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	Division	Alfred Deakin Institute for Citizenship and Globalization	
	Organization	Deakin University	
	Address	Melbourne, VIC, Australia	
	Phone		
	Fax		
	Email	Maurizio.meloni@deakin.edu.au	
	URL		
	ORCID	http://orcid.org/0000-0003-2570-3872	
Author	Family Name	Reynolds	
	Particle		
	Given Name	Jack	
	Suffix		
	Division	Faculty of Arts and Education	
	Organization	Deakin University	
	Address	221 Burwood Highway, Burwood, VIC, 3125, Australia	
	Phone		
	Fax		
	Email		
	URL		
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mind and life, rather than the extended functionalist view of embodied cognition associated with Andy Clark and Mike Wheeler, which is more substrate neutral.

Keywords (separated by '-') Enactivism - Embodied cognition - Epigenetics - Plasticity - Postgenomics - Memory

Footnote Information



Thinking embodiment *with* genetics: epigenetics and postgenomic biology in embodied cognition and enactivism

Maurizio Meloni¹ · Jack Reynolds²

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Abstract

The role of the body in cognition is acknowledged across a variety of disciplines, 2 even if the precise nature and scope of that contribution remain contentious. As a 3 result, most philosophers working on embodiment-e.g. those in embodied cogni-4 tion, enactivism, and '4e' cognition-interact with the life sciences as part of their 5 interdisciplinary agenda. Despite this, a detailed engagement with recent findings 6 in epigenetics and post-genomic biology has been missing from proponents of this 7 embodied turn. Surveying this research provides an opportunity to rethink the rela-8 tionship between embodiment and genetics, and we argue that the balance of current 9 epigenetic research favours the extension of an enactivist approach to mind and life, 10 rather than the extended functionalist view of embodied cognition associated with 11 Andy Clark and Mike Wheeler, which is more substrate neutral. 12

¹³ Keywords Enactivism · Embodied cognition · Epigenetics · Plasticity ·

14 Postgenomics · Memory

The role of the body in cognition is acknowledged across a variety of disciplines, even if the precise nature and scope of that contribution remains contentious. As a result, most contemporary philosophers working on embodiment—e.g. those in embodied cognition, enactivism, and '4e' cognition—interact with the life sciences as part of their interdisciplinary agenda. Despite this, a detailed engagement with *recent* findings in epigenetics and post-genomic biology has been missing from proponents of this embodied turn. Surveying this research provides an opportunity to rethink the

Maurizio Meloni Maurizio.meloni@deakin.edu.au

¹ Alfred Deakin Institute for Citizenship and Globalization, Deakin University, Melbourne, VIC, Australia

² Faculty of Arts and Education, Deakin University, 221 Burwood Highway, Burwood, VIC 3125, Australia

relationship between embodiment and genetics. We argue that the balance of current
epigenetic research favours an extension of the enactivist approach to mind and life, and
a stronger integration of biology and cognition, rather than the extended functionalist
view of embodied cognition associated with Andy Clark and Mike Wheeler, which is
more substrate neutral.

Some preliminary remarks and definitions will help to set the scene for this argu-27 ment. If cognition is held to be embodied in the whole organism rather than being 28 fundamentally in the brain—as well as being extended into the physical, social, and 29 cultural environment-then a biological account of this structural coupling at the cel-30 lular and neuronal level appears important to any such argument. At the very least, 31 the rethinking of the orthodoxy concerning mind and cognition in "embodied mind" 32 and "4e" approaches has obvious parallels to the way in which developmental sys-33 tems theory, niche-construction, and 'evo-devo' have challenged the over-simplistic 34 genecentrism of neo-Darwinism, as has been recognised (Thompson 2007). Rather 35 than looking at development as the trivial activation of an internal (genetic) program, 36 and evolution as the dualistic partition of genetic and environmental causes, these 37 frameworks have highlighted the contingent and open-ended nature of ontogeny, the 38 multiplicity and multidirectionality of biological information (bringing together eco-39 logical, cellular and genetic resources), the inclusive nature of inheritance, and the 40 significance of the organism's activity in constructing its own environment (Oyama 41 et al. 2001; Odling-Smee et al. 2003). An overarching framework, the so-called 42 extended evolutionary synthesis, has been recently proposed to accommodate these 43 conceptual changes in development and evolution (Laland et al. 2015). In a con-44 verging way, since the late 1990s philosophers of science like Godfrey-Smith have 45 emphasized the importance of phenotypic plasticity to explain how the organisms' 46 features, including cognition, can adaptively cope with mutating environments: cog-47 nition as an intelligent tracking of environments (1998, 2017). Given their focus on the 48 situatedness and embeddedness of knowledge-generating mechanisms (Lyon 2017), 49 proponents of both embodied cognition and enactivism have drawn on these frame-50 works, but much of the 'parallelism' has been on the critical or negative side of the 51 story, elaborating for instance how the mind or genes don't work (Moss 2003). The 52 positive side has remained more speculative, possibly because empirical research on 53 the mechanisms, functions, and molecular pathways that could vindicate these claims 54 was still nascent. It is hence arguable that claims regarding the greater biological 55 robustness of embodied cognition and enactivism remain at least somewhat promis-56 sory, and in need of updating, notwithstanding the pioneering writings by Francisco 57 Varela, and further insightful work by Keijzer (2001), Lyon (2006), Thompson (2007), 58 Sheets-Johnstone (2011), and Di Paolo (2018), who have all emphasised the biological 59 nature of cognition. 60

In this article, we consider what the expansion of study in molecular epigenetics over the last 15 years can bring to some recent debates in embodied cognition. Epigenetics and microbiomics are the two fastest expanding disciplines in *postgenomics* (a concept we shall define later), but while recent attempts have been made to consider the significance of bacteria and other microbes to expand philosophical frameworks like the environmental complexity thesis (Lyon 2017), the potential convergences between epigenetics and phenomenology of mind and cognition remain under-investigated.

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Coined by British developmental biologist Conrad H. Waddington in the 1940s as a 68 neologism to bring together *epigenesis* and *genetics* (Van Speybroeck 2002), epigenet-69 ics is today defined as the branch of molecular biology that investigates changes to the 70 chemical structure of DNA (chromatin) triggered by, and in response to, wider envi-71 ronmental influences.¹ That a wider regulatory architecture, rather than just the DNA 72 sequence, is required by evolution to generate phenotypic changes is evidenced by 73 well-known examples where genetically identical organisms, for instance honeybees 74 (apis mellifera), produce different adult phenotypes (sterile worker or fertile queen) by 75 following different feeding regimens with only queen larvae fed royal jelly through-76 out development (Kucharski et al. 2008). The importance of the wider environmental 77 niche in modulating gene expression is further evidenced by experimental work in epi-78 genetics.² While similar effects in humans can be only tracked indirectly and caution 79 about generalization is recommended (Heard and Martienssen 2014), there is now a 80 growing body of epidemiological studies that has shown long-term epigenetic effects 81 of nutritional shocks (famine, war) on metabolic and cardiovascular responses up to 82 the second generation after the exposure (Painter et al. 2008). 83

Importantly, recent findings also suggest that alteration in epigenetic marks are 84 involved in neurodevelopmental disorders of cognition (Gabriele et al. 2018) and that 85 normal epigenetic functioning subserves a number of phenomena, including associa-86 tive learning, memory formation and stabilization, responsivity to stress and affective 87 episodes, and forms of social cognition associated with mirror neurons (Fagiolini et al. 88 2009; Day and Sweatt 2011; Ferrari et al. 2013; Post 2016; Ginsburg and Jablonka 89 2018). We will address some of these studies in what follows, but for now a sim-90 ple observation will suffice. Many of these same phenomena are important platforms 91 for embodied approaches to the mind,³ yet arguments about the nature and scope of 92 embodied cognition proceed without due attention to these details, with epigenetics 93 either not considered or given only fleeting reference.⁴ But both the general arguments 94 against genocentrism, as well as arguments about the causal role of the body and any 95

¹ While Waddington coined the noun epigenetics in the 1940 s, *epigenetic* as the adjectival form of *epigenesis* has been used since the seventeenth century to describe development as a process of increasing complexity in opposition to preformationism.

 $^{^2}$ Feeding a pregnant agouti mouse on a low-methyl diet causes enhanced expression of the promoter of the agouti gene. As a result, offspring are no longer slim and brown but fat, prone to diabetes and yellow (Waterland and Jirtle 2003). Another suggestive area of research regards poor grooming behaviour in dams, and how this affects neurological development in pups by altering patterns of brain development. When adult, low-licked pups reproduce the inducing behaviour and thus transmit the effects of the neglect to the next generation. Given that cross-fostering pups to high licking foster dams stops this effect, this pattern of transmission is considered at least partly independent of genetic factors (Lutz and Turecki 2014).

³ For example, it is usually maintained that episodic memory and action are facilitated by bodily position and modulated through affect, and mirror neurons are central to enactivist claims regarding our capacity to directly perceive the intentional states of others, whether in regard to another person's intentionally grasping an object (e.g. a door to open, or a ball to throw) or in interacting with facial expressions of anger, fear, and disgust (Gallagher 2005).

⁴ There is no reference to epigenetics in Gallagher's *Enactivist Interventions* (2017), despite a chapter on the evolutionary aspects of the body. Menary states that his 4e "cognitive integration" theory is "fully committed to the extended synthesis…, which introduces the importance of extra-genetic channels of inheritance, including ecological inheritance, epigenetic inheritance, and the role of a developmental niche in assembling phenotypic traits" (Menary 2018, p. 201). Di Paolo's chapter on life in the same handbook goes into a little more detail (2018), and there is a brief discussion in Fuchs' recent book (2018, p. 141), which views the

particular biology to cognition, would benefit from a detailed treatment of epigenet-96 ics to better understand the scaffolding of corporeal responsiveness to environmental 97 triggers and cues. It is not enough to say that the mind is embodied: we need also to be 98 able to say how (Gallagher 2005, p. 1, citing Gerald Edelman). As well as encourag-99 ing philosophers to think of the relationship with biology and naturalization in a more 100 dynamic and generous way, a positive focus on how *postgenomic* biology is actually 101 taking shape is also helpful in drawing attention to some unanticipated (and unpleas-102 ant) consequences of extended views of heredity and permeable notions of genomic 103 functioning (Bonduriansky and Day 2019). There are increasing worries concerning 104 somatic and environmental determinism, a different but no less pernicious form of 105 'strong instructionism' coming from environmental or bodily exposures rather than 106 DNA, which is, according to some (e.g. Shapiro 2012), a potential problem for views 107 that emphasise how the body shapes the mind (Gallagher 2005; Noë 2004). Attitudes 108 towards this problem also appear to divide more extended functionalist approaches to 109 embodied cognition (like that of Wheeler and Clark 2008) from some more enactivist 110 construals (i.e. Thompson 2007), especially "autopoietic" enactivism, which is com-111 mitted to some form of life-mind continuity thesis and the relevance of biology at all 112 levels to cognition. While the conversation has moved away from the stale opposi-113 tion of the biology-versus-culture construction of Neo-Darwinism's heyday, important 114 problems remain regarding the extent to which experiences of memory, learning, and 115 cognition are fully permeated by the details of our biological embodiment, as we will 116 see in Sects. 3 and 4. 117

118 1 Embodied Cognition and Enactivism

In some usage, "embodied cognition" is the broader or umbrella term within which 119 versions of enactivism (of which there are at least three) are situated. On that view, the 120 relationship between embodied cognition and enactivism is something like the distinc-121 tion between genus and species. Without wanting to reject that picture, in this paper 122 we will generally use the term "embodied cognition" in a more restricted fashion, 123 referring to views for which the body is treated as an important part of a "larger mech-124 anism" story about cognition, rather than as making any sort of "special contribution" 125 (Clark 2008a, b). Clark and Wheeler serve as the main representatives of this view, in 126 what follows. Embodied cognition thus refers to views wherein cognition is multiply 127 realisable and any particular biological flesh is not envisaged as playing a special or 128 constitutive role. Given their roots in cognitive science, they conceive of cognition as 129 first and foremost information-processing models of the mind, and they usually do 130 not outright reject representational and computational approaches, but rather seek to 131 expand and complicate them. By contrast, in our use "enactivism" refers to views that 132 are stronger in the claims they make about the connection between embodiment and 133 cognition: in short, particular bodies matter essentially or constitutively for cognition. 134 As a result, the biological sciences play a stronger constraining role, albeit comple-135

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Footnote 4 continued

brain as a mediating and resonance organ. In general, however, these claims are programmatic in nature, without providing details.

mented by philosophies of nature. Enactivism hence refers predominantly to what is
called autopoietic enactivism, and philosophers like Varela and Thompson, more so
than to sensori-motor enactivism (e.g. Degenaar and O'Regan 2015; Noë 2004 and
others) or radical enactivism (e.g. Hutto and Myin 2013), although we expect that
other versions of enactivism will be able to find common cause with at least some of
our arguments.⁵

Given this focus, it is appropriate to introduce enactivism through one of the more 142 important books for the effort to rethink embodiment in a biologically plausible 143 fashion: Varela, Thompson, and Rosch's The Embodied Mind. They drew on phe-144 nomenology in offering an account of the embodied mind in nature, albeit with the 145 life sciences central to their effort, and with Varela (a biologist by training) advocat-146 ing the idea of 'mutual constraint' between the biological sciences and philosophical 147 treatments of the mind and cognition (Varela 1996). The Embodied Mind outlined a 148 radical view of embodiment that was criticized by many for seeking to 'upset the apple 149 cart' and advocating revolution in the relevant mind sciences rather than reform (Den-150 nett 1993). Varela, Thompson and Rosch's contestation of representationalist views of 151 the mind drew on cellular biology and molecular genetics, and in Thompson's (2007, 152 p. 179) subsequent book, Mind in Life, this was extended to address the possibility of 153 a more generous view of genomics not just as naked DNA. A key idea is that mind (as 154 with cellular life in general) is essentially self-organizing and actively generates mean-155 ing, and there is a continuum between mind and life, with cognition grounded in the 156 bio-dynamics of living systems. While autopoietic versions of enactivism have given 157 more attention to biology than to other major forms of enactivism (i.e. 'sensorimotor' 158 and 'radical'), even here references to epigenetics are primarily deployed as a way to 159 expand inheritance systems rather than, as we argue, a way to think of embodiment 160 at a deeper level as the entanglement of meaning and flesh through which corporeal 161 sensitivity and responsiveness to the world is enabled. If we are taking embodiment 162 seriously, 'the morphological, biological, and physiological details of an agent's body' 163 (Newen et al. 2018, p. 5) matter for this debate. 164

Consider for instance standard examples of embodied cognition, which include 165 the Tetris player's fast and timely response to slot their pieces into an 'empty' space 166 apparently without the time to think or represent them, or the sports-player's real-time 167 and dynamic responses to openings and opportunities on their playing field. The sort 168 of online coping with an environment in which our body adjusts or comports itself 169 at a motoric and pre-reflective level looks intelligent and cognitive, but without any 170 reflective 'thinking' or obvious meta-cognition. In such cases, cognition seems to not 171 be just in the head but 'leak' into the world, as Clark says (2008a), such that there 172 is 'knowledge in the hands' when we play the piano, as Merleau-Ponty (2012) had 173 earlier argued. 174

These examples of online coping are generally positively framed in this literature, as facilitating agency and fluid action. But our coping with the environment is not always optimal, and our capacity to cope (or not) is variable across individuals,

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⁵ Hutto et al. argue that: "it would be hard to deny that cognitive processes depend on particular materials despite exhibiting varying degrees of substrate-neutrality. What is not established is that cognitive processes are maximally substrate-neutral such that it is possible to re-create all their relevant causal patterns in alternative media" (2018).

for both biological and sociological reasons. The particular types of bodies we have, 178 and their unique history of behavioural interactions with a given milieu and capacity 179 of being affected by things, have an impact on coping and cognition. This is where 180 a wider appreciation of epigenetics matters for both embodied cognition and enac-181 tivism. As the alterable mediators that enable the active coupling between organism 182 and environment over the lifespan (Fagiolini et al. 2009; Pinel et al. 2018), epige-183 netic marks constitute an opportunity to re-conceptualize the 'fleshed' background of 184 the organism's agency, particularly what stands pre-reflectively and non-thematically 185 before cognition, orientating our body in the world (Frost 2020). There is not just 186 'body and world' in cognition, but 'bodies and worlds', with each organism marked 187 by distinctive biological and physiological sediments embedded in an unrepeatable 188 history of interaction with the environment. Epigenetic mechanisms help to reveal 189 the fundamental stratification and fine-grained scaffolding of embodied subjectivity, 190 mostly at the level of what phenomenologists have called a 'passive synthesis'. This 191 is the temporalized and pre-conscious experience of corporeal and affective givenness 192 and horizonality upon which the lived experience of agency and cognition rests. In 103 so doing, a phenomenological reading of epigenetics challenges the topography of 194 'body and world' at a second level, not only by pluralizing bodies and worlds, but 195 by showing how organismic and worldly structures are dynamically and inextricably 196 coupled (Frost 2020). While some have argued that autopoietic enactivism has a risk of 197 'idealism', in insulating the agential capacity of the organism from its environmental 108 embedding (De Jesus 2016), or favouring a certain asymmetry of the inside over the 199 outside (Oyama 2011), proper attention to epigenetics stands as a corrective to this 200 tendency. This resonates with some famous remarks from Merleau-Ponty regarding 201 the intertwining between body and world (Meacham and Papageorgiou 2007), which 202 he also explicates in relation to Uexküll, Waddington, and an earlier understanding of 203 epigenetic biology in his Nature course notes (Merleau-Ponty 2003). 204

This epigenetic background enables and constrains how learning and socialisation 205 happens. Previous experiences exert an affective pull (or push, if negative) towards pro-206 ducing a certain set of characteristics or consequences. The similarity between present 207 affective pulls/pushes and similar previously experienced affective pulls/pushes, tends 208 to produce characteristics in the present similar to those experienced in the past, and 209 so on. The result of this concordance is what we commonly refer to as a tendency. 210 However, in the embodied cognition literature that is indebted to J. J. Gibson's eco-211 logical psychology, it is referred to as an affordance presented to an organism with an 212 affective valence, and soliciting a response. 213

Affordances depend on our socio-cultural history. They also stem from basic bio-214 logical facts (e.g., that our hand can readily grip this mug does not depend on a 215 particular culture), but these facts are themselves shaped by behaviour, environment, 216 and their consequences for epigenetic molecular neurology: i.e. whether an object or 217 action is perceived as enticing or frightening due to deficient regulation of acute stress 218 responses, for example, as with studies concerning rats (Liu et al. 1997). Epigenetic 219 factors are also likely to play a role in human reflections on potential future actions, 220 or episodic memory of previous actions. In the next section, we hence review some 221 of the key findings about epigenetics and their conceptual challenges for ideas of 222 embodiment. We then consider a case study regarding the relevance of recent epige-223

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netic research on memory and learning for embodied cognition (Sect. 3), and turn to
a debate of both physical and metaphysical implications that divides proponents of
embodied cognition and enactivism (Sect. 4).

²²⁷ 2 Postgenomic and Epigenetics: toward an enactive genome⁶

'Postgenomic' is often used in a merely chronological sense to highlight all research 228 following the completion of the Human Genome Project in 2003 or as an umbrella 229 term for the expansion of genomic research into the functional space between DNA 230 sequences and proteins (Richardson and Stevens 2015). However, building on a num-231 ber of recent conceptualizations (Stotz 2008; Charney 2012; Meloni 2016), we use the 232 term here in a radical sense to imply that biology has entered a 'post-normal' phase 233 (Ravetz 2009). In this phase, a number of unforeseen complexities about genome func-234 tioning, have led to the current conceptualization of genes as fundamentally driven 235 by environmental cues and part of a broader regulative architecture at the cellular and 236 organismic level (West-Eberhard 2003; Griffiths and Stotz 2013; Keller 2014). 237

We summarize here the postgenomic reconceptualization of genome functioning 238 along three axes: (a) spatialization, (b) temporalization, and (c) a rediscovery of the 239 *material scaffolding* of the genome. Following these three directions, we argue that, 240 compared with the formerly sequestered unit of heredity of the Neo-Darwinian syn-241 thesis, the postgenomic genome appears as 'an exquisitely sensitive' or 'responsive' 242 mechanism (Keller 2014; Jablonka 2013), while the environment has moved from 243 the role of passive background to being seen as 'instructive' that is, an inducer and 244 generator of phenotypes (West-Eberhard 2003). 245

By *spatialization* we mean that in postgenomics, the direction of research has 246 moved away from the naked DNA to a broader consideration of the overall regu-247 latory network of the genome, a rediscovery of complexity that is a vindication of 248 classical holistic and anti-reductionist tropes (Moore 2015). This wider architecture 249 includes many epigenetic mechanisms that often interactively organize the regulation 250 of gene expression: DNA methylation, modification of histone proteins, non-coding 251 RNAs (ncRNAs), X chromosome inactivation, genetic imprinting, and nucleosome 252 positioning (Richards 2006; Portela and Esteller 2010). DNA methylation, the most-253 studied epigenetic mutation, refers to the addition of a methyl group to a DNA base 254 that inhibits gene transcription. Methylation and other epigenetic mechanisms of this 255 extended regulatory network of DNA are involved in responding to environmental sig-256 nals, which can originate in the cellular environment around the DNA or more broadly 257 in the organism's developmental niche, including different environmental exposure 258 and nutritional inputs. This shift in focus overturns the linear logic of biological infor-259 mation from DNA to the organism and looks instead at the wider distributed network 260 within, between, and beyond the cell throughout which biological information is pro-261 duced (Stotz 2006, p. 914; Griffiths and Stotz 2013; Rheinberger and Müller-Wille 262 2017; Stallins et al. 2018). 263

⁶ This section expands and updates on previously published work by one of us (Meloni 2016, 2019).

By *temporalization* we mean that genomes and their wider epigenetic architecture 264 are no longer 'understood as the same in every cell of the body for all of that body's 265 life' (Lappé and Landecker 2015), but instead as changing across the lifespan and 266 in different tissues of the body in response to a number of organismic inputs and 267 environmental exposures. The view of a timeless and sequestered genetic blueprint 268 set once for all at the beginning of life is replaced with one that is dynamically changing 269 in critical period of developments (in utero, early life, adolescence, pregnancy, aging) 270 (ibid.). 271

While examples of substantial epigenetic programming in prenatal and early 272 post-natal periods as a consequence of exposures to stress or malnutrition are very 273 well-known and increasingly central in Developmental Origins of Health and Disease 274 (DOHaD), adolescence has been gaining a growing recognition as a key age for the 275 heightened impact of epigenetic patterning on brain maturation (Mychasiuk and Metz 276 2016). Aging is also increasingly understood as producing changes in epigenetic pat-277 terns, mostly genome-wide demethylation, which significantly impact on the control 278 of gene expression (Bollati et al. 2009; Pal and Tyler 2016). 270

The third characteristics of postgenomics is the *rediscovery of the materiality* of the 280 genome. In the mainstream literature, epigenetics is usually defined in the negative 281 as 'heritability without DNA', that is, 'the study of changes in gene function (...) 282 that do not entail a change in the sequence of DNA' (Armstrong 2014, our italics). 283 This standard use of a *negative* definition indicates, in our view, an incapacity of the 284 present scientific language to fully capture what is at stake with a shift in focus from 285 DNA sequence to its wider ecological embedding. We believe that a more positive 286 understanding of epigenetics is only possible by eschewing the centrality of DNA 287 and the informational language in which the DNA map, code or blueprint has been 288 constructed since 1950s (Kay 2000). Rather than thinking of epigenetics as the 'fifth 289 letter' of an otherwise linear genetic code, it is possible to look at epigenetics as the 290 ongoing remodeling of chromatin-the 'highly dynamic' complex of nucleic acid 291 and proteins into which DNA strings are tightly folded (Dekker et al. 2013; Atlasi and 292 Stunnenberg 2016). A tension between an informational (and hence disembodied) and 293 a chemical or material conception of the gene has always been part of the long history 294 of genetic research (Griffiths and Neumann-Held 1999; Bourrat 2019, p. 14) but this 295 friction may have reached an interesting tipping point. As historian Barry Barnes and 296 philosopher John Dupré (2008, p. 105) write: 297

The dominant view of genomes is that they are objects made of DNA. But the actual material objects we encounter in the cell nucleus are made of chromatin, not DNA. In chromatin, DNA exists in association with various other substances including small RNA molecules and proteins, and in particularly close association with the histone proteins that provide something like a spool around which the DNA strands are coiled, and which thus facilitate the packing of DNA into the restricted space available in the cell nucleus.

Chromatin research largely precedes postgenomics but has currently found a true rebirth through epigenetics (Deichmann 2015). Given that DNA is structurally and topologically constrained by chromatin architecture (*spatialization*) and this architecture is constantly remodelled at a critical time of cellular development (*tempor*-

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alization), it is feasible to suggest that it is through these shifts in chromatin architecture 309 that biological meaning is produced (Tark-Dame et al. 2011; Cortini et al. 2016). Chro-310 matin strands give the genome a body that can be transcriptionally 'open,' and thus 311 potentially expressed, or 'closed,' and thus silenced by wider cellular and extra-cellular 312 signals. The flexible rearrangement of chromatin structures enables the dynamic inter-313 play between gene functions and the environment, and, more broadly, organism and 314 milieu over the lifespan. Remarkably, and unlike DNA sequence, chromatin conden-315 sation is not an on/off phenomenon, but something that allows a range of different 316 states to be implemented as a consequence (also) of subtle cellular and environmen-317 tal influences. It is this analogical sensitivity of chromatin states (rather than digital 318 replication of information, as in DNA) that makes this macromolecule a likely candi-319 date for the genomic embodiment and registering of the physical imprints of dynamic 320 environmental and developmental cues that result in stable cellular and phenotypic 321 changes (Margueron and Reinberg 2010, p. 285). Here also the analogy with debates 322 in situated and embodied cognition is persuasive: it is the reliance on the external scaf-323 folding of the DNA sequence that enables the genetic program to acquire biological 324 significance (Griffiths and Stotz 2000). Chromatin may be seen as the first material 325 scaffolding of naked DNA and a flexible mediator that enables communication with 326 the wider network of genomic functioning, that is, its ecological embedding within, 327 among, and outside the cell up to the whole organism (Meloni 2018). 328

Spatialization, temporalization and a full rediscovery of the material and mor-329 phological density of the genome are crucial to the discontinuity between genomics 330 and postgenomics. It is this difference that constitutes a significant opportunity to 331 re-conceptualize embodiment in a way that includes rather than rejects genetics fac-332 tors. The importance of this move for philosophers cannot be overestimated. Under 333 a strictly genetic view of life, the body was turned into a biophysical abstraction 334 or just an empty vessel for replication of the immortal germplasm (Gudding 1996). 335 Both Mendelian and molecular genetics have proposed a stratigraphic model in which 336 biological subunits (genes) were deemed to control superficial traits. This has led to 337 considering the body not only as a dependent entity but often a superfluous one, cre-338 ating a gap between research in genetics and ideas of embodiment. Relegated to the 339 passive end of the genetic chain of information, this biological fragility of the body 340 was obviously far from appealing to philosophers looking for biological correlatives 341 of ideas of embodiment. In bridging the gulf between genotype and phenotype (Hall-342 grímsson and Hall 2011), epigenetics considers environmental and somatic cues as key 343 to genomic expression. The bodily level is again made central and given an (en)active 344 role, as the lived phenomenology (food we consume, stress and other experiences we 345 undergo, etc.) is no longer irrelevant to genetic functioning, but a causal source of 346 gene regulation and expression that makes every biological process socially patterned 347 (Landecker and Panofsky 2013). With epigenetics also emerges the possibility of a 348 scientific-friendly phenomenology, in which philosophy can risk a genuine engage-349 ment with genetics. Genetic information is no longer contained in the inert nucleotide 350 sequence, but is driven by changes in the wider architecture of DNA that reflect the 351 dynamic engagement between bodies and their unique cellular and extra-cellular sur-352 roundings. Bodies are sensitive to the point that even their supposed irreducible kernel 353 of identity, DNA, is constantly reshaped in its functional expression by a multitude of 354

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environmental triggers. There is something akin *to a phenomenologization of the once timeless and static DNA*. Previously abstracted and neatly separated from its *Umwelt*,
DNA is now an extended-DNA, as well as a DNA-in-time and in-place, oriented toward and inseparable from the pulls and pushes of its ecological embedding (via its regulative factors, methylation, acetylation, histone modifications, and non-coding RNA transcription).

This brings to light the anticipated attention of each organism to its pre-history 361 that orient bodies to higher or lower sensitivity to certain experiences (Frost 2020). 362 Biological sense-making is not the unfolding of a pre-existing and independent pro-363 gram but an emergent property resulting from the enactment of bodies and world on 364 the basis of the situated and biologically guided history of each organism (their being 365 *plugged-in* with Noë), which in turn transforms the organism's milieu into a place of 366 special epigenetic salience (expanding on Thompson and Stapleton 2009). Epigenetic 367 studies are increasingly showing environmental triggers frame, at a lower mechanis-368 tic level, an ongoing responsiveness to early life or possible intergenerational events. 369 This 'directionality' and discerning capacity of the perceiving body (Merleau-Ponty 370 2012; Todes 2001; Hoel and Carusi 2017; Frost 2020) is evidenced by an emerging 371 body of scholarship that shows how epigenetic changes not only mediate early-life 372 experiences into long-term gene changes but also, in a few cases, into behavioural 373 changes in later generations (reviewed in Moore 2015; Meloni 2016, 2019). The 374 body is always embedded in developmental trajectories (Jablonka 2017), sensitized 375 at each moment by a number of biological memories acquired at critical windows of 376 development, and hence always 'experience-expectant'. These accumulated biolog-377 ical memories in an individual's own upbringing enrich phenomenological notions 378 regarding the body-schema (Merleau-Ponty 2012), along with the idea of prenoetic 379 constraints on perceptual experience 'as a form of world-involving intentionality that 380 modulates (minimally) bodily behaviour without necessarily possessing informational 38 value of any kind' (Bower and Gallagher 2013). They appear to play an important and 382 non-linear role in the modification of gene expression, where even small changes in 383 epigenetic patterns may impact significantly on physiological and neurodevelopmen-384 tal outcomes. Biological plasticity is a complex phenomenon in which the current state 385 of the system is always 'guided', dependent on its accumulated history (Steffen and 386 Ringrose 2014). 387

Epigenetics is a placeholder for this emerging plasticity. While it also opens obvious bridges to alternative views of inherent excitability, agency and meaning in biological flesh (Riskin 2016; Frost 2020), in the section that follows we look at the potential engagement with some of these ideas on themes acknowledged to be vital to the '4e' (embodied, embedded, enactive, and extended) case—memory and learning. We then consider in Sect. 4 a 'divide' between proponents of embodied cognition and enactivism concerning the ultimate significance of embodied responsiveness.

395 3 Memory and learning: an epigenetic revisitation

We have argued that epigenetics is significant for many phenomena of interest to proponents of both embodied cognition and enactivism, and we have outlined some of the

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conceptual revisions it heralds. Thus far, however, we have made the case at a general 398 level. It is useful to consider a more concrete case study—memory and learning—to 399 show how epigenetic research ramifies on the debates we have introduced, which have 400 both a metaphysical and a physical-scientific dimension. Memory and learning are 401 significant aspects of cognition, arguably indispensable for all animals who possess 402 associative learning capabilities (Piersma and van Gils 2011). Animals with associa-403 tive learning capabilities can adapt to a changing environment because they possess 404 some kind of memory (perhaps procedural rather than episodic)⁷ of previous rewards 405 and punishments, previous traumas and hunger, with key events and any associated 406 learning 'in the wild' likely to be primarily oriented around evolutionary biology's 407 famous 4Fs: fighting, fleeing, feeding and fornicating. This capability is subtended by 408 various factors. In particular, epigenetic mechanisms are crucially involved, specif-409 ically by consolidating previous experiences intro traces or engrams, with exactly 410 how this works a focus of ongoing research (see Kim and Kaang 2017; Williams and 411 Kyrke-Smith 2018; Bédécarrats et al. 2018). 412

And, of course, memory and wider learning processes are vital to all debates on epi-413 genetics. Epigenetics was traditionally conceived by Waddington as a form of cellular 414 memory that allows the cell after division to maintain and transmit a stable pheno-415 type to daughter cells (Jablonka and Lamb 2014). Epigenetic mechanisms, whether 416 methylation, acetylation or chromatin rearrangement, are also often rendered through 417 the image of a cellular memory (Jeppesen 1997; Nicol-Benoit et al. 2013; Kim and 418 Costello 2016). In animal studies, some of the most-cited epigenetic research focuses 419 on the transmission of memories (olfactory, traumatic) across generations, for instance 420 in rats (Dias and Ressler 2014; Gapp et al. 2014; Kim and Kaang 2017). At a lower 421 mechanistic level, an increasing number of studies are expanding on Kandel and col-422 leagues' seminal work on the importance of chromatin structure alteration (which 423 today we would call epigenetic regulation) for memory storage and enabling long-424 term-memory-related synaptic plasticity (Guan et al. 2002). While Kandel's article 425 cautiously raised the problem of whether it was the whole cell or some compartmen-426 talized gene product that stores memory, and highlighted the importance of looking at 427 a bi-directional regulation of plasticity, other contemporary research (in both Aplysia 428 and *C.elegans*) has been less sophisticated, claiming that a simple epigenetic factor 429 (for instance RNA rather than DNA) 'contains' memory and hence, memories can be 430 transferred from trained to untrained animals by just transferring RNA (Bédécarrats 431 et al. 2018; Posner et al. 2019). 432

How does this bear on memory and learning in philosophy of mind and cognition? 433 This is rarely directly addressed, but we think it should be. After all, memory and 434 adaptive learning have always been an important explanandum for any empirically 435 oriented philosophy of mind. Even for classical representationalism, the sophisticated 436 memory characteristic of intelligent species depends on being able to retrieve infor-437 mation or representational content (Sterelny 1990, p. 19), and it is this that stops us 438 from behaving in repetitive and mechanistic ways akin to the Sphex wasp. While the 439 famous story of the Sphex told by Daniel Dennett and others is at least partly apoc-440

⁷ The existence or otherwise of episodic memory—that is: recall from a first-person perspective of the experiencing of an event—is more conjectural (Ginsburg and Jablonka 2018).

ryphal, being challenged by the details of the actual experiments (Keijzer 2013), a wasp will (sometimes) bring a paralysed cricket to a burrow, inspect the burrow and repeat this behaviour up to 40 times, *if* a human intervention (in laboratory conditions rather than a natural ecological habitat) secretly moves the cricket a few inches away while the wasp is occupied with inspecting their burrow. The wasp's problem, as the representationalist portrays it, is that they have not been able to extract the information/representational content and are thus rigidly responsive to the stimulus.

Today, there is ongoing debate over whether biological memory in humans is in 448 fact about retrieving 'informational content', or whether learning/memory is less about 449 content but rather the 'structure of content' (the shape, say); more like an embodied 450 coping with epigenetic markers and environmental influence, such that episodic mem-451 ory may be evoked by postural similarity to a previous incident, the sorts of case studies 452 commonly invoked by theorists of embodied cognition and enactivism (e.g. Morris 453 2010; Kiverstein 2012). If that is so, this may offer reasons why representational-com-454 putational AI systems, notwithstanding their significant advances, might not yet be as 455 flexible and adaptable in their learning as humans and higher vertebrates. Although 456 contemporary AI systems are often not oriented around formal symbol manipulations, 457 nor a CPU and a series of off/on 'switches', it remains difficult to comprehend how 458 one might embed sedimented experience epigenetically into such systems, whether 459 functionally, or perhaps even in cellular-like material, notwithstanding so-called evo-460 lutionary robotics and the work on transferrable RNA referred to above (Bédécarrats 461 et al. 2018; Posner et al. 2019). 462

Properly justifying that claim about contemporary AI would take another paper, but 463 we can grasp the significance of epigenetics for memory and learning in other ways, 464 including by considering research around memory and the 'extended mind', which is 465 one of the key platforms supporting the extended functionalist treatment of embodied 466 cognition. As the name suggests, this view extended (but did not radically challenge) 467 the representational story about cognition and memory, focusing on functions, rather 468 than material realisers, in a similar fashion. In Clark and Chalmers' (1998) famous 469 telling, although Otto has lost has biological memory he is nonetheless able to reliably 470 use a notebook to find his way to an art gallery in New York. Clark and Chalmers 471 argue that we should conclude that the notebook is a part of Otto's cognitive system in 472 this case, at least if it serves the same function and has the same sort of reliability and 473 access as is involved in 'normal' brain-bound memory that facilitates many other New 474 Yorkers getting to the gallery. Without being able to address all of the details of this 475 argument and the various critical replies, it is important to note that biological memory 476 is still understood as a process that involves the storing and retrieving of informational 477 content, where this content is 'sitting somewhere in memory waiting to be accessed' 478 (Clark and Chalmers 1998, p. 12). 479

But this view is coming under criticism from enactivist construals that give our particular bodies, and their particular biology, a more crucial role, albeit without yet bringing epigenetics fully into the debate in the manner we propose. Anco Peeters and Miguel Segundo-Ortin (2019) nicely summarise the empirical and philosophical concerns with this understanding of memory. As they put it:

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... there are two flaws with the current functionalist explanation. First, though it
putatively captures the role the environment plays in the process of encoding and
retrieving information, it neglects to explain why the role of bodily movement in
both learning and recall phase (...) is of importance. Second, it is unclear how, on
this account, the extra information the memory palace would presumably require
being processed during the recall phase, actually helps with remembering.

We cannot follow Peeters and Segundo-Ortin and consider the details of the memory 401 palace, an old spatial aide to remembering, in which one walks through a memory 492 space (say a hall with doors leading to each of the great philosophers in history) to 403 improve recall and thus enable an individual to give a philosophy talk that appears 494 to be extemporaneous. However, they are also interested in referring to Clark's dis-495 tinction between two views of embodiment, which Clark (2008a, b) calls the larger 496 mechanism and special contribution (SC in the quote following) accounts, which we 497 briefly introduced in Sect. 1. But, pace Clark, they aim to defend the latter rather than 408 the former. Peeters and Segundo-Ortin (2019, p. 6) note: 499

... as the name implies, those who adhere to SC advocate that at least some 500 of the contributions the body makes are not reducible to mere informational 501 processes. The implication is that some of an organism's cognitive processes are 502 shaped by the specific features of its body in a way that does not lend itself to an 503 explanation in terms of information-processing. Shapiro specifies that there are at 504 least two ways in which the body may influence cognition: 'first, it might generate 505 associations that determine certain cognitive proclivities; second, the body might, 506 via activation of motor plans, facilitate or inhibit various cognitive processes'. 507 Thus, on SC, for the understanding of at least some cognitive processes the 508 consideration of the role of the body is required... 509

Examples given include that right-handers prefer to interact with objects on their right 510 side (Shapiro 2019), but it is arguably much more pervasive than this, drawing on the 511 sorts of insights that have motivated both enactivism and embodied cognition, as well 512 as Merleau-Ponty's (2012) phenomenology of embodiment before that. There is an 513 embodied knowledge that is usually presupposed as the background for our worldly 514 interactions, but we can also become more attentive to it, perhaps especially when 515 this bodily 'attunement' is not present and/or failing us. One of the authors of this 516 paper was recently endeavouring (but failing) to set up a video-conference through 517 a computer and other devices in a university lecture theatre. It was only once he sat 518 down in the chair, rather than standing above it, with the keyboard and other relevant 519 devices in their places and providing relevant affordances for action (indexed to the 520 body as a 'zero point' for action), that he was able to successfully perform the task. 521 Embodied and procedural memory helped to facilitate the completion of a (relatively 522 simple) task that he had been unable to perform when physically situated in an unusual 523 or non-optimal position for such tasks, in a moderately stressful environment (i.e. 524 hosting a visiting speaker). This is an example of how the world might scaffold our 525 online cognising and intelligent behaviour. It is perhaps not controversial in itself, but 526 whether or not we should view particular biological bodies as making a special (or 527 functionally irreplaceable) contribution is. Prima facie, however, the prior experiences 528

of an individual (and/or their ancestors) make a world of difference to even mundane
 experiences like this, an insight that has some epigenetic support as we will see.

To advance the case for a special role of embodiment, Peeters and Segundo-Ortin 531 (2019) discuss research concerning the use of a memory palace in detail. Others draw 532 on the role of the external environment in facilitating memory in Alzheimer's patients: 533 if placed in 1950s style accommodation, the memories and cognitive capacities of some 534 elderly Alzheimer's patients can be restored through this changed external environment 535 (Heersmink 2017). Sutton and Williamson (2014) appear to show that cognitive and 536 memory activities learnt while under water are better recalled later when actually 537 under water, and that related cognitive activities learnt on dry land are likewise better 538 recalled on land (Godden and Baddeley 1975; Sutton and Williamson 2014). This is 539 not just about embodied know-how for a given task to be completed under water or on 540 dry land, but it also pertains to other cognitive tasks not directly related to particular 541 motor-routines. 542

We find this account convincing, but what is it about our particular biologies that 543 might have a special role and significance here? What is the best explanation for 544 such capacities, and the difficulty of adequately explaining them on information-545 processing, functionalist, or computationalist treatments? Without being able to settle 546 this, it appears plausible that those specific features of our biological bodies are less 547 to do with representations or 'content', or something that might be designated as 'off' 548 or 'on', but rather epigenetic markers that exert a 'push' and 'pull' on the exposure to, 540 and consolidation of, memories (including content-rich episodic memories) and there-550 fore learning. Exactly how might this sort of thing happen? Neuro-epigenetic research 551 suggests that cellular and molecular changes appear to allow the formation of mem-552 ory traces in response to associative learning experiences and/or non-associative and 553 novel experiences, especially when traumatic. In other words, epigenetic mechanisms 554 facilitate the acquisition of representational content to use more cognitivist language, 555 or they enable us to enact or re-imagine previous experiences if we prefer enactivist 556 construals of memory with Peeters and Segundo-Ortin (2019). 557

In this vein, Ginsburg and Jablonka discuss some reasons for thinking that 'synapses *do not store memories but rather express memories* that are stored intracellularly, in epigenetic marks' (our italics 2018, p. 316). More particularly, they point to four major types of epigenetic mechanisms that 'underlie cell memory in all types of cells, including neurons'—self-sustaining loops, structural templating, chromatin marking, RNA-mediated systems. In their account of memory retention, it is these mechanisms that enable physical traces to:

persist even when original stimulus is no longer present, and the response is 565 no longer manifest. A latent memory trace, an engram, is formed following 566 one or more phases of consolidation. The engram can be described at several 567 levels of organisation, beginning with the epigenetic cellular level. It can, for 568 example, be an epigenetic pattern in the chromatin of the nucleus of a single 569 cell or induced regulatory RNA molecules and protein complexes that not only 570 change the threshold of the reaction of the cell to the inducing stimulus but can 571 also be transferred between cells. (Ginsburg and Jablonka 2018, p. 229) 572

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⁵⁷³ Other epigenetic scientists reach related conclusions. In a review article, Zovkic et al. ⁵⁷⁴ (2013, p. 61) argue:

In the last decade, epigenetic markers like DNA methylation and posttranslational modifications of histone tails have emerged as important regulators
of the memory process. Their ability to regulate gene transcription dynamically
in response to neuronal activation supports the consolidation of long-term memory.

In this respect, of course, the most famous epigenetic studies concern fear memory and 580 how this is consolidated and perhaps passed through generations in cellular material 581 extraneous to DNA. As Zovkic et al. (2013, p. 61) put it: 'transient epigenetic modifi-582 cations mediate memory consolidation by regulating gene expression within the first 583 few hours after learning, whereas sustained changes in epigenetic modifications in cor-584 tical brain regions underlie memory maintenance over prolonged periods of time'. As 585 such, they enable habits and pre-reflective responses to specific stimuli in the environ-586 ment and associative learning. But Zovkic et al. also argue that related phenomena are 587 found in non-associative learning, deriving from exposure to novel environments and 588 trauma. Summing up their review, they contend: 'Ultimately, these findings point to a 589 bidirectional relationship between epigenetic mechanisms and learning and memory, 590 whereby learning induces the formation of novel epigenetic marks and pre-existing 591 levels of epigenetic marks regulate the threshold for learning and memory' (our italics, 592 Zovkic et al. 2013, p. 68). Without ruling out the capacity of a "larger mechanism" 593 treatment of embodiment to adequately explain this bi-directional relationship, the 594 challenge is acute, since the balance of recent epigenetic research on memory and 595 learning appears to show that experience is strongly permeated by the details of our 506 biological embodiment, pace Clark (2008b, p. 53). 597

4 Embodied Cognition versus Enactivism: A postgenomic and epigenetic argument?

We have suggested that postgenomics in general, and epigenetics in particular, provide 600 resources for a 'holistic materialism' that is of direct relevance to embodied cognition 601 and enactivism, even if these interdisciplinary fields have said relatively little about 602 the positive details of epigenetic research thus far. We have shown in the previous 603 section how this research matters for these fields, specifically in relation to memory 604 and learning. However, there is another reason for thinking more deeply about epi-605 genetics, and that is because there is an implicit debate about the significance of the 606 post-genomic and epi-genetic between major advocates of embodied cognition and 607 enactivism respectively. We introduced this debate in the previous section, but further 608 consideration of epigenetics is crucial in order to weigh the options for partisans of 609 the 'embodied turn' and ascertain just how radical we might want to be regarding the 610 integration of biology and cognition. 611

To begin with embodied cognition, Wheeler and Clark (2008) have posed some obstacles to any overly liberal construal of the role and significance of epigenetics and postgenomics more broadly. While Clark used the 'parity principle' and his version

of functionalism to extend the boundaries of the mind into Otto's physical notebook 615 (Clark and Chalmers 1998), in other work he and Wheeler have expressed concerns 616 about the threat posed by too permissive an account of explanatory spread, including 617 if the account of inheritance becomes too 'liberal'. Here they are not alone. It remains 618 contested whether epigenetics has an impact on natural population dynamics and, if it 619 does not, then some would question its broader relevance for evolutionary theory per 620 se (cf. Baedke 2018 for discussion). But what is explanatory spread, exactly? They 621 frame it as follows: 622

... one would have explanatory spread where one discovered a distributed devel opmental system in which non-genetic organismic and/or wider environmental
 factors made explanatorily non-negligible contributions to phenotypic form.
 That is the general picture on offer from approaches that emphasize cultural
 evolution, cognitive niche construction and (we can now add) emergent modu larity (Wheeler and Clark 2008, p. 3570).

While Wheeler and Clark think that nothing is wrong with explanatory spread per se, 629 they caution against throwing the explanatory baby out with the bathwater. And it is 630 Maturana and Varela who they accuse of wrongly taking explanatory spread (where 631 non-genetic factors make a non-negligible contribution) to overturn genocentrism, as 632 well as to reject modularism about the brain more generally.⁸ In their view, we can keep 633 non-trivial explanatory spread, of the sort emphasised by Maturana and Varela (and 634 'evo-devo', DST, etc.), without diminishing the focus on the genome (and DNA) as 635 playing the fundamental causal role. Maturana and Varela, by contrast, have a holistic 636 focus that promises (or threatens, depending on one's perspective) to overturn the 637 Modern Synthesis, as well as mechanistic and modular explanation more generally. 638 Here is how Maturana and Varela frame their general point in The Tree of Knowledge: 639

We have often heard it said that genes contain the 'information' that specifies a living being... [but] when we say that DNA contains what is necessary to specify a living being, we divest these components of their interrelation with the rest of the network. It is the network of interactions in its entirety that constitutes and specifies the characteristics of a particular cell, and not one of its components (Maturana and Varela 1987, p. 69).

Although this book and these remarks come from before turn-of-the-century discus-646 sions about postgenomics and epigenetics (and before Varela's own more explicitly 647 enactivist period), Maturana and Varela's view anticipates some key platforms of 648 autopoeietic enactivism. In this case, they contend that if the environment and other 649 factors play a significant causal role, or if DNA is much more dependent on extra-650 genetic factors than has been standardly held, we should take a wider view focused on 651 the cell as a whole, and indeed the whole embodied organism. We might subsequently 652 understand distinctions between the genome and epigenome, genotype and phenotype, 653 etc., in that light. 654

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⁸ In brief, modularity involves subsystems in the brain or body that are relatively discrete, and able to adequately explain some higher-level capacity or function, a typical model of mechanistic explanation.

But Wheeler and Clark contend that Maturana and Varela's argument depends on a picture of genes as information carriers, as coding for traits in a specific way they call 'strong instructionism'. Strong instructionism is:

the claim that what it means for some element to code for an outcome is for that element to fully specify the distinctive features of that outcome, where 'full specification' requires that those distinctive features may be predicted purely on the basis of what may be known about the putatively coding factor... to fully specify the form of that trait. (Wheeler and Clark 2008, p. 3571)

Differently put, it is the idea that the 'genotype as a whole should be conceived as 663 a set of *instructions* for, a *blueprint* for, a *plan* for, a *specification* of, or a *program* 664 for, the building of the phenotype' (Wheeler 2008). While it is possible to consider 665 postgenomics as expanding the set of instructions (e.g. DNA plus a further set of 666 instructions), it is also possible to consider them as embracing a more complex under-667 standing of causality that is not so mechanistic (c.f. Baedke 2018, p. 10). But to return 668 to the debate at issue, is all 'coding' talk about genes tied to strong instructionism? 669 Wheeler and Clark think not. As such, they accuse Maturana and Varela of a straw 670 man argument, of 'a spectre without much of a haunting pedigree'. 671

Elsewhere, Wheeler gives more details. While noting that we might contend that 672 genes code for traits because they 'set certain parameters for the developmental sys-673 tems that generate phenotypes', he argues we end up back at the same problem of 674 excessive liberality in our causal picture, violating 'our old friend the weakened 675 uniqueness constraint' (Wheeler 2008). In his view, too much seems to be counted 676 as coding for the phenotype. But what is too much exactly? Here views differ, how-677 ever, and we have seen that recent epigenetic research indicates a more pervasive 678 explanatory spread than Wheeler and Clark were inclined to accept in the mid 2000s.⁹ 679 Indeed, in the final pages of his book, Supersizing the Mind, Clark (2008a) draws 680 on Richard Dawkins, whose work had been sympathetically engaged with by Clark's 681 teacher, Dennett. In particular, Clark draws on the idea that the spider's body spins 682 and maintains the web that then constitutes part of its extended phenotype: 683

Through this special lens, the spider's web appears as a proper part of the spider's extended phenotype, and the organism emerges as no more (and no less) than an adaptively potent non-random concentration of DNA. This perspective, Dawkins suggests, is not compulsory nor can it be simply proved or disproved by experiment. (Clark 2008a, p. 218, cf. p. 123).

This is an interesting analogy for Clark to conclude his book with, comparing his own account of embodied cognition with Dawkins' influential statement of a DNA-centric view, wherein the body is but a vessel, a carrier of information: precisely the view that our account of epigenetic research in Sect. 2 challenges. Now, exactly how committed Clark himself is to Dawkins' view of DNA is not completely clear, but he draws

⁹ That said, we also think what we have outlined here provides the beginnings of an answer to a problem that Wheeler raises but leaves unanswered in his important book, *Reconstructing the Cognitive World*. Without mentioning epigenetics, he discusses the need for a subagential account of Heideggerian "thrownness" and glosses it in ways that gel with the picture offered here, and hence appear to push him closer to enactivism (Wheeler 2005, p. 277).

attention to the idea of a 'mental flip' whose virtue lies 'in the different ways of seeing 694 familiar phenomena', inviting 'us to view the larger organism-environment system in 695 a new and illuminating light' (Clark 2008a, p. 218). But does Clark's own 'flip', and 696 his own construal of embodiment (larger mechanism rather than special contribution) 697 view the organism-environment system in a related way to Dawkins: that is, as part of 698 a story involving many complex mechanisms, while retaining a distinction between 699 the information-centric aspect that is causally efficacious (the DNA) and other parts of 700 the cells and broader environment that are involved in a weak causal sense but are not 701 constitutively relevant? Clark appears committed to this view when he explicitly argues 702 that experience is *not* non-trivially permeated by the details of biological embodiment 703 (Clark 2008b, p. 53, cf. also Clark 2008a, p. 205). Maintaining such a view, however, 704 depends on a conservative rather than radical reading of epigenetics of the sort we have 705 outlined here, and wherein experience (including memory and learning) is permeated 706 by biological embodiment. As Baedke puts it: 'To back up the idea that genes are more 707 important causal factors for traits than epigenetic regulatory factors, one has to show 708 that genes have a unique ontological or epistemic status compared to the epigenetic 700 factors' (Baedke 2018, p. 112). Who has the burden of proof here? What verdict did 710 Clark himself reach? His view of both cognition and genetics appears to want to hang 711 on to some key parts of the work of Dennett, and perhaps even Dawkins, for whom the 712 organism was famously no more or less than the non-random concentration of DNA. 713 And while it is true that some of the more radical readings of epigenetics will no 714 doubt be found to be overstatements, we think that the balance of research concerning 715 memory and learning discussed by Peeters and Segundo-Ortin (2019), and the material 716 substratum for this (epigenetics), suggests that the enactivist treatment of embodiment 717 might be the better overarching view of mind and life. 718

⁷¹⁹ 5 Conclusion. Thinking embodiment with (epi)genetics: opportunity ⁷²⁰ and caveats

In this paper, we have argued that greater engagement with postgenomic science 721 is required for proponents of both embodied cognition and enactivism to justify 722 their self-proclaimed biological sensitivity. Alongside other emerging disciplines like 723 microbiomics (Lyon 2017), epigenetics represents an opportunity but also a challenge 724 and a task. Favouring a charitable reading of epigenetics, we have focused on its poten-725 tial to meaningfully constrain philosophical and psychological theorizing. However, 726 we are not blind to some of the awkward aspects of this research. Leaving aside the 727 hype and risk of prematurely accepting findings that are still contested, there is a risk of 728 reductionist naturalism in epigenetics, and hence a need to consider the phenomenol-729 ogy of lived experience that it permeates, albeit in a way that has been recognized as 730 'bi-directional' (Zovkic et al. 2013). This attention to experience remains what Evan 731 Thompson calls the 'red thread' in enactivism (2007). However, it is often given little 732 elaboration in many of the current sciences of epigenetics, where the interaction of 733 body and world is still often rendered through (passive) metaphors of impression and 734 imprint (Meloni 2019), rather than a more enactive account of biological agency and 735 sense-making (Frost 2020). One example is animal models in research on memory 736

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and neuroepigenetics that tend to discard the body in favour of a simplistic view of 737 physical substrates of memory. This is obviously in tension with more phenomeno-738 logical views of memory as the result of a 'network of interaction', as in Maturana 739 and Varela, and amplified nicely in regard to memory by Peeters and Segundo-Ortin 740 (2019). It is at this level that epigenetics needs philosophy. Opening up a space for 741 dialogue is timely and urgent, given the exponential growth and topic expansion of 742 publications in epigenetics (from mental health to behavioural effects of toxins) and 743 the nascent state of many of its epistemological and methodological concepts. 744

Besides the importance of direct philosophical criticism, a closer engagement of 745 philosophy with epigenetics appears significant to deciding some central debates 746 between partisans of the embodied turn, between more and less radical positions 747 concerning both cognition and the Modern Synthesis. Enactivists are more radical 748 regarding biology and the reception of Darwin, but proponents of embodied cog-749 nition, such as Clark and Wheeler, are more ready to situate accounts of cognition 750 within, rather than against, a Darwinian theoretical biology. In our view the balance 751 of evidence coming from research in epigenetics, especially on memory and learning, 752 favours a stronger view than Clark's 'larger mechanism' account of embodied cogni-753 tion. Resolving this more definitively will require philosophers and epigeneticists to 754 work together, along with theoretical biologists. Does epigenetics support a version 755 of what we might call extended instructionism (even extended computationalism)? Or 756 does it support a view of embodied agency that emphasises causal material that is not 757 readily codeable or computationalised, a view of embodied cognition and perception, 758 of learning and motility, that grants the whole embodied organism a constitutive and 759 irreducible role? Similar questions arise from the growing importance of research in 760 chromatin. The rediscovery of the material density of the genome, and attention to its 761 plastic and interactive scaffolding, presents an opportunity to reconsider the digital 762 language of information genomics and the dominance of mechanistic and cybernetic 763 explanatory models in biology. This is not to mdeny of course that other uses of 764 epigenetics may reinforce a digitalization of the environment that flattens ontologi-765 cal differences between worldly things (food, historical events, chemicals) now just 766 turned into different signals for genome functioning (Landecker 2016). 767

We haven't settled these debates here, since the work in epigenetics has generally 768 not directly grappled with these sorts of questions, and how to interpret the findings 769 remains open, to at least some extent. In this respect there is perhaps an analogy 770 to be drawn with the burgeoning work on mirror neurons around the turn of the 771 century, and the way they have been used to support various different philosophical 772 and psychological positions regarding social cognition (variously: Theory Theory, 773 Simulation Theory, hybrid, interactionist, etc.—see Gallagher 2005; Reynolds 2018). 774 As these debates show, with the benefit of hindsight, it is not the case that any one 775 physical-causal story can alone establish or refute philosophical views that will also be 776 metaphysical. Without sitting on the fence, however, we think the balance of epigenetic 777 research suggests that a more radical interpretation of embodiment and its implications 778 for the Modern Synthesis is called for. Here we converge on the extension of meaning-779 making to epigenetic molecular processes and the notion of an 'attentive body' of social 780 theorist Sam Frost, in which she claims that epigenetics has the potential to challenge 781 'the association of the fleshiness of bodies with the unintelligent and the imperceptive', 782

and imbue the living body with an epigenetically driven 'poised responsiveness' (Frost 783 2020). Since epigenetic marks are not directly the control of the nervous system, they 784 move attentiveness and intentionality well beyond the cognitive system (extended 785 body), thereby bringing back materiality and cognition in a stronger sense that is 786 more characteristic of enactivist approaches to cognition and biology than the views 787 of their more functionalist fellow travellers in embodied cognition. If philosophers as 788 part of their interdisciplinary agenda want today to reconsider the chasm of matter 789 and meaning, cellular processes and sense-making, we believe epigenetics offers an 790 important candidate for such a task, something that is good to think with. 791

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