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Improving the performance of constructed neural networks with a pre-train phase

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Abstract

A multitude of problems in contemporary literature are addressed using machine learning models, the most widespread of which are artificial neural networks. Furthermore, in recent years, evolutionary techniques have emerged that identify both the architecture of artificial neural networks and their corresponding parameters. Among these techniques, one can also identify the artificial neural networks being constructed, in which the structure and parameters of the neural network are effectively identified using Grammatical Evolution. In this work, a pre-training stage is introduced in which an artificial neural network with a fixed number of parameters is trained using some optimization technique such as the genetic algorithms used here. The final result of this additional phase is a trained artificial neural network which is introduced into the genetic population used by Grammatical Evolution in the second phase. In this way, finding the overall minimum of the error function will be significantly accelerated, making the second phase method more efficient. The proposed work was applied on a series of classification and regression problems found in the recent literature and it was compared against other methods used for neural network training as well as against the original neural network construction method.

Keywords: Neural networks; Grammatical Evolution; Genetic algorithms.

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1. Introduction

A machine learning model used widely in classification and regression problems is the artificial neural network [1,2]. Commonly, these models are expressed as functions $N(\overrightarrow{x}, \overrightarrow{w})$, where the vector $\overrightarrow{x}$ with dimension d is considered the input vector (pattern) and the vector $\overrightarrow{w}$ is the vector of parameters for the neural network. The learning of these models is obtained by minimizing the so-called training error, which is defined as:

$$\text{error}\left(N(\overrightarrow{x}, \overrightarrow{w})\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{M} \left(N(\overrightarrow{x}_i, \overrightarrow{w}) - y_i\right)^2 \quad (1)$$

In this equation, the set $\left(\overrightarrow{x_i}, y_i\right),\ i = 1, ..., M$ defines the corresponding training set for the objective problem. The values y_i are the expected outputs for each pattern $\overrightarrow{x_i}$.

Artificial neural networks have been applied in a wide series of real - world problems, such as image processing [3], time series forecasting [4], credit card analysis [5], problems derived from physics [6,7] etc. Also, recently they have been applied to flood simulation

[8], solar radiation prediction [9], agricultural problems [10], problems appearing in communications [11], mechanical applications [12] etc. During the recent year a wide series of optimization methods have been incorporated to tackle the equation 1, such as the Back Propagation algorithm [13,14], the RPROP algorithm [15,16] etc. Furthermore, global optimization method have been used widely for the training of artificial neural networks, such as the Genetic Algorithms [17], the Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) method [18], the Simulated Annealing method [19], the Differential Evolution technique [20], the Artificial Bee Colony (ABC) method [21] etc. Moreover, Sexton et al proposed the incorporation of the tabu search algorithm for neural network training [22], Zhang et al introduced a hybrid algorithm that utilizes the PSO method and the Back Propagation algorithm for neural network training [23]. Additionally, Zhao et al introduced a new Cascaded Forward Algorithm for neural network training [24]. Furthermore, a series of parallel computing techniques have been proposed to speed up the training of neural networks [25,26].

However, these techniques face a series of problems. For example, they can easily be trapped in local minima of the error function defined in Equation 1. This will have a direct consequence of low performance in the performance of the artificial neural network on the data of the objective problem. Another major problem that appears in the previously mentioned optimization techniques is the overfitting problem, where poor performance is observed when the neural networks is applied on data that was not present during the training process. This problem has been thoroughly studied by many researchers that have proposed some methods to handle this problem. Among these methods one can detect the weight sharing method [27,28], pruning techniques [29,30], early stopping methods [31,32], the weight decaying procedure [33,34] etc. Additionally, the dynamic construction of the architecture of neural networks was proposed by various researchers as a possible solution for the overfitting problem. For example, genetic algorithms have been proposed to create dynamically the architecture of neural networks [35,36] as well as the the PSO method [37]. Recently, Siebel et al, introduced a method based on evolutionary reinforcement learning for the optimal design of artificial neural networks [38]. Moreover, Jaafra et al published a review regarding the usage of Reinforcement learning for neural architecture search [39]. Similarly, Pham et al introduced a novel method for the optimal identification of the architecture of neural networks through parameters sharing [40]. Also, the technique of Stochastic Neural Architecture search was proposed by Xie et al [41]. Finally, Zhou et al introduced a Bayesian approach for neural architecture search [42].

Recently, a method that utilizes the Grammatical Evolution [43] to create the architecture of neural networks was proposed. This method can dynamically discover the optimal architecture of neural networks as well as it can detect the optimal values for the corresponding parameters [44]. This technique creates various trial structures of artificial neural networks, which, using genetic operators, evolve from generation to generation with the ultimate goal of minimizing the training error, as provided by equation 1. The method was applied with success in a series of practical problems, such as the location of Amide I bonds [45], solution of differential equations [46], medical problems [47], education problems[48], autism screening [49] etc.

Compared to other techniques for constructing the structure of artificial neural networks, the method guided by Grammatical Evolution has a number of advantages. First of all, this method can generate both topology and the values for the associated parameters. Furthermore, this method can effectively isolate the features of the dataset that are most important and furthermore can retain only those synapses in the neural network that will lead to a reduction in training error. Furthermore, this method does not require prior knowledge of the objective problem and can be applied without any differentiation to both classification problems and regression problems. Furthermore, since a grammar is used to

generate the artificial neural network, it is possible for the researcher to explain why one structure may be preferred over others. Finally, since the Grammatical Evolution procedure is used, the method could be faster than others since the Grammatical Evolution utilizes integer based chromosomes to express valid programs in the underlying grammar.

However, in many cases, training the above model is not efficient and can become trapped in local minima of the error function, which will directly result in poor performance on the problem data. Furthermore, an important factor in the problems addressed by Grammatical Evolution is the initial values that the chromosomes of the genetic population take. If the initialization is not effective, then Grammatical Evolution may take a significant amount of time to find the optimal solution to the problem. Furthermore, in artificial neural networks, an ineffective initialization of the genetic population can lead to the model becoming trapped in local minima of the error function. In this paper, we propose to introduce an additional phase in the artificial neural network construction algorithm. In this phase, an optimization method, such as a genetic algorithm, can be used to train an artificial neural network with a fixed number of parameters. The final result of this additional phase is a trained artificial neural network, which can be introduced into the initial genetic population of Grammatical Evolution. In this way, the evolution of chromosomes will be accelerated and through genetic operators, chromosomes will be produced that will use genetic material from the chromosome introduced from the first phase of the proposed process. The final method was applied on a wide series of classification and regression problems and it was compared against the original neural network construction method and the results seem promising.

Similar works in the field of pre - training neural networks was presented in the related literature. For example, the work of Li at el focused on the acceleration of the back propagation training algorithm by incorporating an initial weight pre-training [50]. Also, Erhan et al [51] discussed the role of different pre-training mechanisms to the effectiveness of neural networks. Furthermore, a recent work [52] discusses the effect of pre-training of artificial neural networks for the problem of software fault prediction. Saikia et al proposed a novel pre-train mechanism [53] to improve the performance of neural network in the case of regression problems. Moreover, Kroshchanka et al proposed a method [54] to significantly reduce the number of parameters in neural networks using a pre-training method. Also, Noinongyao et al introduced a method based on Extreme Learning Machines [55] for the efficient pre - training of artificial neural networks.

The process of constructing artificial neural networks through grammatical evolution, as proposed in the article, enables the model to automatically discover a wide range of structures that may incorporate features such as symmetry or asymmetry between connections and layers. This flexibility in designing architectures allows for the representation of both symmetric and asymmetric patterns, which can be important for neural network performance, especially when the problem at hand exhibits intrinsic symmetries in the data or in the relationships among variables. Through the evolutionary process, the proposed approach can result in structures with a higher degree of symmetry in the connections or in the distribution of weights, an aspect that is often associated with improved generalization and stability during training.

The remaining of this article is organized as follows: in section 2 the proposed method and the accompanied genetic algorithm are introduced, in section 3 the experimental datasets and the series of experiments conducted are listed and discussed thoroughly followed by the section 4, where some conclusions are discussed.

2. Materials and Methods

The proposed technique consists of two main stages, which are analyzed in detail in this section. In the first stage, pre-training takes place, during which a genetic algorithm will undertake to effectively train an artificial neural network with a specific number of weights, which is determined in advance. Of course, any optimization method could be used in the first stage, however, genetic algorithms were chosen because of their adaptability and their ability to search for the global minimum of functions. The final result of the first stage will be a trained artificial neural network, which will be introduced into the genetic population of the Grammatical Evolution of the second stage. This process will result in identifying a range of values in which the optimal value of the training error lies. Furthermore, the optimized artificial neural network that will be introduced into the population will be able to lead to an acceleration of finding the overall minimum of the error function through the application of genetic operators and the exchange of genetic material with other chromosomes of Grammatical Evolution. In the second stage, the Grammatical Evolution method takes place for the efficient construction of artificial neural networks, in which the chromosomes are naturally arrays of integers that represent production rules of the given grammar.

2.1. The first phase of the proposed method

In the first phase of the proposed methodology, an optimization method should be utilized to train an artificial neural network with a fixed number of weights. In the present work, a genetic algorithm was used. Genetic algorithms was initially proposed by John Holland [56] can be considered as a global optimization procedure that have been applied successfully in a series of problems. This method is inspired by biology and it can simulate the the evolutionary process through the genetic operations of mutation, natural selection and crossover [57–59]. This method have been applied in cases such as robotics [60], energy problems [63], agriculture problems [61] etc. The neural networks considered here are in the form:

$$N(\vec{x}, \vec{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^{H} w_{(d+2)i-(d+1)} \sigma\left(\sum_{j=1}^{d} x_j w_{(d+2)i-(d+1)+j} + w_{(d+2)i} \right) \tag{2}$$

In this equation, the constant H defines the number of processing units (weights) for the neural network and the constant d is the dimension of the input patterns. The function $\sigma(x)$ stands for the sigmoid function, expressed as:

$$\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-x)} \tag{3}$$

From the equation 2 it is derived that the total number of parameters for the neural network as computed as:

$$n = (d + 2)H \tag{4}$$

In the current work the sigmoid function is adopted with one processing layer (hidden layer), due to its approximation capabilities exploited in the Hornik's theorem [62]. According to this theorem, a neural network with sufficient number of sigmoid units can approximate any given function. The algorithm of the first phase is divided into the following major steps:

1. Initialization step, where the initialization of the critical parameters for the genetic algorithm is made.

2. Fitness calculation step, where the fitness for each chromosome is performed. Each chromosome is considered as a vector of double precision values used as the parameters of the neural network.
3. Application of genetic operators, where the operators of selection, crossover and mutation is performed.
4. Termination check step.

Hence, the detailed description of the steps of the algorithm is provided subsequently:

1. **Initialization step**.
   (a) **Define** as N_c the number of chromosomes and as N_g the number of allowed generations.
   (b) **Define** as p_s the selection rate and as p_m the mutation rate.
   (c) **Set** as I_w the number of initial weights for the neural network.
   (d) **Initialize** randomly the chromosomes $g_i,\ i = 1, \ldots, N_c$ of the population as vector of double numbers. The dimension of each vector is calculated as: $n = (d + 2)I_w$
   (e) **Set** $k = 0$, the generation number.
2. **Fitness calculation step**.
   (a) **For** $i = 1, \ldots, N_c$ **do**
      i. **Create** a neural network $N_i = N(\overrightarrow{x}, \overrightarrow{g_i})$ for the chromosome $\overrightarrow{g_i}$.
      ii. **Calculate** the corresponding fitness value f_i as

$$f_i = \sum_{j=1}^{M} \left(N(\overrightarrow{x}_j, \overrightarrow{g_i}) - y_j\right)^2 \tag{5}$$

   (b) **End For**
3. **Genetic operations step**.
   (a) Selection procedure: Firstly the chromosomes are sorted according to their fitness values. The best $(1 - p_s) \times N_c$ of them are copied without changes to the next generation. The remaining will be replaced by new chromosomes that will be produced during crossover and mutation.
   (b) Crossover procedure: In this procedure for each pair of produced chromosomes defined as $(\tilde{z}, \tilde{w})$, two chromosomes (z, w) are selected from the current population with the process of tournament selection. The new chromosomes are constructed using the following equations:

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{z}_i &= a_i z_i + (1 - a_i) w_i \\ \tilde{w}_i &= a_i w_i + (1 - a_i) z_i \end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

   The values a_i are considered as random numbers, with $a_i \in [-0.5, 1.5]$ [64].
   (c) Mutation procedure: For each element $t_j, j = 1, \ldots, n$ of every chromosome g_i a random number $r \in [0, 1]$ is selected. The element is altered when $r \leq p_m$ according to the scheme:

$$t'_j = \begin{cases} t_j + \Delta\left(k, r_j - t_j\right), & t = 0 \\ t_j - \Delta\left(k, t_j - l_j\right), & t = 1 \end{cases} \tag{7}$$

where t is a random number that can have the values 0 or 1 and the function $\Delta(k, y)$ is given by:

$$\Delta(k, y) = y\left(1 - r^{\left(1-\frac{k}{N_g}\right)}\right) \tag{8}$$

4. **Termination check step**.
   (a) **Set** $k = k + 1$
   (b) **If** $k < N_g$ then go to Fitness Calculation Step, else terminate.

2.2. The neural construction method

The neural construction method incorporates the Grammatical Evolution procedure for the production of artificial neural networks. Grammatical Evolution can be considered as a genetic algorithm, where the chromosomes are vectors of positive integers. These integers are rules from a provided Backs - Naur form (BNF) grammar [65] of the underlying language. The method of Grammatical Evolution was applied in various cases, such as data fitting [66,67], composition of music [68], video games [69,70], energy problems [71], cryptography [72], economics [73] etc. BNF grammars are commonly defined as sets $G = (N, T, S, P)$, with the following definitions:

- The set N contains the non - terminal symbols of the grammar.
- The set T contains the terminal symbols of the grammar.
- The start symbol of the grammar is denoted as S, with $S \in N$.
- The production rules of the grammar are enclosed in the set P.

The procedure used to create programs in the underlying language initiates from the starting symbol S and using a series of steps, the Grammatical Evolution produces valid programs by replacing non-terminal symbols with the right hand of the selected production rule. The selection of the rule is performed using the following scheme:

- **Obtain** the next element from the processed chromosome and denote this element as V.
- **Select** the next production rule as: Rule = V mod N_R, where N_R stands for the total number of production rules for non - terminal symbol that is currently under processing.

The overall process for the production of producing valid programs using the Grammatical Evolution method is shown graphically in Figure 1.

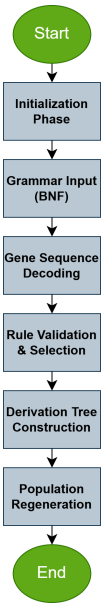

Figure 1. The Grammatical Evolution process used to produce valid programs.

The BNF grammar for the method of neural network construction is shown in Figure 2. The numbers shown in parentheses represent the increasing numbers of the production rules for every non - terminal symbol.

$$
\begin{aligned}
S &::= \langle \texttt{Sigval} \rangle && (0)\\
\langle \texttt{Sigval} \rangle &::= \langle \texttt{Node} \rangle && (0)\\
&\quad | \langle \texttt{Node} \rangle + \langle \texttt{Sigval} \rangle && (1)\\
\langle \texttt{Node} \rangle &::= \langle \texttt{Number} \rangle * \texttt{sig}(\langle \texttt{Sum} \rangle + \langle \texttt{Number} \rangle) && (0)\\
\langle \texttt{Sum} \rangle &::= \langle \texttt{Number} \rangle * \langle \texttt{Xlist} \rangle && (0)\\
&\quad | \langle \texttt{Sum} \rangle + \langle \texttt{Sum} \rangle && (1)\\
\langle \texttt{Xlist} \rangle &::= x_1 && (0)\\
&\quad | x_2 && (1)\\
&\quad \vdots\\
&\quad | x_d && (d-1)\\
\langle \texttt{Number} \rangle &::= (\langle \texttt{Dlist} \rangle . \langle \texttt{Dlist} \rangle) && (0)\\
&\quad | (-\langle \texttt{Dlist} \rangle . \langle \texttt{Dlist} \rangle) && (1)\\
\langle \texttt{Dlist} \rangle &::= \langle \texttt{Digit} \rangle && (0)\\
&\quad | \langle \texttt{Digit} \rangle \langle \texttt{Dlist} \rangle && (1)\\
\langle \texttt{Digit} \rangle &::= 0 && (0)\\
&\quad | 1 && (1)\\
&\quad \vdots\\
&\quad | 9 && (9)
\end{aligned}
$$

Figure 2. The proposed grammar for the construction of artificial neural networks through Grammatical Evolution.

As an example of produced neural network, consider the following following form:

$$N(x) = 1.9\text{sig}(10.5x_1 + 3.2x_3 + 1.4) + 2.1\text{sig}(2.2x_2 - 3.3x_3 + 3.2) \quad (9)$$

This neural network stands for a network with 3 inputs (x_1, x_2, x_3). The number of processing units is $H = 2$. The network can be shown graphically in Figure 3. The above procedure can produce artificial neural networks with one hidden layer, in which the number of neurons is not predetermined and is decided dynamically during the production of the network. In addition, the connections of the inputs to the neurons are decided dynamically during the construction of the network and therefore it is not mandatory that all inputs are connected to every neuron. Finally, the above grammar can be extended in the future to include artificial neural networks with more than one processing layer.

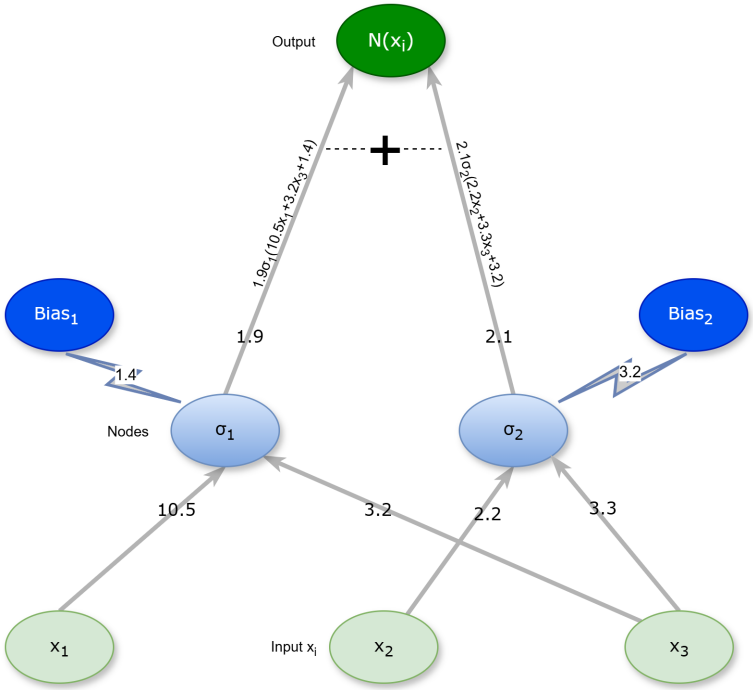

Figure 3. An example of a produced neural network.

The main steps of the proposed algorithm have as follows:

1. **Application of first phase.**
   (a) **Set** I_w the number of weights for the first phase.
   (b) **Execute** the first phase of the proposed method, described in subsection 2.1.
   (c) **Obtain** the chromosome x^* of the first phase, with the lowest fitness value.
   (d) **Convert** the chromosome x^* to the corresponding integer chromosome g^*. This chromosome, with the help of the grammar of Figure 2, can create the chromosome x^*.
2. **Initialization step**.
   (a) **Define** as N_c the number of chromosomes and as N_g the number of allowed generations.
   (b) **Define** as p_s the selection rate and as p_m the mutation rate.
   (c) **Initialize** the chromosomes g_i, $i = 1, \ldots, N_c$ as sets of positive random integers.
   (d) **Insert** the chromosome g^* to a random position $r_i \in [1, N_c]$
   (e) **Set** as $k = 0$ the generation counter.

3. **Fitness Calculation step**.
   (a) **For** $i = 1, \ldots, N_c$ **do**
      i. **Create** the constructed neural network $N_i(\overrightarrow{x}, \overrightarrow{w})$ for the corresponding chromosome g_i using the grammar of Figure 2.
      ii. **Calculate** the corresponding fitness value f_i as

$$f_i = \sum_{j=1}^{M} \left(N(\overrightarrow{x}_j, \overrightarrow{w}) - y_j \right)^2 \tag{10}$$

   (b) **End For**
4. **Application of genetic operations**.
   (a) Application of selection procedure: Initially the chromosomes are sorted with respect to their fitness values. The first $(1 - p_s) \times N_c$ of them are transferred without changes to the next generation. The remaining chromosomes will be substituted by new chromosomes produced by crossover and mutation.
   (b) Application of crossover procedure: During crossover, for each pair of new chromosomes defined as $(\tilde{z}, \tilde{w})$, two chromosomes (z, w) are selected from the current population using tournament selection. The new offsprings are produced using one - point crossover. A graphical example of the one - point crossover is outlined in Figure 4.
   (c) Application of mutation procedure: For every element of each chromosome a random number $r \in [0, 1]$ is selected. The corresponding element is altered randomly when $r \leq p_m$.
5. **Termination check step**.
   (a) **Set** $k = k + 1$
   (b) **If** $k < N_g$ then go to Fitness Calculation Step else go to Testing Step.
6. **Testing step**.
   (a) **Obtain** the best chromosome g^* with the lowest fitness value.
   (b) **Create** the corresponding neural network $N^*(\overrightarrow{x}, \overrightarrow{w})$ using the grammar of Figure 2.
   (c) **Apply** the neural network $N^*(\overrightarrow{x}, \overrightarrow{w})$ to the test data of the objective problem and report the results.

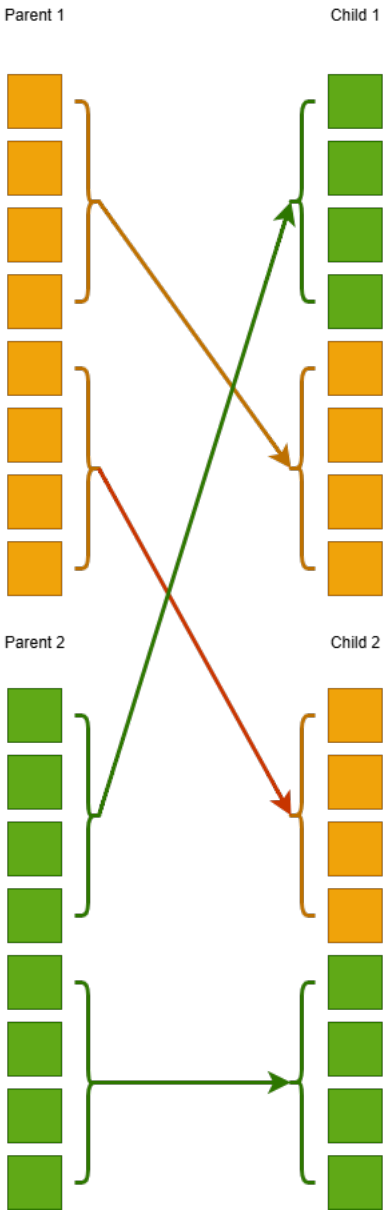

Figure 4. An example of the one - point crossover procedure.

3. Results

The validation of the proposed method was performed with the assistance of a series of classification and regression datasets, that can be downloaded freely from the Internet from the following sites:

1. The UCI database, https://archive.ics.uci.edu/(accessed on 8 July 2025)[74]
2. The Keel website, https://sci2s.ugr.es/keel/datasets.php(accessed on 8 July 2025)[75].
3. The Statlib URL https://lib.stat.cmu.edu/datasets/index(accessed on 8 July 2025).

3.1. Experimental datasets

The following datasets were used in the conducted experiments:

1. **Appendictis** which is a medical dataset [76].
2. **Alcohol**, which is dataset regarding alcohol consumption [77].
3. **Australian**, which is a dataset produced from various bank transactions [78].
4. **Balance** dataset [79], produced from various psychological experiments.
5. **Cleveland**, a medical dataset which was discussed in a series of papers [80,81].

6. **Circular** dataset, which is an artificial dataset.
7. **Dermatology**, a medical dataset for dermatology problems [82].
8. **Ecoli**, which is related to protein problems [83].
9. **Glass** dataset, that contains measurements from glass component analysis.
10. **Haberman**, a medical dataset related to breast cancer.
11. **Hayes-roth** dataset [84].
12. **Heart**, which is a dataset related to heart diseases [85].
13. **HeartAttack**, which is a medical dataset for the detection of heart diseases
14. **Housevotes**, a dataset which is related to the Congressional voting in USA [86].
15. **Ionosphere**, a dataset that contains measurements from the ionosphere [87,88].
16. **Liverdisorder**, a medical dataset that was studied thoroughly in a series of papers[89, 90].
17. **Lymography** [91].
18. **Mammographic**, which is a medical dataset used for the prediction of breast cancer [92].
19. **Parkinsons**, which is a medical dataset used for the detection of Parkinson's disease [93,94].
20. **Pima**, which is a medical dataset for the detection of diabetes[95].
21. **Phoneme**, a dataset that contains sound measurements.
22. **Popfailures**, a dataset related to experiments regarding climate [96].
23. **Regions2**, a medical dataset applied to liver problems [97].
24. **Saheart**, which is a medical dataset concerning heart diseases[98].
25. **Segment** dataset [99].
26. **Statheart**, a medical dataset related to heart diseases.
27. **Spiral**, an artificial dataset with two classes.
28. **Student**, which is a dataset regarding experiments in schools [100].
29. **Transfusion**, which is a medical dataset [101].
30. **Wdbc**, which is a medical dataset regarding breast cancer [102,103].
31. **Wine**, a dataset regarding measurements about the quality of wines [104,105].
32. **EEG**, which is dataset regarding EEG recordings [106,107]. From this dataset the following cases were used: Z_F_S, ZO_NF_S, ZONF_S and Z_O_N_F_S.
33. **Zoo**, which is a dataset regarding animal classification [108] .

Moreover a series of regression datasets was adopted in the conducted experiments. The list with the regression datasets has as follows:

1. **Abalone**, which is a dataset about the age of abalones [109].
2. **Airfoil**, a dataset founded in NASA [110].
3. **Auto**, a dataset related to the consumption of fuels from cars.
4. **BK**, which is used to predict the points scored in basketball games.
5. **BL**, a dataset that contains measurements from electricity experiments.
6. **Baseball**, which is a dataset used to predict the income of baseball players.
7. **Concrete**, which is a civil engineering dataset [111].
8. **DEE**, a dataset that is used to predict the price of electricity.
9. **Friedman**, which is an artificial dataset[112].
10. **FY,** which is a dataset regarding the longevity of fruit flies.
11. **HO**, a dataset located in the STATLIB repository.
12. **Housing**, regarding the price of houses [113].
13. **Laser**, which contains measurements from various physics experiments.
14. **LW**, a dataset regarding the weight of babes.
15. **Mortgage**, a dataset that contains measurements from the economy of USA.
16. **PL** dataset, located in the STALIB repository.

17. **Plastic**, a dataset regarding problems occurred with the pressure on plastics.
18. **Quake**, a dataset regarding the measurements of earthquakes.
19. **SN**, a dataset related to trellising and pruning.
20. **Stock**, which is a dataset regarding stocks.
21. **Treasury**, a dataset that contains measurements from the economy of USA.

3.2. Experiments

The software used in the experiment was coded in C++ with the assistance of the freely available Optimus environment [114]. The experiments were conducted 30 times, using different seed for the random generator each time. The validation of the experiments was performed using the method of ten - fold cross validation. The average classification error as calculated on the test is reported for the classification datasets and the average regression error for the regression datasets. The classification error is computed using the following formula:

$$E_C\left(N\left(\vec{x},\vec{w}\right)\right) = 100 \times \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N}\left(\text{class}\left(N\left(\vec{x_i},\vec{w}\right)\right) - y_i\right)}{N} \tag{11}$$

For the calculation of this error, the test set T is a set $T = (x_i, y_i),\ i = 1,\ldots,N$ is used. Similarly, the average regression error is reported for the regression datasets and it is calculated as follows:

$$E_R\left(N\left(\vec{x},\vec{w}\right)\right) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N}\left(N\left(\vec{x_i},\vec{w}\right) - y_i\right)^2}{N} \tag{12}$$

The experimental settings are shown in Table 1. The parameter values have been set so that there is a compromise between the efficiency and speed of the methodologies used when performing the experiments. In the following tables that describe the experimental results the following notation is used:

1. The column DATASET stands for the used dataset.
2. The column ADAM denotes the usage of the ADAM optimization method [115] in order to train a neural network with $H = 10$ processing nodes.
3. The column BFGS stands for the incorporation of a BFGS variant of Powell [116] for the training of an artificial neural network with $H = 10$ processing nodes.
4. The column GENETIC denotes the usage of a Genetic Algorithm with the same parameter set as provided in Table 1 to train a neural network with $H = 10$ processing nodes.
5. The column RBF describes the incorporation of a Radial Basis Function (RBF) network [117,118] with $H = 10$ hidden nodes.
6. The column NNC stands for the usage of the original neural construction method.
7. The column NEAT represents the usage of the NEAT method (NeuroEvolution of Augmenting Topologies) [119].
8. The column PRUNE stands for the the usage of OBS pruning method [120], provided by Fast Compressed Neural Networks library [121].
9. The column PROPOSED denotes the usage of the proposed method.
10. The row AVERAGE represents the average classification or regression error for all datasets in the corresponding table.

Table 1. The values for the parameters of the proposed method.

PARAMETER	MEANING	VALUE
N_c	Chromosomes	500
N_g	Maximum number of generations	500
p_s	Selection rate	0.1
p_m	Mutation rate	0.05
I_w	Number of weights for the first phase	10

In Table 2, classification error rates are presented for a variety of machine learning models applied to different classification datasets. Each row in the table corresponds to a specific dataset, while the columns represent individual methods: ADAM, BFGS, GENETIC, RBF, NEAT, PRUNE, NNC, and PROPOSED. The values indicate error percentages, meaning that lower values correspond to better model performance on each dataset. The final row shows the average error rate for each model, serving as a general indicator of overall performance across all datasets. Based on the analysis of the average errors, it becomes evident that the PROPOSED method achieves the lowest average error rate, with a value of 19.63%. This suggests that it generally outperforms the other methods. It is followed by the NNC model with an average error of 24.79%, which also demonstrates a significantly lower error compared to traditional approaches such as ADAM, BFGS, and GENETIC, whose average error rates are 36.45%, 35.71%, and 28.25% respectively. The PRUNE method also performs relatively well, with a mean error of 27.94%. On an individual dataset level, the PROPOSED method achieves the best performance (i.e., the lowest error) in a considerable number of cases, such as in the CIRCULAR, DERMATOLOGY, SEGMENT, Z_F_S, ZO_NF_S, ZONF_S, and ZOO datasets, where it records the smallest error among all methods. Furthermore, in many of these cases, the performance gap between the PROPOSED method and the others is quite significant, indicating the method's stability and reliability across various data conditions and structures. Some models, including GENETIC, RBF, and NEAT, tend to show relatively high errors in several datasets, which may be due to issues such as overfitting, poor adaptation to non-linear relationships, or generally weaker generalization capabilities. In contrast, the NNC and PRUNE models demonstrate more consistent behavior, while the PROPOSED method maintains not only the lowest overall error but also reliable performance across a wide range of problem types. In summary, the statistical analysis of classification error rates confirms the superiority of the PROPOSED method over the others, both in terms of average performance and the number of datasets in which it excels. This conclusion is further supported by the observation that the PROPOSED method achieves the best results in the majority of datasets, often with significantly lower error rates. Such superiority may be attributed to better adaptability to data characteristics, effective avoidance of overfitting, and, more broadly, a more flexible or advanced algorithmic architecture.

Table 2. Experimental results using a variety of machine learning methods for the classification datasets.

DATASET	ADAM	BFGS	GENETIC	RBF	NEAT	PRUNE	NNC	PROPOSED
APPENDICITIS	16.50%	18.00%	24.40%	12.23%	17.20%	15.97%	14.40%	16.30%
ALCOHOL	57.78%	41.50%	39.57%	49.32%	66.80%	15.75%	37.72%	20.21%
AUSTRALIAN	35.65%	38.13%	32.21%	34.89%	31.98%	43.66%	14.46%	14.68%
BALANCE	12.27%	8.64%	8.97%	33.53%	23.14%	9.00%	23.65%	7.26%
CLEVELAND	67.55%	77.55%	51.60%	67.10%	53.44%	51.48%	50.93%	44.90%
CIRCULAR	19.95%	6.08%	5.99%	5.98%	35.18%	12.76%	12.66%	4.22%
DERMATOLOGY	26.14%	52.92%	30.58%	62.34%	32.43%	9.02%	21.54%	5.92%
ECOLI	64.43%	69.52%	54.67%	59.48%	43.44%	60.32%	49.88%	44.79%
GLASS	61.38%	54.67%	52.86%	50.46%	55.71%	66.19%	56.09%	49.43%
HABERMAN	29.00%	29.34%	28.66%	25.10%	24.04%	29.38%	27.53%	28.57%
HAYES-ROTH	59.70%	37.33%	56.18%	64.36%	50.15%	45.44%	33.69%	30.77%
HEART	38.53%	39.44%	28.34%	31.20%	39.27%	27.21%	15.67%	17.85%
HEARTATTACK	45.55%	46.67%	29.03%	29.00%	32.34%	29.26%	20.87%	20.67%
HOUSEVOTES	7.48%	7.13%	6.62%	6.13%	10.89%	5.81%	3.17%	7.39%
IONOSPHERE	16.64%	15.29%	15.14%	16.22%	19.67%	11.32%	11.29%	13.14%
LIVERDISORDER	41.53%	42.59%	31.11%	30.84%	30.67%	49.72%	32.35%	33.38%
LYMOGRAPHY	39.79%	35.43%	28.42%	25.50%	33.70%	22.02%	25.29%	25.14%
MAMMOGRAPHIC	46.25%	17.24%	19.88%	21.38%	22.85%	38.10%	17.62%	17.77%
PARKINSONS	24.06%	27.58%	18.05%	17.41%	18.56%	22.12%	12.74%	14.05%
PIMA	34.85%	35.59%	32.19%	25.78%	34.51%	35.08%	28.07%	24.34%
POPFAILURES	5.18%	5.24%	5.94%	7.04%	7.05%	4.79%	6.98%	7.19%
REGIONS2	29.85%	36.28%	29.39%	38.29%	33.23%	34.26%	26.18%	25.00%
SAHEART	34.04%	37.48%	34.86%	32.19%	34.51%	37.70%	29.80%	30.11%
SEGMENT	49.75%	68.97%	57.72%	59.68%	66.72%	60.40%	53.50%	9.59%
SPIRAL	47.67%	47.99%	48.66%	44.87%	48.66%	50.38%	48.01%	41.25%
STATHEART	44.04%	39.65%	27.25%	31.36%	44.36%	28.37%	18.08%	20.26%
STUDENT	5.13%	7.14%	5.61%	5.49%	10.20%	10.84%	6.70%	7.18%
TRANSFUSION	25.68%	25.84%	24.87%	26.41%	24.87%	29.35%	25.77%	23.59%
WDBC	35.35%	29.91%	8.56%	7.27%	12.88%	15.48%	7.36%	3.73%
WINE	29.40%	59.71%	19.20%	31.41%	25.43%	16.62%	13.59%	10.41%
Z_F_S	47.81%	39.37%	10.73%	13.16%	38.41%	17.91%	14.53%	6.60%
Z_O_N_F_S	78.79%	65.67%	64.81%	48.70%	77.08%	71.29%	48.62%	49.66%
ZO_NF_S	47.43%	43.04%	21.54%	9.02%	43.75%	15.57%	13.54%	3.94%
ZONF_S	11.99%	15.62%	4.36%	4.03%	5.44%	3.27%	2.64%	2.60%
ZOO	14.13%	10.70%	9.50%	21.93%	20.27%	8.53%	8.70%	5.10%
AVERAGE	**35.75%**	**35.24%**	**27.64%**	**29.97%**	**33.40%**	**28.70%**	**23.82%**	**19.63%**

Table 3 presents the performance of various machine learning methods on regression datasets. In this table, columns represent different algorithms, and rows correspond to datasets. The numerical values shown are absolute errors, indicating the magnitude of deviation from the actual values. Therefore, smaller values signify higher prediction accuracy for the corresponding model. The last row reports the average error for each method across all datasets, offering a general measure of overall performance. According to the overall results, the PROPOSED method exhibits the lowest average error value at 4.83, indicating high accuracy and better overall behavior compared to the other approaches. The second-best performing model is NNC, with an average error of 6.29, which also stands out from the traditional methods. On the other hand, ADAM and BFGS show significantly higher error rates, at 22.46 and 30.29 respectively, suggesting that these methods may not adapt well to the specific characteristics of the regression problems evaluated. At the individual dataset level, the PROPOSED method achieves notably low error values across multiple datasets, including AIRFOIL, CONCRETE, LASER, PL, PLASTIC, and STOCK, outperforming other algorithms by a considerable margin. Its consistent performance across such diverse problems suggests that it is a flexible and reliable approach. Furthermore, the fact that it also performs strongly on more complex datasets with high variability in error—such as AUTO and BASEBALL—strengthens the impression that the method adapts effectively to varying data structures. By comparison, algorithms such as GENETIC and RBF exhibit less stable behavior, showing good performance in some datasets but poor results in others, resulting in a higher overall average error. The PRUNE method, although

not a traditional algorithm, shows moderate performance overall, while NEAT does not appear to stand out in any particular dataset and also maintains a relatively high average error. In conclusion, the analysis indicates that the PROPOSED method clearly excels in predictive accuracy, both on average and across a large number of individual datasets. Its ability to minimize error across different types of problems makes it a particularly promising option for regression tasks involving heterogeneous data.

Table 3. Experimental results using a variety of machine learning methods on the regression datasets.

DATASET	ADAM	BFGS	GENETIC	RBF	NEAT	PRUNE	NNC	PROPOSED
ABALONE	4.30	5.69	7.17	7.37	9.88	7.88	5.08	4.41
AIRFOIL	0.005	0.003	0.003	0.27	0.067	0.002	0.004	0.001
AUTO	70.84	60.97	12.18	17.87	56.06	75.59	17.13	11.73
BK	0.0252	0.28	0.027	0.02	0.15	0.027	0.10	0.058
BL	0.622	2.55	5.74	0.013	0.05	0.027	1.19	0.13
BASEBALL	77.90	119.63	103.60	93.02	100.39	94.50	61.57	60.42
CONCRETE	0.078	0.066	0.0099	0.011	0.081	0.0077	0.008	0.004
DEE	0.63	2.36	1.013	0.17	1.512	1.08	0.26	0.26
FRIEDMAN	22.90	1.263	1.249	7.23	19.35	8.69	6.29	1.25
FY	0.038	0.19	0.65	0.041	0.08	0.042	0.11	0.13
HO	0.035	0.62	2.78	0.03	0.169	0.03	0.015	0.073
HOUSING	80.99	97.38	43.26	57.68	56.49	52.25	25.47	15.96
LASER	0.03	0.015	0.59	0.03	0.084	0.007	0.025	0.004
LW	0.028	2.98	1.90	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.011	0.32
MORTGAGE	9.24	8.23	2.41	1.45	14.11	12.96	0.30	0.15
PL	0.117	0.29	0.29	2.118	0.09	0.032	0.047	0.021
PLASTIC	11.71	20.32	2.791	8.62	20.77	17.33	4.20	2.15
QUAKE	0.07	0.42	0.04	0.07	0.298	0.04	0.96	0.061
SN	0.026	0.40	2.95	0.027	0.174	0.032	0.026	0.10
STOCK	180.89	302.43	3.88	12.23	12.23	39.08	8.92	3.96
TREASURY	11.16	9.91	2.93	2.02	15.52	13.76	0.43	0.25
AVERAGE	**22.46**	**30.29**	**9.31**	**10.02**	**14.65**	**15.40**	**6.29**	**4.83**

To determine the significance levels of the experimental results presented in the classification dataset tables, statistical analyses were conducted. Exclusively, the non-parametric, paired Wilcoxon signed-rank test was used to assess the statistical significance of the differences between the proposed method and the other methods, as well as for hyperparameter comparisons in both classification and regression tasks. These analyses were based on the critical parameter "p", which is used to assess the statistical significance of performance differences between models. As shown in Figure 5, the differences in performance between the PROPOSED model and all other models namely ADAM, BFGS, GENETIC, RBF, NEAT, and PRUNE are extremely statistically significant with $p < 0.0001$. This indicates, with a high level of confidence, that the PROPOSED model outperforms the rest in classification accuracy. Even the comparison with NNC, which is the model with the closest average performance, showed a statistically significant difference with $p < 0.05$. This confirms that the superiority of the PROPOSED model is not due to random variation but is statistically sound and consistent. Therefore, the PROPOSED model can be confidently considered the best choice among the evaluated models for classification tasks, based on the experimental data and corresponding statistical analysis.

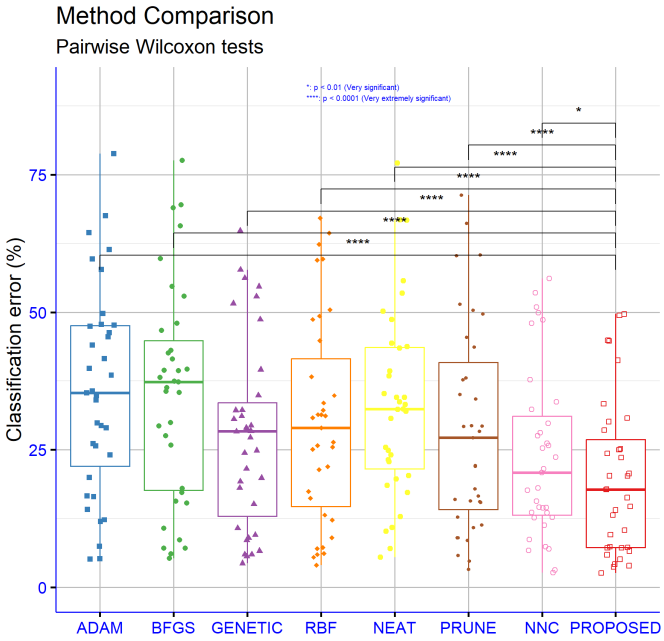

Figure 5. Statistical analysis of the results obtained by various techniques for the classification datasets.

From the analysis of the results presented in Figure 6, it is evident that the performance difference between the PROPOSED model and BFGS is extremely significant ($p < 0.0001$), clearly indicating the superiority of the PROPOSED model. Similarly, the comparisons with GENETIC and NEAT show very high statistical significance ($p < 0.001$), confirming that the PROPOSED model achieves clearly better results. The difference with NNC, though smaller, remains significant ($p < 0.01$), showing that even in comparison with one of the best-performing alternative models, the PROPOSED model still outperforms. The differences with ADAM, RBF, and PRUNE are statistically significant at the $p < 0.05$ level, suggesting a noteworthy advantage of the PROPOSED model in these cases as well, albeit with a lower confidence level. Overall, the statistical analysis of the regression dataset results confirms the overall superiority of the PROPOSED model, not only in terms of average prediction accuracy but also in the consistency of its performance compared to the alternative approaches.

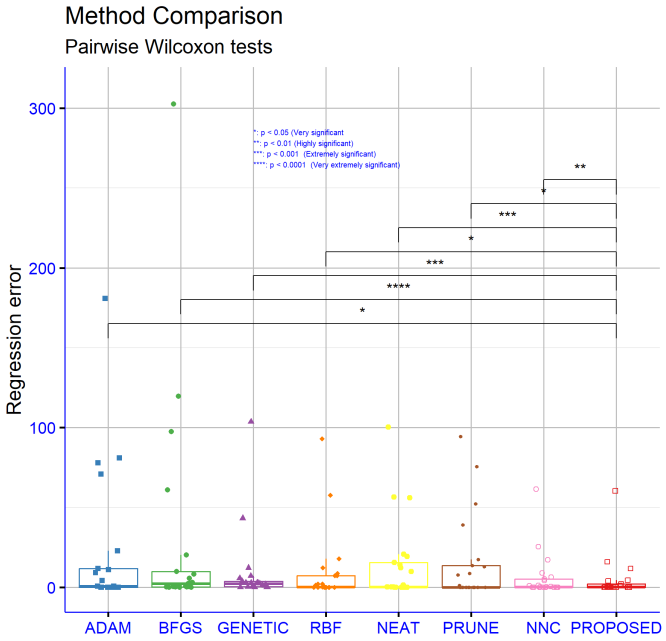

Figure 6. Statistical analysis for the results obtained by the used techniques on the regression datasets.

3.3. Experiments with the weight factor I_w

An additional experiment was conducted, where the initial weight parameter I_w, used in the first phase of the current work was altered from 2 to 10. The purpose of this experiment is to determine the stability of the proposed procedure to changes in this critical parameter.

Table 4 presents the error rates of the proposed machine learning model on various classification datasets, considering four different values of the parameter I_w (initialization factor): 2, 3, 5, and 10. The recorded values correspond to error percentages for each dataset, while the last row of the table includes the average error rate for each parameter value. Analyzing the data, it is observed that the value $I_w = 10$ exhibits the lowest average error rate (19.63%), followed by $I_w = 5$ (19.89%). The values $I_w = 2$ and $I_w = 3$ have slightly higher averages, 20.32% and 20.33% respectively. The difference between the averages is relatively small, a fact suggesting that the parameter I_w does not dramatically affect the model's performance; however, the gradual decrease in average error with increasing parameter value may indicate a trend of improvement.

Table 4. Experimental results using the proposed method and different values for the parameter I_w, which defines the number of parameters for the initial phase of the method. The experiments were conducted on the classification datasets.

DATASET	$I_w = 2$	$I_w = 3$	$I_w = 5$	$I_w = 10$
APPENDICITIS	15.03%	15.67%	17.93%	16.30%
ALCOHOL	21.11%	25.63%	22.20%	20.21%
AUSTRALIAN	13.93%	14.01%	14.06%	14.68%
BALANCE	8.71%	8.91%	8.61%	7.26%
CLEVELAND	42.09%	42.24%	43.60%	44.90%
CIRCULAR	14.71%	6.93%	4.11%	4.22%
DERMATOLOGY	9.09%	6.78%	6.78%	5.92%
ECOLI	48.21%	56.21%	50.12%	44.79%
GLASS	54.76%	54.51%	52.40%	49.43%
HABERMAN	30.31%	29.11%	28.82%	28.57%
HAYES-ROTH	27.74%	31.31%	28.90%	30.77%
HEART	15.00%	15.32%	15.69%	17.85%
HEARTATTACK	18.61%	18.72%	19.17%	20.67%
HOUSEVOTES	5.80%	6.83%	6.88%	7.39%
IONOSPHERE	11.58%	15.16%	15.88%	13.14%
LIVERDISORDER	31.12%	31.70%	31.89%	33.38%
LYMOGRAPHY	21.76%	23.83%	26.84%	25.14%
MAMMOGRAPHIC	16.33%	16.49%	16.72%	17.77%
PARKINSONS	13.33%	13.47%	13.97%	14.05%
PIMA	23.57%	23.82%	23.76%	24.34%
POPFAILURES	4.98%	5.51%	7.11%	7.19%
REGIONS2	24.63%	25.10%	25.58%	25.00%
SAHEART	29.41%	29.27%	30.48%	30.11%
SEGMENT	39.10%	24.74%	15.17%	9.59%
SPIRAL	47.10%	43.25%	42.66%	41.25%
STATHEART	18.06%	19.12%	19.01%	20.26%
STUDENT	3.73%	4.00%	4.54%	7.18%
TRANSFUSION	24.81%	24.38%	24.28%	23.59%
WDBC	3.25%	3.40%	3.60%	3.73%
WINE	9.08%	8.94%	9.37%	10.41%
Z_F_S	5.43%	5.53%	5.89%	6.60%
Z_O_N_F_S	48.60%	49.67%	48.79%	49.66%
ZO_NF_S	3.30%	3.11%	3.52%	3.94%
ZONF_S	1.97%	2.06%	2.24%	2.60%
ZOO	5.13%	6.57%	5.63%	5.10%
AVERAGE	**20.32%**	**20.33%**	**19.89%**	**19.63%**

In individual datasets, small variations are observed depending on the setting. In some cases, such as SEGMENT and CIRCULAR, increasing the parameter value leads to noticeably better results. For example, in SEGMENT the error rate decreases from 39.10% for $I_w = 2$ to only 9.59% for $I_w = 10$. A similar improvement is observed in CIRCULAR, where the error decreases from 14.71% to 4.22%. Conversely, in other datasets the variation in values is smaller or negligible, and in some cases, such as ECOLI and CLEVELAND, higher I_w values lead to slightly increased error. Overall, the statistical analysis shows that although no statistically significant differences are observed between the different parameter values, in accordance with the p-values from previous analyses, there is nevertheless an indication that higher values of I_w, such as 10, are associated with slightly improved average performance and better results in certain datasets. This trend may be interpreted as an indication that a higher initialization factor might allow the model to start from more favourable learning conditions, particularly in datasets with greater complexity. However, because the variation is not systematic across all datasets, the selection of the I_w value should be done carefully and in relation to the characteristics of each specific problem.

In Table 5, a general trend of decreasing average error is observed as the value of the initialization factor I_w increases. The average drops from 6.08 (for $I_w = 2$) to 5.48 ($I_w = 3$), 5.24 ($I_w = 5$), and finally 4.83 ($I_w = 10$). This sequential decrease suggests that higher values of I_w tend to improve the model's overall performance. However, the effect is not

uniform across all datasets. In some cases, the improvement is striking: in AUTO the error decreases from 17.16 ($I_w = 2$) to 11.73 ($I_w = 10$), in HOUSING it reduces from 27.19 to 15.96, and in FRIEDMAN the most noticeable improvement is recorded from 6.49 to 1.25. Additionally, in STOCK a significant drop from 8.79 to 3.96 is observed. Conversely, in some datasets performance deteriorates with increasing I_w: in BASEBALL the error increases from 59.05 ($I_w = 2$) to 60.42 ($I_w = 10$) and in LW from 0.11 to 0.32. In other datasets, such as AIRFOIL, LASER, and PL, differences are minimal and practically negligible, with values remaining very close for all I_w parameters. For example, in AIRFOIL all values are around 0.002, while in PL the difference between values is merely 0.001. This heterogeneity in the response of different datasets underscores that the optimal value of I_w depends significantly on the specific characteristics of each problem. Despite the general improving trend with higher I_w values, notable exceptions like BASEBALL and LW confirm that there is no global optimal setting suitable for all regression problems.

Table 5. Experimental results using the proposed method and different values for the parameter I_w, which is used for the number of parameters for the initial phase of the method. The experiments were performed on the regression datasets.

DATASET	$I_w = 2$	$I_w = 3$	$I_w = 5$	$I_w = 10$
ABALONE	4.49	4.40	4.33	4.41
AIRFOIL	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.001
AUTO	17.16	16.14	14.55	11.73
BK	0.13	0.18	0.12	0.058
BL	0.005	0.19	0.14	0.13
BASEBALL	59.05	52.43	54.83	60.42
CONCRETE	0.005	0.004	0.003	0.004
DEE	0.27	0.26	0.26	0.26
FRIEDMAN	6.49	4.56	1.96	1.25
FY	0.07	0.12	0.26	0.13
HO	0.03	0.02	0.08	0.073
HOUSING	27.19	25.53	21.47	15.96
LASER	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.004
LW	0.11	0.09	0.14	0.32
MORTGAGE	0.25	0.25	0.19	0.15
PL	0.022	0.021	0.021	0.021
PLASTIC	3.17	2.33	2.18	2.15
QUAKE	0.043	0.045	0.049	0.061
SN	0.03	0.04	0.06	0.10
STOCK	8.79	8.15	8.91	3.96
TREASURY	0.39	0.40	0.38	0.25
AVERAGE	**6.08**	**5.48**	**5.24**	**4.83**

Figure 7 presents the significance levels for the comparison of different values of the I_w (Initial weights) parameter in classification datasets. The comparisons include the pairs $I_w = 2$ vs $I_w = 3$, $I_w = 3$ vs $I_w = 5$, and $I_w = 5$ vs $I_w = 10$. In all cases, the p-values are greater than 0.05, indicating that the differences between the respective settings are not statistically significant. This implies that varying the I_w parameter across these specific values does not substantially affect the model's performance in classification tasks, and thus, no significant changes in outcomes are observed due to this parameter.

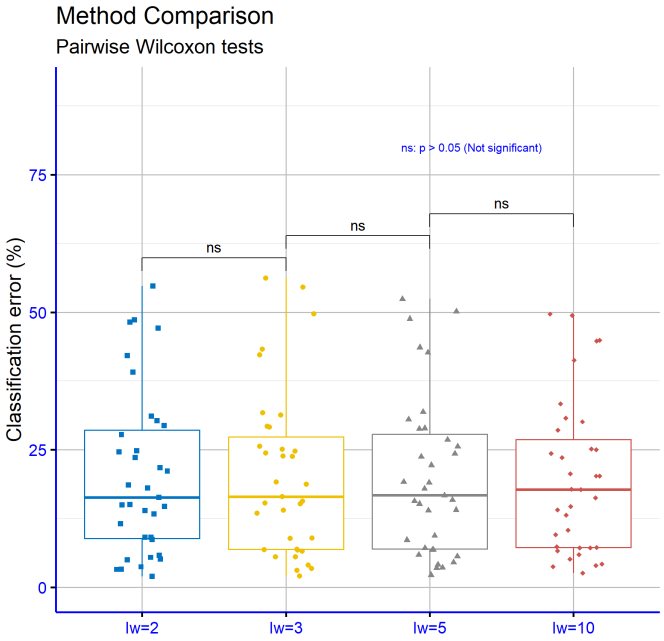

Figure 7. Statistical comparison for the results obtained by the proposed method and the series of values for I_w parameter on the classification datasets.

In Figure 8, the statistical evaluation focuses on how different initial weight settings (I_w) affect performance in regression tasks. The comparisons between the values $I_w = 2$, $I_w = 3$, $I_w = 5$, and $I_w = 10$ revealed no significant variations, as all corresponding p-values were found to be greater than 0.05. This outcome suggests that altering the I_w parameter within this range does not lead to measurable differences in the models' predictive behavior. The results imply that model accuracy remains stable regardless of these specific I_w configurations in regression scenarios.

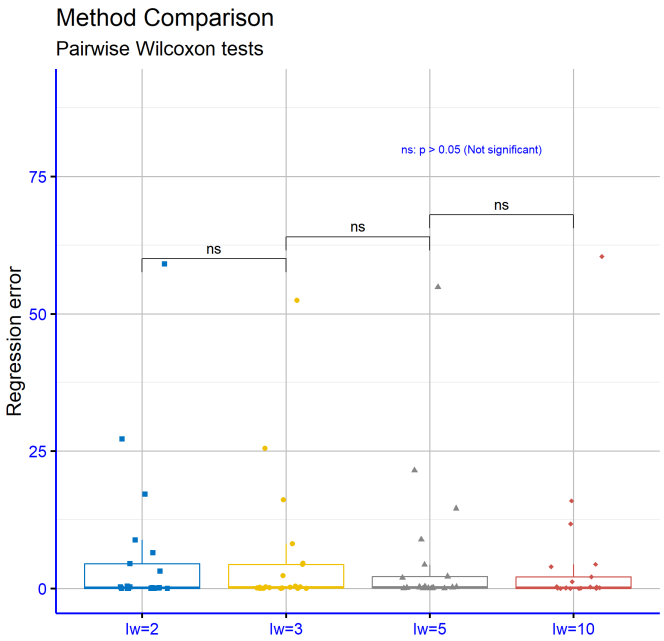

Figure 8. Statistical comparison for the results obtained by the proposed method on the regression datasets, using a variety of values for the parameter I_w.

A comparison in terms of precision and recall between the original neural network construction method and the proposed one is outlined in Figure 9.

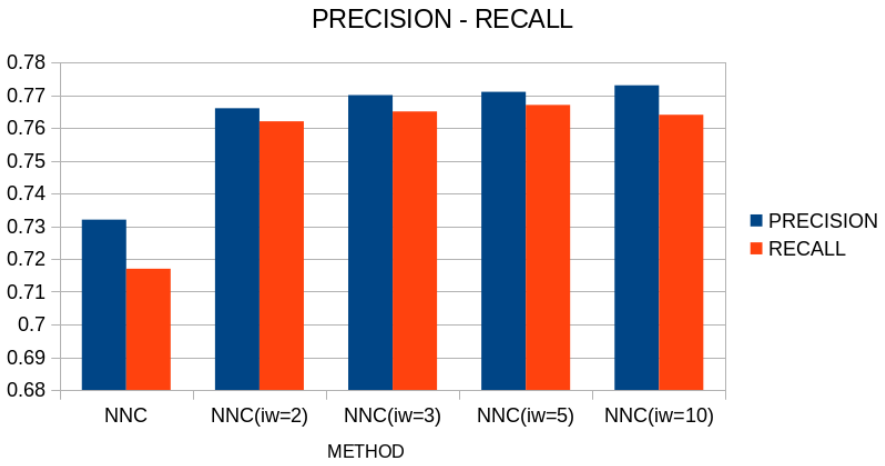

Figure 9. Comparison in terms of precision and recall between the original neural network construction method and the proposed one. In the experiments the following values for the critical parameter I_w were used: 2,3,5 and 10.

As can be clearly seen from this figure, the proposed technique significantly improves the performance of the artificial neural network construction method on classification data, achieving high rates of correct data classification.

Although the proposed technique appears to be more efficient than the original one, the addition of the first processing phase results in a significant increase in execution time, as also demonstrated in Figure 10.

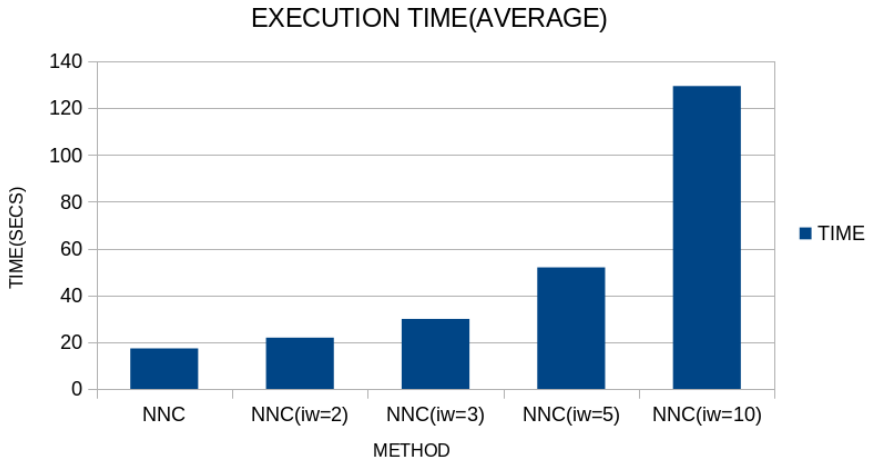

Figure 10. Average execution time for the classification datasets using the original neural network construction method and the proposed one with different values of the critical factor I_w.

It is clear that there is a significant increase in execution time, as more units are added to the initial neural network of the first phase, and in fact this time increases significantly between the values $I_w = 5$ and $I_w = 10$.

3.4. Some real world examples

As real world examples with many instances consider the the PIRvision dataset, initially discussed in 2023 [122] and the Beed dataset presented in the work of Banu [123].

This PIRvision dataset contains occupancy detection data that was collected from a Synchronized Low-Energy Electronically-chopped Passive Infra-Red sensing node in residential and office environments. The dataset contains 15302 patterns and the dimension of each pattern is 59. The Beed dataset (Bangalore EEG Epilepsy Dataset) is a comprehensive EEG collection for epileptic seizure detection and classification and contains 8000 patterns and each pattern has 16 features. In the conducted experiments the following methods were used:

1. BFGS, that defines the BFGS method incorporated to train a neural network with $H = 10$ processing nodes.
2. GENETIC, which is used to represent a genetic algorithm used to train a neural network with $H = 10$ processing nodes.
3. NNC, that represents the initial neural network construction method.
4. The proposed method with the following values for I_w parameter: $I_w = 2$, $I_w = 3$, $I_w = 5$ and $I_w = 10$.

The results were validated using the ten - fold cross validation method. For the PIRVision datasets the results are depicted in Figure 11.

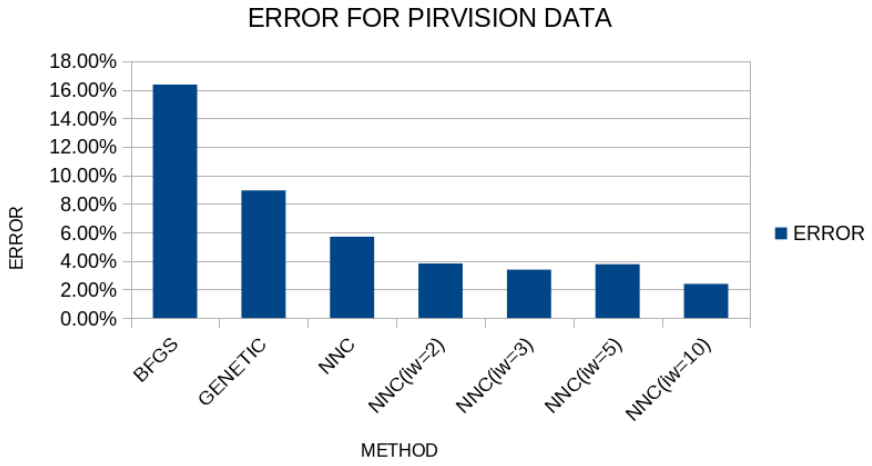

Figure 11. Results obtained for the PIRvision dataset, using a variety of methods and the proposed one. The numbers in the graph indicate average classification error as measured on the test set.

As is evident from the specific results, the artificial neural network construction technique significantly outperforms the others and in fact the proposed procedure significantly improves the results, especially in the case where the parameter I_w takes the value 10, where the average classification error reaches approximately 2%.

The results for the BEED dataset are outlined in Figure 12.

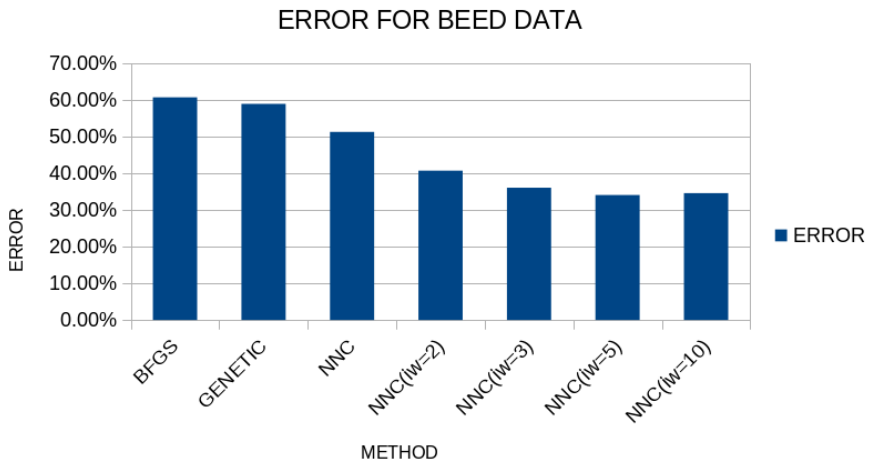

Figure 12. Results obtained for the BEED dataset. The numbers in the graph indicate average classification error as measured on the test set.

And in this case, the proposed method significantly reduces the data classification error compared to a simple genetic algorithm or compared to the original method of constructing artificial neural networks.

3.5. Experiments with the number of chromosomes N_c

Additionally, another experiment was conducted using the proposed method and a range of values for the critical parameter N_c, which represents the number of used chromosomes. Table 6 presents the classification error rates of the proposed machine learning method across various datasets, for four different values of N_c, which corresponds to the number of chromosomes used in the evolutionary process. It is observed that, in a large proportion of datasets, an increase in N_c is accompanied by a reduction in the error rate, indicating that a greater diversity of initial solutions can lead to better final performance. In certain datasets, such as DERMATOLOGY, ECOLI, SEGMENT, and Z_F_S, the improvement is particularly evident at higher N_c values, whereas in others, such as AUSTRALIAN, HEART, and MAMMOGRAPHIC, the change is small or nonexistent, suggesting that performance in these cases is less sensitive to an increase in the number of chromosomes. There are also instances where increasing N_c does not lead to improvement but rather to a slight increase in error, as in GLASS and CIRCULAR, a phenomenon that may be due to overfitting or random variation in performance. The mean percentage error gradually decreases from 21.40% for $N_c = 50$ to 19.63% for $N_c = 500$, confirming the general trend of improvement with increasing N_c, although the benefit from very large values appears to diminish, possibly indicating saturation in the model's ability to exploit the additional diversity. Overall, the statistical picture shows that increasing the number of chromosomes contributes to reducing the error, but the degree of benefit depends on the characteristics of each dataset.

Table 6. Experimental results using the proposed method and different values for the parameter N_c, which indicates the number of chromosomes used in the genetic algorithm. . The experiments were conducted on the classification datasets.

DATASET	$N_c = 50$	$N_c = 100$	$N_c = 200$	$N_c = 500$
APPENDICITIS	20.80%	20.50%	18.50%	16.30%
ALCOHOL	24.74%	28.47%	20.85%	20.21%
AUSTRALIAN	14.26%	14.40%	14.68%	14.68%
BALANCE	7.71%	7.79%	6.82%	7.26%
CLEVELAND	45.03%	43.86%	44.42%	44.90%
CIRCULAR	4.67%	4.02%	4.08%	4.22%
DERMATOLOGY	10.26%	7.71%	6.11%	5.92%
ECOLI	54.70%	49.30%	44.18%	44.79%
GLASS	50.48%	52.33%	49.62%	49.43%
HABERMAN	29.57%	29.40%	29.10%	28.57%
HAYES-ROTH	32.47%	31.16%	31.62%	30.77%
HEART	18.34%	17.63%	17.85%	17.85%
HEARTATTACK	20.07%	21.00%	20.67%	20.67%
HOUSEVOTES	7.09%	8.22%	7.44%	7.39%
IONOSPHERE	16.91%	16.69%	15.79%	13.14%
LIVERDISORDER	33.77%	32.06%	33.50%	33.38%
LYMOGRAPHY	25.36%	24.86%	25.72%	25.14%
MAMMOGRAPHIC	17.23%	17.67%	17.81%	17.77%
PARKINSONS	13.37%	15.53%	14.95%	14.05%
PIMA	25.82%	24.64%	24.50%	24.34%
POPFAILURES	7.74%	7.39%	7.17%	7.19%
REGIONS2	28.53%	27.29%	25.78%	25.00%
SAHEART	31.70%	30.74%	30.15%	30.11%
SEGMENT	16.29%	12.16%	9.08%	9.59%
SPIRAL	41.93%	42.04%	41.19%	41.25%
STATHEART	20.30%	19.67%	21.15%	20.26%
STUDENT	6.73%	7.25%	7.13%	7.18%
TRANSFUSION	25.15%	23.86%	23.69%	23.59%
WDBC	4.14%	4.16%	3.73%	3.73%
WINE	10.06%	10.65%	11.00%	10.41%
Z_F_S	12.73%	6.70%	6.27%	6.60%
Z_O_N_F_S	53.26%	55.78%	51.14%	49.66%
ZO_NF_S	8.12%	3.98%	3.66%	3.94%
ZONF_S	2.70%	2.64%	2.66%	2.60%
ZOO	6.90%	6.80%	4.80%	5.10%
AVERAGE	**21.40%**	**20.81%**	**19.91%**	**19.63%**

Table 7 presents the absolute prediction errors of the proposed machine learning method across various regression datasets, for four different values of N_c, which represents the number of chromosomes in the evolutionary process. The general trend observed is a reduction in error as N_c increases, suggesting that greater solution diversity leads to more accurate predictions. This is particularly evident in datasets such as AUTO, BL, HOUSING, STOCK, and TREASURY, where the difference between $N_c = 50$ and $N_c = 500$ is substantial. In some datasets, such as ABALONE, AIRFOIL, CONCRETE, and LASER, the values remain almost unchanged regardless of N_c, indicating that performance in these cases is less dependent on the number of chromosomes. There are also cases with non-monotonic behavior, such as BK and LW, where increasing N_c does not necessarily lead to a consistent reduction in error, possibly due to stochastic factors or overfitting. The mean error steadily decreases from 5.78 for $N_c = 50$ to 4.83 for $N_c = 500$, reinforcing the overall picture of improvement, although the difference between the two largest N_c values is smaller, which may indicate that the benefit of increasing N_c begins to saturate. Overall, the statistical analysis shows that increasing the number of chromosomes improves the accuracy of the method, with the magnitude of the benefit depending on the specific characteristics of each dataset.

Table 7. Experimental results using the proposed method and different values for the parameter N_c, used to represent the number of chromosomes in the genetic population. The experiments were performed on the regression datasets.

DATASET	$N_c = 50$	$N_c = 100$	$N_c = 200$	$N_c = 500$
ABALONE	4.35	4.38	4.34	4.41
AIRFOIL	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
AUTO	18.99	16.57	11.25	11.73
BK	0.044	0.344	0.14	0.058
BL	0.81	0.77	0.45	0.13
BASEBALL	62.38	63.29	68.56	60.42
CONCRETE	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.004
DEE	0.33	0.33	0.28	0.26
FRIEDMAN	1.24	1.24	1.23	1.25
FY	0.33	0.21	0.26	0.13
HO	0.046	0.10	0.22	0.073
HOUSING	21.71	22.05	15.97	15.96
LASER	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.004
LW	0.30	0.31	0.68	0.32
MORTGAGE	0.36	0.20	0.16	0.15
PL	0.027	0.021	0.021	0.021
PLASTIC	2.92	2.18	2.11	2.15
QUAKE	0.076	0.065	0.059	0.061
SN	0.30	0.19	0.14	0.10
STOCK	6.69	5.23	4.66	3.96
TREASURY	0.56	0.53	0.30	0.25
AVERAGE	**5.78**	**5.62**	**5.28**	**4.83**

Figure 13 presents the significance levels resulting from the comparisons of classification error rates across datasets for the proposed machine learning method. The comparison between $N_c = 50$ and $N_c = 100$ shows no significant difference (p=ns), indicating that increasing the number of chromosomes from 50 to 100 does not lead to a substantial improvement. In contrast, the transition from $N_c = 100$ to $N_c = 200$ shows a statistically significant improvement (p=**), while the increase from $N_c = 200$ to $N_c = 500$ is also accompanied by a significant difference (p=*), albeit of lower magnitude. These results suggest that higher N_c values can improve performance, with the significance being more pronounced in the mid-range N_c values.

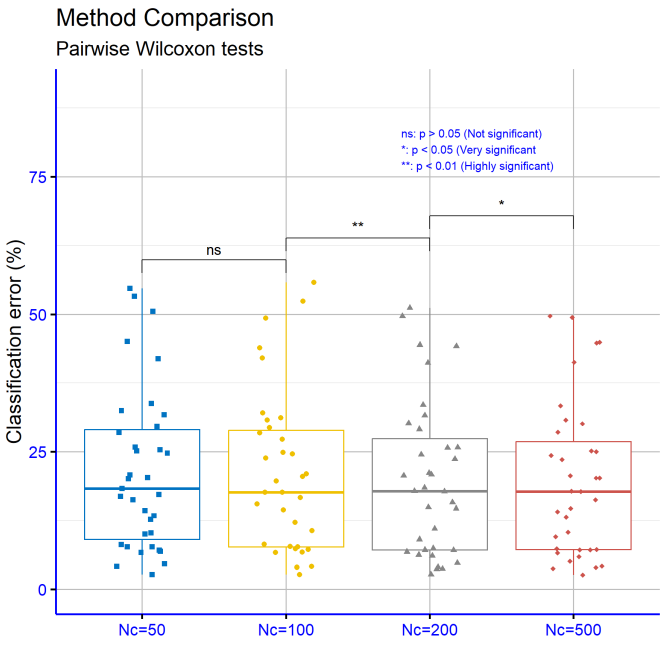

Figure 13. Statistical comparison for the results obtained by the application of the proposed method on the classification datasets using a range of values for the parameter N_c.

Figure 14 presents the significance levels resulting from the comparisons of prediction errors across regression datasets for the proposed machine learning method. In all three comparisons between $N_c = 50$ and $N_c = 100$, $N_c = 100$ and $N_c = 200$, as well as $N_c = 200$ and $N_c = 500$ the p-value is non-significant (p=ns), indicating that increasing the number of chromosomes does not lead to a statistically significant change in the model's performance on these datasets.

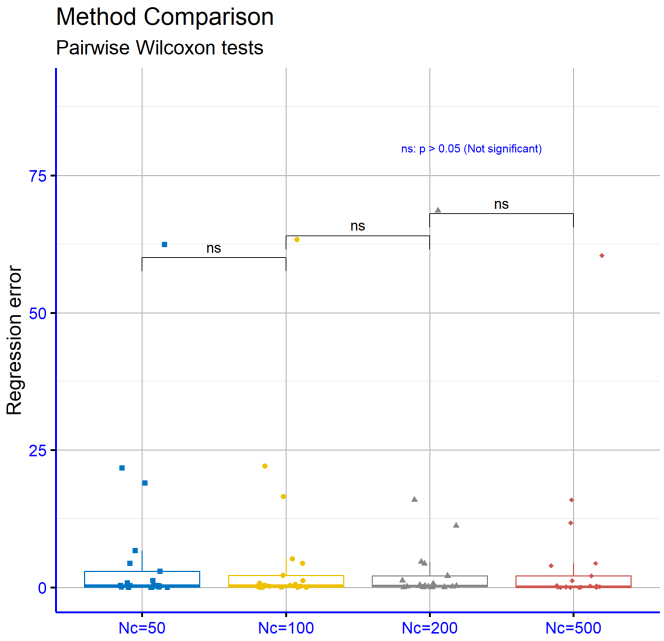

Figure 14. Statistical comparison for the results obtained by the application of the proposed method to the regression datasets using a variety of values for the number of chromosomes N_c.

3.6. Comparison with a previous work

Recently, an improved version of the constructed neural networks was published with the addition of a periodical application of a local optimization procedure [124]. In this work a local optimization procedure is applied to randomly selected chromosomes by maintaining the architecture obtained by the neural network construction procedure. In the following tables this method is denoted as INNC and a comparison is made against the original neural network construction procedure (denoted as NNC) and the proposed method (denoted as PROPOSED).

In Table 8, the comparison of mean error rates shows that the proposed method achieves the lowest average error rate, 19.63%, compared to 20.92% for INNC and 23.82% for NNC, indicating an overall improvement in performance. In several datasets, such as ALCOHOL, BALANCE, CIRCULAR, DERMATOLOGY, GLASS, SEGMENT, and ZO_NF_S, the proposed method clearly outperforms the others, recording substantially lower error rates than the two comparative models. However, in certain cases, such as HABERMAN, HEART, HOUSEVOTES, and IONOSPHERE, the proposed method shows slightly higher error than the best-performing of the other two models, suggesting that its superiority is not universal. There are also instances of equivalent or marginal differences, such as in LYMOGRAPHY and ZONF_S, where the performances of all three methods are very close. The overall trend indicates that the proposed method often achieves a significant reduction in error, with improvements being more pronounced in datasets with higher complexity or diversity in classes.

Table 8. Experimental results using the constructed neural networks and the two variations for the classification datasets.

DATASET	NNC	INNC	PROPOSED
APPENDICITIS	14.40%	14.70%	16.30%
ALCOHOL	37.72%	29.79%	20.21%
AUSTRALIAN	14.46%	14.80%	14.68%
BALANCE	23.65%	8.66%	7.26%
CLEVELAND	50.93%	47.93%	44.90%
CIRCULAR	12.66%	5.32%	4.22%
DERMATOLOGY	21.54%	20.89%	5.92%
ECOLI	49.88%	48.21%	44.79%
GLASS	56.09%	54.24%	49.43%
HABERMAN	27.53%	26.70%	28.57%
HAYES-ROTH	33.69%	31.77%	30.77%
HEART	15.67%	14.74%	17.85%
HEARTATTACK	20.87%	20.43%	20.67%
HOUSEVOTES	3.17%	3.26%	7.39%
IONOSPHERE	11.29%	11.92%	13.14%
LIVERDISORDER	32.35%	31.77%	33.38%
LYMOGRAPHY	25.29%	25.29%	25.14%
MAMMOGRAPHIC	17.62%	15.81%	17.77%
PARKINSONS	12.74%	12.53%	14.05%
PIMA	28.07%	24.00%	24.34%
POPFAILURES	6.98%	6.44%	7.19%
REGIONS2	26.18%	23.18%	25.00%
SAHEART	29.80%	28.09%	30.11%
SEGMENT	53.50%	43.12%	9.59%
SPIRAL	48.01%	43.99%	41.25%
STATHEART	18.08%	18.67%	20.26%
STUDENT	6.70%	4.55%	7.18%
TRANSFUSION	25.77%	23.43%	23.59%
WDBC	7.36%	4.41%	3.73%
WINE	13.59%	9.77%	10.41%
Z_F_S	14.53%	8.53%	6.60%
Z_O_N_F_S	48.62%	38.58%	49.66%
ZO_NF_S	13.54%	6.84%	3.94%
ZONF_S	2.64%	2.52%	2.60%
ZOO	8.70%	7.20%	5.10%
AVERAGE	**23.82%**	**20.92%**	**19.63%**

In Table 9, the comparison of mean errors shows that INNC has the lowest average value (4.47), followed by the proposed method (4.83) and NNC (6.29), indicating that the proposed method demonstrates an overall improvement over NNC but falls slightly short of INNC. In several datasets, such as AIRFOIL, CONCRETE, LASER, PL, PLASTIC, and STOCK, the proposed method achieves the lowest or highly competitive error values, showing clear improvement over NNC and, in some cases, over INNC as well. However, in certain cases, such as AUTO, BASEBALL, FRIEDMAN, LW, and SN, INNC outperforms with lower errors, while there are also instances where NNC achieves better performance than the proposed method, such as in DEE and FY, although the differences are small. The overall picture indicates that the proposed method can achieve significant improvement in specific regression problems, but its superiority is not universal, with its performance depending on the characteristics of each dataset.

Table 9. Experimental results using the constructed neural networks and the two variations on the regression datasets.

DATASET	NNC	INNC	PROPOSED
ABALONE	5.08	4.33	4.41
AIRFOIL	0.004	0.002	0.001
AUTO	17.13	11.01	11.73
BK	0.10	0.07	0.058
BL	1.19	0.002	0.13
BASEBALL	61.57	48.42	60.42
CONCRETE	0.008	0.005	0.004
DEE	0.26	0.23	0.26
FRIEDMAN	6.29	4.88	1.25
FY	0.11	0.042	0.13
HO	0.015	0.01	0.073
HOUSING	25.47	16.01	15.96
LASER	0.025	0.006	0.004
LW	0.011	0.012	0.32
MORTGAGE	0.30	0.026	0.15
PL	0.047	0.022	0.021
PLASTIC	4.20	2.25	2.15
QUAKE	0.96	0.04	0.061
SN	0.026	0.026	0.10
STOCK	8.92	6.33	3.96
TREASURY	0.43	0.066	0.25
AVERAGE	**6.29**	**4.47**	**4.83**

Figure 15 presents the significance levels resulting from the comparisons of error rates on classification datasets for the proposed machine learning method in relation to the NNC and INNC models. The comparison between NNC and INNC shows extremely high statistical significance (p=**), indicating a clear superiority of INNC. The comparison between NNC and the proposed method also shows a statistically significant difference (p=), indicating that the proposed method outperforms NNC. In contrast, the comparison between INNC and the proposed method does not show a statistically significant difference (p=ns), suggesting that the two methods perform similarly on these datasets.

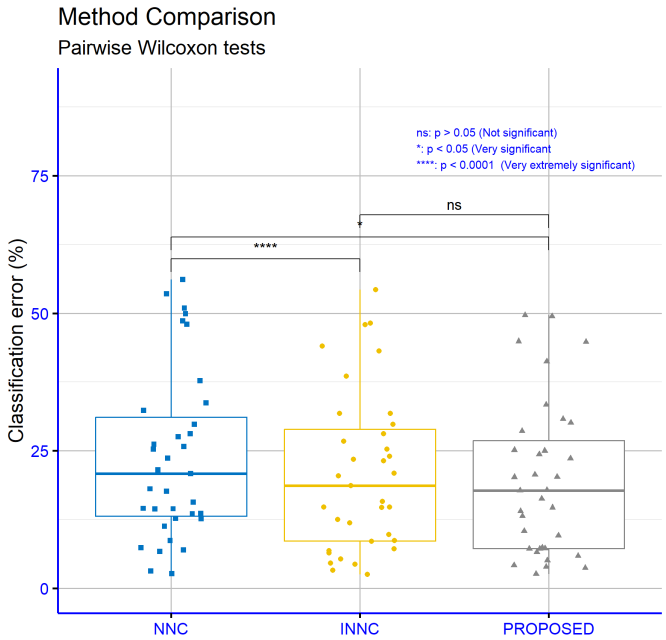

Figure 15. Statistical comparison for the experimental results on the classification datasets using the original neural construction method and the two variations.

Figure 16 presents the significance levels from the comparisons of error rates on classification datasets for the proposed machine learning method in relation to the NNC and INNC models. The comparison between NNC and INNC shows high statistical significance (p=*), indicating a clear superiority of INNC. The comparison between NNC and the proposed method also shows a statistically significant difference (p=), demonstrating the improvement of the proposed method over NNC. In contrast, the comparison between INNC and the proposed method does not show a statistically significant difference (p=ns), indicating that the two methods have comparable performance on these datasets.

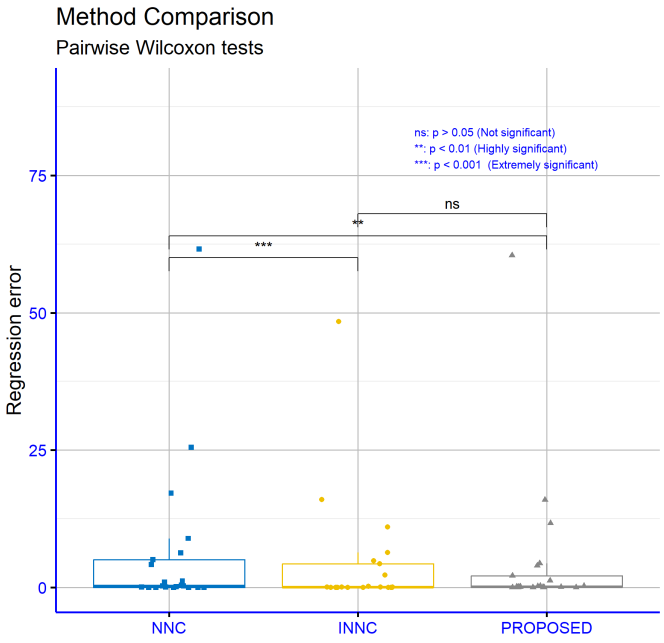

Figure 16. Statistical comparison for the results obtained by the proposed method and the two variations on the regression datasets,

Also, should be noted that the INNC method requires significant more time than the proposed method, since it applies several applications of the local search procedure on randomly selected chromosomes.

4. Conclusions

This study clearly demonstrates the importance of integrating a preliminary training phase into the grammar-based evolution framework for constructing artificial neural networks. The role of this pretraining phase extends far beyond merely initializing the solution space. It effectively enhances the quality of the initial population by transferring information from a previously trained neural network, resulting in a better-informed starting point for the evolutionary process. This enriched initialization improves convergence rates and reduces the risk of stagnation in local minima, especially in complex, non-linear, or noisy problem domains.

Experimental findings show that the proposed approach not only achieves improved numerical performance metrics but also exhibits increased consistency across diverse datasets. Unlike many conventional methods that are often sensitive to the nature of the data and prone to high variability in performance, the proposed model demonstrates both robustness and generalization capability. This makes it a strong candidate for applications in high-stakes or real-time environments where model reliability is critical, such as medical diagnosis, energy forecasting, or financial decision-making.

The sensitivity analysis concerning the initialization factor (I_w) offers further insight into the behavior of the proposed model. Although the differences among parameter values are not statistically significant, a consistent trend toward improved accuracy with higher Iw values suggests that careful tuning of initialization can have a meaningful impact on model effectiveness. In more complex datasets, higher I_w settings appear to support better generalization, pointing to the potential of initialization strategies as a lever for optimization.

Overall, the proposed system should not be viewed as a minor variation on existing grammar evolution techniques, but rather as a substantial advancement in how prior knowledge and pretraining experience can be exploited to improve and accelerate evolutionary learning. This approach merges the advantages of pretraining with the adaptability of evolutionary search, forming a solid foundation for future developments involving hybrid or meta-intelligent strategies in automated neural architecture design. Its demonstrated performance, adaptability, and potential for integration with broader machine learning paradigms mark it as a promising direction for ongoing and future exploration.

Regarding future research directions, there are several promising avenues to explore. One potential extension of the current study could involve the use of alternative pretraining techniques beyond genetic algorithms, such as particle swarm optimization or differential evolution, to assess the influence of various optimization strategies on the initial population. Additionally, it would be valuable to examine the role of the pretraining phase in relation to variables such as the number of nodes, the level of noise in the data, and feature heterogeneity.

Finally, it is suggested that reinforcement learning techniques or even hybrid models such as GANs and Autoencoders be incorporated into the grammar-based evolution framework. Combining the proposed pretraining phase with neural architecture search methodologies could lead to even more efficient and generalizable models. The demonstrated stability and adaptability of the proposed approach make it a strong candidate for application in demanding real-world domains such as healthcare, energy, and financial forecasting.

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