Abstract—The behavior of a (1 + 1)-ES process on Rudolph's binary long $k$ paths is investigated extensively in the asymptotic framework with respect to string length $l$. First, the case of $k = l^\alpha$ is addressed. For $\alpha \geq 1/2$, we prove that the long $k$ path is a long path for the (1 + 1)-ES in the sense that the process follows the entire path with no shortcuts, resulting in an exponential expected convergence time. For $\alpha < 1/2$, the expected convergence time is also exponential, but some shortcuts occur in the meantime that speed up the process. Second, in the case of constant $k$, the statistical distribution of convergence time is calculated, and the influence of population size is investigated for different $(\mu + \lambda)$-ES. The histogram of the first hitting time of the solution shows an anomalous peak close to zero, which corresponds to an exceptional set of events that speed up the expected convergence time with a factor of $l$. A direct consequence of this exceptional set is that performing independent (1 + 1)-ES processes proves to be more advantageous than any population-based $(\mu + \lambda)$-ES.

Index Terms—Hitting times, long-path problems, statistical analysis.

I. INTRODUCTION

Long-path problems are unimodal problems with only one path (in Hamming space) to the optimum. The length of this path is exponential. A random mutation hill climber can solve it, but it takes an exponential time in string length to reach the solution. The intention of this paper is a further study of the behavior of evolutionary algorithms (EAs) on long-path problems in order to obtain better insight about possible EA dynamics within the class of unimodal fitness functions in Hamming space.

Long-path problems [10] have been introduced to deal with the notion of problem difficulty for optimization algorithms. Unimodality can involve difficulties for GA's. Isolation (needle-in-a-haystack), deception, and multimodality [7], [6], [4] are no longer the only properties that make a search difficult.

Horn's long path [10] for the single-bit-flip hill climber is an example of such a fitness function. It is a sequence of strings with the property that two successive strings are at Hamming distance 1 from each other. Because of its length, Horn's long path is an intractable search problem for the single-bit-flip hill climber.

Rudolph [15] presents a generalization of Horn's long path to a class of fitness functions called long $k$ paths. The long $k$ path $P(k, l)$ (where $l - 1$ is a multiple of $k$) is defined by a recursion with respect to the length $l$ of the strings, with $P(k, l) = \{0, 1\}$ as the base path. Given the long $k$ path $P(k, l)$, $P(k, l + k)$ is constructed as follows. A subpath $S_0$ of $P(k, l + k)$ is created by taking the path $P(k, l)$, and by prepending $k$ zeros to each point on $P(k, l)$. A subpath $S_1$ of $P(k, l + k)$ is created by taking $P(k, l)$ in reverse order and prepending $k$ ones to each point on the reversed path. A third path $B$ consists of $k - 1$ points created by prepending the following substrings of length $k$ to the last point in the path $P(k, l)$: $0 \cdots 01$, $0 \cdots 011\cdots 1$, $001\cdots 11$, and $011\cdots 11$. The resulting long $k$ path $P(k, l + k)$ on strings of length $l + k$ is then defined by the concatenation of $S_0$, the “bridge path” $B$, and $S_1$. Horn's long path is the long $k$ path for $k = 2$.

As an example, consider the construction of the path $P(3, 7)$. Starting from $P(3, 1) = \{0, 1\}$, we obtain the sequence $P(3, 4)$:

$$
\begin{array}{cccc}
0000 & 0001 & 0011 & 1111 & 1110
\end{array}
$$

from which the path $P(3, 7)$ is constructed:

$$
\begin{array}{cccc}
000000 & 000111 & 110111 & 111001
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{cccc}
000000 & 001111 & 111111 & 111110
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{cccc}
000001 & 011110 & 111111 & 111110
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{cccc}
000011 & 110111 & 111011 & 111011
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{cccc}
000111 & 111001 & 110011 & 110011
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{cccc}
001111 & 111001 & 110011 & 110011
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{cccc}
001110 & 111000 & 110001 & 110001
\end{array}
$$

Long $k$ paths share the following properties.

- The Hamming distance between two consecutive points of the path is 1.
- A mutation of $i < k$ bits can only lead to a point which is $i$ positions away from the original point. To jump over more than $k$ consecutive positions in the path, all of the bits of at least one of the blocks $kj + 1$, $\cdots$, $k(j + 1)$, for $j \in \{0, \cdots, (l - 1)/k\}$, must be flipped. Such a jump will be called a shortcut.
- The length of the long $k$ path is given by $|P(k, l)| = (k + 1)2^l/(k - 1) - 1$. Note that, for a fixed string length, the path becomes shorter with increasing $k$. 

1Unless the growth rate is stated explicitly, any asymptotic behavior beyond a polynomial growth in string length will be called exponential.
Experiments demonstrate that a GA with complementary crossover (a one-point crossover between a string and its complement) exploits a kind of Royal Road structure [13], [14] present in the long $k$ path [9]. This results in the occurrence of many shortcuts and a growth rate of $t^2$ for the time to reach the optimum of the long $k$ path. The authors of [9] expect that complementary crossover approximates one-point crossover if the latter is used in combination with a sufficiently large population. However, no conclusion can be drawn about the asymptotic behavior of the GA.

Rudolph [15] gives $O((k+1)/k)$ as an asymptotic upper bound of the expected time spent by a $(1+1)$-ES (evolution strategy) with $1/t$ mutation rate on a long $k$ path. For a fixed value of $k$, this bound is a polynomial of the string length. It shows that, for large values of $l$, the $(1+1)$-ES is much quicker than the single-bit-flip hill climber in optimizing the path. The difference between the two algorithms is that the $(1+1)$-ES can do more than one bit flip at a time. Note that, in the case of $k$ being a function of $l$, as in $k = \sqrt{l}$, the upper bound changes to an uninteresting exponential. So the problem of convergence time with $k = \alpha l$, $\alpha > 0$ remained unsolved.

In this paper, we restrict to the case of $1/t$ mutation and the exact expected time for convergence is calculated for both fixed and $l$-dependent $k$. The first section illustrates the construction of the long $k$ path, and introduces some notations. Section III is devoted to the study of expected convergence time for $k = \alpha l$. Section IV considers the case of constant $k$: the expected convergence time and its fluctuations are calculated. In light of these results, different $(\mu + \lambda)$-ES are compared. The influence of the mutation rate choice is also discussed.

II. THE $(k, l)$-PATH AND SEARCH ALGORITHM

A. Construction of the $(1, l)$ Path

This is done recursively with respect to $l$. Let $P(1, l)$ be the $(1, l)$ path. A subpath $S_0$ is created by prepending 0 to each string in path $P(1, l)$ and subpath $S_1$ by prepending 1 to each string in the reverse of path $P(1, l)$. The $(1, l+1)$-path is obtained by concatenating subpaths $S_0$ and $S_1$. The $(k, l)$ path can now be built for any $k$ as follows.

B. Construction of the $(k, l)$ Path

We denote by $L$ the ratio

$$L = \frac{l-1}{k}.$$ (1)

Notice that $L$ should be an integer so that the corresponding $(k, l)$ path can exist.

1) Start with the path $P(1, L)$, which contains $2^L$ strings with length $L$. As an example, for $L = 3$,

$$
\begin{align*}
0 < &
\begin{array}{c}
0 \ 000 \\
1 \ 001 \\
1 \ 011 \\
0 \ 010 \\
0 \ 110 \\
1 \ 111 \\
1 \ 101 \\
0 \ 100,
\end{array} \\
1 < &
\begin{array}{c}
0 \ 000 \\
1 \ 001 \\
1 \ 011 \\
0 \ 010 \\
0 \ 110 \\
1 \ 111 \\
1 \ 101 \\
0 \ 100,
\end{array}
\end{align*}
$$

2) Substitute for each 0 (resp., each 1) a substring with length $k$ consisting of 0 (resp., 1). This yields a sequence of $2^L$ strings with length $l - 1$. For $L = 3$,

$$
\begin{align*}
0 \cdots 0 < &
\begin{array}{c}
0 \cdots 0 \ 000 \\
1 \cdots 1 \ 001 \\
1 \cdots 1 \ 011 \\
0 \cdots 0 \ 010 \\
0 \cdots 0 \ 110 \\
1 \cdots 1 \ 111 \\
1 \cdots 1 \ 101 \\
0 \cdots 0 \ 100,
\end{array} \\
1 \cdots 1 < &
\begin{array}{c}
0 \cdots 0 \ 000 \\
1 \cdots 1 \ 001 \\
1 \cdots 1 \ 011 \\
0 \cdots 0 \ 010 \\
0 \cdots 0 \ 110 \\
1 \cdots 1 \ 111 \\
1 \cdots 1 \ 101 \\
0 \cdots 0 \ 100,
\end{array}
\end{align*}
$$

3) Add to each leaf an ultimate branching that consists alternatively of $< 0$ and $< 1$. This yields the so-called skeleton of the $(k, l)$ path, which consists of $2^{L+1}$ strings with length $l$. This is actually a subsequence extracted from the $(k, l)$ path as built in [15]. Notice that the strings labeled $\{2j + 1, 2j + 2\}$ are at a distance larger than $k$ for all $j = 0, \ldots, 2^L - 1$. For $L = 3$,

$$
\begin{align*}
0 \cdots 0 < &
\begin{array}{c}
0 \cdots 0 \ 000 \\
1 \cdots 1 \ 001 \\
1 \cdots 1 \ 011 \\
0 \cdots 0 \ 010 \\
0 \cdots 0 \ 110 \\
1 \cdots 1 \ 111 \\
1 \cdots 1 \ 101 \\
0 \cdots 0 \ 100,
\end{array} \\
0 \cdots 0 < &
\begin{array}{c}
0 \cdots 0 \ 000 \\
1 \cdots 1 \ 001 \\
1 \cdots 1 \ 011 \\
0 \cdots 0 \ 010 \\
0 \cdots 0 \ 110 \\
1 \cdots 1 \ 111 \\
1 \cdots 1 \ 101 \\
0 \cdots 0 \ 100,
\end{array}
\end{align*}
$$

4) To get the whole path from the skeleton, simply add bridges between successive pairs of strings of the skeleton. A bridge consists of $k - 1$ strings which contain either the sequence of substrings $\ast 0 \cdots 01\ast$, $\ast 0 \cdots 011\ast$, $\ast 001 \cdots 11\ast$, and $\ast 01 \cdots 11\ast$ or the inverse one $\ast 01 \cdots 11\ast$, $\ast 001 \cdots 11\ast$, $\ast 0 \cdots 01\ast$, and $\ast 0 \cdots 011\ast$. This completes the construction of the $(k, l)$ path with $(k + 1)2^L = k + 1$ strings.

Remarks:

1) Although the path takes only a small fraction of the search space for large $l$, a process starting at a random point can get through some strings which are less than $k$-bits distant from optimum (or from other strings of the path). This situation is not considered in the following study: we assume that the process starts on the first string of the path, and hence focus on studying the likelihood of $k$-bit-flip shortcuts.

2) In the following, only elitist evolution strategies are studied, but some experiments show that the lack of elitism of $(\mu, \lambda)$-ES can improve the convergence speed when starting from a random point. A $(1, 5)$-ES (with $k = 4$, $l = 45$) takes a shortcut from the beginning of the path toward the global optimum. In fact, once it reaches...
the beginning of the path, the \( (1, 5) \)-ES process does not find at once fitter strings on the path, and falls down more or less immediately. This situation is repeated a number of times, which maximizes the chances of hitting the global optimum (at successive visits of the first point of the path). On the other hand, when \( \lambda / \mu \) increases [e.g., \( (1, 30) \)-ES], the process follows the path.

C. The Process \( X(t) \)

In the following, \( e_i := 0 \cdots 0 \) denotes the first string of the path and \( e_f := 1 \cdots 10 \cdots 0 \) denotes the last one. \( T \) stands for the first hitting time of string \( e_f \) by the process \( X(t) \). The search follows a process \( X(t) \) starting from \( X(0) = e_i \), and evolves as a \( (1 + 1) \)-ES: at each generation \( t \in \mathbb{N} \), build some mutated string \( X'(t) \) from \( X(t) \) by independently inverting each bit of \( X(t) \) with probability \( 1 - 1 \). If \( X'(t) \) lies farther in the path than \( X(t) \), then \( X(t + 1) = X'(t) \); otherwise, \( X(t + 1) = X(t) \). The last string \( e_f \) of the path is therefore the unique absorbing state of the Markov chain \( X \).

In order to characterize the distribution of the mutations used in the process \( X(t) \), we first introduce some new notation:

- \( \mathcal{M} \) denotes the set of all possible mutations \( \{ \text{invert, no-invert} \} \)
- \( \mathcal{M}_j \) denotes the set of mutations that invert exactly \( j \) bits (we have \( \mathcal{M} = \bigcup_{j=0}^{l} \mathcal{M}_j \))
- \( J \) is the random variable representing the number of bits flipped per bitstring with the \( f \) mutation:

\[
J_f = \mathbb{P}(J = j) = C_j^l (1 - 1)^{l-j}.
\]

To select a mutation from \( \mathcal{M} \), first choose \( J \) uniformly in \( \mathcal{M} \). The sequence of mutations of the process \( X(t) \) is independent and identically distributed with distribution\(^2\)

\[
p_{\mu}^{\mathcal{M}} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{M}^f|} \sum_{j=0}^{l} p_{\mu}^j 1_{j \in \mathcal{M}_j},
\]

D. Waiting Times of Some Particular Events

Let \( \mathcal{S} \) be the family that consists of \( L = (l-1)/k \) shortcuts denoted by \( S_j \) for \( j = 1, \cdots, L \). The shortcut \( S_j \) is the operator that inverts the \( k \) bits whose labels lie within the segment \( [(j-1)k+1, jk+1] \).

Similarly, let \( \mathcal{S}' \) be the family which consists of all of the shortcuts which invert at least the \( k \) successive bits whose labels lie within one of the intervals \( [(j-1)k+1, jk+1], j = 1, \cdots, L \). Yet, it is clear that \( \mathcal{S} \subset \mathcal{S}' \), and \( \mathcal{S}' \) actually contains many more shortcuts than \( \mathcal{S} \).

Lemma II.1: 1) For any fixed \( j \), the waiting time \( T_{S_j} \) for the shortcut \( S_j \) obeys a geometric distribution with mean \( 1/p_{S_j}^{\mathcal{M}} \):

\[
\mathbb{P}(T_{S_j} = t) = p_{S_j}^{\mathcal{M}} (1 - p_{S_j}^{\mathcal{M}})^{t-1}, \quad \text{for any } t \geq 1.
\]

2) The waiting time \( T_{S_j} \) for some shortcut of the family \( \mathcal{S}' \) obeys a geometric distribution with mean \( 1/\sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}'} p_{k}^{\mathcal{M}} \).

\(^2\)\( p_{\mu}^k \) is equal to 1 if \( \mu \) is true and 0 otherwise.

Proof: At each time \( t \in \mathbb{N} \), the probability that a subclass \( \mathcal{S}' \subset \mathcal{M} \) of mutations occurs is \( \sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}'} p_{k}^{\mathcal{M}} \). Since the mutations are independent and identically distributed, the statistical distribution of the first time \( T_{S''} \) when \( \mathcal{S}' \) occurs is given by

\[
\mathbb{P}(T_{S''} > t) = \left( 1 - \sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}'} p_{k}^{\mathcal{M}} \right)^t.
\]

Computing \( \mathbb{P}(T_{S''} = t) = \mathbb{P}(T_{S''} > t - 1) - \mathbb{P}(T_{S''} > t) \) establishes the result.

Lemma II.2: If \( l \gg 1 \) then the means of the waiting times \( T_{S_j} \) and \( T_{S'} \) are, respectively, \( 1/p_{S_j}^{\mathcal{M}} \approx e^{k} \) and \( 1/\sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}'} p_{k}^{\mathcal{M}} \approx e^{-k}/L \).

Proof: At each time \( t \in \mathbb{N} \) the probability that the shortcut \( S_j \) occurs is

\[
p_{S_j}^{\mathcal{M}} = e^{-k} (1 - 1)^{l-k}.
\]

For \( k \ll l \), we have \( p_{S_j}^{\mathcal{M}} = e^{-k} \) since \( (1 - 1/n)^n \to e^{-1} \) as \( n \to \infty \), which proves the first statement of the lemma. The probability that some shortcut of \( \mathcal{S}' \) occurs is

\[
\sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}'} p_{k}^{\mathcal{M}} = L e^{-k}.
\]

Further, we introduce the set \( \mathcal{S}'_j \) of all mutations that invert at least the \( k \) successive bits whose labels lie within the interval \( [(j-1)k+1, jk+1] \), and that do not invert the successive \( k \) bits at positions \( [(n-1)k+1, nk+1] \) for \( n \neq j \). We have the recurrence

\[
P_{S_j}^{(k-k)} = (1 - p_{S_j}^{(k-k)}) \cdot \sum_{j=1}^{l} p_{S_j}^{(k-k)} = L e^{-k}.
\]

Since \( p_{S_j}^{(k-k)} \to 0 \) for \( l \gg 1 \), we have that

\[
\lim_{l \to \infty} p_{S_j}^{(k-k)} = 1.
\]

Back to the the family \( \mathcal{S}' \), we have

\[
\lim_{l \to \infty} p_{S}^{(k-k)} = 1 \quad \text{for } l \gg 1
\]

which completes the proof of the lemma.

Lemma II.3: The waiting times between two successive jumps of the process \( X(t) \) are independent of each other, and have means bounded by \( l \) below and by \( el \) above if \( l \gg 1 \).

Proof: The independence is ensured by the mutation process, which is completely blind. Furthermore, whatever the state of \( X(t) \) (except the final point \( e_f \), of course), there is a string just after it in the long path which differs only from \( X(t) \)
in one bit, so that the probability \( p_{\text{jump}} \) that a jump occurs is always bounded below by

\[
p_{\text{jump}} \geq t^{-1} (1 - t^{-1})^{k-1} \simeq c^{-1} t^{-1}.
\]

Furthermore, for \( j = 1, \cdots, k-1 \), there is at most one string in the long path which is after \( X(t) \), and which differs from \( X(t) \) in exactly \( j \) bits. As a consequence, the next jump of \( X(t) \) must be either a jump to one of these strings or a shortcut of the family \( \mathcal{S} \). As a consequence, the probability \( p_{\text{jump}} \) that a jump occurs is always bounded above by

\[
p_{\text{jump}} \leq \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} (1-t^{-1})^{k-j} + p(\mathcal{S}) = \frac{c^{-1} t^{-1} + l^{k+1}/k}{c^{-1} t^{-1} + 2^{-1} t^{-1} \leq t^{-1}}.
\]

The bounds on \( p_{\text{jump}} \) then imply the bounds on the mean waiting time \( T_{\text{jump}} \), since \( P(T_{\text{jump}} > t) = (1-p_{\text{jump}})^t \) and \( E[T_{\text{jump}}] = \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} P(T_{\text{jump}} > t) = 1/p_{\text{jump}} \).

The above proof actually shows that if \( k \geq 3 \), the mean waiting time between two jumps of \( X(t) \) is \( ct + O(1) \).

### III. Asymptotic Study for Large \( I \) and \( k = l^\alpha \)

This subsection considers the case of \( k = [l^\alpha] \) and large values of \( l \). Recall that the case of \( k = O(l) \) is not interesting because it yields a path length of \( O(l) \) and an expected number of trials of no more than \( O(l^2) \).

#### A. Main Results

The main result of the section is given in Proposition III.1. It states that the expected convergence time is exponential for \( k = [l^\alpha] \).

**Proposition III.1:** Assume that \( k = [l^\alpha] \) for \( \alpha \in (0, 1) \).

1. If \( \alpha < 1/2 \), then

\[
\lim_{l \to \infty} \frac{1}{l^{\alpha} \ln(l)} \ln E[T] = 1.
\]

2. If \( \alpha \geq 1/2 \), then

\[
\lim_{l \to \infty} \frac{1}{l^{\alpha - \epsilon} \ln(2)} \ln E[T] = 1.
\]

The estimates which are used in the proof are basically Lemmas II.1–II.3. We will also show that shortcuts speed up the convergence only in the case \( \alpha < 1/2 \). If \( \alpha \geq 1/2 \), the path is entirely visited before any shortcut is likely to happen.

#### B. Proof of Proposition III.1

We now give an equivalent construction of the process \( X(t) \). Recall that, for the process \( X(t) \) defined in Section II-C, the mutations are chosen in \( \mathcal{M} \setminus \mathcal{S} \) according to the distribution \( p_{\mu} \) defined by (3). We introduce the following:

- A sequence of independent mutations \( (\mu_t)_{t \geq 1} \) chosen in \( \mathcal{M} \setminus \mathcal{S} \), each with probability

\[
\sum_{m \in \mathcal{S}} \frac{p(\mu_{m,t})}{\mu_{m,t}}.
\]

- A process \( X_{\text{sub}}(t) \) without shortcuts starting from \( X_{\text{sub}}(0) = e_i \), the first point of the path, defined as follows: mutation \( \mu_{t+1} \) introduced here above is applied to string \( X_{\text{sub}}(t) \), and the mutated string is accepted if it lies farther than \( X_{\text{sub}}(t) \) in the \( (k, l) \) path; otherwise, \( X_{\text{sub}}(t+1) = X_{\text{sub}}(t) \). In the following, \( T_{\text{sub}} \) stands for the first hitting time of the last string \( e_j \) by the process \( X_{\text{sub}}(t) \).

- A sequence of random variables \( (T_j)_{j \geq 0} \) such that \( T_0 = 0 \) and \( T_j = T_{j-1} + \sigma_j \), where \( (\sigma_j) \) are independent geometric variables with parameter \( p^* := \sum_{m \in \mathcal{S}} p(\mu_{m,t}) \):

\[
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}^+, \quad P(\sigma_j = n) = p^*(1 - p^*)^{n-1}.
\]

Notice that \( \sigma_j \) obeys the same distribution as \( T_{\mathcal{S}} \).

- A sequence of independent mutations \( (\mu_{j,t})_{t \geq 1} \) chosen in \( \mathcal{S} \), each with probability

\[
\sum_{m \in \mathcal{S}} \frac{p(\mu_{m,t})}{\mu_{m,t}}.
\]

We then construct a process \( \overline{X}(t) \) by setting \( j = 1 \), then iterating the following:

1. While \( T_{j-1} \leq t < T_j - 1 \), apply mutation \( \mu_{t+1} \) (from the above sequence) to string \( \overline{X}(t) \), and accept the mutated if it lies farther than \( \overline{X}(t) \) in the path; otherwise, \( \overline{X}(t+1) = \overline{X}(t) \).

2. If \( t = T_j - 1 \), apply mutation \( \mu_{j,t+1} \) to string \( \overline{X}(t) \), and accept the mutated if it lies farther than \( \overline{X}(t) \) in the path; otherwise, \( \overline{X}(t+1) = \overline{X}(t) \).

3. Indent \( j \to j+1 \) and go to step 1.

Let us prove that the law of the process \( \overline{X}(t) \) is the same as that of \( X(t) \). Since the selection rule is the same for both processes, we only need to prove that the distribution of the process \( \overline{X}(t) \) is the same as that of \( X(t) \). First, we prove the following lemma.

**Lemma III.2:** If \( (T_i)_{i \geq 0} \) is the sequence of random variables as described here above and

\[
G(n) = P(n \in \{T_j\}_{j \geq 0}) = \sum_{i \geq 0} P(T_i = n),
\]

then, for all \( n \in \mathbb{N}^+ \), we have \( G(n) = n^\alpha \).

**Proof:** Let us denote by \( F \) the generating function of \( \sigma_i \) and by \( \Phi \) the generating function of the sequence \( \{G(n), n = 0, 1, \cdots\} \)

\[
F(z) = \sum_{n \geq 0} z^n P(\sigma_1 = n), \quad \Phi(z) = \sum_{n \geq 0} z^n G(n).
\]
Applying [8, Theorem 2, ch. III-4] establishes that $\Phi$ is characterized by the equation
\[
\Phi(z) = 1 + F(z)\Phi(z). \tag{7}
\]
One can then check that the choice
\[
G(n) = p^n, \quad \text{for } n \geq 1 \text{ and } G(0) = 1
\]
involves $\Phi(z) = [1 - (1 - p^2)z]/(1 - z)$ which fulfills (7) since $F(z) = p^2 z/[1 - (1 - p^2)z]$, which characterizes the function $G(n)$.

Let $(\mathcal{P}_n)$ be the sequence of mutations of $X$. We now prove that the distribution of $(\mathcal{P}_n)$ is the same as that of $(\mu_n)$:
\[
\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{P}_n = \mu) = \mathbb{P}(n \in \{T_j\}_{j \geq 1}, \mathcal{P}_n = \mu) + \mathbb{P}(n \notin \{T_j\}_{j \geq 1}, \mathcal{P}_n = \mu) = \mathbb{P}(n \in \{T_j\}_{j \geq 1}) \mathbb{P}(\mu_1 = \mu) + \mathbb{P}(n \notin \{T_j\}_{j \geq 1}) \mathbb{P}(\mu_1 = \mu) = p^\mu \sum_{m \in S'} p^{\mu_1 \lambda d} \mathbb{P}(\mu_1 = \mu) + (1 - p^\mu) \sum_{m \in S'} p^{\mu_1 \lambda d} \mathbb{P}(\mu_1 = \mu).
\]
Using the fact that $p^\mu = \sum_{m \in S'} p^{\mu_1 \lambda d}$, we obtain the desired result:
\[
\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{P}_n = \mu) = p^{\mu_1 \lambda d}.
\]

The mutation distributions of $X(t)$ and $\mathcal{X}(t)$ are identical; hence, the processes $X(t)$ and $\mathcal{X}(t)$ obey the same law. In the following, we study the convergence time $T$ of the process $\mathcal{X}(t)$. Within this framework, $T_\mathcal{S} = T$, which shows that $T_\mathcal{S}$ and $T_\mathcal{S}'$ are independent. We can split all of the possible ways to go from $e_i$ to $e_j$ into two complementary groups:
1) G1: $T_\mathcal{S} < T_\mathcal{S}'$
2) G2: $T_\mathcal{S} \geq T_\mathcal{S}'$

In the following, to improve the readability of the text, we often consider the asymptotic exponential laws of the waiting times studied above, rather than the exact geometrical laws. Indeed, if $\tau_0$ is a random variable with geometric distribution and mean $t_0 > 1$, then for any positive real $\tau$, we have
\[
\mathbb{P}(\tau_0 > \tau t_0) = (1 - t_0/\tau t_0) \approx \exp(-\tau)
\]
since $(1 - x/n)^n \to \exp(-x)$ as $n \to \infty$. Note, however, that the proof and conclusions would follow in the same manner using the exact geometrical law.

1) Study of the Process $X_{\mathcal{S}'}$: On the one hand, the process $X_{\mathcal{S}'}$ visits at most every string of the whole path (that is, at most $N_\mathcal{S}' := (k+1)2^L - k + 1$ strings, where $L$ is the length of the path and each jumping time between two jumps means bounded above by $d$). Thus,
\[
E[T_{\mathcal{S}'}] \leq cLN_i \simeq cdk2^L. \tag{8}
\]
On the other hand, since no shortcut from the family $S'$ happens for $X_{\mathcal{S}'}$, the process must visit at least one over two strings of the skeleton (see Section II-B), that is, at least $\frac{N_i}{2} := \frac{2^L}{2}$. Furthermore, the waiting times between two jumps are statistically independent, and have means bounded below by $L$. Hence,
\[
E[T_{\mathcal{S}'}] \geq 2L^2. \tag{9}
\]

Let us denote by $\tau_j$ the waiting times for the successive jumps of the process $X(t)$. We have
\[
E[T_{\mathcal{S}'}^2] \leq E \left[ \sum_j \tau_j \right]^2 = \sum_j E[\tau_j^2] + \sum_{j \neq j} E[\tau_j][E[\tau_j]].
\]
Since the variables $\tau_j$ are exponential with mean bounded from above by $cL$,
\[
E[T_{\mathcal{S}'}^2] \leq 2(cL)^2N_i^2. \tag{10}
\]

By applying a standard large deviations principle for the sum of independent random variables, we get the following proposition.

Proposition III.3: For any $\delta > 0$, there exists some $c_0 > 0$ such that
\[
\mathbb{P}(T_{\mathcal{S}'} < (1 - \delta)LN_i) \leq \exp(-c_0LN_i^2) \tag{11}
\]
\[
\mathbb{P}(T_{\mathcal{S}'} \geq (1 + \delta)cLN_i) \leq \exp(-c_0cLN_i). \tag{12}
\]

Proof: Apply [16, Theorem 3-8].

If we consider the convergence time $T$ of the process $\mathcal{X}(t)$, the expectation of $T$ is written as
\[
E[T] = E_{\mathcal{S}'} E_{\mathcal{S}'}[T_{\mathcal{S}'} < T_{\mathcal{S}'}] P(G_1) + E_{\mathcal{S}'} E_{\mathcal{S}'}[T_{\mathcal{S}'} > T_{\mathcal{S}'}] P(G_2) \tag{13}
\]
where $E_{\mathcal{S}'}$ is the expectation with respect to the distribution of the sequence $(\mathcal{P}_n)_{n \geq 1}$, and $E_{\mathcal{S}'}$ is the expectation with respect to the distribution of the sequence $(\mu_1, \mu_2)_{\geq 1}$. In the following, the notation $E$ stands for $E_{\mathcal{S}'} E_{\mathcal{S}'}$. We will now estimate the four terms on the right-hand side of this equality.

2) Estimate of $P(G_1) = 1 - P(G_2)$: $P(G_1) = P(T_{\mathcal{S}'} < T_{\mathcal{S}'}$, Lemmas II.1 and II.2 establish that
\[
P(T_{\mathcal{S}'} > T_{\mathcal{S}}) = \exp(-LN_i^2/k) \quad \text{for any } t. \quad \text{Since } T_{\mathcal{S}'} \text{ and } T_{\mathcal{S}} \text{ are independent, we then have}
\]
\[
P(G_1) = P(T_{\mathcal{S}'} > T_{\mathcal{S}}) = \exp(-LN_i^2/k) \tag{14}
\]

• Case $k = [\sqrt{c}]$, $\alpha < 1/2$: We decompose the expectation with respect to the event $T_{\mathcal{S}'} \geq LN_i^2/2$:
\[
E \left[ \exp(-LN_i^2/k) \right] = E \left[ \exp(-LT_{\mathcal{S}'} / \sqrt{k}) \mid T_{\mathcal{S}'} < \frac{1}{2} LN_i^2 \right] P(T_{\mathcal{S}'} < \frac{1}{2} LN_i^2) + E \left[ \exp(-LT_{\mathcal{S}'} / \sqrt{k}) \mid T_{\mathcal{S}'} \geq \frac{1}{2} LN_i^2 \right] P(T_{\mathcal{S}'} \geq \frac{1}{2} LN_i^2)
\]
\[
\leq \mathbb{P}(T_{\mathcal{S}'} < \frac{1}{2} LN_i^2) + \exp\left(-LN_i^2 \frac{L}{2k}\right).
\]
Equation (11) then implies that the first term on the right-hand side is smaller than the second one, so that
\[
P(G_1) \leq 2 \exp \left( -\frac{1}{2} \frac{L \alpha N_1 L}{k} \right)
\approx 2 \exp \left( -\frac{1}{2} \frac{L}{k \alpha} 2^{-\alpha} \right) \to 0, \quad \text{as } l \to \infty.
\]

- Case \(k = [\alpha], \alpha \geq 1/2\): Applying Jensen’s inequality to (14),
\[
P(G_1) \geq \exp \left( -\frac{L E[T_{w_0}]}{k} \right).
\]
From (8) we get
\[
P(G_1) \geq \exp \left( -\frac{L \alpha E[T_{w_0}]}{k} \right).
\]
The fact that \(L \alpha E[T_{w_0}] / k \approx c \alpha^2 \beta^{-\alpha} / k \beta = \alpha \approx 1\) then implies
\[
P(G_2) \leq 1 - \exp \left( -\frac{c \beta^{2-\alpha}}{k l} \right)
\approx \frac{c \beta^{2-\alpha}}{k l} \to 0, \quad \text{as } l \to \infty. \quad (16)
\]

3) Expectation of \(T\) under \(G_1\): Under \(G_1\), \(T_{S'} > T_{w_0}\); thus, \(T = T_{w_0}\) and
\[
E[T / T_{S'} > T_{w_0}] = E[T_{w_0} / T_{S'} > T_{w_0}]
\leq E[T_{w_0}] \leq c_1 \alpha N_1. \quad (17)
\]
- We now restrict ourselves to the case \(k = [\alpha], \alpha \geq 1/2\):
\[
E[T / T_{S'} > T_{w_0}] = \frac{E[T_{w_0} / T_{S'} > T_{w_0}]}{P(T_{S'} > T_{w_0})}
\geq E[T_{w_0} / P(T_{S'} > T_{w_0})].
\]
Since \(T_{S'}\) obeys an exponential distribution, we have \(P(S' > T_{w_0}) = \exp(-T_{w_0} / E[T_{S'}])\), so that
\[
E[T / T_{S'} > T_{w_0}] \geq E[T_{w_0} \exp(-T_{w_0} / E[T_{S'}])]. \quad (18)
\]
Further, using the fact that \(1 - e^{-\rho \theta} \leq \rho \wedge 1\), and the bounds on \(E[T_{w_0}]\) and \(E[T_{w_0}^2]\) of (8) and (10), we have
\[
E \left[ T_{w_0} \right] \left[ 1 - \exp \left( -\frac{T_{w_0}}{E[T_{S'}]} \right) \right]
\leq \rho E \left[ T_{w_0} \left| T_{w_0} < \rho E[T_{S'}] \right. \right] + E \left[ T_{w_0} \left| T_{w_0} \geq \rho E[T_{S'}] \right. \right]
\leq \rho E[T_{w_0}] + E \left[ T_{w_0} \right]^{1/2} P(T_{w_0} > \rho E[T_{S'}])^{1/2}
\leq E[T_{w_0}] \rho + 2 P(T_{w_0} > \rho E[T_{S'}])^{1/2}. \quad (19)
\]
By (12) and the fact that \(N_1 \ll E[T_{w_0}] / l \sim l^{\alpha-2} l,\) we have \(P(T_{w_0} > \rho E[T_{S'}]) = 0\) at an exponential rate as \(l \to \infty\). Hence, if we choose \(\rho = 1/l\) in (19), then we get that
\[
E \left[ T_{w_0} \right] \left[ 1 - \exp \left( -\frac{T_{w_0}}{E[T_{S'}]} \right) \right] \leq \frac{1}{2} E[T_{w_0}].
\]
Substituting into (18) establishes that
\[
E[T / T_{S'} > T_{w_0}] \geq E[T_{w_0}] \left( 1 - \frac{1}{2} \right). \quad (20)
\]
Combining (17) and (20), we obtain
\[
\lim_{l \to \infty} \frac{1}{\ln(l)} \ln \left( E[T / T_{S'} > T_{w_0}] \right) = 1. \quad (21)
\]

4) Expectation of \(T\) under \(G_2\): In the worst case, the following sequence of events (happening after \(T_{S'}\)) ensures that the process reaches \(e_f\); whatever the intermediate event: shortcut \(S_1\), then \(S_2\), etc., until \(S_L\). Hence,
\[
E[T / T_{S'} < T_{w_0}] \leq E[T_{S'} / T_{S'} < T_{w_0}] + \sum_{j=1}^{L} E[T_{S_j}] \cdot (22)
\]
Note that the expectations in the second term on the right-hand side of the above inequality are no longer conditional. Indeed, after the first shortcut happens (first term), the subsequent events can be described as independent exponential variables, and in particular, independent of \(T_{S'}\).

Lemma III.4: Let \(\tau_0\) be a random variable with exponential distribution and mean \(\tau_0\). Then
\[
E[\tau_{0} / \tau_0 < \tau] = \int_0^{\tau_0} \frac{1}{\tau_0} e^{-s/\tau_0} ds \cdot (23)
\]
Proof: Write
\[
E[\tau_{0} / \tau_0 < \tau] = \frac{E[\tau_{0} / \tau_0 < \tau]}{P(\tau_0 < \tau)} \cdot (23)
\]
and compute the integrals.

Combining the fact that \(f\) is uniformly bounded by 1 and Lemma II.2, (22) now reads
\[
E[T / T_{S'} < T_{w_0}] \leq E[T_{S'}] + c(L \beta^k \leq c(1/L + L) \beta^k. \quad (23)
\]
In the best case, we need only one shortcut of the family \(S\) to reach \(e_f\):
\[
E[T / T_{S'} < T_{w_0}] \geq E[T_{S'} / T_{S'} < T_{w_0}]. \quad (24)
\]
First, applying Lemma III.4 to the right term of the inequality, and then using the fact that \(f(t) \geq (t/4) (1/2) (t = T_{S'} / E[T_{S'}]),\) we get
\[
E[T_{S'} / T_{S'} < T_{w_0}] \geq E[T_{S'}] E \left[ f \left( \frac{T_{w_0}}{E[T_{S'}]} \right) \right] \cdot (24)
\]
\[
\geq E[T_{S'}] E \left[ \frac{T_{w_0}}{4 E[T_{S'}]} \right] \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)
\]
\[
= E \left[ \frac{T_{w_0}}{4} \right] \left( \frac{E[T_{S'}]}{2} \right). \quad (24)
\]
- We now restrict ourselves to the case \(k = [\alpha], \alpha < 1/2\):
\[
E \left[ \frac{T_{w_0}}{4} \right] \left( \frac{E[T_{S'}]}{2} \right) = E \left[ \frac{T_{w_0}}{4} \right] \left( \frac{E[T_{S'}]}{2} \right) \quad (24)
\]
Since $\omega < 1/2$, we have $E[T_{\omega}] \leq N_{\omega}^{2}$; then, by (11),

$$P(T_{\omega} < 2E[T_{\omega}]) \leq 1 - e^{-c_{1}/2N_{\omega}^{2}}.$$ 

Hence, in the asymptotic framework $(l \to \infty)$, we have

$$E[T/T_{\omega} < T_{\omega}] \geq E[T_{\omega}]
\left(1 - \frac{1}{l}\right).$$

Combining (23) and (25), if $k = [l^{\omega}]$, then for $\alpha < 1/2$,

$$\lim_{l \to \infty} \frac{1}{l^{\omega}} \ln E[T/T_{\omega} < T_{\omega}] = 1.$$ 

5) **Global Expectation of $T$:** If $\alpha < 1/2$, then we substitute (15), (17), and (26) into (13):

$$E[T] = E_{\omega}E_{Sy}[T/T_{\omega} < T_{Sy}]
\begin{cases}
\leq P(G_{1}) \leq 2 - \frac{c_{1}}{l^{\omega}} - 2e^{-c_{1}/2l^{\omega}} \\
+ E_{\omega}E_{Sy}[T/T_{\omega} < T_{\omega}]P(G_{2}) \leq 1
\end{cases}.$$ 

Combining these results proves the second point of the proposition.

If $\alpha \geq 1/2$, then we substitute (16), (21), and (23) into (13):

$$E[T] = E_{\omega}E_{Sy}[T/T_{\omega} < T_{Sy}]
\begin{cases}
\leq e^{k^{1}l^{-\alpha}} \mu^{k^{1}l^{-\alpha}} \\
+ e^{k^{1}l^{-\alpha}} \mu^{k^{1}l^{-\alpha}} P(G_{2}) \leq e^{k^{1}l^{-\alpha}} \mu^{k^{1}l^{-\alpha}}
\end{cases}.$$ 

The first term on the right-hand side is equivalent to $2^{l^{-\alpha}}$:

$$\lim_{l \to \infty} \frac{\ln E[T]}{l^{\omega}} \geq 1.$$ 

More exactly, the first term is bounded by $e^{k^{1}l^{-\alpha} - 2l^{-\alpha}}$ [by (17)], while the second term is bounded by $e^{k^{1}l^{-\alpha} - 2l^{-\alpha}}$:

$$\lim_{l \to \infty} \frac{\ln E[T]}{l^{\omega}} \leq 1 + \lim_{l \to \infty} \frac{\ln(e^{k^{1}l^{-\alpha}} + e^{k^{1}l^{-\alpha}})}{l^{\omega} \ln(2)} = 1.$$ 

Combining these results proves the second point of the proposition.

**Remarks:**

1) Note that, for $\alpha \geq 1/2$, the waiting time for one shortcut occurrence (under $G_{2}$) is much longer than the upper bound of the expected convergence time when following the entire path. This is not enough, however, to describe the effective behavior of the process, as indicated below.

2) A direct consequence of (15) and (16) is that shortcuts speed up the convergence in the case of $\alpha < 1/2$ only. Otherwise, for $\alpha \geq 1/2$, the process will reach $e_{f}$ by following the whole path before any shortcut occurs.

3) Note also that the critical value $\alpha_{c} = 1/2$ holds true in the limit $l \to \infty$, but is slightly different for large, but finite $l$. Indeed, comparing the different expressions, we get that the transition between the two regimes occurs when $l^{\omega} = \ln(l) = l^{1-\alpha} \ln(2)$, i.e., for

$$\alpha_{c} = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{\ln l - \ln \ln 2}{2 \ln l}.$$ 

which converges to the value $1/2$ at rate $\ln \ln l/\ln l$.

**IV. Asymptotic Behavior for Large $l$ and Fixed $k$:**

This section is devoted to the case of a fixed value of $k$ in the asymptotic framework $l \gg 1$. The main result is stated in Section IV-A, and claims that the expected first hitting time is $e^{k^{1}l^{-1}/k \ln(l)/k}$. This result is not an estimate, but the dominating term of the expansion of $E[T]$ with respect to $l$. We then give, with the same order of precision, the complete probability density of $T$. It shows that, although the normalized variance of $T$ goes to 0 as $l \to \infty$, the decay rate is so slow that the variance actually remains of order 1 for a large band of values of $l$. We also exhibit a class of exceptional realizations of probability $k^{1-1/l}$, where the process hits the final string much quicker than the expected value $E[T]$. After studying this set of realizations, we describe how we can take advantage of it in Section IV-E. The influence of mutation probability is investigated in Section IV-F. Finally, Section IV-G compares different population-based evolution strategies behavior.

**A. Main Results**

Let us consider the first hitting time $T$ of the process $X(t)$ (defined in Section II-C).

**Proposition IV.1:** The expectation of the first hitting time $T$ for large $l$ is

$$E[T] \approx \frac{e^{k^{1}l^{-1}/k \ln(l)/k}}{k \ln(l)/k} \ln(l)/k$$

which means that $E[T] \times (e^{k^{1}l^{-1}/k \ln(l)/k})^{-1}$ converges to 1 as $l$ goes to infinity.

**Proof:** See Section IV-B.

The following proposition gives more detail about the statistical distribution of the first hitting time $T$.

**Proposition IV.2:** 1) The normalized variance of $T$ goes to 0 as $l \to \infty$:

$$V(T) := \frac{\sqrt{E[T^{2}] - E[T]^{2}}}{E[T]} \to 0.$$ 

2) As $l \to \infty$, the statistical distribution of $T$ can be represented at the first order as $e^{T}$, where $T$ is a random variable with density:

$$p_{T}(T) = \sum_{n_{1}, \ldots, n_{m} \geq L} \int_{0}^{\infty} \cdots \int_{0}^{\infty} c^{-n_{1}}(1 - c^{-n_{1}}) \cdots c^{-n_{m}}(1 - c^{-n_{m}}) d\tau_{1} \cdots d\tau_{m}$$
Fig. 1. Normalized variance of the variable $T$ which, at the first order only, depends on the ratio $L = (l - 1)/k$. 

and $L = (l - 1)/k$. 

Proof: See Section IV-B. 

In the above expression of density $p_T(\tau)$, the integer $m$ stands for the number of shortcuts which are necessary to reach the final string, $\tau_j, j = 1, \ldots, m$ are the times between two shortcuts, and $n_j, j = 1, \ldots, m$ are the ranges of the corresponding shortcuts, as explained in Section IV-B. 

By integrating $\tau p_T(\tau)$ and $\tau^2 p_T(\tau)$ with respect to $\tau$, we can compute the normalized variance of $T$. It then appears that the relative fluctuations with respect to the mean stay of order 1 for a large band of values of $L$, although it decays to 0, as shown by Fig. 1, where the normalized variance is plotted. 

The probability densities of $T$ for typical and relevant values of the parameters $k$ and $l$ are plotted in Fig. 2. The theoretical histograms of $T$ present an anomalous peak close to zero. This corresponds to outliers which are not at all artifacts of the theory. The leftmost peak in the histogram of $T$ corresponds to the event $\mathcal{S}_1$: shortcut $S_1$ is the first to occur (i.e., before $S_2, \ldots, S_l$). The peak disappears when the first term $(m = 1)$ in the expression of $p_T(\tau)$ is omitted. The event $\Omega_1$ results in a smaller convergence time than average. This exceptional set of realizations is studied carefully in Section IV-E. 

B. Proofs of Propositions IV.1 and IV.2 

The $(k, l)$ path can be decomposed in the following manner: 

$\mathcal{M}_1 = \{0 \cdots 0 \ast \cdots \ast\} \cup \{\text{bridges}\}$ 

$\mathcal{M}_2 = \{1 \cdots 11 \cdots 1 \ast \cdots \ast\} \cup \{\text{bridges}\}$ 

$\mathcal{M}_3 = \{1 \cdots 10 \cdots 01 \cdots 1 \ast \cdots \ast\} \cup \{\text{bridges}\}$ 

$\vdots$ 

$\mathcal{M}_{L-1} = \{1 \cdots 10 \cdots 0 \cdots 0 \cdots 1 \ast\} \cup \{\text{bridges}\}$ 

$\mathcal{M}_L = \{1 \cdots 10 \cdots 0 \cdots 0 \cdots 0 \ast\}$. 

Note that $\mathcal{M}_1$ contains about one half of all of the strings of the path, and more generally, $\mathcal{M}_j$ contains about a proportion $2^{-j}$ of all of the strings of the path. The long path also presents some remarkable symmetries: 

- Applying $S_1$ to string $n^*j$, with $j < N_l/4$, yields the string $n^*N_l - j + 1$. 

Furthermore, since the waiting times $T_{S_j}$ are independent and identically distributed, we have for any fixed $j_0$, 

$$\mathbb{P}(T_{S_{j_0}} < T_{S_1}, \ldots, T_{S_{j_0}+1}, \ldots, T_{S_L}) = \frac{1}{L}.$$ 

Let us discuss when the process enters $\mathcal{M}_1$ (the complementary of $\mathcal{M}_2$). 

- If no shortcut of $S'$ occurs, then it will take an exponentially long time. 

- If neither $S_1$ nor $S_2$ occurs, then the process must still visit an exponentially large number of strings, which takes an exponentially long time. 

- If $S_2$ occurs, but not $S_1$, then we may distinguish two situations. 

1) If one of the $S_{j}, j \geq 3$, occurs before $S_2$, then the process must still visit an exponentially large number of strings, which takes an exponentially long time. 

2) The only situation that could produce a nonexponentially large time is that $S_2$ is the first shortcut of the family $S'$ to occur. Then the process jumps at the end part of $M_2$, and will soon enter $M_3$. 

This latter event, which we denote by $\mathcal{E}$, therefore provides a probability $1/L$ to enter $M_2$ (this is the probability that $S_2$ occurs before the other $S_j$). We will see that the contribution of $\mathcal{E}$ is negligible because its probability is too small to be taken into account. 

The only probable way to enter $\mathcal{M}_1$ is indeed that $S_1$ occurs. The access time to $\mathcal{M}_1$, hence, obeys an exponential distribution with mean $e^{k}$ (Lemmas II.1 and II.2). It will be denoted in the following by $e^{k} \tau_1$: 

$$\mathbb{P}(\tau_1 > \tau) = \exp(-\tau).$$ 

Let us now study the point where the process enters $\mathcal{M}_1$. 

From the above discussion, this point depends on the shortcuts $S_j, j \geq 2$, which may occur before $S_1$. 

If $S_1$ occurs before $S_2$, then the process enters $M_2$: thus, the process has probability $1/2$ to enter $M_2$ in this way. That is why the contribution of the event $\mathcal{E}$ can be neglected. 

If $S_2$ does not occur before $S_1$, but $S_3$ does, then the process enters $M_3$. 

More generally, if $S_i, i \leq j - 1$, do not occur before $S_1$, but $S_j$ does, then the process enters $M_j$. Let us denote this particular $j$ by $N_l$. Since the waiting times for the shortcuts $S_i$ obey independent exponential distributions with mean $e^{k}$, we have 

$$\mathbb{P}(N_l = j/\tau_1 = \tau) = \mathbb{P}(\tau_2, \ldots, \tau_{j-1} > \tau, \tau_j < \tau/\tau_1 = \tau) = (1 - e^{-\tau})e^{-e^{k} \tau}.$$ 

We can then iterate the above arguments. We find that we need to do it $M$ times, where $M$ is the first time that $\sum_{i=1}^M N_i$ reaches $L$, which means that the process enters $\mathcal{M}_1$. 

As a consequence, still denoting $L = (l - 1)/k$, we can describe the first hitting time $T$ as follows.
For large $l$, the first hitting time $T$ obeys the distribution of

$$T = c l^k T$$  \hspace{1cm} (28)$$

where $T$ is defined in the following way. Consider a sequence of independent and identically distributed real-valued random variables $\tau_j$, $j = 1, 2, \cdots$ with exponential density $p(\tau) = \frac{1}{\tau} e^{-\tau}$. Consider also a sequence of independent integer-valued random variables $N_j$, $j = 1, 2, \cdots$, whose distributions depend on $\tau_j$. More exactly, $P(N_j = n/\tau_j = \tau) = p_\tau(n)$, where

$$p_\tau(n) = e^{-\tau(n-1)}(1-e^{-\tau}), \quad n = 1, 2, \cdots.$$ \hspace{1cm} (29)$$

If we denote by $M_L$ the first exit time

$$M_L = \inf \left\{ m \geq 1, \sum_{j=1}^m N_j \geq L \right\}$$ \hspace{1cm} (30)$$

then the random variable $T$ is defined by

$$T = \sum_{j=1}^{M_L} \tau_j.$$ \hspace{1cm} (31)$$

The closed-form expression of the probability density of $T$ given in Proposition IV.2 can then be deduced directly from the definition of $T$.

Roughly speaking, from (28), we expect that $E[T] = cl E[T]$, from (31) that $E[T] \approx E[M_L] E[\tau_1] = E[M_L]$, and from (30) that $E[M_L] \approx L/E[N_1]$. However, the distributions of $M_L$ and $\tau_j$ are joint since $M_L$ depends on $(N_j)_j$, whose distribution depends on $(\tau_j)_j$. Therefore, the assertion $E[T] \approx E[M_L] E[\tau_1]$ is not so obvious, and actually it is false in some sense. Furthermore, the statistical distribution of $N_j$ is

$$P(N_j = n) = \int_0^\infty p(\tau)p_\tau(n) d\tau = \frac{1}{n(n+1)},$$ \hspace{1cm} (32)$$

A noticeable feature which will appear crucial in the following is that $E[N_j] = +\infty$. It will prevent us from applying the standard theorems of the probability theory (strong law of large numbers and central limit theorem), and it will give rise to anomalous behaviors for $M_L$ and the other relevant quantities. The asymptotic behaviors of the variables $M_L$ and $T$ are given by the following propositions.

**Proposition IV.3:** The sequence of normalized random variables $(\ln L/L)M$ converges in mean, in $L^2$ and in probability as $L \to \infty$ to 1, which means that, for any $\delta > 0$,

$$\frac{\ln L}{L} E[M_L] \xrightarrow{L \to \infty} 1.$$
Proposition IV.4: For any $q = 1, 2$, we have

$$\frac{\mathbb{E}[T^q]}{\mathbb{E}[M^q]} \to 1.$$ \hspace{1cm} (33)

Combining these propositions yields the statement of Proposition IV.1 ($q = 1$) and the first point of Proposition IV.2 ($q = 2$).

In the following, we will first study the statistical distribution of the variable $M_L$ and prove Proposition IV.3. The study of the distribution of $\overline{T}$ then proves Proposition IV.4.

C. Proof of Proposition IV.3

We aim at studying the statistical distribution of the stopping time $M_L$ as defined by (30). We will use a Tauberian theorem.

Lemma IV.5: If $u(x)$ is monotone and

$$\int_0^\infty e^{-\lambda x}u(x)\,dx \sim \lambda^{-\rho}L(\lambda^{-1})$$

where $L$ is slowly varying [which means that $L(sx)/L(s) \to 1$ as $s \to \infty$ for any $x > 0$], then

$$u(x) \sim_{x \to +\infty} \frac{1}{\Gamma(\rho)} x^{\rho-1}L(x).$$

Proof: This is precisely [3, vol. 2, ch. XIII-5, Theorem 4].

Let us denote by $S_m$ the partial sums

$$S_m = \sum_{j=1}^m N_j.$$

We can then express the statistical distribution of the variable $M_L$ in terms of $S_m$:

$$\mathbb{P}(M_L = m) = \mathbb{P}(S_{m-1} < L) - \mathbb{P}(S_m < L).$$

Furthermore, we introduce $F$, the repartition function of the random variable $N_1$:

$$F(n) = \mathbb{P}(N_1 \leq n) = 1 - \frac{1}{n+1}$$

whose Laplace transform is

$$\hat{F}(\lambda) = \mathbb{E}[e^{-\lambda N_1}] = 1 + (e^\lambda - 1) \ln(1 - e^{-\lambda}).$$

Since $\mathbb{P}(S_m \leq L) = F^m(L)$, where the star stands for convolution, we can express the mean of the variable $M_L$ as follows:

$$\mathbb{E}[M_L] = \sum_{m=1}^\infty m(\mathbb{P}(S_{m-1} < L) - \mathbb{P}(S_m < L))$$

$$= \sum_{m=0}^\infty \mathbb{P}(S_m < L)$$

$$= \sum_{m=0}^\infty F^m(L - 1)$$

$$= I(L - 1) + F \ast \sum_{m=0}^\infty F^m(L - 1)$$

where $F^m(L) = I(L) = \mathbb{1}_{L \geq 0}$. Denoting by $\hat{H}_1(\lambda)$ the Laplace transform of the series $\mathbb{E}[M_L]$, we get

$$\hat{H}_1(\lambda) = \frac{e^{-\lambda}}{\lambda(1 - e^{-\lambda}F(\lambda))} \sim \frac{1}{\lambda^2(\ln \lambda)^2}.$$

Applying Lemma IV.5, we then get

$$\mathbb{E}[M_L] \sim_{L \to +\infty} \frac{L^2}{(\ln L)^2}. \hspace{1cm} (34)$$

Let us now deal with the fluctuations:

$$\mathbb{E}[M_L^2] = \sum_{m=1}^\infty m^2(\mathbb{P}(S_{m-1} < L) - \mathbb{P}(S_m < L))$$

$$= \sum_{m=0}^\infty (2m + 1)F^m(L - 1).$$

Denoting by $H_2(L) := \sum_{m=0}^\infty mF^m(L)$ and by $\hat{H}_2(\lambda)$ its Laplace transform, we have

$$H_2(L - 1) = F \ast H_2(L - 1) + \mathbb{E}[M_L]$$

which implies

$$\hat{H}_2(\lambda) = \frac{e^{-\lambda}F(\lambda)}{\lambda(1 - e^{-\lambda}F(\lambda))} + \frac{e^{-\lambda}}{\lambda^2(\ln \lambda)^2}.$$

and, consequently,

$$\hat{H}_2(\lambda) = \frac{e^{-\lambda}}{\lambda(1 - e^{-\lambda}F(\lambda))^2} \sim \frac{1}{\lambda^3(\ln \lambda)^2}.$$ 

Still applying Lemma IV.5, we get

$$\mathbb{E}[M_L^2] \sim_{L \to +\infty} \frac{L^2}{(\ln L)^2}. \hspace{1cm} (35)$$

Combining (34) with (35), we obtain the convergence in probability of the variable $(\ln L/L)M_L$ to 1:

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\left|\frac{M_L \ln L}{L} - 1\right| \leq \delta\right) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}\left(\left|\frac{M_L \ln L}{L} - 1\right|^2\right)}{\delta^2} = \frac{\mathbb{E}[M_L^2](\ln L/L)^2 - 2\mathbb{E}[M_L] \ln L/L + 1}{\delta^2} \to 0,$$
This result is asymptotic, that is, it holds true for large $L$. However, precisely analyzing the convergence of $M_L$, it appears that the convergence rate is very slow (logarithmic). If we deal with values of $L$ which are of order 100 or 1000, it is then necessary to be very careful when using Proposition IV.3. The mean $\mathbb{E}[M_L]$ actually behaves as $L/\ln L$, even for—relatively—small values of $L$, as shown by Figs. 3 and 4. However, the relative fluctuations with respect to the mean stay of order 1 for a large band of values of $L$, and vanish only for $L \gg 10^6$ (Figs. 3 and 4). In Fig. 5 we have plotted the computed histograms of the variable $M_L$ for different values of $L$. 

Lemma IV.6: Let $p \in \{1, 2\}$, $q \in \mathbb{N}^+$, and $\psi_1, \cdots, \psi_q$ be continuous functions from $\mathbb{N}^+$ into $\mathbb{R}^+$ satisfying $0 < \alpha \leq \psi_j(x) \leq b < \infty$. Then

\[
\mathbb{E}[M_L^{p\psi_1(N_1)} \cdots \psi_q(N_q)] \mathbb{E}[M_L^{p\psi_1(N_1)} \cdots \psi_q(N_q)] - 1 \xrightarrow{L \to \infty} 0.
\]

This result is not surprising. Indeed for—relatively—small $L$, $M_L$ and $N_1, \cdots, N_q$ are correlated. But if $L$ is large, then $M_L$ gets large too, so that the statistical distribution of $M_L$ involves many $N_j$, and becomes independent of the realization of the first particular $N_1, \cdots, N_q$. However, the convergence rate is very slow (logarithmic), and all the slower as $q$ becomes large.

Proof: For simplicity, we prove the result for $q = 1$. The extension to an arbitrary $q$ is straightforward. By the definition of $M_L$,

\[
P(M_L = m/N_1 = n) = P \left( \sum_{j=2}^{m-1} N_j < l - n \leq \sum_{j=2}^{m} N_j \right) = P(M_{L-n} = m - 1/N_1 = n)
\]

which establishes that

\[
\mathbb{E}[M_L^{p\psi_1(N_1)}] = \mathbb{E}\left[(1 + M_{L-N_1})^p \psi_1(\hat{N}_1)\right]
\]

where $\hat{N}_1$ obeys the same distribution of $N_1$, but is independent of $M$. Thus,

\[
\mathbb{E}[M_L^{p\psi_1(N_1)}] = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+1)} \psi_1(n) \mathbb{E}[(1 + M_{L-n})^p].
\]
We finally apply Lebesgue’s theorem:

\[
\lim_{L \to \infty} \left( \frac{\ln L}{L} \right)^p \mathbb{E}[|M^p_L|] = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+1)} \psi_2(n) = \mathbb{E}[\psi_2(N)].
\]

**D. Proof of Proposition IV.4**

By Proposition IV.2, we can compute \( \mathbb{E}[T] \) by integrating the density \( p_T(t) \) multiplied by \( t \). Since

\[
\int_0^\infty e^{-\tau t}(1 - e^{-\tau}) \, d\tau = \frac{1}{n(n+1)} \quad (36)
\]

\[
\int_0^\infty \tau e^{-\tau t}(1 - e^{-\tau}) \, d\tau = \frac{2n + 1}{n^2(n+1)^2} \quad (37)
\]

we get

\[
\mathbb{E}[T] = \mathbb{E} \left[ (M_L - 1) \frac{2N_1 + 1}{N_1(N_1 + 1)} \right] + \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{2N_{M_L} + 1}{N_{M_L}(N_{M_L} + 1)} \right].
\]

The sum over \( i \) contains \( m \) terms. The first \( m-1 \) terms are equal by simple permutation of the index. Only the last one \( (i = m) \) differs. We can therefore rewrite the long expression as

\[
\mathbb{E}[T] = \mathbb{E} \left[ (M_L - 1) \frac{3N_1^2 + 3N_1 + 1}{N_1^2(N_1 + 1)^2} \right] + \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{3N_{M_L}^2 + 3N_{M_L} + 1}{N_{M_L}^2(N_{M_L} + 1)^2} \right].
\]

The result can be interpreted as follows. The statistical distribution of the first hitting time \( T \) depends on the fluctuations of \( M_L \) and \( \tau_j \). Both are correlated, but for large \( L \), we deal with a large \( M_L \), and consequently, with the sum of a large number of \( \tau_j \). By the strong law of large numbers, the fluctuations of this sum go to 0, so that the fluctuations of \( T \) only become dependent on those of \( M_L \) (see Fig. 6).

**E. A Class of Exceptional Events**

We now go back to a very interesting point, which consists of the anomalous peak close to 0 in the histogram of the first hitting time \( T \). We can describe the corresponding set of realizations (shortcut \( S_j \) happens first) which give rise to a very quick convergence of the process.

**Proposition IV.7:** There exists a set of realizations \( \Omega_1 \) with probability

\[
\mathbb{P}(\Omega_1) \approx kL^{-1} \quad (38)
\]

such that the conditional distribution of the first hitting time given \( \Omega_1 \) is an exponential distribution with mean \( 2e^{k-1}k \):

\[
\mathbb{P}(T \geq 2e^{k-1}k \tau / \Omega_1) \approx \exp(-\tau), \quad \text{for any real } \tau.
\]

(39)

Proposition IV.7 shows that the expected convergence time under \( \Omega_1 \) is equal to \( 2e^{k-1}k \), which is roughly \( L^2 \) times shorter than the global expected time \( (e^{k+1}k \ln(1/k)) \) by Proposition IV.1. A noticeable fact is then that the convergence time with \( N = O(L) \) processes will be \( L^2 \) times shorter than the expected time for a single process with very high probability because it is then highly probable that at least one of the \( N \) processes will realize the favorable event \( \Omega_1 \) : shortcut \( S_j \) occurs first. We quantify this statement in the following corollary.

**Corollary IV.8:** Assume that we deal with a set of \( N \) processes which evolve independently. Then, if \( N \) is large, denoting \( c = Nk / L \), there exists a set of realizations \( \Omega_N \) with probability

\[
\mathbb{P}(\Omega_N) \approx 1 - e^{-c} \quad (40)
\]

such that the conditional expectation of the infimum \( T \) of the first hitting times of the \( N \) processes is

\[
\mathbb{E}[T/\Omega_N] \approx 2\sqrt{f(c)k^{-1}} \quad (41)
\]

where \( f(c) = (\mathbb{E}(c) - c - \ln c/e^c - 1) \), \( \gamma \) is the Euler constant \( \gamma \approx 0.57 \), and \( \mathbb{E} \) is the exponential integral function [1, p.
Fig. 7. Function $c \mapsto f(c)$.

228] (see Fig. 7). More exactly, the conditional distribution of $T$ given $\Omega_N$ is

$$T_i \sim 2e^{b_k}k \ln \left( \frac{1 - Z}{c} \right) \tag{42}$$

where $Z$ is a $[0, 1]$-valued random process with density $p(z) = \mathbb{1}_{z \in [0, 1]} e^{-z/(1 - e^{-z})-1}$.

1) Proof of Proposition IV.7: We still represent the statistical distribution of the first hitting time $T$ as (28)–(31). In this framework, we define the set $\Omega_2$ as the set of the realizations which fulfill the condition $M_L = 1$:

$$\Omega_2 = \{M_L = 1\} = \{N_1 \geq L\}.$$ 

Since the distribution of $N_1$ is given by (32), the probability of this set is simply $P(\Omega_2) = L^{-1}$. Given $\Omega_2$, the process $X(t)$ obeys the following evolution: before $e^{b_k}T_1$, it evolves without shortcut, and arrives at the string $n^j$; at time $e^{b_k}T_2$, by shortcut $S_1$, the process jumps at string $n^j(k+1)2^k - k + 1 - j$; finally, the process goes to the final string. Furthermore, the statistical distribution of $T_2$ given $\Omega_1$ is the statistical distribution of $T_1$ given $\tau_2$, $\tau_3 > \tau_1$, where the $\tau_j$ are independent random variables with exponential distributions and means 1:

$$P(\tau_1 > \tau/\Omega_2) = \frac{P(\tau_2, \cdots, \tau_L > \tau)}{P(\tau_2, \cdots, \tau_L > \tau)} = \int_0^\infty d\tau_1 e^{-\tau} \left( \int_\tau^\infty d\tau_2 e^{-\tau_2} \right)^{L-1} = e^{-L\tau}.$$ 

The result of the proposition then follows readily.

2) Proof of Corollary IV.8: We adopt the same notations as (28)–(31). We add a subscript $i = 1, \cdots, N$ to each quantity, which stands for the labels of the $N$ independent processes. The set $\Omega_N$ is then defined as

$$\Omega_N = \left\{ \inf_{i=1, \cdots, N} M_{L,i} = 1 \right\}.$$ 

The probability of the complementary set is

$$P(\Omega_N^c) = (1 - P(M_{L,1} = 1))^N = (1 - L^{-1})^N \frac{e^{-c}}{c}$$

where $c = Nk/L$. The global first hitting time is the minimum of the first hitting times corresponding to each process:

$$T = \inf_{\tau \in \Omega_N^c} T_i$$

where the $T_i$ are independent and identically distributed random variables defined as in (28)–(31). Furthermore, given $\Omega_N$, the statistical distribution of $T$ is

$$T = \inf_{\tau \in \Omega_N^c} T_i$$

where $I = \{i = 1, \cdots, N \text{ such that } M_{L,i} = 1\}$ and $T_i$ are independent and identically distributed random variables defined as (39). We have

$$P(|I| = j/\Omega_N) = P(|I| = j/|I| \geq 1) = \frac{P(|I| = j)}{\sum_{j'=1}^N P(|I| = j')}$$

For any $j'$, the probability that $|I|$ is equal to $j'$ is the probability that $j'$ of the $N$ processes satisfy $M_{L,i} = 1$, and that the other ones satisfy $M_{L,i} > 1$. Since $P(M_{L,i} = 1) = L^{-1}$, this implies

$$P(|I| = j') = C_L^{N-j'} L^{-j'} (1 - L^{-1})^{N-j'}.$$ 

For $N = cL$ and $L \gg 1$, the binomial distribution becomes equivalent to a Poisson distribution:

$$P(|I| = j') = e^{-c'} \frac{c'^j}{j!}$$

and, consequently,

$$P(|I| = j/\Omega_N) = \frac{e^{-c'} \frac{c'^j}{j!}}{1 - e^{-c'} \frac{c'^j}{j!}}, \quad \text{for } j \geq 1.$$ 

Thus,

$$P(T \geq t/\Omega_N) = \sum_{j \geq 1} P(|I| = j, T_i \geq t) \forall i \in I/\Omega_N$$

$$= \sum_{j \geq 1} \frac{e^{-c'} \frac{c'^j}{j!}}{1 - e^{-c'} \frac{c'^j}{j!}} P(T_i \geq t/\Omega_N)^j.$$ 

Since $P(T_i \geq 2e^{b_k}k \tau/\Omega_2) = \exp(-\tau)$, we get, by summing,

$$P(T \geq 2e^{b_k}k \tau/\Omega_2) = \frac{\exp(-c^\tau) - 1}{c^\tau - 1}.$$ 

The interested reader can then check that this is exactly the statistical distribution of the random variable defined by (42).

F. Optimization of the Mutation Probability

In the following, we investigate the influence of $c$ (for stochastic $c/L$ mutation) on the time to convergence of the $(1 +
1)-ES process on long $k$-path problems. This shows that the best mutation rate is $c/l$.

**Proposition IV.9:** Let us assume that the mutation probability is $c/l$.

1) For large $l$, the first hitting time $T_d$ obeys the statistical distribution of $e^{d-1}d^{-k}T_1$, where $T_1$ is as described in Section IV. In particular, its mean is

$$E[T_d] \approx \frac{c^d}{l} \frac{p^{d+1}}{k \ln(l/k)}.$$ (43)

2) The best choice for $d$ is $d = k$.

**Proof:** The same arguments as for the case $d = 1$ yield the result. The only difference comes from the fact that the waiting times $T_S_i$ for the shortcuts $S_j$ obey different distributions. Indeed, for each instant, the probability that the shortcut $S_j$ occurs is

$$P(S_j) = \left(\frac{d}{l}\right)^k \left(1 - \frac{d}{l}\right)^{l-k} \approx d^k e^{-d}l^{-k}$$

so that the statistical distribution of $T_S_j$ is given by

$$P(T_j > c^d l^{-k} \tau) = \left(1 - P(S_j)\right)^{c^d \tau} \approx \exp(-\tau)$$

which proves that $T_S_j$ obeys an exponential distribution with mean $c^d l^{-k}$. The remainder of the proof is then exactly the same as for the case $d = 1$.

**G. Discussion and Comparison of Different Algorithms**

In this subsection, we discuss the asymptotic behavior for large $l$ and fixed $k$ of different evolution strategies. The main result is that all population-based evolution strategies are less efficient than a $(1 + 1)$-ES. Moreover, the best strategy to minimize the time to convergence is to run several independent $(1 + 1)$-ES processes simultaneously.

This latter result has already been stated in Section IV-E:

**Corollary IV.8** shows that, with $d/k$ independent processes ($c > 1$) evolving simultaneously, the first hitting time of the fastest process is about $l^{1/d}$ with very high probability $(1 - e^{-c})$. Recall that, with one process $X(t)$, the first hitting time is about $l^{1/d}/\ln(l)$ (Proposition IV.1). Independent processes are therefore very advantageous, and much more rapid than one process in terms of the number of generations, as well as in terms of the number of fitness evaluations.

Consider, now, a number of processes that communicate together by exchanging the best-so-far string, as in the case of a $(1 + 1)$-ES. Expected first hitting time is necessarily longer than that of $N$ processes evolving independently. This is due to the fact that the order of shortcut occurrence determines the convergence time (as explained in Section IV-B). More precisely, the only way to get a different order of convergence time is that the event $\Omega_1$ happens for some parent: the shortcut $S_j$ is then the first shortcut to occur. Exchanging the best-so-far string forces the $N$ processes to achieve shortcuts at the same order among the families $S_j$. In fact, the string resulting from the first shortcut contaminates, more or less quickly, the other processes because of the selection pressure.

In the case of a $(1 + \lambda)$-ES, the string resulting from the first shortcut immediately colonizes the population. But the expected time for a shortcut and for any improvement gets $N$ times smaller; hence, the expected first hitting time is $N$ times smaller than that of a single process. Hence, the number of evaluations remains the same, and there is no advantage to increasing $\lambda$.

Consider now a $(\mu + \lambda)$-ES with $\lambda = \alpha t$, starting at string $e_i$. Due to elitism, the $\mu$ parents are always on the path. If a shortcut occurs, it takes a time of order $\sum_{t=1}^{l} l/(\alpha t)$ [so less than $l\alpha^{-1} \ln(\mu_t)$] for the string resulting from the shortcut to dominate the population. It is then very unlikely that another shortcut (exponential distribution) happens within this time, and happens first. An upper bound of this probability is given in the following. Suppose a shortcut different from $S_i$ happens for one of the $\mu$ parents. The probability that the shortcut $S_j$ happens for one of the remaining $(\mu - 1)$ parents, within a time $l\alpha^{-1} \ln(\mu_t)$ (even if it happens after another contaminating shortcut), is

$$P\left(\inf_{i=1}^{\mu-1} T_i \leq \frac{l \ln(\mu_t)}{\alpha}\right) = 1 - P\left(T_i > \frac{l \ln(\mu_t)}{\alpha}\right)^{\mu-1} \approx 1 - \exp\left(-\frac{l \alpha^{-1} \ln(\mu_t)}{\mu}\right).$$

If $k = 2$ and $\mu = O(l)$, this probability is 1 as $l$ goes to infinity; hence, the event $\Omega_2$ happens before the first shortcut colonizes the population. However, this is not the probability of the event $\Omega_1$, but an upper bound ($\Omega_2$ does not necessarily happen first). And, as explained above, $\mu$ independent processes are obviously more advantageous, even in this case.

If $k \geq 3$, then the probability tends to zero as $l$ goes to infinity [even if $\mu = O(l)$]. Hence, all $\mu$ individuals follow the first unlucky shortcut, and lose any chance of realizing the event $\Omega_1$. $(\mu + \lambda)$-ES only speeds the convergence with a factor of $\lambda$ in terms of the number of generations, and implies no gain in the number of fitness evaluations.

**V. Summary and Conclusion**

This paper investigates the behavior of a $(1 + 1)$-ES process using the $l/l$ bit-flipping mutation on Rudolph’s long $k$ paths in the asymptotic framework $l \gg 1$. Both cases of variable and fixed $k$ values are addressed.

First, for $k = \alpha^2$, we prove that the expected convergence time is exponential. Shortcuts speed up the convergence only if $\alpha < 1/2$. Otherwise (if $\alpha > 1/2$), the process reaches the solution by following the whole path before any shortcut occurs.

Second, in the case of a fixed value of $k$, the expected first hitting time $T$ is equal to $e^{\rho+1}/k \ln(l/k)$ (at the first order with respect to $l$). The normalized variance of $T$ goes to 0 as $l \to \infty$ at a very slow rate. Further, the study of the statistical distribution of convergence time $T$ shows an anomalous peak close to zero, corresponding to the event $\text{shortcut } S_i \text{ happens first}$. This event happens with probability $l^{-1}$, and yields a convergence time that is a factor of $P$ smaller than the expected value $E[T]$. Therefore, the best strategy for taking advantage of this distribution is to perform $O(l)$ independent $(1 + 1)$-ES processes, so that one of these processes is very likely to realize the exceptional event. On the other hand, population-based processes limit diversity in shortcut occurrence, drifting all individuals to
blindly follow the first occurring shortcut. This implies the same number of evaluations as with a $(1 + 1)$-ES.

Finally, expected convergence time distribution is given for any mutation rate $d/l$, $d > 0$. As expected, the smallest convergence time is obtained with a $k/l$ mutation probability.

A number of interesting issues are raised by the results of this paper on the long $k$-path problem.

- For fixed $k$, independent parallel $(1 + 1)$-ES processes perform considerably better with no migration than they perform with migration of fit individuals between the processes. Equivalently, increasing the population size decreases the convergence speed in the number of evaluations and generations compared to independent $(1 + 1)$-ES processes.

- EA dynamics can be very sensitive to rare events related to the exploration properties of the $1/l$ mutation (for fixed $k$), shortcuts yield a very big variance in convergence time). This phenomenon is confirmed by experimental work [12], which demonstrates that exceptional properties of operators sometimes reflect EA behavior more accurately than average typical properties do. However, EA dynamics are no longer sensitive to shortcuts for $k \geq \sqrt{l}$, resulting in a convergence behavior that is predictable.

- This study provides upper bounds on the complexity of simple search procedures in $l$-dimensional spaces, for large $l$ values, as detailed below.

If we combine the complexity results of this paper with some previous results, we conclude that the convergence time of mutation-only hill climbers ranges from a linear (one-max) to an exponential (long $k$-path) rate in terms of $l$. In the one-max case, convergence in the number of fitness evaluations is quicker with the 1-bit-flip mutation than it is with the $1/l$ mutation [5], whereas the opposite happens for the long $k$-path problem. On the other hand, random walks directed by both mutations require considerably better with no migration than they perform with migration of fit individuals between the processes. Equivalently, increasing the population size decreases the convergence speed in the number of evaluations and generations compared to independent $(1 + 1)$-ES processes.

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Note, finally, that another important result follows from this study, as it answers the question: Is there a long path for a $(1 + 1)$-ES? Indeed, in the case $k = 1$, and $\alpha \geq 1/2$, the evolutionary process follows the path, and the convergence time is exponential. As for other algorithms, one can still wonder whether such a long path exists. Yet, the notion of “following a path” has to be defined for population-based algorithms. Partial answers to these questions are given in [11], where a controlled path fitness function is constructed so that the crossover and mutation evolutionary algorithms empirically follow a path that has been arbitrarily chosen in the search space.

To sum up, long paths (and more generally, controlled paths) provide an example of smooth and unimodal landscapes on which the EA convergence time can be very long and predictable. An interesting but currently unanswered question is: Can real-world problems present such a long-path structure? Note that there exist physical systems (spin glass [2]) which evolve very slowly toward an equilibrium state, through successive unstable states (the glass of medieval cathedrals, for example, is now reaching its final equilibrium state, more crystalline and fragile, after 400 years of slow decay).

**References**


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