $\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k]$  and  $\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_m]$  alone. Invoking the UMFF moment-closure approximation (6)

$$\text{Cov}[\tilde{W}_k, \tilde{W}_m] \approx 0 \Rightarrow \mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k \tilde{W}_m] \approx \mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k] \mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_m]$$

solves this closure problem by enabling Eq. (12) to be approximated by

$$\frac{d\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k]}{dt} \approx -\delta\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k] + \beta \sum_{m=1}^K \tilde{a}_{km} (N_k - \mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k]) \mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_m],$$

which are the UMFF equations (4). In Appendix C an extension of the UMFF equations for higher-order moments is described. These higher-order equations are more general, but a detailed description is beyond the focus of this article.

### 1. Bounds on the moment-closure approximation

For the particular case of  $K = N$  partitions (for which UMFF is equivalent to NIMFA, see Sec. V), the infection probabilities of nodes are non-negatively correlated [15], i.e.,  $\text{Cov}[\tilde{W}_k, \tilde{W}_m] \geq 0$ . Based on the definition of the covariance

$$\text{Cov}[\tilde{W}_k, \tilde{W}_m] = \mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k \tilde{W}_m] - \mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k] \mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_m] \quad (14)$$

we can rewrite Eq. (12), which is only exact in the  $K = N$  partitioning, as

$$\frac{d\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k]}{dt} = -\delta\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k] + \beta \sum_{m=1}^K \tilde{a}_{km} (N_k - \mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k]) \mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_m] - \beta \sum_{m=1}^N \tilde{a}_{km} \text{Cov}[\tilde{W}_k, \tilde{W}_m]. \quad (15)$$

Omitting the last, negative sum in Eq. (15) implies that for  $K = N$  partitions, the moment-closure approximation is an upper bound of the true process. However, for any other partitioning ( $K \neq N$ ), we do not know about any such results for  $\text{Cov}[\tilde{W}_k, \tilde{W}_m]$ . In other words, we do not know how to bound the UMFF moment-closure approximation error.

## V. EXISTING MEAN-FIELD METHODS CONTAINED BY UMFF

An important feature of UMFF is that by particular choices of graph partitioning, the UMFF equations are equivalent to existing mean-field methods. In particular, the widely used N-intertwined mean-field approximation [5] and heterogeneous mean-field approximation [6] are contained by UMFF. Additionally, by the higher-order extension of UMFF described in Appendix C, also second-order NIMFA [15] and pair quenched mean-field theory [16] are contained by (higher-order) UMFF.

### A. N-intertwined mean-field approximation (NIMFA)

The N-intertwined mean-field approximation [5] incorporates the full topological information of the graph. The only approximation consists of assuming independence between the infection states of adjacent nodes, i.e., the moment-closure approximation (6). Denoting the infection probability of node  $k$  by  $\rho_k = \Pr[W_k = 1]$ , the NIMFA equations for  $1 \leq k \leq N$  are given by [5]

$$\frac{d\rho_k}{dt} = -\delta\rho_k + \sum_{m=1}^N \beta a_{km} (1 - \rho_k) \rho_m. \quad (16)$$

The same NIMFA equations (16) are retrieved from UMFF with  $K = N$  partitions, which corresponds to each node being

in a separate partition. The expected number of infected nodes in a partition  $\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k]$  is then equal to the infection probability  $\rho_k$  of node  $k$  that constitutes that partition. The  $K = N$  partitioning, where  $N_k = 1$  and  $\tilde{A} = A$ , illustrates that the NIMFA equations (16) are indeed a particular case of the UMFF equations (4).

### B. Heterogeneous mean-field method (HMF)

Pastor-Satorras and Vespignani [6] introduced the heterogeneous mean-field method, which approximates the SIS process assuming that all nodes of a certain degree are equivalent (in their connections with other nodes). Consequently, the SIS process is described based on the degree distribution of the underlying graph. Differently from UMFF and NIMFA, HMF [6] does not assume a known graph  $G$ , but rather considers a class of graphs. Specifically, in HMF the epidemic is assumed to spread on a graph with a specified degree distribution and with the link probability between pairs of nodes independent of their degrees. For each degree  $d_1 \leq d_k \leq d_K$ , the probability distribution  $\Pr[D = d_k]$  denotes the probability that a randomly chosen node has degree  $d_k$ . The variable  $0 \leq \tilde{\rho}_k \leq 1$  reflects the expected fraction of infected nodes with degree  $d_k$ , leading to the HMF [6] equations:

$$\frac{d\tilde{\rho}_k}{dt} = -\delta\tilde{\rho}_k + \beta d_k(1 - \tilde{\rho}_k)\Theta, \quad (17)$$

where  $\Theta$  is the probability that a healthy node is linked to an infected node and calculated in Ref. [6] as

$$\Theta = \sum_{m=1}^K \tilde{\rho}_m \frac{d_m \Pr[D = d_m]}{\sum_{i=1}^K d_i \Pr[D = d_i]}. \quad (18)$$

Substituting expression (18) for  $\Theta$  in (17) gives

$$\frac{d\tilde{\rho}_k}{dt} = -\delta\tilde{\rho}_k + \beta \sum_{m=1}^K \frac{d_k d_m \Pr[D = d_m]}{\sum_{i=1}^K d_i \Pr[D = d_i]} (1 - \tilde{\rho}_k) \tilde{\rho}_m.$$

Introducing the variable  $\rho_k = \Pr[D = d_k] \tilde{\rho}_k$  then yields

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\rho_k}{dt} &= -\delta\rho_k + \beta \sum_{m=1}^K \frac{d_k d_m}{\sum_{i=1}^K d_i \Pr[D = d_i]} \\ &\times (\Pr[D = d_k] - \rho_k) \rho_m. \end{aligned} \quad (19)$$

While Eqs. (19) are derived in HMF for a probabilistic graph, the same equations are found from UMFF for a particular graph with the same degree distribution, so that the number of nodes with degree  $k$  equals  $N_k = c \Pr[D = d_k]$  for some scalar  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ , and with degree-uncorrelated links. For such a graph, the number of links  $L_{km} = s_k^T A s_m$  between nodes of degree  $d_k$  and degree  $d_m$  obeys the consistency relation  $\sum_{m=1}^K L_{km} = N_k d_k$  as

$$L_{km} = \frac{d_k d_m N_k N_m}{\sum_{i=1}^K d_i N_i},$$

from which the UMFF equations follow as

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k]}{dt} &= -\delta\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k] + \beta \sum_{m=1}^K \frac{d_k d_m}{\sum_{i=1}^K d_i N_i} \\ &\times (N_k - \mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k]) \mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_m]. \end{aligned} \quad (20)$$

Equations (20) are equivalent to (19) for the scaling  $\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k] = c\rho_k$ , where  $c$  is the same scalar relating  $N_k$  to  $\Pr[D = d_k]$ . Hence, the HMF equations are found from the UMFF framework by considering a specific graph realization consistent with the random graph properties assumed by HMF.

Boguñá and Pastor-Satorras [7] extend the HMF model to random graphs with correlated degrees. Instead of only assuming  $\Pr[D = d_k]$ , also the probability  $\Pr[i \sim j | i \in \mathcal{N}_k, j \in \mathcal{N}_m]$  that a node  $i$  of degree  $d_k$  links with a node  $j$  of degree  $d_m$  is assumed to be known for any pair of degrees  $(d_k, d_m)$ . With these extra assumptions in the HMF methodology, the SIS process is then approximately described based on the degree distribution and the linking probabilities. If we now consider a specific graph realization with  $N_k = c_1 \Pr[D = d_k]$  nodes of degree  $d_k$  and with  $L_{km} = c_2 \Pr[i \sim j | i \in \mathcal{N}_k, j \in \mathcal{N}_m]$  links between nodes with degree  $d_k$  and  $d_m$  (for some scalars  $c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ ), then again the UMFF equations (4) are equivalent to the correlated HMF equations. In the same way that the HMF equations are fully determined by the degree distribution and the linking probabilities, also the UMFF equations are fully determined by  $N_k$  and  $L_{km}$ .

Since (correlated) HMF is a particular case of UMFF, HMF implicitly assumes the UMFF moment-closure approximation (6) with respect to the partitioning according to node degree. As discussed in Sec. IV C, this means that, apart from simulation results [17], we do not know in general whether HMF upper- or lower-bounds the infection probabilities, nor how HMF relates to the exact SIS process in general. But a consequence of the equivalence between UMFF (4) and (correlated) HMF (19) is that we can bound the topological approximation errors of HMF (with respect to a specific realization of the probabilistic graph model).

Since the partitions  $\mathcal{N}_k$  do not need to correspond to node degrees specifically, UMFF enables the description of SIS dynamics for a wider range of graph classes. For any graph model, where a probability distribution  $\Pr[K = k]$  of a node belonging to partition  $\mathcal{N}_k$  is given, together with a linking probability  $\Pr[i \sim j | i \in \mathcal{N}_k, j \in \mathcal{N}_m]$ , the UMFF equations can be directly found. Such graph models are more general than graphs with degree-based partitions only and, in some settings, a specific structure in the graph might suggest a natural way to partition the nodes such that grouped nodes have a similar connectivity to the rest of the network (see also further directions in Sec. IX).

### C. Second-order NIMFA and pair quenched mean-field theory

As described in Appendix C, second-order NIMFA (sNIMFA) [18] is a second-order extension of NIMFA, approximating the joint probability  $\Pr[W = w]$  by first- and second-order moments  $\mathbf{E}[W_i]$  and  $\mathbf{E}[W_i W_j]$  for all nodes  $i \neq j$ . Similarly, pair quenched mean-field theory (pQMF) [16] is an extension of quenched mean-field theory (QMF) [19], which is an SIS approximation method introduced to investigate the epidemic threshold. The extension QMF  $\rightarrow$  pQMF is conceptually the same as NIMFA  $\rightarrow$  sNIMFA, but a different moment-closure approximation approximates the third-order moments. Both sNIMFA as well as pQMF are contained by the higher-order UMFF equations (C1), for  $K = N$  partitions and order  $n = 2$  if the generic moment-

closure approximation is chosen as in Refs. [15] and [16], respectively.

**VI. THE ISOPERIMETRIC PROBLEM IN SIS EPIDEMICS**

In this section, we focus on the UMFF topological approximation (5). We first describe how the closure problem of Eqs. (8) and (9) can be related to the isoperimetric problem. Then, we show how this analogy leads to approximation (5) and bounds on the approximation error.

**A. The isoperimetric problem**

The isoperimetric problem is an ancient problem that has interested many mathematicians throughout history. For the most basic form of the isoperimetric problem, we refer to Blåsjö [9], who provides a broad historical and conceptual overview of the isoperimetric problem:

*Problem 1 (The isoperimetric problem).* Among all figures in the plane with a given perimeter  $P$ , which one encloses the greatest area  $A$ ?

*Theorem 1 (The isoperimetric theorem).* The solution to the isoperimetric problem is the circle of perimeter  $P$ .

*Theorem 2 (The isoperimetric inequality).* For all figures with a given perimeter  $P$  and area  $A$ , it holds that  $P^2 - 4\pi A \geq 0$  and equality only occurs for the circle.

While the question in problem 1 might seem simple and its solution intuitive, it took until the 20th century to rigorously prove the isoperimetric theorem. After the extensive historical study of the isoperimetric problem in the 2D plane, similar problems were studied in different geometric contexts. The basic interest in these problems always consisted of describing the relationship between the *volume* and *surface* of a certain object, leading to isoperimetric inequalities of the form

$$\theta_{\min} \leq f(\text{volume}) + g(\text{surface}) \leq \theta_{\max}. \quad (21)$$

For instance, Osserman [10] describes isoperimetric inequalities in higher dimensions, on curved surfaces and on general Riemannian manifolds. The geometric context of interest for UMFF, is the study of the isoperimetric problem on graphs (see, for instance, Ref. [20]).

**B. Infective links and infected nodes: An isoperimetric analogy**

The dynamics of SIS epidemics are governed by two processes: infected nodes are cured and infection takes place on infective links, i.e., the links between healthy and infected nodes. *The curing process is proportional to the number of infected nodes while the infection process is proportional to the number of infective links.* In a nontechnical way, we can associate the number of infected nodes to a volume on the graph, while the infective links accord to a surface or interface around the infected volume, as illustrated by Fig. 3. *The curing process is then proportional to the infected volume, while the infection process is proportional to the infective surface.*

To use the concepts of volume and surface adequately, we must define a unit of volume and surface in the context of graphs: we define a set of one node to have unit volume, and a set of one link to have unit surface. Other choices are possible, e.g., the volume of a node being proportional to its degree, but for the purpose of deriving and bounding the

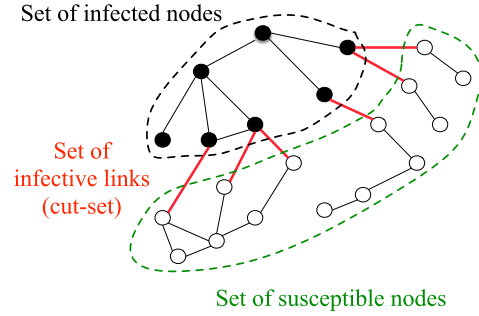


FIG. 3. Schematic of the disease state in a network. The infected and healthy nodes determine two separate partitions separated by the cut set, the set of infective links.

UMFF topological approximation (5), this would be a less natural choice.

In the derivation of the exact reduced-state Kolmogorov equations (8), the transition rate between reduced states depends on the number of infective links. Hence, the exact equations (8) for  $\Pr[\tilde{W} = \tilde{w}]$  and (9) for  $\mathbb{E}[\tilde{W}]$  are not closed, because they contain terms of the form  $(u - w)^T A^{(km)} w \Pr[W = w]$ . In the language of the isoperimetric problem, this *closure problem* translates to the volume equations (8) and (9) containing terms related to the surface. The UMFF topological approximation (5) replaces the surface term by a function of volume terms and thus solves the closure problem. Now, by analogy with the isoperimetric problem, we can bound the approximation error caused by this replacement, as shown in Fig. 4, where  $\epsilon$  represents the introduced error.

It remains to find the correct translation of the isoperimetric inequality into the setting of SIS epidemics. The UMFF topological approximation is defined as (5)

$$(u - w)^T A^{(km)} w \approx (\tilde{u} - \tilde{w})^T \tilde{A}^{(km)} \tilde{w},$$

which we can rewrite by introducing an error term  $\epsilon \in \mathbb{R}$  as

$$(u - w)^T A^{(km)} w = (\tilde{u} - \tilde{w})^T \tilde{A}^{(km)} \tilde{w} + \epsilon, \quad (22)$$

or, by upper-bounding the error term  $|\epsilon| \leq \theta$ , as

$$|(u - w)^T A^{(km)} w - (\tilde{u} - \tilde{w})^T \tilde{A}^{(km)} \tilde{w}| \leq \theta. \quad (23)$$

In the next subsection, we specify the error bound  $\theta$  based on the isoperimetric inequalities on graphs. More than just providing an error bound, the analogy with the isoperimetric problem and the mathematical techniques in the proofs (see Appendix D) also provide a motivation for the specific form of the UMFF topological approximation (5).

**C. Isoperimetric inequalities for the number of infective links**

The bound for the approximation error is based on the isoperimetric and discrepancy inequalities of Chung [20]:

*Theorem 3 (General-graph isoperimetric inequality).* For a graph  $G(\mathcal{N}, \mathcal{L})$  and a partitioning  $\pi$ , the error of the UMFF topological approximation (5) between any two partitions  $k$  and  $m$  is bounded as

$$\begin{aligned} & |(u - w)^T A^{(km)} w - (\tilde{u} - \tilde{w})^T \tilde{A}^{(km)} \tilde{w}| \\ & \leq \frac{\theta}{N} \sqrt{\tilde{w}_m (N - \tilde{w}_m) (N_k - \tilde{w}_k) [N - (N_k - \tilde{w}_k)]}, \quad (24) \end{aligned}$$



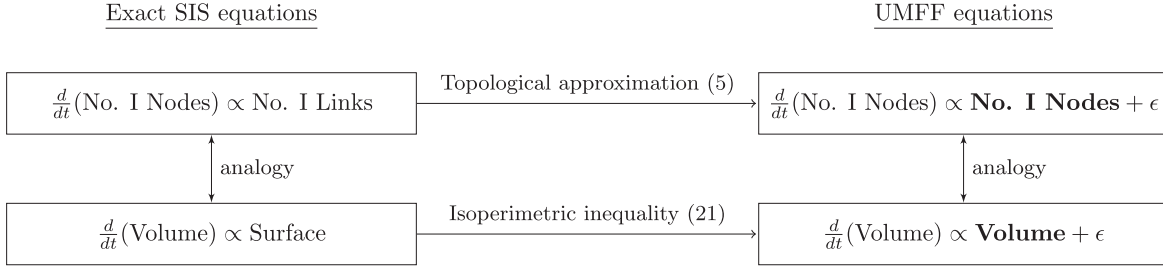


FIG. 4. Conceptual diagram depicting the analogy between the UMFF topological approximation (5) and the isoperimetric inequality (21).

where  $|\tilde{a}_{km} - \mu_i| \leq \theta$  holds for  $1 \leq i < N$ , with  $\mu_i$  the eigenvalues of the Laplacian matrix corresponding to adjacency matrix  $A$ .

For biregular graphs  $A^{(km)}$ , meaning that  $A^{(km)} s_m = c_1 s_m$  and  $s_k^T A^{(km)} = c_2 s_k^T$  for some constants  $c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ , a tighter bound can be given based on interlacing techniques of Haemers [21]:

*Theorem 4 (Biregular-graph isoperimetric inequality).* For a graph  $G(\mathcal{N}, \mathcal{L})$  and a partitioning  $\pi$  such that  $A^{(km)}$  is biregular for some partitions  $k$  and  $m$ , the error of the UMFF topological approximation (5) is bounded as

$$|(u - w)^T A^{(km)} w - (\tilde{u} - \tilde{w})^T \tilde{A}^{(km)} \tilde{w}| \leq \frac{\lambda_2}{\sqrt{N_k N_m}} \sqrt{\tilde{w}_k (N_k - \tilde{w}_k) \tilde{w}_m (N_m - \tilde{w}_m)}, \quad (25)$$

where  $\lambda_2$  is the second-largest eigenvalue of  $A_{km,r} = A^{(km)} + A^{(mk)}$ .

Theorem 3 and Theorem 4, proved in Appendix D, rely heavily on proofs given by Chung [20] and Haemers [21].

## VII. UMFF AND SZEMERÉDI'S REGULARITY LEMMA

The isoperimetric problem is a well-studied mathematical problem that appears in many different fields, including graph theory and network science, and thus provides a conceptual link between those fields. For instance, Szemerédi's regularity lemma (SRL) is a lemma with interesting implications for UMFF, which follows from the relation of both UMFF and SRL with the isoperimetric problem. We will discuss how SRL may indicate for which graphs the UMFF topological approximation (5) is expected to be accurate, and for which the SIS dynamics are thus well approximated by the UMFF equations.

### A. Szemerédi's regularity lemma

The following definitions and interpretations are based on Diestel's [22] description of SRL. We start by defining a so-called regularity condition between pairs of partitions, which is related to the isoperimetric inequality.

*Definition 4 ( $\epsilon$ -regular partition pair).* [22] Consider a graph  $G(\mathcal{N}, \mathcal{L})$  and two disjoint node partitions  $\mathcal{N}_k, \mathcal{N}_m \subseteq \mathcal{N}$ . If for any pair of subsets  $\mathcal{N}_x \subseteq \mathcal{N}_k$  and  $\mathcal{N}_y \subseteq \mathcal{N}_m$  of size  $N_x$  and  $N_y$  with  $N_x \geq \epsilon N_k$  and  $N_y \geq \epsilon N_m$  for some real  $\epsilon > 0$ , the inequality

$$\left| \frac{s_x^T A^{(km)} s_y}{N_x N_y} - \frac{s_k^T A^{(km)} s_m}{N_k N_m} \right| \leq \epsilon \quad (26)$$

holds, then we say that the partition pair  $(k, m)$  is  $\epsilon$ -regular.

Inequality (26) can be rewritten as

$$\left| s_x^T A^{(km)} s_y - \frac{L_{km}}{N_k N_m} N_x N_y \right| \leq \epsilon N_x N_y, \quad (27)$$

which shows that the regularity condition (26) is related to the difference between the size of the cut set  $s_x^T A^{(km)} s_y$  (for all subsets of partitions  $k, m$  with  $N_x, N_y$  nodes, respectively) and the approximate size of the cut set:  $\frac{L_{km}}{N_k N_m} N_x N_y$ . For lower values of  $\epsilon$ , the regularity condition becomes stronger. First, because the true size of the cut set can deviate less from the approximate cut-set size if  $\epsilon$  is smaller, and secondly, because the regularity condition must hold for a larger range of subsets  $(\mathcal{N}_x, \mathcal{N}_y)$ , since  $N_x \geq \epsilon N_k$  is a less stringent condition if  $\epsilon$  is lower (and similarly for  $\mathcal{N}_y$ ). Based on the notion of  $\epsilon$ -regular partition pairs, we define a regularity condition on a partitioning  $\pi$  of a graph:

*Definition 5 ( $\epsilon$ -regular graph partitioning).* [22] Consider a graph  $G(\mathcal{N}, \mathcal{L})$  with a partitioning  $\pi$  of the nodes into  $K + 1$  partitions  $\{\mathcal{N}_0, \mathcal{N}_1, \dots, \mathcal{N}_K\}$ . Such a graph partitioning is called  $\epsilon$ -regular if it meets the following conditions:

- (i)  $N_0 \leq \epsilon N$
- (ii)  $N_1 = N_2 = \dots = N_K$
- (iii) All except at most  $\epsilon K^2$  of the partition pairs  $(k, m)$  for  $1 \leq k < m \leq K$  are  $\epsilon$ -regular.

Roughly speaking, a graph partitioning is  $\epsilon$ -regular if it contains  $K$  equally sized partitions (ii) such that most partition pairs are regular (iii), where one additional "small" partition is allowed to exist (i) on which conditions (ii) and (iii) do not apply. For a given  $K$ , a smaller  $\epsilon$  strengthens the regularity conditions. First, because the regularity condition between partition pairs becomes stronger, second, because  $N_0 \leq \epsilon N$  means that a lower number of nodes are allowed to make up the "leftover partition"  $\mathcal{N}_0$  and, finally, because  $\epsilon K^2$  becomes smaller, implying that an increasing proportion of the partition pairs need to satisfy the regularity condition (26). Since condition (iii) holds for partition pairs  $(k, m)$  with  $k \neq m$ , the regularity condition applies only to links between partitions and not within partitions. Based on the regularity notion of a graph partitioning, Szemerédi's regularity lemma is a statement about the possibility of finding a regular partitioning in arbitrary graphs, with a number  $K$  of partitions effectively independent of the size  $N$  of the graph.

*Definition 6 (Szemerédi's regularity lemma).* For every  $\epsilon > 0$  and every integer  $K_{\min} \geq 1$ , there exists an integer  $K_{\max}$  such that every graph on  $N \geq K_{\min}$  nodes admits an  $\epsilon$ -regular graph partitioning in  $K$  partitions, with  $K_{\min} \leq K \leq K_{\max}$ .

The proof of SRL can be found in Diestel [22]. We exemplify the lemma: if we take a certain  $\epsilon$  and choose

$K_{\min} = 10$ , then SRL states that there is an integer  $K_{\max}$ , such that for any graph with  $N > 10$  nodes there exists an  $\epsilon$ -regular partitioning of  $10 \leq K \leq K_{\max}$  partitions. While for  $N \leq K_{\max}$ , the existence of an  $\epsilon$ -regular partitioning automatically holds by choosing the  $K = N$  partitioning, the result becomes stronger for  $N > K_{\max}$ . For very large graphs, i.e.,  $N \gg K_{\max} \geq K$ , SRL states that it is always possible to have an  $\epsilon$ -regular  $K$ -partitioning. An interesting interpretation of SRL is due to Tao [23] who states that, roughly speaking: ‘‘SRL can be viewed as a structure theorem for large dense graphs, approximating such graphs to any specified accuracy by objects, whose complexity is bounded independently of the number of nodes in the original graph.’’ Applied to UMFF, this means that, for any large dense graph and any desired accuracy  $\epsilon$ , there exists a partitioning in  $K \ll N$  partitions, such that the topological approximation of UMFF between most  $(k, m)$  partition pairs ( $k \neq m$ ) is  $\epsilon$ -accurate, in the sense that  $(k, m)$  are  $\epsilon$ -regular partition pairs. While a regular graph partitioning does not imply any regularity conditions on the within-partition links, Diestel [22] mentions that by choosing  $K_{\min}$  large ‘‘we may increase the proportion of links running between different partition sets (rather than inside one), i.e., the proportion of links that are subject to the regularity assertion.’’ In other words, if we take  $K_{\min}$  large enough for a given  $\epsilon$ , then most links will be *between* partitions (rather than *within*) and will thus satisfy the regularity conditions.

### B. Implications of SRL for UMFF

We believe that SRL can be translated to a statement about the scaling behavior of the SIS process on large graphs. We will describe the conceptual idea here, realizing that a more rigorous investigation would be necessary to proof any of the claims. Since the regularity inequality (26) can be rewritten as (27), which has the same form as the isoperimetric inequality, the  $\epsilon$ -regularity of a partition pair also implies that the UMFF topological approximation (5) has an  $\epsilon$ -bounded approximation error (for subsets of sufficiently large size). For an  $\epsilon$ -regular graph partitioning with  $K + 1$  pairs, this isoperimetric interpretation then means that, for most of the partition pairs ( $\geq \epsilon K^2$ ), the UMFF topological approximation error is  $\epsilon$ -bounded. Finally, SRL indicates that for any chosen accuracy  $\epsilon$  and sufficiently large minimum number of partitions  $K_{\min}$ , an integer  $K_{\max}$  exists such that for any graph on  $N \geq K_{\min}$  nodes, a partitioning can be found with  $K_{\min} \leq K \leq K_{\max}$  partitions, such that most links are between partitions and most of the partition pairs have  $\epsilon$ -bounded approximation errors. Applied to UMFF, this means that *for large graphs on  $N$  nodes, a partitioning in  $K_{\min} < K \ll N$  partitions can always be found such that the UMFF topological approximation between most partition pairs is bounded by a chosen  $\epsilon$ , where choosing a large enough  $K_{\min}$  results in most links being between partitions* (by Diestel’s argument). While the isoperimetric bounds on the UMFF approximations are defined for any possible partition, the relation with SRL leads to a statement about how good these isoperimetric bounds can become. An important difference between SRL regularity and the UMFF approximation error is that SRL regularity only holds for subsets of size  $N_x \geq \epsilon N_k$ , where  $N_k \approx \frac{N}{K}$ . Hence, the regularity weakens for growing  $N$ , because it no longer

holds for cut sets between small subsets. The consequence for UMFF is that the regularity, and thus the boundedness of the topological approximation error, only holds if a sufficiently large fraction of nodes is infected in both partitions. Thus, the dynamics are well approximated by lower-dimensional dynamics, only for disease states  $w$  where enough nodes are infected between any pair of partitions, i.e.,  $\tilde{w}_k \geq \epsilon N_k$  and  $\tilde{w}_m \geq \epsilon N_m$ .

## VIII. RELATED WORK

### A. NIMFA on graphs with an equitable partitioning

Bonaccorsi *et al.* [24] study the NIMFA equations on graphs with an equitable partitioning. A partitioning  $\pi$  is equitable if the subgraph between any two (possibly the same) partitions, is biregular (regular). If a graph has such an equitable partitioning, and the initial infection probability is the same for all nodes within one partition, then the NIMFA equations for the SIS process on that graph can be exactly described by  $K$  rather than  $N$  equations [24]. This result follows from the observation that equality in the UMFF topological approximation (5) holds, i.e.,

$$(u - w)^T A^{(km)} w = (\tilde{u} - \tilde{w})^T \tilde{A}^{(km)} \tilde{w} = \tilde{a}_{km} (N_k - \tilde{w}_k) \tilde{w}_m,$$

when  $A^{(km)}$  is biregular, and that

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[W(0) = w] &= |\mathcal{W}_{\tilde{w}_k}^k \cap \mathcal{W}_{\tilde{w}_m}^m|^{-1} \\ &\quad \times \Pr[\tilde{W}_k(0) = \tilde{w}_k, \tilde{W}_m(0) = \tilde{w}_m] \\ &\quad \forall w \in \mathcal{W}_{\tilde{w}_k}^k \cap \mathcal{W}_{\tilde{w}_m}^m \end{aligned}$$

holds, when nodes from the same partition have equal initial infection probabilities. Hence, the main point of Ref. [24] is that for this specific type of graph and initial condition, the number of infective links between any two partitions only depends on the number of infected nodes in those partitions, which enables a lower-dimensional description of the SIS process (within the NIMFA approximation). This result is based on similar ideas as the UMFF framework, but from a very different perspective: UMFF describes how the topological approximation (5) applied to *any graph*, followed by a moment-closure approximation (6), results in a lower-dimensional *approximate* description of the SIS process.

### B. Approximating the number of infective links in SIS

A central concept of UMFF is the description of the topological approximation (5) from the perspective of the isoperimetric problem. This approach of approximating the SIS process by approximating the number of infective links has appeared before. Ganesh *et al.* [25] find an upper bound for the epidemic threshold, by relating the infection terms in the SIS process to the isoperimetric problem. The isoperimetric or Cheeger constant [11] of a graph with adjacency matrix  $A$  is defined as

$$\eta_c(A) = \min_{w \in \{0,1\}^N} \frac{(u - w)^T A w}{w^T w},$$

which leads to a lower bound for the number of infective links as

$$(u - w)^T A w \geq \eta_c(A) \tilde{w} \quad (28)$$

for any  $w \in \{0,1\}^N$  and where  $\tilde{w} = w^T w$  is the number of infected nodes. By assuming equality in (28), the SIS process is approximated by a linear birth-death process, from which an approximate epidemic threshold is derived in Ref. [25].

Van Mieghem [13,26] also approximated the SIS process by approximating the size of the cut set. Rather than relying on the isoperimetric problem, the most dominant terms in the spectral decomposition of the quadratic form  $w^T Q w$ , which equals the number of infective links, approximate the cut set. Specifically, the approximation

$$(u - w)^T A w \approx \frac{\mu_{N-1}}{N} \tilde{w}(N - \tilde{w})$$

is made. If this approximation error can be bounded by a constant  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ , i.e.,

$$\left| (u - w)^T A w - \frac{\mu_{N-1}}{N} \tilde{w}(N - \tilde{w}) \right| \leq \theta, \quad (29)$$

then the exact equation for the expected number of infected nodes can be bounded as

$$\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_{-\theta}(t)] \leq \mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_{\text{exact}}(t)] \leq \mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_{+\theta}(t)], \quad (30)$$

where the bounds follow from the differential equations:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_{+\theta}(t)]}{dt} &= -\delta \mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_{+\theta}] \\ &+ \beta \frac{\mu_{N-1}}{N} \mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_{+\theta}(N - \mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_{+\theta}])] + \theta \\ \frac{d\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_{-\theta}(t)]}{dt} &= -\delta \mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_{-\theta}] \\ &+ \beta \frac{\mu_{N-1}}{N} \mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_{-\theta}(N - \mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_{-\theta}])] - \theta, \end{aligned} \quad (31)$$

which are Riccati differential equations, whose analytic solutions are known and have a hyperbolic-tangent form [26]. In other words, the method of Refs. [26] and [13] gives bounds on the exact expected number of infected nodes  $\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_{\text{exact}}(t)]$ , if a constant bound  $\theta$  on the approximation error (29) is known.

By filling in  $c = \mu_{N-1}$  in Lemma 1 from Appendix D, we can show that  $\theta \leq \frac{N(\mu_1 - \mu_{N-1})}{4} = \theta^*$ . Although not a tight bound, filling in  $\theta = \theta^*$  in Eqs. (31) gives

$$\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}(t)_{-\theta^*}] \leq \mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_{\text{exact}}(t)] \leq \mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}(t)_{+\theta^*}],$$

which is a new result based on the spectral decomposition methodology of Refs. [26] and [13].

## IX. SUMMARY

We have introduced a novel and unified approximation framework UMFF for the continuous-time Markovian SIS process on complex networks, whose main features are the following:

(1) UMFF unifies and generalizes a number of existing mean-field approximations for SIS epidemics on complex networks. In particular, two widely used approximations, the

N-intertwined mean-field approximation [5] and the heterogeneous mean-field method [6] are shown to be contained by UMFF.

(2) The accuracy of UMFF and of all its contained methods can be assessed based on the isoperimetric analogy, which provides bounds on the error of the UMFF topological approximation (Theorem 3).

(3) UMFF conceptually describes the scaling behavior of SIS epidemics on large graphs. Since the UMFF accuracy is related to the regularity notion of Szemerédi's regularity lemma (SRL), we can translate the statements of SRL about the structural regularity of large graphs to statements about the possibility to accurately approximate SIS dynamics on large graphs by a lower-dimensional description.

## A. Future directions

By providing a unified description of mean-field approximation techniques for the SIS process, UMFF offers a framework, in which the existing techniques can be compared and which enables their respective accuracy to be assessed. In principle, UMFF could prescribe which existing (or new) mean-field method is more suitable, for a certain graph and for a specific SIS process parameter of interest.

While derived for SIS epidemics, the UMFF approach is applicable to more general epidemic models, such as the generalized epidemic mean-field model (GEMF) in Ref. [27], which generalizes NIMFA to any number of compartments and with a general transition structure between different compartments. The global dynamics of GEMF follow from *node-based* compartmental transitions and *edge-based* compartmental transitions, which translates to *volume-based* transitions and *surface-based* transitions in context of the isoperimetric problem. Hence, by exploiting the same problem structure and the isoperimetric analogy, UMFF could generalize GEMF in a similar vein as UMFF generalizes NIMFA for the SIS compartmental process.

The general partitioning feature of UMFF also creates the possibility to develop new approximation techniques for the SIS process. Specifically, if nodes can be grouped in partitions based on some parameter such that similarity in that parameter corresponds to similarity in connectivity, then UMFF is expected to yield a good approximation of the SIS process. For instance, in the embedding of graphs in metric spaces as in Refs. [28] and [29], similar spatial coordinates between a pair of nodes means that their distance to other nodes is also similar. Hence, for such graph models, spatial closeness of nodes seems to provide a good partitioning criterion for UMFF, and the coarse graining of the infection state would then correspond to the intuitively attractive notion of spatial similarity.

Furthermore, the observation that both the exact and approximate Markovian SIS processes are equivalent to a higher-dimensional quadratic birth-death process opens up new perspectives on modeling the SIS process. Some questions about the epidemic process have tractable solutions if properly formulated in terms of birth-death processes. Ganesh *et al.* [25] characterized the disease die-out probability of the SIS process, based on the gambler's ruin problem [12] of a birth-death process. Conversely, the knowledge about the

epidemic process might provide valuable insights in the quadratic birth-death process, whose exact solution is still an open problem [14].

**APPENDIX A: EPIDEMIC THRESHOLD**

From the UMFF equations (4), the epidemic threshold  $\tau_\pi$  can be found based on a linear stability analysis. In order to use the standard approach for mean-field equations, for instance as described by Boguñá and Pastor-Satorras in Ref. [7], we introduce a change of variables. Instead of the expected number of infected nodes  $E[\tilde{W}_k]$  in a partition  $k$ , we will consider the expected fraction of infected nodes  $\rho_k = \frac{E[\tilde{W}_k]}{N_k}$  in that partition. The UMFF equations (4) then reduce to

$$\frac{d\rho_k}{dt} = -\delta\rho_k + \beta \sum_{m=1}^K L_{km}(1 - \rho_k)\rho_m \quad (\text{A1})$$

for every partition  $k \in \{1, 2, \dots, K\}$ . Equation (A1) can be linearized around the all-healthy state  $\rho = \mathbf{0}$  as follows:

$$\frac{d\rho_k}{dt} \approx \sum_{m=1}^K J_{km}\rho_m \quad \text{with}$$

$$J_{km} = \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \rho_m} \left( -\delta\rho_k + \beta \sum_{j=1}^K L_{kj}(1 - \rho_k)\rho_j \right) \right)_{\rho=0}, \quad (\text{A2})$$

where the vector  $\rho = [\rho_1, \rho_2, \dots, \rho_K]^T$  contains the infection fraction of all partitions, and where  $J_{km}$  are matrix elements of the Jacobian  $J$  of Eqs. (A1). The linearized Eq. (A2) reads in matrix form

$$\frac{d\rho}{dt} \approx J\rho. \quad (\text{A3})$$

Equation (A3) indicates that the all-healthy state is a stable point of the UMFF equations (4) if the Jacobian  $J$  has a negative largest eigenvalue, while a positive largest eigenvalue of  $J$  means that the all-healthy state is not a stable point. Translated to the setting of the SIS epidemic process, a positive largest eigenvalue  $\lambda_{\max}(J) > 0$  reflects that the epidemic disease will spread over the network, while  $\lambda_{\max}(J) < 0$  correspond to a die-out of the epidemic [1]. Calculating the Jacobian elements  $J_{km}$  from Eq. (A2) yields

$$J_{km} = -\delta \mathbb{1}_{\{k=m\}} + \beta \frac{L_{km}}{N_k}.$$

Using the matrix elements  $\tilde{a}_{km} = \frac{L_{km}}{N_k N_m}$ , the Jacobian matrix  $J$  becomes

$$J = -\delta I + \beta \tilde{A} \text{diag}(N_1, N_2, \dots, N_K). \quad (\text{A4})$$

From Eq. (A4), it follows that  $\tau_\pi^{-1} = \lambda_{\max}(\tilde{A} \text{diag}(N_1, N_2, \dots, N_K))$  determines the epidemic threshold, because  $\lambda_{\max}(J) > 0 \iff \frac{\beta}{\delta} > \tau_\pi$  corresponds to the disease spreading over the network, while  $\lambda_{\max}(J) < 0 \iff \frac{\beta}{\delta} < \tau_\pi$  corresponds to the disease dying out. Secondly, it is possible to lower-bound the UMFF epidemic threshold by invoking properties of the *quotient matrix* [21], which is defined as

$A^{(\pi)} = \tilde{A} \text{diag}(N_1, N_2, \dots, N_K)$ . As discussed in more detail in Appendix D, the eigenvalues of this quotient matrix  $A^{(\pi)}$  can be bounded by the eigenvalues of the corresponding adjacency matrix  $A$  (see Theorem D 1 in Appendix D). In particular, the largest eigenvalue of the quotient matrix  $A^{(\pi)}$  can be bounded by

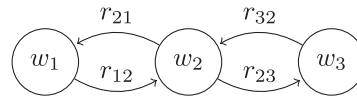
$$\lambda_{\max}(A^{(\pi)}) \leq \lambda_{\max}(A). \quad (\text{A5})$$

From inequality (A5) and  $\tau_\pi = \lambda_{\max}^{-1}(A^{(\pi)})$  follows that the UMFF epidemic threshold can be lower-bounded by  $\tau_\pi \geq \lambda_1^{-1}$ .

**APPENDIX B: DERIVATION OF EXACT SIS EQUATIONS FOR  $\tilde{W}$  AND  $E[\tilde{W}]$**

**1. The Kolmogorov equations for Markov Chains: Brief reminder**

As a background for the further derivation of the UMFF equations (4), we start with a toy example to illustrate how the Kolmogorov equations are found for a Markov chain. Further details can be found in [12]. Consider the three-state Markov chain in  $W(t)$  below:



The Markov chain has three states:  $w_1, w_2$  and  $w_3$ , with state probabilities  $\Pr[W(t) = w_i]$  and transition rates  $r_{ij}$ , for  $1 \leq i \neq j \leq 3$ . By the subscript “ $ij$ ” in the rates  $r_{ij}$ , we denote the transition from state  $i$  to state  $j$ , i.e.,  $i \rightarrow j$ . As mentioned in Sec. II, we assume that the transition processes are independent Poisson processes with exponentially distributed interevent times, for example, for the transition  $r_{12}$  this yields

$$\Pr[W(t+h) = w_2 | W(t) = w_1] = r_{12} e^{-r_{12}h}.$$

For  $h \rightarrow 0$ , this transition leads to

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d \Pr[W(t) = w_2]}{dt} &= r_{12} \Pr[W(t) = w_1] \\ \frac{d \Pr[W(t) = w_1]}{dt} &= -r_{12} \Pr[W(t) = w_1]. \end{aligned}$$

Combining all transitions then leads to the Kolmogorov equations:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d \Pr[W(t) = w_1]}{dt} &= -r_{12} \Pr[W(t) = w_1] \\ &\quad + r_{21} \Pr[W(t) = w_2] \\ \frac{d \Pr[W(t) = w_2]}{dt} &= r_{12} \Pr[W(t) = w_1] - (r_{23} + r_{21}) \\ &\quad \times \Pr[W(t) = w_2] + r_{32} \Pr[W(t) = w_3] \\ \frac{d \Pr[W(t) = w_3]}{dt} &= r_{23} \Pr[W(t) = w_2] - r_{32} \Pr[W(t) = w_3]. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, by identifying the state transitions and according rates, one obtains the Kolmogorov equations of a Markov chain, which completely characterize the dynamics of the process for a given initial distribution  $\Pr[W(0) = w_i]$ , for each possible state  $w$ .



$W_j = 1$ . Since

$$e_j^T A w = \sum_{i=1}^N a_{ij} w_i$$

is the number of infected neighbors of node  $j$ , and since each infected neighbor infects node  $j$  at a rate  $\beta$  if  $w_j = 0$ , the full-state transition rate

$$r_{w(w+e_j)} = \beta(1 - w_j)e_j^T A w$$

is found. The sum of infection rates for all nodes in partition  $k$  is then

$$\sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}_k} r_{w(w+e_j)} = \beta \sum_{m=1}^K (u - w)^T A^{(km)} w, \quad (\text{B9})$$

where the sum over partitions  $1 \leq m \leq K$  is introduced such that the block-matrix  $A^{(km)}$ , which naturally reflects the partition structure, can be used. Filling (B9) into the rate equation (B8) then yields

$$r_{\tilde{w}(\tilde{w}+\tilde{e}_k)} \Pr[\tilde{W} = \tilde{w}] = \beta \sum_{m=1}^K \sum_{w \in \mathcal{W}_{\tilde{w}_k}^k \cap \mathcal{W}_{\tilde{w}_m}^m} (u - w)^T A^{(km)} w \Pr[W = w] \quad (\text{B10})$$

for the reduced-state transition rate corresponding to a node becoming infected in partition  $k$ , in state  $\tilde{w}$ . A similar derivation yields

$$r_{\tilde{w}(\tilde{w}-\tilde{e}_k)\tilde{w}} \Pr[\tilde{W} = \tilde{w} - \tilde{e}_k] = \beta \sum_{m=1}^K \sum_{w \in \mathcal{W}_{(\tilde{w}_k-1)}^k \cap \mathcal{W}_{\tilde{w}_m}^m} (u - w)^T A^{(km)} w \Pr[W = w] \quad (\text{B11})$$

for the reduced-state transition rate corresponding to a node becoming infected in partition  $k$ , in state  $\tilde{w} - \tilde{e}_k$ .

### c. Resulting reduced-state equations

Introducing the rates (B6), (B7), (B10), and (B11), the Kolmogorov equations (B3) establish Eq. (8).

### 3. Expected number of infected nodes $\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k]$

The equations for the expected number of infected nodes  $\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k]$  can be derived from the reduced-state probability equations (8), based on the definition of expectation and the law of total probability. For any partition  $k$ , we can write the expected number of infected nodes as

$$\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k] = \sum_{\tilde{w}_k=0}^{N_k} \tilde{w}_k \Pr[\tilde{W}_k = \tilde{w}_k]. \quad (\text{B12})$$

By the law of total probability, the marginal probability can be written as

$$\Pr[\tilde{W}_k = \tilde{w}_k] = \underbrace{\sum_{\tilde{w}_1=0}^{N_1} \cdots \sum_{\tilde{w}_l=0}^{N_l} \cdots \sum_{\tilde{w}_K=0}^{N_K}}_{\forall l \neq k} \Pr[\tilde{W} = \tilde{w}]$$

such that (B12) equals

$$\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k] = \underbrace{\sum_{\tilde{w}_1=0}^{N_1} \cdots \sum_{\tilde{w}_l=0}^{N_l} \cdots \sum_{\tilde{w}_K=0}^{N_K}}_{\forall l} \tilde{w}_k \Pr[\tilde{W} = \tilde{w}]. \quad (\text{B13})$$

Differentiation with respect to time of Eq. (B13) then yields

$$\frac{d\mathbf{E}[\tilde{W}_k]}{dt} = \underbrace{\sum_{\tilde{w}_1=0}^{N_1} \cdots \sum_{\tilde{w}_l=0}^{N_l} \cdots \sum_{\tilde{w}_K=0}^{N_K}}_{\forall l} \tilde{w}_k \frac{d\Pr[\tilde{W} = \tilde{w}]}{dt}. \quad (\text{B14})$$

After substitution of  $\frac{d\Pr[\tilde{W}=\tilde{w}]}{dt}$  from Eq. (8), we arrive at Eq. (9).

### APPENDIX C: HIGHER-ORDER UMF

The UMF equations can be extended to higher-order moments, in order to better capture the dynamic correlations of the SIS process. For the case of  $K = N$  partitions, Cator *et al.* [18] and Mata *et al.* [16] have described how the NIMFA [5] and quenched mean-field (QMF) [19] equations can be extended to  $n$ th-order moments:

$$\mathbf{E}[W_i] \rightarrow \mathbf{E}[W_i], \mathbf{E}[W_i W_j], \dots, \mathbf{E}[\underbrace{W_i W_j \dots W_l}_n]$$

based on the exact SIS dynamics. In order to have a closed set of equations for order  $n$ , the  $(n+1)$ th-order moments must be approximated by lower-order moments, i.e., an approximation of the form

$$\mathbf{E}[\underbrace{W_i W_j \dots W_l}_{n+1}] \approx f \left( \mathbf{E}[\underbrace{W_i W_j \dots W_l}_{\forall m \leq n}] \right),$$

where different choices for the moment-closure approximation  $f$  are given in Refs. [18] and [16]. Similarly, we can define the higher-order UMF as:

*Definition 7 (Higher-order UMF).* Consider a graph  $G(\mathcal{N}, \mathcal{L})$ , an epidemic process with rates  $(\beta, \delta)$  and a graph partitioning  $\pi$ . For any integer  $n \leq \sum_{k=1}^K N_k$ , the  $n$ th-order UMF equations are given by

$$\frac{d\mathbf{E}[\prod_{k=1}^K \tilde{W}_k^{p_k}]}{dt} = \underbrace{\sum_{\tilde{w}_1=0}^{N_1} \cdots \sum_{\tilde{w}_k=0}^{N_k} \cdots \sum_{\tilde{w}_K=0}^{N_K}}_{\forall k} \prod_{k=1}^K \tilde{w}_k^{p_k} \frac{d\Pr[\tilde{W} = \tilde{w}]}{dt} \quad (\text{C1})$$







twice product) with  $s_k$ . For this choice of  $w_x$  and  $w_y$ , which are Bernoulli vectors satisfying  $w_x^T w_y = 0$ , and any adjacency matrix  $A$ , we can write

$$w_x^T A w_y = (s_k \circ (u - w))^T A (w \circ s_m) = (u - w)^T A^{(km)} w.$$

Secondly, we choose the specific value  $c = N\tilde{a}_{km}$  which satisfies the condition  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ . These choices allow us to rewrite Lemma 1 as

$$\begin{aligned} & |(u - w)^T A^{(km)} w - (\tilde{u} - \tilde{w})^T \tilde{A}^{(km)} \tilde{w}| \\ & \leq \frac{\theta}{N} \sqrt{\tilde{w}_m (N - \tilde{w}_m) (N_k - \tilde{w}_k) (N - (N_k - \tilde{w}_k))} \end{aligned}$$

for any adjacency matrix  $A$ , which equals Eq. (24) and thus proves Theorem 3. ■

#### 4. Proof of Theorem 4

Theorem 4 states that the topological approximation error can be bounded more tightly for biregular graphs  $A_{km,r}$ , which we prove based on Haemers' interlacing techniques [21].

$$A_{km,r}^{(\pi)} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{N_x} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{N_k - N_x} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{N_y} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{N_m - N_y} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & m & \frac{L}{N_k} N_x - m \\ 0 & \frac{L}{N_m} N_y - m & 0 & L(1 - \frac{N_x}{N_k} - \frac{N_y}{N_m}) + m \\ \frac{L}{N_k} N_x - m & L(1 - \frac{N_x}{N_k} - \frac{N_y}{N_m}) + m & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (\text{D9})$$

where  $m$  is the number of links between partitions  $\mathcal{N}_k^x$  and  $\mathcal{N}_m^y$ , i.e. the cut-set size  $(u - w)^T A^{(km)} w$  in Theorem 4.

We can write the determinant of  $A_{km,r}^{(\pi)}$  in two ways: an expression involving  $m$ , which follows directly from the block-matrix form and secondly, an inequality involving the eigenvalues of  $A_{km,r}^{(\pi)}$ . Combining both expressions for the determinant yields the isoperimetric inequality of Theorem 4. From (D9), the determinant of  $A_{km,r}^{(\pi)}$  can be calculated as

$$\det(A_{km,r}^{(\pi)}) = \frac{L^2(m - \frac{L}{N_k N_m} N_x N_y)^2}{N_x(N_k - N_x)N_y(N_m - N_y)}. \quad (\text{D10})$$

Second, if we call  $\delta_1 \geq \delta_2 \geq \delta_3 \geq \delta_4$  the eigenvalues of  $A_{km,r}^{(\pi)}$ , where  $\delta_1 = -\delta_4$  and  $\delta_2 = -\delta_3$  hold because of the antidiagonal block structure, then we have a second equation for the determinant:

$$\det(A_{km,r}^{(\pi)}) = \delta_1 \delta_2 \delta_3 \delta_4 = \delta_1^2 \delta_2^2. \quad (\text{D11})$$

Next, two facts about the eigenvalues of  $A_{km,r}^{(\pi)}$  are combined to find expression (25). First, because  $A_{km,r}^{(\pi)}$  is a quotient matrix of  $A_{km,r}$ , we know by Theorem D 1 that the eigenvalues of the first interlace those of the latter. In other words, we can bound  $\delta_2$  by

$$\lambda_{N-K+2} \leq \delta_2 \leq \lambda_2.$$

Because  $\lambda_{N-K+2} = \lambda_{N-2} = -\lambda_2 \geq -\lambda_2$ , we find

$$\delta_2^2 \leq \lambda_2^2. \quad (\text{D12})$$

The second fact we use is

$$\delta_1 = \frac{L}{\sqrt{N_k N_m}}, \quad (\text{D13})$$

*Proof.* Consider a biregular graph  $G_{km,r}$  with partitions  $\mathcal{N}_k$  and  $\mathcal{N}_m$ , for which the adjacency matrix has the block form:

$$A_{km,r} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & B \\ B^T & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

with  $Bu = d_1 u$  and  $u^T B = d_2 u^T$ , because the graph is biregular. The values  $d_1 = \frac{L}{N_k}$  and  $d_2 = \frac{L}{N_m}$  are the degrees of the partitions. Furthermore, we consider a partitioning  $\pi$  of the nodes of  $G_{km,r}$  into four sets  $\{\mathcal{N}_k^x, \mathcal{N}_k^r, \mathcal{N}_m^y, \mathcal{N}_m^r\}$  according to

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{N}_k^x \cup \mathcal{N}_k^r &= \mathcal{N}_k, & \mathcal{N}_k^x \cap \mathcal{N}_k^r &= \emptyset & \text{and } |\mathcal{N}_k^x| &= N_x \\ \mathcal{N}_m^y \cup \mathcal{N}_m^r &= \mathcal{N}_m, & \mathcal{N}_m^y \cap \mathcal{N}_m^r &= \emptyset & \text{and } |\mathcal{N}_m^y| &= N_y. \end{aligned}$$

In other words, partition  $k$  is further refined into a subset of  $N_x$  nodes and a remainder subset, and similarly for partition  $m$ . For this partitioning  $\pi$ , the quotient matrix can be explicitly written as

which can be verified by considering the eigenvalue equation:

$$\left( A_{km,r}^{(\pi)} - \frac{L}{\sqrt{N_k N_m}} I \right) \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{N_m} \\ \sqrt{N_m} \\ \sqrt{N_k} \\ \sqrt{N_k} \end{bmatrix} = 0,$$

from which follows that  $(\sqrt{N_m}, \sqrt{N_m}, \sqrt{N_k}, \sqrt{N_k})^T$  is the right eigenvector of  $A_{km,r}^{(\pi)}$  according to eigenvalue  $\delta_1 = \frac{L}{\sqrt{N_k N_m}}$ . By the Perron-Frobenius theorem [11], we know that for non-negative matrices such as  $A_{km,r}^{(\pi)}$ , the largest (possibly nonunique) eigenvalue accords to an eigenvector with non-negative elements. This means that  $\delta_1$  is the largest eigenvalue of  $A_{km,r}^{(\pi)}$  since its corresponding eigenvector is a vector with non-negative elements.

Combining (D12) and (D13) then yields an upper bound for the determinant of  $A_{km,r}^{(\pi)}$  in Eq. (D11):

$$\det(A_{km,r}^{(\pi)}) \leq \frac{L^2}{N_k N_m} \lambda_2^2.$$

Combined with (D10) this gives

$$\frac{L^2(m - \frac{L}{N_k N_m} N_x N_y)^2}{N_x(N_k - N_x)N_y(N_m - N_y)} \leq \frac{L^2}{N_k N_m} \lambda_2^2.$$

Which reduces to Eq. (25) if we replace  $m$  by  $(u - w)^T A^{(km)} w$ , and which thus proves Theorem 4. ■

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