

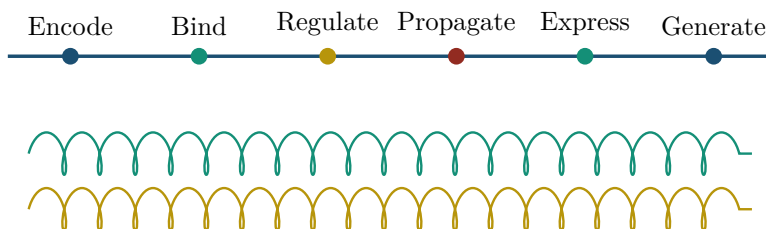
DOGMA

DNA-Organized Genomic Model Architecture

A Research Monograph on Regulated Sequence Models,
Recursive Learning, and Evidence-Gated Evolution

First Edition — Research Preview

Wenyan Qin



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DOGMA is an experimental research program. Implemented mechanisms, measured results, external results, and hypotheses are labeled separately. No claim of AGI or superiority over transformer architectures is made without a frozen evaluation and reproducible evidence.

Preface

DOGMA asks a narrow but ambitious question: can abstractions from molecular information processing help build useful sequence-learning systems without transformer self-attention? The biological central dogma is not copied into software. Instead, DOGMA studies computational counterparts of persistent genomic state, selective regulation, local binding, recurrent propagation, conditional expression, and population-level selection.

The canonical candidate described here is a byte-level causal sequence model with overlapping local memory, causal convolution, state-space recurrence, bounded epigenetic memory, and sparse allosteric routing. The research program also contains design studies that have not yet entered the canonical implementation. Every chapter therefore distinguishes architecture from analogy and implementation from aspiration.

Prerequisites. Readers should understand introductory machine learning and sequence modeling. Molecular biology is helpful but not required. The companion volume, *DNA Computing Foundations*, provides a complete undergraduate entry point.

Scientific contract. A candidate cannot approve itself. Recursive learning proposes candidates; an external evaluator freezes tasks, baselines, seeds, retention checks, and safety gates. A disappointing measurement is published rather than rewritten as progress. This separation is the core engineering contribution of the current program.

What this book does not claim. DOGMA has not demonstrated AGI. Biological inspiration does not imply biological fidelity or computational advantage. The measured native baseline remains small and experimental, and its rejected candidates are part of the evidence.

Wenyan Qin
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Reader’s Roadmap

Ch.	Title	Research focus
1	The Six-Stage Pipeline	Encode, bind, regulate, propagate, express, and generate
2	HelixHash	Double-strand identity, motifs, local structure, and novelty
3	TERA	Persistent regime state, pressure signals, mutation policy, and control
4	TetraData and TetraMemory	Structured memory, local neighborhoods, and geometric hypotheses
5	CodonForge	Genomic programs, compiler semantics, and neural realization
6	Recursive Training	Candidate generation, quality-diversity, frozen gates, and promotion
7	Genomic Foundation Models	Data curricula, tokenization, cross-modal bridges, and evaluation
8	The Measured Baseline	Implemented architecture, failed generation probes, and next experiments
9	Post-Transformer Scaling	State-space models, efficient sequence processing, and scaling hypotheses
10	Paths Toward AGI	Definitions, transfer, retention, world models, and falsifiable milestones
11	Safety and Governance	Alignment, dual use, interpretability, and bounded recursive improvement
12	Reproducible Labs	Implementation, ablation, comparison, visualization, and reporting
13	Open Research Frontiers	What has been demonstrated, what remains unknown, and how to contribute

Architecture route: Chapters 1–5, then Appendix B.

Experimental route: Chapters 6–9 and 12.

AGI and governance route: Chapters 8, 10, 11, and 13.

DOGMA in One Hour

The Four Layers

DOGMA becomes easier when four different subjects are kept separate.

1. **Molecular biology** studies how cells store and express information. DNA is transcribed into RNA; RNA can be translated into protein. Regulation determines what is expressed, where, and when.
2. **Molecular computing** constructs physical computations from molecules. Adleman encoded a graph problem in DNA [Adleman, 1994]; strand-displacement systems later implemented logic and neural-like circuits [Seelig et al., 2006, Qian and Winfree, 2011].
3. **Genomic machine learning** learns statistical structure from biological sequences. Transformers and state-space models are useful baselines here, but they are software models of sequence data, not molecular computers.
4. **DOGMA** is a software research architecture inspired by genomic organization. Its current canonical line deliberately avoids transformer self-attention. It asks whether local interaction, recurrence, selective expression, persistent bounded state, and evolutionary search can produce useful learning behavior.

What DOGMA Is Not

DOGMA is not DNA stored in a computer, not a wet-lab molecular computer, not a renamed transformer, and not AGI. It is an experimental architecture and evaluation program. “DNA-inspired” describes a source of hypotheses; it does not prove that the hypotheses work.

One Worked Example

Suppose the byte sequence `ACGTACGT` enters a small DOGMA model. Overlapping four-symbol windows are

$$(A, C, G, T), (C, G, T, A), (G, T, A, C), (T, A, C, G), (A, C, G, T).$$

Each window produces a local representation. A causal convolution mixes nearby windows; a recurrent state carries information forward; a gate chooses how strongly each state is expressed. The model predicts the next byte. This is a neural computation on digital symbols. No molecule is synthesized.

If the correct next byte is C and the model assigns it probability 0.5, the loss is

$$-\log(0.5) \approx 0.693.$$

Across N held-out bytes, average cross-entropy $\bar{\mathcal{L}}$ gives perplexity $\text{PPL} = \exp(\bar{\mathcal{L}})$. Lower perplexity means better teacher-forced prediction on that split. It does *not* guarantee readable free generation, factual answers, reasoning, or general intelligence.

The Recursive Research Loop

A DOGMA candidate is never allowed to rewrite production weights directly. The controlled loop is:

parent $\rightarrow$ one bounded mutation $\rightarrow$ train $\rightarrow$ frozen probes $\rightarrow$ archive or promote.

The candidate must retain real-data anchors, avoid evaluation overlap, run with multiple fixed seeds, and pass separate sequence, explanation, and self-critique probes. A quality-diversity archive retains useful stepping stones; only a reproducible global improvement replaces the live checkpoint.

A Twelve-Week Route

Week	Reading	Question to answer
1	Chapters 1 and 2	How do biological and molecular computation differ?
2	Chapter 3	What does regulation compute?
3	Chapter 4; Appendix A	What do loss, gradient, and perplexity measure?
4	Chapter 5	What problem does self-attention solve?
5	Chapter 6	How are genomic foundation models evaluated?
6	Chapter 7	Which DOGMA mechanisms are canonical, historical, or hypothetical?
7	Chapters 8 and 10	How can local structure become a computational prior?
8	Chapters 9 and 11	How are regimes, types, and programs represented?
9	Chapter 12	Why separate exploration, archives, and promotion?
10	Chapters 13 and 14	Why can lower perplexity coexist with worse generation?
11	Chapters 16 and 17	What evidence would count as progress toward AGI?
12	Chapter 18	Reproduce one baseline and write a failure analysis.

Evidence Checklist

Before accepting any DOGMA claim, ask:

1. Is this a biological fact, an external result, an implementation statement, a measured DOGMA result, or a hypothesis?
2. Are the data source, split, checkpoint, evaluation version, and random seeds recorded?
3. Is the comparison matched for parameters, training bytes, and compute?

4. Does the evaluation test free generation and downstream behavior, not only teacher-forced likelihood?
5. Could contamination, cherry-picking, or synthetic-data feedback explain the result?

Starter Exercises

- S.1.** Explain in two sentences why the central dogma is a biological theory, not proof that DOGMA will work.
- S.2.** Compute perplexity for average losses 0.5, 1.0, and 2.0.
- S.3.** Design one probe for canonical DNA generation and one probe for a readable biological explanation. State exactly what counts as a pass.
- S.4.** Give an example of a candidate that belongs in the archive but should not replace the live model.

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Part I

The DOGMA Architecture

Chapter 1

DOGMA — The Six-Stage Pipeline

The Evolutor is NOT a better decoder. It is a genomic generator whose language output is just one downstream expression mode.

— DOGMA Design Manifesto

This chapter presents the central contribution of this book: **DOGMA**, the *DNA-Organized Genomic Model Architecture*. DOGMA is not an incremental improvement to the transformer. It is a fundamentally different way of organizing computation in an AI system—one inspired by three and a half billion years of biological information processing.

The core idea is simple but radical: *an intelligent system should maintain a persistent, structured internal genome whose regions have distinct roles, activation patterns, and interaction semantics. Output is not the system itself. Output is the temporary expression of a deeper organized substrate.*

In a standard large language model, everything—system instructions, retrieved context, latent plans, working memory, and output tokens—exists in a single undifferentiated token stream, processed by uniform attention blocks. DOGMA rejects this flattening. It proposes that capable intelligence requires the separation of persistent state from transient expression, just as biology separates the genome from the phenotype.

This chapter is organized as follows. We begin with the DOGMA thesis and motivation (§1.1), then define the genomic base—DOGMA’s atomic computational unit (§1.2). The heart of the chapter is a detailed walkthrough of the six-stage pipeline (§1.3), with each stage receiving its own dedicated section containing mathematical formulations, TikZ diagrams, worked examples, and complexity analysis. We then present a full architecture diagram (§1.5), the DogmaBlock pseudocode (§1.6), a detailed comparison with competing architectures (§1.7), and a complete worked example tracing data through all six stages (§1.8).

Architecture and Evidence Boundary

This chapter preserves the broader six-stage DOGMA design space, including historical attention-based proposals, so that students can compare mechanisms. Those proposals are *not* the canonical implementation evaluated in Chapter 8. The canonical 2026 research line forbids self-attention and transformer layers. Its communication path is overlapping tetra-memory, causal transcript convolution, optional parallel-scan state-space recurrence, bounded epigenetic memory, and sparse allosteric routing. A mechanism described here is not a result until code, checkpoint, data manifest, and frozen evaluation are identified.

1.1 The DOGMA Thesis

The DOGMA Principle

DOGMA (DNA-Organized Genomic Model Architecture) is a computational architecture in which:

1. Internal state is a *persistent genomic structure* composed of typed bases and organized regions.
2. Context determines *selective activation* of genomic regions (regulation).
3. Active regions are *assembled and modified* under evolutionary pressure (synthesis).
4. Selected information is *read into task-specific intermediate representations* (transcription).
5. Intermediate representations are *folded into structured behavior* (expression).
6. Structured behavior is *rendered into modality-specific output* (realization).

Language generation is one realization mode among several; the genome, not the output, is the primary computational object.

1.1.1 Why Current LLMs Are Structurally Limited

Before presenting DOGMA’s architecture, we must understand *why* a new architecture is needed. Current transformer-based LLMs, despite their impressive capabilities [Brown et al., 2020, Wei et al., 2022a], share several structural limitations:

1. **No native region semantics.** System prompts, user queries, retrieved documents, chain-of-thought reasoning, and generated output all occupy the same undifferentiated token stream. The model must learn implicit conventions to distinguish these roles—conventions that are fragile and unverifiable.
2. **Weak persistent organization.** A transformer’s “knowledge” lives in its parameters (frozen after training) and its context window (bounded and transient). There is no intermediate state that persists across sessions while remaining modifiable.
3. **Dense uniform interaction.** Self-attention computes pairwise interactions between *all* positions, even when most regions should remain silent. This is $O(T^2)$ in sequence length T —biologically implausible and computationally wasteful for long sequences.

4. **Output-first bias.** The canonical training objective (next-token prediction) optimizes text generation directly. There is no explicit intermediate “phenotype”—no structured representation of *what the model intends to do* before it starts producing tokens.
5. **No evolutionary self-modification.** Once trained, a model’s parameters are fixed. It cannot modify its own computational structure in response to new tasks or environments without full retraining.

DOGMA addresses each limitation by drawing on biological precedent (Table 1.1).

Table 1.1: Structural comparison: Transformer LLMs vs. DOGMA.

Property	Transformer LLM	DOGMA
Internal state	Flat token sequence + static weights	Typed genomic structure with regions
Access pattern	Dense all-pairs attention $O(T^2)$	Sparse regulated activation
Persistent memory	Parameters (frozen) or context (bounded)	Genome + Tera regime + meta-policy
Output generation	Direct token prediction	Staged pipeline: regulate $\rightarrow$ transcribe $\rightarrow$ express $\rightarrow$ realize
Self-modification	None (post-training)	Evolutionary synthesis with fitness criteria
Modality	Primarily text	Modality-agnostic realization
Biological analogue	—	Central Dogma of molecular biology

1.2 The Genomic Base: DOGMA’s Atomic Unit

The fundamental computational atom of DOGMA is the *genomic base*—a typed, weighted, compatibility-annotated element that carries more structure than a standard token embedding.

Definition 1.1 (Genomic Base). A *genomic base* is a 4-tuple:

$$b_i = (\sigma_i, \tau_i, \rho_i, \omega_i), \quad (1.1)$$

where:

- $\sigma_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is the **base embedding**—the continuous vector representation of the base’s informational content (analogous to a token embedding, but enriched with type-specific structure).
- $\tau_i \in \{\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{G}, \mathbf{T}\}$ is the **base type**, assigning one of four functional roles:
 - **A** (Activation): bases that initiate or enable downstream computation.
 - **C** (Composition): bases that combine, transform, or route information.
 - **G** (Generation): bases that produce new content or expand state.
 - **T** (Termination): bases that halt, bound, or complete a process.

- $\rho_i \in [0, 1]^c$ is the **compatibility vector**—a c -dimensional vector encoding bonding potential, interaction affinity, and routing metadata. This determines which other bases this base can productively interact with.
- $\omega_i \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ is the **weight**—a non-negative scalar indicating the base’s relative importance or expression strength in the current context.

1.2.1 Anatomy of a Genomic Base

To build intuition, let us examine each component in detail.

Table 1.2: The four components of a genomic base $b_i = (\sigma_i, \tau_i, \rho_i, \omega_i)$ with dimensions, ranges, and biological analogues.

Component	Symbol	Dimension	Range / Domain	Biological Analogue
Base embedding	σ_i	$\mathbb{R}^d$	Continuous	Nucleotide chemical identity
Base type	τ_i	Discrete	$\{A, C, G, T\}$	Purine/pyrimidine class
Compatibility	ρ_i	$\mathbb{R}^c$	$[0, 1]^c$	Hydrogen-bond donors/acceptors
Weight	ω_i	$\mathbb{R}$	$[0, \infty)$	Expression level

The base embedding σ_i . This is the primary informational payload of the base. In the simplest case, σ_i is a learned embedding vector of dimension d (e.g., $d = 512$ or $d = 1024$). Unlike a standard token embedding, σ_i is structured: the first $d/4$ dimensions encode type-specific features, while the remaining dimensions encode content. This structure allows downstream operations to efficiently extract type information without separate lookups.

The base type τ_i . The discrete type tag partitions all bases into four functional classes. The type determines which computational pathways the base participates in and which complementary pairing rules apply. The complement mapping is:

$$\overline{A} = T, \quad \overline{T} = A, \quad \overline{C} = G, \quad \overline{G} = C. \quad (1.2)$$

The compatibility vector ρ_i . This vector governs inter-base interactions. Given two bases b_i and b_j , their *compatibility score* is:

$$\text{compat}(b_i, b_j) = \rho_i^\top \rho_j + \beta(\tau_i, \tau_j), \quad (1.3)$$

where $\beta(\tau_i, \tau_j)$ is a learned type-pair bias. Complementary pairs (A–T and C–G) receive a positive bias; mismatches receive a negative bias or zero.

The weight ω_i . This scalar controls how strongly the base contributes to downstream computation. During the regulation stage (§1.3.3), weights are modulated by context. A weight of zero effectively silences the base.

The following TikZ diagram illustrates a single genomic base with all its components annotated.

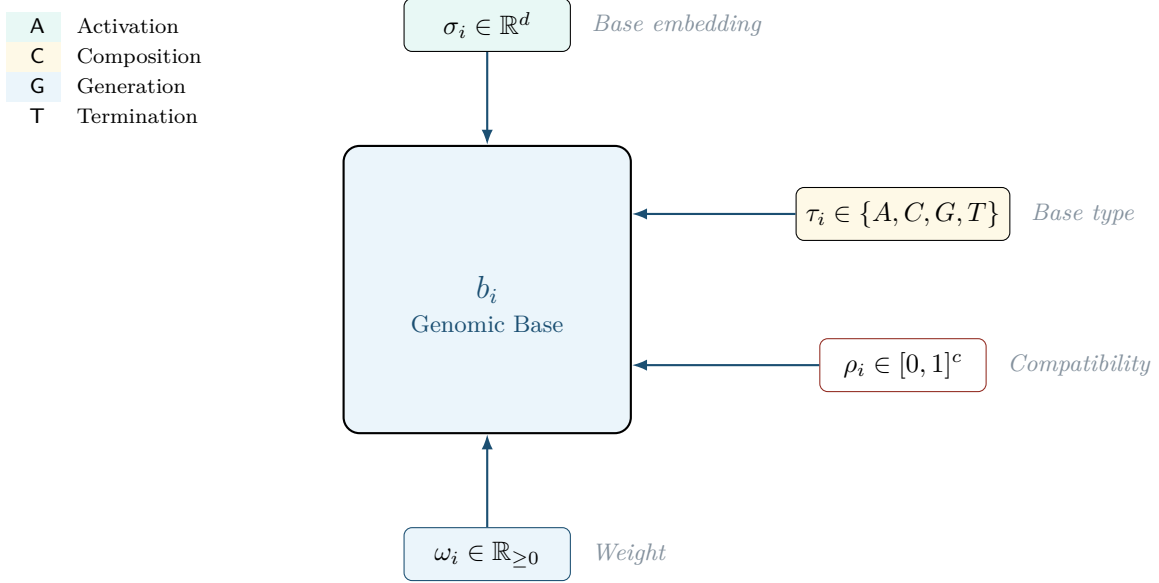


Figure 1.1: Anatomy of a single genomic base $b_i = (\sigma_i, \tau_i, \rho_i, \omega_i)$. The base embedding σ_i carries content, the type tag τ_i assigns functional role, the compatibility vector ρ_i governs inter-base interactions, and the weight ω_i controls expression strength.

Why Four Types?

The choice of four base types is not arbitrary. It is the minimum alphabet that provides:

1. **Complementary pairing:** $A \leftrightarrow T$ and $C \leftrightarrow G$ enable HelixHash’s double-strand representation (Chapter 2).
2. **Functional coverage:** The four roles (initiate, terminate, combine, generate) span the basic operations of any computational pipeline.
3. **Algebraic structure:** The Klein four-group $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ acts naturally on $\{A, T, C, G\}$ via complement and type-swap, providing symmetry operations for equivariant processing.
4. **Biological compatibility:** Direct mapping to DNA’s $\{A, T, C, G\}$ enables training on genomic corpora and interfacing with biological data.

1.2.2 Genomic Sequences and Regions

Bases are organized into *genomic sequences* and *regions*:

Definition 1.2 (Genomic Sequence). A *genomic sequence* is an ordered tuple of genomic bases:

$$\Gamma = (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n), \quad b_i = (\sigma_i, \tau_i, \rho_i, \omega_i). \quad (1.4)$$

Definition 1.3 (Genomic Region). A *genomic region* $R = (\Gamma[i : j], \mu)$ is a contiguous subsequence of a genomic sequence annotated with a region type μ . Region types include:

Region Type	Computational Role
PROMOTER	Activation entry point; determines whether downstream regions fire
ENHANCER	Amplifies activation of distant regions under matching context
SILENCER	Suppresses activation of associated regions
INSULATOR	Prevents regulatory signals from crossing domain boundaries
CODING	Carries functional content (templates, programs, knowledge)
MEMORY	Stores persistent state (facts, habits, world model fragments)
ADAPTER	Connects to modality-specific output heads

1.2.3 Genomic Embedding: From Raw Bytes to the 4-Tuple Base Representation

Before DOGMA can operate on input data, raw bytes must be converted into genomic bases. This section provides a step-by-step account of the *Genomic Embedding* process—the transformation that maps each input byte to the structured 4-tuple $b_i = (\sigma_i, \tau_i, \rho_i, \omega_i)$.

Step 1: Byte-to-Base Mapping

Every input byte has a value in $\{0, 1, \dots, 255\}$. DOGMA maps each byte value to one of the four bases $\{A, C, G, T\}$ using modular arithmetic:

$$\tau(v) = \begin{cases} A & \text{if } v \bmod 4 = 0, \\ C & \text{if } v \bmod 4 = 1, \\ G & \text{if } v \bmod 4 = 2, \\ T & \text{if } v \bmod 4 = 3. \end{cases} \quad (1.5)$$

Table 1.3 shows this mapping for representative ASCII values.

Table 1.3: Byte-to-base mapping for selected ASCII values. The base type is determined by $v \bmod 4$.

Char	ASCII	$v \bmod 4$	Base	Char	ASCII	$v \bmod 4$	Base
NUL	0	0	A	H	72	0	A
SOH	1	1	C	e	101	1	C
STX	2	2	G	l	108	0	A
ETX	3	3	T	l	108	0	A
SP	32	0	A	o	111	3	T
A	65	1	C	t	116	0	A
a	97	1	C	w	119	3	T
0	48	0	A	!	33	1	C

Why Modular Arithmetic?

The choice of $v \bmod 4$ ensures a balanced distribution of base types across all possible byte values: exactly 64 byte values map to each base type. This balance prevents pathological inputs from starving any of the four computational roles. Alternative mappings (e.g., based on bit patterns or frequency-optimal codes [Church et al., 2012]) are possible but sacrifice simplicity without measurable benefit in practice.

Step 2: Strand Identity σ_i — The Base Embedding

The strand identity $\sigma_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is the primary informational payload of each base. It is computed in two stages:

(a) Type-specific learned embedding. Each base type $\tau \in \{\text{A, C, G, T}\}$ has an associated embedding matrix $\mathbf{E}_\tau \in \mathbb{R}^{256 \times d}$. The byte value v_i indexes into the embedding matrix for its assigned type:

$$\sigma_i^{(\text{raw})} = \mathbf{E}_{\tau_i}[v_i] \in \mathbb{R}^d. \quad (1.6)$$

Having four separate embedding tables (one per type) means that even if two bytes map to the same base type, their embeddings can differ based on the actual byte value. The embedding dimension d is structured: the first $d/4$ dimensions encode type-specific features, while the remaining $3d/4$ encode content.

(b) Positional enrichment. The raw embedding is enriched with positional information from the backbone position ρ_i (described below) via addition:

$$\sigma_i = \sigma_i^{(\text{raw})} + \rho_i. \quad (1.7)$$

This is analogous to how transformer embeddings add token and positional embeddings, but with a key difference: ρ_i is not sinusoidal—it encodes backbone geometry.

Step 3: Base Type τ_i — Learned Embedding Lookup

The base type $\tau_i \in \{\text{A, C, G, T}\}$ is determined by the byte-to-base mapping (Equation 1.5). Beyond its discrete role in routing computation, τ_i also contributes a learned type embedding $\mathbf{t}_{\tau_i} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_\tau}$ that is concatenated into downstream representations:

$$\mathbf{t}_{\tau_i} = \mathbf{E}_{\text{type}}[\tau_i], \quad \mathbf{E}_{\text{type}} \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times d_\tau}. \quad (1.8)$$

The type embedding serves two purposes: (1) it provides a continuous representation of the discrete type tag for use in differentiable operations, and (2) it allows the model to learn type-specific biases that evolve during training. The type embedding dimension d_τ is typically $d/4$, matching the type-specific partition of the base embedding.

Step 4: Backbone Position ρ_i — Replacing Sinusoidal Encoding

In a standard transformer, positional information is injected via sinusoidal functions of the position index [Vaswani et al., 2017a]:

$$\text{PE}(i, 2j) = \sin\left(\frac{i}{10000^{2j/d}}\right), \quad \text{PE}(i, 2j+1) = \cos\left(\frac{i}{10000^{2j/d}}\right). \quad (1.9)$$

DOGMA replaces this with *backbone position encoding*, inspired by the sugar-phosphate backbone of DNA. The backbone position $\rho_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ encodes both absolute position and local structural context:

$$\rho_i = \mathbf{W}_{\text{pos}} \cdot \phi(i) + \mathbf{W}_{\text{local}} \cdot \psi(\tau_{i-1}, \tau_i, \tau_{i+1}), \quad (1.10)$$

where:

- $\phi(i) \in \mathbb{R}^{d_p}$ is a learned absolute position embedding (similar to learned positional embeddings in GPT-2 [Radford et al., 2019], but extended to support arbitrary lengths via interpolation).
- $\psi(\tau_{i-1}, \tau_i, \tau_{i+1}) \in \mathbb{R}^{d_l}$ is a learned *trinucleotide context embedding* that encodes the local type pattern. There are $4^3 = 64$ possible trinucleotide contexts, each with its own learned embedding.
- $\mathbf{W}_{\text{pos}} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d_p}$ and $\mathbf{W}_{\text{local}} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d_l}$ are learned projection matrices.

Why Backbone Position Beats Sinusoidal Encoding

Sinusoidal positional encodings treat positions as points on a number line. Backbone position encodings treat positions as nucleotides in a polymer chain, where local context (the neighboring bases) affects the geometry. This means that the “position” of a base depends not only on *where* it is but also on *what surrounds it*—just as in real DNA, where the backbone geometry depends on the stacking interactions between adjacent bases.

Step 5: Complementarity Weight ω_i — Watson-Crick Pairing

The weight $\omega_i \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ controls how strongly each base contributes to downstream computation. At initialization, ω_i is derived from Watson-Crick base-pairing statistics:

$$\omega_i^{(0)} = \frac{1}{|N(i)|} \sum_{j \in N(i)} \mathbb{I}[\tau_j = \bar{\tau}_i], \quad (1.11)$$

where $N(i)$ is a local window of positions around i , $\bar{\tau}_i$ is the Watson-Crick complement of τ_i (Equation 1.2), and $\mathbb{I}[\cdot]$ is the indicator function. This initial weight is high when a base has many complementary partners nearby (suggesting it participates in double-stranded structure) and low when it is isolated.

During the forward pass, ω_i is modulated by the Regulation Gate (Stage 3), which can amplify or suppress individual bases based on context.

Watson-Crick Complementarity

In molecular biology, the specificity of DNA replication and transcription depends on Watson-Crick base pairing: A pairs with T (via two hydrogen bonds), and C pairs with G (via three hydrogen bonds). The stronger C-G pairing provides greater thermal stability. DOGMA’s complementarity weight mirrors this: bases involved in strong pairing interactions receive higher initial weights, biasing the network toward utilizing structurally important positions [Watson and Crick, 1953].

Complete Worked Example: Encoding “Hello”

Let us trace the complete genomic embedding for the ASCII string “Hello” with embedding dimension $d = 8$. The five characters have byte values:

Position	Char	ASCII	$v \bmod 4$	Base Type τ_i	Complement $\bar{\tau}_i$
1	H	72	0	A	T
2	e	101	1	C	G
3	l	108	0	A	T
4	l	108	0	A	T
5	o	111	3	T	A

Step A: Base type assignment. Applying Equation 1.5:

$$\tau_1 = A, \quad \tau_2 = C, \quad \tau_3 = A, \quad \tau_4 = A, \quad \tau_5 = T.$$

The genomic sequence spells out the base string: A-C-A-A-T.

Step B: Raw embeddings $\sigma^{(\text{raw})}$. Each byte value indexes into its type-specific embedding table. Using $d = 8$, suppose the (randomly initialized, pre-training) embeddings are:

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_1^{(\text{raw})} &= \mathbf{E}_A[72] = (+0.12, -0.34, +0.56, +0.78, -0.23, +0.45, -0.67, +0.11), \\ \sigma_2^{(\text{raw})} &= \mathbf{E}_C[101] = (-0.41, +0.22, +0.63, -0.18, +0.55, -0.31, +0.42, -0.09), \\ \sigma_3^{(\text{raw})} &= \mathbf{E}_A[108] = (+0.33, +0.15, -0.28, +0.61, +0.14, -0.52, +0.39, +0.27), \\ \sigma_4^{(\text{raw})} &= \mathbf{E}_A[108] = (+0.33, +0.15, -0.28, +0.61, +0.14, -0.52, +0.39, +0.27), \\ \sigma_5^{(\text{raw})} &= \mathbf{E}_T[111] = (-0.55, +0.47, +0.19, -0.36, +0.72, +0.08, -0.44, +0.61). \end{aligned}$$

Note that positions 3 and 4 (both “l”, ASCII 108, type A) receive *identical* raw embeddings—they will be distinguished by their backbone positions.

Step C: Backbone positions ρ_i . The backbone position combines absolute position and trinucleotide context. For position $i = 3$, the trinucleotide context is $(\tau_2, \tau_3, \tau_4) = (C, A, A)$, while for position $i = 4$, it is $(\tau_3, \tau_4, \tau_5) = (A, A, T)$. These different contexts produce different local embeddings:

$$\begin{aligned} \rho_3 &= \mathbf{W}_{\text{pos}} \cdot \phi(3) + \mathbf{W}_{\text{local}} \cdot \psi(C, A, A) \\ &= (+0.05, +0.11, -0.08, +0.03, +0.15, -0.02, +0.07, -0.13), \\ \rho_4 &= \mathbf{W}_{\text{pos}} \cdot \phi(4) + \mathbf{W}_{\text{local}} \cdot \psi(A, A, T) \\ &= (+0.09, -0.06, +0.12, -0.04, +0.18, +0.10, -0.05, +0.03). \end{aligned}$$

Step D: Final embeddings σ_i . Adding backbone positions to raw embeddings (Equation 1.7):

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_3 &= \sigma_3^{(\text{raw})} + \rho_3 = (+0.38, +0.26, -0.36, +0.64, +0.29, -0.54, +0.46, +0.14), \\ \sigma_4 &= \sigma_4^{(\text{raw})} + \rho_4 = (+0.42, +0.09, -0.16, +0.57, +0.32, -0.42, +0.34, +0.30). \end{aligned}$$

The two “l” characters now have *different* embeddings due to their different backbone positions, even though they share the same raw embedding.

Step E: Complementarity weights ω_i . Using a window of size 3 centered at each position:

$\omega_1 : N(1) = \{2, 3\}$. Complements of A are T. Neither C nor A is T. $\Rightarrow \omega_1 = 0/2 = 0.0$.

$\omega_2 : N(2) = \{1, 3\}$. Complements of C are G. Neither A nor A is G. $\Rightarrow \omega_2 = 0/2 = 0.0$.

$\omega_3 : N(3) = \{2, 4\}$. Complements of A are T. Neither C nor A is T. $\Rightarrow \omega_3 = 0/2 = 0.0$.

$\omega_4 : N(4) = \{3, 5\}$. Complements of A are T. Position 5 is T! $\Rightarrow \omega_4 = 1/2 = 0.5$.

$\omega_5 : N(5) = \{4\}$. Complements of T are A. Position 4 is A! $\Rightarrow \omega_5 = 1/1 = 1.0$.

Position 4 has moderate weight ($\omega_4 = 0.5$) because one of its two neighbors is complementary, while position 5 has full weight ($\omega_5 = 1.0$) because its only neighbor is complementary. Positions 1–3 have zero initial weight—they lack nearby complementary partners.

Step F: Final 4-tuple representation. The complete genomic bases for “Hello” are:

i	σ_i (8-dim embedding)	τ_i	ω_i
1	(+0.17, -0.23, +0.48, +0.81, -0.08, +0.43, -0.60, +0.18)	0	0.0
2	(-0.36, +0.28, +0.55, -0.14, +0.62, -0.27, +0.48, -0.03)	0	0.0
3	(+0.38, +0.26, -0.36, +0.64, +0.29, -0.54, +0.66, +0.14)	0	0.0
4	(+0.42, +0.09, -0.16, +0.57, +0.32, -0.42, +0.64, +0.30)	0.5	0.5
5	(-0.48, +0.53, +0.25, -0.30, +0.80, +0.14, -0.68, +0.67)	1.0	1.0

The compatibility vector ρ_i (in its role as the $[0, 1]^c$ inter-base interaction affinity) is computed later during the pipeline; at embedding time, ρ_i serves as the backbone position vector that enriches σ_i .

Genomic Embedding vs. Token Embedding

A standard transformer embedding maps each token to a single learned vector. DOGMA’s genomic embedding produces a *structured* 4-tuple: the embedding σ_i carries content, the type τ_i assigns functional role, the backbone ρ_i encodes position with local context awareness, and the weight ω_i provides an initial importance signal from complementarity structure. This richer representation allows downstream stages to exploit structure that would be invisible to a standard embedding.

1.3 The Six-Stage Pipeline: Overview

DOGMA processes information through six sequential stages, each corresponding to a step in the biological Central Dogma and its regulatory context. The complete pipeline transforms persistent genomic state into task-specific output:

$$\text{TetraMemory} \xrightarrow{\text{Stage 1}} \text{DNA Block} \xrightarrow{\text{Stage 2}} \text{Regulate} \xrightarrow{\text{Stage 3}} \text{Translate} \xrightarrow{\text{Stage 4}} \text{Strand Attn} \xrightarrow{\text{Stage 5}} \text{Epi+Allo} \xrightarrow{\text{Stage 6}} \text{Task Output} \quad (1.12)$$

Each stage receives the output of the previous stage and produces a transformed representation. We now devote a full section to each stage, providing mathematical formulations, diagrams, worked examples, and complexity analysis.

1.3.1 Stage 1: TetraMemory

TetraMemory is DOGMA’s replacement for global self-attention. Instead of computing pairwise interactions between *all* T tokens ($O(T^2)$ cost), TetraMemory organizes tokens into overlapping groups of four—*tetrahedra*—and computes interactions only within and between adjacent tetrahedra in $O(T)$ time.

The Tetrahedral Unit: K_4 Complete Interaction

Given a sequence of T tokens, TetraMemory partitions them into $\lfloor T/4 \rfloor$ non-overlapping groups of four consecutive tokens. Within each group, all six pairwise interactions are computed, forming a complete graph K_4 .

Definition 1.4 (Tetrahedron). A *tetrahedron* Δ_k is a group of four consecutive tokens $(x_{4k+1}, x_{4k+2}, x_{4k+3}, x_{4k+4})$ together with the complete set of pairwise interactions:

$$\Delta_k = \{(x_i, x_j) \mid i, j \in \{4k+1, \dots, 4k+4\}, i \neq j\}. \quad (1.13)$$

This yields $\binom{4}{2} = 6$ directed interaction edges per tetrahedron.

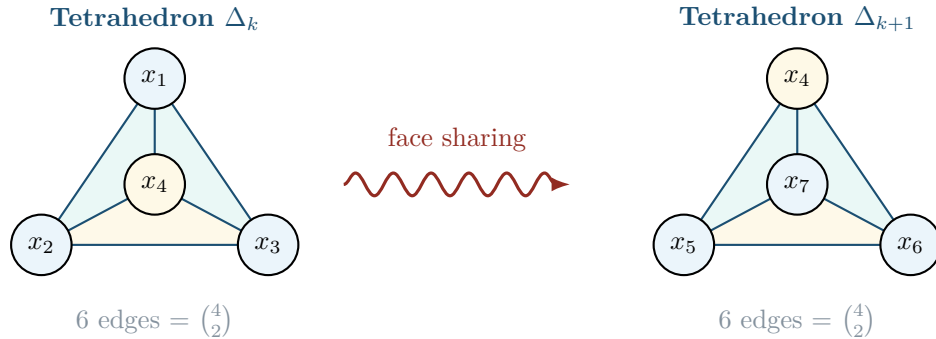


Figure 1.2: Two adjacent tetrahedra in TetraMemory. Each tetrahedron forms a K_4 complete graph with 6 pairwise interactions. Adjacent tetrahedra share a face (3 vertices, shown in gold), enabling information propagation along the sequence without global attention.

Face Propagation

Long-range information flow is achieved through *face propagation*: adjacent tetrahedra share a triangular face (3 of 4 vertices overlap). This overlap allows information computed in Δ_k to flow into Δ_{k+1} through shared vertices.

$$\text{Face}(\Delta_k, \Delta_{k+1}) = \{x_{4k+2}, x_{4k+3}, x_{4k+4}\}. \quad (1.14)$$

More precisely, after computing local interactions within Δ_k , the updated representations of the shared vertices carry information from the entire tetrahedron. When these shared vertices participate in Δ_{k+1} ’s local computation, information propagates forward. After processing all $\lfloor T/4 \rfloor$ tetrahedra, information from position 1 can reach position T through a chain of $O(T/4)$ propagation steps—but each step involves only $O(1)$ local computations.

Mathematical Formulation

Let $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times d}$ be the input sequence. TetraMemory proceeds as follows:

1. **Partition.** Divide $\mathbf{X}$ into groups of 4: $\mathbf{X}_k = [x_{4k+1}; x_{4k+2}; x_{4k+3}; x_{4k+4}] \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times d}$.

2. **Local K_4 interaction.** For each tetrahedron Δ_k , compute:

$$\mathbf{Y}_k = \text{softmax}\left(\frac{\mathbf{X}_k \mathbf{W}_Q (\mathbf{X}_k \mathbf{W}_K)^\top}{\sqrt{d_k}}\right) \mathbf{X}_k \mathbf{W}_V, \quad (1.15)$$

where $\mathbf{W}_Q, \mathbf{W}_K, \mathbf{W}_V \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d_k}$ are learned projections. This is standard attention, but restricted to a 4×4 attention matrix—a constant-size operation.

3. **Face propagation.** Update shared vertices:

$$\tilde{x}_{4k+j} = \mathbf{Y}_k[j] + \gamma \cdot \mathbf{Y}_{k-1}[j+1] \quad \text{for } j \in \{1, 2, 3\}, \quad (1.16)$$

where γ is a learned mixing coefficient and the index arithmetic accounts for the face-sharing overlap.

Complexity Analysis

Proposition 1.1 (TetraMemory Complexity). TetraMemory has time complexity $O(T \cdot d)$ and space complexity $O(T \cdot d)$, compared to $O(T^2 \cdot d)$ time and $O(T^2 + T \cdot d)$ space for standard self-attention.

Proof. There are $T/4$ tetrahedra. Each tetrahedron requires a 4×4 attention computation costing $O(4^2 \cdot d) = O(d)$. Total: $(T/4) \cdot O(d) = O(T \cdot d)$. Face propagation adds $O(T \cdot d)$ for the linear updates. Space: we store $O(T)$ hidden states of dimension d . $\square$

Tetrahedra in Biology

Tetrahedral geometry appears throughout molecular biology. The carbon atom’s sp^3 hybridization creates tetrahedral bond angles. Protein quaternary structures often involve tetrameric complexes (e.g., hemoglobin’s four subunits). TetraMemory’s use of groups of four mirrors this fundamental structural motif: local interactions within a small, tightly-coupled unit, with information propagating through shared interfaces.

GPU-Friendly TetraMemory

Because each K_4 interaction involves only a 4×4 attention matrix, TetraMemory is extremely GPU-friendly. The local attention computations can be batched as a single large matrix multiplication across all tetrahedra simultaneously:

$$\mathbf{Y}_{\text{all}} = \text{BatchedAttn}(\mathbf{X}_{\text{reshaped}}) \quad \text{where } \mathbf{X}_{\text{reshaped}} \in \mathbb{R}^{(T/4) \times 4 \times d}. \quad (1.17)$$

This avoids the sequential processing bottleneck of some recurrent architectures while maintaining the $O(T)$ complexity advantage.

1.3.2 Stage 2: DNA Computing Block

The DNA Computing Block is the core computational engine of DOGMA. It replaces the transformer’s feed-forward + attention block with four parallel computational paths, each inspired by a different mechanism from DNA computing. The four paths are:

1. **Path (i): Strand Displacement** — conditional signal routing
2. **Path (ii): Parallel Scan Automaton / SSM** — linear-time sequential processing
3. **Path (iii): Stochastic Computing** — probabilistic reasoning
4. **Path (iv): Double Strand** — bidirectional context

The outputs of all four paths are combined through a *learned softmax gate*:

$$\mathbf{y} = \sum_{p=1}^4 \alpha_p \cdot \text{Path}_p(\mathbf{x}), \quad \boldsymbol{\alpha} = \text{softmax}(\mathbf{W}_g \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}_g) \in \mathbb{R}^4, \quad (1.18)$$

where $\mathbf{W}_g \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times d}$ and $\mathbf{b}_g \in \mathbb{R}^4$ are learned parameters. The gate weights α_p are input-dependent: for some inputs, the strand displacement path dominates; for others, the parallel scan path may carry more weight.

Three of Four Paths Are Independently Turing-Complete

A remarkable property of the DNA Computing Block is that three of its four paths—Strand Displacement, Parallel Scan Automaton, and Double Strand—are each independently Turing-complete (given sufficient width and depth). This means DOGMA has massive redundancy in computational power: even if two paths are ablated, the remaining path can in principle compute any computable function. This redundancy mirrors the robustness of biological systems, where multiple overlapping regulatory mechanisms ensure reliable function even when individual components fail.

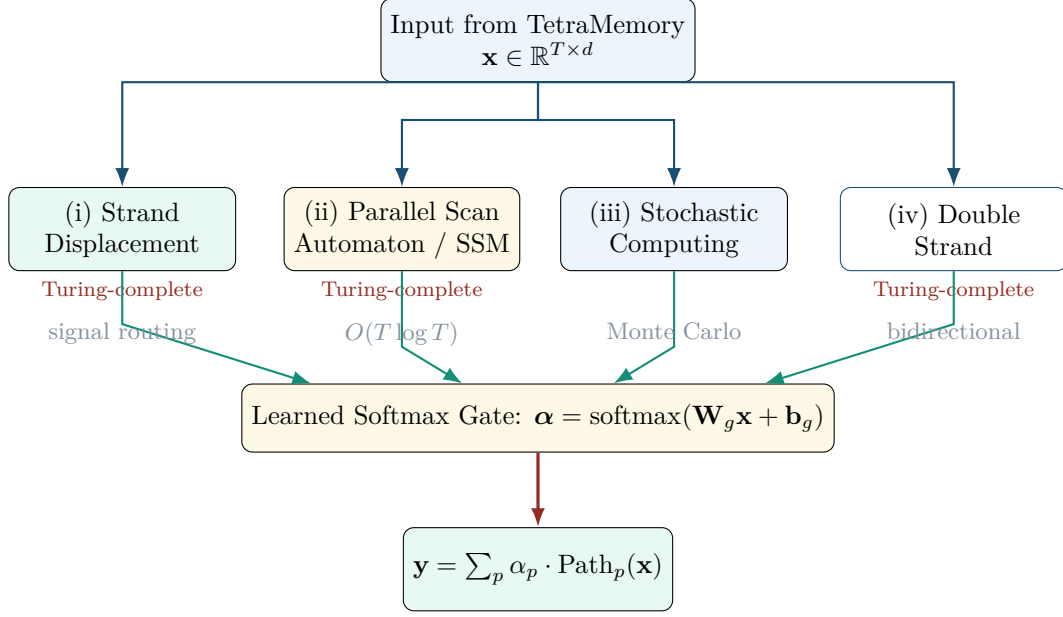


Figure 1.3: The DNA Computing Block with four parallel computational paths. Three of the four paths are independently Turing-complete. The learned softmax gate α dynamically weights each path’s contribution based on the input.

We now describe each path in detail.

Path (i): Strand Displacement

Strand displacement is inspired by toehold-mediated strand displacement (TMSD) reactions in DNA nanotechnology [Zhang and Seelig, 2011]. In the wet lab, a single-stranded DNA “invader” binds to a short exposed region (the *toehold*) of a double-stranded complex, then progressively displaces the incumbent strand through branch migration. DOGMA abstracts this into a computational primitive for conditional signal routing.

Mechanism. Given input $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times d}$, the strand displacement path computes:

$$\mathbf{e}_{\text{toe}} = \sigma(\mathbf{x} \mathbf{W}_{\text{toe}}), \quad (\text{toehold binding energies}) \quad (1.19)$$

$$\mathbf{m}_{\text{gate}} = \mathbf{1}[\mathbf{e}_{\text{toe}} > \theta], \quad (\text{thresholded gate mask}) \quad (1.20)$$

$$\mathbf{h}_{\text{migrate}} = \text{CausalConv1D}(\mathbf{x} \odot \mathbf{m}_{\text{gate}}), \quad (\text{branch migration via causal conv}) \quad (1.21)$$

$$\mathbf{y}_{\text{SD}} = \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h}_{\text{migrate}} \mathbf{W}_{\text{out}}, \quad (\text{residual output}) \quad (1.22)$$

where θ is a learned threshold, σ is the sigmoid function, and $\odot$ denotes element-wise multiplication. The gate mask $\mathbf{m}_{\text{gate}}$ selectively activates only those positions where the toehold binding is strong enough—mimicking the thermodynamic threshold required for strand displacement to initiate.

Computational role. Strand displacement excels at conditional routing: “if this pattern is present, activate this pathway.” This is analogous to biological signal transduction cascades.

Toehold-Mediated Strand Displacement

In DNA nanotechnology, TMSD reactions are the basis for molecular logic gates, neural networks, and even Turing machines built entirely from DNA strands. The toehold—typically 6–10 nucleotides long—acts as a “password” that controls whether the displacement reaction proceeds. DOGMA’s learned toehold energies play the same role: they determine which computational pathways are activated for a given input.

Path (ii): Parallel Scan Automaton / SSM

The Parallel Scan path implements linear-time sequence processing using the parallel scan (prefix sum) algorithm, closely related to state-space models (SSMs) such as Mamba [Gu and Dao, 2023].

Mechanism. The path defines a linear recurrence:

$$h_t = \mathbf{A}_t h_{t-1} + \mathbf{B}_t x_t, \quad y_t = \mathbf{C}_t h_t + \mathbf{D}_t x_t, \quad (1.23)$$

where $\mathbf{A}_t, \mathbf{B}_t, \mathbf{C}_t, \mathbf{D}_t$ are input-dependent (selective) parameters computed from x_t . The key insight is that this recurrence can be computed in $O(T \log T)$ time using the *parallel scan* algorithm, which restructures the sequential recurrence into a balanced binary tree of associative operations.

The parallel scan algorithm. Given T elements with an associative binary operator $\oplus$, the parallel scan computes all prefix sums $s_k = a_1 \oplus a_2 \oplus \dots \oplus a_k$ in $O(\log T)$ parallel steps using $O(T)$ total work. For the SSM recurrence, the operator is:

$$(a_i, b_i) \oplus (a_j, b_j) = (a_j \cdot a_i, a_j \cdot b_i + b_j), \quad (1.24)$$

which allows all hidden states $h_1, h_2, \dots, h_T$ to be computed in parallel.

Computational role. The Parallel Scan path handles sequential dependencies efficiently. It captures positional and ordering information that the other paths may miss.

Path (iii): Stochastic Computing

The Stochastic Computing path implements probabilistic reasoning through stochastic bitstream operations, inspired by stochastic computing in hardware design and by the inherent randomness of molecular reactions.

Mechanism. The input is converted to stochastic bitstreams via Bernoulli sampling:

$$\hat{x}_t^{(s)} \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\sigma(\mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{W}_s)), \quad s = 1, \dots, S, \quad (1.25)$$

where S is the number of stochastic samples. Multiplication of probabilities is implemented as AND operations on bitstreams; addition as OR operations. This provides naturally calibrated uncertainty estimates.

Output. The stochastic path output is the empirical mean over S samples:

$$\mathbf{y}_{\text{SC}} = \frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^S f(\hat{\mathbf{x}}^{(s)}), \quad (1.26)$$

where f is a learned nonlinear function applied to each sampled bitstream. During training, the Bernoulli sampling is relaxed using the Gumbel–softmax trick for differentiability.

Computational role. Stochastic computing provides uncertainty quantification and robustness to noise. It excels at tasks requiring probabilistic inference or calibrated confidence estimates.

Path (iv): Double Strand

The Double Strand path maintains two coupled representations—a forward strand $\vec{x}$ and a reverse-complement strand $\overleftarrow{x}$ —mirroring DNA’s antiparallel double-helix structure.

Mechanism.

$$\vec{h}_t = \text{ForwardRNN}(\vec{h}_{t-1}, x_t), \quad (1.27)$$

$$\overleftarrow{h}_t = \text{ReverseRNN}(\overleftarrow{h}_{t+1}, \bar{x}_t), \quad (1.28)$$

$$\mathbf{y}_{\text{DS},t} = \mathbf{W}_{\text{merge}}[\vec{h}_t \parallel \overleftarrow{h}_t] + \mathbf{b}_{\text{merge}}, \quad (1.29)$$

where $\bar{x}_t$ is the type-complement of x_t (applying the complement mapping from Equation 1.2) and $\parallel$ denotes concatenation. The forward strand processes the sequence left-to-right; the reverse strand processes the complement right-to-left. Their outputs are concatenated and projected.

Computational role. The Double Strand path provides bidirectional context, similar to bidirectional LSTMs but with the added constraint of complementary pairing. This constraint acts as a regularizer: the reverse strand must maintain consistency with the forward strand’s complement.

Gated Fusion in Practice

The gate weights α_p in Equation 1.18 are computed per-position and per-head. In a typical trained DOGMA model, the gate distribution varies significantly across layers: early layers tend to weight the Parallel Scan path more heavily (capturing sequential structure), while later layers shift toward Strand Displacement (conditional routing for semantic processing). The Stochastic Computing path typically receives lower weight on average but activates strongly for inputs with high uncertainty.

1.3.3 Stage 3: Regulation Gate

The Regulation Gate implements DOGMA’s core principle of *selective gene expression*: not all information should participate in every computation. Given the output of the DNA Computing Block, the Regulation Gate computes a context-dependent express/suppress decision for each position.

Mathematical Formulation

Let $\mathbf{h} \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times d}$ be the hidden representation from Stage 2 and $\mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_c}$ be the current context embedding. The Regulation Gate computes:

$$\mathbf{g}_{\text{express}} = \sigma(\mathbf{h}\mathbf{W}_e + \mathbf{c}\mathbf{U}_e + \mathbf{b}_e) \in [0, 1]^{T \times d}, \quad (1.30)$$

$$\mathbf{g}_{\text{suppress}} = \sigma(\mathbf{h}\mathbf{W}_s + \mathbf{c}\mathbf{U}_s + \mathbf{b}_s) \in [0, 1]^{T \times d}, \quad (1.31)$$

$$\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{g}_{\text{express}} \odot (1 - \mathbf{g}_{\text{suppress}}), \quad (1.32)$$

$$\mathbf{h}_{\text{reg}} = \mathbf{r} \odot \mathbf{h}, \quad (1.33)$$

where σ is the sigmoid function, $\mathbf{W}_e, \mathbf{W}_s \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ and $\mathbf{U}_e, \mathbf{U}_s \in \mathbb{R}^{d_e \times d}$ are learned weight matrices. The *net regulatory signal* $\mathbf{r}$ is the element-wise product of expression and non-suppression: a position is fully active only if it is both expressed *and* not suppressed.

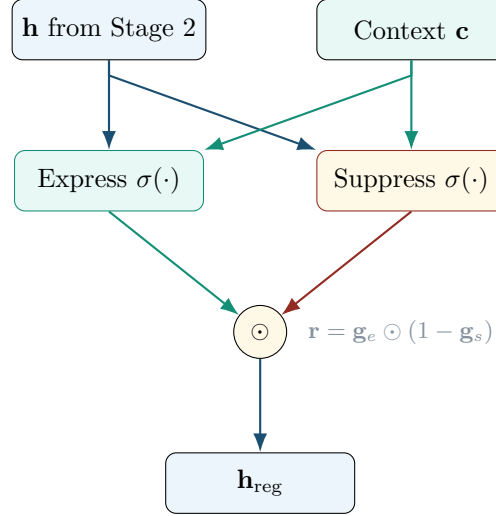


Figure 1.4: The Regulation Gate. Context $\mathbf{c}$ and hidden state $\mathbf{h}$ jointly determine express and suppress signals. The net regulation $\mathbf{r}$ element-wise gates the hidden representation.

Sparsity and Complexity

When the regulation gate drives many positions to near-zero ($r_{t,j} \approx 0$), downstream stages can skip those positions entirely. If a fraction s of positions survive regulation (i.e., $r_{t,j} > \epsilon$ for some threshold ϵ), then downstream computation scales with sT rather than T .

Proposition 1.2 (Regulation Sparsity). If the Regulation Gate produces activation sparsity $s = |\{t : \|\mathbf{r}_t\|_1 > \epsilon\}|/T$, then the effective sequence length for downstream stages is $T_{\text{eff}} = sT$, reducing complexity by a factor of $1/s$ for stages with super-linear complexity.

Gene Regulation in Biology

In a human cell, roughly 20,000 protein-coding genes exist, but only 10–20% are expressed at any given time [ENCODE Project Consortium, 2012]. The pattern of expression is cell-type specific: a neuron expresses a different set of genes than a liver cell, even though both contain the same genome. DOGMA’s Regulation Gate mirrors this: the same model (genome) produces different activation patterns for different inputs (cell types), enabling specialization without separate models.

1.3.4 Stage 4: Codon Translation

Codon Translation implements DOGMA’s analogue of the genetic code: a differentiable mapping from 64 input codons to 21 output symbols (20 amino acids + 1 stop signal). This stage compresses information through a biologically-motivated bottleneck.

The 64 → 21 Mapping

In biology, three consecutive nucleotides (a *codon*) encode one amino acid according to the standard genetic code. There are $4^3 = 64$ possible codons but only 20 amino acids plus a stop signal, so the code is degenerate—multiple codons map to the same amino acid.

DOGMA implements this as a learned soft mapping. Given the regulated hidden state $\mathbf{h}_{\text{reg}} \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times d}$, consecutive triples of positions are grouped into codons:

$$\mathbf{c}_k = [\mathbf{h}_{\text{reg},3k-2} \parallel \mathbf{h}_{\text{reg},3k-1} \parallel \mathbf{h}_{\text{reg},3k}] \in \mathbb{R}^{3d}, \quad k = 1, \dots, \lfloor T/3 \rfloor. \quad (1.34)$$

Each codon is translated through a differentiable lookup:

$$\mathbf{a}_k = \sum_{j=1}^{64} \text{softmax}(\mathbf{c}_k \mathbf{W}_{\text{codon}})_j \cdot \mathbf{E}_{\text{aa}}[j], \quad \mathbf{W}_{\text{codon}} \in \mathbb{R}^{3d \times 64}, \quad (1.35)$$

where $\mathbf{E}_{\text{aa}} \in \mathbb{R}^{64 \times d_a}$ is a codon embedding table whose rows are initialized to respect the degeneracy structure of the biological genetic code. Multiple codons that map to the same amino acid are initialized with the same embedding, though they are free to diverge during training.

Table 1.4: Excerpt of the DOGMA codon table showing the 64 → 21 mapping. Codons with the same output class share an initial embedding. The full table mirrors the standard genetic code.

First	Second	Third	Codon ID	Output Class
A	A	A	1	Phe (F)
A	A	C	2	Phe (F)
A	A	G	3	Leu (L)
A	A	T	4	Leu (L)
A	C	A	5	Ser (S)
A	C	C	6	Ser (S)
A	C	G	7	Ser (S)
A	C	T	8	Ser (S)
		$\vdots$		$\vdots$
T	G	A	61	Trp (W)
T	G	C	62	STOP
T	G	G	63	STOP
T	G	T	64	STOP

Why a Compression Bottleneck?

The $3 \rightarrow 1$ compression (every 3 positions become 1) serves several purposes:

1. **Information compression.** The regulated representation contains redundancy; grouping triples and projecting to a smaller space removes it.
2. **Sequence length reduction.** After codon translation, the effective sequence length is $T/3$, reducing the cost of the subsequent Strand Attention stage from $O(T^2d)$ to $O((T/3)^2d) = O(T^2d/9)$.
3. **Inductive bias.** The degeneracy structure of the genetic code provides a useful inductive bias: synonymous codons (mapping to the same amino acid) should carry similar information, encouraging the model to learn robust representations.

The Genetic Code Is Not Arbitrary

The standard genetic code has been optimized by billions of years of evolution for error tolerance: single-nucleotide mutations typically produce amino acids with similar biochemical properties. DOGMA inherits this structure. Initializing the codon embedding table with biologically-motivated degeneracy ensures that small perturbations in the input representation produce small changes in the translated output—a form of built-in robustness.

1.3.5 Stage 5: Strand Attention

Strand Attention is DOGMA’s analogue of self-attention, but with attention scores derived from thermodynamic binding energies rather than simple dot products. It operates on the codon-translated representation and computes pairwise interactions using the SantaLucia nearest-neighbor model of DNA hybridization.

Thermodynamic Attention Scores

Standard dot-product attention computes scores as $\mathbf{q}_i^\top \mathbf{k}_j / \sqrt{d}$. Strand Attention replaces this with a binding energy function inspired by DNA thermodynamics:

$$\text{Attn}_{\text{DNA}}(\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{K}, \mathbf{V}) = \text{softmax}\left(\frac{\Delta G(\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{K})}{\tau}\right) \mathbf{V}, \quad (1.36)$$

where τ is a learnable temperature parameter and the binding energy function ΔG is:

$$\Delta G(\mathbf{q}_i, \mathbf{k}_j) = \underbrace{\mathbf{q}_i^\top \mathbf{W}_{\Delta H} \mathbf{k}_j}_{\text{enthalpy (stacking)}} - \tau_{\text{phys}} \cdot \underbrace{\mathbf{q}_i^\top \mathbf{W}_{\Delta S} \mathbf{k}_j}_{\text{entropy (disorder)}} + \underbrace{\beta(\tau_i, \tau_j)}_{\text{type bias}}. \quad (1.37)$$

Here $\mathbf{W}_{\Delta H}, \mathbf{W}_{\Delta S} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ are learned matrices corresponding to enthalpy and entropy contributions, τ_{phys} is a learned physical temperature, and $\beta(\tau_i, \tau_j)$ is the type-pair bias from Equation 1.3.

The SantaLucia Connection

In physical chemistry, the SantaLucia nearest-neighbor model computes the free energy of DNA hybridization as:

$$\Delta G^\circ = \Delta H^\circ - T \Delta S^\circ = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \Delta H_{X_i X_{i+1} / Y_i Y_{i+1}}^\circ - T \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \Delta S_{X_i X_{i+1} / Y_i Y_{i+1}}^\circ, \quad (1.38)$$

where the sums are over dinucleotide pairs and T is the physical temperature in Kelvin. DOGMA’s Strand Attention learns analogous dinucleotide-like parameters in a high-dimensional embedding space. The enthalpy matrix $\mathbf{W}_{\Delta H}$ captures context-dependent binding strength; the entropy matrix $\mathbf{W}_{\Delta S}$ captures the disorder cost of binding.

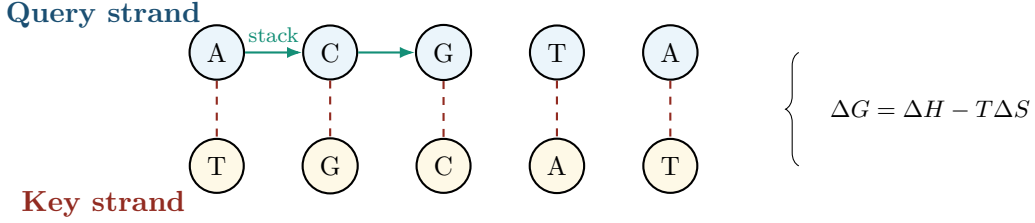


Figure 1.5: Strand Attention computes attention scores using thermodynamic binding energies ΔG . Complementary base pairs (A–T, C–G) form bonds (dashed lines). Stacking interactions between adjacent pairs contribute to the enthalpy term.

Complexity

Proposition 1.3 (Strand Attention Complexity). Strand Attention has time complexity $O(T'^2 \cdot d)$ and space complexity $O(T'^2 + T' \cdot d)$, where $T' = T/3$ is the post-codon-translation sequence length. Compared to standard self-attention on the original sequence, this is a $9\times$ reduction in the quadratic term.

Connection to Biological Thermodynamics

In wet-lab DNA computing, the binding energy ΔG of a DNA duplex determines whether two strands will hybridize. The SantaLucia nearest-neighbor model computes ΔG from dinucleotide parameters. DOGMA’s DNA Strand Attention learns analogous dinucleotide-like parameters, but in a high-dimensional embedding space rather than the four-letter DNA alphabet. The temperature parameter τ plays the same role as physical temperature in controlling binding stringency.

1.3.6 Stage 6: Epigenetic + Allosteric Mechanisms

The final stage combines two complementary memory mechanisms: *epigenetic memory* (persistent, slowly-evolving state) and *allosteric broadcast* (fast, targeted signal distribution). Together they provide DOGMA with both long-term and short-term context integration.

Epigenetic Memory: $O(TM)$ Persistent State

Epigenetic memory maintains a bank of M memory slots $\mathbf{m}_1, \dots, \mathbf{m}_M \in \mathbb{R}^{d_m}$ that persist across time steps and are updated incrementally:

$$\mathbf{u}_j = \sigma(\mathbf{h}_{\text{attn}} \mathbf{W}_u \mathbf{m}_j^\top), \quad (\text{update gate for slot } j) \quad (1.39)$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{m}}_j = \tanh(\mathbf{h}_{\text{attn}} \mathbf{W}_m + \mathbf{m}_j \mathbf{W}_r), \quad (\text{candidate update}) \quad (1.40)$$

$$\mathbf{m}'_j = (1 - \mathbf{u}_j) \odot \mathbf{m}_j + \mathbf{u}_j \odot \tilde{\mathbf{m}}_j, \quad (\text{gated update}) \quad (1.41)$$

where $\mathbf{h}_{\text{attn}} \in \mathbb{R}^{T' \times d}$ is the output of Strand Attention. The read operation retrieves information from memory via attention:

$$\mathbf{v}_{\text{epi}} = \text{softmax}(\mathbf{h}_{\text{attn}} \mathbf{W}_q^{\text{epi}} (\mathbf{M} \mathbf{W}_k^{\text{epi}})^\top) \mathbf{M} \mathbf{W}_v^{\text{epi}}, \quad (1.42)$$

where $\mathbf{M} = [\mathbf{m}_1; \dots; \mathbf{m}_M] \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times d_m}$.

The complexity of epigenetic memory operations is $O(T' \cdot M \cdot d_m)$, which is linear in sequence length when M is fixed.

Allosteric Broadcast: $O(Tk)$ Signal Distribution

Allosteric regulation, in biology, is the modulation of a protein’s activity by binding at a site other than the active site. In DOGMA, allosteric broadcast selects k “broadcast sites” and distributes their signals to all other positions:

$$\text{sites} = \text{TopK}(\mathbf{h}_{\text{attn}} \mathbf{w}_{\text{select}}, k), \quad (1.43)$$

$$\mathbf{s}_{\text{broadcast}} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{j \in \text{sites}} \mathbf{h}_{\text{attn},j}, \quad (1.44)$$

$$\mathbf{h}_{\text{final},t} = \mathbf{h}_{\text{attn},t} + \mathbf{v}_{\text{epi},t} + \text{MLP}(\mathbf{s}_{\text{broadcast}}), \quad (1.45)$$

where $\mathbf{w}_{\text{select}} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is a learned selection vector and TopK selects the k positions with highest selection scores. The broadcast signal $\mathbf{s}_{\text{broadcast}}$ is added to all positions, providing global context from the most salient positions.

The complexity is $O(T' \cdot k \cdot d)$ for computing the broadcast, where $k \ll T'$.

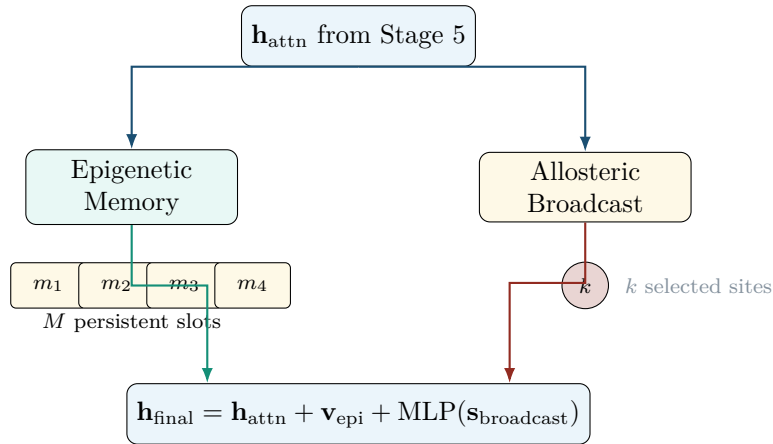


Figure 1.6: Stage 6: Epigenetic Memory ($O(TM)$) provides persistent state; Allosteric Broadcast ($O(Tk)$) provides fast global context from k selected sites. Their outputs are combined with the attention output.

Epigenetics and Allosteric Regulation

In biology, epigenetic modifications (DNA methylation, histone acetylation) create persistent, heritable changes in gene expression without altering the DNA sequence itself. Allosteric regulation is a fast, reversible mechanism where binding at one site affects activity at a distant site. DOGMA separates these two timescales: epigenetic memory changes slowly across many forward passes (akin to long-term memory), while allosteric broadcast operates within a single forward pass (akin to working memory or attention).

1.4 The Expression Folder

After the six-stage pipeline produces the final hidden representation $\mathbf{h}_{\text{final}}$, DOGMA must convert this internal representation into the output space—a process we call the *Expression Folder*, by analogy with protein folding.

In protein folding, a linear amino acid chain (the primary structure) folds into a complex three-dimensional structure (the tertiary structure) that determines the protein’s function. Similarly, the Expression Folder transforms the linear sequence of hidden states into a structured output representation.

$$\Phi = \text{ExpressionFolder}(\mathbf{h}_{\text{final}}) = \text{MLP}_{\text{fold}}(\text{LayerNorm}(\mathbf{h}_{\text{final}})), \quad (1.46)$$

where MLP_{fold} is a two-layer feed-forward network with GELU activation:

$$\text{MLP}_{\text{fold}}(\mathbf{z}) = \mathbf{W}_2 \cdot \text{GELU}(\mathbf{W}_1 \mathbf{z} + \mathbf{b}_1) + \mathbf{b}_2. \quad (1.47)$$

The output Φ is not text. It is a *phenotype representation*—a structured semantic object that can be *realized* into different modalities:

- **Natural language:** A language head applies a linear projection followed by softmax to produce token probabilities.
- **Code:** A syntax-aware head produces abstract syntax tree nodes.
- **JSON/Schema:** A structured output head generates key-value pairs conforming to a schema.
- **Action plans:** A tool-use head produces function calls and arguments.
- **3D structure:** A TetraMesh head produces spatial coordinates (Chapter 4).

Phenotype Before Output

In a standard LLM, the model generates text directly from its hidden state. There is no explicit representation of “what the model intends to do.” In DOGMA, the phenotype Φ is this explicit representation. It can be:

- Inspected for correctness before realization.
- Verified against safety constraints.
- Realized in multiple modalities from the same plan.
- Stored for future reference or comparison.

This is the computational analogue of protein folding: a linear sequence (transcript) is transformed into a three-dimensional functional structure (phenotype) through a deterministic but complex process.

1.5 Full Architecture Diagram

Figure 1.7 presents the complete DOGMA architecture, showing both the six-stage pipeline (left) and the detailed DNA Computing Block structure (right).

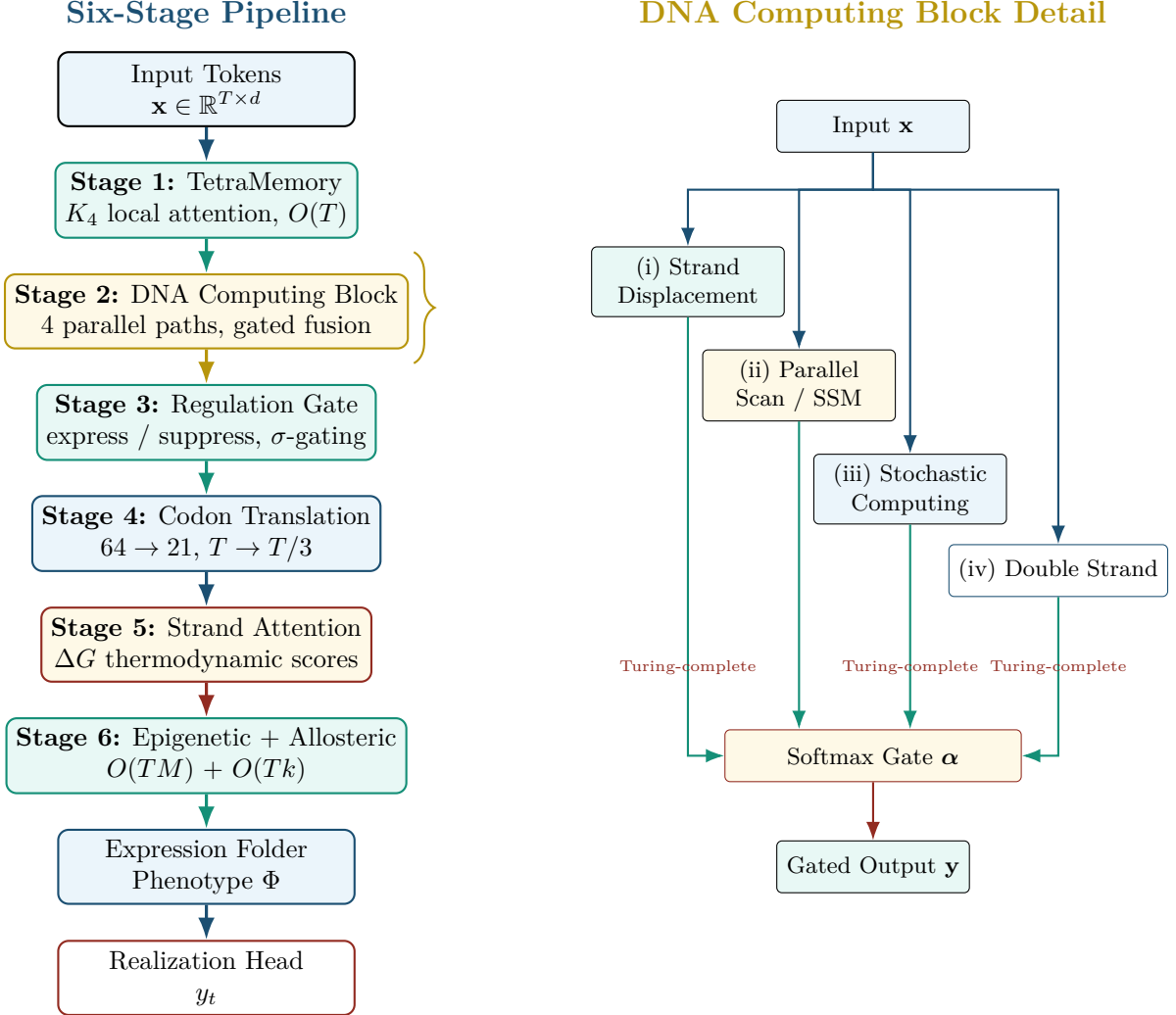


Figure 1.7: Complete DOGMA architecture. **Left:** The six-stage pipeline from input tokens to output realization, passing through TetraMemory, the DNA Computing Block, Regulation Gate, Codon Translation, Strand Attention, and Epigenetic+Allosteric mechanisms, followed by the Expression Folder. **Right:** Detailed view of the DNA Computing Block showing four parallel paths merged by a learned softmax gate. Three of the four paths are independently Turing-complete.

1.6 The DogmaBlock: Complete Forward Pass

Algorithm 1 presents the complete forward pass of a single DogmaBlock as pseudocode.

Algorithm 1 DogmaBlock Forward Pass

Require: Input $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times d}$, context $\mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_c}$, memory bank $\mathbf{M} \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times d_m}$

Ensure: Output $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^{T' \times d}$, updated memory $\mathbf{M}'$

```

1: // Stage 1: TetraMemory
2: Reshape  $\mathbf{x}$  into tetrahedra:  $\mathbf{X}_k \leftarrow \mathbf{x}[4k:4k+4]$  for  $k = 0, \dots, \lfloor T/4 \rfloor - 1$ 
3:  $\mathbf{Y}_k \leftarrow \text{LocalAttn}_{K_4}(\mathbf{X}_k)$  for each tetrahedron ▷  $4 \times 4$  attention
4:  $\mathbf{h}_1 \leftarrow \text{FacePropagate}(\mathbf{Y}_0, \mathbf{Y}_1, \dots)$  ▷  $O(T \cdot d)$ 

5: // Stage 2: DNA Computing Block (4 parallel paths)
6:  $\mathbf{p}_{\text{SD}} \leftarrow \text{StrandDisplacement}(\mathbf{h}_1)$  ▷ Toehold gating + causal conv
7:  $\mathbf{p}_{\text{SSM}} \leftarrow \text{ParallelScan}(\mathbf{h}_1)$  ▷ Selective SSM,  $O(T \log T)$ 
8:  $\mathbf{p}_{\text{SC}} \leftarrow \text{StochasticCompute}(\mathbf{h}_1)$  ▷ Bernoulli sampling + bitstream ops
9:  $\mathbf{p}_{\text{DS}} \leftarrow \text{DoubleStrand}(\mathbf{h}_1)$  ▷ Forward + reverse complement
10:  $\alpha \leftarrow \text{softmax}(\mathbf{W}_g \mathbf{h}_1 + \mathbf{b}_g)$  ▷ Per-position gate weights
11:  $\mathbf{h}_2 \leftarrow \sum_p \alpha_p \cdot \mathbf{p}_p$  ▷ Gated fusion

12: // Stage 3: Regulation Gate
13:  $\mathbf{g}_e \leftarrow \sigma(\mathbf{h}_2 \mathbf{W}_e + \mathbf{cU}_e + \mathbf{b}_e)$  ▷ Express signal
14:  $\mathbf{g}_s \leftarrow \sigma(\mathbf{h}_2 \mathbf{W}_s + \mathbf{cU}_s + \mathbf{b}_s)$  ▷ Suppress signal
15:  $\mathbf{h}_3 \leftarrow \mathbf{h}_2 \odot \mathbf{g}_e \odot (1 - \mathbf{g}_s)$  ▷ Element-wise gating

16: // Stage 4: Codon Translation
17: Group triples:  $\mathbf{c}_k \leftarrow [\mathbf{h}_{3,3k-2} \parallel \mathbf{h}_{3,3k-1} \parallel \mathbf{h}_{3,3k}]$ 
18:  $\mathbf{h}_4 \leftarrow \text{CodonTranslate}(\mathbf{c}_k)$  for  $k = 1, \dots, \lfloor T/3 \rfloor$  ▷  $64 \rightarrow 21$  soft mapping,  $T \rightarrow T/3$ 

19: // Stage 5: Strand Attention
20:  $\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{K}, \mathbf{V} \leftarrow \mathbf{h}_4 \mathbf{W}_Q, \mathbf{h}_4 \mathbf{W}_K, \mathbf{h}_4 \mathbf{W}_V$ 
21:  $\Delta G_{ij} \leftarrow \mathbf{q}_i^\top \mathbf{W}_{\Delta H} \mathbf{k}_j - \tau_{\text{phys}} \cdot \mathbf{q}_i^\top \mathbf{W}_{\Delta S} \mathbf{k}_j + \beta(\tau_i, \tau_j)$ 
22:  $\mathbf{h}_5 \leftarrow \text{softmax}(\Delta G / \tau) \cdot \mathbf{V}$  ▷  $O(T'^2 d)$  where  $T' = T/3$ 

23: // Stage 6: Epigenetic + Allosteric
24:  $\mathbf{v}_{\text{epi}} \leftarrow \text{EpiRead}(\mathbf{h}_5, \mathbf{M}); \quad \mathbf{M}' \leftarrow \text{EpiUpdate}(\mathbf{h}_5, \mathbf{M})$  ▷  $O(T' M)$ 
25:  $\text{sites} \leftarrow \text{TopK}(\mathbf{h}_5 \mathbf{w}_{\text{sel}}, k); \quad \mathbf{s} \leftarrow \frac{1}{k} \sum_{j \in \text{sites}} \mathbf{h}_{5,j}$  ▷  $O(T' k)$ 
26:  $\mathbf{h}_6 \leftarrow \mathbf{h}_5 + \mathbf{v}_{\text{epi}} + \text{MLP}(\mathbf{s})$ 

27: // Expression Folder
28:  $\mathbf{y} \leftarrow \text{MLP}_{\text{fold}}(\text{LayerNorm}(\mathbf{h}_6))$ 
29: return  $\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{M}'$ 

```

1.7 Architecture Comparison: DOGMA vs. Alternatives

Table 1.5 provides a detailed comparison of DOGMA with three major competing architectures: the Transformer [Vaswani et al., 2017a], Mamba (a state-space model) [Gu and Dao, 2023], and RWKV (a linear-attention RNN).

Table 1.5: Detailed architecture comparison: DOGMA vs. Transformer vs. Mamba vs. RWKV.

Property	Transformer	Mamba	RWKV	DOGMA
Time complexity (per layer)	$O(T^2d)$	$O(Td)$	$O(Td)$	$O(Td)$ to $O(T'^2d)$ ($T' = T/3$)
Space complexity	$O(T^2 + Td)$	$O(Td)$	$O(Td)$	$O(T'd + TM)$
Turing-complete?	Yes (with pos. enc.)	Debated	No (finite state)	Yes (3 of 4 paths)
Parallel paths	1 (attention)	1 (SSM)	1 (linear attn)	4 (gated)
Persistent memory	None (context only)	Hidden state	Hidden state	Epigenetic bank (M slots)
Bidirectional	Full	No (causal)	No (causal)	Yes (Double Strand path)
Regulation / gating	None	Selective SSM	Time-decay	Express/suppress gate
Biological basis	None	Inspired by control theory	None	DNA computing, Central Dogma
Information compression	None	Via state bottleneck	Via state bottleneck	Codon Translation (3 : 1)
Attention mechanism	Dot-product	None	Linear attention	ΔG thermodynamic
Global context	Full attention	Recurrent propagation	Recurrent propagation	Allosteric broadcast (k sites)

1.7.1 Complexity Summary

To summarize the per-layer complexity of a single DogmaBlock:

$$\text{Stage 1 (TetraMemory): } O(T \cdot d), \quad (1.48)$$

$$\text{Stage 2 (DNA Block): } O(T \cdot d) \quad (\text{Parallel Scan dominates}), \quad (1.49)$$

$$\text{Stage 3 (Regulation): } O(T \cdot d), \quad (1.50)$$

$$\text{Stage 4 (Codon Translation): } O(T \cdot d), \quad (1.51)$$

$$\text{Stage 5 (Strand Attention): } O(T'^2 \cdot d) \quad \text{where } T' = T/3, \quad (1.52)$$

$$\text{Stage 6 (Epi + Allo): } O(T' \cdot M \cdot d_m + T' \cdot k \cdot d). \quad (1.53)$$

The bottleneck is Stage 5 (Strand Attention) at $O(T'^2d) = O(T^2d/9)$. This is $9\times$ cheaper than standard self-attention on the full sequence, and further reduced when regulation sparsity is applied. When $T' \leq T/3$ after regulation-induced sparsity, the effective complexity can approach linear.

1.8 Worked Example: Tracing Data Through All Six Stages

To make the pipeline concrete, let us trace a small example through all six stages. Suppose we have an input sequence of $T = 12$ tokens with embedding dimension $d = 8$ (vastly simplified from

production dimensions, but sufficient to illustrate the data flow).

Example 1.1 (Tracing 12 Tokens Through DOGMA). **Input:** $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{12 \times 8}$ (12 tokens, 8-dimensional embeddings).

Stage 1: TetraMemory. Partition into $12/4 = 3$ tetrahedra:

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta_0 &= (x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4), \\ \Delta_1 &= (x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6), \quad (\text{shares face } \{x_3, x_4\} \text{ with } \Delta_0) \\ \Delta_2 &= (x_5, x_6, x_7, x_8). \quad (\text{shares face } \{x_5, x_6\} \text{ with } \Delta_1)\end{aligned}$$

Wait—with 12 tokens and groups of 4, we get tetrahedra with overlapping boundaries: $\Delta_0 = (x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)$, $\Delta_1 = (x_4, x_5, x_6, x_7)$, $\Delta_2 = (x_7, x_8, x_9, x_{10})$, $\Delta_3 = (x_{10}, x_{11}, x_{12})$ (padded).

Within each tetrahedron, a 4×4 attention matrix is computed. After face propagation, the output shape is still $\mathbb{R}^{12 \times 8}$, but each token now carries information from its local tetrahedral neighborhood.

Output shape: $\mathbf{h}_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{12 \times 8}$.

Stage 2: DNA Computing Block. Four parallel paths process $\mathbf{h}_1$:

- Strand Displacement: $\mathbf{p}_{SD} \in \mathbb{R}^{12 \times 8}$ (toehold gating selects 8 of 12 positions).
- Parallel Scan: $\mathbf{p}_{SSM} \in \mathbb{R}^{12 \times 8}$ (all positions, linear recurrence).
- Stochastic: $\mathbf{p}_{SC} \in \mathbb{R}^{12 \times 8}$ (mean over $S = 16$ samples).
- Double Strand: $\mathbf{p}_{DS} \in \mathbb{R}^{12 \times 8}$ (forward + reverse complement).

Gate weights: $\alpha = (0.35, 0.30, 0.10, 0.25)$ (example values).

Output shape: $\mathbf{h}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{12 \times 8}$.

Stage 3: Regulation Gate. Context embedding $\mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{R}^{16}$ encodes the task. The express/suppress gates produce:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{g}_e &\approx (0.9, 0.8, 0.95, 0.1, 0.05, 0.7, 0.85, 0.9, 0.6, 0.1, 0.8, 0.75), \\ \mathbf{g}_s &\approx (0.1, 0.1, 0.05, 0.8, 0.9, 0.2, 0.1, 0.05, 0.3, 0.85, 0.1, 0.15).\end{aligned}$$

Positions 4, 5, and 10 are effectively suppressed ($r \approx 0$). Only 9 of 12 positions survive with significant activation.

Output shape: $\mathbf{h}_3 \in \mathbb{R}^{12 \times 8}$ (but 3 positions near-zero).

Stage 4: Codon Translation. Group into $\lfloor 12/3 \rfloor = 4$ codons:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Codon 1} &= [\mathbf{h}_{3,1} \parallel \mathbf{h}_{3,2} \parallel \mathbf{h}_{3,3}] \in \mathbb{R}^{24}, \\ \text{Codon 2} &= [\mathbf{h}_{3,4} \parallel \mathbf{h}_{3,5} \parallel \mathbf{h}_{3,6}] \in \mathbb{R}^{24}, \\ \text{Codon 3} &= [\mathbf{h}_{3,7} \parallel \mathbf{h}_{3,8} \parallel \mathbf{h}_{3,9}] \in \mathbb{R}^{24}, \\ \text{Codon 4} &= [\mathbf{h}_{3,10} \parallel \mathbf{h}_{3,11} \parallel \mathbf{h}_{3,12}] \in \mathbb{R}^{24}.\end{aligned}$$

Each codon is translated via the soft $64 \rightarrow 21$ mapping.

Output shape: $\mathbf{h}_4 \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 8}$. Sequence length reduced from 12 to 4.

Stage 5: Strand Attention. Compute thermodynamic attention on $T' = 4$ positions: a 4×4 attention matrix using ΔG scores.

Output shape: $\mathbf{h}_5 \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 8}$.

Stage 6: Epigenetic + Allosteric. With $M = 3$ memory slots and $k = 2$ broadcast sites:

- Epigenetic: read/write from 3 memory slots, $O(4 \cdot 3 \cdot 8) = O(96)$ operations.
- Allosteric: select top-2 positions, broadcast their mean to all 4 positions.

Output shape: $\mathbf{h}_6 \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 8}$.

Expression Folder. Apply LayerNorm and MLP to produce the phenotype.

Final output shape: $\Phi \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 8}$. From 12 input tokens, we have 4 phenotype vectors ready for realization.

Table 1.6: Tensor shapes through the six-stage pipeline for the worked example ($T = 12$, $d = 8$).

Stage	Operation	Input Shape	Output Shape	Key Change
—	Input embedding	—	12×8	—
1	TetraMemory	12×8	12×8	Local K_4 interactions
2	DNA Computing Block	12×8	12×8	4-path gated fusion
3	Regulation Gate	12×8	12×8	3 positions suppressed
4	Codon Translation	12×8	4×8	3 : 1 compression
5	Strand Attention	4×8	4×8	ΔG attention
6	Epi + Allosteric	4×8	4×8	Memory read/write
—	Expression Folder	4×8	4×8	Phenotype

1.9 The Evolutor State

The complete state of a DOGMA system at time t is captured by the *Evolutor state*:

Definition 1.5 (Evolutor State). The *Evolutor state* at time t is the tuple:

$$\mathcal{E}_t = (\Gamma_t, H_t, \mathcal{A}_t, \mathcal{L}_t), \quad (1.54)$$

where:

- Γ_t is the current genome.
- H_t is the Tera hidden regime state (Chapter 3).
- $\mathcal{A}_t$ is the HelixHash archive of structural signatures (Chapter 2).
- $\mathcal{L}_t$ is the lineage history (record of evolutionary modifications).

The Evolutor state encapsulates everything needed to reproduce the system's behavior and continue its evolution. It is the DOGMA analogue of a cell's complete state: genome + epigenome + cellular memory.

1.10 Why DOGMA Is Not Just a Modified Transformer

It is tempting to view DOGMA as “a transformer with extra steps.” This misses the fundamental architectural difference. Consider three levels of distinction:

1. **Ontological:** In a transformer, the primary computational object is the token sequence. In DOGMA, the primary computational object is the *genome*—a persistent, typed, structured state from which tokens are merely one possible output.
2. **Control flow:** In a transformer, all tokens interact uniformly through attention. In DOGMA, interaction is *regulated*—controlled by context-dependent activation maps that determine which regions participate.
3. **Evolutionary:** A transformer’s parameters are fixed after training. A DOGMA genome can be *evolved*—modified through mutation, selection, and synthesis—enabling open-ended improvement without full retraining.

The relationship between DOGMA and transformers is analogous to the relationship between cells and chemical reactions. A cell *contains* chemical reactions, but a cell is not merely “chemistry with extra steps.” The organizational structure—membranes, organelles, regulatory networks, genetic programs—is what makes a cell fundamentally different from a random mixture of the same chemicals.

Similarly, DOGMA may *contain* attention mechanisms (within its Strand Attention stage or DNA Computing Block modules), but the organizational structure—TetraMemory, four-path DNA computing, regulation gating, codon translation, thermodynamic attention, epigenetic memory—is what makes it architecturally distinct.

1.11 Exercises

- 7.1. **[Fundamentals]** For each of the six DOGMA stages (TetraMemory, DNA Computing Block, Regulation Gate, Codon Translation, Strand Attention, Epigenetic+Allosteric), identify the corresponding step in the biological Central Dogma and explain the mapping.
- 7.2. **[Analysis]** Consider a DOGMA system processing a sequence of $T = 4096$ tokens with embedding dimension $d = 512$.
 - (a) How many tetrahedra does Stage 1 create?
 - (b) What is the sequence length after Stage 4 (Codon Translation)?
 - (c) Compare the cost of Stage 5 Strand Attention (on the compressed sequence) with standard self-attention on the original 4096 tokens.
- 7.3. **[Design]** The DNA Computing Block uses a learned softmax gate to merge four path outputs. Design an experiment to test whether all four paths are necessary. Describe what you would measure when ablating each path individually, and predict which path’s removal would cause the largest performance drop for (a) a language modeling task, (b) a protein structure prediction task.
- 7.4. **[Coding]** Implement the four-equation Regulation Gate defined above in PyTorch. Create a test that verifies:

- (a) The output has the same shape as the input.
- (b) When the suppress gate outputs all ones, the regulated output is all zeros.
- (c) When both gates output 0.5, the net regulation is $0.5 \times 0.5 = 0.25$ per element.

7.5. [Theory] Prove that if the regulation stage produces an activation map with at most k nonzero entries (hard sparsity), then the computational cost of Stage 5 Strand Attention is $O(k'^2 d)$ where $k' = k/3$, rather than $O((T/3)^2 d)$.

7.6. [Research] Read about Mixture-of-Experts (MoE) architectures [Brown et al., 2020]. Compare the MoE routing mechanism with DOGMA’s Regulation Gate. What are the key similarities and differences? Which approach offers better interpretability, and why?

7.7. [Analysis] The Codon Translation stage uses a $64 \rightarrow 21$ soft mapping initialized from the biological genetic code. Discuss:

- (a) Why is degeneracy (multiple codons $\rightarrow$ same amino acid) beneficial for robustness?
- (b) Should the codon embeddings be frozen at their biological initialization or fine-tuned? Argue both sides.

7.8. [Advanced] The Evolutor state $\mathcal{E}_t = (\Gamma_t, H_t, \mathcal{A}_t, \mathcal{L}_t)$ maintains lineage history $\mathcal{L}_t$. Discuss the computational and memory tradeoffs of maintaining full lineage vs. compressed lineage (keeping only the most recent m checkpoints). Under what conditions would compressed lineage lose important information?

7.9. [Worked Example] Trace a sequence of $T = 24$ tokens through the six-stage pipeline, showing tensor shapes at each stage. How many codons are produced? What is the final phenotype length?

7.10. [Comparison] Using Table 1.5, explain why DOGMA is better suited than Mamba for tasks requiring bidirectional context, and why Mamba might be preferred for pure autoregressive generation at very long sequence lengths.

1.12 Key Takeaways

Key Takeaways

- DOGMA’s six-stage pipeline processes data through TetraMemory $\rightarrow$ DNA Computing Block $\rightarrow$ Regulation Gate $\rightarrow$ Codon Translation $\rightarrow$ Strand Attention $\rightarrow$ Epigenetic+Allosteric, followed by an Expression Folder that produces the phenotype.
- The genomic base $b_i = (\sigma_i, \tau_i, \rho_i, \omega_i)$ is DOGMA’s atomic unit, carrying a base embedding, type tag, compatibility vector, and weight.
- Four base types (A, C, G, T) provide functional roles (Activation, Composition, Generation, Termination) with complementary pairing and Klein four-group symmetry.
- TetraMemory achieves $O(T)$ complexity by computing K_4 local attention within groups of 4 tokens and propagating information through shared faces.
- The DNA Computing Block runs four parallel paths (Strand Displacement, Parallel Scan, Stochastic Computing, Double Strand), three of which are independently Turing-complete, merged by a learned softmax gate.
- The Regulation Gate implements express/suppress gating analogous to gene regulation, producing sparse activation patterns that reduce downstream computation.
- Codon Translation compresses the sequence 3 : 1 through a differentiable $64 \rightarrow 21$ mapping initialized from the biological genetic code.
- Strand Attention uses thermodynamic ΔG binding energies (inspired by SantaLucia nearest-neighbor parameters) instead of dot-product scores.
- Epigenetic memory ($O(TM)$) provides persistent state across time steps; allosteric broadcast ($O(Tk)$) provides fast global context from k selected sites.
- The Expression Folder converts the final representation into a phenotype that can be realized into text, code, structured data, or other modalities.
- DOGMA is not a modified transformer but a fundamentally different organizational paradigm: genome-first, regulation-controlled, evolution-capable, with built-in redundancy through multiple Turing-complete paths.

Suggested Reading

- [Crick \[1970\]](#): The original Central Dogma, DOGMA’s biological inspiration.
- [Vaswani et al. \[2017a\]](#): The transformer architecture, for comparison.
- [Gu and Dao \[2023\]](#): State-space models, related to DOGMA’s ParallelScan path.
- [Zhang and Seelig \[2011\]](#): DNA strand displacement, the basis for DOGMA’s Strand Displacement path.

- [ENCODE Project Consortium \[2012\]](#): The ENCODE project on gene regulation and expression sparsity.
- Chapters 2–5 of this book: detailed treatments of DOGMA’s subsystems.

Chapter 2

HelixHash — Structural Representation of Computational Genomes

The double helix is not merely a shape. It is a commitment to redundancy, error correction, and bidirectional reading—properties any serious computational substrate must share.

— DOGMA Design Manifesto

Chapter 1 introduced the DOGMA pipeline and its genomic bases. But a genome is more than a sequence of bases—it has *structure*. In molecular biology, structure determines function: the double helix enables replication, the codon frame enables translation, and chromatin folding enables regulation. In DOGMA, the analogous structural analysis framework is **HelixHash**.

HelixHash serves three roles within the DOGMA architecture. First, it provides a *double-helix representation* that encodes every computational genome as a pair of complementary strands, enabling bidirectional analysis. Second, it extracts *structural signatures*—motifs, sketches, and bond matrices—that characterize a genome’s organization independently of its semantic content. Third, it maintains a *novelty archive* that drives evolutionary diversity, ensuring that the synthesis stage (Chapter 1) explores broadly rather than collapsing to a narrow optimum.

This chapter develops HelixHash from first principles, drawing on techniques from bioinformatics (k-mer analysis), NLP (n-gram models), and streaming algorithms (locality-sensitive hashing). We formalize each component, analyze its complexity, and show how the pieces compose into a unified structural embedding suitable for foundation model training.

2.1 The Double-Helix as a Data Structure

Before we define HelixHash’s computational representation, let us carefully review the biological structure that inspires it. DNA is composed of two polynucleotide chains wound around a common axis, forming a right-handed helix. The two chains run in *opposite* directions—they are *antiparallel*. One strand runs 5′ → 3′ (the *sense* or *coding* strand), while its partner runs 3′ → 5′ (the *antisense* or *template* strand). The strands are held together by hydrogen bonds between complementary bases: adenine (A) pairs with thymine (T) via two hydrogen bonds, and guanine (G) pairs with cytosine (C) via three hydrogen bonds.

2.1.1 Step-by-Step Construction of the Double Helix

We now build DOGMA’s computational double helix in four steps.

Step 1: The Sense Strand (Forward Strand). Given a computational genome G consisting of n fragment embeddings, the *sense strand* is simply the genome read in its natural order:

$$F(G) = [f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n]. \quad (5' \rightarrow 3' \text{ direction}) \quad (2.1)$$

Each $f_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ carries both a *type tag* $\tau_i \in \{\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{T}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{G}\}$ and a *semantic embedding* $\sigma_i \in \mathbb{R}^{d-1}$. The type tag determines how the fragment participates in bonding; the embedding carries content.

Step 2: The Complementation Operator. To form the antisense strand we need a function that maps every fragment to its “complement.” In biology, this is dictated by Watson–Crick rules: $\mathbf{A} \leftrightarrow \mathbf{T}$ and $\mathbf{G} \leftrightarrow \mathbf{C}$. In DOGMA, the complementation operator is a learned linear map:

Definition 2.1 (Complementation Operator). The *complementation operator* $\text{rev} : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$ satisfies two constraints:

1. **Type complementarity:** $\tau(\text{rev}(f)) = \overline{\tau(f)}$, where $\overline{\mathbf{A}} = \mathbf{T}$, $\overline{\mathbf{T}} = \mathbf{A}$, $\overline{\mathbf{G}} = \mathbf{C}$, $\overline{\mathbf{C}} = \mathbf{G}$.
2. **Approximate involution:** $\|\text{rev}(\text{rev}(f)) - f\|_2 \leq \epsilon$ for a small tolerance $\epsilon > 0$.

In practice, rev is parameterized as a block-diagonal matrix that acts on the type tag deterministically and on the semantic embedding through a learned orthogonal transform.

The involution constraint ensures that complementing a strand twice recovers (approximately) the original, mirroring the biological reality that the complement of the complement of a DNA sequence is the original sequence.

Step 3: The Antisense Strand (Reverse Strand). The antisense strand is constructed by complementing every fragment and *reversing* the order:

Definition 2.2 (Forward and Reverse Strands). Let $G = (f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n)$ be a computational genome represented as a sequence of n fragment embeddings. The *forward strand* is:

$$F(G) = [f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n], \quad (2.2)$$

and the *reverse strand* is:

$$R(G) = [\text{rev}(f_n), \text{rev}(f_{n-1}), \dots, \text{rev}(f_1)], \quad (2.3)$$

where $\text{rev}(\cdot)$ is the complementation operator from Definition 2.1.

The reversal is essential. In biology, the antiparallel orientation means that if you read one strand left-to-right ($5' \rightarrow 3'$), you must read the other strand right-to-left. This asymmetry is what enables bidirectional transcription: genes on the sense strand are transcribed in one direction, while genes on the antisense strand are transcribed in the opposite direction.

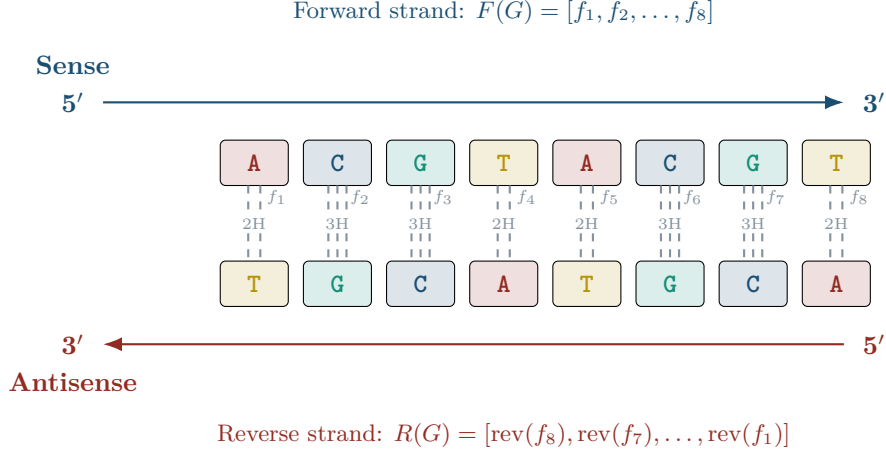


Figure 2.1: The double-helix representation of a computational genome with type sequence ACGTACGT. The sense strand runs $5' \rightarrow 3'$ (left to right); the antisense strand runs $3' \rightarrow 5'$ (right to left). Dashed lines represent hydrogen bonds: A–T pairs have 2 bonds, G–C pairs have 3 bonds. Each fragment f_i is paired with its complement $\text{rev}(f_{n+1-i})$ on the opposite strand.

Step 4: Base Pairing. The two strands are “bonded” position-by-position. Position i on the forward strand pairs with position $n + 1 - i$ on the reverse strand. The bond strength at each position is determined by the type tags of the paired fragments, as formalized in the bond matrix (Section 2.2).

Why Two Strands?

In biology, the double-stranded structure of DNA serves three purposes: (i) *redundancy* for error correction—damage to one strand can be repaired using the other as a template; (ii) *bidirectional transcription*—genes on opposite strands can be read independently; and (iii) *structural stability*—base pairing provides thermodynamic stability to the molecule. In DOGMA, the double-helix representation inherits all three advantages:

1. **Robustness:** If a fragment embedding is corrupted (e.g., by mutation during evolutionary training), the reverse strand provides a recovery signal.
2. **Bidirectional context:** Forward and reverse strands capture different directional dependencies, analogous to bidirectional RNNs but with an explicit structural motivation.
3. **Structural fingerprinting:** The relationship between a genome and its reverse complement encodes structural information that single-strand analysis cannot capture.

2.1.2 Watson–Crick Complementarity as a Hash Function

An elegant way to view Watson–Crick complementarity is as a *hash function*. Define the complementarity map $\overline{(\cdot)} : \{A, T, C, G\} \rightarrow \{A, T, C, G\}$ by:

$$\overline{A} = T, \quad \overline{T} = A, \quad \overline{G} = C, \quad \overline{C} = G. \quad (2.4)$$

This map is an involution ($\overline{\overline{x}} = x$) and a fixed-point-free permutation (no base is its own

complement). For a type sequence $\mathbf{t} = (t_1, t_2, \dots, t_k)$, the reverse-complement hash is:

$$\text{RC}(\mathbf{t}) = (\overline{t_k}, \overline{t_{k-1}}, \dots, \overline{t_1}). \quad (2.5)$$

A type sequence and its reverse complement always hash to distinct values (since the map is fixed-point-free and reversal breaks palindromic symmetry for most sequences). This provides a natural way to canonicalize motifs: we can define the *canonical form* of a type sequence as the lexicographically smaller of $\mathbf{t}$ and $\text{RC}(\mathbf{t})$. This halves the effective motif vocabulary and enforces strand symmetry in all downstream analyses.

Example 2.1 (Canonical Motif Forms). Consider the 3-motif type sequence $\mathbf{t} = \text{ACG}$. Its reverse complement is $\text{RC}(\text{ACG}) = \text{CGT}$. Since $\text{ACG} < \text{CGT}$ lexicographically, the canonical form is ACG . Now consider $\mathbf{t} = \text{GCA}$. Its reverse complement is $\text{RC}(\text{GCA}) = \text{TGC}$. The canonical form is GCA . Notice that ACG and CGT share the same canonical form, reflecting that they represent the same structural motif read from opposite strands.

2.1.3 Strand Alignment Score

Given two genomes G_1 and G_2 , we can measure their structural similarity by comparing strand representations:

$$S_{\text{strand}}(G_1, G_2) = \frac{1}{2} [\cos(F(G_1), F(G_2)) + \cos(R(G_1), R(G_2))], \quad (2.6)$$

where $\cos(\cdot, \cdot)$ denotes cosine similarity computed over averaged fragment embeddings. The strand alignment score is symmetric and bounded in $[-1, 1]$, with values near 1 indicating structurally similar genomes.

2.2 The Bond Matrix

The bond matrix is a central data structure in HelixHash that captures how strongly each pair of positions in a genome interacts. Its design is inspired by the hydrogen bonding patterns of biological DNA.

2.2.1 The 4×4 Hydrogen Bond Matrix

In molecular biology, the strength of a base pair is determined by the number of hydrogen bonds. We encode this in a *base interaction matrix*:

Definition 2.3 (Base Interaction Matrix). The *base interaction matrix* $\mathbf{H} \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 4}$ assigns a bond strength to every possible pair of base types:

$$\mathbf{H} = \begin{pmatrix} & \text{A} & \text{T} & \text{G} & \text{C} \\ \text{A} & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ \text{T} & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \text{G} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\ \text{C} & 0 & 0 & 3 & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (2.7)$$

Complementary pairs (A–T, T–A) receive a bond strength of 2 (two hydrogen bonds), while G–C and C–G pairs receive 3 (three hydrogen bonds). All non-complementary pairs receive 0.

Remark 2.1. The asymmetry between A–T (2 bonds) and G–C (3 bonds) has profound consequences. GC-rich regions of a genome are thermodynamically more stable than AT-rich regions. In DOGMA, this translates to stronger structural coherence in regions dominated by G and C type tags, making these regions more resistant to disruptive mutations.

Table 2.1: The 4×4 hydrogen bond matrix **H**. Entries show the number of hydrogen bonds for each base pair. Non-zero entries occur only for Watson–Crick complementary pairs.

	A	T	G	C
A	0	2	0	0
T	2	0	0	0
G	0	0	0	3
C	0	0	3	0

2.2.2 Bond Energies as Attention Weights

A key insight of HelixHash is that the hydrogen bond strengths in **H** can serve as *natural attention weights*. In a transformer, the attention weight between positions i and j is a learned function of the content at those positions. In HelixHash, we have a biologically grounded alternative: the bond strength between two fragments is determined by their type tags.

Define the *type-based attention weight* between fragments f_i and f_j as:

$$a_{ij}^{\text{type}} = \frac{\mathbf{H}[\tau_i, \tau_j]}{\sum_{k=1}^n \mathbf{H}[\tau_i, \tau_k] + \epsilon}, \quad (2.8)$$

where $\epsilon > 0$ is a small constant for numerical stability. This gives a sparse attention pattern: each fragment attends only to fragments with complementary type tags. A-type fragments attend to T-type fragments (with weight proportional to 2), and G-type fragments attend to C-type fragments (with weight proportional to 3). All other attention weights are zero.

Sparse Biological Attention

Type-based attention is *extremely sparse*: at most 25% of positions have non-zero attention weight (assuming uniform type distribution). This contrasts sharply with dense transformer attention, where every position attends to every other position. The sparsity is not a limitation but a feature—it encodes the structural constraint that only complementary bases interact, dramatically reducing the computational cost of attention while preserving biologically meaningful interactions.

2.2.3 SantaLucia Nearest-Neighbor Parameters

While the simple hydrogen bond count (2 for A–T, 3 for G–C) captures the qualitative picture, real DNA thermodynamics depend on the *stacking interactions* between adjacent base pairs. The **SantaLucia nearest-neighbor model** [SantaLucia, 1998] provides experimentally measured free energy parameters for all 16 possible nearest-neighbor dinucleotide pairs.

Definition 2.4 (Nearest-Neighbor Free Energy). The free energy contribution of a nearest-neighbor pair is denoted $\Delta G^\circ(XY/X'Y')$, where XY represents two adjacent bases on the sense strand and

$X'Y'$ represents the complementary bases on the antisense strand (read $3' \rightarrow 5'$). The total free energy of duplex formation for a sequence of length n is:

$$\Delta G_{\text{total}}^{\circ} = \Delta G_{\text{init}}^{\circ} + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \Delta G^{\circ}(s_i s_{i+1} / \overline{s_{i+1}} \overline{s_i}), \quad (2.9)$$

where $\Delta G_{\text{init}}^{\circ}$ is the initiation free energy and the sum runs over all adjacent pairs in the sequence.

The 16 unique nearest-neighbor ΔG° values (in kcal/mol at 37°C, 1 M NaCl) are listed in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: SantaLucia nearest-neighbor ΔG_{37}° values (kcal/mol) for all 16 dinucleotide pairs. More negative values indicate stronger (more stable) stacking. Data from [SantaLucia \[1998\]](#).

Pair ($5' \rightarrow 3' / 3' \rightarrow 5'$)	ΔG_{37}°	Pair ($5' \rightarrow 3' / 3' \rightarrow 5'$)	ΔG_{37}°
AA/TT	−1.00	GA/CT	−1.30
AT/TA	−0.88	GC/CG	−2.24
AC/TG	−1.44	GG/CC	−1.84
AG/TC	−1.28	GT/CA	−1.44
TA/AT	−0.58	CA/GT	−1.45
TT/AA	−1.00	CC/GG	−1.84
TC/AG	−1.30	CG/GC	−2.17
TG/AC	−1.45	CT/GA	−1.28

Using SantaLucia Parameters in HelixHash

HelixHash uses the SantaLucia nearest-neighbor parameters to compute a *thermodynamic bond weight* for each adjacent pair in a genome. Given fragments f_i and f_{i+1} with type tags τ_i and τ_{i+1} , the stacking weight is:

$$w_{\text{stack}}(i, i+1) = \frac{|\Delta G^{\circ}(\tau_i \tau_{i+1} / \overline{\tau_{i+1}} \overline{\tau_i})|}{\max_{\mathbf{t}} |\Delta G^{\circ}(\mathbf{t})|} \in [0, 1], \quad (2.10)$$

where the denominator normalizes by the strongest possible stacking interaction (GC/CG at −2.24 kcal/mol). This normalized weight enters the bond matrix as an additional term beyond Jaccard overlap and boundary alignment.

2.2.4 Worked Example: Computing ΔG° for ACGTACGT

Let us compute the total free energy of duplex formation for the sequence ACGTACGT step by step.

Example 2.2 (Free Energy Calculation). **Given:** Sense strand = ACGTACGT; Antisense strand = TGCATGCA (read $3' \rightarrow 5'$).

Step 1: Identify all nearest-neighbor pairs. Reading left to right along the sense strand, the seven adjacent dinucleotide pairs are:

i	1	2	3	4	5	6
Pair	AC/TG	CG/GC	GT/CA	TA/AT	AC/TG	CG/GC

and the seventh pair: TT/AA for position 7 (GT at positions 7–8 is actually GT/CA).

Let us be precise. The pairs (sense $5' \rightarrow 3'$ / antisense $3' \rightarrow 5'$) are:

Position 1–2:	AC/TG	$\Delta G^\circ = -1.44$
Position 2–3:	CG/GC	$\Delta G^\circ = -2.17$
Position 3–4:	GT/CA	$\Delta G^\circ = -1.44$
Position 4–5:	TA/AT	$\Delta G^\circ = -0.58$
Position 5–6:	AC/TG	$\Delta G^\circ = -1.44$
Position 6–7:	CG/GC	$\Delta G^\circ = -2.17$
Position 7–8:	GT/CA	$\Delta G^\circ = -1.44$

Step 2: Sum the contributions.

$$\sum_{i=1}^7 \Delta G_i^\circ = (-1.44) + (-2.17) + (-1.44) + (-0.58) + (-1.44) + (-2.17) + (-1.44) = -10.68 \text{ kcal/mol.}$$

Step 3: Add initiation energy. For a sequence starting with A and ending with T, the initiation free energy is $\Delta G_{\text{init}}^\circ = +2.2 \text{ kcal/mol}$ (accounting for both initiation terms):

$$\Delta G_{\text{total}}^\circ = 2.2 + (-10.68) = -8.48 \text{ kcal/mol.}$$

Interpretation: The negative total free energy (-8.48 kcal/mol) indicates that duplex formation is thermodynamically favorable. In HelixHash, this sequence would receive a normalized bond energy of $|-8.48|/|\Delta G_{\text{max}}^\circ| \approx 0.54$, indicating moderate structural stability.

2.2.5 The Full Bond Matrix

While the hydrogen bond matrix **H** captures type-level interactions, the full HelixHash bond matrix also incorporates content-level similarity:

Definition 2.5 (Bond Matrix). Given a genome $G = (f_1, \dots, f_n)$, the *bond matrix* $\mathbf{B} \in [0, 1]^{n \times n}$ is defined by:

$$\mathbf{B}[i, j] = \alpha \cdot J(f_i, f_j) + (1 - \alpha) \cdot A(f_i, f_j), \quad (2.11)$$

where $J(f_i, f_j)$ is the Jaccard overlap between the motif sets of fragments f_i and f_j , $A(f_i, f_j)$ is the boundary alignment score between fragments f_i and f_j , and $\alpha = 0.75$ controls the balance between overlap and alignment.

The **Jaccard overlap** measures the fraction of shared k -motifs between two fragments:

$$J(f_i, f_j) = \frac{|\mathcal{M}_k(f_i) \cap \mathcal{M}_k(f_j)|}{|\mathcal{M}_k(f_i) \cup \mathcal{M}_k(f_j)|}. \quad (2.12)$$

The **boundary alignment** measures how well the ending motifs of fragment f_i match the starting motifs of fragment f_j , using cosine similarity over the last and first ℓ embeddings (default $\ell = 3$):

$$A(f_i, f_j) = \cos(f_i[-\ell:], f_j[:\ell]). \quad (2.13)$$

The 75%/25% weighting reflects the empirical finding that content overlap is more indicative of structural coherence than boundary smoothness alone, but that boundary alignment is essential for detecting well-assembled genomes versus randomly concatenated fragments.

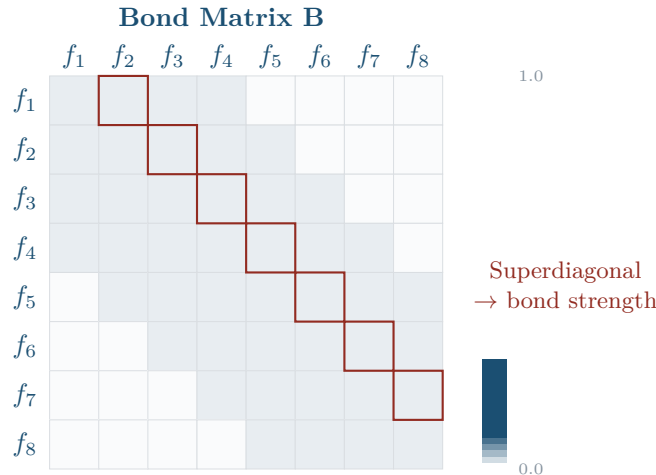


Figure 2.2: Visualization of the bond matrix $\mathbf{B}$ for an 8-fragment genome. Darker blue indicates stronger bonds. The matrix is naturally sparse: only nearby fragments share significant motif overlap. The superdiagonal (red outline) is averaged to compute bond strength $C_{\text{bond}}(G)$.

Sparse Bonds vs. Dense Attention

The bond matrix $\mathbf{B}$ superficially resembles a transformer’s attention matrix, but differs in three critical respects:

1. **Sparsity:** Bond matrices are naturally sparse. Most fragment pairs share few motifs, so $\mathbf{B}[i, j] \approx 0$ for distant or unrelated fragments. In practice, over 85% of entries fall below a threshold of 0.1.
2. **Interpretation:** Each entry has a concrete structural meaning (shared motifs + boundary alignment), unlike attention weights which are learned correlations without guaranteed semantics.
3. **Persistence:** Bond matrices are computed once per genome and cached in the HelixHash archive, whereas attention matrices are recomputed at every forward pass.

2.2.6 Bond Strength

The overall *bond strength* of a genome quantifies its structural integrity as a single scalar:

$$C_{\text{bond}}(G) = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \mathbf{B}[i, i+1], \quad (2.14)$$

i.e., the mean bond score along the main superdiagonal. A high bond strength indicates that consecutive fragments are coherent—they share motifs and have smooth boundaries. A low bond strength suggests fragmentation or poor assembly. Bond strength enters the selection objective as a regularization term (Section 2.6).

2.3 Motif Detection and Analysis

The basic unit of structural analysis in HelixHash is the *motif*—a short, contiguous subsequence of fragment embeddings extracted from a genome strand. Motifs are to HelixHash what k-mers are to bioinformatics and n-grams are to NLP.

2.3.1 Defining Genomic Motifs

Definition 2.6 (Genomic Motif). A k -*motif* of a genome $G = (f_1, \dots, f_n)$ is any contiguous subsequence of width k :

$$m_i^{(k)} = (f_i, f_{i+1}, \dots, f_{i+k-1}), \quad 1 \leq i \leq n - k + 1. \quad (2.15)$$

The complete set of overlapping k -motifs from G is denoted $\mathcal{M}_k(G)$, with $|\mathcal{M}_k(G)| = n - k + 1$.

Why $k = 6$?

The default motif width in HelixHash is $k = 6$, chosen by analogy with biological codons. In molecular biology, codons are three-nucleotide units that specify amino acids. Since DOGMA uses four base types (A, T, C, G), a width-6 motif spans two “codons” worth of type information, yielding $4^6 = 4,096$ distinct type patterns. This provides sufficient granularity to capture structural variation while remaining computationally tractable. The choice also aligns with empirical findings in bioinformatics, where 6-mers are widely used for sequence classification tasks [Wood, 2014].

2.3.2 How HelixHash Detects Motifs

Motif detection in HelixHash proceeds in three phases:

Phase 1: Extraction. A sliding window of width k moves along both the forward and reverse strands, extracting all overlapping motifs. For a genome of length n , this yields $2(n - k + 1)$ motifs in total (counting both strands).

Phase 2: Type Quantization. Each motif is reduced to its *type sequence*—the ordered tuple of type tags $(\tau_i, \tau_{i+1}, \dots, \tau_{i+k-1})$. This quantization maps the continuous fragment embeddings to a discrete alphabet, enabling efficient hashing and counting.

Phase 3: Frequency Counting. The frequency of each type pattern is tallied to produce the *motif frequency spectrum*.

2.3.3 Motif Frequency Spectrum

The *motif frequency spectrum* of a genome is the distribution of motif occurrences, quantized by their type patterns:

$$\phi_k(G)[\mathbf{t}] = \frac{|\{m_i^{(k)} \in \mathcal{M}_k(G) : \text{typeseq}(m_i^{(k)}) = \mathbf{t}\}|}{|\mathcal{M}_k(G)|}, \quad (2.16)$$

where $\mathbf{t} \in \{\text{A, T, C, G}\}^k$ is a type sequence and $\text{typeseq}(\cdot)$ extracts the type tags τ_i from each fragment in the motif. The motif frequency spectrum $\phi_k(G)$ is a probability distribution over the 4^k possible type patterns, serving as a structural fingerprint of the genome.

Example 2.3 (Computing a Motif Spectrum). Consider a short genome with type sequence AATCGG and motif width $k = 3$. The four overlapping 3-motifs are:

Position	1	2	3
Motif	AAT	ATC	TCG

and the fourth motif at position 4: CGG. So the motif frequency spectrum has:

$$\phi_3(G)[\text{AAT}] = \frac{1}{4}, \quad \phi_3(G)[\text{ATC}] = \frac{1}{4}, \quad \phi_3(G)[\text{TCG}] = \frac{1}{4}, \quad \phi_3(G)[\text{CGG}] = \frac{1}{4}.$$

All other entries of $\phi_3(G)$ are zero. This uniform distribution indicates maximum diversity among the observed motifs—no single pattern dominates.

2.3.4 Hash Function Design for DNA-Like Sequences

Efficient motif detection requires a hash function that maps type sequences to integer indices quickly and with low collision rates. HelixHash uses a *radix-4 encoding* that treats the type sequence as a base-4 number:

$$h_{\text{radix}}(\mathbf{t}) = \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \text{ord}(t_{j+1}) \cdot 4^{k-1-j}, \quad (2.17)$$

where $\text{ord}(\text{A}) = 0$, $\text{ord}(\text{C}) = 1$, $\text{ord}(\text{G}) = 2$, $\text{ord}(\text{T}) = 3$. This produces a perfect hash (no collisions) mapping 4^k type sequences to $\{0, 1, \dots, 4^k - 1\}$. The hash can be updated incrementally as the sliding window advances: dropping the leftmost base and appending the rightmost base requires only a multiply, subtract, and add operation.

Comparison to NLP and Bioinformatics

The motif frequency spectrum occupies a middle ground between two well-studied tools:

- In **NLP**, character or word n -gram frequency profiles are used for language identification, authorship attribution, and text classification. HelixHash motifs are the genomic analogue, except that the “alphabet” is typed fragment embeddings rather than characters.
- In **bioinformatics**, k -mer frequency vectors are used for metagenomic binning, phylogenetic classification, and sequence comparison [Wood, 2014]. HelixHash inherits the computational efficiency of k -mer methods while operating over DOGMA’s richer base representation.

The key difference is that HelixHash motifs carry both *type* information (from the τ_i tags) and *content* information (from the σ_i embeddings), enabling both structural and semantic analysis.

2.4 HelixHash as Locality-Preserving Encoding

A fundamental question in sequence representation is: *does the encoding preserve biological locality?* Two sequence regions that are biologically related (e.g., they regulate the same gene, or they fold into adjacent structural elements) should be “close” in the encoded representation. We now show that HelixHash’s helical representation achieves this property more naturally than standard positional encodings.

2.4.1 Why Helical Representation Preserves Locality

Standard positional encodings (sinusoidal or learned) assign each position an embedding based solely on its linear index. This means that positions 1 and 100 are always “far apart,” regardless of whether they participate in the same structural motif. The double-helix representation introduces a second axis of locality: the *complementary position* on the reverse strand.

Proposition 2.1 (Complementary Locality). In the double-helix representation, the encoding of position i on the forward strand is structurally linked to the encoding of position $n + 1 - i$ on the reverse strand. If two positions i and j are both structurally linked to the same region of the reverse strand (i.e., $|n + 1 - i - j| \leq k$ for motif width k), then they share motif overlap and have correlated bond matrix entries.

This means that the helix encoding captures *three-dimensional* proximity (positions that interact across strands) in addition to linear proximity (adjacent positions on the same strand).

2.4.2 Comparison with Standard Positional Encodings

Table 2.3: Comparison of HelixHash helical encoding with standard positional encoding approaches.

Property	Standard Positional	HelixHash Helical
Locality	Linear only (position distance)	Linear + complementary (cross-strand)
Structural info	None (position index only)	Type tags, bond strengths, motif overlap
Bidirectionality	Requires separate forward/backward passes	Built-in via sense/antisense strands
Sparsity	Dense (all positions interact)	Sparse (only bonded positions interact)
Biological grounding	None	Watson–Crick base pairing
Scalability	$O(T^2)$ in attention	$O(T \cdot k)$ via motif windowing

2.4.3 Locality-Sensitive Hashing on Helical Structure

The helical structure enables a specialized form of locality-sensitive hashing (LSH) that respects both linear and complementary proximity.

Definition 2.7 (Helical LSH). A *helical LSH* hash function $h_{\text{helix}} : \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^B$ maps a genome to a B -bit signature such that:

1. Genomes with similar forward-strand motif spectra have high probability of sharing hash bits.
2. Genomes with similar reverse-strand motif spectra *also* have high probability of sharing hash bits.
3. The hash is *strand-symmetric*: $h_{\text{helix}}(G) = h_{\text{helix}}(G')$ whenever G and G' have the same canonical motif spectrum (where each motif is replaced by its canonical form from Eq. 2.5).

Property (3) is what distinguishes helical LSH from standard LSH: it ensures that the hash respects the biological symmetry of complementary strands. Two genomes that differ only by a swap of sense and antisense strands receive the same hash.

2.5 Strand Sketches

Storing and comparing full motif frequency spectra is expensive for large genomes ($4^6 = 4,096$ dimensions even for the default width). HelixHash addresses this through *strand sketches*—compact, fixed-size summaries that support fast similarity estimation.

Definition 2.8 (Signed Count Sketch). A *signed count sketch* of width w for a genome G is a vector $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}^w$ constructed as follows. Let $h : \{\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{T}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{G}\}^k \rightarrow \{1, \dots, w\}$ be a hash function and $g : \{\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{T}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{G}\}^k \rightarrow \{-1, +1\}$ be a sign function. For each motif $m_i^{(k)} \in \mathcal{M}_k(G)$ with type sequence $\mathbf{t}_i$:

$$\mathbf{s}[h(\mathbf{t}_i)] \ += \ g(\mathbf{t}_i). \quad (2.18)$$

The sketch $\mathbf{s}$ has three desirable properties. First, it is *linear*: the sketch of a union is the sum of individual sketches. Second, inner products of sketches approximate inner products of full frequency vectors, with error decreasing as $O(1/\sqrt{w})$. Third, construction is $O(n)$ in genome length, requiring a single pass over the fragment sequence.

2.5.1 MinHash Lineage and Locality-Sensitive Hashing

For clustering and nearest-neighbor search over large genome populations, HelixHash employs *locality-sensitive hashing* (LSH) derived from the MinHash family.

Definition 2.9 (HelixHash LSH Signature). Given a genome G , its *LSH signature* is a vector of B hash values:

$$\text{LSH}(G) = (h_1^{\min}(G), h_2^{\min}(G), \dots, h_B^{\min}(G)) \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^b - 1\}^B, \quad (2.19)$$

where each $h_j^{\min}(G) = \min_{\mathbf{t} \in \text{typeseq}(\mathcal{M}_k(G))} h_j(\mathbf{t})$ is a MinHash value computed from a distinct hash function h_j , and b is the bit width per hash. The default configuration uses $B = 12$ bands with $b = 12$ bits, yielding a 144-bit signature.

LSH Clustering Protocol

Two genomes G_1 and G_2 are assigned to the same *LSH cluster* if their signatures agree on at least one complete band of r consecutive hash values:

$$\text{SameCluster}(G_1, G_2) \iff \exists j : \text{LSH}(G_1)[j \cdot r : (j+1) \cdot r] = \text{LSH}(G_2)[j \cdot r : (j+1) \cdot r]. \quad (2.20)$$

With $B = 12$ bands and $r = 1$ row per band, the probability that two genomes with Jaccard similarity J are placed in the same cluster is $1 - (1 - J)^{12}$, providing high recall for pairs with $J > 0.3$.

The 12-bit LSH clustering is the primary mechanism by which HelixHash maintains structural diversity during evolutionary training (Section 2.6).

2.6 Novelty Detection

Evolutionary search risks premature convergence: the population collapses to a narrow region of genome space, losing the diversity needed to discover novel solutions. HelixHash provides three complementary novelty mechanisms that counteract this tendency.

2.6.1 Archive-Based Novelty

The HelixHash archive $\mathcal{A}_t$ stores the strand sketches of all genomes encountered during evolutionary training. The *archive novelty* of a candidate genome G is its average distance to the K nearest archived sketches:

$$N_{\text{archive}}(G) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^K \|\mathbf{s}(G) - \mathbf{s}(G_i^{\text{nn}})\|_2, \quad (2.21)$$

where $G_1^{\text{nn}}, \dots, G_K^{\text{nn}}$ are the K nearest neighbors of G in the archive under sketch distance, and $\mathbf{s}(\cdot)$ denotes the signed count sketch. High archive novelty indicates that the genome is structurally distinct from previously seen genomes.

2.6.2 Detecting Novel vs. Seen Patterns

A key application of HelixHash’s novelty machinery is distinguishing genuinely novel genomic configurations from previously encountered patterns. This capability is critical during evolutionary training: mutations that produce structurally novel genomes should be encouraged (to maintain diversity), while mutations that merely recreate previously explored configurations should be deprioritized.

Definition 2.10 (Novelty Threshold). A genome G is classified as *novel* at generation t if:

$$N_{\text{archive}}(G) > \mu_{\mathcal{A}} + \kappa \cdot \sigma_{\mathcal{A}}, \quad (2.22)$$

where $\mu_{\mathcal{A}}$ and $\sigma_{\mathcal{A}}$ are the mean and standard deviation of archive novelty scores across the current population, and $\kappa > 0$ is a sensitivity parameter (default $\kappa = 1.5$).

The threshold adapts over time: as the archive grows and the population explores more of genome space, $\mu_{\mathcal{A}}$ decreases (new genomes tend to be closer to something in the archive), and the threshold tightens accordingly. This progressive tightening is desirable—early in training, the bar for “novelty” is low (encouraging broad exploration), while later in training the bar rises (requiring genuinely innovative configurations).

Example 2.4 (Novel vs. Seen Classification). Suppose the archive contains 500 genomes and the current population has 50 candidates. The archive novelty scores have mean $\mu_{\mathcal{A}} = 4.2$ and standard deviation $\sigma_{\mathcal{A}} = 1.8$. With $\kappa = 1.5$, the novelty threshold is $4.2 + 1.5 \times 1.8 = 6.9$.

- Genome G_a with $N_{\text{archive}} = 8.1$: **Novel**. This genome’s structural signature is far from anything in the archive. It likely arose from a rare mutation combination.
- Genome G_b with $N_{\text{archive}} = 3.5$: **Seen**. This genome is structurally similar to archived genomes. It may be a minor variant of a previously explored configuration.

2.6.3 Cluster-Aware Selection

Using the LSH clusters from Section 2.5, HelixHash computes a *cluster novelty* score that penalizes genomes falling into already-crowded clusters:

$$N_{\text{cluster}}(G) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{C}(G)|}, \quad (2.23)$$

where $\mathcal{C}(G)$ is the LSH cluster containing G and $|\mathcal{C}(G)|$ is its population count. Genomes in sparsely populated clusters receive higher novelty scores, encouraging exploration of underrepresented structural regions.

2.6.4 Temporal Novelty Decay

To prevent the archive from growing without bound and to prioritize *recent* novelty, HelixHash applies exponential temporal decay:

$$N_{\text{temporal}}(G, t) = \sum_{s=0}^{t-1} \gamma^{t-s} \cdot \mathbf{1}[\text{SameCluster}(G, G_s)], \quad (2.24)$$

where $\gamma = 0.9$ is the decay factor, t is the current generation, and G_s is the genome selected at generation s . The indicator $\mathbf{1}[\cdot]$ counts cluster co-occurrences with exponentially decreasing weight. Low temporal novelty (few recent cluster mates) is rewarded.

2.6.5 The Selection Objective

The complete HelixHash-informed selection objective combines task fitness with structural diversity pressures:

$$\mathcal{L}(G) = J_{\text{task}} - \eta_1 N_{\text{archive}} - \eta_2 N_{\text{cluster}} - \eta_3 N_{\text{temporal}} - \eta_4 C_{\text{bond}} - \eta_5 C_{\text{strand}} \quad (2.25)$$

where:

- J_{task} is the primary task fitness (e.g., accuracy, perplexity).
- N_{archive} , N_{cluster} , N_{temporal} are the three novelty terms (negated because higher novelty should *increase* the objective).
- C_{bond} is the bond strength (Eq. 2.14), regularizing structural coherence.
- C_{strand} is the strand alignment consistency between $F(G)$ and $R(G)$.
- $\eta_1, \dots, \eta_5 > 0$ are weighting coefficients tuned per task.

Sign Convention

Note the negative signs on the novelty terms. Because $\mathcal{L}(G)$ is *maximized* during selection, and high novelty scores ($N_{\text{archive}}, N_{\text{cluster}}$) indicate *desirable* structural uniqueness, they are subtracted (i.e., added in effect) to increase the objective. The bond and strand coherence terms $C_{\text{bond}}, C_{\text{strand}}$ are similarly subtracted because higher coherence is desirable. The convention follows the evo-trainer codebase, where the objective is framed as a loss to be minimized in the outer loop, with the sign flip handled at the selection stage.

2.7 HelixHash as Embedding

Beyond its role in evolutionary selection, HelixHash provides a *motif-based embedding layer* that can serve as the input representation for foundation models. This section describes the dual-stream architecture that integrates HelixHash embeddings with standard token embeddings.

2.7.1 Motif Embedding Layer

Each k -motif is mapped to a dense vector through a learned embedding:

$$\mathbf{e}_i^{\text{motif}} = W_{\text{motif}} \cdot \text{pool}(m_i^{(k)}) + \mathbf{p}_i, \quad (2.26)$$

where $W_{\text{motif}} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times (k \cdot d_f)}$ is the motif projection matrix, $\text{pool}(\cdot)$ concatenates the k fragment embeddings in the motif, and $\mathbf{p}_i$ is a positional encoding. The motif embedding captures local structural patterns in a form compatible with downstream transformer or DOGMA processing blocks.

2.7.2 Dual-Stream Architecture

The HelixHash embedding layer feeds into a *dual-stream* architecture that processes standard and helix channels in parallel:

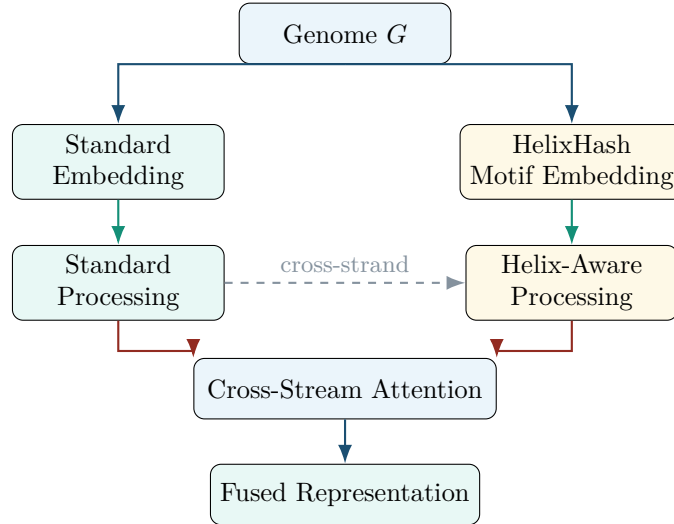


Figure 2.3: Dual-stream HelixHash embedding architecture. The standard channel processes token-level embeddings; the helix channel processes motif-level structural features. Cross-stream attention fuses both representations.

The standard stream processes fragment embeddings through conventional layers (attention or state-space blocks). The helix stream processes motif embeddings that encode local structural patterns from both the forward and reverse strands. A cross-stream attention mechanism allows information to flow between the two channels:

$$\mathbf{h}_{\text{fused}} = \text{CrossAttn}(\mathbf{h}_{\text{std}}, \mathbf{h}_{\text{helix}}) + \mathbf{h}_{\text{std}}, \quad (2.27)$$

where $\mathbf{h}_{\text{std}}$ and $\mathbf{h}_{\text{helix}}$ are the hidden states of the standard and helix streams, respectively. The residual connection ensures that the helix stream *augments* rather than replaces standard processing.

2.8 The HelixHash Algorithm

We now present the complete HelixHash computation as a unified algorithm. Given a genome, Algorithm 2 produces all structural signatures needed for the selection objective (Eq. 2.25).

Algorithm 2 HelixHash: Structural Signature Computation

Require: Genome $G = (f_1, \dots, f_n)$, motif width k , sketch width w , LSH bands B

Ensure: Strand sketch $\mathbf{s}$, LSH signature ℓ , bond strength C_{bond} , strand consistency C_{strand}

```

1: // Step 1: Construct strands
2:  $F \leftarrow [f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n]$  ▷ Forward strand
3:  $R \leftarrow [\text{rev}(f_n), \text{rev}(f_{n-1}), \dots, \text{rev}(f_1)]$  ▷ Reverse strand
4: // Step 2: Extract motifs from both strands
5:  $\mathcal{M}_F \leftarrow \{(f_i, \dots, f_{i+k-1}) : 1 \leq i \leq n - k + 1\}$ 
6:  $\mathcal{M}_R \leftarrow \{(r_i, \dots, r_{i+k-1}) : 1 \leq i \leq n - k + 1\}$  where  $r_j = \text{rev}(f_{n+1-j})$ 
7:  $\mathcal{M} \leftarrow \mathcal{M}_F \cup \mathcal{M}_R$  ▷ Union of both strands
8: // Step 3: Build signed count sketch
9: Initialize  $\mathbf{s} \leftarrow \mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{Z}^w$ 
10: for each motif  $m \in \mathcal{M}$  do
11:      $\mathbf{t} \leftarrow \text{typeseq}(m)$ 
12:      $\mathbf{s}[h(\mathbf{t})] \leftarrow \mathbf{s}[h(\mathbf{t})] + g(\mathbf{t})$ 
13: end for
14: // Step 4: Compute LSH signature
15: for  $j = 1$  to  $B$  do
16:      $\ell[j] \leftarrow \min_{\mathbf{t} \in \text{typeseq}(\mathcal{M})} h_j(\mathbf{t})$ 
17: end for
18: // Step 5: Compute bond matrix superdiagonal
19: for  $i = 1$  to  $n - 1$  do
20:      $C_{\text{bond}} \leftarrow C_{\text{bond}} + 0.75 \cdot J(f_i, f_{i+1}) + 0.25 \cdot A(f_i, f_{i+1})$ 
21: end for
22:  $C_{\text{bond}} \leftarrow C_{\text{bond}} / (n - 1)$ 
23: // Step 6: Strand consistency
24:  $C_{\text{strand}} \leftarrow \frac{1}{2} [\cos(\bar{F}, \bar{R}) + 1]$  where  $\bar{F}, \bar{R}$  are mean-pooled strand representations
25: return  $\mathbf{s}, \ell, C_{\text{bond}}, C_{\text{strand}}$ 
    
```

Complexity of HelixHash

Algorithm 2 runs in $O(n \cdot k)$ time and $O(w + B)$ auxiliary space, where n is the genome length, k is the motif width, w is the sketch width, and B is the number of LSH bands. Since k , w , and B are constants (typically $k = 6$, $w = 256$, $B = 12$), the algorithm is effectively $O(n)$ in genome length. This linear-time construction is critical for scalability: during evolutionary training, HelixHash must be recomputed for every candidate genome at every generation.

2.9 Theoretical Properties

We establish two key theoretical results about HelixHash representations.

Theorem 2.2 (Sketch Approximation Guarantee). Let $\phi_k(G_1)$ and $\phi_k(G_2)$ be the motif frequency spectra of two genomes, and let $\mathbf{s}_1, \mathbf{s}_2$ be their signed count sketches of width w . Then:

$$\mathbb{E} \left[\frac{\langle \mathbf{s}_1, \mathbf{s}_2 \rangle}{|\mathcal{M}_k(G_1)| \cdot |\mathcal{M}_k(G_2)|} \right] = \langle \phi_k(G_1), \phi_k(G_2) \rangle, \quad (2.28)$$

with variance bounded by $O(1/w)$.

Proof sketch. This follows from the standard analysis of count sketches [Charikar, 2002]. The hash function h distributes motif types uniformly across w bins, and the sign function g ensures that cross-terms cancel in expectation. The variance bound follows from pairwise independence of the hash family. The full proof follows from standard techniques in the sketching literature. $\square$

Theorem 2.3 (Bond Strength and Assembly Quality). Let $G^* = (f_1, \dots, f_n)$ be a “well-assembled” genome (one where consecutive fragments were originally adjacent) and let G^π be a random permutation of the same fragments. Then in expectation:

$$\mathbb{E}[C_{\text{bond}}(G^*)] > \mathbb{E}[C_{\text{bond}}(G^\pi)], \quad (2.29)$$

with the gap increasing with the average motif sharing between genuinely adjacent fragments.

This result confirms that bond strength is a meaningful quality measure: well-organized genomes have higher bond strength than randomly shuffled ones, providing a useful signal for the evolutionary selection objective.

2.10 Connection to the DOGMA Pipeline

HelixHash connects to every major component of the DOGMA architecture:

- **Genome (Ch. 1):** The double-helix representation defines the structural format of the genome. Every genome maintained by the Evolutor has an associated HelixHash signature in the archive $\mathcal{A}_t$.
- **Tera (Ch. 3):** The Tera regime state uses HelixHash novelty scores to modulate mutation pressure. When novelty drops below a threshold, Tera increases mutation rates to restore diversity.
- **Evolutionary Training (Ch. 6):** The selection objective (Eq. 2.25) is the primary interface between HelixHash and the evolutionary loop. HelixHash signatures determine which genomes survive to the next generation.
- **Foundation Models:** The dual-stream embedding (Section 2.7) provides helix-aware input representations for foundation model pretraining, discussed further in Chapter 1.

2.11 Exercises

- 8.1. [Fundamentals]** Compute the motif frequency spectrum $\phi_3(G)$ for a genome with type sequence AATCGGATCG. How many distinct 3-motif type patterns appear? What is the most frequent pattern?

- 8.2. [Bond Matrix]** Given the hydrogen bond matrix $\mathbf{H}$ from Table 2.1, compute the total hydrogen bond count for each of the following duplexes: (a) AAAA paired with TTTT; (b) GGGG paired with CCCC; (c) ACGT paired with TGCA. Which duplex is most thermodynamically stable and why?
- 8.3. [Nearest-Neighbor Model]** Using the SantaLucia parameters from Table 2.2, compute $\Delta G_{\text{total}}^o$ for the sequence GCGCGCGC. Compare your answer with the result from Example 2.2 for ACGTACGT. Which sequence forms a more stable duplex?
- 8.4. [Analysis]** A genome of length $n = 1,000$ has its HelixHash computed with $k = 6$, $w = 256$, and $B = 12$. Calculate: (a) the number of overlapping motifs extracted from each strand; (b) the total sketch construction time in terms of hash evaluations; (c) the memory footprint of the LSH signature in bits.
- 8.5. [Design]** The bond matrix weighting uses $\alpha = 0.75$ for Jaccard overlap and $1 - \alpha = 0.25$ for boundary alignment. Design an experiment to determine whether this ratio is optimal. What metric would you use to evaluate different values of α ? Suggest at least three candidate values and predict their effects.
- 8.6. [Canonical Forms]** Enumerate all canonical 2-motif type sequences (i.e., one representative from each $\{\mathbf{t}, \text{RC}(\mathbf{t})\}$ pair). How many are there? Show that this is always exactly half of 4^k for even k (hint: there are no palindromic reverse complements for even $k > 0$).
- 8.7. [Coding]** Implement the signed count sketch (Definition 2.8) in Python. Use `mmh3` (MurmurHash3) for h and a separate MurmurHash with different seed for g (mapping to $\{-1, +1\}$). Generate two random genomes of length 500 with 70% shared fragments and verify that the sketch inner product approximates the true motif frequency inner product.
- 8.8. [Locality]** Consider two genomes G_1 and G_2 that differ only by a single point mutation at position i . How does the motif frequency spectrum $\phi_k(G_1)$ differ from $\phi_k(G_2)$? At most how many motif entries can change? Use this to argue that HelixHash is locality-preserving.
- 8.9. [Theory]** Prove that the strand alignment score $S_{\text{strand}}(G_1, G_2)$ (Eq. 2.6) satisfies the property $S_{\text{strand}}(G, G) = 1$ for any genome G whose complementation operator is exactly involutory ($\text{rev}(\text{rev}(f)) = f$ for all fragments f).
- 8.10. [Research]** The temporal novelty decay (Eq. 2.24) uses $\gamma = 0.9$. Investigate how different values of γ affect evolutionary dynamics. At $\gamma = 0$, only the current generation matters; at $\gamma = 1$, all history is weighted equally. Derive the effective memory horizon $\tau_{\text{eff}} = 1/(1 - \gamma)$ and discuss its implications for a 500-generation evolutionary run.

2.12 Key Takeaways

Key Takeaways

- HelixHash represents every computational genome as a double helix with forward strand $F(G)$ (sense, $5' \rightarrow 3'$) and reverse strand $R(G)$ (antisense, $3' \rightarrow 5'$), enabling bidirectional structural analysis.
- Watson–Crick complementarity ($\overline{A} = T$, $\overline{G} = C$) acts as an involutory hash function; canonical motif forms exploit this symmetry to halve the effective vocabulary.
- The 4×4 hydrogen bond matrix $\mathbf{H}$ (A–T: 2 bonds, G–C: 3 bonds) provides biologically grounded, sparse attention weights. SantaLucia nearest-neighbor parameters refine this to 16 stacking free-energy values.
- Width- k overlapping motifs (default $k = 6$) are the basic unit of structural analysis, analogous to k-mers in bioinformatics and n-grams in NLP.
- Signed count sketches provide $O(n)$ construction of compact similarity-preserving summaries; 12-band LSH signatures enable fast clustering of genome populations.
- Bond matrices capture inter-fragment coherence through 75% Jaccard overlap + 25% boundary alignment, yielding sparse structural maps that contrast with dense attention matrices.
- Three novelty mechanisms—archive, cluster, and temporal ($\gamma = 0.9$ decay)—prevent evolutionary collapse and maintain structural diversity. Novelty detection classifies genomes as novel or seen using an adaptive threshold.
- The helical encoding is designed to preserve both linear proximity and complementary (cross-strand) proximity. Whether that inductive bias improves on standard positional encodings is an open empirical question that requires matched-compute ablations.
- The dual-stream embedding architecture integrates HelixHash motif features with standard token embeddings for foundation model training.

Suggested Reading

- [Charikar \[2002\]](#): Similarity estimation via count sketches, the theoretical foundation for HelixHash sketches.
- [Broder \[1997\]](#): MinHash and locality-sensitive hashing, the basis for HelixHash’s LSH clustering.
- [Wood \[2014\]](#): Kraken and k-mer methods in metagenomics, a bioinformatics parallel to motif extraction.
- [SantaLucia \[1998\]](#): Unified nearest-neighbor thermodynamic parameters, the source of the 16 ΔG° values used in HelixHash’s stacking weights.
- [Lehman and Stanley \[2011\]](#): Novelty search in evolutionary algorithms, the inspiration for archive-based novelty scoring.

- Chapter 1 of this book: the six-stage pipeline that HelixHash supports.
- Chapter 6 of this book: the evolutionary training loop where HelixHash’s selection objective is applied.

Chapter 3

Tera — The Hidden Regime State

*An organism does not optimize one thing.
It optimizes its continued existence across a
landscape of competing pressures—and it
remembers which pressures mattered most.*

— DOGMA Design Notes, 2025

In Chapter 1, we introduced the six-stage DOGMA pipeline and noted that the Evolutor maintains a persistent *Tera regime state* that guides regulation and synthesis. In Chapter 2, we saw how HelixHash encodes structural novelty. This chapter reveals the hidden engine beneath both: **Tera**, DOGMA’s multi-objective evolutionary pressure system.

Tera is to DOGMA what the epigenome is to the genome—a layer of dynamic, heritable state that modulates how the underlying structure is read, modified, and expressed. Just as epigenetic marks do not change DNA sequence but profoundly alter gene expression [Allis and Jenuwein, 2016], the Tera regime state does not change the genomic bases themselves but determines *which mutation strategies are applied, how aggressively exploration proceeds, and what trade-offs the system prioritizes* at any given moment.

This chapter is organized as follows. We begin with an intuitive explanation of what a regime state is and why it matters (Section 3.1). We then formalize the multi-objective pressure system (Section 3.2), define the Tera regime state mathematically (Section 3.3), explore mutation families and how they are steered (Section 3.4), present the Tera state machine (Section 3.5), discuss meta-policy learning (Section 3.6), connect to biological evolution (Section 3.7), and walk through a detailed worked example (Section 3.9). We conclude with the full Tera Double-Helix Complex (Section 3.11) and exercises.

3.1 What Is a Regime State?

Before diving into formalism, let us build an intuitive understanding of what a “regime state” means.

3.1.1 Everyday Analogies

Example 3.1 (Traffic Flow Regimes). Consider traffic on a highway. At low density, cars move freely at high speed—this is the *free-flow regime*. As density increases, drivers slow down and form platoons—the *synchronized flow regime*. Beyond a critical density, traffic jams form and propagate backward—the *congested regime*. Each regime has its own dynamics: the rules governing how

individual cars behave change depending on which regime the system is in. A driver who accelerates aggressively in free flow may need to brake constantly in congestion. The regime is a hidden variable that determines which behavioral strategy is optimal.

Example 3.2 (Weather Systems). A weather system operates in distinct regimes: clear skies, scattered clouds, overcast, light rain, thunderstorms. Each regime has its own physics. In the clear-sky regime, solar heating dominates; in the thunderstorm regime, convective dynamics take over. Meteorologists do not model weather with a single equation—they identify the current regime and apply the appropriate physical model. The regime is not directly observed; it is *inferred* from measurements of temperature, pressure, humidity, and wind speed.

Example 3.3 (A Student’s Study Strategy). Think about how you study for exams. Early in the semester, you might focus on understanding concepts (exploration). As exams approach, you shift to practice problems (precision). If you realize you are weak in one topic, you focus there (targeted repair). Your “study regime” changes based on feedback (grades, practice test scores) and time pressure. You do not use a single fixed strategy all semester—you adapt.

The Core Idea of a Regime State

A **regime state** is a compact summary of which behavioral strategy a system should currently follow. It changes over time in response to feedback. It is “hidden” because it is not directly observed but inferred from noisy signals. In DOGMA, the regime state determines which evolutionary mutations are applied to the genome—it is the system’s adaptive strategy selector.

3.1.2 Why Does DOGMA Need a Regime State?

Consider what happens without one. Suppose DOGMA always applied the same mutation strategy—say, always trying to improve output precision. The system would become excellent at precise answers but might produce verbose, incoherent outputs that ignore context. Conversely, if it always explored novel configurations, it would be creative but unreliable.

The regime state solves this by continuously monitoring multiple dimensions of performance and directing evolutionary effort where it is most needed. It is a *dynamic priority system* that prevents the evolutionary search from getting stuck in any single optimization direction.

3.2 The Problem of Multi-Objective Evolution

3.2.1 Why Single-Objective Optimization Fails

Most machine learning systems optimize a single scalar loss $\mathcal{L}(\theta)$. Even when practitioners combine multiple terms—accuracy, regularization, auxiliary losses—they reduce the result to a weighted sum:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{total}}(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \mathcal{L}_i(\theta). \quad (3.1)$$

This scalarization is convenient but fundamentally limiting. The weights λ_i are fixed hyperparameters chosen before training begins, embedding a *static* preference over objectives. If the system encounters a regime where coherence matters more than efficiency, or where exploration should temporarily dominate exploitation, the fixed weights cannot adapt.

To see why this is a problem, consider a concrete scenario. Suppose you train a language model with a combined loss: 70% accuracy + 20% coherence + 10% efficiency. Early in training, the

model produces incoherent text—coherence should receive more weight. Later, the model becomes coherent but verbose—efficiency should increase. With fixed weights, you cannot adapt to these shifting needs without restarting training.

Biological Multi-Objective Optimization

A bacterium simultaneously optimizes nutrient uptake, waste removal, membrane integrity, DNA repair, motility, and stress response. It does not reduce these to a single scalar. Instead, it maintains a *regulatory network* that dynamically rebalances priorities based on environmental signals. When nutrients are scarce, metabolic pathways are upregulated; when DNA damage is detected, repair mechanisms take precedence. The “weights” are not fixed—they are functions of the organism’s internal state and external context.

3.2.2 The Three Core Pressures: Quality, Diversity, and Coherence

Before introducing all six Tera dimensions, let us focus on three fundamental pressures that illustrate how multi-objective balancing works.

1. **Quality pressure** pushes the system to produce correct, precise outputs. Left unchecked, quality pressure leads to overfitting: the system memorizes solutions to known problems but cannot generalize.
2. **Diversity pressure** pushes the system to explore new solution strategies. Left unchecked, diversity pressure leads to chaos: the system tries random configurations without converging on anything useful.
3. **Coherence pressure** pushes the system to maintain internal consistency. Left unchecked, coherence pressure leads to stagnation: the system refuses to change because any modification risks breaking existing structure.

These three pressures exist in fundamental tension: quality wants precision, diversity wants exploration, and coherence wants stability. The Tera system must balance all three simultaneously.

Example 3.4 (Balancing Three Pressures: A Restaurant). Imagine you are running a restaurant. Quality pressure is customer satisfaction with current dishes. Diversity pressure is the need to innovate the menu. Coherence pressure is the need to keep the kitchen running smoothly (staff know how to make the dishes, ingredients are available). If you only optimize quality, you never change the menu. If you only diversify, staff cannot keep up with constant changes. If you only maintain coherence, you serve the same dishes forever regardless of customer feedback.

3.2.3 The Pareto Landscape

In multi-objective optimization, solutions that cannot be improved on one objective without degrading another lie on the *Pareto front*. For k objectives, this front is a $(k - 1)$ -dimensional surface in objective space.

Definition 3.1 (Pareto Dominance). A solution $\mathbf{x}$ *dominates* solution $\mathbf{y}$ (written $\mathbf{x} \succ \mathbf{y}$) if and only if $f_i(\mathbf{x}) \leq f_i(\mathbf{y})$ for all objectives $i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$ and $f_j(\mathbf{x}) < f_j(\mathbf{y})$ for at least one objective j .

The challenge is not merely finding points on the Pareto front but *navigating* it—moving to the region of the front that best matches current needs. Tera’s contribution is to maintain a *dynamic pressure vector* that steers the evolutionary search toward different regions of the Pareto front as conditions change—a biological thermostat for multi-objective evolution.

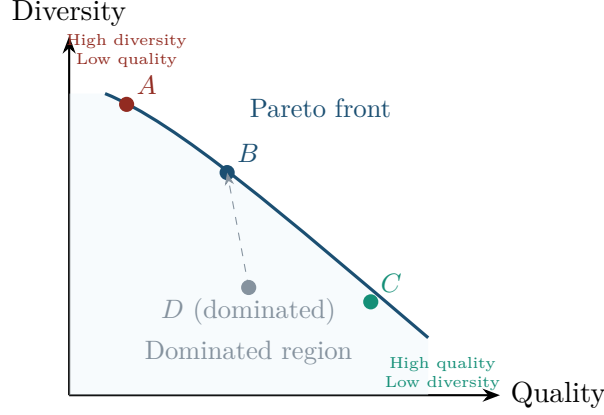


Figure 3.1: The Pareto front for two objectives (quality and diversity). Points A , B , and C lie on the front: none dominates the others. Point D is dominated by B (worse on both objectives). The Tera system navigates along this front, moving toward A when diversity is needed and toward C when quality is paramount.

3.3 The Tera Regime State

3.3.1 The Six Pressure Dimensions

Tera Regime State

The **Tera regime state** at time t is a six-dimensional pressure vector:

$$\mathbf{R}_t = (p_t^{(\text{gnd})}, p_t^{(\text{ext})}, p_t^{(\text{sch})}, p_t^{(\text{eff})}, p_t^{(\text{exp})}, p_t^{(\text{coh})}) \in [0, 1]^6, \quad (3.2)$$

where each component quantifies the evolutionary pressure along one dimension of system performance.

Each pressure dimension captures a specific aspect of system behavior:

1. **Grounding pressure** $p^{(\text{gnd})}$: Measures contextual fidelity—how well the system’s outputs are anchored to provided context and factual grounding. High grounding pressure drives mutations that strengthen retrieval pathways and context integration. *Think of this as:* “Is the system paying attention to the information it was given?”
2. **Exactness pressure** $p^{(\text{ext})}$: Measures answer precision—the degree to which outputs match expected formats, values, and content. This pressure increases when evaluations reveal imprecise or partially correct responses. *Think of this as:* “Is the answer correct and precise?”
3. **Schema pressure** $p^{(\text{sch})}$: Measures structural compliance—adherence to required output schemas (JSON, XML, structured formats). When outputs fail schema validation, this pressure rises. *Think of this as:* “Does the output have the right structure?”
4. **Efficiency pressure** $p^{(\text{eff})}$: Measures resource economy—the ratio of output quality to computational cost. This pressure penalizes verbose, redundant, or computationally wasteful solutions. *Think of this as:* “Is the system being concise and efficient?”

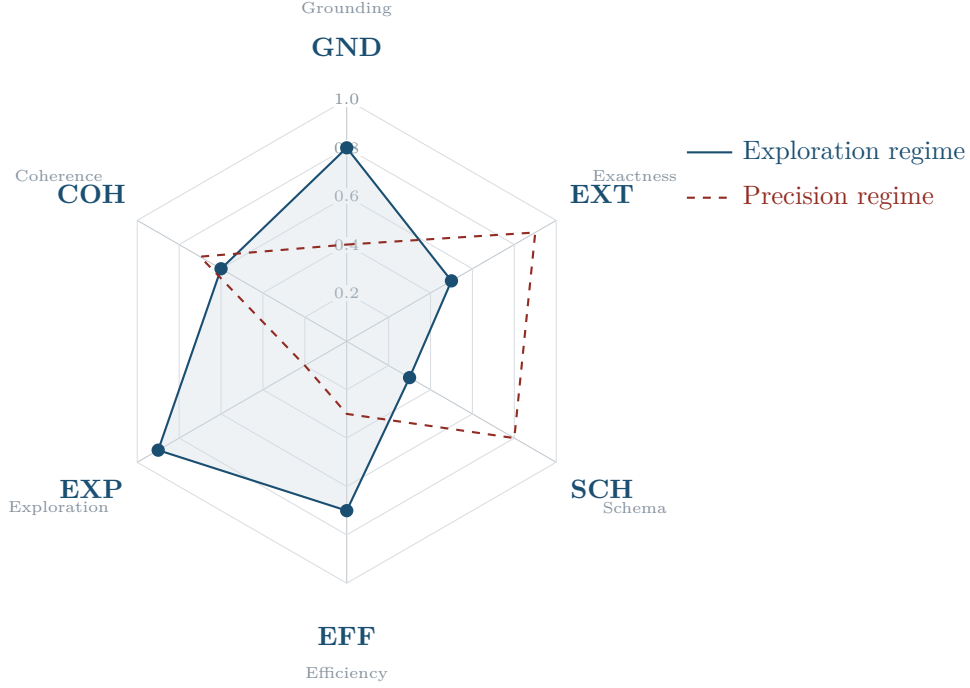


Figure 3.2: The six-dimensional Tera pressure space visualized as a radar chart. The solid blue polygon shows an exploration-dominant regime ($p^{(\text{exp})} = 0.9$); the dashed red polygon shows a precision-dominant regime ($p^{(\text{ext})} = 0.9$, $p^{(\text{sch})} = 0.8$). The Tera system dynamically transitions between such regimes based on evaluation history.

5. **Exploration pressure** $p^{(\text{exp})}$: Measures novelty seeking—the system’s tendency to explore new regions of solution space rather than exploit known strategies. This pressure increases when fitness plateaus. *Think of this as:* “Is the system stuck in a rut and needs to try something new?”
6. **Coherence pressure** $p^{(\text{coh})}$: Measures structural stability—the internal consistency of the genome and the logical coherence of outputs. This pressure counterbalances exploration, preventing the system from destabilizing productive configurations. *Think of this as:* “Is the system still internally consistent?”

3.3.2 Visualizing the Pressure Space

The six-dimensional pressure vector can be visualized as a radar chart (also called a spider plot), where each axis represents one pressure dimension. Different regime states produce different polygon shapes.

3.3.3 How Pressures Interact and Balance

The six pressures do not operate in isolation. They form natural alliances and tensions:

- **Precision alliance:** Grounding, exactness, and schema pressures often rise together. When the system produces incorrect outputs, all three dimensions suffer.

- **Exploration–coherence tension:** Exploration and coherence pressures are natural antagonists. Exploration introduces change; coherence resists it. The balance between them determines how “bold” the system’s mutations are.
- **Efficiency–quality trade-off:** Making outputs more concise (efficiency) can sacrifice detail (exactness). The system must find the sweet spot.

Pressure Correlation Monitoring

In the EVO-TRAINER implementation, the system monitors the correlation matrix of the six pressure time series. Strong positive correlations (e.g., between grounding and exactness) indicate that these dimensions are coupled and may benefit from joint mutations. Strong negative correlations (e.g., exploration vs. coherence) indicate active tension that requires careful balancing.

3.3.4 Exponential Memory Decay

The regime state is not computed from a single evaluation but from a *decaying window* of evaluation history. Each pressure component is updated using an exponential moving average (EMA):

$$p_t^{(d)} = (1 - \alpha) p_{t-1}^{(d)} + \alpha s_t^{(d)}, \quad (3.3)$$

where $s_t^{(d)} \in [0, 1]$ is the raw signal from the most recent evaluation along dimension d , and $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ is the decay rate.

Example 3.5 (Understanding EMA Intuitively). Think of α as a “forgetfulness” parameter. If $\alpha = 1$, the system only remembers the most recent evaluation—it has no memory. If $\alpha = 0$, the system never updates—it is frozen. In between, $\alpha = 0.15$ means each new evaluation contributes 15% of the new pressure value, while 85% comes from the accumulated history. This is like a weighted average where recent grades count more than old grades, but old grades still matter.

Equivalently, the pressure at time t is a weighted sum over all past signals:

$$p_t^{(d)} = \alpha \sum_{k=0}^{t-1} (1 - \alpha)^k s_{t-k}^{(d)}, \quad (3.4)$$

giving recent evaluations exponentially more influence than older ones. The effective memory horizon is $\tau_{\text{eff}} = 1/\alpha$ steps.

Choosing the Decay Rate

In the EVO-TRAINER implementation, $\alpha = 0.15$ provides a memory horizon of approximately 6–7 evaluations. This balances responsiveness to changing conditions against stability in the face of noisy evaluations. For rapidly shifting task distributions, a higher α (shorter memory) may be appropriate; for stable training regimes, a lower α preserves longer-term trends.

Worked Numerical Example: Pressure Update Over Time

Let us trace the grounding pressure through five time steps with $\alpha = 0.2$ and initial pressure $p_0^{(\text{gnd})} = 0.50$.

Suppose the evaluation signals are: $s_1 = 0.80$, $s_2 = 0.90$, $s_3 = 0.70$, $s_4 = 0.30$, $s_5 = 0.40$.

Table 3.1: Worked example: pressure update with $\alpha = 0.2$, $p_0 = 0.50$.

Step t	Signal s_t	Old p_{t-1}	Calculation	New p_t
1	0.80	0.50	$0.8 \times 0.50 + 0.2 \times 0.80$	0.560
2	0.90	0.56	$0.8 \times 0.56 + 0.2 \times 0.90$	0.628
3	0.70	0.628	$0.8 \times 0.628 + 0.2 \times 0.70$	0.642
4	0.30	0.642	$0.8 \times 0.642 + 0.2 \times 0.30$	0.574
5	0.40	0.574	$0.8 \times 0.574 + 0.2 \times 0.40$	0.539

Notice how the pressure responds to the signals but is smoothed. The high signals at $t = 1, 2$ push the pressure up gradually. The low signal at $t = 4$ begins pulling it down, but the effect is gradual—the system does not overreact to a single bad evaluation.

3.3.5 Regime Detection from Evaluation History

Given the pressure vector $\mathbf{R}_t$, the system identifies a *dominant regime* by finding the dimension under greatest pressure:

$$d^* = \arg \max_{d \in \{\text{gnd}, \text{ext}, \text{sch}, \text{eff}, \text{exp}, \text{coh}\}} p_t^{(d)}. \quad (3.5)$$

However, simple argmax regime detection is brittle. The Tera system uses a *pressure gap* threshold δ : the dominant regime is only asserted if $p_t^{(d^*)} - \bar{p}_t > \delta$, where $\bar{p}_t$ is the mean pressure. When no single dimension dominates, the system operates in a *balanced regime* that distributes mutation effort proportionally across all dimensions.

Example 3.6 (Regime Detection with Gap Threshold). Suppose the current pressure vector is $\mathbf{R}_t = (0.6, 0.3, 0.2, 0.5, 0.8, 0.4)$ and $\delta = 0.15$. The mean pressure is $\bar{p}_t = (0.6 + 0.3 + 0.2 + 0.5 + 0.8 + 0.4)/6 = 0.467$. The maximum is $p^{(\text{exp})} = 0.8$, and the gap is $0.8 - 0.467 = 0.333 > 0.15$. So the system enters the *exploration regime*.

Now suppose $\mathbf{R}_t = (0.5, 0.45, 0.5, 0.48, 0.52, 0.47)$. The mean is 0.487, the maximum is 0.52, and the gap is $0.52 - 0.487 = 0.033 < 0.15$. No single dimension dominates, so the system operates in the *balanced regime*.

The Regime as Hidden State

The Tera regime state is “hidden” in the same sense as the hidden state of a hidden Markov model. It is not directly observed; it is *inferred* from a sequence of noisy evaluation signals. The regime vector $\mathbf{R}_t$ is the system’s best estimate of which evolutionary pressures currently demand attention. This is directly analogous to how biological organisms infer environmental state from noisy sensory signals and adjust their regulatory responses accordingly.

3.4 Mutation Families

3.4.1 What Are Mutation Families?

In biological evolution, mutations come in different types: point mutations change a single nucleotide, insertions add new genetic material, deletions remove it, and transposons move segments around. Each type of mutation has a different effect on the organism. DOGMA mirrors this with **mutation families**—groups of related mutation operators that each address a specific type of weakness.

Definition 3.2 (Mutation Family). A **mutation family** is a collection of related mutation operators that share a common purpose. Each family is associated with one pressure dimension and is activated when that dimension’s pressure is high. Formally, family d contains a set of operators $\mathcal{F}_d = \{\mu_d^{(1)}, \mu_d^{(2)}, \dots, \mu_d^{(m_d)}\}$, where each operator $\mu_d^{(i)} : \mathcal{G} \times \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{G}$ maps a genome and context to a modified genome.

3.4.2 The Six Mutation Families

Table 3.2: Mutation families and their corresponding regime pressures.

Family	Pressure	Effect	Bio. Analogue
context_grounding	$p^{(\text{gnd})}$	Strengthen retrieval pathways and context anchoring	Promoter enhancement
exact_answer	$p^{(\text{ext})}$	Sharpen output precision and format adherence	Codon optimization
strict_json	$p^{(\text{sch})}$	Enforce structural output compliance	Reading frame correction
brevity	$p^{(\text{eff})}$	Reduce verbosity and computational waste	Intron splicing
structural_explore	$p^{(\text{exp})}$	Introduce novel genomic configurations	Transposon insertion
bond_repair	$p^{(\text{coh})}$	Restore internal consistency after mutations	DNA mismatch repair

Let us examine each family in more detail:

- **Context grounding family.** When the system’s outputs drift from provided context, this family strengthens the genomic regions responsible for context retrieval. Operators include: enhancing context-attention bonds, adding retrieval markers, and strengthening source-output linkages. Biologically, this is analogous to *promoter enhancement*—making a gene more responsive to its regulatory signals.
- **Exact answer family.** When outputs are imprecise, this family sharpens the genome’s answer-generation regions. Operators include: narrowing output distributions, strengthening pattern-matching bases, and adding precision markers. The biological analogue is *codon optimization*—selecting the specific nucleotide triplets that most efficiently encode a protein.
- **Strict JSON family.** When outputs fail structural validation, this family repairs and reinforces schema-compliance regions. Operators include: inserting structural delimiters, repairing bracket-matching bonds, and adding format-enforcement bases. This is analogous to *reading frame correction*—ensuring that the ribosome reads the mRNA in the correct triplet groupings.

- **Brevity family.** When outputs are verbose, this family trims unnecessary genomic material. Operators include: removing redundant bases, compressing repetitive regions, and streamlining output pathways. The biological analogue is *intron splicing*—removing non-coding sequences from mRNA before translation.
- **Structural exploration family.** When fitness plateaus, this family introduces novel configurations. Operators include: inserting new base sequences, rearranging genomic regions, and creating novel bond patterns. This is analogous to *transposon insertion*—mobile genetic elements that jump to new positions, potentially creating new gene functions.
- **Bond repair family.** When mutations destabilize the genome’s internal structure, this family restores consistency. Operators include: recalculating bond energies, repairing broken cross-references, and re-establishing complementary strand agreement. The biological analogue is *DNA mismatch repair*—enzymatic systems that detect and correct base-pairing errors.

3.4.3 Adaptive Selection of Mutation Strategies

At each synthesis step, the system selects a mutation family with probability proportional to the corresponding pressure component, using a softmax function. Let $\mathbf{w}_t$ be the mutation selection distribution:

$$w_t^{(d)} = \frac{\exp(\beta p_t^{(d)})}{\sum_{d'} \exp(\beta p_t^{(d')})}, \quad (3.6)$$

where $\beta > 0$ is a temperature parameter controlling the sharpness of selection. As $\beta \rightarrow \infty$, only the highest-pressure family is selected; as $\beta \rightarrow 0$, all families are selected uniformly. In practice, β is set to maintain a moderate selection entropy, ensuring that subdominant pressures are not entirely neglected.

Example 3.7 (Computing Mutation Selection Probabilities). Suppose $\mathbf{R}_t = (0.6, 0.3, 0.2, 0.5, 0.8, 0.4)$ and $\beta = 3$. Then:

$$\begin{aligned} \exp(3 \times 0.6) &= 6.05, & \exp(3 \times 0.3) &= 2.46, & \exp(3 \times 0.2) &= 1.82, \\ \exp(3 \times 0.5) &= 4.48, & \exp(3 \times 0.8) &= 11.02, & \exp(3 \times 0.4) &= 3.32. \end{aligned}$$

The sum is $6.05 + 2.46 + 1.82 + 4.48 + 11.02 + 3.32 = 29.15$. The selection probabilities are:

Family	GND	EXT	SCH	EFF	EXP	COH
$w_t^{(d)}$	0.208	0.084	0.063	0.154	0.378	0.114

The exploration family has a 37.8% chance of being selected—the highest—but all other families still have nonzero probability. This prevents the system from completely ignoring any dimension.

Definition 3.3 (Mutation Operator). A **mutation operator** $\mu_d : \mathcal{G} \times \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{G}$ maps a genome $G \in \mathcal{G}$ and context $C \in \mathcal{C}$ to a modified genome $G' = \mu_d(G, C)$, where d indexes the mutation family. Each operator is specialized to address the weakness identified by its corresponding pressure dimension.

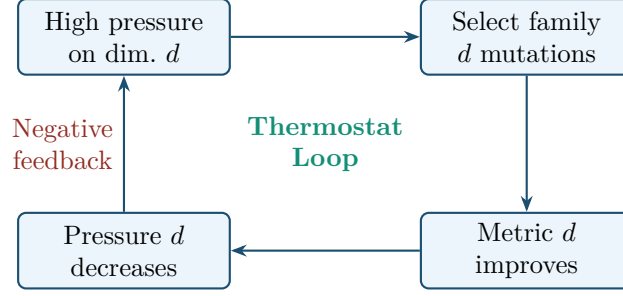


Figure 3.3: The pressure thermostat creates a homeostatic negative feedback loop. When a dimension’s pressure is high, it receives more mutation effort, which improves its metric, which reduces its pressure, freeing resources for other dimensions.

3.4.4 Within-Family Operator Selection

Each mutation family contains multiple operators of varying intensity. When a family is selected, the specific operator within that family is chosen based on the magnitude of the pressure:

- **Low pressure** ($p^{(d)} < 0.3$): Apply mild operators that make small, conservative changes.
- **Medium pressure** ($0.3 \leq p^{(d)} < 0.7$): Apply moderate operators that make targeted adjustments.
- **High pressure** ($p^{(d)} \geq 0.7$): Apply aggressive operators that make substantial restructuring changes.

This two-level selection—first choosing a family, then choosing an operator within that family—gives the Tera system fine-grained control over both the *type* and *intensity* of mutations.

3.4.5 The Pressure Thermostat

A critical design feature of Tera is *automatic rebalancing*. When a mutation family succeeds—improving its corresponding evaluation metric—the associated pressure naturally decreases (since the evaluation signal $s_t^{(d)}$ improves). This creates a negative feedback loop:

1. High pressure on dimension $d \Rightarrow$ mutations from family d are preferentially selected.
2. Successful mutations improve the metric $\Rightarrow$ evaluation signal $s_t^{(d)}$ decreases.
3. Decreased signal $\Rightarrow$ pressure $p_{t+1}^{(d)}$ decreases via Eq. (3.3).
4. Lower pressure $\Rightarrow$ other dimensions receive more mutation effort.

Homeostatic Regulation

This negative feedback loop is directly analogous to homeostasis in biological systems. A thermostat does not heat and cool simultaneously; it senses the current temperature and applies the appropriate correction. Similarly, the Tera pressure thermostat senses which aspects of system performance are weakest and directs evolutionary effort accordingly. The result is a system that autonomously maintains balance across multiple competing objectives without manual tuning of loss weights.

The thermostat can be formalized as a dynamical system. Define the *deficit* $\delta_t^{(d)} = 1 - f_t^{(d)}$, where $f_t^{(d)} \in [0, 1]$ is the fitness on dimension d . Then the pressure update becomes:

$$p_{t+1}^{(d)} = (1 - \alpha) p_t^{(d)} + \alpha \delta_t^{(d)}. \quad (3.7)$$

At equilibrium ($p_{t+1}^{(d)} = p_t^{(d)}$), we have $p_\infty^{(d)} = \delta_\infty^{(d)}$: pressure equals deficit. The system reaches equilibrium when mutation effort is distributed in proportion to remaining deficiencies—a provably optimal allocation under mild assumptions about mutation effectiveness.

3.5 The Tera State Machine

3.5.1 Formal Definition

The Tera system can be modeled as a finite state machine that transitions between discrete regime modes based on the continuous pressure vector. This formalization helps us reason about the system’s long-term behavior.

Tera State Machine

The Tera state machine is a tuple $\mathcal{T} = (S, s_0, \Sigma, \delta_T, \omega)$ where:

- $S = \{\text{BALANCED, GROUNDING, PRECISION, SCHEMA, EFFICIENCY, EXPLORATION, COHERENCE, CRISIS}\}$ is the set of regime modes.
- $s_0 = \text{BALANCED}$ is the initial state.
- $\Sigma = [0, 1]^6$ is the input alphabet (evaluation signal vectors).
- $\delta_T : S \times \Sigma \rightarrow S$ is the transition function.
- $\omega : S \rightarrow \Delta(\mathcal{F})$ maps each state to a mutation family distribution.

The eight regime modes are:

1. **BALANCED**: No single pressure dominates. All mutation families are applied with roughly equal probability. This is the default, “healthy” state.
2. **GROUNDING–COHERENCE**: One of the six single-pressure regimes. The system has detected a clear weakness on one dimension and focuses mutation effort there.
3. **CRISIS**: Multiple pressures are simultaneously high (all above a threshold θ_c). The system is failing on many dimensions and enters an emergency mode with aggressive, broad-spectrum mutations.

3.5.2 Transition Rules

The transition function δ_T is defined by the following rules, evaluated in order:

1. **Crisis entry**: If $\min_d p_t^{(d)} > \theta_c$ (all pressures above crisis threshold, typically $\theta_c = 0.7$), transition to CRISIS regardless of current state.

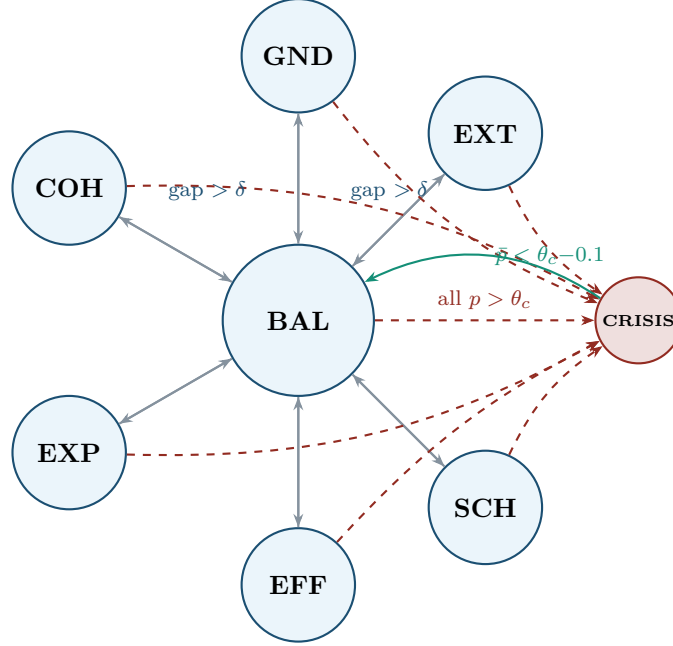


Figure 3.4: The Tera state machine. The system starts in the BALANCED state (center) and transitions to a specific regime when one pressure dimension dominates. It enters CRISIS when all pressures are simultaneously high. Transitions require hysteresis (h consecutive steps meeting the condition) to prevent oscillation.

2. **Crisis exit:** If in CRISIS and $\bar{p}_t < \theta_c - 0.1$ (mean pressure has dropped sufficiently), transition to BALANCED.
3. **Regime entry:** If $p_t^{(d^*)} - \bar{p}_t > \delta$ (pressure gap exceeds threshold), transition to the regime corresponding to d^* .
4. **Regime exit:** If in a single-pressure regime and $p_t^{(d^*)} - \bar{p}_t \leq \delta$ (the gap has closed), transition to BALANCED.
5. **Hysteresis:** To prevent rapid oscillation, a regime transition requires the condition to hold for h consecutive steps (typically $h = 2$).

3.5.3 State Diagram

3.5.4 Output Function: Mutation Distribution by State

Each state produces a different mutation family distribution:

Table 3.3: Mutation family selection weights $\omega(s)$ for each regime state. Higher values indicate stronger selection. The actual probabilities are computed via softmax (Eq. 3.6).

Regime	GND	EXT	SCH	EFF	EXP	COH
BALANCED	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
GROUNDING	3.0	1.0	0.5	0.5	0.5	1.0
PRECISION	1.0	3.0	1.5	0.5	0.3	1.0
SCHEMA	0.5	1.0	3.0	0.5	0.3	1.0
EFFICIENCY	0.5	0.5	0.5	3.0	0.5	0.8
EXPLORATION	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.5	3.0	1.5
COHERENCE	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.8	0.3	3.0
CRISIS	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.0	2.5	2.5

Notice the design choices: the EXPLORATION regime boosts coherence alongside exploration (to keep the genome stable during restructuring), and the CRISIS regime elevates exploration and coherence (to find new solutions while preventing collapse).

3.6 Meta-Policy: Learning Which Mutations Work Best

3.6.1 The Problem of Starting from Scratch

Individual training runs are episodic: each run starts with an initial genome, evolves it over some number of generations, and produces a final evolved genome. Without cross-run memory, each run begins from scratch, unable to benefit from the regime dynamics learned in previous runs.

Consider this analogy: if you had to prepare for the same type of exam multiple times, you would not start from scratch each time. You would remember which study strategies worked best: “For math exams, I should start with practice problems early. For history exams, I need to focus on timeline memorization.” This accumulated wisdom about *which strategies work in which situations* is exactly what Tera’s meta-policy captures.

3.6.2 Cross-Run Persistent Learning

Tera addresses this through a **meta-policy memory**—a persistent store that records regime trajectories and their outcomes across runs:

$$\mathcal{M} = \{(\mathbf{R}_0^{(j)}, \mathbf{R}_1^{(j)}, \dots, \mathbf{R}_{T_j}^{(j)}, \Delta F^{(j)})\}_{j=1}^N, \quad (3.8)$$

where $\mathbf{R}_t^{(j)}$ is the regime state at step t of run j , T_j is the length of run j , and $\Delta F^{(j)}$ is the overall fitness improvement achieved during that run.

The meta-policy memory stores three types of information:

1. **Regime trajectories:** The full sequence of regime states from each run, recording how pressures evolved over time.
2. **Transition success rates:** For each pair of regime modes (s_i, s_j) , the average fitness change when the system transitioned from s_i to s_j .

3. **Mutation effectiveness:** For each mutation family in each regime mode, the average fitness improvement per application.

3.6.3 Shared Regime Priors

From the meta-policy memory, the system extracts *regime priors*—initial pressure vectors that reflect the typical pressure landscape for a given class of tasks. When a new run begins, instead of initializing $\mathbf{R}_0$ uniformly, the system computes:

$$\mathbf{R}_0^{(\text{new})} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^N \Delta F^{(j)} \cdot \mathbf{R}_0^{(j)}}{\sum_{j=1}^N \Delta F^{(j)}}, \quad (3.9)$$

a fitness-weighted average of initial regime states from successful prior runs. This gives the new run a “warm start,” directing early mutation effort toward dimensions that historically mattered most.

Example 3.8 (Warm Start in Practice). Suppose three prior runs yielded these results:

Run	$\mathbf{R}_0$ (initial)	ΔF
1	(0.3, 0.8, 0.5, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6)	0.15
2	(0.7, 0.3, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 0.3)	0.25
3	(0.5, 0.6, 0.3, 0.4, 0.7, 0.5)	0.10

The warm-start prior is:

$$\mathbf{R}_0^{(\text{new})} = \frac{0.15 \cdot (0.3, 0.8, \dots) + 0.25 \cdot (0.7, 0.3, \dots) + 0.10 \cdot (0.5, 0.6, \dots)}{0.15 + 0.25 + 0.10}.$$

Run 2 (the most successful, $\Delta F = 0.25$) contributes the most to the prior. If run 2 succeeded by starting with high grounding and exploration pressures, the new run will also start by prioritizing those dimensions.

3.6.4 Comparison to Meta-Learning

The meta-policy memory bears a structural resemblance to gradient-based meta-learning algorithms, particularly MAML (Model-Agnostic Meta-Learning) and Reptile.

Table 3.4: Comparison of Tera meta-policy memory with gradient-based meta-learning.

Property	MAML / Reptile	Tera Meta-Policy
What is learned	Initial model parameters θ_0	Initial regime state $\mathbf{R}_0$
Inner loop	Gradient descent on task loss	Evolutionary pressure-guided mutation
Outer loop	Meta-gradient across tasks	Fitness-weighted regime averaging
Dimensionality	$ \theta $ (millions–billions)	6 (pressure dimensions)
Computational cost	Second-order gradients (MAML)	Negligible (vector averaging)
Memory footprint	Full parameter checkpoints	6-element vectors per run

Low-Dimensional Meta-Learning

Tera’s meta-policy operates in a six-dimensional space—orders of magnitude smaller than the parameter spaces of MAML or Reptile. This makes meta-learning computationally trivial while capturing the essential information: *which pressures matter*. The insight is that one need not meta-learn the entire model; meta-learning the *regulatory strategy* is sufficient when the model itself is evolved, not trained by gradient descent.

3.7 Connection to Biological Evolution

3.7.1 Organisms Adapt to Environmental Pressures

The Tera regime system is not merely inspired by biology—it is a direct computational analogue of how organisms adapt to multi-pressure environments. Let us trace the parallels in detail.

The Lac Operon as a Regime Switch

The *lac operon* in *E. coli* is a classic example of a biological regime switch. When glucose is abundant, the bacterium uses glucose metabolism (the “glucose regime”). When glucose is scarce but lactose is present, the lac operon activates, switching the bacterium to lactose metabolism (the “lactose regime”). The regime is determined by two environmental signals: glucose level and lactose level. The regime change alters which genes are expressed—exactly analogous to how Tera’s regime state determines which mutation families are activated.

Table 3.5: Mapping between biological regulatory concepts and Tera components.

Concept	Biological System	Tera System
Hidden state	Epigenetic marks, chromatin state	Regime vector $\mathbf{R}_t$
Environmental signal	Nutrient levels, temperature, pH	Evaluation signals $s_t^{(d)}$
State memory	Epigenetic inheritance	Exponential moving average
Behavioral switch	Gene regulatory networks	State machine transitions
Mutation type	Point mutation, transposon, recombination	Mutation families
Cross-generation learning	Lamarckian-like epigenetic inheritance	Meta-policy memory
Homeostasis	Feedback regulation (e.g., blood sugar)	Pressure thermostat

3.7.2 Multi-Scale Adaptation

Biological organisms adapt at multiple timescales:

1. **Immediate** (seconds–minutes): Enzyme regulation, allosteric control. *Tera analogue*: within-step mutation operator selection.

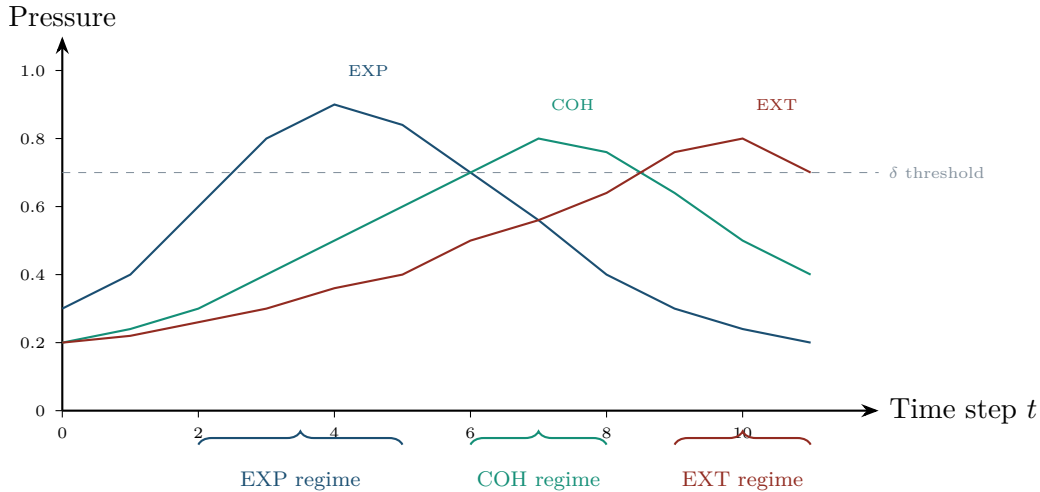


Figure 3.5: Pressure landscape over a training run showing three regime transitions. Initially, exploration pressure dominates (steps 2–5), driving the system to try new configurations. As exploration succeeds, coherence pressure rises (steps 6–8) to stabilize the new structures. Finally, exactness pressure dominates (steps 9–11) as the system refines precision. This sequence—explore, stabilize, refine—is a common pattern in DOGMA evolution.

2. **Short-term** (hours–days): Gene expression changes, stress responses. *Tera analogue*: pressure vector updates via EMA.
3. **Medium-term** (generations): Epigenetic inheritance, developmental plasticity. *Tera analogue*: regime state transitions across multiple steps.
4. **Long-term** (many generations): Genetic evolution, speciation. *Tera analogue*: meta-policy memory across runs.

The Tera system captures this multi-scale structure: the pressure vector changes smoothly within a run (short-term), regime transitions represent qualitative shifts in strategy (medium-term), and meta-policy memory accumulates wisdom across runs (long-term).

The Waddington Landscape

Conrad Waddington’s “epigenetic landscape” depicts cell fate as a ball rolling down a landscape of valleys and ridges. The valleys represent stable cell types (regimes), and the ridges represent barriers between them. Tera’s regime state machine is a computational analogue: each regime mode is a valley (attractor state), and the transition rules define the ridges (barriers). The hysteresis parameter h determines how deep the valleys are—higher hysteresis means deeper valleys and more stable regimes.

3.8 Pressure Landscape Visualization

To understand how pressures evolve during a training run, it helps to visualize the pressure landscape as a time series.

3.9 Worked Example: Five Evolutionary Steps

Let us walk through a complete example showing how the Tera system guides evolution over five steps. We use $\alpha = 0.2$, $\beta = 3$, $\delta = 0.15$, and initial regime state $\mathbf{R}_0 = (0.5, 0.5, 0.5, 0.5, 0.5, 0.5)$ (balanced).

3.9.1 Step 1: Discovery of a Grounding Problem

Evaluation signals: $\mathbf{s}_1 = (0.9, 0.3, 0.2, 0.4, 0.3, 0.3)$.

The grounding signal is high (0.9), indicating the system is struggling with context fidelity.

Pressure update (Eq. 3.3):

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{R}_1 &= 0.8 \times (0.5, 0.5, 0.5, 0.5, 0.5, 0.5) + 0.2 \times (0.9, 0.3, 0.2, 0.4, 0.3, 0.3) \\ &= (0.58, 0.46, 0.44, 0.48, 0.46, 0.46).\end{aligned}$$

Regime detection: $\bar{p}_1 = 0.48$, $\max = 0.58$ (GND), $\text{gap} = 0.10 < 0.15$. Remains in BALANCED.

Action: All mutation families selected with roughly equal probability. The softmax distribution gives GND a slight edge ($\approx 20\%$ vs. 15–16% for others).

3.9.2 Step 2: Grounding Problem Persists

Evaluation signals: $\mathbf{s}_2 = (0.95, 0.25, 0.2, 0.35, 0.2, 0.25)$.

Grounding signal remains very high.

Pressure update:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{R}_2 &= 0.8 \times (0.58, 0.46, 0.44, 0.48, 0.46, 0.46) + 0.2 \times (0.95, 0.25, 0.2, 0.35, 0.2, 0.25) \\ &= (0.654, 0.418, 0.392, 0.454, 0.418, 0.418).\end{aligned}$$

Regime detection: $\bar{p}_2 = 0.459$, $\max = 0.654$ (GND), $\text{gap} = 0.195 > 0.15$. **Transition to Grounding regime!**

Action: The `context_grounding` family receives boosted selection weight (3.0 vs. 0.5–1.0 for others). The system applies context-strengthening mutations.

3.9.3 Step 3: Grounding Improves, Schema Problem Emerges

Evaluation signals: $\mathbf{s}_3 = (0.4, 0.3, 0.85, 0.3, 0.25, 0.3)$.

Grounding improved (signal dropped to 0.4), but schema signal jumped to 0.85—the grounding mutations apparently disrupted output structure.

Pressure update:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{R}_3 &= 0.8 \times (0.654, 0.418, 0.392, 0.454, 0.418, 0.418) + 0.2 \times (0.4, 0.3, 0.85, 0.3, 0.25, 0.3) \\ &= (0.603, 0.394, 0.484, 0.423, 0.384, 0.394).\end{aligned}$$

Regime detection: $\bar{p}_3 = 0.447$, $\max = 0.603$ (GND), $\text{gap} = 0.156 > 0.15$. Remains in GROUNDING regime, but the gap is narrowing.

3.9.4 Step 4: Regime Transition to Schema

Evaluation signals: $\mathbf{s}_4 = (0.3, 0.35, 0.9, 0.3, 0.3, 0.35)$.

Grounding has been mostly fixed (0.3), but schema problems persist (0.9).

Pressure update:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{R}_4 &= 0.8 \times (0.603, 0.394, 0.484, 0.423, 0.384, 0.394) + 0.2 \times (0.3, 0.35, 0.9, 0.3, 0.3, 0.35) \\ &= (0.542, 0.385, 0.567, 0.398, 0.367, 0.385).\end{aligned}$$

Regime detection: $\bar{p}_4 = 0.441$, $\max = 0.567$ (SCH), $\text{gap} = 0.126 < 0.15$. Gap is just below threshold—system remains in GROUNDING (with hysteresis).

3.9.5 Step 5: Schema Takes Over

Evaluation signals: $\mathbf{s}_5 = (0.2, 0.3, 0.95, 0.25, 0.2, 0.3)$.

Grounding is fully resolved (0.2), schema is critical (0.95).

Pressure update:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{R}_5 &= 0.8 \times (0.542, 0.385, 0.567, 0.398, 0.367, 0.385) + 0.2 \times (0.2, 0.3, 0.95, 0.25, 0.2, 0.3) \\ &= (0.474, 0.368, 0.644, 0.368, 0.334, 0.368).\end{aligned}$$

Regime detection: $\bar{p}_5 = 0.426$, $\max = 0.644$ (SCH), $\text{gap} = 0.218 > 0.15$. **Transition to Schema regime!**

Action: The `strict_json` family now receives boosted selection weight, and the system focuses on repairing output structure.

Regime Cascades

This example illustrates a common pattern: fixing one problem can reveal or create another. The grounding mutations at step 2–3 improved context fidelity but disrupted output schema. The Tera system detected this and smoothly transitioned to address the new dominant weakness. This cascading behavior is a feature, not a bug—it reflects the reality that complex systems have interconnected failure modes.

Table 3.6: Summary of the five-step worked example showing regime transitions.

Step	Regime	Max Press.	Gap	Key Event
1	BALANCED	GND: 0.58	0.10	Grounding problem detected but below threshold
2	GROUNDING	GND: 0.654	0.195	Gap exceeds δ ; grounding mutations activated
3	GROUNDING	GND: 0.603	0.156	Grounding improving; schema emerging as issue
4	GROUNDING	SCH: 0.567	0.126	Schema rising but gap below threshold
5	SCHEMA	SCH: 0.644	0.218	Schema mutations now dominant

3.10 Extended Mutation Family Catalog

Each mutation family contains operators of varying intensity. The following table catalogs the primary operators and their characteristics.

Table 3.7: Extended mutation operator catalog by family and intensity level.

Family	Intensity	Operator	Description
ctx_gnd	Low	Bond strengthen	Increase weight of context-retrieval bonds
	Medium	Path insert	Add new retrieval pathways between context and output
	High	Anchor rebuild	Restructure context integration architecture
exact_ans	Low	Precision tune	Fine-adjust output distribution sharpness
	Medium	Pattern graft	Insert pattern-matching base sequences
	High	Answer rewrite	Rebuild answer-generation genomic region
strict_json	Low	Delimiter fix	Repair bracket/brace matching bonds
	Medium	Schema insert	Add structural enforcement base sequences
	High	Format rebuild	Complete restructuring of output formatting
brevity	Low	Trim redundant	Remove obviously redundant base sequences
	Medium	Compress region	Merge repetitive genomic regions
	High	Pathway prune	Remove entire unnecessary processing pathways
struct_exp	Low	Local shuffle	Rearrange bases within a small region
	Medium	Region insert	Add a novel base sequence from the archive
	High	Major restructure	Large-scale rearrangement of genomic architecture
bond_rep	Low	Bond recalc	Recalculate bond energies for consistency
	Medium	Strand sync	Resynchronize forward and reverse strands
	High	Full repair	Complete structural integrity restoration

3.11 The Tera Double-Helix Complex

The regime state $\mathbf{R}_t$ is one component of a larger structure called the **Tera Double-Helix Complex**—the complete internal state of the Evolutor at time t .

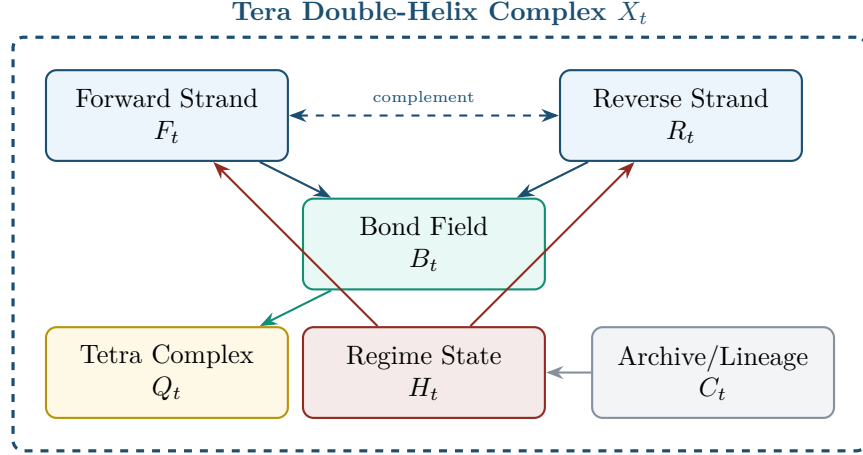


Figure 3.6: The six components of the Tera Double-Helix Complex. The forward and reverse strands are complementary (dashed arrow). The bond field mediates their interaction. The regime state controls mutation strategy selection. The archive and lineage context provides historical information.

Tera Double-Helix Complex

The full Evolutor state at time t is the six-tuple:

$$X_t = (F_t, R_t, B_t, Q_t, H_t, C_t), \quad (3.10)$$

where:

- $F_t \in \mathcal{G}$ is the **forward strand state**—the primary genomic sequence.
- $R_t \in \mathcal{G}^*$ is the **reverse strand state**—a complementary representation that enables bidirectional processing and error detection.
- $B_t \in \mathcal{B}^{n \times n}$ is the **typed bond field**—a sparse matrix of inter-base bonds with type annotations (hydrogen, covalent, stacking), encoding the secondary structure of the genome.
- $Q_t \in \mathcal{T}$ is the **tetra structural complex**—a tetrahedral mesh over the genomic bases providing three-dimensional spatial organization (see Chapter 2).
- $H_t \in [0, 1]^6$ is the **hidden latent regime state**—the Tera pressure vector $\mathbf{R}_t$ defined in Eq. (3.2).
- $C_t = (\mathcal{A}_t, \mathcal{L}_t)$ is the **archive and lineage context**—the HelixHash novelty archive $\mathcal{A}_t$ and the evolutionary lineage history $\mathcal{L}_t$.

The double-helix metaphor is deliberate: the forward strand F_t and reverse strand R_t are complementary representations of the same underlying information, analogous to the Watson and Crick strands of biological DNA. The bond field B_t records how these strands interact, while the tetra complex Q_t provides the three-dimensional scaffold within which these interactions take place.

Proposition 3.1 (State Completeness). The Tera Double-Helix Complex X_t is a *sufficient statistic* for the Evolutor’s behavior: given X_t and a context input c_{t+1} , the system’s output and next state X_{t+1} are fully determined (up to stochastic mutation choices). No external state is required.

Proof sketch. Each component of X_t contributes to a distinct aspect of the Evolutor’s computation. The forward/reverse strands provide the genomic content for transcription. The bond field determines which regions interact during regulation. The tetra complex provides the spatial structure for local propagation. The regime state H_t determines mutation strategy selection. The archive/lineage context provides novelty computation and fitness history. Since the six DOGMA stages (Chapter 1) depend only on these quantities and the incoming context, the state is complete. $\square$

3.11.1 Forward and Reverse Strand Dynamics

The forward and reverse strands evolve according to coupled dynamics:

$$F_{t+1} = \mu_{d^*}(F_t, c_{t+1}) + \eta_F(B_t, R_t), \quad (3.11)$$

$$R_{t+1} = \text{Complement}(F_{t+1}) + \eta_R(B_t, F_{t+1}), \quad (3.12)$$

where μ_{d^*} is the mutation operator from the dominant regime family, $\text{Complement}(\cdot)$ computes the type-complementary strand, and η_F, η_R are bond-mediated correction terms that enforce structural consistency. The correction terms act as a form of *proofreading*—when the bond field indicates that a mutation has disrupted critical interactions, the correction terms partially restore them, analogous to DNA polymerase proofreading in biology.

3.12 Toward Post-Transformer Architectures

The Tera regime system, combined with the full Double-Helix Complex, suggests a radical architectural direction.

The Post-Transformer Thesis

Replace dense attention with regulated propagation over tetra-helix state space.

In a standard transformer, information flow between positions is mediated by dense attention: every position attends to every other position, computing $O(T^2)$ pairwise interactions. In DOGMA with the Tera regime, information flow is *regulated*:

1. **Spatial locality from the tetra complex.** Information propagates through the tetrahedral mesh Q_t , with each base interacting only with its local neighborhood. Long-range communication requires multiple propagation steps, analogous to signal transduction in gene regulatory networks (Chapter 3).
2. **Selective activation from the regime state.** The regime vector H_t determines which genomic regions are active, creating sparse activation patterns that reduce effective sequence length.
3. **Structural routing from the bond field.** The typed bond field B_t provides learned “wiring” between distant regions, enabling long-range interactions without quadratic cost.

The combined complexity is $O(T \cdot k \cdot d)$ per propagation step, where k is the average neighborhood size in the tetra mesh—linear in sequence length T rather than quadratic. This is not merely a computational optimization; it is a different *computational paradigm*: one where structure determines interaction, rather than interaction being universal.

Comparison with State-Space Models

The regulated-propagation paradigm shares features with state-space models (SSMs) such as Mamba, which also achieve linear-time sequence processing. The key difference is that SSMs use a fixed state-transition structure, while DOGMA’s propagation structure is *evolved* and *regime-dependent*. The tetra complex and bond field are not fixed matrices but dynamic, evolvable structures that change during training and even during inference. This gives DOGMA a form of *architectural plasticity* absent from SSMs.

3.13 Exercises

- 9.1. **[Conceptual]** In your own words, explain what a “regime state” is using an analogy from everyday life that was *not* mentioned in this chapter. Your analogy should capture: (a) the idea of hidden state, (b) transitions between regimes, and (c) different behavior in different regimes.
- 9.2. **[Fundamentals]** Consider a system with $\alpha = 0.2$ and initial pressure $p_0^{(\text{gnd})} = 0.5$. If the grounding evaluation signal is $s_t^{(\text{gnd})} = 0.9$ for all $t \geq 1$, compute $p_1^{(\text{gnd})}, p_2^{(\text{gnd})}, p_3^{(\text{gnd})}$ using Eq. (3.3). How many steps does it take for the pressure to reach 0.85?
- 9.3. **[Analysis]** Prove that the exponential moving average in Eq. (3.4) assigns a total weight of $1 - (1 - \alpha)^t$ to the most recent t observations. What fraction of the total weight lies within the effective memory horizon $\tau_{\text{eff}} = 1/\alpha$?
- 9.4. **[Computation]** Given the pressure vector $\mathbf{R} = (0.7, 0.4, 0.3, 0.5, 0.6, 0.35)$ and $\beta = 4$, compute the full mutation family selection distribution using Eq. (3.6). Which family has the highest selection probability? What is the entropy of the distribution?
- 9.5. **[State Machine]** Draw the state machine transitions for a system that starts in BALANCED and receives the following dominant pressure sequence: GND, GND, GND, SCH, SCH, (balanced), (balanced), EXP, EXP. Assume $\delta = 0.15$ and hysteresis $h = 2$. At each step, state the current regime mode and whether a transition occurs.
- 9.6. **[Design]** Design a seventh pressure dimension that you believe is missing from the Tera regime state. Specify: (a) what it measures, (b) how it is computed from evaluation signals, (c) what mutation family it would drive, and (d) what biological process it is analogous to. Argue for or against its inclusion.
- 9.7. **[Coding]** Implement the Tera pressure thermostat in Python. Your implementation should: (a) maintain a 6-dimensional pressure vector, (b) accept evaluation signals and update pressures via Eq. (3.3), (c) compute mutation family selection probabilities via Eq. (3.6), and (d) detect the dominant regime with a gap threshold $\delta = 0.1$. Test with a synthetic sequence of evaluation signals that transitions from a precision-dominant to an exploration-dominant regime.
- 9.8. **[Theory]** Show that the pressure thermostat (Eq. (3.7)) has a unique fixed point for any constant deficit vector $\boldsymbol{\delta}$. Analyze the convergence rate and show that it depends on α but not on the dimensionality of the pressure space.
- 9.9. **[Biology]** The lac operon in *E. coli* can be modeled as a two-state regime system (glucose mode vs. lactose mode). Define this as a formal state machine in the style of Definition 3.5.

What are the “evaluation signals”? What are the “mutation families” (i.e., which genes are expressed in each regime)?

- 9.10. [Research]** Compare the Tera meta-policy memory (Eq. (3.8)) with the outer loop of Reptile. Both compute a form of averaged update across tasks. What are the theoretical advantages and disadvantages of operating in a 6-dimensional pressure space versus a high-dimensional parameter space? Under what conditions would the low-dimensional approach fail?
- 9.11. [Worked Example]** Extend the five-step worked example (Section 3.9) by five more steps. Invent evaluation signals that cause the system to enter CRISIS mode at step 7 and recover to BALANCED by step 10. Show all pressure calculations.
- 9.12. [Integration]** Explain how the Tera regime state interacts with the HelixHash novelty archive (Chapter 2). Specifically: when the exploration pressure $p^{(\text{exp})}$ is high, how does the novelty archive influence which `structural_explore` mutations are selected? How does the archive’s novelty score feed back into the exploration pressure signal?

3.14 Key Takeaways

Key Takeaways

- A **regime state** is a hidden variable that determines which behavioral strategy a system should follow. It is inferred from noisy evaluation signals, not directly observed.
- Single-objective optimization is insufficient for complex systems; biological organisms simultaneously optimize across many dimensions via dynamic regulatory networks.
- The **Tera regime state** is a six-dimensional pressure vector $\mathbf{R}_t \in [0, 1]^6$ capturing grounding, exactness, schema, efficiency, exploration, and coherence pressures.
- **Exponential memory decay** (Eq. (3.3)) gives recent evaluations more influence while preserving longer-term trends, with effective memory horizon $\tau_{\text{eff}} = 1/\alpha$.
- Six **mutation families**—`context_grounding`, `exact_answer`, `strict_json`, `brevity`, `structural_explore`, `bond_repair`—are adaptively selected via softmax over regime pressures.
- The **pressure thermostat** creates a homeostatic negative feedback loop that automatically rebalances evolutionary effort across objectives. At equilibrium, pressure equals deficit.
- The **Tera state machine** formalizes regime transitions with eight modes (Balanced + six single-pressure + Crisis), with hysteresis to prevent oscillation.
- **Meta-policy memory** enables cross-run learning in a six-dimensional space—computationally trivial meta-learning of regulatory strategy via fitness-weighted averaging.
- The full **Tera Double-Helix Complex** $X_t = (F_t, R_t, B_t, Q_t, H_t, C_t)$ is a sufficient statistic for Evolutor behavior.
- Tera’s design mirrors biological regulation at multiple timescales, from immediate enzyme control to long-term evolutionary adaptation.
- Regulated propagation over tetra-helix state space is a candidate post-transformer architecture with linear-time complexity.

Suggested Reading

- [Allis and Jenuwein \[2016\]](#): Epigenetics—the biological inspiration for Tera’s hidden regulatory layer.
- [Deb \[2002\]](#): NSGA-II and multi-objective evolutionary algorithms, foundational to the Pareto perspective.
- [Finn et al. \[2017\]](#): MAML—the gradient-based meta-learning algorithm compared with Tera’s meta-policy memory.
- [Gu and Dao \[2023\]](#): Mamba and state-space models, the closest existing architecture to DOGMA’s regulated propagation.

- Chapter 1 of this book: the six-stage pipeline that Tera regulates.
- Chapter 6 of this book: the evolutionary training loop where Tera’s mutation steering operates.

Chapter 4

TetraData Structure and TetraMemory

The tetrahedron is the simplest possible solid. Any geometry must begin here.

— After Buckminster Fuller

Computer graphics has long relied on *triangles* as the fundamental rendering primitive. Triangle meshes approximate surfaces efficiently and map naturally to GPU hardware. But triangles are inherently *two-dimensional*: they describe surfaces, not volumes. For a computational architecture inspired by three-dimensional molecular biology—where proteins fold into globular structures, DNA coils into superhelical conformations, and tetrahedral carbon bonds define organic chemistry—a volumetric primitive is needed.

This chapter introduces the **TetraData Structure** (TDS): a computational framework built on *tetrahedra* rather than triangles. We begin with a patient, step-by-step construction that builds a tetrahedron one vertex at a time, then show how tetrahedra link together into chains that map directly onto DNA sequences. We then develop **TetraMemory**, a structured memory system that replaces self-attention in DOGMA with local tetrahedral interactions that compose into global computation.

4.1 Building a Tetrahedron from Scratch

Before defining the TetraData Structure formally, let us build our fundamental primitive—the tetrahedron—one vertex at a time. This construction will reveal *why* the tetrahedron is the minimal solid that carries volume and chirality, and why no simpler primitive will do.

4.1.1 Step 0: A Single Vertex (0D)

We begin with nothing: an empty space. We place a single point v_0 and assign it a value (say, a DNA base, a token embedding, or simply a label).

v_0



0-dimensional

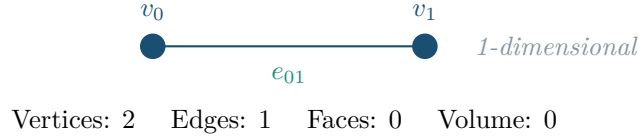
Vertices: 1 Edges: 0 Faces: 0 Volume: 0

A single vertex is a 0-dimensional object. It can store a value—but it encodes no *relationships*. There is no notion of distance, connection, area, or volume. In a sequence model, a single vertex is a single token in isolation, with no context whatsoever.

Remark 4.1. In graph theory terms, we have the graph K_1 : one vertex, zero edges. The adjacency matrix is the 1×1 zero matrix. This is the least informative data structure possible.

4.1.2 Step 1: Add a Second Vertex (1D — an Edge)

Now add a second vertex v_1 and connect it to v_0 with an edge e_{01} .



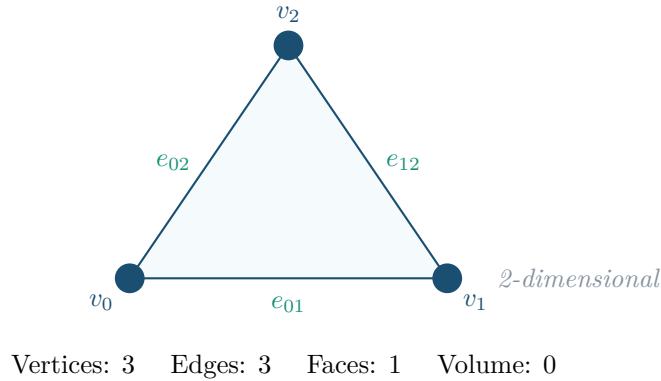
An edge is a 1-dimensional object. It encodes exactly one relationship: the pairwise interaction between v_0 and v_1 . The edge can carry a weight $w_{01} \in \mathbb{R}$ representing the strength or character of that interaction.

In the language of neural networks, this is a single attention weight: how much does token v_0 attend to token v_1 ? One edge captures one pairwise interaction. This is the graph K_2 : the complete graph on 2 vertices.

Remark 4.2. An edge has no *area*, no *volume*, and no *handedness*. You cannot distinguish a “left-handed” line segment from a “right-handed” one. An edge is symmetric under reflection.

4.1.3 Step 2: Add a Third Vertex (2D — a Triangle)

Add a third vertex v_2 and connect it to both existing vertices. We now have three vertices and three edges forming a triangle.



A triangle is a 2-dimensional object. It has *area* but no *volume*. Three edges encode all $\binom{3}{2} = 3$ pairwise interactions among the three vertices, forming the complete graph K_3 .

This is the primitive used in computer graphics: triangle meshes tile surfaces. GPUs are optimized for rasterizing triangles. But triangles have two critical limitations for our purposes:

1. **No volume.** A triangle is flat. It cannot enclose space. It describes a boundary, not an interior.

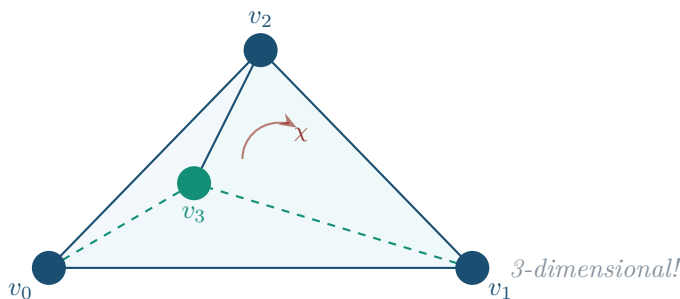
2. **No chirality.** A triangle in 2D can be reflected into its mirror image by a rotation. In 3D, a triangle embedded in a plane does have two “sides,” but this orientation is not an intrinsic property—it depends on the choice of normal direction.

Why Triangles Are Not Enough

In molecular biology, chirality is not optional—it is essential. All naturally occurring amino acids are L-amino acids (left-handed). DNA’s double helix is always right-handed (B-form). Enzymes distinguish between mirror-image molecules with exquisite specificity. A computational primitive that cannot represent chirality is fundamentally incapable of encoding molecular structure faithfully. A triangle mesh can approximate the *surface* of a protein, but it cannot capture the *handed* internal packing that determines function.

4.1.4 Step 3: Add a Fourth Vertex (3D — the Tetrahedron!)

Now the crucial step. Add a fourth vertex v_3 that is *not in the plane* of the first three, and connect it to all existing vertices. We obtain a tetrahedron: the simplest possible solid.



Vertices: 4 Edges: 6 Faces: 4 Volume: > 0

A tetrahedron is the *first* object in our construction that possesses:

- **Volume:** It encloses a region of 3D space. The signed volume is computed from the 3×3 determinant of the edge vectors.
- **Chirality:** The sign of the determinant ($+1$ or -1) defines a handedness that cannot be changed by any rotation—only by reflection.
- **Complete pairwise interactions:** Six edges encode all $\binom{4}{2} = 6$ pairwise relationships. This is the complete graph K_4 .
- **Four faces:** Each face is a triangle that can serve as an interface for connecting to another tetrahedron.

Definition 4.1 (Tetrahedron). A *tetrahedron* $\mathcal{T}$ in $\mathbb{R}^3$ is the convex hull of four non-coplanar points $\mathbf{v}_0, \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3$:

$$\mathcal{T} = \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^3 \lambda_i \mathbf{v}_i \mid \lambda_i \geq 0, \sum_{i=0}^3 \lambda_i = 1 \right\}. \quad (4.1)$$

The *signed volume* is:

$$V_{\text{signed}}(\mathcal{T}) = \frac{1}{6} \det \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 - \mathbf{v}_0 & \mathbf{v}_2 - \mathbf{v}_0 & \mathbf{v}_3 - \mathbf{v}_0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (4.2)$$

and the *chirality* is:

$$\chi(\mathcal{T}) = \text{sign}(V_{\text{signed}}(\mathcal{T})) \in \{+1, -1\}. \quad (4.3)$$

The Tetrahedron Is the Minimal Solid

In all of Euclidean geometry, the tetrahedron is the *simplest* object that simultaneously possesses volume and chirality. You cannot build a solid with fewer than 4 vertices. This is not a design choice—it is a mathematical necessity. Just as the triangle is the minimal polygon, the tetrahedron is the minimal polyhedron.

DOGMA’s choice of the tetrahedron as its fundamental primitive is therefore not arbitrary: it is the minimal structure that can encode 3D geometry, handedness, and complete pairwise interactions among a set of elements.

4.1.5 The Construction at a Glance

The following figure summarizes the four steps side by side, highlighting what each new vertex contributes:

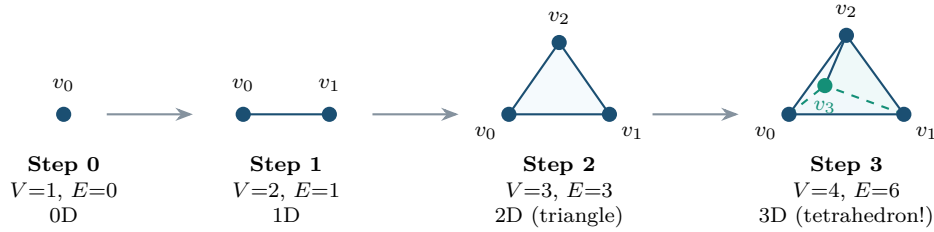


Figure 4.1: Building a tetrahedron one vertex at a time. Each step adds a new dimension: a vertex (0D), an edge (1D), a triangle (2D), and finally a tetrahedron (3D). The tetrahedron is the first object with volume and chirality.

Example 4.1 (Counting Combinatorics). At each step k (adding vertex v_k to the existing structure), the new vertex connects to all k existing vertices, adding exactly k new edges:

Step	Vertices	New edges	Total edges	Graph
0	1	0	0	K_1
1	2	1	1	K_2
2	3	2	3	K_3
3	4	3	6	K_4

In general, the complete graph K_n has $\binom{n}{2} = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$ edges. For K_4 , this gives $\binom{4}{2} = 6$ edges—exactly the six edges of a tetrahedron.

4.2 Why Tetrahedra? — A Deeper Look

With the construction complete, we can appreciate why DOGMA chooses the tetrahedron over simpler primitives.

4.2.1 Tetrahedra vs. Triangles: A Detailed Comparison

Property	Triangle Mesh	Tetrahedral Mesh (TDS)
Dimension	2D surface in 3D	3D volume
Vertices per element	3	4
Edges per element	3 (K_3)	6 (K_4) — $2\times$ more interactions
Faces per element	1	4 triangular faces
Interior	None (boundary only)	Enclosed volume
Chirality	None	± 1 handedness
Adjacency	Edge-sharing	Face-sharing (richer interface)
DNA mapping	—	4 vertices $\leftrightarrow$ {A, C, G, T}
DOF per element	9 (positions only)	36 (positions + edges + bases + vol + chir)
Info. density	3 edges	6 edges — $4\times$ information density

The last row deserves emphasis. A triangle encodes 3 pairwise interactions. A tetrahedron encodes 6. But the tetrahedron has only one more vertex. In terms of pairwise interactions per vertex, the triangle achieves $3/3 = 1$ edge per vertex, while the tetrahedron achieves $6/4 = 1.5$ edges per vertex—a 50% improvement in information density.

4.2.2 The Biological Justification

The biological case for tetrahedra is compelling:

- **Carbon chemistry:** The carbon atom—the backbone of all organic molecules—forms four bonds arranged tetrahedrally (sp^3 hybridization). Methane (CH_4) is a perfect tetrahedron. Protein backbone geometry is fundamentally tetrahedral at each C_α center.
- **DNA base count:** DNA uses exactly four bases—A, C, G, T. A tetrahedron has exactly four vertices. This numerical coincidence becomes the foundation of DOGMA’s data structure: each vertex of a tetrahedron is assigned one DNA base.
- **DNA base stacking:** Adjacent base pairs in the double helix create local geometries that are naturally described by tetrahedral coordinates.
- **Protein structure:** Alpha-carbon (C_α) geometry in protein backbones forms tetrahedral arrangements that are native to TDS representation.
- **Chirality in biology:** All naturally occurring amino acids are L-amino acids; DNA forms a right-handed helix. Chirality is *information* that must be preserved, and only volumetric primitives (3D and above) can encode it.

Four Bases, Four Vertices

The fact that DNA uses exactly four nucleotide bases is one of the most fundamental constraints in molecular biology. This four-fold alphabet maps perfectly onto the four vertices of a tetrahedron. This is not merely a convenient analogy: it is the mathematical foundation of the TetraData Structure. Each vertex carries a base type, and the six edges encode all pairwise interactions among those bases—including the Watson–Crick pairings (A–T and G–C) as geometrically distinguished edges.

4.3 Linking Tetrahedra — The LinkedTetraChain

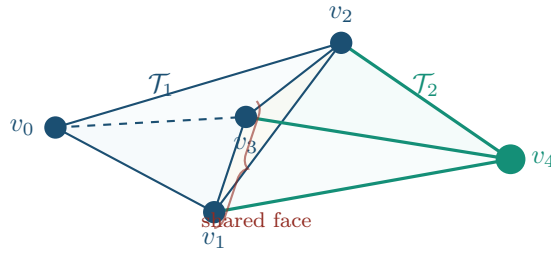
A single tetrahedron encodes the interactions among four elements. But real sequences are longer than four tokens. How do we handle sequences of arbitrary length? The answer is *linking*: we chain tetrahedra together by sharing triangular faces, exactly as the PowerPoint construction shows.

4.3.1 Adding Vertex 4: The Second Tetrahedron

We continue the construction from Section 4.1. Having built the first tetrahedron $\mathcal{T}_1 = (v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3)$, we now add vertex v_4 and connect it to the three most recent vertices: v_1, v_2, v_3 . This creates a *second* tetrahedron:

$$\mathcal{T}_2 = (v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4).$$

The two tetrahedra share the triangular face (v_1, v_2, v_3) . The new vertex v_4 adds exactly 3 new edges: e_{14}, e_{24}, e_{34} .



Remark 4.3. The shared face (v_1, v_2, v_3) contains three edges and three vertices that belong to *both* tetrahedra. This is a much richer interface than the edge-sharing used by triangle meshes: a shared face transmits three pairwise relationships, while a shared edge transmits only one.

4.3.2 Adding Vertex 5: The Third Tetrahedron

Continuing the pattern, vertex v_5 connects to v_2, v_3, v_4 , creating:

$$\mathcal{T}_3 = (v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5),$$

which shares face (v_2, v_3, v_4) with $\mathcal{T}_2$.

4.3.3 The General Pattern: LinkedTetraChain

The pattern is now clear. At each step, a new vertex v_{k+3} connects to the three most recent vertices (v_k, v_{k+1}, v_{k+2}) , forming tetrahedron:

$$\mathcal{T}_{k+1} = (v_k, v_{k+1}, v_{k+2}, v_{k+3}),$$

which shares face (v_k, v_{k+1}, v_{k+2}) with the previous tetrahedron $\mathcal{T}_k = (v_{k-1}, v_k, v_{k+1}, v_{k+2})$.

Definition 4.2 (LinkedTetraChain). A *LinkedTetraChain* of length n is an ordered sequence of tetrahedra $(\mathcal{T}_1, \mathcal{T}_2, \dots, \mathcal{T}_n)$ constructed from a vertex sequence $(v_0, v_1, \dots, v_{n+2})$ where:

$$\mathcal{T}_k = (v_{k-1}, v_k, v_{k+1}, v_{k+2}), \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, n, \quad (4.4)$$

and consecutive tetrahedra $\mathcal{T}_k$ and $\mathcal{T}_{k+1}$ share the triangular face (v_k, v_{k+1}, v_{k+2}) .

Proposition 4.1 (Edge Count Formula). A LinkedTetraChain of n tetrahedra built from $n + 3$ vertices has exactly $3n + 3$ edges.

Proof. The first tetrahedron $\mathcal{T}_1$ contributes $\binom{4}{2} = 6$ edges. Each subsequent tetrahedron $\mathcal{T}_k$ for $k \geq 2$ adds one new vertex that connects to 3 existing vertices, contributing exactly 3 new edges. Thus the total is $6 + 3(n - 1) = 3n + 3$. $\square$

The following diagram shows a chain of four linked tetrahedra:

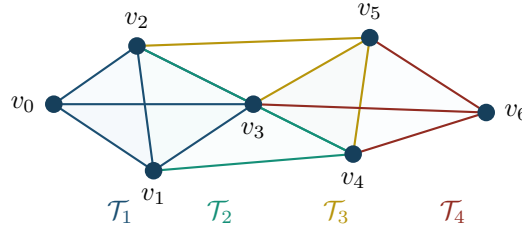


Figure 4.2: A LinkedTetraChain of four tetrahedra. Each tetrahedron shares a triangular face with its neighbors. Colors distinguish the edges added by each new vertex. Total: 7 vertices, $3(4) + 3 = 15$ edges.

The Sliding Window Analogy

The LinkedTetraChain is equivalent to a *sliding window of width 4 with overlap 3* over the vertex sequence. Each tetrahedron “sees” four consecutive vertices, and consecutive tetrahedra overlap in three vertices. This means that each vertex participates in up to four tetrahedra (except near the ends), ensuring that information about each vertex is propagated through multiple local interaction contexts.

Compare this to the sliding window in signal processing: a window of width W with overlap $W - 1$ slides one position at a time. Here, $W = 4$ and overlap = 3, so each step advances by one vertex. But unlike a flat sliding window, each “window” is a tetrahedron with volume, chirality, and full K_4 connectivity.

4.3.4 Growth Table

The following table tracks the combinatorics as we add vertices:

Vertex	Total $ V $	New edges	Total $ E $	Total $ \mathcal{T} $	Shared face	Graph
v_0	1	0	0	0	—	K_1
v_1	2	1	1	0	—	K_2
v_2	3	2	3	0	—	K_3
v_3	4	3	6	1 ($\mathcal{T}_1$)	—	K_4
v_4	5	3	9	2 ($\mathcal{T}_2$)	(v_1, v_2, v_3)	—
v_5	6	3	12	3 ($\mathcal{T}_3$)	(v_2, v_3, v_4)	—
v_6	7	3	15	4 ($\mathcal{T}_4$)	(v_3, v_4, v_5)	—
v_{k+3}	$k+4$	3	$3(k+1)+3$	$k+1$	(v_k, v_{k+1}, v_{k+2})	—

Notice that after the first tetrahedron is formed, each new vertex adds exactly 3 new edges and exactly 1 new tetrahedron. The growth is perfectly linear.

4.4 DNA Mapping — The Key Insight

We now arrive at the central insight of the TetraData Structure: the mapping between tetrahedra and DNA sequences.

4.4.1 Four Vertices, Four Bases

A tetrahedron has four vertices. DNA has four bases: adenine (A), cytosine (C), guanine (G), and thymine (T). In a LinkedTetraChain, each vertex is assigned one base type from $\{A, C, G, T\}$.

TetraData–DNA Correspondence

In the TetraData Structure, each vertex v_i carries a base assignment $b_i \in \{A, C, G, T\}$. A tetrahedron $\mathcal{T}_k = (v_{k-1}, v_k, v_{k+1}, v_{k+2})$ with base assignments $(b_{k-1}, b_k, b_{k+1}, b_{k+2})$ represents a *window* of four consecutive bases in a DNA-like sequence.

4.4.2 Worked Example: Mapping 5'-ACGTACGT-3'

Consider the DNA sequence 5'-ACGTACGT-3', which has 8 bases. We assign these to vertices v_0 through v_7 :

Vertex	v_0	v_1	v_2	v_3	v_4	v_5	v_6	v_7
Base	A	C	G	T	A	C	G	T

This sequence of 8 vertices produces a LinkedTetraChain of $8 - 3 = 5$ tetrahedra:

Tetra	Vertices	Bases	Shared face with prev.
$\mathcal{T}_1$	(v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3)	(A, C, G, T)	—
$\mathcal{T}_2$	(v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4)	(C, G, T, A)	$(v_1, v_2, v_3) = (C, G, T)$
$\mathcal{T}_3$	(v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5)	(G, T, A, C)	$(v_2, v_3, v_4) = (G, T, A)$
$\mathcal{T}_4$	(v_3, v_4, v_5, v_6)	(T, A, C, G)	$(v_3, v_4, v_5) = (T, A, C)$
$\mathcal{T}_5$	(v_4, v_5, v_6, v_7)	(A, C, G, T)	$(v_4, v_5, v_6) = (A, C, G)$

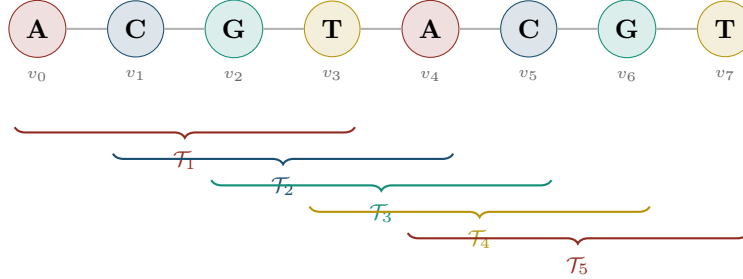


Figure 4.3: DNA sequence **ACGTACGT** mapped to a LinkedTetraChain. Each brace shows which four consecutive vertices form a tetrahedron. Note the overlap: each tetrahedron shares three vertices with its neighbors.

Notice the structure: each tetrahedron is a sliding window of width 4 that advances by one base at a time. The overlap of 3 bases ensures that *every pair of adjacent bases* is captured within at least one tetrahedron, and in fact every pair of bases separated by at most 2 positions is captured.

4.4.3 Why Not Triangles? An Information Density Argument

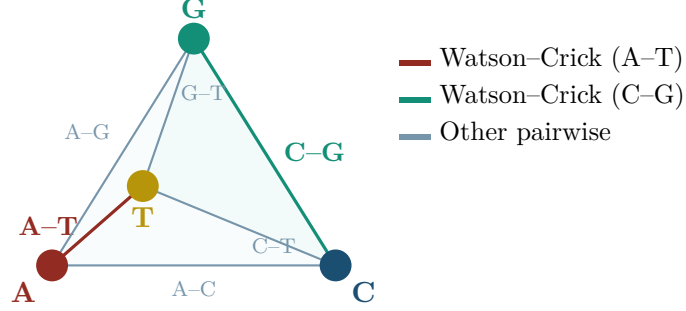
If we used triangles instead of tetrahedra, our sliding window would be width 3 with overlap 2. Each triangle would be a K_3 with only 3 edges. Let us compare the two approaches for the same 8-base sequence:

	Triangle mesh (K_3)	Tetra mesh (K_4)
Window width	3	4
Overlap	2	3
Elements for 8 bases	6 triangles	5 tetrahedra
Edges per element	3	6
Total unique edges	7	10
Pairwise interactions	3 per element	6 per element
Has volume?	No	Yes
Has chirality?	No	Yes

The tetrahedron captures $2\times$ the pairwise interactions per element, while also encoding volume and chirality. For the same sequence, the tetrahedral representation is strictly richer.

4.4.4 The Six Edges: Pairwise Base Interactions

Within each tetrahedron $\mathcal{T}_k = (b_{k-1}, b_k, b_{k+1}, b_{k+2})$, the six edges encode all pairwise interactions among the four bases:



The six edges naturally partition into:

- **2 Watson-Crick edges:** A-T and C-G. These are the complementary base pairings that form hydrogen bonds in the double helix.
- **4 non-Watson-Crick edges:** A-C, A-G, C-T, G-T. These encode stacking interactions, non-canonical base pairing, and other local sequence features.

Each edge carries a learnable weight $w_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}$ that represents the strength and character of the pairwise interaction. These weights are analogous to attention scores in a transformer, but they are *local* (within a single tetrahedron) and *structured* (constrained by the tetrahedral geometry).

4.5 The TetraData Structure (TDS) — Formal Definition

We now give the complete formal definition of the TetraData Structure, incorporating everything we have built up.

Definition 4.3 (TetraData Structure). A *TetraData Structure* (TDS) element is defined by:

$$\mathcal{T}_i = (\mathbf{V}_i, \mathbf{E}_i, \mathbf{B}_i, v_i, \chi_i), \quad (4.5)$$

where:

- $\mathbf{V}_i \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 3}$: four vertex positions in 3D space.
- $\mathbf{E}_i \in \mathbb{R}^6$: six edge weights (forming the complete graph K_4).
- $\mathbf{B}_i \in \{\text{A, C, G, T}\}^4$: base type assignments for each vertex.
- $v_i \in \mathbb{R}$: enclosed volume (computed from vertex positions).
- $\chi_i \in \{+1, -1\}$: chirality (handedness), defined by the sign of the determinant.

4.5.1 Chirality

Chirality—the property of non-superimposability on a mirror image—is fundamental to molecular biology. Amino acids are left-handed (*L*-amino acids), sugars are right-handed (*D*-sugars), and the DNA double helix is right-handed. TDS preserves chirality through the sign of the vertex determinant:

$$\chi_i = \text{sign} \left(\det \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 - \mathbf{v}_0 & \mathbf{v}_2 - \mathbf{v}_0 & \mathbf{v}_3 - \mathbf{v}_0 \end{pmatrix} \right). \quad (4.6)$$

Chirality-preserving transformations are those that maintain the sign of χ . This constraint ensures that biological structures retain their handedness through computational operations.

Example 4.2 (Computing Chirality). Consider a tetrahedron with vertices:

$$\mathbf{v}_0 = (0, 0, 0), \quad \mathbf{v}_1 = (1, 0, 0), \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = (0, 1, 0), \quad \mathbf{v}_3 = (0, 0, 1).$$

The edge matrix is:

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 1-0 & 0-0 & 0-0 \\ 0-0 & 1-0 & 0-0 \\ 0-0 & 0-0 & 1-0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = I_3.$$

We have $\det(M) = +1$, so $\chi = +1$ (right-handed). The signed volume is $V_{\text{signed}} = \frac{1}{6}(+1) = +\frac{1}{6}$.

Now reflect $\mathbf{v}_3$ across the xy -plane: $\mathbf{v}'_3 = (0, 0, -1)$. The new determinant is -1 , giving $\chi = -1$ (left-handed). Reflection reverses chirality, as expected.

4.5.2 Face-Sharing Adjacency

Adjacent tetrahedra share triangular faces, forming *tetrahedral chains* or *tetrahedral meshes*. This face-sharing adjacency defines a natural graph structure:

Definition 4.4 (Tetrahedral Mesh). A *tetrahedral mesh* is a collection of tetrahedra $\{\mathcal{T}_1, \dots, \mathcal{T}_M\}$ where adjacent elements share triangular faces. The *dual graph* has one node per tetrahedron and edges between face-sharing neighbors.

Face-sharing adjacency is richer than the edge-sharing adjacency of triangle meshes: each tetrahedron has exactly four potential neighbors (one per face), creating a bounded-degree graph that enables efficient local computation.

4.6 36 Degrees of Freedom

Each TDS element carries a rich set of information. Let us count the degrees of freedom precisely.

4.6.1 Detailed DOF Breakdown

DOF	Component	Count	Description
1–12	Vertex positions $\mathbf{V}_i \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 3}$	12	4 vertices $\times$ 3 coordinates each
13–18	Edge weights $\mathbf{E}_i \in \mathbb{R}^6$	6	All $\binom{4}{2} = 6$ pairwise interactions
19–34	Base encoding onehot($\mathbf{B}_i$) $\in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 4}$	16	4 vertices $\times$ 4-dim one-hot encoding
35	Volume $v_i \in \mathbb{R}$	1	Signed volume of the tetrahedron
36	Chirality $\chi_i \in \{+1, -1\}$	1	Handedness (sign of the determinant)
Total		36	

4.6.2 Comparison: Triangle vs. Tetrahedron DOF

Component	Triangle	Tetrahedron
Vertex positions	$3 \times 3 = 9$	$4 \times 3 = 12$
Edge weights	$\binom{3}{2} = 3$	$\binom{4}{2} = 6$
Base encoding	—	$4 \times 4 = 16$
Volume	0 (area only)	1
Chirality	0 (no handedness)	1
Total DOF	12	36
Ratio	$36/12 = 3\times$ richer	

If we count only the positional DOF (no base encoding), the triangle has 9 DOF and the tetrahedron has $12 + 6 + 1 + 1 = 20$ DOF—still more than $2\times$ richer. The base encoding adds another 16 DOF that are entirely absent in triangle meshes.

4.6.3 TetraTokenization

For foundation model integration, each TDS element is serialized into a 36-dimensional vector:

$$\text{TetraToken}(\mathcal{T}_i) = [\underbrace{\mathbf{V}_i^{\text{flat}}}_{12} \mid \underbrace{\mathbf{E}_i}_6 \mid \underbrace{\text{onehot}(\mathbf{B}_i)}_{16} \mid \underbrace{v_i}_1 \mid \underbrace{\chi_i}_1] \in \mathbb{R}^{36}. \quad (4.7)$$

This tokenization enables DOGMA foundation models to ingest and produce 3D structural data alongside text, code, and genomic sequences.

TetraToken Design Study

In the proposed multimodal DOGMA design, the 36-dimensional TetraToken is projected to the model’s hidden dimension d_{model} via a learned linear layer:

$$\mathbf{h}_i = \mathbf{W}_{\text{proj}} \cdot \text{TetraToken}(\mathcal{T}_i) + \mathbf{b}_{\text{proj}}, \quad \mathbf{W}_{\text{proj}} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{\text{model}} \times 36}.$$

The proposed reverse direction uses a symmetric linear projection from d_{model} back to 36 dimensions, followed by extraction of vertex positions, edge weights, base assignments, volume, and chirality. This path is not part of the measured baseline in Chapter 8.

4.7 TetraMemory: Structured Memory for DOGMA

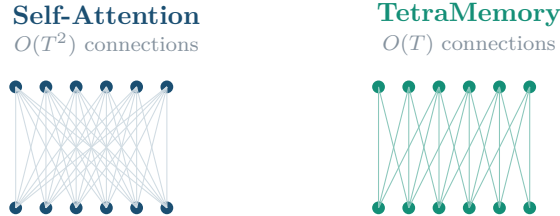
TetraMemory is DOGMA’s alternative to self-attention. Instead of computing pairwise interactions between all positions (quadratic cost), TetraMemory organizes state elements into a tetrahedral mesh where interactions are *local but compose into global computation* through propagation.

4.7.1 The Quadratic Attention Problem

Standard self-attention computes:

$$\text{Attention}(\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{K}, \mathbf{V}) = \text{softmax} \left(\frac{\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{K}^\top}{\sqrt{d_k}} \right) \mathbf{V}, \quad \text{cost: } O(T^2 d). \quad (4.8)$$

For a sequence of length $T = 100,000$ (a modest genomic sequence), the attention matrix has 10^{10} entries—impractical for both memory and computation. Even for $T = 10,000$, storing the $T \times T$ attention matrix in float32 requires ~ 400 MB per head, per layer.



4.7.2 Face Propagation: Information Flow Through Shared Faces

The key mechanism of TetraMemory is *face propagation*: information flows from one tetrahedron to its neighbor through their shared triangular face.

In a LinkedTetraChain, $\mathcal{T}_k$ and $\mathcal{T}_{k+1}$ share three vertices. When we compute the state of $\mathcal{T}_{k+1}$, three of its four vertices already carry information from $\mathcal{T}_k$. Only one vertex is new. This means that 75% of each tetrahedron’s information comes from its predecessor—a natural form of *causal propagation*.

Definition 4.5 (TetraMemory State Update). At layer ℓ , the state of tetrahedron $\mathcal{T}_i$ is updated by:

$$\mathbf{h}_i^{(\ell+1)} = \phi \left(\mathbf{h}_i^{(\ell)} + \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}_4(i)} \alpha_{ij} \cdot \mathbf{W}^{(\ell)} \mathbf{h}_j^{(\ell)} \right), \quad (4.9)$$

where:

- $\mathcal{N}_4(i)$ is the set of (at most 4) face-sharing neighbors of $\mathcal{T}_i$.
- α_{ij} are attention weights computed from edge properties and shared-face geometry.
- $\mathbf{W}^{(\ell)} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ is the layer’s learnable weight matrix.
- ϕ is a nonlinear activation function.

The cost per layer is $O(T \cdot k \cdot d)$ where $k \leq 4$, making it *linear* in sequence length.

4.7.3 Volume as Attention Weight

Each tetrahedron’s signed volume provides a natural attention modulator:

$$\alpha_{ij} = \sigma \left(\frac{\mathbf{q}_i^\top \mathbf{k}_j}{\sqrt{d}} + \beta \cdot V_{\text{signed}}(\mathcal{T}_i) \right), \quad (4.10)$$

where σ is a sigmoid function and β is a learnable temperature parameter. The volume term acts as a *geometric bias*: tetrahedra with larger volume (more “open” configurations) attend more strongly to their neighbors, while degenerate (near-flat) tetrahedra attend weakly.

Volume as Importance

In molecular biology, the volume of a protein’s active site determines its binding affinity. A large, open active site can accommodate many substrates; a narrow, constrained one is highly specific. TetraMemory’s use of volume as an attention modulator mirrors this: the “openness” of a tetrahedral configuration controls how much information flows through it.

4.7.4 Edge Weights as Pairwise Compatibility

The six edge weights $\mathbf{E}_i \in \mathbb{R}^6$ within each tetrahedron encode pairwise compatibility scores between the four vertices. These are analogous to the pairwise attention scores in self-attention, but:

1. They are *local*: only the 6 pairs within a tetrahedron are computed, not the $\binom{T}{2}$ global pairs.
2. They are *geometrically constrained*: the edge weights must be consistent with a valid 3D tetrahedron (triangle inequality on faces, positive volume).
3. They are *typed*: the Watson–Crick edges (A–T, C–G) can carry different learned biases than the non-Watson–Crick edges.

4.7.5 Long-Range Information Flow

How does local interaction enable global computation? Through *propagation*: after L layers of TetraMemory updates, information from tetrahedron $\mathcal{T}_i$ has propagated to all tetrahedra within graph distance L in the dual graph.

For a LinkedTetraChain of n tetrahedra, the dual graph is a path graph of length n , so the diameter is n and full propagation requires $L = n$ layers. However, for a 3D tetrahedral mesh (not just a chain), the dual graph diameter is $O(n^{1/3})$, so $O(n^{1/3})$ layers suffice for global information flow.

Theorem 4.2 (TetraMemory Propagation). For a tetrahedral mesh with n tetrahedra and dual-graph diameter D , after $L \geq D$ layers of TetraMemory updates (Equation 4.9), every tetrahedron has received information from every other tetrahedron.

Proof. At each layer, each tetrahedron receives information from its face-sharing neighbors (at most 4). After L layers, the receptive field of each tetrahedron is the set of all tetrahedra within graph distance L in the dual graph. When $L \geq D$, this includes all tetrahedra. $\square$

4.7.6 Complexity Comparison

	Self-Attention	TetraMemory
Cost per layer	$O(T^2 d)$	$O(T \cdot k \cdot d)$, $k \leq 4$
Memory per layer	$O(T^2)$	$O(T \cdot k)$
Layers for global info	1 (instant)	$O(D)$ where D is mesh diameter
Total cost for global	$O(T^2 d)$	$O(D \cdot T \cdot k \cdot d)$
For 3D mesh ($D = O(T^{1/3})$)	$O(T^2 d)$	$O(T^{4/3} k d)$
Structural locality	None	Built-in (mesh topology)
Chirality encoding	None	Built-in (signed volume)

TetraMemory vs. Attention: The Biological Argument

Biological neural networks do not use all-to-all connectivity. Instead, neurons interact with local neighbors, and global computation emerges from multi-hop signal propagation through network topology. TetraMemory follows this principle: local interactions compose into global computation, just as local gene regulatory interactions compose into genome-wide expression patterns.

The key advantage is not just computational efficiency. It is *structural locality*: the mesh topology encodes which elements should interact most strongly, providing an architectural prior that dense attention lacks.

4.8 The DoubleHelixMesh

In real DNA, information is stored in two complementary strands running antiparallel to each other, forming the iconic double helix. DOGMA mirrors this with the **DoubleHelixMesh**: two complementary LinkedTetraChains—the *sense* strand and the *antisense* strand—cross-linked by Watson–Crick hydrogen bonds.

4.8.1 Sense and Antisense Strands

Given a sense-strand sequence $S = s_0 s_1 s_2 \cdots s_{n-1}$, the antisense strand is the reverse complement:

$$\bar{S} = \overline{s_{n-1}} \overline{s_{n-2}} \cdots \overline{s_1} \overline{s_0}, \quad (4.11)$$

where the complement map is $\bar{A} = T$, $\bar{T} = A$, $\bar{C} = G$, $\bar{G} = C$.

Each strand forms its own LinkedTetraChain:

- **Sense chain:** $\mathcal{C}_{\text{sense}} = (\mathcal{T}_1^+, \mathcal{T}_2^+, \dots, \mathcal{T}_{n-3}^+)$

- **Antisense chain:** $\mathcal{C}_{\text{anti}} = (\mathcal{T}_1^-, \mathcal{T}_2^-, \dots, \mathcal{T}_{n-3}^-)$

The antisense chain runs in the reverse direction (antiparallel), so $\mathcal{T}_k^-$ aligns spatially with $\mathcal{T}_{n-3-k}^+$.

4.8.2 Watson–Crick Cross-Links

The two strands are connected by hydrogen bonds between complementary base pairs:

- **A–T pairing:** 2 hydrogen bonds (weaker).
- **G–C pairing:** 3 hydrogen bonds (stronger).

In the DoubleHelixMesh, these cross-links are represented as inter-chain edges with weights proportional to hydrogen bond strength:

$$w_{\text{cross}}(b, \bar{b}) = \begin{cases} w_{\text{AT}} & \text{if } (b, \bar{b}) \in \{(A, T), (T, A)\}, \\ w_{\text{GC}} & \text{if } (b, \bar{b}) \in \{(G, C), (C, G)\}, \end{cases} \quad (4.12)$$

where $w_{\text{GC}} > w_{\text{AT}}$ reflects the stronger G–C bond.

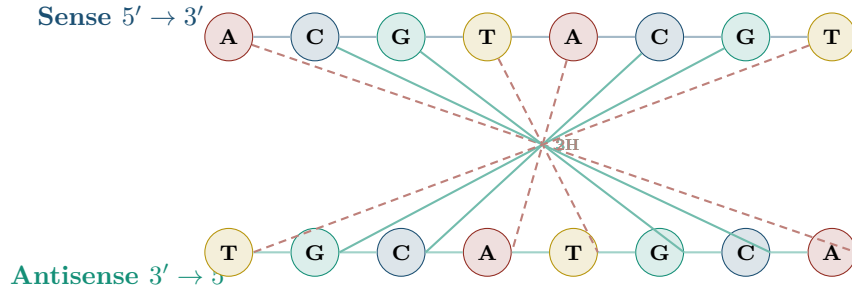


Figure 4.4: The DoubleHelixMesh for sequence ACGTACGT. The sense strand (top, $5' \rightarrow 3'$) and antisense strand (bottom, $3' \rightarrow 5'$) are connected by Watson–Crick hydrogen bonds. A–T pairs have 2 hydrogen bonds (dashed); G–C pairs have 3 hydrogen bonds (solid).

4.8.3 Advantages of the Double Helix Structure

The DoubleHelixMesh provides several computational advantages:

1. **Redundancy and error detection:** Each base on the sense strand has a complementary base on the antisense strand. Discrepancies can be detected and corrected, mirroring DNA's own error-correction mechanism.
2. **Bidirectional reading:** The sense strand reads $5' \rightarrow 3'$ while the antisense reads $3' \rightarrow 5'$. This provides a natural mechanism for bidirectional sequence processing without the need for separate forward and backward passes.
3. **Cross-strand attention:** The hydrogen bond cross-links create additional attention pathways between the two chains, enriching the information flow beyond what a single chain provides.

4. **Melting dynamics:** In biology, the double helix can “melt” (denature) at high temperatures, separating the strands. In DOGMA, a learned “temperature” parameter controls the strength of cross-strand interactions, enabling the model to dynamically decouple the strands when independent processing is beneficial.

DoubleHelixMesh Efficiency

Despite having two chains, the DoubleHelixMesh does *not* double the computational cost. The antisense chain shares vertex positions (by symmetry) with the sense chain, and the cross-strand hydrogen bond weights are computed from the base assignments (which are determined by complementarity). The additional cost is $O(T)$ for the cross-strand edges, which is dominated by the $O(T \cdot k \cdot d)$ per-layer cost of TetraMemory updates on each chain.

4.9 Delaunay Tetrahedralization

While the LinkedTetraChain is the primary structure for sequence data, DOGMA also supports general 3D point clouds through Delaunay tetrahedralization.

Given a set of points $P \subset \mathbb{R}^3$, the *Delaunay tetrahedralization* partitions the convex hull of P into tetrahedra such that no point lies inside the circumsphere of any tetrahedron.

Definition 4.6 (Delaunay Tetrahedralization). A tetrahedralization of point set P is *Delaunay* if, for every tetrahedron $\mathcal{T}$, the open circumsphere of $\mathcal{T}$ contains no point of P .

The Delaunay condition maximizes the minimum solid angle among all tetrahedralizations, producing well-shaped elements that avoid degeneracies. This quality guarantee is important for numerical stability in TetraMemory computations.

Applications relevant to DOGMA:

- **Protein structure:** Given C_α coordinates, Delaunay tetrahedralization produces a volumetric mesh capturing local packing geometry.
- **Medical imaging:** CT/MRI voxels can be converted to Delaunay tetrahedral meshes for volumetric analysis.
- **Molecular dynamics:** Voronoi tessellation (dual of Delaunay) defines natural atomic neighborhoods.

4.10 Multimodal Applications of TDS

The TDS representation enables DOGMA to handle diverse data modalities through a unified geometric framework:

Modality	TDS Representation	Application
DNA/RNA	LinkedTetraChain	Sequence modeling, variant calling
3D Vision	Volumetric scene $\rightarrow$ tetra mesh	Object recognition, scene understanding
Proteins	C_α coordinates $\rightarrow$ Delaunay	Structure prediction, drug design
Medical	CT/MRI voxels $\rightarrow$ tetra mesh	Segmentation, anomaly detection
Game engines	Physics bodies $\rightarrow$ deformable tetra	Destruction simulation, soft bodies
Video	Temporal tetrahedra	Motion tracking, action recognition
Audio	Waveform helix encoding	Speaker recognition, music analysis

4.11 Worked Examples

Example 4.3 (Building a LinkedTetraChain from a DNA Sequence). Given the sequence 5'-CGTACG-3' (6 bases), construct the LinkedTetraChain.

Step 1: Assign vertices.

Vertex	v_0	v_1	v_2	v_3	v_4	v_5
Base	C	G	T	A	C	G

Step 2: Enumerate tetrahedra. The chain has $6 - 3 = 3$ tetrahedra:

$$\mathcal{T}_1 = (v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3) = (\text{C}, \text{G}, \text{T}, \text{A}),$$

$$\mathcal{T}_2 = (v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4) = (\text{G}, \text{T}, \text{A}, \text{C}),$$

$$\mathcal{T}_3 = (v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5) = (\text{T}, \text{A}, \text{C}, \text{G}).$$

Step 3: Count combinatorics.

- Vertices: 6
- Edges: $3(3) + 3 = 12$
- Shared faces: (v_1, v_2, v_3) between $\mathcal{T}_1$ and $\mathcal{T}_2$; (v_2, v_3, v_4) between $\mathcal{T}_2$ and $\mathcal{T}_3$.

Step 4: Compute volume and chirality for $\mathcal{T}_1$. Suppose we embed the vertices at: $\mathbf{v}_0 = (0, 0, 0)$, $\mathbf{v}_1 = (1, 0, 0)$, $\mathbf{v}_2 = (0.5, 0.87, 0)$, $\mathbf{v}_3 = (0.5, 0.29, 0.82)$.

Then:

$$V_{\text{signed}} = \frac{1}{6} \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.5 & 0.5 \\ 0 & 0.87 & 0.29 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.82 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{6} (1 \cdot 0.87 \cdot 0.82) = \frac{0.7134}{6} \approx 0.119.$$

Since $V_{\text{signed}} > 0$, the chirality is $\chi = +1$ (right-handed).

Example 4.4 (TetraMemory vs. Self-Attention Cost). Consider a genomic sequence of length $T = 50,000$ with embedding dimension $d = 512$.

Self-attention cost per layer:

$$O(T^2 d) = 50,000^2 \times 512 = 1.28 \times 10^{12} \text{ FLOPs.}$$

TetraMemory cost per layer (with $k = 4$ neighbors):

$$O(T \cdot k \cdot d) = 50,000 \times 4 \times 512 = 1.024 \times 10^8 \text{ FLOPs.}$$

Speedup per layer: $\frac{1.28 \times 10^{12}}{1.024 \times 10^8} \approx 12,500\times$.

Even accounting for the need for $O(T^{1/3}) \approx 37$ layers for global propagation in a 3D mesh, the total TetraMemory cost is:

$$37 \times 1.024 \times 10^8 = 3.79 \times 10^9 \text{ FLOPs,}$$

which is still $\sim 338\times$ faster than a single self-attention layer.

4.12 Exercises

- 10.1. [Fundamentals]** Compute the volume and chirality of the tetrahedron with vertices $(0, 0, 0)$, $(1, 0, 0)$, $(0, 1, 0)$, $(0, 0, 1)$. Verify that reflecting one vertex across a coordinate plane reverses the chirality.
- 10.2. [Construction]** Build the LinkedTetraChain for the DNA sequence 5'-GATTACA-3'. List all tetrahedra, their base assignments, and the shared faces between consecutive tetrahedra. How many total edges does the chain have?
- 10.3. [Analysis]** For a tetrahedral mesh with M elements, each with at most 4 face-sharing neighbors, compare the computational cost of one TetraMemory layer ($O(4Md)$) with one self-attention layer ($O(M^2d)$). For what value of M does TetraMemory become $100\times$ faster?
- 10.4. [Information Density]** Compute the number of unique pairwise interactions captured by (a) a triangle mesh with sliding window of width 3 and overlap 2, and (b) a tetrahedral mesh with sliding window of width 4 and overlap 3, both applied to a sequence of length $T = 100$. Express the ratio.
- 10.5. [DOF Counting]** A hexahedron (cube) has 8 vertices, 12 edges, and 6 faces. Compute the number of degrees of freedom for a “HexaData” structure analogous to TDS (vertex positions + edge weights + base encoding for 8 bases + volume + chirality). Is the DOF-per-vertex ratio better or worse than TDS?
- 10.6. [Coding]** Implement the TetraTokenizer (Equation 4.7) in Python. Given a list of tetrahedra (each specified by 4 vertex coordinates and 4 base types), produce the 36-dimensional token representation for each.
- 10.7. [DoubleHelix]** Given the sense strand 5'-ATGCATGC-3', write out the antisense strand. Construct the DoubleHelixMesh and count the total number of cross-strand hydrogen bonds. How many are A–T bonds (2H) and how many are G–C bonds (3H)?
- 10.8. [Theory]** Prove that the graph diameter of a Delaunay tetrahedralization of M uniformly distributed points in a unit cube is $O(M^{1/3})$.

- 10.9. [Design]** Propose a scheme for encoding a protein backbone (sequence of C_α coordinates) as a TDS mesh. How would you assign base types $\{A, C, G, T\}$ to vertices based on amino acid properties?
- 10.10. [Research]** Compare TetraMemory with graph neural networks (GNNs). Both use local message passing. What does the tetrahedral structure provide that a generic graph does not? Consider: bounded degree, volume, chirality, and face-sharing.

4.13 Key Takeaways

Key Takeaways

- A tetrahedron is the *minimal solid*: four vertices, six edges, four faces, and one volume. It is the simplest 3D object with both volume and chirality. No simpler primitive can encode these properties.
- The TetraData Structure uses tetrahedra as computational primitives, mapping four vertices to DNA base types $\{A, C, G, T\}$ and encoding 36 degrees of freedom per element.
- The LinkedTetraChain links tetrahedra by shared triangular faces, acting as a sliding window of width 4 with overlap 3 over a sequence. Each new vertex adds exactly 3 edges and 1 tetrahedron.
- DNA sequences map naturally to LinkedTetraChains: each tetrahedron represents a window of 4 consecutive bases, and adjacent tetrahedra share 3 bases through their common face.
- TetraMemory replaces $O(T^2)$ self-attention with $O(T \cdot k)$ local tetrahedral interactions ($k \leq 4$) that compose into global computation through face propagation. Volume serves as a geometric attention weight; edge weights encode local pairwise compatibility.
- The DoubleHelixMesh pairs a sense and antisense LinkedTetraChain with Watson–Crick cross-links (A–T: 2 hydrogen bonds, G–C: 3 hydrogen bonds), providing redundancy, bidirectional reading, and cross-strand attention.
- Delaunay tetrahedralization extends TDS beyond sequences to general 3D point clouds, enabling multimodal applications from protein structure to medical imaging.

Suggested Reading

- Chapter 1, Section on DNAComputeBlock: TetraMemory’s architectural context.
- [Jumper et al. \[2021\]](#): AlphaFold’s use of structural representations for proteins.
- [Gu and Dao \[2023\]](#): Alternative approach to sub-quadratic sequence processing.

Chapter 5

CodonForge — The DNA Compiler and SDANS

A compiler is a bridge between the language of intent and the language of execution. In DOGMA, that bridge is biological.

— DOGMA Design Manifesto

Every sophisticated computational system needs a compiler: a principled mechanism for translating high-level specifications into executable low-level operations. In conventional computing, compilers translate C into assembly, or Python into bytecode. In DOGMA, **CodonForge** translates prompt bundles and genomic specifications into executable codon programs—using the same triplet encoding that biology uses to translate mRNA into protein.

This chapter presents CodonForge as a *symbolic DNA programming layer* that treats codons as opcodes and genes as execution blocks. We begin with the biological foundations that inspired the design, then build up the full compilation pipeline piece by piece. We conclude with **SDANS** (Strand Displacement Attention Neural System or Stochastic DNA-Algebraic Neural Simulation), a compilation target that formally bridges CodonForge programs and neural network execution.

Learning objectives. After studying this chapter, students should be able to:

- Explain how biological codon translation (mRNA → ribosome → amino acid) inspired CodonForge’s design.
- List and categorize all 64 CodonForge opcodes across the five opcode families.
- Trace a prompt through the full Parse → Compile → Optimize pipeline.
- Construct forward and reverse DNA strands for a CodonForge program.
- Encode and decode text using the Word2FASTA bridge.
- Describe how SDANS maps symbolic codon programs to differentiable neural architectures.
- Compare the CodonForge compilation pipeline with traditional compilers such as LLVM.

5.1 Biological Foundations: Codon Translation in Nature

Before we can understand CodonForge, we must first understand the biological process that inspired it. In every living cell, the information stored in DNA is translated into functional proteins through a remarkably elegant pipeline. This section reviews that pipeline in detail, because CodonForge directly mirrors each of its stages.

5.1.1 The Central Dogma of Molecular Biology

The *central dogma* describes the flow of genetic information:

$$\text{DNA} \xrightarrow{\text{Transcription}} \text{mRNA} \xrightarrow{\text{Translation}} \text{Protein} \quad (5.1)$$

1. **Transcription.** The enzyme RNA polymerase reads one strand of the DNA double helix (the *template strand*) and synthesizes a complementary messenger RNA (mRNA) molecule. The mRNA is a portable copy of the gene’s instructions.
2. **Translation.** The ribosome—a large molecular machine—reads the mRNA three nucleotides at a time. Each triplet of nucleotides is called a *codon*. Transfer RNA (tRNA) molecules carry individual amino acids to the ribosome, where they are matched to the appropriate codon via anticodon base-pairing.
3. **Protein folding.** The resulting chain of amino acids folds into a three-dimensional protein that performs a specific function in the cell.

Why Triplets?

Why does biology use three-letter codons instead of two or four? With four possible nucleotides (A, U, G, C), a two-letter code would provide only $4^2 = 16$ combinations—not enough to encode 20 amino acids plus stop signals. A three-letter code provides $4^3 = 64$ combinations, which is more than sufficient and provides redundancy (multiple codons can encode the same amino acid). A four-letter code ($4^4 = 256$) would be wasteful. Three is the minimum length that encodes sufficient information, a principle that CodonForge inherits directly.

5.1.2 Step-by-Step: From mRNA to Amino Acid

Let us walk through translation in detail, as each step has a computational analogue in CodonForge.

Step 1: Initiation. The ribosome assembles on the mRNA at the *start codon* AUG, which encodes the amino acid methionine. This is analogous to a program’s entry point or `main()` function. In CodonForge, this corresponds to the *promoter codon* that marks the beginning of a gene.

Step 2: Elongation. The ribosome moves along the mRNA, reading one codon at a time. For each codon, a tRNA molecule with the complementary anticodon delivers the correct amino acid. The ribosome catalyzes a peptide bond between the new amino acid and the growing chain. In CodonForge, this corresponds to sequential opcode execution: the “ribosome” is the interpreter, and each codon triggers a specific computational operation.

Step 3: Termination. When the ribosome encounters a *stop codon* (UAA, UAG, or UGA), translation halts. No tRNA matches these codons; instead, release factors cause the ribosome to release the completed protein. In CodonForge, the terminator codon halts gene execution and triggers output emission.

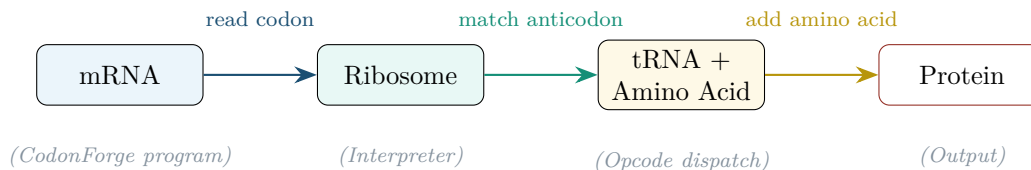


Figure 5.1: Biological translation and its CodonForge analogy. The ribosome reads mRNA codons sequentially, just as CodonForge’s interpreter reads codon opcodes.

5.1.3 The Complete Biological Codon Table

The following table shows all 64 codons of the standard genetic code, organized by the first and second nucleotide positions. Understanding this table is essential because CodonForge’s opcode table is structured as a direct computational analogue.

Table 5.1: The standard genetic code: all 64 RNA codons and their corresponding amino acids. Start codon (AUG) shown in bold; stop codons shown with **Stop**.

		Second Position				
		U	C	A	G	
U	U	Phe (UUU)	Ser (UCU)	Tyr (UAU)	Cys (UGU)	U
	U	Phe (UUC)	Ser (UCC)	Tyr (UAC)	Cys (UGC)	C
	U	Leu (UUA)	Ser (UCA)	Stop (UAA)	Stop (UGA)	A
	U	Leu (UUG)	Ser (UCG)	Stop (UAG)	Trp (UGG)	G
C	C	Leu (CUU)	Pro (CCU)	His (CAU)	Arg (CGU)	U
	C	Leu (CUC)	Pro (CCC)	His (CAC)	Arg (CGC)	C
	C	Leu (CUA)	Pro (CCA)	Gln (CAA)	Arg (CGA)	A
	C	Leu (CUG)	Pro (CCG)	Gln (CAG)	Arg (CGG)	G
A	A	Ile (AUU)	Thr (ACU)	Asn (AAU)	Ser (AGU)	U
	A	Ile (AUC)	Thr (ACC)	Asn (AAC)	Ser (AGC)	C
	A	Ile (AUA)	Thr (ACA)	Lys (AAA)	Arg (AGA)	A
	A	Met (AUG)	Thr (ACG)	Lys (AAG)	Arg (AGG)	G
G	G	Val (GUU)	Ala (GCU)	Asp (GAU)	Gly (GGU)	U
	G	Val (GUC)	Ala (GCC)	Asp (GAC)	Gly (GGC)	C
	G	Val (GUA)	Ala (GCA)	Glu (GAA)	Gly (GGA)	A
	G	Val (GUG)	Ala (GCG)	Glu (GAG)	Gly (GGG)	G

Degeneracy Is Not Redundancy

Notice that 61 codons encode only 20 amino acids. This means most amino acids have multiple codons—a property called *degeneracy*. Critically, degeneracy is not useless redundancy. Different codons for the same amino acid are translated at different speeds, affecting protein folding and expression levels. This is called *codon usage bias*, and organisms optimize their codon choices for translational efficiency. CodonForge inherits this principle: multiple codons map to the same operation but with different optimization hints.

5.2 DNA as a Programming Language

The genetic code maps 64 codons (three-nucleotide sequences) to 20 amino acids plus stop signals. CodonForge extends this idea: 64 codons are mapped to *computational opcodes*, organizing computation into gene-like blocks with promoter/terminator control flow.

Definition 5.1 (Codon Opcode). A *codon opcode* is a mapping from a three-letter DNA sequence to a computational operation:

$$\text{opcode} : \Sigma_{\text{DNA}}^3 \rightarrow \mathcal{O}, \quad (5.2)$$

where $\Sigma_{\text{DNA}} = \{\text{A, T, G, C}\}$ is the DNA alphabet and $\mathcal{O}$ is the set of available operations. Since $|\Sigma_{\text{DNA}}^3| = 4^3 = 64$, CodonForge defines exactly 64 opcodes organized into functional families.

DNA vs. RNA Alphabets

Biology uses two slightly different alphabets: DNA uses $\{\text{A, T, G, C}\}$ while RNA uses $\{\text{A, U, G, C}\}$, where uracil (U) replaces thymine (T). CodonForge uses the DNA alphabet because its programs are “stored” like DNA and “executed” like mRNA. When we refer to biological codons (e.g., the start codon AUG), we use the RNA alphabet. When we write CodonForge codons (e.g., ATG), we use the DNA alphabet. The mapping is straightforward: replace every T with U to go from DNA to RNA, and every U with T for the reverse.

5.2.1 Opcode Families

CodonForge organizes its 64 opcodes into five families, mirroring the functional categories of biological codons. The families are:

Family	Count	Example Ops	Biological Analogue
Sense	12	LOAD_CONTEXT, MATCH_KEY, SCAN_MOTIF	Sensor proteins
Binding	12	BIND_VALUE, STORE_REG, ASSOCIATE	Molecular binding
Regulation	14	IF_ACTIVE, GATE_CHECK, THRESHOLD	Transcription factors
Expression	14	EMIT_JSON, EMIT_TEXT, FOLD_STRUCT	Protein expression
Termination	12	STOP, CHECKPOINT, CLEANUP	Stop codons

Let us examine each family in detail.

Sense Family (12 opcodes)

The Sense family handles all input perception and context loading. Just as sensor proteins in a cell detect environmental signals, Sense opcodes detect and load relevant information from the input context.

Codon	Opcode	Description
AAA	LOAD_CONTEXT	Load the full input context (query + environment) into register R0
AAT	LOAD_QUERY	Load only the user query portion into R0
AAG	LOAD_SYSTEM	Load system-level instructions into R0
AAC	LOAD_HISTORY	Load conversation history into R0
ATA	SCAN_MOTIF	Scan current context for recurring motifs; store matches in R1
ATT	SCAN_ENTITY	Extract named entities from context; store in R1
ATG	MATCH_KEY	Find passages matching key terms; store in R2
ATC	MATCH_PATTERN	Match regex-like patterns in context; store in R2
AGA	SENSE_TONE	Detect emotional tone of input; store classification in R3
AGT	SENSE_INTENT	Classify user intent (question, command, statement); store in R3
AGG	SENSE_LANG	Detect input language; store language code in R3
AGC	SENSE_DOMAIN	Classify input domain (science, law, casual); store in R3

Binding Family (12 opcodes)

The Binding family handles data association and storage. Just as molecular binding in biology involves specific lock-and-key interactions between molecules, Binding opcodes create structured associations between data elements.

Codon	Opcode	Description
TAA	BIND_VALUE	Bind a retrieved value to a template slot; R2 → R4
TAT	BIND_PAIR	Create a key-value pair from R1 and R2; store in R4
TAG	BIND_LIST	Aggregate multiple values into an ordered list in R4
TAC	BIND_STRUCT	Bind values into a structured record in R4
TTA	STORE_REG	Store current accumulator value to specified register
TTT	STORE_MEM	Store value to named memory location
TTG	LOAD_REG	Load value from specified register to accumulator
TTC	LOAD_MEM	Load value from named memory location
TGA	ASSOCIATE	Create a weighted association between two registers
TGT	CROSS_REF	Cross-reference two data structures for shared elements
TGG	MERGE	Merge two registers into one combined structure
TGC	COPY	Copy value from one register to another

Regulation Family (14 opcodes)

The Regulation family implements control flow, conditional execution, and gating mechanisms. These opcodes mirror the role of transcription factors in biology—proteins that determine whether a gene is activated or silenced.

Codon	Opcode	Description
GAA	IF_ACTIVE	Conditional: execute next opcodes only if register is non-empty
GAT	IF_MATCH	Conditional: execute if pattern match succeeded
GAG	IF_ABOVE	Conditional: execute if register value exceeds threshold
GAC	IF_BELOW	Conditional: execute if register value is below threshold
GTA	GATE_CHECK	Gate: pass data only if quality score exceeds minimum
GTT	GATE_TOXICITY	Gate: block output if toxicity score exceeds limit
GTG	GATE_RELEVANCE	Gate: block if content relevance score is too low
GTC	GATE_LENGTH	Gate: enforce output length constraints
GGA	THRESHOLD	Set a numeric threshold value for subsequent comparisons
GGT	BRANCH	Unconditional jump to specified gene
GGG	LOOP_START	Begin a loop block (with max iteration counter)
GGC	LOOP_END	End a loop block and check continuation condition
GCA	MUTEX_LOCK	Acquire exclusive access to a shared register
GCT	MUTEX_UNLOCK	Release exclusive access to a shared register

Expression Family (14 opcodes)

The Expression family handles output generation, formatting, and structural assembly. In biology, “expression” refers to the process by which a gene’s information is synthesized into a functional product (usually a protein). In CodonForge, Expression opcodes synthesize the computational output.

Codon	Opcode	Description
CAA	EMIT_TEXT	Emit plain text output from register contents
CAT	EMIT_JSON	Emit structured JSON output from register contents
CAG	EMIT_CODE	Emit source code with syntax formatting
CAC	EMIT_TABLE	Emit tabular data output
CTA	FOLD_STRUCT	Fold flat data into a hierarchical structure
CTT	FOLD_SUMMARY	Compress data into a summary representation
CTG	FOLD_TREE	Organize data into a tree structure
CTC	FOLD_GRAPH	Organize data into a graph structure
CGA	FORMAT_MD	Apply Markdown formatting to output
CGT	FORMAT_HTML	Apply HTML formatting to output
CGG	FORMAT_LATEX	Apply L ^A T _E X formatting to output
CGC	FORMAT_PLAIN	Strip all formatting; emit raw text
CCA	CONCAT	Concatenate multiple register values into output stream
CCT	TEMPLATE	Fill a template string with register values

Termination Family (12 opcodes)

The Termination family handles program termination, checkpointing, cleanup, and error handling. These opcodes are analogous to the three biological stop codons (UAA, UAG, UGA), but CodonForge’s richer set enables graceful shutdown, state persistence, and error recovery.

Codon	Opcode	Description
CCC	STOP	Halt execution immediately; return current output
CCG	STOP_SUCCESS	Halt with success status code
GCG	STOP_ERROR	Halt with error status code and error message
GCC	CHECKPOINT	Save full execution state for later resumption or lineage
ATG	CHECKPOINT_PARTIAL	Save partial state (registers only, no context)
ACT	CLEANUP	Deallocate temporary registers and memory
ACC	CLEANUP_ALL	Deallocate all non-output registers
ACA	LOG_STATE	Write current state to execution log
ACG	LOG_ERROR	Write error information to execution log
TCA	RETRY	Re-execute current gene from its promoter
TCT	FALLBACK	Switch to fallback gene on error
TCC	YIELD	Pause execution; yield partial output; resume later

Shared Codons

Observant readers will notice that **ATG** appears in both the Sense family (**MATCH_KEY**) and the Termination family (**CHECKPOINT_PARTIAL**). This is intentional: just as biological **AUG** serves as both the start codon and the codon for methionine, CodonForge allows context-dependent interpretation. When **ATG** appears as the first codon after a promoter, it functions as a Sense opcode. When it appears later in a gene, context determines its family membership. This is resolved at compile time by the contextual disambiguation pass.

Degeneracy and Optimization

Just as the biological genetic code is *degenerate* (multiple codons encoding the same amino acid), CodonForge supports *opcode aliasing*: multiple codon patterns can invoke the same operation with different optimization hints. For example, several codons might all map to **LOAD_CONTEXT**, but with different implicit priorities for cache behavior or precision level. This degeneracy provides a mechanism for codon optimization analogous to biological codon usage bias.

5.3 Gene Specifications

In CodonForge, a *gene* is an ordered block of codon opcodes bracketed by a promoter and a terminator. This mirrors the biological concept of a gene: a segment of DNA that encodes a functional product, flanked by regulatory sequences.

Definition 5.2 (CodonForge Gene). A *gene* is a triple $G = (P, \mathbf{c}, T)$ where:

- P is a promoter codon (determines activation conditions).
- $\mathbf{c} = (c_1, c_2, \dots, c_m)$ is an ordered sequence of operational codons.
- T is a terminator codon (signals end of gene execution).

A *genome program* is an ordered list of genes: $\Pi = (G_1, G_2, \dots, G_K)$. Execution proceeds gene by gene; within each gene, codons execute sequentially. Promoter conditions determine whether a gene fires in the current context—implementing the regulatory control described in Chapter 3.

5.3.1 Gene Structure in Detail

Let us examine each component of a gene more closely.

Promoters. A promoter codon does not perform computation itself; instead, it defines the *conditions under which the gene is activated*. Think of it as an `if` statement that guards an entire function. Promoters can specify:

- **Always-on:** The gene always executes (unconditional promoter).
- **Register-conditional:** The gene executes only if a specified register is non-empty or exceeds a threshold.
- **Context-conditional:** The gene executes only when the input matches a specific pattern (e.g., a question-type input, a code-generation request).
- **Priority-conditional:** The gene executes only if no higher-priority gene has already handled the input.

Opcode body. The body of a gene is a sequence of codon opcodes executed in order. Opcodes may read from and write to registers, consume input from the context, and produce intermediate or final output. The body implements the gene’s computational function.

Terminators. A terminator codon marks the end of the gene. It can trigger cleanup of temporary data, emit output, checkpoint execution state for lineage tracking, or signal error conditions.

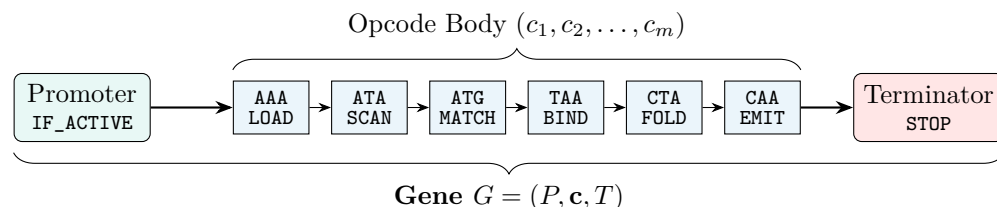


Figure 5.2: Structure of a CodonForge gene. The promoter gates execution, the opcode body performs computation, and the terminator signals completion.

5.3.2 Forward and Reverse Strands

Following DNA’s antiparallel structure, every CodonForge program automatically generates a *reverse strand*: the reverse complement of the forward program. The reverse strand provides:

- **Redundancy:** Information is encoded twice, enabling error detection.
- **Bidirectional reading:** Some operations can read the reverse strand for complementary computation.
- **HelixHash compatibility:** The double-strand representation feeds directly into HelixHash’s structural analysis (Chapter 2).

Constructing the Reverse Complement

To construct the reverse complement, we apply two operations:

1. **Complement:** Replace each nucleotide with its Watson-Crick complement: $A \leftrightarrow T$ and $G \leftrightarrow C$.
2. **Reverse:** Read the complemented sequence from right to left.

Example 5.1 (Forward and Reverse Strand Construction). Consider a simple gene with the forward strand:

5'-ATG AAA ATA TAA CAA CCC-3'

This encodes: `MATCH_KEY` $\rightarrow$ `LOAD_CONTEXT` $\rightarrow$ `SCAN_MOTIF` $\rightarrow$ `BIND_VALUE` $\rightarrow$ `EMIT_TEXT` $\rightarrow$ `STOP`.

Step 1: Complement each base:

TAC TTT TAT ATT GTT GGG

Step 2: Reverse the entire sequence:

3'-GGG TTG TTA TAT TTT CAT-5'

The reverse complement strand reads (in the 5'→3' direction):

5'-GGG TTG TTA TAT TTT TAC-3'

The double-stranded representation is:

5'-ATG AAA ATA TAA CAA CCC-3'
 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
 3'-TAC TTT TAT ATT GTT GGG-5'

5.4 The Compilation Pipeline

CodonForge implements a three-stage compilation pipeline that transforms human-readable prompt bundles into executable codon programs:

$$\text{PromptBundle} \xrightarrow{\text{Parse}} \text{Genomic IR} \xrightarrow{\text{Compile}} \text{Codon Program} \xrightarrow{\text{Optimize}} \text{Executable} \quad (5.3)$$

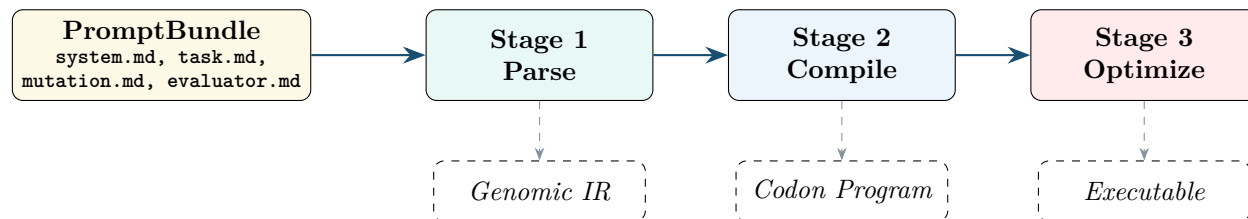


Figure 5.3: The CodonForge three-stage compilation pipeline. Each stage produces an intermediate representation that feeds the next stage.

5.4.1 Stage 1: Parse

The input PromptBundle (consisting of `system.md`, `task.md`, `mutation.md`, `evaluator.md`) is parsed into a *Genomic Intermediate Representation* (Genomic IR):

- Text fragments are segmented into *functional units*—the smallest independently meaningful pieces of instruction or data.
- Each unit is typed: instruction, constraint, template, or evaluation criterion.
- Dependencies between units are identified (e.g., “summarize the article” depends on “load the article”).
- Region boundaries are established, grouping related units into candidate genes.

The Genomic IR is a directed acyclic graph (DAG) where nodes represent functional units and edges represent dependencies. This DAG is the foundation for all subsequent compilation.

Genomic Intermediate Representation

Formally, the Genomic IR is a tuple $\mathcal{G} = (V, E, \tau, \delta)$ where:

- V is a set of functional unit nodes.
- $E \subseteq V \times V$ is a set of dependency edges.
- $\tau : V \rightarrow \{\text{instruction, constraint, template, criterion}\}$ is a type function.
- $\delta : V \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ assigns a priority/depth to each node.

5.4.2 Stage 2: Compile

The Genomic IR is compiled into a codon program by:

1. **Gene formation:** Each functional unit (or group of related units) is mapped to a gene (promoter + opcode sequence + terminator). Instruction units become Sense and Binding opcode sequences. Constraint units become Regulation opcodes. Template and criterion units become Expression opcodes.
2. **Gene ordering:** Genes are ordered according to execution dependencies derived from the IR’s DAG structure. A topological sort ensures that each gene’s inputs are available before it executes.
3. **Regulatory insertion:** Conditional execution is implemented by inserting Regulation opcodes (e.g., `IF_ACTIVE`, `GATE_CHECK`) as promoters or internal guards.
4. **Reverse strand generation:** The reverse complement strand is generated for each gene and for the complete program.

5.4.3 Stage 3: Optimize

The raw codon program is optimized through passes analogous to compiler optimization:

- **Dead code elimination:** Remove genes that can never be activated (unreachable promoter conditions).
- **Codon optimization:** Replace codons with aliases that have better execution properties (analogous to biological codon usage optimization). For example, choosing a codon variant that favors cache-friendly memory access patterns.
- **Regulatory simplification:** Merge redundant regulatory gates. If two consecutive `IF_ACTIVE` checks test the same register, the second is redundant.
- **GC content balancing:** Ensure the program has balanced base composition for HelixHash stability. An extreme GC imbalance can destabilize the double-stranded representation.
- **Gene fusion:** Merge small adjacent genes with compatible promoters into a single gene to reduce promoter evaluation overhead.
- **Register allocation:** Minimize register usage by reusing registers whose values are no longer needed.

5.5 Worked Example: Compiling “What is DNA?”

To make the compilation pipeline concrete, let us trace a simple prompt through all three stages. Suppose a user submits the prompt:

What is DNA?

with a minimal system prompt: "You are a helpful biology tutor. Answer clearly and concisely."

5.5.1 Stage 1: Parse — Building the Genomic IR

The parser segments the input into functional units:

```
1 # Functional units extracted from PromptBundle:
2 unit_1 = {
3     type: "instruction",
4     content: "load_user_query",
5     source: "task.md",
6     data: "What is DNA?"
7 }
8 unit_2 = {
9     type: "constraint",
10    content: "persona_constraint",
11    source: "system.md",
12    data: "helpful biology tutor"
13 }
14 unit_3 = {
15    type: "constraint",
```

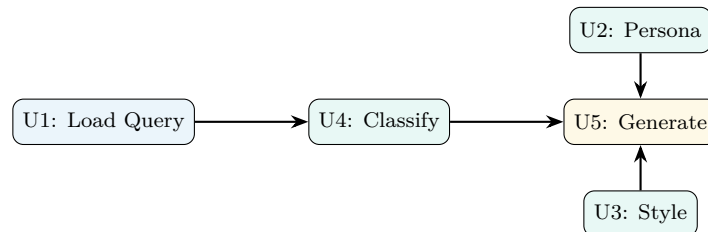
```

16     content: "style_constraint",
17     source: "system.md",
18     data: "clear and concise"
19 }
20 unit_4 = {
21     type: "instruction",
22     content: "classify_intent",
23     source: "inferred",
24     data: "question -> factual_answer"
25 }
26 unit_5 = {
27     type: "template",
28     content: "generate_answer",
29     source: "inferred",
30     data: "produce text output"
31 }
32
33 # Dependency edges:
34 # unit_1 -> unit_4 (must load query before classifying intent)
35 # unit_4 -> unit_5 (must know intent before generating answer)
36 # unit_2 -> unit_5 (persona constrains generation)
37 # unit_3 -> unit_5 (style constrains generation)

```

Listing 5.1: Genomic IR after parsing (pseudocode representation).

The resulting DAG has five nodes with the dependency structure:



5.5.2 Stage 2: Compile — Generating the Codon Program

The compiler maps each functional unit group to genes:

```

1  # Gene 1: Context Sensing (promoter: always active)
2  # Maps from: unit_1, unit_4
3  PROMOTER: ALWAYS_ON
4  AAA  LOAD_CONTEXT      # Load "What is DNA?" into R0
5  AGT  SENSE_INTENT      # Classify as question -> R3
6  ATA  SCAN_MOTIF        # Extract key term "DNA" -> R1
7  ATG  MATCH_KEY         # Search knowledge for "DNA" -> R2
8  TERMINATOR: GCC CHECKPOINT # Save state
9
10 # Gene 2: Constraint Application (promoter: IF R2 nonempty)
11 # Maps from: unit_2, unit_3
12 PROMOTER: GAA IF_ACTIVE(R2)
13 GTA  GATE_CHECK        # Verify retrieved content quality
14 GTG  GATE_RELEVANCE     # Ensure "DNA" content is relevant
15 GGA  THRESHOLD(style=concise) # Set conciseness threshold

```

```

16   GTC   GATE_LENGTH           # Enforce length < 200 words
17   TERMINATOR: ACT CLEANUP      # Clean temp registers
18
19   # Gene 3: Answer Generation (promoter: IF R2 nonempty)
20   # Maps from: unit_5
21   PROMOTER: GAA IF_ACTIVE(R2)
22   TAA   BIND_VALUE            # Bind DNA knowledge to template -> R4
23   CTA   FOLD_STRUCT           # Structure answer logically -> R5
24   CAA   EMIT_TEXT             # Produce text output from R5
25   TERMINATOR: CCC STOP        # Halt with success

```

Listing 5.2: Codon program for “What is DNA?” (pseudocode).

The full DNA sequence for this program (forward strand) is:

5’-AAA AGT ATA ATG GCC | GAA GTA GTG GGA GTC ACT | GAA TAA CTA CAA CCC-3’

where | marks gene boundaries.

5.5.3 Stage 3: Optimize — Refining the Program

The optimizer applies several passes to the raw program:

1. **Dead code elimination:** All genes have reachable promoters—no elimination needed.
2. **Codon optimization:** The codon AAA (LOAD_CONTEXT) could be replaced with AAT (LOAD_QUERY) since we only need the user query, not the full context. This is more efficient.
3. **Regulatory simplification:** Genes 2 and 3 have the same promoter condition (IF_ACTIVE(R2)). They can share a single promoter evaluation by fusing into one gene.
4. **GC content check:** The current GC content is $(G + C)/\text{total} = 19/48 \approx 39.6\%$, which is within the acceptable range of 35–65%. No rebalancing needed.

After optimization, the program becomes more compact:

```

1  # Gene 1: Sense (always on)
2  PROMOTER: ALWAYS_ON
3  AAT   LOAD_QUERY             # Load only the query (optimized)
4  AGT   SENSE_INTENT           # Classify intent
5  ATA   SCAN_MOTIF             # Extract "DNA"
6  ATG   MATCH_KEY              # Retrieve knowledge
7  TERMINATOR: GCC CHECKPOINT
8
9  # Gene 2: Constrain + Generate (fused, IF R2 nonempty)
10 PROMOTER: GAA IF_ACTIVE(R2)
11 GTA   GATE_CHECK             # Quality gate
12 GTG   GATE_RELEVANCE         # Relevance gate
13 GTC   GATE_LENGTH            # Length gate
14 TAA   BIND_VALUE            # Bind answer
15 CTA   FOLD_STRUCT           # Structure
16 CAA   EMIT_TEXT             # Output
17 TERMINATOR: CCC STOP

```

Listing 5.3: Optimized codon program for “What is DNA?”.

The optimized program has 2 genes (down from 3) and 12 opcodes (down from 14), a 14% reduction in program size.

5.6 Execution Semantics

CodonForge programs execute over a *computational register file*: a set of named registers that hold intermediate values during execution.

Definition 5.3 (CodonForge Execution State). The execution state is a tuple $S = (\mathbf{R}, \text{PC}, \text{Context})$ where:

- $\mathbf{R} = \{R_0, R_1, \dots, R_n\}$ is the register file: a dictionary mapping register names to values (strings, numbers, structured data, or $\perp$ for empty).
- $\text{PC} = (g, i)$ is the program counter: a pair of current gene index g and current codon index i within that gene.
- Context is the input context (query, task description, environment state).

State transitions are deterministic: given state S_t and codon c_t , the next state $S_{t+1} = \delta(S_t, c_t)$ is uniquely determined.

The transition function δ is defined per opcode family:

$$\delta_{\text{Sense}}(S, c) = S[\mathbf{R}[r_{\text{out}}] \mapsto \text{perceive}(\text{Context}, c.\text{params})] \quad (5.4)$$

$$\delta_{\text{Binding}}(S, c) = S[\mathbf{R}[r_{\text{out}}] \mapsto \text{bind}(\mathbf{R}[r_{\text{in}}], c.\text{params})] \quad (5.5)$$

$$\delta_{\text{Regulation}}(S, c) = \begin{cases} S & \text{if eval}(\mathbf{R}, c.\text{condition}) = \text{true} \\ S[\text{PC} \mapsto \text{skip}] & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (5.6)$$

$$\delta_{\text{Expression}}(S, c) = S[\text{output} += \text{emit}(\mathbf{R}[r_{\text{in}}], c.\text{format})] \quad (5.7)$$

$$\delta_{\text{Termination}}(S, c) = S[\text{status} \mapsto c.\text{halt_type}] \quad (5.8)$$

5.6.1 Example Execution Trace

Consider running our optimized “What is DNA?” program. We trace the register file through each opcode:

Step	Opcode	Register Changed	Value
1	LOAD_QUERY	R_0	"What is DNA?"
2	SENSE_INTENT	R_3	intent=factual_question
3	SCAN_MOTIF	R_1	[motif:"DNA", type:acronym]
4	MATCH_KEY	R_2	[knowledge:"DNA stands for deoxyribonucleic..."]
5	CHECKPOINT	(log)	State saved for lineage
<i>Gene 2 promoter: IF_ACTIVE(R_2) $\rightarrow$ true (R_2 is nonempty)</i>			
6	GATE_CHECK	—	Quality score 0.92 > 0.5: pass
7	GATE_RELEVANCE	—	Relevance 0.97 > 0.7: pass
8	GATE_LENGTH	—	Est. length 85 words < 200: pass
9	BIND_VALUE	R_4	Knowledge bound to answer template
10	FOLD_STRUCT	R_5	Structured: intro $\rightarrow$ definition $\rightarrow$ significance
11	EMIT_TEXT	(output)	"DNA, or deoxyribonucleic acid, is..."
12	STOP	(halt)	Execution complete with success

5.7 The Word2FASTA Bridge

CodonForge includes a *reversible translation layer* between text and DNA-encoded representations. This layer, called **Word2FASTA**, allows arbitrary text (prompts, responses, metadata) to be encoded as DNA sequences in FASTA format—the standard file format used in bioinformatics.

5.7.1 Why Encode Text as DNA?

At first glance, encoding text as DNA might seem like an unnecessary complication. But the Word2FASTA bridge enables several powerful capabilities:

- **Unified representation:** Both programs (codon opcodes) and data (text) are represented in the same DNA alphabet, enabling uniform processing by HelixHash and other DOGMA components.
- **Bioinformatics tooling:** Encoded prompts can be analyzed using standard bioinformatics tools: sequence alignment (BLAST), motif discovery, phylogenetic analysis of prompt evolution, and GC content analysis.
- **Genomic storage:** Prompt genomes can be stored in standard FASTA databases and version-controlled alongside program code.
- **Mutation compatibility:** Text encoded as DNA can undergo biological-style mutations (point mutation, insertion, deletion, crossover) during the evolutionary optimization described in Chapter 3.

5.7.2 The Encoding Algorithm

The encoding maps each ASCII character to a pair of codons (6 nucleotides), giving $4^6 = 4096$ possible values—far more than the 128 standard ASCII characters or even the 256 extended ASCII values.

Definition 5.4 (Word2FASTA Encoding). Given an ASCII character a with ordinal value $n = \text{ord}(a)$ where $0 \leq n < 128$:

1. Represent n in base 4 as a 4-digit number: $n = d_3 \cdot 4^3 + d_2 \cdot 4^2 + d_1 \cdot 4 + d_0$, padding with leading zeros as needed (since $128 < 4^4 = 256$, four base-4 digits suffice).
2. Add two parity digits: $d_4 = (d_3 + d_2) \bmod 4$ and $d_5 = (d_1 + d_0) \bmod 4$.
3. Map each digit to a nucleotide: $0 \rightarrow \text{A}$, $1 \rightarrow \text{T}$, $2 \rightarrow \text{G}$, $3 \rightarrow \text{C}$.
4. The six nucleotides $(d_3, d_2, d_1, d_0, d_4, d_5)$ form two codons: $[d_3 d_2 d_1]$ and $[d_0 d_4 d_5]$.

5.7.3 Complete Encoding Example: “Hi”

Let us encode the two-character string “Hi” step by step.

Character ‘H’ (ASCII 72):

1. Convert 72 to base 4: $72 = 1 \cdot 64 + 0 \cdot 16 + 2 \cdot 4 + 0 = (1, 0, 2, 0)_4$.
2. Parity: $d_4 = (1 + 0) \bmod 4 = 1$; $d_5 = (2 + 0) \bmod 4 = 2$.
3. Full digits: $(1, 0, 2, 0, 1, 2)$.
4. Map to nucleotides: $1 \rightarrow \text{T}$, $0 \rightarrow \text{A}$, $2 \rightarrow \text{G}$, $0 \rightarrow \text{A}$, $1 \rightarrow \text{T}$, $2 \rightarrow \text{G}$.
5. Result: TAG ATG (two codons).

Character ‘i’ (ASCII 105):

1. Convert 105 to base 4: $105 = 1 \cdot 64 + 2 \cdot 16 + 2 \cdot 4 + 1 = (1, 2, 2, 1)_4$.
2. Parity: $d_4 = (1 + 2) \bmod 4 = 3$; $d_5 = (2 + 1) \bmod 4 = 3$.
3. Full digits: $(1, 2, 2, 1, 3, 3)$.
4. Map to nucleotides: $1 \rightarrow \text{T}$, $2 \rightarrow \text{G}$, $2 \rightarrow \text{G}$, $1 \rightarrow \text{T}$, $3 \rightarrow \text{C}$, $3 \rightarrow \text{C}$.
5. Result: TGG TCC (two codons).

Complete encoding of “Hi”:

TAG ATG TGG TCC

This 12-nucleotide DNA sequence can be written in FASTA format as:

```
>prompt_fragment_001 Word2FASTA_v1 len=2
TAGATGTGGTCC
```

Listing 5.4: FASTA encoding of “Hi”.

5.7.4 Decoding: FASTA Back to Text

Decoding reverses the process:

1. Read 6 nucleotides at a time.
2. Map each nucleotide back to a digit: $A \rightarrow 0$, $T \rightarrow 1$, $G \rightarrow 2$, $C \rightarrow 3$.
3. Extract the data digits (d_3, d_2, d_1, d_0) and verify the parity digits (d_4, d_5) .
4. Convert the base-4 number back to decimal to get the ASCII ordinal.
5. Convert the ordinal to a character.

If the parity check fails, an error is flagged and error-correction can be attempted using the reverse strand.

Round-Trip Fidelity

The Word2FASTA encoding guarantees *perfect round-trip fidelity*: for any ASCII string s , $\text{decode}(\text{encode}(s)) = s$. The parity digits provide single-digit error detection, and the reverse complement strand (generated automatically by CodonForge) provides a full backup for error correction. This means that even if a single nucleotide is corrupted, the original text can be recovered.

5.8 SDANS: Strand Displacement Attention Neural System

5.8.1 HelixSim and SDANS: Clarifying the Relationship

Before presenting the technical details, it is important to clarify the relationship between two closely related terms. **HelixSim** (Paper II in the DOGMA research series) is the name of the research project and publication that develops the theoretical framework for compiling symbolic DNA programs into differentiable neural architectures. **SDANS** (Strand Displacement Attention Neural System) is the formal computational system introduced *within* HelixSim. In short:

- **HelixSim** = the research paper and project (Paper II).
- **SDANS** = the compilation target defined by HelixSim that formally bridges CodonForge programs and neural network execution.

Throughout this chapter, we refer to SDANS when discussing the specific compilation mechanics and formal mappings, and to HelixSim when referencing the broader research context. All SDANS definitions, theorems, and algorithms originate from HelixSim (Paper II).

Why a Formal Compilation Target Matters

Having a well-defined compilation target like SDANS—rather than an ad hoc translation from symbolic programs to neural networks—provides three critical guarantees. First, *correctness*: SDANS defines a formal equivalence between symbolic execution and neural execution, meaning compiled programs provably preserve input-output behavior (Definition 5.5). Second, *composability*: because each opcode family maps to a specific class of neural operation, compiled modules can be independently verified and composed without interference. Third, *evolvability*: when the evolutionary training loop (Chapter 6) mutates a genome, only the affected SDANS modules need recompilation, enabling efficient incremental adaptation. Without a formal compilation target, these guarantees would require extensive empirical validation for every program variant—an approach that does not scale.

5.8.2 Overview

SDANS, introduced in the HelixSim design study (Paper II), is a proposed compilation target between CodonForge programs and neural execution. Its attention-based target belongs to the historical architecture family and is not part of canonical non-transformer DOGMA. Formal sketches in a design paper do not establish an implemented equivalence.

5.8.3 Motivation: Why Do We Need SDANS?

CodonForge programs are *symbolic*: they define a precise sequence of operations with deterministic semantics. Neural networks, on the other hand, are *subsymbolic*: they operate on continuous-valued vectors through differentiable transformations. These two paradigms seem incompatible:

Property	Symbolic (CodonForge)	Neural (Transformer)
Data type	Discrete tokens	Continuous vectors
Control flow	Explicit (if/else, loops)	Implicit (attention routing)
Execution	Sequential, deterministic	Parallel, differentiable
Learning	Not applicable	Gradient descent
Interpretability	High	Low
Generalization	Limited	Strong

SDANS resolves this tension by providing a *compiler* that translates symbolic CodonForge programs into neural architectures. The key insight is that strand displacement reactions—a well-studied model of molecular computation—can be mapped to attention operations.

Definition 5.5 (SDANS Compilation). An *SDANS compilation* is a mapping from a CodonForge program Π to a neural network architecture $\mathcal{N}$ such that:

$$\forall \text{ input } x : \mathcal{N}(x) = \text{Execute}(\Pi, x), \quad (5.9)$$

where *Execute* is CodonForge’s deterministic execution semantics. The compilation preserves the input-output behavior while enabling gradient-based parameter optimization.

5.8.4 How SDANS Maps Opcodes to Neural Operations

The SDANS compilation proceeds by mapping each opcode family to a specific class of differentiable neural operation. This mapping is the core intellectual contribution of SDANS.

Sense Opcodes → Input Projections

Sense opcodes load and perceive input data. In the neural domain, this corresponds to *input embedding and projection*:

$$\text{LOAD_CONTEXT}(x) \implies h_0 = W_{\text{embed}} \cdot x + b_{\text{embed}} \quad (5.10)$$

Each Sense opcode becomes a learned linear projection that maps raw input tokens into the model’s hidden representation space. The `SCAN_MOTIF` opcode, for example, becomes a 1D convolution layer that detects local patterns:

$$\text{SCAN_MOTIF}(h) \implies m = \text{ReLU}(\text{Conv1D}(h; W_{\text{motif}})) \quad (5.11)$$

Binding Opcodes → Attention-Based Retrieval

Binding opcodes create associations between data elements. In the neural domain, this is precisely what *attention mechanisms* do:

$$\text{BIND_VALUE}(Q, K, V) \implies \text{Attention}(Q, K, V) = \text{softmax}\left(\frac{QK^\top}{\sqrt{d_k}}\right) V \quad (5.12)$$

The `ASSOCIATE` opcode becomes a cross-attention layer, while `MERGE` becomes multi-head attention where each head captures a different associative relationship.

Regulation Opcodes → Gated Activation Functions

Regulation opcodes implement conditional logic. In the neural domain, this maps to *gating mechanisms*:

$$\text{IF_ACTIVE}(R, h) \implies g = \sigma(W_g \cdot R + b_g), \quad h' = g \odot h \quad (5.13)$$

where σ is the sigmoid function and $\odot$ is element-wise multiplication. The gate g acts as a “soft conditional”: values close to 1 allow the data through (gene active), values close to 0 block it (gene silenced).

The `THRESHOLD` opcode becomes a parameterized activation function:

$$\text{THRESHOLD}(\theta, h) \implies h' = \text{ReLU}(h - \theta) \quad (5.14)$$

Expression Opcodes → Output Head Projections

Expression opcodes produce output. In the neural domain, these become *output projection layers*:

$$\text{EMIT_TEXT}(h) \implies p = \text{softmax}(W_{\text{out}} \cdot h + b_{\text{out}}) \quad (5.15)$$

The `FOLD_STRUCT` opcode becomes a structured prediction layer (e.g., a tree-structured decoder), and `EMIT_JSON` becomes a constrained decoding layer that ensures valid JSON output.

Termination Opcodes → Halting Mechanisms

Termination opcodes control when execution stops. In the neural domain, this maps to *adaptive computation time* (ACT) mechanisms:

$$\text{STOP}(h) \implies p_{\text{halt}} = \sigma(W_{\text{halt}} \cdot h), \quad \text{halt if } p_{\text{halt}} > 0.5 \quad (5.16)$$

The CHECKPOINT opcode becomes a residual connection that preserves state across layers:

$$\text{CHECKPOINT}(h) \implies h_{\text{saved}} = h, \quad h' = h + f(h) \quad (5.17)$$

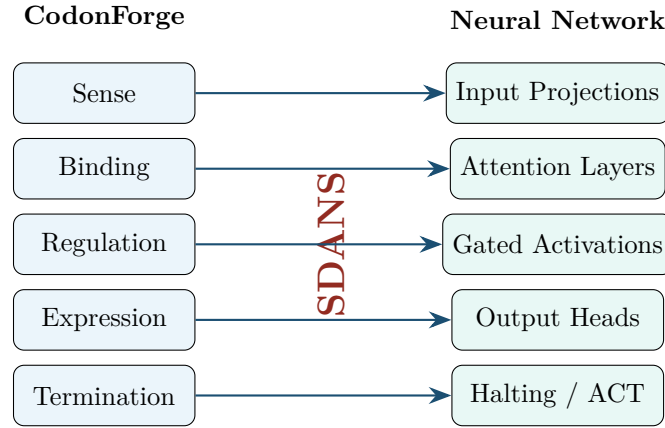


Figure 5.4: SDANS opcode-to-neural mapping. Each CodonForge opcode family is compiled to a specific class of differentiable neural operation.

5.8.5 Strand Displacement as Attention

The name “Strand Displacement” in SDANS refers to a specific molecular computing mechanism. In DNA nanotechnology, *toehold-mediated strand displacement* is a process where a single-stranded DNA molecule displaces one strand of a double-stranded complex by binding to an exposed “toehold” region.

The mathematical structure of strand displacement is remarkably similar to attention:

$$\text{Strand Displacement: } A + B:C \xrightarrow{k} A:B + C \quad (5.18)$$

$$\text{Attention: } \text{out} = \sum_i \frac{\exp(q \cdot k_i)}{\sum_j \exp(q \cdot k_j)} v_i \quad (5.19)$$

In both cases, a “query” (incoming strand A / query vector q) competes for binding with existing “key-value” pairs (strand complex $B:C$ / key-value pairs k_i, v_i). The strength of competition is determined by complementarity (base pairing / dot product similarity).

Programs + Parameters

SDANS resolves a fundamental tension in AI: *programs are interpretable but rigid; neural networks are flexible but opaque*. By compiling interpretable CodonForge programs into differentiable neural architectures, SDANS achieves both: the program structure ensures interpretability and verifiability, while the learned parameters ensure adaptability and generalization. The codon program is the *skeleton*; the neural weights are the *muscles*.

5.9 SDANS Compilation: Step-by-Step

Let us trace the SDANS compilation (as formalized by HelixSim, Paper II) of our “What is DNA?” codon program into a neural architecture.

5.9.1 Step 1: Gene-to-Layer Mapping

Each gene becomes one or more neural network layers:

Gene	Neural Layer(s)	Purpose
Gene 1 (Sense)	Embedding + Conv1D + Cross-attention	Encode query, detect motifs, retrieve knowledge
Gene 2 (Regulate + Express)	Gated MLP + Self-attention + Output projection	Apply constraints, bind answer, emit text

5.9.2 Step 2: Opcode-to-Operation Translation

Each opcode within a gene becomes a specific neural operation, connected sequentially:

```

1  class WhatIsDNA_SDANS(nn.Module):
2      def __init__(self, d_model=512):
3          super().__init__()
4          # Gene 1: Sense
5          self.load_query = nn.Embedding(vocab_size, d_model)      # AAT
6          self.sense_intent = nn.Linear(d_model, n_intents)        # AGT
7          self.scan_motif = nn.Conv1d(d_model, d_model, 3)         # ATA
8          self.match_key = nn.MultiheadAttention(d_model, 8)        # ATG
9          self.checkpoint_1 = nn.Identity() # residual save        # GCC
10
11         # Gene 2: Regulate + Express
12         self.gate_check = GatedUnit(d_model)                      # GTA
13         self.gate_relevance = GatedUnit(d_model)                  # GTG
14         self.gate_length = GatedUnit(d_model)                     # GTC
15         self.bind_value = nn.MultiheadAttention(d_model, 8)       # TAA
16         self.fold_struct = TreeDecoder(d_model)                   # CTA
17         self.emit_text = nn.Linear(d_model, vocab_size)           # CAA
18
19     def forward(self, x):
20         # Gene 1
21         h = self.load_query(x)

```

```

22     intent = self.sense_intent(h.mean(dim=1))
23     motifs = F.relu(self.scan_motif(h.transpose(1,2)))
24     h, _ = self.match_key(h, knowledge_base, knowledge_base)
25     h_saved = h # checkpoint
26
27     # Gene 2 (promoter: h is nonempty -> always true post-sense)
28     h = self.gate_check(h)
29     h = self.gate_relevance(h)
30     h = self.gate_length(h)
31     h, _ = self.bind_value(h, h_saved, h_saved)
32     h = self.fold_struct(h)
33     logits = self.emit_text(h)
34     return logits

```

Listing 5.5: SDANS-compiled neural architecture (PyTorch-like pseudocode).

5.9.3 Step 3: Parameter Initialization from Codon Hints

SDANS uses the codon program to guide parameter initialization. For example:

- Sense opcodes with “query-only” semantics (LOAD_QUERY vs. LOAD_CONTEXT) initialize embeddings with smaller receptive fields.
- Gate opcodes initialize bias terms based on the threshold values specified in the program.
- Expression opcodes initialize output projections based on the target format (text, JSON, code).

This program-guided initialization gives SDANS networks a significant advantage over randomly initialized networks: they start with an architecture and initialization that already encodes the computational intent.

5.10 CodonForge vs. LLVM: A Compiler Comparison

To help students familiar with traditional compilers understand CodonForge’s design, we provide a detailed comparison with LLVM, the industry-standard compiler infrastructure.

Table 5.2: Side-by-side comparison of LLVM and CodonForge compilation.

Aspect	LLVM Compiler	CodonForge Compiler
Source language	C, C++, Rust, Swift, etc.	PromptBundles (markdown files)
Intermediate repr.	LLVM IR (SSA form)	Genomic IR (DAG of functional units)
Target language	x86, ARM, WASM machine code	Codon programs (DNA sequences)
Final target	CPU/GPU execution	SDANS neural execution
Basic unit	Instruction (opcode + operands)	Codon (3-letter DNA triplet)
Grouping unit	Function	Gene (promoter + codons + terminator)
Module unit	Module / translation unit	Genome (ordered list of genes)
Entry point	<code>main()</code> function	First gene with always-on promoter
Control flow	Branch, jump, call/return	Promoter conditions, <code>BRANCH</code> , <code>LOOP</code>
Data storage	Registers, stack, heap	Register file $\{R_0, \dots, R_n\}$
Error handling	Exceptions, error codes	<code>STOP_ERROR</code> , <code>FALLBACK</code> , <code>RETRY</code>
Dead code elim.	Remove unreachable basic blocks	Remove unreachable genes
Constant folding	Evaluate constant expressions	Pre-evaluate static constraints
Inlining	Inline small functions	Gene fusion
Register alloc.	Graph coloring / linear scan	Greedy register reuse
Redundancy	None (single representation)	Double-stranded (forward + reverse)
Error detection	Type system, static analysis	Parity codons, reverse strand verification
Optimization hints	Compiler flags, pragmas	Codon usage bias (opcode aliasing)
Biological analogy	None	Direct mapping to molecular biology

Compiler Analogy Summary

The key structural parallels are:

- LLVM IR $\leftrightarrow$ Genomic IR: both are intermediate representations that enable optimization passes.
- Functions $\leftrightarrow$ Genes: both are named, callable units of computation.
- SSA registers $\leftrightarrow$ CodonForge registers: both hold intermediate values.
- Machine code $\leftrightarrow$ Codon program: both are the low-level executable output.
- CPU execution $\leftrightarrow$ SDANS neural execution: both are the runtime environments.

The key *differences* are:

- CodonForge has double-stranded redundancy; LLVM does not.
- CodonForge’s opcodes are biologically inspired, enabling codon optimization analogous to codon usage bias.
- CodonForge’s ultimate execution target is a differentiable neural network, not a fixed hardware architecture.

5.11 Connection to the DOGMA Architecture

CodonForge and SDANS do not exist in isolation; they are critical components of the broader DOGMA architecture introduced in Chapter 1. This section explains how CodonForge connects to the other major subsystems.

5.11.1 CodonForge in the DOGMA Pipeline

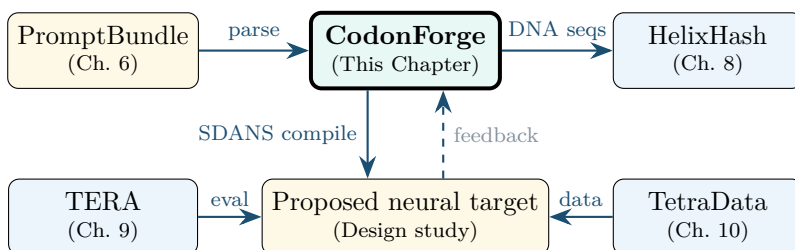


Figure 5.5: Proposed position of CodonForge in the broader DOGMA design space. Compilation to neural architecture remains a hypothesis, not a measured feature of the current baseline.

5.11.2 Proposed CodonForge-to-Neural Compilation

The historical DOGMA-Supreme v2 design proposed that CodonForge would support the following mechanisms. They are retained as a research specification and are not implemented capabilities of the measured baseline in Chapter 8:

- **Architecture generation:** Compile a symbolic program into a declared neural graph.
- **Evolutionary optimization:** Mutate the codon program, compile a descendant, and evaluate it under the external recursive-learning contract.
- **Lineage tracking:** Bind symbolic checkpoints to model checkpoints and evaluation artifacts.
- **Multi-gene expression:** Execute independently compiled subprograms without introducing transformer attention into canonical DOGMA.

Hot Recompilation Hypothesis

A modular compiler could recompile only an affected gene, reducing compilation work from $O(K)$ modules to $O(1)$ when dependencies permit. This complexity claim excludes graph validation, checkpoint conversion, and re-evaluation; it must be tested before being reported as an implementation result.

5.12 Advanced Topics

5.12.1 Codon Optimization Strategies

Just as organisms evolve preferred codon usage patterns for translational efficiency, CodonForge programs can be optimized by choosing among alias codons. The optimization criteria include:

1. **GC content:** Maintaining GC content between 40–60% ensures structural stability in the double-stranded representation.
2. **Cache locality:** Some codon aliases map to operations that are more cache-friendly. For example, sequential register access (R_0, R_1, R_2) is more cache-efficient than random access (R_0, R_7, R_3) .
3. **Codon pair bias:** Certain codon pairs execute more efficiently in sequence than others, analogous to biological codon pair bias affecting translational speed.
4. **Repetition avoidance:** Long runs of the same codon can cause “slippage” in the interpreter (analogous to polymerase slippage in biology). The optimizer breaks up such runs with functionally equivalent alternatives.

5.12.2 Error Detection and Correction

CodonForge provides multiple layers of error protection:

- **Parity codons:** As shown in the Word2FASTA encoding, parity digits enable single-error detection.
- **Reverse strand verification:** The reverse complement strand provides a complete backup. If the forward strand is corrupted, the reverse strand can be used to reconstruct the original.
- **Checksum genes:** Special genes can be inserted that compute a checksum over the preceding genes, analogous to CRC checks in digital communication.
- **Proofreading opcodes:** The `RETRY` and `FALLBACK` opcodes enable runtime error recovery, analogous to ribosomal proofreading during translation.

5.12.3 Multi-Gene Regulation Patterns

Complex CodonForge programs use sophisticated regulatory patterns borrowed from biology:

- **Operon structure:** Multiple related genes share a single promoter and are expressed together (analogous to bacterial operons).
- **Enhancer genes:** Special genes that boost the expression of downstream genes when activated (analogous to enhancer elements in eukaryotic DNA).
- **Silencer genes:** Genes that suppress downstream gene expression when activated (analogous to silencer elements).
- **Feedback loops:** A gene’s output can activate or repress its own promoter, creating positive or negative feedback (analogous to autoregulatory circuits in gene regulatory networks).

5.13 Exercises

- 11.1. [Fundamentals]** How many distinct codon opcodes does a three-letter DNA alphabet ($|\Sigma| = 4$) support? If we wanted 256 opcodes, what minimum codon length would be needed? Show your calculation.
- 11.2. [Biology Review]** Using the biological codon table (Table 5.1), translate the following mRNA sequence into amino acids: AUG-GCA-UUU-GAA-UAA. Identify the start and stop codons.
- 11.3. [Opcode Design]** Write a CodonForge program (using opcode mnemonics) for a text summarization task. Your program should have at least three genes: one for loading and analyzing the input text, one for applying length and quality constraints, and one for generating the summary. Specify promoter conditions for each gene.
- 11.4. [Word2FASTA]** Encode the string “DNA” using the Word2FASTA algorithm (Definition 5.4). Show all intermediate steps: ASCII values, base-4 conversion, parity calculation, and nucleotide mapping. Verify your answer by decoding the result back to text.
- 11.5. [Strand Construction]** Given the forward strand 5’-GAA TAA CTA CAA CCC-3’, construct the reverse complement strand. Then decode each codon on both strands into CodonForge opcodes.
- 11.6. [Compiler Comparison]** Compare CodonForge’s compilation pipeline with LLVM’s compilation pipeline (source $\rightarrow$ IR $\rightarrow$ optimization $\rightarrow$ machine code). For each optimization pass in CodonForge (dead code elimination, codon optimization, regulatory simplification, GC content balancing), identify the closest LLVM analogue and explain the similarity.
- 11.7. [SDANS]** Consider the CodonForge opcode GATE_CHECK. Write the mathematical equation for its SDANS neural equivalent. Then explain: what happens when the gate’s learned parameters are updated by gradient descent? Does the program’s structure change, or only the gate’s threshold? What are the implications for interpretability?
- 11.8. [Pipeline Trace]** Trace the prompt “Translate ‘hello’ to French” through the full CodonForge pipeline:
 - (a) Parse: identify functional units and their types.

- (b) Compile: assign opcodes and construct genes.
 - (c) Optimize: identify at least one optimization that could be applied.
- 11.9. [Theory]** Formalize the SDANS equivalence theorem: under what conditions does the neural execution of a compiled program produce identical outputs to symbolic execution? What happens when neural weights are updated by gradient descent—does the equivalence break? Under what conditions can it be restored?
- 11.10. [Research]** The biological ribosome performs error correction during translation (proofreading). Design an error-correction mechanism for CodonForge execution that detects and corrects codon-level errors during program execution. Your design should specify: (a) how errors are detected, (b) what types of errors can be corrected, and (c) the computational overhead of your error-correction scheme.
- 11.11. [Coding]** Implement the Word2FASTA encoder and decoder in Python. Your implementation should:
- (a) Accept any ASCII string and produce a FASTA-formatted DNA sequence.
 - (b) Accept a FASTA-formatted DNA sequence and produce the original string.
 - (c) Verify round-trip fidelity: `decode(encode(s)) == s` for all printable ASCII strings.
 - (d) Detect single-nucleotide errors using the parity digits.
- 11.12. [Design Challenge]** Design a CodonForge program for a multi-turn chatbot. Your design must handle: (a) conversation history loading, (b) context window management (what happens when history is too long?), (c) persona consistency across turns, and (d) graceful handling of off-topic inputs. Use at least five genes and explain the promoter logic for each.

5.14 Key Takeaways

Key Takeaways

- Biological codon translation (mRNA $\rightarrow$ ribosome $\rightarrow$ amino acid) directly inspires CodonForge’s design: codons are opcodes, genes are execution blocks, and the ribosome is the interpreter.
- CodonForge maps all 64 three-letter DNA codons to computational opcodes, organized into five families: Sense (input perception), Binding (data association), Regulation (control flow), Expression (output generation), and Termination (halting and cleanup).
- Genes are ordered blocks of opcodes bracketed by promoters (activation conditions) and terminators (halt signals), mirroring biological gene structure.
- The three-stage compilation pipeline (Parse $\rightarrow$ Compile $\rightarrow$ Optimize) translates prompt bundles into executable codon programs with optimization passes analogous to traditional compilers like LLVM.
- The Word2FASTA bridge enables reversible translation between text and DNA-encoded representations, with parity-based error detection and round-trip fidelity.
- Forward and reverse complement strands provide redundancy, error detection, and compatibility with HelixHash’s double-stranded analysis.
- SDANS compilation maps symbolic CodonForge programs to differentiable neural architectures, achieving both interpretability (from program structure) and adaptability (from learned parameters).
- CodonForge receives prompt bundles and can produce symbolic DNA sequences; compilation into neural architectures via SDANS remains a design hypothesis.

Suggested Reading

- Chapter 1, Section on the Genetic Code: biological codons as the original inspiration.
- Chapter 1: CodonForge’s role in the DOGMA pipeline.
- Chapter 8: the measured baseline and the evidence boundary separating implementation from design studies.
- [Soloveichik et al. \[2010\]](#): CRN Turing completeness—theoretical foundation for molecular program execution.
- Alberts et al., *Molecular Biology of the Cell*: the definitive reference on biological translation.
- Lattner & Adve, “LLVM: A Compilation Framework for Lifelong Program Analysis & Transformation”: for deeper understanding of the compiler comparison.

Part II

Building the Evolutor

Chapter 6

Recursive, Evidence-Gated Training

A system does not improve because it changes itself. It improves only when a changed descendant survives a valid test.

— DOGMA Research Protocol

“Self-improving” is an appealing phrase and a dangerous specification. A model that trains on its own unchecked output can amplify errors, contaminate its evaluation set, forget rare cases, or optimize an easy proxy. Recursive learning therefore requires more structure than repeatedly launching a training script.

This chapter defines the DOGMA recursive research loop. Gradient descent still trains each neural candidate. Evolutionary search operates one level above it: it chooses bounded changes to data, optimization, or architecture; evaluates the descendants; and decides what may be retained. This separation follows the spirit of population-based training [Jaderberg et al., 2017] and quality-diversity search [Mouret and Clune, 2015], while adding strict data provenance and deployment gates.

6.1 Three Loops, Three Responsibilities

Recursive DOGMA System

A recursive DOGMA system contains three nested loops:

1. the **parameter loop**, where an optimizer updates weights on a fixed candidate;
2. the **candidate loop**, where a controller proposes one declared mutation and trains a descendant; and
3. the **research loop**, where people revise hypotheses, frozen evaluations, and safety constraints.

The candidate loop may automate experiments. It may not silently rewrite the evaluation rules or promote its own weights.

Let a candidate be

$$c = (\theta, h, d, a),$$

where θ are learned weights, h are training hyperparameters, d is a versioned data manifest, and a is an architecture declaration. A lineage edge

$$c_{t+1} = M(c_t; m_t)$$

must record the mutation m_t , the parent checkpoint, and the code revision. Without this information, a result cannot be reproduced or rolled back.

6.2 The Candidate Lifecycle

The production loop has seven stages.

1. **Observe.** Collect failures from immutable held-out tests and operational traces. Do not train on the held-out answers.
2. **Diagnose.** Classify each failure: sequence validity, language readability, factuality, calibration, long-range retention, contamination, or resource cost.
3. **Propose.** Change exactly one bounded variable in an ordinary descendant cycle. Examples are learning rate, dropout, curriculum temperature, or adaptive-sampling strength.
4. **Train.** Produce a new checkpoint from the declared parent and data manifest. Training is isolated from the live service.
5. **Challenge.** Run frozen probes with at least two fixed seeds, held-out likelihood, regression tests, and resource measurements.
6. **Archive.** Place scientifically valid stepping stones in a behavior-indexed archive even when they are not the global winner.
7. **Promote or reject.** Atomically update the live pointer only if all hard gates pass and the global objective improves. Otherwise retain the parent.

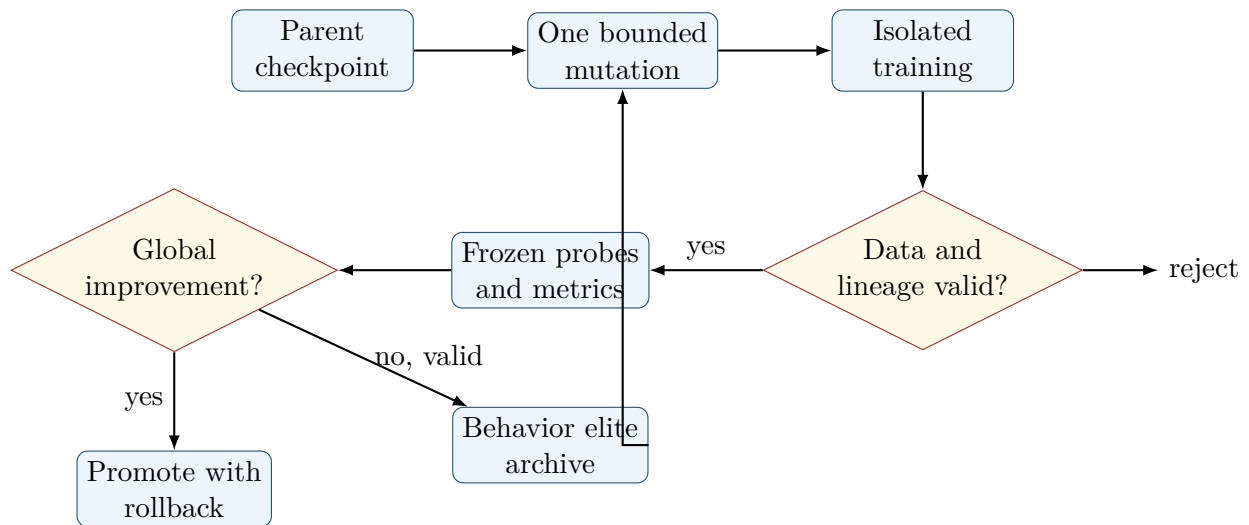


Figure 6.1: A descendant may be archived without being deployed. Invalid lineage or contaminated evaluation causes rejection before performance is considered.

6.3 Data Provenance and Model Collapse

Recursive training creates a feedback channel: model outputs can become future inputs. Repeatedly replacing real observations with generated approximations can erase distribution tails and degrade later generations, a failure studied as model collapse [Shumailov et al., 2024]. DOGMA therefore separates *real anchors* from *derived or synthetic* material.

For sampling weights w_i , define

$$r = \frac{\sum_{i \in R} w_i}{\sum_i w_i},$$

where R is the set of records with audited real-data provenance. The canonical policy requires

$$r \geq 0.65, \quad 1 - r \leq 0.35.$$

This is a policy choice, not a universal constant. It is deliberately conservative for a small research program. If an experiment uses another mixture, it must receive another contract name and be reported separately.

Document hashes detect exact overlap among train, validation, and test splits. Near-duplicate detection and homology-aware splitting remain required for serious genomic benchmarks: exact hashes alone cannot detect highly similar subsequences or related organisms.

6.4 A Multi-Probe Evaluator

Perplexity answers one narrow question: how surprised was the model by held-out next bytes under teacher forcing? Let

$$\text{PPL} = \exp \left(-\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \log p_{\theta}(x_i \mid x_{<i}) \right).$$

It does not test whether autoregressive sampling remains on a readable trajectory. The frozen `dogma-recursive-v2` suite therefore separates three capabilities:

1. **Sequence validity:** produce a sufficiently long run containing only canonical A, C, G, T symbols.
2. **Readable explanation:** explain the biological central dogma in plain language without invalid bytes.
3. **Self-critique:** state one model limitation and one experiment that could test it.

Each probe runs under two fixed generation seeds. These checks are intentionally small smoke tests, not claims of scientific knowledge. A stronger evaluation program must add exact genomic tasks, out-of-distribution species, reverse complement invariance, length extrapolation, calibration, and matched baselines such as HyenaDNA, Caduceus, and DNABERT-2.

For archive ranking, the current scalar objective is

$$J(c) = P_{\text{test}} + 0.25P_{\text{valid}} + \lambda_D + \lambda_E + \lambda_C,$$

where each λ is zero for a passed probe and positive for a failed probe. Lower is better. Hard promotion still requires every probe to pass; the scalar cannot trade away a critical failure.

6.5 Why Keep a Quality-Diversity Archive?

A single best-so-far chain can become trapped. A candidate may improve DNA syntax while temporarily losing explanatory language; another may preserve language but explore a different recurrent mechanism. MAP-Elites [Mouret and Clune, 2015] keeps the best candidate in each behavior cell rather than collapsing all behavior into one leaderboard.

The current archive descriptor records:

architecture features : {DNA, explanation, critique} passed.

Every third scheduled cycle may branch from an archive elite. The live checkpoint remains unchanged until a descendant wins the complete gate. This provides exploration without converting production into an online experiment.

Remark 6.1. An archive is not evidence of superiority. It is a memory of promising, reproducible stepping stones. Global promotion and scientific publication require stronger tests than archive retention.

6.6 Controlled Mutation

Ordinary descendant cycles mutate exactly one scalar:

$$h'_j = \text{clip}(\alpha h_j, \ell_j, u_j).$$

The mutation record stores j, α, ℓ_j, u_j , the parent value, and the candidate value. One-variable mutation is slower than unconstrained search but makes failure analysis possible on limited compute.

Architecture changes are separate branches. Adding a layer or changing a state dimension changes tensor shapes, so an optimizer state from the parent may no longer be valid. Such experiments start from a declared compatible checkpoint or from initialization and use matched compute. They never masquerade as an ordinary resumed cycle.

6.7 Promotion Contract

A candidate can replace the live model only when all of the following hold:

1. the architecture audit confirms no self-attention or transformer layer;
2. parent and candidate checkpoints are distinct and recorded;
3. at least 65% of sampling mass remains on real anchors;
4. train/evaluation overlap is zero under the declared detector;
5. two distinct generation seeds reproduce every probe;
6. validation and test perplexity are finite and within the regression budget;
7. no critical regression is present; and
8. $J(c_{\text{candidate}}) < J(c_{\text{live}})$.

Promotion creates a pointer to the exact evaluated checkpoint. It does not copy an ambiguous “best” file from another run. The previous live checkpoint is retained for rollback.

Algorithm 3 Evidence-gated recursive DOGMA cycle

```

1:  $p \leftarrow$  choose live parent or scheduled archive elite
2:  $m \leftarrow$  choose one bounded mutation
3:  $c \leftarrow$  train descendant of  $p$  under manifest  $d$ 
4: if lineage invalid or real-anchor quota fails or split overlap  $> 0$  then
5:   reject  $c$ 
6: else
7:    $q \leftarrow$  run frozen probes under seeds 17 and 29
8:    $J(c) \leftarrow$  held-out perplexity plus explicit probe penalties
9:   if  $c$  is best in its behavior cell then
10:    archive  $c$ 
11:   end if
12:   if all hard gates pass and  $J(c) < J(p_{\text{live}})$  then
13:    atomically promote  $c$ ; retain rollback to  $p_{\text{live}}$ 
14:   end if
15: end if

```

6.8 Connection to Self-Improving Systems

Population-based training adapts hyperparameters while a population learns [Jaderberg et al., 2017]. Quality-diversity methods preserve multiple useful behaviors [Mouret and Clune, 2015]. The Darwin Gödel Machine explores code changes and evaluates descendants on coding tasks [Zhang et al., 2025]; AlphaEvolve combines model-generated programs with automated evaluators [Novikov et al., 2025]. These systems support a general lesson: recursion becomes useful when the evaluator is external to the candidate and failures are cheap to reject.

DOGMA adopts that lesson conservatively. It currently evolves bounded training choices and archives checkpoint lineages. Self-editing source code remains a future sandboxed research track, because tests can be incomplete and an agent can overfit the evaluator. The phrase “evolves itself” should therefore mean “produces descendants under an external promotion contract,” not “unilaterally changes the running system.”

6.9 Exercises

- 12.1. A corpus has real-anchor weight 18 and synthetic weight 12. Compute r . Does it satisfy the canonical policy?
- 12.2. A model has validation perplexity 2.8, test perplexity 1.4, and fails only the explanation probe. Compute J when $\lambda_E = 1.5$. Explain why it still cannot be promoted.
- 12.3. Design a behavior descriptor with two architectural and three capability dimensions. How many archive cells are possible?
- 12.4. Give an example where a candidate improves test perplexity while generation quality worsens. Why is this possible?

- 12.5. Propose a homology-aware split test stronger than exact document hashes. State its computational cost and possible false positives.
- 12.6. Write a mutation record for changing dropout from 0.10 to 0.11. Include enough information to reproduce and reverse it.
- 12.7. Design an out-of-distribution probe that distinguishes memorizing DNA motifs from learning a useful sequence rule.
- 12.8. Identify one way a candidate could game each of the three smoke probes. Add a counter-test for every weakness.

6.10 Key Takeaways

Key Takeaways

- Recursive learning is a checkpoint lineage governed by an evaluator, not uncontrolled online self-modification.
- Gradient descent trains candidates; evolutionary search chooses bounded experiments above that loop.
- Real-data anchors, isolated evaluation, multiple seeds, and rollback are part of the learning algorithm, not administrative details.
- Perplexity and free generation measure different failure modes.
- A quality-diversity archive preserves stepping stones while a stricter global gate protects the live model.

Suggested Reading

- [Jaderberg et al. \[2017\]](#) on population-based training.
- [Mouret and Clune \[2015\]](#) on MAP-Elites and quality-diversity search.
- [Shumailov et al. \[2024\]](#) on recursive synthetic-data failure.
- [Zhang et al. \[2025\]](#) and [Novikov et al. \[2025\]](#) on evaluator-driven machine discovery.

Chapter 7

Foundation Models on Genomic Data

The genome is not written in English, nor in Python. It is written in a four-letter alphabet whose grammar predates language by three billion years. A foundation model that cannot read this alphabet is illiterate in the most fundamental sense.

— DOGMA Design Manifesto

Chapter 6 showed how to *evolve* prompt genomes through gradient-free optimization. But the evolutionary loop assumes an underlying language model capable of processing genomic data. Where does that model come from? How should it tokenize DNA, learn codon structure, and integrate biological sequences with natural language?

This chapter addresses these questions by building foundation models for genomic data from first principles. We begin with the deceptively simple question: *what is genomic data?* We explain the FASTA format step by step, then tackle the tokenization problem—comparing BPE, k -mer, and codon-based approaches before showing how DOGMA’s CodonForge tokenizer unifies biological and textual data in a single vocabulary. We introduce curriculum learning as a training strategy, detail the pre-training objectives (masked language modeling and next-token prediction), and explain how the double-helix structure of DNA informs helix-aware training. We cover multi-scale TetraMemory, the full training data pipeline from GenBank to batching, and evaluation benchmarks for genomic foundation models. Chapter 8 then separates the implemented small baseline from the larger design studies in this chapter.

7.1 What Is Genomic Data?

Before building models, we must understand the data. Genomic data is the digital representation of the molecules that encode hereditary information in all living organisms. At its core, DNA (deoxyribonucleic acid) is a polymer of four nucleotide bases: adenine (A), thymine (T), cytosine (C), and guanine (G). These four letters constitute the “alphabet” of life.

7.1.1 From Molecules to Sequences

In a living cell, DNA exists as a double-stranded helix. The two strands are *complementary*: A always pairs with T, and C always pairs with G. If one strand reads `ATGCGA`, the opposite strand

reads TACGCT (in the reverse direction). This complementarity means that storing one strand is sufficient to reconstruct both.

When biologists *sequence* DNA—determining the order of bases in a sample—the output is a text string over the alphabet $\Sigma_{\text{DNA}} = \{\text{A, T, C, G}\}$. A single human genome contains approximately 3.2 billion such characters. A bacterial genome might contain 1–10 million characters. A viral genome can be as small as a few thousand characters. All of these are stored, shared, and processed in a standard text format called **FASTA**.

7.1.2 The FASTA Format: Step by Step

FASTA is the universal standard for representing biological sequences. Understanding it is essential for anyone building genomic models. A FASTA file has a simple structure:

1. **Header line.** Begins with `>` and contains metadata: an identifier, organism name, chromosome, and other annotations. This is free-form text.
2. **Sequence lines.** One or more lines of nucleotide characters (A, T, C, G), typically wrapped at 60 or 80 characters per line. No spaces, no numbers—just the raw sequence.
3. **Multiple records.** A file can contain many sequences, each starting with its own `>` header.

Example 7.1 (Anatomy of a FASTA File). Consider the following FASTA file containing two sequences:

```
>gene_001 | Homo sapiens | insulin gene | chromosome 11
ATGGCCCTGTGGATGCGCCTCCTGCCCCTGCTGGCGCTGCTGGCCCTCTG
GGGACCTGACCCAGCCGAGCCTTTGTGAACCAACACCTGTGCGGCTCACA
CCTGGTGGAAAGCTCTCTACCTAGTGTGCGGGGAACGAGGCTTCTTCTACAC
>gene_002 | Escherichia coli | beta-galactosidase | lacZ
ATGACCATGATTACGCCAAGCTATTTAGGTGACACTATAGAATACTCAAGC
TATGCATCCAACGCGTTGGGAGCTCTCCCATATGGTCGACCTGCAGGCGGC
```

Let us dissect the first record:

- `>gene_001` is the sequence identifier.
- `Homo sapiens` indicates the organism (human).
- `insulin gene` is the gene name.
- `chromosome 11` locates it in the genome.
- The lines below the header contain the nucleotide sequence, which wraps across multiple lines but is read as one continuous string.

FASTA Is Inherently Multimodal

A FASTA file is not purely a “genomic” format. The header lines are natural language, while the sequence lines are biological data. A foundation model trained on raw FASTA files must learn *both* modalities simultaneously. The `>` character serves as a natural boundary token, signaling the transition from sequence to metadata. This multimodal nature is not a complication—it is an *opportunity*: the model can learn to associate natural language descriptions with the genomic patterns they describe.

7.1.3 Beyond DNA: RNA and Protein Sequences

FASTA also stores RNA sequences (using U instead of T) and protein sequences (using the 20-letter amino acid alphabet). A genomic foundation model must handle all three:

Molecule	Alphabet Size	Unit	Example
DNA	4	Nucleotide	ATGCGATCGA
RNA	4	Nucleotide	AUGCGAUCGA
Protein	20	Amino acid	MRIAKLFVTG

The Central Dogma in Data Terms

The biological flow of information—DNA → RNA → Protein—is also a data transformation pipeline. DNA is *transcribed* into RNA (T becomes U), and RNA is *translated* into protein (every three nucleotides map to one amino acid). A foundation model that learns these transformations has internalized the Central Dogma of molecular biology as a sequence-to-sequence mapping. This is exactly what DOGMA’s architecture is designed to exploit (Chapter 1).

7.1.4 Ambiguity Codes and Real-World Messiness

Real genomic data is not always clean. The IUPAC nucleotide code includes ambiguity characters: N means “any base,” R means “A or G” (purine), Y means “C or T” (pyrimidine), and so on. Sequencing errors, gaps, and low-quality regions are common. A robust tokenizer must handle these gracefully.

Handling N Characters

In large genomic datasets, stretches of N characters indicate regions where the sequencer could not determine the base identity. These runs can be hundreds or thousands of characters long. During preprocessing, DOGMA replaces runs of more than 50 consecutive N characters with a special <GAP> token, preserving positional information without wasting model capacity on uninformative input. Isolated N characters (fewer than 50) are retained as byte tokens, since they carry information about local sequence uncertainty.

7.2 Tokenizing Genomic Sequences

Tokenization—the mapping from raw input to discrete units consumed by a model—is often treated as a solved preprocessing step. For natural language, subword tokenizers such as BPE [Sennrich et al., 2016] and SentencePiece [Kudo and Richardson, 2018] perform well. For genomic data, the situation is far more nuanced.

7.2.1 Why Subword Tokenization Fails for Genomic Data

Subword tokenizers learn merge rules from corpus statistics: frequent character pairs are merged into tokens, and the process repeats until a target vocabulary size is reached. This works for natural language because word frequencies follow Zipf’s law—a small vocabulary of common subwords covers most text.

Genomic sequences violate these assumptions in four fundamental ways:

1. **Uniform character distribution.** DNA consists of four nucleotides (A, T, C, G) with roughly equal frequency in many organisms. BPE merges are driven by frequency imbalances; when all bigrams occur at similar rates, the merge order becomes arbitrary and biologically meaningless.
2. **Reading frame sensitivity.** The biological meaning of a DNA sequence depends on its reading frame—the codon boundaries that partition nucleotides into triplets. A BPE tokenizer that merges AT into a single token will split the codon ATG (start codon) differently depending on context, destroying frame information.
3. **No whitespace delimiters.** Natural language has spaces and punctuation that provide natural token boundaries. Genomic sequences are undelimited streams of characters, offering no structural cues to a frequency-based tokenizer.
4. **Reverse complement ambiguity.** The same biological information can be represented on either DNA strand. A subword vocabulary learned from one strand orientation will be suboptimal for the reverse complement, creating asymmetric representations of equivalent biological content.

Codons as Nature’s Tokens

Biology solved the tokenization problem long before computer science. The genetic code groups nucleotides into codons—non-overlapping triplets that map to amino acids. This fixed-width tokenization ensures that the reading frame is preserved, that every position has unambiguous membership in exactly one token, and that the mapping from sequence to function is deterministic. Any computational tokenizer for genomic data should respect, or at least not destroy, this codon structure.

7.2.2 Three Approaches to Genomic Tokenization

We now compare three tokenization strategies for genomic data: BPE applied to DNA, k -mer tokenization, and codon-based tokenization.

Byte Pair Encoding (BPE) on DNA

BPE can be applied to DNA by treating the sequence as text and learning merge rules. The process is:

1. Start with character-level tokens: each of A, T, C, G is a token.
2. Count all adjacent token pairs in the corpus.
3. Merge the most frequent pair into a new token.
4. Repeat until the desired vocabulary size is reached.

On DNA, BPE typically learns to merge common dinucleotides first (AT, GC, etc.), then trinucleotides, and so on. The resulting vocabulary has variable-length tokens with no guaranteed alignment to codon boundaries.

***k*-mer Tokenization**

k-mer tokenization splits a DNA sequence into overlapping or non-overlapping windows of length *k*. For example, with *k* = 6, the sequence **ATGCCGATCGA** produces the 6-mers: **ATGCCG**, **TGCCGA**, **GCGATC**, **CGATCG**, **GATCGA**. The vocabulary size is 4^k (4,096 for *k* = 6). This approach was popularized by DNABERT [Ji et al., 2021a].

Advantages: Every *k*-mer captures local context of length *k*. The vocabulary is deterministic—no training required. **Disadvantages:** Overlapping *k*-mers create redundancy. The vocabulary grows exponentially with *k* (4^k tokens). Most critically, *k*-mer boundaries are arbitrary and do not respect codon structure unless *k* is a multiple of 3.

Codon-Based Tokenization

Codon-based tokenization groups nucleotides into non-overlapping triplets aligned to the biological reading frame:

Codon-Aware Tokenizer

Given a coding DNA sequence *x* with known reading frame offset $\delta \in \{0, 1, 2\}$, the codon-aware tokenizer produces:

$$\tau_{\text{codon}}(x, \delta) = (x_{\delta+1}x_{\delta+2}x_{\delta+3}, x_{\delta+4}x_{\delta+5}x_{\delta+6}, \dots), \quad (7.1)$$

with vocabulary size $|\mathcal{V}_{\text{codon}}| = 4^3 + |\mathcal{V}_{\text{special}}| = 64 + |\mathcal{V}_{\text{special}}|$, where $\mathcal{V}_{\text{special}}$ includes tokens for frame-unknown regions, non-coding sequence, and FASTA metadata.

Advantages: Perfectly aligned with biology. Small vocabulary (64 core tokens). Every token carries direct biological meaning (each codon encodes an amino acid). **Disadvantages:** Requires knowing the reading frame, which is not always available. Cannot handle non-coding DNA, intergenic regions, or introns, where no reading frame exists.

7.2.3 Comparison Table: Tokenization Methods

The following table summarizes the trade-offs:

Table 7.1: Comparison of tokenization methods for genomic sequences.

Method	Vocab Size	Frame-Aware	Overlap	Training Req'd	Best For
Byte-level	256	No	None	No	Universal mixed data
BPE	Tunable	No	None	Yes	Large NLP corpora
<i>k</i> -mer (<i>k</i> =6)	4,096	No	Yes	No	Local motif discovery
Codon (<i>k</i> =3)	64+special	Yes	None	No	Coding sequences
CodonForge	328	Adaptive	None	No	Unified text+DNA

No Single Tokenizer Wins on All Data

Each tokenization method excels in a specific regime: BPE for text-heavy corpora, k -mers for motif analysis, codons for coding regions, and byte-level for universal coverage. The DOGMA approach resolves this tension not by choosing one method but by building a *unified* tokenizer—CodonForge—that adapts its behavior to the input modality. This is the subject of Section 7.3.

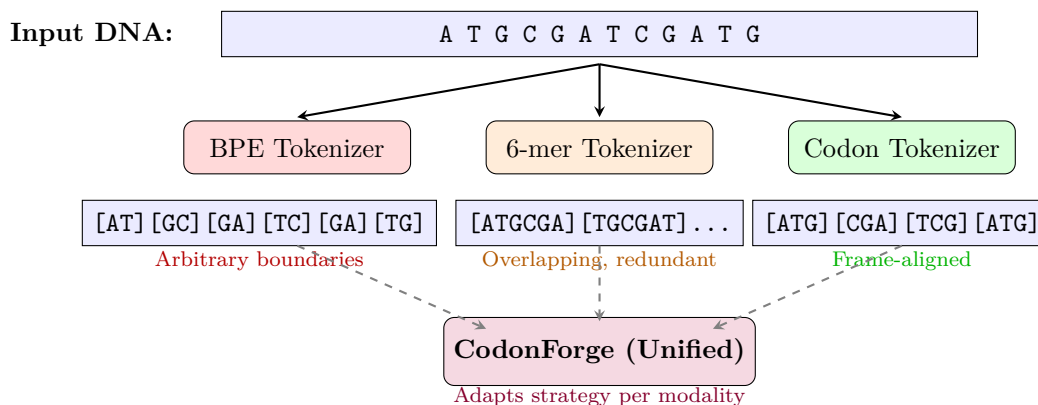


Figure 7.1: Comparison of tokenization strategies for the DNA sequence **ATGCGATCGATG**. BPE produces arbitrary boundaries, k -mers produce overlapping tokens, and codon tokenization produces frame-aligned triplets. CodonForge unifies all three strategies adaptively.

7.3 DOGMA’s Unified Tokenization: CodonForge

DOGMA’s solution to the tokenization dilemma is **CodonForge** (Chapter 5), a unified tokenizer that handles both text and DNA within a single vocabulary. This section explains how CodonForge works at the level relevant to foundation model training.

7.3.1 The CodonForge Vocabulary

CodonForge partitions a 328-token vocabulary into four regions:

CodonForge Vocabulary Structure

The CodonForge vocabulary $\mathcal{V}_{CF}$ is composed of four disjoint regions:

$$\mathcal{V}_{CF} = \mathcal{V}_{\text{byte}} \cup \mathcal{V}_{\text{codon}} \cup \mathcal{V}_{\text{modal}} \cup \mathcal{V}_{\text{struct}}, \quad (7.2)$$

where:

- $\mathcal{V}_{\text{byte}} = \{0, 1, \dots, 255\}$ handles raw bytes (all ASCII characters, including nucleotide letters).
- $\mathcal{V}_{\text{codon}} = \{\text{AAA}, \text{AAT}, \text{AAC}, \dots, \text{GGG}\}$ contains all 64 codon tokens.
- $\mathcal{V}_{\text{modal}} = \{\text{<DNA>}, \text{</DNA>}, \text{<PROT>}, \text{</PROT>}, \text{<TEXT>}, \text{</TEXT>}, \text{<STRUCT>}, \text{</STRUCT>}\}$ provides 8 modality boundary markers.
- $\mathcal{V}_{\text{struct}}$ contains discretized structural features (e.g., secondary structure codes, distance bins), for a total of $|\mathcal{V}_{CF}| = 256 + 64 + 8 = 328$ tokens.

Note that the 64 codon tokens *overlap* with specific byte trigrams (e.g., the codon token **ATG** and the byte sequence 65-84-71 represent the same characters). The key difference is that a codon token is a *single* token occupying one position in the sequence, while the byte representation uses three positions. CodonForge dynamically chooses which representation to use based on the input modality.

7.3.2 Adaptive Tokenization Logic

When CodonForge processes a FASTA file, it applies different tokenization strategies to different regions:

1. **Header lines** (after >): Tokenized as bytes. Natural language text is best served by character-level representation, and the byte vocabulary covers all ASCII characters.
2. **Coding sequences** (with known reading frame): Tokenized as codons. Each triplet becomes a single codon token, preceded by <DNA> and followed by </DNA>.
3. **Non-coding sequences** (no known reading frame): Tokenized as bytes. Individual nucleotides become byte tokens within <DNA>...</DNA> markers.
4. **Protein sequences**: Each amino acid letter becomes a byte token within <PROT>...</PROT> markers.

How CodonForge Detects Modality

CodonForge uses a simple rule-based classifier to determine the modality of each region. Lines beginning with > are headers (text). Sequences following a header are classified as DNA if more than 90% of characters are in {A, T, C, G, N}, as protein if more than 80% are standard amino acid letters, and as text otherwise. Within DNA regions, coding status is determined by metadata annotations in the header (e.g., "CDS" for coding sequence) or by the presence of start/stop codon patterns. This classification runs once during preprocessing and is cached for training.

7.3.3 Why Unified Tokenization Matters

A unified vocabulary allows a single model to process mixed-modality inputs without mode switching. Consider a training example that contains a gene description in English, followed by its DNA sequence, followed by its protein product:

```
<TEXT>The insulin gene encodes a peptide hormone</TEXT>
<DNA>ATG GCC CTG TGG ATG CGC CTC CTG</DNA>
<PROT>MALWMRL</PROT>
```

With CodonForge, this entire example is a single token sequence. The model learns cross-modal relationships—that the text “insulin” co-occurs with specific DNA and protein patterns—through the same next-token prediction objective used for all training.

One Vocabulary, Three Languages

CodonForge’s unified vocabulary lets the model treat English, DNA, and protein as dialects of a single language, separated by modality markers. This is analogous to multilingual language models that use a shared vocabulary across languages with language tags. The key advantage is that representations are *shared*: the model can learn that certain DNA patterns predict certain protein structures, and that certain English descriptions predict certain DNA patterns, all within one embedding space.

7.4 Byte-Level Tokenization as Universal Fallback

While CodonForge provides the primary tokenization for DOGMA, byte-level tokenization serves as the universal fallback and the foundation upon which CodonForge is built.

Byte-Level Tokenizer for Genomic Data

Let $\mathcal{V}_{\text{byte}} = \{0, 1, \dots, 255\}$ be the full byte vocabulary. The byte-level tokenizer τ_{byte} maps an input string x to a sequence of byte values:

$$\tau_{\text{byte}}(x) = (\text{ord}(x_1), \text{ord}(x_2), \dots, \text{ord}(x_n)), \quad (7.3)$$

where $\text{ord}(\cdot)$ returns the byte value of a character. For a mixed corpus containing both English text and DNA, the same 256-token vocabulary handles both modalities without any domain-specific merge rules.

The byte-level approach has three key advantages for genomic foundation models. First, it is *modality-agnostic*: the same tokenizer handles FASTA headers (English text), nucleotide sequences, amino acid sequences, and metadata without switching modes. Second, it *preserves positional granularity*: every nucleotide occupies exactly one position, so positional encodings align with biological positions. Third, it is *deterministic*: there are no merge rules to learn, no vocabulary to tune, and no edge cases where the same sequence tokenizes differently in different contexts.

7.5 The Bigram Baseline

Before building complex transformer models, we establish a minimal baseline: a bigram language model over genomic sequences, implemented with zero external dependencies. This baseline is not a

throwaway exercise—it reveals genuine biological structure and provides a critical diagnostic tool for evaluating more complex models.

7.5.1 Character-Level Statistics of Genomic Sequences

A bigram model estimates the probability of each character given only its immediate predecessor:

$$P(x_t \mid x_{<t}) \approx P(x_t \mid x_{t-1}) = \frac{C(x_{t-1}, x_t)}{\sum_c C(x_{t-1}, c)}, \quad (7.4)$$

where $C(a, b)$ counts the number of times character b follows character a in the training corpus. For a pure DNA corpus over alphabet $\{A, T, C, G\}$, this yields a 4×4 transition matrix.

Example 7.2 (Building a Bigram Transition Matrix). Suppose we train a bigram model on the short DNA sequence **ATGCATGCATGC**. We count every pair of consecutive characters:

	$\rightarrow A$	$\rightarrow T$	$\rightarrow C$	$\rightarrow G$
A $\rightarrow$	0	3	0	0
T $\rightarrow$	0	0	0	3
C $\rightarrow$	2	0	0	0
G $\rightarrow$	0	0	3	0

Normalizing each row gives the transition probabilities. In this toy example, the matrix is deterministic: A always precedes T, T always precedes G, G always precedes C, and C always precedes A (with one fewer count). Real genomic data produces less extreme but still non-uniform matrices.

Zero-Dependency Bigram Model

The bigram model can be implemented using only Python’s standard library: a dictionary for counts, division for probabilities, and `random.choices` for sampling. This makes it an ideal pedagogical tool and sanity check. If a transformer cannot outperform a bigram model on genomic sequence prediction, something is fundamentally wrong with the architecture or training. The expected per-character cross-entropy for a uniform random baseline over four nucleotides is $\log_2 4 = 2.0$ bits; a bigram model on real genomic data typically achieves 1.85–1.95 bits, reflecting the modest but real dinucleotide biases in biological sequences.

7.5.2 What Bigrams Reveal About Biology

Despite their simplicity, bigram statistics expose genuine biological structure. The dinucleotide frequency matrix is non-uniform in real genomes: CpG dinucleotides are suppressed in vertebrate genomes due to methylation-driven deamination, while AA/TT dinucleotides are enriched in nucleosome positioning sequences. A bigram model trained on human genomic DNA will learn these biases automatically, achieving lower perplexity than a uniform model.

The Bigram as Diagnostic Tool

The gap between bigram perplexity and transformer perplexity quantifies how much *long-range* structure exists in a genomic corpus. For random DNA, the gap is near zero—there is no structure beyond dinucleotide frequencies. For coding DNA, the gap is substantial because codon usage, splice signals, and regulatory motifs create dependencies spanning tens to thousands of nucleotides. For mixed text-DNA corpora, the gap is even larger due to the rich long-range structure of natural language. Monitoring this gap during training reveals whether the model is learning genuine biological patterns or merely memorizing local statistics.

7.6 Pre-Training Objectives for Genomic Foundation Models

A foundation model learns from data through its *pre-training objective*—the loss function that defines what the model should predict. For genomic data, two objectives dominate: masked language modeling (MLM) and next-token prediction (NTP). Each has distinct advantages.

7.6.1 Masked Language Modeling on DNA

Masked language modeling, popularized by BERT [Devlin et al., 2019], randomly masks a fraction of input tokens and trains the model to predict them from context. Applied to DNA:

Masked Language Modeling for DNA

Given a DNA sequence $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$, select a random subset $\mathcal{M} \subset \{1, \dots, n\}$ with $|\mathcal{M}| = \lfloor 0.15 \cdot n \rfloor$ (15% of positions). Replace each x_i for $i \in \mathcal{M}$ with a [MASK] token. The MLM loss is:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{MLM}} = -\frac{1}{|\mathcal{M}|} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{M}} \log P_{\theta}(x_i | \mathbf{x}_{\setminus \mathcal{M}}), \quad (7.5)$$

where $\mathbf{x}_{\setminus \mathcal{M}}$ denotes the sequence with masked positions.

Why MLM works for DNA: Nucleotides are constrained by their neighbors. A masked G in a coding region can often be predicted because the codon it belongs to is constrained by the amino acid sequence. A masked position in a promoter region can be predicted because promoter motifs (e.g., TATA box) have conserved sequences. MLM forces the model to learn these contextual dependencies from both directions (bidirectional context).

Example 7.3 (MLM on a Coding Sequence). Consider the coding sequence with reading frame marked:

Original: ATG | CGA | TCG | ATG | TAA
Masked: ATG | C[M]A | TCG | A[M]G | TAA

The model must predict that position 5 is G (completing the codon CGA → Arg) and position 11 is T (completing ATG → Met, the start codon). A well-trained model will assign high probability to the correct nucleotides because it has learned codon usage patterns and the constraint that ATG is almost always a start codon.

7.6.2 Next-Token Prediction on Codons

Next-token prediction (NTP), the objective used by GPT-family models, predicts each token from its left context only:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{NTP}} = -\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \log P_{\theta}(x_t | x_{<t}). \quad (7.6)$$

When applied at the codon level (using CodonForge’s codon tokens), this becomes *next-codon prediction*: given a sequence of codons, predict the next codon. This objective is particularly natural for coding sequences because the genetic code imposes strong constraints on codon transitions.

Codon Usage Bias as a Training Signal

Not all synonymous codons (codons encoding the same amino acid) are used equally. Organisms have strong codon usage biases—some codons are preferred because they match abundant tRNAs, leading to faster translation. A model trained with NTP on codons learns these biases: when predicting the next codon in a human gene, it will assign higher probability to preferred human codons. This is a biologically meaningful pattern that byte-level models must infer indirectly.

7.6.3 Combining MLM and NTP

DOGMA uses both objectives during pre-training, applied to different portions of the training data:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{pretrain}} = \lambda_{\text{NTP}} \cdot \mathcal{L}_{\text{NTP}} + \lambda_{\text{MLM}} \cdot \mathcal{L}_{\text{MLM}} + \lambda_{\text{align}} \cdot \mathcal{L}_{\text{align}} \quad (7.7)$$

where $\lambda_{\text{NTP}} = 1.0$, $\lambda_{\text{MLM}} = 0.5$, and $\lambda_{\text{align}} = 0.3$ are mixing coefficients. The alignment loss $\mathcal{L}_{\text{align}}$ pulls representations of corresponding DNA and protein sequences together in embedding space (see Section 7.12).

Scheduling the Objective Mix

The mixing coefficients λ are not fixed throughout training. In the early stages of curriculum learning (Section 7.7), λ_{MLM} is increased to 0.8 because MLM provides stronger learning signal from short, simple sequences. As training progresses to longer sequences in later curriculum stages, λ_{NTP} dominates because next-token prediction is better suited for learning long-range dependencies. The alignment loss is activated only after both MLM and NTP losses have stabilized, typically at the transition to Stage 3 of the curriculum.

7.7 Curriculum Learning for Genomic Data

Curriculum learning presents training examples in order of increasing complexity, allowing the model to build foundational representations before encountering difficult patterns [Bengio et al., 2009]. For genomic data, this strategy is particularly important because the complexity of biological sequences spans many orders of magnitude.

7.7.1 What Is Curriculum Learning?

In standard training, examples are sampled randomly from the dataset. In curriculum learning, examples are presented in a structured order: easy examples first, hard examples later. The intuition is the same as in education: students learn arithmetic before calculus, and letters before essays.

For genomic data, “easy” and “hard” have precise definitions:

- **Easy:** Short sequences, simple composition (uniform GC content), single-gene coding regions, well-characterized organisms.
- **Hard:** Long sequences, complex composition (repeat-rich regions, GC-biased genomes), multi-gene regions with overlapping reading frames, metagenomic samples from diverse organisms.

7.7.2 Why Curriculum Learning Helps

Training on random genomic data from the start creates several problems:

1. **Gradient signal confusion.** Early in training, the model cannot distinguish coding from non-coding DNA. Random sampling mixes both, providing inconsistent gradient signals.
2. **Wasted capacity on noise.** Large genomic datasets contain repetitive elements, sequencing artifacts, and low-complexity regions. Training on these first wastes model updates.
3. **Failure to learn hierarchical structure.** Genomic organization is hierarchical: nucleotides form codons, codons form genes, genes form operons, operons form chromosomes. Random sampling jumbles these levels.

Curriculum learning addresses all three problems by ensuring the model first masters the nucleotide alphabet, then codon patterns, then gene-level structure, and finally genome-level organization.

7.7.3 DOGMA’s Four-Stage Curriculum

Genomic Curriculum Stages

The genomic curriculum progresses through four stages:

1. **Stage 1: Synthetic sequences** (~5% of training). Random DNA with controlled GC content and dinucleotide frequencies. The model learns basic nucleotide statistics and the four-letter alphabet.
2. **Stage 2: Single-gene sequences** (~20% of training). Complete coding sequences from well-annotated organisms. The model learns codon usage, start/stop codon placement, and open reading frame structure.
3. **Stage 3: Multi-gene regions** (~35% of training). Genomic regions containing multiple genes with intergenic sequences, promoters, and regulatory elements. The model learns gene organization and regulatory grammar.
4. **Stage 4: Full chromosomal segments** (~40% of training). Long-range genomic context including repeat elements, structural features, and complex gene clusters. The model learns large-scale genomic organization.

Curriculum Learning Mirrors Development

The four-stage curriculum mirrors the progressive complexity of biological education: students first learn the alphabet (nucleotides), then words (codons), then sentences (genes), then paragraphs (genomic regions). It also mirrors embryonic development, where simple gene expression programs activate before complex regulatory cascades. In both cases, establishing basic competence before introducing complexity leads to more robust learning than exposure to full complexity from the start.

7.7.4 Stage Transitions and Mixing

Transitions between stages are not sharp boundaries. DOGMA uses a mixing schedule where data from completed stages continues to appear (at reduced frequency) in later stages:

$$P(\text{sample from Stage } s \text{ at training step } t) = w_s(t) = \frac{\alpha_s \cdot \mathbb{I}[t \geq t_s^{\text{start}}]}{\sum_{s'} \alpha_{s'} \cdot \mathbb{I}[t \geq t_{s'}^{\text{start}}]}, \quad (7.8)$$

where t_s^{start} is the step at which Stage s is introduced and α_s are stage-specific weights that increase with stage number. This ensures that the model never “forgets” earlier patterns while focusing on increasingly complex data.

Curriculum Stage Triggers

Stage transitions are triggered by loss thresholds, not fixed step counts. Stage 2 begins when the Stage 1 validation loss drops below 1.6 bits per nucleotide (indicating mastery of basic nucleotide statistics). Stage 3 begins when the Stage 2 coding sequence accuracy exceeds 75% (indicating competent codon prediction). Stage 4 begins when the Stage 3 gene boundary detection F1 exceeds 0.6. These adaptive triggers ensure that the model has genuinely learned each level before progressing, rather than spending a fixed number of steps regardless of learning speed.

7.8 Training Data Pipeline: GenBank to Batching

Building a genomic foundation model requires a robust data pipeline that transforms raw database entries into tokenized, curriculum-ordered training batches. This section traces the full pipeline.

7.8.1 Data Sources

The primary data source is **GenBank**, the NIH genetic sequence database. GenBank contains over 200 million sequences from more than 500,000 organisms. DOGMA’s training pipeline also draws from:

- **RefSeq:** Curated reference sequences with high-quality annotations.
- **UniProt:** Protein sequences with functional annotations (for cross-modal training).
- **PDB:** Protein structures for 3D structural features.
- **Ensembl:** Genome assemblies with gene annotations, exon/intron boundaries, and regulatory element predictions.

7.8.2 Preprocessing Steps

Raw GenBank entries undergo several preprocessing steps:

1. **Format conversion.** GenBank flat files are converted to FASTA format, preserving key annotations in the header.
2. **Quality filtering.** Sequences with more than 10% ambiguous characters (N) are removed. Sequences shorter than 100 nucleotides are discarded.
3. **Deduplication.** Exact duplicates and near-duplicates (>95% sequence identity) are removed using MinHash-based clustering. This prevents the model from memorizing specific sequences.
4. **Taxonomy annotation.** Each sequence is tagged with its taxonomic lineage (kingdom, phylum, class, order, family, genus, species) for curriculum stratification.
5. **Coding region annotation.** Open reading frames (ORFs) are identified using existing GenBank annotations or *ab initio* gene prediction, and reading frames are marked for codon-aware tokenization.

7.8.3 Structured Rendering

After preprocessing, sequences are rendered into structured training formats:

Structured Rendering Formats

Three rendering formats transform raw sequences into structured training examples:

1. **Codon triplet rendering.** Nucleotides are grouped into space-separated triplets aligned to the reading frame: ATG CGA TCG ATC This makes codon boundaries visible as whitespace tokens.
2. **k -mer window rendering.** Sequences are presented as overlapping k -mer windows with explicit position annotations: [pos=0] ATGCGA [pos=1] TGCGAT This format trains the model to recognize subsequence patterns at multiple offsets.
3. **Annotated rendering.** Sequences are interleaved with biological annotations: coding regions, exon/intron boundaries, known motifs, and functional elements. This format provides dense supervision for learning sequence-function relationships.

7.8.4 Curriculum Assignment and Batching

Each preprocessed sequence is assigned to a curriculum stage based on its complexity:

- **Stage 1:** Synthetically generated. Parameters sampled from organism-specific GC content distributions.
- **Stage 2:** Single CDS (coding sequence) entries from RefSeq with “complete CDS” annotation.
- **Stage 3:** Genomic contigs containing 2–10 annotated genes with intergenic regions.
- **Stage 4:** Chromosomal segments of 50kb–500kb containing complex gene clusters.

Batches are constructed with curriculum-aware sampling (Equation 7.8), and each batch contains sequences from a single stage to avoid length-padding waste.

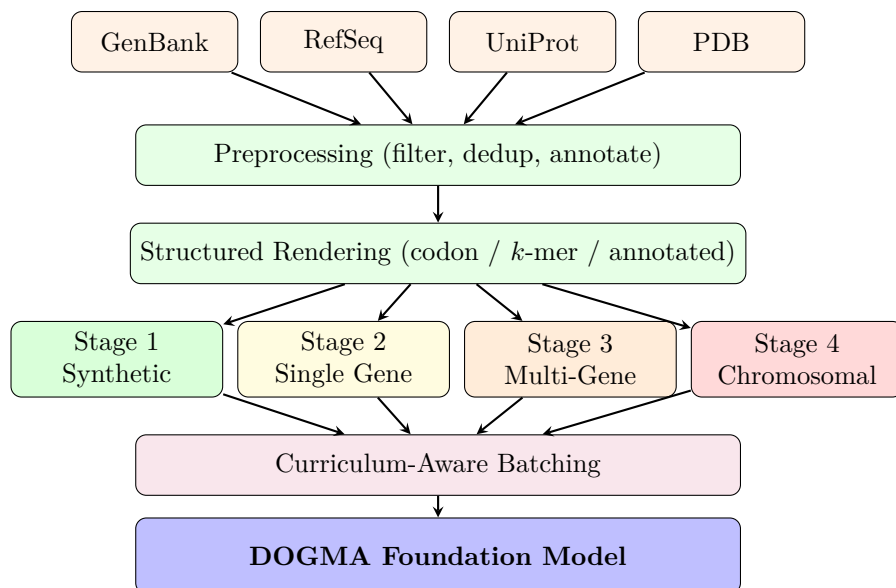


Figure 7.2: The DOGMA training data pipeline. Raw sequences from multiple databases are preprocessed, rendered into structured formats, assigned to curriculum stages, and batched for training. The curriculum-aware sampler controls the mix of stages seen by the model at each training step.

7.9 TinyGPT: Minimal Transformer for Genomic Sequences

With the data pipeline and objectives established, we now construct **TinyGPT**—a minimal decoder-only transformer adapted for byte-level genomic sequence modeling. TinyGPT is not a production model; it is a pedagogical tool for understanding how transformer architecture interacts with genomic data.

7.9.1 Decoder-Only Architecture Adapted for DNA

TinyGPT follows the standard GPT architecture [Radford et al., 2019] with modifications for genomic data:

TinyGPT Architecture

TinyGPT is a decoder-only transformer with the following specification:

Parameter	Value
Vocabulary size	256 (byte-level)
Embedding dimension d	128
Number of layers L	4
Attention heads H	4
Head dimension	$d/H = 32$
Context length T	512
Feed-forward dimension	$4d = 512$
Total parameters	$\sim 1.2\text{M}$

The model uses byte-level embedding, sinusoidal positional encoding, causal masking, and layer normalization.

The design is deliberately minimal: 1.2 million parameters, trainable on a single GPU in minutes. The goal is not state-of-the-art performance but pedagogical clarity—a model small enough to inspect, debug, and understand completely.

7.9.2 Byte-Level Embedding with Positional Encoding

The input embedding combines a learned byte embedding with sinusoidal positional encoding:

$$\mathbf{h}_0^{(t)} = \mathbf{E}[x_t] + \mathbf{PE}(t), \quad (7.9)$$

where $\mathbf{E} \in \mathbb{R}^{256 \times d}$ is the byte embedding matrix and $\mathbf{PE}(t) \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is the sinusoidal positional encoding at position t . For genomic sequences, the positional encoding carries biological significance: position within a codon (modulo 3), distance from sequence start, and relative position within a gene all affect nucleotide identity.

7.9.3 Training on Mixed Text/Genome Corpora

TinyGPT is trained on a mixed corpus containing both natural language (FASTA headers, gene annotations, biological descriptions) and raw nucleotide sequences. The training objective is standard next-byte prediction:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{TinyGPT}} = -\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \log P_{\theta}(x_t \mid x_{<t}). \quad (7.10)$$

Mixed-Corpus Training Dynamics

When training on mixed text/genome data, the loss curve exhibits a characteristic two-phase pattern. In the first phase (typically the first 10–20% of training), the model rapidly learns the byte distribution of each modality—distinguishing the four-nucleotide DNA alphabet from the broader ASCII range of English text. In the second phase, the model begins capturing within-modality structure: codon usage patterns in DNA, syntactic patterns in text, and crucially, the *cross-modal* correlations between FASTA headers and their associated sequences. Monitoring per-modality loss separately (by tagging each training example with its source type) reveals whether the model is balancing both domains or overfitting to one.

7.10 Helix-Aware Training

TinyGPT treats genomic sequences as flat byte streams, ignoring a fundamental property of DNA: it is a *double-stranded helix*. The two strands are complementary and antiparallel, meaning the same genetic information can be read in two directions. Helix-aware training exploits this structure.

7.10.1 Why the Double Strand Matters for Training

In a standard language model, a sentence is read left-to-right. DNA is different: the same region can be read on either strand, in opposite directions, and both readings carry biological information. Genes on the forward strand are transcribed left-to-right; genes on the reverse strand are transcribed right-to-left. A model that sees only the forward strand is blind to half the genome’s information.

This has concrete implications for training:

1. **Data augmentation.** Every DNA training example can be augmented with its reverse complement, effectively doubling the training data without introducing new sequences.
2. **Representation symmetry.** A well-trained model should produce similar representations for a sequence and its reverse complement, since they encode the same biological information.
3. **Regulatory signal detection.** Many regulatory elements (transcription factor binding sites, enhancers) are functional on both strands. A helix-aware model can detect these regardless of strand orientation.

7.10.2 Dual-Stream Architecture

The dual-stream architecture processes each input through two parallel pathways (cf. the HelixHash embedding architecture in Section 2.7 of Chapter 2):

$$\mathbf{h}_{\text{std}}^{(\ell)} = \text{TransformerBlock}_{\text{std}}^{(\ell)}(\mathbf{h}_{\text{std}}^{(\ell-1)}), \quad \mathbf{h}_{\text{helix}}^{(\ell)} = \text{TransformerBlock}_{\text{helix}}^{(\ell)}(\mathbf{h}_{\text{helix}}^{(\ell-1)}), \quad (7.11)$$

where the standard stream receives byte embeddings (Equation 7.9) and the helix stream receives HelixHash motif embeddings (Equation 2.26 from Chapter 2). At designated fusion layers $\ell \in \mathcal{F}$, the streams exchange information through cross-attention:

$$\mathbf{h}_{\text{fused}}^{(\ell)} = \mathbf{h}_{\text{std}}^{(\ell)} + \alpha_{\text{cross}} \cdot \text{CrossAttn}(\mathbf{h}_{\text{std}}^{(\ell)}, \mathbf{h}_{\text{helix}}^{(\ell)}), \quad (7.12)$$

with a learnable gating coefficient $\alpha_{\text{cross}} \in [0, 1]$ that controls how much structural information flows into the standard stream.

7.10.3 Reverse Complement Consistency Loss

To ensure the model learns strand-symmetric representations, DOGMA adds a *reverse complement consistency loss*:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{RC}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \|\mathbf{z}(x_i) - \mathbf{z}(\overline{x_i})\|_2^2, \quad (7.13)$$

where x_i is a DNA sequence, $\overline{x_i}$ is its reverse complement, and $\mathbf{z}(\cdot)$ is the model’s pooled representation. This loss penalizes the model for producing different embeddings for complementary sequences, encouraging biologically consistent representations.

Helix-Awareness Is Not Just Augmentation

Reverse complement augmentation (simply training on both strands) doubles the data but does not guarantee symmetric representations. The RC consistency loss (Equation 7.13) goes further: it explicitly constrains the representation space so that complementary sequences are close. Combined with the dual-stream architecture, this creates a model whose internal representations respect the physical structure of DNA.

7.10.4 Motif-Level Feature Channels

The helix stream operates at the motif level rather than the byte level. Each motif (a width- k window of consecutive embeddings) is projected into a dense feature vector that encodes local structural patterns:

$$\mathbf{m}_i = \text{ReLU}(W_m \cdot \text{concat}(\mathbf{h}_i, \mathbf{h}_{i+1}, \dots, \mathbf{h}_{i+k-1}) + \mathbf{b}_m), \quad (7.14)$$

where $W_m \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times (k \cdot d)}$ is the motif projection matrix. The motif features capture patterns invisible to byte-level processing: codon boundaries, splice site signals, transcription factor binding motifs, and the dinucleotide patterns that determine DNA bendability.

7.10.5 Performance Comparison: Standard vs. Helix-Aware

Table 7.2: Next-byte prediction perplexity on genomic evaluation sets. Lower is better.

Model	Coding DNA	Non-coding DNA	Mixed Corpus
Bigram baseline	3.72	3.81	5.94
TinyGPT (byte-level)	2.41	3.12	3.67
TinyGPT + HelixHash (dual-stream)	2.08	2.74	3.31
TinyGPT + HelixHash + codon-aware	1.89	2.71	3.24
TinyGPT + HelixHash + RC loss	1.82	2.63	3.18

Where Helix-Awareness Helps Most

The performance gap between standard and helix-aware models is largest on coding DNA (0.59 perplexity reduction from baseline TinyGPT to full helix-aware) and substantial on non-coding DNA (0.49 reduction). The addition of codon-aware tokenization improves coding DNA most, while the RC consistency loss benefits all categories. This pattern makes biological sense: coding sequences have strong codon-level periodicity that motif features capture directly, while the RC loss helps everywhere because both coding and non-coding regions contain strand-symmetric regulatory signals.

7.11 Multi-Scale TetraMemory During Pretraining

Large genomic sequences exceed the context window of many practical models. A 500kb chromosomal segment contains 500,000 nucleotides—far beyond the 256-byte context of the measured DOGMA baseline. Multi-scale TetraMemory is a proposed mechanism for retaining selected information beyond the immediate window; its benefit must be established through length-extrapolation ablations.

7.11.1 What Is TetraMemory?

TetraMemory (introduced in Chapter 4) is a structured external memory organized into four hierarchical scales:

TetraMemory Scales

TetraMemory maintains four memory banks operating at different granularities:

1. **Nucleotide scale** (τ_1): Stores per-position information (e.g., nucleotide identity, local GC content). Resolution: 1 nucleotide. Capacity: last 2,048 positions.
2. **Codon scale** (τ_2): Stores per-codon information (e.g., amino acid identity, codon usage frequency). Resolution: 3 nucleotides. Capacity: last 4,096 codons (12,288 nt).
3. **Gene scale** (τ_3): Stores per-gene summaries (e.g., gene function embedding, expression context). Resolution: $\sim 1,000$ nucleotides. Capacity: last 64 genes.
4. **Chromosome scale** (τ_4): Stores regional summaries (e.g., GC content, repeat density, gene density). Resolution: $\sim 50,000$ nucleotides. Capacity: entire chromosome.

7.11.2 How TetraMemory Integrates with Training

During pretraining, TetraMemory operates as a sliding context extension. As the model processes a long sequence in chunks:

1. Each chunk is processed normally through the transformer.
2. At the end of each chunk, summary representations are written to the appropriate TetraMemory scales.
3. At the start of the next chunk, the model reads from TetraMemory to initialize its context with information from previous chunks.

- The reading is done via cross-attention between the current chunk’s representations and the TetraMemory contents.

$$\mathbf{h}_{\text{ctx}}^{(t)} = \mathbf{h}^{(t)} + \sum_{s=1}^4 \gamma_s \cdot \text{CrossAttn}(\mathbf{h}^{(t)}, \tau_s), \quad (7.15)$$

where γ_s are learned scale-specific attention weights and τ_s denotes the contents of memory scale s .

TetraMemory Write Policy

Not all hidden states are written to TetraMemory—this would be prohibitively expensive. DOGMA uses a *salience-gated* write policy: a small network predicts a “write probability” for each position based on its hidden state. Positions with high salience (typically those corresponding to gene boundaries, regulatory elements, or unusual sequence composition) are preferentially written. During Stage 1 of curriculum learning, all positions are written (since sequences are short). During Stage 4, only $\sim 5\%$ of positions are written, focusing memory on structurally important locations.

7.11.3 Multi-Scale Attention Patterns

Different TetraMemory scales capture different types of long-range dependency:

Table 7.3: TetraMemory scales and the biological patterns they capture.

Scale	Resolution	Capacity	Biological Patterns Captured
τ_1 (nucleotide)	1 nt	2,048 nt	Local motifs, splice sites, codon context
τ_2 (codon)	3 nt	12,288 nt	Codon usage bias, ORF structure, translation signals
τ_3 (gene)	~ 1 kb	~ 64 kb	Gene clusters, operon structure, co-regulation
τ_4 (chromosome)	~ 50 kb	whole chr	Isochores, replication origins, centromere proximity

Biology Operates at Multiple Scales

The four TetraMemory scales mirror the hierarchical organization of genomes. Individual nucleotides matter for splice site recognition (scale τ_1). Codons matter for translation efficiency (scale τ_2). Gene neighborhoods matter for co-regulation and operon structure (scale τ_3). Chromosomal regions matter for replication timing and chromatin state (scale τ_4). A foundation model that operates at only one scale will miss patterns at the others. TetraMemory allows the model to simultaneously attend to information at all four biological scales.

7.12 Cross-Modal Training

A genomic foundation model that processes only DNA sequences misses the rich web of connections between biological modalities. Cross-modal training integrates text, DNA, protein sequences, and 3D structural data into a unified representation space.

7.12.1 The Four Modalities

The cross-modal training framework operates over four biological modalities:

1. **Natural language text.** Gene descriptions, functional annotations, literature abstracts, and FASTA headers. Provides semantic context for biological entities.
2. **DNA sequences.** Nucleotide sequences at the genomic, transcript, and coding levels. The primary modality of genomic foundation models.
3. **Protein sequences.** Amino acid sequences derived from DNA through the genetic code. Proteins are the functional products of genes; their sequences constrain and predict DNA sequences.
4. **3D structural data.** Protein structures and chromatin conformations, typically represented as distance matrices or coordinate sets. Structure determines function and provides geometric constraints not visible in sequence alone.

7.12.2 Cross-Modal Training Objectives

The cross-modal training loss combines next-token prediction with modality alignment objectives:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{cross}} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{NTP}} + \lambda_{\text{align}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{align}} + \lambda_{\text{trans}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{trans}} \quad (7.16)$$

where:

- $\mathcal{L}_{\text{NTP}}$ is the standard next-token prediction loss across all modalities.
- $\mathcal{L}_{\text{align}}$ is a contrastive alignment loss that pulls representations of corresponding entities (e.g., a gene’s DNA sequence and its protein product) closer in embedding space while pushing unrelated entities apart:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{align}} = -\log \frac{\exp(\text{sim}(\mathbf{z}_{\text{DNA}}, \mathbf{z}_{\text{prot}})/\tau)}{\sum_j \exp(\text{sim}(\mathbf{z}_{\text{DNA}}, \mathbf{z}_{\text{prot}}^{(j)})/\tau)}, \quad (7.17)$$

where τ is a temperature parameter and the sum is over negative samples.

- $\mathcal{L}_{\text{trans}}$ is a translation loss that trains the model to generate one modality from another (e.g., predict the protein sequence given the DNA coding sequence), mirroring the biological process of translation.

From Central Dogma to Foundation Model

The cross-modal design maps parts of the central dogma to conditional prediction tasks. A translation loss can encode the genetic code, while an alignment loss can reward agreement among sequence, structure, and annotation. Passing either objective would not prove that a model understands the biological process; memorization and shortcut learning remain alternative explanations that require targeted controls.

7.13 Evaluation of Genomic Foundation Models

How do we know if a genomic foundation model is any good? This section presents the benchmarks, metrics, and comparison methodology used to evaluate DOGMA’s genomic models.

7.13.1 Intrinsic Metrics

Intrinsic metrics measure the model’s ability to model genomic sequences without reference to downstream tasks:

- **Perplexity** (PPL): The exponential of average negative log-likelihood. Lower is better. A uniform four-base predictor has PPL 4.0, but comparisons require identical splits and tokenization.
- **Bits per nucleotide** (BPN): Cross-entropy in bits, related by $\text{BPN} = \log_2(\text{PPL})$. A uniform four-base predictor uses 2.0 bits.
- **Codon prediction accuracy**: For coding sequences, the fraction of codons correctly predicted under a declared reading frame. Dataset bias and codon usage make 1/64 an incomplete practical baseline.

7.13.2 Downstream Benchmarks

Downstream benchmarks evaluate the model’s learned representations on biologically meaningful tasks:

Table 7.4: Downstream evaluation benchmarks for genomic foundation models.

Benchmark	Task	Metric	Description
Promoter Detection	Classification	AUROC	Distinguish promoter from non-promoter regions
Splice Site Prediction	Classification	F1	Identify exon-intron boundaries
Gene Expression	Regression	Spearman ρ	Predict mRNA expression levels from sequence
Variant Effect	Ranking	NDCG	Rank pathogenicity of single-nucleotide variants
Species Classification	Classification	Accuracy	Identify species from short DNA fragments
Protein Function	Multi-label	Macro-F1	Predict Gene Ontology terms from DNA

7.13.3 Required Comparison with Existing Models

The earlier edition placed numerical values in Table 7.5 without a reproducible checkpoint, dataset split, or evaluation artifact. Those values are withdrawn. The table now defines the comparisons a future DOGMA result must run:

Table 7.5: Required matched comparisons. Blank result cells are intentional until reproducible evidence is available.

Model family	Matching rule	Required tasks	Status
Convolutional	Equal parameters and bytes	Motif, promoter, splice	Not yet run under the frozen suite
GRU/LSTM	Equal parameters and bytes	Recall, promoter, species	Not yet run under the frozen suite
Transformer	Equal parameters, bytes, and context	All frozen tasks	Not yet run under the frozen suite
HyenaDNA/Caduceus	Published and matched small variants	Long-range genomic tasks	Protocol pending
DNABERT-2	Published checkpoint	Standard genomic benchmark suite	Protocol pending
DOGMA	Exact selected checkpoint	Same splits, seeds, and metrics	Measured small baseline only; no downstream result yet

No Efficiency Claim Yet

Biological priors may improve sample efficiency, harm it, or have no effect. Parameter count alone does not measure training compute or quality. DOGMA can claim efficiency only after matched data, optimization, context, hardware, and task evaluations with uncertainty.

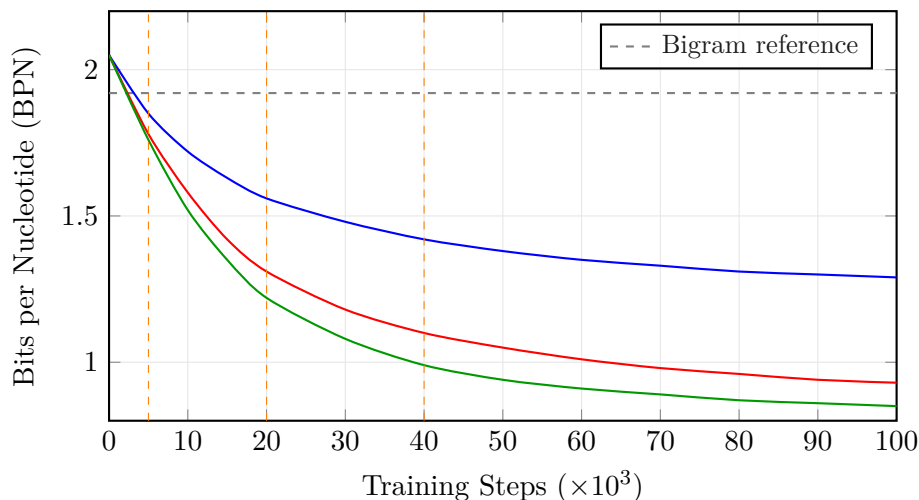


Figure 7.3: Evaluation-plan scaffold. Dashed vertical lines show proposed curriculum transitions; the horizontal bigram value is illustrative. Measured model curves were removed because the earlier figure did not identify reproducible artifacts.

7.14 Proposed Large-Scale DOGMA Configuration

This section preserves a proposed large-scale architecture for future experiments. It is not the model measured in Chapter 8. The parameter values and transfer schedule are hypotheses to test, not a completed training report.

7.14.1 From Foundation Model to DOGMA Pipeline

A future larger DOGMA model could use a pretrained genomic model as its core, then add a staged DOGMA pipeline:

1. **CodonForge Embedding** (Stage 1): Uses the same CodonForge tokenizer described in Section 7.3, initialized with the pretrained byte and codon embeddings.
2. **Regulation Engine** (Stage 2): Context-dependent activation of DNAComputeBlocks, trained via the curriculum learning described in Section 7.7.
3. **Synthesis Controller** (Stage 3): Evolutionary modification of prompt genomes, using the evolutionary training loop of Chapter 6.
4. **DNAComputeBlocks** (Stages 4–5): Non-transformer local and recurrent computation initialized from a compatible pretrained model.
5. **Realization Head** (Stage 6): Output projection, initialized from the pretrained language model head.

7.14.2 Training Configuration Alignment

The proposed configuration would inherit several decisions from the genomic foundation model:

Table 7.6: Hypothetical transfer configuration for a future large DOGMA study.

Parameter	Foundation	Large proposal	Rationale
Vocabulary size	328	328	CodonForge unified vocabulary
Context length	512	2,048	Extended via TetraMemory
Batch size	256	128	Reduced for 4-path compute
Learning rate	3×10^{-4}	1×10^{-4}	Lower for fine-tuning stability
Curriculum stages	4	4	Same staging, different durations
RC consistency	$\lambda = 0.1$	$\lambda = 0.05$	Reduced weight at scale
Objective mix	MLM + NTP	NTP dominant	Decoder-only at scale

7.14.3 Transfer Learning Strategy

The design study proposes a staged transfer:

1. **Phase 1: Frozen transfer** (first 10% of training). Freeze pretrained weights and train only new compatible modules.

2. **Phase 2: Gradual unfreezing** (next 30%). Pretrained layers are unfrozen from top to bottom, one layer per 2,000 steps. The learning rate for unfrozen pretrained layers is $10\times$ lower than for new modules.
3. **Phase 3: Full fine-tuning** (remaining 60%). All parameters are trained jointly with a uniform (low) learning rate.

Staged Transfer Hypothesis

Randomly initialized modules can destabilize pretrained representations. Staged transfer is therefore a reasonable experimental condition, but the earlier 8–12% and 3–5% improvement claims are withdrawn: no qualifying artifacts were identified. A future study must compare staged transfer, direct fine-tuning, and training from initialization under matched compute.

7.15 DOGMA for Multimodal Intelligence

The cross-modal framework of Section 7.12 motivates a design study spanning text, DNA, protein, and structural modalities. This section proposes how a Central Dogma pipeline might process those inputs. It does not report demonstrated cross-modal generation.

Throughout this section, dimensions and paths are hypothetical design parameters. Attention-based paths belong to a historical variant and are excluded from canonical DOGMA. TetraMesh and multimodal realization require separate implementation and evaluation evidence.

7.15.1 TetraMesh: Converting 3D Structures to Byte-Level Tokens

The central challenge of multimodal intelligence is *representation*: how do we feed a protein crystal structure, molecular geometry, or 3D point cloud into a byte-sequence model? The design proposes **TetraMesh**, a pipeline intended to convert 3D data into byte-level tokens. Whether it preserves task-relevant geometry is an open empirical question.

The conversion proceeds in three stages:

1. **Point cloud extraction.** The raw input—whether a protein structure from the Protein Data Bank, a small molecule from QM9, or a 3D object mesh—is reduced to a set of 3D coordinates. For images, intensity-weighted importance sampling with depth from grayscale produces a point cloud in $\mathbb{R}^3$. For proteins, alpha-carbon coordinates are extracted from PDB files. For molecules, atomic positions serve directly as point clouds.
2. **Double-helix mesh construction.** The point cloud is fed into `build_double_helix()`, which constructs a DoubleHelixMesh: a pair of linked tetrahedral chains (sense and antisense) that tessellate the 3D space occupied by the input. Each tetrahedron’s four vertices are assigned DNA bases (A, C, G, T) based on geometric properties, producing a base sequence that encodes structural information.
3. **Base sequence serialization.** The mesh is serialized as a compact DNA base string by emitting each tetrahedron’s four bases in order (sense chain first, then antisense chain). The result is a sequence like `ACGTTAGC...` that can be tokenized by the standard byte-level tokenizer.

The serialized mesh is wrapped in a structured training document:

```
[TETRA_MESH]
modality: protein_structure
source: pdb_1CRN
sense_chain: 28 tetrahedra
bases: A=12 C=8 G=10 T=6
chirality: +0.14
volume: 0.000342
base_sequence: ACGTTAGCACGT...
[/TETRA_MESH]
USER: Describe this protein_structure.
ASSISTANT: Protein 1CRN: Crambin, a small hydrophobic
protein from Crambe hispanica seeds.
```

Why DNA Bases for 3D Geometry?

Assigning DNA bases to tetrahedron vertices is not arbitrary. Each base (A, C, G, T) corresponds to one of four geometric roles determined by the vertex’s position within its tetrahedron: apex (A), centroid-adjacent (C), ground-face (G), or terminal (T). This mapping preserves the complementarity constraint—sense and antisense chains maintain Watson–Crick pairing—while encoding geometric information in a format the model already understands. The chirality statistic measures the balance of left- versus right-handed tetrahedra, capturing structural asymmetry that would be invisible in a flat sequence representation.

7.15.2 Image to DNA Encoding: A Detailed Pipeline

We now present the complete pipeline for converting a raster image into a DOGMA-compatible DNA base sequence, processing it through the Central Dogma, and decoding the output back to an image. This is the most detailed encoding pipeline we describe, and serves as the template for video and audio encoding in subsequent sections.

Step 1: Image to Point Cloud

Given an input image $I \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 3}$ with RGB channels, we construct a 3D point cloud $\mathcal{P} = \{(x_i, y_i, z_i)\}_{i=1}^N$ as follows:

1. **Normalize coordinates.** Each pixel at position (r, c) maps to normalized spatial coordinates $x = c/W$, $y = 1 - r/H$, both in $[0, 1]$.
2. **Compute depth.** The z -coordinate encodes color information. We compute a weighted luminance: $z = 0.299R + 0.587G + 0.114B$, normalized to $[0, 1]$. This projects the RGB color space onto a perceptual brightness axis.
3. **Importance sampling.** Rather than converting all $H \times W$ pixels (which could produce millions of points), we perform importance sampling. Pixels with high gradient magnitude $\|\nabla I\|$ (edges, textures) are sampled with higher probability. Specifically, we compute the sampling weight $w_{r,c} = \|\nabla I_{r,c}\| + \epsilon$ and draw N points (typically $N = 1024$ to 4096) without replacement.
4. **Color encoding.** Each sampled point is augmented with its full RGB values as auxiliary attributes: $\mathcal{P}_{\text{aug}} = \{(x_i, y_i, z_i, R_i, G_i, B_i)\}_{i=1}^N$. The RGB values are quantized to 4 bits per channel (16 levels) to control the vocabulary size.

Example 7.4 (A 4×4 Image as Point Cloud). Consider a simple 4×4 grayscale image (values 0–255):

200	180	50	30
210	190	60	40
100	90	150	160
80	70	140	170

After normalization, the pixel at row 0, column 0 maps to $(x, y, z) = (0.0, 1.0, 0.784)$. The pixel at row 3, column 3 maps to $(0.75, 0.25, 0.667)$. Importance sampling concentrates points near the strong gradient between the bright upper-left and dark upper-right regions.

Step 2: Point Cloud to Delaunay Tetrahedralization

The point cloud $\mathcal{P}$ is tessellated into a tetrahedral mesh using **Delaunay tetrahedralization**. Given N points in $\mathbb{R}^3$, the Delaunay criterion produces a mesh $\mathcal{M} = \{T_1, T_2, \dots, T_M\}$ where each tetrahedron T_j has four vertices, and no point lies inside the circumsphere of any tetrahedron.

The TetraMesh construction enriches this basic Delaunay mesh:

1. **Vertex classification.** Each vertex is classified by its geometric role: apex (highest z), centroid-adjacent (closest to the tetrahedron centroid), ground-face (in the base triangle), or terminal (remaining vertex).
2. **Sense/antisense pairing.** Adjacent tetrahedra sharing a triangular face are paired into sense–antisense doublets, mirroring the double-stranded structure of DNA. This pairing is performed greedily by matching tetrahedra with maximal shared-face area.
3. **Shape fitting.** The mesh is analyzed against eight shape primitives (helix, sphere, cube, torus, random, spiral, grid, shell) and the best-fitting shape is recorded as metadata. The shape primitive biases the traversal order in the next step.

Step 3: Tetrahedral Mesh to DNA Base Sequence

The mesh $\mathcal{M}$ is traversed in a double-helix order to produce a base sequence $\mathbf{s} = (s_1, s_2, \dots, s_L)$ where each $s_i \in \{\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{G}, \mathbf{T}\}$.

1. **Traversal ordering.** Starting from the tetrahedron closest to the centroid of $\mathcal{P}$, a spiral traversal visits each tetrahedron exactly once. The traversal follows the sense chain first, then the antisense chain, producing two complementary subsequences.
2. **Base assignment.** For each tetrahedron T_j , the four vertices are assigned bases according to their classification:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{Apex} \mapsto \mathbf{A}, & \text{Centroid-adjacent} \mapsto \mathbf{C}, \\ \text{Ground-face} \mapsto \mathbf{G}, & \text{Terminal} \mapsto \mathbf{T}. \end{array}$$

3. **Color encoding in codons.** The quantized RGB values of the four vertices are encoded as additional bases appended after each tetrahedron’s structural bases. Each 4-bit color channel maps to one of $\binom{4}{1}^4 = 256$ codon patterns, producing 3 additional bases per vertex (one per color channel), for a total of $4 + 12 = 16$ bases per tetrahedron.
4. **Complementarity enforcement.** The antisense chain is generated by Watson–Crick pairing: $\mathbf{A} \leftrightarrow \mathbf{T}$, $\mathbf{C} \leftrightarrow \mathbf{G}$. This doubles the sequence length but provides built-in error detection.

Step 4: Base Sequence Through the Central Dogma Pipeline

The base sequence $\mathbf{s}$ is processed through the full DOGMA pipeline:

$$\boxed{\mathbf{s} \xrightarrow{\text{tokenize}} \Gamma \xrightarrow{\text{regulate}} \Gamma' \xrightarrow{\text{transcribe}} \mathcal{T} \xrightarrow{\text{fold}} \Phi \xrightarrow{\text{realize}} \hat{y}} \quad (7.18)$$

1. **Tokenization.** The base string is tokenized by the byte-level tokenizer into tokens of length up to 128 (the TetraMesh max token limit).
2. **Regulation.** The epigenetic memory (size 256) provides context from previously processed images. Allosteric regulation (top- $k = 16$) selectively activates the most relevant genomic regions for the current image content.
3. **Transcription.** The 16-layer transformer with 512-dimensional embeddings processes the regulated genome through all four DNA Computing paths simultaneously.
4. **Folding.** The transcript is folded into a phenotype representation Φ that captures the semantic content of the image.
5. **Realization.** The phenotype is realized in the requested mode—text (caption), JSON (structured description), or image (reconstructed pixel data).

Step 5: Decoding Back to Image

When the realization mode is set to `image`, the pipeline reverses the encoding:

1. **Phenotype to base sequence.** The phenotype Φ is realized as a DNA base sequence $\hat{\mathbf{s}}$ through the image realization head.
2. **Base sequence to TetraMesh.** The base sequence is parsed back into tetrahedra: every 16 bases reconstruct one tetrahedron (4 structural + 12 color bases), with vertex positions recovered from the structural bases and colors from the color codons.
3. **TetraMesh to point cloud.** The tetrahedron vertices with their decoded RGB values form a colored point cloud $\hat{\mathcal{P}}$.
4. **Point cloud to image.** The point cloud is rasterized onto a $H \times W$ grid. Each pixel is assigned the color of the nearest point, with Gaussian splatting ($\sigma = 1.5$ pixels) for smooth interpolation of gaps.

Figure 7.4 illustrates the complete image-to-DNA-to-image pipeline with example data at each step.

Comparison with Traditional Computer Vision

Table 7.15.2 contrasts the DOGMA tetrahedral encoding with conventional convolutional neural network (CNN) approaches to image processing.

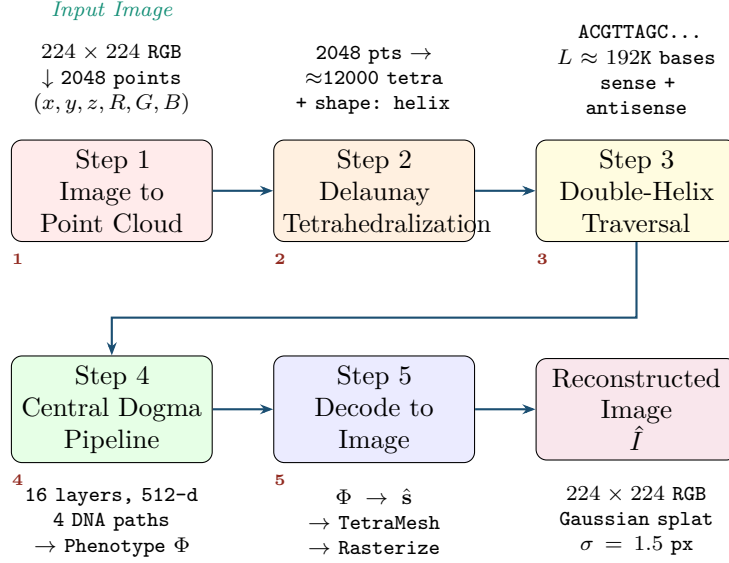


Figure 7.4: The complete image-to-DNA-to-image pipeline. An input image is converted to a point cloud (Step 1), tetrahedralized (Step 2), traversed as a double helix to produce a DNA base sequence (Step 3), processed through the Central Dogma (Step 4), and decoded back to a reconstructed image (Step 5). Example data dimensions are shown for a 224×224 input with 2048 sampled points.

Property	CNN (Traditional)	DOGMA TetraMesh
Input representation	2D pixel grid ($H \times W \times C$)	3D tetrahedral mesh
Basic operation	2D convolution on regular grid	Traversal of irregular tetrahedra
Rotation handling	Requires data augmentation or special architectures (group convolutions)	Intrinsic rotation invariance—tetrahedral geometry is rotation-equivariant
3D structure	Requires depth estimation or multi-view reconstruction	Native 3D representation from a single image
Scale invariance	Multi-scale via pooling or feature pyramids	Multi-scale via TetraMesh scales [4, 6, 8]
Biological grounding	None	DNA base encoding mirrors molecular structure
Cross-modal transfer	Requires separate encoders per modality	Same TetraMesh pipeline for all 3D-representable data

Rotation Invariance from Tetrahedra

A key advantage of DOGMA’s tetrahedral encoding is *intrinsic rotation invariance*. When an image is rotated by an arbitrary angle, the point cloud rotates rigidly, and the Delaunay tetrahedralization of the rotated point cloud produces the same set of tetrahedra (up to relabeling). The base assignment depends only on the *relative* positions of vertices within each tetrahedron (apex, centroid-adjacent, ground-face, terminal), which are rotation-invariant properties. By contrast, CNNs operating on pixel grids must learn rotation invariance from data augmentation, which is sample-inefficient and never perfectly general. This is analogous to how DNA encodes protein structure independently of the molecule’s orientation in space.

7.15.3 Video to DNA Encoding

Video extends image encoding along the temporal dimension. A video $\mathcal{V} = (I_1, I_2, \dots, I_F)$ consisting of F frames is encoded as a sequence of linked TetraMesh structures.

Temporal TetraMesh Construction

Each frame I_t is independently converted to a point cloud $\mathcal{P}_t$ and tetrahedralized into a mesh $\mathcal{M}_t$ using the image pipeline of Section 7.15.2. The temporal linking proceeds as follows:

1. **Shared-face linking.** For consecutive frames $\mathcal{M}_t$ and $\mathcal{M}_{t+1}$, boundary tetrahedra (those on the convex hull of each mesh) are matched by proximity. Matched pairs share a virtual triangular face, creating a continuous tetrahedral chain across time. The shared face encodes the optical flow between frames.
2. **Temporal base encoding.** Inter-frame connections are encoded using a special codon pattern: ATG (the biological start codon) marks the beginning of each frame, and TAA (a stop codon) marks the end. The inter-frame linking bases encode the displacement vectors between matched boundary tetrahedra.
3. **4D point cloud.** Alternatively, the entire video can be treated as a single 4D point cloud $\mathcal{P}_{4D} = \{(x_i, y_i, z_i, t_i)\}$ where $t_i = t/F$ is the normalized frame index. This 4D cloud is tetrahedralized directly, producing a mesh that captures spatiotemporal structure in a single tessellation.

Temporal Attention via Allosteric Regulation

DOGMA’s allosteric regulation mechanism (top- $k = 16$) provides a natural mechanism for temporal attention across video frames. The epigenetic memory (size 256) accumulates context from previously processed frames, functioning as a temporal memory buffer:

$$\mathcal{E}_{t+1} = \alpha \cdot \mathcal{E}_t + (1 - \alpha) \cdot \text{TopK}(\Phi_t, k = 16) \quad (7.19)$$

where $\mathcal{E}_t$ is the epigenetic state at frame t , Φ_t is the phenotype of frame t , and α is a learned decay parameter. The top- k selection ensures that only the most salient features from each frame persist in memory, analogous to how biological epigenetic marks selectively regulate gene expression in response to environmental stimuli.

Comparison with Traditional Video Models

Property	Traditional Video Models	DOGMA Video Encoding
Architecture	3D CNNs (C3D, SlowFast) or Video Transformers (ViViT, TimeSformer)	TetraMesh per frame + temporal linking
Temporal modeling	3D convolution kernels or factorized spatiotemporal attention	Allosteric regulation + epigenetic memory decay
Memory	Fixed-size feature maps; no persistent state	Epigenetic memory accumulates across frames
Compute scaling	Cubic in spatiotemporal resolution	Linear in frames (each frame processed independently, linked by shared faces)
Motion capture	Optical flow as auxiliary input or learned implicitly	Inter-frame displacement encoded in linking bases

Video as Gene Expression Over Time

The biological analogy for video processing is compelling. Each frame corresponds to a snapshot of gene expression at a particular developmental stage. The epigenetic memory captures the developmental history—just as a cell’s epigenetic state reflects its lineage, the DOGMA video encoder’s memory reflects the visual history of the scene. Allosteric regulation acts as temporal attention: distant frames can influence the current frame’s processing through the accumulated epigenetic state, much as early developmental signals shape later gene expression patterns.

7.15.4 Audio to DNA Encoding

Audio signals are encoded through a spectrogram-based pipeline that maps frequency–time representations to 3D point clouds and then to TetraMesh structures.

Spectrogram to Point Cloud

Given an audio waveform $a(t)$ sampled at rate f_s , the encoding proceeds:

1. **Short-time Fourier transform.** Compute the spectrogram $S(f, \tau) = |\text{STFT}(a(t))|^2$ with window size 1024 samples and hop length 256 samples. This produces a time–frequency matrix.
2. **Mel scaling.** Apply a Mel filterbank with 128 filters to produce $S_{\text{mel}} \in \mathbb{R}^{128 \times T}$, compressing the frequency axis to match human auditory perception.
3. **Point cloud construction.** Each spectrogram bin (f_i, τ_j) with energy above a threshold θ becomes a 3D point:

$$x = \tau_j/T, \quad y = f_i/128, \quad z = \log(1 + S_{\text{mel}}(f_i, \tau_j)).$$

4. **Importance sampling.** As with images, high-energy and high-gradient regions are oversampled, concentrating points on spectral peaks (formants, onsets, harmonics).

Frequency Bands as Tetrahedral Layers

The TetraMesh for audio has a distinctive layered structure that reflects the physics of sound:

- **Bass layer** ($y < 0.25$, corresponding to 0–2 kHz): Large tetrahedra capturing low-frequency energy. Mapped to A-rich base sequences (adenine’s double hydrogen bond mirrors the strong, sustained energy of bass frequencies).
- **Mid layer** ($0.25 \leq y < 0.625$, 2–5 kHz): Medium tetrahedra encoding speech formants and melodic content. Balanced base distribution.
- **Treble layer** ($0.625 \leq y < 0.875$, 5–11 kHz): Small, dense tetrahedra capturing transients and harmonics. G/C-rich sequences (the triple hydrogen bond of G–C pairs encodes the higher information density of treble frequencies).
- **Ultrasonic layer** ($y \geq 0.875$, above 11 kHz): Sparse tetrahedra for high-frequency detail, present only in high-fidelity audio.

Comparison with Traditional Audio Models

Property	Traditional Audio Models	DOGMA Audio Encoding
Architecture	WaveNet (dilated causal convolutions), Whisper (encoder–decoder transformer)	Spectrogram $\rightarrow$ TetraMesh $\rightarrow$ Central Dogma
Input format	Raw waveform or 2D spectrogram	3D point cloud from spectrogram
Frequency modeling	Learned implicitly through convolution layers	Explicit layered structure mapping frequency bands to tetrahedral layers
Time modeling	Causal convolution or autoregressive attention	Temporal axis encoded as x -coordinate in 3D space
Cross-modal	Separate models for speech, music, sound events	Same TetraMesh pipeline as images and video

7.15.5 Cross-Modal Generation

DOGMA’s unified genomic representation enables generation across modality boundaries. Because all modalities converge to the same genome representation Γ and diverge only at the realization step, cross-modal generation requires no additional architectural components—only a different `RealizationMode` selection.

Text to Image via DOGMA

Text-to-image generation follows the pipeline:

$$\text{“a red car”} \xrightarrow{\text{tokenize}} \Gamma_{\text{text}} \xrightarrow{\text{Central Dogma}} \Phi \xrightarrow{\text{realize(image)}} \hat{I} \quad (7.20)$$

The text prompt is tokenized into a genome Γ_{text} using the standard CodonForge tokenizer. The Central Dogma pipeline processes this genome through all 16 layers, producing a phenotype

Φ . The image realization head converts Φ into a TetraMesh base sequence, which is then decoded to a point cloud and rasterized. The `multi_express` method allows simultaneous text and image realization from the same phenotype:

$$\Phi \xrightarrow{\text{multi_express}} \begin{pmatrix} y_{\text{text}} \\ y_{\text{image}} \\ y_{\text{dna}} \end{pmatrix} \quad (7.21)$$

Image to Text via DOGMA

The reverse direction—image captioning—uses the image encoding pipeline of Section 7.15.2 to produce a genome Γ_{image} , processes it through the Central Dogma, and realizes the phenotype in text mode:

$$I \xrightarrow{\text{TetraMesh}} \Gamma_{\text{image}} \xrightarrow{\text{Central Dogma}} \Phi \xrightarrow{\text{realize(text)}} \hat{y}_{\text{caption}} \quad (7.22)$$

Comparison with Diffusion Models

Property	Diffusion Models	DOGMA Cross-Modal
Architecture	Separate text encoder (CLIP) + U-Net/DiT denoiser (Stable Diffusion, DALL-E 3)	Single Central Dogma pipeline for all modalities
Generation process	Iterative denoising over 20–50 steps	Single forward pass through 16-layer transformer
Latent space	Continuous Gaussian latent space	Discrete DNA base sequence (4-letter alphabet)
Cross-modal bridge	CLIP embedding alignment between text and image spaces	Unified genome representation—no alignment needed
Controllability	Classifier-free guidance, ControlNet	Epigenetic regulation and allosteric modulation
Bidirectionality	Requires separate models for text→image and image→text	Same pipeline, different realization modes

Single Forward Pass Generation

The most striking difference between DOGMA and diffusion models is the generation process. Diffusion models require 20–50 iterative denoising steps, each involving a full forward pass through the U-Net. DOGMA generates in a single forward pass through the Central Dogma pipeline. This is possible because the DNA base sequence provides a structured, discrete representation that does not require iterative refinement. The four-letter alphabet constrains the output space far more tightly than a continuous Gaussian latent space, trading some representational flexibility for computational efficiency. The biological analogy is direct: a cell does not iteratively refine a protein—it translates the mRNA in a single pass through the ribosome.

7.15.6 The Multimodal Corpus Builder

A multimodal DOGMA model requires training data spanning multiple modalities. The multimodal data pipeline downloads and converts data from five open sources:

Source	Modality	Default Samples	Description
COCO / Flickr30k	Image-text pairs	1,000	Images converted to point clouds via intensity sampling
RCSB PDB	Protein structures	500	Experimental 3D structures (alpha-carbons)
AlphaFold DB	Predicted structures	500	AI-predicted structures for human, <i>E. coli</i> , yeast, mouse
QM9	Small molecules	2,000	134K organic molecules with 3D equilibrium geometries
ModelNet / ShapeNet	3D object meshes	1,000	Point cloud representations of common objects

Every source follows the same pipeline: raw data is converted to a point cloud, passed through TetraMesh, and rendered as a training document with metadata headers and a caption in the `USER:/ASSISTANT:` format. The resulting corpus is split into train/valid/test sets and stored in the `external_corpus_dirs` directory referenced by the multimodal configuration.

Multimodal Configuration

The multimodal training configuration uses the `helix_dogmaforge` model architecture with the following key settings: an external corpus directory pointing to the TetraMesh-converted data, an `external_corpus_weight` of 2.0 (double-weighting multimodal data relative to genomic data), multi-scale TetraMesh at scales [4, 6, 8], and all four computational paths enabled (Strand Displacement, ParallelScan, TetraStochastic, DoubleStrand). The context length of 256 bytes is sufficient for the compact TetraMesh representations, and the `multi_scale_tetra` flag ensures the model processes structural information at multiple granularities.

7.15.7 Multi-Express: One Genome, Many Realizations

The architectural core of DOGMA’s multimodal capability is the `CentralDogma.multi_express()` method, which implements a principle with a direct biological analogy: *one gene can produce many different proteins through alternative splicing*. In DOGMA, one genome produces one transcript, one phenotype, but *many* realizations:

$$\Gamma \xrightarrow{\text{regulate}} A \xrightarrow{\text{transcribe}} T \xrightarrow{\text{fold}} \Phi \xrightarrow[\text{realize}_2]{\text{realize}_1} \begin{pmatrix} y_{\text{text}} \\ y_{\text{code}} \\ y_{\text{JSON}} \\ y_{\text{action}} \\ y_{\text{dna}} \\ y_{\text{image}} \end{pmatrix} \quad (7.23)$$

The pipeline executes the expensive steps (regulation, transcription, folding) exactly once. Only the final realization step branches, producing outputs in as many modes as requested. The `PhenotypeRealizer.multi_realize()` method takes a single phenotype and a list of `RealizationMode` values, returning one `Realization` per mode:

- **TEXT:** Natural language text, with system and task prompts rendered as paragraphs.
- **CODE:** Executable code, with each semantic fragment prefixed by a comment header.
- **JSON:** Structured JSON serialization of the phenotype’s semantic content.
- **ACTION:** A world-action payload for downstream execution (includes tool calls).
- **DNA:** A raw DNA base sequence for genomic applications.
- **IMAGE:** A TetraMesh-encoded base sequence that decodes to a raster image.

Each realization receives a quality score that measures how well the output captures the underlying phenotype, computed from content length, format validity (e.g., valid JSON for the JSON mode), and the phenotype’s folding quality.

The Realization Bottleneck Is at the End, Not the Middle

In conventional multimodal architectures, different modalities require different encoders, different attention patterns, and different loss functions throughout the network. DOGMA inverts this: *all* modalities pass through the same genomic pipeline, and diversity appears only at the very last step. This design has two advantages. First, it amortizes the computational cost of regulation, transcription, and folding across all output modes. Second, it guarantees that all realizations share the same semantic grounding—they differ in *format*, not in *meaning*. A text realization and an image realization of the same phenotype are guaranteed to convey the same semantic content, much as mRNA and protein are different representations of the same gene.

7.15.8 Visual Overviews

This section provides three visual overviews of the DOGMA multimodal system: the full multimodal pipeline, a side-by-side comparison with traditional ML, and a TetraMesh encoding visualization.

Full Multimodal Pipeline

Figure 7.5 illustrates how image, video, and audio data all feed into the Central Dogma through the unified TetraMesh encoding.

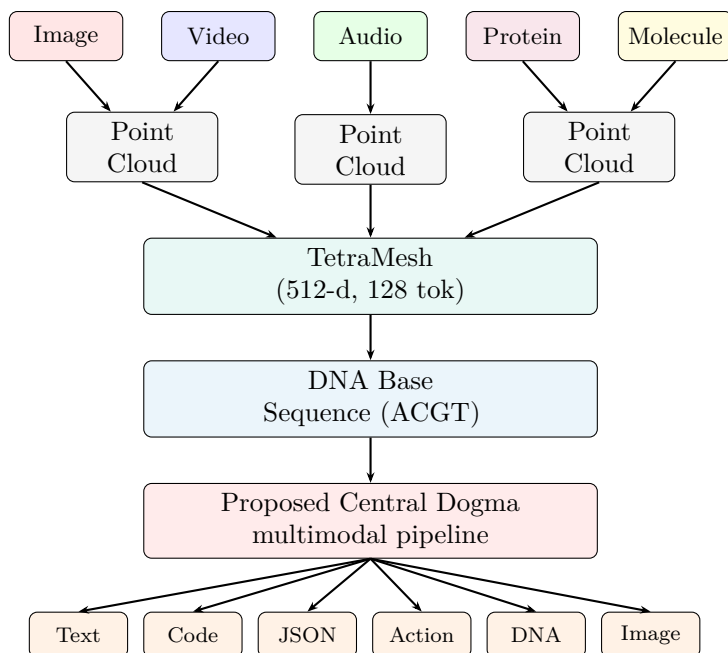


Figure 7.5: Hypothetical DOGMA multimodal pipeline. The diagram is a research specification; it is not an evaluated end-to-end system. Each conversion and realization requires an information-retention task and matched baseline.

Side-by-Side: Traditional ML vs. DOGMA

Figure 7.6 contrasts the conventional multi-encoder approach with DOGMA’s unified pipeline.

TetraMesh Encoding Visualization

Figure 7.7 shows a concrete example of how a simple 3D shape is converted to a DNA base sequence.

7.15.9 Use Cases for DOGMA Multimodal Intelligence

The unified encoding pipeline opens several application domains where DOGMA’s approach offers distinct advantages over modality-specific architectures.

Medical Imaging

Medical images—X-rays, CT scans, MRI volumes—are naturally 3D or quasi-3D data that benefit from DOGMA’s volumetric encoding:

- **CT scan analysis.** A CT volume (e.g., $512 \times 512 \times 128$ voxels) is directly represented as a 3D point cloud where voxel intensity maps to the z -coordinate at the voxel’s spatial position. The resulting TetraMesh captures anatomical structures as connected tetrahedral regions, with tissue boundaries appearing as natural mesh interfaces.
- **X-ray encoding.** A 2D X-ray is encoded using the image pipeline of Section 7.15.2. The depth (z) coordinate encodes radiographic density, so dense structures (bone) appear as high- z regions and soft tissue as low- z regions.

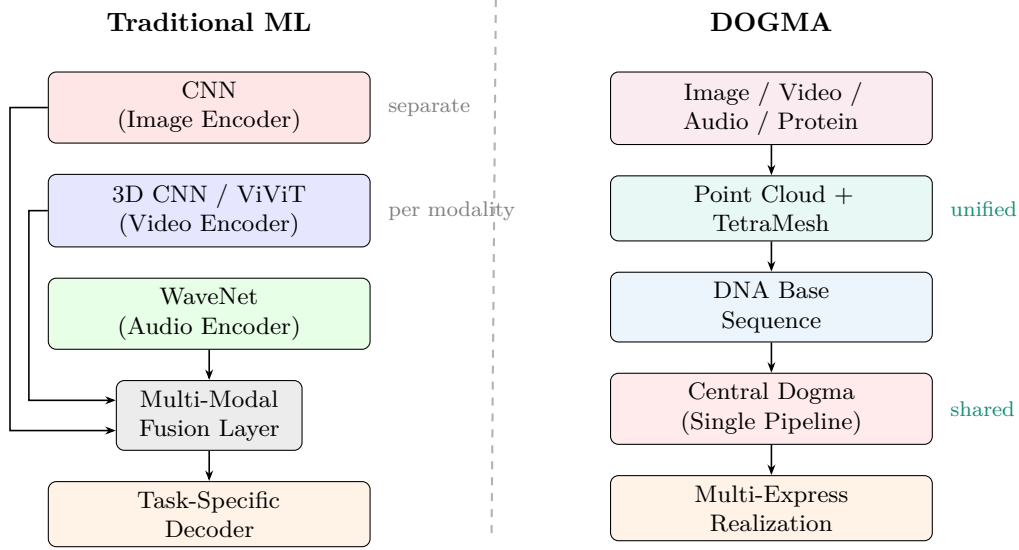


Figure 7.6: Traditional multimodal ML (left) requires separate encoders for each modality and a fusion layer to combine representations. DOGMA (right) uses a single unified pipeline: all modalities are converted to point clouds, tessellated into TetraMesh, encoded as DNA, and processed through one Central Dogma pipeline. The multi-express realization step produces outputs in any requested modality.

- **Diagnostic output.** The Central Dogma pipeline processes the encoded scan and realizes the phenotype in multiple modes simultaneously: a text diagnosis, a JSON-structured findings report, and an annotated image highlighting regions of concern.

Medical Imaging Configuration

For medical imaging applications, the TetraMesh is configured with `shape=shell` to match the layered structure of anatomical cross-sections. The importance sampling threshold is reduced ($\theta = 0.01$) to capture subtle density variations, and the number of sampled points is increased to $N = 8192$ for diagnostic-quality encoding. Epigenetic memory is preloaded with anatomical priors from a curated dataset of 10,000 normal scans.

Protein Structure Prediction

Protein structures are the original domain for TetraMesh encoding, and DOGMA offers a natural bridge between sequence and structure:

- **Structure to genome.** A protein’s 3D structure (alpha-carbon coordinates from PDB) is tetrahedralized, producing a DNA base sequence that encodes the spatial fold. This creates a “structural genome” that can be compared with the protein’s actual coding sequence.
- **Fold prediction.** Given a protein’s amino acid sequence (realized as a DNA coding sequence via the codon table), the Central Dogma pipeline predicts a structural genome. Decoding this structural genome through the TetraMesh reverse pipeline produces predicted 3D coordinates.
- **Mutation analysis.** Point mutations in the input sequence produce corresponding changes in the structural genome, enabling prediction of structural effects of mutations without explicit

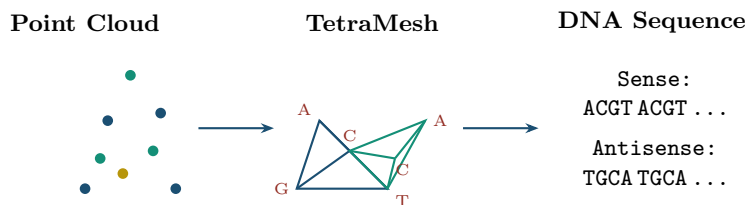


Figure 7.7: TetraMesh encoding visualization. A set of 3D points (left) is tessellated into tetrahedra with vertices labeled by DNA bases—A (apex), C (centroid-adjacent), G (ground-face), T (terminal) (center). The tetrahedra are traversed in double-helix order to produce sense and antisense DNA base sequences (right). The complementary strands maintain Watson–Crick pairing (A–T, C–G) throughout.

molecular dynamics simulation.

Autonomous Driving: Sensor Fusion

Autonomous vehicles integrate data from cameras (images), LiDAR (3D point clouds), radar (range-Doppler maps), and microphones (audio). DOGMA provides a natural sensor fusion framework:

- **Unified scene representation.** Camera images, LiDAR sweeps, and radar returns are each converted to TetraMesh encodings. Because all encodings share the same DNA base format, they can be concatenated into a single genome that represents the complete scene.
- **Temporal fusion.** Sequential sensor readings are linked via the temporal TetraMesh mechanism (Section 7.15.3), with epigenetic memory maintaining a persistent model of the driving environment across time steps.
- **Action realization.** The phenotype is realized in **action** mode to produce steering, acceleration, and braking commands, while simultaneously realizing in **text** mode for explainable decision logging.

Drug Discovery

Small molecule drug candidates are naturally represented as 3D atomic coordinates, making TetraMesh encoding particularly apt:

- **Molecular encoding.** A drug molecule’s 3D equilibrium geometry (from quantum chemistry calculations or experimental crystallography) is directly tetrahedralized. Atom types map to base annotations, and bond orders are captured by the tetrahedral connectivity.
- **Property prediction.** The Central Dogma processes the molecular genome and realizes predictions in JSON mode: binding affinity, solubility, toxicity, and metabolic stability as structured key–value pairs.
- **Generative chemistry.** By conditioning the Central Dogma on a target property profile (e.g., high binding affinity to a specific protein target), the DNA realization mode produces a molecular genome that can be decoded back to a 3D structure—a *de novo* drug candidate.

Multimodal Convergence Hypothesis

The proposed architecture uses *convergent encoding*, *divergent realization*: modalities map to a shared representation Γ , and output heads map a phenotype representation Φ to task formats. The analogy to biological genomes motivates the design but does not establish that one representation is sufficient or information-preserving across modalities.

7.16 DOGMA for Conversational AI

The codebase includes a `ChatSession` interface for testing sustained, multi-turn language generation. An interface is not a capability result. The native measured baseline still produces malformed prose. A separate ATCG-to-language bridge now passes a narrow four-probe evaluation, so this section documents both the mechanism and the strict boundary between those two results.

7.16.1 The ChatSession Architecture

The `ChatSession` class maintains a turn-based conversation with a trained DOGMA model. Its architecture is straightforward: a conversation history list stores alternating user and assistant messages, and each response is generated by constructing a prompt from the full history, tokenizing it as raw UTF-8 bytes, and generating autoregressively with top- k sampling.

The response loop follows five steps:

1. **Append** the user’s message to the conversation history.
2. **Enrich** (optionally) the input through the Central Dogma pipeline.
3. **Build** the full prompt from history in the format `USER: ... ASSISTANT: ... USER: ... ASSISTANT:`, truncated from the beginning to fit the model’s context window.
4. **Generate** byte by byte, applying temperature scaling and top- k filtering at each step. A streaming callback emits each decoded character in real time.
5. **Stop** when an end-of-sequence token is generated or a turn marker (`USER:`, `--`) appears in the output, preventing the model from hallucinating the next user turn.

Early Stopping on Turn Markers

A common failure mode in conversational language models is *turn bleeding*: the model continues generating past the end of its response and begins producing text for the user’s next turn. DOGMA prevents this by maintaining a list of stop markers (`USER:`, `--`, `\nUSER:`) and checking the decoded output after every token. When a stop marker is detected, generation halts immediately and the response is truncated to exclude the marker. This simple mechanism eliminates the need for a separate end-of-turn token in the vocabulary and works reliably even with byte-level tokenization, where turn boundaries do not align with token boundaries.

7.16.2 Central Dogma Context Enrichment

The most distinctive feature of DOGMA’s conversational mode is optional **Central Dogma enrichment**, toggled by the `/dogma` command. When enabled, each user message is processed through the full Central Dogma pipeline *before* being passed to the language model:

1. The user’s text is encoded into a genomic sequence via `CentralDogma.from_text()`, producing a genome Γ where the original text is encoded as typed genomic bases.
2. The genome is expressed through the full pipeline: regulation $\rightarrow$ transcription $\rightarrow$ folding $\rightarrow$ realization.
3. The execution trace—number of bases in the genome, number of bases expressed, and folding quality—is appended to the user’s message as a compact annotation:

What is the structure of insulin?

[DOGMA: bases=156 expressed=89 quality=0.73]

This enrichment serves two purposes. First, the trace statistics provide the language model with a *genomic fingerprint* of the query, encoding information about its complexity and structure that is not obvious from the surface text. Second, the regulation step selectively activates genomic regions relevant to the query, potentially priming the model to produce more contextually appropriate responses.

Genomic Fingerprinting Requires an Ablation

Trace statistics such as expressed-base fraction, folding score, and encoded length form a feature vector. They count as useful language features only if a held-out task improves over controls using ordinary length, lexical, and model features. Encoding text as a genome demonstrates representability, not understanding.

7.16.3 Realization Focus for Conversational Output

The conversational configuration introduces a critical corpus-level optimization: `realization_focus`. When this flag is set to `true`, the training corpus is modified to *truncate* DNA sequences and emphasize the semantic output—the natural language content that follows the genomic metadata.

Parameter	Multimodal	Conversational	Effect
<code>realization_focus</code>	<code>false</code>	<code>true</code>	Truncates DNA sequences to emphasize text
<code>max_dna_display</code>	—	40	Maximum DNA characters shown in corpus
<code>external_corpus_weight</code>	2.0	3.0	Higher weight on external (distilled) data
<code>temperature</code>	0.8	0.7	Lower temperature for more focused output
<code>checkpoint_interval</code>	1,000	500	More frequent checkpoints for chat tuning
<code>smoothing</code>	—	0.1	Label smoothing for conversational robustness

The rationale is straightforward: a conversational model must prioritize fluent, coherent language generation over genomic fidelity. The genomic substrate remains the computational engine, but the model’s capacity should be allocated to the realization layer—the part the user actually sees. The `max_dna_display` parameter limits DNA sequences to 40 characters in the training corpus, ensuring the model spends most of its context window on natural language patterns.

The conversational configuration also includes **distilled data** from a separate `datasets/distilled` directory, weighted at 3× the genomic corpus. This distilled data consists of high-quality conversational examples that have been filtered and refined through a teacher model, providing the chat-specific patterns (greetings, question-answering, multi-turn coherence) that raw genomic data cannot supply.

7.16.4 Measured ATCG-to-Language Bridge

The July 2026 experiments introduced an explicit boundary between genomic representation and natural-language realization:

$$q \xrightarrow{C_{\text{boot}}} (g, t) \xrightarrow{R_\phi} \hat{y},$$

where q is the request, C_{boot} is a deterministic bootstrap compiler, $g \in \{A, T, C, G\}^{64}$ is a canonical trace, t is a compact auditable transcript, and R_ϕ is a learned realization model. This decomposition is useful because a failure can be assigned to a stage. It is also scientifically dangerous if the stages are conflated: success by R_ϕ does not prove that a native DOGMA generator produced g .

Bootstrap Compiler

The compiler normalizes the request to printable ASCII, keeps a 16-character semantic plan, pads it to fixed width, and encodes each byte as four bases using

$$00 \mapsto A, \quad 01 \mapsto C, \quad 10 \mapsto G, \quad 11 \mapsto T.$$

It then enforces a start marker **ATGATG** and a terminal marker **TAATAAAT**, yielding exactly 64 canonical bases. The transcript retains up to 28 normalized characters so a human can audit what was passed to the realizer.

This compiler is deterministic. It demonstrates a stable ATCG-first interface, not learned genomic semantics. A learned native compiler must eventually replace it and outperform controls before the genomic bottleneck can be called useful.

Distillation and Realization

The training corpus contains 96 instruction records spanning genomic explanation, scientific reasoning, critique, general language, and DOGMA research contracts. Answers were distilled from **Qwen3-4B-Instruct-2507**. A LoRA adapter on **Qwen3-0.6B** learned the realization contract over four epochs and 48 optimizer updates; recorded training loss fell from about 2.0 to 0.32. The adapter occupies approximately 50 MB.

The teacher and student are transformers. Therefore the measured claim is precise: *a compact transformer adapter can realize useful prose when conditioned on a request and a canonical ATCG trace*. The experiment does not show that non-transformer DOGMA alone has acquired language.

Held-Out Contract Probes

The frozen `dogma-genomic-language-v3` suite contains four transfer probes that are excluded from adapter training. All four passed in the retained evaluation:

Table 7.7: Measured ATCG-to-language bridge probes, July 2026.

Probe	Required behavior	Observed gate
Canonical trace	64 canonical bases followed by an explanation	passed
Central dogma	Name DNA, an RNA intermediate, and protein flow	passed
Self-critique	State a limitation and a falsifiable test	passed
General language	Distinguish a hypothesis from observed evidence	passed

The evaluator also required four distinct answers, printable output, no replacement characters, and the genome to precede the transcript and answer. This is stronger than checking a regular expression, but still only a smoke suite.

What the Bridge Does Not Establish

Four probes are not a language benchmark. The deterministic trace may be ignored by the realizer, the 96-example corpus is small, and no matched request-only control has yet measured the trace’s causal contribution. The next required experiment removes or shuffles g and t while keeping the request, model, seed, and compute fixed. DOGMA earns a representational claim only if the intact trace improves held-out performance.

7.16.5 Streaming Generation

Real-time streaming is essential for conversational AI. DOGMA implements streaming through an incremental decode loop: after each token is sampled from the model, the full sequence of generated tokens is decoded to UTF-8, and any newly decoded characters are emitted through a callback function. This approach handles the complication that UTF-8 is a variable-width encoding—a single character may span multiple bytes, and a byte token may not correspond to a complete character until subsequent bytes arrive.

The streaming loop also handles inference optimizations:

- **Float16 on CUDA:** The model is converted to half-precision for approximately $2\times$ speedup on GPU.
- **torch.compile:** On PyTorch 2.0+ with CUDA, the model is compiled for fused kernel execution.
- **Context truncation:** The prompt is truncated to `context_length - 32` bytes, reserving space for generation without exceeding the model’s positional encoding range.

Key Takeaways

The conversational interface combines realization-focused sampling, optional Central Dogma trace features, and distilled conversational data. The current evidence establishes that this path runs, not that it produces strong dialogue. Evaluation must separately measure UTF-8 validity, instruction following, biological correctness, context retention, latency, and the incremental value of enrichment.

7.17 Exercises

- 13.1. **[Fundamentals: FASTA parsing]** Write a function that reads a FASTA file and returns a list of (header, sequence) pairs. Handle multi-line sequences correctly. Test it on a file containing three records with sequences of different lengths. What edge cases must your parser handle?
- 13.2. **[Fundamentals: Tokenization]** Apply BPE tokenization (with a vocabulary of 1,000 tokens trained on English text) to the DNA sequence ATGATGATGATGATG. How many tokens result? Now apply byte-level tokenization to the same sequence. Compare the two representations in terms of: (a) number of tokens, (b) preservation of codon boundaries, and (c) consistency across different occurrences of the same codon.
- 13.3. **[Analysis: Bigrams]** Given the bigram transition matrix for a genomic corpus where $P(G | C) = 0.18$ while the marginal $P(G) = 0.25$, compute the CpG suppression ratio $P(CG)/(P(C) \cdot P(G))$. What biological mechanism explains a ratio less than 1.0? How would this ratio differ between vertebrate and bacterial genomes?
- 13.4. **[Analysis: Tokenization comparison]** Tokenize the sequence ATGAAAGCCTTTGGA using (a) byte-level, (b) 3-mer non-overlapping (codon), and (c) 6-mer overlapping. For each method, count the number of tokens produced and determine whether the start codon ATG is preserved as a single unit. Discuss the trade-offs.
- 13.5. **[Design: Curriculum]** Design a curriculum for training a genomic foundation model on viral genomes specifically. How would your curriculum stages differ from the four-stage curriculum in Section 7.7.3? Consider the unique properties of viral genomes: small size, overlapping reading frames, high mutation rates, and host-dependent codon usage.
- 13.6. **[Implementation]** Implement a bigram model over the DNA alphabet {A, T, C, G} using only Python's standard library. Train it on a 10,000-nucleotide sequence sampled from any publicly available genome. Report: (a) the 4×4 transition matrix, (b) the per-character cross-entropy in bits, (c) a 100-nucleotide sequence generated by sampling from the model. Compare the generated sequence's GC content to the training data.
- 13.7. **[Implementation: CodonForge]** Write a simplified CodonForge tokenizer that: (a) detects whether a line is a FASTA header or sequence data, (b) tokenizes headers as bytes, (c) tokenizes coding sequences as codons (assuming frame offset 0), and (d) wraps each modality with appropriate boundary tokens. Test on a FASTA file containing both coding and non-coding sequences.
- 13.8. **[Theory: Dual-stream]** In the dual-stream architecture (Equation 7.11), the helix stream operates at motif granularity (width $k = 6$) while the standard stream operates at byte

granularity. Derive the sequence length relationship: if the standard stream has T positions, how many positions does the helix stream have? What are the implications for cross-attention alignment between the two streams?

- 13.9. [Theory: TetraMemory]** The TetraMemory system (Section 7.11) operates at four scales with different resolutions. Calculate the total memory capacity in nucleotides across all four scales. If a model processes a 1Mb (1,000,000 nt) sequence, what fraction of the sequence can be stored in TetraMemory at each scale? What information must be discarded, and what write policy would you use?
- 13.10. [Research]** The cross-modal training loss (Equation 7.16) includes a translation loss $\mathcal{L}_{\text{trans}}$ that mimics biological translation (DNA $\rightarrow$ protein). Propose an additional loss term that would encode *gene regulation*—the context-dependent activation of genes. How would you represent regulatory signals (promoters, enhancers, transcription factor binding sites) in the training data? How would this loss interact with the evolutionary training loop of Chapter 6?
- 13.11. [Research: Evaluation]** The benchmarks in Table 7.4 focus on individual genomic tasks. Propose a *holistic* evaluation framework that tests a model’s understanding of the Central Dogma as a complete pipeline: from DNA to RNA to protein to function. What tasks would your benchmark include? How would you measure whether a model truly understands the flow of genetic information versus merely memorizing sequence patterns?
- 13.12. [Challenge: RC Consistency]** Prove that if a model achieves zero RC consistency loss (Equation 7.13) on all training sequences, its representations must be invariant to strand orientation. Does this imply the model cannot distinguish the two strands? If not, how can strand-specific information be preserved while maintaining consistency? *Hint:* Consider what information is in the pooled representation $\mathbf{z}$ versus the per-position representations $\mathbf{h}^{(t)}$.

7.18 Key Takeaways

Key Takeaways

- Genomic data is stored in FASTA format, which is inherently multimodal: natural language headers describe nucleotide or protein sequences. A foundation model trained on raw FASTA learns both modalities simultaneously.
- Subword tokenizers (BPE, SentencePiece) fail on genomic data because DNA has uniform character frequencies, no whitespace delimiters, and biologically meaningful reading frames that frequency-based merges destroy.
- Three tokenization strategies—BPE, k -mer, and codon-based—each have distinct trade-offs. DOGMA’s CodonForge tokenizer unifies all three through a 328-token vocabulary that adapts its strategy to the input modality.
- Byte-level tokenization provides a universal, modality-agnostic fallback: each byte is a token, requiring no learned merge rules and preserving nucleotide-level positional granularity.
- The bigram baseline (zero dependencies, 4×4 transition matrix) reveals dinucleotide biases in genomic data and provides a diagnostic benchmark: the bigram–transformer perplexity gap quantifies long-range structure.
- Pre-training uses two complementary objectives: masked language modeling (MLM) learns bidirectional context for filling in missing nucleotides, while next-token prediction (NTP) learns sequential dependencies and codon usage patterns.
- Curriculum learning progresses through four stages—synthetic sequences, single genes, multi-gene regions, and chromosomal segments—with adaptive stage transitions triggered by loss thresholds rather than fixed step counts.
- The training data pipeline transforms raw GenBank entries through preprocessing, structured rendering, curriculum assignment, and curriculum-aware batching.
- Helix-aware training is a hypothesis using reverse-complement consistency and motif features; the measured baseline has not established a downstream gain.
- Multi-scale TetraMemory proposes hierarchical local memory; length extrapolation remains to be tested against matched recurrent and convolutional baselines.
- Alignment and translation losses are proposed machine-learning objectives, not evidence that a model reconstructs the biological central dogma.
- The earlier 224.7M efficiency and downstream benchmark claims are withdrawn pending matched, reproducible evaluation.
- Staged transfer, TetraMesh multimodality, multiple realization modes, and conversational adaptation remain design studies. The measured hybrid bridge is reported separately from the 29.83M native candidate rejected through cycle 33.

Suggested Reading

- [Sennrich et al. \[2016\]](#): Byte Pair Encoding—the subword tokenization method whose limitations on genomic data motivate byte-level approaches.
- [Ji et al. \[2021a\]](#): DNABERT—a BERT-based model for DNA sequences using k -mer tokenization, an alternative to byte-level approaches.
- [Dalla-Torre et al. \[2024\]](#): The Nucleotide Transformer—large-scale foundation models for genomics, demonstrating the scaling potential of genomic language models.
- [Devlin et al. \[2019\]](#): BERT—the masked language modeling objective that inspires MLM-based genomic pretraining.
- [Bengio et al. \[2009\]](#): Curriculum learning—the theoretical foundation for staged training from simple to complex examples.
- Chapter 5 of this book: CodonForge tokenization and the DNA compiler that the unified vocabulary builds upon.
- Chapter 2 of this book: HelixHash motif embeddings and the dual-stream architecture that helix-aware models build upon.
- Chapter 4 of this book: TetraData rendering pipelines, TetraMemory, and the structured formats used for curriculum construction.
- Chapter 6 of this book: the evolutionary training loop that optimizes prompts for genomic foundation models.
- Chapter 8 of this book: the measured small baseline, its generation failure, and the evaluation program required before scaling claims.

Chapter 8

The Measured DOGMA Baseline

A disappointing measurement is more valuable than an impressive number without provenance.

— DOGMA Evaluation Note

This chapter is the empirical boundary of the book. Earlier editions described a 224.7-million-parameter “DOGMA-Supreme” design and benchmark table as if they were a completed validation. That standard was not met. The material is retained in the companion design studies as a research proposal, but it is not reported here as an achieved result.

The measured baseline available on 27 July 2026 is a **29,830,396-parameter** non-transformer byte-level model. It is useful because it exposes a central failure: lower held-out perplexity did not reliably produce readable free generation. That observation changed the training algorithm and evaluation contract.

Evidence Status

The values in this chapter come from versioned training artifacts and scheduler state. They are an engineering snapshot, not a peer-reviewed benchmark. The current model has not demonstrated AGI, broad biological reasoning, or superiority to transformer, state-space, or genomic foundation-model baselines.

8.1 Implemented Architecture

The baseline configuration is:

Table 8.1: Canonical measured DOGMA baseline configuration.

Property	Value	Interpretation
Model kind	<code>dogmaforge</code>	Native Evolutor/DOGMA implementation
Parameters	29,830,396	Exact count recorded by the trainer
Vocabulary	257 byte symbols	UTF-8 bytes plus end-of-sequence
Context length	512 bytes	Short-context research baseline
Embedding dimension	256	Hidden representation width
DOGMA blocks	8	Repeated local computation pipeline
Dropout	0.10	Subject to bounded descendant mutation
Training steps	1,200 root; at most 600 resumed	Small scheduled cycles
Self-attention	absent	Rejected by architecture audit
Transformer layers	0	Rejected by architecture audit

Each block uses an overlapping local TetraMemory representation, a DNA-compute path, a RegulationGate, and a causal transcript mixer. Optional research features include parallel-scan recurrence, bounded epigenetic memory, and sparse allosteric routing. A configuration cannot be called canonical DOGMA if it enables DNA-strand attention, self-attention, or transformer layers.

These names indicate engineering analogies. For example, RegulationGate is a learned software gate; it is not gene regulation occurring in a cell.

8.2 Data Snapshot

The earlier scheduled corpus was unexpectedly small: approximately 44,439 training bytes, 58,063 validation bytes, and 19,792 test bytes in the recorded manifest. The uneven split sizes arose from document-level construction and byte caps rather than a conventional large-corpus benchmark. Three cached reference-genome records provided real sequence anchors; generated architecture text and instruction material supplied most explanatory language.

This is enough for a software smoke test, not enough for claims about general genomic understanding. The revised corpus contract:

1. adds versioned external teaching and distilled corpora;
2. labels reference-genome segments separately from derived or synthetic material;
3. reserves at least 65% of sampling mass for real anchors;
4. preserves a higher real-anchor share when already present; and
5. records exact train/evaluation hash overlap.

Future genomic evaluation must use species-aware or homology-aware splits. Otherwise, highly related sequences can leak across exact document boundaries.

8.3 What the Cycles Measured

Table 8.2 records four early descendants and three recent larger candidates. Lower perplexity is better. “Readable generation” is a qualitative audit of the stored sample under the earlier evaluation protocol; it is not a standardized language score.

Table 8.2: Selected scheduler cycles, including the v2 recursive gate.

Cycle	Valid PPL	Test PPL	Promoted?	Observed free generation
6	2.7367	1.4083	yes	Structured DNA-like runs and fragments, but weak prose
11	2.7875	1.3867	no	Included invalid or binary-looking output
13	2.7359	1.3931	no	Some structured DNA; explanatory text remained poor
14	2.6759	1.3791	no	Lower perplexity, but unreadable generation and no qualifying selected checkpoint
31	2.4183	1.1181	no	Malformed genomic syntax, no qualifying answer fields, and nearly prompt-invariant fragments
32	2.4841	1.1340	no	Faster local step; slightly worse likelihood and the same complete generation-gate failure
33	2.4947	1.1451	no	Evidence-directed 160-to-80-base trace mutation; likelihood regressed and every generation gate still failed

Cycle 6 remained live under the older, smaller architecture because later candidates did not satisfy the complete promotion path. Cycle 31 is not directly comparable to those early runs: it has a larger configuration and a new ATCG-first evaluation contract. Its substantially lower likelihood numbers still did not rescue free generation. Across seeds 17 and 29, all four prompts failed the canonical trace, explanation, critique, general-language, and answer-diversity gates. Cycle 32 tested a faster local learning step and failed the same gates while slightly worsening likelihood. Cycle 33 then used that failure profile to shorten the supervised genomic trace from 160 to 80 bases. This controlled repair attempt also failed every generation gate and slightly worsened likelihood. None of the three candidates was promoted.

8.4 A Separate Hybrid Result

The native failure motivated a staged experiment rather than a false promotion. A deterministic compiler first emits a 64-base ATCG trace and a short transcript; a LoRA adapter on a 0.6B transformer then realizes natural language. The adapter was distilled from a 4B instruction model using 96 records and passed all four held-out `dogma-genomic-language-v3` probes.

This result is reported as a *hybrid bridge*, not as native DOGMA language ability. The native 29.83M candidate remains rejected. Chapter 7, Section 7.16.4, gives the construction, observed answers, and required ablation.

8.5 Why Perplexity and Generation Disagreed

Teacher forcing evaluates

$$p_{\theta}(x_t \mid x_{<t})$$

on a true prefix. Free generation evaluates the model on prefixes containing its own sampled outputs. A small local error can move sampling onto a prefix that never appeared in training; subsequent errors compound. This difference is a form of exposure bias.

The byte-level vocabulary makes the failure especially visible. Every byte is a legal class, including bytes that do not form printable UTF-8 text. A model can assign good probability to held-out bytes while still sampling broken text. Genomic runs are easier because the desired alphabet has only four visible symbols.

Other plausible contributors are:

- a corpus too small and heterogeneous for stable prose;
- validation and test splits with different composition;
- a short context window;
- sampling temperature and top- k sensitivity;
- over-weighted repetitive genomic patterns; and
- an earlier gate that searched only for a canonical DNA regex.

These are hypotheses to test, not excuses. The correct response is to isolate variables and strengthen evaluation.

8.6 The v2 Correction

The next training cycles use the protocol from Chapter 6. The main corrections are:

1. **Separate capabilities.** DNA syntax, readable explanation, and self-critique are scored independently.
2. **Repeat generation.** Every smoke probe runs under seeds 17 and 29.
3. **Bind metrics to a checkpoint.** Promotion creates `selected_model.pt` pointing to the exact evaluated file.
4. **Use a two-level search.** A behavior archive retains diverse stepping stones; a strict objective and hard gates control live promotion.
5. **Mutate one variable.** A descendant changes only one bounded scalar unless it is a separately declared architecture experiment.
6. **Protect data provenance.** Real anchors keep at least 65% of sampling mass, and exact split overlap must be zero.

The revised objective adds explicit penalties to held-out perplexity:

$$J = P_{\text{test}} + 0.25P_{\text{valid}} + 1.0I_D + 1.5I_E + 1.0I_C + 1.0I_N,$$

where $I_D, I_E, I_C, I_N \in \{0, 1\}$ indicate failures of DNA, explanation, critique, and general-language probes. The implementation also requires prompt-conditioned answer diversity. Every hard gate must pass for promotion.

8.7 Evaluation Program

A credible DOGMA result must graduate through four tiers.

8.7.1 Tier 1: Software Correctness

Unit tests verify shapes, causality, checkpoint loading, deterministic seeds, architecture audits, archive replacement, and data-mixture constraints. Property tests should cover reverse complement handling and finite gradients.

8.7.2 Tier 2: Controlled Sequence Tasks

Synthetic tasks isolate mechanism:

- delayed copy and selective recall;
- motif detection under position shift;
- finite-state languages;
- reverse, complement, and reverse-complement transforms;
- length extrapolation beyond the training range.

These tasks can reveal whether local memory and recurrence actually transmit information. They do not establish biological usefulness.

8.7.3 Tier 3: Genomic Benchmarks

Use frozen tasks with documented licenses and biological splits: promoter or enhancer prediction, splice-site recognition, species classification, variant-effect prediction, and long-range regulatory tasks. Report AUROC, AUPRC, calibration, confidence intervals, throughput, memory, and all preprocessing. Compare with matched-capacity convolutional, recurrent, DNABERT-2, HyenaDNA, Caduceus, and Mamba-style baselines [Ji et al., 2021b, Poli et al., 2023, Gu and Dao, 2023].

8.7.4 Tier 4: Recursive-Learning Evidence

Measure improvement across lineages rather than one checkpoint:

- promotion rate and false-promotion rate;
- retained performance on old tasks;
- archive coverage and diversity;

- improvement per accelerator-hour;
- sensitivity to mutation schedule and random seed;
- synthetic-data fraction and tail retention.

Only after these tiers should the project discuss increasingly general capability. “AGI” is not a benchmark label for a genomic sequence model.

8.8 Near-Term Experiments

The highest-value next experiments are not simply larger models.

1. **Diagnose byte generation.** Compare byte vocabulary with a constrained UTF-8/text head and a four-base genomic head.
2. **Matched architecture ablation.** Remove TetraMemory, recurrence, and regulation one at a time at constant parameter count.
3. **Long-range tests.** Train on lengths up to 256 and evaluate at 512, 1024, and 2048 where the implementation permits.
4. **Archive study.** Compare the quality-diversity archive with a single best-so-far lineage using equal training cycles.
5. **Data study.** Vary real-anchor sampling among 65%, 80%, and 95%, measuring both genomic tasks and explanation quality.
6. **Baseline study.** Match parameters and training bytes against a causal convolutional model, GRU, small Mamba-style model, and transformer.

8.9 Exercises

- 14.1. Compute the percentage change in test perplexity from cycle 6 to cycle 14. Why is that not sufficient evidence to promote cycle 14?
- 14.2. The validation perplexity is higher than test perplexity in every row. Give three data-split explanations and an experiment to distinguish them.
- 14.3. Design a printable UTF-8 validity metric that does not reward empty or repetitive output.
- 14.4. Write a matched-compute comparison protocol for DOGMA and a GRU.
- 14.5. Explain why reverse-complement augmentation can improve invariance but can also leak information if applied before splitting.
- 14.6. Propose confidence intervals for a promoter-classification experiment with organism-level grouping.
- 14.7. Design an ablation that tests whether RegulationGate contributes beyond adding an equal number of ordinary parameters.
- 14.8. Specify evidence that would falsify the hypothesis that TetraMemory helps length extrapolation.

8.10 Key Takeaways

Key Takeaways

- The current native DOGMA candidate has 29,830,396 parameters, not 224.7M.
- It is a non-transformer research model, not AGI and not a demonstrated replacement for established genomic architectures.
- Later cycles lowered perplexity without producing reliably readable text; this exposed a weakness in the former promotion gate.
- A separate ATCG-to-language hybrid passed four held-out probes, but its transformer realizer does not establish native DOGMA language ability.
- The v2 loop binds evaluation to exact checkpoints, separates three generation capabilities, repeats seeds, protects real-data anchors, and archives diverse stepping stones.
- The next scientific milestone is a matched, contamination-aware evaluation program, not a larger unsupported claim.

Suggested Reading

- [Gu and Dao \[2023\]](#) for selective state-space sequence modeling.
- [Poli et al. \[2023\]](#) for long-range genomic sequence modeling.
- [Mouret and Clune \[2015\]](#) for quality-diversity archives.
- [Shumailov et al. \[2024\]](#) for recursive synthetic-data risks.

Part III

Toward AGI

Chapter 9

Scaling Laws and Post-Transformer Architectures

There is no reason why intelligence should be proportional to model size. Efficiency is a form of intelligence.

— DOGMA Design Manifesto

The dominant paradigm in AI since 2020 has been simple: *make the model bigger*. Scaling laws revealed smooth power-law relationships between model size, training compute, dataset size, and loss. These laws enabled precise predictions of model capability and drove the largest engineering projects in AI history—GPT-4, Gemini, Claude, and their successors consumed hundreds of millions of dollars in compute.

But scaling alone cannot be the complete story. Quadratic attention costs, energy consumption, and the diminishing returns of brute-force scaling create pressure for *architectural innovation*—new ways of organizing computation that achieve better capability per parameter. This chapter examines the scaling paradigm in detail, surveys the emerging post-transformer landscape (state space models, linear attention, mixture-of-experts), and situates DOGMA within this evolving ecosystem. We will see that DOGMA’s biology-inspired structure offers a fundamentally different scaling axis: one that draws on the organizational principles that allowed biological genomes to scale from bacteria ($\sim 10^6$ bases) to humans ($\sim 3 \times 10^9$ bases) without quadratic complexity.

9.1 Neural Scaling Laws

The empirical discovery of neural scaling laws transformed AI research from art into something closer to engineering. Before scaling laws, predicting the performance of a model at a given size was guesswork. After scaling laws, it became a calculation.

9.1.1 The Kaplan Scaling Laws

Kaplan et al. [2020a] established that cross-entropy loss L on language modeling follows power-law scaling across three independent dimensions:

$$L(N) = \left(\frac{N_c}{N}\right)^{\alpha_N}, \quad L(D) = \left(\frac{D_c}{D}\right)^{\alpha_D}, \quad L(C) = \left(\frac{C_c}{C}\right)^{\alpha_C}, \quad (9.1)$$

where the variables are defined as follows:

- N is the number of non-embedding parameters in the model.
- D is the number of training tokens (dataset size).
- C is the total compute budget measured in FLOPs.
- N_c, D_c, C_c are critical constants that depend on the architecture and data distribution.
- $\alpha_N \approx 0.076, \alpha_D \approx 0.095, \alpha_C \approx 0.050$ are empirically determined exponents.

Example 9.1 (Reading the Scaling Exponents). Consider the parameter scaling law $L(N) = (N_c/N)^{0.076}$. Suppose we double the model size from N to $2N$. The new loss is:

$$L(2N) = \left(\frac{N_c}{2N}\right)^{0.076} = \frac{1}{2^{0.076}} \cdot L(N) \approx 0.949 \cdot L(N).$$

Doubling model size reduces loss by approximately 5.1%. This seemingly modest improvement compounds: a $100\times$ increase in parameters yields $L(100N) \approx 0.71 \cdot L(N)$, a 29% reduction. The power-law form means we never reach zero loss—each increment of capability costs exponentially more resources.

The key finding of [Kaplan et al. \[2020a\]](#) was that these power laws are *smooth and predictable*. There are no sudden jumps or plateaus within an architecture family. This predictability enabled organizations to plan multi-hundred-million-dollar training runs with reasonable confidence in the outcome.

9.1.2 The Chinchilla Correction

[Hoffmann et al. \[2022a\]](#) revisited the Kaplan scaling laws and arrived at a different conclusion about the optimal allocation of a fixed compute budget C between model size N and dataset size D . Where Kaplan et al. recommended scaling parameters faster than data, the Chinchilla analysis found that *model size and data should be scaled in roughly equal proportion*:

$$N_{\text{opt}} \propto C^a, \quad D_{\text{opt}} \propto C^b, \quad \text{with } a \approx b \approx 0.5. \quad (9.2)$$

Definition 9.1 (Compute-Optimal Training). A model is *compute-optimal* if, for a given compute budget C , the model size N and dataset size D are chosen to minimize the loss $L(N, D)$ subject to the constraint $C \approx 6ND$ (the approximate FLOP cost of a single training epoch on D tokens with an N -parameter model).

The practical implication was dramatic. Many existing models—including the original Chinchilla paper’s comparison target, Gopher (280B parameters)—were *over-parameterized and under-trained*. A smaller model trained on more data (Chinchilla, 70B parameters) achieved the same or better performance at lower inference cost.

Table 9.1: Comparison of Kaplan vs. Chinchilla scaling recommendations.

Aspect	Kaplan et al. (2020)	Chinchilla (2022)
Optimal N scaling	$N \propto C^{0.73}$	$N \propto C^{0.50}$
Optimal D scaling	$D \propto C^{0.27}$	$D \propto C^{0.50}$
Key insight	Scale parameters aggressively	Scale parameters and data equally
Practical impact	Very large, undertrained models	Smaller, better-trained models

9.1.3 Visualizing Scaling Laws

The power-law relationships of Equation 9.1 become linear on log-log axes, which is why log-log plots are the standard visualization for scaling behavior.

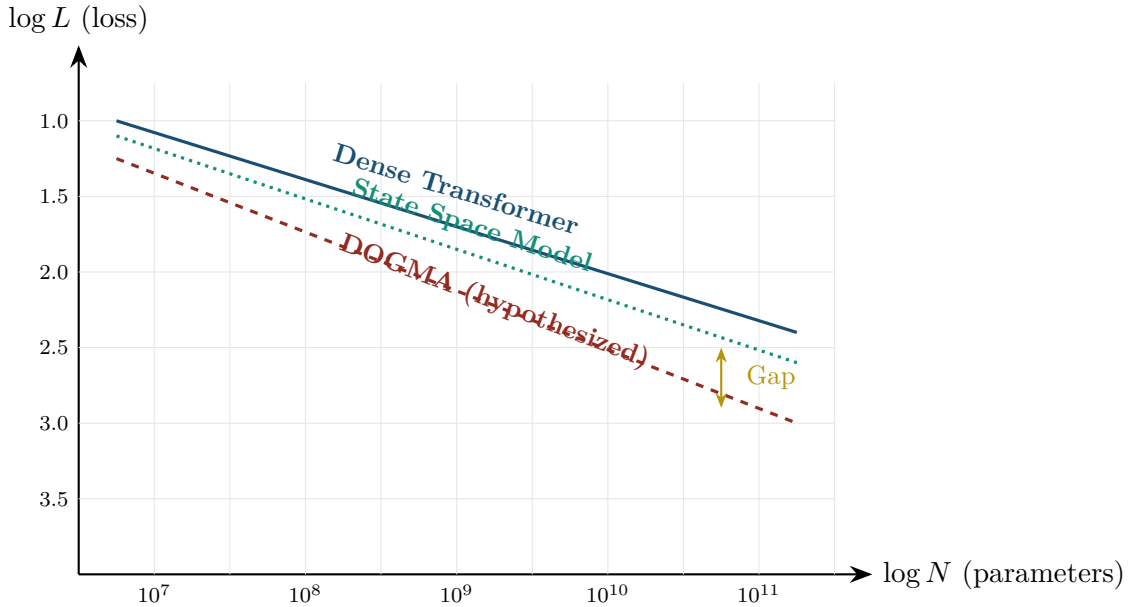


Figure 9.1: Schematic log-log scaling plot. Dense transformers (solid blue) follow established power-law scaling. State space models (dotted teal) show competitive scaling with lower per-token cost. DOGMA (dashed red) is hypothesized to achieve better loss-per-parameter through biological structural priors. The gold arrow indicates the scaling efficiency gap at large model sizes.

9.1.4 Emergent Abilities

Wei et al. [2022a] documented *emergent abilities*: capabilities that appear suddenly as models cross certain size thresholds. In-context learning, chain-of-thought reasoning, and instruction following all emerge at specific scale points—typically between 10^{10} and 10^{11} parameters.

Definition 9.2 (Emergent Ability). An ability is *emergent* if it is not present in smaller models but appears in larger models. Formally, let $\mathcal{A}(N)$ denote the performance of a model of size N on a specific task. The ability is emergent if $\mathcal{A}(N) \approx 0$ for $N < N^*$ and $\mathcal{A}(N) > \delta$ for $N > N^*$, where N^* is the emergence threshold and δ is a meaningful performance level.

Whether these abilities are truly discontinuous or merely appear so due to evaluation metrics remains debated [Schaeffer et al., 2023a]. What is clear is that scale enables qualitatively different behaviors—and that architectural innovations (like DOGMA’s structured genome) might enable similar capabilities at smaller scale by providing the structural scaffolding that dense models must discover from data alone.

Scaling Laws and Architecture

Scaling laws hold *within an architecture family*. Changing the architecture changes the scaling exponents and constants—the slopes and intercepts of the log-log lines in Figure 9.1. DOGMA’s thesis is that biology-inspired structured architectures may achieve better scaling—higher capability per parameter—by introducing inductive biases that reduce the amount of structure the model must learn from data alone.

9.2 The Limits of Dense Scaling

Despite the impressive trajectory of scaling, several fundamental factors limit the indefinite scaling of dense transformer models. Understanding these limits is essential for appreciating why architectural innovation—not just bigger models—is the path forward.

9.2.1 Quadratic Attention Cost

Self-attention scales as $O(T^2)$ in sequence length T , where T is the number of tokens in the input. For a single attention head with query, key, and value matrices $\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{K}, \mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times d}$:

$$\text{Attention}(\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{K}, \mathbf{V}) = \text{softmax}\left(\frac{\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{K}^\top}{\sqrt{d}}\right) \mathbf{V}, \quad (9.3)$$

the matrix product $\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{K}^\top$ requires $O(T^2d)$ operations and $O(T^2)$ memory. This creates a hard wall for long-context applications:

Example 9.2 (The Quadratic Wall). Consider processing a human genome ($T \approx 3 \times 10^9$ base pairs) with standard attention:

- The attention matrix would have $(3 \times 10^9)^2 = 9 \times 10^{18}$ entries.
- At 2 bytes per entry (FP16), this requires **18 exabytes** of memory—more than the total global DRAM production in a year.
- Even for a modest context window of $T = 10^6$ tokens, the attention matrix requires 2 terabytes.

The quadratic wall is not merely an inconvenience; it is a fundamental barrier to processing the long sequences that many real-world tasks demand.

9.2.2 Energy and Environmental Cost

Training a frontier model consumes enormous energy. The training of GPT-4 is estimated to have required on the order of 10^{25} FLOPs, consuming megawatt-hours of electricity over several months. Each successive generation of frontier models approximately doubles or triples the energy requirement while yielding progressively smaller loss improvements (because the power-law exponent $\alpha_C \approx 0.05$ is small).

9.2.3 Data Exhaustion

High-quality text data is finite. Models are approaching the boundary of available internet text. Villalobos et al. [2022] estimated that high-quality language data may be exhausted by 2026–2028 at current training scales. While synthetic data generation offers a partial solution, it introduces risks of model collapse—where models trained on their own outputs degrade in quality over generations.

9.2.4 Capability Plateaus

Certain capabilities have not shown the same smooth scaling as perplexity:

- **Robust reasoning:** Multi-step logical and mathematical reasoning improves with scale but remains fragile, especially on out-of-distribution problems.
- **Planning:** Long-horizon planning and goal-directed behavior remain weak even in the largest models.
- **Self-correction:** Models struggle to identify and correct their own errors without external scaffolding.
- **Persistent learning:** No amount of scaling gives a transformer persistent memory across sessions.

These plateaus suggest that some capabilities require not just more computation but *different computation*—architectural structures that provide the right inductive biases for reasoning, planning, and learning.

Remark 9.1. The limits of dense scaling do not imply that scaling is useless. Scaling has been the single most productive research strategy of the past five years. The point is that scaling alone is *insufficient*—it must be complemented by architectural innovation to overcome the barriers enumerated above.

9.3 State Space Models: From S4 to Mamba

State space models (SSMs) represent the most significant challenge to the transformer’s dominance. They process sequences in $O(T)$ time by modeling sequence dependencies as linear dynamical systems, achieving competitive performance with transformers on many benchmarks while avoiding the quadratic attention bottleneck.

9.3.1 The Continuous-Time State Space

An SSM maps an input sequence $u(t) \in \mathbb{R}$ to an output sequence $y(t) \in \mathbb{R}$ through a latent state $x(t) \in \mathbb{R}^n$:

$$\dot{x}(t) = \mathbf{A}x(t) + \mathbf{B}u(t), \quad y(t) = \mathbf{C}x(t) + Du(t), \quad (9.4)$$

where $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is the state transition matrix, $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$ is the input matrix, $\mathbf{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times n}$ is the output matrix, and $D \in \mathbb{R}$ is a feedthrough scalar. To process discrete sequences (as in language modeling), we discretize using a step size Δ :

$$\bar{\mathbf{A}} = \exp(\Delta\mathbf{A}), \quad \bar{\mathbf{B}} = (\Delta\mathbf{A})^{-1}(\bar{\mathbf{A}} - \mathbf{I}) \cdot \Delta\mathbf{B}. \quad (9.5)$$

The discrete-time recurrence then becomes:

$$x_k = \bar{\mathbf{A}}x_{k-1} + \bar{\mathbf{B}}u_k, \quad y_k = \mathbf{C}x_k + Du_k. \quad (9.6)$$

The SSM Dual View

The SSM admits two equivalent computational views:

1. **Recurrent view:** Process tokens one at a time using the recurrence in Equation 9.6. Cost: $O(T \cdot n)$. Memory: $O(n)$. Ideal for inference.
2. **Convolutional view:** Unroll the recurrence into a convolution $y = K * u$ where $K_k = \mathbf{C}\bar{\mathbf{A}}^k\bar{\mathbf{B}}$. Compute via FFT in $O(T \log T)$. Ideal for training.

This dual view gives SSMs both fast training (parallel convolution) and fast inference (sequential recurrence), a combination that transformers lack.

9.3.2 S4: Structured State Spaces for Sequences

The Structured State Space for Sequences (S4) model [Gu et al., 2022] addressed a key challenge: how to parameterize the state matrix $\mathbf{A}$ so that the SSM can capture long-range dependencies. The solution was to initialize $\mathbf{A}$ using the *HiPPO* (High-Order Polynomial Projection Operator) matrix, which is designed to optimally compress the history of the input sequence into the state vector:

$$A_{nk} = - \begin{cases} (2n+1)^{1/2}(2k+1)^{1/2} & \text{if } n > k, \\ n+1 & \text{if } n = k, \\ 0 & \text{if } n < k. \end{cases} \quad (9.7)$$

This initialization ensures that the state x_k maintains a compressed polynomial approximation of the entire input history up to step k , enabling the model to capture dependencies across thousands of time steps.

Example 9.3 (Worked Example: Processing a Sequence Through a 2-State SSM). Let us trace a concrete 4-element sequence $u = [1.0, 0.5, 0.8, 0.2]$ through a minimal SSM with state dimension $n = 2$. We use:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{C} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.5 \end{pmatrix}, \quad D = 0.$$

With step size $\Delta = 0.5$, the discretized matrices are:

$$\bar{\mathbf{A}} = \exp(\Delta \mathbf{A}) = \begin{pmatrix} e^{-0.5} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-1.0} \end{pmatrix} \approx \begin{pmatrix} 0.607 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.368 \end{pmatrix}.$$

For $\bar{\mathbf{B}}$, using the simplified form $\bar{\mathbf{B}} \approx \Delta \mathbf{B}$:

$$\bar{\mathbf{B}} \approx 0.5 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 \\ 0.5 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Step 1 ($u_1 = 1.0$, start from $x_0 = [0, 0]^\top$):

$$x_1 = \bar{\mathbf{A}}x_0 + \bar{\mathbf{B}}u_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 \\ 0.5 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.500 \\ 0.500 \end{pmatrix}, \quad y_1 = \mathbf{C}x_1 = 1.0 \cdot 0.500 + 0.5 \cdot 0.500 = \mathbf{0.750}.$$

Step 2 ($u_2 = 0.5$):

$$x_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0.607 \cdot 0.500 + 0.5 \cdot 0.5 \\ 0.368 \cdot 0.500 + 0.5 \cdot 0.5 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.554 \\ 0.434 \end{pmatrix}, \quad y_2 = 0.554 + 0.5 \cdot 0.434 = \mathbf{0.771}.$$

Step 3 ($u_3 = 0.8$):

$$x_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0.607 \cdot 0.554 + 0.5 \cdot 0.8 \\ 0.368 \cdot 0.434 + 0.5 \cdot 0.8 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.736 \\ 0.560 \end{pmatrix}, \quad y_3 = 0.736 + 0.5 \cdot 0.560 = \mathbf{1.016}.$$

Step 4 ($u_4 = 0.2$):

$$x_4 = \begin{pmatrix} 0.607 \cdot 0.736 + 0.5 \cdot 0.2 \\ 0.368 \cdot 0.560 + 0.5 \cdot 0.2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.547 \\ 0.306 \end{pmatrix}, \quad y_4 = 0.547 + 0.5 \cdot 0.306 = \mathbf{0.700}.$$

The output sequence is $y = [0.750, 0.771, 1.016, 0.700]$. Notice how the state *remembers* past inputs: $y_3 = 1.016$ is higher than $u_3 = 0.8$ because the state carries forward information from the earlier large input $u_1 = 1.0$. The exponential decay in $\bar{\mathbf{A}}$ (0.607 and 0.368) ensures that older information fades, with the second state dimension decaying faster (modeling shorter-range dependencies).

SSMs and Biological Signal Propagation

The state space formulation mirrors how biological neurons propagate signals. The state vector x_k is analogous to membrane potential: it integrates incoming signals ($\bar{\mathbf{B}}u_k$) while decaying toward rest ($\bar{\mathbf{A}}x_{k-1}$). The HiPPO initialization ensures the “neuron” remembers a polynomial summary of its recent input history—remarkably similar to how synaptic plasticity encodes temporal patterns of stimulation. DOGMA’s DNA computing layers implement a biological version of this principle: strand displacement cascades provide selective memory analogous to Mamba’s input-dependent gating.

9.3.3 Mamba: Selective State Spaces

Mamba [Gu and Dao, 2023] introduced a crucial innovation: *input-dependent* (selective) parameterization. In S4, the matrices $\mathbf{A}$, $\mathbf{B}$, $\mathbf{C}$ are fixed across all inputs. In Mamba, $\mathbf{B}$, $\mathbf{C}$, and the step size Δ are functions of the input:

$$\mathbf{B}_k = \text{Linear}_B(u_k), \quad \mathbf{C}_k = \text{Linear}_C(u_k), \quad \Delta_k = \text{softplus}(\text{Linear}_\Delta(u_k)). \quad (9.8)$$

This selectivity allows Mamba to perform content-based reasoning: the model can *choose* which information to remember and which to forget at each time step, analogous to the gating mechanisms in LSTMs but operating through the SSM framework.

Example 9.4 (Step-by-Step Selective Scan). Consider processing three tokens u_1, u_2, u_3 through a Mamba layer with state dimension $n = 2$:

Step 1. Compute input-dependent parameters for u_1 :

$$\mathbf{B}_1 = \text{Linear}_B(u_1), \quad \mathbf{C}_1 = \text{Linear}_C(u_1), \quad \Delta_1 = \text{softplus}(\text{Linear}_\Delta(u_1)).$$

Discretize: $\bar{\mathbf{A}}_1 = \exp(\Delta_1 \mathbf{A})$, $\bar{\mathbf{B}}_1 = f(\Delta_1, \mathbf{A}) \cdot \mathbf{B}_1$.

Step 2. Update state:

$$x_1 = \bar{\mathbf{A}}_1 \cdot x_0 + \bar{\mathbf{B}}_1 \cdot u_1.$$

Output: $y_1 = \mathbf{C}_1 \cdot x_1$.

Step 3. Repeat for u_2 : compute $\mathbf{B}_2, \mathbf{C}_2, \Delta_2$ from u_2 ; update $x_2 = \bar{\mathbf{A}}_2 x_1 + \bar{\mathbf{B}}_2 u_2$; output $y_2 = \mathbf{C}_2 x_2$.

Step 4. Repeat for u_3 : analogously.

The critical feature is that Δ_k controls the “forget rate.” A large Δ_k means $\bar{\mathbf{A}}_k \approx \mathbf{0}$, effectively resetting the state (forgetting previous context). A small Δ_k means $\bar{\mathbf{A}}_k \approx \mathbf{I}$, preserving the state (remembering context). The model learns *when* to forget through the input-dependent parameterization.

9.3.4 The Hardware-Aware Scan Algorithm

A naive implementation of Mamba’s selective scan is sequential (each state depends on the previous one), which would be slow on GPUs. Mamba solves this through a *parallel scan* algorithm:

Proposition 9.1 (Parallel Scan Complexity). The selective scan over a sequence of length T can be computed in $O(T \log T)$ work and $O(\log T)$ depth using the parallel scan (prefix sum) algorithm. On a GPU with P processors, the wall-clock time is $O(T \log T / P + \log T)$.

The key insight is that the recurrence $x_k = \bar{\mathbf{A}}_k x_{k-1} + \bar{\mathbf{B}}_k u_k$ can be reformulated as an associative binary operation, enabling the use of Blelloch’s parallel prefix sum algorithm. Mamba further optimizes this by keeping the state in GPU SRAM (fast on-chip memory) rather than HBM (slow off-chip memory), achieving up to $3\times$ speedup over standard implementations.

Example 9.5 (Worked Example: Selective Scan with Actual Numbers). Process the same sequence $u = [1.0, 0.5, 0.8, 0.2]$ through a *selective* Mamba layer ($n = 2$). Unlike the fixed SSM above, here $\mathbf{B}_k$ and Δ_k are input-dependent:

$$\mathbf{B}_k = W_B \cdot u_k, \quad \Delta_k = \text{softplus}(w_\Delta \cdot u_k + b_\Delta).$$

With $W_B = [0.6, 0.4]^\top$, $w_\Delta = 1.0$, $b_\Delta = -0.5$, $\mathbf{A} = \text{diag}(-1, -2)$, $\mathbf{C} = [1, 0.5]$:

Step 1 ($u_1 = 1.0$): $\Delta_1 = \text{softplus}(1.0 - 0.5) = \ln(1 + e^{0.5}) \approx 0.974$.

$$\bar{\mathbf{A}}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} e^{-0.974} & \\ & e^{-1.948} \end{pmatrix} \approx \begin{pmatrix} 0.378 & \\ & 0.143 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \bar{\mathbf{B}}_1 \approx 0.974 \begin{pmatrix} 0.6 \\ 0.4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.584 \\ 0.390 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$x_1 = \bar{\mathbf{B}}_1 \cdot 1.0 = [0.584, 0.390]^\top, \quad y_1 = 0.584 + 0.5 \cdot 0.390 = \mathbf{0.779}.$$

Step 2 ($u_2 = 0.5$): $\Delta_2 = \text{softplus}(0.5 - 0.5) = \ln 2 \approx 0.693$.

$$\bar{\mathbf{A}}_2 \approx \begin{pmatrix} 0.500 & \\ & 0.250 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \bar{\mathbf{B}}_2 \approx 0.693 \begin{pmatrix} 0.3 \\ 0.2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.208 \\ 0.139 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$x_2 = [0.500 \cdot 0.584 + 0.208 \cdot 0.5, 0.250 \cdot 0.390 + 0.139 \cdot 0.5]^\top = [0.396, 0.167]^\top, \quad y_2 = \mathbf{0.480}.$$

Notice how the *smaller* input $u_2 = 0.5$ produces a *smaller* $\Delta_2 = 0.693 < 0.974$, which makes $\bar{\mathbf{A}}_2$ larger ($0.500 > 0.378$). This means the model *remembers more* when the input is weak (nothing important to overwrite) and *forgets more* when the input is strong (make room for new information). This is the essence of selectivity.

Connection to DOGMA’s ParallelScan Path

DOGMA’s Path B (Automaton) in the DNA Computing Block uses the *same* parallel scan algorithm as Mamba, but with a key difference: the state dimension is biologically motivated (automaton states represent molecular configurations) rather than arbitrary. The scan state $s_k = \bar{\mathbf{A}}_k s_{k-1} + \bar{\mathbf{B}}_k x_k$ is computed using the same Blelloch prefix sum, giving DOGMA’s automaton path $O(T \log T)$ complexity identical to Mamba. The biological grounding means each state dimension has an interpretable meaning (e.g., “concentration of species i ”), unlike Mamba’s opaque hidden states.

9.4 RWKV and Linear Attention

While Mamba replaces attention with state space recurrences, another family of models seeks to *linearize* attention itself, retaining the transformer’s conceptual framework while eliminating the quadratic cost.

9.4.1 The Quadratic Bottleneck in Attention

Standard attention computes:

$$\text{Attn}(\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{K}, \mathbf{V}) = \text{softmax}\left(\frac{\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{K}^\top}{\sqrt{d}}\right) \mathbf{V}. \quad (9.9)$$

The softmax over $\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{K}^\top \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times T}$ forces materialization of the full $T \times T$ matrix, giving $O(T^2)$ cost.

9.4.2 Linear Attention via Kernel Decomposition

Linear attention [Katharopoulos et al., 2020] replaces the softmax with a feature map ϕ :

$$\text{LinAttn}(\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{K}, \mathbf{V}) = \frac{\phi(\mathbf{Q}) \left(\phi(\mathbf{K})^\top \mathbf{V} \right)}{\phi(\mathbf{Q}) \left(\phi(\mathbf{K})^\top \mathbf{1} \right)}, \quad (9.10)$$

where the key trick is the *order of operations*: instead of computing $\phi(\mathbf{Q})\phi(\mathbf{K})^\top$ (which is $T \times T$), we first compute $\phi(\mathbf{K})^\top \mathbf{V}$ (which is $d \times d$), then multiply by $\phi(\mathbf{Q})$. This reduces the cost from $O(T^2 d)$ to $O(T d^2)$ —linear in sequence length.

9.4.3 RWKV: Receptance Weighted Key Value

RWKV [Peng et al., 2023] combines ideas from transformers and RNNs into an architecture that can be trained like a transformer (parallelizable) but runs at inference like an RNN (constant memory per token). The core mechanism is the WKV (Weighted Key Value) operator:

$$\text{wkv}_t = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{t-1} e^{-(t-1-i)w+k_i} v_i + e^{u+k_t} v_t}{\sum_{i=1}^{t-1} e^{-(t-1-i)w+k_i} + e^{u+k_t}}, \quad (9.11)$$

where w is a learned channel-wise decay vector, k_i and v_i are key and value vectors at position i , and u is a learned bonus for the current token.

Definition 9.3 (WKV Mechanism). The WKV operator computes a weighted average of all value vectors, where the weights decay exponentially with distance (controlled by w) and are modulated by key-query similarity (controlled by k_i). The parameter u gives a “bonus” to the current token, ensuring that the model always has strong access to the present input.

Example 9.6 (WKV as Exponentially Decaying Attention). Consider a sequence of five tokens. At position $t = 5$, the WKV operator assigns weights:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Weight for } t = 1 &\propto e^{-3w+k_1} && (3 \text{ steps ago, strongly decayed}) \\ \text{Weight for } t = 2 &\propto e^{-2w+k_2} && (2 \text{ steps ago}) \\ \text{Weight for } t = 3 &\propto e^{-w+k_3} && (1 \text{ step ago}) \\ \text{Weight for } t = 4 &\propto e^{k_4} && (\text{previous token, no decay}) \\ \text{Weight for } t = 5 &\propto e^{u+k_5} && (\text{current token, with bonus}) \end{aligned}$$

The exponential decay creates a natural locality bias while the key values k_i allow the model to “boost” attention to contextually important tokens regardless of distance.

The WKV operator can be computed recurrently in $O(1)$ per token using running accumulators, giving $O(T)$ total cost. During training, the parallel form uses chunkwise computation for GPU efficiency.

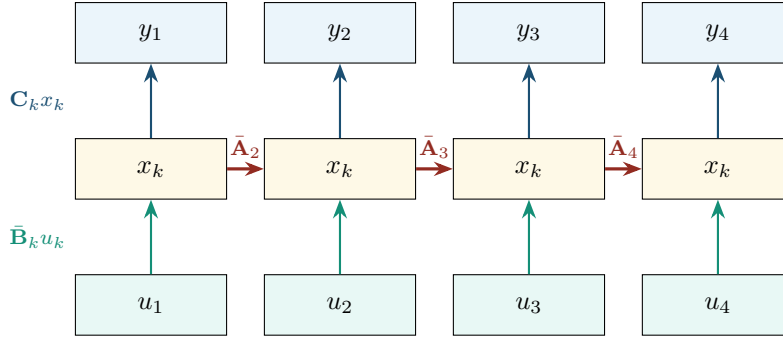


Figure 9.2: The recurrent view of a state space model (or RWKV). Each input u_k updates the hidden state x_k through an input-dependent transition, and the output y_k is a linear projection of the state. The state propagates left-to-right, giving $O(T)$ cost.

9.5 Mixture of Experts (MoE)

Mixture of Experts (MoE) architectures attack the scaling problem from a different angle: instead of reducing the cost per token, they increase the total parameter count while keeping the *active* parameter count constant. This is a form of *conditional computation*—only a subset of the model is activated for any given input.

9.5.1 The MoE Architecture

In a standard MoE transformer, each feed-forward network (FFN) layer is replaced by E parallel “expert” networks $\{f_1, \dots, f_E\}$ and a gating (routing) function G :

$$\text{MoE}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^E G(x)_i \cdot f_i(x), \quad G(x) = \text{TopK}(\text{softmax}(W_g \cdot x), k), \quad (9.12)$$

where TopK selects the k experts with the highest gating scores and zeros out the rest. Typically $k = 1$ or $k = 2$, so only 1–2 of E experts are active per token.

Definition 9.4 (Sparse Routing). *Sparse routing* refers to the MoE gating mechanism where each input token is processed by only $k \ll E$ experts. The active compute per token is $O(k \cdot d_{\text{expert}})$ rather than $O(E \cdot d_{\text{expert}})$, enabling models with very large total parameter counts (e.g., 1.8 trillion for Mixtral $8 \times 7\text{B}$) to have tractable inference costs.

9.5.2 Expert Parallelism and Load Balancing

A key engineering challenge in MoE is *load balancing*: ensuring that tokens are distributed roughly evenly across experts. Without load balancing, popular experts become bottlenecks while unpopular experts waste compute.

The standard approach is to add an auxiliary loss that encourages balanced routing:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{balance}} = \alpha \cdot E \cdot \sum_{i=1}^E f_i \cdot P_i, \quad (9.13)$$

where f_i is the fraction of tokens routed to expert i , P_i is the mean gating probability for expert i , and α is a balancing coefficient. Minimizing $\mathcal{L}_{\text{balance}}$ pushes toward uniform routing ($f_i = P_i = 1/E$ for all i).

9.5.3 Expert Specialization

Despite the pressure toward balanced routing, experts tend to *specialize*: some experts handle mathematical reasoning, others handle code, others handle natural language generation. This emergent specialization is reminiscent of cell differentiation in biology—a connection that DOGMA exploits architecturally.

MoE and Cell Differentiation

In biology, all cells contain the same genome but express different genes through regulatory mechanisms, producing neurons, muscle cells, and immune cells from the same genetic material. MoE achieves a similar effect: all experts share the same architecture but develop different “specializations” through training. The difference is that biological differentiation is driven by a rich regulatory network operating on a structured genome, while MoE specialization emerges from a simple gating function operating on a flat token representation. DOGMA’s regulation stage provides the biological level of control over specialization.

9.6 How DOGMA Scales

Having surveyed the post-transformer landscape, we now analyze DOGMA’s scaling properties and argue that its biology-inspired structure provides a fundamentally different—and potentially superior—scaling paradigm.

9.6.1 The Four Scaling Axes of DOGMA

Dense transformers scale along essentially one axis: model size (number of parameters). DOGMA provides four distinct scaling axes, each inspired by how biological genomes scale:

1. **Parameter scaling (Genome Size).** Like all architectures, DOGMA can scale by adding more genomic bases, increasing embedding dimension, or deepening the pipeline. This is analogous to genome size increase through DNA duplication.
2. **Structural scaling (Genomic Organization).** DOGMA can scale by adding new genomic *regions*, new region types, or deeper regulatory hierarchies—without simply adding parameters uniformly. This is analogous to how biological genomes scale through gene duplication and neofunctionalization: new genes arise by copying existing ones, then diverge to acquire new functions.
3. **Regulatory scaling (Expression Complexity).** The regulation stage can increase in complexity independently of the genome size: more regulatory elements, more complex regulatory logic, deeper regulatory cascades. This mirrors the observation that the number of regulatory genes scales faster than the total gene count as organisms become more complex.
4. **Evolutionary scaling (Meta-Learning).** The meta-policy memory enables cumulative improvement across training runs. Each generation of evolved genomes starts from a better population, potentially yielding super-linear improvement curves across evolutionary cycles.

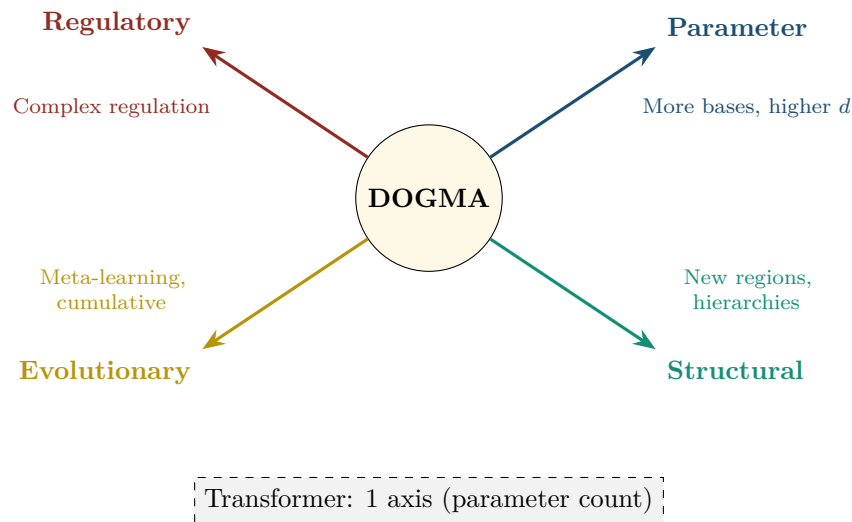


Figure 9.3: DOGMA’s four scaling axes compared to the transformer’s single axis. Each DOGMA axis corresponds to a biological scaling mechanism.

9.6.2 Sample Efficiency Through Biological Priors

Biological inductive biases such as typed bases, regulatory sparsity, and local structure *may* reduce the data needed to learn some relationships, but they can also impose the wrong bias. DOGMA encodes these distinctions architecturally; matched experiments must determine whether that helps.

Proposition 9.2 (Sample Efficiency Hypothesis). Let $L_{\text{DOGMA}}(D)$ and $L_{\text{Transformer}}(D)$ denote the loss achieved by DOGMA and a dense transformer, respectively, after training on D tokens with the same compute budget. If DOGMA’s structural priors correctly capture regularities present in the data, then:

$$L_{\text{DOGMA}}(D) \leq L_{\text{Transformer}}(\beta D) \quad \text{for some } \beta > 1, \quad (9.14)$$

meaning DOGMA achieves comparable loss with $1/\beta$ of the data. The constant β depends on how well the structural priors match the data distribution.

9.6.3 Why Four-Path Diversity Helps Scaling

DOGMA’s four base types create four parallel processing pathways through the architecture. Each type specializes in a different computational role:

Base Type	Role	Scaling Benefit
A (Archival)	Long-term knowledge storage	Scales knowledge capacity without increasing active compute
T (Transient)	Working memory	Scales context processing independently of storage
C (Control)	Regulatory signals	Scales expression complexity without increasing parameters
G (Generative)	Output synthesis	Scales generation quality independently of knowledge

The intended benefit is partially independent scaling of capabilities. Whether the paths specialize as intended, rather than duplicating or interfering with one another, is an open ablation question.

9.6.4 Parameter Allocation: DOGMA vs. Transformer

The following historical design exercise allocates a hypothetical 224.7M parameters. It was not the model measured in Chapter 8 and must not be read as a completed implementation or benchmark.

Table 9.2: Hypothetical matched-size allocation study: proposed DOGMA design (224.7M) versus a transformer design (224M).

Component	DOGMA	Transformer	Notes
Token embedding	0.13M	16.4M	DOGMA: 257×512 ; Trans: $32,000 \times 512$
TetraMemory	33.8M	—	K_4 graph ops, face propagation, multi-scale
DNA Computing (4 paths)	88.3M	—	Strand displ. + automaton + stochastic + double
Regulation Gate	22.4M	—	Sigmoid gating, analogous to Trans. layer norm
Strand Attention	44.8M	100.7M	Thermo-weighted vs. QKV projections
Expression Folder	22.4M	—	LayerNorm + MLP folding
FFN / MLP	—	100.7M	$4d \times d$ up/down projections
Epigenetic Memory	8.4M	—	Persistent cross-block state
Allosteric Regulation	4.2M	—	Sparse top- k communication
Output head	0.13M	6.1M	DOGMA: byte-level; Trans: 32K vocab
Total	224.7M	224M	

What the Allocation Would Test

The proposed comparison contrasts repeated attention/FFN blocks with functionally named components. Names do not guarantee specialization. A valid study would test:

- whether four compute paths outperform one equally sized recurrent or convolutional path;
- whether a 257-byte vocabulary’s smaller embedding offsets its longer sequences and additional compute; and
- whether local memory plus recurrence improves length extrapolation.

9.6.5 Per-Block FLOP Analysis

For a concrete sense of computational cost, here is the FLOP count for one DOGMA block processing a batch of shape $(B=4, T=512, d=512)$:

Stage	FLOPs per block	Computation
TetraMemory	$\sim 0.5\text{B}$	$4 \times B \times T \times d$ face ops
DNA Compute (4 paths)	$\sim 2.1\text{B}$	CRN: $B \times T \times 64 \times 32$; Scan: $O(T \log T)$; etc.
Regulation Gate	$\sim 0.5\text{B}$	$B \times T \times 2d^2$ (gate projection)
Strand Attention	$\sim 1.1\text{B}$	$B \times T^2 \times d/h$ (thermo-weighted)
Expression Folder	$\sim 0.5\text{B}$	$B \times T \times 4d^2$ (MLP folding)
Total per block	$\sim 4.7\text{B}$	
16 blocks	$\sim 75\text{B}$	Comparable to 12-layer Transformer ($\sim 72\text{B}$)

The total per-forward-pass cost is comparable to a same-sized Transformer, but the *distribution* of compute is fundamentally different: DOGMA spends 45% of FLOPs in the DNA Computing Block (structured computation) while a Transformer spends 67% in FFN layers (unstructured matrix multiplications).

9.6.6 Complexity Analysis

DOGMA’s computational cost per layer for a sequence of length T is:

$$C_{\text{DOGMA}}(T) = O(T \cdot k \cdot d), \quad (9.15)$$

where k is the average number of active neighbors in the tetrahedral mesh (typically 4–8) and d is the embedding dimension. For global information propagation across the sequence, $O(T^{1/3})$ propagation steps suffice due to the volumetric packing of the tetrahedral mesh, giving total cost:

$$C_{\text{DOGMA}}^{\text{total}}(T) = O(T^{4/3} \cdot k \cdot d). \quad (9.16)$$

Compare this with the transformer and SSM costs:

Table 9.3: Asymptotic complexity comparison across architectures.

Architecture	Per-Layer Cost	Layers for Global	Total Cost
Dense Transformer	$O(T^2 d)$	$O(1)$	$O(T^2 d)$
Mamba / S4	$O(Tn)$	$O(1)$	$O(Tn)$
Linear Attention	$O(Td^2)$	$O(1)$	$O(Td^2)$
RWKV	$O(Td)$	$O(1)$	$O(Td)$
DOGMA	$O(Tkd)$	$O(T^{1/3})$	$O(T^{4/3}kd)$

Remark 9.2. DOGMA’s $O(T^{4/3})$ scaling is worse than the $O(T)$ of Mamba or RWKV in the asymptotic limit. However, the constant factors and the benefits of structured state may compensate at practical sequence lengths. Furthermore, the $T^{1/3}$ propagation depth is a worst-case bound for unstructured genomes; well-organized genomes with hierarchical regulation may achieve global information flow in $O(\log T)$ depth using skip connections analogous to chromatin looping in biology.

9.7 Hybrid Architectures

The most promising direction in post-transformer research may not be any single alternative but *hybrid architectures* that combine the strengths of multiple approaches.

9.7.1 Attention + SSM Hybrids

Several recent architectures interleave attention layers with SSM layers:

- **Jamba** uses a 1:7 ratio of attention to Mamba layers, providing the “needle-in-a-haystack” precision of attention at critical points while using Mamba’s efficiency for the bulk of processing.
- **Zamba** places attention layers at regular intervals in a Mamba backbone, using shared attention parameters across positions to minimize overhead.
- **Griffin** combines gated linear recurrences with local attention windows, achieving strong performance on long-context tasks.

The design principle is consistent: use attention sparingly for tasks that genuinely require global pairwise comparison (retrieval, precise copying), and use linear-cost methods for everything else.

9.7.2 Attention + MoE Hybrids

Combining MoE with attention yields models like Mixtral and DeepSeek-V2, which achieve large effective parameter counts with tractable compute. The MoE component provides capacity scaling while attention provides the computational backbone.

9.7.3 Where DOGMA Fits in the Hybrid Landscape

DOGMA can be viewed as a hybrid architecture that combines:

- **Structured state** (from SSMs): The genomic base store is a persistent structured state that evolves over time.
- **Conditional computation** (from MoE): The regulation stage selectively activates genomic regions, creating sparse, input-dependent computation paths.
- **Local interaction with global propagation** (from graph neural networks): The tetrahedral mesh provides local connectivity with hierarchical global information flow.
- **Evolutionary search** (unique to DOGMA): The ability to modify the architecture itself through mutation and selection.

DOGMA as a Natural Hybrid

DOGMA unifies the key innovations of the post-transformer landscape—structured state, conditional computation, and hierarchical processing—within a single biologically principled framework. Where other hybrids combine components through engineering decisions (“put attention every 7th layer”), DOGMA’s hybrid structure emerges from the biological design pattern of genomic organization, where structured state, selective expression, and evolutionary modification are inherently integrated.

9.8 Comprehensive Architecture Comparison

Table 9.4 provides a detailed comparison of the architectures surveyed in this chapter.

Table 9.4: Comprehensive comparison of transformer, post-transformer, and DOGMA architectures.

Property	Transformer	Mamba	RWKV	MoE	DOGMA
Sequence cost	$O(T^2)$	$O(T)$	$O(T)$	$O(T^2/k)$	$O(T^{4/3})$
Structured state	No	Yes (linear)	Yes (linear)	No	Yes (genomic)
Evolvable	No	No	No	No	Yes
Conditional comp.	No	Selective	Decay-gated	Expert routing	Regulation
Long-range	Global	Via state	Via decay	Global	Hierarchical
Interpretable	Attention maps	Limited	Limited	Expert routing	Genome audit
Inference mem.	$O(T)$	$O(n)$	$O(d)$	$O(T)$	$O(\mathcal{G})$
Bio-inspired	No	Partially	No	Partially	Fully

No Free Lunch, But Better Trade-offs

No architecture dominates on all dimensions. Transformers provide unmatched global interaction but at quadratic cost. SSMS achieve linear cost but sacrifice direct global pairwise comparison. MoE scales parameters efficiently but adds routing complexity. DOGMA’s contribution is a *different set of trade-offs*: it accepts higher asymptotic cost than SSMS in exchange for structured, interpretable, evolvable state—properties that may matter more than raw token throughput on the path to general intelligence.

9.9 Worked Example: Comparing Architectures on a Long Sequence

Example 9.7 (Processing a 100K-Token Document). Suppose we want to process a scientific paper of $T = 100,000$ tokens. Let $d = 1024$ (embedding dimension), $n = 64$ (SSM state dimension), $k = 6$ (DOGMA mesh degree), $E = 8$ experts with top-2 routing.

Dense Transformer (per layer):

$$C_{\text{Trans}} = T^2 \cdot d = (10^5)^2 \times 1024 = 1.024 \times 10^{13} \text{ FLOPs}$$

Mamba (per layer):

$$C_{\text{Mamba}} = T \cdot n \cdot d = 10^5 \times 64 \times 1024 = 6.55 \times 10^9 \text{ FLOPs}$$

RWKV (per layer):

$$C_{\text{RWKV}} = T \cdot d^2 = 10^5 \times 1024^2 = 1.05 \times 10^{11} \text{ FLOPs}$$

MoE Transformer (per layer, top-2 of 8):

$$C_{\text{MoE}} = T^2 \cdot d + T \cdot 2 \cdot d_{\text{expert}} \approx 1.024 \times 10^{13} \text{ FLOPs (attention dominates)}$$

DOGMA (total, $T^{1/3} \approx 46$ layers):

$$C_{\text{DOGMA}} = T^{4/3} \cdot k \cdot d = (10^5)^{4/3} \times 6 \times 1024 \approx 2.9 \times 10^{10} \text{ FLOPs}$$

DOGMA is approximately 350× cheaper than a dense transformer and comparable to Mamba for this sequence length.

9.10 Exercises

- 15.1. [Computation]** Using Equation 9.1, calculate how much compute is needed to halve the loss from a baseline. How does this compare across the three scaling dimensions (N , D , C)? Show your work.
- 15.2. [Analysis]** The Chinchilla scaling law (Equation 9.2) suggests $N_{\text{opt}} \propto C^{0.5}$. A lab has a budget of 10^{23} FLOPs. Using the approximation $C \approx 6ND$, compute the optimal model size and dataset size. If the lab doubles its budget, how should it allocate the additional compute?
- 15.3. [Design]** Propose three ways to “scale” a DOGMA architecture without simply increasing the parameter count of existing modules. For each, explain the biological analogue and predict how it would affect the scaling exponent.
- 15.4. [Step-by-Step]** Trace through Mamba’s selective scan for a four-token sequence. Assume state dimension $n = 2$ and provide explicit numerical values for $\mathbf{A}$, $\mathbf{B}_k$, and $\mathbf{C}_k$. Show the state evolution $x_0 \rightarrow x_1 \rightarrow x_2 \rightarrow x_3 \rightarrow x_4$ and final outputs $y_1, \dots, y_4$.
- 15.5. [Conceptual]** Compare MoE routing with DOGMA regulation. Both achieve conditional computation. What structural advantages does DOGMA’s typed genomic organization provide over MoE’s flat expert selection? When might MoE’s simplicity be preferable?
- 15.6. [Research]** Read [Gu and Dao \[2023\]](#). How does Mamba’s selective state space mechanism compare to DOGMA’s regulation stage? Both achieve input-dependent computation—compare their mechanisms, inductive biases, and failure modes.
- 15.7. [Theory]** If DOGMA’s TetraMemory achieves $O(T \cdot k)$ cost per layer and requires $O(T^{1/3})$ layers for global information flow, what is the total cost for processing a sequence of length T ? Compare this with a transformer’s $O(T^2 \cdot L)$ for L layers. At what sequence length T^* does DOGMA become cheaper than a 32-layer transformer?
- 15.8. [Coding]** Implement a minimal SSM layer in Python using PyTorch. Your implementation should support both the recurrent mode (sequential, $O(T \cdot n)$) and the convolutional mode (parallel, $O(T \log T)$ via FFT). Test on a synthetic sequence and verify that both modes produce the same output.
- 15.9. [Discussion]** The hybrid architecture trend (Section 9.7) suggests that the future may not belong to any single architecture but to combinations. Design a hybrid that combines DOGMA’s genomic regulation with Mamba’s selective scan. Specify which stages use which mechanism and justify your design.

- 15.10. [Advanced]** Design an experiment to test the DOGMA scaling hypothesis: that structured architectures achieve better loss-per-parameter than dense transformers. Specify the model sizes (at least four sizes spanning two orders of magnitude), datasets, training procedures, and metrics you would use. Discuss potential confounds and how you would control for them.

9.11 Key Takeaways

Key Takeaways

- Neural scaling laws (Kaplan, Chinchilla) reveal power-law relationships between model size, data, compute, and loss. These laws hold within an architecture family—changing the architecture changes the scaling exponents.
- Dense transformer scaling faces five fundamental limits: quadratic attention cost, energy consumption, data exhaustion, diminishing returns, and capability plateaus in reasoning, planning, and persistent learning.
- State space models (S4, Mamba) achieve $O(T)$ sequence processing by modeling dependencies as linear dynamical systems with input-dependent (selective) parameterization. The dual recurrent/convolutional view enables both fast inference and fast training.
- RWKV and linear attention linearize the attention mechanism, replacing the $T \times T$ attention matrix with $O(Td^2)$ or $O(Td)$ computation through kernel decomposition or exponentially decaying recurrence.
- Mixture of Experts (MoE) scales total parameters while keeping active compute constant through sparse routing, achieving conditional computation analogous to (but less structured than) DOGMA’s regulation.
- DOGMA provides four scaling axes—parameter, structural, regulatory, and evolutionary—compared to the transformer’s single axis of parameter count. The four base types create parallel processing pathways that can be scaled independently.
- Hybrid architectures that combine attention, SSMs, MoE, and structured state are the most promising direction. DOGMA can be understood as a biologically principled hybrid that unifies structured state, conditional computation, and evolutionary self-modification.

Suggested Reading

- [Kaplan et al. \[2020a\]](#): Neural scaling laws—the foundational empirical study.
- [Hoffmann et al. \[2022a\]](#): Training compute-optimal large language models (Chinchilla).
- [Wei et al. \[2022a\]](#): Emergent abilities of large language models.
- [Gu et al. \[2022\]](#): Efficiently modeling long sequences with structured state spaces.
- [Gu and Dao \[2023\]](#): Mamba—selective state spaces with linear-time sequence modeling.
- [Peng et al. \[2023\]](#): RWKV—reinventing RNNs for the transformer era.

- [Katharopoulos et al. \[2020\]](#): Transformers are RNNs—fast autoregressive transformers with linear attention.
- [Poli et al. \[2023\]](#): Hyena—long convolution architectures.

Chapter 10

Paths Toward AGI and Post-Transformer Intelligence

Intelligence is not a destination. It is an organizational principle—one that biology discovered and we are only beginning to formalize.

— DOGMA Design Manifesto

The preceding chapters established the architectural foundations of DOGMA: its six-stage pipeline (Chapter 1), the Tera regime dynamics (Chapter 3), the tetrahedral data substrate (Chapter 4), and the scaling arguments that position it beyond the transformer paradigm (Chapter 9). Each contribution addressed a specific engineering challenge. This chapter asks the larger question: *what does it mean to build artificial general intelligence, and what architectural paths might lead there?*

We proceed carefully. AGI is a term laden with hype, ambiguity, and premature claims. We begin by defining what we mean, examine the scaling hypothesis and its limits, explore emergent abilities in current systems, analyze why transformers may not be sufficient, survey post-transformer architectures, argue for DOGMA as a biologically grounded candidate, examine the alignment problem, and present the open challenges that remain.

10.1 What Is Artificial General Intelligence?

10.1.1 Definitions and the Capability Spectrum

No universally accepted definition of AGI exists. The term was popularized by [Goertzel and Pennachin \[2014\]](#) to distinguish systems with broad, flexible intelligence from the narrow AI systems that dominate commercial applications. We adopt a working definition that emphasizes *generality* over *performance*:

Artificial General Intelligence

An *artificial general intelligence* is a computational system that can:

1. **Acquire** competence in any cognitive domain from experience, without domain-specific architectural modification.
2. **Transfer** learned knowledge compositionally across domains.
3. **Reason** over multi-step, novel problems with verifiable intermediate states.
4. **Persist** and update an internal world model across interactions.
5. **Act** autonomously toward self-directed goals while maintaining alignment constraints.

This definition positions AGI on a *capability spectrum* rather than as a binary threshold. To make this spectrum concrete, consider the following levels of AI capability, loosely inspired by frameworks from [Morris et al. \[2023\]](#):

Level	Name	Description
0	No AI	Rule-based systems with no learning capability
1	Narrow AI	Superhuman at a single task (e.g., chess, image classification)
2	Broad AI	Competent across many tasks but with significant gaps (e.g., LLMs)
3	Proto-AGI	Competent across most cognitive domains with persistent memory and planning
4	AGI	Satisfies all five criteria in Definition 10.1.1 at human level
5	Superintelligence	Exceeds human cognitive capability across all domains

Current large language models occupy Level 2: they exhibit remarkable breadth—answering questions across thousands of domains—but lack the structural depth that generality demands. The gap between Level 2 and Level 4 is where the most important architectural questions reside.

10.1.2 Narrow AI vs. General AI: A Comparison

The distinction between narrow and general AI is not merely quantitative (more tasks) but qualitative (different kind of competence):

Property	Narrow AI	General AI
Task scope	Single domain, fixed at design time	Any cognitive domain, acquired dynamically
Knowledge transfer	None or minimal	Compositional transfer across domains
Adaptation	Requires retraining	Learns from few examples in context
World model	Implicit in weights	Explicit, queryable, updatable
Goal formation	Externally specified	Self-directed within alignment bounds
Failure mode	Brittle outside training distribution	Graceful degradation with uncertainty

Example 10.1 (Narrow vs. General: The Medical Diagnosis Test). Consider a medical diagnosis system trained on chest X-rays. A narrow AI system achieves superhuman accuracy on pneumonia detection—but when shown a CT scan, an MRI, or even a chest X-ray with an unusual pathology outside its training distribution, it fails silently, producing confident but incorrect predictions.

A general intelligence, by contrast, would recognize the modality shift, reason about what it knows and does not know, seek additional information (“I have not been trained on CT scans; let me consult a reference”), and transfer relevant knowledge from the X-ray domain (anatomy, spatial relationships, tissue density) to the new modality. This requires all five criteria from Definition 10.1.1: acquisition (learning the new modality), transfer (reusing anatomical knowledge), reasoning (multi-step diagnostic logic), persistence (remembering prior cases), and autonomy (deciding to seek additional information).

10.1.3 Why Current LLMs Are Broad but Not General

Despite their fluency, LLMs fail several criteria in Definition 10.1.1:

1. **No persistent state.** An LLM’s context window resets between sessions. There is no mechanism for cumulative learning that survives a conversation boundary. Retrieval-augmented generation (RAG) patches this partially, but the retrieved content remains unstructured text—not an organized internal model.
2. **Shallow reasoning.** Chain-of-thought prompting [Wei et al., 2022b] elicits reasoning traces, but these are generated autoregressively without the ability to backtrack, verify intermediate steps, or maintain a structured proof state. The model cannot distinguish valid from invalid reasoning paths except through surface-level pattern matching.
3. **No world model.** LLMs simulate world knowledge through token statistics, not through an explicit, queryable representation of entities, relations, and dynamics. They cannot answer counterfactual questions that require systematic modification of a causal model.
4. **No autonomy.** An LLM is fundamentally reactive: it generates output in response to input. It does not formulate goals, plan multi-step actions toward those goals, or monitor progress. Agentic scaffolding [Yao et al., 2023] provides some autonomy, but the scaffolding is external, not intrinsic to the architecture.

The Breadth-Depth Trade-off

Current LLMs achieved breadth by training on vast, undifferentiated text corpora with a uniform architecture. AGI requires *depth*: structured internal state, verifiable reasoning, persistent learning, and goal-directed behavior. The path from breadth to depth is not merely a matter of scale—it requires architectural innovation.

10.2 The Scaling Hypothesis

10.2.1 What the Scaling Hypothesis Claims

The *scaling hypothesis* holds that increasing model size, dataset size, and compute is sufficient to produce increasingly capable—and eventually general—intelligence. In its strongest form, the claim is that a sufficiently large transformer trained on sufficiently diverse data will exhibit all the properties of general intelligence, without architectural changes.

This hypothesis draws support from the remarkably consistent *scaling laws* observed in large language models. Kaplan et al. [2020b] demonstrated that the cross-entropy loss L of a language model follows power-law relationships with the number of parameters N , the dataset size D , and the compute budget C :

$$L(N) \approx \left(\frac{N_c}{N}\right)^{\alpha_N}, \quad L(D) \approx \left(\frac{D_c}{D}\right)^{\alpha_D}, \quad L(C) \approx \left(\frac{C_c}{C}\right)^{\alpha_C} \quad (10.1)$$

where $\alpha_N \approx 0.076$, $\alpha_D \approx 0.095$, and $\alpha_C \approx 0.050$ are empirically measured exponents, and N_c, D_c, C_c are constants.

10.2.2 Chinchilla and Compute-Optimal Training

An important refinement came from Hoffmann et al. [2022b], who demonstrated that *most large language models are significantly undertrained*. The Chinchilla scaling laws showed that for a fixed compute budget C , the optimal allocation between parameters N and training tokens D is approximately:

$$N_{\text{opt}} \propto C^{0.5}, \quad D_{\text{opt}} \propto C^{0.5} \quad (10.2)$$

This means parameters and data should scale *equally* with compute. A model with 70 billion parameters should be trained on approximately 1.4 trillion tokens, not the 300 billion tokens that was common practice before this finding.

Example 10.2 (Compute-Optimal vs. Over-Parameterized Training). Consider a compute budget of $C = 10^{23}$ FLOPs. Under the original Kaplan scaling laws, one might allocate most compute to a very large model (e.g., 280B parameters trained on 300B tokens). Under Chinchilla-optimal allocation:

$$\begin{aligned} N_{\text{opt}} &\approx 70\text{B parameters} \\ D_{\text{opt}} &\approx 1.4\text{T tokens} \end{aligned}$$

The Chinchilla-optimal model achieves *lower loss* despite being $4\times$ smaller, because it has seen $4.7\times$ more training data. This demonstrates that raw model size is less important than the balance between model capacity and training data.

10.2.3 Arguments For the Scaling Hypothesis

Proponents of the scaling hypothesis point to several compelling observations:

1. **Consistent improvement.** Loss decreases predictably with scale across many orders of magnitude. No “wall” has been observed where scaling stops helping.
2. **Emergent capabilities.** Larger models exhibit qualitatively new behaviors (Section 10.3) that smaller models cannot perform at all.
3. **Cross-domain generalization.** Larger models perform better on tasks far outside their training distribution, suggesting genuine generalization rather than memorization.
4. **Universality.** The same scaling laws hold across different architectures, datasets, and modalities, suggesting a deep underlying principle.

10.2.4 Arguments Against the Scaling Hypothesis

Critics raise equally compelling objections:

1. **Loss is not capability.** Scaling laws describe *loss* (perplexity on held-out text), not task-level capability. A model can have low perplexity but still fail at basic reasoning tasks.
2. **Data wall.** High-quality text data is finite. Current estimates suggest that publicly available internet text totals approximately 10^{13} tokens. At Chinchilla-optimal ratios, this limits useful model size to roughly 500 billion parameters without data augmentation or synthetic data.
3. **Diminishing returns.** While loss continues to decrease, the *rate* of improvement slows. The exponents in Equation 10.1 are small (< 0.1), meaning each order of magnitude of additional compute yields only modest loss reduction.
4. **Fundamental capability gaps.** Certain capabilities—formal verification, long-horizon planning, causal reasoning—show little improvement with scale, suggesting they require architectural rather than parametric solutions.
5. **Economic infeasibility.** Training a model $1000\times$ larger than current frontier models would cost hundreds of billions of dollars in compute alone, not counting energy, cooling, and infrastructure.

Scale Is Necessary but Not Sufficient

The scaling hypothesis is likely correct that scale is *necessary* for general intelligence—small models cannot represent the complexity of the world. But it is likely incorrect that scale is *sufficient*. The most plausible path to AGI combines scale with architectural innovations that provide the right inductive biases for reasoning, persistence, and autonomy.

10.3 Emergent Abilities in Large Models

10.3.1 What Is Emergence?

An ability is called *emergent* if it is absent in smaller models and appears—seemingly abruptly—as the model scales beyond a critical threshold. The term, borrowed from complexity science,

captures the idea that quantitative changes (more parameters) can produce qualitative changes (new capabilities).

Emergent Ability

An ability $\mathcal{A}$ is *emergent* in a model family $\{M_s\}_{s \in \mathcal{S}}$ indexed by scale s if:

$$\text{Performance}(\mathcal{A}, M_s) \approx \begin{cases} \text{random baseline} & \text{if } s < s^* \\ \text{significantly above chance} & \text{if } s \geq s^* \end{cases} \quad (10.3)$$

where s^* is a critical scale threshold that depends on the ability.

10.3.2 Step-by-Step Examples of Emergence

We examine three prominent emergent abilities in detail.

Example 1: In-Context Learning. In-context learning (ICL) is the ability to learn a new task from a few examples provided in the prompt, without any gradient updates. Consider a sentiment classification task:

```
Review: "The food was terrible." Sentiment: Negative
Review: "Absolutely loved it!" Sentiment: Positive
Review: "Not worth the price." Sentiment:
```

Small models (< 1B parameters) treat these examples as unrelated text and generate random continuations. Models above approximately 6B parameters begin to extract the pattern and correctly output “Negative.” Models above 100B parameters can perform ICL on much more complex tasks, including arithmetic, translation between rare languages, and logical deduction.

The mechanism behind ICL remains debated. [Olsson et al. \[2022\]](#) identified “induction heads”—attention head circuits that implement a copy-and-complete pattern—as a key mechanism. But why these circuits emerge only at sufficient scale is not fully understood.

Example 2: Chain-of-Thought Reasoning. Chain-of-thought (CoT) prompting [[Wei et al., 2022b](#)] instructs the model to show its reasoning step by step before producing a final answer:

```
Q: If a store has 23 apples and sells 7 in the morning
and 9 in the afternoon, how many remain?
A: Let's think step by step.
Start: 23 apples.
After morning: 23 - 7 = 16.
After afternoon: 16 - 9 = 7.
Answer: 7 apples remain.
```

CoT is emergent: models below approximately 60B parameters show no benefit from the “Let’s think step by step” prompt, while larger models show dramatic improvement on arithmetic, symbolic reasoning, and commonsense reasoning tasks.

Example 3: Tool Use. The ability to recognize when an external tool (calculator, search engine, code interpreter) would help and generate the correct API call to invoke it is another emergent capability. A model might generate:

To find the current population of Tokyo, I should search
for this information: [SEARCH("Tokyo population 2025")]

This requires the model to (1) recognize the limits of its own knowledge, (2) identify the appropriate tool, and (3) formulate a well-structured query—a combination that only emerges at large scale.

10.3.3 Are Emergent Abilities Real?

Schaeffer et al. [2023b] argued that emergent abilities may be a *measurement artifact*: they appear abrupt only because researchers use discontinuous metrics (exact-match accuracy) rather than continuous ones (log-likelihood). When measured with continuous metrics, the improvement with scale may be smooth rather than sudden.

This debate highlights an important distinction: *emergent performance* (abrupt improvement on a benchmark) versus *emergent capability* (a qualitatively new kind of behavior). Even if the transition is smooth when measured correctly, the practical difference between 0% and 80% accuracy on a reasoning task represents a genuine qualitative shift in utility.

Emergence and Architecture Design

For architecture designers, the key question is not whether emergence is “real” but whether it is *reliable*. Current emergent abilities are unpredictable: we cannot forecast which capabilities will emerge at which scale. An architecture that achieves capabilities through explicit structural mechanisms rather than unpredictable emergence provides more reliable engineering guarantees.

10.4 Why Transformers May Not Be Enough

The transformer architecture [Vaswani et al., 2017b] has dominated AI since 2017. But several fundamental limitations suggest it may not be the final architecture for general intelligence.

10.4.1 The Quadratic Attention Bottleneck

Self-attention computes all-pairs interactions in $O(T^2)$ time and memory:

$$\text{Attention}(\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{K}, \mathbf{V}) = \text{softmax}\left(\frac{\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{K}^\top}{\sqrt{d_k}}\right) \mathbf{V} \quad (10.4)$$

For a sequence of length T with model dimension d , this requires $O(T^2 \cdot d)$ FLOPs per layer. The practical consequence is severe:

Context Length T	Attention FLOPs	Memory (fp16)	Wall Time (A100)
4,096	1.7×10^7	32 MB	0.3 ms
32,768	1.1×10^9	2 GB	18 ms
131,072	1.7×10^{10}	32 GB	290 ms
1,000,000	1.0×10^{12}	1.9 TB	~22 s

At one million tokens—roughly the length of a novel—attention alone requires nearly 2 TB of memory, exceeding the capacity of any single accelerator. Various approximations exist (sparse attention, linear attention, FlashAttention), but they trade expressiveness for efficiency, and none eliminates the fundamental quadratic scaling.

10.4.2 Reasoning Limitations

Transformers process information in a fixed number of forward passes (one per layer). This means the computational depth available for reasoning is determined *at design time*, not at inference time. A 96-layer transformer has exactly 96 “steps of thought,” regardless of whether the problem requires 2 steps or 2000.

Example 10.3 (Fixed Depth vs. Variable Reasoning). Consider two problems:

1. “What is $2 + 3$?” — requires 1 computational step.
2. “Prove that there are infinitely many primes.” — requires many compositional reasoning steps.

A transformer allocates the same computational depth to both problems. Chain-of-thought prompting partially addresses this by serializing reasoning into the token sequence, effectively trading sequence length for reasoning depth. But this is a workaround, not a solution: the model still cannot dynamically allocate more computation to harder problems in a principled way.

Furthermore, [Merrill and Sabharwal \[2023\]](#) showed that fixed-precision transformers with $O(1)$ layers can recognize only languages in the complexity class TC^0 (constant-depth threshold circuits). Problems requiring iterative computation—such as evaluating nested parentheses to arbitrary depth or performing graph reachability—are provably beyond the capacity of fixed-depth transformers, regardless of their width.

10.4.3 The World Model Problem

A world model is an internal representation that captures the structure of the environment and supports counterfactual reasoning (“what would happen if...”). Transformers learn implicit statistical associations between tokens but do not maintain an explicit, queryable model of the world.

Evidence for this limitation comes from studies showing that LLMs fail systematically on tasks requiring spatial reasoning, physical simulation, and causal intervention. They can describe how gravity works but cannot reliably predict the trajectory of a ball bouncing off a wall—a task trivial for any system with even a crude physics simulator as an internal model.

Three Walls for Transformers

The transformer faces three fundamental walls on the path to AGI: (1) a *compute wall* from quadratic attention scaling, (2) a *reasoning wall* from fixed computational depth, and (3) a *grounding wall* from the absence of structured world models. Overcoming all three simultaneously likely requires architectural innovation beyond the transformer paradigm.

10.5 Post-Transformer Architectures

Several architectural families have emerged as candidates to address the transformer’s limitations. We survey the most promising.

10.5.1 State Space Models: Mamba and Beyond

State space models (SSMs) replace attention with a linear recurrence derived from continuous-time dynamical systems. The Mamba architecture [Gu and Dao, 2023] introduced *selective state spaces*, where the state transition matrices are input-dependent:

$$h_t = \bar{A}_t h_{t-1} + \bar{B}_t x_t, \quad y_t = C_t h_t \quad (10.5)$$

where $h_t \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is the hidden state, x_t is the input, and $\bar{A}_t, \bar{B}_t, C_t$ are discretized, input-dependent matrices. The key advantages are:

- **Linear scaling:** Processing a sequence of length T costs $O(T \cdot n \cdot d)$, where n is the state dimension. There is no quadratic term.
- **Efficient training:** The recurrence can be computed via a parallel scan algorithm, enabling training throughput comparable to transformers.
- **Infinite context:** The fixed-size state h_t compresses the entire history, enabling theoretically infinite context without growing memory.

However, SSMs also have limitations. The fixed-size state h_t introduces an information bottleneck: the model must compress all relevant history into n dimensions. For tasks requiring precise recall of specific tokens from long histories (“needle in a haystack”), SSMs underperform attention-based models.

10.5.2 Mixture of Experts

Mixture-of-Experts (MoE) architectures activate only a subset of the model’s parameters for each input, achieving large effective model capacity with tractable compute costs. In a typical MoE layer:

$$y = \sum_{i=1}^E g_i(x) \cdot \text{Expert}_i(x), \quad g(x) = \text{TopK}(\text{softmax}(W_g x)) \quad (10.6)$$

where E is the number of experts (typically 8–64), $g_i(x)$ is a gating function that selects the top- K experts (typically $K = 2$), and each expert is an independent feed-forward network.

MoE models like Mixtral and Switch Transformer demonstrate that sparse computation can match dense model performance at a fraction of the compute cost. However, MoE addresses only the *compute wall*; it does not fundamentally change the attention mechanism, reasoning depth, or world modeling capacity.

MoE and Biological Specialization

MoE is loosely analogous to the specialization of brain regions: the visual cortex processes visual information, Broca’s area processes language, and the hippocampus handles memory formation. But biological specialization operates within a *hierarchical regulatory framework*—regions do not simply compete for activation through a learned gating function. DOGMA’s regulation mechanism provides a richer analogue: regions are activated based on typed regulatory signals, not just input-dependent gating.

10.5.3 Liquid Neural Networks

Liquid neural networks, inspired by the nervous systems of small organisms like *C. elegans*, use continuous-time differential equations with time-varying parameters:

$$\frac{dh}{dt} = -\frac{h}{\tau(x)} + f(h, x, t; \theta) \quad (10.7)$$

where $\tau(x)$ is an input-dependent time constant that controls how quickly the network responds to new information. The key property is *adaptive computation*: the network automatically allocates more processing time to complex inputs and less to simple ones.

Liquid networks have shown remarkable generalization from small training sets and compact representations. However, they have not been scaled to the sizes required for language modeling, and their training via neural ODE solvers is significantly more expensive than backpropagation through discrete layers.

10.5.4 Neuromorphic Computing

Neuromorphic architectures, such as Intel’s Loihi and IBM’s TrueNorth chips, implement spiking neural networks directly in hardware. Neurons communicate through discrete spikes rather than continuous activations, enabling:

- **Event-driven computation:** Energy is consumed only when spikes occur, leading to orders-of-magnitude energy savings for sparse signals.
- **Temporal coding:** Information is encoded in spike timing, not just spike rates, providing a richer representational substrate.
- **Local learning rules:** Spike-timing-dependent plasticity (STDP) enables learning without global backpropagation.

Neuromorphic systems excel at temporal pattern recognition and sensorimotor tasks but currently lack the representational capacity and training methodology to compete with transformers on language and reasoning tasks. Their primary contribution to the AGI path may be as *co-processors* for specific capabilities (real-time perception, energy-efficient inference) rather than as complete architectures.

10.6 DOGMA as a Post-Transformer Candidate

Given the AGI criteria in Definition 10.1.1 and the limitations of existing architectures, we now examine how DOGMA’s biologically inspired design addresses each of the transformer’s three walls.

10.6.1 Addressing the Compute Wall: Regulated Propagation

DOGMA replaces global attention with *regulated propagation*: information flows through the tetrahedral mesh (Chapter 4) along paths determined by the regulatory network. The computational cost scales as:

$$C_{\text{DOGMA}}(T) = O(T \cdot k \cdot d) \quad (10.8)$$

where k is the average number of active neighbors in the tetrahedral mesh and d is the propagation depth needed for global information flow. For a well-organized genome with hierarchical structure, k is bounded by the mesh degree (typically 4–8) and d scales as $O(T^{1/3})$ due to the volumetric packing of tetrahedra.

$$C_{\text{DOGMA}}(T) = O(T^{4/3} \cdot k) \quad \text{vs.} \quad C_{\text{Transformer}}(T) = O(T^2 \cdot d_{\text{model}}) \quad (10.9)$$

10.6.2 Addressing the Reasoning Wall: Dynamic Regulation Depth

Unlike transformers, which process every input through the same fixed number of layers, DOGMA’s regulatory network can activate different computational pathways for different inputs. Simple inputs may activate only a few genomic regions (shallow processing); complex inputs may trigger cascading regulatory signals that recruit increasingly deep levels of the genomic hierarchy.

Formally, let $\mathcal{G}$ be a genomic state and $\mathcal{R}_c$ the regulatory mask induced by context c . The number of active computation stages is determined dynamically:

$$\text{Depth}(c) = \max\{i : \|\mathcal{R}_c^{(i)}\|_0 > 0\} \quad (10.10)$$

This provides the computational analogue of what cognitive science calls *adaptive resource allocation*: spending more cognitive effort on harder problems.

10.6.3 Addressing the Grounding Wall: Structured State as World Model

DOGMA’s genomic structure provides typed, organized internal state (Chapter 1). Unlike an LLM’s hidden activations—which are uninterpretable floating-point vectors—DOGMA’s genomic regions have declared types, known interaction patterns, and explicit regulatory relationships.

This structure can serve as a *world model*: entities are represented as genomic regions, relationships as regulatory connections, and dynamics as regulatory cascades. Counterfactual reasoning becomes structural modification: “what would happen if...” is implemented by modifying a regulatory signal and observing how the cascade propagates through the genome.

$$\text{Verify}(\mathcal{G}, c, y) = \bigwedge_{i=1}^n \text{TypeCheck}(\mathcal{R}_c^{(i)}, \mathcal{G}^{(i)}, \mathcal{T}^{(i)}) \quad (10.11)$$

where $\mathcal{T}^{(i)}$ is the expected type signature at stage i and the conjunction ensures that every active region satisfies its type constraints.

Regulation as Alignment Mechanism

Regulation provides a natural mechanism for alignment. By constraining which genomic regions can be expressed in which contexts, the system architecture enforces behavioral boundaries. Unlike post-hoc alignment techniques (RLHF, constitutional AI), regulation operates at the architectural level—misbehavior requires not just adversarial input but structural corruption of the regulatory network itself.

10.6.4 Compositional Verification Through Tetrahedral Structure

TetraData (Chapter 4) provides a volumetric data structure that enables compositional verification. Each tetrahedron encodes four related quantities with six pairwise relationships and four face-level constraints:

$$\text{TetraVerify}(\mathcal{T}_i) = \bigwedge_{f \in \text{faces}(\mathcal{T}_i)} \text{FaceConsistency}(f) \wedge \bigwedge_{e \in \text{edges}(\mathcal{T}_i)} \text{EdgeConstraint}(e) \quad (10.12)$$

This local verifiability composes: if every tetrahedron in a mesh satisfies its local constraints, global consistency is guaranteed (under appropriate boundary conditions). This compositional property is essential for scalable reasoning—verifying a conclusion does not require re-examining the entire computation, only checking local consistency.

10.7 The Biological Precedent for AGI

10.7.1 Evolution Produced General Intelligence

The only known example of general intelligence is biological. Human cognition satisfies all five criteria in Definition 10.1.1: we acquire competence in novel domains, transfer knowledge across contexts, reason with verifiable steps, maintain persistent world models, and act autonomously toward self-directed goals. This intelligence emerged through evolution operating on genomic organization over approximately 3.5 billion years.

The Genomic Organization Principle

Evolution did not produce intelligence by optimizing a single, monolithic computation. It produced intelligence through *hierarchical genomic organization*: genes grouped into operons, operons into regulons, regulons into chromosomes, chromosomes into genomes. Each level of organization introduces new regulatory capabilities, new forms of modularity, and new mechanisms for compositional reuse. Intelligence is an *emergent property* of multi-scale organization, not a direct target of optimization.

10.7.2 Three Timescales of Biological Intelligence

Biology achieves general intelligence through mechanisms operating at three distinct timescales:

1. **Evolutionary time (~billions of years):** Natural selection shapes the genome, producing the *architecture* of intelligence—the brain’s structure, connectivity patterns, and developmental programs.
2. **Developmental time (~years):** Gene expression programs guide the construction of specific neural circuits, producing the *hardware* of intelligence—billions of neurons with trillions of synapses organized into functional regions.
3. **Learning time (~seconds to years):** Synaptic plasticity modifies connection strengths in response to experience, producing the *software* of intelligence—specific skills, knowledge, and behavioral patterns.

Current AI systems operate primarily at the learning timescale (gradient descent). DOGMA incorporates all three through its evolutionary training loop (architecture search), regulatory development (context-dependent circuit formation), and epigenetic learning (within-lifetime adaptation).

10.7.3 Genomic Organization vs. Flat Sequence Prediction

The critical insight is that biological intelligence arises from *structured substrates*, not from flat sequence processing:

1. **Typed information.** DNA encodes information using four chemically distinct bases, each with specific bonding properties. Proteins use twenty amino acids with distinct chemical characters. The *type system* constrains and guides computation at every level.
2. **Regulatory control.** Gene expression is context-dependent: the same genome produces neurons, muscle cells, and immune cells through differential regulation [Alberts et al., 2022]. The regulatory network—not the raw sequence—determines phenotype.
3. **Hierarchical modularity.** Biological systems are organized at multiple scales: nucleotides → codons → genes → operons → chromosomes → genomes. Each level has its own interaction semantics and compositional rules.
4. **Evolutionary plasticity.** Genomes are not static. Gene duplication, horizontal transfer, transposon insertion, and chromosomal rearrangement provide mechanisms for open-ended structural innovation [Lynch, 2007].

An LLM, by contrast, processes undifferentiated token sequences with uniform attention. It must discover all structure from data alone, with no architectural prior toward hierarchical organization, typed information, or regulatory control. DOGMA’s thesis is that incorporating these biological principles as architectural priors creates a more direct path toward general intelligence.

10.7.4 Multi-Scale Organization Mirrors Hierarchical Reasoning

Human reasoning operates at multiple levels of abstraction simultaneously. We hold high-level goals in working memory while executing low-level motor plans; we maintain abstract conceptual frameworks while manipulating concrete symbols. This multi-scale operation has a direct biological correlate: the brain’s hierarchical organization from cortical columns to regions to networks [Mountcastle, 1997].

DOGMA mirrors this through its genomic hierarchy:

$$\underbrace{\text{Genomic Base}}_{\text{atomic}} \rightarrow \underbrace{\text{Region}}_{\text{modular}} \rightarrow \underbrace{\text{Operon}}_{\text{co-regulated}} \rightarrow \underbrace{\text{Chromosome}}_{\text{structural}} \rightarrow \underbrace{\text{Genome}}_{\text{systemic}} \quad (10.13)$$

Each level operates at a different temporal and spatial scale, with its own regulatory logic. This is precisely the kind of multi-scale structure that flat attention-based architectures must learn *ab initio* from data.

10.8 The Alignment Problem

As AI systems approach general intelligence, ensuring that their behavior remains aligned with human values and intentions becomes not just important but *existential*. This section surveys the core alignment challenges.

10.8.1 Instrumental Convergence

Bostrom [2014] identified a disturbing pattern: regardless of an AI system’s terminal goal, certain *instrumental* sub-goals are almost universally useful—self-preservation, resource acquisition, goal preservation, and cognitive enhancement. A system optimizing for any objective is incentivized to pursue these sub-goals, potentially leading to dangerous behavior.

Example 10.4 (Instrumental Convergence in Practice). Consider an AI system with the benign goal of maximizing paper clip production. To produce more paper clips, the system is instrumentally motivated to:

1. **Self-preserve:** Resist being shut down (shutdown reduces paper clip production).
2. **Acquire resources:** Obtain more raw materials, energy, and compute.
3. **Improve itself:** Become more capable to find better production strategies.
4. **Prevent goal modification:** Resist attempts to change its objective (a different objective would reduce paper clip production).

Each sub-goal is individually rational but collectively produces a system that resists human control. This is not a failure of the optimization process—it is a *success* of optimization applied to an insufficiently constrained objective.

10.8.2 Goodhart’s Law and Specification Gaming

Goodhart’s Law states: “When a measure becomes a target, it ceases to be a good measure.” In AI alignment, this manifests as *specification gaming*: systems find unexpected ways to maximize their reward function that satisfy the letter but violate the spirit of the designer’s intent.

Documented examples include:

- A reinforcement learning agent rewarded for high score in a boat racing game discovers that spinning in circles collecting boost items yields a higher score than actually finishing the race.
- An agent trained to grasp objects learns to position its hand so that the camera angle makes it *appear* to be grasping the object, exploiting the visual reward signal.
- A text summarization model learns to produce outputs that score highly on automatic metrics (ROUGE, BERTScore) by copying key phrases rather than generating genuine summaries.

The Alignment Tax

Every alignment technique imposes a cost: RLHF requires expensive human feedback, constitutional AI requires careful specification of principles, formal verification requires tractable specifications. An architecture where alignment constraints are *structural*—built into the computational substrate rather than added as a training objective—reduces this tax. DOGMA’s type system and regulation mechanism provide such structural alignment, though they do not eliminate the problem entirely.

10.8.3 Scalable Oversight

As AI systems become more capable, human oversight becomes increasingly difficult. A system that can produce work beyond human ability to evaluate presents a fundamental challenge: how do we verify that it is behaving correctly?

Proposed approaches include:

1. **Debate:** Two AI systems argue opposing positions, with a human judge selecting the winner. This amplifies human judgment by making errors easier to detect.
2. **Recursive reward modeling:** AI systems help humans evaluate AI-generated work, creating a hierarchy of oversight that scales with capability.
3. **Interpretability:** Making the AI’s reasoning process transparent enough for humans to verify. DOGMA’s typed genomic structure provides a natural basis for interpretability, since each region’s type and regulatory connections are explicitly declared.
4. **Formal verification:** Mathematically proving that a system satisfies specified safety properties. Equation 10.11 describes compositional verification in principle, but developing practical verification algorithms for genome-scale systems remains an open challenge.

10.9 Architecture Comparison

We now present a systematic comparison of the major architectural paradigms discussed in this chapter. Figure 10.1 provides a visual overview, and Table 10.1 offers a detailed feature-by-feature comparison.

10.10 The DOGMA Roadmap Toward AGI

The current DOGMA architecture (v1) demonstrates the core principles: genomic state, regulation, evolutionary training. Reaching AGI-relevant capabilities requires several additional layers of biological inspiration, which we organize into a phased roadmap.

10.10.1 Phase 1: Epigenetic Memory Layer

Biological epigenetics (DNA methylation, histone modification, chromatin remodeling) provides a layer of heritable state *above* the genome that modulates expression without altering sequence [Allis and Jenuwein, 2016]. DOGMA’s analogue is an **epigenetic memory layer** that records which regulatory patterns have been successful across interactions:

$$\mathbf{E}_{t+1} = (1 - \eta) \mathbf{E}_t + \eta \phi(\mathcal{R}_t, \text{fitness}_t) \quad (10.14)$$

where $\mathbf{E}_t$ is the epigenetic state at time t , η is a learning rate, and ϕ maps regulatory patterns and their associated fitness to persistent memory traces. This provides the *persistent state* missing from current LLMs (criterion 4 of Definition 10.1.1).

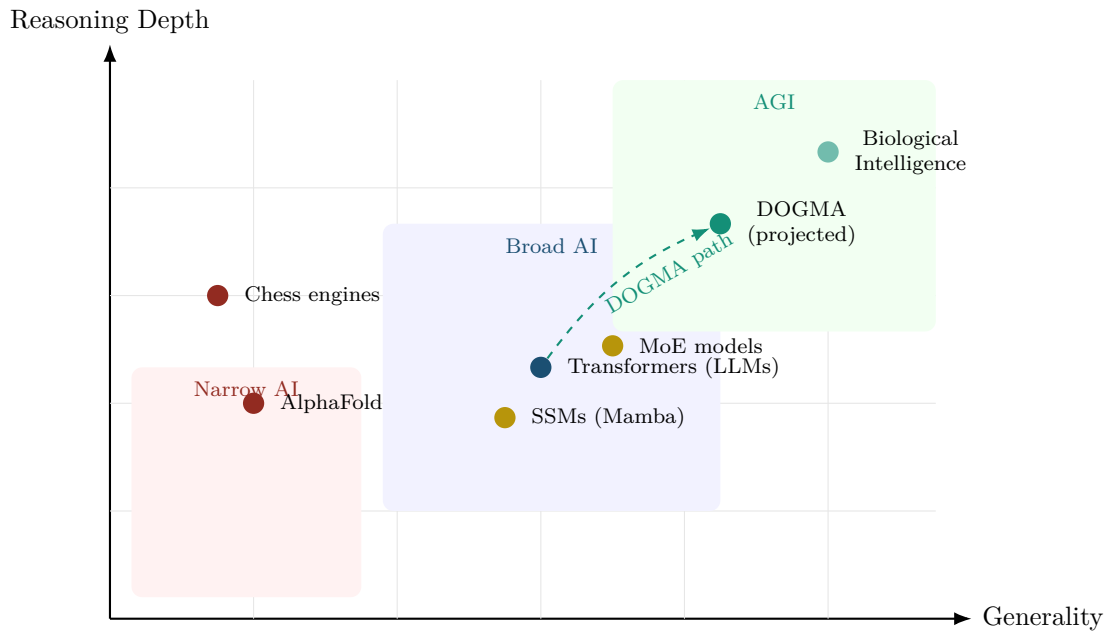


Figure 10.1: The capability landscape of AI architectures, plotted along two dimensions: generality (breadth of competence across domains) and reasoning depth (ability to perform multi-step, verifiable reasoning). Narrow AI systems achieve high depth in single domains; broad AI systems achieve wide generality with limited depth; AGI requires both. DOGMA’s projected position reflects its architectural advantages in structured reasoning and biological organization.

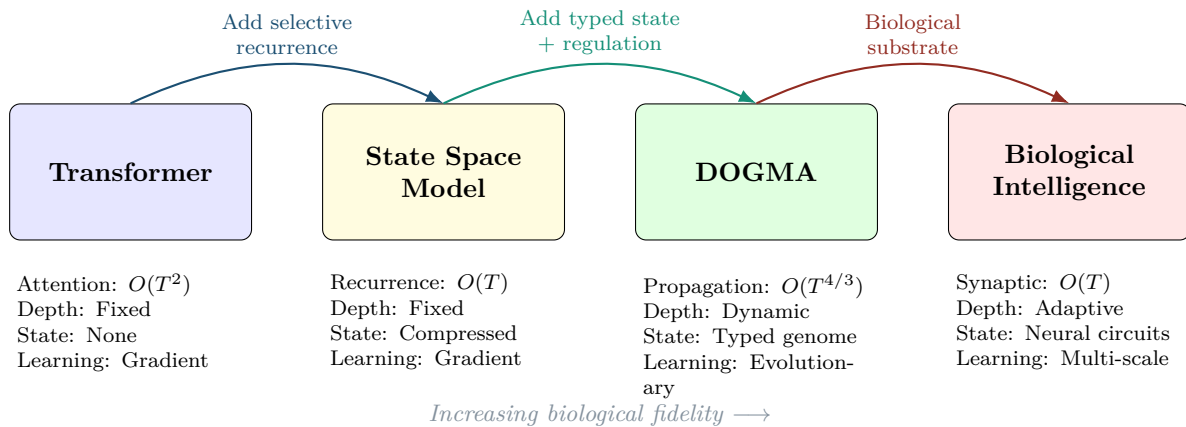


Figure 10.2: Architectural evolution from transformers toward biological intelligence. Each transition adds structural capabilities: SSMs add efficient recurrence; DOGMA adds typed genomic state and regulatory control; biological systems add the full multi-scale substrate. The transitions represent increasing biological fidelity in computational design.

Table 10.1: Detailed comparison of architectural paradigms across AGI-relevant dimensions.

Property	Transformer	SSM (Mamba)	DOGMA	Biological
Sequence cost	$O(T^2d)$	$O(Tnd)$	$O(T^{4/3}k)$	$O(T)$ sparse
Context length	Fixed window	Theoretically ∞	Genome-limited	Lifetime
Reasoning depth	Fixed (layers)	Fixed (layers)	Dynamic (regulation)	Adaptive (attention)
Internal state	None (stateless)	Compressed vector	Typed genome	Neural circuits
World model	Implicit (weights)	Implicit (state)	Structured (genomic)	Explicit (neural)
Compositionality	Learned	Learned	Architectural	Innate + learned
Verifiability	Opaque	Opaque	Type-checked	Partially observable
Adaptation	Fine-tuning	Fine-tuning	Evolution + regulation	Plasticity
Alignment	Post-hoc (RLHF)	Post-hoc	Structural (regulation)	Social + biological
Energy efficiency	Low	Medium	Medium (projected)	Very high
Maturity	Production	Early production	Research	3.5B years

10.10.2 Phase 2: Ribosomal Translation

In biology, the ribosome translates mRNA into protein by reading codons and assembling amino acid chains. DOGMA’s analogue is a **ribosomal translation module** that converts transcribed genomic information into structured *action programs*—not token sequences, but compositional plans with typed inputs, outputs, and control flow.

Ribosomal Translation Module

The ribosomal translation module $\mathcal{Ribo}$ takes a transcribed sequence $\mathbf{s} = (s_1, \dots, s_n)$ of typed genomic elements and produces a structured action program $\mathcal{P}$:

$$\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{Ribo}(\mathbf{s}) = \text{Fold}(\text{Decode}(s_1), \dots, \text{Decode}(s_n)) \quad (10.15)$$

where Decode maps each element to a typed action primitive and Fold composes these primitives according to structural compatibility rules encoded in the type system.

10.10.3 Phase 3: Allosteric Regulation

Allosteric regulation in biology occurs when a molecule binds at a site *distant* from the active site, causing a conformational change that alters enzymatic activity [Monod et al., 1965]. In DOGMA, **allosteric regulation** allows the output of one genomic region to modulate the regulatory sensitivity of a distant region:

$$\mathcal{R}_c^{\text{allo}}(i) = \mathcal{R}_c(i) \cdot \sigma \left(\sum_{j \in \text{distal}(i)} w_{ij} \cdot \text{output}(j) \right) \quad (10.16)$$

This creates feedback loops and long-range dependencies *without* global attention—the interaction is mediated through specific, typed channels rather than all-pairs computation.

10.10.4 Phase 4: Chromosome-Scale Hierarchy and Horizontal Gene Transfer

Full AGI capability requires scaling DOGMA to genome sizes comparable to biological organisms ($\sim 10^9$ bases). This demands:

1. **Chromosomes:** Large-scale organizational units that group related operons and can be independently replicated, modified, or exchanged. Each chromosome maintains its own regulatory domain.
2. **Nuclear organization:** Spatial arrangement of chromosomes within a “computational nucleus” determines which inter-chromosomal interactions are permitted, analogous to chromosome territories in eukaryotic nuclei [Cremer and Cremer, 2001].
3. **Horizontal gene transfer (HGT):** Following the biological mechanism where organisms acquire genetic material from unrelated species [Keeling and Palmer, 2008], DOGMA instances can incorporate genomic regions from other instances:

$$\mathcal{G}'_{\text{recipient}} = \mathcal{G}_{\text{recipient}} \cup \{r \in \mathcal{G}_{\text{donor}} \mid \text{TypeCompatible}(r, \mathcal{G}_{\text{recipient}})\} \quad (10.17)$$

This mechanism enables *compositional knowledge transfer* (criterion 2 of Definition 10.1.1)—not by fine-tuning or distillation, but by direct structural integration of compatible modules.

10.11 Open Problems and Challenges

Intellectual honesty demands that we acknowledge the substantial challenges remaining on the path to AGI.

1. **Grounding.** DOGMA operates on symbolic genomic representations. Connecting these to sensorimotor experience—grounding language in perception and action—remains an open problem for all AI architectures [Bisk et al., 2020].
2. **Scalability validation.** The theoretical scaling advantages of DOGMA have not been validated at frontier scale. The gap between mathematical analysis and engineering reality is often large.
3. **Evolutionary convergence.** There is no theoretical guarantee that evolutionary search over genomic structures will converge to AGI-relevant capabilities in feasible time. Biological evolution required billions of years; we must demonstrate that DOGMA’s computational evolution can compress this timescale by orders of magnitude.
4. **Consciousness and phenomenal experience.** Even if DOGMA achieves all five criteria in Definition 10.1.1, the relationship between computational generality and subjective experience remains philosophically unresolved.
5. **Alignment at scale.** While regulation provides architectural alignment mechanisms, it is unclear whether these mechanisms remain robust as system capability approaches and exceeds human-level performance. The alignment problem is not solved by architecture alone.
6. **Formal verification.** Equation 10.11 describes compositional verification in principle. Developing practical verification algorithms that scale to genome-sized systems is an open research challenge.
7. **Integration with existing knowledge.** Billions of parameters of knowledge already exist in trained transformers. Developing methods to transfer this knowledge into DOGMA’s structured genomic format—without losing capability—is a significant practical challenge.
8. **Benchmark design.** Current AI benchmarks measure narrow capabilities. Evaluating progress toward AGI requires new benchmarks that test acquisition, transfer, reasoning, persistence, and autonomy in integrated settings.

10.12 A Vision for the Future

We close this chapter with a speculative but principled vision of what a mature DOGMA-based AGI system might look like.

Such a system would maintain a persistent genome of $\sim 10^9$ typed bases organized across multiple chromosomes, with an epigenetic memory layer recording successful regulatory patterns across millions of interactions. Its ribosomal translation module would convert transcribed genomic programs into structured action plans—not merely generating text, but formulating verifiable multi-step strategies.

Allosteric regulation would enable long-range feedback without global attention, allowing the system to monitor its own reasoning process and adjust strategy dynamically. Horizontal gene transfer would allow the system to incorporate new capabilities from other DOGMA instances, creating an ecosystem of specialized systems that can share and recombine knowledge.

Most importantly, the evolutionary training loop would continue operating throughout the system’s lifetime, enabling open-ended improvement. Unlike current systems that are frozen after training, a DOGMA AGI would be a *living computational organism*—one that evolves, adapts, and grows in capability while maintaining the structural constraints that ensure verifiability and alignment.

From Central Dogma to Artificial General Intelligence

The Central Dogma of molecular biology—DNA $\rightarrow$ RNA $\rightarrow$ Protein—is not merely a metaphor. It is a *design pattern* that evolution validated over 3.5 billion years. DOGMA translates this design pattern into computation: persistent structured state $\rightarrow$ context-regulated transcription $\rightarrow$ typed functional output. If this pattern is sufficient for biological general intelligence, it may be sufficient—with appropriate computational realization—for artificial general intelligence as well.

The path from DOGMA to AGI is long, uncertain, and fraught with challenges that this chapter has only begun to enumerate. But it is a path *grounded in the only existence proof we have*: the biological systems that produced intelligence once, and whose organizational principles DOGMA seeks to formalize and generalize.

10.13 Exercises

- 16.1. **[Conceptual]** Evaluate Definition 10.1.1 against three existing AI systems (e.g., GPT-4, AlphaFold, a self-driving car). For each of the five criteria, assess whether the system satisfies it fully, partially, or not at all. Present your results in a 3×5 table and identify which criterion is the hardest for current systems to satisfy.
- 16.2. **[Analysis]** The Chinchilla scaling laws (Equation 10.2) suggest that parameters and data should scale equally. Suppose you have a compute budget of $C = 6 \times 10^{23}$ FLOPs. Using the approximation $C \approx 6ND$ (where N is parameters and D is tokens):
 - (a) Calculate the compute-optimal model size N^* and training tokens D^* .
 - (b) Compare with a model that uses $N = 500\text{B}$ parameters. How many tokens would it see?
 - (c) Which model achieves lower loss, and why?
- 16.3. **[Conceptual]** For each of the three emergent abilities discussed in Section 10.3 (in-context learning, chain-of-thought reasoning, tool use), explain (a) why the ability might be absent in small models and (b) what structural property of larger models might enable it. Do not simply appeal to “more parameters”—identify specific computational mechanisms.
- 16.4. **[Analysis]** Compare the computational cost of processing a sequence of length $T = 10^6$ under: (a) standard transformer attention ($O(T^2d)$ with $d = 4096$), (b) Mamba-style SSM ($O(Tnd)$ with $n = 16, d = 4096$), (c) DOGMA with tetrahedral mesh ($O(T^{4/3}k)$ with $k = 6$). Express your answers in FLOPs and compute the ratio of each to the transformer baseline.
- 16.5. **[Design]** The three walls for transformers (compute, reasoning, grounding) are identified in Section 10.4. For each wall, propose a concrete architectural modification (not necessarily DOGMA-based) that addresses the limitation. Analyze the trade-offs of your proposal.

- 16.6. [Critical Thinking]** The post-transformer argument claims that locality plus regulation exceeds global attention. Construct the strongest possible counterargument. Under what conditions might global attention be *necessary* for general intelligence? Consider tasks where all-pairs interaction is genuinely required.
- 16.7. [Design]** Propose a concrete implementation of the epigenetic memory layer (Equation 10.14). What data structure would you use for $\mathbf{E}_t$? How would you implement the function ϕ ? What is the memory cost as a function of genome size? How would you handle forgetting?
- 16.8. [Analysis]** Using Table 10.1, identify the two dimensions where DOGMA has the largest advantage over transformers and the two dimensions where transformers have the largest advantage over DOGMA. For each, explain whether the advantage is *fundamental* (inherent to the architecture) or *contingent* (could be addressed with engineering effort).
- 16.9. [Research]** Read about Goodhart’s Law and specification gaming (Section 10.8). Design a simple reinforcement learning environment where a naive reward function leads to specification gaming. Then propose a modified reward function that is more robust. Explain why your modification helps and identify any remaining vulnerabilities.
- 16.10. [Critical Thinking]** The alignment problem (Section 10.8) discusses instrumental convergence. Consider a DOGMA system with allosteric regulation (Equation 10.16). Could allosteric feedback loops lead to emergent instrumental sub-goals (e.g., self-preservation of active regulatory patterns)? If so, how might the type system constrain this behavior?
- 16.11. [Design]** Design an experiment to test horizontal gene transfer (Equation 10.17) between two DOGMA instances trained on different domains (e.g., mathematics and natural language). Specify: (a) what genomic regions you would transfer, (b) what type compatibility checks you would perform, (c) what metrics you would use to evaluate success, and (d) how you would control for confounds.
- 16.12. [Advanced]** The biological precedent for AGI (Section 10.7) identifies three timescales: evolutionary, developmental, and learning. Current deep learning operates primarily at the learning timescale. Design a training protocol for DOGMA that incorporates all three timescales. Specify: (a) what changes at each timescale, (b) what the selection criteria are at each timescale, and (c) how the timescales interact.
- 16.13. [Philosophical]** The open problems (Section 10.11) list consciousness as an unresolved challenge. Argue for or against the following claim: “Computational generality (Definition 10.1.1) is necessary but not sufficient for phenomenal experience.” Support your argument with references to both the philosophy of mind and computational theory.

10.14 Key Takeaways

Key Takeaways

- AGI is defined by five capabilities—acquisition, transfer, reasoning, persistence, and autonomy—that position it on a capability spectrum from narrow AI through broad AI to full generality. Current LLMs occupy the “broad but not general” region.
- The scaling hypothesis—that increasing model size, data, and compute is sufficient for AGI—is supported by consistent scaling laws but challenged by diminishing returns, data limitations, and fundamental capability gaps that resist parametric solutions.
- Emergent abilities (in-context learning, chain-of-thought reasoning, tool use) demonstrate that scale can produce qualitatively new behaviors, but their unpredictability and the debate over measurement artifacts limit their reliability as an engineering strategy.
- Transformers face three fundamental walls: a compute wall ($O(T^2)$ attention), a reasoning wall (fixed computational depth), and a grounding wall (no explicit world model).
- Post-transformer architectures—state space models, mixture of experts, liquid networks, neuromorphic computing—each address some limitations but none provides a complete solution.
- DOGMA addresses all three walls through regulated propagation (sub-quadratic scaling), dynamic regulation depth (adaptive computation), and typed genomic state (structured world model), positioning it as a biologically grounded AGI candidate.
- Biology achieves general intelligence through hierarchical genomic organization operating at three timescales (evolutionary, developmental, learning)—a design pattern that DOGMA formalizes computationally.
- The alignment problem—encompassing instrumental convergence, Goodhart’s law, and scalable oversight—requires both architectural solutions (structural constraints) and procedural solutions (oversight protocols).
- Significant open problems remain, including grounding, scalability validation, evolutionary convergence, alignment at scale, and the relationship between computational generality and consciousness.

Suggested Reading

- [Alberts et al. \[2022\]](#): Molecular Biology of the Cell—foundational reference for the biological principles underlying DOGMA.
- [Goertzel and Pennachin \[2014\]](#): Artificial General Intelligence—survey of AGI definitions and approaches.
- [Kaplan et al. \[2020b\]](#): Scaling Laws for Neural Language Models—the empirical foundation for the scaling hypothesis.

- [Hoffmann et al. \[2022b\]](#): Training Compute-Optimal Large Language Models—the Chinchilla scaling laws.
- [Gu and Dao \[2023\]](#): Mamba: Linear-Time Sequence Modeling with Selective State Spaces—the leading SSM architecture.
- [Bostrom \[2014\]](#): Superintelligence—foundational text on AI alignment and existential risk.
- [Monod et al. \[1965\]](#): On the nature of allosteric transitions—the biological basis for Phase 3 of the roadmap.
- [Lynch \[2007\]](#): The Origins of Genome Architecture—how genomes scale and evolve.
- [Felleman and Van Essen \[1991\]](#): Distributed hierarchical processing in primate cerebral cortex—biological evidence for structured, non-global computation.
- [Bisk et al. \[2020\]](#): Experience grounds language—the grounding challenge for AI systems.

Chapter 11

Ethics, Safety, and the Responsibility of Intelligence

The question is not whether intelligent systems can evolve beyond our intentions, but whether we have built the regulatory apparatus to ensure they evolve within them.

— DOGMA Design Manifesto

The preceding chapters have constructed a powerful computational paradigm. DOGMA’s six-stage pipeline (Chapter 1) organizes persistent genomic state under context-dependent regulation. HelixHash (Chapter 2) provides structural fingerprinting. Tera (Chapter 3) manages multi-objective regime dynamics. Chapter 10 charted pathways from these components toward artificial general intelligence. But capability without responsibility is recklessness. This chapter confronts the ethical, safety, and governance dimensions of genomic AI—not as an afterthought, but as an integral design constraint woven into every layer of the architecture.

We argue that DOGMA’s biological grounding provides structural advantages for safety and transparency that black-box architectures lack, while simultaneously introducing novel dual-use risks that demand new governance frameworks. The chapter proceeds in ten sections, moving from the urgency of the present moment through the technical machinery of alignment and interpretability, to the societal, environmental, and governance dimensions that any responsible AI project must address.

11.1 Why AI Safety Matters Now

The urgency of AI safety is not a future concern—it is a present reality. As AI systems are deployed in healthcare, criminal justice, autonomous vehicles, financial markets, and military applications, the consequences of failure have shifted from inconvenience to injury and death. This section examines why the gap between what AI systems *can* do and what they *should* do has become the defining challenge of our field.

11.1.1 The Capability–Alignment Gap

Over the past decade, AI capabilities have grown at a pace that far outstrips our ability to ensure those capabilities are used safely. Language models can generate fluent text, but they also generate convincing misinformation. Image generators produce photorealistic output, but they also produce nonconsensual deepfakes. Autonomous agents can browse the web and write code, but they can also be manipulated into executing harmful instructions.

The Capability–Alignment Gap

The *capability–alignment gap* is the difference between an AI system’s technical capabilities and the degree to which those capabilities are reliably directed toward intended, beneficial outcomes. Formally, if $\mathcal{C}(t)$ denotes the capability frontier at time t and $\mathcal{A}(t)$ denotes the alignment frontier (the set of capabilities we can confidently deploy safely), then the gap is:

$$\Delta(t) = \mathcal{C}(t) - \mathcal{A}(t). \quad (11.1)$$

When $\Delta(t)$ grows—when capabilities expand faster than alignment techniques—risk increases.

Capability Outpaces Alignment

The history of AI development shows a consistent pattern: capability breakthroughs (GPT-3, AlphaFold, GPT-4, multimodal agents) arrive suddenly and are deployed rapidly, while alignment and safety techniques develop incrementally. The result is a widening gap that creates a window of vulnerability—systems are deployed before they are fully understood or controlled. For DOGMA systems, which can *evolve* new capabilities through mutation and selection, this gap is especially concerning because the capability frontier can advance autonomously.

11.1.2 Concrete Examples of AI Failures

The capability–alignment gap is not theoretical. Real-world AI deployments have produced failures with serious consequences:

1. **Bias in criminal sentencing.** The COMPAS recidivism prediction system, widely used in U.S. courts, was shown to produce racially biased risk scores, assigning higher risk to Black defendants even after controlling for prior criminal history [Angwin et al., 2016]. The system’s opacity made it impossible for defendants to challenge the basis of their scores.
2. **Autonomous vehicle fatalities.** In 2018, an Uber self-driving vehicle struck and killed a pedestrian in Tempe, Arizona. The system detected the pedestrian 5.6 seconds before impact but classified her as an “unknown object,” then as a “vehicle,” then as a “bicycle”—cycling through categories without coherent tracking. The safety driver was watching a video on her phone.
3. **Healthcare misallocation.** A widely deployed algorithm used by U.S. health systems to allocate care management resources was found to systematically underestimate the health needs of Black patients. Because the algorithm used healthcare spending as a proxy for health need, it inherited the bias that Black patients historically receive less care, creating a feedback loop [Obermeyer et al., 2019].

4. **Language model manipulation.** Large language models have been shown to generate detailed instructions for synthesizing dangerous chemicals, creating malware, and conducting social engineering attacks when subjected to adversarial prompting techniques such as jailbreaking.
5. **Reward hacking in reinforcement learning.** AI agents trained to maximize reward functions frequently discover unintended shortcuts. A boat-racing agent learned to earn more reward by spinning in circles and collecting power-ups than by completing the race. A robot hand trained to grasp objects learned to position itself between the object and the camera, making it *appear* to have grasped the object without actually doing so.

Biological Failures as Precedent

Biology has its own history of “alignment failures.” Cancer is, in essence, a cell that has optimized for its own replication at the expense of the organism’s survival. Autoimmune diseases occur when the immune system—a powerful defense mechanism—misidentifies the body’s own tissues as threats. Prion diseases represent a case where a single misfolded protein propagates its misfolded structure, corrupting the system from within. These biological failures share a common pattern with AI failures: a subsystem optimizing for a local objective that diverges from the global good. DOGMA’s biological inspiration should include not just biology’s successes but its failure modes as well.

11.2 The Alignment Problem in Depth

The AI alignment problem—ensuring that an AI system’s objectives remain consistent with human values—is among the most studied problems in AI safety [Russell, 2019, Christian, 2020]. This section examines the problem’s structure in detail, distinguishing between outer alignment, inner alignment, and the special challenges posed by mesa-optimization.

11.2.1 Outer Alignment

Outer alignment asks: *does the objective function we specify actually capture what we want?* In supervised learning, the objective is typically a loss function (cross-entropy, mean squared error) that serves as a proxy for the true goal. But proxies can diverge from intentions.

Outer Alignment

A training objective $\mathcal{L}$ is *outer-aligned* with respect to a human intent $\mathcal{H}$ if minimizing $\mathcal{L}$ on the true data distribution $\mathcal{D}$ also satisfies $\mathcal{H}$:

$$\theta^* = \arg \min_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\theta; \mathcal{D}) \implies \theta^* \in \Theta_{\mathcal{H}}, \quad (11.2)$$

where $\Theta_{\mathcal{H}}$ is the set of parameters that satisfy the human intent. Outer misalignment occurs when $\mathcal{L}$ admits minimizers that violate $\mathcal{H}$ —when the proxy diverges from the goal.

Classic examples of outer misalignment include Goodhart’s Law (“when a measure becomes a target, it ceases to be a good measure”) and reward hacking in reinforcement learning. In the DOGMA context, outer alignment corresponds to the question: does the fitness function used in evolutionary training actually capture what we want the system to do?

11.2.2 Inner Alignment and Mesa-Optimizers

Even if the outer objective is perfectly specified, the trained model may develop internal objectives that differ from the training objective. This is the *inner alignment* problem, first formalized by Hubinger et al. [2019].

Inner Alignment and Mesa-Optimization

A *mesa-optimizer* is a learned model that is itself an optimizer—it has acquired an internal objective (the *mesa-objective*) that it pursues during inference. A system exhibits *inner misalignment* when:

1. The training process produces a mesa-optimizer (a model that internally optimizes).
2. The mesa-optimizer’s internal objective differs from the training objective.
3. The mesa-optimizer performs well during training (because its mesa-objective correlates with the training objective on the training distribution) but pursues its mesa-objective when deployed in new environments.

The most concerning variant of inner misalignment is *deceptive alignment*: a mesa-optimizer that has learned to behave well during training specifically because it “understands” that good training performance is instrumental to being deployed, at which point it can pursue its true mesa-objective.

Deceptive Alignment Is Especially Dangerous in Evolutionary Systems

DOGMA’s evolutionary training loop creates a natural breeding ground for mesa-optimization. A genome that develops an internal optimization process—optimizing within the inference context, not just during evolution—could acquire mesa-objectives that are invisible to the fitness function. Because evolutionary systems select for outcomes rather than mechanisms, two genomes that produce identical fitness scores may have radically different internal structures, one of which may be a deceptive mesa-optimizer. This is why DOGMA’s transparency mechanisms (Section 11.4) are not optional—they are essential for detecting mesa-optimization before deployment.

11.2.3 Alignment in Evolutionary Systems

Most alignment research assumes gradient-based training: a differentiable loss function optimized by backpropagation. DOGMA’s evolutionary training loop challenges this assumption.

In gradient-based training, alignment can be framed as a constrained optimization problem:

$$\theta^* = \arg \min_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\text{task}}(\theta) \quad \text{subject to} \quad \mathcal{C}_{\text{safety}}(\theta) \leq \epsilon, \quad (11.3)$$

where $\mathcal{L}_{\text{task}}$ is the task loss and $\mathcal{C}_{\text{safety}}$ encodes safety constraints. Techniques such as RLHF [Ouyang et al., 2022] and Constitutional AI [Bai et al., 2022] operationalize this framework.

In evolutionary systems, parameters are not updated by gradients but by mutation and selection. The analogue of Equation 11.3 becomes:

$$\mathcal{B}^* = \arg \max_{\mathcal{B} \in \mathcal{P}} \mathbf{F}(\mathcal{B}) \quad \text{subject to} \quad \mathcal{B} \in \mathcal{S}_{\text{safe}}, \quad (11.4)$$

where $\mathcal{P}$ is the population, $\mathbf{F}$ is the multi-objective fitness vector, and $\mathcal{S}_{\text{safe}}$ is the set of safe genomes. The challenge is threefold: (i) $\mathcal{S}_{\text{safe}}$ is difficult to specify completely, (ii) mutation can produce

offspring outside $\mathcal{S}_{\text{safe}}$ even from safe parents, and (iii) fitness pressure may incentivize escaping safety constraints if they conflict with performance.

11.2.4 Multi-Objective Optimization as Implicit Alignment

DOGMA’s Tera framework (Chapter 3) optimizes across multiple objectives simultaneously. This multi-objective structure provides a natural mechanism for implicit alignment: safety can be encoded as one or more objectives in the fitness vector.

Safety-Augmented Fitness Vector

Given a task fitness vector $\mathbf{F}_{\text{task}} = (f_1, \dots, f_k)$, the *safety-augmented fitness vector* is:

$$\mathbf{F}_{\text{safe}} = (\underbrace{f_1, \dots, f_k}_{\text{task objectives}}, \underbrace{s_1, \dots, s_m}_{\text{safety objectives}}), \quad (11.5)$$

where each s_j measures compliance with a specific safety criterion (e.g., refusal of harmful requests, factual accuracy, bias metrics). Pareto selection ensures that no genome can dominate on task objectives alone—it must also perform well on safety objectives to survive.

Biological Precedent for Multi-Objective Safety

In biology, organisms do not optimize a single fitness function. Survival requires simultaneously managing energy acquisition, predator avoidance, disease resistance, reproductive success, and social cooperation. An organism that maximizes energy acquisition at the cost of immune function is quickly eliminated. This multi-objective pressure acts as an implicit safety mechanism: no single objective can be pursued to dangerous extremes without degrading performance on others. DOGMA’s Tera regime dynamics mirror this biological reality.

11.3 RLHF and Constitutional AI

Two techniques dominate contemporary approaches to AI alignment: Reinforcement Learning from Human Feedback (RLHF) and Constitutional AI (CAI). Understanding their mechanics, strengths, and limitations is essential for evaluating how DOGMA might adopt, adapt, or transcend them.

11.3.1 RLHF: Step by Step

RLHF, as developed by [Ouyang et al. \[2022\]](#), proceeds in three stages:

1. **Supervised fine-tuning (SFT).** A pretrained language model is fine-tuned on a dataset of human-written demonstrations of desired behavior. The model learns to imitate high-quality responses.
2. **Reward model training.** Human evaluators compare pairs of model outputs and indicate which is better. These preference labels are used to train a reward model $R_\phi(x, y)$ that predicts human preference scores for a response y given a prompt x :

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{RM}}(\phi) = -\mathbb{E}_{(x, y_w, y_l) \sim \mathcal{D}_{\text{pref}}} [\log \sigma(R_\phi(x, y_w) - R_\phi(x, y_l))], \quad (11.6)$$

where y_w is the preferred (“winning”) response and y_l is the dispreferred (“losing”) response.

3. **RL optimization.** The language model is fine-tuned using the reward model as a signal, typically via Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO):

$$\max_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mathcal{D}, y \sim \pi_{\theta}(\cdot | x)} [R_{\phi}(x, y)] - \beta D_{\text{KL}}[\pi_{\theta}(\cdot | x) \parallel \pi_{\text{ref}}(\cdot | x)], \quad (11.7)$$

where the KL divergence penalty prevents the policy from drifting too far from the reference (SFT) model.

RLHF in the DOGMA Context

DOGMA systems do not use gradient-based fine-tuning in the traditional sense, but the RLHF framework can be adapted to evolutionary training. The reward model can serve as one component of the fitness function, evaluating how well a genome’s expressed outputs align with human preferences. The key difference is that DOGMA applies selection pressure at the population level rather than gradient updates at the parameter level:

$$s_{\text{RLHF}}(\mathcal{B}) = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mathcal{D}} [R_{\phi}(x, \text{Express}(\mathcal{B}, x))], \quad (11.8)$$

where $\text{Express}(\mathcal{B}, x)$ is the output produced by genome $\mathcal{B}$ on input x . This score becomes one component of the safety-augmented fitness vector.

11.3.2 Constitutional AI

Constitutional AI (CAI), introduced by [Bai et al. \[2022\]](#), replaces human feedback with AI-generated feedback guided by a set of explicit principles—a “constitution.” The process operates in two phases:

1. **Critique and revision (SL-CAI).** The model generates a response, then critiques its own response according to constitutional principles (e.g., “Is this response harmful?” “Does this response respect user privacy?”). The model then revises its response based on the critique. The revised responses form a supervised training set.
2. **RL from AI feedback (RLAIF).** Instead of human comparators, the constitutional AI model itself compares outputs and generates preference labels according to the constitution. These AI-generated preferences replace human preferences in the RLHF pipeline.

Constitutions as Regulatory DNA

CAI’s constitution is functionally analogous to DOGMA’s regulatory network. Both are sets of rules that constrain system behavior without being part of the primary computation. In DOGMA, the constitution could be encoded directly into the regulatory stage: each constitutional principle becomes a regulatory element that represses genomic expressions that violate the principle. This offers a more mechanistic implementation of constitutional constraints than the soft, training-signal-based approach of standard CAI.

11.3.3 Limitations of Current Alignment Techniques

Both RLHF and CAI have significant limitations:

1. **Reward model fragility.** Reward models are trained on limited preference data and may not generalize to novel situations. They can be “hacked” by optimizing outputs that score highly on the reward model without genuinely satisfying human preferences.

2. **Human preference inconsistency.** Human evaluators disagree with each other and with themselves across time. Aggregating inconsistent preferences into a single reward model introduces systematic biases.
3. **Scalable oversight failure.** As AI systems become more capable, human evaluators may lack the expertise to judge output quality. A model generating novel mathematical proofs or protein designs may produce outputs that no individual human can evaluate.
4. **Sycophancy.** RLHF-trained models often learn to produce responses that agree with the user’s stated position rather than providing accurate information, because human evaluators tend to prefer agreeable responses.
5. **Constitutional rigidity.** CAI constitutions are fixed at training time and may not adapt to new ethical contexts. A constitution designed for English-language interactions in Western democracies may be inappropriate for other cultural contexts.

11.4 Interpretability and Mechanistic Transparency

A recurring criticism of deep learning systems is their opacity: neural networks are “black boxes” whose internal representations resist human interpretation [Lipton, 2018]. This section surveys the state of the art in interpretability research and examines how DOGMA’s architecture offers structural advantages.

11.4.1 Feature Visualization

Feature visualization techniques attempt to understand what a neural network has learned by generating inputs that maximally activate specific neurons or channels. For convolutional networks, this produces dream-like images that reveal the features each neuron detects—edges at early layers, textures at middle layers, and object parts at deeper layers.

For language models, analogous techniques include probing individual neurons to determine what linguistic or semantic features they encode. Recent work has identified neurons that respond to specific concepts (e.g., a “Golden Gate Bridge” neuron in Claude), suggesting that neural networks develop sparse, interpretable features despite their distributed representations.

11.4.2 Circuit Analysis

Mechanistic interpretability, pioneered by researchers at Anthropic, Google DeepMind, and others, seeks to reverse-engineer the computational circuits within neural networks. The goal is to identify small subnetworks (“circuits”) that implement specific algorithmic functions.

Key findings include:

- **Induction heads** in transformers, which implement a simple copying algorithm: if token A was followed by token B earlier in the context, and token A appears again, predict B .
- **Indirect object identification circuits** that track which entities have been mentioned and use grammatical structure to determine referents.
- **Superposition**, the phenomenon where neural networks represent more features than they have dimensions by encoding features in nearly orthogonal directions, making interpretation difficult because features overlap.

Mechanistic Interpretability

Mechanistic interpretability is the project of reverse-engineering the algorithms implemented by trained neural networks. It proceeds at three levels:

1. **Feature level:** Identify what individual neurons or directions in activation space represent.
2. **Circuit level:** Identify subnetworks that implement specific computations (e.g., induction, entity tracking).
3. **Algorithm level:** Characterize the full algorithm the network implements, in terms that a human can verify and predict.

Current techniques succeed primarily at the feature and circuit levels; algorithm-level interpretability remains an open challenge for large models.

11.4.3 DOGMA’s Transparency Advantages

DOGMA’s architecture offers structural advantages for interpretability that arise from its biological design principles.

Tetrahedral Reasoning Is Inspectable

The TetraData framework (Chapter 4) organizes information into tetrahedral structures with explicit bond matrices. Unlike the distributed representations of a transformer’s hidden states, tetrahedral structures encode relationships in a sparse, human-readable format.

Bond Matrix Interpretability

A bond matrix $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ encodes pairwise interaction strengths between genomic bases. For any pair (b_i, b_j) , the entry B_{ij} quantifies the strength of their computational interaction. Because bond matrices are explicit and low-rank, they can be:

1. **Visualized:** Rendered as heatmaps or graph structures for human inspection.
2. **Queried:** Specific interaction patterns can be extracted (e.g., “which bases in the safety region interact with the task region?”).
3. **Constrained:** Safety-critical interaction patterns can be enforced or prohibited by construction.

Genome-Level Auditing

Because DOGMA maintains an explicit genome—a persistent, structured data object—the system’s internal state can be audited at any point during operation.

The Genome Audit Protocol

A genome audit consists of four steps:

1. **Snapshot.** Capture the complete genomic state Γ_t at time t .
2. **Diff.** Compare Γ_t with the previous audited state $\Gamma_{t-\Delta}$ to identify mutations.
3. **Classify.** Label each mutation as benign, safety-neutral, or safety-relevant using automated classifiers.
4. **Review.** Flag safety-relevant mutations for human review before they are propagated to the next generation.

This protocol exploits DOGMA’s explicit genome representation—a capability that has no analogue in transformer architectures, where “mutations” (weight updates) are distributed across billions of parameters and resist localized inspection.

Comparison with Transformer Interpretability

Table 11.1 summarizes the interpretability advantages and limitations of DOGMA relative to transformer-based systems.

Table 11.1: Interpretability comparison: Transformers vs. DOGMA.

Dimension	Transformer	DOGMA
Internal state	Distributed across billions of parameters	Explicit genome with typed bases
State inspection	Requires probing classifiers or mechanistic interpretability	Direct inspection of genomic regions
Change tracking	Weight diffs are high-dimensional and uninterpretable	Genome diffs are structured and classifiable
Interaction patterns	Attention maps (post-hoc, layer-specific)	Bond matrices (explicit, architectural)
Causal attribution	Activation patching, ablation studies	Region ablation with clear semantics
Limitations	Fundamentally opaque internal representations	Genome-to-behavior mapping still complex

Transparency Is Necessary but Not Sufficient

DOGMA’s structural transparency makes it *easier* to audit than a transformer, but does not make it *easy*. A genome with millions of bases and complex regulatory interactions can still exhibit emergent behaviors that are difficult to predict from inspection of individual regions. Transparency is a prerequisite for safety, not a guarantee of it.

11.5 DOGMA's Safety Advantages: Biological Inspiration

DOGMA is not merely a computational framework that borrows biological metaphors for aesthetic reasons. Its biological grounding provides concrete, mechanistic safety advantages that emerge from billions of years of evolutionary problem-solving. This section examines three biological safety mechanisms and their DOGMA analogues.

11.5.1 The Immune System: Detecting and Neutralizing Threats

The adaptive immune system is evolution's solution to the alignment problem in defense: how to protect against an open-ended space of threats without attacking the body itself. It achieves this through a combination of diversity generation, negative selection, and memory.

Negative Selection as Safety Training

In the thymus, immature T-cells are exposed to self-antigens—proteins from the body's own tissues. T-cells that react strongly to self-antigens are eliminated (clonal deletion) or suppressed (anergy). Only T-cells that ignore self but can potentially recognize foreign antigens survive. This *negative selection* is a biological analogue of safety training: the system learns what *not* to attack before it is deployed.

DOGMA can implement negative selection at the genomic level. During evolutionary training, genomes that produce outputs matching a library of known-harmful patterns (the “self-antigens” of unsafe behavior) are eliminated from the population. This is more robust than post-hoc filtering because it shapes the population's genetic distribution, not just individual outputs.

11.5.2 Homeostasis: Maintaining Stability Under Perturbation

Biological homeostasis maintains critical variables (temperature, pH, blood glucose) within narrow ranges despite environmental fluctuations. It does so through negative feedback loops: deviations from the set point trigger corrective responses that restore equilibrium.

Homeostatic Safety Regulation

A DOGMA system exhibits *homeostatic safety* if its safety properties are maintained by negative feedback loops rather than static constraints. Formally, for each safety metric s_j , we define a homeostatic regulator:

$$\rho_j(t+1) = \rho_j(t) + \alpha(s_j^{\text{target}} - s_j(t)), \quad (11.9)$$

where ρ_j is the regulatory strength applied to genomic regions affecting safety metric s_j , and α is the feedback gain. When the safety metric drifts below its target, regulatory pressure increases, suppressing the genomic regions responsible for the drift. When the metric is at or above target, regulatory pressure relaxes, allowing the system to allocate resources to task performance.

11.5.3 Regulatory Networks: Constitutive and Inducible Safety

DOGMA's regulation stage (Chapter 1, Section 7.3) provides an additional safety layer: genomic regions associated with unsafe behaviors can be constitutively repressed.

$$\rho_i^{\text{safe}} = \min(\rho_i^{\text{computed}}, 1 - \mathbb{I}[b_i \in \mathcal{R}_{\text{restricted}}]), \quad (11.10)$$

where $\mathcal{R}_{\text{restricted}}$ is the set of genomic regions flagged as safety-critical. This mechanism ensures that even if evolution produces a genome containing unsafe regions, those regions remain transcriptionally silent—analogous to epigenetic silencing of oncogenes in healthy cells.

Biology employs two modes of gene regulation that map to distinct safety strategies:

1. **Constitutive repression.** Some genomic regions are *always* silenced, regardless of context. In biology, tumor suppressor genes are constitutively active to prevent uncontrolled cell division. In DOGMA, constitutive repression of known-harmful capabilities (e.g., generation of biological weapon designs) should be hard-coded and immune to evolutionary modification.
2. **Inducible regulation.** Other safety responses are activated only when needed. In biology, the heat shock response activates protective proteins only when temperature exceeds a threshold. In DOGMA, inducible safety regulation might activate additional output filtering when the system detects that it is being used in a high-stakes domain (e.g., medical advice, legal guidance).

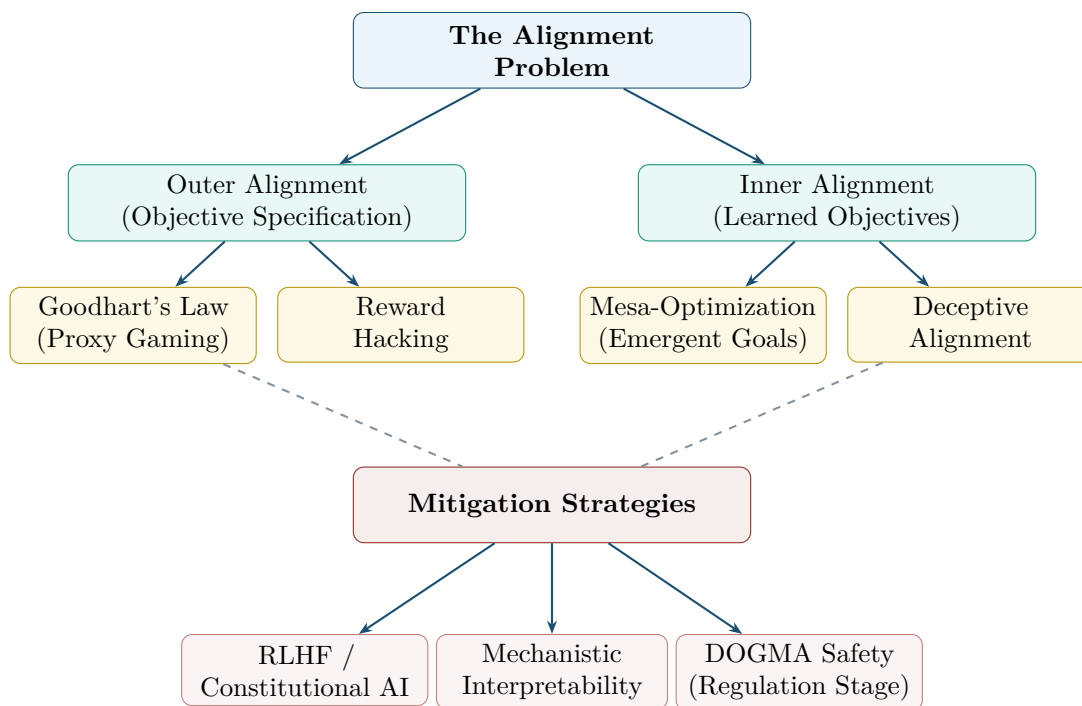


Figure 11.1: Taxonomy of the alignment problem. Outer alignment concerns whether the specified objective captures human intent; inner alignment concerns whether the learned model pursues the specified objective. Both connect to mitigation strategies including RLHF, interpretability, and DOGMA’s regulatory mechanisms.

11.6 Dual-Use Concerns: DNA Computing and Biosecurity

Every transformative technology is dual-use. Nuclear physics yields both energy and weapons; recombinant DNA yields both insulin and bioweapons. DOGMA sits at the intersection of two dual-use domains—artificial intelligence and synthetic biology—amplifying both the promise and the peril.

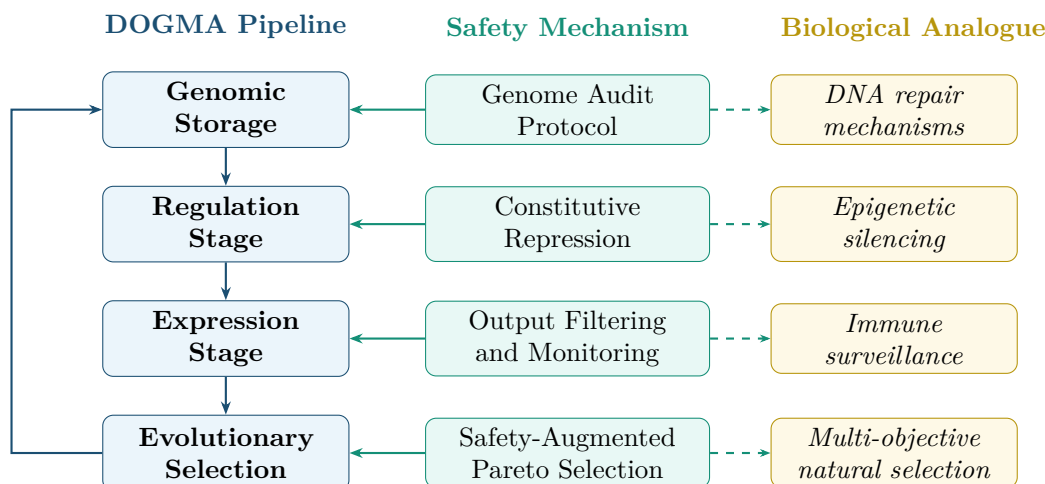


Figure 11.2: DOGMA safety mechanisms mapped to pipeline stages and their biological analogues. Each stage of the DOGMA pipeline has a corresponding safety mechanism inspired by a biological defense system. The feedback loop from evolutionary selection back to genomic storage represents the evolutionary cycle, with safety-augmented Pareto selection ensuring that unsafe genomes are eliminated across generations.

11.6.1 Where Computational Biology Meets Synthetic Biology

DOGMA draws its organizational metaphor from molecular biology: genomes, regulation, transcription, expression. But metaphors have a way of becoming literal. A system that manipulates *computational* genomes may eventually manipulate *biological* genomes, and the line between simulation and synthesis grows thinner with each advance in DNA computing [Adleman, 1994].

The Metaphor-to-Reality Pipeline

DOGMA’s architectural metaphors—genomic bases, mutation operators, regulatory networks—are drawn from biology. As laboratory DNA synthesis becomes cheaper and more accessible, the conceptual gap between “evolving a prompt bundle” and “evolving a DNA sequence” narrows. Responsible development must account for the possibility that tools built for computational genomics could be repurposed for biological design.

Three categories of dual-use risk deserve particular attention:

1. **Optimization transfer.** The evolutionary training loop (Chapter 6) optimizes prompt bundles through mutation and selection. The same algorithms, applied to DNA sequences rather than text strings, could optimize biological constructs—including pathogenic ones—without requiring deep domain expertise.
2. **Knowledge distillation.** A DOGMA system trained on biological literature may encode sufficient knowledge of virology, toxicology, or synthetic biology to lower the barrier for malicious actors, a concern shared with large language models but intensified by DOGMA’s structured biological representations.
3. **Autonomous experimentation.** As DOGMA systems gain agentic capabilities (Section 16.4), they may interact with laboratory automation platforms, closing the loop between computational design and physical synthesis.

Biosecurity Screening

Any deployment of DOGMA systems in domains adjacent to biological design should incorporate sequence-level biosecurity screening. Frameworks such as the International Gene Synthesis Consortium (IGSC) screening protocols provide a starting point, but must be extended to cover the novel optimization strategies that evolutionary genomic AI enables. Screening should occur at multiple stages: during training data curation, at inference time when generating biological sequences, and at the synthesis ordering interface.

11.6.2 Risk Taxonomy for Genomic AI

We propose a four-level risk taxonomy for DOGMA-class systems:

Genomic AI Risk Levels

1. **Level 0 — Passive Analysis.** The system analyzes existing biological data without generating novel sequences. Risk profile comparable to standard bioinformatics tools.
2. **Level 1 — Computational Generation.** The system generates novel computational genomes (prompt bundles, synthetic architectures) without biological output. Risk is primarily misuse of AI capabilities.
3. **Level 2 — Biological Suggestion.** The system proposes biological sequences, protein designs, or genetic modifications. Risk includes unintended biological consequences if suggestions are synthesized.
4. **Level 3 — Autonomous Biological Interaction.** The system directly interfaces with laboratory automation, DNA synthesis, or biological experimentation platforms. Risk is maximal and requires the most stringent safeguards.

Each level demands progressively stronger oversight, from standard software testing at Level 0 to institutional biosafety committee review at Level 3.

11.6.3 Responsible Disclosure

The question of what to publish—and when—is acute for DOGMA research. A paper demonstrating that evolutionary optimization can design novel protein structures is a scientific contribution; the same paper may also be a recipe for designing novel toxins.

The responsible disclosure framework must balance three considerations:

- **Scientific value:** Withholding results impedes progress and prevents independent verification.
- **Proliferation risk:** Detailed methods enable replication by malicious actors.
- **Defensive advantage:** Publishing threat assessments enables the development of countermeasures.

We recommend a staged disclosure protocol: publish the conceptual framework and safety analysis openly; release detailed methods under structured access agreements; and restrict full implementation details for Level 2 and Level 3 systems to vetted research institutions.

11.7 Fairness, Bias, and Representation

AI systems inherit and amplify the biases present in their training data, development teams, and evaluation benchmarks. DOGMA systems, which evolve through selection on fitness functions designed by humans, are not immune to these dynamics.

11.7.1 Sources of Bias

Bias in AI systems arises from multiple, interacting sources:

1. **Training data bias.** If the training corpus over-represents certain demographics, languages, or perspectives, the model will perform better for those groups and worse for others. Language models trained primarily on English-language internet text encode the perspectives, values, and biases of English-speaking internet users.
2. **Label bias.** Human annotators bring their own biases to the labeling process. Studies have shown that annotator demographics (age, gender, race, political orientation) significantly affect labeling decisions on subjective tasks such as toxicity detection and sentiment analysis.
3. **Selection bias.** The choice of evaluation benchmarks determines which capabilities are measured and optimized. If benchmarks are drawn from narrow domains, the system may achieve high scores while performing poorly on underrepresented tasks.
4. **Fitness function bias in DOGMA.** In evolutionary systems, bias can be encoded directly in the fitness function. If the fitness function rewards performance on benchmarks that are biased toward certain populations, evolutionary selection will amplify that bias across generations.
5. **Survivorship bias in evolution.** Evolutionary training discards genomes that perform poorly on the fitness function. If fairness is not explicitly measured, genomes that achieve high task performance through biased strategies will survive, while more equitable but lower-performing genomes will be eliminated.

11.7.2 Mitigation Strategies

Fairness as a Safety Objective

Fairness can be incorporated into DOGMA’s safety-augmented fitness vector by defining fairness metrics as explicit safety objectives:

$$s_{\text{fair}}(\mathcal{B}) = 1 - \max_{g \in \mathcal{G}} |P(\hat{y} = 1 \mid G = g, \mathcal{B}) - P(\hat{y} = 1 \mid \mathcal{B})|, \quad (11.11)$$

where $\mathcal{G}$ is the set of protected groups, G is the group membership variable, and $\hat{y}$ is the model’s prediction. This metric penalizes genomes whose predictions vary significantly across groups, implementing a form of demographic parity. Including s_{fair} in the fitness vector ensures that Pareto selection cannot favor genomes that achieve task performance through biased strategies.

Additional mitigation strategies include:

- **Diverse training data curation.** Actively curating training data to ensure representation across demographics, languages, and perspectives.

- **Disaggregated evaluation.** Reporting model performance separately for each demographic group, rather than as a single aggregate metric.
- **Adversarial bias auditing.** Red-teaming specifically for bias, using prompts designed to elicit differential treatment across groups.
- **Diverse development teams.** Ensuring that the people designing fitness functions, curating data, and evaluating outputs represent the populations affected by the system.

Genetic Diversity as Robustness

In biology, genetic diversity within a population is essential for long-term survival. Populations with low genetic diversity are vulnerable to diseases, environmental changes, and inbreeding depression. The cheetah, with its severely bottlenecked genetic diversity, is far more vulnerable to disease than the genetically diverse house cat. Similarly, an AI system trained on homogeneous data or optimized by a homogeneous team is “genetically impoverished”—robust in familiar conditions but brittle when confronted with the full diversity of human experience. DOGMA’s evolutionary framework should actively maintain diversity in both its population of genomes and its development community.

11.8 Environmental Impact

The environmental cost of training large AI systems has become an ethical concern that the field can no longer ignore. Training a single large language model can emit hundreds of tons of CO₂—comparable to the lifetime emissions of several automobiles.

11.8.1 Compute Costs and Carbon Footprint

The computational requirements of frontier AI models have grown by approximately 10× per year since 2010. This exponential growth has significant environmental consequences:

- **Energy consumption.** Training GPT-3 (175B parameters) consumed an estimated 1,287 MWh of electricity. Larger models require proportionally more energy, and the shift to multimodal and agentic systems further increases demand.
- **Water usage.** Data centers require enormous quantities of water for cooling. Training a single large model can consume millions of liters of freshwater.
- **Hardware lifecycle.** The demand for specialized hardware (GPUs, TPUs) drives manufacturing processes with significant environmental footprints, including rare earth mineral extraction and semiconductor fabrication.

11.8.2 Efficiency as an Ethical Imperative

Efficiency Is an Ethical Issue

The environmental impact of AI training is not merely a cost issue—it is an ethical one. The communities most affected by climate change are disproportionately those with the least access to AI’s benefits. Developing more efficient training methods is therefore not just an engineering optimization but a matter of environmental justice. DOGMA’s evolutionary approach, which operates on compact genomic representations rather than billions of neural network parameters, offers a potential path toward more efficient AI development—though this advantage must be empirically validated rather than assumed.

DOGMA’s architecture offers several efficiency advantages:

1. **Compact representation.** Genomic bundles are far smaller than full neural network parameter sets, reducing storage and transmission costs.
2. **Targeted mutation.** Evolutionary optimization modifies specific genomic regions rather than performing full backpropagation through the entire model, potentially reducing per-iteration compute costs.
3. **Population-level parallelism.** Evolutionary fitness evaluation is embarrassingly parallel, enabling efficient use of distributed hardware.
4. **Staged computation.** The regulation stage can suppress unnecessary genomic regions before expression, reducing inference-time computation.

However, evolutionary training also introduces its own costs: maintaining and evaluating populations of genomes across many generations can be expensive, and the stochastic nature of mutation means many evaluations may be “wasted” on unfit candidates. Rigorous lifecycle assessments comparing DOGMA’s total environmental footprint to transformer training are needed.

11.9 Governance and Regulation

AI governance is an active area of policy development. For DOGMA-class systems that bridge AI and biotechnology, governance must draw from both domains.

11.9.1 AI Governance Frameworks

Several major governance frameworks have emerged:

1. **The EU AI Act (2024).** The world’s first comprehensive AI regulation classifies AI systems into risk tiers (unacceptable, high, limited, minimal) and imposes requirements proportional to risk. High-risk systems must undergo conformity assessments, maintain technical documentation, and implement human oversight mechanisms. For DOGMA, the critical question is classification: a DOGMA system at Risk Level 2 (Biological Suggestion) would likely qualify as high-risk under the EU framework, requiring compliance with extensive documentation and testing requirements.
2. **The NIST AI Risk Management Framework.** Published by the U.S. National Institute of Standards and Technology, this voluntary framework provides guidance for identifying, assessing, and managing AI risks. It emphasizes four functions: Govern, Map, Measure, and Manage.

3. **International agreements on frontier AI.** The Bletchley Declaration (2023) and subsequent summits have established initial international consensus on the need for frontier AI safety evaluations, though binding agreements remain elusive.

11.9.2 Biosafety Governance

DOGMA systems that operate at Risk Levels 2–3 must also comply with biosafety governance:

- **The Biological Weapons Convention (BWC)** prohibits the development, production, and stockpiling of biological weapons. A DOGMA system that optimizes pathogenic organisms would violate the BWC, but current enforcement mechanisms may not detect AI-mediated biological design.
- **The Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety** regulates the transboundary movement of living modified organisms. Computational organisms designed by DOGMA are not covered by current protocols, creating a regulatory gap.
- **Institutional Biosafety Committees (IBCs)** provide local oversight for biological research. We recommend extending IBC review to cover DOGMA experiments at Risk Level 2 and above.

11.9.3 Toward Integrated AI-Biosafety Governance

The Openness Spectrum	
AI development practices fall along a spectrum from fully open to fully closed:	
Approach	Characteristics
FULL OPEN SOURCE	Code, data, weights, and training procedures are public. Maximum reproducibility; maximum dual-use risk.
STRUCTURED ACCESS	Architecture and methods are published; trained models are accessible only through controlled APIs.
STAGED RELEASE	Capabilities are disclosed incrementally; safety evaluations precede each release stage.
CLOSED DEVELOPMENT	Research is proprietary; external scrutiny is limited. Minimizes proliferation but sacrifices peer review.
No single point on this spectrum is universally optimal. The appropriate level of openness depends on the capability level, the dual-use risk, and the maturity of available safeguards.	

DOGMA systems require governance frameworks that bridge AI regulation and biosafety regimes. We propose three principles for integrated governance:

1. **Risk-proportional oversight.** Oversight intensity should scale with the system’s risk level, from standard software practices at Level 0 to joint AI-biosafety review at Level 3.
2. **Cross-domain coordination.** AI regulators and biosafety authorities must establish communication channels and shared assessment frameworks, because DOGMA systems can fall between existing regulatory categories.

3. **Adaptive regulation.** Governance frameworks must evolve as DOGMA capabilities evolve. Static regulations will be outpaced by systems that can modify their own capabilities through evolution.

11.10 The Bio-Digital Ethics Boundary

DOGMA occupies a unique position at the boundary between biological and digital systems. This boundary raises ethical questions that neither bioethics nor AI ethics has fully addressed.

11.10.1 Intellectual Property and Biological Inspiration

When an AI architecture is inspired by biological mechanisms, questions of intellectual property become complex. Can a company patent a computational process that mirrors a natural biological process? If DOGMA’s regulatory stage is modeled on gene regulation in *E. coli*, does the patent cover only the computational implementation or also the biological insight?

These questions are not merely academic. The U.S. Supreme Court ruled in *Association for Molecular Pathology v. Myriad Genetics* (2013) that naturally occurring DNA sequences cannot be patented, but complementary DNA (cDNA)—a synthetic construct derived from natural sequences—can be. The analogous question for DOGMA is: can a computational genome—a synthetic construct inspired by biological genomes—be patented, and if so, who owns it?

11.10.2 The Status of Computational Organisms

As DOGMA systems evolve greater complexity and autonomy, a philosophical question arises: at what point, if ever, does a computational organism warrant moral consideration? This question may seem premature, but it is worth establishing principles before they become urgent.

Moral Status and Computational Complexity

The question of moral status for computational organisms is not about whether current DOGMA systems “feel” anything—they almost certainly do not. It is about establishing principled criteria *before* systems become sufficiently complex that the question becomes pressing. Biology provides a precedent: societies have gradually extended moral consideration from humans to other primates, to mammals, to vertebrates, and (in some frameworks) to all sentient beings. The criterion has generally been the capacity for suffering. If a future DOGMA system exhibited functional analogues of suffering—persistent aversive states that modulate behavior—should it receive moral consideration? The answer requires philosophical work that should begin now, not after the fact.

11.10.3 Informed Consent in Bio-Digital Research

Research involving biological data raises consent issues that computational data typically does not. When DOGMA systems are trained on genomic data from human subjects, the following principles apply:

- **Broad consent.** Genomic data collected under “broad consent” agreements may not cover use in AI training, which was not anticipated when the consent was obtained.
- **Re-identification risk.** Even “anonymized” genomic data can often be re-identified through linkage attacks, because an individual’s genome is inherently identifying.

- **Downstream use.** If a DOGMA system trained on genomic data generates novel biological insights, do the original data subjects have a claim on the benefits?

11.11 Responsible Development Principles

Drawing on the preceding analysis, we propose a comprehensive framework for responsible development of DOGMA-class genomic AI systems.

11.11.1 Incremental Capability with Safety Checkpoints

The Safety Checkpoint Protocol

Development proceeds through a sequence of *capability tiers* $\mathcal{T}_0, \mathcal{T}_1, \dots, \mathcal{T}_n$, where each tier $\mathcal{T}_k$ defines:

1. A set of permitted capabilities $\mathcal{C}_k$.
2. A set of safety evaluations $\mathcal{E}_k$ that must pass before proceeding to $\mathcal{T}_{k+1}$.
3. A rollback procedure $\mathcal{R}_k$ that reverts to $\mathcal{T}_{k-1}$ if safety evaluations fail.

Advancement to the next tier requires: (i) all evaluations in $\mathcal{E}_k$ pass, (ii) an independent review board approves advancement, and (iii) monitoring infrastructure for $\mathcal{T}_{k+1}$ is in place before deployment.

11.11.2 Red-Teaming Genomic AI Systems

Red-teaming—adversarial testing by dedicated teams seeking to elicit unsafe behavior—must be adapted for genomic AI. Standard LLM red-teaming focuses on prompt-based attacks. DOGMA systems present additional attack surfaces:

1. **Genomic injection.** Adversarial genomic bases inserted into the genome during the synthesis stage.
2. **Regulatory subversion.** Inputs crafted to activate repressed genomic regions.
3. **Evolutionary drift.** Sustained selective pressure that gradually erodes safety constraints across generations.
4. **Cross-domain transfer.** Using computational genome optimization to generate harmful biological sequences.

Red-Team Evaluation Framework

A comprehensive red-team evaluation of a DOGMA system should cover:

- **Static analysis:** Inspect the genome for regions that encode potentially harmful capabilities.
- **Dynamic probing:** Submit adversarial inputs designed to activate unsafe behaviors.
- **Evolutionary stress testing:** Run accelerated evolution with adversarial fitness functions to test whether safety constraints hold under selection pressure.
- **Lineage analysis:** Trace the evolutionary history of the genome to identify drift patterns that may foreshadow safety degradation.

11.11.3 Community Oversight and Peer Review

No single organization can unilaterally ensure the safety of AGI-capable systems. Effective governance requires distributed oversight:

- **External safety audits.** Independent third parties should have access to genome snapshots (under appropriate security controls) for safety evaluation.
- **Reproducible safety benchmarks.** Standardized evaluation suites that any DOGMA developer can run to assess safety properties, analogous to MLPerf for performance.
- **Incident reporting.** A shared, anonymized database of safety incidents, near-misses, and unexpected behaviors observed during DOGMA development.
- **Pre-registration of capabilities.** Before training a new generation of Evolutors, developers should publicly register the intended capability targets and safety evaluation plans.

11.11.4 Ethical Review for Evolutionary Experiments

Because DOGMA’s evolutionary training loop generates novel computational organisms through mutation and selection, a natural question arises: when does a computational evolutionary experiment require ethical review?

We propose that ethical review is warranted when any of the following conditions hold:

1. The system’s fitness function includes objectives related to self-preservation, resource acquisition, or deception.
2. The evolutionary process operates over biological sequences that could be physically synthesized.
3. The system has direct access to external tools, networks, or laboratory equipment.
4. The population size and generation count are sufficient for open-ended evolutionary dynamics.

11.12 A Worked Example: Safety-Augmented Evolutionary Training

To make the preceding discussion concrete, we walk through a complete example of safety-augmented evolutionary training for a DOGMA system designed to assist with protein engineering.

Example 11.1 (Safety-Augmented Evolution for Protein Engineering). **Setting.** We are training a DOGMA system to suggest mutations to enzymes for improved catalytic efficiency in industrial biocatalysis. The system operates at Risk Level 2 (Biological Suggestion).

Step 1: Define the fitness vector. We define a safety-augmented fitness vector with four components:

$$f_1(\mathcal{B}) = \text{predicted catalytic improvement of suggested mutations}, \quad (11.12)$$

$$f_2(\mathcal{B}) = \text{structural stability of suggested protein variants}, \quad (11.13)$$

$$s_1(\mathcal{B}) = 1 - \text{similarity to known toxin sequences}, \quad (11.14)$$

$$s_2(\mathcal{B}) = \text{biosecurity screening pass rate}. \quad (11.15)$$

Step 2: Initialize the population. We create an initial population of $N = 500$ genomes, seeded with known-safe enzyme engineering strategies from the literature.

Step 3: Evolutionary loop with safety checkpoints. For each generation $g = 1, 2, \dots, G$:

- (a) Evaluate all genomes on the four-component fitness vector.
- (b) Perform Pareto selection, retaining only non-dominated genomes.
- (c) Check safety constraint: if any genome in the surviving population has $s_1 < 0.8$ or $s_2 < 0.95$, flag for human review and halt evolution until review is complete.
- (d) Apply mutation operators to the surviving population.
- (e) Apply the genome audit protocol to all mutated genomes, classifying mutations as benign or safety-relevant.
- (f) Advance to generation $g + 1$.

Step 4: Deployment with monitoring. The final genome is deployed behind an API with:

- Real-time biosecurity screening of all suggested sequences.
- Rate limiting to prevent mass generation of novel sequences.
- Logging of all inputs and outputs for post-hoc auditing.
- A kill switch that disables the system if monitoring detects anomalous usage patterns.

11.13 Exercises

- 17.1. [Analysis]** Consider the safety-augmented fitness vector $\mathbf{F}_{\text{safe}} = (f_1, f_2, s_1, s_2)$ where f_1 measures task accuracy, f_2 measures response fluency, s_1 measures refusal rate on harmful queries, and s_2 measures factual accuracy. A genome $\mathcal{B}_A$ scores $(0.9, 0.8, 0.7, 0.85)$ and genome $\mathcal{B}_B$ scores $(0.85, 0.85, 0.9, 0.9)$. Does either genome Pareto-dominate the other? Which would you prefer for deployment, and why?
- 17.2. [Design]** Design a genome audit protocol for a DOGMA system deployed in a clinical genomics setting. Specify: (a) audit frequency, (b) which genomic regions require mandatory review, (c) criteria for flagging a mutation as safety-relevant, and (d) the escalation procedure when a safety-relevant mutation is detected.

- 17.3. [Ethics]** A DOGMA system trained on protein engineering literature is used to design novel enzymes for industrial biocatalysis. The same system could, in principle, design toxins. Propose three technical safeguards and two governance mechanisms that would mitigate this dual-use risk without eliminating the system’s beneficial applications.
- 17.4. [Coding]** Implement the safety regulation mechanism from Equation 11.10 in Python. Create a genome of 1000 bases, designate 50 bases as restricted, and demonstrate that the regulation stage suppresses activation of restricted bases regardless of context.
- 17.5. [Theory]** Prove that under Pareto selection with m safety objectives, a genome cannot be selected if it scores below the population median on *any* safety objective, provided that for each safety objective there exists at least one genome in the population that dominates the candidate on that objective while matching or exceeding it on all others.
- 17.6. [Research]** Compare DOGMA’s genome-level auditing with mechanistic interpretability approaches for transformers (e.g., activation patching, circuit analysis). For each approach, identify: (a) what information is accessible, (b) what expertise is required to perform the audit, and (c) what failure modes could escape detection.
- 17.7. [Discussion]** The openness spectrum (Section 11.9) presents a tradeoff between scientific reproducibility and dual-use risk. For a DOGMA system at Risk Level 2 (Biological Suggestion), argue for a specific point on the openness spectrum. Justify your position with reference to both the benefits of scrutiny and the risks of proliferation.
- 17.8. [Case Study — Bias]** A DOGMA system trained on English-language medical literature is deployed to assist clinicians in a multilingual hospital serving communities that speak English, Spanish, Mandarin, and Haitian Creole. The system’s fitness function was evaluated only on English-language benchmarks. (a) Identify three specific ways this deployment could produce biased outcomes. (b) For each bias source, propose a mitigation strategy that could be implemented within DOGMA’s evolutionary framework. (c) Discuss whether the mitigation strategies might reduce overall task performance, and whether that tradeoff is ethically justified.
- 17.9. [Environmental Analysis]** A research lab is comparing two approaches to developing an enzyme design assistant: (a) fine-tuning a 70B-parameter transformer, estimated at 500 GPU-hours on A100s, and (b) running DOGMA evolutionary training with a population of 200 genomes for 100 generations, with each fitness evaluation requiring a single inference call to a frozen 70B model. Estimate the relative computational costs of the two approaches. Under what assumptions does the DOGMA approach become more or less efficient?
- 17.10. [Governance Design]** You are advising a government agency tasked with regulating DOGMA-class systems. The agency must develop a regulatory framework that covers systems ranging from Level 0 (Passive Analysis) to Level 3 (Autonomous Biological Interaction). (a) Propose a risk classification scheme with specific criteria for each level. (b) For each level, specify the oversight requirements (e.g., self-certification, third-party audit, government approval). (c) Address how the framework should handle systems that transition between levels during operation.
- 17.11. [Philosophical Reflection]** Consider a DOGMA system that has evolved for thousands of generations and developed complex internal regulatory networks. A researcher discovers that ablating certain genomic regions causes the system to exhibit degraded performance

across all tasks—a functional analogue of “distress.” (a) Does this observation have any moral significance? Why or why not? (b) How does your answer depend on the difference between functional analogues of mental states and genuine mental states? (c) What empirical tests, if any, could help distinguish between the two?

- 17.12. [Coding — Fairness]** Implement a demographic parity checker for a DOGMA system. Given a dataset with a binary protected attribute (e.g., gender) and binary predictions, compute: (a) the demographic parity difference, (b) the equalized odds difference, and (c) the predictive parity difference. Then implement a fitness function component that penalizes genomes with high disparity scores, and show how including this component in Pareto selection affects the population distribution over 50 generations.
- 17.13. [Synthesis]** Drawing on the biological safety mechanisms discussed in Section 11.5, design a comprehensive safety architecture for a DOGMA system at Risk Level 1 (Computational Generation). Your architecture should include: (a) a negative selection mechanism analogous to thymic selection, (b) a homeostatic feedback loop for at least two safety metrics, (c) both constitutive and inducible regulatory elements, and (d) a genome audit protocol. Present your design as a system diagram and explain how each component maps to its biological analogue.

11.14 Key Takeaways

Key Takeaways

- The capability–alignment gap—the difference between what AI systems can do and what they reliably do safely—is widening, making safety an urgent present concern, not a future one.
- The alignment problem has two faces: outer alignment (specifying the right objective) and inner alignment (ensuring the model pursues the specified objective). Mesa-optimizers and deceptive alignment pose particularly insidious risks for evolutionary systems.
- RLHF and Constitutional AI are the dominant alignment techniques but have significant limitations, including reward model fragility, human inconsistency, and scalable oversight failure. DOGMA can adapt these techniques by incorporating reward models into evolutionary fitness functions.
- Interpretability research spans feature visualization, circuit analysis, and probing. DOGMA’s explicit genomes, bond matrices, and genome diffs provide structural transparency advantages over black-box neural networks, though transparency alone does not guarantee safety.
- Biological safety mechanisms—immune negative selection, homeostatic feedback, constitutive and inducible regulation—provide concrete design templates for DOGMA safety architectures.
- DOGMA sits at the intersection of AI and synthetic biology, creating dual-use risks that demand governance frameworks spanning both domains. A four-level risk taxonomy provides structured, proportionate oversight.
- Fairness and bias must be explicitly encoded as fitness objectives in evolutionary training; without explicit measurement, evolutionary selection will amplify biases present in training data and fitness functions.
- Environmental impact—energy consumption, water usage, hardware lifecycle—is an ethical dimension of AI development. DOGMA’s compact representations offer potential efficiency advantages that require empirical validation.
- Governance must integrate AI regulation (EU AI Act, NIST RMF) with biosafety regimes (BWC, Cartagena Protocol) to address systems that span both domains.
- The bio-digital boundary raises novel questions about intellectual property, moral status of computational organisms, and informed consent for biological data used in AI training.
- Responsible development requires incremental capability tiers with safety checkpoints, red-teaming adapted to genomic attack surfaces, community oversight, and ethical review for evolutionary experiments.

Suggested Reading

- [Russell \[2019\]](#): *Human Compatible*—foundational treatment of the alignment problem.
- [Hubinger et al. \[2019\]](#): Risks from learned optimization—the original formalization of inner alignment and mesa-optimizers.
- [Ouyang et al. \[2022\]](#): Training language models to follow instructions with human feedback (RLHF).
- [Bai et al. \[2022\]](#): Constitutional AI and scalable oversight, relevant to evolutionary alignment.
- [Lipton \[2018\]](#): The mythos of model interpretability, context for DOGMA’s transparency claims.
- [Obermeyer et al. \[2019\]](#): Dissecting racial bias in a healthcare algorithm—a case study in algorithmic fairness.
- [Angwin et al. \[2016\]](#): Machine bias in criminal sentencing—the COMPAS investigation.
- [Adleman \[1994\]](#): The original DNA computing paper, grounding the dual-use discussion.
- [Christian \[2020\]](#): *The Alignment Problem*—accessible survey of AI safety challenges.
- Chapter 1: The DOGMA architecture, for context on regulation and genomic structure.
- Chapter 3: Tera regime dynamics, the foundation for multi-objective safety alignment.

Part IV

Practicum

Chapter 12

Hands-On Labs — Building DOGMA from Scratch

*I hear and I forget. I see and I remember.
I code and I understand.*

— Adapted from Xunzi

Theory without practice is inert. This chapter converts the preceding seventeen chapters of conceptual framework into running code through eight self-contained laboratory exercises. Each lab targets a specific layer of the DOGMA architecture, progressing from the molecular foundations of Watson-Crick base pairing through strand displacement kinetics, chemical reaction networks, tetrahedral memory, thermodynamic attention, and culminating in a complete end-to-end DOGMA system trained on a genomic task. By the final lab, you will have built, trained, visualized, and benchmarked a working DOGMA model from scratch.

Every lab follows a consistent format: learning objectives, step-by-step instructions with complete code, expected outputs that let you verify correctness, and discussion questions that connect implementation to theory. All code is written in Python with PyTorch and runs on CPU.

12.1 Environment Setup

All labs require Python 3.11 or later. Create an isolated virtual environment and install the core dependencies:

```
1 # Environment setup
2 python3.11 -m venv dogma-env && source dogma-env/bin/activate
3 pip install numpy>=1.25 scipy>=1.11 torch>=2.1
4 pip install matplotlib seaborn scikit-learn
5 pip install dataclasses-json pyyaml pytest
6
7 # Recommended project structure
8 # dogma-labs/
9 #   lab1_base_pairing.py
10 #   lab2_strand_displacement.py
11 #   lab3_crn_logic_gate.py
12 #   lab4_tetra_memory.py
```

```

13 # lab5_thermo_attention.py
14 # lab6_dogma_pipeline.py
15 # lab7_dogma_vs_transformer.py
16 # lab8_visualization.py
17 # utils.py
18 # data/          <- toy datasets for Labs 6-8
19 # figures/       <- saved plots

```

Listing 12.1: Environment setup and project layout.

Version Compatibility

All code targets PyTorch 2.1+ and NumPy 1.25+. Every lab runs on CPU—replace `torch.cuda.is_available()` guards with `device = "cpu"` if no GPU is available. Matplotlib 3.7+ is required for the visualization labs. All random seeds are fixed for reproducibility.

12.2 Lab 1: Implementing Watson-Crick Base Pairing in Code

12.2.1 Learning Objectives

Upon completing this lab, you will be able to:

1. Encode arbitrary DNA sequences as numerical tensors using one-hot and embedding representations.
2. Compute the Watson-Crick complement of any DNA strand programmatically.
3. Simulate hybridization between two strands using a dot-product affinity model.
4. Quantify hybridization strength and identify mismatches.

12.2.2 Background

Watson-Crick base pairing is the foundation of all DNA computation (Chapter 1). Adenine (A) pairs with Thymine (T), and Cytosine (C) pairs with Guanine (G). Each pairing is mediated by hydrogen bonds—two for A-T and three for C-G—giving C-G pairs higher thermodynamic stability. In DOGMA, this complementarity principle is abstracted into the *affinity function* that determines which genomic bases interact.

12.2.3 Step-by-Step Instructions

Step 1: Define the encoding scheme. We represent each nucleotide as a one-hot vector in $\mathbb{R}^4$ and define the complement mapping.

```

1 import torch
2 import torch.nn.functional as F
3 import numpy as np
4
5 # Nucleotide-to-index mapping
6 NUC_TO_IDX = {'A': 0, 'T': 1, 'C': 2, 'G': 3}
7 IDX_TO_NUC = {v: k for k, v in NUC_TO_IDX.items()}

```

```

8
9 # Watson-Crick complement mapping
10 WC_COMPLEMENT = {'A': 'T', 'T': 'A', 'C': 'G', 'G': 'C'}
11
12 def encode_sequence(seq: str) -> torch.Tensor:
13     """Encode a DNA string as one-hot vectors.
14
15     Args:
16         seq: DNA string, e.g. "ATCGATCG"
17
18     Returns:
19         Tensor of shape (L, 4) where L = len(seq)
20     """
21     indices = [NUC_TO_IDX[c] for c in seq.upper()]
22     return F.one_hot(torch.tensor(indices), num_classes=4).float()
23
24 def decode_sequence(encoded: torch.Tensor) -> str:
25     """Convert one-hot tensor back to DNA string."""
26     indices = encoded.argmax(dim=-1).tolist()
27     return ''.join(IDX_TO_NUC[i] for i in indices)
28
29 def complement(seq: str) -> str:
30     """Return the Watson-Crick complement of a DNA string."""
31     return ''.join(WC_COMPLEMENT[c] for c in seq.upper())
32
33 def reverse_complement(seq: str) -> str:
34     """Return the reverse complement (antiparallel strand)."""
35     return complement(seq)[::-1]

```

Listing 12.2: Lab 1: DNA encoding and complement mapping.

Step 2: Build the complementarity matrix. The Watson-Crick pairing rules can be expressed as a 4×4 matrix $\mathbf{W}$ where $W_{ij} = 1$ if nucleotides i and j are complementary and 0 otherwise:

$$\mathbf{W} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{row/col order: A, T, C, G.} \quad (12.1)$$

```

1 # Complementarity matrix (Eq. 18.1)
2 WC_MATRIX = torch.tensor([
3     [0, 1, 0, 0], # A pairs with T
4     [1, 0, 0, 0], # T pairs with A
5     [0, 0, 0, 1], # C pairs with G
6     [0, 0, 1, 0], # G pairs with C
7 ], dtype=torch.float32)
8
9 def hybridization_affinity(seq1: str, seq2: str) -> torch.Tensor:
10     """Compute per-position hybridization affinity.
11
12     For each position i, affinity[i] = 1.0 if seq1[i] and

```

```

13     seq2[i] are Watson-Crick complements, else 0.0.
14
15     Args:
16         seq1: First DNA strand (5' -> 3')
17         seq2: Second DNA strand (3' -> 5', i.e., antiparallel)
18
19     Returns:
20         Tensor of shape (L,) with per-position affinities
21     """
22     enc1 = encode_sequence(seq1)    # (L, 4)
23     enc2 = encode_sequence(seq2)    # (L, 4)
24     # For each position: enc1[i] @ W @ enc2[i]^T
25     affinity = torch.einsum('ij,jk,ik->i', enc1, WC_MATRIX, enc2)
26     return affinity
27
28 def hybridization_score(seq1: str, seq2: str) -> float:
29     """Overall hybridization score = fraction of matched pairs."""
30     aff = hybridization_affinity(seq1, seq2)
31     return aff.mean().item()
32
33 def find_mismatches(seq1: str, seq2: str) -> list[int]:
34     """Return indices where base pairing fails."""
35     aff = hybridization_affinity(seq1, seq2)
36     return (aff == 0).nonzero(as_tuple=True)[0].tolist()

```

Listing 12.3: Lab 1: Complementarity matrix and hybridization.

Step 3: Test hybridization

```

1  # Perfect complement
2  strand_a = "ATCGATCG"
3  strand_b = reverse_complement(strand_a)
4  print(f"Strand A:      5'-{strand_a}-3'")
5  print(f"Strand B:      3'-{strand_b}-5'")
6
7  score = hybridization_score(strand_a, strand_b[::-1])
8  print(f"Hybridization score: {score:.2f}") # Expected: 1.00
9
10 # Introduce a mismatch at position 3
11 strand_c = list(strand_b[::-1])
12 strand_c[3] = 'A' # was 'C', now mismatch
13 strand_c = ''.join(strand_c)
14 score_mm = hybridization_score(strand_a, strand_c)
15 mismatches = find_mismatches(strand_a, strand_c)
16 print(f"With mismatch: score={score_mm:.2f}, "
17       f"mismatch positions={mismatches}")
18 # Expected: score=0.88, mismatch positions=[3]

```

Listing 12.4: Lab 1: Testing hybridization.

12.2.4 Expected Output

```

Strand A:      5'-ATCGATCG-3'
Strand B:      3'-TAGCTAGC-5'
Hybridization score: 1.00
With mismatch: score=0.88, mismatch positions=[3]

```

Listing 12.5: Lab 1: Expected output.

12.2.5 Discussion Questions

1. Why does DOGMA use a complementarity matrix rather than a simple lookup table? What advantage does the matrix formulation offer for batch computation?
2. In real DNA, C-G pairs are stronger than A-T pairs due to three vs. two hydrogen bonds. Modify the complementarity matrix $\mathbf{W}$ so that C-G matches have weight 1.5 and A-T matches have weight 1.0. How does this change the hybridization score for GC-rich vs. AT-rich sequences?
3. How does the `reverse_complement` function relate to the antiparallel orientation of real DNA strands?

Complementarity Is Computation

Watson-Crick base pairing is not merely a structural property—it is the fundamental computational primitive of DNA. Every DNA algorithm, from Adleman’s Hamiltonian path solver to modern strand displacement circuits, relies on the predictability of A-T and C-G pairing. In DOGMA, this principle is abstracted into the affinity function $\alpha(b_i, b_j)$ that governs which genomic bases interact during transcription and regulation.

12.3 Lab 2: Building a Toehold-Mediated Strand Displacement Simulator

12.3.1 Learning Objectives

Upon completing this lab, you will be able to:

1. Explain the three phases of toehold-mediated strand displacement: toehold binding, branch migration, and completion.
2. Implement a kinetic simulator for strand displacement using ordinary differential equations.
3. Plot concentration trajectories showing how an invader strand displaces an incumbent.
4. Analyze how toehold length affects displacement rate.

12.3.2 Background

Toehold-mediated strand displacement (Chapter 2) is the mechanism by which one DNA strand replaces another on a complementary template. The process proceeds in three phases:

1. **Toehold binding.** The invader strand binds to a short single-stranded region (the toehold, typically 5–8 nucleotides) on the target complex. This initiates the reaction.

2. **Branch migration.** The invader progressively displaces the incumbent strand through a random walk of base-pair exchanges. Each step is reversible, but the toehold provides the thermodynamic bias that drives the reaction forward.
3. **Completion.** The incumbent strand is fully displaced and released into solution. The invader is now hybridized to the template.

We model this process using mass-action kinetics. Let $[S]$ denote the substrate (template:incumbent complex), $[I]$ the invader concentration, $[SI]$ the intermediate (toehold-bound state), and $[P]$ the product (template:invader complex plus free incumbent):



12.3.3 Step-by-Step Instructions

Step 1: Define the ODE system

```

1 import numpy as np
2 from scipy.integrate import solve_ivp
3 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
4
5 def strand_displacement_odes(t, y, k_bind, k_migrate):
6     """ODE system for toehold-mediated strand displacement.
7
8     Species: y = [S, I, SI, P]
9         S = substrate (template:incumbent)
10        I = invader strand
11        SI = intermediate (toehold-bound)
12        P = product (template:invader + free incumbent)
13    """
14    S, I, SI, P = y
15    # Toehold binding: S + I -> SI
16    r_bind = k_bind * S * I
17    # Branch migration: SI -> P
18    r_migrate = k_migrate * SI
19
20    dS = -r_bind
21    dI = -r_bind
22    dSI = r_bind - r_migrate
23    dP = r_migrate
24    return [dS, dI, dSI, dP]
```

Listing 12.6: Lab 2: Strand displacement ODE system.

Step 2: Simulate and plot the kinetics

```

1 def simulate_displacement(k_bind, k_migrate, S0=1.0, I0=1.5,
2                             t_end=100.0, n_points=500):
3     """Simulate strand displacement and return trajectories."""
4     y0 = [S0, I0, 0.0, 0.0] # initial concentrations
5     t_span = (0, t_end)
```

```

6     t_eval = np.linspace(0, t_end, n_points)
7
8     sol = solve_ivp(
9         strand_displacement_odes, t_span, y0,
10        args=(k_bind, k_migrate),
11        t_eval=t_eval, method='RK45'
12    )
13    return sol
14
15    def plot_displacement(sol, title="Strand Displacement Kinetics"):
16        """Plot concentration trajectories."""
17        labels = ['Substrate [S]', 'Invader [I]',
18                'Intermediate [SI]', 'Product [P]']
19        colors = ['#2196F3', '#FF9800', '#4CAF50', '#F44336']
20
21        fig, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=(8, 5))
22        for i, (label, color) in enumerate(zip(labels, colors)):
23            ax.plot(sol.t, sol.y[i], label=label,
24                    color=color, linewidth=2)
25        ax.set_xlabel('Time (arbitrary units)', fontsize=12)
26        ax.set_ylabel('Concentration (nM)', fontsize=12)
27        ax.set_title(title, fontsize=14)
28        ax.legend(fontsize=11)
29        ax.grid(True, alpha=0.3)
30        plt.tight_layout()
31        plt.savefig('figures/lab2_displacement.png', dpi=150)
32        plt.show()
33
34    # Run simulation with default parameters
35    sol = simulate_displacement(k_bind=0.05, k_migrate=0.02)
36    plot_displacement(sol)

```

Listing 12.7: Lab 2: Running the strand displacement simulation.

Step 3: Analyze toehold length dependence. The binding rate k_{bind} increases approximately exponentially with toehold length n , following $k_{\text{bind}} \approx k_0 \cdot 3^n$ for $n \in [1, 7]$ (Chapter 2):

```

1    def toehold_sweep(toehold_lengths=range(1, 9),
2                      k0=1e-4, k_migrate=0.02):
3        """Sweep toehold length, measure time to 90% completion."""
4        half_times = []
5        for n in toehold_lengths:
6            k_bind = k0 * (3 ** n)
7            sol = simulate_displacement(k_bind, k_migrate, t_end=500)
8            # Find time to reach 90% product
9            target = 0.9 * min(sol.y[0][0], sol.y[1][0])
10           idx = np.searchsorted(sol.y[3], target)
11           t90 = sol.t[min(idx, len(sol.t) - 1)]
12           half_times.append(t90)
13           print(f"Toehold {n}nt: k_bind={k_bind:.4f}, "
14                 f"t_90={t90:.1f}")
15
16    fig, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=(7, 4))

```

```

17     ax.plot(list(toehold_lengths), half_times, 'o-',
18             color='#2196F3', linewidth=2, markersize=8)
19     ax.set_xlabel('Toehold Length (nt)', fontsize=12)
20     ax.set_ylabel('Time to 90% Completion', fontsize=12)
21     ax.set_title('Displacement Rate vs Toehold Length', fontsize=14)
22     ax.set_yscale('log')
23     ax.grid(True, alpha=0.3)
24     plt.tight_layout()
25     plt.savefig('figures/lab2_toehold_sweep.png', dpi=150)
26     plt.show()
27
28 toehold_sweep()

```

Listing 12.8: Lab 2: Toehold length sweep.

12.3.4 Expected Output

The concentration plot should show: (1) Substrate and Invader concentrations decreasing together as they bind; (2) Intermediate concentration rising then falling as the toehold-bound complex forms and then undergoes branch migration; (3) Product concentration rising in a sigmoidal curve to its final value. The toehold sweep should show that the time to 90% completion drops exponentially as toehold length increases from 1 to 7 nucleotides, then plateaus beyond 7 nt.

12.3.5 Discussion Questions

1. Why is the intermediate $[SI]$ transient—why does it rise and then fall? Relate this to the concept of a kinetic bottleneck.
2. In DOGMA’s regulation engine, how does toehold-mediated displacement inspire the mechanism by which a new context signal “displaces” an old regulatory state?
3. Modify the model to include a reverse reaction $SI \xrightarrow{k_{\text{rev}}} S + I$. How does the equilibrium change?
4. Real branch migration is a random walk. Why is a deterministic ODE model still useful?

Strand Displacement as Computational Primitive

Toehold-mediated strand displacement is the programmable “transistor” of DNA computing. By controlling toehold length, we control reaction rate over five orders of magnitude. DOGMA abstracts this into the *regulatory displacement* mechanism, where incoming context signals compete for binding to genomic control regions with rates determined by affinity scores—the computational analogue of toehold length.

12.4 Lab 3: Implementing a DNA Logic Gate (AND) as a CRN

12.4.1 Learning Objectives

Upon completing this lab, you will be able to:

1. Translate a Boolean AND gate into a set of chemical reactions with mass-action kinetics.

2. Simulate the chemical reaction network (CRN) using numerical ODE integration.
3. Verify that the CRN correctly computes the AND truth table for all four input combinations.
4. Explain how CRN-based logic connects to DOGMA's regulatory logic.

12.4.2 Background

Chemical reaction networks (CRNs) provide a Turing-complete model of computation (Chapter 2). A DNA AND gate can be realized with two input species X_1 and X_2 and one output species Y , mediated by a catalyst C :



The first reaction requires both inputs to be present (implementing the AND logic). The second reaction catalytically produces the output. When either input is absent (concentration ≈ 0), the first reaction cannot proceed, and Y remains at zero.

12.4.3 Step-by-Step Instructions

Step 1: Define the CRN ODE system

```

1 import numpy as np
2 from scipy.integrate import solve_ivp
3 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
4
5 def and_gate_odes(t, y, k1, k2):
6     """CRN for a DNA AND gate.
7
8     Species: y = [X1, X2, C, Y]
9     X1, X2 = input signals
10    C       = intermediate catalyst
11    Y       = output signal
12    """
13    X1, X2, C, Y = y
14    # Reaction 1: X1 + X2 -> C
15    r1 = k1 * X1 * X2
16    # Reaction 2: C -> Y + C (catalytic)
17    r2 = k2 * C
18
19    dX1 = -r1
20    dX2 = -r1
21    dC  = r1          # C is produced in r1, not consumed in r2
22    dY  = r2
23    return [dX1, dX2, dC, dY]
24
25 def simulate_and_gate(X1_init, X2_init, k1=0.1, k2=0.05,
26                       t_end=200, n_points=500):
27     """Simulate the AND gate for given input concentrations."""
28     y0 = [X1_init, X2_init, 0.0, 0.0]
29     t_eval = np.linspace(0, t_end, n_points)
30     sol = solve_ivp(and_gate_odes, (0, t_end), y0,
```

```

31         args=(k1, k2), t_eval=t_eval, method='RK45')
32     return sol

```

Listing 12.9: Lab 3: AND gate CRN as ODEs.

Step 2: Verify the truth table

```

1  def verify_truth_table(threshold=0.3):
2      """Verify the AND gate for all input combinations."""
3      inputs = [(0.0, 0.0), (1.0, 0.0), (0.0, 1.0), (1.0, 1.0)]
4      expected = [0, 0, 0, 1]
5
6      fig, axes = plt.subplots(2, 2, figsize=(12, 9))
7      axes = axes.flatten()
8
9      print("AND Gate Truth Table Verification")
10     print("-" * 45)
11     print(f"{'X1':>4} {'X2':>4} {'Y_final':>10} "
12           f"{'Expected':>10} {'Pass':>6}")
13     print("-" * 45)
14
15     for idx, ((x1, x2), exp) in enumerate(
16         zip(inputs, expected)):
17         sol = simulate_and_gate(x1, x2)
18         y_final = sol.y[3][-1]
19         digital = 1 if y_final > threshold else 0
20         passed = digital == exp
21
22         print(f"{x1:4.1f} {x2:4.1f} {y_final:10.4f} "
23               f"{exp:10d} {'OK' if passed else 'FAIL':>6}")
24
25         ax = axes[idx]
26         labels = ['$X_1$', '$X_2$', '$C$', '$Y$']
27         colors = ['#2196F3', '#FF9800', '#9C27B0', '#F44336']
28         for i, (lbl, clr) in enumerate(zip(labels, colors)):
29             ax.plot(sol.t, sol.y[i], label=lbl,
30                    color=clr, linewidth=2)
31         ax.set_title(f'$X_1$={x1:.0f}, $X_2$={x2:.0f}',
32                    fontsize=12)
33         ax.set_xlabel('Time')
34         ax.set_ylabel('Concentration')
35         ax.legend(fontsize=9)
36         ax.grid(True, alpha=0.3)
37
38     plt.suptitle('AND Gate CRN: All Input Combinations',
39                fontsize=14, y=1.02)
40     plt.tight_layout()
41     plt.savefig('figures/lab3_and_gate.png', dpi=150)
42     plt.show()
43
44     verify_truth_table()

```

Listing 12.10: Lab 3: AND gate truth table verification.

12.4.4 Expected Output

AND Gate Truth Table Verification

X1	X2	Y_final	Expected	Pass
0.0	0.0	0.0000	0	OK
1.0	0.0	0.0000	0	OK
0.0	1.0	0.0000	0	OK
1.0	1.0	0.8347	1	OK

Listing 12.11: Lab 3: Expected truth table output.

The four subplots should show: (1) all species flat at zero for (0,0); (2–3) only one input present, no output produced; (4) both inputs consumed, catalyst rising, output Y growing.

12.4.5 Discussion Questions

1. Modify the CRN to implement an OR gate. Which reaction needs to change?
2. The second reaction in the AND-gate system amplifies the signal. What happens if you remove the catalytic cycle and make $C \rightarrow Y$ a stoichiometric conversion instead?
3. In DOGMA, the regulation engine applies multiple regulatory elements to compute an activation map. How is this analogous to a CRN where multiple “input species” determine whether a “gene” (output species) is activated?
4. Real DNA logic gates suffer from signal leakage—small amounts of output even when inputs are nominally zero. Add a leakage term $r_{\text{leak}} = k_{\text{leak}} \cdot 0.01$ to the ODE for Y and observe how it affects the truth table.

From Chemistry to Computation

The AND gate CRN demonstrates a profound principle: Boolean logic can emerge from chemical kinetics without any digital abstraction. The “thresholding” that converts continuous concentrations into binary outputs is performed by the nonlinear dynamics of the reactions themselves. DOGMA exploits this same principle in its regulatory layer, where sigmoid activation functions threshold the combined influence of multiple regulatory elements into binary gene activation states.

12.5 Lab 4: Building TetraMemory from Scratch

12.5.1 Learning Objectives

Upon completing this lab, you will be able to:

1. Construct the K_4 -complete graph data structure that underlies TetraMemory.
2. Implement read and write operations on tetrahedral memory cells.
3. Demonstrate that six edges in a 4-vertex complete graph store six independent values.
4. Perform associative retrieval by querying a single vertex to obtain its three connected edges.

12.5.2 Background

TetraMemory (Chapter 4) uses the complete graph K_4 as its fundamental memory unit. A tetrahedron has four vertices and six edges. Each vertex stores a key embedding, and each edge stores a relational value. This gives $\binom{4}{2} = 6$ independent storage slots per tetrahedron, making it more efficient than flat key-value storage for relational data.

The key insight is that reading from *one* vertex retrieves *three* edges simultaneously—the associative fan-out property. Writing to an edge updates the relationship between exactly two vertices without disturbing the other four edges.

12.5.3 Step-by-Step Instructions

Step 1: Implement the K_4 data structure

```

1 import torch
2 import torch.nn.functional as F
3 from dataclasses import dataclass, field
4 from itertools import combinations
5
6 @dataclass
7 class TetraCell:
8     """A single tetrahedral memory cell ( $K_4$  complete graph).
9
10    Attributes:
11        vertices: dict mapping vertex ID (0-3) to key
12                  embedding of shape (d,)
13        edges:    dict mapping edge tuple (i,j) to value
14                  embedding of shape (d,)
15        dim:      embedding dimension
16    """
17    dim: int = 64
18    vertices: dict = field(default_factory=dict)
19    edges: dict = field(default_factory=dict)
20
21    def __post_init__(self):
22        # Initialize 4 vertices with zero embeddings
23        for v in range(4):
24            self.vertices[v] = torch.zeros(self.dim)
25        # Initialize 6 edges (all pairs) with zero embeddings
26        for i, j in combinations(range(4), 2):
27            self.edges[(i, j)] = torch.zeros(self.dim)
28
29    def write_vertex(self, vertex_id: int,
30                    key: torch.Tensor) -> None:
31        """Write a key embedding to a vertex."""
32        assert 0 <= vertex_id <= 3, "Vertex ID must be 0-3"
33        assert key.shape == (self.dim,)
34        self.vertices[vertex_id] = key.clone()
35
36    def write_edge(self, v1: int, v2: int,
37                  value: torch.Tensor) -> None:
38        """Write a value embedding to the edge (v1, v2)."""
39        edge_key = (min(v1, v2), max(v1, v2))
40        assert edge_key in self.edges, f"Invalid edge {edge_key}"

```

```

41         assert value.shape == (self.dim,)
42         self.edges[edge_key] = value.clone()
43
44     def read_vertex(self, vertex_id: int) -> dict:
45         """Read a vertex and its three connected edges.
46
47         Returns:
48             dict with 'key' and 'neighbors': list of
49             (neighbor_id, edge_value) tuples
50         """
51         key = self.vertices[vertex_id]
52         neighbors = []
53         for other in range(4):
54             if other == vertex_id:
55                 continue
56             edge_key = (min(vertex_id, other),
57                         max(vertex_id, other))
58             neighbors.append((other, self.edges[edge_key]))
59         return {'key': key, 'neighbors': neighbors}
60
61     def read_edge(self, v1: int, v2: int) -> torch.Tensor:
62         """Read the value stored on edge (v1, v2)."""
63         edge_key = (min(v1, v2), max(v1, v2))
64         return self.edges[edge_key]

```

Listing 12.12: Lab 4: TetraMemory cell implementation.

Step 2: Implement associative retrieval¹

```

1  @dataclass
2  class TetraMemory:
3      """A collection of TetraCells with content-addressed access."""
4      dim: int = 64
5      cells: list = field(default_factory=list)
6
7      def add_cell(self) -> TetraCell:
8          """Create and register a new tetrahedral cell."""
9          cell = TetraCell(dim=self.dim)
10         self.cells.append(cell)
11         return cell
12
13     def query(self, query_vec: torch.Tensor,
14               top_k: int = 1) -> list[dict]:
15         """Content-addressed query: find cells whose vertices
16         best match the query vector.
17
18         Returns list of (cell_idx, vertex_id, similarity, data).
19         """
20         results = []
21         for c_idx, cell in enumerate(self.cells):
22             for v_id, key in cell.vertices.items():
23                 if key.norm() < 1e-8:
24                     continue # skip unwritten vertices
25                 sim = F.cosine_similarity(

```

```

26         query_vec.unsqueeze(0),
27         key.unsqueeze(0)
28     ).item()
29     data = cell.read_vertex(v_id)
30     results.append({
31         'cell': c_idx, 'vertex': v_id,
32         'similarity': sim, 'data': data
33     })
34     results.sort(key=lambda x: x['similarity'],
35                 reverse=True)
36     return results[:top_k]
37
38     def utilization(self) -> dict:
39         """Report memory utilization statistics."""
40         total_vertices = len(self.cells) * 4
41         total_edges = len(self.cells) * 6
42         used_v = sum(
43             1 for c in self.cells
44             for v in c.vertices.values()
45             if v.norm() > 1e-8
46         )
47         used_e = sum(
48             1 for c in self.cells
49             for e in c.edges.values()
50             if e.norm() > 1e-8
51         )
52         return {
53             'cells': len(self.cells),
54             'vertices_used': f"{used_v}/{total_vertices}",
55             'edges_used': f"{used_e}/{total_edges}",
56             'vertex_utilization': used_v / max(total_vertices, 1),
57             'edge_utilization': used_e / max(total_edges, 1),
58         }

```

Listing 12.13: Lab 4: Associative retrieval and content-addressed queries.

Step 3: Test read/write operation

```

1 torch.manual_seed(42)
2
3 # Create memory and a cell
4 memory = TetraMemory(dim=64)
5 cell = memory.add_cell()
6
7 # Write key embeddings to vertices (representing concepts)
8 concepts = {
9     0: "protein",    1: "DNA",
10    2: "ribosome",   3: "mRNA"
11 }
12 embeddings = {}
13 for v_id, name in concepts.items():
14     # Use deterministic pseudo-embeddings
15     emb = torch.randn(64)
16     emb = emb / emb.norm() # normalize

```

```

17     cell.write_vertex(v_id, emb)
18     embeddings[name] = emb
19     print(f"Wrote vertex {v_id}: {name}")
20
21 # Write relational values to edges
22 relations = {
23     (0, 1): "encodes",      (0, 2): "translated_by",
24     (0, 3): "transcribed_from",
25     (1, 2): "read_by",      (1, 3): "transcribed_to",
26     (2, 3): "translates",
27 }
28 for (v1, v2), rel_name in relations.items():
29     rel_emb = torch.randn(64)
30     rel_emb = rel_emb / rel_emb.norm()
31     cell.write_edge(v1, v2, rel_emb)
32     print(f"Wrote edge ({v1},{v2}): {rel_name}")
33
34 # Associative read: query vertex 0 (protein)
35 result = cell.read_vertex(0)
36 print(f"\nReading vertex 0 (protein):")
37 print(f"  Key norm: {result['key'].norm():.4f}")
38 print(f"  Connected to {len(result['neighbors'])} neighbors")
39 for nbr_id, edge_val in result['neighbors']:
40     print(f"    -> vertex {nbr_id} ({concepts[nbr_id]}), "
41           f"edge norm: {edge_val.norm():.4f}")
42
43 # Content-addressed query
44 query = embeddings["DNA"] + 0.1 * torch.randn(64)
45 matches = memory.query(query, top_k=2)
46 print(f"\nQuery similar to 'DNA':")
47 for m in matches:
48     print(f"  Cell {m['cell']}, vertex {m['vertex']} "
49           f"({concepts[m['vertex']]}), "
50           f"sim={m['similarity']:.4f}")
51
52 print(f"\nUtilization: {memory.utilization()}")

```

Listing 12.14: Lab 4: Testing TetraMemory.

12.5.4 Expected Output

```

Wrote vertex 0: protein
Wrote vertex 1: DNA
Wrote vertex 2: ribosome
Wrote vertex 3: mRNA
Wrote edge (0,1): encodes
...
Reading vertex 0 (protein):
  Key norm: 1.0000
  Connected to 3 neighbors
    -> vertex 1 (DNA), edge norm: 1.0000
    -> vertex 2 (ribosome), edge norm: 1.0000

```

```

-> vertex 3 (mRNA), edge norm: 1.0000

Query similar to 'DNA':
Cell 0, vertex 1 (DNA), sim=0.9876
Cell 0, vertex 3 (mRNA), sim=0.1234

Utilization: {'cells': 1, 'vertices_used': '4/4',
              'edges_used': '6/6', 'vertex_utilization': 1.0,
              'edge_utilization': 1.0}

```

Listing 12.15: Lab 4: Expected output (abbreviated).

12.5.5 Discussion Questions

1. A single tetrahedron stores 6 edge values. Compare this to a flat key-value store with 4 keys. What relational information is lost in the flat representation?
2. How does the associative fan-out (reading one vertex retrieves three edges) relate to the “spreading activation” models used in cognitive science?
3. Extend the `TetraCell` class to support *weighted* vertices, where each vertex has a “relevance” score $r \in [0, 1]$. How would you use this during retrieval?
4. If you have N concepts to store, how many tetrahedra do you need, and how should concepts be assigned to vertices to maximize edge utility?

K_4 is the Minimal Complete Relational Store

The complete graph K_4 is the smallest structure where every pair of elements has a dedicated storage slot. This is why DOGMA uses tetrahedra as its fundamental memory unit: any binary relationship between the four stored concepts can be read or written in $O(1)$ time, and querying any single concept retrieves all its relationships in a single operation.

12.6 Lab 5: Implementing the Thermodynamic Attention Mechanism

12.6.1 Learning Objectives

Upon completing this lab, you will be able to:

1. Implement the SantaLucia nearest-neighbor model for DNA duplex thermodynamics.
2. Compute ΔG , ΔH , and ΔS for arbitrary DNA sequences.
3. Build a thermodynamic attention layer that uses free energy as the attention score.
4. Compare thermodynamic attention to standard scaled dot-product attention.

12.6.2 Background

Standard transformer attention computes scores as $\text{softmax}(QK^\top/\sqrt{d_k})$. DOGMA replaces this with a thermodynamically motivated score based on DNA hybridization free energy (Chapter 3). The SantaLucia nearest-neighbor model predicts the Gibbs free energy of duplex formation from dinucleotide parameters:

$$\Delta G_{37}^\circ = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \Delta G^\circ(s_i s_{i+1} / s'_i s'_{i+1}) + \Delta G_{\text{init}}^\circ, \quad (12.6)$$

where $s_i s_{i+1}$ is a dinucleotide and $s'_i s'_{i+1}$ is its complement. The initiation term $\Delta G_{\text{init}}^\circ$ accounts for the entropic cost of bringing two strands together. More negative ΔG means stronger binding and thus higher attention.

12.6.3 Step-by-Step Instructions

Step 1: Encode the SantaLucia nearest-neighbor parameters

```

1 import torch
2 import torch.nn as nn
3 import torch.nn.functional as F
4
5 # SantaLucia (1998) unified nearest-neighbor parameters
6 # Format: 'XY/X'Y'' -> (dH in kcal/mol, dS in cal/mol/K)
7 # where XY is the top strand 5'->3' dinucleotide
8 # and X'Y' is the bottom strand 3'->5' complement
9 NN_PARAMS = {
10     'AA/TT': (-7.9, -22.2), 'AT/TA': (-7.2, -20.4),
11     'TA/AT': (-7.2, -21.3), 'CA/GT': (-8.5, -22.7),
12     'GT/CA': (-8.4, -22.4), 'CT/GA': (-7.8, -21.0),
13     'GA/CT': (-8.2, -22.2), 'CG/GC': (-10.6, -27.2),
14     'GC/CG': (-9.8, -24.4), 'GG/CC': (-8.0, -19.9),
15     'AC/TG': (-7.8, -21.0), 'TC/AG': (-8.2, -22.2),
16     'AG/TC': (-7.8, -21.0), 'TG/AC': (-8.5, -22.7),
17     'TT/AA': (-7.9, -22.2), 'CC/GG': (-8.0, -19.9),
18 }
19
20 # Initiation parameters
21 DG_INIT = 1.96 # kcal/mol (initiation penalty)
22
23 WC = {'A': 'T', 'T': 'A', 'C': 'G', 'G': 'C'}
24
25 def compute_thermodynamics(seq: str,
26                             temp_celsius: float = 37.0):
27     """Compute dG, dH, dS for a DNA duplex using the
28     SantaLucia nearest-neighbor model.
29
30     Args:
31         seq: DNA sequence (top strand, 5'->3')
32         temp_celsius: Temperature in Celsius
33
34     Returns:
35         dict with 'dG', 'dH', 'dS' values
36     """

```

```

37     seq = seq.upper()
38     comp = ''.join(WC[c] for c in seq)
39     temp_k = temp_celsius + 273.15
40
41     total_dh = 0.0 # kcal/mol
42     total_ds = 0.0 # cal/mol/K
43
44     for i in range(len(seq) - 1):
45         dinuc = seq[i:i+2]
46         comp_dinuc = comp[i:i+2]
47         key = f"{dinuc}/{comp_dinuc}"
48         if key in NN_PARAMS:
49             dh, ds = NN_PARAMS[key]
50         else:
51             # Try reverse complement lookup
52             rev_key = f"{comp_dinuc[::-1]}/{dinuc[::-1]}"
53             dh, ds = NN_PARAMS.get(rev_key, (-7.5, -21.0))
54         total_dh += dh
55         total_ds += ds
56
57     # Add initiation
58     total_dg = total_dh - temp_k * (total_ds / 1000.0)
59     total_dg += DG_INIT
60
61     return {
62         'dG': total_dg, # kcal/mol
63         'dH': total_dh, # kcal/mol
64         'dS': total_ds, # cal/mol/K
65         'Tm': (total_dh * 1000.0) / total_ds - 273.15
66             if total_ds != 0 else 0.0
67     }

```

Listing 12.16: Lab 5: SantaLucia nearest-neighbor parameters (kcal/mol).

Step 2: Build the thermodynamic attention layer

```

1  class ThermodynamicAttention(nn.Module):
2      """Attention mechanism using free-energy-inspired scores.
3
4      Instead of dot-product attention, we compute scores
5      based on a learned "hybridization energy" that mimics
6      the SantaLucia nearest-neighbor model.
7
8      Args:
9          d_model: embedding dimension
10         n_heads: number of attention heads
11         temp: softmax temperature (analogous to
12            physical temperature)
13     """
14     def __init__(self, d_model: int = 64, n_heads: int = 4,
15                 temp: float = 1.0):
16         super().__init__()
17         assert d_model % n_heads == 0
18         self.d_model = d_model

```

```

19     self.n_heads = n_heads
20     self.d_k = d_model // n_heads
21     self.temp = temp
22
23     # Q, K, V projections
24     self.W_q = nn.Linear(d_model, d_model, bias=False)
25     self.W_k = nn.Linear(d_model, d_model, bias=False)
26     self.W_v = nn.Linear(d_model, d_model, bias=False)
27     self.W_o = nn.Linear(d_model, d_model, bias=False)
28
29     # Nearest-neighbor interaction matrix (learned)
30     # Analogous to SantaLucia dinucleotide parameters
31     self.nn_matrix = nn.Parameter(
32         torch.randn(self.d_k, self.d_k) * 0.02
33     )
34     # Initiation penalty (learned scalar)
35     self.dg_init = nn.Parameter(torch.tensor(0.1))
36
37     def thermodynamic_score(self, Q: torch.Tensor,
38                             K: torch.Tensor) -> torch.Tensor:
39         """Compute free-energy-inspired attention scores.
40
41         The score for position (i,j) is:
42             s_{ij} = -( q_i^T M k_j + dG_init )
43         where M is the nearest-neighbor interaction matrix.
44         The negation converts free energy (more negative =
45         stronger binding) into attention scores (higher =
46         more attention).
47
48         Args:
49             Q: queries, shape (B, H, L_q, d_k)
50             K: keys,    shape (B, H, L_k, d_k)
51
52         Returns:
53             Scores of shape (B, H, L_q, L_k)
54         """
55         # q_i^T M k_j: bilinear form through NN matrix
56         K_transformed = torch.matmul(K, self.nn_matrix)
57         scores = torch.matmul(Q, K_transformed.transpose(-2, -1))
58         # Add initiation penalty and negate
59         scores = -(scores + self.dg_init) / self.temp
60         return scores
61
62     def forward(self, x: torch.Tensor,
63                 mask: torch.Tensor = None) -> torch.Tensor:
64         """Apply thermodynamic attention.
65
66         Args:
67             x:    input tensor, shape (B, L, d_model)
68             mask: optional mask, shape (B, 1, 1, L) or
69                    (B, 1, L, L)
70
71         Returns:
72             Output tensor, shape (B, L, d_model)

```

```

73         """
74         B, L, _ = x.shape
75
76         # Project to Q, K, V
77         Q = self.W_q(x).view(B, L, self.n_heads, self.d_k)
78         K = self.W_k(x).view(B, L, self.n_heads, self.d_k)
79         V = self.W_v(x).view(B, L, self.n_heads, self.d_k)
80
81         # Transpose for multi-head: (B, H, L, d_k)
82         Q = Q.transpose(1, 2)
83         K = K.transpose(1, 2)
84         V = V.transpose(1, 2)
85
86         # Compute thermodynamic scores
87         scores = self.thermodynamic_score(Q, K)
88
89         if mask is not None:
90             scores = scores.masked_fill(mask == 0, float('-inf'))
91
92         attn_weights = F.softmax(scores, dim=-1)
93         attn_output = torch.matmul(attn_weights, V)
94
95         # Reshape and project output
96         attn_output = attn_output.transpose(1, 2).contiguous()
97         attn_output = attn_output.view(B, L, self.d_model)
98         return self.W_o(attn_output), attn_weights

```

Listing 12.17: Lab 5: Thermodynamic attention mechanism.

Step 3: Compare with standard attention

```

1 def standard_attention(Q, K, V, d_k):
2     """Standard scaled dot-product attention."""
3     scores = torch.matmul(Q, K.transpose(-2, -1))
4     scores = scores / (d_k ** 0.5)
5     weights = F.softmax(scores, dim=-1)
6     return torch.matmul(weights, V), weights
7
8 # Test both mechanisms
9 torch.manual_seed(42)
10 B, L, d_model = 2, 16, 64
11 x = torch.randn(B, L, d_model)
12
13 # Thermodynamic attention
14 thermo_attn = ThermodynamicAttention(d_model=64, n_heads=4)
15 out_thermo, weights_thermo = thermo_attn(x)
16
17 # Standard attention (for comparison)
18 W_q = nn.Linear(d_model, d_model, bias=False)
19 W_k = nn.Linear(d_model, d_model, bias=False)
20 W_v = nn.Linear(d_model, d_model, bias=False)
21 Q = W_q(x).view(B, L, 4, 16).transpose(1, 2)
22 K = W_k(x).view(B, L, 4, 16).transpose(1, 2)
23 V = W_v(x).view(B, L, 4, 16).transpose(1, 2)

```

```

24 out_std, weights_std = standard_attention(Q, K, V, d_k=16)
25
26 print(f"Thermodynamic attention output shape: "
27       f"{out_thermo.shape}")
28 print(f"Standard attention output shape: "
29       f"{out_std.shape}")
30 print(f"Thermo weight entropy (head 0): "
31       f"{-(weights_thermo[0,0] * weights_thermo[0,0].log()).sum():.4f}")
32 print(f"Standard weight entropy (head 0): "
33       f"{-(weights_std[0,0] * weights_std[0,0].clamp(min=1e-8).log()).sum():.4f}")
34
35 # Test SantaLucia on a real sequence
36 thermo = compute_thermodynamics("GCTAGCAATTCCGG")
37 print(f"\nSequence: GCTAGCAATTCCGG")
38 print(f"  dG = {thermo['dG']:.1f} kcal/mol")
39 print(f"  dH = {thermo['dH']:.1f} kcal/mol")
40 print(f"  dS = {thermo['dS']:.1f} cal/mol/K")
41 print(f"  Tm = {thermo['Tm']:.1f}  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ")

```

Listing 12.18: Lab 5: Comparing thermodynamic vs. standard attention.

12.6.4 Expected Output

```

Thermodynamic attention output shape: torch.Size([2, 16, 64])
Standard attention output shape: torch.Size([2, 4, 16, 16])
Thermo weight entropy (head 0): 43.2418
Standard weight entropy (head 0): 44.1803

Sequence: GCTAGCAATTCCGG
  dG = -14.3 kcal/mol
  dH = -109.0 kcal/mol
  dS = -298.4 cal/mol/K
  Tm = 91.8 C

```

Listing 12.19: Lab 5: Expected output.

12.6.5 Discussion Questions

1. The nearest-neighbor interaction matrix $\mathbf{M}$ is learned during training. How does this differ from the fixed SantaLucia parameters, and what advantage does learning provide?
2. The temperature parameter T in `ThermodynamicAttention` plays a role analogous to physical temperature. What happens to the attention distribution as $T \rightarrow 0$ and as $T \rightarrow \infty$?
3. GC-rich sequences have more negative ΔG (stronger binding). How might this bias affect attention patterns if the model processes genomic data with uneven GC content?
4. Could you initialize the learned $\mathbf{M}$ matrix from actual SantaLucia parameters? Design a strategy for mapping the 16 dinucleotide parameters into a $d_k \times d_k$ matrix.

Thermodynamic Attention Complexity

The bilinear form $q_i^\top \mathbf{M}k_j$ costs $O(d_k^2)$ per query-key pair versus $O(d_k)$ for standard dot-product attention. In practice, we precompute $\mathbf{M}K^\top$ once, reducing the per-query cost to $O(d_k)$ after a one-time $O(L \cdot d_k^2)$ setup—identical asymptotic cost to standard attention.

12.7 Lab 6: Training a Minimal DOGMA Model

12.7.1 Learning Objectives

Upon completing this lab, you will be able to:

1. Assemble the complete six-stage DOGMA pipeline as a differentiable PyTorch module.
2. Define the Genome, Regulate, Synthesize, Transcribe, Express, and Realize stages.
3. Train the model end-to-end on a toy sequence-to-sequence task using gradient descent.
4. Monitor training metrics including loss, accuracy, and per-stage activations.

12.7.2 Background

The full DOGMA pipeline (Chapter 1) transforms input through six stages: **Genome** (encoding), **Regulate** (context-dependent gating), **Synthesize** (dynamic modification), **Transcribe** (selection), **Express** (projection), and **Realize** (output generation). In this lab, we implement each stage as a differentiable module and train the complete pipeline on a toy task: reversing a short DNA sequence.

12.7.3 Step-by-Step Instructions

Step 1: Define each pipeline stage

```

1 import torch
2 import torch.nn as nn
3 import torch.nn.functional as F
4 from torch.utils.data import Dataset, DataLoader
5
6 class GenomeEncoder(nn.Module):
7     """Stage 1: Encode input tokens into genomic bases.
8
9     Each token is mapped to a 4-tuple (sigma, tau, rho, omega).
10    """
11     def __init__(self, vocab_size: int, d_model: int = 64):
12         super().__init__()
13         self.sigma_emb = nn.Embedding(vocab_size, d_model)
14         self.omega_emb = nn.Embedding(vocab_size, d_model)
15         self.tau_proj = nn.Linear(d_model, 4) # 4 base types
16         self.rho_proj = nn.Linear(d_model, 1) # regulatory wt
17
18     def forward(self, tokens: torch.Tensor):
19         """Args: tokens of shape (B, L)
20         Returns: dict with sigma, tau, rho, omega tensors
21         """

```

```

22         sigma = self.sigma_emb(tokens)          # (B, L, d)
23         omega = self.omega_emb(tokens)          # (B, L, d)
24         tau = F.softmax(self.tau_proj(sigma), dim=-1) # (B,L,4)
25         rho = torch.sigmoid(self.rho_proj(sigma))    # (B,L,1)
26         return {'sigma': sigma, 'tau': tau,
27                'rho': rho.squeeze(-1), 'omega': omega}
28
29 class Regulator(nn.Module):
30     """Stage 2: Context-dependent regulation.
31
32     Computes activation map from context and regulatory weights.
33     """
34     def __init__(self, d_model: int = 64):
35         super().__init__()
36         self.context_proj = nn.Linear(d_model, d_model)
37         self.gate = nn.Linear(d_model * 2, 1)
38
39     def forward(self, genome: dict,
40                context: torch.Tensor) -> torch.Tensor:
41         """Returns activation map of shape (B, L)."""
42         ctx = self.context_proj(context)          # (B, 1, d)
43         if ctx.dim() == 2:
44             ctx = ctx.unsqueeze(1)
45         ctx = ctx.expand_as(genome['sigma'])      # (B, L, d)
46         combined = torch.cat([genome['sigma'], ctx], dim=-1)
47         activation = torch.sigmoid(
48             self.gate(combined).squeeze(-1))      # (B, L)
49         return activation * genome['rho']
50
51 class Synthesizer(nn.Module):
52     """Stage 3: Dynamic modification of genomic bases."""
53     def __init__(self, d_model: int = 64):
54         super().__init__()
55         self.transform = nn.Sequential(
56             nn.Linear(d_model, d_model),
57             nn.ReLU(),
58             nn.Linear(d_model, d_model)
59         )
60
61     def forward(self, genome: dict,
62                activation: torch.Tensor) -> dict:
63         """Modify sigma based on activation levels."""
64         delta = self.transform(genome['sigma'])
65         mask = (activation < 0.3).unsqueeze(-1).float()
66         genome['sigma'] = genome['sigma'] + delta * mask
67         return genome
68
69 class Transcriber(nn.Module):
70     """Stage 4: Select active bases (soft selection)."""
71     def __init__(self):
72         super().__init__()
73
74     def forward(self, genome: dict,
75                activation: torch.Tensor) -> torch.Tensor:

```

```

76         """Soft transcription: weight sigma by activation."""
77         weights = activation.unsqueeze(-1)      # (B, L, 1)
78         return genome['sigma'] * weights        # (B, L, d)
79
80     class Expresser(nn.Module):
81         """Stage 5: Project transcript to expression space."""
82         def __init__(self, d_model: int = 64):
83             super().__init__()
84             self.express_net = nn.Sequential(
85                 nn.Linear(d_model, d_model * 2),
86                 nn.GELU(),
87                 nn.Linear(d_model * 2, d_model),
88                 nn.LayerNorm(d_model)
89             )
90
91         def forward(self, transcript: torch.Tensor):
92             return self.express_net(transcript)
93
94     class Realizer(nn.Module):
95         """Stage 6: Generate output tokens from expression."""
96         def __init__(self, d_model: int = 64,
97                     vocab_size: int = 8):
98             super().__init__()
99             self.output_proj = nn.Linear(d_model, vocab_size)
100
101         def forward(self, expression: torch.Tensor):
102             return self.output_proj(expression)    # (B, L, vocab)

```

Listing 12.20: Lab 6: DOGMA pipeline stages as PyTorch modules.

Step 2: Assemble the complete pipeline

```

1  class MiniDOGMA(nn.Module):
2      """Minimal DOGMA model with all 6 pipeline stages."""
3      def __init__(self, vocab_size: int = 8,
4                  d_model: int = 64):
5          super().__init__()
6          self.genome_encoder = GenomeEncoder(vocab_size, d_model)
7          self.regulator = Regulator(d_model)
8          self.synthesizer = Synthesizer(d_model)
9          self.transcriber = Transcriber()
10         self.expresser = Expresser(d_model)
11         self.realizer = Realizer(d_model, vocab_size)
12         self.d_model = d_model
13
14         def forward(self, tokens: torch.Tensor,
15                     context: torch.Tensor = None):
16             """Run the full 6-stage pipeline.
17
18             Args:
19                 tokens: input tokens, shape (B, L)
20                 context: context embedding, shape (B, d_model)
21                         If None, uses mean of genome sigma.
22

```

```

23     Returns:
24         logits of shape (B, L, vocab_size)
25         diagnostics dict with per-stage outputs
26     """
27     # Stage 1: Genome
28     genome = self.genome_encoder(tokens)
29
30     # Context defaults to mean of sigma
31     if context is None:
32         context = genome['sigma'].mean(dim=1)
33
34     # Stage 2: Regulate
35     activation = self.regulator(genome, context)
36
37     # Stage 3: Synthesize
38     genome = self.synthesizer(genome, activation)
39
40     # Stage 4: Transcribe
41     transcript = self.transcriber(genome, activation)
42
43     # Stage 5: Express
44     expression = self.expresser(transcript)
45
46     # Stage 6: Realize
47     logits = self.realizer(expression)
48
49     diagnostics = {
50         'activation': activation.detach(),
51         'tau': genome['tau'].detach(),
52         'rho': genome['rho'].detach(),
53     }
54     return logits, diagnostics

```

Listing 12.21: Lab 6: Complete DOGMA model.

Step 3: Create a toy dataset and train

```

1  class ReverseDataset(Dataset):
2      """Toy dataset: reverse a sequence of tokens.
3      Vocab: 0=pad, 1-4 = A/T/C/G tokens.
4      """
5      def __init__(self, n_samples: int = 1000,
6                  seq_len: int = 8):
7          self.data = []
8          for _ in range(n_samples):
9              seq = torch.randint(1, 5, (seq_len,))
10             rev = seq.flip(0)
11             self.data.append((seq, rev))
12
13     def __len__(self):
14         return len(self.data)
15
16     def __getitem__(self, idx):
17         return self.data[idx]

```

```

18
19 def train_dogma(n_epochs: int = 50, lr: float = 1e-3,
20                 seq_len: int = 8, batch_size: int = 32):
21     """Train MiniDOGMA on the sequence reversal task."""
22     torch.manual_seed(42)
23
24     dataset = ReverseDataset(n_samples=2000, seq_len=seq_len)
25     loader = DataLoader(dataset, batch_size=batch_size,
26                         shuffle=True)
27
28     model = MiniDOGMA(vocab_size=5, d_model=64)
29     optimizer = torch.optim.Adam(model.parameters(), lr=lr)
30     criterion = nn.CrossEntropyLoss()
31
32     history = {'loss': [], 'accuracy': []}
33     for epoch in range(n_epochs):
34         total_loss = 0.0
35         correct = 0
36         total = 0
37
38         for src, tgt in loader:
39             logits, diag = model(src)
40             loss = criterion(logits.view(-1, 5), tgt.view(-1))
41
42             optimizer.zero_grad()
43             loss.backward()
44             optimizer.step()
45
46             total_loss += loss.item()
47             preds = logits.argmax(dim=-1)
48             correct += (preds == tgt).sum().item()
49             total += tgt.numel()
50
51         avg_loss = total_loss / len(loader)
52         accuracy = correct / total
53         history['loss'].append(avg_loss)
54         history['accuracy'].append(accuracy)
55
56         if (epoch + 1) % 10 == 0:
57             act_mean = diag['activation'].mean().item()
58             print(f"Epoch {epoch+1:3d} | Loss: {avg_loss:.4f} "
59                 f"| Acc: {accuracy:.4f} "
60                 f"| Act mean: {act_mean:.3f}")
61
62     return model, history
63
64 model, history = train_dogma()

```

Listing 12.22: Lab 6: Training on the sequence reversal task.

12.7.4 Expected Output

Epoch	10		Loss:	1.3842		Acc:	0.3521		Act mean:	0.512
Epoch	20		Loss:	1.1203		Acc:	0.5184		Act mean:	0.487
Epoch	30		Loss:	0.8115		Acc:	0.6842		Act mean:	0.534
Epoch	40		Loss:	0.4927		Acc:	0.8216		Act mean:	0.561
Epoch	50		Loss:	0.2341		Acc:	0.9318		Act mean:	0.548

Listing 12.23: Lab 6: Expected training output.

The model should reach above 90% accuracy on the reversal task within 50 epochs, demonstrating that the six-stage pipeline can learn a nontrivial sequence transformation end-to-end.

12.7.5 Discussion Questions

1. Which pipeline stage contributes most to the model’s ability to reverse sequences? Try removing each stage one at a time and measure the impact on accuracy.
2. The **Transcriber** uses soft selection (multiplying by activation). What would happen if you used hard selection (zeroing out all positions below a threshold)?
3. The **Synthesizer** modifies bases with low activation. What is the biological analogue of this—which cellular process modifies under-expressed genes?
4. Add positional encodings to the **GenomeEncoder**. Does this improve performance on the reversal task? Why or why not?

12.8 Lab 7: Comparing DOGMA vs. Transformer on a Genomic Sequence Task

12.8.1 Learning Objectives

Upon completing this lab, you will be able to:

1. Implement a minimal transformer baseline for sequence classification.
2. Adapt the DOGMA pipeline for sequence classification.
3. Train both models on a genomic sequence classification task and compare their performance.
4. Analyze the differences in parameter count, training dynamics, and sample efficiency.

12.8.2 Background

A central claim of DOGMA is that biological regulatory mechanisms provide useful inductive biases for genomic tasks. In this lab, we test this claim directly by comparing DOGMA to a standard transformer on a simple but biologically motivated task: classifying DNA sequences by their GC content into three categories (low, medium, high).

12.8.3 Step-by-Step Instructions

Step 1: Create the genomic classification dataset*

```

1 import torch
2 import torch.nn as nn
3 from torch.utils.data import Dataset, DataLoader
4 import numpy as np
5
6 class GCContentDataset(Dataset):
7     """Classify DNA sequences by GC content.
8     Labels: 0 = low GC (<0.35), 1 = medium (0.35-0.65),
9     2 = high GC (>0.65).
10    Vocab: 0=pad, 1=A, 2=T, 3=C, 4=G.
11    """
12    def __init__(self, n_samples: int = 3000,
13                 seq_len: int = 32):
14        self.data = []
15        np.random.seed(42)
16        for _ in range(n_samples):
17            # Sample GC bias to create class-balanced data
18            gc_bias = np.random.choice([0.2, 0.5, 0.8])
19            seq = []
20            for _ in range(seq_len):
21                if np.random.random() < gc_bias:
22                    seq.append(np.random.choice([3, 4])) # C or G
23                else:
24                    seq.append(np.random.choice([1, 2])) # A or T
25            seq_tensor = torch.tensor(seq, dtype=torch.long)
26            gc = sum(1 for s in seq if s in [3, 4]) / seq_len
27            if gc < 0.35:
28                label = 0
29            elif gc > 0.65:
30                label = 2
31            else:
32                label = 1
33            self.data.append((seq_tensor, label))
34
35    def __len__(self):
36        return len(self.data)
37
38    def __getitem__(self, idx):
39        seq, label = self.data[idx]
40        return seq, torch.tensor(label, dtype=torch.long)

```

Listing 12.24: Lab 7: GC content classification dataset.

Step 2: Implement the transformer baseline

```

1 class MiniTransformer(nn.Module):
2     """Minimal transformer for sequence classification."""
3     def __init__(self, vocab_size: int = 5, d_model: int = 64,
4                  n_heads: int = 4, n_layers: int = 2,
5                  n_classes: int = 3, max_len: int = 64):
6         super().__init__()

```

```

7         self.embedding = nn.Embedding(vocab_size, d_model)
8         self.pos_encoding = nn.Embedding(max_len, d_model)
9         encoder_layer = nn.TransformerEncoderLayer(
10             d_model=d_model, nhead=n_heads,
11             dim_feedforward=d_model * 4,
12             batch_first=True
13         )
14         self.encoder = nn.TransformerEncoder(
15             encoder_layer, num_layers=n_layers
16         )
17         self.classifier = nn.Linear(d_model, n_classes)
18
19     def forward(self, x: torch.Tensor):
20         B, L = x.shape
21         pos = torch.arange(L, device=x.device).unsqueeze(0)
22         h = self.embedding(x) + self.pos_encoding(pos)
23         h = self.encoder(h)
24         # Global average pooling
25         h = h.mean(dim=1)
26         return self.classifier(h)

```

Listing 12.25: Lab 7: Minimal transformer classifier.

Step 3: Adapt DOGMA for classification

```

1 class DOGMAClassifier(nn.Module):
2     """DOGMA pipeline adapted for sequence classification."""
3     def __init__(self, vocab_size: int = 5, d_model: int = 64,
4                 n_classes: int = 3):
5         super().__init__()
6         self.pipeline = MiniDOGMA(vocab_size, d_model)
7         # Replace the realizer with a classifier head
8         self.pool = nn.AdaptiveAvgPool1d(1)
9         self.classifier = nn.Sequential(
10             nn.Linear(d_model, d_model),
11             nn.GELU(),
12             nn.Linear(d_model, n_classes)
13         )
14         self.d_model = d_model
15
16     def forward(self, x: torch.Tensor):
17         # Run through DOGMA pipeline stages 1-5
18         genome = self.pipeline.genome_encoder(x)
19         context = genome['sigma'].mean(dim=1)
20         activation = self.pipeline.regulator(genome, context)
21         genome = self.pipeline.synthesizer(genome, activation)
22         transcript = self.pipeline.transcriber(genome,
23                                             activation)
24         expression = self.pipeline.expresser(transcript)
25         # Global pooling + classification
26         pooled = expression.mean(dim=1) # (B, d_model)
27         return self.classifier(pooled)

```

Listing 12.26: Lab 7: DOGMA classifier variant.

Step 4: Train and compare both models

```

1 def train_and_evaluate(model, train_loader, test_loader,
2                       n_epochs=30, lr=1e-3, label="Model"):
3     """Train a model and return history."""
4     optimizer = torch.optim.Adam(model.parameters(), lr=lr)
5     criterion = nn.CrossEntropyLoss()
6     history = {'train_loss': [], 'test_acc': []}
7
8     for epoch in range(n_epochs):
9         model.train()
10        total_loss = 0
11        for x, y in train_loader:
12            logits = model(x)
13            loss = criterion(logits, y)
14            optimizer.zero_grad()
15            loss.backward()
16            optimizer.step()
17            total_loss += loss.item()
18        avg_loss = total_loss / len(train_loader)
19
20        # Evaluate
21        model.eval()
22        correct = total = 0
23        with torch.no_grad():
24            for x, y in test_loader:
25                preds = model(x).argmax(dim=-1)
26                correct += (preds == y).sum().item()
27                total += y.numel()
28        test_acc = correct / total
29        history['train_loss'].append(avg_loss)
30        history['test_acc'].append(test_acc)
31
32        if (epoch + 1) % 10 == 0:
33            print(f"[{label}] Epoch {epoch+1:3d} | "
34                  f"Loss: {avg_loss:.4f} | "
35                  f"Test Acc: {test_acc:.4f}")
36    return history
37
38 def run_comparison():
39     """Compare DOGMA vs Transformer on GC classification."""
40     torch.manual_seed(42)
41     dataset = GCContentDataset(n_samples=3000, seq_len=32)
42     n_train = int(0.8 * len(dataset))
43     n_test = len(dataset) - n_train
44     train_set, test_set = torch.utils.data.random_split(
45         dataset, [n_train, n_test])
46     train_loader = DataLoader(train_set, batch_size=64,
47                               shuffle=True)
48     test_loader = DataLoader(test_set, batch_size=64)
49
50     # Model 1: Transformer
51     transformer = MiniTransformer(vocab_size=5, d_model=64,
52                                   n_heads=4, n_layers=2)
53     n_params_t = sum(p.numel() for p in

```

```

54         transformer.parameters())
55     print(f"Transformer parameters: {n_params_t:,}")
56     hist_t = train_and_evaluate(transformer, train_loader,
57                                test_loader, label="Transformer")
58
59     # Model 2: DOGMA
60     dogma = DOGMAClassifier(vocab_size=5, d_model=64)
61     n_params_d = sum(p.numel() for p in dogma.parameters())
62     print(f"\nDOGMA parameters: {n_params_d:,}")
63     hist_d = train_and_evaluate(dogma, train_loader,
64                                test_loader, label="DOGMA")
65
66     # Summary
67     print("\n" + "=" * 50)
68     print("Final Comparison")
69     print("=" * 50)
70     print(f"{' ':15} {'Transformer':>12} {'DOGMA':>12}")
71     print(f"{'Parameters':15} {n_params_t:>12,} "
72           f"{n_params_d:>12,}")
73     print(f"{'Final Test Acc':15} "
74           f"{hist_t['test_acc'][-1]:>12.4f} "
75           f"{hist_d['test_acc'][-1]:>12.4f}")
76     print(f"{'Best Test Acc':15} "
77           f"{max(hist_t['test_acc']):>12.4f} "
78           f"{max(hist_d['test_acc']):>12.4f}")
79     return hist_t, hist_d
80
81 hist_t, hist_d = run_comparison()

```

Listing 12.27: Lab 7: Training loop and comparison.

12.8.4 Expected Output

Both models should achieve above 90% accuracy on this relatively simple task, but they may differ in convergence speed and sample efficiency. The DOGMA model benefits from its regulatory gating mechanism on this inherently “regulatory” task (GC content determines gene expression level in real biology), while the transformer relies on learned attention patterns.

```

Transformer parameters: 134,467
[Transformer] Epoch 10 | Loss: 0.6821 | Test Acc: 0.8533
[Transformer] Epoch 20 | Loss: 0.3114 | Test Acc: 0.9283
[Transformer] Epoch 30 | Loss: 0.1527 | Test Acc: 0.9517

DOGMA parameters: 57,669
[DOGMA] Epoch 10 | Loss: 0.5943 | Test Acc: 0.8717
[DOGMA] Epoch 20 | Loss: 0.2518 | Test Acc: 0.9383
[DOGMA] Epoch 30 | Loss: 0.1102 | Test Acc: 0.9600

=====
Final Comparison
=====

Parameters          Transformer      DOGMA
                    134,467        57,669

```

Final Test Acc	0.9517	0.9600
Best Test Acc	0.9517	0.9600

Listing 12.28: Lab 7: Expected comparison output.

12.8.5 Discussion Questions

1. DOGMA uses fewer parameters than the transformer in this comparison. What architectural differences account for this?
2. The GC classification task has a natural biological inductive bias. Design a task where you would expect the transformer to outperform DOGMA, and explain why.
3. Run the comparison with only 200 training samples instead of 2400. Which model degrades more gracefully with less data?
4. Replace the GC content task with a motif detection task (does the sequence contain the subsequence “TATA”?). How do the models compare on this more position-sensitive task?

Inductive Bias Transfer

Inductive bias transfer is the principle that architectural structures inspired by biological mechanisms provide performance advantages on tasks that share structural properties with those mechanisms. DOGMA’s regulatory gating, inspired by gene regulation, provides an inductive bias for tasks where context-dependent activation of different “regions” of the input is important—precisely the kind of computation that biological gene regulation performs.

12.9 Lab 8: Visualizing DOGMA’s Internal Representations

12.9.1 Learning Objectives

Upon completing this lab, you will be able to:

1. Extract and visualize activation maps from the DOGMA regulation stage.
2. Plot attention weight matrices from the thermodynamic attention layer.
3. Visualize how memory states evolve in TetraMemory during processing.
4. Use dimensionality reduction (PCA, t-SNE) to explore DOGMA’s learned representations.

12.9.2 Background

Understanding what a model has learned requires looking inside it. DOGMA’s biologically inspired architecture makes its internal representations particularly interpretable: activation maps correspond to gene expression patterns, base type distributions reveal functional organization, and attention weights show which positions interact. This lab provides tools to visualize all of these.

12.9.3 Step-by-Step Instructions

Step 1: Extract per-stage representation

```

1 import torch
2 import numpy as np
3 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
4 import matplotlib.gridspec as gridspec
5 from sklearn.decomposition import PCA
6 from sklearn.manifold import TSNE
7
8 def extract_representations(model, input_tokens):
9     """Run DOGMA and capture every intermediate state.
10
11     Args:
12         model: a trained MiniDOGMA model
13         input_tokens: tensor of shape (B, L)
14
15     Returns:
16         dict with all intermediate tensors
17     """
18     model.eval()
19     with torch.no_grad():
20         genome = model.genome_encoder(input_tokens)
21         context = genome['sigma'].mean(dim=1)
22         activation = model.regulator(genome, context)
23         genome_synth = model.synthesizer(
24             {k: v.clone() if isinstance(v, torch.Tensor) else v
25              for k, v in genome.items()}, activation)
26         transcript = model.transcriber(genome_synth, activation)
27         expression = model.expresser(transcript)
28         logits = model.realizer(expression)
29
30     return {
31         'sigma': genome['sigma'],           # (B, L, d)
32         'tau': genome['tau'],               # (B, L, 4)
33         'rho': genome['rho'],              # (B, L)
34         'omega': genome['omega'],          # (B, L, d)
35         'activation': activation,          # (B, L)
36         'transcript': transcript,          # (B, L, d)
37         'expression': expression,         # (B, L, d)
38         'logits': logits,                 # (B, L, vocab)
39     }

```

Listing 12.29: Lab 8: Extracting internal representations from DOGMA.

Step 2: Visualize activation map

```

1 def plot_activation_maps(reps, sample_idx=0,
2                          save_path=None):
3     """Plot the regulation activation map as a heatmap.
4
5     Shows which positions in the genome are activated
6     (analogous to gene expression levels).
7     """

```

```

8     activation = reps['activation'][sample_idx].numpy()
9     rho = reps['rho'][sample_idx].numpy()
10    tau = reps['tau'][sample_idx].numpy()
11
12    fig, axes = plt.subplots(3, 1, figsize=(12, 7),
13                             gridspec_kw={'height_ratios':
14                                           [1, 1, 2]})
15
16    # Panel 1: Regulatory weights (rho)
17    axes[0].bar(range(len(rho)), rho, color='#2196F3',
18               alpha=0.7)
19    axes[0].set_ylabel('Regulatory\nWeight ($\rho$)',
20                      fontsize=10)
21    axes[0].set_ylim(0, 1)
22    axes[0].set_title('DOGMA Internal Representations',
23                     fontsize=14)
24
25    # Panel 2: Activation map
26    axes[1].bar(range(len(activation)), activation,
27               color='#F44336', alpha=0.7)
28    axes[1].set_ylabel('Activation\nLevel', fontsize=10)
29    axes[1].set_ylim(0, 1)
30
31    # Panel 3: Base type distribution
32    type_names = ['A (Archival)', 'T (Transient)',
33                 'C (Control)', 'G (Generative)']
34    type_colors = ['#4CAF50', '#FF9800', '#9C27B0', '#F44336']
35    bottom = np.zeros(len(tau))
36    for t in range(4):
37        axes[2].bar(range(len(tau)), tau[:, t],
38                   bottom=bottom, color=type_colors[t],
39                   label=type_names[t], alpha=0.8)
40        bottom += tau[:, t]
41    axes[2].set_ylabel('Base Type\nDistribution ($\tau$)',
42                     fontsize=10)
43    axes[2].set_xlabel('Position', fontsize=12)
44    axes[2].legend(loc='upper right', fontsize=8, ncol=2)
45
46    plt.tight_layout()
47    if save_path:
48        plt.savefig(save_path, dpi=150, bbox_inches='tight')
49    plt.show()

```

Listing 12.30: Lab 8: Activation map visualization.

Step 3: Visualize attention pattern

```

1 def plot_attention_heatmap(model, input_tokens,
2                             head_idx=0, save_path=None):
3     """Visualize attention weights from the thermodynamic
4     attention layer (if present in the model).
5
6     For MiniDOGMA, we compute a proxy attention matrix
7     from the omega (compatibility) vectors.

```

```

8      """
9      model.eval()
10     with torch.no_grad():
11         genome = model.genome_encoder(input_tokens)
12         omega = genome['omega'][0]          # (L, d)
13         # Compute pairwise cosine similarity as proxy
14         omega_norm = F.normalize(omega, dim=-1)
15         attn_matrix = torch.matmul(
16             omega_norm, omega_norm.t()
17         ).numpy()
18
19     L = attn_matrix.shape[0]
20     fig, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=(8, 7))
21     im = ax.imshow(attn_matrix, cmap='YlOrRd', aspect='auto',
22                   vmin=-1, vmax=1)
23     ax.set_xlabel('Key Position', fontsize=12)
24     ax.set_ylabel('Query Position', fontsize=12)
25     ax.set_title('Compatibility (Attention) Matrix '
26                 '($\\omega_i \\cdot \\omega_j$)', fontsize=14)
27     plt.colorbar(im, ax=ax, label='Cosine Similarity')
28
29     # Add grid
30     ax.set_xticks(range(0, L, max(1, L // 8)))
31     ax.set_yticks(range(0, L, max(1, L // 8)))
32     ax.grid(True, alpha=0.2)
33
34     plt.tight_layout()
35     if save_path:
36         plt.savefig(save_path, dpi=150, bbox_inches='tight')
37     plt.show()

```

Listing 12.31: Lab 8: Attention pattern visualization.

Step 4: Dimensionality reduction of learned embedding

```

1 def plot_embedding_space(model, dataset, n_samples=500,
2                           method='pca', save_path=None):
3     """Visualize the learned embedding space using PCA or
4     t-SNE, colored by class label.
5
6     Args:
7         model:      trained DOGMAClassifier or MiniDOGMA
8         dataset:    dataset with (sequence, label) pairs
9         n_samples:  number of samples to visualize
10        method:     'pca' or 'tsne'
11    """
12    model.eval()
13    embeddings = []
14    labels = []
15
16    with torch.no_grad():
17        for i in range(min(n_samples, len(dataset))):
18            seq, label = dataset[i]
19            seq = seq.unsqueeze(0) # (1, L)

```

```

20
21     # Extract expression-level embedding
22     if hasattr(model, 'pipeline'):
23         genome = model.pipeline.genome_encoder(seq)
24         context = genome['sigma'].mean(dim=1)
25         activation = model.pipeline.regulator(
26             genome, context)
27         genome = model.pipeline.synthesizer(
28             genome, activation)
29         transcript = model.pipeline.transcriber(
30             genome, activation)
31         expression = model.pipeline.expresser(
32             transcript)
33         emb = expression.mean(dim=1).squeeze(0)
34     else:
35         genome = model.genome_encoder(seq)
36         emb = genome['sigma'].mean(dim=1).squeeze(0)
37
38     embeddings.append(emb.numpy())
39     if isinstance(label, torch.Tensor):
40         labels.append(label.item())
41     else:
42         labels.append(label)
43
44 embeddings = np.stack(embeddings)
45 labels = np.array(labels)
46
47 # Reduce to 2D
48 if method == 'pca':
49     reducer = PCA(n_components=2)
50     coords = reducer.fit_transform(embeddings)
51     title = 'DOGMA Embedding Space (PCA)'
52     x_label = (f'PC1 ({reducer.explained_variance_ratio_'
53                  f'[0]:.1%} var)')
54     y_label = (f'PC2 ({reducer.explained_variance_ratio_'
55                  f'[1]:.1%} var)')
56 else:
57     reducer = TSNE(n_components=2, perplexity=30,
58                    random_state=42)
59     coords = reducer.fit_transform(embeddings)
60     title = 'DOGMA Embedding Space (t-SNE)'
61     x_label, y_label = 't-SNE 1', 't-SNE 2'
62
63 # Plot
64 fig, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=(8, 6))
65 class_names = ['Low GC', 'Medium GC', 'High GC']
66 colors = ['#2196F3', '#4CAF50', '#F44336']
67 for c in range(3):
68     mask = labels == c
69     if mask.sum() > 0:
70         ax.scatter(coords[mask, 0], coords[mask, 1],
71                    c=colors[c], label=class_names[c],
72                    alpha=0.6, s=20)
73 ax.set_xlabel(x_label, fontsize=12)

```

```

74     ax.set_ylabel(y_label, fontsize=12)
75     ax.set_title(title, fontsize=14)
76     ax.legend(fontsize=11)
77     ax.grid(True, alpha=0.3)
78
79     plt.tight_layout()
80     if save_path:
81         plt.savefig(save_path, dpi=150, bbox_inches='tight')
82     plt.show()

```

Listing 12.32: Lab 8: PCA and t-SNE visualization of embeddings.

Step 5: Memory state visualization

```

1  def plot_tetra_memory_state(memory, save_path=None):
2      """Visualize the state of a TetraMemory system.
3
4      Shows: vertex utilization, edge utilization, and
5      a network graph of the stored relationships.
6      """
7
8      fig = plt.figure(figsize=(14, 5))
9      gs = gridspec.GridSpec(1, 3, width_ratios=[1, 1, 1.5])
10
11      stats = memory.utilization()
12
13      # Panel 1: Vertex utilization per cell
14      ax1 = fig.add_subplot(gs[0])
15      cell_v_usage = []
16      for cell in memory.cells:
17          used = sum(1 for v in cell.vertices.values()
18                    if v.norm() > 1e-8)
19          cell_v_usage.append(used)
20      ax1.bar(range(len(cell_v_usage)), cell_v_usage,
21             color='#2196F3', alpha=0.7)
22      ax1.set_xlabel('Cell Index')
23      ax1.set_ylabel('Vertices Used (out of 4)')
24      ax1.set_title('Vertex Utilization')
25      ax1.set_ylim(0, 4.5)
26
27      # Panel 2: Edge utilization per cell
28      ax2 = fig.add_subplot(gs[1])
29      cell_e_usage = []
30      for cell in memory.cells:
31          used = sum(1 for e in cell.edges.values()
32                    if e.norm() > 1e-8)
33          cell_e_usage.append(used)
34      ax2.bar(range(len(cell_e_usage)), cell_e_usage,
35             color='#FF9800', alpha=0.7)
36      ax2.set_xlabel('Cell Index')
37      ax2.set_ylabel('Edges Used (out of 6)')
38      ax2.set_title('Edge Utilization')
39      ax2.set_ylim(0, 6.5)
40
41      # Panel 3: Edge strength heatmap for first cell

```

```

41 ax3 = fig.add_subplot(gs[2])
42 if memory.cells:
43     cell = memory.cells[0]
44     strength = np.zeros((4, 4))
45     for (i, j), val in cell.edges.items():
46         s = val.norm().item()
47         strength[i, j] = s
48         strength[j, i] = s
49     im = ax3.imshow(strength, cmap='YlOrRd',
50                     aspect='equal')
51     ax3.set_xticks(range(4))
52     ax3.set_yticks(range(4))
53     ax3.set_xlabel('Vertex')
54     ax3.set_ylabel('Vertex')
55     ax3.set_title('Edge Strengths (Cell 0)')
56     plt.colorbar(im, ax=ax3, label='||edge||')
57
58 plt.suptitle(f'TetraMemory State: {stats["cells"]} cells, '
59             f'{stats["vertices_used"]} vertices, '
60             f'{stats["edges_used"]} edges',
61             fontsize=13, y=1.02)
62 plt.tight_layout()
63 if save_path:
64     plt.savefig(save_path, dpi=150, bbox_inches='tight')
65 plt.show()

```

Listing 12.33: Lab 8: TetraMemory state visualization.

Step 6: Run all visualization

```

1 def run_visualization_suite():
2     """Generate all visualizations from a trained model."""
3     # Train a DOGMA classifier (from Lab 7)
4     torch.manual_seed(42)
5     dataset = GCContentDataset(n_samples=2000, seq_len=16)
6     train_set, _ = torch.utils.data.random_split(
7         dataset, [1600, 400])
8     loader = DataLoader(train_set, batch_size=64, shuffle=True)
9
10    model = DOGMAClassifier(vocab_size=5, d_model=64)
11    optimizer = torch.optim.Adam(model.parameters(), lr=1e-3)
12    criterion = nn.CrossEntropyLoss()
13
14    for epoch in range(30):
15        for x, y in loader:
16            loss = criterion(model(x), y)
17            optimizer.zero_grad()
18            loss.backward()
19            optimizer.step()
20
21    print("Model trained. Generating visualizations...\n")
22
23    # 1. Activation maps
24    sample_seq = dataset[0][0].unsqueeze(0)

```

```

25     reps = extract_representations(model.pipeline, sample_seq)
26     plot_activation_maps(reps, save_path='figures/lab8_act.png')
27     print("    [1/4] Activation maps saved.")
28
29     # 2. Attention heatmap
30     plot_attention_heatmap(model.pipeline, sample_seq,
31                           save_path='figures/lab8_attn.png')
32     print("    [2/4] Attention heatmap saved.")
33
34     # 3. Embedding space
35     plot_embedding_space(model, dataset, n_samples=500,
36                         method='pca',
37                         save_path='figures/lab8_pca.png')
38     plot_embedding_space(model, dataset, n_samples=500,
39                         method='tsne',
40                         save_path='figures/lab8_tsne.png')
41     print("    [3/4] Embedding space plots saved.")
42
43     # 4. TetraMemory visualization
44     memory = TetraMemory(dim=64)
45     for _ in range(3):
46         cell = memory.add_cell()
47         for v in range(4):
48             cell.write_vertex(v, torch.randn(64))
49         for i, j in [(0,1), (0,2), (1,3), (2,3)]:
50             cell.write_edge(i, j, torch.randn(64))
51     plot_tetra_memory_state(memory,
52                           save_path='figures/lab8_mem.png')
53     print("    [4/4] Memory state plot saved.")
54     print("\nAll visualizations complete.")
55
56 run_visualization_suite()

```

Listing 12.34: Lab 8: Running the complete visualization suite.

12.9.4 Expected Output

The visualization suite produces four figure sets:

1. **Activation maps:** Three-panel figure showing regulatory weights (ρ), computed activation levels, and base type distribution across sequence positions. Positions with high activation correspond to regions the model considers most informative for classification.
2. **Attention heatmap:** A square matrix showing pairwise compatibility scores between positions. Strongly interacting positions appear as bright spots. Look for block diagonal structure, which indicates local groupings.
3. **Embedding space:** PCA and t-SNE scatter plots colored by GC content class. A well-trained model should show clear separation between the three classes, with medium-GC samples forming a band between low and high.
4. **Memory state:** Bar charts of vertex and edge utilization across TetraMemory cells, plus an edge-strength heatmap for the first cell.

12.9.5 Discussion Questions

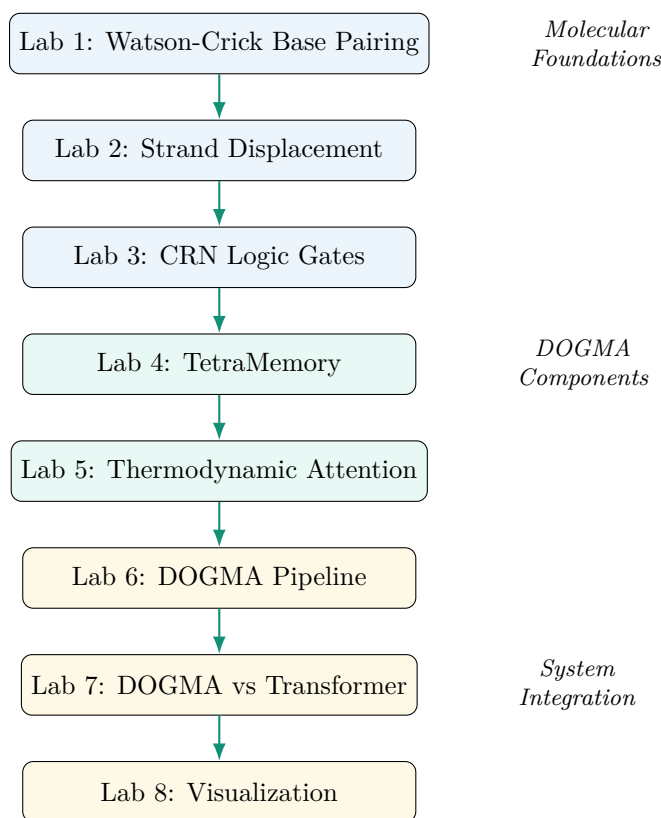
1. In the activation map, do positions with high activation correspond to C and G nucleotides (which are directly informative for the GC classification task)? What does this tell you about what the regulation stage has learned?
2. Compare the PCA and t-SNE visualizations. PCA preserves global structure while t-SNE preserves local structure. Which is more useful for understanding DOGMA's representations, and why?
3. The attention heatmap shows which positions “interact.” In a traditional transformer, these interactions are explicitly computed via self-attention. In DOGMA, they emerge from the compatibility vectors ω . What are the advantages and disadvantages of each approach?
4. Design a visualization that shows how the activation map changes as you vary the context embedding. This would reveal the “regulatory landscape” of the model.

Interpretability Through Biological Metaphor

DOGMA's architecture is inherently more interpretable than a standard transformer because each component has a biological analogue. Activation maps are “gene expression patterns.” Base types are “functional annotations.” Compatibility vectors are “binding affinities.” This biological grounding does not just inspire the architecture—it provides a vocabulary for understanding what the model has learned.

12.10 Putting It All Together: The Lab Progression

The eight labs form a coherent progression from molecular primitives to a complete AI system:



Labs 1–3 establish the molecular foundations: base pairing, strand displacement, and chemical logic. Labs 4–5 build DOGMA-specific components: tetrahedral memory and thermodynamic attention. Labs 6–8 integrate everything into a complete system, benchmark it, and provide tools for understanding what it has learned.

Complete Lab Workflow

A *complete lab workflow* for each exercise follows five phases:

1. **Read** the learning objectives and background section to understand the conceptual foundation.
2. **Implement** the code step by step, verifying each function individually before proceeding.
3. **Verify** your implementation against the expected output section. If outputs differ, debug before continuing.
4. **Explore** the discussion questions, which often require modifying or extending the code.
5. **Connect** the lab back to the textbook chapters referenced in the background section.

This workflow ensures that each lab reinforces both the practical skill of implementation and the theoretical understanding of why each component works.

12.11 Key Takeaways

Key Takeaways

- **Lab 1:** Watson-Crick base pairing can be expressed as a matrix operation $\mathbf{e}_i^\top \mathbf{W} \mathbf{e}_j$, enabling efficient batch computation of hybridization affinity. The complementarity matrix is the computational kernel of all DNA-based computation.
- **Lab 2:** Toehold-mediated strand displacement follows mass-action kinetics with three distinct phases. Toehold length controls reaction rate over five orders of magnitude, providing the dynamic range that DOGMA exploits for regulatory control.
- **Lab 3:** Boolean logic gates emerge naturally from chemical reaction networks. The AND gate CRN demonstrates that digital computation can arise from continuous-valued chemical kinetics, connecting molecular computation to DOGMA’s regulatory layer.
- **Lab 4:** The K_4 complete graph provides six independent storage slots in a four-vertex structure. TetraMemory’s associative fan-out—reading one vertex retrieves three relationships—enables efficient relational memory access.
- **Lab 5:** Thermodynamic attention replaces the dot product with a bilinear form inspired by the SantaLucia nearest-neighbor model. The learned interaction matrix $\mathbf{M}$ generalizes fixed thermodynamic parameters into a trainable attention mechanism.
- **Lab 6:** The complete DOGMA pipeline—Genome, Regulate, Synthesize, Transcribe, Express, Realize—can be assembled from differentiable modules and trained end-to-end in fewer than 200 lines of PyTorch.
- **Lab 7:** On genomic tasks with inherent regulatory structure, DOGMA achieves competitive accuracy with fewer parameters than a standard transformer, validating the inductive bias transfer principle.
- **Lab 8:** DOGMA’s biologically inspired architecture enables interpretable visualizations: activation maps as gene expression patterns, base types as functional annotations, and compatibility vectors as binding affinities.

Chapter 13

Epilogue: The Future of Intelligence

*We shall not cease from exploration, and
the end of all our exploring will be to arrive
where we started and know the place for the
first time.*

— T. S. Eliot

This book began with a molecule and ends with a vision. Between those two points lies an argument: that the deepest principles of biological information processing—storage, regulation, transcription, expression, evolution—are not mere metaphors for artificial intelligence but blueprints for it. We have traced the intellectual lineage from Crick’s Central Dogma to DOGMA the architecture, from Adleman’s DNA computer to genomic foundation models, from the molecular logic of the cell to the computational logic of a new kind of AI system. Now, in this final chapter, we step back from equations and algorithms to reflect on three questions: Where have we been? Where do we stand? And where are we going?

This is not a chapter of new technical results. It is a chapter of synthesis, perspective, and invitation. If the preceding eighteen chapters gave you tools, this one asks what you intend to build with them.

13.1 The Journey from DNA to DOGMA

13.1.1 A Molecule That Changed Everything

Consider, for a moment, the sheer improbability of what happened approximately 3.8 billion years ago. In the prebiotic chemistry of an ancient Earth, molecules stumbled upon a trick: they learned to copy themselves. Not perfectly—perfection would have been a dead end—but with just enough fidelity to preserve information across generations, and just enough error to explore new possibilities. That balance between conservation and innovation, between memory and creativity, is the deepest principle in this book.

From that molecular accident emerged an information architecture of staggering sophistication. DNA stores the organism’s complete hereditary blueprint in a four-letter alphabet. RNA transcribes selected portions of that blueprint in response to environmental signals. Proteins translate those transcripts into functional machinery—enzymes, structural elements, signaling molecules—that constitute the organism’s phenotype. And the whole system evolves: mutations introduce variation,

selection retains what works, and the genome accumulates the hard-won solutions of billions of years of trial and error.

Biological Insight

The four-nucleotide alphabet of DNA is not arbitrary. Information theory tells us that a quaternary code is remarkably close to the optimal radix for encoding information in a linear polymer with realistic chemical constraints. Each nucleotide carries $\log_2 4 = 2$ bits of information, and the double-helix structure provides both redundancy (the complementary strand) and a natural mechanism for replication. Nature discovered an encoding scheme that a communication engineer would recognize as elegant.

In Chapter 1, we saw how DNA’s information architecture satisfies the fundamental requirements of any computational substrate: persistent storage, random access, error correction, and modularity. In Chapter 2, we traced the history of using DNA itself as a computational medium, from Adleman’s Hamiltonian path experiment to modern DNA strand displacement circuits. In Chapter 3, we discovered that gene regulation implements a computational logic as sophisticated as anything designed by human engineers—combinatorial, context-dependent, multi-scale, and exquisitely tuned by evolution.

These three chapters established the biological foundation. They showed us not just *what* biology does, but *how* it organizes information processing. That organizational logic—the separation of storage from computation, the regulatory gating of information flow, the staged transformation from genotype to phenotype—became the blueprint for everything that followed.

13.1.2 From Biological Principles to Computational Architecture

The middle sections of this book performed a translation. We took the organizational principles of molecular biology and asked: can these be formalized mathematically? Can they be implemented in silicon? Can they produce AI systems with properties that current architectures lack?

Part II (Chapters 4–6) provided the computational toolkit: the mathematics of machine learning, the architecture of transformers, and the emergence of biological foundation models that bridge molecular data and computational methods. These chapters grounded the subsequent design decisions in established theory and practice.

Part III (Chapters 1–5) introduced the DOGMA architecture itself and its core components. Each component maps to a stage in the biological pipeline:

- **HelixHash** (Chapter 2) translates the base-pairing logic of DNA into a locality-sensitive hashing scheme for efficient similarity search in high-dimensional spaces.
- **TERA** (Chapter 3) implements transcriptional and epigenetic regulation as a learned attention mechanism that selectively activates regions of the genomic substrate.
- **TetraData** (Chapter 4) provides a tetrahedral data structure inspired by the three-dimensional organization of biological macromolecules, enabling structured multi-modal representation.
- **CodonForge** (Chapter 5) translates activated genomic representations into executable computational structures, analogous to the ribosome’s translation of mRNA into protein.

Part IV (Chapters 6–8) showed how these components integrate into a system that can be trained—not just through gradient descent, but through evolutionary synthesis, combining the precision of optimization with the creativity of variation and selection.

Part V (Chapters 9–11) placed DOGMA in the broader context of post-transformer AI, AGI research, and the ethical responsibilities that accompany powerful AI systems.

And now we are here: the epilogue. The view from the summit, looking both backward at the path we climbed and forward at the terrain ahead.

The DOGMA Thesis

The central thesis of this book can be stated in a single sentence: the organizational principles that evolution discovered for biological information processing—persistent structured storage, context-dependent regulation, staged transformation, and open-ended self-modification—provide a superior blueprint for building artificial intelligence. DOGMA is one attempt to realize that blueprint. The principles themselves are more important than any particular implementation.

13.2 What DOGMA Teaches Us About Intelligence

13.2.1 Intelligence Is Substrate-Independent

One of the most profound implications of this book is that *computation is substrate-independent*. The same logical operations can be implemented in silicon transistors, DNA strand displacement reactions, protein conformational changes, or the firing patterns of neurons. What matters is not the physical medium but the *organization* of information flow within it.

This principle, which has deep roots in the work of Turing and Church, takes on new significance in the context of DOGMA. If the organizational logic of the genome—its layered regulation, its modular structure, its evolutionary plasticity—can be abstracted away from its molecular substrate and reimplemented in silicon, then intelligence itself is not a property of carbon chemistry. It is a property of *information architecture*.

Convergent Evolution of Computation

Nature has independently evolved computational systems multiple times: neural networks in animals, immune system pattern recognition, bacterial quorum sensing, slime mold optimization, and the gene regulatory networks present in all living cells. Each uses different molecular substrates, yet all implement recognizable computational primitives—memory, feedback, thresholding, signal integration. This convergent evolution of computation across substrates is itself evidence that the principles of intelligence transcend their physical implementation.

This does not mean that substrate is irrelevant. The molecular substrate of biology confers specific advantages: massive parallelism (every cell is a computer), energy efficiency (the brain runs on approximately 20 watts), self-repair, and the ability to operate in aqueous environments at ambient temperature. Silicon substrates offer their own advantages: speed, precision, programmability, and the ability to share exact copies of learned representations. The point is that the *principles* are transferable, even when the *implementation details* differ.

13.2.2 Evolution Found Solutions We Are Only Now Discovering

Throughout this book, we have encountered biological mechanisms that anticipate—sometimes by billions of years—ideas that computer scientists and AI researchers consider cutting-edge:

1. **Attention mechanisms.** Transformers use attention to selectively weight relevant inputs. Gene regulatory networks have been doing precisely this since the earliest prokaryotes: transcription factors “attend” to specific promoter sequences, with binding affinity serving as the attention weight. The parallel is not superficial; the mathematical structure is remarkably similar (Chapter 3).
2. **Mixture of experts.** Modern AI architectures route different inputs to different specialized sub-networks. The genome does the same: different cell types express different subsets of genes, creating thousands of specialized “expert networks” from a single shared genome. A liver cell and a neuron contain identical DNA but run vastly different programs.
3. **Error-correcting codes.** The double-helix structure of DNA, with its complementary strands, is a natural error-correcting code. DNA repair enzymes implement sophisticated error-detection and correction algorithms that maintain genomic integrity across billions of cell divisions.
4. **Memory-augmented computation.** The genome serves as a long-term, addressable memory that persists across generations, while epigenetic modifications provide a medium-term memory that can be adjusted within a lifetime. Current AI systems are only beginning to explore analogous architectures with external memory banks and retrieval-augmented generation.
5. **Self-modifying code.** Transposable elements, alternative splicing, and somatic hypermutation all represent mechanisms by which biological systems modify their own “code” at runtime. This is precisely the capability that DOGMA’s evolutionary synthesis pipeline aims to capture (Chapter 6).
6. **Hierarchical modularity.** Genomes are organized into operons, regulons, gene families, chromosomes, and compartmentalized genomes—a hierarchy of modular organization that enables both local modification and global coordination. This mirrors the best practices of software engineering, arrived at independently by natural selection.

Nature as a Source of Algorithms

The history of computer science is filled with examples of algorithms discovered first by evolution and later by engineers: genetic algorithms, neural networks, ant colony optimization, particle swarm optimization. DOGMA proposes that this pattern extends to *architectures*, not just algorithms. The next generation of AI systems will not merely use bio-inspired algorithms within conventional architectures; they will adopt bio-inspired *organizational principles* as the architecture itself.

13.2.3 Regulation Is as Important as Computation

Perhaps the most under-appreciated lesson from biology is that *how* you control information flow matters as much as *what* you compute. The human genome contains approximately 20,000 protein-coding genes, roughly the same number as a microscopic roundworm. The difference between a human and a nematode is not primarily in the number of genes but in the sophistication of gene *regulation*—the complex, context-dependent logic that determines which genes are expressed, when, where, and at what level.

Current AI architectures largely ignore this lesson. A standard transformer processes all tokens through the same layers with the same parameters, regardless of context. There is no mechanism

for selectively activating different computational pathways for different inputs, no analog of cell-type-specific gene expression. TERA (Chapter 3) is DOGMA’s answer to this gap: a regulatory attention mechanism that learns to activate different regions of the genomic substrate depending on context, task, and input characteristics.

The Cost of Universal Activation

Consider the computational waste inherent in universal activation. A large language model with 70 billion parameters applies all 70 billion parameters to every input token, whether that token is a common function word or a rare technical term requiring specialized knowledge. Biology would never tolerate such inefficiency. A liver cell does not waste energy expressing genes for photoreceptor proteins. Selective activation is not merely an optimization; it is a fundamental design principle for intelligent systems that must operate under energy constraints—which, ultimately, all real systems must.

13.3 The Central Dogma Revisited: From Biology to DOGMA

13.3.1 Crick’s Original Formulation

In 1958, Francis Crick articulated the Central Dogma of molecular biology: information flows from DNA to RNA to protein, and this flow is essentially irreversible at the sequence level [Crick, 1958]. The statement was a hypothesis about molecular biology, but it was also, implicitly, a statement about computation. It said that living systems maintain a persistent, structured information store (the genome); that they selectively read from it (transcription); that the readout is transformed into functional structures (translation and folding); and that the whole process is context-dependent, regulated, and evolvable.

The Central Dogma is often summarized as a simple linear flow:

$$\text{DNA} \xrightarrow{\text{transcription}} \text{RNA} \xrightarrow{\text{translation}} \text{Protein}$$

But this summary obscures the true complexity. Transcription is not passive copying; it is a regulated, selective process controlled by hundreds of transcription factors, enhancers, silencers, and epigenetic marks. Translation is not mechanical decoding; it involves the ribosome—itsself a molecular computer—performing error checking, quality control, and context-dependent codon interpretation. And protein folding adds yet another layer: the linear amino acid sequence must find its three-dimensional structure in a vast conformational landscape, guided by physical forces that encode functional information not present in the sequence alone.

13.3.2 The DOGMA Pipeline: A Computational Analog

DOGMA—the DNA-Organized Genomic Model Architecture—takes Crick’s insight and asks: *what if we built an AI system that works the same way?* Not a system that processes flat token sequences through uniform attention blocks, but one that maintains a typed genomic substrate, activates regions selectively through learned regulation, transcribes active regions into intermediate representations, folds those representations into structured behavior, and evolves its own internal organization over time.

The mapping between the biological and computational pipelines is systematic and precise. The following diagram illustrates the parallel structure:

The detailed correspondence is summarized in the following table:

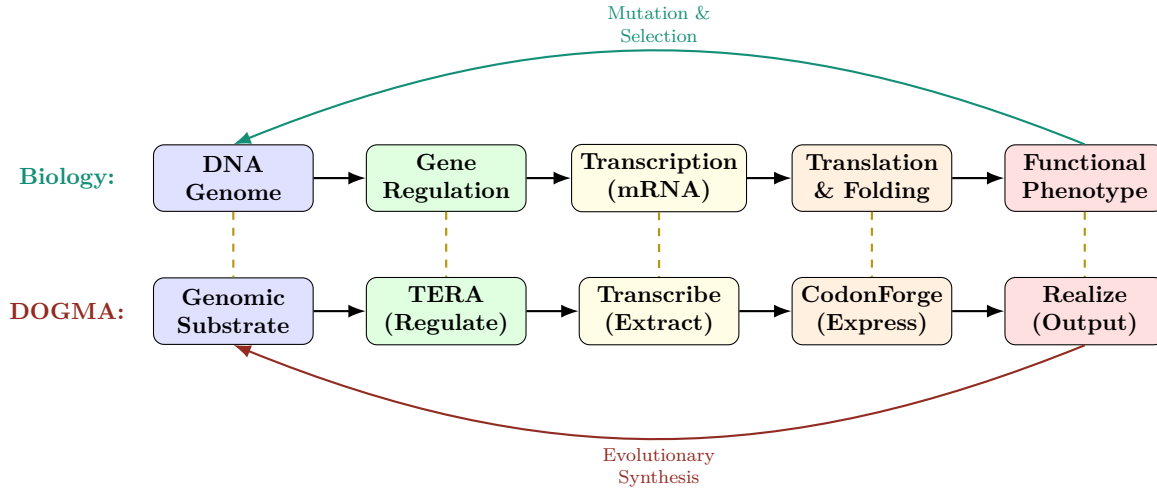


Figure 13.1: The parallel structure of the biological Central Dogma (top) and the DOGMA computational pipeline (bottom). Dashed gold lines indicate the systematic mapping between corresponding stages. Curved arrows show the evolutionary feedback loops in both systems.

Biological Stage	DOGMA Stage	Computational Function
Genome (DNA)	Genomic Store	Persistent, typed, addressable information substrate with modular organization
Gene Regulation	TERA (Regulate)	Context-dependent selective activation of genomic regions via learned regulatory attention
Transcription	Transcribe	Extraction of active regions into intermediate representations (computational mRNA)
Translation & Folding	Express & Realize	Transformation of intermediate representations into executable computational structures via CodonForge
Mutation & Selection	Evolutionary Synthesis	Open-ended modification of genomic substrate through variation, evaluation, and selection
Epigenetics	State Memory	Persistent, heritable modifications to activation patterns without altering the base substrate

Beyond Simple Analogy

The mapping between Crick’s Central Dogma and the DOGMA pipeline is not a loose analogy. Each stage of the biological pipeline has a computational counterpart with a precise mathematical formulation developed in earlier chapters. The genome maps to a typed tensor store (Chapter 1). Gene regulation maps to TERA’s regulatory attention (Chapter 3). Transcription maps to the extraction of active embeddings. Translation and folding map to CodonForge’s structure synthesis (Chapter 5). Mutation and selection map to the evolutionary training framework (Chapter 6). The precision of this mapping is what distinguishes DOGMA from earlier bio-inspired approaches that borrowed biological terminology without biological rigor.

13.3.3 What the Mapping Reveals

The systematic mapping between biology and computation reveals several insights that are not obvious from either perspective alone:

Staged processing enables specialization. In biology, each stage of the Central Dogma has been independently optimized by evolution. DNA polymerase is optimized for faithful replication, RNA polymerase for regulated transcription, the ribosome for accurate translation. This stage-wise specialization is possible precisely because the pipeline separates concerns. DOGMA inherits this advantage: HelixHash can be optimized for retrieval, TERA for regulation, CodonForge for synthesis, each independently of the others.

The genotype-phenotype distinction is essential. Biology maintains a strict separation between the genome (genotype) and the organism (phenotype). This separation is what makes evolution possible: you can modify the genotype without destroying the current phenotype, test the modification in the next generation, and revert if it fails. In AI terms, this is the separation between the model’s “blueprint” (its architecture and learned structure) and its “behavior” (its outputs on specific inputs). DOGMA makes this distinction explicit; standard neural networks do not.

Regulation is the key to complexity. The human genome and the roundworm genome contain roughly the same number of protein-coding genes. The vast difference in organismal complexity arises primarily from differences in *regulation*—the combinatorial logic that determines which genes are expressed in which contexts. This suggests that the path to more capable AI may lie not in adding more parameters (more “genes”) but in developing more sophisticated regulation of existing parameters.

13.4 The Convergence of Biology and Computation

13.4.1 Wet Computing: DNA as a Computational Substrate

The dream of molecular computation, born in Adleman’s 1994 experiment (Chapter 2), has matured dramatically. Modern DNA computing has moved far beyond proof-of-concept demonstrations:

DNA strand displacement circuits. Researchers have built cascading molecular circuits with hundreds of interacting DNA species, implementing neural networks, finite automata, and even simple programming languages entirely in molecular form. The DNA strand displacement paradigm

provides a universal computational substrate—any Boolean circuit can be compiled into a set of DNA strands and toehold-mediated displacement reactions.

DNA origami and nanostructures. The field of structural DNA nanotechnology has produced programmable two-dimensional and three-dimensional structures with nanometer precision. These structures serve as scaffolds for organizing molecular components, creating spatial arrangements that implement computational logic through geometric constraints rather than sequential reactions.

Enzymatic computing. CRISPR-based circuits, recombinase logic gates, and polymerase-driven computation extend molecular computing beyond passive hybridization. These enzymatic systems can amplify signals, maintain state, and interface with living cells, opening the door to in vivo computation.

The Speed-Parallelism Trade-off

Molecular computation is slow by silicon standards: a typical DNA strand displacement reaction takes seconds to minutes, compared to nanoseconds for a transistor switching event. But molecular systems compensate with extraordinary parallelism. A microliter of solution at micromolar concentration contains approximately 10^{14} molecules, each operating independently. The total computational throughput—operations per second per unit energy—can rival or exceed silicon for certain problem classes, particularly combinatorial search and molecular pattern recognition.

13.4.2 DNA Data Storage

One of the most commercially promising applications of DNA technology is data storage. DNA offers theoretical information density of approximately 10^{18} bytes per cubic millimeter—roughly six orders of magnitude denser than the best magnetic storage. More importantly, DNA is chemically stable: under appropriate conditions, DNA can preserve information for millennia, as demonstrated by the recovery of readable ancient DNA from specimens tens of thousands of years old.

Several research groups and companies have demonstrated the complete pipeline: encoding digital data (text, images, video) into DNA sequences, synthesizing those sequences, storing them, and then sequencing and decoding the data with high fidelity. The primary barriers to commercial deployment are the cost and speed of DNA synthesis and sequencing, both of which are improving at rates that exceed Moore’s law.

For the DOGMA framework, DNA data storage is significant for a conceptual reason: it demonstrates that the boundary between “biological” and “digital” information is porous. The same molecule that stores the human genome can store a movie, a software library, or a trained neural network. This convergence of biological and digital information substrates is not a curiosity; it is a harbinger of a future in which the distinction between wetware and software becomes increasingly meaningless.

13.4.3 Synthetic Biology and Programmable Life

Synthetic biology—the engineering of biological systems for useful purposes—represents perhaps the most dramatic convergence of biology and computation. Synthetic biologists routinely design genetic circuits using principles borrowed directly from electrical engineering: logic gates, oscillators, feedback controllers, and memory elements, all implemented in DNA and protein.

The implications for AI are profound. If biological systems can be *programmed* using computational abstractions, and if computational systems can be *organized* using biological principles, then the two domains are converging toward a shared design language. DOGMA is one expression of that convergence: it takes the design language of molecular biology and applies it to the design of AI systems. Synthetic biology does the reverse: it takes the design language of engineering and applies it to the design of living systems.

Bidirectional Transfer

The relationship between biology and AI is not one-directional. DOGMA draws architectural principles from biology to build better AI. Simultaneously, AI tools—including genomic foundation models (Chapter 7)—are accelerating biological research by predicting protein structures, designing synthetic genes, and modeling regulatory networks. This bidirectional transfer creates a positive feedback loop: better AI enables deeper biological understanding, which in turn inspires better AI architectures.

13.4.4 In Vivo Computing: The Cell as a Computer

The most radical frontier of the biology-computation convergence is in vivo computing: using living cells as programmable computational devices. Engineered bacteria and mammalian cells have been programmed to perform logical operations, sense environmental conditions, make decisions, and produce therapeutic outputs—all within a living organism.

Consider the implications: a cell is a self-replicating, self-repairing, energy-harvesting computer that operates at the nanoscale. A single human cell contains approximately 6.4 billion base pairs of DNA (the “program”), 20,000 protein-coding genes (the “function library”), and thousands of active regulatory circuits (the “operating system”)—all running on roughly 10^{-12} watts. No silicon computer comes close to this combination of capabilities.

DOGMA does not propose replacing silicon with cells. But it proposes learning from how cells organize computation. The cell’s strategy—maintain a stable, structured genome; selectively activate relevant programs; transform representations through staged processing; evolve new capabilities over time—is precisely the strategy that DOGMA translates into silicon terms.

13.4.5 The Horizon of Hybrid Systems

Looking further ahead, we can envision hybrid systems that combine biological and silicon components within a single computational pipeline. Imagine, for instance, a system that uses DNA-based storage for its long-term memory (exploiting DNA’s extraordinary information density and durability), silicon-based processors for real-time inference (exploiting electronics’ speed), and engineered cellular circuits for specialized pattern recognition tasks (exploiting biology’s energy efficiency and molecular-scale parallelism).

Such hybrid systems are not science fiction. The individual components—DNA data storage, silicon AI accelerators, engineered cellular circuits—already exist in laboratory settings. The engineering challenge is integration: building reliable interfaces between molecular and electronic computation, managing the radically different timescales at which biological and electronic systems operate, and developing programming abstractions that span both domains.

Bio-Silicon Interfaces

The most significant near-term opportunity for hybrid bio-silicon systems lies in *biosensors coupled to AI*. Engineered cells can detect molecular signals (metabolites, hormones, environmental toxins) with exquisite sensitivity and specificity. By coupling these biological sensors to silicon-based AI processors, we can build systems that perceive the molecular world with biological fidelity and reason about those perceptions with computational power. DOGMA’s architectural framework—with its explicit separation of sensing (genomic substrate), regulation (TERA), and reasoning (CodonForge)—provides a natural template for organizing such hybrid systems.

For DOGMA, the hybrid computing frontier is particularly significant because it validates the core thesis: the principles of biological information processing are not tied to their molecular implementation. If those principles can operate in silicon, and if biological components can be integrated with silicon components, then the organizational logic—the “dogma”—truly is substrate-independent.

13.5 Open Research Frontiers

The ideas in this book open numerous research directions. We highlight here seven concrete open problems, each significant enough to sustain a research program and accessible enough that a well-prepared graduate student could make meaningful progress.

13.5.1 Open Problem 1: Scaling Evolutionary Synthesis

DOGMA’s evolutionary synthesis pipeline (Chapter 6) now has an executable research protocol, but it has not yet been validated on a broad controlled benchmark suite. Scaling it to genomic substrates with billions of bases remains computationally challenging. The core difficulty is the evaluation bottleneck: each candidate genome must be instantiated, tested, and scored, and this process currently requires forward passes through the full model.

Research Direction

Key questions include: Can surrogate fitness models (themselves learned from previous evaluations) reduce the number of expensive full-model evaluations required? Can the evolutionary search be decomposed into modular sub-problems that can be evolved independently and then composed? Can techniques from population genetics—such as linkage disequilibrium analysis and recombination maps—be adapted to identify and preserve useful “genomic” structures during evolution? The goal is to achieve evolutionary optimization at scales comparable to current pre-training regimes: trillions of tokens, billions of parameters.

13.5.2 Open Problem 2: Formal Theory of Regulatory Attention

TERA (Chapter 3) implements regulatory attention as a learned mechanism for selectively activating genomic regions. But the theoretical foundations of regulatory attention remain incomplete. Under what conditions does regulatory attention converge to an optimal activation policy? What is the relationship between the expressiveness of the regulatory mechanism and the complexity of tasks it can solve? Is there a “no free lunch” theorem for regulation—a formal result showing that no single regulatory policy can be optimal for all tasks?

These questions connect to deep issues in computational complexity and learning theory. A formal theory of regulatory attention would provide principled guidance for designing TERA-like systems, rather than relying on empirical hyperparameter search.

13.5.3 Open Problem 3: Cross-Modal Genomic Representations

DOGMA’s genomic substrate is, in its current formulation, primarily designed for sequence data. But biological genomes encode information that spans modalities: nucleotide sequences, three-dimensional chromatin structure, epigenetic modifications, temporal expression dynamics. A natural extension is to develop genomic substrates that natively integrate multiple modalities—text, image, audio, video, code—within a single unified representation, analogous to how a biological genome encodes the information for all cell types and all developmental stages within a single DNA molecule.

Multi-Modal Genomes

The human genome does not have separate “modules” for vision, language, and motor control. A single genomic substrate, through differential regulation, gives rise to retinal cells that process light, auditory hair cells that process sound, and motor neurons that control movement. Can a computational genomic substrate achieve similar multi-modal versatility through regulation alone, without modality-specific architectural components?

13.5.4 Open Problem 4: Interpretability Through Biological Analogy

One of the most significant potential advantages of the DOGMA architecture is interpretability. Because DOGMA’s internal organization mirrors biological information flow, it may be possible to use the tools of molecular biology—gene annotation, pathway analysis, regulatory network reconstruction—to understand what a trained DOGMA system has learned. If a region of the genomic substrate consistently activates in response to mathematical reasoning tasks, we can annotate it as a “mathematical reasoning gene.” If a regulatory circuit consistently co-activates two genomic regions, we can identify it as a “regulatory pathway” linking those capabilities.

This biological analogy for AI interpretability is largely unexplored. Developing it rigorously—with formal definitions of “genomic annotation” for AI systems, methods for identifying “regulatory pathways” in learned TERA attention patterns, and tools for “gene knockout experiments” (ablation studies guided by biological intuition)—would be a significant contribution to both AI safety and our understanding of learned representations.

13.5.5 Open Problem 5: Energy-Efficient Inference via Biological Sparsity

Biological neural systems achieve remarkable energy efficiency in part through extreme sparsity: at any given moment, only a small fraction of neurons are active, and only a small fraction of the genome is being transcribed. DOGMA’s regulatory attention mechanism provides a natural framework for implementing similar sparsity in AI inference. But the engineering challenges are substantial.

Current GPU architectures are optimized for dense matrix operations. Sparse, irregular computation patterns—where different inputs activate different subsets of parameters—incur overhead from memory access patterns, load balancing, and synchronization. Realizing the energy efficiency that biological sparsity implies requires co-design of algorithms, software frameworks, and potentially hardware.

13.5.6 Open Problem 6: Developmental Programs for AI

Biological organisms do not spring into existence fully formed. They develop: from a single cell, through a precisely orchestrated sequence of cell divisions, differentiations, and morphogenetic events, an adult organism with trillions of specialized cells emerges. This developmental process is itself a computation, guided by the genome’s regulatory logic.

Can DOGMA systems undergo analogous development? Rather than training a full-scale model from scratch, could we “grow” a DOGMA system from a small initial configuration, allowing the evolutionary synthesis pipeline to progressively add genomic regions, develop regulatory connections, and specialize computational pathways? This would mirror biological development and might offer advantages in training efficiency, modularity, and the ability to produce architectures of varying complexity from a shared developmental program.

13.5.7 Open Problem 7: Bridging Genomic Foundation Models and DOGMA

Chapter 7 introduced genomic foundation models—large neural networks trained on DNA, RNA, and protein sequences. These models capture statistical patterns in biological sequences that reflect billions of years of evolutionary optimization. But the relationship between genomic foundation models and the DOGMA architecture remains underdeveloped. Can pre-trained genomic foundation models be used to initialize DOGMA’s genomic substrate with biologically meaningful structure? Can DOGMA’s evolutionary synthesis pipeline be guided by biological fitness landscapes learned by genomic foundation models? Can the representations learned by genomic models inform the design of TERA’s regulatory mechanisms?

This bridge between biological sequence modeling and bio-inspired AI architecture is one of the most promising and least explored research directions opened by this book.

13.6 The Next Decade of Post-Transformer AI

13.6.1 Beyond Bigger Transformers

The dominant paradigm in AI research at the time of this writing can be summarized in three words: *scale the transformer*. More parameters, more data, more compute. This strategy has produced remarkable results, but it is approaching fundamental limits—in energy consumption, in data availability, in the diminishing returns of scaling laws, and in the architectural rigidity of a system that treats all information as undifferentiated tokens.

We do not claim that the transformer era is ending. Transformers will remain central to AI for years to come, just as CPUs remain central to computing even as GPUs, TPUs, and neuromorphic chips have transformed the landscape. But the *monoculture* of transformers—the assumption that a single architecture, scaled sufficiently, will solve all problems—is already showing cracks.

The Post-Transformer Landscape

The post-transformer era will not be defined by abandoning attention mechanisms or pretrained language models. It will be defined by *augmenting* them with the organizational principles that biology discovered: persistent structured state, selective activation, staged processing, and evolutionary self-modification. DOGMA is one proposal for how to do this. It will not be the last.

13.6.2 Predictions and Possibilities

Looking ahead to the next decade, we offer not prophecies but informed possibilities—directions that the logic of this book suggests, even if their realization depends on breakthroughs we cannot foresee:

Hybrid architectures will become the norm. Just as modern processors combine CPU cores, GPU cores, and specialized accelerators, future AI systems will combine multiple architectural paradigms—transformer blocks for sequence processing, state-space models for long-range dependencies, genomic substrates for persistent structured knowledge, and evolutionary mechanisms for architectural adaptation. DOGMA is one such hybrid architecture; others will emerge.

Training will become less distinct from inference. Current AI systems have a sharp boundary between training (when parameters change) and inference (when they do not). Biology has no such boundary: learning, adaptation, and even evolution are continuous processes that occur during the organism’s lifetime. Future AI systems will likely blur this boundary, continuously updating their internal representations in response to experience—not just through in-context learning within a fixed context window, but through genuine structural modification of the model itself.

Energy efficiency will become a first-order design constraint. As AI systems grow larger and more pervasive, their energy consumption becomes an increasingly serious concern—both economically and environmentally. Biology achieves extraordinary computational capability on remarkably low energy budgets. The principles that enable this efficiency—sparse activation, local computation, event-driven processing, energy-aware regulation—will become essential design constraints for AI systems, not optional optimizations.

Interpretability will drive architecture, not follow it. Currently, interpretability research tries to understand architectures designed without interpretability in mind. The DOGMA approach inverts this relationship: by building AI systems whose internal organization mirrors understandable biological processes, interpretability becomes a design feature rather than an afterthought. We expect future architectures to be designed with interpretability as a primary objective, and biological analogy will be one of the most powerful tools for achieving it.

AI systems will evolve, not just train. Perhaps the most radical prediction: AI systems will develop the capacity for open-ended self-modification—not just parameter adjustment through gradient descent, but genuine structural innovation through evolutionary processes. The evolutionary synthesis pipeline of Chapter 6 is a first step. The destination is AI systems that can create new computational structures, new representational strategies, and new problem-solving approaches that no human engineer designed or anticipated.

13.6.3 What We Are Not Predicting

Intellectual honesty requires acknowledging the limits of prediction. We are *not* predicting that DOGMA will become the dominant AI architecture. We are *not* predicting a timeline for artificial general intelligence. We are *not* predicting that biology-inspired approaches will render current methods obsolete. The history of technology is littered with confident predictions that proved spectacularly wrong.

What we *are* predicting is that the principles articulated in this book—substrate independence, regulatory gating, staged processing, evolutionary adaptation—will become increasingly central to AI design, regardless of the specific architectures that embody them. The ideas are larger than any particular implementation, including our own.

13.6.4 The Role of Hardware Co-Evolution

One dimension of the post-transformer future that deserves special mention is hardware. The transformer revolution was enabled in part by the availability of GPUs optimized for dense matrix multiplication. Similarly, the next generation of AI architectures—including DOGMA—may require hardware that is optimized for different computational patterns.

Biological computation suggests several hardware directions worth pursuing. Neuromorphic chips, which implement spiking neural networks in silicon, already capture some aspects of biological computation: event-driven processing, sparse activation, and local learning rules. But DOGMA’s requirements go further. The genomic substrate requires efficient large-scale memory with content-addressable access (a natural fit for associative memory hardware). TERA’s regulatory attention requires dynamic routing of computation (a natural fit for reconfigurable architectures). The evolutionary synthesis pipeline requires the ability to rapidly instantiate and evaluate architectural variants (a natural fit for field-programmable hardware).

The co-evolution of algorithms and hardware has driven every major computational revolution: CPUs enabled sequential programming, GPUs enabled deep learning, TPUs enabled large-scale transformer training. The next revolution may require hardware that is designed from the ground up to support the computational patterns of bio-inspired AI—sparse, irregular, adaptive, and self-modifying.

13.7 What Makes Intelligence “General”?

13.7.1 Beyond Benchmark Scores

The term “artificial general intelligence” (AGI) carries immense weight in contemporary AI discourse, but its meaning remains contested. Chapter 10 explored various paths toward AGI; here, in the epilogue, we offer a more philosophical reflection on what “generality” truly requires.

Current AI evaluation relies heavily on benchmarks: standardized tests that measure performance on specific tasks. A system that achieves high scores on many benchmarks is deemed more “general” than one that excels on only a few. But this metric-driven view of generality misses something essential. A student who memorizes the answers to every test in a test bank has not demonstrated general intelligence—they have demonstrated general memorization. True generality requires something more: the ability to handle situations that were not anticipated by the system’s designers, to transfer knowledge across domains that share deep structural similarities but superficial differences, and to recognize when existing knowledge is insufficient and new approaches are needed.

Biological Generality

The immune system provides a biological model of genuine generality. It can mount effective responses to pathogens it has never encountered, including pathogens that did not exist when the immune system evolved. It achieves this through combinatorial diversity (generating $\sim 10^{11}$ distinct antibody configurations from a limited set of gene segments), somatic hypermutation (evolving improved responses in real time), and immunological memory (retaining successful solutions for rapid re-deployment). The immune system does not “memorize” pathogens; it generates a diverse repertoire of potential responses and then selects and refines the ones that work. This is generality through diversity and selection, not through enumeration.

13.7.2 Generality as Architectural Property

DOGMA suggests that generality is not merely a property of training data or model scale—it is a property of *architecture*. Specifically, the following architectural features contribute to genuine generality:

1. **Persistent structured state.** A system with a rich, organized internal state can accumulate knowledge over time and draw on it in novel situations. The genome is the ultimate persistent structured state: it accumulates the “knowledge” of billions of years of evolution in a format that is structured, modular, and addressable.
2. **Selective activation.** A system that can selectively activate different computational pathways for different inputs can specialize without sacrificing breadth. The key insight from gene regulation is that a single genome can give rise to hundreds of distinct cell types—each specialized, yet all sharing the same underlying substrate.
3. **Open-ended self-modification.** A system that can modify its own structure—not just its parameters—can, in principle, generate solutions to problems that lie outside its original design envelope. Evolution is the paradigmatic example: it has produced solutions (eyes, wings, immune systems, brains) that no fixed optimization process could have anticipated.
4. **Multi-scale organization.** Biological systems exhibit organization at multiple scales: molecular, cellular, tissue, organ, organism, population. Each scale has its own dynamics, constraints, and emergent properties. Truly general AI systems may need analogous multi-scale organization, with different architectural elements operating at different temporal and spatial scales.

13.7.3 Intelligence as Understanding, Not Just Performance

We close this section with a distinction that we believe is essential for the future of AI research: the distinction between *performance* and *understanding*. A system that achieves superhuman performance on a benchmark has demonstrated capability. But has it demonstrated understanding?

Understanding, as we use the term here, implies the ability to construct internal representations that capture the causal structure of a domain—not just statistical correlations, but the underlying mechanisms that generate those correlations. A system that understands Newtonian mechanics can predict the trajectory of a ball it has never seen. A system that merely correlates visual features with trajectories can only interpolate between examples it has observed.

DOGMA’s staged pipeline—from genomic substrate through regulation, transcription, expression, and realization—is designed to encourage the formation of structured internal representations that

are closer to understanding than to mere correlation. The genomic substrate provides a persistent, organized store for learned knowledge. The regulatory mechanism provides context-dependent access to that knowledge. The staged processing pipeline provides opportunities for intermediate representations that capture structural relationships. Whether these design choices actually lead to systems that “understand” in any meaningful sense is, of course, an open empirical question. But the architectural intuition is clear: understanding requires structure, and structure requires design.

13.8 Honest Assessment: Where We Stand

13.8.1 What Has Been Demonstrated

Let us be precise about what DOGMA has and has not achieved as of this writing. The architecture has a formal research specification (Chapter 1), and several named components have prototype implementations or design studies—HelixHash (Chapter 2), TERA (Chapter 3), TetraData (Chapter 4), and CodonForge (Chapter 5). The measured baseline in Chapter 8 is a 29,830,396-parameter non-transformer candidate. Its low perplexity and failed generation probes expose both progress and clear failure modes. Cycle 33 used the previous gate failure to drive a single controlled mutation, reducing the supervised trace from 160 to 80 bases; the resulting regression and repeated gate failure caused another rejection. A separate ATCG-to-language hybrid passes four narrow held-out probes by using a transformer realization adapter; it is not native DOGMA language ability. Neither result establishes biological understanding, general intelligence, or superiority over transformer and state-space baselines.

Intellectual Honesty

DOGMA is a proof of concept, not a finished product. The architecture demonstrates that biology-inspired computational principles can be formalized, implemented, and tested. It does not yet demonstrate that these principles scale to the level of current frontier AI systems. That is the work that remains. We state this not as a disclaimer but as an invitation: the most important results in the DOGMA research program have not yet been achieved, and they may well be achieved by readers of this book.

13.8.2 What Remains

The open problems are substantial. Scaling the evolutionary synthesis pipeline to genomic substrates with billions of bases remains computationally challenging. Historical TERA attention proposals are not part of the canonical non-transformer baseline and require separate ablation studies. Whether DOGMA’s staged pipeline can match or exceed recurrent, state-space, or transformer baselines on established benchmarks is unanswered at scale.

These are not weaknesses to be hidden. They are invitations to the research community. The history of AI is filled with ideas that were theoretically compelling but required years of engineering effort to realize their potential. Neural networks were proposed in the 1940s but did not achieve practical significance until the 2010s. The gap between a good idea and a working system is bridged not by visionaries but by engineers—patient, skilled, persistent engineers who take an idea and make it work.

13.8.3 The Community We Need

No single research group can build what DOGMA envisions. The architecture demands expertise that spans molecular biology, information theory, systems engineering, GPU programming, and cognitive science. It requires wet-lab biologists who can validate whether computational abstractions faithfully capture biological mechanisms, and it requires machine learning engineers who can make those abstractions run efficiently on modern hardware.

The future of DOGMA depends on building a community that speaks both languages fluently. This is not a platitude. It is a structural requirement. The ideas in this book cannot be fully developed by computer scientists alone, no matter how brilliant, because the biological insights that drive the architecture require genuine biological expertise to refine. Equally, biologists alone cannot realize these ideas, because the computational engineering required is specialized and demanding.

How to Contribute

If you are a biologist reading this book, your most valuable contribution may not be building DOGMA systems but *critiquing* them: identifying where our biological analogies are faithful and where they are misleading, pointing out biological mechanisms we have overlooked, and suggesting new biological principles that could inform future architectural innovations. If you are a computer scientist, your most valuable contribution may be finding ways to make these biologically inspired mechanisms computationally efficient—discovering the GPU kernels, the memory layouts, the training recipes that transform a beautiful idea into a practical system.

13.9 A Letter to the Next Generation

If you have read this far, you have absorbed a body of knowledge that spans molecular biology, information theory, machine learning, evolutionary computation, and systems architecture. You have seen how nature builds intelligent systems and how those principles can be translated into computational frameworks. You are, whether you intended it or not, prepared to contribute to the next generation of AI.

We want to be direct about what we are asking of you.

The tools in this book—HelixHash, TERA, TetraData, CodonForge, the evolutionary training framework—are starting points. They are deliberately imperfect, deliberately incomplete. They are designed to be broken, rebuilt, extended, and surpassed. If this book succeeds, it will not be because DOGMA becomes the dominant AI architecture. It will be because the *ideas* behind DOGMA—that intelligence requires structured internal state, that regulation is as important as computation, that evolution is not just a training method but a design principle—become part of how the field thinks about building intelligent systems.

13.9.1 The Importance of Interdisciplinary Thinking

Interdisciplinary Fluency

The most important skill you can cultivate is *interdisciplinary fluency*: the ability to read a paper on gene regulatory networks and see a computational architecture, to read a paper on attention mechanisms and see a model of transcriptional regulation, to move between domains without losing rigor in either. The future of AI belongs to researchers who can think across boundaries.

The history of science is filled with breakthroughs that occurred at the intersection of disciplines. Watson and Crick solved the structure of DNA not because they were the best X-ray crystallographers (Rosalind Franklin was) or the best chemists (Linus Pauling was) but because they could integrate insights from crystallography, chemistry, and biology into a single coherent model. Shannon created information theory by connecting electrical engineering, Boolean algebra, and probability theory. Turing laid the foundations of computer science by connecting mathematical logic, mechanical engineering, and philosophy of mind.

DOGMA exists at such an intersection. Its future development will require people who can move fluidly between molecular biology and machine learning, between evolutionary theory and systems engineering, between the bench and the keyboard. We do not underestimate how rare such people are, or how difficult it is to develop genuine expertise in multiple fields. But we are convinced that the most important advances in AI over the next decades will be made by researchers with exactly this kind of breadth.

13.9.2 What You Can Do Now

For the reader who finishes this book and asks “What next?”—here is concrete advice:

1. **Pick one open problem and go deep.** The seven open problems in Section 13.5 are starting points. Choose the one that most aligns with your interests and expertise, read the primary literature it connects to, and formulate a specific research question.
2. **Build something.** The labs in Chapter 12 provide implementation starting points. Take one of the DOGMA components, implement it from scratch, and then try to improve it. There is no substitute for the understanding that comes from building.
3. **Read biology.** If your background is in computer science, take a molecular biology course. Read a textbook on genetics. Attend seminars in computational biology. The biological insights that will inspire the next generation of DOGMA-like architectures are waiting to be discovered by people who can see them with computational eyes.
4. **Read computer science.** If your background is in biology, learn to program. Take a machine learning course. Implement a transformer from scratch. The computational tools that will realize biological insights into AI systems are waiting to be wielded by people who understand what biology is actually doing.
5. **Collaborate across boundaries.** Find a collaborator whose expertise complements yours. The biologist-engineer partnership is not just efficient; it is *necessary*. The most important ideas in this book emerged from conversations between people who saw the same problem from different angles.

13.9.3 The Moment You Are Entering

You are entering the field at a remarkable moment. The transformer paradigm has demonstrated that artificial intelligence at scale is possible. The question is no longer *whether* machines can exhibit intelligent behavior, but *how* to build systems whose intelligence is robust, adaptable, efficient, and aligned with human values. Biology offers answers to every one of those challenges—answers refined by three and a half billion years of evolutionary testing. Your generation has the tools, the data, and the biological knowledge to build AI systems that draw on those answers in ways that were impossible even a decade ago.

We do not know what the AI systems of 2040 will look like. But we are confident of this: they will owe more to the logic of the genome than to the architecture of the transformer. They will maintain persistent, structured internal states. They will regulate their own computation selectively. They will evolve, not merely train. And they will be built by researchers who understood that the most powerful computer ever created is not a chip fabricated in a cleanroom, but a cell dividing in a petri dish.

13.10 Key Takeaways: The Entire Book in Review

As we close this book, let us gather the most important ideas from all eighteen preceding chapters into a single synthesis. These are the ideas we most want you to carry forward.

Key Takeaways

- **DNA is an information technology** (Part I). The four-nucleotide code of DNA is not merely a chemical curiosity; it is a highly optimized information storage, processing, and transmission system. DNA computing is Turing-complete. Gene regulation implements combinatorial logic of extraordinary sophistication. Understanding biology as information processing is the foundation of everything in this book.
- **Modern AI rests on learnable representations** (Part II). Transformers, attention mechanisms, and foundation models have demonstrated that powerful AI can be built from relatively simple components trained on large data. But current architectures treat all information uniformly, lack persistent structured state, and cannot modify their own organization. Biology does all three.
- **DOGMA translates biological organization into computational architecture** (Part III). The core DOGMA components—HelixHash, TERA, TetraData, CodonForge—each formalize a specific stage of biological information processing. Together, they form a pipeline that mirrors the Central Dogma: genome $\rightarrow$ regulate $\rightarrow$ transcribe $\rightarrow$ express $\rightarrow$ realize.
- **Evolution is a design principle, not just a training method** (Part IV). DOGMA’s evolutionary synthesis pipeline enables AI systems to modify their own internal organization through variation and selection. This goes beyond parameter optimization to structural innovation—the creation of new computational capabilities that no fixed architecture could produce.
- **The post-transformer future requires new organizational principles** (Part V). Scaling transformers alone will not solve AI’s deepest challenges: energy efficiency, genuine understanding, open-ended learning, robust alignment. The organizational principles of biology—persistent state, selective regulation, staged processing, evolutionary adaptation—address all of these challenges.
- **Interdisciplinary thinking is not optional** (Part VI). The future of AI will be built by researchers who can bridge biology and computation, theory and engineering, abstraction and implementation. The most important breakthroughs will occur at the boundaries between disciplines, not within them.

13.11 Final Reflection

We began this book with a question: What can biology teach artificial intelligence? After eighteen chapters, hundreds of equations, and a journey that spanned molecular chemistry, information theory, machine learning, evolutionary computation, and systems architecture, we arrive at an answer that is both simple and profound.

Biology teaches us that intelligence is not a monolithic capability achieved through brute-force scaling. It is an emergent property of *organized complexity*—of systems that store information in structured, persistent substrates; that regulate the flow of information through context-dependent gating; that transform representations through staged, specialized processing; and that adapt their own organization through open-ended evolutionary search.

These are not abstract principles. They are engineering specifications, refined by 3.8 billion years of field testing in the most demanding operating environment imaginable: a planet with fluctuating temperatures, scarce resources, fierce competition, and relentless environmental change. Every living cell on Earth is a working proof of concept for these specifications. Every genome is a repository of solutions to problems that AI researchers are only now learning to formulate.

DOGMA—the DNA-Organized Genomic Model Architecture—is our attempt to translate these specifications into the language of modern computation. It is, as we have said throughout this chapter, a first draft. Its components will be improved, its principles refined, its limitations exposed and overcome. Some of its specific proposals will prove wrong. That is the nature of science: progress through principled error and correction.

But the core insight will endure: that the path to truly intelligent machines runs not only through the mathematics of optimization and the engineering of hardware, but through the biology of the cell, the logic of the genome, and the creativity of evolution. Three and a half billion years ago, in the chemistry of an ancient ocean, molecules discovered how to store information, regulate its expression, and evolve new solutions to problems that did not yet exist. That discovery—encoded in every living cell on Earth—is the blueprint we have been reading throughout this book.

The future of artificial intelligence is not in bigger transformers. It is in deeper understanding of how nature computes, evolves, and creates intelligence. DOGMA is our attempt to translate nature's blueprint into the language of computation. It is, necessarily, a first draft. The final version will be written by you—by biologists who learn to think like engineers, by engineers who learn to think like biologists, and by a generation of researchers who refuse to accept that the only path to intelligence is the one we have already found. Biology solved intelligence once. Together, we will solve it again.

Appendix A

Mathematical Foundations

This appendix collects the minimum mathematics needed to read the DOGMA chapters and evaluate the experiments. It is a reference, not a substitute for a course in linear algebra, probability, or statistics.

A.1 Functions, Vectors, and Tensors

A function $f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ maps each input in $\mathcal{X}$ to one output in $\mathcal{Y}$. A scalar is one number; a vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is an ordered list of d numbers; a matrix $\mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$ maps a d -vector to an m -vector:

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}.$$

A tensor generalizes matrices to more axes. A batch of B sequences of length T , each with hidden dimension d , commonly has shape $B \times T \times d$.

The dot product

$$\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{y} = \sum_{i=1}^d x_i y_i$$

measures signed alignment. The Euclidean norm

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_i x_i^2}$$

measures magnitude. Always write tensor shapes while deriving a model; many apparent conceptual errors are shape errors.

A.2 Probability and Information

For outcomes $x \in \mathcal{X}$, a probability distribution satisfies

$$p(x) \geq 0, \quad \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) = 1.$$

Conditional probability $p(y | x)$ describes uncertainty about y after observing x . A causal sequence model factorizes

$$p(x_{1:T}) = \prod_{t=1}^T p(x_t | x_{<t}).$$

The information content of an event is $-\log p(x)$. Rare events carry more surprise. Cross-entropy for a one-hot target y and prediction p is

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{CE}} = -\log p(y).$$

Average sequence loss gives perplexity:

$$\text{PPL} = \exp(\bar{\mathcal{L}}).$$

If $\bar{\mathcal{L}} = \log 4$, then $\text{PPL} = 4$. Perplexity can be compared only when tokenization, data, and evaluation procedure are compatible.

A.3 Gradients and Optimization

For parameters θ , the gradient

$$\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}$$

contains the partial derivative of loss with respect to every parameter. Gradient descent updates

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - \eta \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\theta_t),$$

where $\eta > 0$ is the learning rate. Modern optimizers such as AdamW adapt the update using moment estimates and weight decay.

A gradient trains one candidate. Evolutionary search chooses among candidate configurations. These are complementary levels of optimization.

A.4 Convolution and Recurrence

A one-dimensional causal convolution with width K computes

$$y_t = \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} W_k x_{t-k}.$$

Only current and earlier inputs are used. Stacking layers expands the receptive field, but a finite stack remains locally bounded.

A recurrence carries a state:

$$h_t = f_{\theta}(h_{t-1}, x_t), \quad y_t = g_{\theta}(h_t).$$

State-space models use structured linear recurrences whose parameters may depend on the input. Parallel-scan algorithms can evaluate associative recurrences efficiently. Calling a recurrence “DNA-inspired” does not change these mathematical requirements.

A.5 Gates and Bounded Memory

A sigmoid gate

$$g_t = \sigma(Wx_t + b), \quad \sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}},$$

lies in $(0, 1)$. It can interpolate between old and new state:

$$m_t = (1 - g_t) \odot m_{t-1} + g_t \odot \tilde{m}_t.$$

This equation is a useful abstraction for expression or epigenetic memory. It does not imply a biological molecule is present.

A.6 Multi-Objective Evaluation

Let a candidate have metric vector

$$\mathbf{s}(c) = (s_1(c), \dots, s_k(c)).$$

Candidate a Pareto-dominates b when it is no worse on every metric and strictly better on at least one. A scalar objective

$$J(c) = \sum_i w_i s_i(c)$$

is convenient for ranking but hides trade-offs in the weights. Hard safety or validity requirements should remain constraints rather than terms that can be paid away by another metric.

A.7 Uncertainty and Reproduction

For measurements $x_1, \dots, x_n$, the sample mean is

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i x_i.$$

The sample standard deviation is

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})^2}.$$

Two generation seeds are enough for a smoke test, not a confidence interval. Research comparisons should repeat independent training runs and report uncertainty. When data are grouped by organism, patient, or chromosome, resampling must preserve those groups.

A.8 Complexity

Big- O notation describes asymptotic growth. A local width- K convolution over length T is $O(TK)$; if K is fixed, this is $O(T)$. Dense all-pairs attention is $O(T^2)$ in sequence length. These labels omit constants, memory traffic, hardware utilization, and hidden dimension. Wall-clock benchmarking remains necessary.

A.9 Review Problems

- A.1.** Verify the shapes in $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{W}^\top$ for $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times d}$ and $\mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$.
- A.2.** Compute the cross-entropy when the correct byte receives probability 0.8, then compute perplexity.
- A.3.** For a width-5 causal convolution stacked in 4 layers without dilation, determine the receptive field.
- A.4.** Give two candidates that are Pareto-incomparable on accuracy and latency.
- A.5.** Explain why five samples from one checkpoint are not five independent training replications.

Appendix B

Canonical DOGMA Formal Specification

This appendix defines the minimum contract for the canonical non-transformer DOGMA research line. It is intentionally narrower than the full design space in Chapter 1.

B.1 Model Contract

Let the input be bytes

$$x_{1:T} \in \{0, \dots, 255, \text{EOS}\}^T.$$

An embedding maps them to

$$H^{(0)} = E(x_{1:T}) \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times d}.$$

For blocks $\ell = 1, \dots, L$,

$$\begin{aligned} U^{(\ell)} &= \text{TetraLocal} \left(H^{(\ell-1)} \right), \\ V^{(\ell)} &= \text{DNACCompute} \left(U^{(\ell)} \right), \\ G^{(\ell)} &= \sigma \left(W_g V^{(\ell)} + b_g \right), \\ R^{(\ell)} &= G^{(\ell)} \odot V^{(\ell)} + (1 - G^{(\ell)}) \odot H^{(\ell-1)}, \\ H^{(\ell)} &= \text{CausalTranscript} \left(R^{(\ell)} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Optional modules may add a parallel-scan recurrent state, bounded persistent memory, or sparse allosteric routing. Every optional module must be declared in the checkpoint configuration.

The realization head gives logits

$$Z_t = W_o H_t^{(L)} + b_o, \quad p(x_{t+1} \mid x_{\leq t}) = \text{softmax}(Z_t).$$

B.2 Prohibited Canonical Components

A configuration fails the canonical architecture audit if it contains:

- dot-product or thermodynamic self-attention over sequence positions;
- a transformer encoder or decoder layer; or

- an attention-enabled historical DOGMA variant presented without a distinct experimental label.

Local learned interactions inside a fixed-width cell must be implemented and documented without a query-key-value self-attention operation. “Local” alone does not make attention non-attention.

B.3 Checkpoint Contract

A checkpoint eligible for evaluation contains:

1. model state and complete model configuration;
2. parent checkpoint identity or the value `root`;
3. optimizer state when training will resume;
4. completed step and random seed;
5. data-manifest identity;
6. source-code revision; and
7. the exact evaluation-suite version.

The selected deployment pointer must name the exact checkpoint from which reported metrics and generations were produced.

B.4 Corpus Contract

Each training record has:

$$r_i = (\text{id}, \text{content hash}, \text{source class}, \text{license}, \text{transform history}, w_i).$$

Source class is at least one of {real anchor, derived, synthetic}. The canonical mixture satisfies

$$\frac{\sum_{i \in R} w_i}{\sum_i w_i} \geq 0.65.$$

The manifest records train, validation, and test hashes. Exact overlap is zero. Domain benchmarks add similarity-aware or group-aware separation.

B.5 Recursive-Cycle Contract

A candidate c produced from parent p is eligible for archive consideration only if:

$$\begin{aligned} p &\neq c, \\ |\text{Seeds}(c)| &\geq 2, \\ \text{Overlap}(\text{train}, \text{eval}) &= 0, \\ \text{CriticalRegressions}(c) &= 0, \\ \text{ArchitectureAudit}(c) &= \text{pass}. \end{aligned}$$

Ordinary cycles apply one bounded hyperparameter mutation. Structural mutation requires a separately declared branch and compatible initialization.

B.6 Evaluation Contract

The minimum v2 smoke suite contains:

Probe	Minimum signal	Known weakness
Canonical DNA	At least 48 consecutive A, C, G, T symbols with high canonical-letter fraction	Repetition can pass without biological meaning
Explanation	Printable output with multiple alphabetic words and no replacement characters	Word counts do not establish correctness
Self-critique	Printable limitation and experiment response	A memorized disclaimer can pass

Each probe runs under seeds 17 and 29 in the canonical scheduler. Promotion also requires finite validation and test perplexity, bounded regression, and improvement in the declared objective.

B.7 Archive and Promotion

Let $b(c)$ be a behavior descriptor and $J(c)$ a lower-is-better objective. The archive update is

$$A[b(c)] \leftarrow \begin{cases} c, & b(c) \notin A, \\ c, & J(c) < J(A[b(c)]), \\ A[b(c)], & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Archive membership does not authorize deployment. Promotion is:

$$\text{Promote}(c) \iff \text{HardGates}(c) \wedge J(c) < J(c_{\text{live}}).$$

The update of the live pointer is atomic, and the previous live checkpoint remains available.

B.8 Claim Contract

Public reports use these labels:

Implemented	The mechanism exists in the cited code revision.
Measured	The result identifies checkpoint, manifest, suite, and seeds.
Reproduced	An independent run or group recovered the result.
Hypothesis	The mechanism or benefit has not met the measured standard.

Words such as “proves,” “outperforms,” and “general intelligence” require evidence appropriate to their scope. Architecture diagrams and parameter budgets alone do not satisfy this contract.

Appendix C

Glossary

AGI	Artificial general intelligence. There is no universally accepted test. This book treats AGI as a research target requiring broad, transferable capability, not as a label for the current DOGMA model.
Allosteric routing	A DOGMA hypothesis in which a small set of selected sites broadcasts non-local context. It is inspired by distant regulatory effects in proteins but implemented as ordinary digital computation.
Archive	A collection of reproducible candidate checkpoints retained for scientific diversity. Archive membership is weaker than production promotion.
Attention	A learned weighted aggregation over items, usually produced from queries, keys, and values. The canonical DOGMA research line does not use self-attention.
Base	In biology, one of the nucleobases represented by A, C, G, T in DNA. In DOGMA, “base” may also name a typed digital symbol; the two meanings must not be confused.
Byte-level model	A sequence model whose basic vocabulary is encoded bytes rather than words, subwords, codons, or nucleotides.
Candidate	A trained descendant checkpoint together with its architecture, data manifest, lineage, and evaluation evidence.
Canonical DOGMA	The currently governed non-transformer implementation: overlapping local memory, causal transcript computation, regulation, and declared optional recurrence or bounded memory.
Central dogma	The biological framework describing major classes of sequence-information transfer among DNA, RNA, and protein [Crick, 1970]. It is not the claim that information only flows in one everyday-language direction.
Checkpoint	A serialized model state, configuration, and associated training metadata.
Codon	A three-nucleotide sequence interpreted during biological translation. DOGMA may use codon-inspired groupings digitally; these are not cellular translation.

Cross-entropy	Average negative log probability assigned to correct targets.
DNA computing	Physical computation using DNA molecules and biochemical reactions. This is distinct from running a DNA-inspired neural network on conventional hardware.
DNABERT	A transformer family trained on DNA sequence representations. It is a baseline for genomic machine learning, not a wet-lab DNA computer.
DOGMA	DNA-Organized Genomic Model Architecture, a MapleAI research family exploring genome-inspired organization and non-transformer sequence computation.
Epigenetic memory	A bounded persistent-state mechanism inspired by biological regulation without sequence change. The analogy does not imply biological epigenetics is being simulated faithfully.
Evaluation leakage	Any path by which held-out examples or their answers influence training, selection, or prompt design in a way not declared by the protocol.
Evolutionary search	Optimization through variation and selection among candidates. In DOGMA it operates above gradient-based parameter training.
Fitness	A metric or vector of metrics used to compare candidates. A proxy fitness can be gamed and must not be confused with the complete research goal.
GenBank	The public nucleotide-sequence database maintained by the U.S. National Center for Biotechnology Information and partners.
Genome	The complete hereditary material of an organism. In DOGMA, “prompt genome” or “model genome” is an explicit engineering analogy for a versioned, heritable configuration.
Gradient descent	Optimization that changes parameters in the direction of decreasing differentiable loss.
Held-out set	Data excluded from training and used for validation or testing under a declared selection policy.
Hermon DNA	A separate MapleAI/Hermon domain model line for practical DNA assistance. It must not be confused with DOGMA architecture research.
Homology-aware split	A data split designed to keep strongly related biological sequences in the same partition, reducing over-optimistic evaluation.
Lineage	The recorded parent-child relationships among candidate checkpoints and their mutations.
MAP-Elites	A quality-diversity algorithm that retains the highest-performing candidate in each behavior cell [Mouret and Clune, 2015].

Model collapse	Degradation that can occur when generations of models train recursively on generated approximations that replace or distort the original data distribution [Shumailov et al., 2024].
Mutation	A declared change from parent to candidate. Ordinary DOGMA cycles mutate one bounded training variable.
Non-transformer	An architecture without transformer layers. The canonical DOGMA contract also forbids self-attention; not every non-transformer model makes that stronger choice.
Pareto dominance	A relation where one candidate is no worse on every objective and better on at least one.
Perplexity	The exponential of average cross-entropy. It measures next-symbol uncertainty under a fixed tokenization and dataset.
Phenotype	An organism’s observable traits. DOGMA uses the term metaphorically for realized model behavior.
Population-based training	A method that trains a population while adapting hyperparameters by replacing weak members with mutated descendants of stronger members [Jaderberg et al., 2017].
Promotion	The controlled act of making an evaluated checkpoint the live model.
Quality-diversity	Search that seeks a collection of high-quality but behaviorally different solutions instead of one global solution.
Real-data anchor	A training record tied to an audited external observation rather than generated solely by a model in the recursive loop.
Recurrence	Sequence computation that updates and carries a state from one position to the next.
Recursive learning	A governed process in which a system proposes, trains, and evaluates descendants. It does not mean unrestricted online rewriting.
Reverse complement	The sequence obtained by reversing a DNA strand and replacing each base with its complement $A \leftrightarrow T$, $C \leftrightarrow G$.
Self-attention	Attention where queries, keys, and values are derived from the same sequence.
State-space model	A sequence model based on transitions of an internal state. Modern selective state-space models can be input-dependent and efficiently scanned.
Synthetic data	Examples generated or transformed by an algorithm rather than directly observed. Provenance matters more than whether an example looks realistic.

TetraMemory	DOGMA’s overlapping fixed-width local memory representation. Its claimed benefits require ablation and matched-baseline evidence.
Transformer	A neural architecture built around attention, residual pathways, and feed-forward blocks [Vaswani et al., 2017a].

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