

Chapter 1 : PDF Download Dynamic Cognitive Processes Free

The fifth in a continuing series of conferences, this one was organized to examine dynamic processes in "lower order" cognition from perception to attention to memory, considering both the behavioral and the neural levels.

Humphreys, Jason Braithwaite, Chris N. Merikle and Stephen D. Smith 79 6 The Devil Is in the Detail: Whittlesea and Andrea D. Hughes Creation Theory of Cognition: Is Memory Retrieved or Created? Sheard and Colin M. She conducts behavioral and neuroimaging studies on brain mechanisms underlying recent and remote memory with a focus on the hippocampus, and also research on the relation between memory and personal identity. He is interested in memory and attention, with special concern for the mechanisms of executive control in memory tasks. His experience in single unit recording in awake behaving monkeys performing visual tasks is complemented by his work using functional magnetic resonance imaging in humans to map the nature and function of the human visual system. Her research focuses on the psychological and neural mechanisms that underlie the ability to recognize visual scenes and objects, to represent them internally, and to interact with them. She also studies the consequences of damage to the visual system of the brain using behavioral and functional imaging techniques. Her research on dementia and stroke covers a number of topics including recovery of function, rehabilitation, drug treatment, development of techniques for analyzing structural neuroimages, and basic mechanisms in attention, emotion, and memory. He has interests in visual cognition, particularly in mechanisms of search and visual awareness. His work uses standard behavioural techniques together with X neuropsychological studies of brain-lesioned patients and measures of eye movements during search tasks. His research interests include brain mechanisms associated with theory of mind, comparative approaches to studying the effects of brain lesions on memory and cognition, and treatment of dementia. He specializes in analysis of structural neuroimages. Her interests lie in the psychological and neural mechanisms underlying visual scene and object processing and how these processes are modulated by attention and statistical learning. Her research involves studies of normal and brain-damaged individuals using both behavioral and functional magnetic resonance imaging studies. He conducts research on the cognitive neuroscience of autobiographical memory, confabulation, and posttraumatic stress disorders. Using functional neuroimaging, she studies the brain mechanisms associated with memory, emotion, and face-recognition in healthy, young and older adults, and in people with dementia. His research focuses on episodic retrospective and prospective memory, its development across the adult lifespan, and its breakdown in dementia and other disorders. Contributors xi Andrea D. Her research is in the area of memory, focusing on a constructive account of the "retrieval induced forgetting effect. His research interests include visual cognition object and word recognition, visual attention , cognitive neuropsychology agnosia, neglect, frontal lobe disorders, dyslexia , computational modeling of normal and disoriented cognition, functional brain imaging, and transcranial magnetic stimulation. His research interests focus on hypermnnesia, encoding and retrieval processes, memory and aging, memory and emotion, and the cognitive neuropsychology of memory. He studies the cognitive neuroscience of memory, with a special interest in the role of medial temporal lobe structures in episodic memory and novelty detection. He has developed a number of standard tests used in neuropsychological assessment, among them the KBNA, and conducts research on memory rehabilitation and remediation. His research focuses on brain mechanism associated with autobiographical memory and executive function in healthy young and old adults, people with focal frontal damage, people with traumatic brain injury, and people with dementia. His recent research interests are focused in two primary areas: His research interests are in the domains of attention and automaticity, learning and skill development, and implicit and explicit memory. Her research spans a number of topics in neuropsychology and cognitive neuroscience, including memory for personal and public events and people, and speech and language representation. His primary research interests focus on the nature of consciousness and include attentional processes, perception without awareness, and synaesthesia. His research program is on the processes and brain mechanisms mediating memory, attention, and recognition of faces and objects. His research interests are in the areas of learning and memory, especially in implicit memory. Topics of his ongoing work include lifespan memory development, false memory, and

hypermnnesia. His research interests are in mechanisms of visual attention, using attentional blink and search procedures, along with the relations between attention and visual working memory. His primary research interests are in memory, aging and memory, eyewitness memory, and sex differences in cognitive processes. Her research is on the cognitive neuroscience of spatial and autobiographical memory, and on strategic processes in encoding and retrieval. He is interested in the treatment and management of cognitive disorders in people with traumatic brain injury and dementia, and in devising programs to help their families. Her research examines the cognitive processes, including their neural implementations, underlying human memory and amnesia, and inhibitory mechanisms in long-term memory. He conducts research on memory rehabilitation and remediation in people with traumatic brain injury, and has developed a training program that capitalizes on preserved memory systems and utilizes handheld computer technology. She conducts behavioral and neuroimaging research on remote spatial and autobiographical memory, and on theory of mind, in normal adults and in people with brain damage caused by stroke, trauma, infection, and dementia. Using behavioral measures and functional neuroimaging, she conducts research on a variety of topics ranging from memory in young, old, and brain-damaged adults to the cognitive neuroscience of decision making in economics. Her research is in the area of memory, with special interest in encoding-retrieval interactions and memory updating, particularly in the area of intentional forgetting. His research interests include perception without awareness, the neural substrates of the perception of emotion, and the lateralization of the amygdala. Her research interests include diagnostic validation of clinical profiles in a memory disorders clinic, executive function in mild depression, and hormonal contributions to memory changes in aging. She conducts research on autobiographical memory in healthy young and old adults and in people with brain damage. His research interests are in memory, learning, and computer-assisted learning of a second language. His research focuses on basic cognitive processes in learning, memory, and visual perception, as well as on the development of these processes in children. Her research interests include inhibitory processes in goal-directed action and long-term memory, cognitive aging, and implicit and explicit memory. His research interests emphasize the relation between perception, processing resources, and memory in normal and pathological aging, as well as measurement and research methods in psychology- Contributors xv Indre Viskontas is a graduate student in the Psychology Department at the University of California, Los Angeles. She conducts research on the cognitive neuroscience of memory using deep brain recordings from intracranial electrodes in humans, functional neuroimaging, and behavioral methods. His research interests cover a variety of topics in visual cognition, including mechanisms of visual search and enumeration both in young adults and in elderly populations. Her research interest is in the neuropsychology of language and of recent and remote memory in young and older adults, and in people with acquired brain damage. His areas of research interests include implicit and explicit memory, autobiographical memory, and false memory. He is also involved in research directed at the role of self-talk in complex skill acquisition. He studies the neuropsychology of memory in young and old humans and rats. He also conducts research on cognitive and psychosocial remediation in healthy older adults, and people with stroke and dementia. She helps conduct research on xvi behavioral and neuroimaging studies of memory and cognition in healthy and brain-damaged young and older adults. This brief chapter provides an overview of the book. A sketch is provided of the sharp contrast between the popular view that cognition is relatively static and the view in the discipline that cognition is highly dynamic. This provides the high-level theme of the entire book. Weaving throughout the book are several other more specific themes, notably the roles of consciousness and of inhibition in cognition, and the complimentary behavioural and neuroscience approaches. Linkages across chapters are described, and a brief synopsis of each chapter is provided. Dynamic cognition, static cognition, perception, attention, Introduction In the "real world"â€”which cognitive psychologists resolutely insist on thinking they are part ofâ€”it is widely believed that the apparatus of cognition is static. Eyewitness reports in the courtroom serve as the quintessential example. Eyewitnesses have seen the episode with their "own eyes," so police, jurors, and judges place heavy reliance on their "first hand" descriptions and recountings of the event. What happened is precisely what the eyewitness saw and heard at that moment in time. Attention is seen as automatic, captured in a thoroughly consistent way by the event: Memory is seen as composed of faithful records of the event as if captured on videotape; they may fade

but they do not change over time: What the eyewitness reports from memory later is 2 MacLeod, Uttl, and Ohta exactly what they experienced at the time of the original event, which in turn is exactly what happened. Cognitive psychologists know that this perspective is wrong. Indeed, it would be considerably closer to the truth to say that this perspective is wholly wrong than wholly right. We have known this for a long time, perhaps since the very beginnings of psychology in the late s, and we continue to reinforce and elaborate on just how wrong this view is, as our understanding of cognition broadens and deepens. The cognitive revolution that began a half century ago has, in fact, been very much about the realization of how sweepingly non-static cognition really is. This is strikingly clear in the book that became the "manifesto" of cognitive psychology: On the first page of the introduction, Neisser emphasizes that thought always influences cognition, saying that "Whatever we know about reality has been mediated, not only by the organs of sense but by complex systems which interpret and reinterpret sensory information" p. A few pages later, he brings forth the key idea, saying that "The central assertion is that seeing, hearing, and remembering are all acts of construction, which may make more or less use of stimulus information depending on circumstances" p. The highly dynamic framework set out by Neisser continues to be the guiding perspective of cognitive psychologists, and explains why we stand apart from everyone else in how we understand the world around us. Dynamic cognition permits flexible interaction with our environment, allowing us to exert "cognitive control" over our experience. We are not passive recipients of information but active manipulators of it. It might reasonably be said that, after a half century, it is a little discouraging that our dynamic perspective has not overcome the dominant static perspective "out there. Indeed, the best illustration of a change in everyday thinking about cognition is with respect to the very example described above: As another illustration, the burgeoning literature on false memories see, e. Dynamic Cognitive Processes in Broad Perspective 3 that did not actually happen yet we confidently believe them to have happened, attests further to the pervasive dynamics of cognition. A Survey of the Book The chapters in this book provide evidence of how very dynamic cognition is. They represent "state of the art" descriptions of research programs covering the range from perception to memory. They also illustrate the breadth of the approaches and methodologies being used to reveal cognitive processes, from behavioral studies to brain imaging. Our goal in this first chapter is to guide the reader through the organization of the book, to give a sense of the emphasis of each chapter, and to highlight some of the principal themes that cut across the chapters. Beginning our travels at the beginning, in the domain of perception, Behrmann, Geng, and Baker pose a question that has been recognized as fundamental since the earliest philosophers began to think about the mind: How do we develop a usable percept, given the overwhelming complexity of the world around us? In showing that there are a great many processes involved, they make abundantly clear the degree to which multiple stages of interpretation are always ongoing. Yet out of this comes a powerful form of learning, one of which we are ordinarily not even aware. This issue of awareness or consciousness also becomes one of the principal themes of the book, foreshadowing chapters by Merikle and Smith; Rajaram and Travers; Otani, Kato, and Widner, and others. The elegance of the converging approach that Behrmann, Geng, and Baker useâ€”examining normal and patient populations as well as non-human animals, and delving into the behavioral and the neural levels of analysisâ€”provides a kind of "case study" of what is best about cognitive neuroscience. Coming full circle, the book also closes with a chapter by Moscovitch and his colleagues also focusing on the brain-cognition linkage. Not only is cognition dynamic, but so are the neural processes upon which cognition operates. Continuing to focus on perception, but more at the level of experience, Toppino and Long take what might seem to be a very simpleâ€”and hence simply explainedâ€”perceptual phenomenon and show its cognitive complexity.

Chapter 2 : Dynamic Cognitive Processes - PDF Free Download

The conference from which this book derives took place in Tsukuba, Japan in March The fifth in a continuing series of conferences, this one was organized to examine dynamic processes in "lower order" cognition from perception to attention to memory, considering both the behavioral and the neural levels.

Correct diagnosis usually leads to appropriate treatment. Clinical diagnosis a very dynamic cognitive process. It has tended to remain a sub-conscious activity and has been studied mostly as a complex categorization task, from fixed points of view. This classification, if appreciated by medical teachers and students and correctly applied, should make meta-cognition of the diagnostic process routine. Making a diagnosis is the pivotal cognitive activity of every practicing doctor. A correct diagnosis will in most cases lead to appropriate treatment. With the high cost of health care, increased patient awareness, medico-legal and insurance pressures, every doctor must be empathic, accountable and cost-effective in patient care. Diagnosis must therefore always be logical and defensible based on a consideration of the dynamic internal and external environment of a living human. Self audit is a vital pre-requisite for accountability of actions or thoughts. This is consistent with the identification of four key factors of clinical decision making that reflect current trends in medicine: To the experienced diagnostician, the thought processes involved in formulating a diagnosis is largely subconscious. When asked, most would attribute that capacity to knowledge and experience accumulated over years of practice. In day-to-day life and at the bedside, teachers and learners take the thought process for granted. Some will, at best, look at learning from the point of view of either memorizing or understanding. Although the thought process has been recognized as complex, there was no uniformly accepted way of describing the complexity until Benjamin Bloom et. These levels increase in complexity, from knowledge as the baseline level, through comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, to evaluation as the highest level. There are other domains, "Affective" and "Psycho-motor", that address the emotional feelings associated with thought process and the correctness of skill performance, respectively, but for our immediate purpose we shall focus on only the cognitive domain. Table 1 outlines each level of cognition along with operative words illustrating the type of thought activity the level describes. Early studies of cognition in problem-solving were based on a concept of process over content³. Cognition in clinical diagnosis, consequently, has been approached from fixed points of view, such as "frameworks of clinical situation" or "expert and novice diagnosticians". Others have looked at the sequence of utilization of clinical material, as "forward and backward reasoning 4,5,6,7,8,9. The very dynamic nature of the cognitive process in clinical diagnosis in a live patient may be one of the special characteristics of both medical knowledge and the diagnostic task which can explain some departures of clinical reasoning from cognition in non-medical domains. It is possible that the original concept of "process over content" holds true for cognition in the clinical setting. As a clinician and neophyte student of cognition, I have come to appreciate the extreme dynamism of the thought process involved in diagnosis and the possible futility of trying to analyze its content in a fixed framework or model. In the teaching context, an astute diagnostician should be able to externalize the thought process involved in making a diagnosis for independent study and analysis by students and peers. This is therefore a modest effort to re-introduce this classic classification scheme to medical practitioners, educators and students. The ultimate aim is that clinicians, teachers as well as students should: Appreciate the value of discussing the operational levels of various expressed ideas. Identify the dynamic cognitive levels of various clinical activities. Be able to utilize the classification scheme to describe clinical information and in arriving at functional or anatomic, pathologic as well as etiologic clinical diagnoses. Benefit from the value of being able to actively evaluate their thought processes for purposes of discussion and teaching. This approach unavoidably has the limitation of assuming that the reader is proficient in obtaining clinical information and putting it in a clear, concise and complete summary format, and that the reader has a functional knowledge of pathogenesis, pathophysiology and epidemiology of common disease conditions. It is recommended that the reader should not refer to this table without a prior personal attempt to analyze the diagnostic process, using the illustrations of the levels of the taxonomy. While visiting her African friends, a retired physician was

presented with a seven year old boy who has complaints of cough, anorexia, weakness and tiredness. He had fever and swollen painful joints three weeks previously. Signs she elicited included pyrexia, pallor, pedal edema, axillary nodes, rapid pulse, active precordium, palpable thrill and tender hepatomegaly. There was no stethoscope to auscultate the chest. Our experienced physician made a clear functional diagnosis of heart failure probably due to valvular damage from rheumatic fever speculative pathological and etiologic diagnoses. She advised that they exclude leukemia, septicemia, rheumatoid arthritis and sickle cell disease , regretted her inability to start the child on frusemide prior to referral, and warned about the possibility of endocarditis. At the hospital the young pediatrician quickly verified the history and physical findings, auscultated the chest, prescribed frusemide and then ordered some laboratory and radiological investigations. He gave the referral letter to his resident saying, "Study this closely. It always amazes me how my old teacher arrives at the correct diagnosis with minimal tests. These investigations would be largely for our further education and for insurance". In other words, one should; 1 have acquired good working knowledge of the relevant structures and their function, 2 be able to comprehend the meaning of that knowledge, 3 know when and how to apply the knowledge, 4 be able to analyze the relationships of different pieces of information, 5 be able to synthesize pieces of information and their relationships into a meaningful whole and 6 cross check the processing of the entire information to evaluate whether their are defensible. There is ordinarily a sequential progression from knowledge to comprehension, to application, to analysis, to synthesis and finally evaluation. If you do not have the knowledge, there will be nothing to comprehend. If you acquire knowledge but are unable to comprehend the meaning, you cannot apply it reasonably. Thus the stratification of cognition into levels that are interrelated and interdependent in a very dynamic way. Looking at the six levels and the key words in Table1 , it should be obvious that all levels of cognition are involved in clinical thought and performance, from history taking, physical examination, diagnosis, differential diagnosis, choice of tests, treatment and prognosis. In clinical diagnosis, knowledge, comprehension and, in most cases, application are taken for granted. That is why, for example, at the outset it was stated that to use the sample clinical summary it is assumed that the reader is proficient in obtaining clinical information and relating this to pathogenesis and pathophysiology. Prior to that, knowledge of anatomy, physiology and biochemistry must have been acquired to comprehend the normal structure and function of the human body. Learning to perform the physical examination of a normal individual will enable one to recognize normality and chose normal from abnormal, but may not enable one to distinguish one abnormal condition from another. Knowledge of the physical findings in two abnormal conditions is needed to be able to distinguish between them. Thus one is required to acquire knowledge of the physical findings in diverse clinical conditions. Usually a condition affecting one body system can produce structural or functional abnormality in different parts of the body. One therefore needs to acquire knowledge of the pathological changes and the clinical manifestations of various diseases in particular systems. This will enable one to translate the symptoms and signs to a particular system and from their character one may begin to associate them to particular types of pathological processes. So, at every point in the processing of information one moves from one level to the other in increasing order of complexity, at times going back and forward. Without appropriate knowledge, it is difficult to proceed logically to the next level of cognition. A lower level can always be used to facilitate a higher level of cognition. Discussion In most learning situations there are "novices" and "experts" as well as the spectrum in-between. The critical differences between the expert and novice, given the same innate ability, is knowledge base, the operational level of cognition and the transition time from one level of cognition to the other. For example, given the same knowledge base, the person with a faster comprehension time is likely to apply the knowledge earlier. Again comprehension time may be positively or negatively influenced by diverse and unrelated knowledge. Whereas a student spends time trying to recognize and comprehend discrete pieces of information, an resident who had previously applied the various pieces of information will already be analyzing or synthesizing them, observation of features and recognition of relationships being essentially instantaneous with nearly "zero" comprehension and application times and therefore almost sub-conscious. This particular process is what is often referred to as the "hunch" of the physician as the patient walks into the consulting room. It and the fact that the diagnostic process also automatically embodies considerations for the promotion, maintenance and

restoration of the health of a living being are probably some of the characteristics that contribute to the departure of medical diagnostic cognition from cognition in non-medical domains. Thus, at times information processing that appears to operate at the analysis or synthesis levels for a student may seem to operate at the knowledge level for a resident. Using "palpable thrill" in the sample case as an example, the student may still have problems identifying a thrill or associating it with a given system, whereas a resident immediately recognizes it as indicative of an organic valvular heart lesion. My untested hypothesis therefore is that the expert usually has more time to operate at the level of evaluation because of shortened comprehension, application and analysis times. This is consistent with the observations of different knowledge levels of novices, interns and experts 11,12,13, and the observed superiority of experts over novices and interns in diagnostic accuracy with the shortest exposure to clinical information. Of the several influences that impinge on the diagnostic cognitive process, perhaps the most crucial is the issue of life and death. Thus the process even in the same physician, whether novice or expert is different for different conditions depending on the degree of threat to life and recognition of that threat. Of the various non-medical cognitive domains, perhaps that of priests and commercial airline pilots are closest to physicians in this respect. It may be illuminating to explore the cognitive processes in these professions that are at times referred to as "noble". The influence of the affective domain on the cognitive process may also be more potent in these situations. In the traditional pre-clinical years cognition by students is mostly at the knowledge and comprehension levels. In the first clinical year it moves to the application and analysis levels with expansion of the knowledge base and reduction of comprehension time. By the final year, students should be functioning mostly at the analysis and synthesis levels with occasional evaluation level processing to effectively solve the clinical problems that they are likely to encounter. However they are not aware of this process because metacognition is not part of their training at any level. The greater comfort and sophistication, in the clinical setting, of the final year student compared to the junior students is probably a manifestation of the good feeling associated with improved cognitive processing of clinical information. This can be further enhanced if the awareness of improvement is based on objective self evaluation. Universal appreciation and application of the dynamics of the levels of cognition by all players in medical practice and education should make meta-cognition of the diagnostic process possible. Even the most "unconscious thoughts" can be brought to consciousness and thus made "teachable". The rapid processing of rapidly observed phenomenon which hitherto had been regarded as "hunches" or "impressions" can be subjected to a systematic slow "play back", using this classification scheme of the cognitive domain. The diagnostic process thus becomes subject to a systematic evaluation. Four factors of clinical decision making: Acad Med ; The taxonomy and illustrative materials. Cognitive Domain, pp New York: David McKay Company Inc. Problem solving processes of college students. A Supplementary Educational Monograph. University of Chicago Press: Harvard University Press Expertise and error in diagnostic reasoning. Cognitive Sci ; 5: The role and development of medical knowledge in diagnostic expertise.

Chapter 3 : - Dynamic Cognitive Processes by NOBUO; calendrierdelascience.com OHTA

"This book presents cutting-edge research in perception, memory, and aging, with a focus on dynamic cognitive processes: interactive and constructive processes in such phenomena as perception and memory, interaction between processes recruited for perception and memory, activation and inhibition, influence of subconscious processes on.

There are many types of cognitive models, and they can range from box-and-arrow diagrams to a set of equations to software programs that interact with the same tools that humans use to complete tasks e. Box-and-arrow models[edit] A number of key terms are used to describe the processes involved in the perception, storage, and production of speech. Typically, they are used by speech pathologists while treating a child patient. The input signal is the speech signal heard by the child, usually assumed to come from an adult speaker. The output signal is the utterance produced by the child. The unseen psychological events that occur between the arrival of an input signal and the production of speech are the focus of psycholinguistic models. Events that process the input signal are referred to as input processes, whereas events that process the production of speech are referred to as output processes. Some aspects of speech processing are thought to happen online—that is, they occur during the actual perception or production of speech and thus require a share of the attentional resources dedicated to the speech task. In this sense, online processing is sometimes defined as occurring in real-time, whereas offline processing is said to be time-free Hewlett, Sometimes as in the models of Smith, , and Menn, , described later in this paper the arrows represent processes additional to those shown in boxes. Such models make explicit the hypothesized information- processing activities carried out in a particular cognitive function such as language , in a manner analogous to computer flowcharts that depict the processes and decisions carried out by a computer program. Box-and-arrow models differ widely in the number of unseen psychological processes they describe and thus in the number of boxes they contain. Some have only one or two boxes between the input and output signals e. The most important box, however, and the source of much ongoing debate, is that representing the underlying representation or UR. Elise Baker et al. Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research. Computational models[edit] A computational model is a mathematical model in computational science that requires extensive computational resources to study the behavior of a complex system by computer simulation. The system under study is often a complex nonlinear system for which simple, intuitive analytical solutions are not readily available. Rather than deriving a mathematical analytical solution to the problem, experimentation with the model is done by changing the parameters of the system in the computer, and studying the differences in the outcome of the experiments. Examples of common computational models are weather forecasting models, earth simulator models, flight simulator models, molecular protein folding models, and neural network models. This section needs expansion. You can help by adding to it. December Subsymbolic[edit] subsymbolic if it is made by constituent entities that are not representations in their turn, e. December Hybrid[edit] Hybrid computers are computers that exhibit features of analog computers and digital computers. The digital component normally serves as the controller and provides logical operations, while the analog component normally serves as a solver of differential equations. See more details at hybrid intelligent system. December Dynamical systems[edit] In the traditional computational approach , representations are viewed as static structures of discrete symbols. Cognition takes place by transforming static symbol structures in discrete , sequential steps. Sensory information is transformed into symbolic inputs, which produce symbolic outputs that get transformed into motor outputs. The entire system operates in an ongoing cycle. What is missing from this traditional view is that human cognition happens continuously and in real time. Breaking down the processes into discrete time steps may not fully capture this behavior. An alternative approach is to define a system with 1 a state of the system at any given time, 2 a behavior, defined as the change over time in overall state, and 3 a state set or state space , representing the totality of overall states the system could be in. By doing so, the form of the space of possible trajectories and the internal and external forces that shape a specific trajectory that unfold over time, instead of the physical nature of the underlying mechanisms that manifest this dynamics, carry explanatory force. Early dynamical systems[edit] Associative memory[edit] Early work in the application of

dynamical systems to cognition can be found in the model of Hopfield networks. They represent the neural level of memory, modeling systems of around 30 neurons which can be in either an on or off state. By letting the network learn on its own, structure and computational properties naturally arise. Time ordering of memories can also be encoded. The behavior of the system is modeled with vectors which can change values, representing different states of the system. This early model was a major step toward a dynamical systems view of human cognition, though many details had yet to be added and more phenomena accounted for.

Language acquisition[edit] By taking into account the evolutionary development of the human nervous system and the similarity of the brain to other organs, Elman proposed that language and cognition should be treated as a dynamical system rather than a digital symbol processor. Instead of treating language as a collection of static lexical items and grammar rules that are learned and then used according to fixed rules, the dynamical systems view defines the lexicon as regions of state space within a dynamical system. Grammar is made up of attractors and repellers that constrain movement in the state space. This means that representations are sensitive to context, with mental representations viewed as trajectories through mental space instead of objects that are constructed and remain static. Elman networks were trained with simple sentences to represent grammar as a dynamical system. Once a basic grammar had been learned, the networks could then parse complex sentences by predicting which words would appear next according to the dynamical model. Children 2 years old were found to make an error similar to the A-not-B error when searching for toys hidden in a sandbox. After observing the toy being hidden in location A and repeatedly searching for it there, the 2-year-olds were shown a toy hidden in a new location B. When they looked for the toy, they searched in locations that were biased toward location A. By focusing on the output of the neural networks rather than their states and examining fully interconnected networks, three-neuron Central pattern generator CPG can be used to represent systems such as leg movements during walking. Outputs of the network represent whether the foot is up or down and how much force is being applied to generate torque in the leg joint. One feature of this pattern is that neuron outputs are either off or on most of the time. Another feature is that the states are quasi-stable, meaning that they will eventually transition to other states. A simple pattern generator circuit like this is proposed to be a building block for a dynamical system. Sets of neurons that simultaneously transition from one quasi-stable state to another are defined as a dynamic module. These modules can in theory be combined to create larger circuits that comprise a complete dynamical system. However, the details of how this combination could occur are not fully worked out.

Modern dynamical systems[edit] Behavioral dynamics[edit] Modern formalizations of dynamical systems applied to the study of cognition vary. In the specific case of perception-action cycles, the coupling of the environment and the agent is formalized by two functions. The first function transforms the representation of the agent's action into specific patterns of muscle activation that in turn produce forces in the environment. The second function transforms the information from the environment into the agent's representation. According to this framework, adaptive behaviors can be captured by two levels of analysis. At the first level of perception and action, an agent and an environment can be conceptualized as a pair of dynamical systems coupled together by the forces the agent applies to the environment and by the structured information provided by the environment. Thus, behavioral dynamics emerge from the agent-environment interaction. At the second level of time evolution, behavior can be expressed as a dynamical system represented as a vector field. In this vector field, attractors reflect stable behavioral solutions, whereas bifurcations reflect changes in behavior. In contrast to previous work on central pattern generators, this framework suggests that stable behavioral patterns are an emergent, self-organizing property of the agent-environment system rather than determined by the structure of either the agent or the environment. This formalization can be seen as a generalization from the classical formalization, whereby the agent system in the classical formalization can be viewed as the agent system in an open dynamical system, and the agent coupled to the environment and the environment can be viewed as the total system in an open dynamical system.

Embodied cognition[edit] In the context of dynamical systems and embodied cognition, representations can be conceptualized as indicators or mediators. In the indicator view, internal states carry information about the existence of an object in the environment, where the state of a system during exposure to an object is the representation of that object. In the mediator view, internal states carry information about the environment

which is used by the system in obtaining its goals. In this more complex account, the states of the system carries information that mediates between the information the agent takes in from the environment, and the force exerted on the environment by the agents behavior. The application of open dynamical systems have been discussed for four types of classical embodied cognition examples: A classic example of intimacy is the behavior of simple agents working to achieve a goal e. The successful completion of the goal relies fully on the coupling of the agent to the environment. The process is referred to as "offloading". A classic example of offloading is the behavior of Scrabble players; people are able to create more words when playing Scrabble if they have the tiles in front of them and are allowed to physically manipulate their arrangement. In this example, the Scrabble tiles allow the agent to offload working memory demands on to the tiles themselves. One famous example is that of human specifically the agents Otto and Inga navigation in a complex environment with or without assistance of an artifact. The individual agent is part of larger system that contains multiple agents and multiple artifacts. One famous example, formulated by Ed Hutchins in his book *Cognition in the Wild*, is that of navigating a naval ship. These embodied cognition examples show the importance of studying the emergent dynamics of an agent-environment systems, as well as the intrinsic dynamics of agent systems. Rather than being at odds with traditional cognitive science approaches, dynamical systems are a natural extension of these methods and should be studied in parallel rather than in competition.

Chapter 4 : Psychodynamics - Wikipedia

For over a hundred years, it has been accepted that remote memories are less vulnerable to disruption than are recent memories. The standard consolidation model posits that the hippocampus and.

Overview[edit] In general, psychodynamics is the study of the interrelationship of various parts of the mind , personality , or psyche as they relate to mental, emotional, or motivational forces especially at the unconscious level. Freud proposed that psychological energy was constant hence, emotional changes consisted only in displacements and that it tended to rest point attractor through discharge catharsis. At the heart of psychological processes, according to Freud, is the ego, which he envisions as battling with three forces: Freud used the term psychodynamics to describe the processes of the mind as flows of psychological energy libido in an organically complex brain. However, it is now clear that the term energy in physics means something quite different from the term energy in relation to mental functioning. Horowitz states that his own interest and fascination with psychodynamics began during the s, when he heard Ralph Greenson, a popular local psychoanalyst who spoke to the public on topics such as "People who Hate", speak on the radio at UCLA. In his radio discussion, according to Horowitz, he "vividly described neurotic behavior and unconscious mental processes and linked psychodynamics theory directly to everyday life. Allen, is a "cognitive behavioral approach to treatment and that it is a very effective way of dealing with internal models of self and others as well as other psychodynamic issues. Early French researchers[edit] Early researchers in France set the scene for the psychodynamic approach. Jean-Martin Charcot , for example, lectured on Mesmerism or Hypnosis , ideas that Sigmund Freud, who attended his lectures, would later take up. Hall , from his Primer in Freudian Psychology: When he made his discovery Freud proceeded to create a dynamic psychology. A dynamic psychology is one that studies the transformations and exchanges of energy within the personality. In his writings about the " engines of human behavior", Freud used the German word Trieb, a word that can be translated into English as either instinct or drive. That year, Freud invited Jung to visit him in Vienna. The two men, it is said, were greatly attracted to each other, and they talked continuously for thirteen hours. This led to a professional relationship in which they corresponded on a weekly basis, for a period of six years. The psyche tends toward wholeness. The self is composed of the ego, the personal unconscious, the collective unconscious. Archetypes are composed of dynamic tensions and arise spontaneously in the individual and collective psyche. Archetypes are autonomous energies common to the human species. They give the psyche its dynamic properties and help organize it. Their effects can be seen in many forms and across cultures. The emergence of the third resolves the split between dynamic polar tensions within the archetypal structure. The recognition of the spiritual dimension of the human psyche. The role of images which spontaneously arise in the human psyche images include the interconnection between affect, images, and instinct to communicate the dynamic processes taking place in the personal and collective unconscious, images which can be used to help the ego move in the direction of psychic wholeness. Recognition of the multiplicity of psyche and psychic life, that there are several organizing principles within the psyche, and that they are at times in conflict. John Bowlby and Mary Ainsworth: In particular Bowlby was struck by the phenomenon of imprinting , which Lorenz had studied in birds, and he saw the possibility that infants might imprint on their mother in a similar way. Along with his student Mary Ainsworth he studied infant behaviour, and developed what he called attachment theory. Later he realised that infants need a stable, safe person or persons to provide a feeling of security from which they can venture out and explore. Many other workers in the field have since carried out experiments on infants and on animals which seem to confirm and refine this idea. Contact with parents was said to unsettle the children and interfere with ward routine. Today, parents are encouraged to stay with their children in UK hospitals, or visit whenever they want. Research in this field provides insights into a number of areas, including: Together with the clinician, patients are assisted to bring conflicting aspects of their self into awareness, and through time, begin to integrate the conflicting parts and resolve aspects of the tension. This is talked about in different ways in each of the psychodynamic psychological theories, but all share the common goal of attempting to describe the dynamic nature of the

tension between conflicting parts, assist the client in coming to terms with the tension, and begin the process of integration and healing. This is as opposed to simply evaluating previously unexamined beliefs, as is advocated for in, for example, reflective practice. Cognitive psychodynamics is a blend of traditional psychodynamic concepts with cognitive psychology and neuroscience.

Chapter 5 : Cognitive model - Wikipedia

This book presents cutting-edge research in perception, memory, and aging, with a focus on dynamic cognitive processes: interactive and constructive processes in such phenomena as perception and.

Chapter 6 : Dynamic Cognitive Processes - Google Books

Bloom's taxonomy of the cognitive domain classifies the cognitive process into six dynamic levels of increasing complexity, from knowledge as the baseline, through comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, to evaluation as the highest level.