

Intelligence without Robots: A Reply to Brooks

Oren Etzioni

■ In his recent papers, entitled “Intelligence without Representation” and “Intelligence without Reason,” Brooks argues for mobile robots as the foundation of AI research. This article argues that even if we seek to investigate complete agents in real-world environments, robotics is neither necessary nor sufficient as a basis for AI research. The article proposes real-world software environments, such as operating systems or databases, as a complementary substrate for intelligent-agent research and considers the relative advantages of software environments as test beds for AI. First, the cost, effort, and expertise necessary to develop and systematically experiment with software artifacts are relatively low. Second, software environments circumvent many thorny but peripheral research issues that are inescapable in physical environments.

Brooks’s mobile robots tug AI toward a bottom-up focus in which the mechanics of perception and mobility mingle inextricably with or even supersede core AI research. In contrast, the softbots (software robots) I advocate facilitate the study of classical AI problems in real-world (albeit, software) domains. For example, the UNIX softbot under development at the University of Washington has led us to investigate planning with incomplete information, interleaving planning and execution, and a host of related high-level issues.

In his recent papers, entitled “Intelligence without Representation” (Brooks 1991b) and “Intelligence without Reason” (Brooks 1991a), Brooks propounds a number of positions, including the following:

Complete agents in real-world environments: “At each step we should build complete intelligent systems that we let loose in the real world with real sensing and real action” (Brooks 1991b, p. 140).

Robotics as the foundation for

AI: “The agents should be embodied as mobile robots...the new approach can be extended to cover the whole story, both with regards to building intelligent systems and to understanding human intelligence” (Brooks 1991a, p. 585).

This article argues that even if we accept Brooks’s first position and seek to build complete agents in real-world environments, we need not accept robotics as the foundation for AI. Clearly, robotics is an important enterprise, with much to contribute to AI. However, I challenge Brooks’s position that the primary path to progress in AI is “to study intelligence from the bottom up, concentrating on physical systems (e.g., mobile robots), situated in the world, autonomously carrying out tasks of various sorts” (Brooks 1991a, p. 569).

In this article, I propose real-world

I challenge Brooks’s position that the primary path to progress in AI is “to study intelligence from the bottom up....”

software environments, such as operating systems or databases, as a substrate for intelligent-agent research. Over the years, software environments have been explored as domains for machine learning (Dent et al. 1992; Dietterich 1984), intelligent user interfaces (Wilensky et al. 1988), planning (Arens et al. 1993), distributed AI (Rosenschein 1982; Shoham 1993), and more. I argue for a unified conception: complete, intelligent agents that interact with

real-world software environments by issuing commands and interpreting the environments’ feedback. I refer to such agents as *softbots* (software robots):¹ A softbot’s *effectors* are commands transmitted to the external environment to change its state (for example, UNIX shell commands such as *mv* or *compress*). A softbot’s *sensors* are commands that provide the softbot with information about its external world (for example, *pwd* or *ls* in UNIX). Softbots offer the methodological advantages of investigating complete agents in real-world environments without the overhead associated with robotic agents.

The remainder of this article is organized as follows. First, I show how softbots satisfy Brooks’s desiderata for AI research vehicles. Second, I consider some advantages of softbots as a substrate for AI research.

Brooks’s Arguments and Softbots

Brooks advances a number of arguments for his positions. Here, I consider his methodological arguments for building complete agents that operate in real-world environments and his argument for “embodiment” as a way to endow internal agent processing with meaning. In both cases, I show that these arguments apply equally well to softbots, a possibility that Brooks does not consider. Finally, I review and critique Brooks’s evolutionary argument for robotics.

Engineering Methodology Argument

Brooks (1991b, p. 140) writes, “I, and others, believe that human level intelligence is too complex and little understood to be correctly decomposed into the right subpieces at the moment and even if we knew the subpieces we still wouldn’t know the right interfaces between them.” As Mitchell et al. (1991, p. 352) put it, “[The] reductionist research strategy has reached the point of diminishing returns.” Although both statements are quite strong, it seems clear that developing complete or integrated agent architectures has a distinct methodological advantage: The

researcher is less likely to make unrealistic assumptions about what the interfaces are between different components of the architecture and what each component will compute.

Given that one is committed to developing complete agents, Brooks (1991b, p. 150) argues that the agents should be tested in the real world: “[W]ith a simplified world...it is very easy to accidentally build a submodule of the systems which happens to rely on some of those simplified properties...the disease spreads and the complete system depends in a subtle way on the simplified world.” The softbot paradigm escapes these quandaries by committing to full realism at every step. Softbots operate in dynamic, real-world environments that are not engineered by the softbots’ designers. In the UNIX environment, for example, other agents (particularly humans) are continually changing the world’s state by logging in and out, creating and deleting files, and so on. Softbots are forced to cope with changes in their environment (Where did that file go?) in a timely fashion. To succeed, softbots have to make sense of the flow of information through their limited bandwidth sensors and respond appropriately.

Brooks emphasizes that an agent ought to have some purpose; it ought to be useful (see Schank [1991]). The preponderance of problems such as *feature shock* (the paralysis a user feels when facing a bewildering array of complex, poorly documented features [Kleinrock 1985]) and *information anxiety* (a user’s emotional response to the increasing volume and diversity of electronic data [Messinger et al. 1991; Wurman 1989]) suggest that there is no shortage of useful tasks for a softbot. Some simple examples are filtering electronic mail and sending routine messages such as meeting reminders and talk announcements, scheduling meetings (Dent et al. 1992; Maes and Kozierok 1993), and performing system maintenance tasks (for example, around-the-clock intrusion detection). In short, softbots satisfy every facet of Brooks’s engineering methodology.

Symbol Grounding Argument

Brooks (1991a, p. 584) claims that “only through a physical grounding can any internal symbolic or other system find a place to bottom out, and give ‘meaning’ to the processing going on within the system.” Standard semantic accounts of representational languages define ‘meaning’ and ‘truth’ in terms of an underlying model or logical interpretation. However, what do the symbols in the underlying model mean? Brooks argues that only the physical world can ground an agent’s internal representation. This rather abstract observation actually has practical ramifications for intelligent agents.

As Agre and Chapman put it, in classical AI planners, the truth of a blocks world proposition, such as $on(a,b)$ is determined by checking whether a relation corresponding to on applies to objects corresponding to a and b . The check is performed in the planner’s model, not in the external world. Similarly, an agent satisfies the goal $on(a,b)$ by updating its internal model to include the effects of executing the action $stack(a,b)$, not by interacting with the external world.

This “practice of allowing primitive actions to traffic in constant symbols” hides an important problem (Agre and Chapman 1990). Because physical entities do not have tags associated with them saying “I correspond to internal symbol a ,” an agent operating in the physical world has to develop methods that reliably map from perceptual experiences in the world to internal representations, and conversely. This process and related problems of linking perception with internal representation are ignored by classical AI planners but have to be confronted by a robotic agent operating in a physical environment.

Again, this argument supports the softbot paradigm equally well. In contrast to a blocks world-style simulated world, there is no privileged relationship between a softbot’s internal symbols and the entities in its external world. For example, suppose the softbot is instructed to format and print the most recent draft of a particular AI conference paper represented internally by the phrase *file-object-35*. The softbot has to decide

whether the file called *learning.tex*, which it perceives in the directory */ai/papers/*, corresponds to its internal symbol *file-object-35*. The software objects in the softbot’s external world give meaning to its internal symbols. Although the mechanics of software perception are more manageable, and the nuisance of sensory noise is eliminated, the fundamental problem of mapping perceptual experiences to internal symbols remains.

Evolutionary Time Argument

Brooks points out that biological evolution spent most of its multibillion-year history developing insects, reptiles, and primates. Humans arrived a mere 2.5 million years ago and invented writing only recently. Brooks (1991b, p. 141) writes, “This suggests that problem solving behavior, language, expert knowledge and application, and reason are all pretty simple once the essence of being and reacting are available.” Based on this observation, Brooks advocates studying intelligence from the bottom up, starting with insects, eventually moving up to reptiles, and so on.

Whatever the merits of Brooks’s bottom-up research strategy, his evolutionary argument has to be elaborated. Given that higher cognitive functions appeared quite recently on the evolutionary time scale (a mere 2.5 million years ago), Brooks argues that higher cognitive functions are “pretty simple” in a sense. This claim presupposes a direct relationship between evolutionary time and some undefined measure of complexity. However, evolution is not a smooth, gradual process. Many evolutionary theorists subscribe to the theory of *punctuated equilibria*, which asserts that the rate of evolutionary change is highly variable. As Gould (1980, p. 188) puts it in a popular account, “[T]he fossil record with its abrupt transitions offers no support for gradual change, and the principle of natural selection does not require it—selection can operate rapidly.” We should not underestimate the amount of evolutionary change underlying our higher cognitive functions.

The vagaries of evolutionary theory aside, Brooks does not explain why

biological evolution is relevant to AI research methodology. Suppose natural selection constrained evolution to design organisms whose chance to reproduce is maximal, preferring quick reflexes to higher cognitive functions. Are AI systems subject to the same constraints? Certainly, softbots are not. However, suppose we accept the relevance of evolution to AI. Shouldn't we be emulating evolution much more closely than Brooks suggests? Brooks does not justify skipping the billions of years of evolution spent developing multicelled organisms. Isn't it equally plausible to argue that AI should focus on developing the appropriate hardware (that is, designing and manufacturing simple organisms), and the rest will fall into place relatively quickly? On what basis does Brooks conclude that following evolution at a coarse grain (that is, robotics before higher cognitive functions) is appropriate?

The Argument for Softbots

The previous section showed that Brooks's methodological arguments actually support the softbot paradigm and called into question his evolutionary argument. This section presents an independent argument for softbots. The argument has both weak and strong versions. The weak version is straightforward. Software environments (for example, databases, computer networks, operating systems) are the subject of intense study in computer science; software agents are gaining prominence outside AI (for example, KNOWBOTS [Kahn and Cerf 1988]), demonstrating their intrinsic interest. Software environments are not idealizations of physical environments; developing softbots is a difficult and exciting challenge in its own right. This challenge necessitates its own research program; developing mobile robots as a basis for softbots is about as plausible as developing softbots as a basis for mobile robots. Hence, robotics is not sufficient as a foundation for AI. Softbotics and robotics are complementary methodologies for investigating intelligent agents in real-world environments. Clearly, physically ori-

A UNIX Softbot

To make the softbot paradigm concrete, I briefly describe a general-purpose UNIX softbot, called RODNEY (Brooks's early robots were named Herbert, Allen, Seymour, and so on), under development at the University of Washington. (See Etzioni, Lesh, and Segal [1993] for a comprehensive description of RODNEY). RODNEY accepts high-level user goals and dynamically synthesizes sequences of UNIX commands that satisfy the goals. RODNEY executes the sequences, recovering from errors and retrying commands if necessary. The following are examples of the types of user requests that RODNEY handles successfully:

Notification Requests

Notify me if my disk utilization exceeds 80 percent.

Let me know when Neal logs in.

Show me any posts containing the string *bicycle* that appear on the market bulletin board this week.

The choice of notification medium (a beep, a message displayed on the screen, or an e-mail message) is under the softbot's control, as is the means of monitoring the events in question.

Enforcing Constraints

Keep all files in the directory /papers group-readable.

Ensure that all my postscript files are current (that is, automatically generate a new postscript file whenever the corresponding $\backslash\text{TeX}\backslash$ file is modified).

Locating and Manipulating Objects

Print my file on any nearby printer that is not busy, and tell me where to find it.

Locate Melanie Mitchell (using whois, netfind, staffdir, finger, and more).

These classes of requests are neither exhaustive nor mutually exclusive but illustrate my main point: RODNEY enables a user to specify what to accomplish, leaving the decision of how to accomplish it to the softbot. In essence, RODNEY raises the level of discourse between the user and the machine. This goal-oriented approach offers a number of advantages over conventional operating system interfaces. Although an expert programmer could conceivably write a shell script to satisfy the individual goals I listed, the programmer could not create a shell script to accomplish every conceivable user goal or combination of goals. Furthermore, as new system facilities become available, the shell scripts would need to continually be updated and modified.

In contrast, the softbot represents UNIX commands (and applications such as netfind) as STRIPS-style operators and utilizes general-purpose planning algorithms to dynamically generate a plan that satisfies the user's goals (Etzioni et al. 1992; Etzioni, Lesh, and Segal 1993). Once the softbot knows about a new facility, the facility becomes available to its planning process and is automatically invoked to satisfy relevant user goals. Furthermore, unlike a shell script, the softbot is not locked into a rigid control flow. It fluidly backtracks from one option to the next based on information collected at run time. If one printer is jammed, the softbot tries another; if whois fails, the softbot tries netfind; and so on. The nature and ordering of the softbot's options are subject to learning, which enables the softbot to improve its performance over time.

New from AAI Press!

■ Intelligent ■ Multimedia ■ Interfaces

★ MARK T. MAYBURY, EDITOR

Multimedia communication is ubiquitous in daily life. When we converse with one another, we utilize a wide array of media to interact, including spoken language, gestures, and drawings. We exploit multiple sensory systems or modes of communication including vision, audition, and tacton.

Although humans have a natural facility for managing and exploiting multiple input and output media, computers do not. Consequently, providing machines with the ability to interpret multimedia input and generate multimedia output would be a valuable facility for a number of key applications such as information retrieval and analysis, training, and decision support. This book focuses specifically on those intelligent interfaces that exploit multiple media and modes to facilitate human-computer communication. As a consequence, this edited collection will be of interest to researchers and practitioners in computer science, artificial intelligence, computer-human interaction, and cognitive science.

The AAI Press / The MIT Press
Distributed by The MIT Press
Massachusetts Institute of Technology
Cambridge, Massachusetts 02142

To order, call toll free
1-800-356-0343

ented research issues (for example, overcoming sensor noise; motion planning; representing liquids, shapes) are best studied in physical environments, and software issues (for example, responding to error messages; cloning softbots on remote machines; modeling databases, users) are best studied in software.

The strong version of the argument is that the study of many core AI issues is facilitated by the softbot framework and potentially hindered by robotic test beds.² An agent test bed shapes and directs one's research, providing a source of intuitions, motivating examples, simplifying assumptions, stumbling blocks, test cases, and so on. Robotic test beds lead one to focus on robotics. Thus, many core AI issues, such as planning with incomplete information, grounding internal symbols, and learning from experiments, are better studied in software domains. Brooks's "complete agents in real-world environments" methodology is attractive, but building mobile robots is not necessary to implement it. In many ways, softbots are preferable.

Here, I enumerate some of the difficulties associated with mobile robotics research. In principle, mobile robots offer excellent test beds for AI research. In practice, building intelligent systems that successfully interact with an unpredictable physical environment is a rigorous challenge given existing technology. The cost of such robots (including laser range finders, sonars, grippers, television cameras) is nontrivial, and the effort and expertise required to assemble and operate such an apparatus are considerable.

Conducting experiments using mobile robots is often time consuming and difficult. Experiments are frequently hampered by a wide variety of hardware difficulties and malfunctions (Brooks 1991b; Tan 1991). Days and even weeks go by in which the robot is not operational. Even when the robot is operational, the mean time between failures can be short. As a result, carrying out empirical AI research using robots can be tedious and slow. Furthermore, although robotic task environments are much

more realistic than the blocks world, introducing the problems of sensing, uncertainty, and noise, the environments often remain highly unrealistic because of hardware limitations. Realism is lost when the agent's external environment is manipulated to improve the agent's performance. For example, Brooks describes how SHAKEY, the SRI International mobile robot, operated in rooms where "the walls were of a uniform color, and carefully lighted, with dark rubber baseboards, making clear boundaries with the lighter colored floor" (Brooks 1991a, p. 577). More recent AI robots operate in more realistic environments but are restricted to simple tasks such as avoiding walls and fetching soda cans. Much more realistic robots have been built, of course, but they require orders of magnitude more investment of time, money, and expertise in robotics before core AI research can take place.

Brooks acknowledges the frustrations and pragmatic difficulties attendant on AI research using mobile robotic agents. The mean time between failures for one of his robots was as short as 15 minutes (Brooks 1991a, p. 587). Brooks (1991b, p. 158) himself writes, "[E]xperimental work with physical Creatures is a nontrivial and time consuming activity...as of mid-1987, our work in learning is held up by the need to build a new sort of video camera and high-speed low-power processing box to run specially developed vision algorithms at 10 frames per second."

In contrast, software task environments have a number of pragmatic advantages. First, the mean time between hardware failures is much greater for a workstation supporting a software environment than for a mobile robot. Second, rebooting a workstation and restoring a softbot from disk is much easier than fixing a broken gripper in a physical robot or identifying and replacing a malfunctioning chip. As a result, software experiments are easier to perform, control, and repeat than robotic experiments, facilitating systematic experimental research of the sort advocated by Langley and Drummond (1990) and others. In addition,

software facilitates the dissemination and replication of research results. The distribution of multiple copies of a softbot is straightforward, whereas the distribution of research prototype robots is difficult.

Software environments are particularly well suited for agent research. Providing a softbot with basic execution and sensing mechanisms is easy. For example, our UNIX softbots rely on a simple program that sends and receives strings from a UNIX shell. Once the low-level problems associat-

ed with vision (edge detection, stereoscopy, occlusion, sensory noise, and so on) and other physical sensing modalities are eliminated, fascinating high-level problems (for example, how to plan sensory operations) emerge. Many difficult representation and reasoning problems (for example, liquids, shapes, physical actions) are avoided, which is a disadvantage if you want to study these problems but an advantage if you want to focus on agent research and find the formalization of physical knowledge to

Available from AAAI Press

Automating Software Design

Edited by Michael Lowry and Robert McCartney

The contributions in *Automating Software Design* provide substantial evidence that AI technology can meet the requirements of the large potential market that will exist for knowledge-based software engineering at the turn of the century. They are divided into sections covering knowledge-based tools for large software systems, knowledge-based specification acquisition, domain-oriented program synthesis, knowledge compilation, formal derivation systems, and cognitive and planning approaches to software design.

710 pp., index. ISBN 0-262-62080-4

\$39.50 softcover

Artificial Intelligence Applications in Manufacturing

Edited by A. Fazel Famili, Dana S. Nau, and Steven H. Kim

This book contains three sections. Section one focuses on the applications of AI in design and planning; section two is devoted to the AI applications in scheduling and control; and section three is about the use of AI in manufacturing integration.

475 pp., index. ISBN 0-262-56066-6

\$39.95 softcover

The AAAI Press / The MIT Press

Distributed by The MIT Press
Massachusetts Institute of Technology
Cambridge, Massachusetts 02142

To order, call toll free
1-800-356-0343

ficient as a foundation for core AI research. Robotics is not sufficient for AI because the challenge of developing intelligent software agents (or softbots) dictates its own research agenda; robotics is not necessary because many AI issues can be studied profitably in real-world software environments, such as operating systems or databases.

In fact, software environments are particularly well suited for the study of complete intelligent agents. The pragmatic convenience of software environments facilitates rapid development of, and systematic experimentation with, software agents. Providing a softbot with effective sensors and actuators is relatively straightforward, enabling researchers to focus on high-level issues and circumventing many thorny but peripheral problems that are inescapable in physical environments.

A priori arguments only carry so much weight, though. The real test of the softbot paradigm is whether it will yield fundamental contributions to core AI. The University of Washington language for planning with incomplete information (UWL) (Etzioni et al. 1992) is a modest example, but the jury is still out. To paraphrase Brooks (1991b, p. 158), only experiments with real softbots in real software worlds can answer the natural doubts about our approach. Time will tell.

Acknowledgments

I thank Keith Golden, Neal Lesh, and Richard Segal for helping to make the university's softbot, RODNEY, real. Thanks are also owed to Steve Hanks, Dan Weld, Denise Draper, and Mike Williamson for their collaboration in designing UWL and to Hank Levy and Dan Weld for numerous discussions and contributions to the softbot project. Other contributors to the project include Greg Fichtenholtz, Terrance Goan, Rob Spiger, and David Simmons. This research was funded in part by the Office of Naval Research, grant 92-J-1946; in part by the National Science Foundation (NSF), grant IRI-9211045; and in part by an NSF Young Investigator Award.

be a distraction. Finally, many software environments are benign, giving a softbot an opportunity to survive and engage in useful activities over time. To summarize, software environments have three main advantages over physical ones:

Pragmatic convenience: The cost, effort, and expertise necessary to develop and systematically experiment with physical artifacts far exceeds that associated with software artifacts.

Research focus: Software environments circumvent many thorny but peripheral research issues that have to be addressed in physical environments.

Easy embodiment: As a consequence of the first two items, providing an agent with effective sensors and actuators is relatively easy in software environments.

Yet, in contrast to simulated physical worlds, software environments are readily available (sophisticated simulations can take years to develop and perfect) and intrinsically interesting. Furthermore, software environments are real.

Conclusion

This article argued that bottom-up research on mobile robots, although valuable, is neither necessary nor suf-

Notes

1. See the paper by myself and Richard Segal in the working notes for the 1992 AAAI Spring Symposium on Knowledge Assimilation, "Softbots as Test Beds for Machine Learning."

2. Note that in contrast to Brooks (1991a, p. 578), I believe that classical approaches (for example, current work on knowledge representation and planning) still have much to contribute to AI.

References

- Agre, P., and Chapman, D. 1990. What Are Plans For? In *Designing Autonomous Agents*, ed. P. Maes, 17-34. New York: Elsevier Science Publishing Co.
- Arens, Y.; Chee, Y.; Hsu, C.-N.; and Knoblock, C.A. 1994. Retrieving and Integrating Data from Multiple Information Sources. *International Journal on Intelligent and Cooperative Information Systems*. Forthcoming.
- Brooks, R. A. 1991a. Intelligence without Reason. In Proceedings of the Twelfth International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence, 569-595. Menlo Park, Calif.: International Joint Conferences on Artificial Intelligence.
- Brooks, R. A. 1991b. Intelligence without Representation. *Artificial Intelligence* 47:139-160.
- Dent, L.; Boticario, J.; McDermott, J.; Mitchell, T.; and Zabowski, D. 1992. A Personal Learning Apprentice. In Proceedings of the Tenth National Conference on Artificial Intelligence, 96-103. Menlo Park, Calif.: American Association for Artificial Intelligence.
- Dietterich, T. G. 1984. Constraint Propagation Techniques for Theory-Driven Data Interpretation. Ph.D. diss., Dept. of Computer Science, Stanford Univ.
- Etzioni, O.; Lesh, N.; and Segal, R. 1993. Building Softbots for UNIX (Preliminary Report), Technical Report, 93-9-01, Computer Science Dept., Univ. of Washington.
- Etzioni, O.; Hanks, S.; Weld, D.; Draper, D.; Lesh, N.; and Williamson, M. 1992. An Approach to Planning with Incomplete Information. In *Proceedings of the Third International Conference on Principles of Knowledge Representation and Reasoning*, 115-125. San Mateo, Calif.: Morgan Kaufmann Publishers.
- Gould, S. J. 1980. *The Panda's Thumb*. New York: W.W. Norton & Co.
- Kahn, R. E., and Cerf, V. G. 1988. An Open Architecture for a Digital Library System and a Plan for Its Development, Technical Report, Corporation for National Research Initiatives, Reston, Virginia.
- Kleinrock, L. 1985. Distributed Systems. *Computer* 18(11): 90-103.
- Langley, P., and Drummond, M. 1990. Toward an Experimental Science of Planning. In *Proceedings of the Workshop on Innovative Approaches to Planning, Scheduling, and Control*, 109-114. San Mateo, Calif.: Morgan Kaufmann Publishers.
- Maes, P., and Kozierok, R. 1993. Learning Interface Agents. In Proceedings of the Eleventh National Conference on Artificial Intelligence, 459-465. Menlo Park, Calif.: American Association for Artificial Intelligence.
- Messinger, E.; Shoens, K.; Thomas, J.; and Luniewski, A. 1991. RUFUS: The Information Sponge, Technical Report RJ 8294, IBM Almaden Research Center, Almaden, California.
- Mitchell, T. M.; Allen, J.; Chalasani, P.; Cheng, J.; Etzioni, O.; Ringuette, M.; and Schlimmer, J. C. 1991. THEO: A Framework for Self-Improving Systems. In *Architectures for Intelligence*, ed. K. VanLehn, 323-356. Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Rosenschein, J. 1982. Synchronization of Multi-Agent Plans. In Proceedings of the Second National Conference on Artificial Intelligence, 115-119. Menlo Park, Calif.: American Association for Artificial Intelligence.
- Schank, R. C. 1991. Where's the AI? *AI Magazine* 12(4): 38-49.
- Shoham, Y. 1993. Agent-Oriented Programming. *Artificial Intelligence* 60(1): 51-92.
- Tan, M. 1991. Cost-Sensitive Robot Learning. Ph.D. diss., Dept. of Computer Science, Carnegie Mellon Univ. Available as technical report CMU-CS-91-134.
- Wilensky, R.; Chin, D.; Luria, M.; Martin, J.; Mayfield, J.; and Wu, D. 1988. The Berkeley UNIX Consultant Project. *Computational Linguistics* 14(4): 35-84.
- Wurman, R. S. 1989. *Information Anxiety*. New York: Doubleday.



Oren Etzioni is an assistant professor at the University of Washington. He received his B.A. from Harvard University in 1986 and his Ph.D. in computer science from Carnegie Mellon University in January 1991. In 1993, he received a National Science Foundation Young Investigator Award. His research interests include machine learning, planning, and software agents.