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I am submitting herewith a thesis written by Mahendra Duwal Shrestha entitled "Analysis and Simulation Of A Simple Evolutionary System." I have examined the final paper copy of this thesis for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science, with a major in Computer Science.

We have read this thesis and recommend its acceptance:	Michael D. Vose, Major Professor
Committee Member 1	
Committee Member 2	
	Accepted for the Council:
	Dixie Thompson

To the Graduate Council:

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eil:

Vice Provost and Dean of the Graduate School

(Original signatures are on file with official student records.)

Analysis and Simulation Of A Simple Evolutionary System

A Thesis Presented for

The Master of Science

Degree

The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Mahendra Duwal Shrestha August 2016 © by Mahendra Duwal Shrestha, 2016 All Rights Reserved. $dedication \dots$

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank...

 $Some\ quotation...$

Abstract

Abstract text goes here...

Contents

Lis	st of	Tables	ix
Li	st of	Figures	x
1	Intr	oduction	1
	1.1	Introduction	1
	1.2	Literature	1
	1.3	Random Heuristic Search	1
2	Ext	ending A Genetic Algorithm Model To The Diploid Case	4
	2.1	Model	5
	2.2	Reduction	6
3	Spe	cialization	9
	3.1	Mutation	9
	3.2	Crossover	10
	3.3	Mixing Matrix	12
	3.4	Walsh Transorm	13
	3.5	Walsh Transform Adaptation	14
	3.6	Fast Walsh Transform	16
4	Exp	perimental Simulations and Measurements	21
	4.1	Distance	21

	4.2	Simplification	25
	4.3	Convergence	23
5	Evo	olutionary Limits	28
	5.1	Limits	28
	5.2	Computation of Mutation and Crossover Distribution	30
	5.3	Initial Population	32
	5.4	Oscillation	34
	5.5	Violation	45
6	Cor	nclusion	96
Bi	ibliog	graphy	97
$\mathbf{V}^{:}$	ita		101

List of Tables

5.1	Expected	distance f	or popul	lation s	size .																4	4
-----	----------	------------	----------	----------	--------	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	---	---

List of Figures

4.1	Convergence of finite population behaviour: d is distance	
	between finite population f^n and infinite population q^n at generation	
	n , population size N , for genome length ℓ (bits)	25
4.2	Regression parameters: multi-plot for generation $n \in \{1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, $, 64, 128}. 26
5.1	Initial population computation	32
5.2	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior for	
	genome length $\ell = 8$ (bits): In left column, d is distance of finite	
	population of size n or infinite population to limits for g generations.	
	In right column, d is distance of finite population to infinite population	
	for g generations	36
5.3	Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior for	
	genome length $\ell = 8$ (bits): In left column, d is distance of finite	
	population of size n or infinite population to limits for g generations.	
	In right column, d is distance of finite population to infinite population	
	for g generations	37
5.4	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior for	
	genome length $\ell = 10$ (bits): In left column, d is distance of finite	
	population of size n or infinite population to limits for g generations.	
	In right column, d is distance of finite population to infinite population	
	for a concretions	38

5.5	Infinite and finite population oscillation behavior for genome	
	length $\ell = 10$ (bits): In left column, d is distance of finite population	
	of size n or infinite population to limits for g generations. In right	
	column, d is distance of finite population to infinite population for g	
	generations	39
5.6	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior for	
	genome length $\ell = 12$ (bits): In left column, d is distance of finite	
	population of size n or infinite population to limits for g generations.	
	In right column, d is distance of finite population to infinite population	
	for g generations	40
5.7	Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior for	
	genome length $\ell = 12$ (bits): In left column, d is distance of finite	
	population of size n or infinite population to limits for g generations.	
	In right column, d is distance of finite population to infinite population	
	for g generations	41
5.8	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior for	
	genome length $\ell = 14$ (bits): In left column, d is distance of finite	
	population of size n or infinite population to limits for g generations.	
	In right column, d is distance of finite population to infinite population	
	for g generations	42
5.9	Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior for	
	genome length $\ell = 14$ (bits): In left column, d is distance of finite	
	population of size n or infinite population to limits for g generations.	
	In right column, d is distance of finite population to infinite population	
	for a generations.	4:

5.10	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=8$ and $\epsilon=0.01$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	47
5.11	Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=8$ and $\epsilon=0.01$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	48
5.12	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=8$ and $\epsilon=0.1$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	49
5.13	Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=8$ and $\epsilon=0.1$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	50

5.14	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=8$ and $\epsilon=0.5$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	51
5.15	Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=8$ and $\epsilon=0.5$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	52
5.16	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=10$ and $\epsilon=0.01$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	53
5.17	Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=10$ and $\epsilon=0.01$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	54

5.18	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=10$ and $\epsilon=0.1$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	55
5.19	Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=10$ and $\epsilon=0.1$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	56
5.20	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=10$ and $\epsilon=0.5$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	57
5.21	Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=10$ and $\epsilon=0.5$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	58

5.22	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=12$ and $\epsilon=0.01$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	59
5.23	Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=12$ and $\epsilon=0.01$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	60
5.24	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=12$ and $\epsilon=0.1$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	61
5.25	Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=12$ and $\epsilon=0.1$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	62

5.26	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=12$ and $\epsilon=0.5$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	63
5.27	Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=12$ and $\epsilon=0.5$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	64
5.28	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=14$ and $\epsilon=0.01$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	65
5.29	Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=14$ and $\epsilon=0.01$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	66

5.30	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=14$ and $\epsilon=0.1$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	67
5.31	Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=14$ and $\epsilon=0.1$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	68
5.32	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=14$ and $\epsilon=0.5$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	69
5.33	Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=14$ and $\epsilon=0.5$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	70

5.34	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=8$ and $\epsilon=0.01$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	71
5.35	Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=8$ and $\epsilon=0.01$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	72
5.36	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=8$ and $\epsilon=0.1$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	73
5.37	Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=8$ and $\epsilon=0.1$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	74

5.38	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=8$ and $\epsilon=0.5$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	75
5.39	Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=8$ and $\epsilon=0.5$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	76
5.40	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=10$ and $\epsilon=0.01$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	77
5.41	Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=10$ and $\epsilon=0.01$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	78

5.42	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=10$ and $\epsilon=0.1$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	79
5.43	Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=10$ and $\epsilon=0.1$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	80
5.44	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=10$ and $\epsilon=0.5$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	81
5.45	Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=10$ and $\epsilon=0.5$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	82

5.46	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=12$ and $\epsilon=0.01$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	83
5.47	Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=12$ and $\epsilon=0.01$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	84
5.48	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=12$ and $\epsilon=0.1$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	85
5.49	Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=12$ and $\epsilon=0.1$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	96

5.50	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=12$ and $\epsilon=0.5$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	87
5.51	Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=12$ and $\epsilon=0.5$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	88
5.52	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=14$ and $\epsilon=0.01$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	89
5.53	Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=14$ and $\epsilon=0.01$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	90

5.54	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=14$ and $\epsilon=0.1$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	91
5.55	Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=14$ and $\epsilon=0.1$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	92
5.56	Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=14$ and $\epsilon=0.5$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	93
5.57	Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in	
	case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=14$ and $\epsilon=0.5$:	
	In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite	
	population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance	
	of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without	
	violation	94

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

1.2 Literature

1.3 Random Heuristic Search

Vose Vose (1999a) introduced abstract model, a generalized heuristic search method referred to as $Random\ Heuristic\ Search\ (RHS)$ which is defined upon the central concept of state and transition between states. An instance of RHS can be thought of as an initial collection of elements P_0 chosen from some search space Ω , together with a stochastic transition rule τ , which from P_i will produce another collection P_{i+1} . In other words, τ will be iterated to produce a sequence of generations.

The beginning collection P_0 is referred to as the *initial population*. Let n be the cardinality of Ω and $\mathbf{1}$ denotes column vector of all 1s. The *simplex* is defined to be the set of population descriptors:

$$\Lambda = \langle x_0, ..., x_{n-1} \rangle : \mathbf{1}^T x = 1, x_j \ge 0$$

An element p of Λ corresponds to a population according to the rule:

 p_j = the proportion in the population of the jth element of Ω

The cardinality of each population is a constant r, called the population size. Given r, a population descriptor p unambiguously determines a population.

Given the current population vector p, the next population vector $\tau(p)$ cannot be predicted with certainty because τ is stochastic and results from r independent, identically distributed random choices. Let $\mathcal{G}: \Lambda \to \Lambda$ be a function that given the current population vector p produces a new vector whose ith component is the probability that ith element of Ω is chosen. Thus, $\mathcal{G}(p)$ is the probability vector that specifies the distribution from which the aggregate of r choices forms the subsequent generation. Probability that population q given current population vector p can be computed as Vose (1999a)

$$r! \prod \frac{(\mathcal{G}(p)_j)^{rq_j}}{(rq_j)!}$$

$$= exp\{-r \sum q_j \ln \frac{q_j}{\mathcal{G}(p)!} - \sum (\ln \sqrt{2\pi r q_j} + \frac{1}{12rq_j + \theta(rq_j)}) + O(\ln r)\}$$

where summation is restricted to indices for which $q_j > 0$.

Each random vector in the sequence $p, \tau(p), \tau^2(p), \dots$ depends only on the value of the preceding one, which is a special situation, and such a sequence forms a Markov chain with transition matrix

$$Q_{p,q} = r! \prod \frac{(\mathcal{G}(p)_j)^{rq_j}}{(rq_i)!}$$

So the conceptualization of RHS can be replaced by Markov chain model abstraction which makes no reference to sampling Ω . That is from current population p, produce $q = \tau(p)$ with probability $Q_{p,q}$. With transition matrix defined for Markov chain model, Vose Vose (1999a) says the expected next generation $\mathcal{E}(\tau(p))$ is $\mathcal{G}(p)$ and the expression in transition matrix

$$\sum q_j \ln \frac{q_j}{\mathcal{G}(p)!}$$

gives the qualitative information regarding probable next generation which is the discrepancy of q with respect to $\mathcal{G}(p)$. It is a measure of how far q is from the expected next population $\mathcal{G}(p)$. Discrepancy is nonnegative and is zero only when q is the expected next population. Hence the factor

$$exp\{-r\sum q_j\ln\frac{q_j}{\mathcal{G}(p)!}\}$$

in the expression of transition matrix indicates the probability that q is the next generation decays exponentially, with constant r, as the discrepancy between q and the expected next population increases. The expression

$$\sum \left(\ln \sqrt{2\pi r q_j} + \frac{1}{12rq_j + \theta(rq_j)}\right)$$

measures the dispersion of the population vector q and the factor

$$exp\{-\sum(\ln\sqrt{2\pi rq_j} + \frac{1}{12rq_j + \theta(rq_j)})\}$$

indicates the probability that q is the next generation decays exponentially with increasing dispersion.

Vose (1999a) calculated variance of next generation population with respect to expected population as

$$\mathcal{E}(\|\tau(p) - \mathcal{G}(p)\|^2) = (1 - \|\mathcal{G}(p)\|^2)/r$$

and mentioned $\tau(p)$ converges in probability to $\mathcal{G}(p)$ as the population size increases. Therefore, τ corresponds to \mathcal{G} in the infinite population case.

Chapter 2

Extending A Genetic Algorithm Model To The Diploid Case

This chapter describes a simple Markov model for evolution under the influence of crossing over and mutation; it is a non-overlapping, generational, infinite population model under the assumption of *complete panmixia* (random mating) and no selective pressure. This chapter contributes to the elegance and simplicity of the abstract development and manifests diploid evolution equations can be represented by haploid equations.

A basic syntactic model for haploid and diploid genomes is considered in the beginning and commented on its expressive power. Then the mechanics of how the (n+1)th generation is obtained from the nth generation are defined abstractly in procedural terms, which serves to motivate the equations governing evolution.

Next evolution equations are developed corresponding to the procedural description defining evolution for a population of diploid genomes. Observations concerning the form and symmetry of those equations directly lead to decoupling from the diploid case a haploid model sufficient to determine evolutionary trajectories for the diploid case.

2.1 Model

A haploid genome g is defined syntactically as a length ℓ binary string. A collection of h chromosomes may be modeled by partitioning g into h segments (of arbitrary lengths ℓ_1, \ldots, ℓ_h ; thus $\ell = \ell_1 + \cdots + \ell_h$). Partitioning may be extended to chromosomes so as to interpret each as a collection of genes. If continued to the granularity of pairs of bits, partitioning allows, for example, representing the four possibilities Adenine, Guanine, Cytosine, and Thymine.

A diploid genome $\alpha = \langle \alpha_0, \alpha_1 \rangle$ is likewise defined syntactically as a pair of length ℓ binary strings. Although simple, that syntax is flexible and possesses significant modeling power by means of tailoring partitioning to application. We concentrate on the abstract level, considering the evolution of a non-overlapping, generational, infinite population model assuming panmixia and no selective pressure. We are not concerned with whether and how partitioning is defined as it is irrelevant to the development.

Following Hardy Hardy (1908), the model q^n at generation n is a vector having for component q^n_{α} the prevalence of diploid α (the probability of selecting α at generation n, assuming unbiased selection).* Ordered diploid $\gamma = \langle \gamma_0, \gamma_1 \rangle$ is produced for generation n + 1 according to following procedural description.

Assuming independent selection events:

- \bullet From parent α selected with probability q_{α}^n obtain gamete γ_0
- From parent β selected with probability q_{β}^n obtain gamete γ_1

Following Gieringer Geiringer (1944), let the transmission function $t_{\alpha}(g)$ be the probability that gamete g is produced from parental genome α . It follows from the above that the equation determining the next generation q^{n+1} is

$$q_{\gamma}^{n+1} = \sum_{\alpha} q_{\alpha}^{n} t_{\alpha}(\gamma_{0}) \sum_{\beta} q_{\beta}^{n} t_{\beta}(\gamma_{1})$$
 (2.1)

^{*}The representation here is the conceptual equivalent of Hardy's model.

It should be appreciated that the Mendelian Mendel (1865) laws of segregation[†] and independent assortment[‡] need not be respected by the transmission function.

The right hand side of (2.1) is invariant under interchange of the summation variables α and β , which is equivalent to interchanging γ_0 and γ_1 . This symmetry reflects the fact that which haploid of γ is designated as γ_0 is arbitrary,

$$q_{\langle \gamma_0, \gamma_1 \rangle}^{n+1} = q_{\langle \gamma_1, \gamma_0 \rangle}^{n+1}$$

The model corresponding to (2.1) is low-level in the sense that it regards $\langle \gamma_0, \gamma_1 \rangle$ and $\langle \gamma_1, \gamma_0 \rangle$ as distinct when $\gamma_1 \neq \gamma_0$. A higher-level model based on sets is easily obtained,

$$q_{\{\gamma_0,\gamma_1\}} = \begin{cases} 2q_{\langle\gamma_0,\gamma_1\rangle} & \text{if } \gamma_0 \neq \gamma_1 \\ q_{\langle\gamma_0,\gamma_1\rangle} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

which is in agreement with HardyHardy (1908) (issues he considered and results he obtained relating to invariant distributions for a particular sort of transmission function are not here mentioned because they are irrelevant to the purpose of this section).

2.2 Reduction

Evolution equation (2.1) may be reduced to the haploid case. Its right hand side is the product of two summations; denote the first by $p_{\gamma_0}^{n+1}$ and the second by $p_{\gamma_1}^{n+1}$ so that

$$q_{(\gamma_0,\gamma_1)}^{n+1} = p_{\gamma_0}^{n+1} p_{\gamma_1}^{n+1}$$
 (2.2)

where for any haploid γ_0 ,

$$p_{\gamma_0}^{n+1} = \sum_{\alpha} q_{\alpha}^n t_{\alpha}(\gamma_0) \tag{2.3}$$

[†]Alleles of a given locus segregate into separate gametes.

[‡]Alleles of one gene sort into gametes independently of the alleles of another gene.

It suffices to determine the evolution of the distributions p^n . Uncoupling p from q using (2.3), and equation (2.2) with superscript n — instantiate the n in (2.2) with n-1 — yields the evolution equation

$$p_{\gamma_0}^{n+1} = \sum_{\alpha_0, \alpha_1} q_{\langle \alpha_0, \alpha_1 \rangle}^n t_{\langle \alpha_0, \alpha_1 \rangle}(\gamma_0)$$

$$= \sum_{\alpha_0, \alpha_1} p_{\alpha_0}^n p_{\alpha_1}^n t_{\langle \alpha_0, \alpha_1 \rangle}(\gamma_0)$$
(2.4)

The p^n are in fact distributions; summing equation (2.2) with superscript n yields

$$1 = \sum_{\alpha} q_{\alpha}^{n} = \sum_{\alpha_{0}, \alpha_{1}} p_{\alpha_{0}}^{n} p_{\alpha_{1}}^{n} = \left(\sum_{\alpha_{0}} p_{\alpha_{0}}^{n}\right)^{2}$$

Let [expression] denote 1 if expression is true, and 0 otherwise.§ The weighted count of haploid g in generation n is

$$\sum_{\alpha_0,\alpha_1} q^n_{\langle \alpha_0,\alpha_1 \rangle}([g = \alpha_0] + [g = \alpha_1]) \tag{2.5}$$

$$= \sum_{\alpha_0, \alpha_1} p_{\alpha_0}^n p_{\alpha_1}^n [g = \alpha_0] + \sum_{\alpha_0, \alpha_1} p_{\alpha_0}^n p_{\alpha_1}^n [g = \alpha_1]$$
 (2.6)

$$= 2p_q^n (2.7)$$

Hence the (normalized) prevalence of haploid g in generation n is the gth component of the distribution p^n . Moreover, (2.5) and (2.2) show (for n > 0) invertibility of the map

$$\pi: \boldsymbol{q}^n \longmapsto \boldsymbol{p}^n$$

Evolution equation (2.4) in matrix form is

$$p_a' = p^T M_a p (2.8)$$

 $[\]S[\cdots]$ is sometimes referred to as an *Iverson bracket*.

where current state p (generation n) and next state p' (generation n+1) are column vectors, and the g th transmission matrix is

$$\left(M_g\right)_{u,v} = t_{\langle u,v\rangle}(g) \tag{2.9}$$

(vectors and matrices are indexed by haploids — length ℓ binary strings).

Chapter 3

Specialization

This chapter summarizes from the development in Vose Vose (1999a). It specializes the haploid evolution equations in the previous section to a context where mask-based crossing over and mutation operators are used, leading to Vose's infinite population model for Genetic Algorithms. Whereas in previous sections *component* referred to a component of a distribution vector q^n or p^n , in this section a component is either a probability (when when speaking of a component of a distribution vector), or a bit (when speaking of a component of a haploid).

The set of haploids (i.e., length ℓ binary strings) is a commutative ring \mathcal{R} under component-wise addition and multiplication modulo 2. This algebraic structure is crucial to Vose's specialization and subsequent analysis of (2.8). Denote the additive identity by $\mathbf{0}$ and the multiplicative identity by $\mathbf{1}$, and let \overline{g} abbreviate $\mathbf{1} + g$. Except when explicitly indicated otherwise, operations acting on elements of \mathcal{R} are as defined in this paragraph.*

3.1 Mutation

Mutation simulates effects of error that happen with low probability during duplication of chromosome. Mutation provides mechanism to inject new strings into the

^{*}In particular, $g\overline{g} = \mathbf{0} = g + g$, $g^2 = g$, $g + \overline{g} = \mathbf{1}$ for all $g \in \mathcal{R}$.

next generation population which gives RHS ability to search beyond the confines of initial population.

Symbol μ is used to represent mutation distribution describing the probability μ_i with which $i \in \Omega$ is selected to be a mutation mask. $\mu : \Omega \to \Omega$ is nondeterministic mutation function where the result $\mu(x)$ of applying mutation function on x is $x \oplus i$ with probability μ_i of distribution μ where i is mutation mask. Mutating x using mutation mask i alters the bits of x in those positions the mutation mask i is 1. $\mu \in [0, 0.5)$ is regarded as a mutation rate which implicitly specifies distribution μ according to rule Vose and Wright (1998)

$$\mu_i = (\mu)^{\mathbf{1}^T i} (1 - \mu)^{\ell - \mathbf{1}^T i}$$

If g should mutate to g' with probability ρ , let

$$\mu_{g+g'} = \rho$$

Given distribution μ , mutation is the stochastic operator sending g to g' with probability $\mu_{g+g'}$.

Mutation considered is *independent* for all j and k which means Vose and Wright (1998)

$$oldsymbol{\mu}_j = \sum_{k \otimes i = 0} oldsymbol{\mu}_{i \oplus j} \sum_{k \overline{\otimes} i = 0} oldsymbol{\mu}_{i \otimes j}$$

3.2 Crossover

Crossover refers to crossing over (also termed recombination) between two chromosomes (strings in our case). Crossover like mutation also provides mechanism for injection of new strings into new generation population. Masked based crossover is used in this document. Geiringer (1944) used crossover mask with probability (distribution) associated with the mask to generate offsprings from parent chromosomes in absence of mutation and selection. Let χ_m be probability distribution with which

m is selected to be a crossover mask. Following Geiringer (1944), if crossing over u and v should produce u' and v' with probability ρ , let

$$\chi_m = \rho$$

where m is 1 at components which u' inherits from u, and 0 at components inherited from v. It follows that

$$u' = mu + \overline{m}v$$

$$v' = mv + \overline{m}u$$

Given distribution χ , crossover is the stochastic operator which sends u and v to u' and v' with probability $\chi_m/2$ for each u' and v'.

 χ can be considered as a *crossover rate* that specifies the distribution χ given by rule Vose and Wright (1998)

$$oldsymbol{\chi}_i = egin{cases} oldsymbol{\chi} c_i & ext{if } i > 0. \ 1 - oldsymbol{\chi} + oldsymbol{\chi} c_0 & ext{if } i = 0. \end{cases}$$

where $c \in \Lambda$ is referred to as *crossover type*. Classical crossover types include 1-point crossover and uniform crossover. For 1-point crossover,

$$c_i = \begin{cases} 1/(\ell - 1) & \text{if } \exists k \in (0, \ell). i = 2^k - 1. \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

and for uniform crossover, $c_i = 2^{-\ell}$.

3.3 Mixing Matrix

The combined action of mutation and crossover is referred to as mixing. The mixing matrix M is the transmission matrix corresponding to the additive identity of \mathcal{R} is

$$M = M_0$$

Crossover and mutation are defined in a manner respecting arbitrary partioning and arbitrary linkage to preserve the ability to endow abstract syntax with specialized semantics. Groups of loci can mutate and crossover with arbitrarily specified probabilities as disscussed in above sections. For mutation distribution μ and crossover distribution χ , whether or not μ is independent if mutation is performed before crossover, then transmission function can be expressed as Vose and Wright (1998)

$$t_{\langle u,v\rangle}(g) = \sum_{i\in\mathcal{R}} \sum_{j\in\mathcal{R}} \sum_{k\in\mathcal{R}} \mu_i \mu_j \frac{\chi_k + \chi_{\overline{k}}}{2} \left[k(u+i) + \overline{k}(v+j) = g \right]$$
(3.1)

Here a child gamete g is produced via mutation and then crossover (which are operators that commute).

The mixing matrix M is a fundamental object, because (3.1) implies that evolution equation (2.8) can be expressed in the form

$$p_g' = (\sigma_g p)^T M (\sigma_g p) \tag{3.2}$$

where the permutation matrix σ_g is defined by component equations

$$(\sigma_g)_{u,v} = [u+v=g]$$

3.4 Walsh Transorm

A time series, f(t), in terms of a series of Walsh functions W(n,t) Beauchamp (1975), viz.

$$f(t) = a_0 W_{0,t} + \sum_{n=1}^{N-1} a_n W_{n,t}$$

where n is an ordering number, N is number of terms used in Walsh series to express time series and

$$\frac{a_0}{2} = \frac{1}{T} \int_{0}^{T} f(t) W_{n,t} dt$$

$$a_n = \frac{1}{T} \int_{0}^{T} f(t) W_{n,t} dt$$

Finite discrete Walsh transform pair on N sampling points, x_t , can be expressed as Beauchamp (1975)

$$X_n = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=0}^{N-1} x_t W_{n,t}$$

$$n = 0, 1, 2...N - 1$$
(3.3)

and

$$x_t = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} X_n W_{n,t}$$
$$t = 0, 1, 2...N - 1$$

The Walsh function series $W_{n,t}$ can be obtained using Walsh matrix also known as Hadamard matrix of order N. Walsh matrix or Hadamard matrix is a square matrix of order N whose coefficients comprise only +1 and -1 and where its rows (and columns) are orthogonal to one another. The Walsh matrix is defined by

$$W_{n,t} = N^{-1/2}(-1)^{n \cdot t}$$

where $N^{-1/2}$ is normalization factor and $n \cdot t$ is bitwise dot product of binary representation of number n and t.

The matrix is symmetric, i.e.,

$$W_{n,t} = W_{n,t}$$

and it has entries satisfying

$$W_{n,t\oplus k} = N^{1/2} W_{n,t} W_{n,k}$$

The practical importance of this symmetry is that the transform and inverse represent same mathematical operation, hence simplifying the derivation and application of the transform. With the normalized form, *Walsh matrix* is its own inverse, i.e.,

$$W = W^{-1}$$

In the matrix form, given vector w and matrix A, let \widehat{w} and \widehat{A} denote the Walsh transform of w and A respectively. Then $\widehat{w} = Ww$ and $\widehat{A} = WAW$. If w is a row vector, then w in its Walsh basis \widehat{w} represents wW.

3.5 Walsh Transform Adaptation

The Walsh transform has spectacular ability to unravel the intricacies of mixing. And that is why we adapt Walsh transform methods for computing evolutionary trajectories, which have already been established for Vose's haploid model Vose and Wright (1998). Adaptation of Walsh transformation efficiently models infinite diploid population evolution. This adaptation of Walsh transformation helps in making feasible comparisons between finite and infinite diploid population short-term evolutionary behavior. Recalling evolution equation (3.2), without selection,

specialized to Vose's infinite population model expressed in mixing matrix's term,

$$p_g' = (\sigma_g p)^T M (\sigma_g p)$$

where the permutation matrix σ_g is defined by component equations

$$(\sigma_q)_{u,v} = [u+v=q]$$

In our model, the Walsh matrix W is defined by component equations

$$W_{u,v} = 2^{-\ell/2}(-1)^{u^T v}$$

where the subscripts u, v (which belong to \mathcal{R}) on the left hand side are interpreted on the right hand side as column vectors in \mathbb{R}^{ℓ} . Columns of W form the orthonormal basis — the Walsh basis — which simultaneously diagonalizes the σ_g .

A change of basis which simultaneously diagonalizes the σ_g unravels the evolution equation (3.2). Expressed in the Walsh basis (see Vose and Wright (1998)), the mixing matrix takes the form

$$\widehat{M}_{u,v} = 2^{\ell-1} \left[uv = \mathbf{0} \right] \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_u \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_v \sum_{k \in \overline{u+v}\mathcal{R}} \boldsymbol{\chi}_{k+u} + \boldsymbol{\chi}_{k+v}$$
(3.4)

and equation (3.2) takes the form

$$\widehat{p}_g' = 2^{\ell/2} \sum_{i \in q\mathcal{R}} \widehat{p}_i \, \widehat{p}_{i+g} \, \widehat{M}_{i,i+g}$$

$$(3.5)$$

where $g\mathcal{R} = \{gi \mid i \in \mathcal{R}\}$ (for any $g \in \mathcal{R}$).

The mapping from generation n to generation n + 1, determined in natural coordinates by equation (2.8) in terms of the transmission function (2.9), and given in Walsh coordinates by equation (3.5) in terms of the mixing matrix (3.4), is Markovian; the next state p' depends only upon the current state p. Let \mathcal{M} represent the mixing

transformation,

$$p' = \mathcal{M}(p) \tag{3.6}$$

and let $\mathcal{M}^n(p)$ denote the *n*-fold composition of \mathcal{M} with itself; thus generation n+1 is described by

$$p^{n+1} = \mathcal{M}^n(p^1)$$

where $p^1 = \pi(q^1)$. We have little to say about the matrix of the Markov chain corresponding to the mixing transformation \mathcal{M} , because it is uncountable; each state is a distribution vector p describing a population. However, that is not an obstacle to computing evolutionary trajectories; (3.6) can be computed in Walsh coordinates relatively efficiently via (3.4) and (3.5).

3.6 Fast Walsh Transform

However, computation of discrete Walsh transform given by equation (3.3) takes N^2 operations (addition or subtraction). An algorithm using matrix factorization techniques is found to perform transformation in $N \log_2 N$ operations. This algorithm in fast Walsh transform (FWT). Shanks (1969) described FWT algorithm which is analogous to Cooley and Tukey (1965) algorithm for fast Fourier transformation. Shanks assumed walsh function to be periodic with period N, where N is an integral power of 2. So a complete orthogonal set will have N function $W_{m,n}$ where m = 0, 1, 2, ..., N - 1 and n = 0, 1, 2, ..., N - 1. The first two discrete walsh functions are defined as

$$W_{0,n} = 1 \text{ for } n = 0, 1, 2, ..., N - 1$$
 (3.7)

$$W_{1,n} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } n = 0, 1, 2, ..., (N/2) - 1. \\ -1 & \text{for } n = N/2, (N/2) + 1, ..., N - 1. \end{cases}$$
(3.8)

Remainder of set can be generated by using multiplicative iterative equation:

$$W_{m,n} = W_{[m/2],2n} \cdot W_{m-2[m/2],n} \tag{3.9}$$

where [m/2] indicates the integer part of m/2.

The discrete Walsh functions as defined here are symmetric with respect to the argument (m, n). That is,

$$W_{m,n} = W_{n,m}.$$

For real array of length N, Walsh transform can be defined as

$$F(m) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} f(n)W_{m,n}, \text{ where } m = 0, 1, 2, ..., N-1$$
(3.10)

Similarly, for inverse transform is

$$f(n) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} F(m) W_{m,n}, \text{ where } n = 0, 1, 2, ..., N-1$$
(3.11)

Since walsh functions $W_{m,n}$ have values either 1 or -1, computation of (3.10) and (3.11) does not require multiplication. Shanks (1969) derived using (3.9) an algorithm analogous to Cooley-Tukey algorithm that will require $N\log_2 N$ summations to com-Walsh transform. pute complete N(which extended For 8 can be to general case), indices in (3.10) can be replaced with a set which can only have values 0 and 1. That is,

$$m = 4j_2 + 2j_1 + j_0, j_2, j_1, j_0 = 0 \text{ or } 1$$
 (3.12)

$$n = 4k_2 + 2k_1 + k_0, k_2, k_1, k_0 = 0 \text{ or } 1$$
 (3.13)

Using these new notations, $W_{m,n}$ becomes $W(j_2, j_1, j_0; k_2, k_1, k_0)$. So (3.10) becomes

$$F(j_2, j_1, j_0) = \sum_{k_0=0}^{1} \sum_{k_1=0}^{1} \sum_{k_2=0}^{1} f(k_2, k_1, k_0) \cdot W(j_2, j_1, j_0; k_2, k_1, k_0)$$
(3.14)

Here, j_2, j_1, j_0 is binary representation of m. So, dividing m by 2 equivalents to shifting binary representation of m by 1 to the right and dropping fractional bit. That is, if

$$m \leftrightarrow j_2 j_1 j_0$$

then,

$$[m/2] \leftrightarrow 0j_2j_1.$$

Similarly, if

$$n \leftrightarrow k_2 k_1 k_0$$

then,

$$2n \leftrightarrow k_2 k_1 k_0 0.$$

An 8-length Walsh function is periodic with period 8. Thus any index (such as 2n) can be evaluated modulo 8. This is equivalent to deleting any bits above the third bit and we have

$$2n(modulo8) \leftrightarrow k_1K_00$$

Using these indices, (3.9 becomes

$$W(j_2, j_1, j_0; k_2, k_1, k_0) = W(0, j_2, j_1; k_1, k_0, 0) \cdot W(0, 0, j_0; k_2, k_1, k_0). \tag{3.15}$$

 j_0 can only be 0 or 1, so $W(0,0,j_0;k_2,k_1,k_0)$ represents either $W_{0,n}orW_{1,n}$. The function $W_{0,n}$ is 1 for all n. And function $W_{1,n}$ is 1 if 0 < n < 4 and $W_{1,n}$ is -1.0 if 4 < n < 7. Thus, from (3.13), $W_{1,n}$ is +1.0 if $k_2 = 0$ and $W_{1,n}$ is -1.0 if $k_2 = 1$. Therefore,

$$W(0,0,j_0;k_2,k_1,k_0) = (-1)^{j_0k_2}. (3.16)$$

(3.15) can be used to factor $W(0,j_2,j_1;k_1,k_0,0)$ to get

$$W(0, j_2, j_1; k_1, k_0, 0) = W(0, 0, j_2; k_0, 0, 0) \cdot W(0, 0, j_1; k_1, k_0, 0). \tag{3.17}$$

Using (3.16) and (3.17) in (3.15), we get completely factored expression for the 8-length Walsh function

$$W(j_2, j_1, j_0; k_2, k_1, k_0) = (-1)^{j_2 k_0} (-1)_{j_1 k_1} (-1)^{j_0 k_2}.$$
(3.18)

Using (3.18), (3.14) becomes

$$F(j_2, j_1, j_0; k_2, k_1, k_0) = \sum_{k_0=0}^{1} (-1)^{j_2 k_0} \sum_{k_1=0}^{1} (-1)^{j_1 k_1} \cdot \sum_{k_2=0}^{1} (-1)^{j_0 k_2} f(k_2, k_1, k_0).$$
 (3.19)

We can define

$$A_1(j_0, k_1, k_0) = \sum_{k_2=0}^{1} (-1)^{j_0 k_2} f(k_2, k_1, k_0)$$
(3.20)

Array A_1 is first set of intermediate calculations to compute F(m). $A_2(j_0, j_1, k_0)$ can be computed from A_1 and final result $A_3(j_0, j_1, j_2)$ from A_2 for 8-length Walsh transform. However, the order of the values will be in the bit reversed form. It can be generalized for the case $N = 2^p$ by defining intermediate Walsh transform arrays as

$$A_{l}(j_{O}, j_{1}, ..., j_{l-1}, k_{p-l-1}, ..., k_{0}) = \sum_{k_{p-l}=0}^{1} A_{l-1}(j_{0}, j_{1}, ..., j_{l-2}, k_{p-l}, k_{p-l-1}, ..., k_{0}) \cdot (-1)^{j_{l-1}k_{p-l}}$$

$$(3.21)$$

where l = 1, 2, ..., p and

$$A_0(k_{n-1}, k_{n-2}, ..., k_0) = f(k_{n-1}, k_{n-2}, ..., k_0).$$
(3.22)

The general equation for the $M=2^P$ -length discrete Walsh function is

$$W(j_{p-1}, j_{p-2}, ..., j_0; k_{p-1}, k_{p-2}, ..., k_0) = \prod_{i=0}^{p-1} (-1)^{j_{p-1-i}k_i}.$$

Chapter 4

Experimental Simulations and

Measurements

This chapter describes how distance between finite diploid population and infinite population is calculated. Then it discusses simplifications in computations made by our evolutionary equations and in distance computation. And it goes on to discuss results from simulations and convergence of finite diploid population short-term behavior to evolutionary behavior predicted by infinite population model.

4.1 Distance

Let vector \mathbf{f} represent a finite diploid population; component \mathbf{f}_{α} is the prevalence of diploid α . Let the support $S_{\mathbf{f}}$ of \mathbf{f} be the set of diploids occurring in the population represented by \mathbf{f} ,

$$S_{\mathbf{f}} = \{\alpha \mid \mathbf{f}_{\alpha} > 0\}$$

Let q similarly represent an infinite diploid population (see section 2.1). As points in $\mathbb{R}^{2^{\ell} \times 2^{\ell}}$, the Euclidean distance between f and q is

$$\|oldsymbol{f}-oldsymbol{q}\| = \sum_{lpha}^{rac{1}{2}} (oldsymbol{f}_lpha - oldsymbol{q}_lpha)^2$$

Whereas a naive computation of this distance involves $2^{\ell} \cdot 2^{\ell}$ terms, leveraging equation (2.2) can significantly reduce the number of terms involved. Note that

$$\|\boldsymbol{f} - \boldsymbol{q}\|^2 = \sum_{\alpha \notin S_f} (\boldsymbol{f}_{\alpha} - \boldsymbol{q}_{\alpha})^2 + \sum_{\alpha \in S_f} (\boldsymbol{f}_{\alpha} - \boldsymbol{q}_{\alpha})^2$$
(4.1)

Using equation (2.2) — $\mathbf{q}_{\alpha} = \mathbf{p}_{\alpha_0} \mathbf{p}_{\alpha_1}$ (suppressing superscripts to streamline notation) — together with the fact that $\mathbf{f}_{\alpha} = 0$ in every term of the first sum above, the first sum reduces to

$$\sum_{\langle \alpha_0, \alpha_1 \rangle \notin S_f} (\boldsymbol{p}_{\alpha_0} \boldsymbol{p}_{\alpha_1})^2 = \sum_{\langle \alpha_0, \alpha_1 \rangle} (\boldsymbol{p}_{\alpha_0})^2 (\boldsymbol{p}_{\alpha_1})^2 - \sum_{\langle \alpha_0, \alpha_1 \rangle \in S_f} (\boldsymbol{p}_{\alpha_0} \boldsymbol{p}_{\alpha_1})^2$$

$$= \sum_g^2 (\boldsymbol{p}_g)^2 - \sum_{\alpha \in S_f} (\boldsymbol{q}_\alpha)^2 \tag{4.2}$$

It follows from (4.1) and (4.2) that

$$\|\boldsymbol{f} - \boldsymbol{q}\|^2 = \sum_{g}^{2} (\boldsymbol{p}_g)^2 + \sum_{\alpha \in S_f} (\boldsymbol{f}_\alpha - \boldsymbol{q}_\alpha)^2 - \sum_{\alpha \in S_f} (\boldsymbol{q}_\alpha)^2$$
$$= \sum_{g}^{2} (\boldsymbol{p}_g)^2 + \sum_{\alpha \in S_f} \boldsymbol{f}_\alpha (\boldsymbol{f}_\alpha - 2\boldsymbol{q}_\alpha)$$
(4.3)

which involves $2^{\ell} + |S_f|$ terms, assuming that S_f is known as a byproduct of computing f.

(4.3) computes distance between finite and infinite population efficiently.

4.2 Simplification

The haploid case simplified by equations (3.4) and (3.5) are the consequence of specializing to Vose's infinite population model and computing in the Walsh basis. Time switching between the standard basis and the Walsh basis is negligible; the fast Walsh transform (in dimension n) has complexity $n \log n$ Shanks (1969).

Only one mixing matrix as opposed to 2^{ℓ} matrices is needed to compute the next generation; evolution equation (3.5) references the same matrix for every g, whereas evolution equation (2.8) depends upon a different matrix M_g for each choice of g. The matrix is computed by a single sum as opposed to a triple sum; compare equation (3.4) with equation (3.1). Also, the relevant quadratic form is computed with a single sum as opposed to a double sum; computing via (3.5) is linear time in the size of $g\mathcal{R}$ (for each g) as opposed to the quadratic time computation (for each g) represented by equation (2.8).

From a computational standpoint, the best-case scenario is where recomputation of the matrices mentioned in the previous paragraph is obviated by sufficient memory. The reduction from 2^{ℓ} matrices to one matrix helps significantly in that regard. To demonstrate this advantage in concrete terms, consider genomes of length $\ell=14$. Using 2^{14} matrices each of which contains $2^{14}\times 2^{14}$ entries of type double requires 32 terabytes, whereas the mixing matrix at 2 gigabytes fits easily within the memory of a laptop. Moreover, for a population size of $N \leq 2^{20}$, the distance computation described in the previous section reduces the number of terms involved by a factor of $2^{28}/(2^{14}+2^N) > 252$.

4.3 Convergence

This section presents a cursory numerical investigation of the convergence of finite diploid population short-term behaviour to that of the infinite diploid population model as described in section 2 (the underlying haploid model for the infinite population case is described in section 2.1).

Equations (2.2), (3.4), (3.5), (4.3) were employed to illustrate efficient computation of the distance

$$d = \|\boldsymbol{f}^n - \boldsymbol{q}^n\|$$

where f^n and q^n represent finite and infinite diploid populations at generation $n \in \{1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, 128\}$ respectively, beginning from a random initial population $(f^0 = q^0)$. Genome lengths $\ell \in \{4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14\}$ and population sizes $N = 2^i$ for integer $0 \le i \le 20$ were considered. The crossover distribution χ corresponds to independent assortment of bits, and the mutation distribution μ corresponds to independent bit mutation probability 0.001,

$$\chi_m = 2^{-\ell}, \quad \mu_g = (0.001)^{\mathbf{1}^{\mathrm{T}}g} (0.999)^{\ell - \mathbf{1}^{\mathrm{T}}g}$$

(subscripts above on the left hand side of an equality are interpreted on the right hand side of the equality as column vectors in \mathbb{R}^{ℓ}). The finite population case is computed using the itemized procedural definition given in section 2.1; the transmission function (3.1) corresponds to μ and χ above (bits mutate independently and are freely assorted).

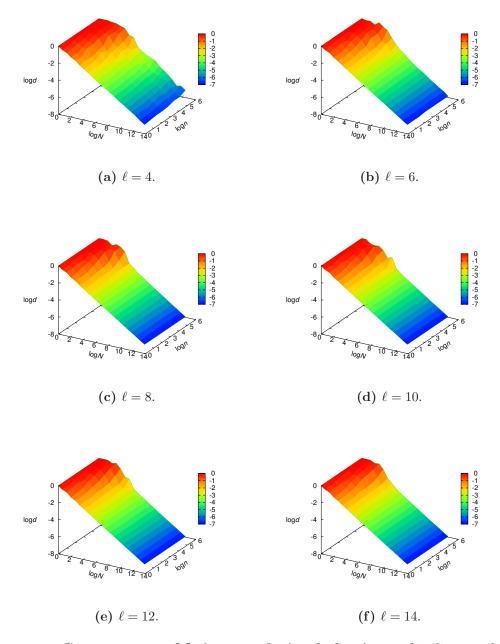


Figure 4.1: Convergence of finite population behaviour: d is distance between finite population f^n and infinite population q^n at generation n, population size N, for genome length ℓ (bits).

The data, presented in six surface graphs above and organized by genome length, shows a near linear dependence of $\log d$ on $\log N$. As expected, the graphs show

smoothing with increasing genome length (the computation of d involves averaging over ℓ components), and also with increased population size (as explained in Vose (1999a), the initial transient of a finite haploid population trajectory converges as $N \to \infty$ to the corresponding infinite population model).

Of particular interest is the linear trend exhibited above. The slope m and intercept b of the regression line

$$\log d = m \log N + b \tag{4.4}$$

was computed using the data above; each was plotted against genome length ℓ and organized by generation n. The resulting graphs are displayed below.

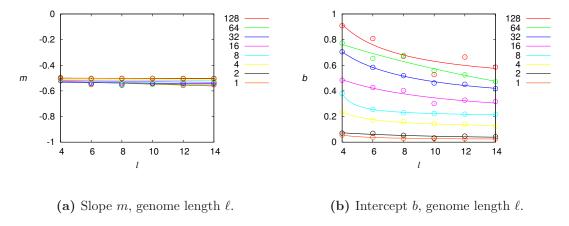


Figure 4.2: Regression parameters: multi-plot for generation $n \in \{1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, 128\}.$

Taking the exponential of the regression line (4.4) yields the estimate $d \approx N^m e^b$. Slopes of the regression lines shown in **Figure 4.2** are approximately -0.5, indicating

$$d \approx k/\sqrt{N}. \tag{4.5}$$

Vose (1999b) calculated variance of next generation population with respect to expected population as

$$\mathcal{E}(\|q - \mathcal{G}(p)\|^2) = (1 - \|\mathcal{G}(p)\|^2)/N$$

where \boldsymbol{q} is actual population and $\mathcal{G}(\boldsymbol{p})$ is expected population. Let x be the random variable $\|\boldsymbol{q} - \mathcal{G}(\boldsymbol{p})\|$. Let ϕ be the function $\phi(x) = x^2$ which is convex function. Then $\mathcal{E}(\|\boldsymbol{q} - \mathcal{G}(\boldsymbol{p})\|^2)$ becomes $\mathcal{E}(\phi(x))$. From Jensen's inequality, if ϕ is a convex function, then

$$\phi(\mathcal{E}(x))) \le \mathcal{E}(\phi x)$$

$$\mathcal{E}(x) \le \sqrt{\mathcal{E}(x^2)}$$

Substituting original variables,

$$\mathcal{E}(\|\boldsymbol{q} - \mathcal{G}(\boldsymbol{p})\|) \le \sqrt{(1 - \|\mathcal{G}(\boldsymbol{p})\|^2)/N}$$
(4.6)

Equation 4.6 shows the expected rate of convergence for the single-step haploid case; the distance is inversely proportional to square root of population size. And equation 4.5 agrees with equation 4.6.

The consistent convergence rate across multiple generations is somewhat surprising, simulation results above indicate it may persist to generation n = 128.

The intercept graphs above show the constant of proportionality $k = e^b$ decreases monotonically with genome length ℓ , and increases monotonically with generation n. The increase in k for larger n seems to be a manifestation of the growing nonlinearity uniformly exhibited by the plots in **Figure 4.1** as n increases. It seems likely that the nonlinearity results from genetic drift experienced by finite populations Crow and Kimura (1970).

Chapter 5

Evolutionary Limits

This chapter inspects evolutionary limits predicted by Vose using infinite population model under no selective pressure. It provides computation of predicted limits of infinite population and discusses necessary and sufficient conditions for population to converge in to periodic orbits.

5.1 Limits

Vose states under mild assumptions on mutations (considered later), populations converge under repeated application of \mathcal{M} . Vose mentions that in general case, periodic orbits are possible but populations converge under repeated application of \mathcal{M}^2 and limits $\mathbf{p}^* = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mathcal{M}^{2n}(\mathbf{p})$ and $\mathbf{q}^* = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mathcal{M}^{2n+1}(\mathbf{q})$ exist.

Following Vose's theorem, let $S_g = g\mathcal{R}/\{\mathbf{0}, g\}$, and let |g| be the number of non zero bits in g.

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{p}}_g' = \begin{cases} 2^{\ell/2} & \text{if } g = 0 \\ x_g \widehat{\boldsymbol{p}}_g + y_g(\widehat{\boldsymbol{p}}_g) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where,

$$x_g = 2\widehat{\mathcal{M}}_{g,0}, \qquad y_g(z) = 2^{\ell/2} \sum_{i \in S_g} z_i z_{i+g} \widehat{\mathcal{M}}_{i,i+g}.$$

Moreover,

$$|g| = 1 \Rightarrow y_g = 0$$

 $|g| > 0 \Rightarrow |x_g| \le 1$
 $|x_g| = 1 \Rightarrow y_g = 0$

With above notations, limits can be expressed in Walsh basis by recursive equations

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{p}^*}_g = \begin{cases} (x_g y_g(\widehat{\boldsymbol{p}^*}) + y_g(\widehat{\boldsymbol{q}^*}))/(1 - x_g^2) & \text{if } |x_g| < 0\\ \widehat{p}_g & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
(5.1)

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{q}^*}_g = \begin{cases} (x_g y_g(\widehat{\boldsymbol{q}^*}) + y_g(\widehat{\boldsymbol{p}^*}))/(1 - x_g^2) & \text{if } |x_g| < 0\\ \widehat{\mathcal{M}(\boldsymbol{p})}_g & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
(5.2)

If $x_g \neq 1$ for all g, then $\mathbf{p}^* = \mathbf{q}^* = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mathcal{M}(\mathbf{p})$ is the limit of mixing. In other cases, mixing converges to a periodic orbit oscillating between \mathbf{p}^* and $\mathbf{q}^* = \mathcal{M}(\mathbf{p}^*)$.

Limits $\widehat{\boldsymbol{p}}_g^*$ and $\widehat{\boldsymbol{q}}_g^*$ can be computed considering gth components in order of increasing |g| and performing complete induction on |g|. If |g|=0 then g=0. Since $\widehat{\boldsymbol{p}}_0^*=2^{-\ell/2}$ for all distributions \boldsymbol{p} , the 0the components of the sequence $\mathcal{M}^n(\boldsymbol{p})$ are identical in the Walsh basis. Since $|x_0|=2$ ($x_g=2\widehat{\mathcal{M}}_{g,0}$ and $\widehat{\mathcal{M}}_{0,0}=1$), $\widehat{\boldsymbol{p}}_g^*=\widehat{\boldsymbol{q}}_g^*=2^{-\ell/2}$. Next, consider |g|=1. $y_g=0$ for |g|=0 (noted from above). These two cases |g|<2| are base cases for complete induction on |g|. The inductive hypothesis given by Vose is that for |k|<|g|, the kth component of $\mathcal{M}^n(\boldsymbol{p})$ in the Walsh basis converges to $\widehat{\boldsymbol{p}}_k^*$ or $\widehat{\boldsymbol{q}}_k^*$ as $n\to\infty$ through even or odd values respectively, and if $x_k\neq -1$ for all such k, then $\widehat{\boldsymbol{p}}_k^*=\widehat{\boldsymbol{q}}_k^*$. And computation of $y_g(z)$ involves only the kth components of z where |k|<|g|.

Vose gives a necessary and sufficient condition for the sequence

$$p, \mathcal{M}(\boldsymbol{p}), \mathcal{M}^2(\boldsymbol{p}), ...$$

to converge to a periodic orbit as that for some g

$$-1 = \sum_{j} (-1)^{g^T j} \boldsymbol{\mu}_j = -\sum_{k \in \bar{g}\mathcal{R}} \boldsymbol{\chi}_{k+g} + \boldsymbol{\chi}_k$$
 (5.3)

5.2 Computation of Mutation and Crossover Distribution

Following algorithm installs values of mutation and crossover distributions that satisfies condition described by equation (5.3) for evolutionary sequence to converge in periodic orbits. Let μ_j and χ_k represent mutation and crossover distributions respectively where $j, k \in \mathcal{R}$ and U01() be random number between 0 and 1. For any g where $g \in \mathcal{R}$ and $g \neq 0$. For all $j \in \mathcal{R}$,

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_j = \begin{cases} U01() & \text{if } (g^T \cdot j) \text{ is odd.} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

This installs some random values in some specific positions in μ distribution array according to value of g and others set to 0. Normalization of μ_j gives values for μ distribution

$$oldsymbol{\mu}_j = oldsymbol{\mu}_j / \sum_{j \in \mathcal{R}} oldsymbol{\mu}_j$$

such that

$$\sum_{j\in\mathcal{R}}\boldsymbol{\mu}_j=1.$$

The values μ_j satisfy condition (5.3) for μ distribution.

Condition $k \in \bar{g}\mathcal{R}$ in equation (5.3) can be simplified for computation as

$$k = \bar{q}i$$
 where $i \in \mathcal{R}$

Logical bitwise ANDing both sides by \bar{g} ,

$$\bar{g}k = \bar{g}\bar{g}i$$
 $\bar{g}k = \bar{g}i$
 $\bar{g}k = k$

For all $k \in \mathcal{R}$,

$$\boldsymbol{\chi}_{k} = U01()$$
$$\boldsymbol{\chi}_{k+g} = U01()$$

where $k \in \bar{g}\mathcal{R}$, and

$$\chi_k = 0$$

for other values of k.

This installs some random values in some specific positions in array of χ according to value of g and others set to 0. Normalization of χ_k gives values for *chi* distribution

$$oldsymbol{\chi}_k = oldsymbol{\chi}_k / \sum_{k \in \mathcal{R}} oldsymbol{\chi}_k$$

such that

$$\sum_{k\in\mathcal{R}} \chi_k = 1.$$

The values χ_k satisfy condition (5.3) for χ distribution.

5.3 Initial Population

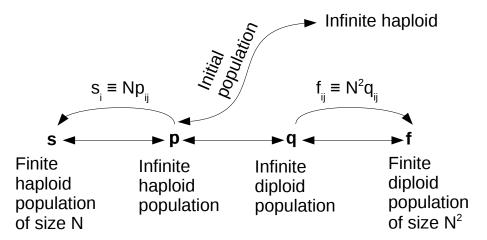


Figure 5.1: Initial population computation

Let finite haploid population \mathbf{s}^n , finite diploid population \mathbf{f}^n , infinite haploid population \mathbf{p}^n and infinite haploid population \mathbf{q}^n be considered with initial population \mathbf{s}^0 , \mathbf{f}^0 , \mathbf{p}^0 , \mathbf{q}^0 respectively. To investigate oscillating behavior of infinite population evolutionary limits and finite population, same initial population is desired.

For a genome length ℓ , let $x = 2^{\ell}$ be number of possible strings in finite haploid population array \boldsymbol{t} of population size N. Possible strings \boldsymbol{t}_i are 0, 1, ..., x - 1 where i = 0, 1, ..., N - 1. An arbitrary vector \boldsymbol{f} of size x was considered where

$$r_i = U01();$$
 $i = 0, 1, ..., x - 1$

and U01() is random number between 0 and 1. Let t represent finite haploid population strings array.

$$\boldsymbol{t}_{j} = randp(\boldsymbol{r}); \qquad j = 0, .., N-1$$

where t_j is j^{th} population member and randp(r) returns random index i in array r with probability r_i .

Let c_i represent count of haploid member i in population t given by

$$c_i = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} [t_j = i];$$
 $i = 0, ..., x - 1 \text{ and } [..] \text{ is Iverson bracket.}$

Then infinite population vector \boldsymbol{p} is calculated as

$$oldsymbol{p}_i = rac{oldsymbol{c}_i}{\sum\limits_{k=0}^{x-1} oldsymbol{c}_k}$$

where
$$i = 0, ..., x - 1$$
 and $\sum_{k=0}^{x-1} c_k = N$.

This p is randomly generated initial infinite haploid population vector (p^0) which corresponds to diploid infinite population vector q and finite population vectors s and f.

Finite haploid population members t_j s are generated again to match finite haploid population s^0 with infinite haploid population p^0 .

$$c_i = N \cdot p_i$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} [\mathbf{t}_j = i] = \mathbf{c}_i; \qquad i = 0, ..., x-1$$

Initial infinite diploid population q_0 is calculated corresponding to initial haploid population p^0 as

$$q_{i,j} = p_i \cdot p_j;$$
 $i = 0, ..., x - 1;$ $j = 0, ..., x - 1.$

Let v represent finite diploid population member array of size N^2 and $d_{i,j}$ represent count of diploid member $\langle i,j \rangle$ in v. Then v can be filled with population member to

match initial population vector \boldsymbol{p} generating diploid members such that

$$egin{array}{lcl} oldsymbol{d}_{i,j} &=& N \cdot oldsymbol{p}_i \cdot N \cdot oldsymbol{p}_j \ \sum_{k=0}^{N^2-1} \left[oldsymbol{v}_k = \langle i,j
angle
ight] &=& oldsymbol{d}_{i,j} \end{array}$$

Finite diploid population vector f can be obtained from finite diploid population member array v using

$$f_{i,j} = \frac{\mathbf{d}_{i,j}}{\sum_{k=0}^{x-1} \sum_{h=0}^{x-1} \mathbf{d}_{k,h}}$$

where
$$i = 0, ..., x - 1$$
, $h = 0, ..., x - 1$ and $\sum_{k=0}^{x-1} \sum_{h=0}^{x-1} \mathbf{d}_{k,h} = N^2$.

This initial infinite haploid population vector p^0 corresponds to initial infinite diploid population vector q^0 , initial finite haploid population vector with population size N and initial finite diploid population vector N^2 with population size N^2 .

5.4 Oscillation

Equations (5.1) and (5.2) were implemented with crossover distribution χ and mutation distribution μ satisfying condition (5.3) to investigate oscillating behavior of predicted infinite population evolutionary limits p^* and q^* and finite population under no selective pressure.

Infinite haploid population evolutionary limits p_h^* and q_h^* were computed using equations (5.1) and (5.2). Infinite diploid population evolutionary limits p_d^* and q_d^* as

$$egin{array}{lll} oldsymbol{p}_{d\langle\gamma_0,\gamma_1
angle}^* &=& oldsymbol{p}_{h\gamma_0}^*oldsymbol{p}_{h\gamma_1}^* \ oldsymbol{q}_{d\langle\gamma_0,\gamma_1
angle}^* &=& oldsymbol{q}_{h\gamma_0}^*oldsymbol{q}_{h\gamma_1}^* \end{array}$$

where $\gamma = \langle \gamma_0, \gamma_1 \rangle$ is diploid genome.

For a genome length ℓ , same initial population (calculated as described in (5.3)) was used for infinite population and all sizes of finite population conisdered. Genome lengths $\ell = 8, 10, 12, 14$ were used. Base population size of $N_0 = 64$ was considered for finite haploid case and different population sizes $N = \{1N_0^2, 10N_0^2, 20N_0^2\}$ were considered for plotting graphs. The distances of \mathbf{p}^n and \mathbf{s}^n to haploid evolutionary limits \mathbf{p}_h^* and \mathbf{q}_h^* were plotted and the distances of \mathbf{q}^n and \mathbf{f}^n to diploid evolutionary limits \mathbf{p}_d^* and \mathbf{q}_d^* were plotted.

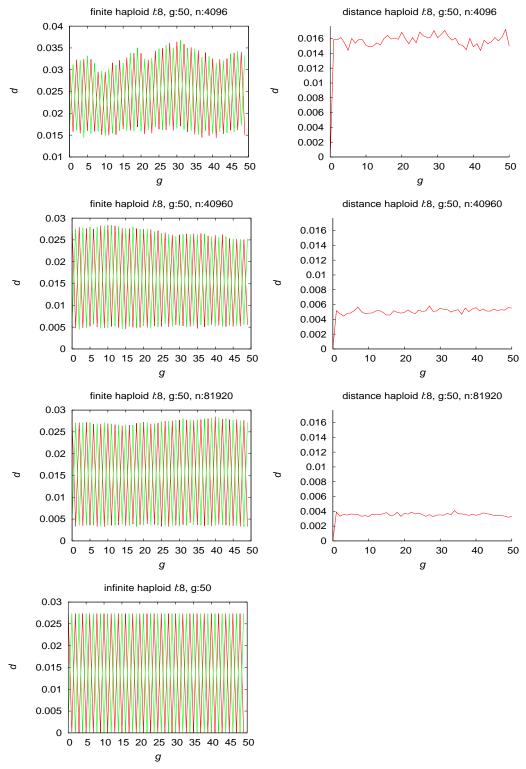


Figure 5.2: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior for genome length $\ell = 8$ (bits): In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limits for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population to infinite population for g generations.

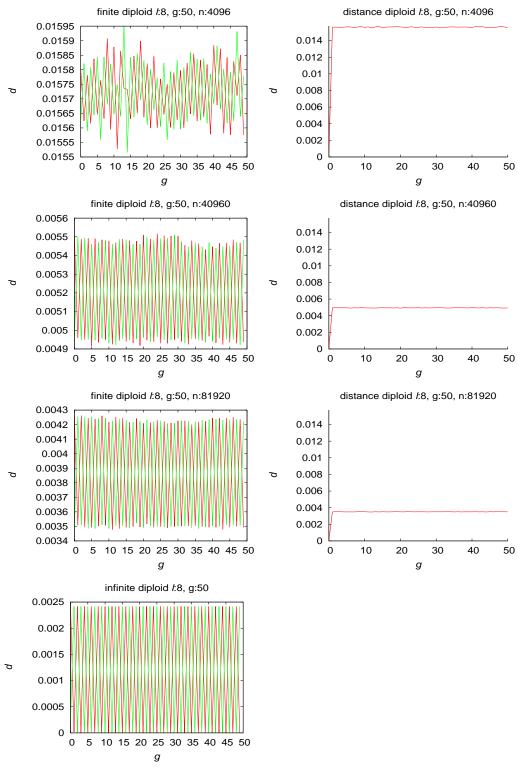


Figure 5.3: Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior for genome length $\ell=8$ (bits): In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limits for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population to infinite population for g generations.

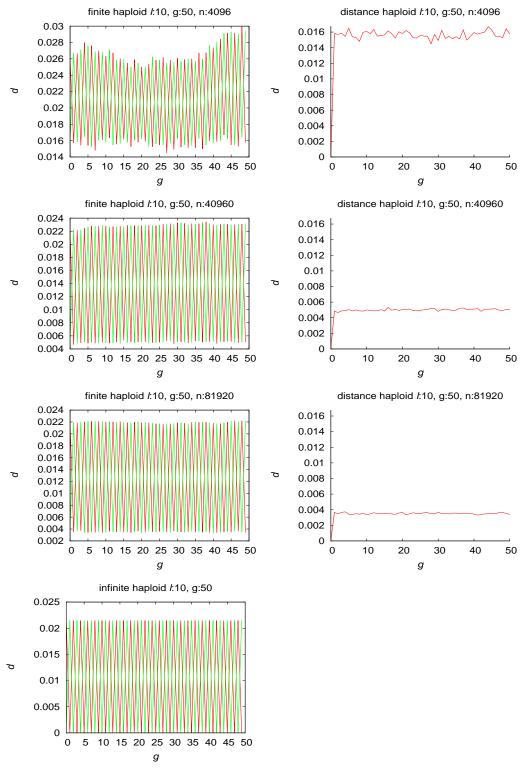


Figure 5.4: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior for genome length $\ell=10$ (bits): In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limits for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population to infinite population for g generations.

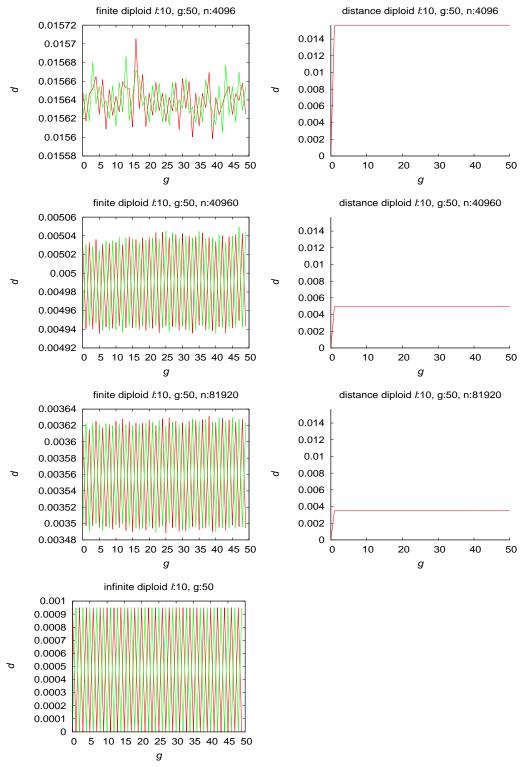


Figure 5.5: Infinite and finite population oscillation behavior for genome length $\ell=10$ (bits): In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limits for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population to infinite population for g generations.

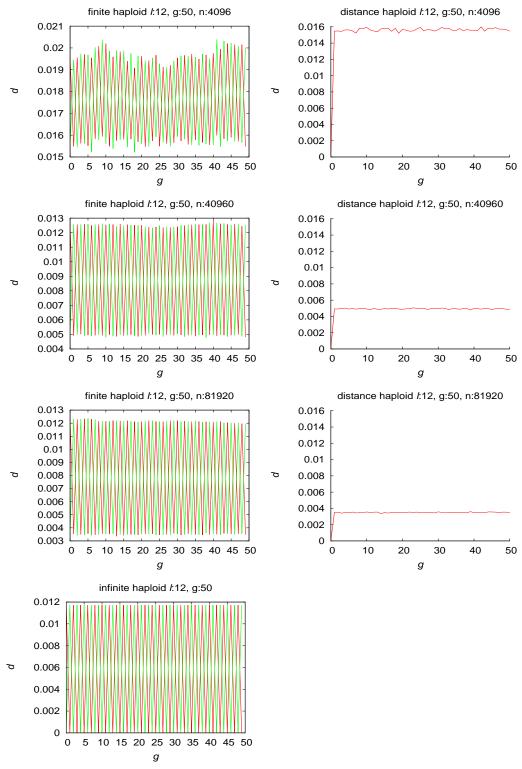


Figure 5.6: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior for genome length $\ell=12$ (bits): In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limits for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population to infinite population for g generations.

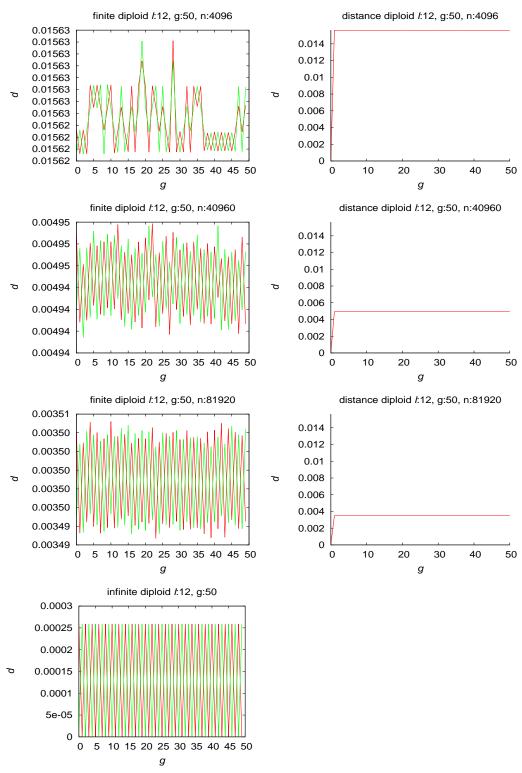


Figure 5.7: Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior for genome length $\ell=12$ (bits): In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limits for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population to infinite population for g generations.

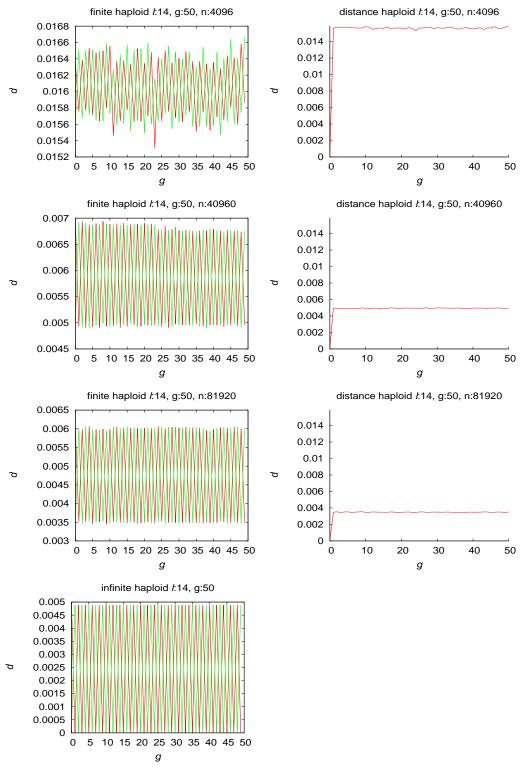


Figure 5.8: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior for genome length $\ell=14$ (bits): In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limits for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population to infinite population for g generations.

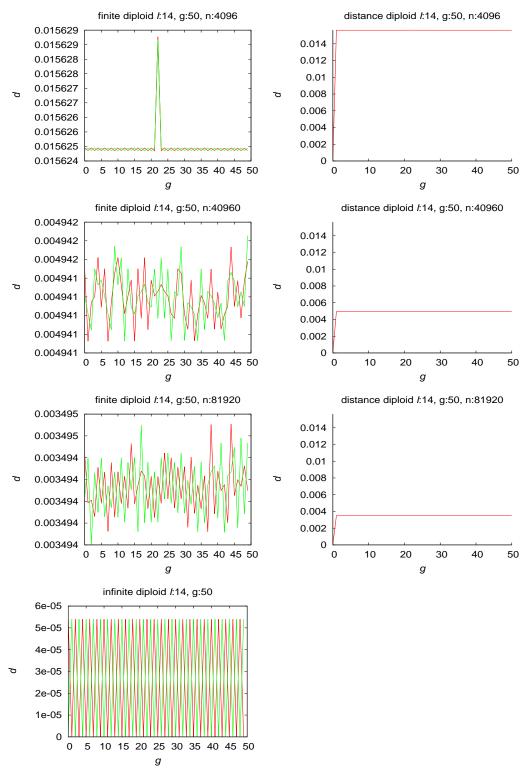


Figure 5.9: Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior for genome length $\ell=14$ (bits): In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limits for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population to infinite population for g generations.

Figures 5.2, 5.3, 5.4, 5.5, 5.6, 5.7, 5.8 and 5.9 arranged by genome length ℓ and sub-figures within each figures arranged by population size (N) for finite population for haploid and diploid population depticts oscillating behavior of both infinite and finite population when necessary and sufficient condition 5.3 is met. Oscillation in finite population in both haploid and diploid case simulation became sharper with increased population size as expected. As size of finite population increased, oscillation behavior depicted by finite population is more similar to oscillation behavior depicted by infinite population.

Graphs for distance between finite population and infinite population for both haploid and diploid case were also plotted for each generation on right side of oscillation graphs in above figures. The resulting graphs showed distance decreased as population size increased which is expected and in congruence with results from 4.1.

Numerator $\sqrt{(1-\|\mathcal{G}(\boldsymbol{p})\|^2)}$ in equation 4.6 is calculated using initial population and is ≈ 1 . So from 4.6, the expected distance between finite and infinite population, d, can be calculated as

$$d\approx 1/\sqrt{N}$$

where N is size of finite population. Then mathematical expection of distance for finite population size considered for plotting is shown in following table.

Table 5.1: Expected distance for population size

\overline{N}	4096	40960	81920
d	0.015625	0.004941	0.003494

The distance graphs, obtained from simulations, in **Figures** 5.2, 5.3, 5.4, 5.5, 5.6, 5.7, 5.8 and 5.9 for finite population sizes N = 4096, 40960, 81920 shows distance similar to expected distance given by table 5.1.

5.5 Violation

The results showed when χ and μ distributions satisfies (5.3), oscillation occurs in both infinite and finite population. Error ϵ was introduced to μ distribution and χ distribution such that (5.3) did not satisfy anymore and $x_g \neq 1$ for all g (x_g and g defined in 5.1) so that $p^* = q^*$.

 μ distribution was treated with ϵ such that

$$\mu_i = (1 - \epsilon)\mu_i;$$
 $i = \{0, 1, 2, ..., 2^{\ell} - 1\}.$

So that sum of μ distribution becomes,

$$1 - \epsilon = \sum_{i=0}^{2^{\ell} - 1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_i$$

Then set

$$\mu_0 = \epsilon$$

 χ distribution was treated with ϵ such that

$$\chi_i = (1 - \epsilon)\chi;$$
 $i = \{1, 2, ..., 2^{\ell} - 1\}$

So that

$$\chi_i + \chi_{i+g} = 1 - \epsilon;$$
 g is defined in section 5.1

Then j is chosen where $\chi_j = 0$ and set $\chi_j = \epsilon$.

Simulations were run again with the violations in (5.3) implemented. Genome lengths $\ell=8,10,12,14$ were considered. Different finite haplied population sizes $N=\{1N_0^2,10N_0^2,20N_0^2\}$ were considered.

Let $p1^*$ and $q1^*$ be evolutionary limits with violation, then $p1^* = q1^* = z^*$; z^* is limit when there is violation. The distances of p^n and s^n to z^* were plotted and the

distances of q^n and f^n to z^* were plotted. The distances of population to evolutionary limits that would be without violation in μ and χ were also plotted.

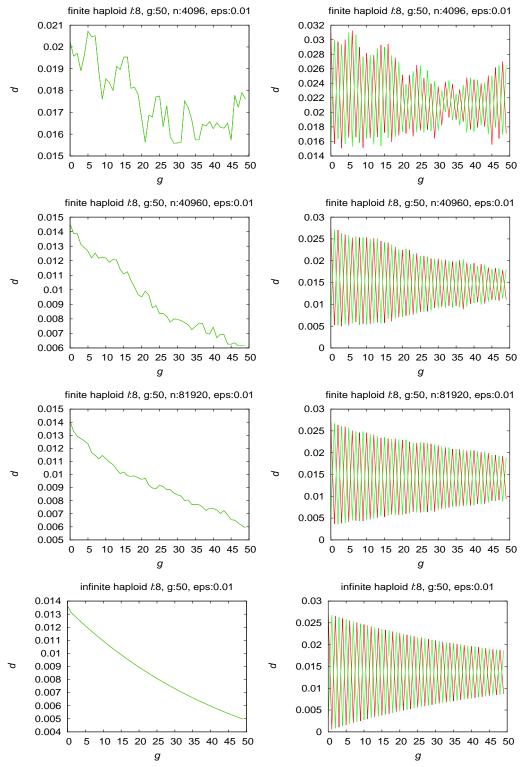


Figure 5.10: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=8$ and $\epsilon=0.01$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

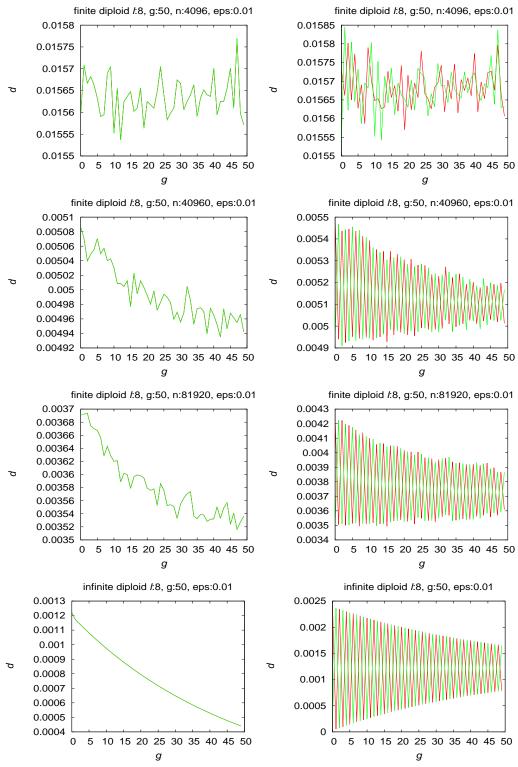


Figure 5.11: Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=8$ and $\epsilon=0.01$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

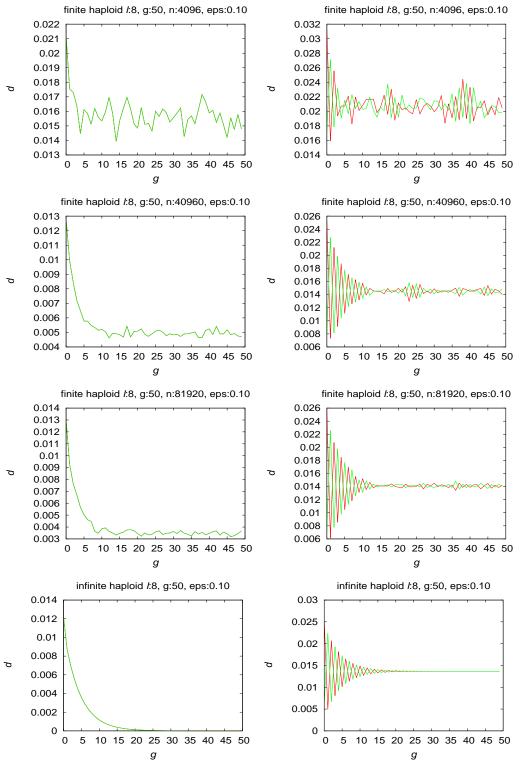


Figure 5.12: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=8$ and $\epsilon=0.1$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

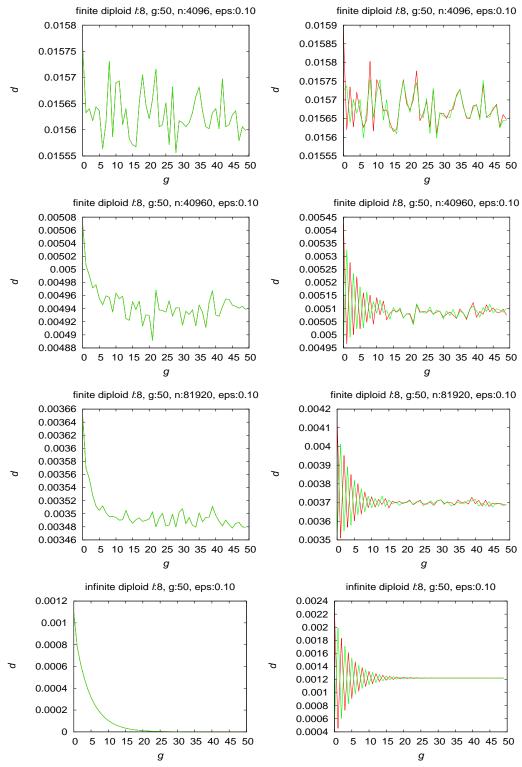


Figure 5.13: Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=8$ and $\epsilon=0.1$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

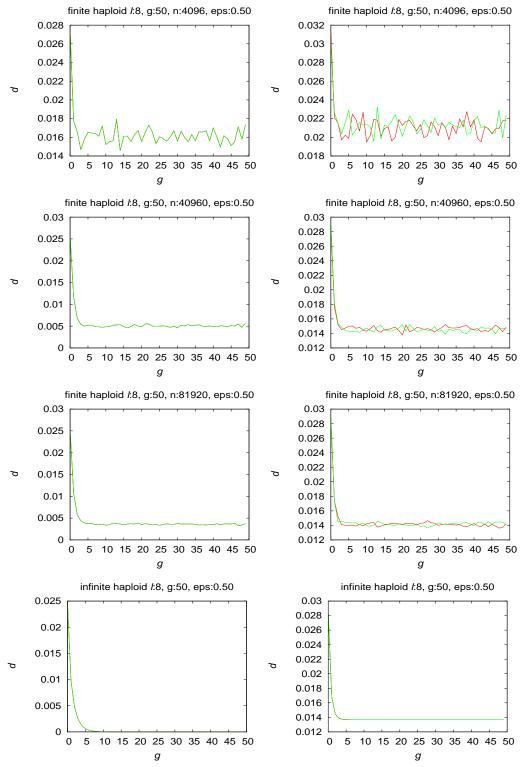


Figure 5.14: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=8$ and $\epsilon=0.5$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

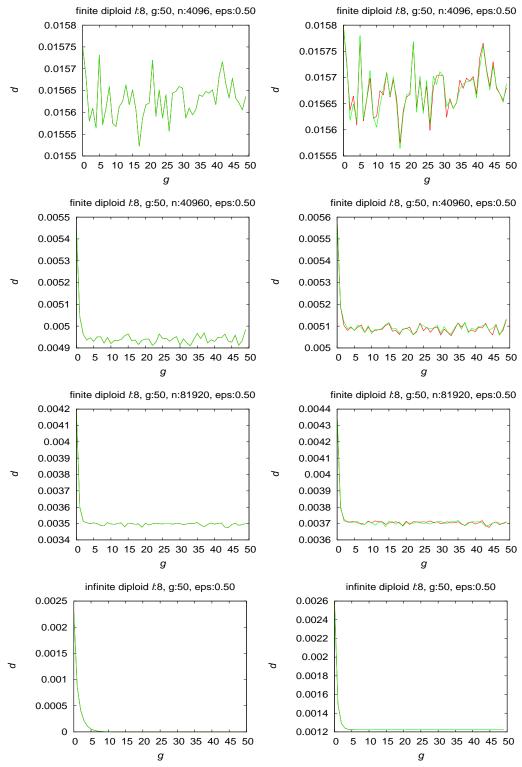


Figure 5.15: Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=8$ and $\epsilon=0.5$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

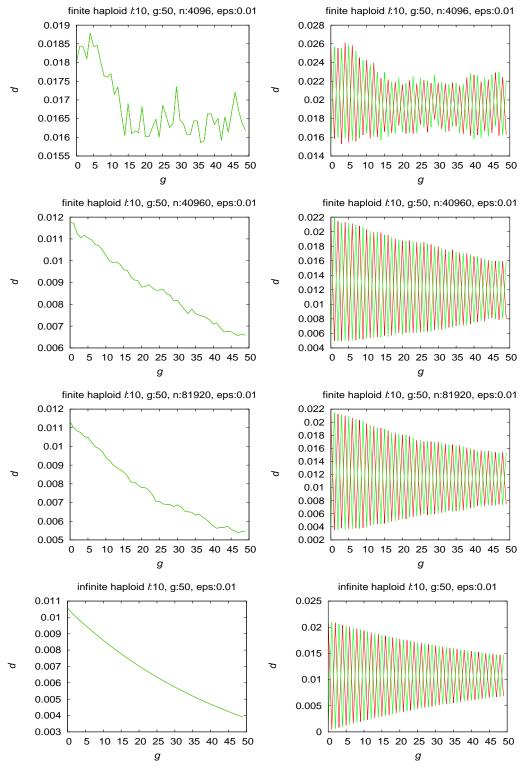


Figure 5.16: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=10$ and $\epsilon=0.01$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

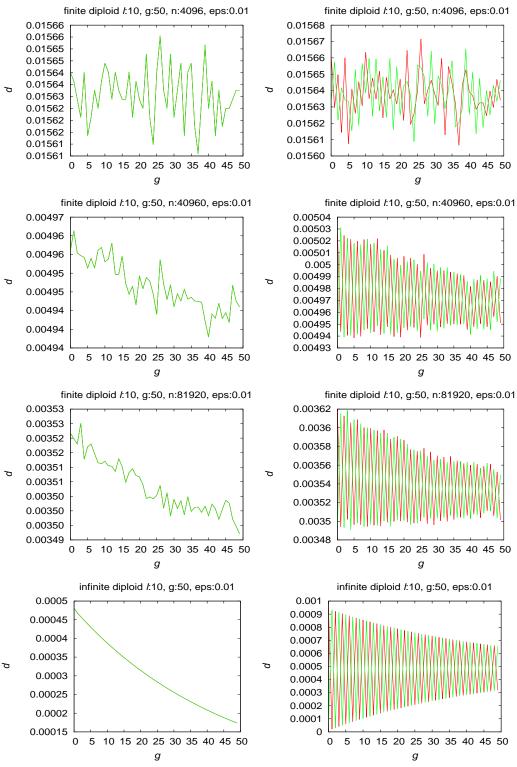


Figure 5.17: Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=10$ and $\epsilon=0.01$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

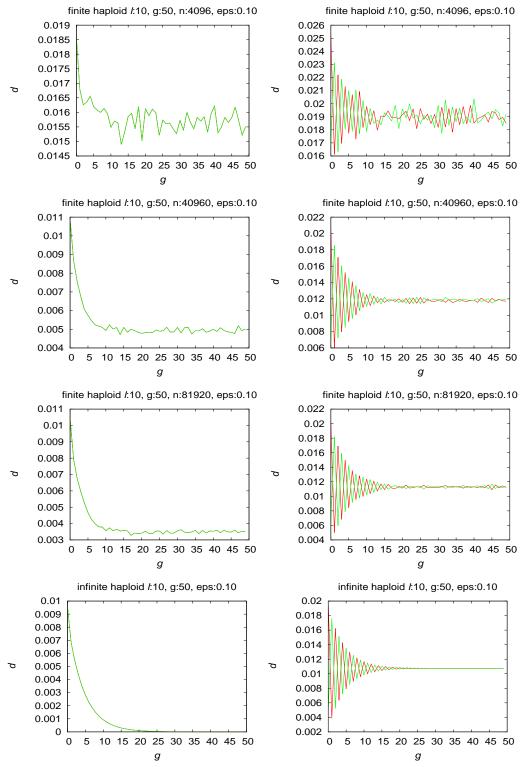


Figure 5.18: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=10$ and $\epsilon=0.1$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

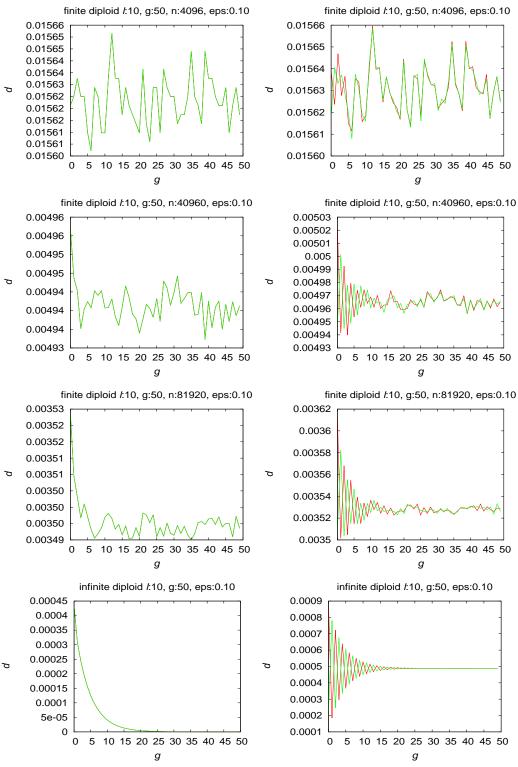


Figure 5.19: Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=10$ and $\epsilon=0.1$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

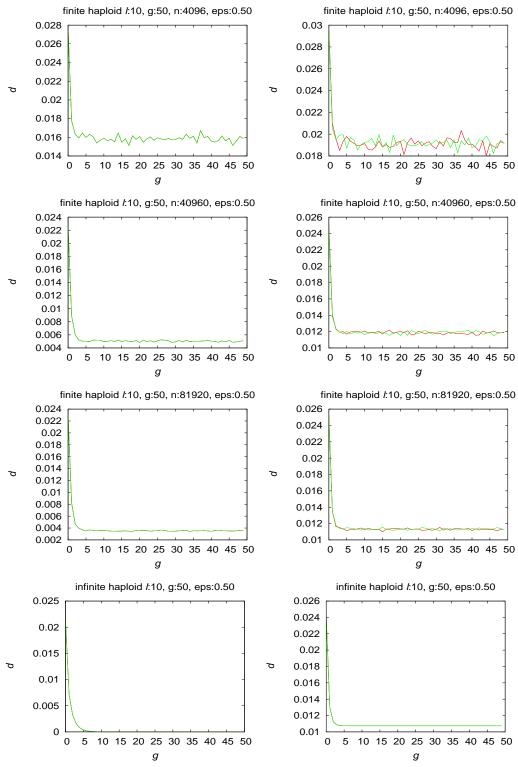


Figure 5.20: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=10$ and $\epsilon=0.5$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

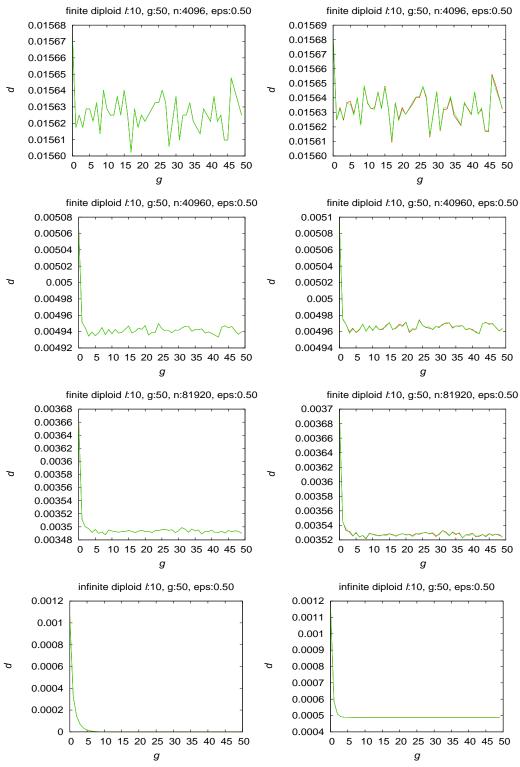


Figure 5.21: Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=10$ and $\epsilon=0.5$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

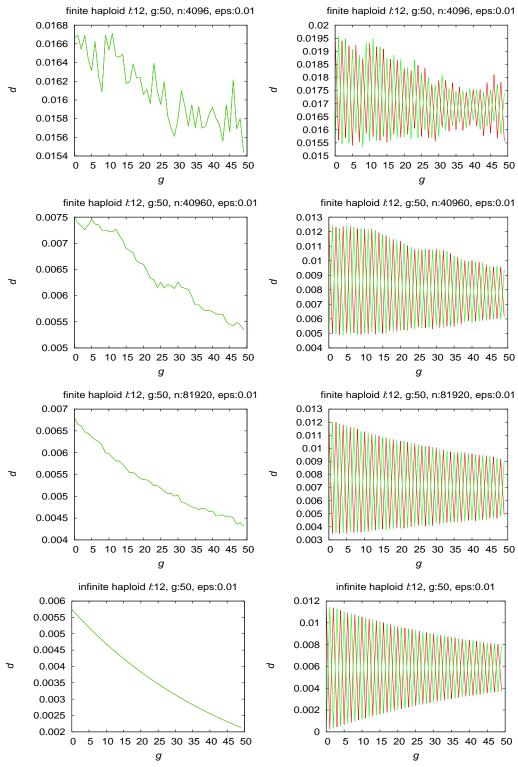


Figure 5.22: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=12$ and $\epsilon=0.01$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

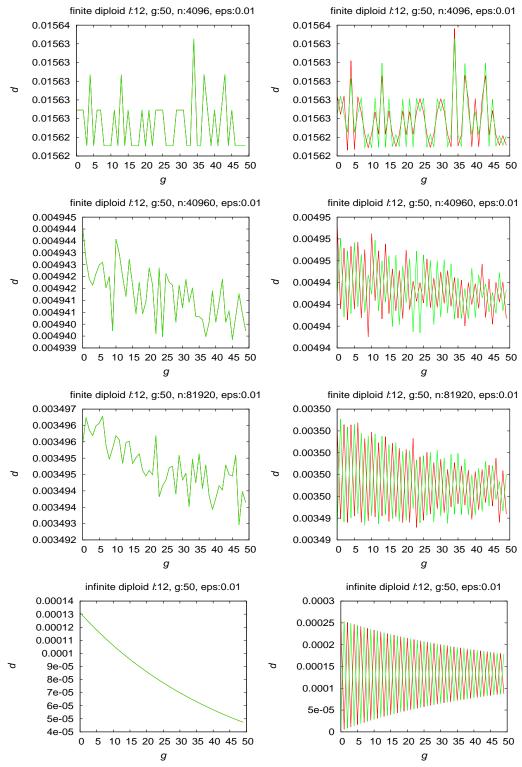


Figure 5.23: Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=12$ and $\epsilon=0.01$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

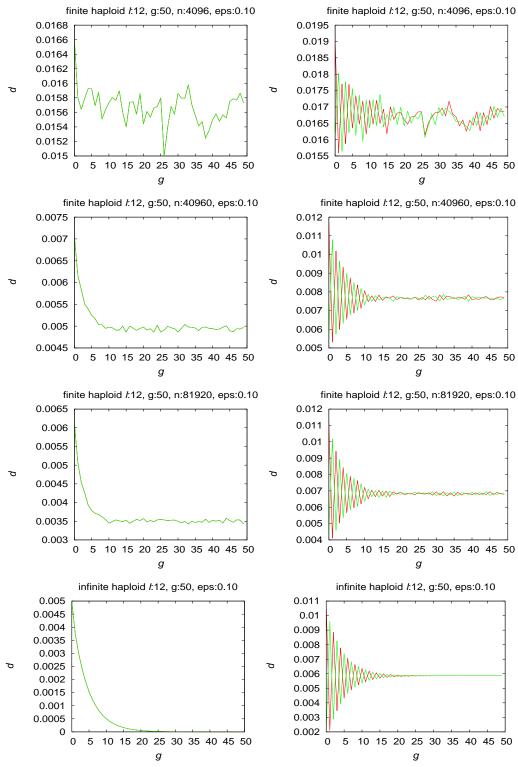


Figure 5.24: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=12$ and $\epsilon=0.1$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

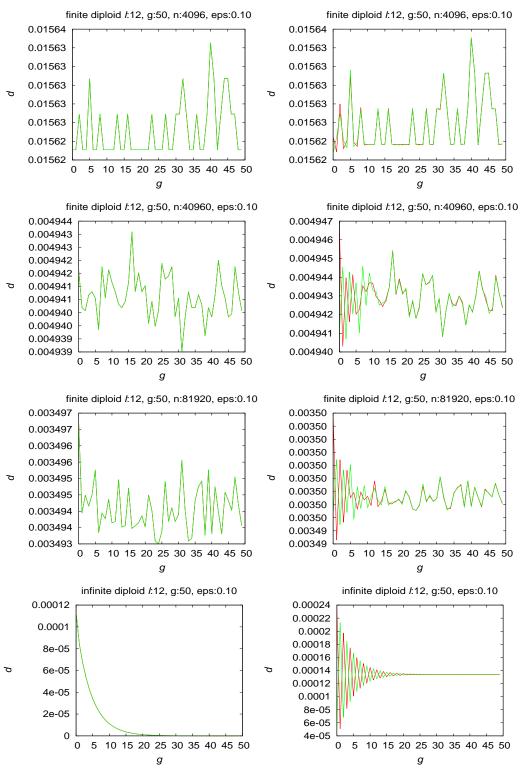


Figure 5.25: Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=12$ and $\epsilon=0.1$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

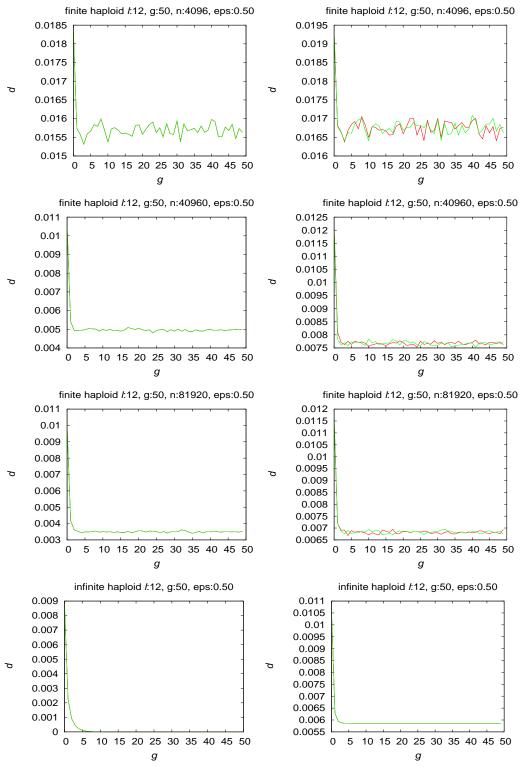


Figure 5.26: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=12$ and $\epsilon=0.5$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

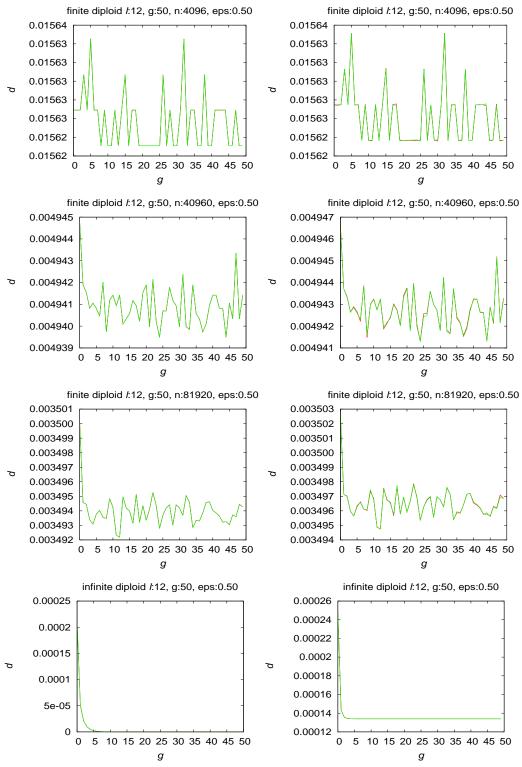


Figure 5.27: Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=12$ and $\epsilon=0.5$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

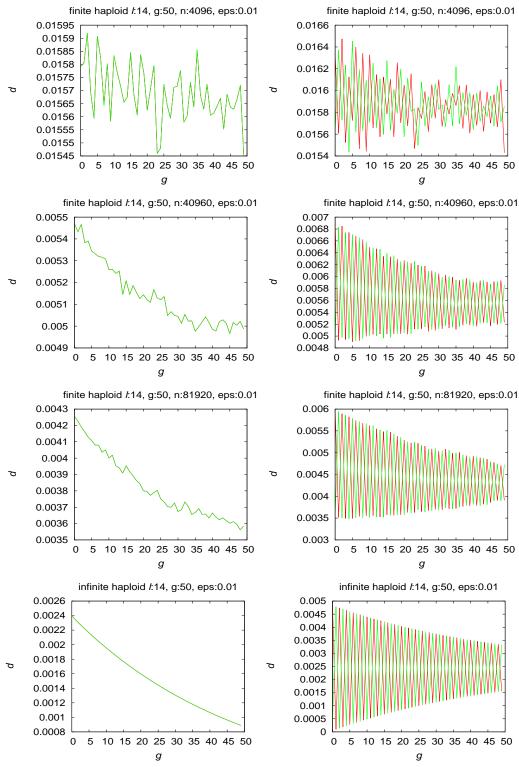


Figure 5.28: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=14$ and $\epsilon=0.01$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

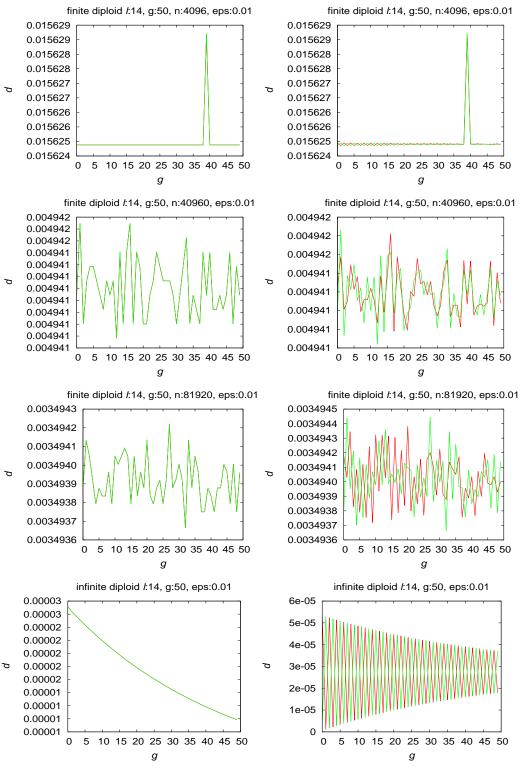


Figure 5.29: Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=14$ and $\epsilon=0.01$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

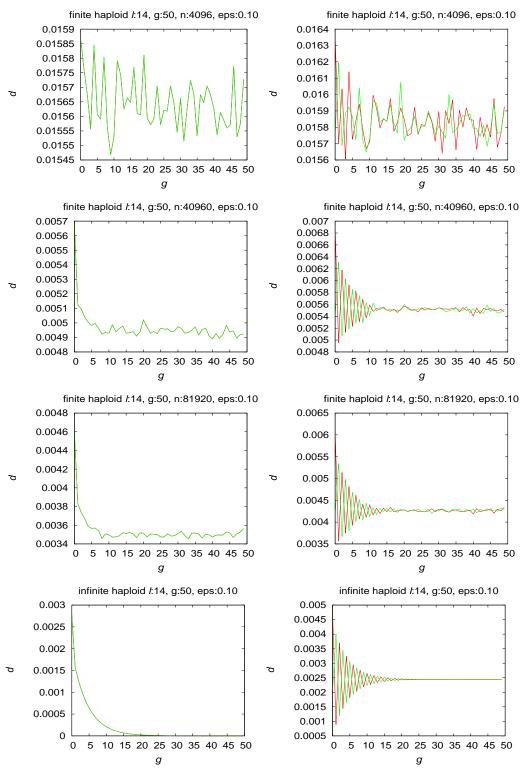


Figure 5.30: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=14$ and $\epsilon=0.1$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

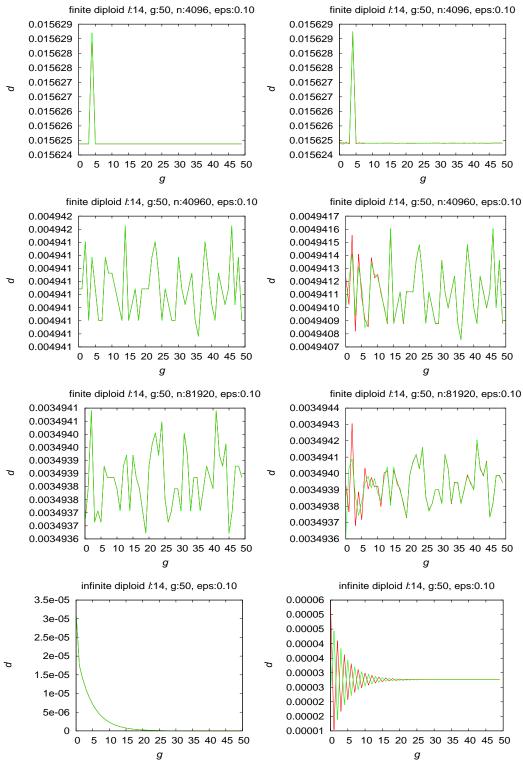


Figure 5.31: Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=14$ and $\epsilon=0.1$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

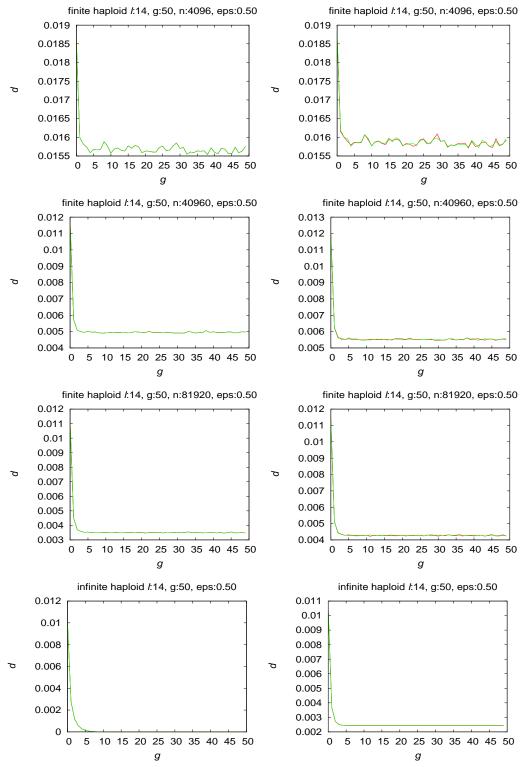


Figure 5.32: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=14$ and $\epsilon=0.5$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

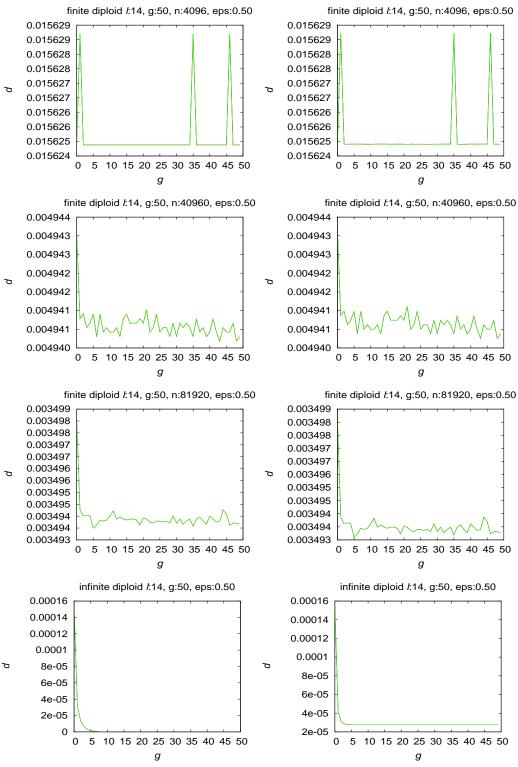


Figure 5.33: Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in μ for genome length $\ell=14$ and $\epsilon=0.5$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

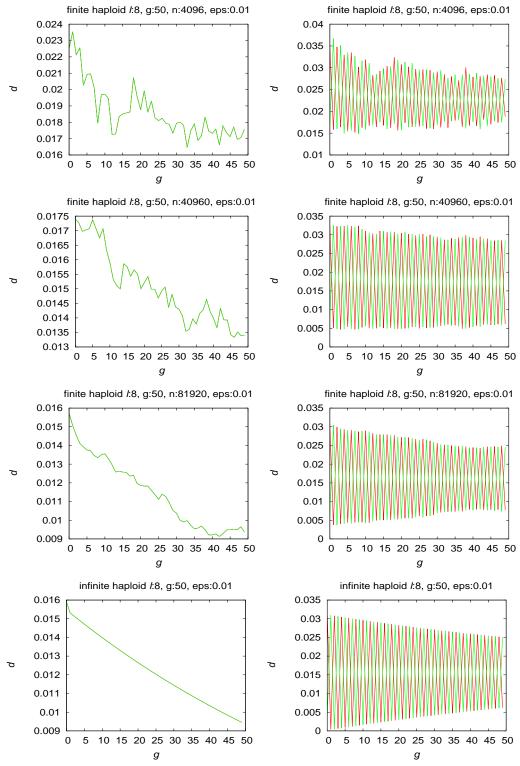


Figure 5.34: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=8$ and $\epsilon=0.01$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

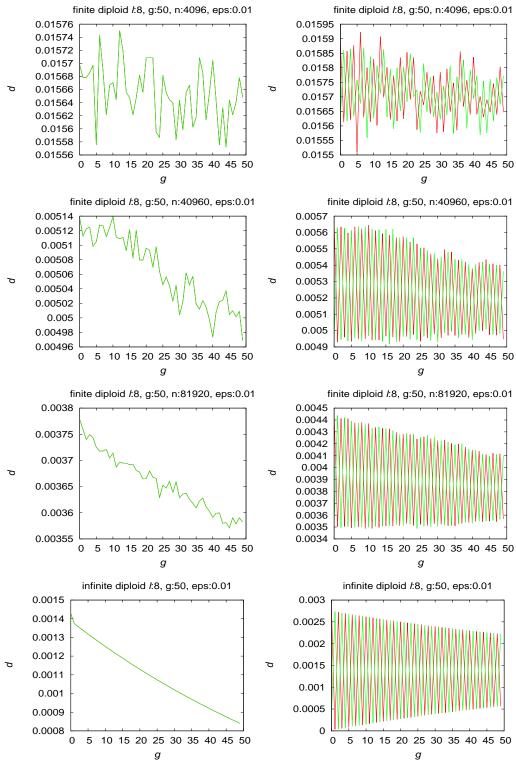


Figure 5.35: Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=8$ and $\epsilon=0.01$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

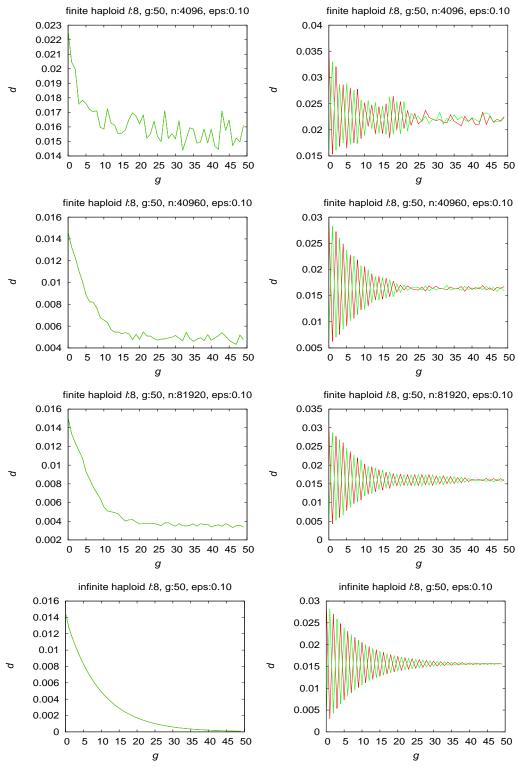


Figure 5.36: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=8$ and $\epsilon=0.1$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

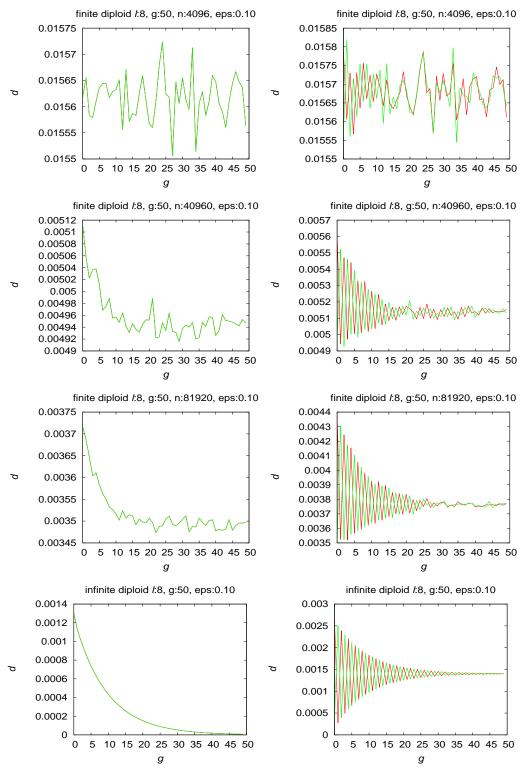


Figure 5.37: Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=8$ and $\epsilon=0.1$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

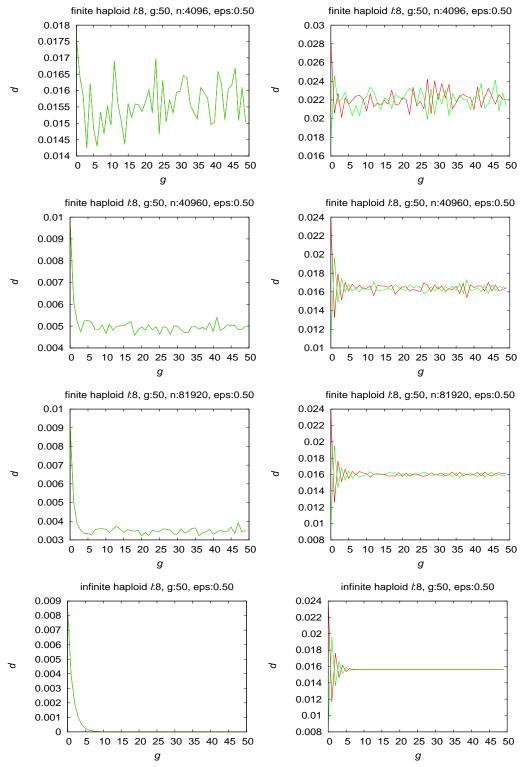


Figure 5.38: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=8$ and $\epsilon=0.5$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

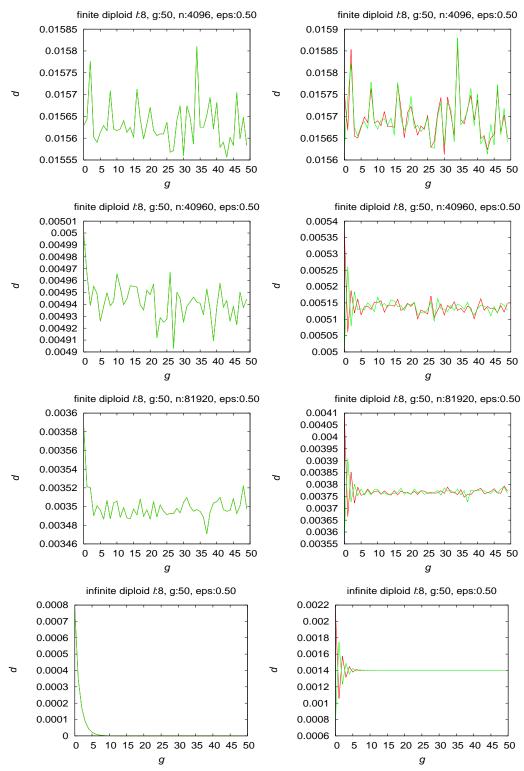


Figure 5.39: Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=8$ and $\epsilon=0.5$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

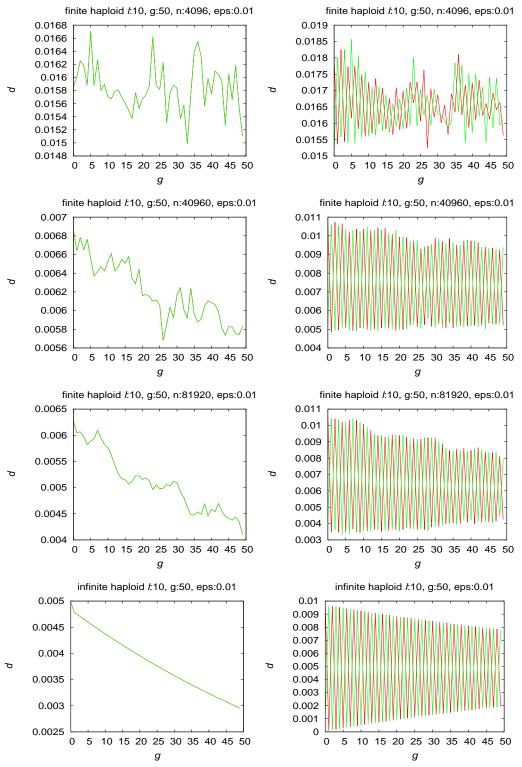


Figure 5.40: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=10$ and $\epsilon=0.01$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

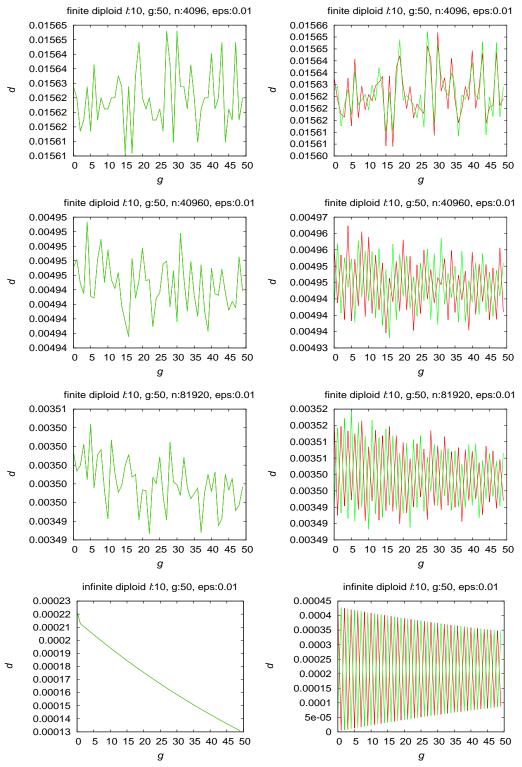


Figure 5.41: Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=10$ and $\epsilon=0.01$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

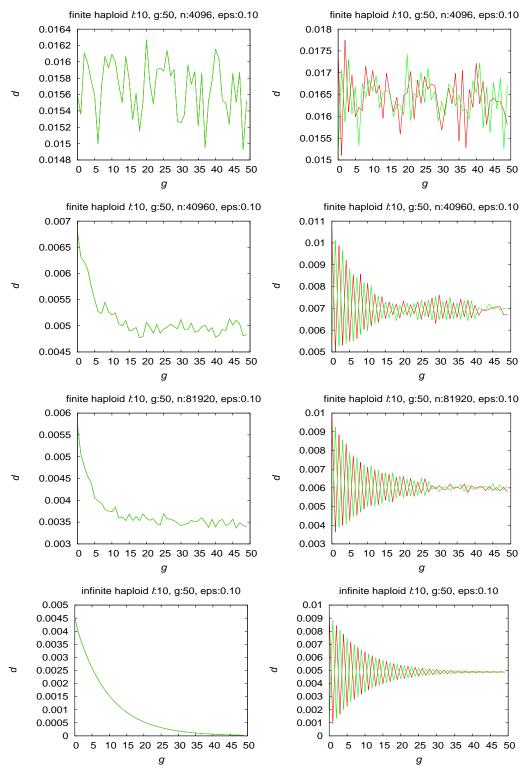


Figure 5.42: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=10$ and $\epsilon=0.1$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

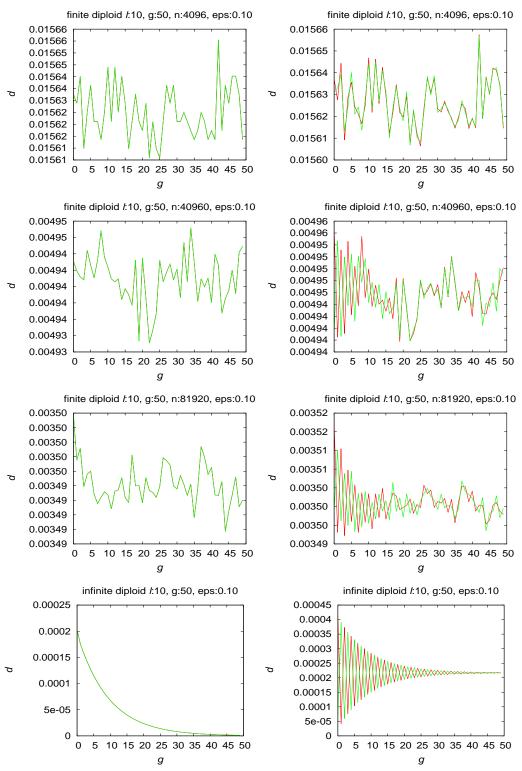


Figure 5.43: Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=10$ and $\epsilon=0.1$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

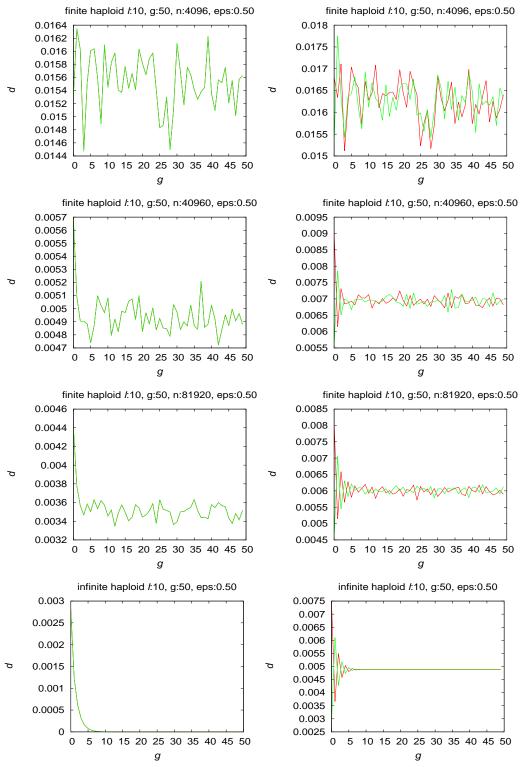


Figure 5.44: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=10$ and $\epsilon=0.5$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

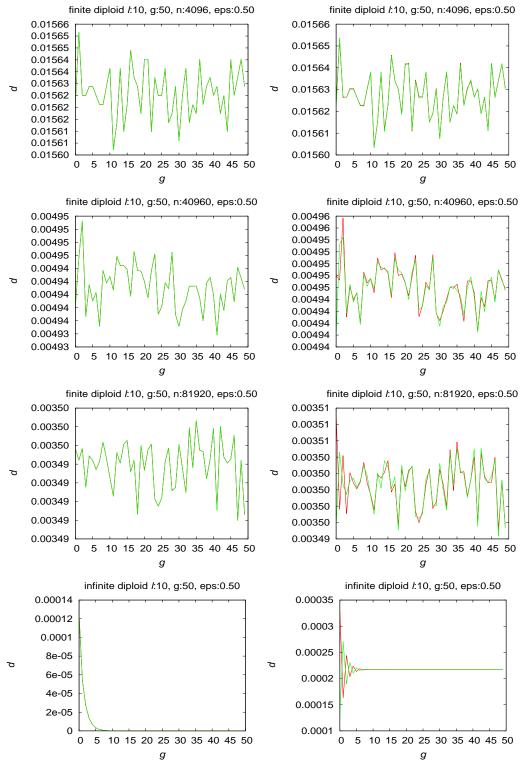


Figure 5.45: Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=10$ and $\epsilon=0.5$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

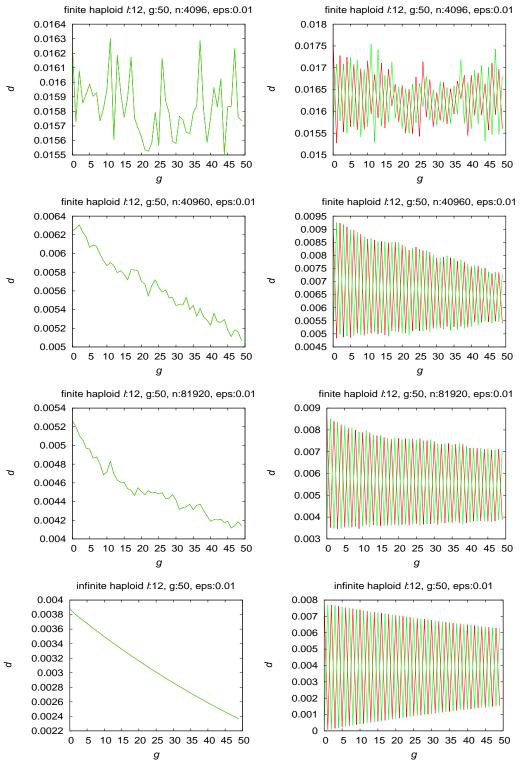


Figure 5.46: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=12$ and $\epsilon=0.01$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

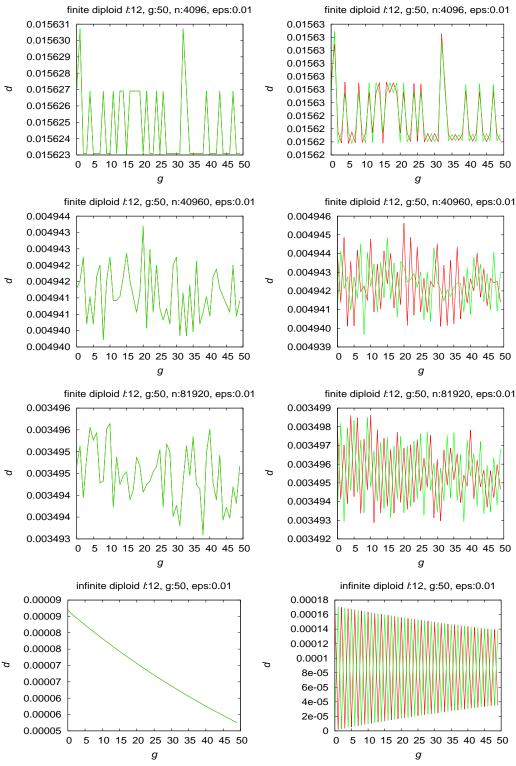


Figure 5.47: Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=12$ and $\epsilon=0.01$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

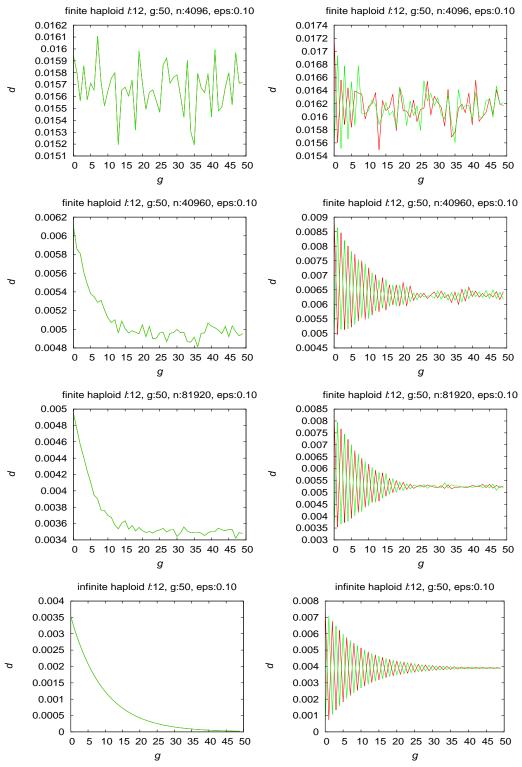


Figure 5.48: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=12$ and $\epsilon=0.1$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

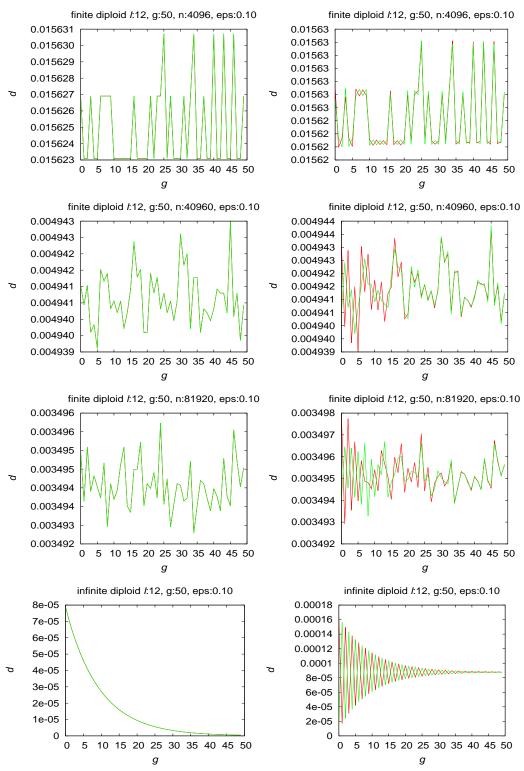


Figure 5.49: Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=12$ and $\epsilon=0.1$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

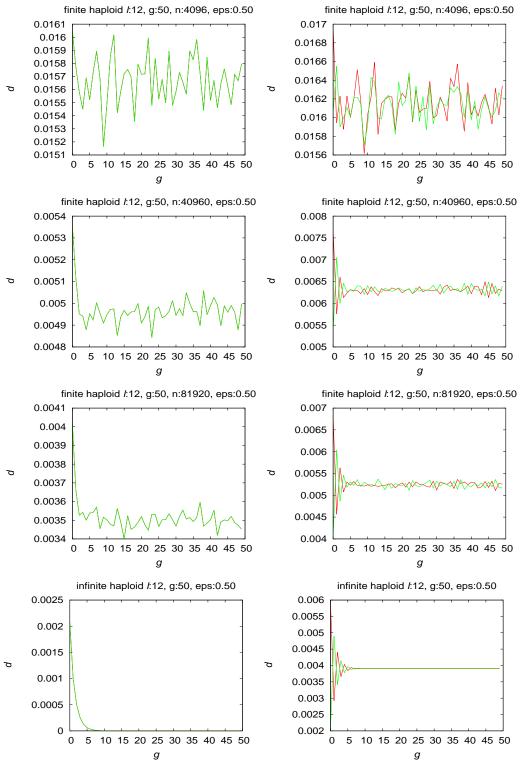


Figure 5.50: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=12$ and $\epsilon=0.5$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

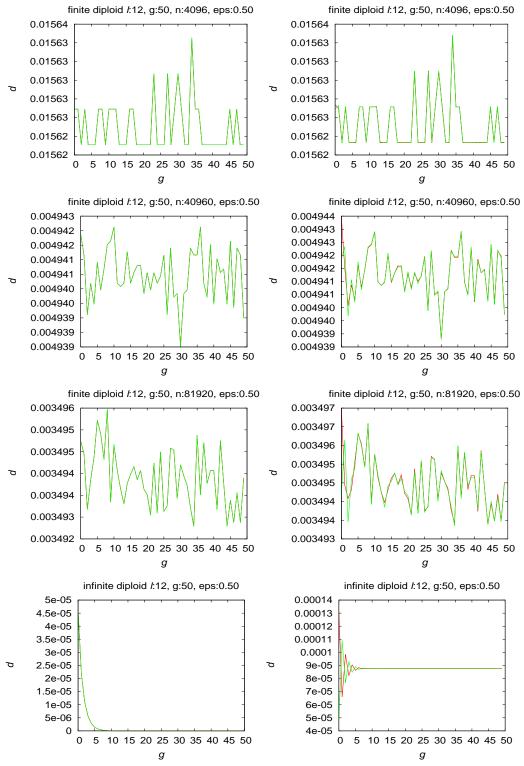


Figure 5.51: Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=12$ and $\epsilon=0.5$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

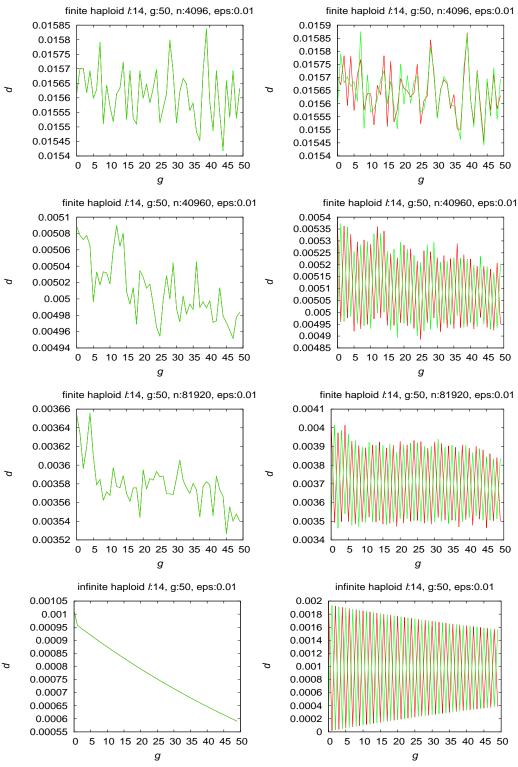


Figure 5.52: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=14$ and $\epsilon=0.01$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

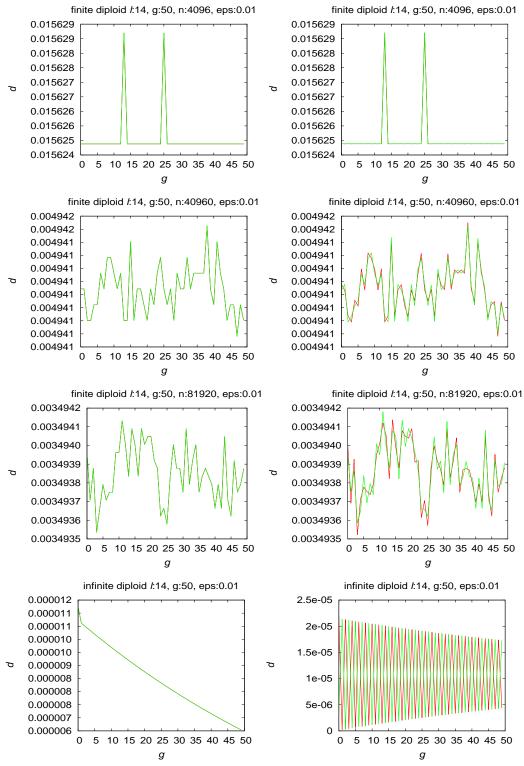


Figure 5.53: Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=14$ and $\epsilon=0.01$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

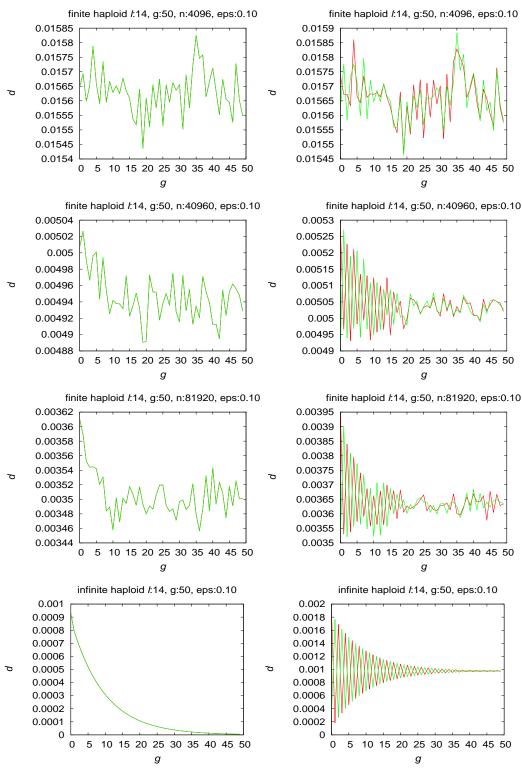


Figure 5.54: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=14$ and $\epsilon=0.1$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

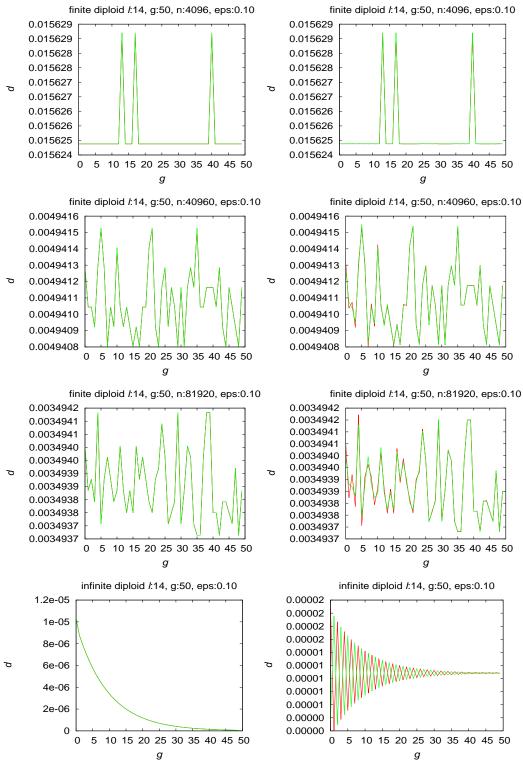


Figure 5.55: Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=14$ and $\epsilon=0.1$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

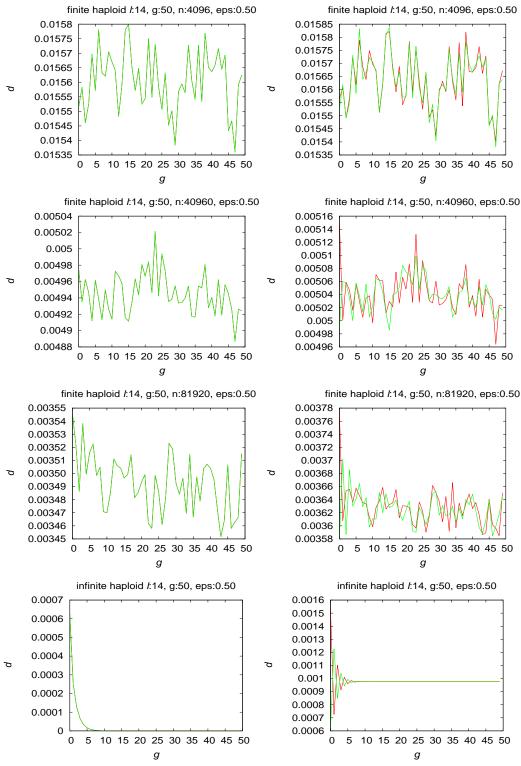


Figure 5.56: Infinite and finite haploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=14$ and $\epsilon=0.5$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

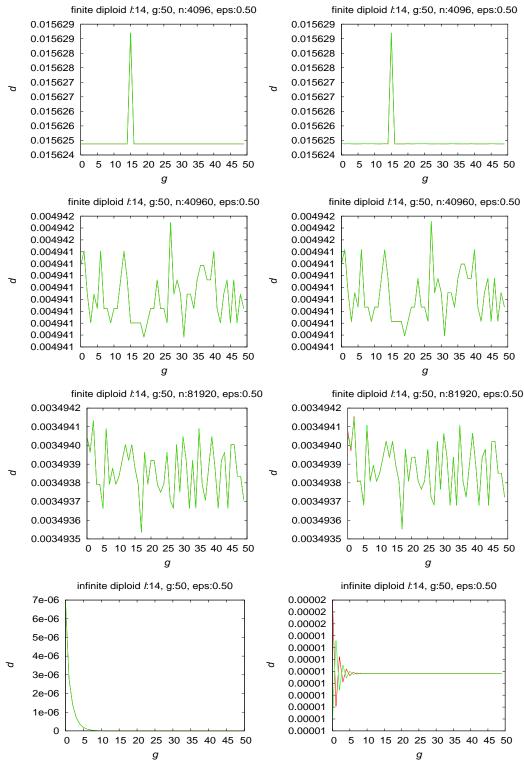


Figure 5.57: Infinite and finite diploid population oscillation behavior in case of violation in χ for genome length $\ell=14$ and $\epsilon=0.5$: In left column, d is distance of finite population of size n or infinite population to limit for g generations. In right column, d is distance of finite population of size N or infinite population to limits without violation.

First columns of graphs above for violation in μ and in χ show distance of finite and infinite population to evolutionary limits with violation and second columns show distance of distance of finite and infinite population to evolutionary limits that would be without violation.

Graphs in first columns (distance of finite and infinite population to evolutionary limits with violation) shows distance between finite population and limit with violation z^* decreases as finite population size increases and converging to infinite population behavior as finite population reach large number. The rate of convergence of finite population matches with expected rate of convergence calculated by Vose (1999b) which is shown in table 5.1.

Second columns of graphs gives clearer picture of oscillating behavior of population with violation in μ or χ distribution. Since distance plotted is to evolutionary limits that would be if there were no violation, two lines oscillating are visible. Infinite population oscillates but ripples die out gradually as generation increases, that infinite population is converging to limit with violation z^* . As finite population size increases, its behavior converges to that of infinite population.

Change in oscillating behavior of population with change in ϵ values $\{0.01, 0.1, 0.5\}$ were also studied. With smaller values of ϵ , oscillation were sharper and as value of ϵ increased, rate of damping of ripples was quicker. Error ϵ introduced to μ or χ distribution creates new masks (different than in case of without violation) to be used in mutation or crossover during transmission. With small ϵ , the probablility of using the new masks available due to violation is very small and those masks might not be used at all during crossover or mutation in finite population and with higher values of ϵ , those new masks have higher chance of usage during mutation or crossover which cause oscillation to die out quickly. In figures for violation in μ distribution, with $\epsilon = 0.01$, oscillation is clearly visible and ripples are sharper; with $\epsilon = 0.1$ oscillation was visible but ripples were damping out quickly; with $\epsilon = 0.5$, oscillation was not visible. Damping out of ripples and converging to infinite population behavior increased as population size increased.

Chapter 6

Conclusion

This research shows how Vose's haploid model for Genetic Algorithms extends to the diploid case, improving the computation of infinite population evolutionary trajectories by significantly reducing the time and space used. Efficiency is achieved through decoupling haploid evolution from the evolution of infinite diploid populations and employing Walsh transform methods to compute the effects of mask-based crossover and mutation. The efficient computation of distance between finite and infinite diploid populations is achieved by leveraging the reduction from diploid to haploid case.

Simulations are thereby made feasible which otherwise would require excessive resources, as illustrated through computations confirming the convergence of finite diploid population short-term behaviour to the behaviour predicted by the diploid model. Results agree with the expected rate of convergence for the single-step haploid case; distance is inversely proportional to square root of population size.

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Appendix

Vita

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