

Evolutionary Neural Networks: Designing a NEAT-Inspired Algorithm for Strategic Game Learning

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Abstract.

This thesis explores the design and implementation of evolutionary neural networks (ENNs) inspired by the NEAT algorithm. ENNs optimize neural network weights, biases, and topologies using evolutionary computation. The game Nim and a simplified version with only one instead of multiple stacks are used as a benchmark of the ENN algorithm to test the effect of different parameters and features on performance. The research shows that ENNs can successfully learn to play simple games like single-stack Nim but struggle with more complex games like multi-stack Nim. Challenges include overcoming local minima, tuning the ENN parameters correctly, and dealing with limited computations.

Results. The results show that ENNs achieve 100% accuracy for the single-stacked version of the game, with stack sizes up to 1000 matches, revealing the importance of using correct output encoding. In the multi-stacked Nim game, the ENNs reach an accuracy of 100% for the configuration with 2 stacks containing 2 matches each and 75% for the configuration with 2 stacks containing 4 matches each. In the latter configuration, the NNs could not predict the perfect moves for all game states because of local minima.

Keywords. Evolutionary Neural Networks, NEAT Algorithm, Machine Learning, Game Learning, Nim Game, Evolutionary Computation.

I want to express my fullest gratitude to my parents for their support on my journey and especially during my thesis, where their help was crucial for the completion of this project.

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1. Introduction

1.1 Preface

Ever since I got into computer science a few years ago, I was fascinated by the idea of algorithms that solved various problems. Therefore, I participated in the SOI (Swiss Olympiad in Informatics) where we were taught everything about developing and programming algorithms and their data structures.

In recent years although, a new field of computer science has gained a lot of attention, where these algorithms are not programmed by humans, but evolved by a computer. This field called machine learning immediately got my excitement and two years ago a friend of mine and I had our first practical experience with it. We developed a simple neural network, which helped us predict the color of a lego brick in front of a color sensor based on the RGB values in various lighting conditions.

A neural network (NN) forms the basis of most machine learning models and will therefore be explained in much detail in the following chapters. In simple terms however, a NN is a strongly simplified artificial model of the human brain consisting of an interconnected web of neurons through which information flows and gets computed.

Although the NN I developed with my friend two years ago already learned on its own, we still had to provide and label data for it to learn from. This meant that we had to manually scan the RGB values of the lego bricks and assign them the color they represented. In this case, this was the most efficient solution, however there are cases where a model needs to be trained where such data is unavailable or the goal simply is for them to develop their own approach for a problem without predefined solutions. That is how I got to my matura thesis, which aims to develop such ML models that learn without labeled data and use these models to learn to play games.

1.2 Thesis Statement

This thesis explores the field of neural networks (NNs) capable of learning without human-provided data, known as unsupervised learning. The focus is on evolutionary neural networks (ENNs), which combine neural networks with evolutionary computation.

In this thesis, a simple implementation of ENNs is developed and trained on board games. The research investigates the effects of varying parameters and features on the learning process and the performance in the games. This project draws inspiration from the NEAT Algorithm, introduced by Kenneth O. Stanley and Risto Miikkulainen in 2002, which uses a minimal initial structure that evolves complexity over time.[1, [p.105-106]] As a benchmark, the ENNs are trained to play the game Nim, where players alternately remove matches from stacks, and the winner is the one who avoids taking the last match.

In specific, this Thesis addresses following questions:

- How can evolutionary neural networks (ENNs) be developed that learn to play simple games?
- How do different parameters and features of ENNs affect the learning process?

2. Background

2.1 Neural Networks (NNs)

As previously mentioned in the preface, an artificial neural network (ANN or NN) is a mathematical model for data processing, initially inspired by the structure of the brain. Therefore, a brief overview of how a brain functions is presented next.

2.1.1 Neurons in the Brain

Inside the brain, around 86 million neurons[2] form connections to each other through which they activate other neurons with electric and chemical signals. In a neuron, the signals of connected neurons add up and when they reach a certain threshold, the neuron is activated and fires a new signal to its own connections.[3] The neuron then resets after a certain amount of cooldown time.

With this web of neurons inside the brain, animals can process the information from nerve signals from the body and output them again as nerve signals instructing the body.

2.1.2 Feed Forward Neural Networks (FNNs)

So how can these ideas about neural networks learned from the biology of a brain be applied to a program that runs on a computer? The first step is to simplify the chaos of neurons in the brain and organize them into layers of neurons. These layers consist of an input layer, an output layer and optional so-called hidden layers in between. As a next step, the neurons in each layer are connected to those in subsequent layers, typically limited to connections with the nearest layer.[4]

Now, the structure of a neural network looks something like this:

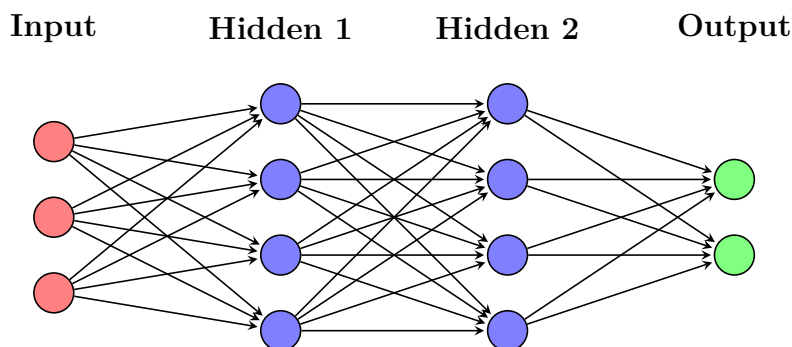


Figure 2.1: A simple Feed Forward Neural Network (FNN) with four layers: Input, Hidden 1, Hidden 2 and Output.

To describe the specific structure of a NN, the term topology is used.

Neural Network Topology. *The topology of a neural network is its distinct arrangement*

For the neural network to perform functions, a weight needs to be assigned. This weight value ranges from -1 to 1 and can be thought of as the strength of a connection between neurons. In terms of computer science, this structure now resembles a directed, weighted graph, which is why the neurons are called nodes and their connections edges.

Nodes/Edges. *In a neural network, a node receives, computes and sends information, whereas an edge forms the connections between nodes to exchange information.[6]*

The computation process of information by a neural network can be illustrated through the example of a computer vision NN that recognizes digits in a black-and-white image. As a first step, the input is encoded into values that correspond to the nodes of the input layer. In the example of a computer vision NN, the brightness values of the single pixels might directly represent the nodes of the input layer.

Then, the algorithm iterates through all input nodes to identify its connected edges. For each of these edges, it multiplies its weight by the value of the input node and adds the result to the node on the receiving end.

After iterating through all the nodes of one layer, it moves to the next layer. At this point, the value of a node in the current layer is the sum accumulated by the values of all connected nodes from previous layers multiplied by the weight of that connection:

$$v_x = \sum_{i=0}^N v_i * w_i \quad (2.1)$$

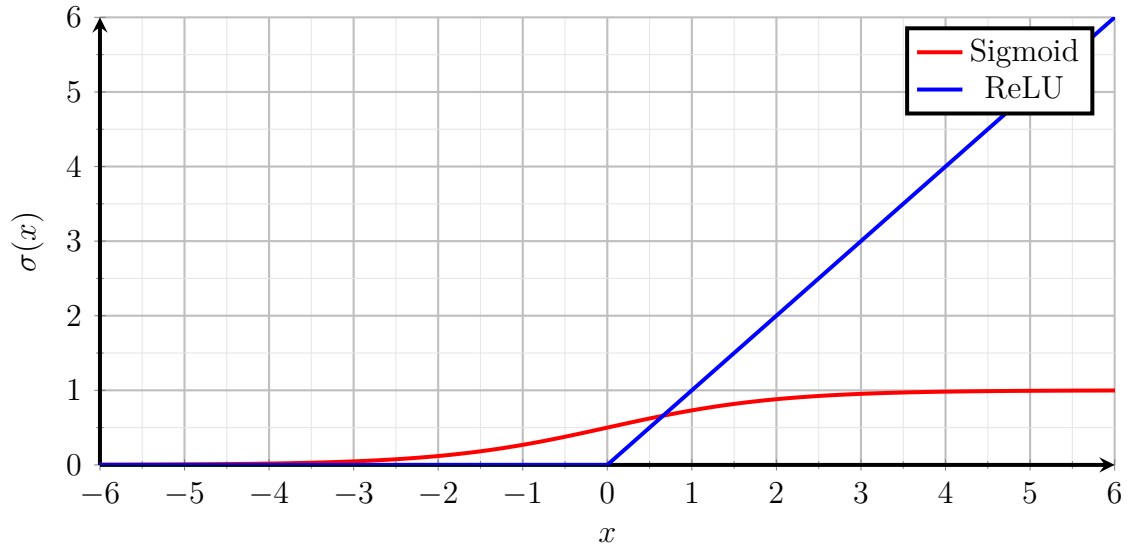
Where:

- v_x is the value of the current node
- N is the number of connected nodes from previous layers
- v_i is the value of the connected node i
- w_i is the weight of the edge connecting the current node to node i

Additionally, some algorithms add a bias value r_x ranging from -1 to 1 onto the value of the nodes.[7] Finally, an activation function[8] $\sigma(x)$ is applied to the value of the nodes to fit the value of the node inside a preferred range. This activation function can also be thought of as the threshold of stimulation for a neuron to fire. Two examples for activation functions are:

- Sigmoid Function: $\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$
- Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU): $\sigma(x) = \max 0, x$

Plot of the activation functions:



The complete function for the value of a node is therefore:

$$v_x = \sigma \left(\sum_{i=0}^N v_i * w_i + r_x \right) \quad (2.2)$$

Where (additionally to equation 2.1):

- r_x is the bias of the node
- σ is the activation function

Now, that value v_x is again sent through its connections to nodes in the upcoming layers. After iterating through all the nodes and layers of the NN, the process reaches the final layer of the NN, where the computed output can be read out. This output is encoded in node values, as was done with the input, and therefore requires decoding to obtain the final result. In the example of a digit-detecting NN, 10 output nodes could be used, each representing one digit. The result could then be decoded by identifying the output node with the highest value as the result. This kind of output encoding, where all possible results are assigned their own node, is referred to as one-hot output encoding.[9] With one-hot output encoding, the values of the output nodes can be interpreted as the certainty of a NN for a specific result to be correct.

2.1.3 Remark: Functioning of NNs

Having established how a neural network operates, it is important to understand why this type of algorithm is considered revolutionary in the field of computer science.

An algorithm processes some input data with a set of functions applied in a certain order to calculate an output. Traditionally, a computer algorithm gets programmed with the help of mathematical operations, logic functions, loops, system functions, and data structures, which are then converted into binary code for the processor. Of course, this also applies in the context of NNs. With NNs however, there is also a third layer of abstraction on top, which simulates the functioning of a brain with neurons. Since the traditional algorithm only enables the neurons of a NN, the third neuron-based layer is what computes the actual input data. Because of this, NNs resemble more the functioning of a brain than a traditional algorithm.

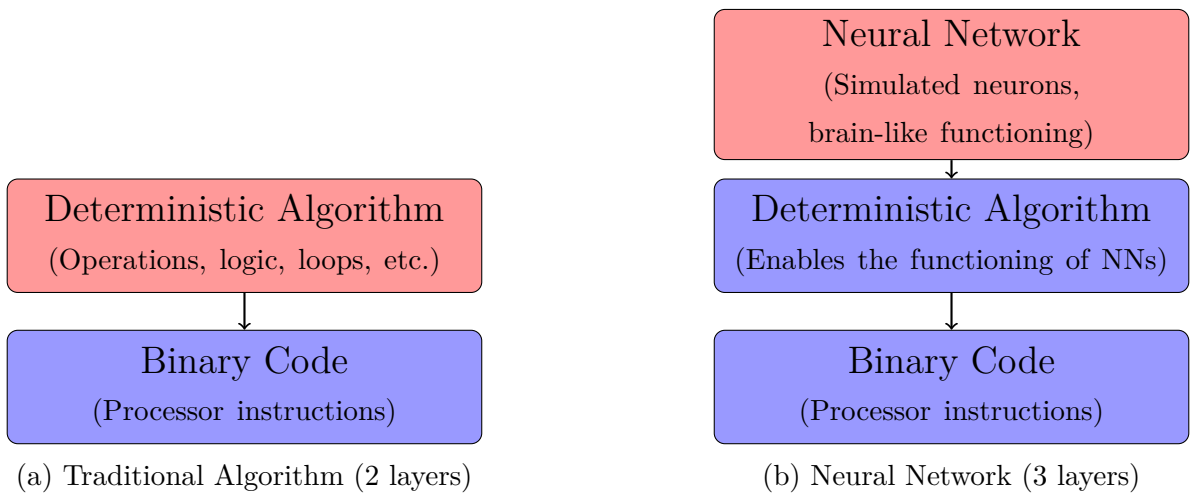


Figure 2.2: The neural network algorithm replaces the function of data-processing (colored in red) that is traditionally done by a deterministic algorithm.

Traditional algorithms represent actual mathematical calculations and are therefore deterministic. With NNs, the algorithm is based on different parameters for nodes and edges, which essentially make it an unpredictable black box. In the top layer of abstraction, there are no concrete functions but only neuron activation that approximates a function instead. This means it is hard to prove a neural network to always be accurate and this is also the reason why the result of NNs is often called its prediction. [10]

NN Prediction. *The output of a neural network is referred to as its prediction for a given input.*[11]

2.1.4 An Example of NN learning: Backpropagation

It has already been established how a neural network with specific parameters generates a prediction for a given input. This however raises the question: how can parameters encoding for the structure, weights, and biases of the neural network be determined? The solution lies in using machine learning, which trains the model to perform a specific task using training data.

Machine Learning. *Machine learning (ML) is a branch of artificial intelligence that focuses on optimizing artificially intelligent models to solve a given problem.*[12]

One machine learning algorithm for NNs is called backpropagation, which is one of the simplest and most efficient methods to train a NN.[13] Backpropagation works using a training and test set containing labeled data for a problem.

(Un)labeled Data. *Labeled data for a machine learning problem is a set of data with sample problems and the respective solutions. Unlabeled data instead only contains the sample problems.*[14]

The machine learning process of backpropagation begins with a neural network that has a fixed topology and random weights and biases. First, the NN is given the training problems for which it will generate random predictions. These random predictions are then refined using the sample solutions. This is done by looping back through the NN from the output layer to the input layer, always adjusting the weights and biases in a way that the NN would finally make the right prediction for this problem. However, the NN should not be adapted only to a single problem but make accurate predictions for the whole training set and unknown problems. To

therefore prevent overcorrecting a NN for single problems, a learning rate significantly smaller than 1 is applied to the corrections.

The NN is trained on the whole training set for many generations until the NN starts to make accurate predictions for all problems. To evaluate the performance on unknown problems, a separate test set, which the NN has not been trained on, can be used.

2.2 Evolutionary Computation (EC)

The focus now shifts to the machine learning technique this thesis focuses on. Once again, nature serves as inspiration:

Evolutionary Computation. *Evolutionary computation (EC) is an algorithm that optimizes a set of parameters for a problem with the help of natural selection.*[\[15\]](#)

Evolutionary computation (EC) is often employed in situations where the optimal parameters for a function cannot be directly calculated, but the performance of a given parameter set can be evaluated. One example scenario involves a large dataset of points representing an unknown polynomial function with added noise and outliers. To determine the parameters of the underlying polynomial, EC can be utilized to identify the best-fitting parameters. The following shows how EC achieves this optimization.

The process starts with an initial population of agents with random parameter sets. EC then repeats following steps, forming a new generation of the population in each iteration[\[16\]](#):

- **Fitness evaluation:** First, EC assesses the performance of each agent with its parameters in the given problem. This performance is referred to as the agent's fitness, which can be evaluated either objectively through a cost function or relatively with a competition between agents. In the given example, the cost function might check the prediction of the NN for the given data points, calculate the absolute differences between the prediction and the values of the data points, and use the total sum of these differences as the cost.
- **Selection:** As a next step, the agents that performed well are selected to be part of the next generation.
- **Reproduction:** The selected agents are then replicated by directly copying their parameters (non-mating) or by merging parameters from different agents (crossover).
- **Mutation:** In each new generation, the parameters of the agents are mutated, either by completely replacing certain parameters with new random parameters or by shifting the existing parameters by a random value.

This cycle is repeated until it has found a well-performing set of parameters for a given problem.

2.2.1 Gradient Descent

As established in the previous section, EC begins with an initial population of agents with a random set of parameters. The fitness of these agents is determined using a cost function. Agents with relatively low cost (or high fitness) survive the round and are replicated, mutated and again selected by cost.

This whole process strongly resembles a ball rolling down a hill in some terrain. At any given point on the terrain, the ball moves in the direction of the steepest descent (ignoring the inertia

of the ball). Applying this analogy to EC, the parameters for a function can be imagined as the horizontal coordinates for the ball meanwhile the cost of these parameters correspond to the height at that location. Mutations produce parameter sets that are close to the original, resembling neighboring points on the terrain. As the ball rolls down to the lowest neighboring point in any step, EC again chooses the set of parameters with the lowest cost every cycle. This is why the machine learning process is referred to as gradient descent, as the algorithm evaluates all neighboring points and then follows the direction with the lowest cost and therefore steepest gradient.[17]

2.2.2 Initial Position & Local Minima

The ball analogy provides insights into the functioning of the EC learning process, which can be understood by visualizing a hill with each a shallow and a deep valley next to it. Depending on which side of the hill the ball is placed in the beginning, it will roll in a different direction and end up in either of the two valleys, which have different heights. When applying this to EC, following things can be derived:

- (Minor) differences in the initial parameters can result in large differences in the end position and the respective cost.
- Once a point with no downwards gradient is reached, innovation halts for that agent, even if the global minimum lies elsewhere. Such points are called local minima.

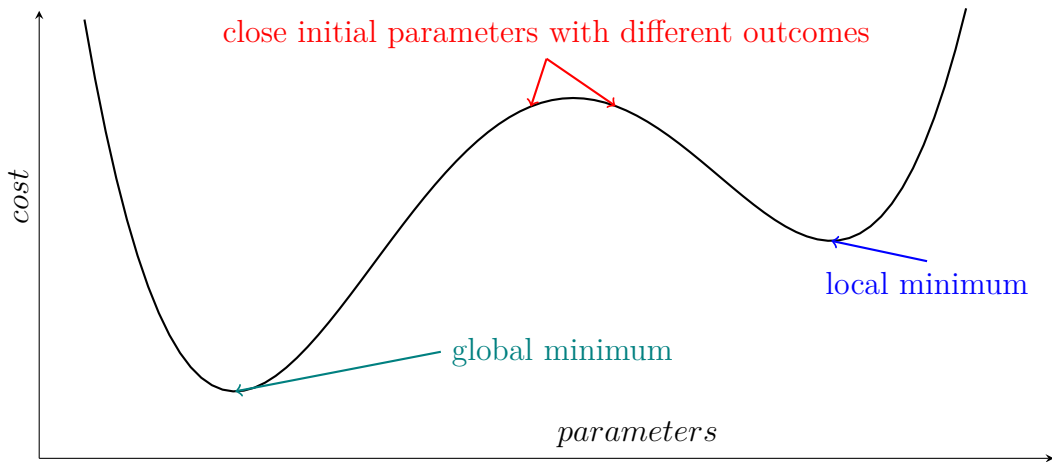


Figure 2.3: The effect of the starting position on the final cost of the parameters with gradient descent.

Local Minimum. *A local minimum is a point with minimal cost compared to its neighboring area and is therefore a halting point for gradient descent.[18]*

The impact of starting positions and local minima often pose a large problem for EC applications. Strategies to reduce the impact of such are therefore crucial for the algorithms success.

2.3 Evolutionary Neural Networks (ENNs)

After having covered all the basics about neural networks and evolutionary computation, the two concepts are finally combined to create the algorithm this thesis focuses on.

Evolutionary Neural Networks. *Evolutionary neural networks (ENNs) are neural networks that use an evolutionary algorithm called neuroevolution to optimize for its parameters encoding for the NNs weights, biases and its topology.*[19, 20]

ENNs are useful for complex machine learning problems and also work for unlabeled training data as long as there is a fitness function. In the context of neural networks, evolutionary computation can be applied as follows:

The parameters encoded by ENNs represent the weights, biases, nodes, and edges of a neural network. ENNs still follow the same core process of evolutionary computation: They start with a random population of NNs that are evaluated and selected based on a fitness function. The selected NNs are replicated (with crossover or non-mating) and finally mutated in following ways:

1. **Change weights/biases:** A new random value is set for the weight or bias of a random existing edge or node.
2. **Shift weights/biases:** The value for an existing weight or bias of a random existing edge or node is altered by a random change but is kept close to the old value.
3. **Add edges:** A new edge is added between two random, previously unconnected nodes.
4. **Add nodes:** A new node is added in between of a random existing edge. The old edge is removed and two new edges with random weights are added between the new node and the two other nodes each.
5. **Remove nodes/edges:** A random node or edge is removed in a way that does not disconnect the input from the output layer.

2.4 The NEAT-Approach

As already stated in the thesis statement(1.2), neuroevolution of augmenting topologies (NEAT) is an ENN machine learning algorithm developed by Kenneth O. Stanley and Risto Miikkulainen in 2002[1, [p.105-106]]. NEAT evolves the topology, weights and biases of NNs at the same time, which makes it particularly suitable for tasks where the optimal network architecture is not yet known.

One of its key innovations is that the initial population begins with NNs of lowest complexity and the NNs only increase topological complexity as it is useful for the problem. In specific, the NEAT algorithm starts with NNs that only have the nodes of the input layer connected to the nodes of the output layer. This design aims to produce more efficient neural networks by only increasing complexity when it leads to improved performance.

The NEAT algorithm only needs the mutations 1. to 4. shown in the last section(2.3) and does not need to remove complexity (mutation 5.) as it is already minimal.

2.5 Games

The following section offers a brief overview of the games on which the ENNs will be trained.

2.5.1 Simple Nim

This game is a simplified version of Nim, where two players take turns removing an arbitrary amount of matches from a single stack with some number of matches. The player who removes the last match loses. Therefore, the winning strategy simply is to remove all matches from the stack but one, forcing the opponent to remove the last match and therefore making them lose.

2.5.2 Nim

This game works similarly to simple Nim with the difference that there are multiple stacks with matches. Now, the player who removes the last match from the last unemptied stack loses. The winning strategy for Nim involves a binary representation of the game state[21] and is therefore mathematically much more complex, which forces the ENNs to learn more sophisticated strategies.

2.6 Related Work

The field of AI research in ENNs is largely studied and is often linked to games. The following table provides some examples of ENN models that have been tested on games:

Author(s) & Year	Model	Game/Benchmark	Computation	Accuracy
Stanley and Miikkulainen [1] 2002	NEAT	Double Pole Balancing With Velocities	3600 evaluations	100%
Qader, Jihad, and Baker [22] 2022	NEAT	Dama	>5000 generations	81.25% (wins against humans)
Richards, Moriarty, and Miikkulainen [23] 1998	SANE	Go	260 generations	>75% (vs Wally, 9×9 board)
Konidaris, Shell, and Oren [24] 2002	Custom ENN	Capture Game (subgame of Go)	>100 generations (distributed)	No significant progress yet
Orlov, Sipper, and Hauptman [25] 2009	Genetic ENN	Backgammon	256 pop, 100–200 generations	62.4% (vs Pubeval)

Note: Although the amount of fitness evaluations is a more accurate representation of computational load than the amount of generations, in many cases the amount of fitness evaluations is not indicated and cannot be derived.

3. Building an ENN

3.1 Algorithm Design

This section details how to use the concepts described in the last chapter(2) to build an evolutionary neural network that plays Nim.

3.1.1 Overview

As already mentioned in the thesis statement(1.2), this project is written in the Rust programming language[26, 27]. The source code and all test data can be found on this thesis' GitHub page[28].

The codebase is divided into different modules as well as a bin folder containing main execution files. One module manages the ENN algorithm, while another handles the games that the ENNs are trained to play. The ENN module itself is further divided into two files:

- **agent.rs:** This file handles the NNs and the mutations on the NNs
- **population.rs:** This file handles the natural selection process and data saving

The game modules provide the problems for the NNs, handle the predictions of the NNs, and find the new game state after a move. It further includes an objective performance evaluation function to measure how well the NNs perform.

The following sections provide a bottom-up explanation of all functions, beginning with the neural network. The implementation uses Rust's structs, which are similar to classes in other programming languages.

3.1.2 Neural Network

The struct *NeuralNetwork* (defined in agents.rs) most importantly contains a two-dimensional vector of nodes, which encodes all the information of the NN:

The vector inside () represents a layer of the NN and the outside vector () contains all layers of the NN. A *Node* contains its bias and a vector for the incoming and outgoing edges:

An *Edge* contains the weight of the edge and its input/output node:

The most important functions of the *NeuralNetwork* struct are:

- , which initializes the NN with all input and output nodes connected to each other with random weights and biases.
- , which computes the output of the NN for a given input with the forward propagation algorithm described in 2.1.2.

- , which computes the neuron activations described in 2.1.2. This implementation uses a variant of the *ReLU* function. The linearity for inputs greater than zero in the *ReLU* function allows for more variety of neuron activations, enhancing the flexibility and efficiency of the neural network. The chosen variant is the *ELU* function, which addresses the issue of dead neurons encountered in *ReLU* by permitting negative output values.

3.1.3 Mutation

The mutation of the NNs is handled in the *Agent* struct (defined in *agent.rs*), which includes a NN, its fitness, and its rank:

The function

has a number of mutations as a parameter which it applies to the NN of the agent. For each mutation, it randomly selects one of the following mutations: Change weights/biases, Shift weights/biases, Add edges, Add nodes. All of these mutations have already been described in the last chapter(2.3), although there are some implementation details to mention:

- When inserting a new node in between of two connected nodes (mutation 4.), the inserted node is added to a random layer in between of the previously connected nodes. If the previously connected nodes are in neighboring layers, a new layer is created in between for the new node.
- The shift mutation adds to the initial value a random float in the range 0.0 to 1.0 squared with a random sign. This gives us following function:

$$v_{new} = shift(v_{old}) = v_{old} + rand(-1, 1) * rand_{float}(0..1)^2$$
- The amount of mutations performed per NN is randomly selected in a range defined by adjustable parameters (see section 3.1.5).
- The type of mutation that is performed is randomly determined for each mutation. A weight can be assigned to each mutation as a parameter, which represent its probability to be selected relative to the weights of other mutations (see again section 3.1.5).

3.1.4 Evolutionary Computation & Inspiration by NEAT

The EC process (in *population.rs*) starts with an initial population of new agents with NNs created by the

function (described in 3.1.2). As per the NEAT algorithm's approach, the new NNs have minimal structure, where all input nodes are directly connected to all output nodes with no hidden layers. Random values are assigned for the weights and biases of the initial NNs. Subsequently, the steps of performance evaluation, selection and mutation are repeated every generation.

Competition

In the approach examined by this thesis, the fitness of agents is assessed by having them compete against one another in the games. However, allowing every agent to play every other agent is computationally too expensive since the needed time increases quadratically with the population size. To address this, a circular pairing algorithm is employed. This algorithm sets a predefined number of opponents for each agent to play against (see 3.1.5). For each of these predefined games, the algorithm generates a new pairing distance, which it then uses to pair each agent_{*i*} with the agent_{*i+distance*}. It also checks that the distance isn't a multiple of any distance it had previously, avoiding duplicate pairings between agents. Each game is played twice with both agents taking turns as the starting player while keeping the same initial state.

Fitness Evaluation

The main idea for the fitness function is to simply count the number of wins an agent has scored during the competition. Of course, there are other possibilities to evaluate the performance of an agent that represent their performance more accurately. Still, the number of wins is used as fitness, as this function is generally applicable to any game. Counting the number of wins doesn't require a deeper understanding of the game, which is very useful in games that are indeterministic. This also enables the ENNs to find their own new strategy for the game, which is finally the goal of machine learning.

Natural Selection

After the fitness evaluation, the performance of the current generation is evaluated (details in section 3.1.6) before the new population is generated. The new population is made up by some portion of each of the following:

- **Agents from the last generation:** The main part of the new population is drawn from agents from the old generation with high fitness. This works by selecting all needed agents randomly, using the fitness of the agents as their relative probability of being drawn. The fitness can also be raised to some power to adjust the likelihood of survival for non-top-performing agents.
- **Random agents from the last generation:** Some fraction of the new population is made up of randomly selected agents from the last generation, which might help counter a population with the top performing agents stuck in local minimum.
- **New random agents:** Another fraction of the new population is made up of newly generated, random agents which might help counter overly complex NNs and also local minima in a population.
- **Old best agents:** The last part of the new population is made up of best agents from previous generations which might help counter populations stuck in a local minimum.

Now that the new population has been generated, the whole process can start over again.

3.1.5 ENN Parameters

As already mentioned in the thesis statement(1.2), this research involves testing its implementation with several configurations of different parameters and then evaluate their performance with the stats described in the following section(3.1.6). Here is a list of all possible parameters influencing the ENN algorithm:

- **General:** Size of the population
- **Game:** Initial state of the game, game function that encodes the state for the NN, decodes its prediction, and executes the move on the current state
- **Competition:** Number of opponents per agent
- **Selection:** Fitness exponent, share of old best agents, random agents from last generation and new random agents making up the new population besides agents selected by fitness
- **Mutation:** Minimal and maximal amount of mutations per agent, weight/probability of the different mutations
- **Evaluation:** Number of games from the best agent against old best agents

For each test, a file is saved with the information about the value of all these parameters.

3.1.6 Performance Tests

Some stats and games are tracked to see how the agents perform in the games. Following data is saved every generation after the competition phase:

- **Fitness of the best agent:** This stat shows us how much better the best agent performs relatively to the average agent.
- **Wins against older generations:** The best agent of the current generation is paired against an evenly distributed set of the best agents from past generations to track relative performance to the past. As long as this number stays above 50%, an improvement over older generations should be expected.
- **Objective grading:** This stat is the performance evaluation of the best agent based on some algorithm that either plays mathematically perfect or (in non-deterministic games) is generally accepted to play well. It is important to note that this algorithm is not used as the fitness function because of the points previously mentioned in section 3.1.4.
- **Number of turns:** The average number of turns the agents play during their competition is tracked throughout each generation. In Nim, low turn count generally means better play.
- **Average amount of hidden layers and nodes per hidden layer:** These stats are tracked to see how complex the topologies of my NNs in the population are.
- **Best agent layer sizes and edges:** These topological stats are tracked to see how complex the best solution is.
- **Best agent games:** The whole games are tracked turn after turn played by the best agent from the current generation against each the best agent from the last generation and a randomly selected best agent from a previous generation. These game logs offers insight into what moves the agents make in real games which helps derive their tactics and strategies.

3.1.7 Nim

For the nim game, there are a few different game modes as well as an objectively perfectly playing dynamic programming algorithm. First, the general concept of how a game is played will be explored.

General Approach

Each game starts with a first game state, which is derived from the initial state parameter. A game state is a list where its length is the amount of stacks in that game and each value v_i stands for the amount of matches on the i -th stack. Then, the competing agents take turns predicting their moves. On their turn, the active agent reads the current game state as input and predicts its next move. A move indicates the stack where the matches are removed as well as the number of removed matches. Then the game function computes the new game state after the move or ends the game if all stacks are empty.

Encoding and Decoding

The input is directly encoded into the input layer of the NNs, which means the input layer has the same size as the amount of stacks. The values of the input nodes are directly copied from the game state list and therefore also represent the amount of matches on each stack.

For output encoding, there are two different implementations.

- **Direct encoding:** The output layer has two output nodes where the value for the first represents the index of the stack and the second value represents the amount of matches that are removed.
- **One-hot encoding:** The first N output nodes encode for the index and the following nodes encode for the amount of matches removed. For both the nodes encoding for index and amount removed, the node with the highest value is finally used as output. The output layer therefore has length $l = N + \max(state_{initial})$, where N is the amount of stacks and $\max(state_{initial})$ is the highest possible amount of matches on a stack.

Direct encoding is the more straight forward approach with lower NN topology whereas one-hot encoding ensures that the output stays in a reasonable range.

Game Modes

There are game modes Simple Nim and Nim with some configuration possibilities:

In Nim, each stack of the initial state can hold matches whereas in Simple Nim, the value of all stacks but one randomly chosen stack is set to 0.

The stack sizes in the initial state equal the corresponding values from the initial state parameter except for the configuration *random*, where the stack sizes of the initial state are randomly selected with the corresponding values in the initial state parameter as upper bound.

Another configuration involves the output decoding. With strict grading, illegal moves lead to a game loss, whereas in safe grading, the closest legal move to the illegal prediction is played.

Objective Grading

To have an exact measure of performance, a dynamic programming (DP) algorithm is used to calculate the best move for every state. This algorithm works by first defining a base case, which in case of Nim is every stack being empty and the result a loss. Then, it starts with the initial state and tries out all possible moves using recursion. For each state, it tries to find a move that forces the opponent into a losing position. If it can find such a move, the position is winning, but if all moves lead to winning position for the opponent, the algorithm returns the position with the maximal moves needed for the opponent to win. It also stores the result for each already computed state, which allows the algorithm to reuse that result every time it encounters the same state.

Now that it is known for all positions if they're winning, this data can be used to grade the moves of agents with a score that is calculated as follows: For each move, the algorithm evaluates if the agent plays perfectly, which means

- the agent had a winning state and made a move that got the opponent into a losing state,
- or if
- the agent had a losing state and made a move that required the maximal amount of moves for the opponent to win.

To calculate the final performance score of an agent, the amount of perfect moves played by the agent is divided by the total amount of moves it has played.

3.2 Findings

Now this implementation of ENNs will be tested with different parameters using the games as a benchmark. The general approach is to start by training the ENNs on easy problems whilst observing the effect of different parameters on the result. Each test is repeated at least

three times in order to reduce the impact of randomness on the results. As this thesis outlines the different testing configurations, one test will be discussed for each configuration as long as all three tests showed similar results. However, the full testing data with all performance indicators can be inspected on the GitHub repository of this thesis[28].

3.2.1 Simple Nim

For the simple Nim game, each test is run for 1000 generations, as the ENNs should be able to solve such simple games rather quickly.

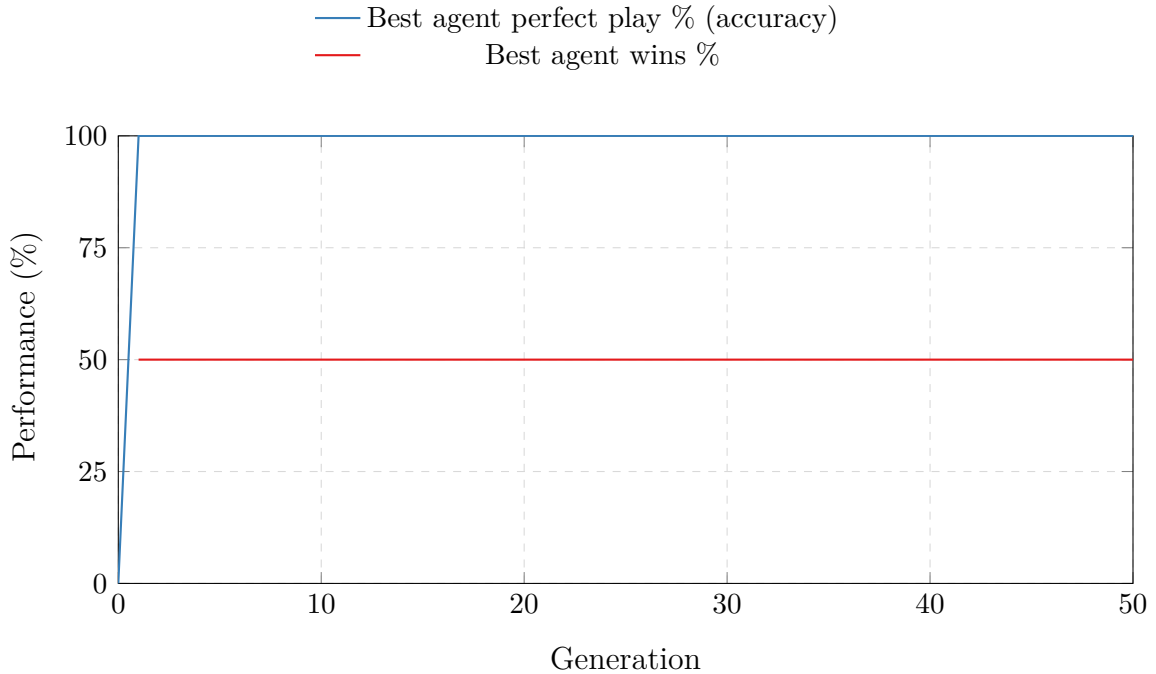
Stack: 2, Configuration 1

In the first configuration, the ENNs need to find the correct move for the initial Nim state with one stack containing 2 matches. This is the easiest problem that can still be considered a game - with one match on the stack there is only one legal move, which means it does not involve any decision-making. The winning strategy is to only take one match forcing the opponent to take the last match on the stack. The first test starts with a relatively small population of 100 agents. All other parameters are simplified:

game function: `run_nim_strict`, initial state: `[2]`, population size: 100, competition games: 50, mutation min: 0, mutation max: 1, fitness exponent: 1, best agent share: 0, random agent share: 0, random old agent share: 0, best agent tournament games: 50, `add_connection_rand`: 1, `add_node_rand`: 1, `change_weight_rand`: 1, `change_bias_rand`: 1, `shift_weight_rand`: 1, `shift_bias_rand`: 1

It is also important to note that one-hot output encoding is used at first, as it keeps the output in a desired range.

The first test shows following results:



The accuracy value reaches 100% after one generation which means the best agent already plays the game perfectly. This can be verified with the saved games, where it can be seen that the best agent correctly plays the move `[0, 1]` (first value is the stack, second value the number of matches removed):

```

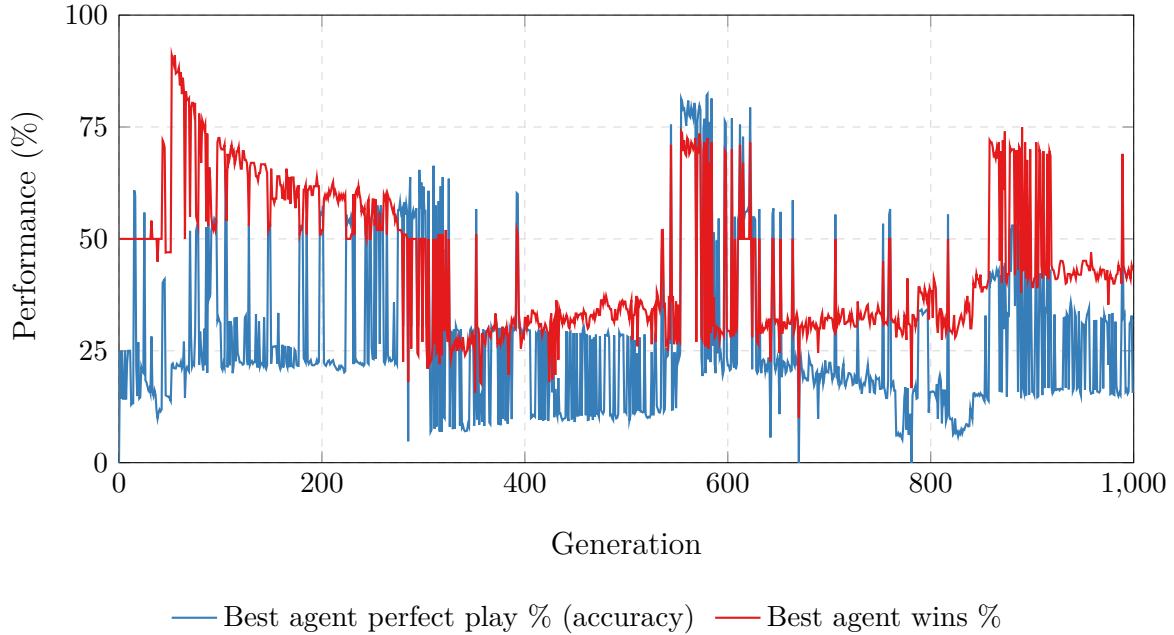
1      Generation: 1
2      Best agent layer sizes: [1, 3]
3      Agent 1 vs Agent 0:
4      Turn: 0: state: [2], agent_move: [0, 1]
5      Turn: 1: state: [1], agent_move: [0, 1]
6      Game result: [1, 0]

```

The best agent wins percentage in the plot above is a steady 50% since all games are played both ways and the first agent always wins the game.

Stack: 8, Configuration 1

Since the stack size with 2 has already worked fine, the same configuration is run with an increased initial stack size of 8 matches:



In this case the accuracy does not reach 100% but stays around 25% instead. Also, the accuracy graph shows irregular development and jitters in a window of many percentage points. Such drastic fluctuations between the accuracy values happen when different species within the population have similar fitness, which results in a frequent change of the best agents original species. Depending on which species the best agent comes from, the objective performance varies, as the relative performance evaluated by the fitness function does not necessarily correlate with objective performance. Similarly, the wins against older generations of the best agent vary, since the performance against older generations does not necessarily correlate with the relative performance within a population either.

The sample games the of best agents reveal the reason for their low accuracy:

```

1      Agent 998 vs Agent 999:
2      Turn: 0: state: [8], agent_move: [0, 2]
3      Turn: 1: state: [6], agent_move: [0, 2]
4      Turn: 2: state: [4], agent_move: [0, 2]
5      Turn: 3: state: [2], agent_move: [0, 1]
6      Turn: 4: state: [1], agent_move: [0, 3]

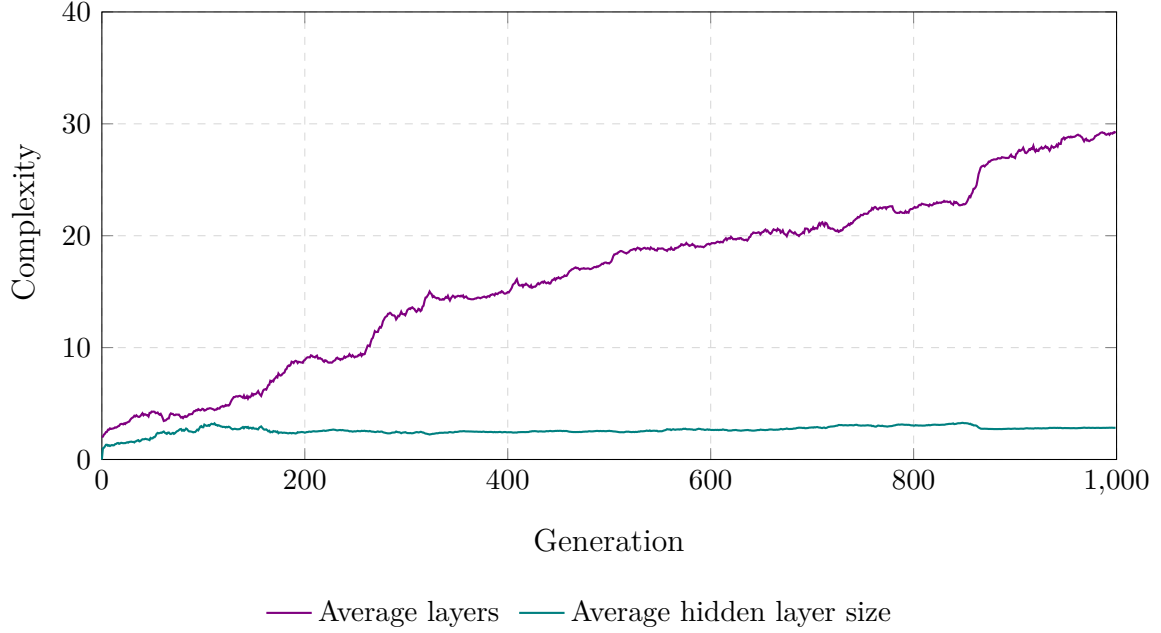
```

The best agents only learns to play the moves where it subtracts one or two matches, even though all the NNs seemingly have to do is to subtract seven matches instantly. This result seems inconsistent to the result of the previous configuration, where the NNs were able to learn the single correct move instantly. The problem however is that if the starting player subtracts

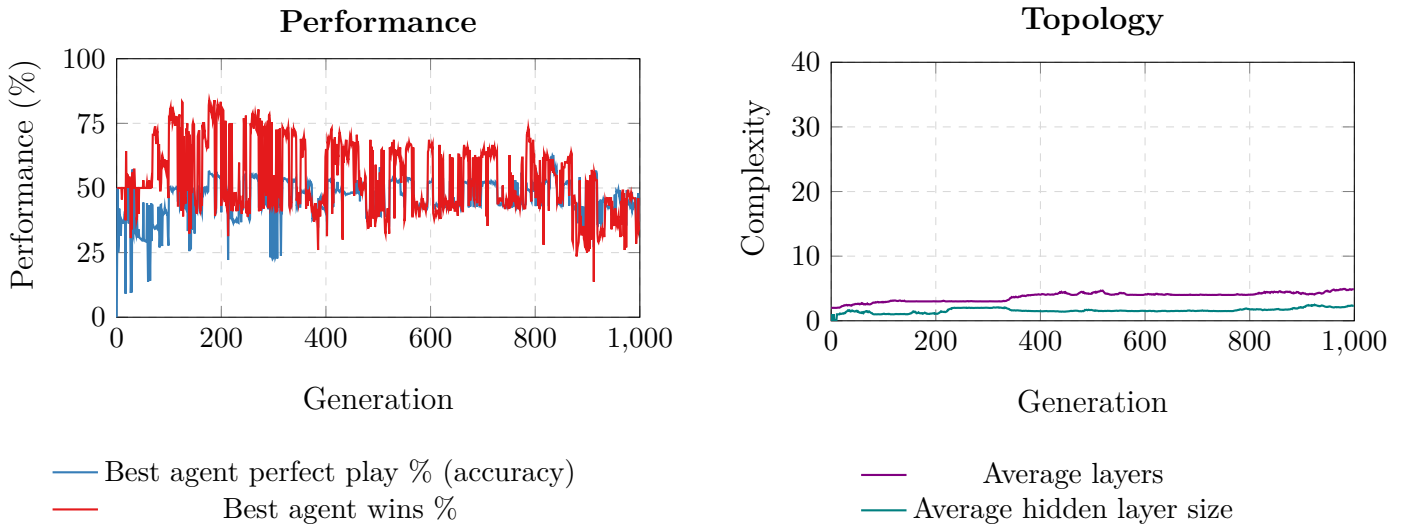
less than seven matches, the other player would get in winning position where it has to adapt and subtract $N - 1$ matches. There might evolve a population where all agents only subtract seven matches instantly, however, this seems more like a local minimum and the final goal is to develop NNs that can play the whole game. This simplification turns out to be a hindrance and will therefore be dismissed in favor of a variable initial stack size.

Remark: Unnecessary Topology

When considering the topology metrics in the test results of the last configuration, it becomes apparent that the complexity of the NNs explode without any visible improvement in performance:



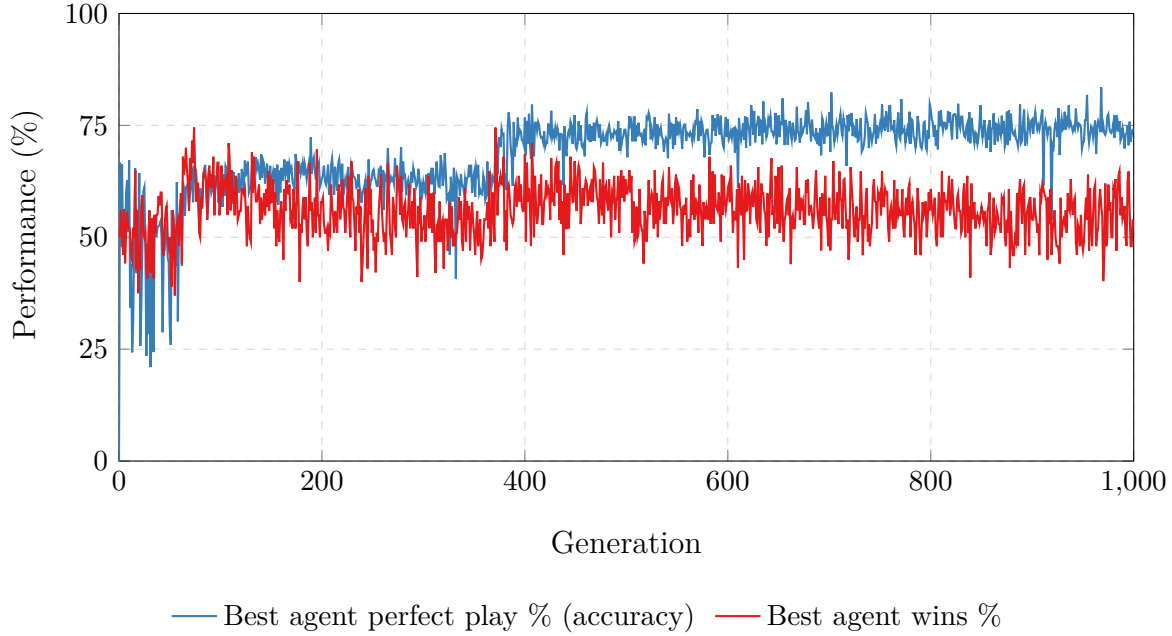
The NNs develop an average amount of over 20 hidden layers with 2 nodes on average. It does not make sense for the NNs to have this complexity for such a simple problem, as it only increases the needed computations. The chance for new nodes and edges to form is therefore reduced by a factor of 20 each. The same configuration as before is run with the new parameter adjustments:



The modifications did not impact the performance of the NN, but helped keeping the topological complexity in a reasonable bound which is why they will be kept moving on.

Stack 1–8, Configuration 1

The previous configuration is repeated except for the initial amount of matches on the stack which now varies randomly between one and eight.



Across the tests of this configuration, the accuracy always finally reaches a value ranging from 40% to 75% where it remains. In the test whose graph is shown above, the accuracy first settles at around 58% and makes a final jump to 75% before generation 400. Such a jump indicates that a new species with enhanced capabilities has emerged within the population. A look at the games the best agents played reveals their exact capabilities:

```
1 Agent 998 vs Agent 999:  
2 Turn: 0: state: [6], agent_move: [0, 3]  
3 Turn: 1: state: [3], agent_move: [0, 2]  
4 Turn: 2: state: [1], agent_move: [0, 1]
```

Across all tests, the NNs only show the ability to learn the moves where they subtract one to three matches, but none more. The accuracy of the NNs in different tests simply depends on how many moves the NNs learned. In any case, the NNs get stuck in a local minimum. Such local minima originate in early generations where the agents are not highly developed, which means many of them predict the same move for any input. Subtracting one match for any input is the safest move for NNs that only play one move, which is why they are the most successful and reproduce the most. After reaching that local minimum, there remain no more competitors that could assert themselves, either because of a flaw in the selection process or because none have been created in first place. It can also be observed how homogeneous the NNs across generations get by looking at the wins of the best agent against former best agents, which always settle at 50%, revealing that they all use the same strategy. A possible solution to this problem might be to modify some parameters to see if anything helps against the emergence of local minima.

Stack 1–8, Configuration 2–5

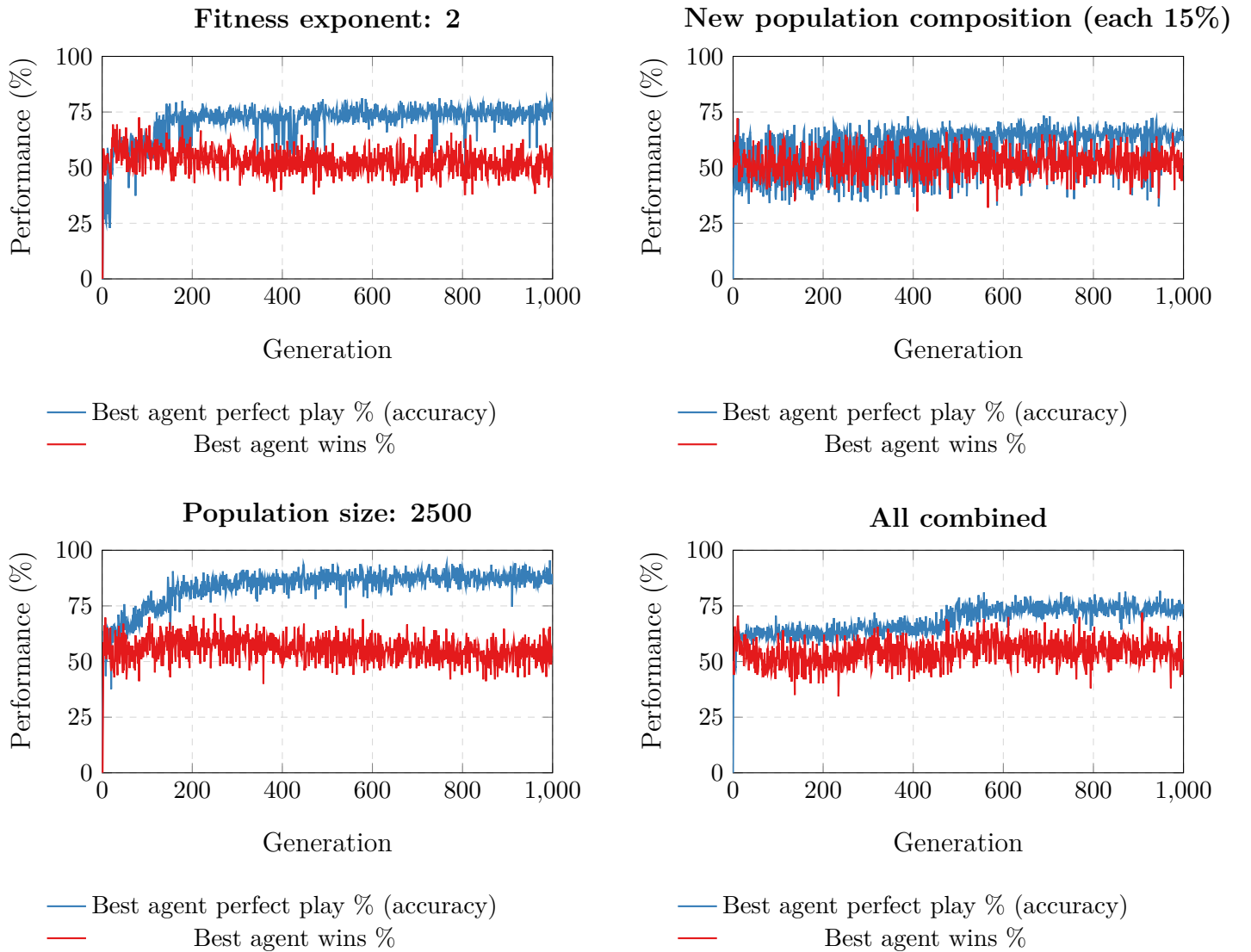
To overcome local minima, following strategies are available:

- **Fitness Exponent:** Increasing the fitness exponent to *ex.* 2 might help successful mutations reproduce better and therefore overcome a large population of similar NNs.

- **Population Composition:** Other kinds of agents can be added to the new population like best agents from older generations, randomly selected agents from the last generation, or newly generated random agents. This might help the development of new and possibly more complex strategies without the need for instant return in performance.
- **Population Size:** A larger population means more agents with different strategies can exist, evolve and finally help overcoming local minima.

The following configurations are tested to evaluate the impact of the mentioned strategies:

1. Fitness exponent set to 2
2. Old best agents, random agents, and new agents each make up 15% of the population
3. Population size set to 2500
4. All parameters changes combined



It can be observed in the graphs that the performance does not reach 100% in any configuration. The configuration with larger population size performs the best with the accuracy reaching a value of 90%. When examining the moves played by the best agent in a test of said configuration, it becomes apparent why the agent did not achieve full accuracy:

```

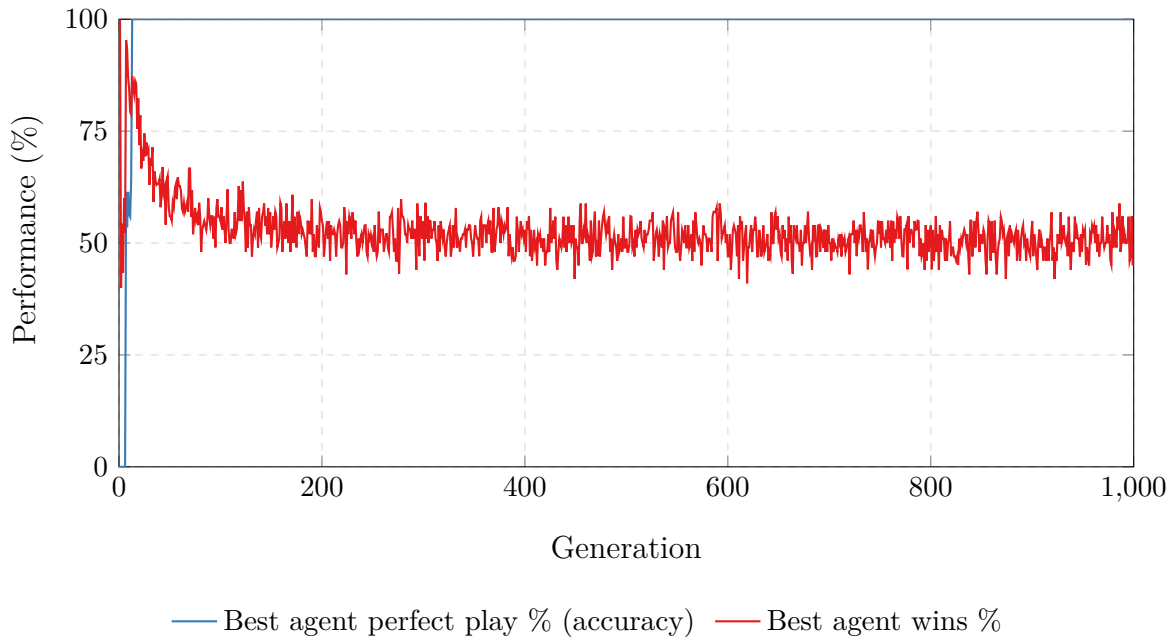
1 Agent 999 vs Agent 998:
2 Turn: 0: state: [8], agent_move: [0, 7]
3 Turn: 1: state: [1], agent_move: [0, 1]
4 Game result: [1, 0]
5 Agent 998 vs Agent 999:
6 Turn: 0: state: [6], agent_move: [0, 4]
7 Turn: 1: state: [2], agent_move: [0, 1]
8 Turn: 2: state: [1], agent_move: [0, 1]
9 Game result: [0, 1]

```

The best agents play the optimal move for eight matches on the stack but struggle with six matches. In none of the tests did the agents manage to develop perfect moves for all eight states, despite the training time of 1000 generations, which is sufficiently large for this type of task. Instead, the agents of all populations remain stuck in a local minimum with the winning rate against older generations settling at 50%, indicating no further improvement over previous generations. However, there are still other features to change.

Stack 1–8, Configuration 6

All ENN parameters are reset to the ones from Stack: 1–8, Configuration 1 except for the output encoding of the NNs (explained in chapter 3.1.7), which is changed from one-hot to direct encoding:



The accuracy of the best agent reaches 100% after 13 generations, which signifies a successful learning process. The wins against previous generations gradually settles at 50%, as innovation halts for an optimized population.

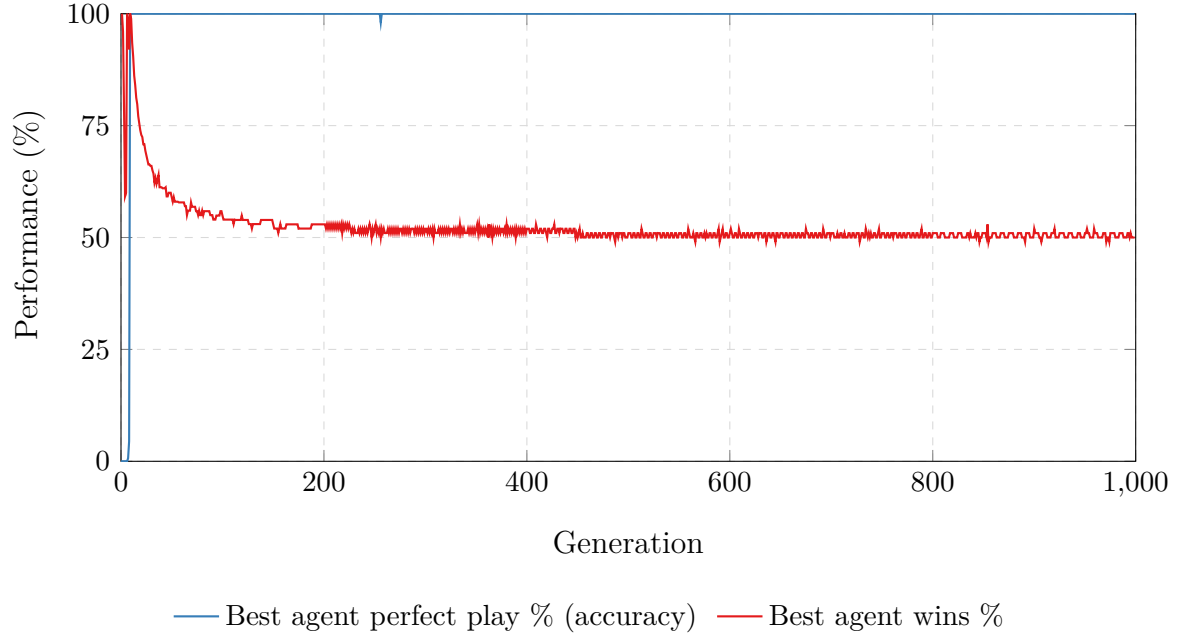
To understand the drastic impact of the change of output encoding, the NNs have to be examined on a structural level. In one-hot output encoding, a single output neuron is created for each possible amount of matches that can be subtracted. During the evolution process, the connections to the neurons for output 1 and 2 get stronger because of their competitive advantage. This unfortunately also means that the NNs of a population are practically unable to adapt to activate the other output neurons. In fact, this behavior could have been entirely anticipated, as a mathematical approach to model a NN with one-hot encoding for this task would require large topological complexity. Such NNs with large complexity are unlikely to develop since they require many perfectly applied mutations at once before they show a competitive advantage. Direct encoding however, only requires minimal complexity for this task,

which drastically increases the likelihood for the ENN algorithm to succeed.

Because of the previous success, the maximal stack size will be highly increased for the last test.

Stack: 1–1000, Configuration 1

In this test, the initial stack size ranges from 1 to 1000:



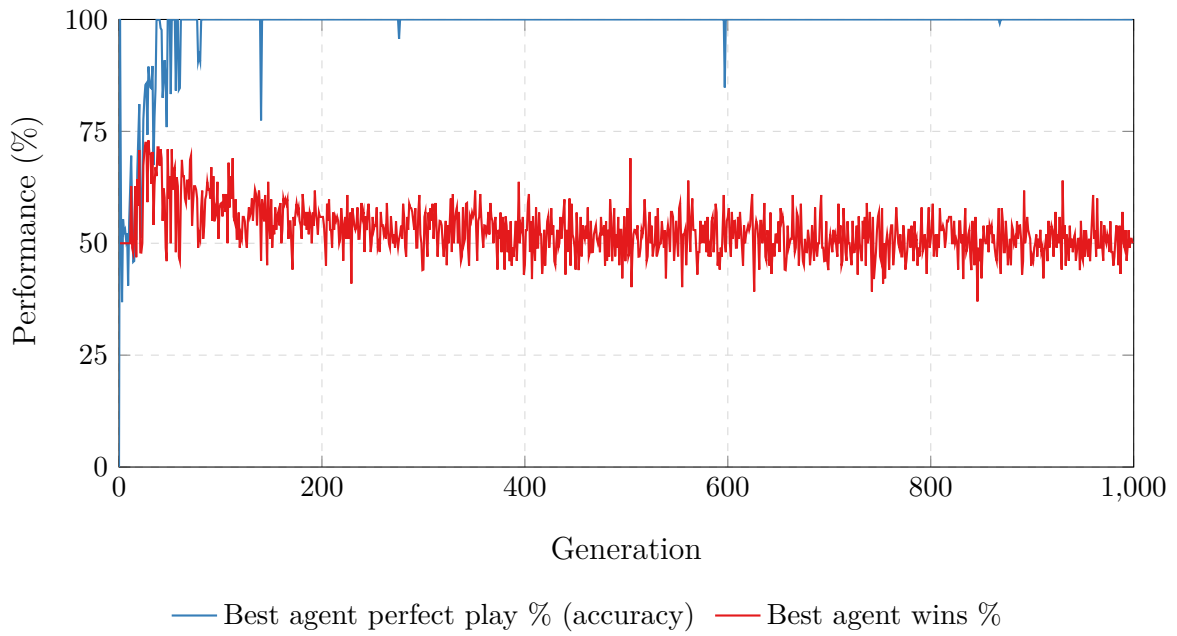
The NNs reach full accuracy in less than 30 generations in both the first and second test run. However, the NNs get stuck in a local minimum in the third run. This is why additional test runs have been conducted with different parameter configurations. Unfortunately, all alternative configurations proved to be similarly inconsistent. Nevertheless, the neural networks successfully learned the game in most cases, demonstrating that the ENN algorithm is capable of solving the simple Nim game.

3.2.2 Nim

After already having gained a lot of insight about the functioning of ENNs with a simplified version of the game, the algorithm will now be tested for the full version of Nim.

Stacks: 2*2, Configuration 1

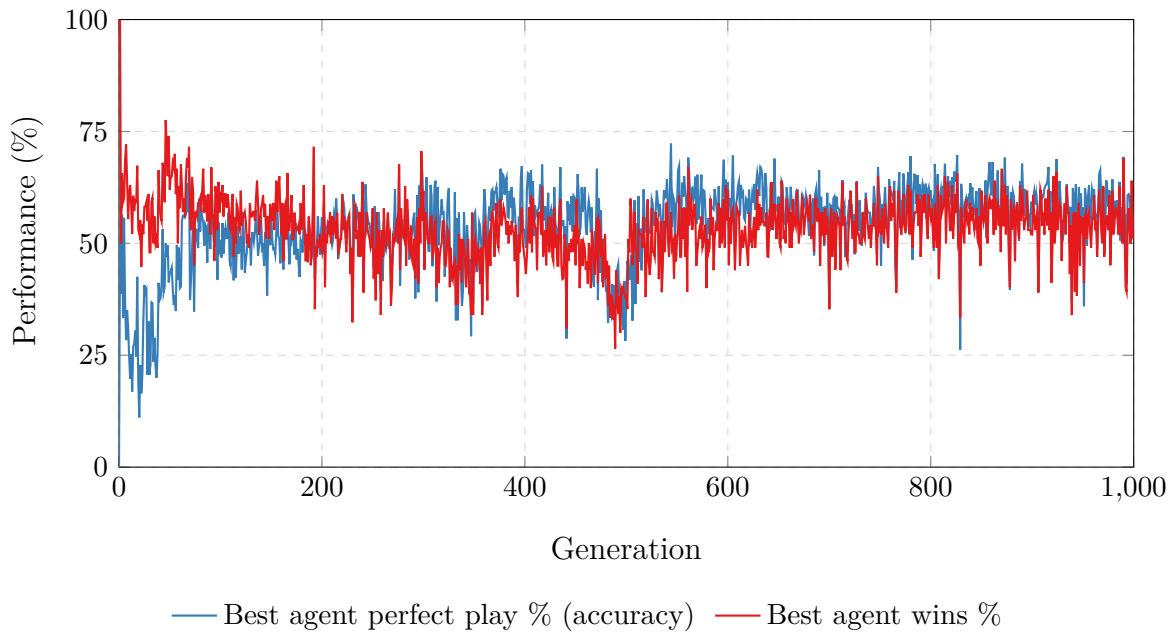
The first configuration tests a fairly simple problem where there are two stacks containing a maximum of 2 matches. There are eight possible game states for which the NNs need to find solutions, which seems possible to achieve for the ENN algorithm:



As expected, the NNs have no problem with this task and across all tests, they reach full accuracy in around 50 to 400 generations.

Stacks: 2*4, Configuration 1

Subsequently, the maximal amount of matches per stack is doubled which allows for 24 possible game states:



The NNs settle in all tests at an accuracy of around 57%. When reviewing the sample games, the NNs demonstrate a clear lack of basic strategy:

```

1   Agent 994 vs Agent 995:
2   Turn: 0: state: [2, 4], agent_move: [1, 4]
3   Turn: 1: state: [2, 0], agent_move: [0, 1]
4   Turn: 2: state: [1, 0], agent_move: [0, 1]

```

The best agent from generation 994 has the possibility to force its opponent into a losing position by subtracting two matches from the second stack. Instead, it empties the whole stack which leaves the opponent to take all but one matches from that stack.

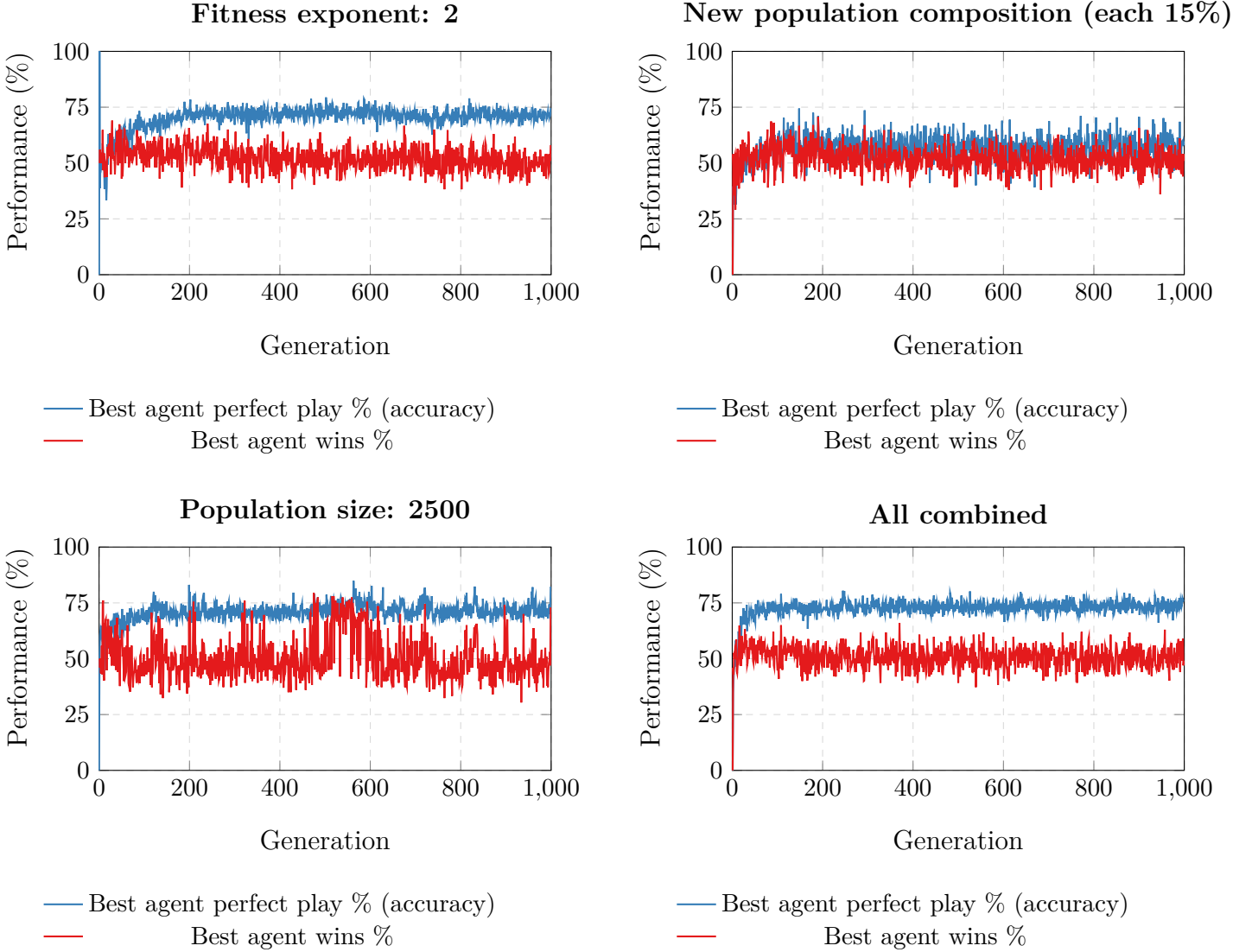
In another game however, the best agent from generation 999 just makes a move that would never even be legal in this test:

1 Agent 999 vs Agent 239:
2 Turn: 0: state: [4, 3], agent_move: [1, 5]

The NNs did not yet fully learn this task, however, modifying the ENN parameters might help the learning process.

Stacks: 2*4, Configuration 2–5

In the following tests, the same ENN parameter modifications as in the configuration Stack: 1–8, Configuration 2–5 are tested:



In most tests, the accuracy value of the NNs reach about 75%, whereas some tests perform slightly worse. The agents in these parameter configurations have over all learned to play more correct moves than the agents in first configuration, which predicted moves with an accuracy of around 57%. This validates the proposed parameter changes in their effectiveness. Still, the populations across all tests stop development before attaining full accuracy, as they remain stuck in a local minimum with the whole population using the same strategy.

These tests conclude the scope of this thesis. This leaves open for future research (detailed in 4.3) to validate the findings of the thesis and further improve the performance of the algorithm.

4. Wrapping Up and Outlook

4.1 Conclusion

This thesis managed to train neural networks with 100% accuracy in the single stack version of Nim for stack sizes up to 1000. The success was mostly due to the realization that the output should be encoded directly instead of using one-hot output encoding. Although one-hot encoding keeps the output in a safe bound, it finally makes it harder for the NNs to find the correct structure and weights in the case of Nim. Other parameter configurations were explored, however, most of them showed to be similarly effective as the initial configuration, except for the weight reduction of topology increasing mutations, which demonstrated high effectiveness.

In the full Nim game, the NNs were able to reach an accuracy of 100% for two stacks with two matches each and reached an accuracy of around 75% for two stacks with 4 matches each. The NNs could not adapt to playing the perfect move for all 24 possible game states in the latter game and got stuck in local minimum.

A plausible explanation for the finding that the NNs could not be trained to full accuracy in the latter configuration might lie in the game used as benchmark for the algorithm. The Nim game might be a tough challenge for NNs to solve, as the algorithm to play Nim perfectly is not easily translatable into NNs. If this is the case, this thesis demonstrates the ability of ENN algorithms to adapt to complex tasks to a significant extent nevertheless. That said, this implementation of ENNs leaves room for future development (detailed in 4.3), which might also increase the performance of the algorithm in the Nim game.

This thesis sometimes dealt with varying results for tests within the same parameter configuration. In an application, it is therefore advisable to train several populations on the same problem to then choose the best performing one.

4.2 Auto Review

This research was a large journey for me to realize, which finally resulted in an ENN framework that I proved to be able to learn functions without human supervision. The concept of neural networks evolving on their own and finally acquiring some sort of skill seemed theoretical and challenging, which is why it is such a delight for me to actually have created a practical implementation of ENNs that is able to learn a game on its own.

When reflecting on the planning process, the amount of time needed for the development and particularly the testing process was underestimated. Even though I tried to optimize the program with algorithm design choices and parallel processing, the learning process still demanded a lot of time. This limited the amount of tests this thesis was able to evaluate.

Another thing I realized is that the scientific method of testing is essential. My approach of starting with a simple solution and then testing different parameters and features one at a

time proved to be very successful. It helped me find different, more effective configurations than the ones I had previously imagined to be plausible.

In terms of implementation, I had some challenges with the parameters being defined all over the place in the project. To develop this further, I would therefore create a struct that handles all parameters and also implement automated testing which would allow me to run all tests without supervision.

In general, my object-oriented programming approach worked fine and my project structure made the codebase easily understandable and editable throughout my research.

4.3 Future Work

As already mentioned, this thesis leaves many possibilities for future research, which might also answer whether the Nim game can be learned by ENN algorithms. In specific, future work might include the following:

More Testing

Because of the time constraints, this research tested a number of configurations with limited tests each. More test runs within a set of parameters would therefore increase statistical significance of the results and more tests with different sets of parameters might help finding better solutions. This thesis has already tested the effect of some modifications of the fitness exponent, new population composition, and population size parameters without finding consistent evidence for significant improvement of performance with any of these parameters. In-depth testing of the effect of these parameters would facilitate their fine-tuning and might finally improve the ENN learning process. In specific, following aspects might be particularly important to examine:

- **Number of generations:** The number of generations in the tests was limited to 1000 because of time constraints. Longer tests runs however, might allow the NNs to evolve further and therefore achieve better results.
- **Fitness exponent and new population composition:** These parameters influence what agents make up each population and are therefore critical to optimize to ensure the success of the algorithm.
- **Population size:** The approach of this thesis was to have a relatively small population to keep the needed computational load per generation low. Enlarging the population however, might allow for more diversity within a population, which might help new strategies to evolve.
- **Mutation rate:** This thesis kept the rate of mutation minimal to ensure consistent development, however, increasing the rate of mutations might accelerate innovation of NNs.
- **Mutation types:** During the testing process, the weight of the topology-increasing mutation were decreased, which resulted in significantly less unnecessary complexity of the NNs. Tuning the weights of other mutations might help prioritize the important mutations and therefore increase the efficiency of the whole algorithm.

An evolutionary computation algorithm could also be employed to optimize different parameters of the ENN algorithm itself and therefore improve the learning process.

Faster Computation

To enable more tests, the computational performance of the ENN algorithm could be optimized. This can be done by converting the NNs into a weight matrix and then compute its predictions with hardware accelerated vector-matrix multiplications. However, the complex topologies of the NNs in this approach make it harder to implement than with other NN types. Many other small performance improvements can still be done in this project which might cumulatively seriously improve the performance of the algorithm.

Algorithm Design

There is a large variety of additional features that might improve the performance of the ENN algorithm. For example, the NEAT algorithm, which served as initial inspiration, also uses genetic encoding, tracks genes using historical markings and protects innovation using speciation.^[1] In their tests, the developers of the NEAT algorithm were able to prove these features to effectively improve the results of the learning process. These features might therefore also improve the performance of the ENN algorithm in the Nim game.

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