

FEBRUARY  
1958  
•  
VOL. 7 - NO. 2

An Electro-Mechanical Model of Simple Animals  
Comparing Digital Computing Systems  
Automatic Programming for Business Applications  
Automatika I Telemechanika

# COMPUTERS and AUTOMATION

DATA PROCESSING • CYBERNETICS • ROBO

Volume 7  
Number 2

FEBRUARY, 1958

Established  
September 1954

## FRONT COVER

Machina Versatilis . . . 1, 6

## ARTICLES

An Electro Mechanical Model of Simple Animals 1, 6  
WM R SUTHERLAND, M G MUGGLIN,  
and IVAN SUTHERLAND

Comparing Digital Computing Systems An In-  
creasing Problem 10  
JOHN A MCGANN

Automatic Programming for Business Applications 14  
GRACE M HOPPER

## READERS' AND EDITOR'S FORUM

Co operation in Horror 3  
IRE 7th Regional Conference and Trade Show—  
Sacramento, Calif., April 30 May 2, 1958 3

Western Joint Computer Conference—Los Ang  
eles May 6 8, 1958 13  
DAVID PARRY

Small Automatic Computers and Input/Output  
Equipment—A Report from the Manufacturers  
—May 9, 1958 13  
FRED GRUENBERGER

International Conference on Scientific Information  
—Request for Papers 13

## INDUSTRY NEWS NOTES

Digital Tape System 90,000 Characters a Second 17  
Digital Computer Controlling Oil Process 17  
Millions of Tiny Ferrite Memory Cores 17  
Electronic System for Avoiding Air Collisions 17  
Double Length Double Strength Magnetic Tape 17  
High Speed Printer 17

Selecting Areas in Punched Paper Tape According  
to Address

Post Office Operations—A Report on Progress of  
Mechanization

A Ball Point Pencil—Is a Computer?  
TED F SILVEY

Oil Industry Comments on Computers  
Instruction

## REFERENCE INFORMATION

Books and Other Publications  
Automatika I Telemechanika

## INDEX OF NOTICES

Advertising Index

Change of Address. If your address changes, please send  
us both your new address and your old address (as  
appears on the magazine address sticker), and allow two  
weeks for the change to be made

## THE COMPUTER DIRECTORY AND BUYERS' GUIDE, 1958

is the June, 1958, issue of COMPUTERS AND AUTO  
TION. We plan that it will be printed by letterpress, and  
contain at least 75 pages. It will hold more information  
last year's directory, which contained over 700 Organ  
entries and over 1300 Product and Service entries.

### BE SURE TO SEND US YOUR ENTRIES

Write us for information

### COMPUTERS and AUTOMATION

815 Washington Street  
Newtonville 60, Mass

EDITOR Edmund C Berkeley

ASSISTANT EDITOR Ned D Macdonald

### SERVICE AND SALES DIRECTOR

M L Kaye 555 Fifth Ave New York 17, N Y Murray Hill 2-4194

### CONTRIBUTING EDITORS

Andrew D Booth Ned Chapin John W Carr III  
Alton S Householder

### ADVISORY COMMITTEE

Samuel B Williams Herbert F Mitchell Jr Howard T Engstrom  
Alton S Householder H Jefferson Mills Jr George E Forsythe  
Morton M Astrahan

### ADVERTISING REPRESENTATIVES

New England Ed Burnett 815 Washington St Newtonville 60  
Mass Drexler 2-5423

Middle Atlantic States Milton L Kaye 555 Fifth Ave New York  
17 N Y Murray Hill 2-4194

San Francisco S A S Babcock, 605 Market St Yuba 2  
Los Angeles S W F Green 629 S Western Ave Dunbar 7  
Elsewhere The Publisher Berkeley Enterprises Inc., 815 W  
ashington St Newtonville 60 Mass Drexler 2-5423 or 2

COMPUTERS and AUTOMATION is published monthly at  
Warren St Huxbury 19 Mass., by Berkeley Enterprises  
Printed in U.S.A.

SUBSCRIPTION RATES (United States) \$5.00 for 1 year  
for 2 years (Canada) \$6.00 for 1 year, \$11.00 for 2 years,  
\$20.00 for 3 years, \$12.50 for 2 years

Address all Editorial and Subscription Mail to Berkeley Enter  
Inc., 815 Washington St., Newtonville 60, Mass

ENTERED AS SECOND CLASS MATTER at the Post Of  
Boston 18, Mass Postmaster Please send all Forms 357  
Berkeley Enterprises Inc 160 Warren St, Huxbury 19, M

Copyright, 1958, by Berkeley Enterprises, Inc.

COMPUTERS and AUTOMATION for February

# An Electro-Mechanical Model of Simple Animals

William R. Sutherland  
Malcolm G. Mugglin, and  
Ivan Sutherland  
Scarsdale and Troy, N.Y.

(Based in part on a thesis submitted by W. R. Sutherland and M. G. Mugglin to the Department of Electrical Engineering, Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, Troy, N.Y.)

OUR SUBJECT lies in a novel and relatively unexplored field to make a machine that mimics some of the characteristics of living things. To do this requires a combination of electronics and biology, yet it is difficult to bridge the gap between two fields so far apart. However, we have constructed and studied some electro-mechanical models of simple animal life, and the purpose of this article is to report on what we have studied and constructed and to discuss some of the implications.

We should like to acknowledge our indebtedness to W. Grey Walter, Claude Shannon, W. R. Ashby, and other scientists who have examined automata and robots, either theoretically or with working models. For example, W. Ross Ashby in England has built a device which he calls a homeostat. It behaves like a sleeping cat which when poked finds a comfortable position and goes back to sleep. It has a very large number of possible stable states so that whenever it is disturbed it methodically searches until a new stable state results.

W. Grey Walter has published an account of the "life and habits of an electro-mechanical creature which he built and named mock biologically *Machina Speculatrix*. When placed in a room or other suitable environment it would immediately begin to explore following a cycloidal pattern. *Speculatrix* would turn from its wanderings to investigate lights. It was attracted to light of medium intensity and repelled from strong light. When it bumped into an obstacle it would back and turn until it had freed itself. During the time it was escaping from an obstacle, *Speculatrix* had no interest for lights. This singleness of purpose is necessary for it to avoid becoming caught on the horns of a dilemma. Neither could it be caught between two lights of equal intensity but would go first to one and then to the other. It was also capable of recognizing itself in a mirror because of a pilot light on the creature itself. Last but by no means least, when its battery began to run down it would seek out its hut and go there to be recharged. A later attachment was added to the animal so that it could learn. This involved the analogy of a conditioned reflex so that it could be taught that sound means light and hence would come into the room on hearing a whistle.

It is becoming increasingly apparent today that there are similarities between the behavior of electronically controlled machines and that of certain animals. Since we design computing machines to carry out operations

that seem logical to us, we should not be so surprised when they show some of the same tendencies and capabilities that animals do, nevertheless we are surprised how we find it difficult to admit that machines may have in a life like manner.

An electro-mechanical model has many advantages over the animal it imitates. Parts are interchangeable, control and measurement are possible, a better understanding of the mechanisms involved may be afforded.

## Desirable Characteristics

Some of the characteristics that are inherent in animals are difficult to accomplish in machines. The problem of learning and forgetting is one of these. Computers learn instantly and retain the information until cleared, whereupon they forget instantly. This is a desirable characteristic in a computer machine but is not a characteristic of life, which learns slowly and forgets slowly. The same objection may be raised in the case of Claude Shannon's mechanical mouse which figures its way through a maze but enters into the walls until it eventually reaches its goal. The second time it goes through the maze it remembers its way perfectly making no mistakes. It does not learn unless the machine is turned off, clearing the memory. A more life like model should learn gradually through repeated trials and forget slowly if the experience is not repeated.

Another problem is that of getting some sort of predictable or experimental behavior. This is a knotty problem, and in the machines we have constructed it is solved in only a limited fashion, but a way not inconsistent with the machine's low intelligence. The machine has a set of alternatives to choose from when it encounters a given situation. Which alternative it chooses is tied in with the problem of learning, which shall see presently. However, it should be obvious if the model is to have any interest for most situations, it must be somewhat unpredictable.

Another important characteristic to put in a machine is curiosity. When placed in a strange environment, an animal will begin to explore, encounter many varied situations. This was lacking in our earlier models. The lazy thing just couldn't be bothered to look for some fun but preferred to sit idly watching something stimulating it came along.

A model of an animal should also have a moti-

ing interest in its surroundings. It should actively seek some goal such as a light as a moth does. Curiosity or goal seeking provides a basis on which more complex behavior can be built.

It is of course inevitable that such a model will run into many obstacles during its explorations. Some means of escaping from these "stumbling blocks" must be provided.

A group or small society of these mechanical animals must also have some way of communicating in a very simple fashion. Without this characteristic there would be little chance of getting any cooperation or analogous group behavior.

Finally, it is important to point out that there is a difference between models that imitate the appearance of life and those that imitate the behavior of living organisms. There was at one time a toy beetle on the market that illustrates this point quite well. It had two driving wheels and a front transverse driving wheel which was so constructed that a feeler was in contact with the table top where it rested and the feeler was long enough and positioned so that it prevented the transverse driving wheel from resting on the table. The beetle would run forward until its feeler ran off the edge of the transverse driving wheel then would fall on the table and turn the beetle away from the edge. The same type of mechanism has also been mounted in a toy car. The important thing is not whether it looks like a beetle or an automobile, but rather that we have here a mechanism with a built-in instinct for self-preservation in a hostile environment.

These are some of the desirable characteristics of a model of animal life, however it is sometimes a problem to mean proportions to design a working mechanism having these characteristics.

#### Power for Electro-Mechanical Animals

All life depends on energy obtained from some kind of food. A model of life must likewise obtain energy and should be able to store it for future use. However, the choice of a power supply for a model animal is somewhat limited. The power supply must be portable and require reasonably light, it must be independent of environment except for meal times, and it must not be too difficult to construct.

Gasoline or steam engine would be light and easily portable, besides being difficult to connect to the driving wheels, a convenient size is not available. Further, the fumes are a problem.

Compressed air would be a better source of power. We have experimented with an air tank and a wind-up motor and found that, although this system worked, it was too hard to control. Then too, high pressure air is not easily available.

A storage battery seems to be the most practical. It has some disadvantages, namely a low energy storage, high weight, and a long recharging time, but these are outweighed by its availability and ease of connection. Previous experience that we had with the electro-mechanical squirrel Squee of E. C. Berkeley, which used a 1.5 volt Willard wet battery, showed that a higher voltage source was definitely desirable. A higher voltage source would have less current drain, simplifying the control problem and extending the operating time between rechargings. A surplus 28 volt Willard battery of

reasonable size was available and was the supply of the June 1957 models. In addition, some small but powerful 28 volt, DC series wound motors were cannibalized from surplus fans and became the driving motors.

But subsequently we transistorized and lightened the whole model animal. The September 1957 model (see Figure 1) contains three sets of dry batteries—about ten size D flashlight batteries, about six penlite batteries (for the transistors), and 2 Burgess 67½ volt batteries.

#### Steering and Driving

For steering, both Walter's Turtle and Berkeley's Squee made use of a single front wheel for both steering and driving. There were two rear wheels for support, free running, much like a child's tricycle. This method has at least one serious drawback—it is mechanically difficult to construct. The driving motor must be mounted on the steering column, making it bulky and requiring brushes and slip rings. Therefore, we decided to use two independent front driving wheels and one free rolling rear caster. Driving one wheel or the other provides a method of steering somewhat analogous to that of a caterpillar tractor.

Our first model animal (Spring, 1956) showed the advantages of these basic changes. As expected, the driving and steering systems worked well, and the higher voltage was a definite asset. Nevertheless this animal still left much to be desired. Its bumpers were unsatisfactory, and the battery needed to be mounted so as to be accessible without dismantling the machine. In addition to the dynamotor, which was the plate supply for the vacuum tubes, drew too much current. We decided to switch to transistors and get rid of the vacuum tubes. Doing this had double effect, it eliminated not only the dynamotor but the filament current as well.

During the summer and fall of 1956 we started constructing a second model, which included desirable features lacking in the first model. The second model had a cast aluminum body, and its battery could be removed through the bottom. The battery was covered by a plastic case which supported the bumpers and many of the components. The bumpers themselves were bent out of plastic and hung from the battery case by four spring wires.

#### Permanent Senses and Active Responses

Once the power supply and the basic mechanics of the model were decided upon and worked out, our next problem was making the permanent senses. These senses are sight, hearing, and touch and the responses are moving, squealing, and lighting up.

To control the motors, we need relays, but instead of a simple on/off control, each relay was run by a multivibrator, which pulsed it periodically (see Figure 2). Varying the repetition rate of the pulses provided a variable motor speed. This system proved to be quite satisfactory. The only drawback is sparking at the relay contacts. Each motor had an additional relay to control its direction (see Figure 3).

The model's eyes directly controlled the repetition rate of the multivibrator. The motor relays receive a pulse every two to five seconds when the model is in complete darkness. When the eye sees light, its resistance decreases, the pulses become more frequent, and the motor speed increases.

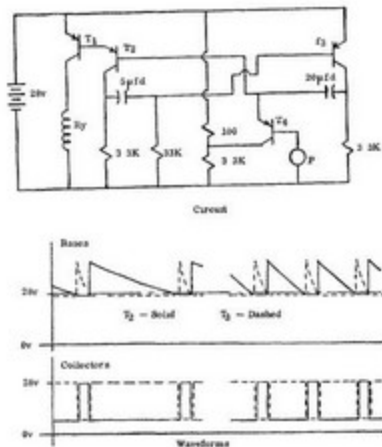


Figure 2. Multivibrator Motor Control. Note how  $T_4$  provides a variable time constant which changes the spacing of the short on-pulses.  $T_1, T_2, T_3$ —Clevite 1032.  $R_y$ —Motor relay.  $T_4$ —Raytheon CK 722, low leakage.  $P$ —Photocell, Clairex CL 5.

Each eye consists of a cadmium selenide 'retina' (photo cell) mounted in an eye socket. The socket limits the field of vision to a  $30^\circ$  cone. The eyes are mounted on a circular 'head' so that the animal may be made to look in any direction. If the eyes are set at a slightly diverging angle, a light directly ahead will be seen by both eyes while a light moving to one side will pass out of one eye's field of vision before the other's. Connecting each eye to the opposite motor enables the model to follow a light. A light illuminating only one eye will drive the opposite motor, turning the machine until both eyes see equally well. If the head is pointed forward, lights are attractive. If the head is positioned sideways, a wavy circling results. If made to look 'over its shoulder,' the model sinks away from the light like some forlorn nocturnal creature.

The plastic bumpers provide the model animal's sense of touch, enabling him to detect obstacles. The circuit adopted for obstacle evasion is shown in Figure 4. Each motor's direction is controlled by a neon tube oscillator and oscillates between forward and reverse. The two oscillators are independent of each other, making the resulting motion a random jiggling that will eventually take the animal clear of the obstacle. The rest of the circuit is a delay which continues the jiggling for about three seconds after the bump signal ceases.

#### Communication

The one construction problem we did not finish to our satisfaction was communication between animals. Making a voice was easy, but the model's ear was an

inherently difficult problem. The motors are noisy; ear must reject this noise but yet pick up sounds like the other animals. This means either using a very 'voice' in each animal or else filtering out the noise. Several attempts at filtering were made, but successful. So it seemed best to bypass the problem by moving the frequency into the rf range. 425 mc cycles provides a reasonable antenna size ( $\frac{1}{4}$  wavelength is 7 inches) and we had a small transmitter at that frequency. The receiver for each animal, however, has not yet been built. The use of this 'hearing' transmitter to rebroadcast audible sound should cause no change in the external behavior of the model; in fact an observer could not tell the difference.

The last response included is a light mounted on animal and controlled by a relay (see Figure 5). Present the light is connected so that it is on when animal is moving slowly and goes out when motion comes rapid.

To make the models versatile the components are mounted in interchangeable printed circuits. The wiring is made from a copper clad formica board by etching the desired layout with tape, and then etching away the undesired copper.

The animal's brain, where the senses are connected to the responses, is also easily changed. It is mounted on a small chassis which plugs into the animal. The changing brains a cowardly animal may be made a ferocious beast.

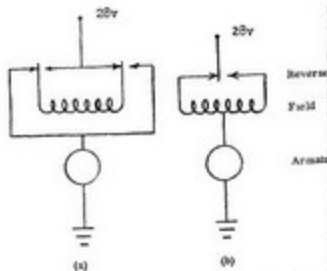


Figure 3. Motor Direction Control

#### Characteristics of a Brain

The most basic type of behavior is instinctive. Instinct is possessed by all animals. In fact, the forms of life operate purely as a result of it. If we consider the brain of an animal as a 'black box' instinct would dictate that the inputs and outputs are directly connected. That is, the same stimulus always produce the same response.

As we progress up the ladder toward higher forms of life, we find what might be called a 'capacitor' learning. This implies that there is a physical provision for switching between stimuli and responses, whether this provision is ever used or not. It is

[Continued on page 23]

## An Electro-Mechanical Model of Simple Animals

[Continued from page 8]

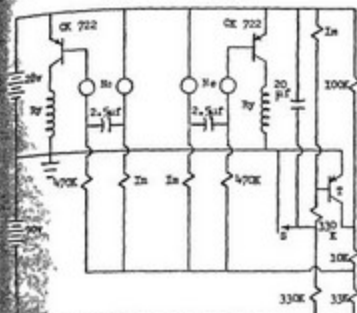


Figure 4. Improved Obstacle Evasion Circuit. T—Raytheon CK 722 Ry—Reverse relays. S—Bump contact

physically possible for the animal to change its behavior to meet the circumstances of the moment.

Obviously, two other characteristics are necessary before learning can take place. These are memory and association. One must not only recall but correlate past experiences before they become significant.

The highest function of a brain might be termed in simple behavior 'This consists in making choices which are shaped by the learning process. Whether a

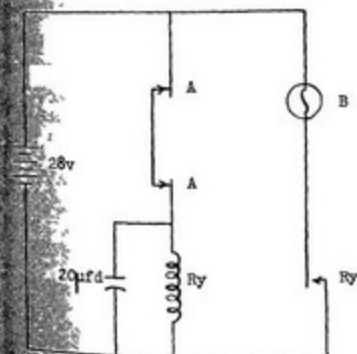


Figure 5. Light Control. A—Contact on motor control relay B—Light Bulb.

intelligent or not depends on whether the behavior is beneficial or not.

The problem is to design circuits possessing these characteristics.

Instinct is easy to imitate. Any behavior of a machine where a given input always produces the same output may be said to operate by 'instinct'. A capacity for learning is also easy to provide. All that is necessary is to design the model in such a way that there are many possible connections between the inputs and outputs of the 'black box'. Both of these characteristics were incorporated into our model.

As was previously mentioned, however, the problem of designing a memory that would learn and forget slowly seemed to be difficult. Walter's *Machine Doolar* had a memory that consisted of a slowly dying oscillation in its conditioned reflex circuit. This type of a memory has a tendency to be unstable and somewhat complicated. Obviously what is needed is a physical phenomenon which has a long time constant and is electrically detectable (see Figure 6). After consideration of many highly impractical schemes, the answer turned out to be ridiculously easy. A thermistor potted in plaster of paris and mounted inside a hollow, ceramic resistor has exactly the desired characteristics. The phenomenon that has the slowly decaying characteristic is the temperature of the unit. Electrical energy is put into the ceramic resistor and is changed into heat. The thermistor has a high negative temperature coefficient of resistivity and functions as a detector. The rate of learning is controlled by the resistance of the heater while the rate of forgetting is determined by the amount of surrounding thermal insulation. This system has some advantages. One of these is that thermistors are available in many different shapes and sizes. Another is that the method is extremely simple.

The problem of association is the problem of designing a conditioned reflex. Here again the reader is

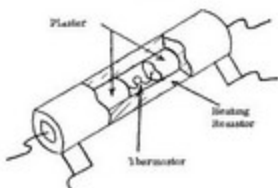
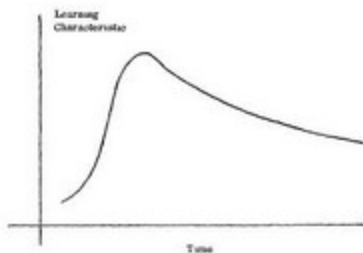


Figure 6. Learning Method

referred to W. Grey Walter's 'The Living Brain'. The chapter on the seven steps from chance to meaning gives an excellent discussion of the processes that are necessary for association. Dr. Walter has also built a circuit which embodies these processes. We therefore decided that rather than simply duplicate work so well done, it would be more profitable to investigate the intelligence aspect.

An intelligent being must first of all possess the power of choice. When faced with a set of properly defined alternatives, this hypothetical person must choose one alternative even if that one is to do absolutely nothing. To be properly defined, such a set of alternatives should be mutually exclusive and exhaustive. This is not really difficult to do. Cases where two alternatives overlap may be defined as new and independent alternatives, preserving the exclusive requirement. To make the set exhaustive, a "catch all" alternative may be introduced to include everything that the model animal might do that is not one of the defined alternatives.

Each alternative has an associated probability of being chosen. The value of this probability is dependent upon many factors such as a person's previous experience, his emotional state at the time, or what he had for breakfast, perhaps. Certainly what he has learned from previous experience is not the least factor that shapes the probability distribution.

If the set of alternatives is mutually exclusive and exhaustive, then the sum of the probabilities is always unity. The effect of the learning process is to cause a redistribution or flow of probability between the various choices. Consider the following example. If we have a maze built in the shape of a capital T and we send a number of hungry rats through the maze, each one will be forced to choose whether to go right or to go left. If retracing is not allowed and we place food *always* on the right but *never* on the left, we should find that, on the first trial, about half will go right and half left. In other words, the probability of a particular rat going right should be about 0.5. However, after a number of trials, the probability of a rat going right should be considerably enhanced. In any given trial, we would never be able to predict which way the rat would go, but we would have a good idea of the probabilities involved. Learning, characterized by such a flow of probability, may be said to complete whenever the flow ceases and the probabilities become stable. If the training is now stopped the rats should slowly but surely forget and the probabilities be correspondingly changed.

The ability of man to choose his course of action is often called free will. From a strictly external and objective point of view, it may be argued that free will means simply that the behavior of the organism is unpredictable in any given instance. The problem now facing us is to find a circuit possessing these three characteristics: learning and forgetting, its associated probability flow, and unpredictability.

In our search to find a circuit that would appear to choose quite randomly from a set of alternatives, we considered using a neon tube relaxation oscillator (see Figure 7). The operation of this circuit is such that the

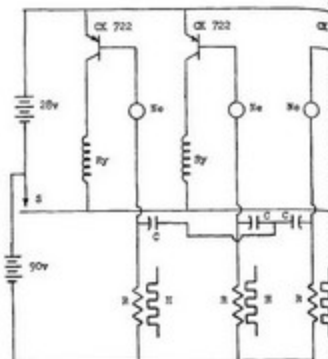


Figure 7. Probability Learning Circuit. H & R—Heating Resistor and Thermistor. C—Chosen with resistor for desired time constant. S—Choice closed momentarily.

neon tubes flash in sequence. At any given time only one tube is on. When the voltage across one of them builds up enough to fire that tube, the change in potential shuts off the tube that is on. The three tubes represent three alternative responses to a stimulus and let whichever tube is on, at the instant stimulus is applied, be the response that is chosen. This provides the desired unpredictability. It can easily be seen that the ratio of the time a particular tube is on to the total time for a cycle is the probability of that response being chosen.

All that is necessary to make this circuit possess probability flow characteristic and the slow learning getting characteristic is to vary the size of one of the resistors. The means of accomplishing this lies right in the finger tips. The thermistor-heater combination holds a key. The thermistor is substituted for one of the resistors and the heater is connected in such a way that the stimulus causes a brief heating current to flow. Applying heat increases the resistance of the thermistor and increases the length of time that its associated tube is on in proportion to the others, so that the probabilities will change. As more, they will change gradually as the thermistor and return even more gradually as it cools.

Our model now possesses a number of the desired characteristics under discussion:

1. Instinct—The model follows lights.
2. Capacity for Learning—The behavior of the model is flexible; there are many possible connections between inputs and outputs.
3. Memory—Thermistor and heater circuit.
4. Experimental and Unpredictable Behavior—Neon tube circuit.
5. Probability Flow—Combination of 3 and 4.

## Actual Behavior of the Model

Now come now to a discussion of the actual behavior of the model which we have constructed and which we named *Machina Versatilis*.

The model is capable of following lights and is able to escape from obstacles. When the battery is placed in position and the switch is turned on, *Versatilis* begins to move. His curiosity causes him to begin to search immediately. How curious he is depends on the light level in the room. As the light gets brighter, he moves faster. When a light source such as a bulb is presented to him, he turns and makes his way to it, always increasing his speed and interest as the distance grows smaller. Finally he literally comes roaring down on the light until he either runs into or passes under it.

If presented with an ordinary flashlight beam, he runs down it, sometimes wandering to one side or the other until one eye passes out of the beam, whereupon he turns back into it. In this situation, he behaves for the world like some ungainly prototype of a guided missile. However he loses all interest for a lowly flash beam if the window shade is raised.

When two members of this species are turned loose together their behavior depends largely on the position of their heads. If one animal is looking forward while the other is looking backward, each will see the other's head and the one will chase the other. If both heads are turned sideways, the two will circle as if they were attracted to each other. When both heads are turned forward, however, they run together at full tilt and bump, and fight at a great rate.

One other interesting thing ought to be mentioned about this toy for the animals to play with. It consists of a light mounted on a rolling platform. The animals are of course attracted to the light and appear to have a good time pushing it around. The more of them there are, the more they can get at it at once, the merrier is the occasion.

The obstacle evasion circuit provides a good example of the model's big advantage over some animals. In the early days the neon tube reversing circuits were so adjusted that the forward and reverse times were about equal. Unfortunately, this did not allow the model to escape from anything. To avoid frustrating the poor thing, it was necessary to unbalance the forward and reverse times. The model now reverses for about three times as long as it goes forward and thus manages an eventual escape from almost any situation. Changing two resistors did the trick for the model, but what can you do in a phototropic bug or moth?

## Model Versus Animal

In any attempt to imitate something in the world about us, it is important to consider the success or failure of the model. How well does such a model as ours do in the biological facts of life? What characteristics does the model have in common with animals and where do they differ?

The reader may recall that the goal seeking mechanism has a symmetrical construction with the two eyes connected to the two motors. Practically speaking, it is simply a symmetry machine controlled entirely by a light stimulus. Is this characteristic of animals?

The answer is emphatically yes! One might then ask quite legitimately, How so? Under what conditions may we treat an animal as a mere symmetry machine? To answer this question, the following excerpts from Loeb's *Forced Movements, Tropisms, and Animal Conducts* are presented.

If the velocity of the chemical reactions in one eye of an insect is increased by illumination the muscles connected with the more strongly illuminated eye are thrown into stronger tension and if new impulses for locomotion appear in the central nervous system, they will not produce equal responses in the symmetrical muscles but a stronger one in the muscles turning the head and body to the light. The animal will thus be compelled to change the direction of his motion and to turn to the source of light until both sides again receive equal illumination. As soon as the plane of symmetry once more goes through the source of light, both eyes again receive an equal amount of light the tension in the symmetrical muscles becomes equal and the animal proceeds to the source of light until some other asymmetrical disturbance is introduced.

Sounds familiar, doesn't it?

If we bring about a permanent difference in illumination of the eyes e.g. by blackening one eye in certain insects, we can also bring about permanent circular motions.

This is also true of the model. If one eye is blinded, it will run in circles. The motor connected with the blinded eye will still run, but it will be greatly hampered in so doing.

Loeb then goes on to point out the fact that a shark's eyes always move in the opposite direction from his tail so that he always looks in the direction in which he is swimming. He also points out that changing the position of a dog's head automatically changes the tension of the leg muscles. Furthermore, operating on a dog's brain produces many strange effects. If one side is damaged circular motions result. If the occipital lobes are damaged, forward movements are difficult and if the back halves of the cerebral hemisphere are damaged, the dog shows a tendency to run madly forward without stopping.

One further example in the biological world ought to be presented because it shows the usefulness of one particular animal's attraction to light. The caterpillar is attracted very strongly to light, but only when he is hungry. This attraction induces him to climb the stems of plants to get at the leaves which are his food. When he has gorged himself however, he loses this attraction almost completely, showing very little further interest in light. This is fortunate from the caterpillar's point of view because it allows him to climb back down instead of starving to death at the top when he has eaten all the leaves.

Walters' *Spezialtreppe* has a somewhat similar attraction. When it returns to its charging bar, if the batteries are run down and it is hungry, it will enter and be fed. If the batteries are well charged however, the light is too strong and is repellent to the creature.

The ability of our model to feel its way around obstacles is somewhat similar to the methods an ant might use to get past a book placed in its path. Both have a way of bumping and feeling their way until they are free to continue on. It is interesting to note that, in the case of the model, an encounter sometimes causes it to forget what it was looking for. If it is following a light when it bumps the obstacle, it sometimes takes off in a com-

[Please turn to page 32.]



## Readers' and Editor's Forum

[Continued from page 13]

tunity to participate in the conference. Would you be so kind as to publish the following notice in **COMPUTERS and AUTOMATION**?

The International Conference on Scientific Information, planned for Washington, D.C., November 16-21, 1958, is sponsored by four societies: the National Academy of Science, the National Research Council, the National Science Foundation, and the American Documentation Institute.

The conference will be concerned with problems of scientific information emphasizing in particular the storage and retrieval of information for all groups of users—from the individual scientist to the large scale mechanized documentation centers.

The program committee is considering proposals for papers relevant to the subject matter of the conference as defined in the following seven areas which comprise the program agenda. They are:

1. Requirements of scientists for scientific literature and reference services: knowledge now available and methods of ascertaining their requirements.

2. The function and effectiveness of abstracting and indexing services for storage and retrieval of scientific information.

3. Effectiveness of scientific monographs, compendia, and specialized information centers in meeting the needs of scientists: present trends and new and proposed techniques and types of services.

4. Organization of information for storage and search: comparative characteristics of existing systems.

5. Organization of knowledge for storage and retrospective search: intellectual problems and equipment considerations in the design of new systems.

6. Organization of information for storage and retrospective search: possibility for a general theory of storage and search.

7. Responsibilities of governmental bodies, professional societies, universities and research and industrial organizations to provide improved information services and to promote research in documentation.

All proposals for papers are being evaluated in terms of the following criteria:

1. Papers will deal with work that has not been published or presented at any open meeting. Work will be considered to have been published if it has been reproduced for general distribution in any form or if copies have been deposited in libraries where they are available to the public.

2. Papers will be directed to specialists in the field covered. Only sufficient background information will be included to serve as an adequate framework for new work described in the papers. More general background material will be indicated by references.

3. Papers dealing with systems and methods will describe these at length only when they have not been described previously. If new methods or systems are involved these will be described in sufficient detail to enable other qualified workers to duplicate the procedures and the results. There will be sufficient information to enable qualified readers to judge the validity of results in objective terms.

4. Theoretical papers will clearly explain the factual basis from which theoretical conclusions have been drawn and will point the way to experimental methods of verifying predictions which follow from such theoretical conclusions.

Final drafts of proposed papers must be submitted by February 3, 1958. These will be reviewed by competent specialists in the various areas; accepted papers will be preprinted and distributed in advance to registrants. The plan of the conference provides that no papers will be presented orally; instead, their content will be discussed area by area by the authors and other participants at plenary sessions led by panels of scientists and information specialists. Observers will be welcome by registration in advance and will receive the preprints of accepted papers.

In keeping with the goal to have the conference include reports of all current research in the storage and retrieval of information, the Program Committee will be pleased to accept additional suggestions for papers. It is requested that detailed outlines be submitted as soon as possible. Inquiries as to details of the program and the established criteria for papers should be addressed to the Secretariat, International Conference on Scientific Information, National Academy of Sciences, Washington 25, D.C.

## An Electro-Mechanical Model of Simple Animals

[Continued from page 25]

pletely new direction, apparently feeling that the necessary to attain the goal was too great.

### What the Future Holds

What can be done in the future with electro-mechanical animals seems limited only by the time and one could devote to the problem. If a single voice system is interesting, imagine what could be done with two or three voice channels on different frequencies!

Another rather obvious improvement would be to make *Machina Versatilis* able to move his own and look about him. He could then decide, as the moved him, to chase lights or circle them or stand and size up the situation.

*Versatilis* could also easily be made to charge his battery but there is one thing to keep in mind: battery should be charged slowly over a period of twelve hours. Faster charges are possible but very hard on the battery. We wondered if the behavior of charging would be worth the price of having the machine idle for so long a time.

Considering the possibilities for behavior, we think of many interesting, and perhaps wild, schemes. However, they are all realizable and might possibly be able. Who can say?

Most practical of all and not in the least bit whimsical, is neon probability learning circuit should actually be installed in some electro-mechanical animals and make them learn.

In addition, the animals could play a simple game tag. They already can chase each other. All that is needed is a new brain that can think about behavior and not it. It would be interesting to see what degrees of crippling of one animal would do to the proportion of the time that it would be it.

If the animals could be given a sense of direction (simple gyroscope), they could have quite a soccer with the toy. Two opposing teams could scrummage the ball.

It would also be fairly easy to make the machines for something with steel coins, which they would on the floor. They might hoard their money and it when they wished to buy a charge or perhaps a simple juke box.

A most fascinating experiment would be to introduce into the mechanical animal society a criminal who would steal the others' coins. Would the machines learn that crime does not pay?

We believe that the study of behavior and the use of mechanical models of animals has a very promising future. After all, to the Greeks, electronics was much more than the static electricity in a cat's paw.