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1 **Failing, hacking, passing: Autism, entanglement, and the ethics of transformation**

2 **Abstract**

3 One of the most notable recent changes in autism science is the belief that autism is a
4 heterogeneous condition with no singular essence. I argue that this notion of ‘autistic
5 heterogeneity’ can be conceived as an ‘agential cut’ and traced to uncertainty work conducted
6 by cognitive psychologists during the early 1990s. Researchers at this time overcame
7 uncertainty in scientific theory by locating it within autism itself: epistemological uncertainty
8 was interwoven with ontological indeterminacy and autism became heterogeneous and
9 chance like, a condition determined by indeterminacy. This paper considers not only the
10 conceptual significance of this move but also the impact upon forms of subjectivity. This
11 analysis is undertaken by integrating the agential realism of Karen Barad with the historical
12 ontology of Michel Foucault. I argue that these two approaches are, firstly, concerned with
13 ontologies of emergence and, secondly, foreground the inherently ethical nature of change.
14 As such these theories can be used to articulate an ‘ethics of transformation’. I argue that the
15 agential cut which brought about autistic heterogeneity is potentially problematic within an
16 ethics of transformation, limiting the possibility of future change in subjectivity by imagining
17 difference and resistance as properties of autism rather than the individual.

18 **Key words**

19 Karen Barad – Michel Foucault – autism – uncertainty – ethics of transformation – cognitive
20 psychology

21 **Introduction**

22 Autism is widely understood as a neurodevelopmental condition (American Psychiatric
23 Association 2013: 166) affecting around 1:100 individuals (Charman et al. 2011: 10) and for
24 which neither cause nor cure is known (Bertoglio & Hendren 2009: 1). While there have been

25 significant changes to the core symptomology of autism over the past seventy years (Evans
26 2013), since the late 1970s there has been a consistent belief that autism is marked by social
27 and communication impairments as well as restricted interests and repetitive behaviours
28 (Feinstein 2010: 175).

29 One notable change in scientific understandings of autism, which has occurred since the
30 1980s, is the contemporary belief that autism is a particularly heterogeneous condition. It is
31 now common for scientists to label autism a disorder of the ‘idiosyncratic brain’ (Hahamy et
32 al. 2015), to refer to the ‘autisms’ (e.g. Geschwind & Levitt 2007), or suggest that we should
33 ‘give up on a single explanation for autism’ (e.g. Happé et al. 2006. See also Singh (2016)).
34 These assertions all attest to the fact that autism is described to be, by its very nature,
35 aleatoric¹. While it is not, of course, unusual to suggest that psychiatric classifications may be
36 heterogeneous, the naturalisation and integration of heterogeneity into the ontology of autism,
37 the assertion that the condition has no singular essence or defining feature, is certainly
38 striking.

39 In this article I attempt to understand these narratives of heterogeneity, particularly their
40 ethical and ontological consequences, with reference to a small body of research in cognitive
41 psychology conducted in the early 1990s. I argue that the concept of a heterogeneous autism
42 arises from uncertainty work undertaken within this research wherein epistemological
43 uncertainties in scientific theory and experiment are understood as part of the ontology of
44 autism. Uncertainty in work, in other words, came to be seen as evidence of indeterminacy in
45 nature.

¹The term ‘aleatoric’ is taken here from the work of Ian Hacking (e.g. Hacking 1975). To refer to an object as aleatoric is to suggest that it is, by nature of its ontology, chance like. Following both Hacking (e.g. Hacking 1995: 234) and Barad (2007: 115, 265) I use the word uncertainty to denote an epistemological claim of the sort “I am not sure what has really happened” whereas indeterminacy refers to a hard, ontological claim about the aleatoric state of the world. As will become apparent, in the current empirical example at least, the policing of this boundary is problematic.

46 Undoubtedly, a heterogeneous autism has flourished and diversified in the years since this
47 initial research took place, filling an evolving ‘ecological niche’ (Hacking 2002b). Ever
48 broadening behavioural diagnostic criteria (Verhoeff 2013: 443), the elusive nature of
49 autism’s genetic underpinnings (Navon 2011: 214), and the increasing number of voices from
50 within self-advocacy movements emphasising their individuality (Moore 2014: 151), are all
51 entangled with the heterogeneous nature of autism. Nonetheless, I argue that it is within this
52 particular body of psychology research that an ‘agential cut’ takes place.

53 This paper seeks to understand this transformation of autism into a heterogeneous condition
54 by drawing upon the ethico-onto-epistemological framework of Karen Barad; a framework
55 which investigates not only transformations in the world but also centralises the inherently
56 ethical nature of these changes. Like Barad, I explore these claims through a focus upon a
57 small number of experiments which I argue are key to understanding the emergence of a
58 heterogeneous autism.

59 Before this sustained empirical focus on autism, therefore, I flesh out the key conceptual tools
60 offered by Barad and note the utility of the concept of an ‘agential cut’. I then go on to
61 explore their significance to the production of subjectivities within diagnostic contexts and, in
62 doing so, draw affinities with the ethical project of Michel Foucault which, like Barad,
63 considers the ethics of transformation. I then bring these frameworks together with a body of
64 research in sociology and Science and Technology Studies which has explored the ways in
65 which scientific researchers deal with uncertainty. These introductory discussions lay the
66 foundations for the empirical body of the paper within which I argue that – in the particular
67 diagnostic context at stake - scientific uncertainties have been diffracted through autism and
68 played a decisive role in the emergence of a heterogeneous autism, a role that is not only of
69 conceptual and practical significance but which also has important ethical consequences.

70 **Ethico-onto-epistemologies of transformation**

71 *Barad's philosophy*

72 In *Meeting the Universe Halfway*, Karen Barad argues that objects of scientific investigation
73 cannot be disentangled from the apparatuses used to investigate them. Importantly, by
74 'apparatus' Barad does not only have in mind the equipment listed in a methods section.
75 Rather, the apparatus includes the like of "class, nationalism, gender, and the politics of
76 nationalism" among any number of other relevant material and discursive factors (Barad
77 2007: 165). Indeed, Barad's apparatus incorporates such a range of factors that it is hard to
78 determine any outside of the apparatus at all; nothing is a priori excluded from influencing
79 the nature of the object under investigation (see, for instance, the apparatus shown in Barad
80 2007, page 389).

81 Barad explores this key claim regarding the inseparability of measuring apparatuses and
82 objects of analysis with reference to the famed uncertainty principle of Werner Heisenberg.
83 Following Niels Bohr, Barad argues that it is an error to understand the uncertainty principle
84 as an epistemological problem. It is not that we are uncertain about the qualities of particular
85 entities - that we are unable to simultaneously measure position and momentum - rather it is
86 that the entities in question are ontologically indeterminate and cannot meaningfully be said
87 to have had those properties prior to interactions with the apparatus used to investigate them.
88 Thus, Barad states:

89 "... there aren't little things wandering aimlessly in the void that possess the complete
90 set of properties that Newtonian physics assumes (e.g., position and momentum);
91 rather, there is something fundamental about the nature of measurement interactions
92 that, given particular measuring apparatus, certain properties become determinate,
93 while others are specifically excluded." (Barad 2007: 19, italics in original)

94 There are several aspects to this claim which are relevant to the diagnosis of autism and
95 which are worth elucidating further, not only in order to comprehend Barad's philosophy, but
96 to grasp the conceptual and ethical thrust of her work.

97 Firstly, Barad is not arguing that there are not real, determinate things-in-the-world. Rather, it
98 is suggesting that the world does not exist in stasis, that things are not timeless, and that they
99 do not pre-exist their interactions². Secondly, because the term interaction retains a sense of
100 separate entities coming together (e.g. a measuring apparatus and an object of study), Barad
101 coins the neologism 'intra-action' to reinforce the claim that there is nothing prior to
102 interaction and that new entities are 'exteriorities within', their boundaries arising from the
103 inside of existing phenomena. Finally, the point at which a determinate entity emerges
104 following an intra-action, the point from which we are able to delineate "the object of
105 investigation from the agencies of observation" (Barad 2007: 115) is known as an "agential
106 cut". The agential cut is a crucial moment for not only are certain realities brought into being
107 but other possibilities are necessarily excluded. Barad's example concerning the uncertainty
108 principle makes this particularly obvious; at the moment when a particular intra-action brings
109 into being a particle with a determinate property (e.g. momentum) another perfectly feasible
110 possibility (e.g. a particle with a determinate position) is foreclosed.

111 These features of Barad's work make it valuable to the study of autism. There is, for
112 example, no need to choose between the reality of the condition and the conclusion that

² As will be discussed at greater length in subsequent sections, there are strong affinities here between the work of Barad and Michel Foucault. Foucault referred favourably to 'historical nominalism' or 'historical ontology' (Davidson 2001: 36; see also Lemke 2011: 41-42) and this term has been taken up by several of his interlocutors, most notably Ian Hacking (e.g. Hacking 2007: 295; Madsen et al. 2013: 48). As Hacking says, "there is hardly a grain of so-called relativism" (Hacking 2002: 23) in this approach and, as Paul Veyne notes "there is no more relativism as soon as one has stopped opposing truth to time" (Veyne et al. 1993: 3). While Foucault and Barad understand history differently, what their approaches have in common is the centralisation of movement and becoming in ontological investigation. Where Barad departs from, or at least extends upon, these approaches is by incorporating non-humans and inanimate matter into her analyses (although see, Lemke 2015).

113 autism has been significantly shaped by social and historical factors including disciplinary
114 norms and competition, educational strategies, deinstitutionalisation, and (self-)advocacy
115 groups (Chamak 2008; Evans 2013; Hollin 2014; Navon & Eyal 2014; Silverman 2012;
116 Verhoeff 2012). Instead of a concern with whether autism should be understood with
117 reference to factors which are either ‘inside’ or ‘outside’ of science, attention is drawn
118 towards a consideration of how autism has been delineated as an object of investigation, cut
119 and re-cut from a particular apparatus which may readily include all of the aforementioned
120 material and discursive factors. In the following section I will show how, firstly, these
121 becomings and transformations in autism are fundamentally ethical in nature and, secondly,
122 how an ethics of transformation can be formed by uniting Barad’s work with that of Michel
123 Foucault.

124 Ethics at the hinge of history

125 Barad’s work is reminiscent of that by John Law and Annemarie Mol who, firstly, reject
126 ‘perspectivalist’ views which assert that ontology is entirely separate from epistemology
127 (Law 2004: 25) and, secondly, have conducted pioneering studies in the fields of medicine
128 and diagnosis (Mol 2002). Where Barad’s work complements these approaches is in, not only
129 the consistent focus upon ethics, but also the form which ethical consideration might take.
130 Barad insists that “we are responsible for the cuts we help enact” (Barad 2007: 180). Further,
131 because the creation of new entities “always entails constitutive exclusions” (Barad 2007:
132 135), there is a highlighting of the fact that there are questions of accountability regarding
133 what gets included and what is othered from the world. Agential cuts are inevitable (Hoffman
134 et al. 2015: 676), but the types of object produced are not and, therefore, there is
135 responsibility attached to the way that worlds have been, and will be, made.

136 This ethical centring is consistent with, and complimentary to, the ethical project of Michel
137 Foucault, even if a consideration of his ethics is entirely absent from Meeting the Universe
138 Halfway. Like Barad, Foucault's is an ethics of transformation. As Colin Koopman has
139 recently argued, Foucault's genealogical endeavours operate on "the hinge between a history
140 of the formation of the subject and the possibility of the future transformation of the subject"
141 (Koopman 2013: 526)³. A similar argument is made by Lemke (2011: 32) who contests that
142 Foucault's historical endeavours are not deconstructions for the sake of deconstructions but,
143 rather, were intended to encourage what Foucault referred to elsewhere as 'limit-experiences'
144 (e.g. Foucault 1994: 241-242), occasions which suggest new ways of being, potential
145 transformation in the very matter of the universe (Miller 1993: 29).

146 On one plane of Foucault's work, therefore, we have the backward looking 'history of the
147 formation of the subject' and, on the other side of the hinge, the 'limit-experience', the
148 forward looking possibility of future transformation. It is in these territories where Foucault's
149 project usefully intersects with Barad's. Koopman suggests that while Foucault engaged in
150 extensive histories in order to provoke limit-experiences that would make possible
151 transformations in subjectivity, it would be a mistake to view such transformations as an
152 ethical commitment; "Foucault is not telling us that we ought to transform ourselves"
153 (Koopman 2013: 530) and while "Genealogies can provoke in us the sense that we should
154 change ourselves... they cannot place us under an obligation" (Koopman 2013: 528). Though

³ While it is useful for present purposes, Barad may not endorse the metaphor of a 'hinge' which is suggestive of a 'past' on one side and a 'future' on the other. While Barad explicitly endorses genealogy as a methodology (Barad 2007: 390) she also states that "the "past" and the "future" are iteratively reworked and enfolded through the iterative practices of spacetime-mattering" (Barad 2007: 315). Barad also states that "To the extent that Foucault presumes the presence of the past, or more generally the givenness of space and time, genealogy has been stopped short in its tracks" (Barad 2007: 474). Attempts to take Foucault's historical ontology to Barad have struggled to integrate her understanding of history as successfully as they have reworked her understanding of agency (e.g., Lemke 2015: 16). This is not necessarily so, however, as Ian Hacking's notion of 'an indeterminacy in the past' (Hacking 1995: 234-257) seems to demonstrate. Like Hacking, it is not the intention that the 'historical ontology' proposed in this article places a firm boundary between past and present. For a fuller discussion of Hacking's concept see Fuller (2002), Gustafsson (2010), Hacking (2003), Roth (2002) and Sharrock & Leudar (2002).

155 the historical nominalism (see footnote three) of Foucault therefore sees transformation as
156 both a historical reality and a future inevitability, transformation also remains an ethical
157 question precisely because there is no necessary form that transformation must take. Instead,
158 it might be suggested, there is an accountability in determining which transformations are to
159 be brought about. By theorizing ‘the hinge’ itself, the moment of transformation, the agential-
160 cut, and by emphasising the inevitable exclusions inherent in such moments, Barad
161 significantly furthers this body of thought. Barad makes us question and be accountable
162 toward the limit-experiences and transformations we might bring about in ourselves, others,
163 and the world while also considering the consequences of those cuts which have already been
164 made.

165 In sum, I am arguing that by working Barad and Foucault through each other we have the
166 beginnings of a framework for an ethics of transformation that may be of general utility.
167 When considering autism in particular, this framework encourages us to dwell upon the
168 delineation of, and subsequent changes in, the condition during the twentieth century as well
169 as the inherently ethical nature of these changes. The empirical portion of this paper will
170 consider the ethico-onto-epistemological consequences of one transformation in the object of
171 autism; the incorporation of scientific uncertainties into the indeterminate bodies of autistic
172 subjects.

173 **Transformation and uncertainty**

174 Uncertainty as a discursive structure

175 As noted previously, Barad insists that discourse and discursive structures are key to
176 apparatuses and play essential roles in material reality. Des Fitzgerald has recently considered
177 the discursive structures which play a fundamental role in autism neuroscience. While
178 Fitzgerald begins by considering the discursive structure provided by hope, optimism, and

179 expectation within the life sciences (Fitzgerald 2014: 241), he quickly moves on to think
180 about the importance of ambivalence and uncertainty. Indeed it seems to be increasingly
181 evident that uncertainty and strategies to overcome uncertainty, so called ‘practical
182 uncertainty work’ (Moreira et al. 2009; Pickersgill 2011; Pickersgill 2014), are entangled
183 with the objects of scientific research.

184 While Barad seems to be content that many of the experiments under her consideration
185 involve “the unambiguous communication of the results of reproducible experiments” (Barad
186 2007: 174) such reproducibility, as science studies has long shown, is hard won (Collins
187 1975) for uncertainties are intrinsic to scientific activity (Star 1985: 392). Of course,
188 scientific research continues in the face of uncertainty and practical uncertainty work refers to
189 the strategies taken by researchers in the wake of such uncertainties intended to make
190 research ‘do-able’ (Fujimura 1987; Webster & Eriksson 2008). Numerous studies have begun
191 to examine the diverse forms of uncertainty work undertaken by medical and scientific
192 practitioners (Hollin & Pearce 2015; Mellor 2010; Pinch 1981; Shackley & Wynne 1996;
193 Star 1985; Star 1989). What the strategies identified have in common is that they seek to
194 disarm, displace, and deflate uncertainty, pushing it to the side-lines so that a certain science
195 may continue.

196 In his analyses of uncertainty in relation to antisocial personality disorder (ASPD), for
197 example, Pickersgill (2011, 2014) notes that there is widespread uncertainty amongst
198 practitioners regarding both what ASPD is (Pickersgill calls this ‘ontological uncertainty’)
199 and how it is best measured (‘epistemological uncertainty’). Pickersgill notes, however, that
200 these issues:

201 “...can be set aside through recourse to the assumed certainty of the other: the
202 existence of antisocial personality disorder and psychopathy as unified categories can

203 be justified by the existence of their criteria for identification; likewise, the latter are
204 validated by the fact that their use is long-standing and, therefore, that they ‘work’.
205 Thus [diagnostic] tools... and the psychopathologies they purport to identify become
206 tightly bound together, co-producing the epistemological and ontological coherence of
207 both mental health categories and their diagnostic criteria.” (Pickersgill 2011: 84)

208 While Pickersgill here uses the language of co-production (Jasanoff 2004), these observations
209 can usefully be understood in the language of Barad; the epistemologies and ontologies of
210 ASPD are diffracted through one another, a process significantly affected by the uncertainty
211 inherent in each, so that a new, stable, object of scientific investigation emerges; a particular
212 incarnation of ASPD. The emergence of this object marks an ‘agential cut’ during which
213 other possibilities are foreclosed and, as discussed above, Barad calls on us to be accountable
214 for such world making activities. Similar conclusions of Pickersgill’s have been reported
215 elsewhere (e.g. Moreira et al. 2009: 671) and it is a core thesis of this paper that the nature of
216 autism has also been radically shaped by uncertainty work.

217 Transformatory uncertainty and autism

218 The specific argument advanced in this paper is that while other professional visions have
219 conducted uncertainty work with the intent of systematically erasing or displacing uncertainty
220 (Goodwin 1994: 608), researchers studying autism have centralised it and diffracted it
221 through the condition itself. Such uncertainty work has contributed towards a heterogeneous
222 condition; an autism which is determined by its indeterminacy. This indeterminacy has
223 become absolutely central to understandings of autism so that it can now be asserted that no
224 two individuals with autism are the same and that an individual’s symptoms cannot be
225 explained with reference to a single causative factor.

226 With regards to these indeterminacies, it is not, as Foucault said of 18th century medicine, that
227 "In order to know the truth of the pathological fact, the doctor must abstract the patient"
228 (Foucault 2003: 7). It is not that the person obscures or confuses the essence of autism and
229 that if only the individual could be pushed to one side, or controlled for in a laboratory
230 setting, that the singular essence of autism would emerge. In the case of autism it is the
231 condition itself which is described as indeterminate, chance like, and aleatoric.

232 This change in the ontology of autism has potentially crucial ethical consequences. Hacking
233 gets to the crux of the issue in his discussion concerning the politics of retrospective
234 diagnoses of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). Hacking notes that pardoning soldiers
235 executed for desertion during the First World War on the basis that they were suffering from
236 PTSD deprives them of a degree of agency:

237 ‘The men are no longer said to have deserted, or at any rate, not to have deserted “in
238 the first degree.” This is because if they were suffering from post-traumatic stress
239 disorder, they were not, strictly speaking, acting voluntarily.’ (Hacking 1995: 241)

240 In this agential cut certain properties become tied to the object (PTSD) rather than the
241 subject. This move has political and ethical consequences: On the one hand soldiers are
242 absolved of their crime while on the other their agency is transformed into a property of
243 PTSD itself. Likewise, in the case of a heterogeneous autism it is not the subject who is
244 unique, resistant, or able to change but autism itself. The ethical consequences of this are
245 worthy of consideration.

246 The empirical portion of this article is concerned with the emergence of this heterogeneous,
247 indeterminate autism. I trace the agential cut responsible for this manifestation of autism to
248 debates at the Cognitive Development Unit, University College London, during the early
249 1990s and contest that during this time uncertainty and indeterminacy were diffracted through

250 one another. I suggest that this moment can be understood as an agential cut; a point where
251 autism took on a new form while alternative possibilities disappeared. Following this analysis
252 I return to the ethical question of transformation as proposed by Barad and Foucault and
253 suggest that one of the foreclosures instigated by the agential cut that led to an indeterminate
254 autism is the possibility to “rebel against the classifiers” (Hacking 1995: 239) and to be
255 understood outside of the diagnostic framework. The possibility of ushering in further
256 transformation thus seems to be, at least partially, forestalled within contemporary
257 understandings.

258 **Hegemony in the UK: Materials and Context**

259 As noted previously, contemporary research into autism is particularly concerned with
260 uncertainty and indeterminacy; a conclusion manifest in numerous highly significant
261 published pieces (e.g. Happé et al. 2006) and repeatedly re-affirmed within the social science
262 literature (e.g. Fitzgerald 2014; Hollin online first; Verhoeff 2012). It is in the present,
263 therefore, that this historical piece begins. This ‘history of the present’ (Foucault 1991: 31)
264 has important affinities with Baradian analyses and focuses attention on both the agential cuts
265 and ethics of transformation important to this piece, “making history work as a source for
266 becoming different in the light of the contingency of the present and past likewise” (Fuggle et
267 al. 2015: 3).

268 Given the above methodological positioning, papers considered here were selected by tracing
269 backwards to a moment of apparent emergence (Foucault 1977: 148) and then radiating out
270 so that the core contestations are captured and a corpus formed. While the published
271 scientific literature considered here is central to the emergence of heterogeneity, this analysis
272 is not intended to provide a totalizing picture or capture the whole of the Baradian apparatus.
273 The focus is very much upon scientific representations of autism, to the detriment of those

274 voices emanating from outside of the academy. Nonetheless this research was a dominant
275 force and, as noted above, remains of crucial importance in shaping the contemporary
276 moment and its ethical character.

277 The institutional history within which a heterogeneous autism emerged is important. That
278 history, as Bonnie Evans has made clear (Evans 2013; Evans 2014), involves the twinned
279 institutions of the Maudsley Hospital and the Institute for Psychiatry (IoP) which were at the
280 fore of experimental research into autism in the UK during the 1950s and 1960s. In 1964 Uta
281 Frith joined the IoP initially for an internship and then, under the supervision of Neil
282 O'Connor and Beate Hermelin, a doctorate (Bishop 2008: 17). In 1967 O'Connor and
283 Hermelin tabled a bid to the Medical Research Council for a 'Developmental Psychology
284 Unit' to be based at University College London (UCL; O'Connor 1975: 101) and Frith
285 promptly followed across London Bridge to take up a position with them in Bloomsbury.

286 It was in the 1980s, however, that cognitive psychology came to dominate the field of autism
287 research (Hollin 2014). This dominance arose following O'Connor's retirement and the
288 subsequent appointment, in 1982, of John Morton to head the newly renamed 'Cognitive
289 Development Unit' (CDU) at UCL (Bishop 2008: 18). The change in nomenclature was
290 significant and, as Frith notes, Morton encouraged researchers to think "that the mind was not
291 a big bowl of spaghetti tangles, but more like a building with different floors and rooms"
292 (quoted in Feinstein 2010: 158). It was within this institutional nexus that, during the 1980s,
293 Frith "defined contemporary research into atypical development" (Snowling et al. 2008: 13)
294 and, as a special edition of the Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology demonstrates
295 (Snowling et al. 2008), this task was aided by a stream of PhD students who have gone on to
296 form a veritable 'who's who' of autism research; most notably, for present purposes, Simon
297 Baron-Cohen and Francesca Happé (who also interned with O'Connor and Hermelin:
298 Feinstein 2010: 159).

299 It is not that the work of these researchers was left uncontested within the academy; those
300 from other research centres and disciplinary perspectives frequently contested the findings of
301 those at CDU. For example, Peter Hobson, a psychologist sympathetic towards
302 psychoanalytic understandings of autism, engaged in long and heated debates with these
303 researchers during the late 1980s and early 1990s (see Hollin (2013: 94-103) for an overview
304 of these disputes). Nonetheless psychology as a discipline was gaining significant sway over
305 autism (Eyal et al. 2010: 111) and this school, in particular, was coming to hold a prominence
306 it maintains today; Uta Frith is perhaps the world's most celebrated autism researcher, Simon
307 Baron-Cohen arguably the most prominent autism researcher in the UK, and Francesca
308 Happé sat on DSM-5's Neurodevelopmental Disorders work group.

309 X marks the spot: Cognitive homogeneity

310 As others have noted (Verhoeff 2014: 67) discussions of heterogeneity in autism certainly
311 pre-existed the 1990s (e.g. Freeman 1977: 143). Those working at the CDU prior to the mid-
312 1990s were not unaware of these existing claims of heterogeneity, but neither did they
313 purport to have their work of mapping out a coherent condition undermined by them. Instead,
314 cognitive scientists claimed to have located the space within which autism's truth and unity
315 was to be found; the cognitive level. Thus autism was described as an 'X-shaped disorder'
316 (Frith et al. 1991: 436) with heterogeneous biological causes and heterogeneous behavioural
317 manifestations but, in between, a homogeneous cognitive profile.

318 Armed with such an understanding, research during the 1980s was frequently concerned with
319 a 'grand theory of everything'; an attempt to find a cognitive explanation which would
320 explain all of the features associated with autism. Two of the most prominent theories, which
321 are also of most relevance to the emergence of heterogeneity in the 1990s, were the theory of
322 metarepresentations and the theory of weak central coherence (WCC). While the analytic

323 thrust of this paper lies with later contestations of these theories, it is an important step to
324 describe their key features. Importantly, both of these theories attempted to explain all
325 aspects of autism, both within and between individuals.

326 Metarepresentation

327 The basis of the metarepresentation hypothesis is this: there are various instances during
328 which people act on the world in ways which I, as an onlooker, know to be inconsistent with
329 how the world really is. Sometimes these acts are intentional, for instance when someone
330 uses a metaphor ('the brain is a Swiss army knife') or engages in pretend play ('I'll be
331 Elvis'). On other occasions the inconsistency is accidental, such as when someone has a false
332 belief about a scenario ('Kate believes the dog to be in its kennel, but I know it's escaped').
333 In all of these instances the current representation of the world (brain as knife; impersonator
334 as Elvis; dog in kennel) is divorced from a second more accurate representation (brain as
335 biological object; Elvis as dead (probably); dog as destroying living room). In the key
336 theoretical paper related to the metarepresentation hypothesis, Alan Leslie argues that making
337 sense of this bifurcation requires a specific piece of cognitive architecture known as a
338 'decoupling mechanism' which allows one to dissociate the current context from broader
339 understandings (Leslie 1987: 419).

340 It is this decoupling mechanism which is posited to be dysfunctional in those with autism. On
341 the basis of this single cognitive deficit, those with autism are expected to lack the ability to
342 engage in pretend play, have an overly-literal interpretation of language (e.g. a failure to use
343 or understand metaphor and irony; see, e.g., Happé 1993) and an inability to impute mental
344 states, such as belief, onto other people. These three skills – pretend play, metaphor use,
345 theory of mind ability – are taken to be indissociable within the metarepresentation account
346 as they are all governed by the same cognitive module, the decoupling device. Various tasks

347 were developed to examine an individual's ability to form metarepresentations and by the end
348 of the 1980s it was claimed that all individuals with autism were impaired in this regard.
349 Thus, autism could be considered a "case of specific developmental delay" (Baron-Cohen
350 1989: 294)⁴. As might be expected from a disorder which was understood as having an 'X-
351 shaped' profile, homogeneity was to be found at the cognitive level. This was also the case
352 for the theory of 'weak central coherence', again developed by Uta Frith and colleagues at the
353 CDU in the late 1980s, and intended to subsume the theory of metarepresentations and make
354 up for its shortcomings.

355 Weak Central Coherence

356 The theory of weak central coherence (WCC; Frith 1989) was formulated in order to explain
357 some of the typical strengths, as well as weaknesses, associated with individuals with autism.
358 Importantly, when formulated it was suggested that the WCC might subsume the
359 metarepresentation hypothesis (Frith 1989: 165) and detail the "one particular fault in central
360 thought processes" (Frith 1989: 116); once again homogeneity was to be found at the
361 cognitive level.

362 The WCC hypothesis itself is reasonably straightforward; the claim is that individuals with
363 autism struggle to see the wood for the trees. Those with autism might be very good (indeed,
364 better than average) at noticing detail but struggle to place those details within a broader
365 context. Such a conclusion explains various deficits in autism, such as the tendency to
366 mispronounce homophones like 'minute', presumably because the sentence context ('the

⁴ Perhaps the most famous tests of metarepresentation ability are false belief tasks such as the 'Sally-Anne Test', developed by Wimmer and Perner in 1983 and deployed to examine theory of mind in autism shortly after (Baron-Cohen et al. 1985). The findings from false belief tasks were so striking that, for many, this theory of autism became known as the 'theory of mind' account of autism. At least in its initial articulation, however, this nomenclature is misleading. As this section has made clear, theory of mind impairments were articulated as a symptom of deeper cognitive impairment to a decoupling mechanism. This inability to decouple representations from each other – a deficit in forming metarepresentations – also explains poor metaphor use and a lack of pretend play. For further information on metarepresentations and the manner in which false belief tasks are underpinned by Alan Leslie's hypothesis see Hollin (2014: 104-107).

367 minute speck of dust', 'one minute past the hour') has not been accounted for.
368 Simultaneously, however, WCC is able to explain various strengths; those diagnosed with
369 autism, for example, seem to be faster at finding the location of a jigsaw puzzle piece within
370 a picture, perhaps because not being distracted by the broader image is an advantage on this
371 particular task (see Hollin (2014: 107-109) for more details).

372 **Emerging uncertainties**

373 While both the metarepresentations account of autism and the theory of WCC had accrued
374 significant amounts of experimental evidence, by the 1990s difficulties with both theories
375 were beginning to emerge. In 1992 Dermot Bowler published a paper which cast doubt on the
376 claims of those at the CDU, particularly those associated with the metarepresentations
377 account.

378 Bowler's study essentially re-ran an experiment conducted by Baron-Cohen in 1989 which
379 examined second-order belief attribution. In the example of false belief given earlier it was
380 stated that even though I know the dog is in the living room it is still possible that Kate
381 believes the dog to be in the kennel. This ability is known as first-order belief attribution for
382 one is required to impute a mental state onto one other agent (Kate). In an experiment
383 published in 1985 Baron-Cohen and colleagues showed that over 80 per cent of those
384 diagnosed with autism failed to demonstrate the capacity to make first-order belief
385 attributions. Despite its landmark status, this paper's finding that a subset of those with
386 autism could pass these tests was troubling for it would still seem to be possible to possess a
387 theory of mind and have autism, suggesting an ability to create metarepresentations which
388 should be impossible in the framework outlined by Leslie. In 1989 Baron-Cohen published a
389 study which seemed to overcome this theoretical hurdle. Passing the test in this new
390 experiment required the mental state of two individuals to be considered (e.g. 'where does

391 John think that Kate thinks the dog is?’), a harder skill known as second-order belief
392 attribution. Baron-Cohen et al. found that even those individuals with autism able to make
393 first-order belief attributions failed to make second-order attributions, once more making it
394 conceivable that there was a specific developmental delay in metarepresentational abilities in
395 autism.

396 Bowler examined second-order belief attribution skills in a group of individuals diagnosed
397 with Asperger’s (Bowler 1992: 883)⁵. Surprisingly, Bowler found that the majority of his
398 participants were able to make second-order belief attributions and, what is more, success
399 rates did not differ significantly from controls. Uncertainty increased further when these
400 results were taken alongside two further pieces of information. Firstly, when participants
401 were asked to provide justification for their answers, it was found that even those who passed
402 consistently provided explanations without reference to second-order beliefs. In other words,
403 justifications of the sort “because John thought that Kate thought” were virtually never
404 uttered. This finding suggested that alternative routes, not requiring a theory of mind, could
405 be taken to arrive at the correct solution to second-order belief attribution tests. Secondly,
406 Bowler found that when the parents of those individuals making up the Asperger’s group

⁵ The relationship between autism and Asperger’s syndrome has been, and continues to be, disputed and contested (Singh 2011). Research undertaken at the CDU frequently notes (e.g. Happé 1991; Happé 1994b; Frith et al. 1994) that sampled individuals meet criteria for ‘Autistic Disorder’, as defined in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual III – Revised (DSM III-R; American Psychiatric Association 1987). DSM III-R makes no mention of Asperger’s syndrome and Bowler draws his definition of Asperger’s syndrome from a 1981 paper by Lorna Wing. Wing recommends the label of Asperger’s on pragmatic grounds, believing it more acceptable to some parents (1981: 124), while also arguing that autism and Asperger’s most likely “have in common impairment of certain aspects of brain function”. Bowler, likewise, is formally agnostic on the separability of autism and Asperger’s although he does note that the notion of an ‘autistic continuum’ advanced in Wing’s paper: “...implies that people with Asperger’s syndrome and people with classic autism as described by Kanner (1943) represent sub-sets of a larger population of people with social impairment” (Bowler 1992: 878). Bowler, at the very least, is demonstrably prepared to test hypotheses of autism by utilising a sample consisting of those diagnosed with Asperger’s.

This discussion also makes clear that, while important, the emerging discussion of an ‘autism spectrum’ is not immediately related to the issue of cognitive heterogeneity and is broadly consistent with the ‘X-shaped’ disorder previously detailed by Frith (see above). Both Wing (Wing 1981: 124) and DSM III-R (American Psychiatric Association 1987: 33-34) argue that there are diverse causes for these conditions and diverse behavioural consequences with unity found between these two points.

407 were presented with a retrospective questionnaire they recalled little or no imaginary play
408 during the childhood of their offspring. This finding suggested that some individuals with
409 Asperger's may have theory of mind abilities but not the capacity to engage in pretend play.

410 Bowler was stinging in his criticism of the metarepresentations account of autism, making
411 two key criticisms (Bowler 1992: 888-890). Firstly the seeming ability to pass these tests
412 without the expected mind-based justifications suggests that the:

413 "...ability to solve problems that involve a second-order theory of mind does not
414 strongly depend on having developed either joint referencing or symbolic play skills"
415 (Bowler 1992: 886).

416 Instead, it may be the case that effortful, logical, cognitive processes can also lead to the
417 correct answers on these tests. Here, Bowler is introducing an epistemological uncertainty
418 (Pickersgill 2011: 84) as there is the suggestion that these tests may simply not be measuring
419 what they were intended to measure; the capacity to attribute beliefs to other individuals.
420 Secondly, in the metarepresentation account put forward by Leslie (1987) pretend play and
421 theory of mind abilities should be indissociable for the same cognitive module, the
422 decoupling mechanism, was believed to govern both behaviours. That this Asperger's group
423 did not, according to their parents, engage in pretend play as children and yet could pass
424 theory of mind tests is therefore problematic as it challenges the connection between those
425 abilities (Bowler 1992: 890). This is an ontological uncertainty (Pickersgill 2011: 84), a
426 suggestion that the cognitive architecture posited to be at the node of the 'X', the decoupling
427 mechanism crucial in giving autism its coherence, may not take the form anticipated. I argue
428 that, in the wake of these findings, the 'uncertainty work' which entered into the material-
429 discursive apparatus in order to make research on autism doable contributed significantly to a

430 novel agential cut. It is the nature of this agential cut which delineated a new, heterogeneous
431 autism and which will be considered in the following section.

432 Diffracting uncertainties through ontologies

433 Those at CDU were aware of Bowler's findings long before they were submitted for
434 publication. Indeed, Uta Frith's PhD student, Francesca Happé, spoke to Bowler about his
435 results and considered them at length in her thesis (e.g. Happé 1991: 226).

436 Happé's thesis is concerned, primarily, with overcoming two uncertainties. Firstly, the
437 repercussions for the metarepresentation account of autism following the finding that some
438 individuals with autism were able to pass second-order belief attribution tests (Bowler 1992;
439 see also Ozonoff et al. 1991). Secondly, the proposed relationship between weak central
440 coherence and metarepresentations, whereby a metarepresentational deficit is proposed as a
441 consequence of WCC (Frith 1989: 163).

442 Hackers and Passers: Introducing interpersonal heterogeneity

443 As noted above, when individuals taking part in Bowler's study were asked to justify their
444 beliefs, those who passed the test rarely considered mental states (see above, Bowler 1992:
445 883, 886). Perhaps, therefore, it is possible to pass second-order belief attribution tests
446 without considering theory of mind at all? Such a conclusion would mean that Bowler's
447 results would reflect not an intact theory of mind in research subjects but a capacity to find an
448 alternative route to the desired destination in some particularly high functioning individuals.
449 In a phrase first used by Happé in her thesis (e.g. Happé 1991: 78) and in press in 1994 (Frith
450 et al. 1994: 110; Happé 1994: 130), such an ability to circumvent theory of mind tasks is
451 called 'hacking out':

452 “[Autistic individuals’] success could be seen not as proof of theory of mind ability,
453 but rather as evidence of the “hacking out” of some strategy for solving the tasks.”
454 (Frith et al. 1994: 130)

455 The question to be asked was, therefore:

456 “Are they [autistic individuals] simply better problem-solvers, more able to devise a
457 strategy to answer theory of mind questions – thanks perhaps to more experience,
458 higher IQ or a more social disposition?” (Happé 1993: 115)

459 Testing the hypothesis that individuals with autism were hacking out solutions to tests
460 required some methodological innovation. Frith, Happé, and Siddons suggested that:

461 “...“hacking” would enable individuals to solve false belief attribution tasks, but
462 probably would not generalize to the large variety of mentalizing situations in real
463 life” (Frith et al. 1994: 118).

464 The unique, dynamic environments encountered in ‘real life’ were expected to prove too
465 much for the effortful hacking strategies proposed to underlie the success in belief attribution
466 tests. This hypothesis was tested using a sample of 24 adolescents with autism, each of whom
467 sat two classic, first-order tests. Eight of these individuals passed both tests and were labelled
468 ‘passers’. Meanwhile, a teacher or caregiver completed a questionnaire designed to assess an
469 individual’s ‘adaptive’ behaviour in the domains of “communication, daily living skills and
470 socialisation”; this test was designed to examine theory of mind ability in the real life
471 contexts in which hackers were proposed to struggle (Frith et al. 1994: 113).

472 Frith et al. report that individuals diagnosed with autism did indeed receive particularly low
473 scores on the socialisation portion of the questionnaire, unsurprising given that social
474 impairment is a core symptom of autism. An additional finding was, however, that on
475 questions which must be solved using theory of mind abilities, those ‘passers’ who could

476 complete first-order belief attribution tests scored significantly higher than those who failed.
477 This difference was found to stem, almost entirely, from three of the eight passers who scored
478 particularly highly on interactive sociability questions (Frith et al. 1994: 118). On the basis of
479 these three high scoring individuals the authors conclude that:

480 “Our results, then suggest the existence of subgroups within the autistic spectrum. The
481 majority have no understanding of other minds, and demonstrate “mind-blindness” in
482 the laboratory as well as in everyday life. Then there are those who have learned
483 limited strategies sufficient to pass highly structured artificial tests of theory of mind,
484 but still show no evidence of mentalizing in real life. In addition, our results suggest
485 that there is a third subgroup who appear to be able, to some extent, to represent
486 mental states. They show evidence of this not only in the laboratory, but also in real
487 life.” (Frith et al. 1994: 118)

488 Those three individuals who ‘pass’ the questionnaire are deemed to be genuinely different to
489 those who fail or ‘hack out’ a solution – they really do possess a theory of mind.

490 The conclusions drawn within these literatures, which arise in direct response to the
491 uncertainties aroused by the work of Bowler, include some particularly noticable examples of
492 uncertainty work. As mentioned previously, Bowler raises two distinct uncertainties – an
493 epistemological uncertainty (do these tests measure what they purport to measure?) and an
494 ontological uncertainty (does Leslie’s proposed decoupling mechanism exist?). Despite the
495 prolonged engagement with Bowler’s paper from members of CDU (e.g. Frith & Happé
496 1994b; Frith & Happé 1994a; Frith et al. 1994; Happé 1991; Happé 1993; Happé 1994;
497 Happé 1994a; Happé 1994b) Bowler’s ontological uncertainty is never investigated.
498 Uncertainty is instead transformed and condensed (Shackley & Wynne 1996: 283); there is a

499 recognition of the epistemological uncertainty and potential problems of method, which are
500 duly explored, while the ontological claim about the nature of autism itself is ignored.

501 The epistemological uncertainty itself is tackled by slicing up experimental space in news
502 ways. Within the literature under consideration there is extensive redescription of the tests
503 through which cognitive hegemony over autism had been based. The experiments used to
504 research first- and second-order belief attributions had previously been described as
505 “ingenious” (Baron-Cohen et al. 1985: 39) and were explicitly stated to converge with real
506 life (Wimmer & Perner 1983: 124). There was, thus, no suggestion that laboratory findings
507 should be seen as particularly problematic or that the laboratory constituted a space with
508 distinct properties. In the wake of Bowler’s uncertainties, however, these experiments are
509 seen to constitute ‘highly structured artificial tests’ which cannot be taken for granted and
510 need to be investigated. There is a sharp break inserted between the space of the laboratory
511 and the ‘dynamic real world’, a strategy for dealing with uncertainty which can be called
512 ‘spatial segmentation’.

513 The term ‘spatial segmentation’ draws upon Star’s notion of ‘temporal segmentation’ (Star
514 1985: 400). Temporal segmentation refers to a form of uncertainty work wherein researchers
515 offer only a provisional diagnosis of an ongoing uncertainty and wait until the conclusion of
516 that event before accommodating any uncertain, local features into existing understandings.
517 Some (longer) time frames are thus constructed as both separate and more meaningful than
518 other (shorter) time frames. In this instance, I am suggesting that space (rather than time) is
519 cut up in new ways in order to cope with uncertainty. One space (‘the dynamic real world’) is
520 deemed more relevant to the ontology of autism than another (the laboratory). Uncertain
521 findings in the laboratory are judged to be provisional until compared with that second space
522 and are subsequently reinterpreted in the wake of findings in ‘the real world’.

523 This spatial segmentation ensures that there is a tight binding of uncertainty to a particular
524 space, the laboratory, and enables uncertainties to be corraled within that setting where they
525 can be systematically managed (Shackley & Wynne 1996: 281). What is more, once autism
526 has been diffracted through these newly segmented spaces, new subgroups begin to be
527 delineated and passers, hackers, and failers emerge as meaningful and distinct groups. Indeed,
528 following the finding that all epistemological uncertainties actually stem from an
529 ontologically distinct group of passers it becomes apparent that the theory of mind account is
530 still relevant, and indeed validated, for both failers and hackers. Uncertainty is thus dealt with
531 by being located within autism itself, so that epistemological uncertainties become entwined
532 with ontological indeterminacies.

533 Within this research practical uncertainty work is becoming entangled with the ontological
534 reality of autism. Further, and importantly, the agential cut which has demarcated autism
535 from the apparatus used to investigate it has placed uncertainty on the ‘object’ side of the
536 object/instrument split: an indeterminate object rather than an uncertain instrument. Once
537 uncertainty is managed in this way new classifications – failers, hackers, and passers - are
538 delineated as objects of scientific investigation. The terms emerge as ‘exteriorities within’ the
539 condition and autism itself becomes interpersonally heterogeneous. It is the emergence of
540 these new groupings, and the addition of ‘heterogeneity’ to conceptual repertoire and
541 apparatus used to study autism, which I argue constitutes an agential cut.

542 No single explanation: Intra-personal heterogeneity

543 While uncertainties over the metarepresentation account of autism were countered through
544 reference to an interpersonally heterogeneous condition, what is less clear is why ‘passers’
545 should still be considered within the rubric of autism given their fundamental difference to
546 the other two sub-groups. This uncertainty is, however, off-set through reference to WCC. As

547 will be recalled, in 1989 Uta Frith suggested that it was possible to explain
548 metarepresentation deficits as stemming from WCC in individuals with autism. Thus, while
549 there is interpersonal heterogeneity in relation to metarepresentation there remains in WCC
550 the possibility of a deeper cognitive unity. Indeed, Happé explicitly asserts that failers,
551 hackers, and passers could all be incorporated within a WCC framework (1994: 146).

552 This hypothesis was examined in a further paper of 1994 (Happé 1994b). Here Happé gave
553 I.Q. tests to 51 individuals with autism, 21 of whom were able to pass first-order belief
554 attributions tests and 30 of whom failed such tests. The I.Q. test used in this study, the
555 Wechsler Intelligence Scales, can be divided into four subsections. Individuals with autism
556 frequently have a ‘spikey’ I.Q. profile on this test, meaning that whereas individuals in
557 control groups normally score equally across the different subsections, those with autism
558 often show relative peaks of performance on subsections favouring local processing (the
559 ‘block design’ and ‘digit span’ sections which, to continue with a ‘wood for the trees’
560 analogy, require a focus upon trees) and relative weaknesses on areas which may require
561 theory of mind (‘comprehension’ and ‘picture arrangement’ subsections; see Happé 1994b:
562 1463-1465 for further details).

563 Happé reports a significant difference on the comprehension subsection of the I.Q. test, with
564 those who could pass theory of mind tasks demonstrating a relative strength while failers
565 show a relative weakness. Happé concludes, therefore, that the comprehension subsection of
566 the I.Q. test requires theory of mind. However there was no significant difference between
567 the groups on the other subsections; both groups showed strengths on the block design and
568 digit span subsections, while no particular pattern was found in the picture arrangement
569 subsection. Happé thus reaches the following conclusion:

570 “...weak central coherence is a feature of the information processing of all autistic
571 subjects regardless of theory of mind ability. It is possible that some autistic subjects
572 will show impaired Block Design performance, due for example to superimposed
573 spatial processing deficits. The central coherence hypothesis predicts, however, that
574 where errors occur they should be predominantly of a type which violates the whole
575 form but preserves pattern details. Indeed, preliminary error analysis of an
576 independent autistic sample, appears to confirm this prediction.” (Happé 1994b: 1469)

577 This finding appears to support the notion of cognitive homogeneity; all individuals,
578 regardless of theory of mind ability, seem to show WCC. However, the WCC hypothesis also
579 posits that WCC should be negatively correlated with theory of mind deficits; greater WCC
580 should equal poorer theory of mind ability. If better performance on the block design
581 subsection is demonstrative of greater WCC, therefore, one would expect to see greater peaks
582 of performance in Happé’s theory of mind failers. This is not found and, thus, it was
583 concluded that WCC could not account for theory of mind performance:

584 “The independence of Block Design and Digit Span performance peaks from theory
585 of mind tasks success suggests that the postulated weak central coherence must be
586 thought of as separate from the mentalising impairment in autism. This is a change
587 from Frith’s (1989) original position...” (Happé 1994b: 1469)

588 The possibility that WCC is found universally in autism remains following the findings of
589 Happé. The notion that WCC and theory of mind abilities are not correlated, however,
590 suggests that WCC cannot be used to explain theory of mind impairments. What is more, and
591 as detailed in the sections above, the splitting of autism into subgroups has confirmed the
592 importance of theory of mind impairments in the majority of cases. There thus seem to be
593 two, unrelated, theories that are essential to understanding autism but which are causally

594 unrelated and, indeed, not manifest in every case. The authors extricate themselves from this
595 uncertain situation by suggesting that autism is not only interpersonally heterogeneous but
596 also intrapersonally heterogeneous; both WCC and theory of mind impairments are typical of
597 autism but cannot be used to explain each other and, instead, need to be considered
598 independently.

599 Summary

600 It is worth considering these conclusions carefully, as they are particularly knotty. Firstly,
601 epistemological uncertainty over the metarepresentation hypothesis of autism was offset
602 through reference to three ontologically discrete populations within the spectrum; passers,
603 hackers, and failers. It was then shown that theory of mind was relevant to the latter two of
604 these sub-groups. These practices ensured that theory of mind must continue to be conceived
605 as crucial to understanding autism in the majority of cases, a conclusion reaffirmed in a paper
606 entitled ‘autism: beyond “theory of mind”’ where Frith and Happé state:

607 “At present, all the evidence suggests that we should retain the idea of a modular and
608 specific mentalizing [theory of mind] deficit in our causal explanation of the triad of
609 impairment in autism. It is still our belief that nothing captures the essence of autism
610 so precisely as the idea of mindblindness.” (Frith & Happé 1994a: 126)

611 WCC was also necessary to this understanding of autism however as, following the finding
612 that not all individuals with autism have theory of mind deficits, WCC provided some level
613 of interpersonal coherence. However WCC at the same time proved unable to explain theory
614 of mind symptoms of autism, as was initially suggested:

615 “...this explanation alone will not suffice. Therefore, our present conception is that
616 there may be two rather difference cognitive characteristics that underlie autism.”
617 (Frith & Happé 1994a: 126)

618 The theory of mind account of autism, therefore, only makes sense across the clinical
619 population in the presence of WCC, for the theory of WCC shows an underlying unity in an
620 apparently heterogeneous population. At the same time, WCC can only explain autism within
621 a particular individual if theory of mind is retained as a separate and discrete concept, for
622 WCC abilities do not seem to correlate with theory of mind skills. The uncertainties inherent
623 in each theory, and the inter-relations between them, are diffracted through one another and
624 construct autism as an indeterminate condition, a disorder to be understood as both intra- and
625 inter-personally heterogeneous.

626 The significance – ontologically, epistemologically and of course ethically - of the agential
627 cut enacted in this research, and the form of autism delineated by it, is made apparent if one
628 compares the above quotes with one made just three years earlier by Uta Frith:

629 “...if future research comes to the conclusion that the core impairments in autism are
630 different and have different underlying causes, then this [cognitive] convergence
631 would vanish, and, in the absence of convergence at the biological level, the
632 justification for the single term ‘autism’ would be removed” (Frith et al. 1991: 438)

633 This is a straightforward assertion that autism is an ‘X-shaped’ syndrome, with associated
634 symptoms stemming from a single cognitive cause. Just three years later, uncertainties in
635 various theories had diffracted through the condition itself and autism had become
636 indeterminate and heterogeneous. This change, I suggest, is of ethical importance. Barad
637 states that:

638 “Ethics is about mattering, about taking account of the entangled materializations of
639 which we are a part, including new configurations, new subjectivities, new
640 possibilities – even the smallest cut matters.” (Barad 2007: 384)

641 The discussion of this paper will consider this new configuration of autism, the new
642 subjectivities which emerge and, crucially, the new possibilities which now exist.

643 **Discussion**

644 Agential cuts

645 To summarise; Barad describes an agential cut, and its consequences, as follows:

646 “...a local cut that produces “objects” of particular knowledge practices within the
647 particular phenomena... [The] apparatus specifies an agential cut that enacts a
648 resolution... of the semantic, as well as ontic, indeterminacy. Hence apparatuses are
649 boundary-making practices.” (Barad 2007: 147-148, italics removed)

650 An agential cut, therefore, is the moment when a novel, bounded object emerges as a result
651 of the material-discursive features of a particular apparatus. Simultaneously, this enactment
652 necessitates exclusions as other possibilities are foreclosed and Barad’s ethics centre upon
653 these exclusions. I argued during the introduction that an agential cut can be considered as
654 being akin to a ‘hinge’ and that an investigation concerning the assembly of an apparatus
655 which produces a cut could be articulated as Foucauldian history (of the formation of the
656 subject, in this instance).

657 Empirically, I have sought to stay close to both Barad, focusing upon a small number of
658 scientific experiments, and Foucault, by attempting to tease out the tangled origins of an
659 apparently natural concept. I have argued that the small body of research conducted during
660 the 1990s constituted an ‘agential cut’ wherein a particular object emerged - an indeterminate
661 autism – and that uncertainty and ‘practical uncertainty work’ (Moreira et al. 2009;
662 Pickersgill 2011) aimed at making research ‘doable’ (Webster & Eriksson 2008) was a
663 crucial feature within the apparatus.

664 This research into autism is important for two reasons. Firstly, and generally, attention is
665 drawn to uncertainty and uncertainty work as a potentially important and unstable part of an
666 apparatus. Secondly, and specifically, the emergence of a heterogeneous autism has been
667 significant within the field of autism research. Indeed, narratives which I trace back to these
668 discussions in the early 1990s have, over the subsequent 20 years, arguably become the
669 dominant way to think about autism.

670 The ethics of transformation

671 In this analysis I have attempted to not only undertake a history of the formation of autism
672 but also to open space for an ethical consideration of the exclusions necessitated in this
673 particular becoming. It is with the second of these matters which I conclude.

674 Any form of engagement with medical and psychiatric services may force individuals into
675 particular forms of agency and subjectivity (Callon & Rabeharisoa 2004). This is hardly
676 news, and Ian Hacking's previously mentioned discussion of PTSD makes the ethical stakes
677 of these debates clear; the agency – or, at least, the form of agency – previously tied to
678 deserting soldiers was 'cut' from them and tied to PTSD. As Hacking noted (1995: 241) this
679 drastically decreases the range of acts available to the individuals concerned.

680 One of the core claims about autism is that a particular individual is socially atypical. Social
681 (dys)functioning, which might be thought of as a dynamic, contextually dependent, and co-
682 produced achievement (Rapley 2004), is instead re-imagined as a permanent property of a
683 particular diagnostic entity, outside of the situation or the subject's control. At the centre of
684 the object of autism, as with PTSD, sits a denial of subjectivity and a refusal to acknowledge
685 that things could have been different. The ethical significance of heterogeneity is that it
686 radically extends the passivity attributed to the autistic subject. Consider the 'passers' and
687 'hackers' who are delineated in the cut examined in this article. These individuals were still

688 corralled into the diagnostic pen; their motives, actions, and dispositions may have allowed
689 them to escape the test in question but they could not escape a heterogeneous autism.
690 Agency, difference, and resistance were re-imagined not as a property of subjects but as a
691 property of autism, accounted for by its heterogeneous nature.

692 This is not to say that autistic subjects have been anything like silenced by these cuts. These
693 discourses have been picked up, modified, and appropriated (O’Neil 2008; Ortega 2009;
694 Singh 2011). This is perhaps most obvious in the use of multi-coloured jigsaw pieces to
695 symbolise autism and the assertion that ‘if you’ve met one person with autism, you’ve met
696 one person with autism’ (Moore 2014: 151). This does not alter the fact that heterogeneity
697 places limits on these forms of engagement or that heterogeneity makes certain forms of
698 engagement hard/impossible; Hacking’s soldiers with PTSD, and their relatives, could surely
699 ‘rebel against the classifiers’ through a range of means but it is literally unthinkable that they
700 could desert in the first degree. Despite significant mouldings, the individuals discussed here
701 are, likewise, still understood as autistic. It is these matters which should be a central concern
702 for an ethics of transformation.

703 I do not wish to suggest that the lack of unity in the population diagnosed with autism
704 demonstrates that the classification is fundamentally misguided – nor that the researchers in
705 question acted with anything other than honesty and with integrity. One of the benefits of the
706 Baradian/Foucauldian framework within which this article is situated is that there is no need
707 to choose between the temporal nature of autism as a diagnosis and the reality of the
708 condition. This framework does not suggest that the autism of those diagnosed today is more
709 or less real than those diagnosed in the 1980s. What is contended, however is that there is “the
710 need for an ethics of responsibility and accountability not only for what we know, how we
711 know, and what we do but, in part, for what exists” (Barad 2007: 243). As Foucault notes,
712 there is no obligation to transform a heterogeneous autism simply because we can examine its

713 knotted origins in the early 1990s; what we must ask, however, is if the benefits of diagnosis
714 are worth the costs of understanding forms of social difference as inescapably pathological.

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