

19 Introduction

20 A common ground of defenses of the biosemiotic approach to explaining biological phenomena seems
21 to be the belief in the special features of living systems as compared with other kinds of natural
22 systems. To Jakob von Uexküll (1982 [1940]), a classic reference for biosemiotic proposals, an
23 intrinsic characteristic of life is meaning, a phenomenon that is not to be encountered in non-living
24 material systems. While many contemporary scientists would yet consider meaning to be an
25 exclusively mental phenomenon, biosemioticians have seen the need to extend the use of this notion in
26 order to characterize some of the features of life that purely mechanistic models tend to ignore or to
27 consider only in reductionistic terms.

28 When confronted with biosemiotics, contemporary naturalists find themselves at a crossroads where
29 they either reject the whole project as a categorical mistake—since biosemiotics puts together meaning
30 and biology—, or embrace notions of meaning—or other categories traditionally considered as
31 exclusively applicable to humans—that can be applied to most biological systems (but which can
32 sometimes be extremely deflationary) at the same time that they try to evade reductionistic pathways.

33 The first choice seems to be doomed to ignore lots of aspects that we, humans, share with other living
34 beings, and which have traditionally been expunged from the scientific world view because of their
35 dissimilarity with features that all physical systems share, like mass, spatial dimension, and energy,
36 which have been a common research topic of physics in the past centuries. Biology, psychology, and
37 semiotics, on the other hand, have been occupied with another set of phenomena, which, although share
38 much with, and are also enabled by, the usual physical processes that operate in non-living systems,
39 are, at the same time, closely intertwined with human experiences of the world and linked to behaviors
40 and properties that many authors, scientists and not scientists, recognize in other living beings.

41 The second choice, surely the best option for consistent naturalists, implies a big challenge, which
42 biosemioticians seem to embrace, namely, to figure out methods to both observe and then study
43 phenomena which seem alien to non-living systems in ways alike to those that have been successfully
44 employed to analyze physical and chemical phenomena, but without excluding from such analyses
45 aspects that seem essential to life.

46 One such aspect is creativity, which has commonly been recognized as a central issue in attempts to
47 define life as a scientific concept or to operationalize its detection in extraterrestrial environments.
48 Concepts like ‘open-ended evolution’ (Pattee 2012 [1995]; Ruiz-Mirazo and Moreno 2012; Ruiz-
49 Mirazo et al. 2004) or ‘supple adaptation’ (Bedau 1996; Bedau 1998) have worked as scientific proxies
50 to the creativity that many authors, from Darwin to Kauffman *via* Bergson and Dewey, have seen in
51 living processes. However, we must ask if such proxies offer an adequately naturalistic account of the
52 evolutionary creativity that has brought meaning, value and also minds into the world.

53 Today, the biggest challenge to a consistent naturalism is to be able to overcome metaphoric construals
54 of mentalist concepts like meaning and value and accept that such concepts have also a truth value with
55 respect to biological systems, just like physical concepts do. Accordingly, my goal in this paper is to
56 point out the axiological components which surround the idea of creativity in an evolutionary context
57 and to suggest how they can be approached in a naturalistic account.

58 **Creativity and Value in Evolution**

59 *Creation* is not only a common term related with art and scientific theorizing, but it has also been a
60 frequent topic in biological thinking and in research on Artificial Intelligence and Artificial Life (see
61 Boden, 1994). Indeed, creativity is at the center of many proposals about the definition or the
62 characterization of life as a scientific concept, but, as many other ideas that have entered into our
63 scientific horizon, it is heavily linked to many other concepts which have not an easy translation into
64 scientific language. In particular, creativity is closely related to value, as Boden's definition makes
65 clear:

66 Creativity is the ability to come up with ideas or artefacts that are *new, surprising* and
67 *valuable*. 'Ideas' here include concepts, poems, musical compositions, scientific
68 theories, cookery recipes, choreography, jokes – and so on. 'Artefacts' include
69 paintings, sculptures, steam engines, vacuum cleaners, pottery, origami, penny whistles
70 – and many other things you can name (Boden 2004: 1).

71 While this author applies her definition mostly to artificial products, evolutionary biologists in general,
72 and researches on models of minimal life in particular, gladly apply the same term to the 'solutions'
73 and evolutionary 'innovations' that organisms possess with regard to their environments and to other
74 species. For instance, in describing his theory of life, Bedau (1998: 127) proposes "that an automatic
75 and continually creative evolutionary process of adapting to changing environments is the primary
76 form of life."

77 The central issue regarding evolutionary creativity, at least since Darwin's time, has been—as can be
78 perceived in Bedau's proposal—evolutionary adaptation, that is, the process of acquiring or developing
79 traits that enable a lineage to cope with or even to thrive in its environment. For modern-synthesis
80 Darwinism, which took its final form after the near consensus reached around the middle of the past
81 century, the key for all creative aspects of life was the process of natural selection, which could
82 produce adaptation through the selection of random mutations (see Ayala 1999; Dawkins 1987).

83 In contrast to mutation and recombination, which are essentially random with respect to organisms'
84 needs, selection is usually considered the result of interactions between an organism's traits and its
85 environment. Hence, novelty, in this account, is brought about by the former two processes, while
86 surprise and value—the two other components of Boden's definition—could only be provided (or,

87 more correctly, *assessed*) by the conjoining of competition and differential reproduction.

88 While natural selection's exclusive role in the production of evolutionary novelties has been challenged
89 in the last decades (Gilbert 2006)—mainly as a result of the recognition that development is not only a
90 passive product of an organism's genotype, but that it can also play an active role in the production of
91 adaptation through its susceptibility or reactivity to the environment (West-Eberhard 2003)—, its
92 central role in evolution has remained mostly uncontested in contemporary proposals. This is evident
93 when contemporary critics of the synthetic orthodoxy are glad to pay homage to Darwin (see Gilbert
94 (2006: 209), Gould (1982) and Gould and Vrba (1982: 4–5, 14) for just a tiny sample). But this
95 deserves a little more examination.

96 According to Gould (1982: 381; 2002: 1028), most controversies in natural history are related to the
97 relative frequency of distinct phenomena, and not to exclusivity. Hence, the issue of evolutionary
98 creativity would be linked to the relative importance that each one of the proposed factors of change
99 has in evolution. However, as is clear from his 1982's paper, positive and negative views of natural
100 selection which have existed through the history of Darwinism do not differ only regarding how much
101 selection or other factors influence organismic change, but they are opposed with regard to which is the
102 one which plays a positive role in producing evolution (and progress, even if it is only local).

103 This aspect of debates about evolutionary creativity is also evident from Gould's (2002) book, where
104 he elaborates his own views on the positive role that different kinds of constraints can play in modeling
105 life's evolution: structural, historical, and developmental constraints. It is most interesting that Gould's
106 remarks about our tendencies to consider anything that limits natural selection's power as constraints
107 (in a negative sense) conclude with an appeal to consider anomalies to "reigning paradigms" (Gould
108 2002: 1032-1037) in a positive way, because of the challenges they bring to the research field.

109 These oppositions and arguments regarding the axiological aspects of a phenomenon like evolutionary
110 creativity highlight the closeness between our ideas of human creativity and the way we approach
111 creativity in the biological domain. Without pretending to have assessed the scope and success of each
112 one of the contributions that have been suggested (epigenetics, developmental plasticity, structural
113 constraints, etc.) to form the core of the alleged evolutionary synthesis of the 21st century (Pigliucci
114 (2007) summarizes some of these proposals), I intend, in the following pages, to point out some of the
115 axiological components that have remained unnoticed in most biological discussions, but whose
116 theoretical relevance is responsible for some disputes regarding the relationship between creativity and
117 evolution.

118 **Beyond the Selection Metaphor: the Axiology of Evolution**

119 At least since little more than a century ago (Dewey 1965 [1910]), natural selection has been a
120 groundbreaking concept in philosophy and it has also served as a touchstone for naturalistic projects in

121 philosophy. However, the nature and the reach of such projects cannot but depend on the particular
122 construal—or metaphor—of natural selection that is chosen. In this philosophical arena, controversy
123 surrounding the orthodoxy of the modern evolutionary synthesis has manifested in the form of
124 exchanges about the nature of selection (Sober 1993), about its causal role in evolution (Millstein 2013)
125 and also about its sufficiency or insufficiency to explain or reduce concepts central to philosophical
126 attempts to understand diverse aspects of human nature (Fodor and Piattelli-Palmarini 2011).

127 Regarding creativity, both Ayala (1999) and Neander (1995) ground it in the way in which natural
128 selection constrains evolutionary pathways and drives, this way, different lineages through ever
129 surprising—that is, improbable to reach by mere randomness—routes. Unfortunately, much of the
130 literature which looks for mechanistic explanations of natural selection’s creative powers lies on
131 metaphors that have been insufficiently analyzed in recent philosophy of science (see Martínez and
132 Moya (2009) for a summary). According to Neander (1995: 68), gardening metaphors have a special
133 place in defenses of the negative view, however, defenses of the positive view, from Darwin on, have
134 also adopted their own metaphoric and analogical ways to describe the creative role of selection in
135 evolution (Peteiro 2012; Martínez and Moya 2009; Young 1971; Young 1993).

136 Given natural selection’s birth as a metaphor (Darwin 1872; Young 1971), it is an interesting fact, that
137 we still need, after so much time, additional metaphors to illustrate the relationship of this scientific
138 concept to creativity in evolution. If—as most metaphors which now form an uncontroversial part of
139 common language—the metaphor (“selection”) which accompanied this concept from its inception
140 were dead, after a long process of literalization and scientific theorizing, then it would be difficult to
141 explain the existence of different construals of this concept which do not seem to differ regarding
142 mechanisms nor mathematical models, but with respect to their axiology.

143 The metaphor of selection is an evaluative one, and Darwin felt no shame employing concepts like
144 benefit, usefulness, favorable, detrimental, etc. when explaining natural selection. He also employs
145 such concepts to distinguish natural from artificial and sexual selection. The reason for this is precisely
146 the same that compels Gould to defend positive roles for constraints, and which distinguishes positive
147 and negative views of selection: the need to make explicit assertions regarding axiological frameworks
148 in evolutionary biology. This issue, which is usually disregarded by many biologists, shows its
149 centrality in biological thought when one tries to make sense of evolutionary creativity.

150 For example, for West-Eberhard (2003: 35) distinctions between adaptive and nonadaptive plasticity
151 seem difficult to establish—based on Williams’ (1966) *dictum* about the onerousness of adaptation—,
152 however, she has no troubles distinguishing between the benefit brought by a plant’s phototropism and
153 the benefit due to a human baby’s head flattening when passing through the birth canal—indeed, she
154 recognizes the first process as active, and the second one as passive.

155 Gilbert (2016), in a text that shows him less entangled in the strictures of modern-synthesis orthodoxy,
 156 seems freer to employ evaluative concepts whose interpretation is not inextricably linked to the idea of
 157 natural selection. Hence, he talks about cells “using/interpreting” DNA (Gilbert 2016: 53), and about
 158 *neutral* emanations that are converted “into functional cues for altering development” (Gilbert 2016:
 159 56).

160 Terms like those used by Gilbert are, in fact, not unusual in biological literature; what makes them
 161 remarkable is that once one stands at the margins of the modern-synthesis paradigm, the axiological
 162 framework to fix their interpretation, which 20th-century neo-Darwinism consolidated so intensively
 163 that it became practically inconspicuous (see Kitcher (1993)), is not anymore a safe ground.

164 West-Eberhard’s deference to Williams (1966) regarding the complexities of adaptive thinking is
 165 illuminating since he is one of the few evolutionary biologists who bit the bullet and tried to fix the
 166 interpretation of biological terms which seem to be of a metaphoric nature, like “plasticity” and
 167 “adaptation.” In doing this, however, he chose the most problematic sense of “adaptation—from a
 168 naturalistic perspective—, which links adaptation and design, where design would be produced by
 169 natural selection (Williams 1966: 6, 9). Beyond our naturalistic suspicions of the employment of
 170 “design” in a natural context, this understanding of adaptation has been challenged by several authors
 171 due to its near-inapplicability to concrete cases (see Lauder (1996)).

172 “Lest our old robes sit easier than our new!” The modern-synthesis view of creativity went astray when
 173 it required us to appeal to images of natural selection that relate it with intentionality or agency. If we
 174 face the choice between a philistine construal of creativity (which centers only in mechanisms, novelty,
 175 and patterns in morphological space, but dispenses with evaluative aspects) and other one based on an
 176 intentional concept of selection, we cannot but ask ourselves if there is not a third way. There is one, in
 177 fact, and—paying again homage to Darwin—it is, perhaps subtly but clearly enough, contained in
 178 Darwin’s *Origin*:

179 Can it, then, be thought improbable, seeing that variations useful to man have
 180 undoubtedly occurred, that other *variations useful in some way to each being in the*
 181 *great and complex battle of life*, should sometimes occur in the course of thousands of
 182 generations? If such do occur, can we doubt (remembering that many more individuals
 183 are born than can possibly survive) that individuals having any advantage, however
 184 slight, over others, would have the best chance of surviving and of procreating their
 185 kind? On the other hand, we may feel sure that any variation in the least degree injurious
 186 would be rigidly destroyed. *This preservation of favourable variations and the rejection*
 187 *of injurious variations, I call Natural Selection.* (Darwin 1859: 80–81, my italics)

188 This quote gives us a glimpse into a crucial fact about the relationship between natural selection and
 189 biological creativity: it is not only novel variations which appear in unexplained, to Darwin, ways in

190 each generation and are then useful from the perspective of natural selection, but it is novel and useful
191 (to each being) variations, which appear and are then preserved by natural selection. Therefore, the
192 emergence of value (and function), which is key to our understanding of creativity, precedes selective
193 episodes temporally. Assessing the nature of such value—its positivity or negativity regarding an
194 organism's, a species' or an ecosystem's life—is not only a critical step, but also a common one, when
195 biologists explain adaptation as a product of natural selection.

196 Although natural selection was linked from the beginning with a particular axiological framework, such
197 framework was embedded in a metaphor, which turned inconspicuous after some time. Until now,
198 scientific theorizing about natural selection has essentially disregarded the axiology of evolution and
199 has focused on mechanisms and mathematical models, while axiological aspects have remained
200 anecdotal or have been tried to be assimilated to mechanism. However, the growth of Biosemiotics in
201 the last decades opens a path to study this aspect of evolution in a systematic way.

202 **The Generation of Functions: Province of Biosemiotics**

203 In his *Bedeutungslehre*, Jakob von Uexküll (1982: 44) describes the intricate relationships that exist
204 between the pea beetle and the pea plant, where the development of the beetle from larval to adult stage
205 is deeply coupled with the development of the peapod. Beetle and pea development are coordinated in
206 some sort of harmony, says von Uexküll. In his book, he argues profusely that meaning is the rule that
207 governs both the relationships between many organisms—for example, the bee and the flower, the bat
208 and the moth, the tick and the mammal, etc.—, as well as the development processes that carry
209 organisms from seeds or germ cells to the adult stage.

210 Von Uexküll emphasizes meaning as the key to understanding biological phenomena, and in doing this
211 he produces a wonderful view of the creativity that so much has impressed evolutionary theorists.
212 Organisms, in his account, are not merely passive objects which are effected by their surrounding
213 environments; to the contrary, their *Umwelten* are formed by significance relationships and each
214 element of these surrounding worlds is interpreted by the organism and is replied with corresponding
215 and adequate responses.

216 However, when we consider von Uexküll's proposal from an evolutionary perspective, we get not only
217 a glimpse into a wonderful view of natural creativity but also a full-fledged paradox. The behavior of
218 the tadpole has a meaning that embeds the frog's behavior, but how could the adult influence the
219 production of a behavior that always happens before the adult is in the situation where such previous
220 actions are most significant? If we extend this to the copious and intricate relations that each organism
221 has with other organisms and with the physical factors, we see that many such relationships are always
222 established once the organism is not anymore an undifferentiated cell, but it is exactly such
223 developmental process—from the zygote or the spore—which in multicellular organisms is the

224 condition of possibility that enables such relations to occur.

225 Interestingly, Darwin detects this same set of “infinitely complex relations to other organic beings and
226 to external nature” (1859: 61) that organisms have, but he thinks that it is a precondition for natural
227 selection to occur; in the struggle for life this network of relationships and dependencies is an important
228 source of limiting, or selective, factors. However, for Uexküll, this network of relationships cannot be a
229 *cause* of development of the organic traits, because relations that conform the network, such as those
230 existing between the pea beetle, the peapod and the wasp, are relationships of meaning.

231 According to von Uexküll, the picture of the biological world that Darwin proposes not only gives too
232 much place for chance but also attributes too much prodigality to nature. On the contrary, for him,
233 nature is a place of harmony, in which the melodies played by each being are at the same time the
234 expression and the “germ of meaning” of other beings and from the physical world.

235 Evolution remained an unresolved issue for von Uexküll (Kull 1999: 62) and he was certainly more
236 inclined toward mutations, that toward the effects of variation, in explaining organic changes.
237 However, the precise relationships that relate each living being as significance bearer and motive for
238 other beings, make it difficult to conceive a saltationist process that could spontaneously be able to
239 compose a new harmony.

240 If we want to overcome the problems of a naturalist approach to creativity in a fruitful (neither
241 reductionistic nor blatantly anthropocentric) way, we should be able to find a common ground between
242 the two biological theories that best have accounted for the axiology of living beings: Darwinism and
243 uexküllian Biosemiotics. The new evolutionary syntheses which have been propounded in the last
244 decades need a comprehensive theoretical framework if they are going to thrive, but to do this, they
245 cannot turn their back to the philosophical concerns motivated by an evolutionary view of life.

246 The axiological framework assumed by the modern evolutionary synthesis was wrong, since it implied
247 that selection does semiosis in a primary sense. The idea of teleonomy (Pittendrigh 1958; Mayr 1961;
248 Mayr 1974; Mayr 1992) is a good example. For Mayr, for instance, natural selection does semiosis, that
249 is, it builds genetic programs in which the meaning of an organism’s relationships with its environment
250 is literally codified. Changes in temperature and day-light duration *mean* to natural selection that the
251 warbler must migrate to warmer latitudes in order to survive and reproduce. This is the function of such
252 behavior, in case the warbler is enough young to reproduce—otherwise, it would perhaps be a
253 dysfunction in Mayr’s view, and it would certainly be for Dawkins.

254 Besides its blatant immorality, this view of natural selection also goes theoretically astray, because of
255 its conflation of ends (in the sense of *finious* processes, as suggested by Peirce) with goals. Programs,
256 understood as mechanisms, are not able to explain any more than *finious* processes, i.e. processes that
257 end in some particular way. If we use them to explain more, it is only because we understand their

258 results (their functions) in the axiological context of their users, their creators or their beneficence (their
259 service) to someone else (see Achinstein (1977)).

260 A useful distinction in semiotics is the one that exists between symptoms and symbols, or between
261 natural and conventional signs: symbols are produced by convention, while symptoms are a necessary
262 consequence of some phenomenon (Barbieri 2008: 582). The challenge that contemporary
263 Biosemiotics faces is to build approaches to biological meaning that do not depend on a mentalistic
264 concept of symbol, but that, also, do not conflate symptoms with symbols. Natural selection will have a
265 place in explaining evolutionary creativity only if its theoretical deployments do not constrain
266 biological value to the organism's reproductive efficiency, because it is precisely this fact, that
267 organisms do extremely much more things (which are valuable) than merely reproduce, which can
268 explain that inheritance, development, and reproduction, jointly act as a semiotic process.

269 This way, evolutionary semiosis is the result not of blind chance, neither of consciousness,
270 intentionality or prevision in nature. It is rather the product of freedom. When the *Umwelten* of the
271 peppered moth, the bird, the bat, the tree and the man meet, the survival rate of the moths—to pick just
272 one aspect of this encounter—is affected: it is a symptom of the clash. When this happens—what
273 evolutionary biologists usually call natural selection—, the moth's pigmentation, which has its own
274 developmental and hereditary explanation, acquires a new meaning, an evolutionary meaning, but this
275 meaning can only be encoded (and decoded) in terms of the moth's *Umwelt*.

276 Natural selection is a process. It is no subject and it has no *Innenwelt*. This is the reason why it alone
277 cannot give existential support to the symbol (it is not semiotic in a primary sense, as suggested by
278 some authors). If we understand this process correctly—not as a mechanism, but as the interface
279 between two or more axiological realms (one is given by the impact of some evolutionary innovation
280 over population dynamics; the other ones are based on the influence of the innovation on the existing
281 semiotic relationships between an organism and its *Umwelt*)—, it is, in fact, semiotic but in a derived or
282 secondary sense, rather than primary. The conventions that get established through this process depend,
283 in turn, on the semiotic nature of life and one, perhaps the most important goal for Biosemiotics as a
284 naturalist program, is to explain satisfactorily the evolutionary way from symptoms to symbols in the
285 history of life.

286 **Conclusions**

287 Metaphors, just like organismic variations in Darwinism, can be beneficial, detrimental or innocuous to
288 a scientific field, but, in general, they play some role either in structuring a new paradigm or in
289 continuing an already consolidated view. Many such devices become part of common language and
290 lose something of their starting controversial sense, but this does not avoid that they keep influencing
291 part of a scientific view, even if they do this in an inconspicuous form.

292 If Biosemiotics has been structured around the metaphor of “nature as language” (Emmeche and
293 Hoffmeyer 2009), the central metaphor in Darwinism has been that of “natural selection” (Young
294 1971). Both metaphors have conveyed their own preferred inquiries and their challenges, rooted
295 perhaps in the original controversial meaning of such images. While Darwinism has been concerned
296 with temporal or historical aspects of biology, Biosemiotics, on the other hand, has been interested in
297 synchronic or spatial issues (Kull 2001: 3).

298 The relationship between these two paradigms has been marked by mutual neglect or dismissal, but a
299 real biological synthesis should be able to merge both views in a fruitful form to forge a new metaphor
300 which can recover life from mechanicism without invoking special creations or pernicious vitalisms.
301 However, for this, we need to be able to see which parts of our biological view have become
302 inconspicuous as a result of our metaphors losing part of their controversial meaning.

303 A first step in this direction has been essayed in this paper. Value and life are entangled, but the
304 metaphor of natural selection—particularly as construed by proponents of the modern-synthesis—has
305 fixed a special axiological view in our evolutionary theorizing. A closer exam of biological evaluative
306 practice can easily reveal that many more axiological frameworks and levels exist in biology, however,
307 to be able to discern about them we need to bring metaphors alive again, just to see how the world saw
308 before we were entangled in them.

309 Even when no one, today, will deny the importance of evolution as one of the most impressive
310 dimensions of life, the exaggerated emphasis on the informational, and hence hereditary, aspects of life
311 has caused that we forget that most of the extent of a living being’s existence involves a copious
312 amount of dynamic relationships with its surroundings, which usually have no—and this is not a
313 negative appraisal—evolutionary significance. The biological synthesis of evolutionary and
314 biosemiotic paradigms should of course center in evolution and inheritance, but to do that we also need
315 a strengthened scientific approach to two subjects that play fundamental roles in an organism’s life:
316 freedom and value. Biosemiotics has already engaged in such a research, but to be successful, this
317 project needs that biologists leave behind metaphorical construals of such concepts like meaning and
318 value, and embrace them as part of biological reality.

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