

1                    **Inequality, Identity, and Partisanship: How**  
2 **redistribution can stem the tide of mass polarization –**  
3                    **Supplementary Information**

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31 In this supplement we present additional numerical analysis and simulations to demonstrate  
 32 the robustness of our findings to relaxation of model assumptions.

## 33 1 Decision Processes

34 In this section we describe two additional decision processes, beyond those described in Table 1 of  
 35 the main text. Table S1 gives event probabilities for an AND logic decision process, in which an  
 36 individual only regards another as part of their in-group if they belong to the same identity group  
 37 and the same party:

| <b>AND Interaction type</b>                |                        |                         |                         |                          |
|--|------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|
|  | Same group, same party | Same group, other party | Other group, same party | Other group, other party |
| Probability of $i$ choosing interaction    | $p_i^2$                | $p_i(1 - p_i)$          | $p_i(1 - p_i)$          | $(1 - p_i)^2$            |
| Probability of $j$ agreeing to interaction | 1                      | $1 - p_j$               | $1 - p_j$               | $(1 - p_j)^2$            |
| Probability of interaction success         | $q_I$                  | $q_I$                   | $q_O$                   | $q_O$                    |
| Benefit from successful interaction        | $B_I$                  | $B_I$                   | $B_O$                   | $B_O$                    |

Table S1: **AND decision logic.**

38 Under this decision process the probability of an individual  $i$ , belonging to group 1 and party  
 39 1, choosing to interact with an individual with identity  $kl$  is  $\lambda_{kl}$ . We then have

$$\begin{aligned}
 \lambda_{II} &= \frac{(2p_i - p_i^2)x}{(2p_i - p_i^2)x + (p_i + (1 - p_i)^2)(1 - x) + (p_i + (1 - p_i)^2)(1 - x) + (1 - p_i^2)x} \\
 \lambda_{IO} &= \frac{(p_i + (1 - p_i)^2)(1 - x)}{(2p_i - p_i^2)x + (p_i + (1 - p_i)^2)(1 - x) + (p_i + (1 - p_i)^2)(1 - x) + (1 - p_i^2)x} \\
 \lambda_{OI} &= \frac{(p_i + (1 - p_i)^2)(1 - x)}{(2p_i - p_i^2)x + (p_i + (1 - p_i)^2)(1 - x) + (p_i + (1 - p_i)^2)(1 - x) + (1 - p_i^2)x} \\
 \lambda_{OO} &= \frac{(1 - p_i^2)x}{(2p_i - p_i^2)x + (p_i + (1 - p_i)^2)(1 - x) + (p_i + (1 - p_i)^2)(1 - x) + (1 - p_i^2)x}
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

40

41 The utility of a mutant when players attend to party AND group is thus

$$\begin{aligned}
w_i(x) = & [\lambda_{II}(x) + \lambda_{IO}(x)(1-p)]q_I F(B_I + \theta) + [(\lambda_{II}(x) + \lambda_{IO}(x))(1-q_I) + \lambda_{IO}(x)pq_I]F(\theta) \\
& + [\lambda_{OI}(x)(1-p) + \lambda_{OO}(x)(1-p)^2]q_O F(B_O + \theta) \\
& + [(\lambda_{OI}(x) + \lambda_{OO}(x))(1-q_O) + (\lambda_{OI}(x)p + \lambda_{OO}(x)(2p-p^2))q_O]F(\theta) \quad (2)
\end{aligned}$$

42

43 and the average selection gradient of a mutant can be calculated in the same way as described in  
44 Eqs 9-10 of the main text.

45 Table S2 gives event probabilities for an OR logic decision process, in which behavioral strategies  
46 have two components:  $p_p^i$  is the probability that a player  $i$  is willing to interact with a member of  
47 their party and  $p_g^i$  is the probability that a player  $i$  is willing to interact with a member of their  
48 identity group.

| <b>2D Strategy - OR Interaction type</b>                     |  |                              |                              |                          |
|--|--|------------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------|
|  | Same group, same party   | Same group, other party      | Other group, same party      | Other group, other party |
| <b>Probability of <math>i</math> choosing interaction</b>    | $\frac{p_g^i(1-p_p^i) + p_p^i(1-p_g^i) + p_p^i p_g^i}{p_p^i(1-p_g^i) + p_p^i p_g^i}$ | $p_g^i + (1-p_p^i)(1-p_g^i)$ | $p_p^i + (1-p_p^i)(1-p_g^i)$ | $1 - p_p^i p_g^i$        |
| <b>Probability of <math>j</math> agreeing to interaction</b> | 1  | $1 - p_p^j$                  | $1 - p_g^j$                  | $1 - p_p^j p_g^j$        |
| <b>Probability of interaction success</b>                    | $q_I$  | $q_I$                        | $q_O$                        | $q_O$                    |
| <b>Benefit from successful interaction</b>                   | $B_I$  | $B_I$                        | $B_O$                        | $B_O$                    |

Table S2: **OR decision logic with a two-dimensional strategy.**

49 The fitness for this process is as described in Eq. 6 and Eq. 8, with the appropriate substitutions  
50 from Table S2.

## 51 **2 Adaptive dynamics of polarization**

52 In this section we present additional results for the “adaptive dynamics” analysis of the model. We  
53 perform invasion analyses under the assumption that that the population is infinitely large, and  
54 all members of the population adopt the same strategy. We then compute the selection gradient  
55 experienced by a rare mutant, in order to determine whether it will spread.

## 56 **2.1 Divergent selection pressures**

57 We first note that Eqs 9-10 of the main text describe the average selection gradient across both  
58 groups. However, in general when the distribution of identity group with respect to party is  
59 asymmetric, i.e.  $0 < |\chi| < 1$ , a member of group 1 belonging to party 1 will experience different  
60 selection pressures than a member of group 1 belonging to party 2, and so on. Under our assumption  
61 that identity groups and parties are of equal size and experience the same risk profiles, however, the  
62 only equilibria we find either occur when  $\chi = 0$  (both parties are well mixed with respect to identity  
63 group) or  $|\chi| = 1$  (identity groups align perfectly with parties). Under these conditions selection  
64 pressures are symmetric. Since any internal state in which selection pressures are asymmetric is  
65 unstable, we are able to ignore the complications that arise in such cases and focus on the stability  
66 of the symmetric equilibria. We note however that if different groups experience different risk  
67 profiles, or are of different size, this symmetry may not hold and new dynamics may arise.

## 68 **2.2 Only party joint dynamics**

69 Figure S1 shows the joint dynamics of sorting and polarization under the only party decision process  
70 (see main text Table 1, Eq. 5 and Eq. 7), in which individuals make decisions about who to interact  
71 with based only on party identity.

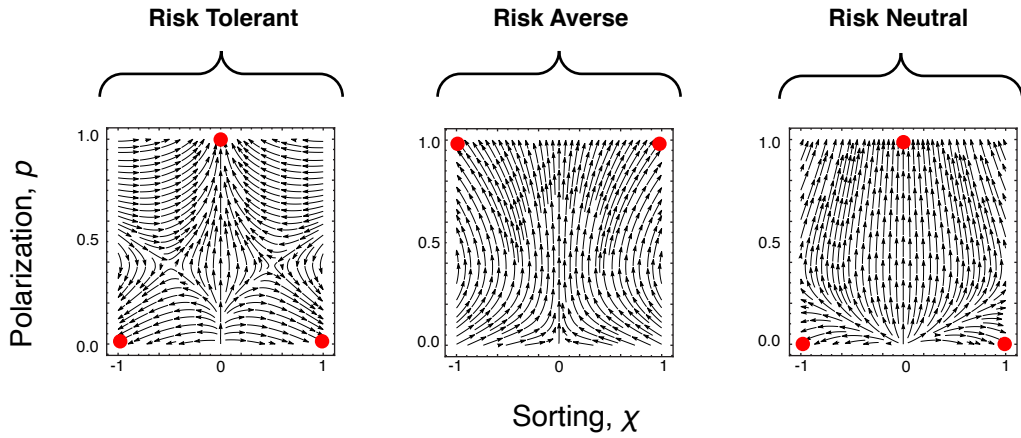


Figure S1: **Only party – Polarization and sorting.** Phase portraits illustrate the dynamics of polarization  $p$  and degree of sorting  $\chi$  under our model of economic interactions and party switching, with fixed identity groups. Arrows indicate the average selection gradient experienced by a local mutant against a monomorphic background (see Methods). Red dots indicate stable equilibria. (left) When the decision process for social interactions considers only party identity, both high and low polarization states are stable. When polarization is low, sorting is always high  $|\chi| = 1$ , but when polarization is high, low sorting ( $\chi = 0$ ) becomes stable. (center) However when the environment is risk averse, only high polarization and high sorting are stable. (right) And finally when the environment is risk neutral, the system returns to bistable polarization with high sorting when polarization is low, and low sorting when polarization is high. These plots show dynamics for  $B_I = 0.5$ ,  $B_O = 1$ ,  $q_I = 1.0$ ,  $q_O = 0.6$ ,  $h = 10$  and  $a = 0.02$ . The phase portraits here show the selection gradient experienced by a monomorphic population in which parties and groups are of equal size.

72 **2.2.1 AND logic joint dynamics**

73 Figure S2 shows the joint dynamics of sorting and polarization under the AND party decision  
 74 process (see Table S1), in which individuals make decisions about who to interact with based on  
 75 party and group identity using AND logic.

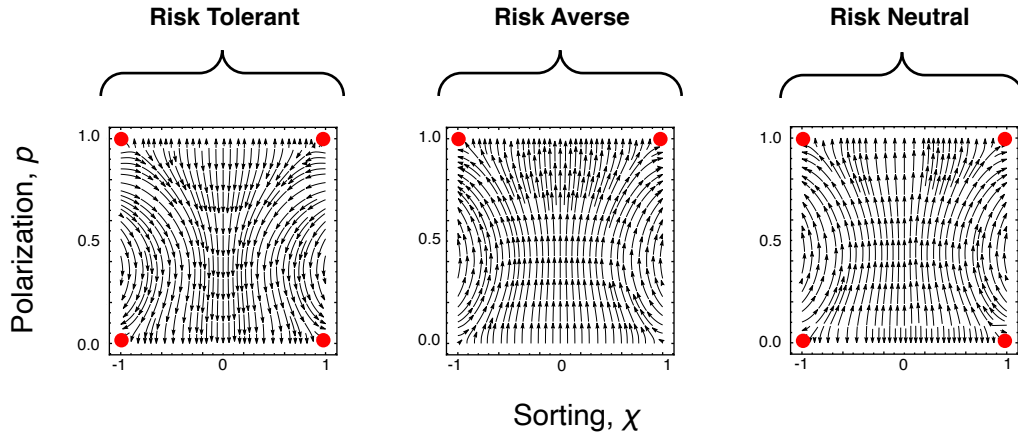


Figure S2: **Party AND group – Polarization and sorting.** Phase portraits illustrate the dynamics of polarization  $p$  and degree of sorting  $\chi$  under our model of economic interactions and party switching with fixed identity groups. Arrows indicate the average selection gradient experienced by a local mutant against a monomorphic background (see Methods). Red dots indicate stable equilibria. (left) When the decision process for social interactions considers group AND party identity, both high and low polarization states are stable, but sorting is always high  $|\chi| = 1$ . (center) However when the environment is risk averse, only high polarization and high sorting are stable. (right) And finally when the environment is risk neutral, the system returns to bistable polarization with high sorting. These plots show dynamics for  $B_I = 0.5$ ,  $B_O = 1$ ,  $q_I = 1.0$ ,  $q_O = 0.6$ ,  $h = 10$  and  $a = 0.02$ . The phase portraits here show the selection gradient experienced by a monomorphic population in which parties and groups are of equal size.

76 **2.3 Joint dynamics of group and party polarization**

77 Figure S3 shows the joint dynamics of group and identity polarization under the OR party decision  
 78 process (see Table S2), in which individuals make decisions about who to interact with based  
 79 on party and group identity using OR logic, and strategies are two-dimensional, meaning that an  
 80 individual can weight the two dimensions of identity differently. We see that across all environments,  
 81 there are two equilibria, with either high group and low party polarization, or vice versa.

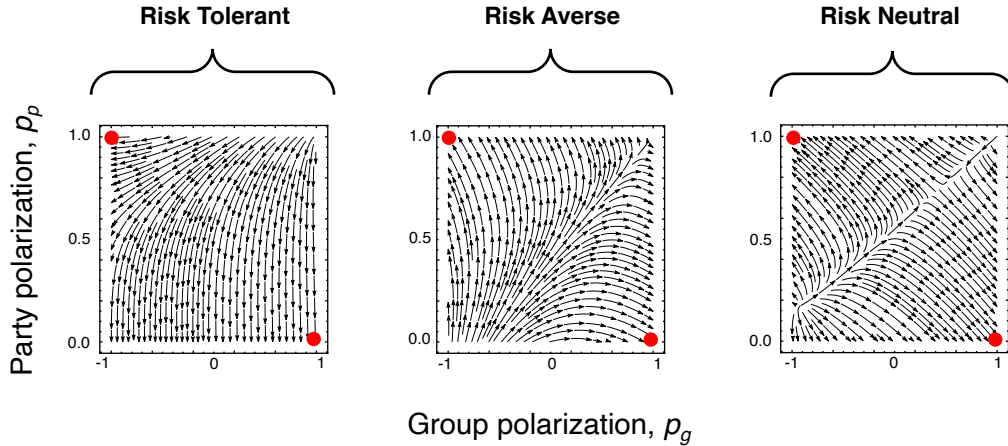


Figure S3: **Party OR group – Group and identity polarization.** Phase portraits illustrate the dynamics of group polarization  $p_g$  and party polarization  $p_p$  under our model of economic interactions, with high sorting  $\chi = 1$ . Arrows indicate the average selection gradient experienced by a local mutant against a monomorphic background (see Methods). Red dots indicate stable equilibria. When the decision process for social interactions considers group and party identity using OR logic, either high group polarization  $p_g = 1$  and low polarization  $p_p = 0$  or  $p_p = 1$  and low polarization  $p_g = 0$  are stable. These plots show dynamics for  $B_I = 0.5$ ,  $B_O = 1$ ,  $q_I = 1.0$ ,  $q_O = 0.6$ ,  $h = 10$  and  $a = 0.02$ . The phase portraits here show the selection gradient experienced by a monomorphic population in which parties and groups are of equal size.



### 82 **2.3.1 Bistability**

83 We now describe the evolution of polarization under fixed levels of sorting,  $\chi$ , for each of the  
84 three different decision processes described in Table 1 of the main text, across different economic  
85 environments,  $\theta$  (Figure S4). We see that high polarization strategies are the only stable outcome  
86 in risk-averse economic environments ( $\theta \approx 0$ ), whereas the availability of stable low polarization  
87 strategies, and the associated basin of attraction for such strategies, varies with the economic  
88 environment, the decision process, and the degree of sorting in the population.

89 Most strikingly, when only party identity is used to make decisions, low levels of sorting result  
90 in high polarization regardless of the economic environment; whereas a strategy that uses party  
91 *or* group identity to make decisions tends to increase the basin of attraction to low-polarization  
92 strategies. In risk-tolerant environments ( $\theta < 0$ ), the low-polarization outcome may even be the  
93 only stable strategy.

94 The intuition for this is simple: when sorting is low, a decision process that only accounts for  
95 party identity provides little information about the likely success of interactions. In contrast, a  
96 decision process that uses party identity or group identity to define the in-group widens the pool of  
97 potential out-group interaction partners and the associated increased benefits of those interactions.  
98 However, such a widening of the pool is of no use when the environment favors risk aversion ( $\theta \approx 0$ ,  
99 Figure S4).

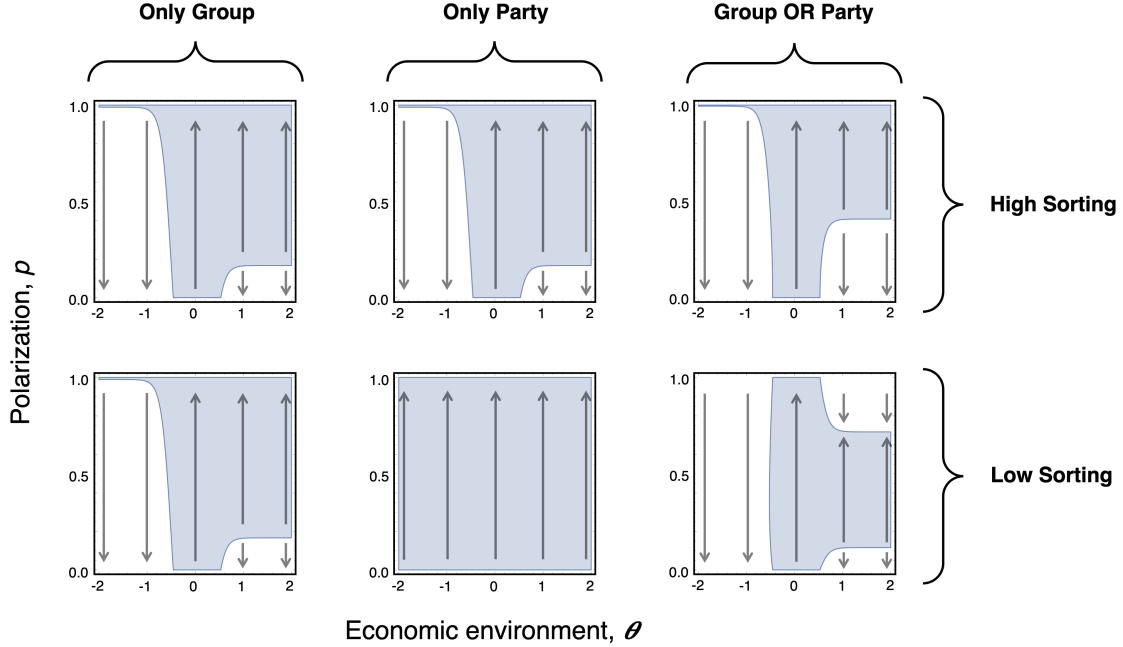


Figure S4 **Polarization across economic environments.** Shown are the evolutionary dynamics of polarization  $p$ , i.e. the probability of choosing in-group or in-party interactions, for different underlying economic environments  $\theta$ . Arrows indicate the selection gradient (see Methods) experienced by a monomorphic population employing strategy  $p$  in environment  $\theta$ . Blue regions indicate a positive gradient (increasing polarization) while white regions indicate a negative gradient (declining polarization). Six cases are presented. (top, left) When only group identity is attended to, polarization is bistable provided the environment is not risk averse. However under risk aversion ( $\theta \approx 0$ ), only high polarization is stable. (bottom, left) The dynamics do not depend on sorting when only group identity is attended to. (top, center) When only party identity is attended to and sorting is high ( $|\chi| = 1$ ), the dynamics and basins of attraction for group and party identity are identical. (bottom center) However when sorting is low ( $\chi = 0$ ), high polarization always evolves in a population only attends to party identity. (top, right) When interaction decisions are based on party or group identity, and sorting is high, the basin of attraction for low polarization is large compared to the case when decisions are based on party or group alone, meaning that polarization is comparatively stable. (bottom, right) When sorting is low, low polarization becomes the only stable equilibrium under risk tolerance, while an intermediate polarization state becomes stable under risk aversion. These plots show dynamics for  $B_I = 0.5$ ,  $B_O = 1$ ,  $q_I = 1.0$ ,  $q_O = 0.6$ ,  $h = 10$  and  $a = 0.02$ . Dynamics describe the selection gradient experienced by a monomorphic population in which parties and groups are of equal size.

100 **2.4 Evolution of attention**

101 We now consider whether a population can be incentivized to switch from a group-only decision  
 102 process to a group- or party-decision process (see Table 1 of the main text and Table S2). We  
 103 calculated the fitness of each decision process as a function of sorting  $\chi$  and group polarization  
 104 strategy  $p_g$ . We assume that initially  $p_p = 0.5$  for the OR logic decision strategy, indicating indif-  
 105 ference to party identity. Below we also consider individual-based simulations in which attention  
 106 is parameterized to vary smoothly between 0 and 1 (Figure S9).

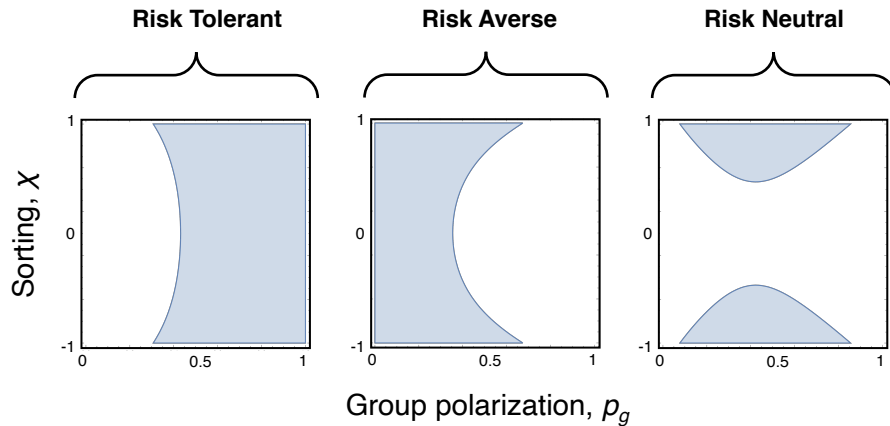


Figure S5: **Switching decision logic.** Shown in blue are the conditions under which an OR decision logic (Table S2) produces higher fitness than a group-only decision logic, as a function of sorting,  $\chi$  and group polarization strategy  $p_g$  in a monomorphic population. We assume that the OR decision logic uses  $p_p = 0.5$  indicating initial indifference to party identity (i.e. neither in-party nor out-party favoring). (left) When the environment is risk tolerant, high polarization group only decision strategies can be invaded by group OR polarization decision strategies. (center) When the environment is risk averse, low polarization group-only decision strategies can be invaded by group OR polarization decision strategies. (right) When the environment is risk neutral, highly sorted populations with intermediate levels of polarization under a group only decision strategy can be invaded by group OR party decision strategies. These plots show dynamics for  $B_I = 0.5$ ,  $B_O = 1$ ,  $q_I = 1.0$ ,  $q_O = 0.6$ ,  $h = 10$  and  $a = 0.02$ . Dynamics describe the selection gradient experienced by a monomorphic population in which parties and groups are of equal size.

107 **2.5 Varying model parameters**

108 Here we vary the parameters for the payoffs and for the utility function, under the group OR party  
 109 decision logic. We show that the bi-stability of the system is highly robust to parameter variation,  
 110 but if the utility function becomes too shallow, risk aversion does not stimulate polarization.

111 **2.5.1 Varying payoffs**

112 We varied the value of  $B_O$ , keeping other parameters fixed, and retaining the risk profile in which  
 113 in-group interactions are less risky but less advantageous.

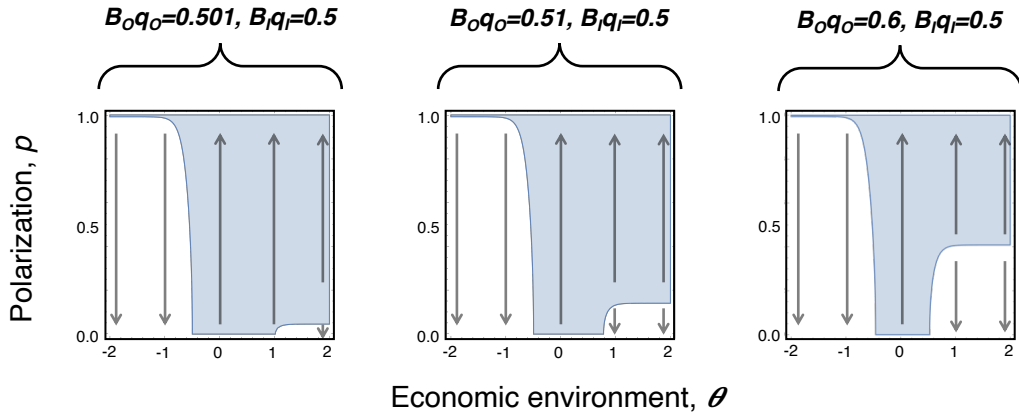


Figure S6: **Polarization under different payoffs.** Shown are the evolutionary dynamics of polarization  $p$ , i.e. the probability of choosing in-group or in-party interactions, for different underlying economic environments  $\theta$ . Arrows indicate the selection gradient (see Methods) experienced by a monomorphic population employing strategy  $p$  in environment  $\theta$ . Blue regions indicate a positive gradient (increasing polarization) while white regions indicate a negative gradient (declining polarization). In all cases we show the group OR party decision logic as described in main text Table 1. (left) When the expected benefit of out-group interactions is only slightly advantageous ( $B_o q_o = 0.501$ ,  $B_i q_i = 0.5$ ), polarization is bistable provided the environment is not risk averse. Under risk aversion ( $\theta \approx 0$ ), only high polarization is stable. However when the environment is risk neutral, the basin of attraction for the low polarization equilibrium is small. (center) When the expected benefit of out-group interactions is moderately advantageous ( $B_o q_o = 0.51$ ,  $B_i q_i = 0.5$ ), polarization is bistable provided the environment is not risk averse. Under risk aversion ( $\theta \approx 0$ ), only high polarization is stable. When the environment is risk neutral, the basin of attraction for the low polarization increases. (right) When the expected benefit of out-group interactions is more advantageous ( $B_o q_o = 0.6$ ,  $B_i q_i = 0.5$ ), polarization is bistable provided the environment is not risk averse. Under risk aversion ( $\theta \approx 0$ ), only high polarization is stable. When the environment is risk neutral, the basin of attraction for the low polarization increases further. These plots show dynamics for  $B_I = 0.5$ ,  $B_O = 1$ ,  $q_I = 1.0$ ,  $q_O = 0.6$ ,  $h = 10$  and  $a = 0.02$ . Dynamics describe the selection gradient experienced by a monomorphic population in which parties and groups are of equal size.

114 **2.5.2 Varying utility function non-linear component**

115 We varied the sharpness of the non-linear component of the utility function,  $h$ . We see that risk  
 116 aversion is not sufficient to ensure the evolution of polarization when the  $h$  is small and the slope  
 117 of the S-curve is shallow.

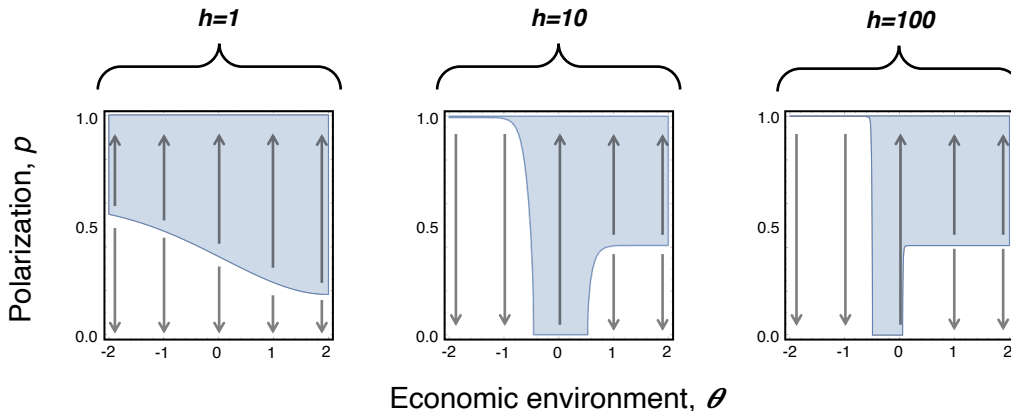


Figure S7: **Polarization under different utility function sharpness,  $h$ .** Shown are the evolutionary dynamics of polarization  $p$ , i.e. the probability of choosing in-group or in-party interactions, for different underlying economic environments  $\theta$ . Arrows indicate the selection gradient (see Methods) experienced by a monomorphic population employing strategy  $p$  in environment  $\theta$ . Blue regions indicate a positive gradient (increasing polarization) while white regions indicate a negative gradient (declining polarization). In all cases we show the group OR party decision logic as described in main text Table 1. (left) When the sharpness of the utility function threshold is shallow,  $h = 1$ , polarization is always bistable. (center) When the sharpness of the utility function threshold is intermediate,  $h = 10$ , polarization is bistable provided the environment is not risk averse. Under risk aversion ( $\theta \approx 0$ ), only high polarization is stable. (right) When the sharpness of the utility function threshold is sharp,  $h = 100$ , polarization is bistable provided the environment is not risk averse. Under risk aversion ( $\theta \approx 0$ ), only high polarization is stable. These plots show dynamics for  $B_I = 0.5$ ,  $B_O = 1$ ,  $q_I = 1.0$ ,  $q_O = 0.6$ ,  $h = 10$  and  $a = 0.02$ . Dynamics describe the selection gradient experienced by a monomorphic population in which parties and groups are of equal size.

118 **2.5.3 Varying utility function linear component**

119 We varied the slope of the linear component of the utility function,  $a$ . We see that the qualitative  
 120 dynamics of the system are robust to the choice of  $a$  over two orders of magnitude.

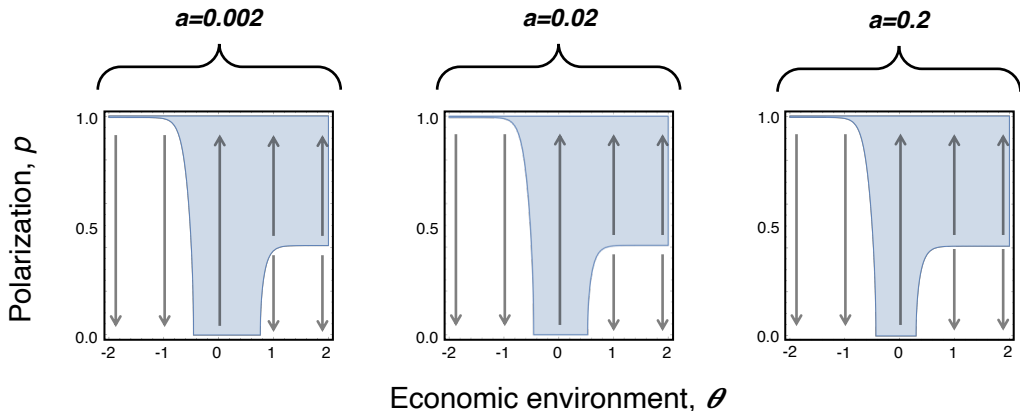


Figure S8: **Polarization under different utility function linear component slope,  $a$ .** Shown are the evolutionary dynamics of polarization  $p$ , i.e. the probability of choosing in-group or in-party interactions, for different underlying economic environments  $\theta$ . Arrows indicate the selection gradient (see Methods) experienced by a monomorphic population employing strategy  $p$  in environment  $\theta$ . Blue regions indicate a positive gradient (increasing polarization) while white regions indicate a negative gradient (declining polarization). In all cases we show the group OR party decision logic as described in main text Table 1. Regardless of the the slope of the linear part of utility function,  $a$ , polarization is bistable provided the environment is not risk averse. Under risk aversion ( $\theta \approx 0$ ), only high polarization is stable. These plots show dynamics for  $B_I = 0.5$ ,  $B_O = 1$ ,  $q_I = 1.0$ ,  $q_O = 0.6$ ,  $h = 10$  and  $a = 0.02$ . Dynamics describe the selection gradient experienced by a monomorphic population in which parties and groups are of equal size.

### 121 3 Simulations with heterogeneous group structure

122 We now discuss additional simulations in which we allow variation in the number and size of identity  
 123 groups (keeping the number of parties fixed at 2).

#### 124 3.1 Attention and Sorting

125 In order to allow changes to attention level and party makeup (i.e. sorting), we must make several  
 126 additional assumptions to those described in the main text. First, to model attention we assume  
 127 that, with probability  $p_a$ , an individual uses OR logic when assessing another person’s identity,  
 128 and with probability  $(1 - p_a)$  they consider ONLY party identity. Thus, in the notation of main  
 129 text equations 5-6, an individual encountering someone with identity  $kl$  attempts to interact with  
 130 probability  $p_a\phi_{kl} + (1 - p_a)\pi_{kl}$ .

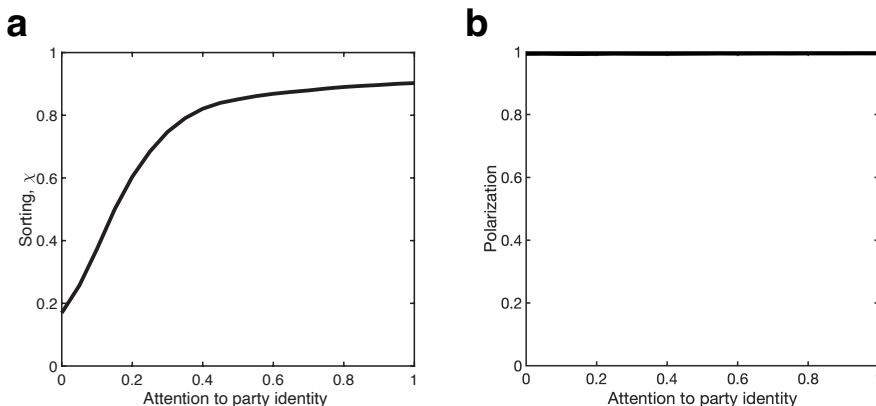


Figure S9: **Attention and sorting.** Ensemble mean equilibrium from individual-based simulations for a population with homogeneous incentives, without redistribution,  $\alpha = 0$ , under a risk averse environment,  $\theta_0 = -0.5$ . Attention, which functions as described in the text, level is varied endogenously, while sorting and polarization are allowed to co-evolve (a) As attention to party identity increases, sorting of group identities along party lines increases from initially low levels to almost complete sorting. b) Polarization remains high throughout under a risk averse environment. Plots show ensemble mean values across  $10^4$  replicate simulations, for a population of 2000 individuals. Success probabilities and benefits are fixed at  $B_I = 0.5$ ,  $B_O = 1$ ,  $q_I = 1.0$ ,  $q_O = 0.6$  with  $h = 10$  and  $a = 0.02$ , while  $\gamma = 0$  and  $b_p = 0.01$ . Evolution occurs via the copying process (see methods) with selection strength  $\sigma = 10$ , mutation rate  $\mu = 10^{-3}$  and mutation size  $\Delta = 0.01$ . Mutations in which players flip party identity occur at rate  $\mu_p = 10^{-3}$ .

131 In order to allow the evolution of sorting, we assume that individuals are able to copy the  
 132 party identity of in-group members, using the same copying process as described in the main text.

133 However, we also assume that there is pressure to keep parties of roughly equal size, e.g. through  
134 party elites adjusting their policies to increase their vote share if they are losing. From the point  
135 of view of a voter, this means there tends to be an incentive to switch to the smaller of the two  
136 main parties (since we assume this party will adjust policies to closely align with their interests on  
137 average). This assumption is consistent with (?) who notes that polarization in the US tends to  
138 track with partisan competition and parity.

139 To model this effect we assume that the utility of individual  $i$  is increased by a factor  $b_p|\rho_i - \bar{\rho}|$   
140 where  $\rho_i = 0$  if they identify with the first party and  $\rho_i = 1$  if they identify with the second party,  
141 where  $\bar{\rho}$  is the average party affiliation in the population and  $b_p$  is the benefit of misalignment with  
142 the average. This model tends to keep parties of similar size.

143 Under these assumptions we explored the effect of attention on the evolution of sorting and  
144 polarization (Figure S9), when the environment favors risk aversion ( $\theta_0 = -0.5$ ).

### 145 **3.2 Number of identity groups**

146 We explored the evolution of sorting and polarization as a function of the number of identity groups,  
147 assuming homogeneous incentives across groups (Figure S10).

148 We see that as number of identity groups increases, equilibrium sorting and polarization decline,  
149 under a decision process that attends to group OR party identity. This occurs because it becomes  
150 increasingly difficult to find successful in-group interactions as the number of different identity  
151 groups increases.

### 152 **3.3 Asymmetrical group size**

153 We also explored the effect of asymmetry in identity group size on the evolution of sorting and  
154 polarization. We considered both the case of two identity groups of unequal size (one large, one  
155 small), and the case of multiple identity groups, with many small groups and one large group.

156 We find that, when there is one large group and many small groups, sorting and polarization  
157 remain high, in contrast to the scenario when there are many equally sized small groups (Figure  
158 S10). High sorting in this case reflects a situation in which one party is made up of a single large



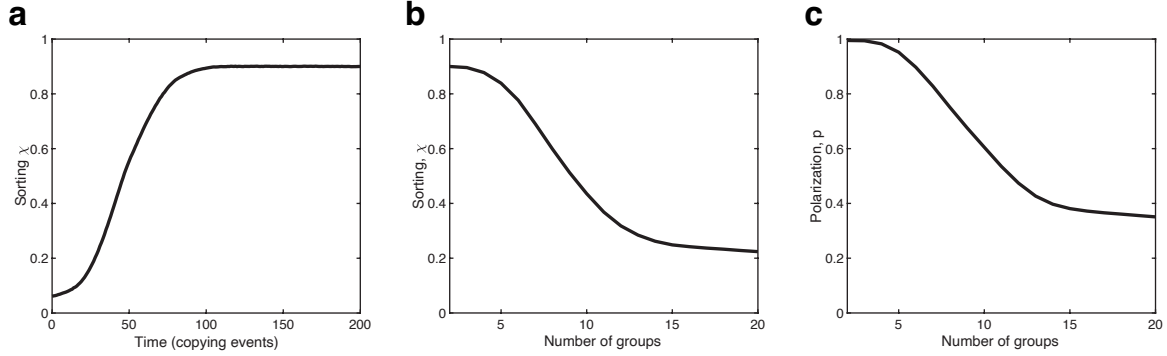


Figure S10: **Number of groups.** Individual-based simulations for a population with homogeneous incentives, without redistribution,  $\alpha = 0$ , under a risk averse environment,  $\theta_0 = -0.5$ . We fixed the number of party identities at 2, but varied the number of group identities, assuming that individuals treat anyone who is not part of their in-group as part of the out-group. (a) Time series of sorting evolution with two parties. Sorting, like polarization, evolves to high levels when individuals attend to party OR group identity, as predicted (main text Figure 2) b) Ensemble mean equilibrium for sorting as a function of group number, with number of identity groups varied from 2 to 20. c) Ensemble mean equilibrium for polarization as a function of group number, with number of identity groups varied from 2 to 20. Plots show ensemble mean values across  $10^4$  replicate simulations, for a population of 2000 individuals, with each individual randomly assigned to an identity group. Success probabilities and benefits are fixed at  $B_I = 0.5$ ,  $B_O = 1$ ,  $q_I = 1.0$ ,  $q_O = 0.6$  with  $h = 10$  and  $a = 0.02$ , while  $\gamma = 0$  and  $b_p = 0.01$ . Evolution occurs via the copying process (see methods) with selection strength  $\sigma = 10$ , mutation rate  $\mu = 10^{-3}$  and mutation size  $\Delta = 0.01$ . Mutations in which players flip party identity occur at rate  $\mu_p = 10^{-3}$ .

159 identity group and the other party is made up of many small identity groups.

160 When there are only two identity groups of unequal size, sorting and polarization decline as  
 161 asymmetry increases, with the larger party less sorted than the smaller party. This occurs be-  
 162 cause the large identity group necessarily becomes spread across multiple parties when it becomes  
 163 sufficiently large.

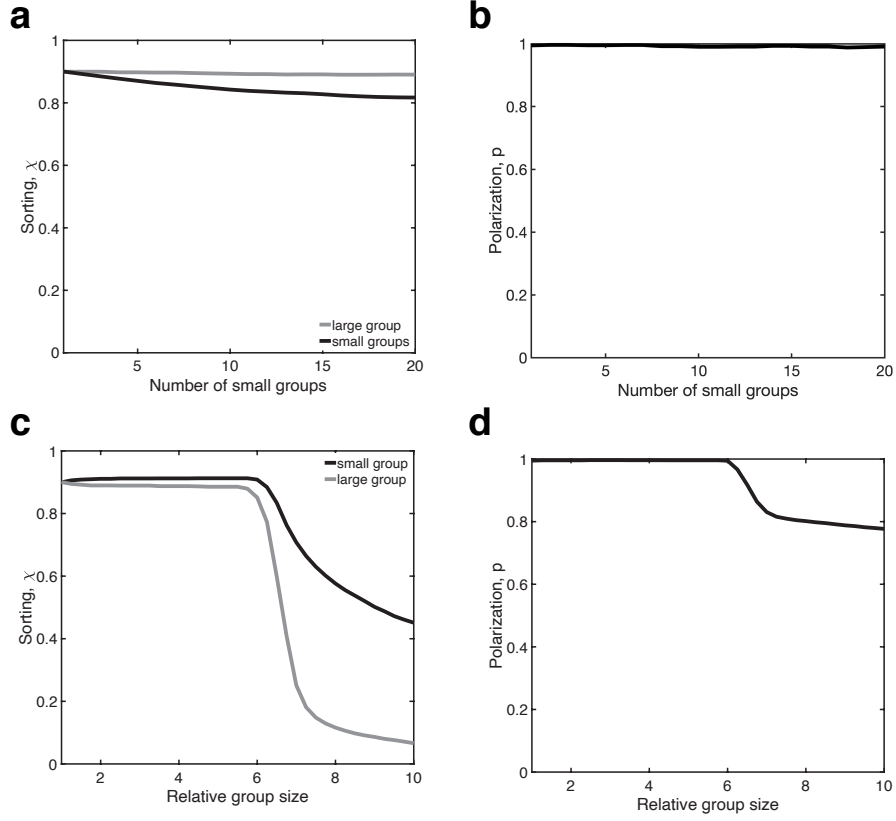


Figure S11: **Asymmetrical groups.** Ensemble mean equilibria from individual-based simulations for a population with homogeneous incentives, without redistribution,  $\alpha = 0$ , under a risk averse environment,  $\theta_0 = -0.5$ . We fixed the number of party identities at 2, but varied the relative size and the number of group identities, assuming that individuals treat anyone who is not part of their in-group as part of the out-group. (a) When there is one large group of 1000 individuals, and between 1 and 20, equally sized small groups making up the rest of the population, we see that the degree of sorting in the large group (gray line) and the small groups (black line) remains high even when the number of small groups is large. Similarly (b) polarization remains high for all group sizes. c) When only two identity groups are present, but differ in size, we see that sorting for the large group (gray) declines as the size of the large group increases, as does sorting in the smaller group (black line) to a lesser degree. d) Polarization also undergoes a moderate decline as relative group size increases. Plots show ensemble mean values across  $10^4$  replicate simulations, for a population of 2000 individuals, with each individual randomly assigned to an identity group. Success probabilities and benefits are fixed at  $B_I = 0.5$ ,  $B_O = 1$ ,  $q_I = 1.0$ ,  $q_O = 0.6$  with  $h = 10$  and  $a = 0.02$ , while  $\gamma = 0$  and  $b_p = 0.01$ . Evolution occurs via the copying process (see methods) with selection strength  $\sigma = 10$ , mutation rate  $\mu = 10^{-3}$  and mutation size  $\Delta = 0.01$ . Mutations in which players flip party identity occur at rate  $\mu_p = 10^{-3}$ .

## 164 4 Simulations with heterogeneous wealth

165 We now discuss additional simulations, conducted under the same assumptions as described in the  
 166 main text, in which we allow different groups to have different levels of wealth (see main text).

### 167 4.1 Sorting

168 We exogenously varied the amount of sorting,  $\chi$  in the presence of inequality. We see that sorting  
 169 tends to increase polarization, but it can have complex effects on levels of inequality and population  
 170 average utility. This is because intermediate levels of polarization tend to result in lower levels of  
 171 utility. Where reducing sorting can also reduce polarization to low levels, it has a beneficial effect  
 172 in reducing inequality and increasing population average utility.

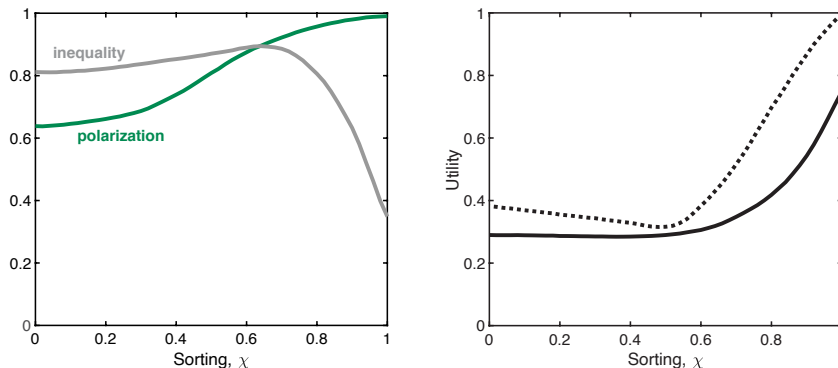


Figure S12: **Sorting and inequality.** Ensemble mean equilibria from individual-based simulations for a population initialized in a low polarization state in the presence of wealth redistribution (Eq. 4). We show results in the case of no underlying economic inequality,  $\beta = 0.5$  (dashed lines), as well the case of high underlying inequality,  $\beta = 0.01$  (solid lines). Results shown here arise from a decision process that attends to group OR party identity, and redistribution is fixed exogenously at  $\alpha = 0.5$ . (a) When public goods are not multiplicative ( $r = 1$  and  $\theta_0 = 0.5$ ), as sorting increases, polarization increases, but inequality changes non-linearly, achieving its lowest value at maximum sorting. b) Increasing sorting tends to increase overall utility. Plots show ensemble mean values across  $10^4$  replicate simulations, for groups of 1000 individuals each. Success probabilities and benefits are fixed at  $B_I = 0.5$ ,  $B_O = 1$ ,  $q_I = 1.0$ ,  $q_O = 0.6$  with  $h = 10$  and  $a = 0.02$ , while  $\gamma = 0$ . Evolution occurs via the copying process (see methods) with selection strength  $\sigma = 10$ , mutation rate  $\mu = 10^{-3}$  and mutation size  $\Delta = 0.01$ .

173 **4.2 Public goods multiplication factor**

174 We explored the effect of redistribution on inequality when public goods have a multiplicative effect,  
 175  $r > 1$ .

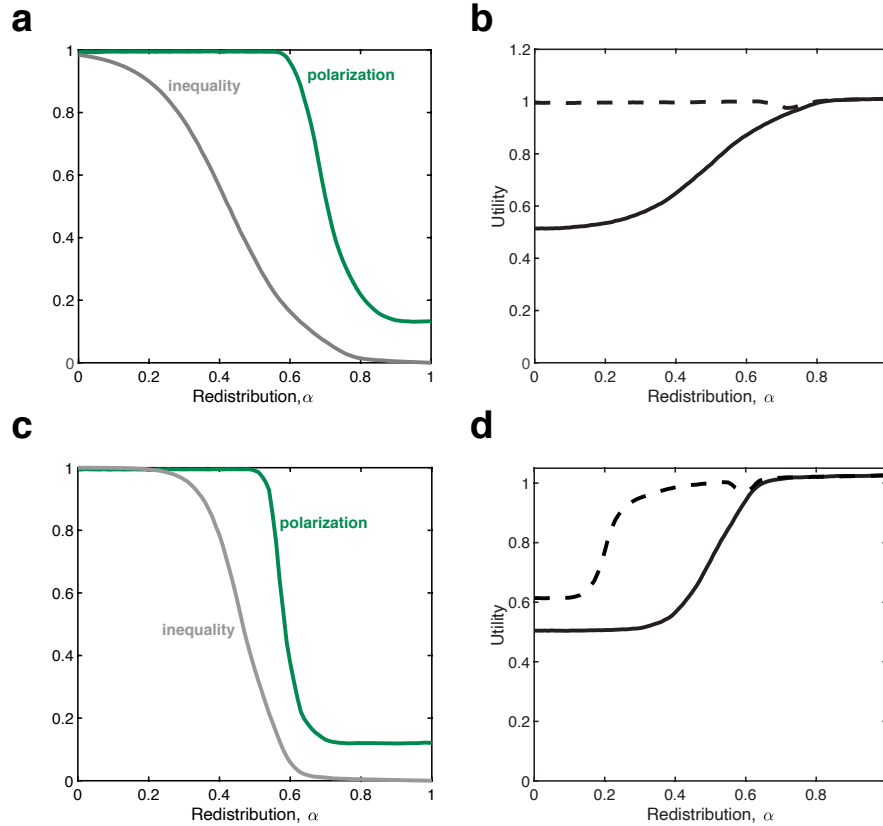


Figure S13: **Multiplicative public goods.** Ensemble mean equilibria from individual-based simulations for a population initialized in a low polarization state in the presence of wealth redistribution (Eq. 4). We show results in the case no underlying economic inequality,  $\beta = 0.5$  (dashed lines), as well the case of high underlying inequality,  $\beta = 0.01$  (solid lines). Results shown here arise from a decision process that attends to group or party identity, and sorting is fixed exogenously at  $\chi = 1$ . When public goods are not multiplicative ( $r = 1$  and  $\theta_0 = 0.5$ ), and redistribution is absent ( $\alpha = 0$ ) overall inequality (gray line, measured as the relative difference in utility – see SI) and polarization (green line) are high. With increasing rates of redistribution, first overall inequality and then polarization decline to zero. b) Increasing redistribution increases overall utility towards the level achieved when underlying inequality is absent. b) When public goods are multiplicative ( $r = 2$  and  $\theta_0 = 1$ ), we see the same dynamics, but lower levels of redistribution are required to reduce inequality and polarization. d) In this case increasing redistribution also increases the utility of the population when inequality is absent (dashed line). Plots show ensemble mean values across  $10^4$  replicate simulations, for groups of 1000 individuals each. Success probabilities and benefits are fixed at  $B_I = 0.5$ ,  $B_O = 1$ ,  $q_I = 1.0$ ,  $q_O = 0.6$  with  $h = 10$  and  $a = 0.02$ , while  $\gamma = 0$ . Evolution occurs via the copying process (see methods) with selection strength  $\sigma = 10$ , mutation rate  $\mu = 10^{-3}$  and mutation size  $\Delta = 0.01$ .

176 **4.3 Deadweight loss of taxation**

177 We explored the effect of deadweight losses of taxation,  $\gamma > 0$ , on the effectiveness of redistribu-  
 178 tion on reducing polarization and inequality. We see that such losses reduce the effectiveness of  
 179 redistribution and make it harder to mitigate both polarization and inequality.

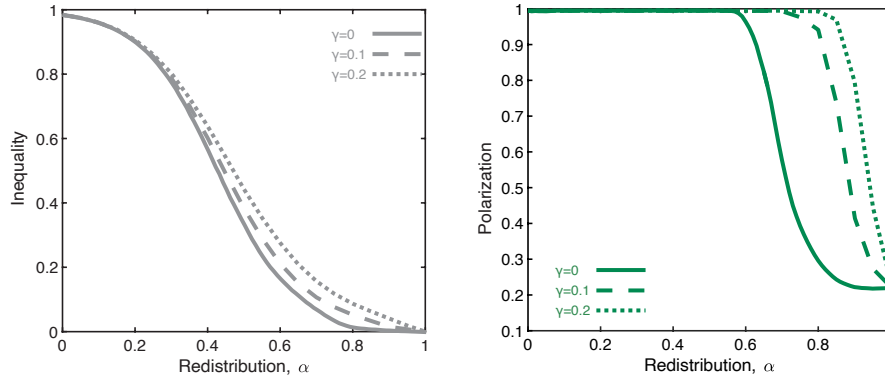


Figure S14: **Loss due to taxation.** Ensemble mean equilibria from individual-based simulations for a population initialized in a low polarization state in the presence of wealth redistribution (Eq. 4). We show results for the case of no underlying economic inequality,  $\beta = 0.5$  (dashed lines), as well the case of high underlying inequality,  $\beta = 0.01$  (solid lines). Results shown here arise from a decision process that attends to group OR party identity and where sorting is fixed exogenously at  $\chi = 1$ . (left) When public goods are not multiplicative ( $r = 1$  and  $\theta_0 = 0.5$ ), and redistribution is absent ( $\alpha = 0$ ) overall inequality is high. With increasing rates of redistribution, polarization declines, but the decline is slower when deadweight losses due to taxation increase. (right) Increasing redistribution increases overall utility towards the level achieved when underlying inequality is absent. b) Similarly, redistribution decreases polarization, but becomes less effective as  $\gamma$  increases. Plots show ensemble mean values across  $10^4$  replicate simulations, for groups of 1000 individuals each. Success probabilities and benefits are fixed at  $B_I = 0.5$ ,  $B_O = 1$ ,  $q_I = 1.0$ ,  $q_O = 0.6$  with  $h = 10$  and  $a = 0.02$ . Evolution occurs via the copying process (see methods) with selection strength  $\sigma = 10$ , mutation rate  $\mu = 10^{-3}$  and mutation size  $\Delta = 0.01$ .

180 **4.4 Economic shocks**

181 As shown above (Figure S4) the basin of attraction for the high polarization equilibrium declines to  
 182 the point of almost vanishing in a risk tolerant environment. Therefore, we considered a scenario in  
 183 which a high-polarization population enters a very poor economic environment due to an economic  
 184 shock. We see that, when this occurs, and we fix  $\theta = -1.5$ , a population will evolve from a state of  
 185 high to a state of low polarization, whereas it will remain in a state of high polarization in a risk  
 186 averse,  $\theta = 0$  or risk neutral  $\theta = 1.5$  environment.

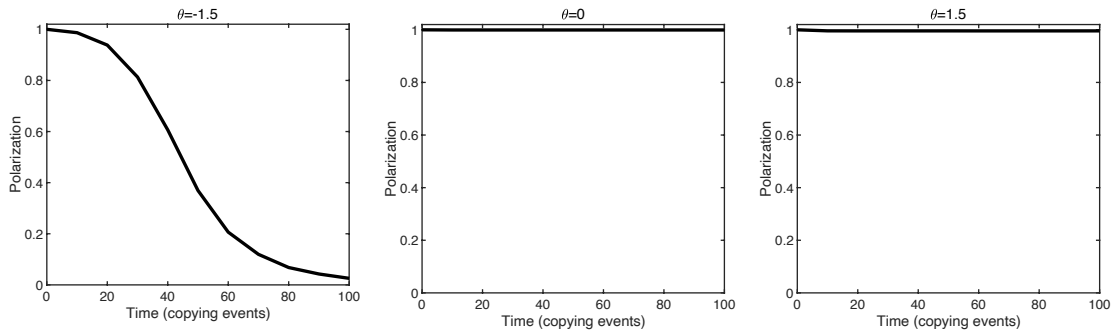


Figure S15: **Economic shocks.** Ensemble mean time trajectories for a population initialized in a high polarization state, from individual-based simulations. We show results in the case no underlying economic inequality,  $\beta = 0.5$  for different (fixed) environments ( $\theta$ ). Results shown here arise from a decision process that attends to group or party identity, with sorting is fixed exogenously at  $\chi = 1$  and redistribution at  $\alpha = 0$ . (left) When the environment is very bad,  $\theta = -0.5$ , corresponding to an economic shock, the basin of attraction for the high polarization equilibrium shrinks sufficiently that even small mutations are enough to escape. (center and right) When the environment is not risk tolerant, the population remains stuck in the high polarization equilibrium. Plots show ensemble mean values across  $10^4$  replicate simulations, for groups of 1000 individuals each. Success probabilities and benefits are fixed at  $B_I = 0.5$ ,  $B_O = 1$ ,  $q_I = 1.0$ ,  $q_O = 0.6$  with  $h = 10$  and  $a = 0.02$ . Evolution occurs via the copying process (see methods) with selection strength  $\sigma = 10$ , mutation rate  $\mu = 10^{-3}$  and mutation size  $\Delta = 0.01$ .