











One of the most significant papers on machine intelligence, "Computing Machinery and Intelligence", was written by the British mathematician Alan Turing over fifty years ago. However, it still stands up well under the test of time, and the Turing's approach remains universal.

He asked: Is there thought without experience? Is there mind without communication? Is there language without living? Is there intelligence without life? All these questions, as you can see, are just variations on the fundamental question of artificial intelligence, Can machines think?

- Turing did not provide definitions of machines and thinking, he just avoided semantic arguments by inventing a game, the *Turing Imitation Game*.
- The imitation game originally included two phases. In the first phase, the interrogator, a man and a woman are each placed in separate rooms. The interrogator's objective is to work out who is the man and who is the woman by questioning them. The man should attempt to deceive the interrogator that *he* is the woman, while the woman has to convince the interrogator that *she* is the woman.



#### **Turing Imitation Game: Phase 2**

In the second phase of the game, the man is replaced by a computer programmed to deceive the interrogator as the man did. It would even be programmed to make mistakes and provide fuzzy answers in the way a human would. If the computer can fool the interrogator as often as the man did, we may say this computer has passed the intelligent behaviour test.



### The Turing test has two remarkable qualities that make it really universal.

- By maintaining communication between the human and the machine via terminals, the test gives us an objective standard view on intelligence.
- The test itself is quite independent from the details of the experiment. It can be conducted as a twophase game, or even as a single-phase game when the interrogator needs to choose between the human and the machine from the beginning of the test.
- Turing believed that by the end of the 20th century it would be possible to program a digital computer to play the imitation game. Although modern computers still cannot pass the Turing test, it provides a basis for the verification and validation of knowledge-based systems.
- A program thought intelligent in some narrow area of expertise is evaluated by comparing its performance with the performance of a human expert.
- To build an intelligent computer system, we have to capture, organise and use human expert knowledge in some narrow area of expertise.

### The history of artificial intelligence

#### The birth of artificial intelligence (1943 – 1956)

The first work recognised in the field of AI was presented by **Warren McCulloch** and **Walter Pitts** in 1943. They proposed a model of an artificial neural network and demonstrated that simple network structures could learn.



McCulloch, the second "founding father" of AI after Alan Turing, had created the corner stone of neural computing and artificial neural networks (ANN).



 The third founder of AI was John von
 Neumann, the brilliant Hungarian-born mathematician. In 1930, he joined the Princeton University, lecturing in mathematical physics. He was an adviser for the Electronic Numerical Integrator and Calculator project at the University of Pennsylvania and helped to design the Electronic Discrete Variable Calculator. He was influenced by McCulloch and Pitts's neural network model. When Marvin Minsky and Dean Edmonds, two graduate students in the Princeton mathematics department, built the first neural network computer in 1951, von Neumann encouraged and supported them.



Another of the first generation researchers was Claude Shannon. He graduated from MIT and joined Bell Telephone Laboratories in 1941. Shannon shared Alan Turing's ideas on the possibility of machine intelligence. In 1950, he published a paper on chess-playing machines, which pointed out that a typical chess game involved about 10<sup>120</sup> possible moves (Shannon, 1950). Even if the new von Neumann-type computer could examine one move per microsecond, it would take 3 × 10<sup>106</sup> years to make its first move. Thus Shannon demonstrated the need to use heuristics in the search for the solution.



In 1956, John McCarthy, Marvin Minsky and Claude Shannon organised a summer workshop at Dartmouth College. They brought together researchers interested in the study of machine intelligence, artificial neural nets and automata theory. Although there were just ten researchers, this workshop gave birth to a new science called artificial intelligence.

## The rise of artificial intelligence, or the era of great expectations (1956 – late 1960s)

- The early works on neural computing and artificial neural networks started by McCulloch and Pitts was continued. Learning methods were improved and **Frank Rosenblatt** proved the *perceptron convergence theorem*, demonstrating that his learning algorithm could adjust the connection strengths of a perceptron.
- One of the most ambitious projects of the era of great expectations was the General Problem Solver (GPS). Allen Newell and Herbert Simon from the Carnegie Mellon University developed a general-purpose program to simulate human-solving methods.
- Newell and Simon postulated that a problem to be solved could be defined in terms of *states*. They used the mean-end analysis to determine a difference between the current and desirable or *goal state* of the problem, and to choose and apply *operators* to reach the goal state. The set of operators determined the solution plan.

- However, GPS failed to solve complex problems. The program was based on formal logic and could generate an infinite number of possible operators. The amount of computer time and memory that GPS required to solve real-world problems led to the project being abandoned.
- In the sixties, AI researchers attempted to simulate the thinking process by inventing general methods for solving broad classes of problems. They used the general-purpose search mechanism to find a solution to the problem. Such approaches, now referred to as weak methods, applied weak information about the problem domain.
- By 1970, the euphoria about AI was gone, and most government funding for AI projects was cancelled. AI was still a relatively new field, academic in nature, with few practical applications apart from playing games. So, to the outsider, the achieved results would be seen as toys, as no AI system at that time could manage real-world problems.

#### Unfulfilled promises, or the impact of reality (late 1960s – early 1970s)

#### The main difficulties for AI in the late 1960s were:

- Because AI researchers were developing general methods for broad classes of problems, early programs contained little or even no knowledge about a problem domain. To solve problems, programs applied a search strategy by trying out different combinations of small steps, until the right one was found. This approach was quite feasible for simple toy problems, so it seemed reasonable that, if the programs could be "scaled up" to solve large problems, they would finally succeed.
- Many of the problems that AI attempted to solve were too broad and too difficult. A typical task for early AI was machine translation. For example, the National Research Council, USA, funded the translation of Russian scientific papers after the launch of the first artificial satellite (Sputnik) in 1957. Initially, the project team tried simply replacing Russian words with English, using an electronic dictionary. However, it was soon found that translation requires a general understanding of the subject to choose the correct words. This task was too difficult. In 1966, all translation projects funded by the US government were cancelled.

In 1971, the British government also suspended support for AI research. Sir James Lighthill had been commissioned by the Science Research Council of Great Britain to review the current state of AI. He did not find any major or even significant results from AI research, and therefore saw no need to have a separate science called "artificial intelligence".

#### Soft Computing



















## How to make a machine learn, or the rebirth of neural networks (mid-1980s – onwards)

- In the mid-eighties, researchers, engineers and experts found that building an expert system required much more than just buying a reasoning system or expert system shell and putting enough rules in it. Disillusions about the applicability of expert system technology even led to people predicting an AI "winter" with severely squeezed funding for AI projects. AI researchers decided to have a new look at neural networks.
- By the late sixties, most of the basic ideas and concepts necessary for neural computing had already been formulated. However, only in the mid-eighties did the solution emerge. The major reason for the delay was technological: there were no PCs or powerful workstations to model and experiment with artificial neural networks.
- In the eighties, because of the need for brain-like information processing, as well as the advances in computer technology and progress in neuroscience, the field of neural networks experienced a dramatic resurgence. Major contributions to both theory and design were made on several fronts.

- Grossberg established a new principle of selforganisation (*adaptive resonance theory*), which provided the basis for a new class of neural networks (Grossberg, 1980).
- Hopfield introduced neural networks with feedback
   *Hopfield networks*, which attracted much attention in the eighties (Hopfield, 1982).
- Kohonen published a paper on *self-organising maps* (Kohonen, 1982).
- Barto, Sutton and Anderson published their work on *reinforcement learning* and its application in control (Barto et al., 1983).
- But the real breakthrough came in 1986 when the *back-propagation learning algorithm*, first introduced by Bryson and Ho in 1969 (Bryson & Ho, 1969), was reinvented by Rumelhart and McClelland in *Parallel Distributed Processing* (1986).
- Artificial neural networks have come a long way from the early models of McCulloch and Pitts to an interdisciplinary subject with roots in neuroscience, psychology, mathematics and engineering, and will continue to develop in both theory and practical applications.







## The new era of knowledge engineering, or computing with words (late 1980s – onwards)

Neural network technology offers more natural interaction with the real world than do systems based on symbolic reasoning. Neural networks can learn, adapt to changes in a problem's environment, establish patterns in situations where rules are not known, and deal with fuzzy or incomplete information. However, they lack explanation facilities and usually act as a black box. The process of training neural networks with current technologies is slow, and frequent retraining can cause serious difficulties.





























# Evolutionary Algorithms: EP Evolutionary Programming (EP) Originally proposed for sequence prediction and optimal gaming strategies Currently focused on continuous parameter optimization and training of NNs Could be considered a special case of (μ + μ)-ES without recombination operator Focus on behavior of species (hence no crossover) Proposed by *Larry Fogel (1963)*



# Evolutionary Algorithms: GP Genetic Programming (GP) A special case of Genetic Algorithms Chromosomes have a hierarchical rather than a linear structure Their sizes are not predefined Individuals are tree-structured programs Modified operators are applied to sub-trees or single nodes Proposed by Koza (1992)







L. Reznik		
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	Synergy in SC: Reasons & Approaches	
	Loose Hybridization (Model Fusion)	
	Does not combine <i>features</i> of methodologies - only their	
	results	
	• Their outputs are compared, contrasted, and aggregated,	
	to increase reliability	
	Hybrid Search Methods	
	- Intertwining <i>local</i> search within <i>global</i> search	
	- Embedding knowledge in operators for global search	
•	Future:	
	- Circle of SC's related technologies will probably widen	
	beyond its current constituents.	
	<ul> <li>Push for low-cost solutions and intelligent tools will result in deployment of hybrid SC systems that</li> </ul>	
	integrate reasoning and search techniques.	