FIRST ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE COLORING BOOK pdf

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The First Artificial Intelligence Coloring Book (Art and Computers) by Harold Cohen (Author) â€º Visit Amazon's Harold Cohen Page. Find all the books, read about the.

Precursors[edit] The dream of artificial intelligence was first thought of in Indian philosophies like those of Charvaka , a famous philosophy tradition dating back to BCE and surviving documents around BCE. The faithful believed that craftsman had imbued these figures with very real minds, capable of wisdom and emotionâ€” Hermes Trismegistus wrote that "by discovering the true nature of the gods, man has been able to reproduce it. The study of mechanicalâ€—or "formal"â€—reasoning has a long history. Chinese , Indian and Greek philosophers all developed structured methods of formal deduction in the first millennium BCE. For it would suffice to take their pencils in hand, down to their slates, and to say each other with a friend as witness, if they liked: In the 20th century, the study of mathematical logic provided the essential breakthrough that made artificial intelligence seem plausible. This photo has been artificially darkened, obscuring details such as the women who were present and the IBM equipment in use. First, they proved that there were, in fact, limits to what mathematical logic could accomplish. But second and more important for AI their work suggested that, within these limits, any form of mathematical reasoning could be mechanized. The Church-Turing thesis implied that a mechanical device, shuffling symbols as simple as 0 and 1, could imitate any conceivable process of mathematical deduction. The key insight was the Turing machine â€—a simple theoretical construct that captured the essence of abstract symbol manipulation. This invention would inspire a handful of scientists to begin discussing the possibility of thinking machines. In the early 19th century, Charles Babbage designed a programmable computer the Analytical Engine , although it was never built. Ada Lovelace speculated that the machine "might compose elaborate and scientific pieces of music of any degree of complexity or extent". The latter two of these machines were based on the theoretical foundation laid by Alan Turing [24] and developed by John von Neumann. In the s and 50s, a handful of scientists from a variety of fields mathematics, psychology, engineering, economics and political science began to discuss the possibility of creating an artificial brain. The field of artificial intelligence research was founded as an academic discipline in Cybernetics and early neural networks[edit] The earliest research into thinking machines was inspired by a confluence of ideas that became prevalent in the late s, s, and early s. Recent research in neurology had shown that the brain was an electrical network of neurons that fired in all-or-nothing pulses. The close relationship between these ideas suggested that it might be possible to construct an electronic brain. These machines did not use computers, digital electronics or symbolic reasoning; they were controlled entirely by analog circuitry. They were the first to describe what later researchers would call a neural network. If a machine could carry on a conversation over a teleprinter that was indistinguishable from a conversation with a human being, then it was reasonable to say that the machine was "thinking". This simplified version of the problem allowed Turing to argue convincingly that a "thinking machine" was at least plausible and the paper answered all the most common objections to the proposition. Symbolic reasoning and the Logic Theorist[edit] When access to digital computers became possible in the middle fifties, a few scientists instinctively recognized that a machine that could manipulate numbers could also manipulate symbols and that the manipulation of symbols could well be the essence of human thought. This was a new approach to creating thinking machines. Simon created the " Logic Theorist " with help from J. The proposal for the conference included this assertion: Simon , all of whom would create important programs during the first decades of AI research. The programs that were developed during this time were, to most people, simply "astonishing": Few at the time would have believed that such "intelligent" behavior by machines was possible at all. Among the most influential were these: Reasoning as search[edit] Many early AI programs used the same basic algorithm. To achieve some goal like winning a game or proving a theorem , they proceeded step by step towards it by making a move or a deduction as if searching through a maze, backtracking whenever they reached a dead end. This paradigm was called " reasoning as search ". Researchers would reduce the search space by using heuristics or " rules of thumb " that would eliminate those paths that were unlikely to lead to a solution. She simply gave a canned

response or repeated back what was said to her, rephrasing her response with a few grammar rules. ELIZA was the first chatterbot. They pointed out that in successful sciences like physics, basic principles were often best understood using simplified models like frictionless planes or perfectly rigid bodies. Much of the research focused on a " blocks world ," which consists of colored blocks of various shapes and sizes arrayed on a flat surface. At the same time, Minsky and Papert built a robot arm that could stack blocks, bringing the blocks world to life. It could communicate in ordinary English sentences, plan operations and execute them. Simon and Allen Newell: DARPA continued to provide three million dollars a year until the 70s. Licklider , then the director of ARPA , believed that his organization should "fund people, not projects! Its limb control system allowed it to walk with the lower limbs, and to grip and transport objects with hands, using tactile sensors. Its vision system allowed it to measure distances and directions to objects using external receptors, artificial eyes and ears. And its conversation system allowed it to communicate with a person in Japanese, with an artificial mouth. AI researchers had failed to appreciate the difficulty of the problems they faced. Their tremendous optimism had raised expectations impossibly high, and when the promised results failed to materialize, funding for AI disappeared. Even the most impressive could only handle trivial versions of the problems they were supposed to solve; all the programs were, in some sense, "toys". Although some of these limits would be conquered in later decades, others still stymie the field to this day. There was not enough memory or processing speed to accomplish anything truly useful. He suggested an analogy: Intractability and the combinatorial explosion. Finding optimal solutions to these problems requires unimaginable amounts of computer time except when the problems are trivial. This almost certainly meant that many of the "toy" solutions used by AI would probably never scale up into useful systems. Many important artificial intelligence applications like vision or natural language require simply enormous amounts of information about the world: This requires that the program know most of the same things about the world that a child does. Researchers soon discovered that this was a truly vast amount of information. No one in could build a database so large and no one knew how a program might learn so much information. Proving theorems and solving geometry problems is comparatively easy for computers, but a supposedly simple task like recognizing a face or crossing a room without bumping into anything is extremely difficult. This helps explain why research into vision and robotics had made so little progress by the middle s. AI researchers like John McCarthy who used logic discovered that they could not represent ordinary deductions that involved planning or default reasoning without making changes to the structure of logic itself. They developed new logics like non-monotonic logics and modal logics to try to solve the problems. The pattern began as early as when the ALPAC report appeared criticizing machine translation efforts. After spending 20 million dollars, the NRC ended all support. Hans Moravec blamed the crisis on the unrealistic predictions of his colleagues. Funding for the creative, freewheeling exploration that had gone on in the 60s would not come from DARPA. Instead, the money was directed at specific projects with clear objectives, such as autonomous tanks and battle management systems. Philosophy of artificial intelligence Several philosophers had strong objections to the claims being made by AI researchers. If the symbols have no meaning for the machine, Searle argued, then the machine can not be described as "thinking". Problems like intractability and commonsense knowledge seemed much more immediate and serious. It was unclear what difference " know how " or " intentionality " made to an actual computer program. Minsky said of Dreyfus and Searle "they misunderstand, and should be ignored. A feud began, and the situation was not helped when Colby did not credit Weizenbaum for his contribution to the program. In , Weizenbaum published Computer Power and Human Reason which argued that the misuse of artificial intelligence has the potential to devalue human life. Like most AI researchers, he was optimistic about their power, predicting that "perceptron may eventually be able to learn, make decisions, and translate languages. The effect of the book was devastating: Eventually, a new generation of researchers would revive the field and thereafter it would become a vital and useful part of artificial intelligence. Rosenblatt would not live to see this, as he died in a boating accident shortly after the book was published. Alan Robinson had discovered a simple method to implement deduction on computers, the resolution and unification algorithm. However, straightforward implementations, like those attempted by McCarthy and his students in the late s, were especially intractable: Simon that would lead to Soar and their unified theories of cognition. He argued

that what is really needed are machines that can solve problemsâ€”not machines that think as people do. Marvin Minsky , Seymour Papert and Roger Schank were trying to solve problems like "story understanding" and "object recognition" that required a machine to think like a person. In order to use ordinary concepts like "chair" or "restaurant" they had to make all the same illogical assumptions that people normally made. Unfortunately, imprecise concepts like these are hard to represent in logic. For example, if we use the concept of a bird, there is a constellation of facts that immediately come to mind: We know these facts are not always true and that deductions using these facts will not be "logical", but these structured sets of assumptions are part of the context of everything we say and think. He called these structures " frames ". Schank used a version of frames he called " scripts " to successfully answer questions about short stories in English. Boom â€”[edit] In the s a form of AI program called " expert systems " was adopted by corporations around the world and knowledge became the focus of mainstream AI research. In those same years, the Japanese government aggressively funded AI with its.

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6: Timeline of artificial intelligence - Wikipedia

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7: Biography of Harold Cohen

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