

# Making AI Great Again: Keeping the AI Spring

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Abstract: There are philosophical implications to how we define Artificial Intelligence (AI). To talk about AI is to deal with philosophy. Working on the intersections between these subjects, this paper takes a multi-lens approach in examining the reasons for the present resurgence of interest in things AI through a range of historical, linguistic, mathematical and economic perspectives. It identifies AI's past decline and offers suggestions on how to sustain and give substance to the current global hype and frenzy surrounding AI.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Today we are seeing an unexpected global buzz about the benefits of Artificial Intelligence (AI), a phenomenon absent a decade ago. There is a fervent and massive interest on the benefits of AI. Collectively, the European Union through the European Commission has agreed to boost AI investments<sup>1</sup>. The British government, for example, is currently allocating 1 billion pounds to finance at least 1,000 government supported PhD research studies<sup>2</sup>. In its latest attempt to provide meaning to the AI revolution and to prove itself as a leading source of AI talent, the French government has recently unveiled its grand strategy to build Paris into a global AI hub<sup>3</sup>.

The present response of governments to AI is a stark contrast from the British governments reaction following the Lighthill Report in 1973 which depicted AI as a mirage, criticizing its failure to achieve its grandiose objectives (Lighthill, 1973). Years after that a decline in AI funding occurred. In that era many AI scientists and practitioners experienced trauma and shunned from identifying their products as AI. They saw how businesses have not been keen to the idea. Computer science historians call the decline of AI funding and interest "AI Winter". Simi-

larly, the call AI's rise which is what we have today as "AI Spring".

In this paper, we will identify the "signal" from the "noise" (so to speak) by examining the present rise of AI activity from various angles. We will argue that having a clear definition of AI is vital in this analysis. We do this by dealing with its historico-linguistic career. We will show that indeed, the success provided by Deep Learning (DL), a branch of Machine Learning (ML) which is itself a mini sub-category in AI, is spearheading this rise in enthusiasm and in the majority of cases this is what people mean when they name-drop the AI label. We discuss the mathematical features that contribute to its accomplishments. Next, we will interject the idea of agency and ontology in AI concepts which the public is uninformed about but are considered by AI researchers important in having a robust AI product. We then take a lesson from economics and finally wrap our discussion with suggestions on how we, as a community, can deflect another AI winter and sustain the present AI interest.

## 2 THE AI TERM: A HISTORICO-LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS

What is intelligence? It is obvious, philosophers, psychologists and educators are still trying to settle the right definition of the term. We have definitely know some notion of it but defining it into words is easier said than done. For example, the dictionary says it

<sup>1</sup>[http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release\\_IP-18-3362\\_en.htm](http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_IP-18-3362_en.htm)

<sup>2</sup><https://www.gov.uk/government/news/tech-sector-backs-british-ai-industry-with-multi-million-pound-investment-2>

<sup>3</sup><https://techcrunch.com/2018/03/29/france-wants-to-become-an-artificial-intelligence-hub/>

is "the ability to acquire and apply knowledge and skills". This is too broad. Because of this imprecision in identifying human intelligence, we face the same dilemma when it comes to machine intelligence, i.e., AI. Of course, all are aware that Alan Turing was one of the first people who asked if machines could think. Yet, it has been recognized that AI's goals have often been debatable, here the points of views are wide and varied. Experts recognize this inaccuracy and they do rally for a more formal and accurate definition (Russell, 2016). This ambiguousness, we believe, is a source of confusion when AI researchers see the term used today (Earley, 2016) (Datta, 2017).

If a computer program performs optimization, is this intelligence? Is prediction the same as intelligence? When a computer categorizes correctly an object, is that intelligence? If something is automated, is that a demonstration of its capacity to think? This lack of canonical definition is a constant problem in AI and it is being brought again by computer scientists observing the new AI spring (Datta, 2017).

Carl Sagan said, "You have to know the past to understand the present" and so let us apply this rule by studying the history of the AI term so that we may see why AI is suddenly getting very much publicity these days.

John McCarthy, the inventor of the LISP programming language, in 1956 introduced the AI term at a Dartmouth College conference attended by AI personalities such as Marvin Minsky, Claude Shannon and Nathaniel Rochester and another seven others of academic and industrial backgrounds (Russell and Norwig, 2010), (Buchanan, 2006). The researchers organized to study if learning or intelligence, "can be precisely so described that a machine can be made to simulate it" (Russell and Norwig, 2010). At that conference, the thunder came from the work demonstrated by Allen Newell and Herbert Simon with J. Clifford Shaw of Carnegie Mellon University on their Logic Theorist program (Flasinski, 2016) (Russell and Norwig, 2010). This program was a reasoner and was able to prove most of the theorems in Chapter 2 of *Principia Mathematica* of Bertrand Russell and Alfred North Whitehead. Being in the field of foundations of mathematics, many hoped that all present mathematical theories can be so derived. Ironically they tried to publish their work at the *Journal of Symbolic Logic* but the editors rejected it, not being astounded that it was a computer that derived and proved the theorems.

Though it was in 1956 when the term was used,

the judgment of the community is that as far back as 1943, the work done by Warren McCulloch and Walter Pitts in the area of computational neuroscience is AI (Russell and Norwig, 2010). Their work entitled *A Logical Calculus of Ideas Immanent in Nervous Activity* (McCulloch and Pitts, 1943) (Russell and Norwig, 2010) (Flasinski, 2016) proposed a model for artificial neurons as a switch with an "on" and "off" states. These states are seen as equivalent to a proposition for neuron stimulation. McCulloch and Pitts showed that any computable function can be computed by some network of neurons. The interesting part is that they suggested these artificial neurons could learn. In 1950, Marvin Minsky and Dean Edmonds inspired by the former's research on computational neural networks (NN), built the first hardware based NN computer. Minsky later would prove theorems on the limitations of NN (Russell and Norwig, 2010).

From the above developments we can see that over optimistic pronouncements emerged right at the inception of AI. Such type of conduct bears upon our analysis below.

## 3 AI PARADIGMS AND DEGREES

### 3.1 Symbolic vs Connectionist

Going back to Section 2, we may observe the following. The group gathered by McCarthy proceeded to work on the use of logic in AI and is consequently called by some as the *Symbolic* approach to AI. Authors have called this view Good Old Fashion AI (GOFAI). Most of these people apart from Minsky, worked on this field and for a while gathered momentum primarily because it was programming language based and due to the influence of Newell and Simon's results. Those working on NN were called *Connectionists* since by the nature of networks, must be connected. These groups continue to debate each other on the proper method for addressing the challenges facing AI (Smolensky, 1987).

This distinction in approaches should come into play when the AI term is used but hardly is there an awareness of this in the media and the public.

### 3.2 Strong or Weak AI

In 1976, Newell and Simon taught that the human brain is a computer and vice versa. Hence, anything the human mind can do, the computer should be able

to do as well. In (Searle, 1980), Searle introduced Strong AI versus Weak AI. Strong AI treats the computer as equivalent to the human brain or the "brain in the box". Therefore, Strong AI implies that the computer should be able to solve any problem. This is also called Artificial General Intelligence (AGI).

On the other hand, Weak AI considers the computer as a device geared up to solve only specific or particular tasks. Some call this Narrow AI.

We believe unawareness of this distinction can be a source of confusion when one says that a product has AI. As an example, a search in LinkedIn on the term "artificial intelligence" will show the term is used in articles or posts with no distinction. Somehow these ideas get lost in the "translation" each time the AI term is utilized.

#### 4 THE RISE AND FALL OF AI

From 1952-1969, AI researchers were scoring success points. For example, Newell and Simon extended their Logic Theorist to General Problem Solver (GPS) which can solve puzzles. This program mimicked the way a typical human might proceed in solving a problem or task, such as establishing sub-goals and planning possible actions. The AI community at that time were filled with people trained in the STEM discipline and for them to see a program prove theorems, knowing that this process involves creativity and imagination, certainly were impressed when Herbert Gelernter produced his Geometry Theorem Prover. Seeing a computer play checkers and beat its human opponent created a strong impression. The symbolic AI proponents dominated this phase of AI history and their enthusiasm was at boiling point high. It is at this stage that AI scientists receive funding for their research.

Back in 1957 people saw then that computers occupied a floor with no monitors for data entry. Imagine you hearing Herbert Simon say there are now in the world machines that think, that learn and that create. Simon also said that within 10 years of that time, computers would play chess and prove significant mathematical theorems (Russel and Norwig, 2010). Simon was not wrong on what the computer can do, but was wrong with the time, he was too optimistic. This finally happened 40-50 years after his statement.

We note that at this stage, the connectionists were also gaining ground with their idea of the *perceptron*, the precursor to NN.

(Russel and Norwig, 2010) mark 1966-1973 as the first fall of AI or what may be called the first AI winter. In 1973, the famous report by the British government known as the Lighthill report shot and burst the lofty balloon of AI (Lighthill, 1973). It lambasted promoters of AI. We can characterize the cause of disappointment due to the following:

- Fooled by novelty. The computer playing chess and proving theorems is quite remarkable for those who understand the challenge of doing this, but can we transfer this principle to something practical and useful? Perhaps like translating Russian documents to English? Here AI at this point, failed.
- Problem of Intractability. AI life oriented problems are often characterized by a wide search space trying out possible solution paths. Thus, this went game playing. The search process takes a lot of computing cycles which were then too slow to provide timely answers.

We can add here the other factor of having high hopes for the perceptron which have proven by its own proponent (Minsky and Papert) that it lacked expressivity as a source of intelligent behavior.

In the late 1970s *expert systems* began to rise and brought a lot of success. One can legitimately consider them Weak AI. Again, it came from the work of symbolic AI scientists who worked on *knowledge representation systems*(KR). AI experienced new life in the early 1980s. However, after this, it fell again the second time because they failed to deliver on over-hyped promises.

It seems when AI experiences success, AI enthusiasts get carried away making unbridled promises of what it can do and deliver, e.g., the famous Andrew Ng tweeted that radiologists will soon be obsolete (Piekniewski, 2018). Though the critic might be against AGI, it affects negatively Weak AI as well.

Thus, it is the Strong AI proponents who is the source of AI's rise and also its cause for a down fall. We see this when Google's DeepMind AlphaGo<sup>4</sup> beat its first human opponent in the game of Go. Immediately we have experts saying it is now time to embrace AI with an expert saying AI will surpass human intelligence in *every field*. It will have super-intelligence (Lee, 2017). We are not advocating AI

<sup>4</sup><https://deepmind.com/research/alphago/>

phobia, not at all, but this assertion borders on tabloid fodder. Of course, a computer will beat a human in a game like Go. For one thing, humans get tired, they carry personal anxiety and family issues to the game, they could be suffering some illness as they play etc. Humans have many forces that can distract their concentration; but computers do not have any of these. So for sure, a computer will beat a human when it comes to game playing.

In short, who brought down AI? Well, in a way the AI researchers themselves through their over the top advertisements of what can be achieved by their research. There are severe lessons we can learn here.

## 5 SPEARHEADING AI

### 5.1 Is It Deep Learning?

When did AI become mainstream? When did it make a comeback? Following the idea of the Gartner Inc.'s hype cycle we may depict its rise, fall, rise and fall again by the picture in Figure 1.

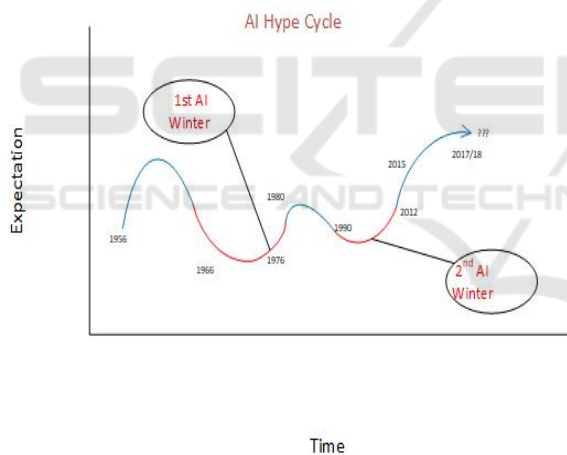


Figure 1: AI's present hype cycle.

The media are divided on this. Some observed its comeback in 2015 (Ahvenainen, 2015). Others believe it came to the mainstream in 2016 (Aube, 2017). However, there appeared to be a silent creeping in of AI as far back as 2012 if we look at the funding increase in AI that happened world wide we see this in

Figure 2 which comes from Statista<sup>5</sup>

Note the steady increase starting from mere \$0.5B in 2012 to \$5.0B in 2016. This is an incredible jump in funding. Indeed, this is an astoundingly massive

<sup>5</sup><https://www.statista.com/statistics/621197/worldwide-artificial-intelligence-startup-financing-history/>

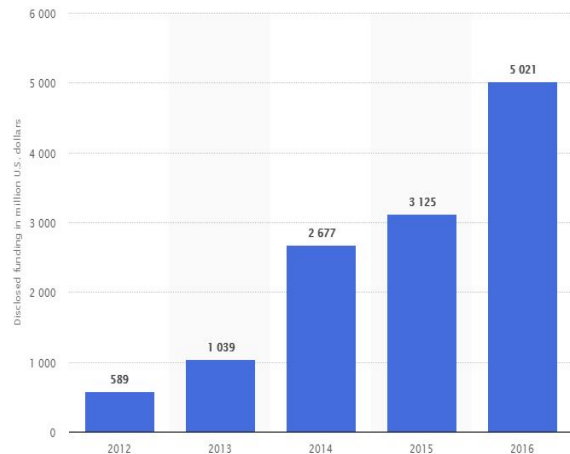


Figure 2: AI Funding in Millions by Statista.

increase. In the same site we can read that it is projected that in 2018 the global AI market is worth about \$4.0B with the largest revenue coming from AI applied to enterprise applications market.

The press observe that it is *Deep Learning*(DL) that is carrying the torch for AI (Aube, 2017), (Ahvenainen, 2015). Starting from the idea of artificial neural network(ANN) from (McCulloch and Pitts, 1943), we best understand DL by referring back to its multilayer version. The diagram of a multi-layer ANN in Figure 3 is from (Haykin, 2008).

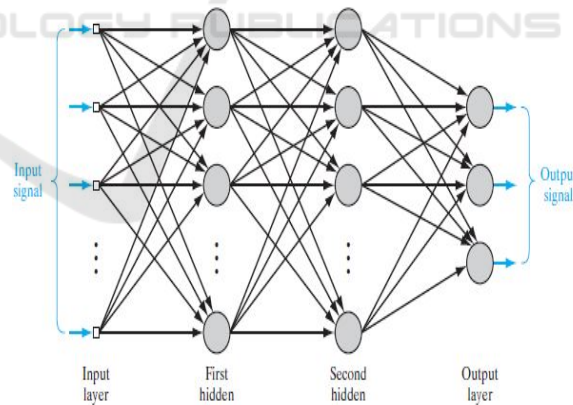


Figure 3: Multilayer ANN.

For convenience in space, we refer the reader to the details found in works like that of (Haykin, 2008) or (Bishop, 2006). We consider an ANN with two layers. Assume that the linear combination of input variables are called  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_D$  and going into the first hidden layer with  $M$  neurons we get the output activation

$$a_j = \sum_{i=1}^D w_{ji}^{(1)} x_i + w_{j0}^{(1)} \quad (1)$$

The  $w_{ji}^{(1)}$  are the parameter weights and  $w_{j0}^{(1)}$  are the biases with the superscript (1) designating the first hidden layer. They then get transformed by an activation function  $h(\cdot)$  like  $z_j = h(a_j)$ . Then we get for  $K$  unit outputs the following

$$a_k = \sum_{j=1}^M w_{kj}^{(2)} z_j + w_{k0}^{(2)} \quad (2)$$

These then finally get fed into the last activation function  $y_k$

$$y_k = f(a_k) \quad (3)$$

In DL, this multi-layer ANN is made more dense with several hidden layers in between.

We have some evidence that when AI is mentioned, the speaker really means DL. One indicator of this behavior is to see how data science training groups are using both terms. For example in Coursera doing a cursory search on the phrase AI in its courses will not give results of courses with AI as a title of the course. Instead, what one gets back are several courses on DL and machine learning(ML)! This is telling. Only one of these has the word AI in it and it is IBM's "Applied AI with DL". This shows that the term AI is made synonymous with DL. Somewhere in the course description of ML or DL subjects there is a mention of AI making the description do the following implication:

*deep\_learning*  $\Rightarrow$  *artificial\_intelligence*

This is the reason why we believe those DL and ML courses come up.

The result is almost the same in edX but even better. In edX, the search came back with 6 courses having the title artificial intelligence in them with two from Columbia University and four from Microsoft. The interesting part is that along with these, the search came back with courses having titles containing data science, ML, DL, data analytics and natural language processing to name a few. Here we see strong support for the idea that when artificial intelligence is mentioned, DL (and ANN) is the associated concept. But, this just part of AI, not the whole of AI?

## 5.2 Why It Is the Driver

We noted that both symbolic and connectionists AI scientists (in which ANN and by extension DL belong), experienced the same earlier funding failure. Both groups experienced the coldness of the AI winter. So how did ANN with DL come back into the IT industry?

- Some people kept the faith in ANN. The most notable of this is Prof Geoffrey Hinton, who is a part of the so called San Diego circle (Skansi, 2018). It was in 2012 when ANN and DL scored good publicity. Hinton's team lead by Alex Krizhevsky out performed the classical approaches to computer vision winning the competition on ImageNet (Chollet and Allaire, 2018). This attracted the attention of researchers and industry proponents so now in data science competitions it is impossible not to see an entry which did not use techniques found in dense ANN.
- It is agile. You do not have to worry about whether a feature is relevant or not, though it is a good practice to do so. However, this administrative burden prior to doing the computerized execution of the learning process is alleviated by DL. Picking the right feature to participate in the ML process is not a big issue with DL, instead the analyst spends time tweaking parameters in the ANN rather than laboring on finding sleek features to use.
- Computers now are faster. During the first down trend in AI, the computers were at its processing limits with the kind of lengthy computation required to adjust those neural weights continually to reach its optimum level. Today even an ordinary desktop computer can perform computer vision analysis using DL specially with the aid of Graphical Processing Units.

## 5.3 DL Works, but Why?

Mathematically speaking, no one knows yet why DL works so well. People use DL heuristically and not because one has a clear understanding how and why its mathematics works (Lin et al., 2017). AI scientists which include obviously researchers from various mathematical backgrounds are still abstracting from experience with their proposed foundational mathematics to the AI community. An example is that of (Caterini and Chang, 2018).

Let's accept it, all the disciplines be it from business, natural, medical or social sciences are in the quest for that elusive holy grail, the  $f$  in  $y = f(x)$ . We are always in search to find such a function for in succeeding, human life's difficulties might be minimized if not eliminated. DL and ANN comes close to approximating this  $f$ .

We may generalize DL formally in the following manner (Caterini and Chang, 2018). Assume we have  $L$  layers in a DL. Let  $X_i$  be inputs coming to neurons at layer  $i$ , and let  $W_i$  be the weights at layer  $i$ . We

will express the whole DL as a composition of functional transformations  $f_i : X_i \times W_i \rightarrow X_{i+1}$ , where we understand that  $X_i, W_i, X_{i+1}$  are inner product spaces  $\forall i \in L$ . Further let  $x$  be a vector and  $x \in X_1$ . Then we can express the output function produced by the DL as

$$\hat{F} : X_1 \times (W_1 \times W_2 \times \cdots \times W_L) \rightarrow X_{L+1} \quad (4)$$

We purposely use the 'hat' notation to emphasize the fact that it is estimating the real  $F$  behind the phenomenon we are modeling.

If we understand further that  $f_i$  as a function depending also on  $w_i \in W_i$  then we can understand  $\hat{F}$  as

$$\hat{F}(x; w) = (f_L \circ f_{L-1} \cdots \circ f_1)(x) \quad (5)$$

We come now to a very important result (Lewis, 2017).

**Theorem 1** (Hornik's Theorem.). *Let  $F$  be a continuous function on a bounded subset of  $n$ -dimensional space. Let  $\epsilon$  be a fixed tolerance error. Then there exists a two-layer neural network  $\hat{F}$  with a finite number of hidden units that approximate  $F$  arbitrarily well. Namely, for all  $x$  in the domain of  $F$ , we have  $|F(x) - \hat{F}(x; w)| < \epsilon$ . (Hornik, 1991).*

This is a powerful theorem, it states that a.) the generic DL depicted by  $\hat{F}$  is a *Universal Approximator* in that it can estimate real close to the unknown  $F$ ; but also b.) that such an  $F$  can be approximated by a single hidden layer ANN. We can set this  $\epsilon$  as small as we like and still find the  $\hat{F}(x; w)$  for this  $F(x)$ .

DLs are highly effective estimators, it is the first "goto" method of choice when doing ML. Only when it fails to adequately account for the dataset under consideration will the analyst use other techniques.

Experts are of the opinion that using dense ANNs ie, DL, produce heaps better practical performance results. However, from a logical or conceptual standpoint, a simple ANN will do. However, DL, historically, is a re-branding of the work of Hinton on neural networks, who even shied away from using the term for describing his doctoral research (Skansi, 2018).

## 6 THE AGENT AND ONTOLOGY VIEW

An agent is a program that acts on behalf of the user but it can act also on behalf of a system as well. They can be autonomous or work with others. They sense their environment and act on it on behalf of an entity they represent. Lay people are not aware of this AI view in academia and industry. This is another aspect that does not get media attention. AI researchers

adopted the idea that building an AI system is about the creation of *rational agents* (Russel and Norwig, 2010) (Russell, 2016) as far back in 1990s.

Under this view something has AI if it can do *bounded optimality*, i.e., "the capacity to generate maximally successful behavior given the available information and computational resources" (Russell, 2016). Thus, it has AI if it will choose the best course of action under the circumstance. The operative word is *action*. Under this view an AI that acts by answering questions is "passive" if it performs no actions no more like a calculator. If the focus is in prediction, commonly found today, but no automatic action arising from it, then it falls short of AI. By this view, the product is operating as a "consultant" and is just a special case of the high level action oriented function performed by an agent. We are not saying there are no recommendation systems out there which may be viewed as an action, however, this is not happening pervasively in the community, by the way AI term is used.

Formally, an agent  $g$  turns or maps a series of observations  $O^*$  to a set of actions  $\mathcal{A}$ .

$$g : O^* \rightarrow \mathcal{A} \quad (6)$$

Viewed AI this way then it is easy to assess whether or not a so called entity is doing AI by simply examining if the said entity transforms what it senses into behavioral actions (Russel and Norwig, 2010).

The main proponent of this view is Stuart Russell (University of California, Berkeley) and Peter Norvig (Director of Research, Google Inc.) Their textbook *Artificial Intelligence: A Modern Approach* (Russel and Norwig, 2010) adopts such a view. The textbook is found in universities in 110 countries and is the 22nd most cited book in Citeseer<sup>6</sup>. In all likelihood a computer science graduate would have come across this view of AI.

Lastly, associated with the above view is another strict view that says there is no AI without an Information Architecture (IA) also known as an ontology or KR (Earley, 2016). Simply put, an ontology stores knowledge of a domain of interest which forms the foundation of computer reasoning wherein agents can interrogate and formulate the next action to choose. This view believes it will be hard for agents to run autonomously if it has no reasoning capability so that it can react rationally against its ever changing live environment.

We raise these angles here because they have great following in the AI community but the popular media does not cover.

<sup>6</sup><http://aima.cs.berkeley.edu/>

## 7 LESSON FROM ECONOMICS

In a way the resurgence of AI has been driven by its contemporary use in the enterprise application market whereby computer software is implemented to satisfy the needs of the organization. Much of this software relies on the market's understanding of DL. Which, in turn, raises concerns as to where it is in the current phase of Gartner's hype cycle.

In order to address this concern, the relationship of DL with that of AI can be expressed in terms of the economic model of supply and demand. In terms of this model, DL through its real world usage for prediction and refinement in practice can be seen as the outcome of technology production, or supply. Whereas, the demand for DL stems from the use of AI in enterprise applications. The intersection between AI and DL is the equilibrium price between supply and demand and can be interpreted as the relative value ascribed to AI by enterprises.

This is where the distinction between strong and weak AI becomes fundamental to understanding the current phase of Gartner's hype cycle and whether another AI winter is likely to arise. DL by all accounts is, in fact, weak AI as it is geared to solve specific or particular tasks, namely prediction. However, AI, in its true sense, is expected to be hard AI as it maintains a capacity of intelligence to solve any problem. Thus the relationship between supply and demand can be updated to be the relationship between the supply of weak AI with the demand of hard AI.

This distinction matters as the predominant AI technique applied in enterprise applications is DL. Like all forms of technology in business, DL will suffer from diminishing marginal returns. This implies that as more and more DL is applied the lower there usefulness in fulfilling the needs of the enterprise application market.

Without the development of hard AI, as some point the usefulness of soft AI will reach its limitation and, in turn, be supplied in excess relative to its demands. This will create a surplus of soft AI. To return to a point of equilibrium a downward correction of the value of AI will occur, thereby triggering a new AI winter. In this basis DL cannot be allowed to be the only form of AI.

## 8 KEEPING AI IN SPRING

The McKinsey Company (Chui et al., 2018) is predicting a very rosy future for AI estimating that AI's impact specially in marketing, sales, supply-chain and manufacturing to be from \$T 3.5-15.4. This is

massive. However, could such prophecy produce another backlash Lighthill Report (Lighthill, 1973)? At the time of this writing, bloggers are coming out predicting yet a coming winter (Piekniewski, 2018).

We suggest the following:

1. The late John McCarthy, responding to the Lighthill report said "it would be a great relief to the rest of the workers in AI if the inventors of new general formalisms would express their hopes in a more guarded form than has sometimes been the case" (McCarthy, 2000). It is indeed a very wise counsel.
2. Let us not transfer the achievements of weak AI into strong AI. It seems when weak AI succeeds, the enthusiasts are quick the extrapolate this to the immediate possibility AGI. Part of this is to educate the media on such distinctions. It is not productive to go along their sensational spin without saying anything.
3. ML and DL practitioners should be aware of the agent and ontology aspects of AI that way they do not get carried away with misguided enthusiasm of the media. Mere classification or prediction is only small aspect of an agent's function; the AI device of any sort must act beyond "consultant answering" activities.
4. Though DL has had lots of gains, it has limitations too. DL is not enough in most cases because prediction does not address subsequent needed actions after that. Next best action to take involves reasoning beyond what DL provides. Many believe the step forward is to combine symbolic AI with connectionist AI (Sun and Alexandre, 1997). We also concur with (Marcus, 2018) which says that DL is not adequate to produce higher level of intelligence. We believe that the best way to do this is embedding DL into some form of an agent. By economic reasoning, DL will not be the sole source of AI success. This is not sustainable in the long run.
5. Overselling AI through, i.e., weak(soft) AI, will imply overloaded demands spilling over to pressure for a strong (hard) AI. A balanced message is to communicate that we are not there yet thereby adjusting the expectation of investors. This has a better effect of being in the realm of the sustainable. Promising modest jumps in AI ability then exceeding it is a far suitable outcome than raising the promised bar and then failing to clear it. The latter brings disrepute and makes us worst off.

## 9 CONCLUSION

In this work we examined the phenomenal increase in interest on all things AI. We wanted to go beyond the steam and smoke with the hope of finding ways to sustain this positive and hopeful enthusiasm in AI.

To do this, we took the view that we have to study its past. We studied the origin of the term and its taxonomic subclassifications. We tracked its rise and then its fall and then its rise and fall again noting that the one holding up the flag for AI is DL. We explained what makes DL the silver bullet tool and how holds the beacon for AI. We showed its mathematical form and stated how it is a universal approximator. We took some insights from economics as well, predicting that if there is no current slowing down of over AI use as a term, the gains will break. We avoided incredulity by mentioning that the agent view of AI makes DL only a small aspect of computational intelligence in that the next phase is to embed it into an agent system. We can see that the result of DL work becoming input to data kept in ontologies.

Lastly, we did not finish without providing a suggested path way to keep AI in its peak hoping this present benefit goes for a very long time. Our hope is that this promotes integrally honest conversation with our peers.

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