

walking on level ground. More intense gaits like running, where the legs cycle more positive and negative mechanical power, and tasks like walking downhill, descending staircases, or decelerating to a stop all provide increased opportunities for exoskeletons to assist the body's biological brakes while generating electricity.

Next-generation exosuits will begin to integrate physiological sensing systems and machine-learning algorithms to increase the versatility and impact of wearable assistive devices. During the next decade, a new challenge may be to develop an exosuit that minimizes human metabolic energy expenditure on a round-trip course spanning many kilometers over many days with access to an onboard rechargeable battery while providing the user with a set amount of caloric intake per day. Optimal performance will likely require multijoint, hybrid support strategies that combine injection, extraction, and transfer of both electrical and mechanical energy to adapt continuously to locomotion-task demands and limit heat loss of the user.

Such devices could have several applications, such as extending the range of on-foot search-and-rescue crews, outdoor adventurers, or soldiers on humanitarian missions. In the developing world, an exosuit could provide between 20 and 40% of the electricity needed per person on a typical day. The energy demands of portable electronics and increased recognition of the role of movement in longevity may drive exosuits toward widespread adoption. ■

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#### HYPOTHESIS

# Making the hard problem of consciousness easier

## Championing open science, an adversarial collaboration aims to unravel the footprints of consciousness

By Lucia Melloni<sup>1,2</sup>, Liad Mudrik<sup>3</sup>, Michael Pitts<sup>4</sup>, Christof Koch<sup>5,6</sup>

The history of science includes numerous challenging problems, including the “hard problem” (1) of consciousness: Why does an assembly of neurons—no matter how complex, such as the human brain—give rise to perceptions and feelings that are consciously experienced, such as the sweetness of chocolate, or the tenderness of a loving caress on one's cheek? Beyond satisfying this millennia-old existential curiosity, understanding consciousness bears substantial medical and ethical implications, from evaluating whether someone is conscious after brain injury to determining whether nonhuman animals, fetuses, cell organoids, or even advanced machines (2) are conscious. A comprehensive and agreed-upon theory of consciousness is necessary to answer the question of which systems—biologically evolved or artificially designed—experience anything; and to define the ethical boundaries of our actions toward them. The research projects described here will hopefully point the way and tell us whether any of today's major theories hold water or not.

After prosperous decades of focused scientific investigation zeroing in on the neural correlates of consciousness (3), a number of candidate theories of consciousness have emerged. These have independently gained substantial empirical support (4–7), led to empirically testable predictions, and resulted in major improvements in the evaluation of consciousness at the bedside (8, 9). Notwithstanding this progress, the conjectures being put forward by the different theories make diverging claims and predictions that cannot all be simultaneously true. Moreover, the theories evolve and continue to adapt as further data accumulates, with

hardly any cross-talk between them. How can we then narrow down on which theory better explains conscious experience?

The road to a possible solution may be paved by means of a new form of cooperation among scientific adversaries. Championed by Daniel Kahneman in the field of behavioral economics (10) and predated by Arthur Eddington's observational study to test Einstein's theory of general relativity against Newton's theory of gravitation (11), adversarial collaboration rests on identifying the most diagnostic points of divergence between competing theories, reaching agreement on precisely what they predict, and then designing experiments that directly test those diverging predictions. During the past 2 years, several groups have adopted this approach, following an initiative that aims to accelerate research in consciousness. So far, several theories of consciousness are being evaluated in this manner to test competing explanations for where and when neural activity gives rise to subjective experience.

The global neuronal workspace theory (GNWT) (4) claims that consciousness is instantiated by the global broadcasting and amplification of information across an interconnected network of prefrontal-parietal areas and many high-level sensory cortical areas. The sensory areas carry out different functions that range from feature processing to object or word recognition. Information in those sensory areas is processed in encapsulated modules, remaining unconscious. The frontal-parietal networks support integrative and executive functions, including selective attention and working memory. According to the GNWT, a stimulus must be attended to trigger activity that helps distribute this sensory information to many parts of the brain for further processing and report. It is this global broadcasting across many modules of specialized subsystems that constitutes consciousness. Conversely, the integrated information theory (IIT) (5) holds that consciousness should be understood in terms of cause-effect “power” that reflects the amount of maximally irreducible integrated information generated by certain neuronal architectures. On the basis of mathemati-

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