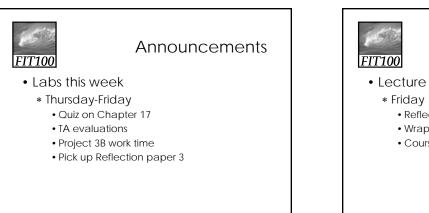
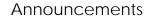
### Announcements FIT100 • Due Dates \* Monday, March 17, 11pm • Project 3B • Required Lab 14 • Extra-Credit Lab 13



# Announcements

- Last week of class!
- No final exam!





- Lecture this week
  - - Reflection paper 4
    - Wrap-up
    - Course evaluations for lecture/instructor



Calculating Your Grade

• Excel spreadsheet



### **Computers Can Do Almost** {Everything, Nothing}

Limits to Computation

### Can Computers Think? **FIT100** Alan Turing in 1950

- The Turing Test:
  - \* Two identical rooms labeled A and B are connected electronically to a judge who can type questions directed to the occupant of either room. A human being occupies one room, and the other contains a computer. The judge's goal is to decide, based on the questions asked and the answers received, which room contains the computer. If after a reasonable period of time the judge cannot decide for certain, the computer can be said to be intelligent.
  - The computer is intelligent if it acts enough like a human to deceive the judge

23-7

# **FIT100**

### Can Computers Think? (cont'd)

#### · Passing the Test

- \* Test sidesteps definition of thinking or intelligence
- \* Does not focus on any specific ability
- \* Advances in the last half century:
  - · Parsing grammatical structure of natural language
  - · Machine translation of natural language
  - Recognizing semantically meaningful information

23-8



# Acting Intelligently?

- Eliza, the Doctor Program, was programmed to ask questions in dialog like a psychotherapist and a patient
- Took word cues, noticed use of negatives
- Dialog was essentially pre-planned to appear intelligent, but was not
- Artificial Intelligence (AI): To exhibit intelligence, computer has to "understand" a complex situation and reason well enough to act on its understanding (no scripting) 23-9



23-10

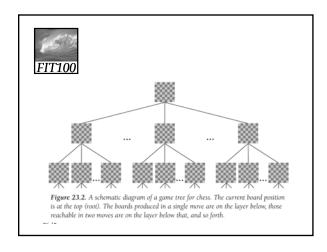
- Clean task: Clear rules and definition of success (beat a grand master)
- The Board Configuration



Playing Chess (cont'd) FIT100 • The Game Tree

- \* To decide on move, computer explores moves to determine whether the move will make it better or worse off
- \* Evaluation Function: Assigns a numerical value to each piece and computes a score for the move. Positive score is better; negative score is worse
  - Computer checks Evaluation Function on every legal move

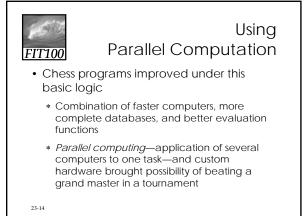
23-11



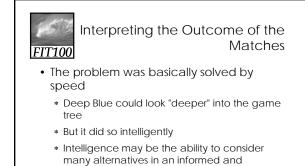
#### Using the Game Tree Tactically **FIT100**

- · For each board configuration under the Evaluation Function, computer considers every possible next move from opponent and analyzes them
  - Can't go all the way to end of game in planning because the number of possible moves increases geometrically
- Using a Database of Knowledge
  - \* Computer also has "knowledge"—a database of openings and endgames.
- 23-13

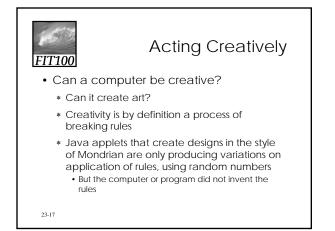
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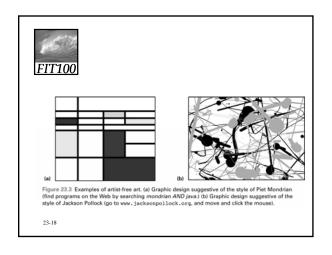


The Deep Blue Matches FIT100 • 1996, Garry Kasparov vs. IBM's Deep Blue \* Deep Blue: parallel computer composed of 32 special purpose computers and 256 custom chess processors Kasparov won • 1997, Kasparov vs. Deep Blue \* Kasparov lost



- directed way
- \* Did it demonstrate that the computer was intelligent, or that IBM's experts and
- programmers were intelligent?





# Acting Creatively (cont'd) Creativity as a spectrum

 Inspiration ranges from "flash out of the blue" to hard work "incremental revision"

#### \* The Hard Work Forms

- Bruce Jacob wrote a program to compose musical canons (variations on a theme)
  - Randomly generates new themes, assesses as good or bad, discards bad ones
  - Forcing random variation to fit rules sometimes
  - produces new techniques - Incremental revision appears to be algorithmic

23-19

# FIT100

# What Part of Creativity is Algorithmic?

- The more deeply we understand creativity, the more we find ways in which it is algorithmic
- To the extent that creativity is algorithmic, a computer can be creative
- Progress in understanding creativity benefits people too

23-20



# The Universality Principle

- What makes one computer more powerful than another?
- Any computer using simple instructions could simulate any other computer
  - \* Universality Principle: All computers have the same power
    - All computers compute the same set of computations



#### Universal Information Processor

- Computer is sufficient for any task if we can buy or write the software needed
- General purpose, not specialized
- People play a big role in customizing computers for specific task—one reason IT fluency is important

23-22

# FIT100

23-21

#### Practical Consequences of the Universality Principle

- Computers perform same computations, but at different rates
- Obvious difficulties:
  - \* Why doesn't Macintosh software run on PC?
  - \* How do old machines become outmoded if they're all the same?
  - \* Is the computer in my laptop the same as the one in my microwave?

23-23



### Macintosh vs. PC

- Processors have different combinations of instructions
  - \* Encoded differently, operate differently, and contain separate instructions
  - It is possible to write a program for each machine to process instructions of the other machine
  - \* The real difference is that the operating systems work differently

23-24

# FIT100

#### **Outmoded Computers**

- Speed is the main difference
- New software runs slowly on old machines
- Hardware and software products may be incompatible with older machines
  - \* Business decision, not technology impediment

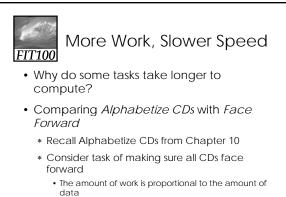
23-25

# FIT100

# The Laptop and the Microwave

- Computers are embedded in consumer products because it is cheaper than implementing same system with custom electronics
- Embedded computers could run other computer applications, but
  - \* Their programs are fixed
  - \* They have limited input/output devices

23-26



Work-proportional-to-n algorithm



### Work Proportional to n<sup>2</sup>

- When we observe that one computation is taking more time than another despite requiring the same amount of data, it is generally because the algorithm does more work to solve the problem
- Work-proportional-to-*n* algorithm:
  Doing the task on 1000 items takes 1000 times as long as on 1 item
- Work-proportional-to-n<sup>2</sup> algorithm:
  \* Doing the task on 1000 items takes 1 million times as
  long as on 1 item



23-29

23-27

### How Hard Can a Problem Be?

- NP-Complete Problems
  - No known practical algorithmic solutions
  - Intractable: Only solution is to try all possible solutions and pick the best (like finding the cheapest set of airline tickets for touring n cities)
    - Large data sets cannot be solved with a realistic amount of computer time



#### How Hard Can a Problem Be? (cont'd)

- Unsolvable Problems
  - \* Some problems have no algorithms at all
  - \* Computer cannot determine if a program has a bug (like an infinite loop) in it
- The Nonexistent Loop Checker
  - \* Trying to solve the Halting Problem

23-30