

Graph fission in an evolving voter model

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Contributed by Richard T. Durrett, January 13, 2012 (sent for review October 26, 2011)

We consider a simplified model of a social network in which individuals have one of two opinions (called 0 and 1) and their opinions and the network connections coevolve. Edges are picked at random. If the two connected individuals hold different opinions then, with probability $1 - \alpha$, one imitates the opinion of the other; otherwise (i.e., with probability α), the link between them is broken and one of them makes a new connection to an individual chosen at random (*i*) from those with the same opinion or (*ii*) from the network as a whole. The evolution of the system stops when there are no longer any discordant edges connecting individuals with different opinions. Letting ρ be the fraction of voters holding the minority opinion after the evolution stops, we are interested in how ρ depends on α and the initial fraction u of voters with opinion 1. In case (*i*), there is a critical value α_c which does not depend on u , with $\rho \approx u$ for $\alpha > \alpha_c$ and $\rho \approx 0$ for $\alpha < \alpha_c$. In case (*ii*), the transition point $\alpha_c(u)$ depends on the initial density u . For $\alpha > \alpha_c(u)$, $\rho \approx u$, but for $\alpha < \alpha_c(u)$, we have $\rho(\alpha, u) = \rho(\alpha, 1/2)$. Using simulations and approximate calculations, we explain why these two nearly identical models have such dramatically different phase transitions.

coevolutionary network | quasi-stationary distribution | Wright–Fisher diffusion | approximate master equation

In recent years, a variety of research efforts from different disciplines have combined with established studies in social network analysis and random graph models to fundamentally change the way we think about networks. Significant attention has focused on the implications of dynamics in establishing network structure, including preferential attachment, rewiring, and other mechanisms (1–5). At the same time, the impact of structural properties on dynamics on those networks has been studied, (6), including the spread of epidemics (7–10), opinions (11–13), information cascades (14–16), and evolutionary games (17, 18). Of course, in many real-world networks the evolution of the edges in the network is tied to the states of the vertices and vice versa. Networks that exhibit such a feedback are called adaptive or coevolutionary networks (19, 20). As in the case of static networks, significant attention has been paid to evolutionary games (21–24) and to the spread of epidemics (25–29) and opinions (30–35), including the polarization of a network of opinions into two groups (36, 37). In this paper, we examine two closely related variants of a simple, abstract model for coevolution of a network and the opinions of its members.

Holme–Newman Model

Our starting point is the model of Holme and Newman (38–41). They begin with a network of N vertices and M edges, where each vertex x has an opinion $\xi(x)$ from a set of G possible opinions and the number of people per opinion $\gamma_N = M/G$ stays bounded as N gets large. On each step of the process, a vertex x is picked at random. If its degree $d(x) = 0$, nothing happens. For $d(x) > 0$, (*i*) with probability α an edge attached to vertex x is selected and the other end of that edge is moved to a vertex chosen at random from those with opinion $\xi(x)$; (*ii*) otherwise (i.e., with probability $1 - \alpha$) a random neighbor y of x is selected and we

set $\xi(x) = \xi(y)$. This process continues until there are no longer any edges connecting individuals with different opinions.

When $\alpha = 1$, only rewiring steps occur, so once all of the M edges have been touched, the graph has been disconnected into G components, each consisting of individuals who share the same opinion. Because none of the opinions have changed, the components are small (i.e., their sizes are Poisson with mean γ_N). By classical results for the coupon collector’s problem, this requires approximately $M \log M$ updates (see, e.g., ref. 42, p. 57).

In contrast, for $\alpha = 0$, this system reduces to the voter model on a static graph. If we suppose that the initial graph is an Erdős–Rényi random graph in which each vertex has average degree $\lambda > 1$, then (see, e.g., ref. 12, chap. 2) there is a “giant component” that contains a positive fraction, μN , of the vertices and the second largest component is small having only $O(\log N)$ vertices; i.e., when N is large, the size will be approximately $C_\lambda \log N$, where C_λ is a constant that depends on λ . The voter model on the giant component will reach consensus in $O(N^2)$ steps (see, e.g., ref. 12, sect. 6.9), so the end result is that one opinion has μN followers while all of the other groups are small.

Using simulation and finite size scaling, Holme and Newman showed that there is a critical value α_c so that for $\alpha > \alpha_c$ all of the opinions have a small number of followers at the end of the process, whereas for $\alpha < \alpha_c$ “a giant community of like-minded individuals forms” (38). When the average degree $\lambda = 2M/N = 4$ and the number of individuals per opinion $\gamma_N \rightarrow 10$, this transition occurs at $\alpha_c \approx 0.46$.

Our Model and Simulation Results

The “rewire-to-same” model we study differs from that of Holme and Newman in two ways: (*i*) we consider two opinions (called 0 and 1) instead of a number proportional to the size of the graph; and (*ii*) on each step, we pick a discordant edge (x, y) at random rather than a vertex, avoiding the problem of picking vertices with degree zero or vertices that agree with all of their neighbors. With probability $1 - \alpha$, the voter at x adopts the opinion of the voter at y . Otherwise (i.e., with probability α), x breaks its connection to y and makes a new connection to a voter chosen at random from those that share its opinion. The process continues until there are no edges connecting voters that disagree.

Despite the differences in implementation, this rewire-to-same model has a phase transition similar to that of Holme and Newman. In particular, the final fraction ρ of voters with the minority opinion undergoes a discontinuous transition at a value α_c that does not depend on the initial density. Fig. 1 shows results of simulations for the rewire-to-same model starting from an initial graph that is Erdős–Rényi with $N = 100,000$ vertices and average degree $\lambda = 4$. Opinions are initially assigned randomly with the

Author contributions: R.D., J.P.G., A.L.L., P.J.M., F.S., D.S., J.E.S.S., and C.V. performed research; and R.D. and P.J.M. wrote the paper.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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This article contains supporting information online at www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1200709109/-DCSupplemental.

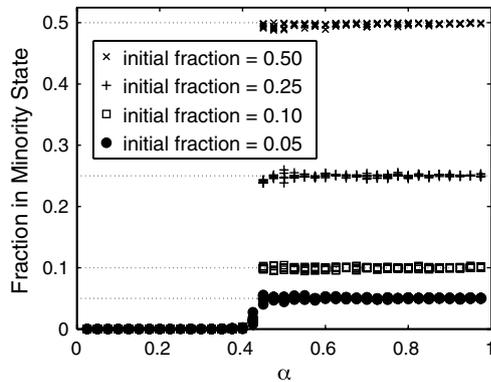


Fig. 1. Simulation results for rewired-to-same model, starting from Erdős-Rényi graphs with $N = 100,000$ nodes and average degree $\lambda = 4$.

probability of opinion 1 given by $u = 0.5, 0.25, 0.1,$ and 0.05 . The figure shows the final fraction ρ of voters with the minority opinion from five realizations for each u . For $\alpha > \alpha_c \approx 0.43$, we observe $\rho \approx u$ and for $\alpha < \alpha_c$, $\rho \approx 0.5$.

We also study a “rewired-to-random” variant of this model that differs from the rewired-to-same model in only one way: x makes its new connection to a voter chosen at random from all of the vertices in the graph. This single difference leads to fundamentally different model outcomes, as seen in Fig. 2, showing simulation results for the rewired-to-random model on initially Erdős-Rényi graphs with $N = 100,000$ nodes and average degree $\lambda = 4$ for $u = 0.5, 0.25, 0.1,$ and 0.05 . When $u = 0.5$, the fraction in the minority is constant at 0.5 over $[\alpha_c(0.5), 1]$ and then decreases continuously to a value near zero as α decreases to zero.

The behavior of our models for $\alpha > \alpha_c$ is easy to understand. As in the case of the Holme and Newman model, we expect consensus to be reached in $O(N \log N)$ steps when $\alpha = 1$ and in $O(N^2)$ steps when $\alpha = 0$. We define the boundary between the fast and slow consensus regimes to be the value of α , where the average number of steps needed to reach consensus is $N^{3/2}$ (any power between one and two would give the same results when $N \rightarrow \infty$). When an edge is chosen between voters with different opinions, then a rewiring event does not change the number of ones, whereas a voting event will increase and decrease the number of ones with equal probability; i.e., the number of ones is a random walk that on each step stays constant with probability α . The central limit theorem implies that when consensus is reached in $O(N^{3/2})$ steps, the typical change in the number of ones from the initial configuration is $O(N^{3/4})$. Hence, when the initial fractions of ones is $u \leq 1/2$, the final fraction ρ with the minority opinion will be approximately equal to u .

Turning to the curves in Fig. 2 for $u = 0.25, 0.1,$ and 0.05 , we see that each initial density u has a critical value $\alpha_c(u)$, so that for

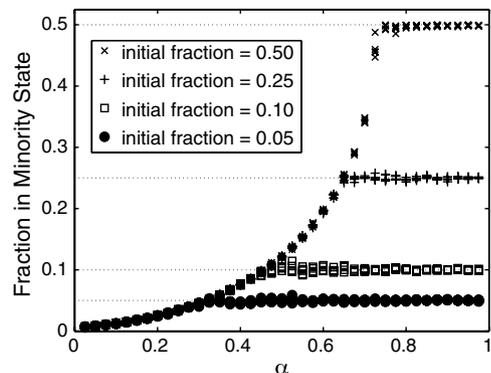


Fig. 2. Simulation results for the rewired-to-random model, starting from Erdős-Rényi graphs with $N = 100,000$ nodes and average degree $\lambda = 4$.

$\alpha > \alpha_c(u)$, we have $\rho(\alpha, u) = u$, whereas for $\alpha < \alpha_c(u)$, we have $\rho(\alpha, u) = \rho(\alpha, 0.5)$. Because all of the $\rho(\alpha, u)$ agree with $\rho(\alpha, 0.5)$ when they are $< u$, we call the graph of $\rho(\alpha, 0.5)$ on $[0, \alpha_c(0.5)]$ the universal curve. The main goal of this paper is to explain this phenomenon.

Quasi-Stationary Distributions

Let N_i be the number of vertices in state i . Our first clue to the reason for a universal curve in the rewired-to-random model came from Fig. 3, which shows the change over time of the fraction of vertices with the minority opinion $\min\{N_1, N_0\}/N$ and the number of edges connecting vertices with opposite opinions, N_{10} , for a simulation in which the initial density of ones is $u = 1/2$, $\alpha = 0.3$, the number of nodes is $N = 1,000$, and we start with an Erdős-Rényi graph with average degree $\lambda = 4$. In the visualization of these results and the theoretical discussions that follow, the model is considered in continuous time with each edge subject to change at times of a rate one Poisson process. The sequence of states visited by the model is the same in discrete or continuous time, but tM updates correspond to continuous time t . Hence, in the slow consensus regime, $O(N^2)$ updates becomes time $O(N)$.

There are $M \approx 2,000$ edges in this graph simulated in Fig. 3, so the initial number of 1-0 edges is approximately 1,000, but the curve drops very quickly to a value near 600, and then begins to change more slowly. The second key observation is that the number of 0-1 edges and the fraction with the minority opinion $\min\{N_1, N_0\}/N$ appear to be strongly correlated. The initial transient and the reason for the correlation will be seen more clearly in Fig. 4.

To explain the key insight derived from this simulation, we recall results for the voter model on the d -dimensional integer lattice \mathbb{Z}^d , in which each vertex decides to change its opinion at rate 1, and when it does, it adopts the opinion of one of its $2d$ nearest neighbors chosen at random. Let $\xi_t(x)$ be the opinion of the voter at x at time t . Holley and Liggett (43) and Liggett (44) proved the following result.

Theorem. *In $d \leq 2$, the voter model approaches complete consensus; that is, if $x \neq y$ then $P[\xi_t(x) \neq \xi_t(y)] \rightarrow 0$. In $d \geq 3$, if the voter model starts from product measure with density p [i.e., $\xi_0^p(x)$ are independent and equal to one with probability p], then ξ_t^p converges in distribution to a limit ν_p , which is a stationary distribution for the voter model.*

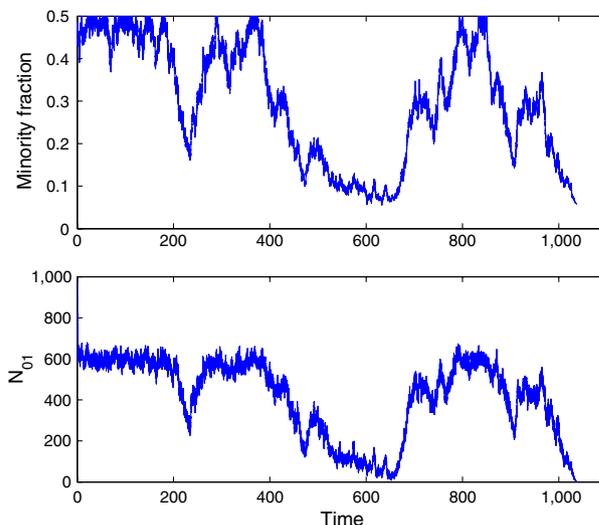


Fig. 3. Fraction of nodes with the minority opinion ($\min\{N_0, N_1\}/N$) and the number of discordant edges N_{10} versus time, for a simulation of $N = 1,000$ nodes, $u = 0.5$, and $\alpha = 0.3$.

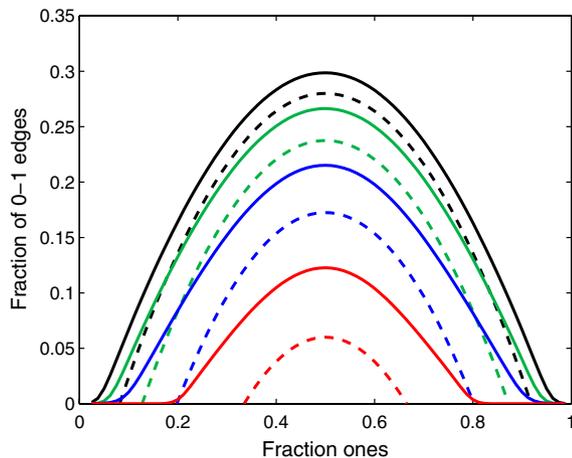


Fig. 10. Arches computed by approximate master equation (solid lines) versus simulation (dashes) for rewiring-to-random model with $\alpha = 0.4, 0.5, 0.6, 0.7$. The curves decrease as α increases.

To describe the logic behind the AME, let x be a vertex and let y be one of its neighboring vertices. Three types of things can happen: (i) rewiring may break the connection between x and y or bring a new edge to connect to x ; (ii) x or y may influence the other by a voting step; or (iii) the opinion of y may be changed by imitating one of its neighbors $z \neq x$.

Exact equations can be written for the first two types of events in terms of $\bar{S}_{k,m}$ and $\bar{I}_{k,m}$, but the third type requires an approximation. For example, if x and y are both in state 0, we postulate that y changes from zero to one at rate N_{001}/N_{00} , the expected number of 1 neighbors of a 0-0 edge. This reasoning is similar to the PA, but now we do not suppose that $N_{001}/N_{00} = N_{01}/N_0$, which, if numerical results are accurate, approximates the ratio of two cubic to a quadratic over the density u . Instead, we use identities such as

$$\sum_{k,m} (k-m)m\bar{S}_{k,m} = N_{001} \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{k,m} m\bar{S}_{k,m} = N_{01}$$

to compute the evolution of N_{001}/N_{00} and other similar terms. As shown in Fig. 10, the AME gives a better approximation of the final minority fraction ρ than the PA. More importantly, the AME gives the correct qualitative behavior: the predicted $\rho(\alpha) > 0$ for all $\alpha > 0$ and tends to zero as $\alpha \rightarrow 0$.

One can repeat the analysis described above for the rewiring-to-same model. Using the PA, we conclude that $\alpha_c = (\lambda - 1)/\lambda$ and the arches $N_{10}/N = u(1-u)[\lambda - 1/(1-\alpha)]$ always span (0,1). This qualitative behavior agrees with Fig. 8, but the PA estimate of $\alpha_c = 3/4$ when $\lambda = 4$ drastically overestimates the value $\alpha_c \approx 0.43$ that comes from simulation (see Fig. 1). Again, one can numerically solve differential equations to employ the AME. The computed arches span (0,1) but the numerical predictions of ρ and the estimate of α_c are more accurate. See *SI Materials* for details of the application of the PA and AME to both models.

Discussion

We have considered a model in which the opinions of individuals and network structure coevolve. Based on a combination of simulation and approximate calculations we conclude that (i) there is a discontinuous transition in the rewiring-to-same model, similar to that in Holme and Newman (38), which occurs at an α_c independent of the initial fraction u of ones; and (ii) there is a continuous transition in the rewiring-to-random model at the critical fraction $\alpha_c(u)$ that depends on u , and the curves for the final fraction $\rho(\alpha, u)$ of voters in the minority agree with $\rho(\alpha, 1/2)$ for $\alpha < \alpha_c(u)$.

Thus, a small change in the dynamics of the model results in a large change in the qualitative behavior and in a manner that we find counterintuitive. One would think that the rewiring-to-same dynamic would result in a more rapid division of the population into two noninteracting groups with different opinions. The critical value for the amount of rewiring α_c needed to produce rapid disconnection is smaller in the rewiring-to-same case than $\alpha_c(1/2)$ for the rewiring-to-random. Moreover, in the rewiring-to-same case, the size of the minority opinion shrinks to almost zero for $\alpha < \alpha_c$, whereas in the rewiring-to-random case, the group fissions into two, leaving a significant minority group.

Calculations based on the approximate master equation reproduce the qualitative behavior of the phase transition. However, it would be nice to derive results directly from the exact differential equations and in a way that gives some insight into the mechanisms underlying the differences between the two models.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS. The authors thank Raissa D'Souza, Eric Kolaczyk, Tom Liggett, and Mason Porter for their many helpful suggestions. This work began during the 2010–2011 program on Complex Networks at the Statistical and Applied Mathematical Sciences Institute. This work was partially supported by National Science Foundation Grants DMS-1005470 (to R.D.) and DMS-0645369 (to P.J.M.), by Science Foundation Ireland Grants 06/IN.1/1366, and Mathematics Applications Consortium for Science and Industry 06/MI/005 (to J.P.G.), and by the Research and Policy for Infectious Disease Dynamics program at National Institutes of Health (A.L.L.).

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Supporting Information

Durrett et al. 10.1073/pnas.1200709109

SI Methods

Notation. N_1 is the number of vertices in state 1. N_{ij} is the number of oriented $i-j$ edges, so $N_{10} = N_{01}$ and N_{11} counts each unoriented 1-1 edge twice. N_{ijk} is the number of oriented triples $x-y-z$ having states i, j, k . For symmetric strings such as 0-1-0, all instances are counted twice. The fact that this notation is more natural than dividing by 2 to eliminate overcounting, can be seen by observing that, if $d(x)$ is the degree of x ,

$$\sum_{ij} N_{ij} = \sum_x d(x) \quad \sum_{ijk} N_{ijk} = \sum_x d(x)[d(x) - 1].$$

Differential Equations. Consider first the rewire-to-random model and let $u = N_1/N$ be the initial fraction of vertices in state 1. By considering all of the possible changes, one arrives at the following differential equations:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dN_{10}}{dt} &= -(2 - \alpha)N_{10} + (1 - \alpha)[N_{100} - N_{010} + N_{110} - N_{101}] \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{dN_{11}}{dt} &= [1 - \alpha(1 - u)]N_{10} + (1 - \alpha)[N_{101} - N_{011}] \quad [\text{S1}] \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{dN_{00}}{dt} &= (1 - \alpha u)N_{10} + (1 - \alpha)[N_{010} - N_{100}]. \end{aligned}$$

Here we have used the fact that in the initial phase modeled by these differential equations $N_1 \approx Nu$ and $N_0 \approx N(1 - u)$. We have $N_{11} + 2N_{10} + N_{00} = M$, so the sum of the three differential equations is zero.

Rewire-to-Random Model, Pair Approximation. The calculations presented here were inspired by similar equations in Kimura and Hayakawa (1). Omitting the first equation from [S1], which is redundant,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2} \frac{dN_{11}}{dt} &= [1 - \alpha(1 - u)]N_{10} + (1 - \alpha)[N_{101} - N_{011}], \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{dN_{00}}{dt} &= (1 - \alpha u)N_{10} + (1 - \alpha)[N_{010} - N_{100}]. \end{aligned}$$

Using these two equations and the pair approximation,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{[1 - \alpha(1 - u)]}{1 - \alpha} N_{10} &= \frac{N_{01}N_{11}}{uN} - \frac{N_{10}N_{01}}{(1 - u)N} \\ \frac{(1 - \alpha u)}{1 - \alpha} N_{10} &= \frac{N_{10}N_{00}}{(1 - u)N} - \frac{N_{01}N_{10}}{uN}, \end{aligned}$$

which leads to the equations

$$\frac{N_{11}}{uN} - \frac{N_{10}}{(1 - u)N} = 1 + \frac{\alpha u}{1 - \alpha} \quad [\text{S2}]$$

and

$$\frac{N_{00}}{(1 - u)N} - \frac{N_{10}}{uN} = 1 + \frac{\alpha(1 - u)}{1 - \alpha}. \quad [\text{S3}]$$

Adding uN times [S2] to $(1 - u)N$ times [S3], we have

$$N_{11} + N_{00} - \left(\frac{u}{1 - u} + \frac{1 - u}{u} \right) N_{01} = \left[1 + \frac{[u^2 + (1 - u)^2]\alpha}{1 - \alpha} \right] N. \quad [\text{S4}]$$

When $N_{01} = 0$, we have $N_{11} + N_{00} = \lambda N$ and solving gives

$$\alpha_c(u) = \frac{\lambda - 1}{\lambda - 1 + u^2 + (1 - u)^2}.$$

When $u = 1/2$ and $\lambda = 4$, we get $\alpha_c = 3/3.5 = 6/7$. As $u \rightarrow 0$, $\alpha_c(u) \rightarrow (\lambda - 1)/\lambda = 3/4$.

Similarly, using [S4] with $N_{11} + N_{00} = \lambda N - 2N_{01}$ we have

$$\lambda N - 2N_{01} - \left(\frac{u}{1 - u} + \frac{1 - u}{u} \right) N_{01} = \left[1 + \frac{[u^2 + (1 - u)^2]\alpha}{1 - \alpha} \right] N. \quad [\text{S5}]$$

A little algebra gives

$$2 + \frac{u}{1 - u} + \frac{1 - u}{u} = \frac{2u - 2u^2 + u^2 + 1 - 2u + u^2}{u(1 - u)} = \frac{1}{u(1 - u)}. \quad [\text{S6}]$$

Rearranging [S5] and using [S6] gives

$$\left(\lambda - 1 - \frac{[u^2 + (1 - u)^2]\alpha}{1 - \alpha} \right) N = \frac{1}{u(1 - u)} N_{01},$$

and solving we get the pair approximation for the arch:

$$\frac{N_{01}}{N} = u(1 - u) \left(\lambda - 1 - \frac{[u^2 + (1 - u)^2]\alpha}{1 - \alpha} \right).$$

Note that, as α decreases from $\alpha_c(1/2) = (\lambda - 1)/(\lambda - 1/2)$ to $(\lambda - 1)/\lambda$, the arch expands from a point to a curve that spans $(0, 1)$.

Rewire-to-Same Model, Pair Approximation. In this case, the differential equations are

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2} \frac{dN_{11}}{dt} &= N_{10} + (1 - \alpha)[N_{101} - N_{011}], \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{dN_{00}}{dt} &= N_{10} + (1 - \alpha)[N_{010} - N_{100}]. \end{aligned}$$

Using these equations and the pair approximation as before,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{1 - \alpha} N_{10} &= \frac{N_{01}N_{11}}{uN} - \frac{N_{10}N_{01}}{(1 - u)N} \\ \frac{1}{1 - \alpha} N_{10} &= \frac{N_{10}N_{00}}{(1 - u)N} - \frac{N_{01}N_{10}}{uN}, \end{aligned}$$

which leads to the equations

$$\frac{N_{11}}{uN} - \frac{N_{10}}{(1 - u)N} = \frac{1}{1 - \alpha} \quad [\text{S7}]$$

and

$$\frac{N_{00}}{(1-u)N} - \frac{N_{10}}{uN} = \frac{1}{1-\alpha}. \quad [\text{S8}]$$

Adding uN times the first to $(1-u)N$ times the second, we have

$$N_{11} + N_{00} - \left(\frac{u}{1-u} + \frac{1-u}{u} \right) N_{01} = \frac{N}{1-\alpha}. \quad [\text{S9}]$$

When $N_{01} = 0$, we have $N_{11} + N_{00} = \lambda N$, giving $1 - \alpha_c = 1/\lambda$ or

$$\alpha_c = 1 - \frac{1}{\lambda} = \frac{\lambda - 1}{\lambda}.$$

Using [S9] with $N_{11} + N_{00} = \lambda N - 2N_{01}$ and the algebra in [S6] yields

$$[\lambda - (1-\alpha)^{-1}]N = \frac{N_{01}}{u(1-u)}$$

and the following approximation for the arch

$$\frac{N_{01}}{N} = u(1-u) \left(\lambda - \frac{1}{1-\alpha} \right).$$

Approximate Master Equations

Rewire-to-Random Version. The approximate master equation for the susceptible sites is

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} \bar{S}_{k,m} = & \alpha \{ -(2-u)m\bar{S}_{k,m} + (1-u)(m+1)\bar{S}_{k,m+1} \\ & + (m+1)\bar{S}_{k+1,m+1} \} \\ & + \alpha N_{01} [-2\bar{S}_{k,m} + \bar{S}_{k-1,m-1} + \bar{S}_{k-1,m}] / N \\ & + (1-\alpha) [-m\bar{S}_{k,m} + (k-m)\bar{I}_{k,m}] \\ & + (1-\alpha) [-\beta^S(k-m)\bar{S}_{k,m} + \beta^S(k-m+1)\bar{S}_{k,m-1} \\ & - \gamma^S m \bar{S}_{k,m} + \gamma^S (m+1)\bar{S}_{k,m+1}], \end{aligned} \quad [\text{S10}]$$

where

1. Kimura D, Hayakawa Y (2008) Coevolutionary networks with homophily and heterophily. *Phys Rev E Stat Nonlin Soft Matter Phys* 78:016103

$$\begin{aligned} \beta^S &= \frac{\sum_{k,m} (k-m)m\bar{S}_{k,m}}{\sum_{k,m} (k-m)\bar{S}_{k,m}} = \frac{N_{001}}{N_{00}} \\ \gamma^S &= \frac{\sum_{k,m} (k-m)^2 \bar{I}_{k,m}}{\sum_{k,m} (k-m)\bar{I}_{k,m}} = \frac{N_{010}}{N_{01}} + 1. \end{aligned}$$

Here β^S gives the expected number of 1 neighbors of a 0-0 edge. For a vertex in state 0 with j neighbors in state 0, the number of oriented 0-1-0 containing it is $j(j-1)$. Thus, N_{010}/N_{01} gives the expected number of zero neighbors of the 1 at the end of a 0-1 edge, and the +1 in the definition of γ^S counts the zero on the conditioning edge.

The approximations for the arches reported in Fig. 10 in the main text are obtained by numerically solving the system to steady state. Mathematica's NDSolve function was used starting with a Poisson degree distribution of mean degree $\lambda = 4$, vertices independently assigned the value 1 with probability u , and the equations cut off at maximum degree $K = 15$ (The results are not appreciably affected by increasing K .)

Rewire to Same. The voter terms are exactly as in the rewire-to-random case, whereas the number of possibilities for rewiring is reduced:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} \bar{S}_{k,m} = & \alpha \{ -2m\bar{S}_{k,m} + (m+1)\bar{S}_{k+1,m+1} + (m+1)\bar{S}_{k,m+1} \} \\ & + \alpha N_{01} [-\bar{S}_{k,m} + \bar{S}_{k-1,m}] / [N(1-u)] \\ & + (1-\alpha) [-m\bar{S}_{k,m} + (k-m)\bar{I}_{k,m}] \\ & + (1-\alpha) [-\beta^S(k-m)\bar{S}_{k,m} + \beta^S(k-m+1)\bar{S}_{k,m-1} \\ & - \gamma^S m \bar{S}_{k,m} + \gamma^S (m+1)\bar{S}_{k,m+1}]. \end{aligned} \quad [\text{S11}]$$

Again we generate our predictions by numerically solving the differential equations. When $\lambda = 4$, the predictions for the arch are given in Fig. S1.

