

1 *Review*

## 2 **A Consideration of the Relationship between** 3 **Animals and Their Environment**

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7 **Simple Summary:** An animal must harvest resources from its environment in order to survive,  
8 prosper and reproduce. How the animal interacts with its environment to achieve these outcomes  
9 remains a topic of ongoing enquiry. The long-held view that the environment exerts an instrumental  
10 influence over the animal is contested by theories that propose that a mutualism exists between the  
11 two. This paper provides a brief introduction to these latter so-called ecological models of the animal  
12 environment relationship. As a first step, the animal must sense the environment. The contemporary  
13 model that sensing and acting operate through a process of prediction and correction (termed active  
14 inference) complements the ecological models. As well as sensing the external environment, the  
15 animal needs to sense and control its internal physiological environment and also the environment  
16 of (immunological) molecular structures that it encounters in its internal and external worlds. The  
17 paper examines how the animal manages engagement with these physiological and immunological  
18 environments. Predicting and controlling its environments provides the animal with agency. The  
19 ability to exert agency can vary from encounter to encounter. The opportunity to foster agency in  
20 animals within our care is noted.

21 **Abstract:** The relationship of the animal with its environment has been of longstanding interest in  
22 philosophy and science. Here I provide a brief introduction to concepts that place an emphasis on  
23 mutualism as the basis of organism - environment interaction, in contrast to the long standing view  
24 that the environment exerts an instrumental role in shaping the organism. Two influential theories  
25 have been von Uexküll's theory of umwelt and Gibson's theory of affordances. The former  
26 envisioned the animal as immersed in its surroundings (umwelt) to form a functional unit. In a  
27 similar manner, the latter theory describes a unity between 1) environmental information that  
28 provides the animal with opportunities for action (affordances) and 2) the ability of the animal to  
29 perceive and engage with those affordances. These views have influenced more recent ecological  
30 models of the organism as the functional unit of biology and have also influenced models of immune  
31 function. In ecological models, agency is seen as the ability of the organism to predict and control  
32 its engagement with the environment in order to maintain its integrity. The predominant  
33 contemporary model of neural function in which perception and action are understood to operate  
34 through Bayes-like active inference complements the concept of agency as proposed by the  
35 mutualism models. However, it is suggested that rather than a constant mutualism, encounters  
36 between organism and environment range over a dynamic spectrum from dualism to mutualism. It  
37 is also suggested that along this spectrum, agency emerges when the balance of instrumentality  
38 shifts from the environment to the organism, and that the balance of this relationship can further  
39 progress towards a felicitous mutualism. Meaning emerges between environmental information  
40 and an agent as opportunity for action. Implications for opportunities to foster agency in animals  
41 within our care is noted.

42 **Keywords:** affordance; umwelt; agency; active inference; allostasis; immune cognition; situated  
43 Darwinism; information; entropy; free energy principle

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## 46 1. Introduction

47 To survive, thrive and reproduce an animal must harvest resources from its environment. How  
48 does the animal find the resources it needs? In fact, the animal is faced with two environments, one  
49 external and the other internal. This review provides a brief introduction to some historical accounts  
50 and contemporary views of how the animal senses and acts on its two environments to realise  
51 meaning in the entities it senses, and how the meaning that arises through actions confers agency on  
52 the animal that enables regulation of behavioural, physiological and immune functions.  
53 Commonalities are examined between von Uexküll's theory of *umwelt*, Gibson's theory of  
54 affordances, Patten's model of *environs*, Walsh's theory of situated Darwinism, the active inference  
55 model of neural function based on the free energy principle, and Tauber's concept of eco-  
56 immunology. It is hoped this outline will encourage readers to explore these concepts in more detail.

## 57 2. The animal's relationship with its external environment

58 In everyday life we think of the external environment as a concrete, structured, objective reality  
59 that we and other animals interact with continuously. This materialist conception of a mechanical  
60 environment was challenged in 1909 by the Estonian biologist von Uexküll who proposed that the  
61 animal is immersed in its surround world (*umwelt*) in a manner by which the animal and its  
62 environment constitute a functional interacting unit, or function circle [1,2]. Uexküll proposed that  
63 for each species the *umwelt* is structured in signs or marks that the animal senses. In Uexküll's view  
64 the environment for each species is subjective and unique.

65 Without apparent knowledge of Uexküll's theory of the *umwelt*, in 1977, the American  
66 psychologist JJ Gibson introduced the concept of affordances to describe the resources available to  
67 the animal in its environment [3,4]. Gibson proposed that "[t]he affordances of the environment are  
68 what it offers the animal, what it *provides* or *furnishes*, either for good or ill [emphasis in original]" (p.  
69 127). In Gibson's view, affordances are what the animal interacts with in its environment. Affordances  
70 can be surfaces to stand on, to lie on or to rub against, objects to chew, air to breathe, and so on. For  
71 a goat climbing on a cliff face to access plants and salt to eat, the crevices and ledges are affordances,  
72 but for cattle these same ledges may provide no affordance [5]. Affordances describe a relationship  
73 between the animal and its environment that can change as the animal develops through its life  
74 history [6]. Gibson considered that information in the environment, which he termed ecological  
75 information, has an objective character that provides a unique resource enabling the animal to acquire  
76 the substantive resources required for its existence [3,7]. On Gibson's view, affordances contain  
77 information that gains meaning or value through the action possibilities they offer an animal [7,8].  
78 On this view of the environment from the perspective of ecological psychology, two species in one  
79 location may interact with differing sets of affordances that for each constitutes its own niche. In von  
80 Uexküll's terms, each has a different *umwelt*. Within a population, individuals may differ in the  
81 affordances they perceive [9].

82 Complementing JJ Gibson's ecological concept to affordances, EJ Gibson developed a theory of  
83 visual perception which proposed that the environment structures information, for instance by the  
84 way light bounces off surfaces. The structure provides the animal with opportunities to learn through  
85 perception, and through perception and action the animal learns the opportunities for engaging with  
86 affordances [10,11]. EJ Gibson suggests that learning these opportunities to engage positively with  
87 the environment develops the animal's agency. Thus, on EJ Gibson's view, the animal learns more  
88 meaning in its environment through action [10,11].

89 The interaction between the animal and entities of the environment in the utilisation of  
90 affordances is illustrated by tamarin monkeys amongst whom genetic variation confers trichromatic  
91 vision on some individuals and dichromatic vision on others. In foraging tests, trichromatic  
92 individuals identify ripe fruit more readily than dichromatic individuals, thus the affordance of ripe  
93 fruit differs with the visual ability of individuals [9]. Thus the information received from fruit and its  
94 meaning to the animal can differ between individuals.

95 Drawing on the von Uexküll's concept of *umwelt* and JJ Gibson's concept of affordance, Patten  
96 [12] proposed that the organism and the environment do not constitute a dualism bound together

97 through transaction. Rather he proposed that the organism and its external environment combine to  
98 create an emergent property in nature as a complementary interactional unity. Patten suggested  
99 that, centred on the organism, is an afferent or input environ composed of affordances, and an  
100 efferent or output environ. Effectances generated by the organism in the output environ become new  
101 affordances with the potential to be part of the input environ of other organisms [12,13]. White [14]  
102 earlier used the term effectance to describe an inherent activity of the organism to engage with the  
103 environment as means to generate a psychological sense of competence. White's effectance has strong  
104 similarities to EJ Gibson's notion of agency through action. Patten's concepts of environs and  
105 effectances have been largely incorporated into the more comprehensive theory of niche construction  
106 [15].

107 More recently, Walsh [16] has extended Gibson's concept of affordances to developed a theory  
108 of "Situated Darwinism" that proposes an organism-centric view of evolution, in contrast to the gene-  
109 centric view held by neo-Darwinism and the Modern Synthesis of Evolution. For Walsh[16],

110 "The unit of greatest theoretical significance for evolution is not the gene, or for that matter even  
111 the organism *per se*. It is the organism situated in a system of affordances. Affordances are  
112 emergent entities; they are properties of a system, in this case, a system comprising an organism  
113 and its conditions of life. Affordances are constituted in large measure by the ways that  
114 organisms can exploit or ameliorate these conditions... An action, then, is a response initiated  
115 by the agent, to a set of affordances, in pursuit of her goals. The affordances are to a significant  
116 degree of the agent's making, and they evolve in concert with her actions and goals." (p209)

117 Thus for Walsh the organism's relationship with its environment is a dynamic mutualism rather than  
118 a reactive dualism in which environmental conditions are instrumental in shaping the phenotype of  
119 the individual and propelling genomic change through adaptation over time.

### 120 3. What is environmental information?

121 In his Information Theory, Claude Shannon [17] proposed that information is the reduction of  
122 uncertainty [18]. Information is a statistical concept in which low predictability has high entropy and  
123 absolute certainty has zero entropy. Following Shannon's work, considerable interest developed in  
124 "information" within biological sciences including neurobiology, genetics, behaviour, psychology,  
125 evolutionary biology and developmental biology [19]. In information theory and in biology, a  
126 distinction is drawn between the minimal requirements for coding and transmitting information  
127 (semiotics) and the meaning that information may convey (semantics) [20]. Maynard Smith [21]  
128 suggests that in the context of biology, semantic information is intentional or purposeful and that a  
129 test for intentionality is whether there is a valid concept of error whereby a change in the information  
130 (coding), such as a single nucleotide polymorphism, can lead to a change in the meaning [21]. In  
131 contrast, semiotic information has no valid concept of error. A change in semiotic information such  
132 as the distribution of a grass species in a sward may convey a change in meaning for a herbivore as  
133 to the value of the field as site to graze, but the change does not constitute an error in any operational  
134 sense. There is no necessary intentionality inherent within the particular distribution of the grass  
135 species to convey information to a grazing animal. (Further consideration of the concept of  
136 intentionality in biology is beyond the scope of this paper: for a detailed critique see [16]).

137 Jablonka [20] provides a broad definition of biological information in the following terms: "a  
138 source becomes an informational input when an interpreting receiver can react". This definition was  
139 developed further by Jablonka and Lamb [22] to specify that "a source becomes an informational  
140 input when an interpreting receiver can react to the form of the source (and variations in this form)  
141 in a functional manner." On this view, information is a biological notion that only exists through  
142 interpretation by living systems [22]. Thus information requires a living interpreter to gain meaning.  
143 This view aligns with the earlier concepts of umwelt and affordance whereby the information in the  
144 environment available to an organism differ in accord with the organism's ability to interact with  
145 those resources. Importantly, not only are living interpreters necessary to gain meaning from  
146 biological information, through their actions they become a source of new information. Here we see  
147 Patten's effectances becoming information for other entities. Cohen [23] captures this concept in the

148 following terms: "... a living organism is a 'contrivance' for creating information, while paying its  
149 due to entropy".

#### 150 4. Neurobiology of perception

151 Sensing the environment is a prerequisite for accessing information. The understanding that has  
152 emerged from neuro-behavioural studies is that perception is an inferential process that depends on  
153 *a priori* information derived from evolution, as well as during early developmental experience  
154 complemented by lifelong learning [24-26]. The brain, Sterling and Laughlin suggest, functions to  
155 reduce uncertainty [18]. Perception occurs in the brain, yet the brain faces a challenge. It is physically  
156 isolated from the external world yet requires information to regulate the engagement of the animal  
157 with its surrounds. Information about the external world is obtained via exteroceptors that sense light  
158 (sight), pressure (hearing, touch) and some types of chemical structures (taste, smell) as well as the  
159 position and motion of the body (proprioception). Exteroceptors send signals via afferent nervous  
160 tissue to the brain [27]. The brain can modify information impinging on the animal by sending  
161 efferent signals to muscles that initiate motor actions to change the animal's engagement with its  
162 environment. These sensorimotor actions can lead to a new set of stimuli invoking the next train of  
163 afferent sensory signals sent to the brain [26].

164 Recent models of neural function suggest that rather than operating as a stimulus response  
165 network, the brain generates internal models that draw meaning from sensory input via comparison  
166 of actual sensory input with input that is anticipated via inference from prior experience [28-31]. In  
167 the manner of Bayesian inference, predictions based on prior experience are updated by current  
168 information arriving from the sensory world. The important advance this model of brain function,  
169 termed active inference, has made over the wide range of other theories of perception and brain  
170 function is to provide a mechanistic link between on the one hand closely mapped neuroanatomical  
171 pathways of connectivity and neurophysiological activity within the brain [32,33], and on the other  
172 hand the phenomena of behaviour, perception and physiological regulation. In the active inference  
173 model, the brain acts predictively to minimise the discrepancy between the actual afferent signals  
174 received from sensors and the anticipated signals expected from prior experience. Thus for the  
175 external world, motor actions provide the bridge between expectation and received information.  
176 Updating predictions by incorporating new information (the error signal received via sensory  
177 pathways) into the brain's model reduces the cost to the animal of reconciling the discrepancy  
178 between unanticipated sensory input and expected input that occurs through exercising ongoing  
179 rectifying actions [26,33-36]. The operating process underpinning this model is termed the free energy  
180 principle [26].

181 Perception generated through active inference is not an internal representation of an invariant  
182 external structure but a prediction of the sensory stimuli that will arrive in the immediate future  
183 coupled to motor actions. Actions initiated to generate anticipated sensory input emerge as a  
184 property of neurophysiological activity operating within a neural architecture. Meaning in sensory  
185 information arises from similarity with past experience [29]. Thus in the active inference model,  
186 perception creates meaning of the information contained in the external environment through the  
187 effort of actions undertaken to match sensory input with expectations based on prior experience.  
188 Indeed, the reduction of unpredictability (surprise) in the environment through the updating of  
189 expectations by Bayes-like inference constitutes the transfer of information from the environment to  
190 the organism. Thus agency arises from the accretion of environmental information within the  
191 organism.

#### 192 5. The internal environment

193 In addition to enabling the animal to engage with its external environment, a primary function  
194 of the brain is to maintain the internal environment of the animal in a physiological state conducive  
195 to surviving, thriving, and reproducing [28,37]. Sensory inputs from peripheral tissues relay  
196 information of fluctuations in physiological, vascular, metabolic, immune, neuroendocrine,  
197 autonomic and visceral functions to produce the sense termed interoception [27,38,39]. A growing

198 body of evidence from maps of neural pathways and measures of neural activity indicates that, as  
199 with exteroception and sensori-motor actions, the brain regulates the internal environment through  
200 predictive and anticipatory actions based on inference, which in this internal domain is termed  
201 interoceptive inference [28-30,33,35]. Elucidation of these central mechanisms of predictive,  
202 anticipatory regulation of the internal state of the body is in accord with over a century of empirical  
203 evidence of the role of predictive, anticipatory actions of the animal in maintaining its homeostasis  
204 [40-42]. In 1988, Sterling and Eyer [43] termed this historically well recognised pattern of predictive  
205 homeostatic regulation *allostasis*. Their term draws attention to the anticipatory character of  
206 homeostatic regulation [44] and thus is in strong accord with the concepts of active inference and  
207 interoceptive inference. In some recent usage, homeostasis is used to describe the reflex arcs  
208 regulating physiological variables while *allostasis* is used to describe the process of higher level  
209 modulation of reflex arcs [33].

210 Functional pathway analysis in neural tissue indicates that networks regulating physiological  
211 functions are not modular but rather are interdependent [35]. Neurological linkages between  
212 interoceptive pathways and brain centres influencing psychological phenomena including emotion,  
213 decision making, pain and memory [35] are in accord with empirical evidence of links between  
214 physiological status and psychological functions [45]. Kleckner et al. [35] conclude that "... *allostasis*  
215 and interoception are fundamental features of the nervous system. Anatomical, physiological, and  
216 signal processing evidence suggests that a brain did not evolve for rationality, happiness, or accurate  
217 perception; rather, all brains accomplish the same core task: to efficiently ensure resources for  
218 physiological systems within an animal's body (i.e., its internal milieu) so that an animal can grow,  
219 survive, thrive, and reproduce. That is, the brain evolved to regulate *allostasis*. All psychological  
220 functions performed in the service of growing, surviving, thriving, and reproducing (such as  
221 remembering, emoting, paying attention, deciding, etc.) require the efficient regulation of metabolic  
222 and other biological resources [emphasis in original]."

223 An important feature of this neurological process for managing resources within the internal  
224 environment of the animal is the influence of interoception on the affective state of the animal. JJ  
225 Gibson noted that affordances in the environment can be for "good or ill" [3]. The term *valence* is  
226 used to describe the attractiveness or aversiveness of characteristics in the environment as well as the  
227 hedonic experience associated with them. *Affect* describes the dynamic core psychological state of  
228 the animal in terms of arousal and valence [46]. Perceptions arising from exteroception and  
229 interoception influence core affect which in turn modulates all behavioural, psychological and  
230 physiological functions of the animal [46-48]. More specifically, it has been proposed that the  
231 concordance and discordance between the anticipated and predicted perceptions arising from  
232 interoception and exteroception of the internal and external environments generates the valence and  
233 arousal of affect [32,48] and a sense of wellness [38].

234 For regulation of the interior milieu of the animal by interoceptive inference, actions initiated by  
235 neural efferent signals such as eating, changing heart rate, changing respiration rate, and releasing  
236 glucose can lead to changes in the stimuli impinging on the interoceptors lying at the interface  
237 between the brain and extraneural tissues. These stimuli such as ion concentration, oxygen tension,  
238 glucose concentration, hormone concentration, and immune cytokines within the internal  
239 environment of the animal provide the bridge across extraneural tissue that links expected (efferent)  
240 and actual (afferent) stimuli reporting the physiological status of the animal.

## 241 5.1 Do entities in the internal environment provide opportunities for agency?

242 Interoceptors sense two broad classes of stimuli: 1) physiological stimuli such as pH,  
243 temperature, metabolites, oxygen tension, organ and vessel distension, and; 2) molecular integrity of  
244 tissues via the immune system. Evidence in support of the proposition that agency can be exerted  
245 over the first class of stimuli is seen in anticipatory regulation of the physiological status of the body  
246 linked to cues sensed by interoceptors and exteroceptors. In addition to the well-recognised  
247 anticipatory physiological responses linked through exteroceptors to external cues such as a sound  
248 seen in classical conditioning paradigms described by Pavlov [49] and others, a large body of research

249 has established the ability for interoceptive signals such as distension of the stomach to become  
250 predictive stimuli for interoceptive responses regulating physiology of the organism [39,40]. Thus  
251 physiological entities in the internal environment stimulating interoceptors can provide  
252 opportunities for actions that confer agency. Fotopoulou and Tsakiris [50] suggest that development  
253 of more accurate models of interoceptive inference during ontogeny in human infants accompanies  
254 development of the “felt self” as an entity engaging with the world. Furthermore, Stephan et al. [33]  
255 suggest that interoceptive perception of failure to regulate the internal environment diminishes self-  
256 efficacy.

257 In Fotopoulou and Tsakiris’s model, the development of control over physiological functions  
258 though motor actions on the external world contributes to the development of agency and awareness  
259 of self, in part through establishing awareness of a boundary between the body and the external  
260 world [50]. From this perspective, agency describes the animal’s ability to control its body in order  
261 to cause desired effects on both its external and internal environments [50]. Thus agency arises  
262 though actions initiated to modulate sensory inputs arising from exteroceptors or interoceptors.  
263 These actions reduce uncertainty through minimizing the error between prediction and actual  
264 sensation. In a similar manner, one can ask whether actions of the immune system confer agency on  
265 the animal.

266 There are at least four aspects to this question. Firstly, does sensory activity of the immune  
267 system provide information that contributes to the predictive control of behavioural and  
268 physiological actions? This question asks whether the immune system is a sensory organ enabling  
269 behavioural and physiological agency. Secondly, in a reciprocal manner, can non-immunological  
270 exteroceptor and interoceptor stimuli initiate immune actions? Thirdly, do activities of the immune  
271 system enable predictive control of the immune system’s engagement with the molecular entities it  
272 senses? This is the core concept of immune agency. And fourthly, does the immune system, like the  
273 brain, operate by the free energy principle through Bayes like inference? This is a question about the  
274 operating principle of the immune system.

275 The immune system of vertebrates recognizes short sequences and conformations of molecules  
276 through two sets of receptors: a germ line encoded set that bind predominantly with molecular  
277 structures common amongst microorganisms that provide innate immunity, and a second set of  
278 receptors that are generated by somatic hypermutation of a small number of genes and provide  
279 adaptive immunity. These receptors of the adaptive immune system recognize short sections of  
280 molecules (epitopes derived from antigens) bound to major histocompatibility complex proteins of  
281 the host. A vast network of messengers produced within the immune system regulates its activity  
282 [23]. In addition, the brain has extensive afferent and efferent innervation of the immune system as  
283 well as bi-directional hormone and cytokine communication via blood [51,52]

284 The first proposition is very well supported. Immune activation by a wide variety of immune  
285 stimuli induce sickness behaviours that modify foraging and rest [53], and also induce alteration of  
286 metabolic activities [54,55]. These effects are understood to be predictive in that they can be initiated  
287 early in a disease setting before infection is well advanced and before pathological processes have  
288 been initiated by the infectious agent.

289 Evidence in support of the second question comes from studies of associative learning between  
290 immune stimuli and behavioural and physiological responses. When functions of the immune system  
291 have been examined in classical conditioning paradigms they have been found to be able to be  
292 entrained by conditioned stimuli such as a sucrose syrup in rats [52,56]. In this setting, rather than an  
293 immune stimulus being required for activation of an immune response, a non-immunological  
294 stimulus like sucrose syrup becomes the initiating stimulus. Activities of the immune system such a  
295 production of antibodies, activation of T lymphocytes, release of cytokines, and initiation of fever can  
296 all be initiated in an anticipatory manner in response to non-immunological cues.

297 The third question, does the immune system exercise immune agency, is more problematic. Here  
298 I follow Tauber’s account of development of the concept of immune agency [57]. The concept grew  
299 out of Burnett’s clonal selection theory, which is predicted on the notion that new antigen receptors  
300 generated by somatic mutation must be negatively selected to avoid reactivity against the tissues of

301 the host as well as positively selected for affinity to foreign antigens. From this theory the concept  
302 emerged that the host has a fixed antigenic identity that is dictated by its genome and with which the  
303 immune system engages as defender and interrogator of that identity in a dualism that echoes the  
304 environment : genotype dualism of neo-Darwinism [57]. The growing realization that the vertebrate  
305 host is a holobiont comprised of a community of symbiotic organism that change during  
306 development of the host and over subsequent time periods [58] provides a conceptual challenge to  
307 the notion that the host animal possesses a unique immunological self. Recent studies on the transfer  
308 of proteins, RNA and DNA from environmental organisms into host cells and tissues via dietary  
309 exosomes [59] further erodes the concept that the host has a constant, bounded molecular identity.  
310 On this view, Tauber [57] and others have develop the concept that the immune system mediates a  
311 dialogue about molecular structures between the holobiont and its environment. It is interesting to  
312 note that Tauber's ecological concept of immune function (eco-immunology) has been influenced by  
313 JJ Gibson's ecological concept of affordances. On Tauber's view, the immune system does not respond  
314 in an on/off manner distinguishing molecular structures as self or non-self but responds to molecular  
315 structures in the context of disturbances to the resting state of the system. In language echoing  
316 Gibson's and Walsh's accounts of affordances, Tauber notes that "[i]n this mutualist setting, immune  
317 identity is dynamic and adjusts to the needs and opportunities offered by the environment" (p221).  
318 Thus the immune system does not operate to guard a defined immune self, rather "organismic  
319 identity emerges in dynamic encounters with the world (both within the body of the animal and  
320 beyond) in a world fraught with various friend and foe relationships" (p222). For Tauber, the function  
321 of the immune system as the mediator of a dialogue between the holobiont and molecular structures  
322 makes the question of agency (and immune self) redundant. One can take an alternative view  
323 however. Just as sensorimotor and visceromotor actions arising from active inference and  
324 interoceptive inference confer behavioural and physiological agency on the organism to manage  
325 engagement with its external and internal environments, we can characterise the actions of the  
326 immune system that arise from disturbances of immune perception as conferring agency on the  
327 holobiont to manage its dialogue with internal and external molecular structures in an active and  
328 predictive manner. Here immune agency is a character of the holobiont rather than the host.

329 The final question about the operating principle of the immune system is also problematic. Many  
330 models have been developed to describe the processes that provide the immune system with the  
331 ability to engage with molecular structures via responses that range on a spectrum from tolerance to  
332 rejection. A common metaphor describes the immune system as a cognitive entity that functions to  
333 reduce uncertainty in molecular signals of organismic integrity [23]. Thus the immune system is  
334 described with terms such as seeing antigens, deciding whether to respond, and recalling memory of  
335 past encounters. Cohen (and others) characterize the cognitive activities of the immune system in  
336 entropic terms [23]. In accord with Cohen's model, empirical evidence suggests that affinity  
337 maturation of the antibody specificity for antigens occurs via entropic principles [60]. In view of the  
338 power of the free energy model mentioned above to describe activity of that other cognitive system,  
339 the brain, it may be timely for a closer comparison of the entropic operating principles of the immune  
340 and neural systems. Indeed, in its general form, the free energy principle is a model of how biological  
341 systems maintain their state and form in the face of a changing environment and hence has intrinsic  
342 applicability to the immune system.

## 343 6. A relational spectrum between organism and environment

344 A commonality of the ecological models developed by von Uexküll, Gibson, Patten, Walsh,  
345 Cohen, Tauber and others is the mutualism of the relationship between the organism (holobiont) and  
346 its environment. An important question is whether mutualism adequately describes the spectrum of  
347 encounters the organism endures. That entities and events in the environment can be an impediment  
348 or threat to the organism is well recognized in these models, as is the concept that relationships range  
349 from embrace to rejection. Thus as mentioned above, Gibson notes that "[t]he affordances of the  
350 environment are what it offers the animal, what it provides or furnishes, either for good or ill", for  
351 Walsh affordances offer impediments or opportunities for fulfilment of goals and for Tauber the

352 world is fraught with friend or foe relationships. The opportunity for the organism to engage and act  
353 to maintain its integrity during these encounters is not uniform. In the absence of an ability to predict  
354 and control these encounters the organism becomes an object of an instrumental environment. Here  
355 we see the relationship in terms of the dualism of neo-Darwinism. On the other hand, when the  
356 encounter becomes an affordance that provides opportunities for action, the organism gains agency  
357 to influence its engagement with the environment. Outcomes of this engagement (Patten's  
358 effectances, and the environmental changes induced by the organism in niche construction theory)  
359 can themselves be to the benefit or detriment of other organisms. Thus mutualism between the  
360 organism and its environment may be an extreme case, with encounters varying over time along a  
361 spectrum from dualism to mutualism. Agency, then, emerges at the point along this spectrum where  
362 the information perceived by the organism gains meaning through the opportunity for action. It  
363 arises from the transfer of unpredictability (information) from the environment to the organism. In  
364 this formulation, agency is a process that can vary in degree and change over time.

365 In metaphysical terms, this account sees agency and the ability to garner meaning from  
366 environmental information as a process rather than a thing, substance or attribute of the organism.  
367 Here agency has a "process" ontology rather than a "thing" (or substance) ontology [61]. This  
368 formulation accords with much prior writing on the dynamics of the engagement of the organism  
369 and its environment, including Fotopoulou and Tsakiris's model described above of the emergence  
370 of the ability of the neonate to distinguish its bodily boundaries and gain agency to control its  
371 physiological state through maturation of sensorimotor and visceromotor actions [50].

372 In practical terms, this account highlights the opportunity to provide animals in our care with  
373 an environment that fosters their ability to learn the opportunity for actions that confer agency over  
374 events and circumstances they experience [62]. An example of creating a unique affordance for each  
375 individual that improves its affective state is the use of call feeders in group housed sows [63,64]. In  
376 this system, each sow learns a personal auditory cue that signals a period of uncontested access to a  
377 communal feeder [65]. We have seen above that affordances are not only subjective but can differ  
378 between individuals in a population. A further opportunity then in the breeding of farm animals is  
379 to select animals with an enhanced ability to garner information from their environment through  
380 learning, and to also design environments that complement these skills [66,67].

## 381 7. Limitations

382 This paper provides only a very brief introduction to a wide range of concepts. For detailed  
383 accounts the reader is referred in the first instance to the comprehensive reviews cited in the paper. I  
384 have not attempted to address any evolutionary implications of the various models of the organism  
385 environment relationship described above with the exception of situated Darwinism. The focus,  
386 rather is on the extant organism as it navigates the course of its encounters with its environment. I  
387 have not attempted to adhere to a single definition of agency in view of the diversity of meanings the  
388 word has in the literature. I attempt however in the course of this paper to progress through a variety  
389 of more general usages to a narrower conception of agency in the conclusions below.

## 390 8. Conclusions

391 The relationship of the organism and its environment has been a topic of longstanding  
392 philosophical and scientific enquiry. Von Uexküll's concept of *umwelt* suggested that the  
393 relationship is subjective and relative and that the surrounds in which organisms are immersed  
394 differed between species. Von Uexküll's insight commenced a conceptual shift from a dualism  
395 between environment and organism towards one of mutualism. Following the development of  
396 Information Theory, descriptions of the environment have increasingly been in terms of information,  
397 in addition to materials and energy. Gibson's concept of affordances continued von Uexküll's theme  
398 of subjectivity and mutuality, and has been highly influential in shaping ideas in ecological  
399 immunology as well as Walsh's thesis of situated Darwinism. The concept that affordances provide  
400 an opportunity for action links together environment as a source of information with agency as the



401 ability to control encounters between the organism and its surrounds. In short form, one can say that  
402 meaning emerges between information and an agent as opportunity for action.

403 The model of neural function termed the free energy principle provides a powerful descriptive  
404 account of the processes by which uncertainty (surprise) in sensory information received by  
405 exteroceptors and interoceptors is minimized through Bayes like inference. Through this process,  
406 sensorimotor and interoceptive actions are undertaken in order to reconcile discrepancies between  
407 prior expectations and actual sensory inputs. Active inference in sensorimotor actions is coupled with  
408 interceptive inference to provide predictive control of the animal's internal physiological  
409 environment. Activities of immune processes also confer ability on the animal to exhibit behavioural  
410 and physiological agency as well as confer immunological agency to the organism (as a holobiont) to  
411 manage its dialogue with molecular structures encountered in internal and external environments.  
412 The free energy principle is an entropic model of neural function that, at a high level of abstraction,  
413 bears strong similarities to Cohen's entropic model of immune cognition. A detailed reconciliation of  
414 these models may be propitious.

415 From analysis of these various viewpoints of the animal environment relationship it is suggested  
416 that for each organism a spectrum of encounters occurs between those with the character of a dualism  
417 wherein the environment is instrumental in influencing the organism, to those with the character of  
418 a mutualism wherein the organism and its surrounds comprise, in von Uexküll's term, a function  
419 circle. It is suggested that agency, as a process, emerges at that point on the spectrum where the  
420 balance of instrumentality shifts from the environment to the organism. Further progress along the  
421 spectrum towards mutualism represents a more felicitous interdependency between organism and  
422 environment. Nonetheless, the circumstances of existence remain in constant flux, thus encounters  
423 dynamically vary in their position along this spectrum. Actions of the organism create information  
424 that can be affordances, for good or ill, for other entities in the environment.

425 Within the framework of information theory, acquisition of agency is an entropic process that  
426 occurs through internalisation of unpredictability (surprise) from the environment into the animal.  
427 Emergence of a felicitous interdependent "function circle" between organism and environment is less  
428 probably again than organism as agent, and hence contains more entropy than an environment  
429 organism dualism.

430 If there is value in analysis of the organism environment relationship at this level of abstraction,  
431 it may lie in the understanding it provides of the integration within the animal of behavioural,  
432 physiological and immune functionalities, and the opportunities that flow from this understanding  
433 to better manage animals within our care.

434

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