

14

15

16

17

18

19

21

22

23

Article

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

Ioannis G. Tsoulos^{1,*}, Vasileios Charilogis², Dimitrios Tsalikakis³

- Department of Informatics and Telecommunications, University of Ioannina, Greece; itsoulos@uoi.gr
- Department of Informatics and Telecommunications, University of Ioannina, Greece; v.charilog@uoi.gr
- Department of Engineering Informatics and Telecommunications, University of Western Macedonia, 50100 Kozani, Greece; tsalikakis@gmail.com
- * Correspondence: itsoulos@uoi.gr

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.

Received: Revised: Accepted: Published:

Citation: Tsoulos, I.G.; Charilogis, V.; Tsalikakis, D.. Improving the performance of constructed neural networks with a pre-train phase. Journal Not Specified 2025, 1, 0. https://doi.org/

Copyright: © 2025 by the authors. Submitted to *Journal Not Specified* for possible open access publication under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attri-bution (CC BY) license (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/).

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:

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

In this equation, the set $(\overrightarrow{x_i}, y_i)$, 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

32

33

39

40

52

53

54

55

56

58

59

60

61

63

77

[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. A significant advantage of this particular technique over others is that it can effectively identify the characteristics of the problem that are most important for the effective training of the model, thus significantly reducing the required response time of the model and thus avoiding the model from engaging in overfitting problems.

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 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:

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

$$n = (d+2)H (4)$$

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.

170

171

172

173

174

175

177

178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

188

189

191

193

196

199

201

- (d) **Initialize** randomly the chromosomes g_i , $i = 1, ..., N_c$ 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** $i = 1, ..., N_c$ **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:

$$\tilde{z}_i = a_i z_i + (1 - a_i) w_i
\tilde{w}_i = a_i w_i + (1 - a_i) z_i$$
(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, ..., 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:

$$t'_{j} = \begin{cases} t_{j} + \Delta(k, r_{j} - t_{j}), & t = 0 \\ t_{j} - \Delta(k, t_{j} - l_{j}), & t = 1 \end{cases}$$
 (7)

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

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

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

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

211

212

214

217

218

220

221

[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.

226

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:

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

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

25 2

253

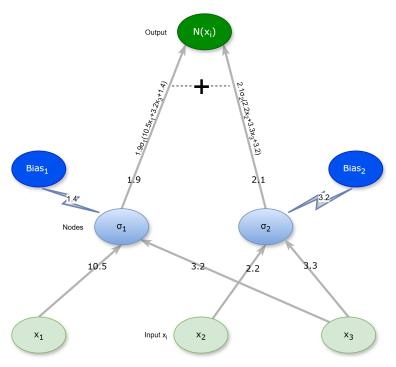


Figure 3. An example of a produced neural network.

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 , $i = 1, ..., N_c$ 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** $i = 1, ..., N_c$ **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.

25.6

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

267

269

270

271

- (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.

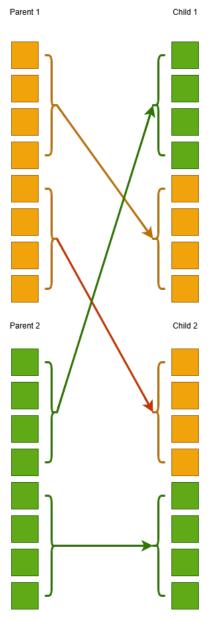


Figure 4. An example of the one - point crossover procedure.

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].

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

298

299

300

308

309

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

319

320

321

322

323

324

325

326

327

328

329

330

331

333

337

338

Circular dataset, which is an artificial dataset. 6. 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 Housevotes, a dataset which is related to the Congressional voting in USA [86]. 14. 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]. Mammographic, which is a medical dataset used for the prediction of breast cancer 18. 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]. 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. **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.

340

341

342

343

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

352

353

355

364

366

367

368

369

370

371

373

374

375

376

377

- 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 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 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

381

382

383

401

402

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.

405

410

420

421

422

423

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

426

427

428

429

431

432

433

434

435

436

437

438

439

440

441

442

443

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
НО	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 nonparametric, 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.

457

458

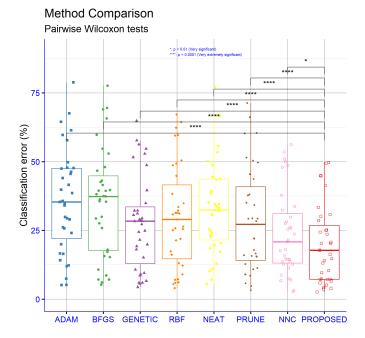


Figure 5. Statistical analysis of the results obtained by various techniques for the classification datasets.

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.

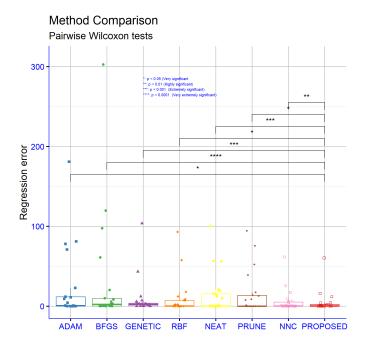


Figure 6. Statistical analysis for the results obtained by the used techniques on the regression datasets.

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.

485

486

487

488

489

490

491

492

493

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

5 0 5

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
НО	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.

515

517

520

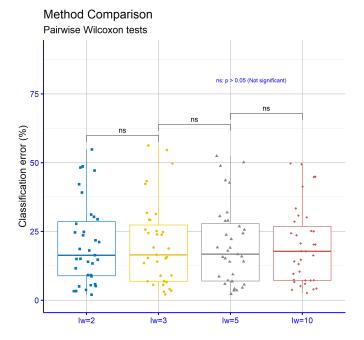


Figure 7. Statistical comparison for the results obtained by the proposed method and the series of values for I_w parameter on the classification datasets.

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.

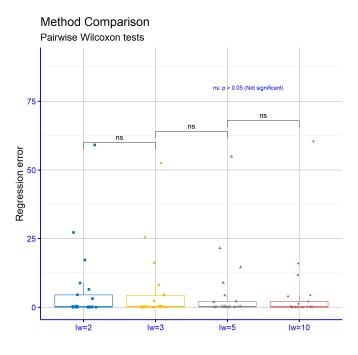


Figure 8. Statistical comparison for the results obtained by the proposed method on the regression datasets, using a variety of values for the parameter I_w .

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

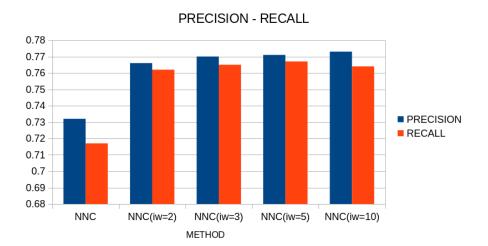


Figure 9. Comparison in terms of precision and recall between the original neural network construction method and the proposed one. In the experiments the following values for the critical parameter I_w were used: 2,3,5 and 10.

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.

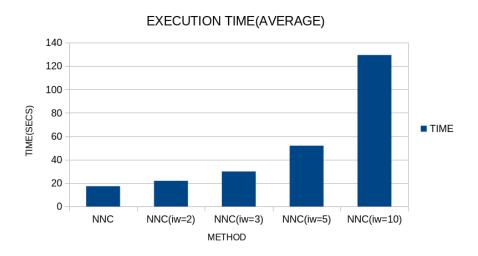


Figure 10. Average execution time for the classification datasets using the original neural network construction method and the proposed one with different values of the critical factor I_w .

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. A real world example

As a real - world example with many instances consider the PIRvision datasets, initially discussed in 2023 [122]. This dataset contains occupancy detection data that was collected

522

527

528

529 530 531

532

533

536

537

538

539

540

541

542

543

544

545

546

550

551

554

562

563

5 6 5

566

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. 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 and they are depicted in Figure 11.

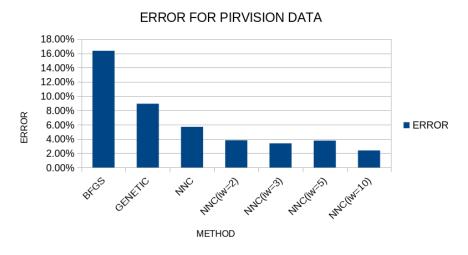


Figure 11. Results obtained for the PIRvision dataset, using a variety of methods and the proposed one. The numbers in the graph indicate average classification error as measured on the test set.

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%.

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.

569

570

571

572

573

574

575

576

577

580

587

589

590

5.91

592

593

594

5 9 5

596

599

602

605

606

607

608

609

610

612

614

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.

Author Contributions: V.C. and I.G.T. conducted the experiments, employing several datasets and provided the comparative experiments. D.T. and V.C. performed the statistical analysis and prepared the manuscript. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Funding: This research has been financed by the European Union: Next Generation EU through the Program Greece 2.0 National Recovery and Resilience Plan, under the call RESEARCH – CREATE – INNOVATE, project name "iCREW: Intelligent small craft simulator for advanced crew training using Virtual Reality techniques" (project code:TAEDK-06195).

Institutional Review Board Statement: Not applicable.

Informed Consent Statement: Not applicable.

Data Availability Statement: Not applicable.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

References

- 1. Abiodun, O. I., Jantan, A., Omolara, A. E., Dada, K. V., Mohamed, N. A., & Arshad, H. (2018). State-of-the-art in artificial neural network applications: A survey. Heliyon, 4(11).
- 2. Suryadevara, S., & Yanamala, A. K. Y. (2021). A Comprehensive Overview of Artificial Neural Networks: Evolution, Architectures, and Applications. Revista de Inteligencia Artificial en Medicina, 12(1), 51-76.
- 3. M. Egmont-Petersen, D. de Ridder, H. Handels, Image processing with neural networks—a review, Pattern Recognition 35, pp. 2279-2301, 2002.
- 4. G.Peter Zhang, Time series forecasting using a hybrid ARIMA and neural network model, Neurocomputing 50, pp. 159-175, 2003.

617

620

622

624

627

629

630

631

633

635

637

642

644

648

65.0

651

653

655

65.7

658

659

660

662

664

666

668

- 5. Z. Huang, H. Chen, C.-Jung Hsu, W.-Hwa Chen, S. Wu, Credit rating analysis with support vector machines and neural networks: a market comparative study, Decision Support Systems 37, pp. 543-558, 2004.
- 6. P. Baldi, K. Cranmer, T. Faucett et al, Parameterized neural networks for high-energy physics, Eur. Phys. J. C 76, 2016.
- 7. Baldi, P., Cranmer, K., Faucett, T., Sadowski, P., & Whiteson, D. (2016). Parameterized neural networks for high-energy physics. The European Physical Journal C, 76(5), 1-7.
- 8. M.B. Kia, S. Pirasteh, B. Pradhan B. et al, An artificial neural network model for flood simulation using GIS: Johor River Basin, Malaysia, Environ Earth Sci 67, pp. 251–264, 2012.
- 9. A.K. Yadav, S.S. Chandel, Solar radiation prediction using Artificial Neural Network techniques: A review, Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews 33, pp. 772-781, 2014.
- 10. M.A. Getahun, S.M. Shitote, C. Zachary, Artificial neural network based modelling approach for strength prediction of concrete incorporating agricultural and construction wastes, Construction and Building Materials **190**, pp. 517-525, 2018.
- 11. M. Chen, U. Challita, W. Saad, C. Yin and M. Debbah, Artificial Neural Networks-Based Machine Learning for Wireless Networks: A Tutorial, IEEE Communications Surveys & Tutorials **21**, pp. 3039-3071, 2019.
- 12. K. Peta, J. Żurek, Prediction of air leakage in heat exchangers for automotive applications using artificial neural networks, In: 2018 9th IEEE Annual Ubiquitous Computing, Electronics & Mobile Communication Conference (UEMCON), New York, NY, USA, pp. 721-725, 2018.
- 13. Vora, K., & Yagnik, S. (2014). A survey on backpropagation algorithms for feedforward neural networks. International Journal of Engineering Development and Research, 1(3), 193-197.
- 14. K. Vora, S. Yagnik, A survey on backpropagation algorithms for feedforward neural networks, International Journal of Engineering Development and Research 1, pp. 193-197, 2014.
- 15. Pajchrowski, T., Zawirski, K., & Nowopolski, K. (2014). Neural speed controller trained online by means of modified RPROP algorithm. IEEE transactions on industrial informatics, 11(2), 560-568.
- 16. Hermanto, R. P. S., & Nugroho, A. (2018). Waiting-time estimation in bank customer queues using RPROP neural networks. Procedia Computer Science, 135, 35-42.
- 17. Reynolds, J., Rezgui, Y., Kwan, A., & Piriou, S. (2018). A zone-level, building energy optimisation combining an artificial neural network, a genetic algorithm, and model predictive control. Energy, 151, 729-739.
- 18. Das, G., Pattnaik, P. K., & Padhy, S. K. (2014). Artificial neural network trained by particle swarm optimization for non-linear channel equalization. Expert Systems with Applications, 41(7), 3491-3496.
- 19. Sexton, R. S., Dorsey, R. E., & Johnson, J. D. (1999). Beyond backpropagation: using simulated annealing for training neural networks. Journal of Organizational and End User Computing (JOEUC), 11(3), 3-10.
- 20. Wang, L., Zeng, Y., & Chen, T. (2015). Back propagation neural network with adaptive differential evolution algorithm for time series forecasting. Expert Systems with Applications, 42(2), 855-863.
- 21. Karaboga, D., & Akay, B. (2007, June). Artificial bee colony (ABC) algorithm on training artificial neural networks. In 2007 IEEE 15th Signal Processing and Communications Applications (pp. 1-4). IEEE.
- 22. R.S. Sexton, B. Alidaee, R.E. Dorsey, J.D. Johnson, Global optimization for artificial neural networks: A tabu search application. European Journal of Operational Research 106, pp. 570-584, 1998.
- 23. J.-R. Zhang, J. Zhang, T.-M. Lok, M.R. Lyu, A hybrid particle swarm optimization–back-propagation algorithm for feedforward neural network training, Applied Mathematics and Computation 185, pp. 1026-1037, 2007.
- 24. G. Zhao, T. Wang, Y. Jin, C. Lang, Y. Li, H. Ling, The Cascaded Forward algorithm for neural network training, Pattern Recognition 161, 111292, 2025.
- 25. K-Su Oh, K. Jung, GPU implementation of neural networks, Pattern Recognition 37, pp. 1311-1314, 2004.
- M. Zhang, K. Hibi, J. Inoue, GPU-accelerated artificial neural network potential for molecular dynamics simulation, Computer Physics Communications 285, 108655, 2023.
- 27. S.J. Nowlan and G.E. Hinton, Simplifying neural networks by soft weight sharing, Neural Computation 4, pp. 473-493, 1992.
- 28. Nowlan, S. J., & Hinton, G. E. (2018). Simplifying neural networks by soft weight sharing. In The mathematics of generalization (pp. 373-394). CRC Press.
- 29. S.J. Hanson and L.Y. Pratt, Comparing biases for minimal network construction with back propagation, In D.S. Touretzky (Ed.), Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, Volume 1, pp. 177-185, San Mateo, CA: Morgan Kaufmann, 1989.
- 30. M. Augasta and T. Kathirvalavakumar, Pruning algorithms of neural networks a comparative study, Central European Journal of Computer Science, 2003.
- 31. Lutz Prechelt, Automatic early stopping using cross validation: quantifying the criteria, Neural Networks 11, pp. 761-767, 1998.
- 32. X. Wu and J. Liu, A New Early Stopping Algorithm for Improving Neural Network Generalization, 2009 Second International Conference on Intelligent Computation Technology and Automation, Changsha, Hunan, 2009, pp. 15-18.
- 33. N. K. Treadgold and T. D. Gedeon, Simulated annealing and weight decay in adaptive learning: the SARPROP algorithm, IEEE Transactions on Neural Networks 9, pp. 662-668, 1998.

672

675

677

681

682

683

684

686

690

692

693

697

699

701

703

705

706

708

710

711

712

713

714

715

717

719

721

722

- 34. M. Carvalho and T. B. Ludermir, Particle Swarm Optimization of Feed-Forward Neural Networks with Weight Decay, 2006 Sixth International Conference on Hybrid Intelligent Systems (HIS'06), Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, 2006, pp. 5-5.
- 35. J. Arifovic, R. Gençay, Using genetic algorithms to select architecture of a feedforward artificial neural network, Physica A: Statistical Mechanics and its Applications **289**, pp. 574-594, 2001.
- 36. P.G. Benardos, G.C. Vosniakos, Optimizing feedforward artificial neural network architecture, Engineering Applications of Artificial Intelligence **20**, pp. 365-382, 2007.
- 37. B.A. Garro, R.A. Vázquez, Designing Artificial Neural Networks Using Particle Swarm Optimization Algorithms, Computational Intelligence and Neuroscience, 369298, 2015.
- 38. Siebel, N. T., & Sommer, G. (2007). Evolutionary reinforcement learning of artificial neural networks. International Journal of Hybrid Intelligent Systems, 4(3), 171-183.
- 39. Jaafra, Y., Laurent, J. L., Deruyver, A., & Naceur, M. S. (2019). Reinforcement learning for neural architecture search: A review. Image and Vision Computing, 89, 57-66.
- 40. Pham, H., Guan, M., Zoph, B., Le, Q., & Dean, J. (2018, July). Efficient neural architecture search via parameters sharing. In International conference on machine learning (pp. 4095-4104). PMLR.
- 41. Xie, S., Zheng, H., Liu, C., & Lin, L. (2018). SNAS: stochastic neural architecture search. arXiv preprint arXiv:1812.09926.
- 42. Zhou, H., Yang, M., Wang, J., & Pan, W. (2019, May). Bayesnas: A bayesian approach for neural architecture search. In International conference on machine learning (pp. 7603-7613). PMLR.
- 43. M. O'Neill, C. Ryan, Grammatical evolution, IEEE Trans. Evol. Comput. 5,pp. 349–358, 2001.
- 44. I.G. Tsoulos, D. Gavrilis, E. Glavas, Neural network construction and training using grammatical evolution, Neurocomputing 72, pp. 269-277, 2008.
- 45. G.V. Papamokos, I.G. Tsoulos, I.N. Demetropoulos, E. Glavas, Location of amide I mode of vibration in computed data utilizing constructed neural networks, Expert Systems with Applications **36**, pp. 12210-12213, 2009.
- 46. I.G. Tsoulos, D. Gavrilis, E. Glavas, Solving differential equations with constructed neural networks, Neurocomputing **72**, pp. 2385-2391, 2009.
- 47. I.G. Tsoulos, G. Mitsi, A. Stavrakoudis, S. Papapetropoulos, Application of Machine Learning in a Parkinson's Disease Digital Biomarker Dataset Using Neural Network Construction (NNC) Methodology Discriminates Patient Motor Status, Frontiers in ICT 6, 10, 2019.
- 48. V. Christou, I.G. Tsoulos, V. Loupas, A.T. Tzallas, C. Gogos, P.S. Karvelis, N. Antoniadis, E. Glavas, N. Giannakeas, Performance and early drop prediction for higher education students using machine learning, Expert Systems with Applications 225, 120079, 2023
- 49. E.I. Toki, J. Pange, G. Tatsis, K. Plachouras, I.G. Tsoulos, Utilizing Constructed Neural Networks for Autism Screening, Applied Sciences 14, 3053, 2024.
- 50. Li, G., Alnuweiri, H., Wu, Y., & Li, H. (1993, March). Acceleration of back propagation through initial weight pre-training with delta rule. In IEEE International Conference on neural networks (pp. 580-585). IEEE.
- 51. Erhan, D., Courville, A., Bengio, Y., & Vincent, P. (2010, March). Why does unsupervised pre-training help deep learning?. In Proceedings of the thirteenth international conference on artificial intelligence and statistics (pp. 201-208). JMLR Workshop and Conference Proceedings.
- 52. Owhadi-Kareshk, M., Sedaghat, Y., & Akbarzadeh-T, M. R. (2017, October). Pre-training of an artificial neural network for software fault prediction. In 2017 7th International Conference on Computer and Knowledge Engineering (ICCKE) (pp. 223-228). IEEE.
- 53. Saikia, P., Vij, P., & Baruah, R. D. (2018, July). Unsupervised pre-training on improving the performance of neural network in regression. In 2018 International Joint Conference on Neural Networks (IJCNN) (pp. 01-06). IEEE.
- 54. Kroshchanka, A., & Golovko, V. (2021, September). The reduction of fully connected neural network parameters using the pre-training technique. In 2021 11th IEEE International Conference on Intelligent Data Acquisition and Advanced Computing Systems: Technology and Applications (IDAACS) (Vol. 2, pp. 937-941). IEEE.
- 55. Noinongyao, P., & Watchareeruetai, U. (2018, December). An extreme learning machine based pretraining method for multi-layer neural networks. In 2018 Joint 10th International Conference on Soft Computing and Intelligent Systems (SCIS) and 19th International Symposium on Advanced Intelligent Systems (ISIS) (pp. 608-613). IEEE.
- 56. Holland, J.H. Genetic algorithms. Sci. Am. 1992, 267, 66–73.
- 57. Stender, J. Parallel Genetic Algorithms: Theory & Applications; IOS Press: Amsterdam, The Netherlands, 1993.
- 58. Goldberg, D. Genetic Algorithms in Search, Optimization and Machine Learning; Addison-Wesley Publishing Company: Reading, MA, USA, 1989.
- 59. Michaelewicz, Z. Genetic Algorithms + Data Structures = Evolution Programs; Springer: Berlin/Heidelberg, Germany, 1996.
- 60. Liu, X.; Jiang, D.; Tao, B.; Jiang, G.; Sun, Y.; Kong, J.; Chen, B. Genetic algorithm-based trajectory optimization for digital twin robots. Front. Bioeng. Biotechnol. 2022, 9, 793782.

726

729

731

733

735

736

737

739

740

742

744

746

749

750

751

752

753

755

75.7

75.9

760

762

764

765

766

767

768

769

771

773

775

777

- 61. Chen, Q.; Hu, X. Design of intelligent control system for agricultural greenhouses based on adaptive improved genetic algorithm for multi-energy supply system. Energy Rep. 2022, 8, 12126–12138.
- 62. Hornik, K.; Stinchcombe, M.; White, H. Multilayer feedforward networks are universal approximators. Neural Netw. 1989, 2, 359–366.
- 63. Min, D.; Song, Z.; Chen, H.; Wang, T.; Zhang, T. Genetic algorithm optimized neural network based fuel cell hybrid electric vehicle energy management strategy under start-stop condition. Appl. Energy 2022, 306, 118036
- 64. P. Kaelo, M.M. Ali, Integrated crossover rules in real coded genetic algorithms, European Journal of Operational Research **176**, pp. 60-76, 2007.
- 65. J. W. Backus. The Syntax and Semantics of the Proposed International Algebraic Language of the Zurich ACM-GAMM Conference. Proceedings of the International Conference on Information Processing, UNESCO, 1959, pp.125-132.
- 66. C. Ryan, J. Collins, M. O'Neill, Grammatical evolution: Evolving programs for an arbitrary language. In: Banzhaf, W., Poli, R., Schoenauer, M., Fogarty, T.C. (eds) Genetic Programming. EuroGP 1998. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol 1391. Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg, 1998.
- 67. M. O'Neill, M., C. Ryan, Evolving Multi-line Compilable C Programs. In: Poli, R., Nordin, P., Langdon, W.B., Fogarty, T.C. (eds) Genetic Programming. EuroGP 1999. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol 1598. Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg, 1999.
- 68. A.O. Puente, R. S. Alfonso, M. A. Moreno, Automatic composition of music by means of grammatical evolution, In: APL '02: Proceedings of the 2002 conference on APL: array processing languages: lore, problems, and applications July 2002 Pages 148–155.
- 69. E. Galván-López, J.M. Swafford, M. O'Neill, A. Brabazon, Evolving a Ms. PacMan Controller Using Grammatical Evolution. In: , et al. Applications of Evolutionary Computation. EvoApplications 2010. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol 6024. Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg, 2010.
- 70. N. Shaker, M. Nicolau, G. N. Yannakakis, J. Togelius, M. O'Neill, Evolving levels for Super Mario Bros using grammatical evolution, 2012 IEEE Conference on Computational Intelligence and Games (CIG), 2012, pp. 304-31.
- 71. D. Martínez-Rodríguez, J. M. Colmenar, J. I. Hidalgo, R.J. Villanueva Micó, S. Salcedo-Sanz, Particle swarm grammatical evolution for energy demand estimation, Energy Science and Engineering 8, pp. 1068-1079, 2020.
- 72. C. Ryan, M. Kshirsagar, G. Vaidya, G. et al. Design of a cryptographically secure pseudo random number generator with grammatical evolution. Sci Rep 12, 8602, 2022.
- 73. C. Martín, D. Quintana, P. Isasi, Grammatical Evolution-based ensembles for algorithmic trading, Applied Soft Computing 84, 105713, 2019.
- 74. M. Kelly, R. Longjohn, K. Nottingham, The UCI Machine Learning Repository, https://archive.ics.uci.edu.
- 75. J. Alcalá-Fdez, A. Fernandez, J. Luengo, J. Derrac, S. García, L. Sánchez, F. Herrera. KEEL Data-Mining Software Tool: Data Set Repository, Integration of Algorithms and Experimental Analysis Framework. Journal of Multiple-Valued Logic and Soft Computing 17, pp. 255-287, 2011.
- 76. Weiss, Sholom M. and Kulikowski, Casimir A., Computer Systems That Learn: Classification and Prediction Methods from Statistics, Neural Nets, Machine Learning, and Expert Systems, Morgan Kaufmann Publishers Inc, 1991.
- 77. Tzimourta, K.D.; Tsoulos, I.; Bilero, I.T.; Tzallas, A.T.; Tsipouras, M.G.; Giannakeas, N. Direct Assessment of Alcohol Consumption in Mental State Using Brain Computer Interfaces and Grammatical Evolution. Inventions 2018, 3, 51.
- 78. J.R. Quinlan, Simplifying Decision Trees. International Journal of Man-Machine Studies 27, pp. 221-234, 1987.
- 79. T. Shultz, D. Mareschal, W. Schmidt, Modeling Cognitive Development on Balance Scale Phenomena, Machine Learning **16**, pp. 59-88, 1994.
- 80. Z.H. Zhou, Y. Jiang, NeC4.5: neural ensemble based C4.5," in IEEE Transactions on Knowledge and Data Engineering 16, pp. 770-773, 2004.
- 81. R. Setiono , W.K. Leow, FERNN: An Algorithm for Fast Extraction of Rules from Neural Networks, Applied Intelligence 12, pp. 15-25, 2000.
- 82. G. Demiroz, H.A. Govenir, N. Ilter, Learning Differential Diagnosis of Eryhemato-Squamous Diseases using Voting Feature Intervals, Artificial Intelligence in Medicine. 13, pp. 147–165, 1998.
- 83. P. Horton, K.Nakai, A Probabilistic Classification System for Predicting the Cellular Localization Sites of Proteins, In: Proceedings of International Conference on Intelligent Systems for Molecular Biology 4, pp. 109-15, 1996.
- 84. B. Hayes-Roth, B., F. Hayes-Roth. Concept learning and the recognition and classification of exemplars. Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior **16**, pp. 321-338, 1977.
- 85. I. Kononenko, E. Šimec, M. Robnik-Šikonja, Overcoming the Myopia of Inductive Learning Algorithms with RELIEFF, Applied Intelligence 7, pp. 39–55, 1997
- 86. R.M. French, N. Chater, Using noise to compute error surfaces in connectionist networks: a novel means of reducing catastrophic forgetting, Neural Comput. **14**, pp. 1755-1769, 2002.
- 87. J.G. Dy , C.E. Brodley, Feature Selection for Unsupervised Learning, The Journal of Machine Learning Research 5, pp 845–889, 2004.

781

786

790

791

792

793

794

797

799

801

802

804

805

806

808

810

812

814

815

817

819

820

821

822

823

824

826

828

830

831

- 88. S. J. Perantonis, V. Virvilis, Input Feature Extraction for Multilayered Perceptrons Using Supervised Principal Component Analysis, Neural Processing Letters 10, pp 243–252, 1999.
- 89. J. Garcke, M. Griebel, Classification with sparse grids using simplicial basis functions, Intell. Data Anal. 6, pp. 483-502, 2002.
- 90. J. Mcdermott, R.S. Forsyth, Diagnosing a disorder in a classification benchmark, Pattern Recognition Letters 73, pp. 41-43, 2016.
- 91. G. Cestnik, I. Konenenko, I. Bratko, Assistant-86: A Knowledge-Elicitation Tool for Sophisticated Users. In: Bratko, I. and Lavrac, N., Eds., Progress in Machine Learning, Sigma Press, Wilmslow, pp. 31-45, 1987.
- 92. M. Elter, R. Schulz-Wendtland, T. Wittenberg, The prediction of breast cancer biopsy outcomes using two CAD approaches that both emphasize an intelligible decision process, Med Phys. **34**, pp. 4164-72, 2007.
- 93. M.A. Little, P.E. McSharry, S.J Roberts et al, Exploiting Nonlinear Recurrence and Fractal Scaling Properties for Voice Disorder Detection. BioMed Eng OnLine 6, 23, 2007.
- 94. M.A. Little, P.E. McSharry, E.J. Hunter, J. Spielman, L.O. Ramig, Suitability of dysphonia measurements for telemonitoring of Parkinson's disease. IEEE Trans Biomed Eng. **56**, pp. 1015-1022, 2009.
- J.W. Smith, J.E. Everhart, W.C. Dickson, W.C. Knowler, R.S. Johannes, Using the ADAP learning algorithm to forecast the onset of diabetes mellitus, In: Proceedings of the Symposium on Computer Applications and Medical Care IEEE Computer Society Press, pp.261-265, 1988.
- 96. D.D. Lucas, R. Klein, J. Tannahill, D. Ivanova, S. Brandon, D. Domyancic, Y. Zhang, Failure analysis of parameter-induced simulation crashes in climate models, Geoscientific Model Development 6, pp. 1157-1171, 2013.
- 97. N. Giannakeas, M.G. Tsipouras, A.T. Tzallas, K. Kyriakidi, Z.E. Tsianou, P. Manousou, A. Hall, E.C. Karvounis, V. Tsianos, E. Tsianos, A clustering based method for collagen proportional area extraction in liver biopsy images (2015) Proceedings of the Annual International Conference of the IEEE Engineering in Medicine and Biology Society, EMBS, 2015-November, art. no. 7319047, pp. 3097-3100.
- 98. T. Hastie, R. Tibshirani, Non-parametric logistic and proportional odds regression, JRSS-C (Applied Statistics) **36**, pp. 260–276, 1987.
- 99. M. Dash, H. Liu, P. Scheuermann, K. L. Tan, Fast hierarchical clustering and its validation, Data & Knowledge Engineering 44, pp 109–138, 2003.
- 100. P. Cortez, A. M. Gonçalves Silva, Using data mining to predict secondary school student performance, In Proceedings of 5th FUture BUsiness TEChnology Conference (FUBUTEC 2008) (pp. 5–12). EUROSIS-ETI, 2008.
- 101. I-Cheng Yeh, King-Jang Yang, Tao-Ming Ting, Knowledge discovery on RFM model using Bernoulli sequence, Expert Systems with Applications **36**, pp. 5866-5871, 2009.
- 102. Jeyasingh, S., & Veluchamy, M. (2017). Modified bat algorithm for feature selection with the Wisconsin diagnosis breast cancer (WDBC) dataset. Asian Pacific journal of cancer prevention: APJCP, 18(5), 1257.
- 103. Alshayeji, M. H., Ellethy, H., & Gupta, R. (2022). Computer-aided detection of breast cancer on the Wisconsin dataset: An artificial neural networks approach. Biomedical signal processing and control, 71, 103141.
- 104. M. Raymer, T.E. Doom, L.A. Kuhn, W.F. Punch, Knowledge discovery in medical and biological datasets using a hybrid Bayes classifier/evolutionary algorithm. IEEE transactions on systems, man, and cybernetics. Part B, Cybernetics: a publication of the IEEE Systems, Man, and Cybernetics Society, 33, pp. 802-813, 2003.
- 105. P. Zhong, M. Fukushima, Regularized nonsmooth Newton method for multi-class support vector machines, Optimization Methods and Software 22, pp. 225-236, 2007.
- 106. R. G. Andrzejak, K. Lehnertz, F.Mormann, C. Rieke, P. David, and C. E. Elger, "Indications of nonlinear deterministic and finite-dimensional structures in time series of brain electrical activity: dependence on recording region and brain state," Physical Review E, vol. 64, no. 6, Article ID 061907, 8 pages, 2001.
- 107. A. T. Tzallas, M. G. Tsipouras, and D. I. Fotiadis, "Automatic Seizure Detection Based on Time-Frequency Analysis and Artificial Neural Networks," Computational Intelligence and Neuroscience, vol. 2007, Article ID 80510, 13 pages, 2007. doi:10.1155/2007/80510
- 108. M. Koivisto, K. Sood, Exact Bayesian Structure Discovery in Bayesian Networks, The Journal of Machine Learning Research 5, pp. 549–573, 2004.
- 109. Nash, W.J.; Sellers, T.L.; Talbot, S.R.; Cawthor, A.J.; Ford, W.B. The Population Biology of Abalone (_Haliotis_ species) in Tasmania.

 I. Blacklip Abalone (_H. rubra_) from the North Coast and Islands of Bass Strait, Sea Fisheries Division; Technical Report No. 48;
 Department of Primary Industry and Fisheries, Tasmania: Hobart, Australia, 1994; ISSN 1034-3288
- 110. Brooks, T.F.; Pope, D.S.; Marcolini, A.M. Airfoil Self-Noise and Prediction. Technical Report, NASA RP-1218. July 1989. Available online: https://ntrs.nasa.gov/citations/19890016302 (accessed on 14 November 2024).
- 111. I.Cheng Yeh, Modeling of strength of high performance concrete using artificial neural networks, Cement and Concrete Research. **28**, pp. 1797-1808, 1998.
- 112. Friedman, J. (1991): Multivariate Adaptative Regression Splines. Annals of Statistics, 19:1, 1--141.

838

840

842

844

845

846

847

848

849

851

85.3

854

- 113. D. Harrison and D.L. Rubinfeld, Hedonic prices and the demand for clean ai, J. Environ. Economics & Management 5, pp. 81-102, 1978.
- 114. Tsoulos, I.G.; Charilogis, V.; Kyrou, G.; Stavrou, V.N.; Tzallas, A. OPTIMUS: A Multidimensional Global Optimization Package. J. Open Source Softw. 2025, 10, 7584.
- 115. D. P. Kingma, J. L. Ba, ADAM: a method for stochastic optimization, in: Proceedings of the 3rd International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR 2015), pp. 1–15, 2015.
- 116. M.J.D Powell, A Tolerant Algorithm for Linearly Constrained Optimization Calculations, Mathematical Programming **45**, pp. 547-566, 1989.
- 117. J. Park and I. W. Sandberg, Universal Approximation Using Radial-Basis-Function Networks, Neural Computation 3, pp. 246-257,
- 118. G.A. Montazer, D. Giveki, M. Karami, H. Rastegar, Radial basis function neural networks: A review. Comput. Rev. J 1, pp. 52-74, 2018.
- 119. K. O. Stanley, R. Miikkulainen, Evolving Neural Networks through Augmenting Topologies, Evolutionary Computation 10, pp. 99-127, 2002.
- 120. Zhu, V., Lu, Y., & Li, Q. (2006). MW-OBS: An improved pruning method for topology design of neural networks. Tsinghua Science and Technology, 11(4), 307-312.
- 121. Grzegorz Klima, Fast Compressed Neural Networks, available from http://fcnn.sourceforge.net/.
- 122. Emad-Ud-Din, M., & Wang, Y. (2023). Promoting occupancy detection accuracy using on-device lifelong learning. IEEE Sensors Journal, 23(9), 9595-9606.

Disclaimer/Publisher's Note: The statements, opinions and data contained in all publications are solely those of the individual author(s) and contributor(s) and not of MDPI and/or the editor(s). MDPI and/or the editor(s) disclaim responsibility for any injury to people or property resulting from any ideas, methods, instructions or products referred to in the content.