

1 **A response to 'Biological agency: a concept without a research program'**

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6 **Abstract:** In critiquing the value of agency in biological research, DiFrisco and Gawne
7 have tilted at a broad target. They say that “Proponents of the “agency perspective” on
8 biological systems have claimed that agency is not explainable by physiological or
9 developmental mechanisms, or by adaptation via natural selection”, and that
10 “proponents of the agency perspective have suggested that embracing agency is an
11 alternative to molecular reductionism.” Certainly, these would be bold claims, and
12 DiFrisco and Gawne are correct to say that the threshold of proof for them should be
13 high. However, these statements are simply not true in general. Some proponents of
14 agency have claimed such things; others have not. It is the latter position that I wish to
15 defend: the idea that agency should be regarded as a genuine property of living
16 organisms *even though* it arises from molecular, physiological, developmental and
17 evolutionary mechanisms, much as phase transitions are a real phenomenon even
18 though they arise from (for example) molecular interactions. Agency is a regular
19 property of living organisms, albeit a very general one. It is not inherently anti-
20 reductionistic, nor is it an alternative to explanations of behaviour in adaptive terms.
21 Their critique thus rests on a category error.

22

23 **Keywords:** agency, goal-directedness, mechanism, adaptation, natural selection,
24 emergence

25 1. Introduction

26 At the heart of the critique of the notion of agency presented by DiFrisco and Gawne
27 [DiFrisco & Gawne 2024] might be considered biology's central dilemma: do we
28 consider living organisms to be a fundamentally different kind of matter to that which is
29 non-living, or do we elide any such distinctions? To do the former does not entail
30 evoking any kind of *élan vital*; it is simply to recognize that, in living organisms, the laws
31 of physics and chemistry have given rise to an extremely unusual kind of non-
32 equilibrium state of matter that can act in the world and, at least in the form of humans,
33 can know itself. It is possible to study how such a state of matter arises and persists
34 without pretending, perhaps out of some embarrassment at this remarkable state of
35 affairs, that it is not real. Properly applied, agency can be considered a key property,
36 possibly *the* key property, that sets living matter apart [Potter & Mitchell 2022, Mitchell
37 2023, Ball 2023a, Ball 2023b, Jaeger 2023]. It has the virtue that it seems at least
38 conceivable that it might be operationalized: that we can make progress in identifying
39 the specific and mechanistic features of an entity that enable it to exhibit genuine
40 agential behaviour [Potter & Mitchell 2022]. The notion of agency is rooted in observed
41 behaviours and their causes, avoiding the seemingly somewhat arbitrary – or at least,
42 the unresolved – issues that arise in definitions of life [Zimmer 2021].

43 DiFrisco and Gawne's critique is therefore rooted in a category error: they
44 consider agency to be a theory advanced as an alternative explanation for biological
45 phenomena to conventional reductionistic approaches, whereas, properly applied, it
46 refers to a phenomenon that itself can and should be understood in mechanistic terms.
47 Imagine if such a critique were applied to, say, the concept of photosynthesis. Is this
48 not, in the end, an arbitrary delineation of some of the molecular processes that take
49 place in certain cells, which in reality connect seamlessly to others? What (to
50 paraphrase DiFrisco and Gawne) is explained by invoking the notion of photosynthesis
51 that cannot be equally explained by considering light absorption by particular
52 molecules and consequent electron transfers that result in water-splitting reactions,
53 and so forth? One can go further, and question the usefulness of identifying any higher-
54 order process, whether in living systems or not: what is explained by suggesting that ice
55 undergoes a melting phase transition, rather than simply noting that at a particular
56 temperature the hydrogen bonds between water molecules are overwhelmed by

57 thermal fluctuations? In other words, agency is a label given to an emergent
58 phenomenon, and in this respect it is no different to countless other scientific
59 concepts.

60

61 **2. Where are agents to be found?**

62 DiFrisco & Gawne illustrate their critique with a “phage and bacterium” version of the
63 classic Heider & Simmel animation [Heidel & Simmel 1944], implying that attributions
64 of agency in such cases are an example of the innate propensity of humans to project
65 purpose, intention and indeed psychology onto situations where they do not exist. But
66 in fact their invocation of Heider and Simmel’s work does the opposite. Their
67 implication is that, in that work, we falsely attribute agency to mere geometric shapes
68 because we anthropomorphize their movements. But such an attribution is in fact not
69 false at all, except for the location of the agency. Heider and Simmel chose complex
70 trajectories for the shapes specifically to suggest an agential narrative, and we correctly
71 infer that this is so, but are apt (without careful reflection or knowledge of how the
72 animation was created) to mislocate the source. Or rather – for observers do not truly
73 somehow suspect that the objects are living beings – Heider and Simmel’s point was
74 that we readily construct diverse narratives for such a circumstance, complete with
75 associations of personality and so forth.

76 The point of the Heider-Simmel experiment was not, then, to show “how easily
77 attributions of intentionality are elicited in the human visual processing system”, but
78 rather, to explore the nature and diversity of narrative construction in a system *explicitly*
79 *and consciously contrived* to elicit such responses. Heider and Simmel’s description of
80 the animation they devised explicitly acknowledges the storytelling component of the
81 choices they made in constructing it. One might reasonably argue that the experiment
82 shows how good humans are at detecting agential behaviour even when it is given
83 highly abstract form.

84 Suppose now one were to observe those same movements in simple inorganic
85 “active particles” [Bechinger et al. 2016]. That would be remarkable, and would
86 demand explanation. It is hard to imagine how such an explanation could be furnished
87 by simple laws of attraction and repulsion between the particles; we would surely find,
88 in such a case, that the particles have complex internal degrees of freedom, feedback

89 mechanisms between sensing and propulsion, and so forth. It would be not just
90 reasonable but surely correct to say that, barring some bizarre coincidence in which
91 arbitrary and independent particle trajectories happened to coincide so as to give the
92 impression of following or chasing, there is goal-directedness here. (Dynamics like
93 those of the Heider/Simmel shapes have, I would posit, *never* been observed in a
94 situation that lacks goal-directedness – even if the goals are themselves not
95 immediately obvious.) We could then reasonably wonder where that goal-directedness
96 comes from. We would not need to impute any conscious intent to the entities
97 executing those goals – the particles could in fact be nanobots programmed for such
98 behaviour, say.

99 The same applies for the phage and bacterium: this is no less a pursuit with a
100 goal than is the fox and the hare. The difference is that one involves rather complex
101 cognition, while the other involves much simpler systems-scale feedbacks between
102 sensing and motility. While acknowledging the philosophical arguments about the
103 notion of function in biology [Mossio et al. 2009, Roux 2014], there is nothing
104 remarkable about saying that the function of the phage is to detect and consume
105 bacteria.

106 But why then invoke agency in an account of such processes? Why is it not
107 sufficient to say that such pursuit is adaptive behaviour: that foxes have adapted to
108 pursue hares, and hares to flee from foxes? Yet these are not alternative explanations.
109 The latter statement is obviously true. It is also predictively barren. It will tell us that a
110 fox will chase hares, and hares will run from the fox. It says nothing about their
111 trajectories, their strategies, the inherent probabilities of capture and escape, and so
112 forth. All of those things require more consideration of developmental and
113 physiological details, but also of historical contingencies. How well fed are the
114 animals? What experiences have affected their degree of alertness, fear,
115 determination? What determines whether a hare runs this way or that, when it turns,
116 whether it can and will exploit the terrain in some way, and so forth. In the end, an
117 explanation for how a particular chase plays out demands an extraordinary level of
118 detail, and indeed more understanding of, say, neurological processing than we
119 currently possess. Adaptation by natural selection is silent about all of that, because it
120 is simply not an explanation of the phenomenon but the precondition for it.

121 Agency is not, then, an alternative to an “explanation by natural selection”; it
122 does different work. Agency might be considered the capacity that (in this instance) a
123 hare displays in its escape behaviour. Of course one can attempt to take that behaviour
124 apart: to consider, for example, the cognitive processes that lead to the hare suddenly
125 switching direction in an evasive maneuver. Presumably any given instance of such
126 switching might involve neural integration of great deal of information: Have I switched
127 direction recently? How close is my pursuer? What is the terrain like here? How tired
128 am I? By recognizing the pursuit of hare by fox, and of bacterium by phage, both as
129 agential phenomena, we can start to pose questions that do not dissolve into the
130 ephemeral minutiae of a specific situation. What capacities are involved in such
131 decisions? How do they depend on sensory modalities? How are environmental
132 affordances evaluated and processed? And perhaps in particular: how is the goal-
133 directedness created and sustained throughout this behaviour? None of this is in any
134 sense “anti-reductionistic”.

135

136 **3. Where do goals come from?**

137 Goal-directedness lies at the root of this discussion. DiFrisco and Gawne do not
138 challenge the idea that goal-directedness exists in biology – and after all, this is surely
139 not seriously in question. Mayr [Mayr 2004] attests that “purposive behaviour that is
140 clearly goal-directed is widespread among animals, particularly among mammals and
141 birds”, while Monod [Monod 1972] goes further: “One of the fundamental
142 characteristics common to all living beings without exception... [is that they are]
143 objects endowed with a purpose or project.”

144 The issue then is about the origin of goal-directedness. DiFrisco and Gawne say
145 it “is a product of natural selection rather than the inherent agency of organisms”.
146 Again, this is a category error. We should say that it is natural selection – or rather, all
147 the mechanisms of the evolutionary process – that awards organisms inherent agency
148 and goal-directedness, just as it awards them inherent morphology and developmental
149 potential. “The capacity for goal-directed behavior” is not “explained” by Darwinian
150 natural selection acting in populations of individuals; it is delivered by that process.
151 Could one truly advance an “explanation” for vision, say, based only on “Darwinian
152 natural selection acting in populations of individuals”, with no mention of optics or

153 neuroscience? Just as the universality of the evolutionary process in biology does not
154 somehow render it unnecessary to ask any further questions about developmental
155 biology, so it does not somehow imply that there is nothing more to be said about
156 agency.

157 DiFrisco and Gawne go on to say that “An organism’s “goals”... can be
158 understood as outcomes that enhance Hamiltonian inclusive fitness, such as finding a
159 mate or immune defense against infection. Being in the state of seeking these
160 outcomes—“goal-directedness”—is due to positive selection in the past, and is thus
161 equivalent to adaptation.” Let us now replace “goal-directedness” with another, more
162 specialized attribute, such as appetite: “An organism’s appetite can be understood as
163 an outcome that enhances Hamiltonian inclusive fitness, such as the need to sustain
164 metabolism. Being in the state of hunger is due to positive selection in the past, and is
165 thus equivalent to adaptation.” This statement says nothing other than “appetite and
166 hunger are adaptive”. (It certainly does not say, as DiFrisco and Gawne would seem to
167 imply, that “hunger is a metaphor for natural selection”.) What then are the
168 mechanisms and attributes that create a sense of hunger? How is that state
169 represented in the brain? What strategies does the organism pursue in response to it?
170 Does the fact that hunger is an adaptive response mean that these questions are moot,
171 because then hunger has already been “explained” by evolution?

172 More specifically, DiFrisco and Gawne say that “In order for goal-attributions to
173 explain anything, goals would need to be linked to some empirically detectable feature
174 of the system other than the actual outcomes of its behavior. Otherwise, these
175 explanations would be circular and uninformative. It is not clear that this can be done
176 without reference to natural selection.” This is a good point: by what criteria can we
177 impute goals, especially if are not realised?

178 Yet seems uncontroversial to say that the goal of the fox is to catch the hare,
179 regardless of whether it does so. It is also uncontroversial, and empirically detectable,
180 to say that such behaviour is governed by decision-making circuits in the fox’s brain. Do
181 similar considerations apply also to the phage? It is not obvious why not; failure to
182 “catch” the bacterium does not mean that, in that instance, the phage was executing
183 independent motions that, by a strange coincidence, happened to track it. And the

184 processes governing a phage’s trajectory are in principle detectable and quantifiable.
185 Its agency has mechanisms; it does not arise from some kind of immaterial *telos*.

186 How one attributes goals can surely be subtle, but the notion is routinely invoked
187 even at the molecular level – for example, in mechanisms for error correction in DNA
188 replication, protein translation [Banerjee et al. 2017], chromosomal separation in
189 mitosis [Ha et al. 2024], as well as embryology [Hoiyman et al. 2021] and neurogenesis
190 [Rajan & Denburg 1996], for errors can only exist in the presence of goals defined by
191 normativity. In all these cases the existence of error-correcting mechanisms can of
192 course be attributed to adaptation. And that is precisely the point: evolution introduces
193 goals.

194 Thus the idea that “goal-directedness, at least in organisms without complex
195 nervous systems and advanced cognition, is nothing other than adaptation” is itself an
196 untestable statement: not exactly wrong, but rather, hard to assign any real meaning.
197 We simply do not say that a process, characteristic or behaviour that has arisen
198 through evolutionary adaptation simply *is* adaptation, nor that recognizing it as adaptive
199 somehow explains how it works.

200 Moreover, the mere existence of goals does not tell us how or if they will be
201 pursued. We might with good reason suppose that adaptation has predisposed foxes to
202 chase hares. This does not mean that, on seeing a hare, a hungry fox will chase it as if a
203 neural switch has been flipped. A fox might decide the pursuit is not worth the effort
204 (perhaps the hunger is not bad enough, or the fox considers the case unlikely to
205 succeed). Or the fox might be more preoccupied with other issues, such as tending its
206 young. Or the pursuit might expose the fox to too much danger. Of course, all these
207 responses have adaptive origins too! Whatever the fox does, we can attribute it to some
208 adaptive tendency. So adaptation as such predicts nothing.

209 Rather, it is adaptive instincts coupled to specifics of immediate circumstance,
210 including the fox’s current mental and physiological state (its internal settings, as it
211 were), that ultimately determine behaviour. Could we, given enough information,
212 predict the outcome? Perhaps, although it is far from clear that current understanding
213 of neurobiology or techniques of data gathering would be up to the task. The argument
214 made here is that a scheme for knowing how to integrate all these factors, including the

215 setting and prioritization of immediate goals and the resolution of conflicts between
216 them, is precisely the kind of objective a true theory of agency might set itself.

217 It also explains why we might reasonably regard agency in cognitive terms [Levin &
218 Dennett 2020]. DiFrisco and Gawne’s charge that “biological agency is in fact
219 cryptically cognitive—i.e., a psychological style of explanation applied to organisms not
220 normally regarded as having a mind” is a warning worth heeding: to imply that all
221 organisms make choices on the basis of desires is evidently to step beyond the bounds
222 of anything that can currently be justified empirically. But this is not necessarily what is
223 implied by suggestions that organismal behaviour, even at the level of single cells, be
224 considered “cognitive”. Rather, that term may be used to refer to particular
225 informational competencies; as Dennett and Levin put it [Levin & Dennett 2020],

226 Agents, in this carefully limited perspective, need not be conscious, need not
227 understand, need not have minds, but they do need to be structured to exploit
228 physical regularities that enable them to use information (following the laws of
229 computation) to perform tasks, beginning with the fundamental task of self-
230 preservation, which involves not just providing themselves with the energy needed
231 to wield their tools, but the ability to adjust to their local environments in ways
232 that advance their prospects.

233 As they explain, “the point is not to anthropomorphise morphogenesis – the point is to
234 naturalise cognition.” DiFrisco and Gawne’s insistence that only humans, with a
235 uniquely sophisticated psychology, can be regarded as “cognitive” not only imputes
236 some unknown evolutionary transition that awarded us (and us alone) this capacity but
237 also risks making it a kind of “cognitism”, reminiscent of vitalism, that itself cannot be
238 understood mechanistically in terms common to many if not all other organisms.

239

240 **4. Demystifying agency**

241 DiFrisco and Gawne says that “Downward causation and context-dependence are
242 “mechanistic” in the sense relevant to experimental biology. They are not mysterious
243 processes that require adopting the teleological form of investigation provided by an
244 agency perspective.” I agree – and recognize that some discussions of biological
245 agency at least appear to suggest otherwise. This is not an argument against agency,
246 but simply a statement that the downward causation and context-dependence often

247 evident in agential behaviour demand a rigorous theoretical understanding that
248 imputes nothing mysterious to them.

249 DiFrisco and Gawne claim that “agency is a psychological concept with origins
250 in heuristic ascriptions of intentionality.” This is not an argument against a wider
251 conception of agency (of which human-like intentionality becomes a special and
252 particularly complex case), but merely an arbitrary prohibition against it: the argument
253 is closed by definitional fiat, where no logic demands it. Their criticism of a gradualist
254 view of agency is advanced on those grounds: we should not call it agency if it does not
255 involve conscious deliberation. But why not? Compare the phenomenon of
256 multicellularity. The definition of multicellularity seems relatively unambiguous: while
257 accepting that there are transitional organisms that may exhibit temporary
258 multicellularity, it clearly does not help to suggest that the earliest prokaryotes were
259 multicellular but in groups of 1. Likewise, DiFrisco and Gawne object to extending the
260 notion of agency to cases where no conscious deliberation can plausibly be invoked.
261 But there are perfectly meaningful definitions of agency that do not need to impute
262 conscious deliberation at all: a substantial literature does not adhere to so restrictive a
263 definition [Ball 2023b].

264 In the end, the concept of agency does not invoke some sort of immaterial fairy
265 dust but, on the contrary, avoids the trap of attributing magical properties to
266 evolutionary adaptation: of suggesting that organisms do what they do (whatever it is)
267 only and always because it is adaptive. Why does a hand grow in the human embryo?
268 Because hands are adaptively useful, certainly; but that says nothing about proximal
269 mechanisms. Meanwhile, to admit those proximal mechanisms but not their emergent
270 result is to permit only a particular scale of phenomena the status of being real ones. To
271 suggest that there is no such thing as agency is, in this view, equivalent to saying that
272 there is no such thing as a hand but only arrangements, movements and differentiation
273 of cells.

274 In other words, it is precisely via “complex multiscale feedback mechanisms
275 evolve[d] through natural selection” (and operating through principles explicable by,
276 say dynamical systems theory) that agency arises. We could leave the result of those
277 evolved mechanisms as a miscellany of so many bespoke outcomes for each and every
278 organism, or we could do what science generally does: to identify common aspects and

279 seek for generic explanations in a theory of agency. One benefit of doing the latter is
280 that it might help to elucidate what is required of artificial systems, for example in
281 robotics or AI, that they be able to demonstrate genuine agency (as opposed to
282 executing instructions in automatic fashion).

283 DiFrisco and Gawne raise important questions about the extent to which agents
284 need to be regarded as single, holistic entities or, on the contrary, as systems of
285 component parts with specific and identifiable causal powers. These considerations
286 touch on the widely recognized problem of defining biological individuality [Clarke
287 2010]. However, selection happens at the level of the whole organism, and a
288 component – a brain circuit, say – that prompts a particular action might be considered
289 in some sense to be acting “for” the whole. Typically, an action demands the
290 coordinated involvement of many subsystems: we might be able to pinpoint the
291 impulse for insect navigation to specific regions of the insect brain, but they depend on
292 other regions and organs for the requisite sensory data, and still others to actuate that
293 impulse. DiFrisco and Gawne are of course correct to say that such coordinated
294 actions can be studied mechanistically, but this does not undermine a program to
295 consider the whole organism from an agential perspective as arriving at behavioural
296 choices that it then puts into practice. On the contrary, that is the whole basis of the
297 study of organismal decision-making [Hills 2019, Brembs 2020].

298

299 **5. Discussion**

300 DiFrisco and Gawne have presented a detailed and thoughtful critique of the suggestion
301 that agency is a property of many and perhaps all living organisms. They make some
302 valid points about the over-reach of some discussions of agency in, for example,
303 development and evolution, which adds to the cogent arguments already put forward
304 by Potter and Mitchell [Potter & Mitchell 2025].

305 But they have failed to address or perhaps to grasp the role allotted to agency in
306 careful treatments of the topic. Their central challenge is to ask: what questions do the
307 introduction of the concept of agency answer that could not be answered without it?
308 This is, however, to misunderstand the nature of the concept. One could say precisely
309 the same about the notion of life. From a materialist position that regards living
310 organisms as being composed of interacting molecules and nothing more, “life” has no

311 explanatory purpose in a reductionist program; one simply seeks to understand those
312 molecules and those interactions in a specific set of entities. At the molecular level,
313 there is nothing that obviously distinguishes the chemistry of living organisms from,
314 say, organic chemistry in a laboratory. Do we conclude, then, that the notion of “life”
315 alludes to nothing real – that it is a mere “as if” concept, a “stance” comparable to
316 Dennett’s “intentional stance” [Dennett 1987]? One is reminded of Szent-Györgyi’s
317 statement [Szent-Györgyi 1972]:

318 My own scientific career was a descent from higher to lower dimension, led by a
319 desire to understand life. I went from animals to cells, from cells to bacteria, from
320 bacteria to molecules... On my way, life ran out between my fingers.

321 We can say just the same for agency. To argue that biological property X is not a real
322 property because it can be studied in reductionistic terms and explained
323 mechanistically is to say that biology has not yet caught up with nineteenth-century
324 physics, let alone that of the twenty-first. The reasons why this is nonetheless said are
325 interesting, complex, and to some extent sociological. They are also connected to the
326 long and problematic debate in biology about teleology [Mayr 2004, Dresow & Love
327 2023], and the confusions that arise from the fact that a process without apparent
328 purpose or agency – evolution – gives rise to entities that possess both. DiFrisco and
329 Gawne’s critique performs the valuable function of cautioning against installing agency
330 as a kind of omnipotent force that, like adaptation, can be summoned as a kind of
331 “explanatory force” for any biological observation. But it should thus serve to
332 distinguish useful and tractable approaches to agency from ones that do indeed
333 attribute it undue explanatory power.

334 When agency is denied as a genuine characteristic of organisms, it has a habit of
335 creeping back in in cryptic form. DiFrisco and Gawne cite the obviously metaphorical
336 agency that is attributed to genes within a “selfish gene” view of evolution [Dawkins
337 1976]. This view denies organisms all agency by making them passive vehicles
338 controlled by their genes – genes, moreover, that have their own agendas (primarily, to
339 replicate). Yet here this agential aspect of genes is not “merely” metaphorical at all. It is
340 not simply a colourful manner of speaking about how populations of genes change
341 during the evolutionary process, but becomes a putative explanatory framework for the
342 observed agential behaviour of organisms in which such behaviour is “explained away”

343 in terms that become deniably metaphorical *even though the metaphor itself is*
344 *required to do causal work*. This is a classic example of how metaphor tends to be
345 deployed in science in the naive belief that it is just a “manner of speaking” rather than
346 an invitation to adopt a particular point of view.

347 Whether agency demands any modification of the Modern Synthesis [Ball 2023a,
348 Ball 2023b, Walsh 2015] is an open question, but not one that bears on the issue of
349 whether agency is an attribute of living organisms at all. And certainly it need not be
350 regarded as some kind of alternative to mechanistic explanations of biological
351 phenomena. It demands only that we take seriously what we observe.

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