

3 **A New AI**

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6 *Artificial intelligence (AI) is a recent subfield of the already young field of computer*
7 *science, which has clear mathematical foundations in complexity and queuing*
8 *theories as well as solid engineering in compilers, databases, and computer*
9 *architecture. AI, in contrast, has been notably ill-defined and has been mostly an*
10 *applied practice of two kinds: 1) symbolic reasoning and 2) neural networks. Both*
11 *have an extensive scientific basis but the claim of both to be “AI” is disputed.*
12 *Certainly, this is unnecessary; but the dispute arises because the actual application*
13 *of AI seems unambitious given its name. We examine this through a personal*
14 *retrospective and suggest some future research.*

15 **I**t is hopeless to cover the history of artificial intelligence (AI), so I will only hit highlights that were
16 important to me personally. This will be my personal retrospective together with the thoughts I have
17 had in retirement that may be, or not, of value to those who continue the research. As an officially old person,
18 I get to go way back.

19 I started computing when my university got its first mainframe and offered its first undergraduate programming
20 course (FORTRAN IV). I read the textbook during the Mardi Gras holidays (LSU), figured out how
21 to steal an account, found the subroutines for running the Calcomp plotter, and started ignoring the class.
22 When I had exhausted the account and the patience of the machine operators, I showed my instructor
23 what I had done. He pulled me from the class and put me to work writing graphics subroutines for the engineering
24 department. Until then, they had no way of rotating objects and viewing them from different perspectives
25 on the computer. That is where we were in computing when I started.

26 At the same time, I was introduced to mathematical logic, which would be the basis for symbolic computing.
27 I was only 20 and impressionable.

38 **SYMBOLIC VERSUS LEARNING AI**

39 With the success of deep learning, now that is what is often meant by “AI.” But, of course, it is just one technique
40 with pros and cons, and new research and

41 developments. The division is not as deep as some imply.¹ Symbolic reasoning is still taught in computer
42 science departments and good work is going on in combining the advantages of both.² Deep learning is
43 critically important for entire nations racing for advantage in the new technology. It might be worth noting
44 that previously Japan and the U.S. had a competition in logic programming.
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46 My concern here is that neither is about finding a model of intelligence but rather mostly on producing
47 more useful computer applications. In fact, I have often objected to using the word “intelligent” to
48 describe technologies as a meaningless adjective.³ But before I get to this, let me dig into the kinds of AI
49 a bit more rather than giving them only the aforementioned dismissive paragraph.
50

51 **SYMBOLIC AI**

52 Symbolic AI is of particular importance to me. I was introduced to mathematical logic by Kleene’s introductory
53 textbook⁴ as an undergraduate and at the same time I learned FORTRAN. So all through my first
54 year of mathematics graduate school, I worked on what I thought was an original idea that proofs could
55 be computer-generated in spite of Gödel’s incompleteness theorem, much to the dismay of my mathematics
56 professors who thought computers were not important. From that ignominious start, I somehow
57 ended up studying and working under Prof. Woody Bledsoe in the 1980s, just after having discovered Jon
58 Doyle’s then recent paper on “Truth Maintenance” (TMS),⁵ which has inspired much of my research. I was
59 captured by the idea that some form of automatic theorem proving (ATM) and TMS with dependence-
60 directed backtracking (DDB) could lead to help with
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77 distributed problem solving. Our group built some
78 pretty sophisticated (for the time) reasoning mecha-
79 nisms that had some initial success.⁶

80 The point about this is that almost as soon as I had
81 discovered AI, I realized that it was not about “intelli-
82 gence” as much as it was harnessing new symbolic
83 reasoning mechanisms based on computational logic
84 to do useful things not previously feasible, starting
85 with natural language processing under Bob Sim-
86 mons.⁷ This was fun, challenging, and satisfying. I got
87 a pretty good career out of it. And I do not think that
88 kind of AI is finished.

89 I pursued symbolic reasoning at Stanford with
90 agents, planning, and semantic networks. A lot has
91 been done by this community and it continues today. I
92 have been a steadfast critic of overblown expecta-
93 tions about specific technologies, but I have never
94 doubted their potential even if it has yet to be realized.
95 My main criticism of the community has, in fact, been
96 is failure to tackle hard problems. For years, I headed
97 the Semantic Web Challenge,⁸ which showed just how
98 hard even simple problems could be, especially if one
99 is trying to create composable technologies. In fact,
100 that was the vision: Pieces of problem solving technol-
101 ogy could be automatically assembled to solve ever
102 large problems. This vision has yet to be realized,
103 mostly because there is no academic credit to be had
104 in solving the remaining hard engineering issues and
105 the industrial engineering community is not interested
106 in the exotic academic technologies.

107 I also espoused another vision, about which I have
108 often written in this magazine.⁹ The idea was that
109 rather than solving problems, computers could help
110 coordinate humans to work together in large distrib-
111 uted projects. The system would not just allow
112 humans to share information but would proactively
113 detect both overall design conflicts and opportunities
114 and offer suggestions about how the people involved
115 might resolve these collectively. I called this research
116 “Coordination Science”¹⁰ and pointed out that my own
117 work was only an existence proof and that many
118 issues in the topic offered a rich field of research as
119 well as a big potential for improving large project man-
120 agement. In fact, it was Doyle’s original TMS that
121 inspired this vision so many years ago.

122 Why have none of these symbolic efforts met
123 expectations? This is, in part, because our expecta-
124 tions were too high for the state of the technology.
125 Expert systems were originally derided for their lack of
126 success; in fact, that technology was widely used
127 though it was embedded in other systems.¹¹ The gen-
128 eral failure of symbolic reasoning to meet claims is
129 not only that the claims were too visionary, but also

130 that the technologies were not easily incorporated
131 into more traditional systems and that they were often
132 solving problems that no one was asking nor would
133 ask. One of our initial technologies back in the 1980s
134 was an early success for a while until the company
135 using it determined after a few years that they simply
136 could not train enough industrial engineers to support
137 the new product, as there was no overlap with stan-
138 dard technologies.⁶

139 As another personal case, in looking back over my
140 promotion of coordination science, I now see that I
141 failed to appreciate many social factors: especially
142 that of community. We had actually built a prototype
143 of a coordination system that solved an important
144 problem for a major defense contractor. But while
145 they appreciated much of it, they took our distributed
146 system and mashed it into a centralized one, because
147 the engineers preferred to work together in one room
148 on one computer rather than on distributed special-
149 ized ones. Later, I published a completely informal the-
150 ory called emergent collectives also about distributed
151 work but about ones that expanded because the indi-
152 viduals had the feeling they were contributing to a
153 community.¹² This throw-away informal thesis was sur-
154 prisingly popular.

155 I never put those two things together until now,
156 many years later. And I suspect that much of the
157 agent and semantic network community are still
158 struggling with a similar lack of appreciation for how
159 the “neurotypical” works. I strongly suspect that many
160 of us in these fields are the kind of people who are
161 puzzled by large groups of people who turn out to
162 cheer sports teams. I could go on about this, but it is
163 not the main point and I have probably said too much
164 already. I will just note that a common joke in Silicon
165 Valley is that it is where people with Asperger’s come
166 to breed.

DEEP LEARNING

167 As this is not my area of expertise, I will give it even
168 shorter shrift than I have symbolic reasoning.
169

Early Days

170 Neural networks were widely derided by we, the sym-
171 bolic reasoning researchers, in the early days. One rea-
172 son was on principle. What did it mean to learn
173 something? There are, in symbolic reasoning, only
174 three kinds of reasoning. Inductive reasoning is com-
175 mon but unreliable. Abductive reasoning is less com-
176 mon and may lead one down wrong path, but is used
177 in DDB; it will eventually lead to an answer consistent
178 with deductive reasoning. Deductive reasoning is
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180 reliable but the knowledge deduced was in some
181 sense already known as it was implicit in the logical
182 closure of the axioms and deductive system. The only
183 sense of “learning” in such thinking is discovery of
184 empirical fact. So how could neural networks be learn-
185 ing anything?

186 Neural networks were also derided by people such
187 as me because when we experimented with the sys-
188 tems back in the 1980s, we found that reported suc-
189 cesses depended heavily upon the researchers
190 stopping the cycling of the systems when they recog-
191 nized a correct answer.

192 Finally, such systems were derided by us because
193 it was clear that, unlike symbolic systems, the results
194 were “black boxes” that imparted no knowledge about
195 the relationship of intrinsic conceptual relationships.
196 These were systems that may somehow be trained to
197 behave usefully.

198 Deep Learning Wins

199 Flash forward to now and learning systems completely
200 dominate “AI.” The systems can be trained not only to
201 be useful but to win cognitive games to which sym-
202 bolic systems only aspired for decades. When in 2016
203 AlphaMove made the 37th move in the second game
204 against Lee Sedol, it was also game over for symbolic
205 reasoning.¹³

206 What happened is best explained elsewhere, but
207 faster machines enabled more layers of neural net-
208 works (thus “deep”) and together with other techni-
209 ques such as reinforcement learning, combining
210 feature extraction with classification, and various
211 advanced computation techniques, as well as access
212 to big data, now the successes of deep learning are
213 widely appreciated and even feared.

214 And what did they learn? What they learned is at
215 least analogous to the theories developed by scientists
216 to explain empirical facts. These theories are successful
217 because they usefully predict results. Anyone of these
218 theories could be wrong in which new findings would
219 invalidate them. So theories are not the kind of knowl-
220 edge symbolic reasoners understand, or we understand
221 them to be merely inductive. And worse, it is very diffi-
222 cult to impossible to actually extract such theories from
223 deep learning systems. But if we ourselves are learning
224 anything, it is such theories that can predict results,
225 which turn out to be incredibly useful.

226 That said, their applications are still limited and
227 can still be extended by symbolic reasoning. Their rea-
228 soning explanation systems are still virtually nonexist-
229 ent, though work is advancing in this area as well. But
230 finally, notice that though “behaving usefully” is quite

an understatement of deep learning systems, they are 231
still only doing that. While there is real science behind 232
these systems, they tell us little about the reasoning 233
employed for particular results. 234

Common Critique of Both 235

Symbolic AI also concentrated on results. Of course 236
results are paramount. But symbolic reasoning 237
researchers mostly did what I did: We realized that it 238
was too early to usefully conjecture about the nature of 239
intelligence, and instead, we concentrated on increas- 240
ingly sophisticated reasoning systems, based upon con- 241
structed knowledge networks, that could be useful. 242
When deep learning systems produced systems that 243
were more useful, then that technology won that game. 244

Of course there is much more that could be done. 245
And, as with learning systems, no one knows what 246
might grow out of such research in the decades to 247
come. Not only is the combination of symbolic and 248
learning systems promising² but symbolic systems still 249
have the potential to produce, for example, plans that 250
are provably correct but revisable as well. Learning 251
systems might produce better coordination systems 252
than the symbolic ones that were they applied to that 253
application. Semantic networks might be linked by 254
metasemantics that augment linked systems. 255

Still, all this seems to miss the mark of AI even 256
more than did the well-known simple script-based pro- 257
gram Eliza.¹⁴ I and other researchers have not been 258
ambitious enough, reasonably because of the state of 259
computer technology. But it is the 21st century and 260
time perhaps to be more ambitious, especially since 261
the first steps may not involve more than ambitious 262
thinking. 263

INTELLIGENCE 264

If we are going to discuss “AI,” it might be worthwhile 265
to point out that we do not really have a good consen- 266
sus definition of the word “intelligence.” For instance, 267
if you ask someone on the spectrum if they know 268
what time it is, and they reply “yes,” is that answer 269
intelligent? Is that person? 270

Intelligent Software Agents 271

As noted previously, I do not like using the word “intel- 272
ligence” to describe technologies³ because it is usually 273
used as a marketing term rather than to distinguish 274
technologies, which is what names should do.¹⁵ But to 275
reprise a talk I have given on this topic,[†] it is useful to 276

[†]<http://www-cdr.stanford.edu/~petrie/Intelligence/index.html>

277 consider what this means to at least one technology
 278 class: "Intelligent software agents," because, as I have
 279 said and written many times during my professional
 280 career, technical distinctions without a difference are
 281 worse than useless.

282 I once gave a talk on the mushy use of this term for
 283 this technology. It was in Europe, so no one stood up
 284 in public to argue with me, but a young researcher
 285 came to me afterward with what she seemed to think
 286 was a solid counterexample: "But I'm building an intel-
 287 ligent agent." My reply was "How would you know?"
 288 She went off to think about it.[‡]

289 Intelligent software agents as a technology have
 290 been variously defined as software that is reactive,
 291 deliberative, perceptive, sensing, and/or autonomous.
 292 The alert reader will note that these are hopelessly
 293 subjective criteria. I have previously proposed an opera-
 294 tional definition that would distinguish this technol-
 295 ogy.¹⁶ Part of the definition depended upon the
 296 messaging protocol. Another part is more relevant for
 297 this discussion: The agents in such a system must
 298 accomplish a task by exchanging messages and must
 299 use a peer-to-peer protocol in order to achieve optimum
 300 task performance. This definition admittedly depends
 301 upon some definition of accomplishing an application
 302 task optimally. But it is better than "autonomous."

303 An individual software module is not an agent at all
 304 if it can communicate with the other candidate agents
 305 with only a client/server protocol without degradation
 306 of the collective task performance. In the work by Pet-
 307 rie,³ I argue that this definition captured and excluded
 308 software systems that fit our intuitions of the name
 309 and so was a viable thesis.[§] I am not going to go fur-
 310 ther down that path here as I have previously written
 311 about this and it is out of scope for this retrospective
 312 and the critique of AI I want to make here.

313 Intelligence Is Social

314 The key idea that I want to abstract from that defini-
 315 tion thesis is that of volunteering useful information in
 316 order to accomplish better a joint task. More precisely,
 317 but not much more, I want to propose that intelligence
 318 can only be demonstrated socially. An agent (of some
 319 level of personhood) is intelligent when it can under-
 320 stand, perhaps without being told, the goal of at least

one other agent and act (perhaps only with a speech 321
 act) to either help or hinder that goal, in furtherance 322
 of its own goal. I am not going to go into a deep dis- 323
 cussion about how these goals are to be known here, 324
 though that would be a fun discussion. 325

326 Consider the following examples, please. If you talk
 327 to someone and you can predict all of their replies,
 328 you will not think they are intelligent. If you ask them
 329 what time it is and the answer is always "noon," the
 330 conclusion is the same. If you asked in 2001 "Do you
 331 know the conversion from Euros into Deutsche
 332 Marks?" and the person replied "Yes, it is 2.1, but you
 333 should know there will be no more DM after next Jan-
 334 uary," you would consider that an intelligent answer. If
 335 you asked a travel agent "Can you please provide me
 336 with a travel package to Croatia?," a clever travel
 337 agent might say "Here is everything you need based
 338 on your personal preferences." But an even more
 339 clever agent in 1994 might say "You might want to go
 340 to Greece," based upon current war conditions. "You
 341 might consider Crete this year" says the really smart
 342 travel agency in an unsolicited e-mail nine months
 343 after the first Greek trip, anticipating a return trip. You
 344 should see that these examples fit this social idea of
 345 intelligence.

346 One might reasonably object that various kinds
 347 intelligence tests do not involve this idea of intelli-
 348 gence. Again, without a long discussion, I would
 349 counter that either just some talent or skill is being
 350 tested, or the testee is figuring out what the tester
 351 intended. I have done the latter personally in order to
 352 test well. I am always modeling the mind of the tester
 353 in order to give the "right" answers. I have found this
 354 to be of immense use even in university physics. One
 355 time I scored 94 in a physics test when the next high-
 356 est grade in the class was in the 1970s. I know from
 357 talks with my classmates that I did not understand
 358 the physics we were being taught any better than
 359 some of them, but I asked questions of the professor
 360 constantly and so understood the answers he wanted
 361 better than anyone else who took the test.

362 You should also see how this definition fits game
 363 playing: especially AlphaMove's 37th move in which it
 364 purportedly made the move thinking the human player
 365 would not expect it. My only other comment here is
 366 that we would recognize AlphaMove as really intelli-
 367 gent if it could do this in general circumstances rather
 368 than in just the narrow domain of the game of Go.

369 Machines That Outperform Humans

370 This should be contrasted with "Eliza," which fooled
 371 people who did not know its code. They ascribed

[‡]This is similar to the third question of the three questions I ask from Ph.D. thesis proposers: What is the problem you propose to solve, why should I care about it, and how should I determine whether you have made any progress toward a solution?

[§]The idea of such a "thesis" is that some more formal definition captures the notions of informal usage of a word, such as "computability."

372 agency to it, in part because humans seem predis-
 373 posed to ascribe agency to everything: Vengeful winds
 374 in pantheism or cognitive atoms in process philosophy
 375 are examples. I also ascribe the power of Eliza to the
 376 fact that most people at the time were unfamiliar with
 377 computers and were surprised at the apparent
 378 insights generated by this simple algorithm, an algo-
 379 rithm long before discovered by humans. Eliza *seem-*
 380 *ingly* generated surprisingly and useful statements
 381 based upon knowing something about the user. It
 382 seemed intelligent. This mistake points to the social
 383 nature of our perception of intelligence.

384 Again, I am not denigrating autonomous vehicles
 385 or powerful automatic theorem provers (ATPs). But I
 386 have never seen an ATP program I thought was intelli-
 387 gent. Even in the old days when I was young and could
 388 actually prove theorems they gave us in class, even as
 389 a human, I was not doing it intelligently. I, like some
 390 others, had some degree of innate talent. Give me a
 391 theorem, and I will give you a proof, for sufficiently
 392 simple theorems. But I had no idea of the use of these
 393 theorems. In fact, I would forget ones I had proved as
 394 soon as I proved the next theorem. I was just a human
 395 ATP: I was displaying a talent, not intelligence.

396 At the risk of creating a strawman, this example
 397 does offer a possible critique of my own idea of intelli-
 398 gence though. Surely ATP is an example of “mere” use-
 399 ful problem-solving, at least when it is applied. And
 400 “useful” implies goals. If ATP is used to help someone,
 401 does that not fit with my proposed definition of intelli-
 402 gence? Not really. It is we researchers who are display-
 403 ing intelligence by developing problem-solvers that will
 404 help other people. If we have correctly modeled those
 405 people and our software is seen as having the potential
 406 to solve problems about which those people care, then
 407 we may get funded. But this does not mean that the
 408 useful problem-solving software itself is intelligent.

409 There are many possible elaborations of this
 410 notion of intelligence. Certainly, speed of developing
 411 surprisingly useful information is important as well as
 412 the degree of surprising usefulness. Mathematics and
 413 physics provide communication mediation, as well as
 414 the hierarchies of people that understand and can
 415 appreciate these results to various degrees, and apply
 416 them to improving problem solutions.

417 My thesis here, in summary, is that intelligence is
 418 best understood objectively as a social phenomenon
 419 where one agent acts or volunteers information sur-
 420 prisingly in such a way as to help or hinder the goals of
 421 a second agent in accordance with the goals of the
 422 first. But that is just my simplistic notion of intelli-
 423 gence, and as such, may be wrong or not even wrong.
 424 It is certainly not well developed.

425 My real point is that were AI to have pursued that,
 426 or some other, specific idea of intelligence initially, we
 427 might have been further along by now, instead of
 428 developing merely (very) useful engineering applica-
 429 tions. That is my critique of AI in this section: It has
 430 never had a well-defined goal. This brings to mind
 431 Lewis Carroll’s saying that if you don’t know where
 432 you’re going, any road will get you there. It may be
 433 time to refocus.

434 But I have another and very different critique of AI,
 435 and suggestion for ambitious thought.

ARCHITECTURES OF THINKING

436 Another, and not inconsistent, way for AI to have gone
 437 was to try to understand “mind” in computational
 438 terms. Early work seemed to point in this direction but
 439 not much has been done. A few software systems
 440 have gone so far as to define “concepts” but I have
 441 never found these to be persuasive (here I skip refer-
 442 ences as they would be pejorative).
 443

444 My father was an appliance mechanic for Sears
 445 (Google it). He drove to people’s homes, usually out in
 446 the country since we lived in a rural part of Louisiana,
 447 in response to reported malfunctions. Dad would
 448 return home in the evening with gifts of vegetables
 449 and humorous stories. One story was that a woman
 450 complained that her washing machine simply did not
 451 run at all. My father pointed out to her that the wash
 452 settings dial was set in between two settings. She was
 453 used to radio dials, which were more or less continu-
 454 ous. This was her first exposure to digital thinking.
 455 When a researcher can show me how her concept of
 456 “dial” can evolve from continuous to discrete settings,
 457 I will allow as to how they might be on to something.
 458 When they can computationally explain why the rest
 459 of us would see the problem and laugh without an
 460 explanation that she only knew of radio dials, I will be
 461 very impressed.

462 This is my segue into a careful discussion of an
 463 aspect of consciousness, which I carefully avoided in
 464 the section “Machines that Outperform Humans.” I am
 465 not proposing solving that problem. And I know that
 466 many people have tried to “computerize” cognition. I
 467 just think they have missed something basic.

468 Previously I have proposed that intelligence
 469 involves modeling someone else’s goals. In order to
 470 get on with something more substantial, I will here
 471 briefly propose the not-controversial notion that con-
 472 sciousness involves modeling one’s self. This is more
 473 than just being aware of one’s surroundings and not
 474 only reacting, but planning actions, in order to main-
 475 tain one’s homeostasis. Consciousness allows one to

476 reflect upon one's thinking about this process, and in
477 fact, there is probably a metric of consciousness
478 dependent on how many layers of regression of such
479 thinking of which one is capable. Maybe tests can be
480 designed to measure this. I do not know. I am inter-
481 ested in theories that have explicative power. That is,
482 more specific theories that predict results consistent
483 with our experiences. Such theories would be similar
484 to Turing's thesis that his formal notion of computable
485 functions fit mathematicians' intuitive use of the term.

486 There is a lot of work on the neural basis of consci-
487 ousness. I will only cite here one book,¹⁷ which
488 explores the possible neural basis of consciousness in
489 depth, and a popular article by the same author.¹⁸ The
490 latter notes that our consciousness arises in the cere-
491 bral cortex, which is an expanded version of the wulst,
492 which, in turn, arose from the more primitive tectum. I
493 am here not interested in consciousness *per se*.

494 I am interested in that these theories involve self-
495 modeling in order to control *attention*. The theory
496 espoused here is that these physical structures
497 evolved to support increasingly powerful modeling
498 functionality, including self-modeling, and then the
499 modeling of others. It argues that other animals are
500 also self-conscious to varying degrees that proved
501 useful in their evolution. This is not much of a "theory"
502 by my standards, but I want to quote one line in the
503 popular article¹⁸: "Even if you've turned your back on
504 an object, your cortex can still focus its processing
505 resources on it."

506 What did that sentence mean? For me, a crucial
507 question about thinking is "what is attention"? If it
508 means switching the focus of processing resources,
509 what are those resources? I do not think so far that
510 the neural basis of thinking that has been done with
511 MRIs and such is very helpful, at least to computer sci-
512 entists. We should rather be asking about the compu-
513 tational mechanism at work.

514 Attention

515 We all know what "attention" is: We use it and depend
516 upon drawing other people's attention to things. But
517 really, how does that work?

518 We know how it works in computers. There is a
519 central processing unit (CPU) that is fed instructions
520 from various programs to execute. There is an operat-
521 ing system (OS) that determines how many of the
522 cycles of the CPU each program gets at any one time.
523 In computers controlling real-world processes, sen-
524 sors may feed into the some kind of "interrupt pad"
525 that will override normal programs and give prece-
526 dence to a program that should respond to the sensor

527 input. That is a kind of attention we understand at the
528 level of a mechanical operating process, that is to say,
529 computationally. The interrupt pad refocuses the
530 processing power of the CPU on an important pro-
531 gram. What is the computational mechanism of our
532 attention? *What are the computational resources*
533 *being refocused?* That is, here, the primary issue to
534 which I want to draw your attention.

535 The neural studies I cite earlier, and many others,
536 make it clear that the brain is composed of a dazzling
537 array of specialized structures interacting with each
538 other in ways we have yet to understand fully, if we
539 ever do. Minsky proposed this long ago.¹⁹ What is
540 important for me is that all of these structures are
541 specialized for some purpose. And everyone of those
542 neuron connection structures is weighted for a spe-
543 cial purpose. That is how neural networks work. There
544 seems to be no general purpose "CPU."

545 Were there such? It would be some set of neurons
546 and connections that are so flexible as to experience
547 and control other specialized sets, and indeed train
548 the specialized structures. When I say "mimic," I actu-
549 ally do not know what I am saying exactly. When your
550 attention is drawn to one set of thoughts over
551 another, it is clear that the thoughts are different and
552 specialized. But somehow the "you" that is now think-
553 ing differently is the same.

554 If attention is performed by a separate structure
555 itself, and there is evidence it is and where it is
556 located,[¶] its job is to create some kind of model that
557 can "experience" the processes of other structures. It
558 devotes some kind of general resource to these pro-
559 cesses. But this general resource is some kind of spe-
560 cialized structure itself. Whatever it is, this is the
561 computational resource being refocused.

562 We can be pretty sure there is not some set of neu-
563 rons somewhere in our brain that can instantly adopt
564 the weightings and connections of other neuron-
565 ic structures and carry out their processes and thus cre-
566 ate our experience of those processes. Rather there is
567 more likely a structure that can model, at some level
568 of abstraction, what processes any of those structures
569 are performing, with inputs from those structures to
570 stimulate the model/simulation. Attention is switching
571 those inputs, and of course there are control mecha-
572 nisms for that switching. *But it is what resources are*
573 *being switched that is the computational puzzle.*

574 This is far from some simple CPU that can process
575 different instructions. We actually do not know what

[¶]The book¹⁷ precisely locates it in the dorsal temporoparietal junction.

576 the attention brain structure is doing, but we should.
 577 Computer science, in general, should be thinking
 578 about what kind of computational mechanism could
 579 do this.

580 Subjective Time

581 Whatever this mechanism is should explain our experi-
 582 ence of subjective time. We all know that when we
 583 focus on an external event, we slow it down. Some-
 584 how, the more we concentrate, the slower the event
 585 occurs. A watched pot never boils. The accident
 586 unfolds in slow motion. What exactly is being concen-
 587 trated? What is this resource?

588 On the other hand, if we are pleasantly distracted,
 589 time flies. One simple hypothesis is that one of our
 590 specialized processes is “counting” changes and keep-
 591 ing time that way. When we are pleasantly distracted,
 592 resources are diverted somehow from that counting
 593 process and it forgets to count. When we concentrate
 594 our resources on looking at events, we count too
 595 many of them and time slows.

596 Time also flies when there are few external events
 597 to count and we are not trying to do so. If you spend
 598 time alone in a cave, you can easily lose weeks of time.

599 So there is this computational resource that can
 600 be concentrated on counting eternal events but when
 601 this resource is diverted to other processes, the
 602 counting goes awry, as it does if there is an unusual
 603 dearth of events to count. *What is this computational*
 604 *resource?* How could this be modeled mathemati-
 605 cally? What kind of computer architecture would
 606 behave like this? Why are not we thinking more about
 607 this?

608 There are many aspects of attention, including our
 609 ability to think about something over a long period of
 610 time and how things like smartphones train our atten-
 611 tion mechanisms to be shorter, whatever that really
 612 means. But it seems to me that focusing on the ques-
 613 tion of what resource is being focused is the key ques-
 614 tion, and that if someone develops a computational
 615 architecture of attention, then it should make predic-
 616 tions about subjective time that correspond to
 617 observations.

618 Relevant Research

619 My personal research strategy is that problems that
 620 have withstood the efforts of the smartest people,
 621 well, forever are best avoided, though eventually
 622 someone may solve them. It is just not likely to be me.
 623 I did foolishly try to solve the four-color map problem
 624 in the ninth grade and I learned from that experience.

I know psychologists such as William James have
 addressed attention as a subject, but they have not
 addressed it computationally.

There is a lot of good work done by smart people in
 the area of trying to understand cognition
 computationally.

There is an area of research called *Computational*
*Cognitive Modeling*²⁰ of behavior. This is actually
 taught as a class.* All this work is being done by psy-
 chologists, and does not answer the questions I am
 posing.

Much closer is *The Computational Theory of*
*Mind*²¹ by philosophers. This surveys the various for-
 mal approaches to modeling organic thinking. But this
 is largely done by philosophers and though it takes
 into account formal semantics and logic theory, it is
 not quite what I am addressing here.

I like very much “Brain Computation: A Computer
 Science Perspective”²² that represents various works,
 and problems, in mapping our organic cognition onto
 computer architectures.

But none of these seems to address the obvious,
 glaring, problem of attention.

CONCLUSIONS

So there you have it: my personal reflection on and cri-
 tique of AI. There has been a failure to define intelli-
 gence as a goal of the field and, moreover, a failure to
 explore the nature of attention from a computational
 architecture perspective. Or, put more constructively,
 a retrospective of our progress to date suggests that
 we might hope the new generation of computer sci-
 ence researchers might pursue the ambitious issues of
 modeling intelligence and attention computationally.

As I often say in lectures, I may have missed some-
 thing important. I may be entirely wrong. Please feel
 free to correct me, or tell me why the problems I have
 posed are the wrong ones, or correct my vague formu-
 lation of them. I would be delighted were someone to
 build on these meandering thoughts.

The author would like to thank you for your
 attention.

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