The Adaptron Cognitive Architecture and Binary Neurons as a General– Purpose Representation

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Abstract

Adaptron is a cognitive architecture that is designed to control the intelligent behaviour of robots. It uses compositional hierarchies of binary neurons (binons) as its representational system. Binons are general-purpose, relational and functional nodes for representing knowledge, concepts and abilities. Adaptron satisfies many of the important requirements for artificial general intelligence. These requirements include purposeful, grounded, autonomous, general-purpose, scalable and reliable. Experiments have shown that this architecture is effective for the recognition of handwritten digits and Morse code as well as for the control of a simulated robot in a maze environment.

Adaptron interacts with its environment via senses and action devices. As it learns, it builds up integrated perception-action hierarchies of binons to represent its experiences. This mental model of its world is then used for thinking and rehearsing action outcomes. It is also used to control mental operations such as paying attention, selecting actions and reasoning. Binons are used to perform all of these operations.

A binon is a simple deterministic artificial neural node that represents a relationship. It contains an integer value used to help represent things and their relationships. It has links to two lower nodes and it is reused by zero or more upper nodes. Binons are general-purpose components that interact with each other like objects in object-oriented software. There are currently four types of binons.

- Name binons represent the category names for all types of things.
- Value binons are used to represent sense independent property values such as position, intensity, time and quantity plus properties derived from them.
- Entity binons represent types of things such as properties, objects, events and actions. An entity binon is a combination of a name and a value binon.
- Control binons are used to learn, manage and repeat behavioural and mental processes.

Binons can also be subdivided based on what role they play.

• Perception binons are used in recognition and prediction.

- Action and expectation binons are used for behavioural control. They are equivalent to command neurons in neuroscience, production rules in cognitive science, or the forward and inverse models in motor control.
- There are mental operation binons to focus attention, perform reasoning and initiate actions.

Adaptron starts with no knowledge or abilities. New binons are continuously created and integrated with existing ones to represent everything it learns. The resulting network is an overlapping composition of binary hierarchies. Learning takes place in five stages: reflexes, babbling, reuse, practice and automaticity. Novel experiences result from reflexes and babbling. These experiences become familiar and are learnt through reuse. They become more reliable through practice and can be performed as automatic habits. This is consistent with the dual process theory of cognition.

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1.0 Introduction

I began thinking about artificial intelligence (AI) in 1968 during my second year of a B.Sc. program in physics at the University of British Columbia. I was sitting in the UBC computer science building trying to debug a FORTRAN program. Those were the days when all the software was submitted on decks of punch cards. UBC had a new IBM 360/67 mainframe computer. After getting help from a teaching assistant because I had spelt "integer" incorrectly ("interger"), I realized that the IF-THEN-ELSE statements were just like what the mind did when thinking. I started documenting my thoughts at the age of 17. I took up software engineering as a career after obtaining my M.Sc. in computer science from Queen's University in Ontario, Canada in 1976.

Here it is 53 years later and AI has phased in and out of popularity, sophistication and success. When artificial intelligence research began, the idea was to develop software that could behave, think and reason like humans. I took on this original vision and my dedication to this objective has not wavered. However, because such general-purpose intelligent systems are so difficult to develop the AI field split into many separate sub-fields with techniques that are best suited for particular domains. For example:

- Symbolic AI applies logic programming, production rules and semantic nets in applications such as expert systems.
- Reinforcement learning has been effectively applied in game playing, from Chess, to Go and video games.
- Natural language processing has been most successful for language understanding and production.
- Evolutionary algorithms, which include genetic algorithms, use natural selection to find optimal solutions to problems.
- The AI sub-field of machine learning, which includes deep learning, has had great success recently in image and speech recognition. Today, it has become the latest high-tech tool of industry for finding and using patterns in large data sets.

There are now a growing number of people and organizations working to integrate these and other areas to achieve the original AI vision.

This book describes Adaptron and Binons (<u>Binary neurons</u>). Adaptron is a cognitive architecture designed to control the intelligent behaviour of robots. It uses compositional hierarchies of binons as its representational system. Binons are general-purpose relational and functional nodes for representing knowledge, concepts and abilities. This book describes version 1.0 of Adaptron. As a software application, it satisfies many, but not all of the important requirements for artificial general intelligence (AGI). Many highlighted subject areas require further research. This is an ongoing project.

Adaptron is inspired by cognitive science, computer science, neuroscience, psychological and psychophysical theories and results. It is not inspired by many of the well-known machine learning or artificial intelligent approaches such as autoencoders, back-propagation, compression, fuzzy logic, genetic algorithms, kernels, Markov chains, transformers, high-dimensional vectors or neural networks such as Bayesian, convolutional, generative adversarial, long short-term memory, recurrent or self-organizing map networks.

The book is structured along the same lines as the artifacts produced in the development of software applications. Each chapter corresponds to a different artifact from the software development life cycle. These artifacts are the:

- Case study,
- General requirements,
- Solution requirements,
- Test plans and test cases,
- Software architecture,
- Detailed design and
- Software implementation

This breakdown is similar to the three levels of specification for information-processing systems as described by David Marr (Peebles and Cooper, 2015). Marr's three levels are the computational, algorithmic / representational, and implementation levels. In software development, these three correspond to solution requirements, software architecture/detailed design and software implementation. They also correspond to conceptual, logical and physical specification.

- Solution requirements are conceptual. They describe the problem from the three views of <u>what</u> a solution needs to do, <u>what</u> it needs to know and <u>what</u> interfaces it needs to use.
- Software architecture/detailed designs are logical. They describe <u>how</u> a solution should do what it does (the processes/algorithms), <u>how</u> it stores what it knows (the data structures) and <u>how</u> it should interface to its environment.
- Software implementation is physical. It describes a solution in software.

There is a rule of thumb in software development that the first version of a deliverable that describes anything complex is only about 60% correct or complete. The remaining 40% is either incorrect or missing. The rule of thumb goes on to say that when we iteratively revise software deliverables we correct approximately 60% of the remainder. This means the second version is about 85% complete and a third iteration usually achieves a 95% or greater correct and complete status. It is impossible to reach 100% for anything complex. The chapters in this book are no exception to the rule.

This introductory chapter contains an executive summary for those who do not wish to read all the details about Adaptron and binons. It also provides definitions of some key terms as used in the book. The case for AGI in <u>Chapter 2</u> describes the problem and proposes Adaptron as a possible solution. The general AGI requirements in <u>Chapter 3</u> provide the context / environment in which the solution must operate. In the case of Adaptron, this is the real world. It also lists some of Adaptron's desirable features such

as intelligent and domain independent. The 13 solution requirements in <u>Chapter 4</u> are far more detailed. They consist of the functional requirements for learning how to behave and reason plus the non-functional requirements. This chapter highlights what is important and what is not so important. <u>Chapter 5</u> describes test plans and test cases. It mentions the Turing test (Turing, 1950) but focuses more on other useful testing approaches. The software architecture in <u>Chapter 6</u> describes the Adaptron cognitive architecture. It describes how the architecture addresses the solution requirements using its dual subsystem architecture. The detailed design in <u>Chapter 7</u> describes the structure of binons. It also describes how they are learnt and used to control behaviour and reasoning. This includes the processes of perception, action and mental concentration. Throughout the chapter, there are Principles of OPeration (POPs) for the structuring and functioning of binons. Implementation considerations are covered in <u>Chapter 8</u> and the first experimental results are presented in <u>Chapter 9</u>. <u>Chapter 10</u> concludes with a discussion of the limitations of Adaptron and binons. It also discusses outstanding questions and possible future directions for research.

1.1 Executive Summary

This book specifies the architecture and design for a software application that can be used in robots to allow them to learn and act intelligently. It is not intended to entertain. Instead, it is meant to be educational, technical and detailed. Like this book, this summary is not meant for the average reader. It is rich in the terminology of computer science, artificial intelligence and cognitive science.

Adaptron

Adaptron is a cognitive architecture designed for use in artificial general intelligent (AGI) agents such as robots. The objective is to build intelligent agents that will assist humanity by performing tasks that will help us achieve our goals. They will learn to communicate with us and interact with the world to humanity's benefit. They will think about our problems and goals and suggest solutions to address them. They will become intelligent assistants able to augment our human abilities.

The case for AGI

Just like any technology, as simple as a hammer or sophisticated as atomic energy, AGI agents can be used for good or evil. Benefits such as expanding the human knowledge base and providing fresh insights and solutions in areas such as medicine, culture, finance, law and technology are some examples. Many of humanity's problems may be solved through the intelligent application of resources. However, some might say the risks of AGI agents outweigh the rewards. Such risks include, loss of jobs, losing control of the agents and their abuse by some to the detriment of others.

General requirements

As software, Adaptron is designed to work inside an agent's body. It interacts with an environment by monitoring senses and controlling action devices. To accomplish its goals successfully, Adaptron needs to operate in worlds that are safe, systematic and dynamic to an acceptable degree. General features of Adaptron include domain independent, reliable, able to continuously learn and reason. These and many more are detailed in the solution requirements.

Solution requirements

Adaptron satisfies many of the important requirements for artificial general intelligence. These requirements are purposeful, grounded, autonomous, controlled and safe, general-purpose, adaptable, transparent, scalable, efficient, robust, reliable and able to behave and reason. There are other human features, that could be considered important for an AGI agent, but they are out of scope in the current version of Adaptron. Examples include two and three-dimensional perception, emotions and forgetting. Adaptron's current goals are built into its architecture. They are solely based on intrinsic motivation. These goals are the pursuit of novelty, avoidance of boredom, achieving reliability in perception and action and minimizing uncertainty. These goals result in curiosity and practice. Curiosity produces exploratory behaviour and practice improves the reliability and certainty of behaviour. Goals based on extrinsic motivation, those that are pleasant and rewarding or those that are unpleasant and punishing, which result in exploitation behaviour, are not included in Adaptron's current design.

Testing

All software needs to be tested to make sure it meets the requirements. Many approaches for testing AGI agents are discussed in <u>Chapter 5</u>. The discussion mentions the Turing test but the major focus is on using simulated worlds as better test environments. Once validated, AGI software can be embedded in robots for testing in the real world.

Software architecture

Adaptron's architecture is divided into two subsystems, the mental and behavioural ones as shown in Figure 1.1. Both subsystems contain artificial neural networks of binary neurons (binons). The subsystems are structured as compositional hierarchies and they function in a similar way. They mainly differ in their sources of information and interface devices. The behavioural subsystem contains integrated multi-layer perception—action hierarchies that retain experiences and control action performance. They interact with the environment via senses and action devices. The subsystem builds up a model of the world as Adaptron experiences it. It is a memory of what has been perceived and what has been done. The perception process senses stimuli from the sensors to recognize objects and events while the action process performs action sequences and produces them on action devices. Adaptron can be configured to handle a wide variety of sensor and actuator types.



Figure 1.1 – Adaptron's software architecture.

The mental subsystem contains binon hierarchies that learn to reason and direct behaviour. It interacts with the binons in the behavioural subsystem. It recalls memories from the behavioural subsystem as concepts for reasoning and imagining new ones. This includes determining the outcomes of actions. It then performs mental operations on the behavioural subsystem for selecting and enabling action sequences while paying attention to the results.

Detailed design - Binons

Binons (binary neurons) are the software components that make up Adaptron's two subsystems. They are general-purpose representational components that interact as

objects in an object-oriented fashion. Binons are combined to form multi-layer compositional hierarchies to represent the knowledge, abilities and concepts of an agent. The perception and action hierarchies are tightly integrated in parallel at all levels of complexity. Senses and action devices are at the bottom of this structure. Activation of perception binons is feedforward, up the hierarchies and action performance is in the opposite direction, down the hierarchies. There are 15 Principles of OPeration (POPs) that govern how binons work and how they are structurally related.



Figure 1.2 – Binons

As illustrated in Figure 1.2, structurally, a binon is a simple deterministic node that represents a relationship. It contains an integer value used to help represent things and their relationships. It is linked to two lower nodes and may be reused and shared by zero or more upper nodes. The resulting network is an overlapping composition of binary hierarchies. There are no weights on the network links. Binons are novel when first created and become familiar on their first activation. They must be familiar before they can be linked together to form upper nodes. Binon hierarchies grow from the bottom up as new things are learnt. Binons are either spatial or temporal. Spatial binons represent things whose parts or properties occur simultaneously whereas temporal binons represent things whose features occur sequentially or represent controllers for sequencing acts and thoughts. Temporal binons represent causal relationships.

Types of Binons

The four types of binons are name, value, entity and control binons.

- Name binons represent the category names for all types of things.
- Value binons are used to represent amodal (i.e. not sense or action device specific) property values of things such as the core properties of position, intensity, time and quantity plus properties derived from them.
- Entity binons represent types of things such as properties, objects, events and actions. An entity binon is a combination of a name and a value binon.
- Control binons are used to learn, manage and repeat behavioural and mental processes.

Roles played by binons

As a general-purpose representation mechanism, binons can be used to capture the core properties experienced from sensors and those needed to drive actuators. Binons can also be used to represent properties derived from the core properties, such as distance, size, duration, speed, delay, density, frequency, expansion etc. These can be combined to represent objects and events experienced on multiple senses and acts performed on multiple action devices.

Action control and expectation binons are behavioural control binons. Action control binons associate trigger situations with acts that can be performed (i.e. affordances in cognitive science). Expectation binons associate actions with their perceptual results. The relationships between context and resulting situations are captured in temporal prediction binons. Together these three binons represent the forward and inverse models in motor control. This is called a simple action habit in Adaptron. Simple action habits are grouped into binary hierarchies to represent tasks. Lower level action habits are reused and shared by more complex, higher-level tasks.

Adaptron recognizes the difference between events it caused (called achievable events) and those it did not cause (called incidental events). Events caused by others are regarded as incidental by Adaptron because of its egocentric perspective. Sequences of events are represented as prediction binons. They allow it to make decisions about what actions to perform by recalling achievable events that have interesting results. It can then activate action habits that will cause these events.

Learning

Learning of behaviour and reasoning in Adaptron takes place in five stages: reflexes, babbling, reuse, practice and automaticity. Reflexes and action babbling cause the performance of involuntary acts and the orienting of attention. Such acts are reused when Adaptron is bored because nothing new is happening and then practiced until they reliably reproduce the same results. They are then habits that can be done automatically. Once habits are activated, they continue operating without the need for conscious attention. An action habit continues as long as its intermediate results contain the triggers for subsequent steps. Perception also becomes automatic as soon as objects and events become familiar. This is consistent with the dual process theory of coanition. which distinguishes between explicit/reasoning (svstem 2) and implicit/automatic (system 1) processes.

Mental operations

Mental operation and control binons are in the mental subsystem. They focus attention, initiate actions and perform reasoning. Focusing attention on the senses is done by the priming operation while initiating action is done by the enabling operation. Enabling is done on an interesting result, which then activates all the action habits that can achieve that result via their expectation binons. Reasoning is a search process that focusses attention on memories to determine the possible consequences of acts before doing them. It is done by a series of recall operations. Recall uses the behavioural model of the world to produce real and imaginary concepts. As in perception, the process of conceptualization of real and imaginary concepts becomes a habit.

Attention and mental processes

The attention mechanism provides a single point of focus for the awareness of things as recognized on the senses or the awareness of concepts in memory. Attention can be distracted during reasoning by unexpected stimuli. Focusing of attention provides for metacognitive feelings to be experienced. They are used for learning and controlling mental processes. Examples of metacognitive feelings are the tip of the tongue feeling, the knowledge that you do not know something, knowing that you can or cannot do something, and the feelings of success or failure in reaching a goal. Mental processes search memories for novel and interesting experiences and initiate actions to re-experience them. By recalling specific subjects and the associated metacognitive feelings, Adaptron is able to perform deductive reasoning and problem solving.

Implementation

Although binons are designed using an object-oriented software approach, not all of its implementation is object-oriented. To identify the properties of percepts in the perceptual field a short-term memory (STM) is used. This is because the same recognition binons may repeat and/or be found at multiple locations on the sensory arrays.

Empirical evidence

A number of applications have been developed using the Adaptron architecture.

- The Perceptra application is proof that binons can be used to recognize and classify handwritten digits.
- The Morse code application shows that binons can be used for prediction.
- The Smarty robot simulation is proof that binons can be used to represent perception–action associations and control a robot in a maze environment.

Next steps include changing the Smarty test environment by adding objects with dynamic behaviour and applying the complete set of principles of operation. The use of binons for reasoning has yet to be implemented or experimentally proven.

Conclusions

Obviously, more experiments are required to show that the complete Adaptron cognitive architecture is feasible. Its design will evolve as additional, possibly simpler, more efficient and general principles of operation are discovered. There remain many unanswered design questions.

1.2 Definitions

In software development, the requirements and designs not only need to be correct and complete but also unambiguous. That means that the terminology used must be clearly defined, consistently used and understandable. This section provides definitions for many of the terms as used in Adaptron's description. For reference purposes, useful definitions of <u>underlined</u> terminology can be found in <u>Wikipedia</u> (<u>www.wikipedia.org</u>). Note that not all terms used are consistent with commonly understood meanings.

Artificial General Intelligence

The primary objective of Adaptron is to animate an <u>Artificial General Intelligent</u> (AGI) agent (Goertzel, 2014). As its name suggests, an AGI agent is a <u>general-purpose agent</u> able to <u>learn</u> and perform tasks that humans can do. It is also known as "Strong <u>Artificial Intelligence</u> (AI)". On a hypothetical line of increasing intelligence in Figure 1.3 an AGI agent is more intelligent than non-human animals but less intelligent than an <u>Artificial Super Intelligence</u> (ASI) (Bostrom, 2014; Legg, 2008). There is no clear boundary between these <u>categories</u>. At the top of this intelligence range is Universal Intelligence (AIXI) (Legg and Hutter, 2007). It is not expected that all of Adaptron's knowledge and abilities will lie within the AGI range. Some will be below AGI and some will be in the ASI range. The objective is to have a majority of its capabilities in the human range, but it is not expected to be an exact duplicate of human intelligence.



Figure 1.3 – Ranges of intelligence

The evolution of Artificial Intelligence (AI)

The <u>evolution of artificial intelligence</u> is following a similar course to that of <u>human flight</u>. Birds flew long before flying machines did and humans have acted intelligently long before computers existed. This evolution can be divided into five simple phases: imagination, simulation, specialization, reproduction, and refinement. Right now, AI is in the third phase of this evolution: specialization.

Imagination phase

The imagination phase is made up of myths and legends. The story of <u>lcarus</u> is the most well-known one for human flight. In artificial intelligence the Greek myth of <u>Talos</u> is probably the oldest. More modern AI stories include <u>Frankenstein</u> and <u>Rossum's</u> <u>Universal Robots</u>.

Simulation phase

In the simulation phase of evolution, the initial attempts at human flight and artificial intelligence involved the design and/or building of something that might work by directly recreating the phenomena. In flight there were attempts like <u>tower jumping</u> with attached wings and designs like <u>Leonardo da Vinci's ornithopter</u>. Many of the last unsuccessful attempts at heavier than air human flight in the 19th century were attempted using steam engines as the power source. In AI there were attempts to build <u>automata</u> that appeared intelligent such as <u>Vaucanson's mechanical duck</u>, <u>Pierre</u> <u>Jaquet-Droz's automata</u>. <u>Charles Babbage</u>'s <u>analytical engine</u> was one of the first attempts at building a general purpose computing device.

Specialization phase

The specialization phase of evolution is made up of successful attempts to duplicate one or more aspects of the phenomena but not put it all together in an integrated and working whole. This phase also includes the discovery of important principles and theories. For example, <u>Sir George Cayley</u> described the principle of how an air foil produces lift and went on to build a manned glider based on this principle. Successful heavier than air aviation has been achieved in many special forms. Examples included <u>kites</u>, <u>gliders</u>, <u>hot-air balloons</u>, <u>airships</u> and <u>rockets</u>, all of which work better than birds but only in narrow ways. They might fly faster than birds but not necessarily further or they may fly further but necessarily higher. Philosophers and scientists have addressed theories of intelligence for centuries; however the most recent pre-computer example is that of the <u>Turing-machine</u>. The advent of functioning computers accelerated Al theories and the design and development of successful AI applications. We now have <u>machine</u> <u>learning</u> techniques such as <u>deep learning</u>, <u>transformers</u>, <u>reinforcement learning</u>, <u>genetic algorithms</u>, <u>recurrent neural networks</u> and other you-name-it techniques, all of which work as well as or better than humans but only in very narrow domains.

Reproduction phase

The reproduction phase of evolution is characterized by the development of a system that meets the basic requirements. In the case of flight the basic requirements were to achieve sustained, powered human flight. The goal was just to get it to work, not to be any better than birds. The <u>Wright brothers</u> are well known for achieving this requirement. In artificial intelligence, this phase will be met when software is able to learn and perform intelligent behaviour and reasoning. But more specifically, it will be general purpose, able to adapt its behaviour and reasoning across a broad set of domains. Just as the <u>Wright flyer</u> could not fly as high or as fast as birds, so too the first AGI agent is not expected to behave and reason as well as humans. For example, it may only have the communication skills of a dog.

Refinement phase

The refinement phase of evolution is one in which capabilities are improved and new ones added to make the system work as well as and then exceed avian flight or human intelligence. In flight, features such as <u>ailerons</u> and <u>jet engines</u> have allowed us to reach "super-bird" performance. More recent aviation advances have been achieved by using

winglets and composite materials. The same is bound to happen in the field of AGI at which point the artificial super intelligence (ASI) level will be achieved.

Representational Systems

Adaptron is a <u>mental representational system</u> (Gallistel, 2001). The design of an effective representational system is the defining challenge for a cognitive architecture. The general definition of a system is something composed of parts. The parts are combined and function together as a whole. A system interacts with its environment via its <u>interfaces</u>, which are input and output devices. More specifically, in artificial intelligence and cognitive science an agent's representational system is a system that captures a model of its world (Tonneau, 2011). It represents this model in the form of <u>knowledge</u> and <u>abilities</u> that it gains from <u>experience</u> while interacting with its environment. Knowledge and abilities are both <u>spatial</u> and <u>temporal</u>. They can be used to reliably <u>predict</u> and <u>control behavioural</u> and <u>mental processes</u> (Conant and Ashby, 1970). In Adaptron, the term "behaviour" encompasses both <u>perception</u> and <u>action</u> but not <u>reasoning</u> or <u>thinking</u>. The subject of behavioural and mental representations in <u>cognitive science</u> has a long and sometimes controversial history (Mirolli, 2012).

1.2.1 Cognitive Architectures

A <u>cognitive architecture</u> (Thagard, 2012) is a man-made representational system (Doumas and Hummel, 2005) built to achieve specific <u>goals</u>. These goals are to model <u>intelligent</u> behaviour and <u>mental processes</u>. Cognitive architectures have primarily been used to understand the human mind by creating, predicting or reproducing <u>psychological</u> or <u>neurological</u> theories, behavioural data, <u>brain</u> regions and activity from <u>fMRI</u> data (Andrea Stocco, Catherine Sibert, Zoe Steine-Hanson, Natalie Koh, John E Laird, Christian J Lebiere, Paul Rosenbloom

Analysis of the human connectome data supports the notion of a "Common Model of Cognition" for human and human-like intelligence across domains

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). Although such theories and facts have served as inspiration for the design of Adaptron, it is not currently designed for this <u>purpose</u>.

A cognitive architecture is an essential part of any <u>intelligent agent</u> that is expected to achieve artificial general intelligence. There are a wide variety (Bengio et al., 2013) and a long history (McCarthy, 1987) of representational systems that have been used in the development of cognitive architectures (Dong and Franklin, 2014; Duch et al., 2008; Kotseruba and Tsotsos, 2018; Langley, 2017; Samsonovich, 2010). This section is not meant to be a <u>comparison of cognitive architectures</u>. However, it is interesting to note the variety of representational systems that have been used in them (Peebles, 2017). Some examples of cognitive architectures are:

- <u>ACT-R</u> Adaptive Control of Thought Rational (Stewart and West, 2006),
- APNN Associative-Projective Neural Networks (Rachkovskij et al., 2013),
- <u>CHREST</u> Chunk Hierarchy and Retrieval Structures (Gobert and Lane, 2017),
- <u>CLARION</u> Connectionist Learning with Adaptive Rule Induction ON-line (Sun, 2006; Sun et al., 2006),
- <u>EPIC</u> Executive Process-Interactive Control (Kieras, 2004),

- ICARUS (Choia and Langley, 2018),
- <u>LIDA</u> Learning Intelligent Decision Agent (Faghihi and Franklin, 2012),
- NARS Non-Axiomatic Reasoning System (Hammer et al., 2016),
- Sigma (Rosenbloom and Demski, 2016), and
- <u>Soar</u> (Laird, 2012).

ACT-R, EPIC and Soar (Laird et al., 2017, Kieras and Meyer, 1997) use production rules as their representational component. Production rules are expressions with a conditional and action part. If the condition is true then the action is performed. Production rules are applied to <u>symbolic</u> structures and information is kept in a <u>working memory</u>.

APNN is a cognitive architecture design:

"... that works with an original scheme of sparse binary distributed representations to construct world models of varied complexity required for both task-specific and more general cognitive modeling. APNNs provide scalability and flexibility due to a number of design <u>features</u>. Internal representations of APNNs are sparse binary vectors of fixed dimensionality for items of various complexity and generality. Representations of input scalars, vectors, or <u>compositional</u> relational structures are constructed on-the-fly, so that similar items produce representations similar in terms of vector dot-products" (Rachkovskij et al., 2013).

CHREST uses a <u>long-term memory</u> (LTM) of <u>chunks</u> to symbolically represent information obtained from verbal and <u>visual</u> input/output units. A discrimination network is used to index into and retrieve information from the LTM. It is based on the <u>concepts</u> of limited <u>attention</u> and a limited <u>short-term memory</u> (STM).

CLARION uses a dual representation for symbolic (explicit) and <u>sub-symbolic</u> (implicit) data.

"Symbolic knowledge is captured with data structures called rules and chunks, while sub-symbolic knowledge is encoded in connectionist networks" (Thórisson and Helgasson, 2012).

ICARUS uses a variety of data structures to represent concepts, <u>percepts</u>, <u>skills</u>, <u>beliefs</u> and goals. Conceptual and skill memories contain a set of hierarchically organized logical rules represented as clauses. Each clause has a head containing the concept's name and arguments or the skill's objective. Its body describes the conditions under which the concept or skill applies. For a skill, the clause's body describes the ordered actions or sub-goals needed to achieve the skill's goal (Stracuzzi et al., 2009).

LIDA (Franklin et al., 2016) uses a general-purpose nodes and links representation. Nodes represent features, objects, <u>feelings</u>, actions, <u>events</u>, categories etc. Links are the different kinds of relationships between the nodes such as features-of, <u>causation</u>, category membership etc. Vector LIDA (Agrawal et al., 2018) is a major overhaul of the original representation system in LIDA. <u>Vectors</u> are an ordered set of integer values that

represent something in a multidimensional space. LIDA divides <u>memory</u> into separate modules for spatial, perceptual <u>associative</u>, transient <u>episodic</u>, <u>declarative</u>, sensory motor and <u>procedural memory</u>.

NARS uses the Narsese language to represent goal, question and belief statements. It is a term-oriented formal language. A set of <u>inference rules</u> for <u>reasoning</u> under uncertainty is used to process the statements (Thórisson and Helgasson, 2012).

Sigma uses a graphical model to represent knowledge in a general-purpose unified cognitive architecture. Nodes in the graph represent variables for functions and the factors into which functions are decomposed. Variable nodes are connected to the factor nodes that use them.

"Graphical models in general provide an efficient means of computing with complex multivariate functions by decomposing them into products of simpler functions and then translating them into graphs." (Rosenbloom and Demski, 2016)

Adaptron is a cognitive architecture that uses <u>hierarchies</u> of <u>binary neurons</u> (binons) as its representational system. Binons share many features with other representational approaches found in:

- Structured connectionist models (Shastri, 2003),
- Symbolic connectionist models such as LISA Learning and Inference with Schemas and Analogies (Hummel and Holyoak, 1997 and 2003) and its descendant DORA – Discovery of Relations by Analogy (Doumas et al., 2008; Doumas and Martin, 2018),
- Perceptual symbol systems (Barsalou, 1999),
- <u>Schema Theory</u> (schemata have representational properties required for <u>perception-action coupling</u>) (Arbib, 2003),
- <u>Language of Thought</u> (it describes the properties of representations as mental states required for concepts in thinking) (Schneider, 2009; Schneider, 2011),
- <u>Neuro-symbolic</u> approaches (integration of neural machine learning with symbolic knowledge representation and reasoning) (D'Avila Garcez et al., 2019; Besold, et al 2017; Garnelo et al., 2016;) and
- Formal concept analysis (Aswani Kumar et al, 2015; Priss, 2019)

It is most likely that the best cognitive architecture for an AGI agent will incorporate all or part of these approaches in one form or the other (Barsalou, 2012; Domingos, 2015).

1.2.2 Binons and other things

A binon is an artificial neural node (artificial neuron) that represents a relationship between its two lower binons (Halford et al., 2010), as illustrated in the Figure 1.4 binon structure diagram. It is the simplest structure that can be used to represent a relationship. It is <u>reused</u> and shared by many upper binons to represent relationships that are more complex. At first glance they may be mistaken for an <u>AND gate</u> in digital electronics but they are far more than that. They contain an integer value that captures the relationship property between the two lower binons. They are discrete, uniquely identifiable representations and therefore symbolic. They are mental representations or

mental symbols. When <u>grounded</u> on <u>sensors</u> and <u>actuators</u> and then combined they can represent all manner of things and their types, such as values, properties, percepts, objects, events, acts, <u>thoughts</u> and relationships between them. Binons are also functional components that perform functions when stimulated. That stimulation is not always from lower binons to upper binons. For action, stimulation flows top down and for controlling behaviour; it flows left to right or vice versa. Therefore, they are quite different from AND gates and biological neurons. They are created, learnt and performed. They are mechanisms that are programmed to function as perception, action and mental processes. Because they have identities, values and functionality, they are similar to <u>objects</u>, <u>attributes</u>, and <u>classes</u> in <u>object-oriented software</u>.



Figure 1.4 – Binon structure diagram

<u>Things</u>

Given that binons can represent all kinds of things, it is important to define the term "thing". Throughout this book, I use the words thing, something, nothing and anything. Things include everything in the world that is possible to know, imagine or talk about. This includes tangible and <u>abstract entities</u>. Things include primitive things such as values, properties, attributes, parameters, characteristics, categories and features. Visible and <u>touchable</u> objects are things, as are <u>tastes</u>, <u>odors</u> and <u>sounds</u>. Things include instantaneous events that occur and actions that have and can be done. They include <u>time</u>, feelings, concepts, mental representations and <u>imaginary things</u>. Things also include processes performed, whether mental, mechanical, electrical or chemical.

Terminology

The correspondence between terms used for things in the real world and the terms used for the mental representations (binons) in Adaptron is captured in Table 1. Words we use in normal conversation are often ambiguous. For example, the term "event" can be understood two ways, either as an instantaneous event like a flash of light or having duration like a birthday party. In this book, events are of the instantaneous kind. Instantaneous events occur at the boundaries of events that have duration. Events are like edges in time.

Things in the world	Represented as binons
Attributes, characteristics, features	Properties
Objects, parts, sounds, odors, events, etc.	Percepts
Event sequences, sentences	Perception sequences
Actions, movements, speech, etc.	Acts
Skills, abilities, tasks	Action habits
Thoughts, Ideas	Concepts
Mental processes	Operations

Table 1. Things in the world and Adaptron's corresponding mental representations

Properties, objects and events

It is useful to divide things into properties, objects and events because we experience properties, interact with objects and participate in events.

- Properties have values that are measured or set. They do not exist in or require any space because they are pieces of information. However, they do exist in time.
- Objects on the other hand exist in space and time. They are spatial things that last.
- Events are changes that happen to objects. They only exist in time and are therefore temporal things.

The only way we can identify objects and events is via the properties they have. More than one property is required to describe them. Objects may take up space because they are solid, liquid, and gaseous or plasma, but they do not need to be composed of atoms or particles. For example, electric and magnetic fields are objects. Objects take up time and have a lifecycle that is composed of events. They are created, live and may be destroyed. During their life, they may be in different states, which are described by their properties. Events occur when the states of objects change. Objects may move in space. Examples are pressure waves such as sounds and ripples on a pond. Objects may have structure and be composed of parts, which are also objects, such as a car is composed of doors, windows, wheels and an engine. Alternatively, objects may be composed of the same substance throughout such as glass, clay, air, water, quartz or mercury. They may be amorphous or crystalline. These kinds of objects invariably have shapes and surfaces that are recognized by their contours and shading properties. The shapes of objects can change but they may not have a well-defined boundary, for example, clouds are objects. Organizational units such as a company are also objects. They are human engineered collections of objects that function together as a system as defined earlier. We may not always know where in space an object exists. Abstract objects are a good example. They are the product of human imagination and exist in our minds. Concepts are also objects. They are mental representations that we name and can identify because of their properties.

Types of things

However, properties, objects and events (i.e. all things) are identifiable and belong to categories (also known as types, kinds or classes). Objects, as well as events are of the same type when they have common features. In Adaptron features are properties, parts and relations. Objects and events can be described based on the values of their properties (e.g. <u>size</u>), the parts of which they are composed (e.g. a car has doors) and/or the structural and causal relations they have with other objects and events (e.g. a chair is beside a table and animals eat food). Features are combined to form <u>patterns</u>. A pattern is a structural arrangement formed from the relationships between things. Patterns are groupings or combinations of things that are interrelated and often repeat. In Adaptron, patterns of properties are used to represent objects and events. Actions are a particular type of event. They are events caused by agents. In addition, a process is a sequence of actions that transforms the state of objects. This means that a process is a sequence of events.

Experience

The word experience is used extensively in this book. An experience is composed of the stimuli detected by Adaptron during a period of time that is long enough for it to detect properties and identify objects and events. An experience consists of transient information. A <u>situation</u> is part of an experience. It is the sum of Adaptron's stimuli, which are perceived at a particular time and are constant for a given duration. Types of situations include context situations that exist before performing acts and resulting situations that exist after acts have been done.

Actions and goals

Note that an action, as an outward flowing response, is not part of an experience. The experience only includes an action's context and resulting situations. This combination of situations provides for action perception and recognition. A resulting situation is the final product of an action. It is also called the outcome of an action. However, the outcome is not the goal of an action. The goal of an action is to achieve a change in state of one or more objects. This means goals are achievable events. To make this point clearer, consider a banana. A banana is not the goal of an action. Instead, "having a banana" is a goal. The verb "having" is necessary because it indicates the action that is needed to change the state of the banana from "not having" to "having". Similarly, a clean car is not a goal. The result of the cleaning action.

Percepts

A percept in Adaptron is a grounded mental representation of a type of object or event formed or identified in the process of <u>sensing</u>, <u>recognizing</u> and <u>encoding</u> stimuli (i.e. the process of perception). Note that a percept represents a type of object or event, not an actual specific object or event. A percept may represent something as simple as a sensor specific property or something as complex as any combination of or relationship between these properties. Examples of sensor specific properties of object's or event's include: <u>position</u>, intensity, <u>colour</u>, time, <u>duration</u> or <u>quantity</u>, and types of bodily

properties, such as, <u>pain</u>, <u>hunger</u> and <u>thirst</u>. Examples of things represented by combinations of properties include types of <u>physical objects</u>, <u>motions</u>, event sequences, perceived actions, sounds, or words etc. In Adaptron, percepts are divided into its incidental and achievable percepts. Its incidental percepts are those that are not the result of its own actions. They may happen as part of nature or be generated by another agent's actions. Adaptron's achievable percepts are the results of events caused by its own actions. This means that an event caused by the action of another agent is an incidental percept from Adaptron's <u>egocentric</u> perspective.

Perception

When I first started working in the field of artificial intelligence, I thought perception meant visual <u>observation</u>. However, I soon learnt that perception includes all manner of stimulus <u>recognition</u>. It can be divided into <u>exteroception</u> (external perception) and <u>interoception</u> (internal perception). Exteroception includes <u>vision</u> for seeing, <u>audition</u> for listening, <u>haptic</u> and <u>tactile perception</u> for touch, <u>gustation</u> for taste and <u>olfaction</u> for smell. Interoception includes <u>chronoception</u> for time perception, <u>proprioception</u> for muscles and body configuration, balance and spatial orientation from the <u>vestibular</u> <u>system</u>, <u>nociception</u> for pain and <u>visceroception</u> as the perception of the internal organs such as the heart, lungs, bladder, stomach, and bones.

<u>Acts</u>

An act in Adaptron is a grounded mental representation of a response formed or executed in the process of actuating and performing actions. Note that an act is not a type of thing; it is an actual thing with specific property values. It may represent something as simple as the intensity value to be set at a specific position on a type of actuator of an action device or as complex as a combination of intensity values to be set across multiple types of actuators on multiple action devices. Depending on the type of device and actuator, the intensity may represent force, temperature, speed, loudness or brightness etc. An act may specify a movement, a projection on a display, a sound as produced during speech or the control information required for producing something such as adrenaline etc.

Concepts

A concept in Adaptron is a percept that has been <u>recalled</u> in the process of reasoning. Concepts are often referred to as <u>mental images</u>, <u>ideas</u> or thoughts. Mental images may be visual, <u>auditory</u> or olfactory etc. Real concepts are based on percepts that have been experienced via the <u>senses</u> while imaginary ones have been produced by combining real ones during reasoning.

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Chapter 3 – General Requirements

Chapter 4 – The Solution Requirements

Chapter 5 – Testing

Chapter 6 – The Software Architecture

Chapter 7 – **Detailed Software Design**

Chapter 8 – Implementation

Chapter 9 – Experimental Results

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