

can only say that with our current experience of the modelling power of dynamical versus symbolic techniques, this seems *very* unlikely. To see just how unlikely, consider the cognitive processes that van Gelder must have gone through to write his article.

1. Formulating and refining his definitions of the dynamical hypothesis, the computational hypothesis, the digital computer, and so forth.

2. Marshalling his arguments in favour of the dynamical hypothesis and against the various objections to it.

3. Collecting examples of various successes and failures of different modelling techniques.

4. Deciding how to organise all this material into an article of the appropriate length, style, and so forth, while conveying the essential argument successfully.

5. Deciding which words to use to express the meanings he wanted to convey succinctly and simply, but without oversimplification.

This list of course, only scratches the surface of the processes involved. Now imagine doing any of this with dynamical systems. What quantitative variables should we use and what metrics define on them? What are the differential equations? Just to ask these questions exhibits the gulf between dynamical modelling tools and the thing to be modelled here. This particular task cries out for an intermediate virtual machine that would provide the symbolic representations and rules with which this kind of modelling is more easily conducted. Van Gelder would deny us this virtual machine.

Leaky virtual machines. Unfortunately, van Gelder's uncompromising stance discourages investigation of a potentially fascinating aspect of a dynamical virtual machine for symbolic processing – it may be *leaky*. In computer science, we strive for a clean separation between a virtual machine and its underlying substrate. We want to think solely in terms of the virtual machine and not have to worry about its implementation. However, the initial experiments in building a dynamical virtual machine for symbolic processing have failed to achieve such a clean separation; the implementation keeps leaking through.

Consider, for instance, attempts to build logic-based reasoning systems in which the logical formulae are stored with a neural net. We may assert some properties of some objects by training the net on them. However, when we try to retrieve these assertions, the details will be mixed up. An object may be retrieved that corresponds to none of the objects stored, but whose properties are those that are most popular among them, that is, a kind of typical object. This emergent effect has profound implications for understanding human cognition – both its power and its potential for error. It can only be investigated by building hybrid systems that combine both dynamical and symbolic modelling techniques.

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What is the dynamical hypothesis?

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Abstract: Van Gelder's specification of the dynamical hypothesis does not improve on previous notions. All three key attributes of dynamical systems apply to Turing machines and are hence too general. However, when a more restricted definition of a dynamical system is adopted, it becomes clear that the dynamical hypothesis is too underspecified to constitute an interesting cognitive claim.

Van Gelder claims that the dynamical hypothesis entails three key properties, but all three properties apply to Turing machines, the paradigmatic nondynamical system.

1. Quantitative in state. "A system is quantitative in state when there is a metric over the state set such that behavior is systematically related to distances as measured by that metric" (sect. 3.3, para. 3).

This is true of a Turing machine. Define the following metric: the distance between two states is the minimal number of steps between them. The behavior of the Turing machine systematically relates to this metric (at each step, the machine will step to a neighboring state in this metric). This does not, of course, imply that all neighboring states are equally *accessible*, but this holds true for dynamical systems as well, where one cannot, for instance, simply reverse the direction of time.

2. Quantitative state/time interdependence. "A system is quantitative in *time* when time is a quantity; that is, there is a metric over the time set such that system behavior is systematically related to distances as measured by that metric . . . amounts of change in state are systematically related to amounts of elapsed time" (sect. 3.3, para. 5).

This is also true of a Turing machine. The standard metric over discrete times (such that the distance between $t = m$ and $t = n$ is $|n - m|$). Plus the distance metric over space just mentioned will suffice. System behavior is again systematically related to time in this sense. Also, this metric is neither trivial, nor only occasionally or accidentally related to system behavior. Contrary to van Gelder's claims, the notion of computation embodied by Turing machines has central interest in the time course of computation: computational complexity theory (Garey & Johnson 1979) is a fundamental topic in computer science. Algorithms are evaluated not only in terms of *effectiveness*, but also in terms of *efficiency*; that is, questions are standardly evaluated not only in terms of computability but also in terms of tractability. This concern naturally carries through to computational accounts of cognition (e.g., Falkenhainer & Forbus 1989). Furthermore, within the framework of the computational hypothesis, there are models that have sought specifically to capture the time course of human behavior. Recent examples of this are Anderson and Matessa's (1997) production-rule system of serial memory, which seeks to model latencies or the careful evaluations of competing models of analogy with respect to response time predictions by Keane et al. (1994).

3. Rate dependence. "Rates of change depend on current rates of change" (sect. 3.3, para. 6). As stated, this is a tautology, because it is not clear what separates "rates of change" from "current rates of change."

Van Gelder elaborates: "In these systems, variables include both basic variables and the rates of change of those variables" (sect. 3.3, para. 6). This seems completely mysterious, because we are given no analysis of what it is for a system to *include* a variable.

Van Gelder does note that "a *variable* is simply some entity that can change. . . . The *state* of the system is simply the state or value of all its variables at a time" (sect. 3.1, para. 1). From this it seems that state is just defined extensionally in terms of an arbitrary set of variables. If so, given any concrete object, we can define a system by a set of variables associated with that object and then define a new system including these variables and their rates of change. The latter system will be dynamical, according to the criterion of rate dependence. For any concrete object whatever (including the brain), at any level of analysis whatever, it seems that we can trivially satisfy the third criterion just by adding additional variables by fiat. So we seem to be no further forward.

What alternative analysis might be more appropriate? Van Gelder's Table 1 gives seven previous definitions of dynamical systems. Of these, 1 and 2 are tied directly to their physical realization, and hence not relevant in this more general context, whereas 5, 6, and 7 are trivially satisfied by Turing machines (essentially because Turing machines evolve deterministically over time).

However, consider definition 3 that a dynamical system is "a smooth manifold together with a vector field" (Casti 1993). Because this definition requires that the state space be smooth, the Turing machine *is* ruled out, because it has a discrete state space.

In brief, definition 4 states that dynamical systems are *continuous* deterministic systems, but once we realize that this is the fundamental claim, then it is clear that the dynamical hypothesis is simply too underspecified to be of any interest.

The computational hypothesis does not *merely* say that the mind is discrete at a high level of analysis. Instead, it applies a theory of symbolic computation of enormous theoretical richness and practical power. However, the dynamical hypothesis *does* merely state that the system is continuous – it says nothing about how it works, aside from the trivial truth that it should be studied using the diverse tools of dynamical systems theory. In short, the dynamical hypothesis has the same status that a putative “discrete hypothesis” concerning the mind would have had before Turing, von Neumann, and development of digital, symbolic computation: that is, it would be almost completely devoid of substance.

What might dynamical intentionality be, if not computation?

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Abstract: (1) Van Gelder's concession that the dynamical hypothesis is not in opposition to computation in general does not agree well with his anti-computational stance. (2) There are problems with the claim that dynamic systems allow for nonrepresentational aspects of computation in a way in which digital computation cannot. (3) There are two senses of the “cognition is computation” claim and van Gelder argues against only one of them. (4) Dynamical systems as characterized in the target article share problems of universal realizability with formal notions of computation, but differ in that there is no solution available for them. (5) The dynamical hypothesis cannot tell us what cognition is, because instantiating a particular dynamical system is neither necessary nor sufficient for being a cognitive agent.

Given van Gelder's concession (in sects. 6.3, 6.5, and 6.10) that he is not opposing computation in general, just digital computation in particular, I do not disagree with his main point. It is indeed an open empirical issue which kind of computation best characterizes natural cognitive agents, but he goes about stating this in a misleading way. Yes, “research into the power of dynamical systems is an interesting new branch of computation theory” (sect. 6.3, para. 2). However, with that considerable concession in mind, van Gelder should not have thought he was rejecting effectiveness; he was only pointing out that processes that are quantitative (at the “highest level”) can be effective – effectiveness need not imply digitality. Nor should he have named the view he is opposing “the computational hypothesis” when it is really a specific form of digital computation that is his target.

Although van Gelder wisely avoids the antirepresentationalism that has been the focus of some recent dynamical criticisms of computational accounts of cognition, he fails to resist mentioning antirepresentationalism altogether (section 4.2.3.9). It is not only quantitative systems that can accommodate nonrepresentational aspects of cognition. For example, Brooks (1992) has famously rejected representations in the construction of mobile robots that behave intelligently in real time in the real world, yet his subsumption architectures are not quantitative; they are of the same kind as digital computational architectures. Perhaps it is right to reserve the term “computation” for processes that involve representations; but then there is a natural superclass of digital computation (let us call it the class of “digital machines”) that stands in the same relation to digital computation as dynamical systems stand to dynamical computation. Despite the claims of those van Gelder cites in this section, there is no reason to believe that dynamical systems have any “nonrepresentational” advantage over digital machines.

A distinction should be made between two senses of the claim that “cognition is computation.” According to one sense (call it the “opaque reading”), computation is whatever is described by our current computational theory, and cognition is best understood in terms of that theory. The “transparent” reading, by contrast, has its primary allegiance to the phenomenon of computation, rather than to any particular theory of it. It is the claim that the best account of cognition will be given by *whatever theory turns out to be the best account of the phenomenon of computation*. The opaque reading is a claim about specific theories, whereas the transparent claim is a claim about the phenomena of computation and cognition themselves. The “cognition is computation” claim can be true on the transparent reading, even if cognition is not best understood in terms of, for instance, formal operations, just as long as such operations turn out not to be good accounts of what makes actual computers work. I am one of those who believe formal notions of computation to be inadequate theoretical accounts of actual computational practice and artifacts (what Brian Smith [1996] has called “computation in the wild”). Van Gelder, however, insists (sect. 6.5) on opposing the formal notion of computation. This is understandable, because the formal view of computation is the *de facto* orthodoxy, and we are still waiting for a nonformal theoretical alternative. However, if it turns out that what makes the artifacts of Silicon Valley tick is not best explained in terms of formal computation, then van Gelder's discussion will have nothing to say against the transparent version of the “cognition is computation” claim.

Van Gelder's focus on formality in characterizing his opponent seems to have the unfortunate consequence of causing him to characterize dynamical systems as likewise formal. A recurring criticism of the computational approach is that its formality renders it universally realizable – Putnam (1988) and Searle (1990) argue that any physical system can be interpreted as realizing any formal automaton. This has the consequence that an account of cognition cannot be in terms of formal computation, because any particular formal structure whose realization one claims is sufficient for cognition can be realized by any physical system, including those that are obviously noncognitive. Dynamical systems as van Gelder characterizes them also seem to be universally realizable in this sense – one can use Putnam's tricks to show that every physical system instantiates every dynamical system. However, the difference is that there is a known way out of this problem for digital computation, whereas there is none for dynamical systems. Because computation is not purely formal but includes an implicit notion of discrete states and causal transitions between them, one can use this to restrict the set of physical systems that can be properly said to instantiate any given computation, thus avoiding universal realizability (Chrisley 1994). How are we to so restrict the set of physical systems that realize any given dynamical system, without rendering the dynamical system nonquantitative in the process?

Van Gelder's response to the “not as cognitive” objection (sect. 6.7) will not help him here. What he says is correct: just as the digital computation hypothesis does not claim that all digital computers are cognizers, but rather that cognizers are a special kind of digital computer, so also, *mutatis mutandis*, for the dynamical hypothesis (DH). The DH is not giving sufficient conditions for cognition. However, it does claim that the sufficient conditions can be given in terms of dynamical systems, as he has construed them, and the universal realizability points just made cast doubt on that.

Perhaps the universal realizability point can be countered for dynamical systems, as it was for digital computational systems. Nevertheless, there is a difficulty that arises out of van Gelder's admission that the DH is not providing sufficient conditions for cognition: it puts all the weight on the other foot. It implies that the theoretical value of the DH must be in its providing *necessary* conditions for cognition. However, van Gelder admits that the DH is not giving necessary conditions for cognition, either. Because the DH takes no stand on the nature of artificial cognition (sect. 4, para. 2), it is not a constitutive claim about the essence of cog-