



# Icon and Abduction: Situatedness in Peircean Cognitive Semiotics

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**Abstract** Differently from the anti-cartesianism defended by some embodied-situated cognitive scientists, which is predominantly anti-representationalist, for C. S. Peirce, mind is semiosis (sign-action) in a dialogical form, and cognition is the development of available semiotic material artifacts in which it is embodied as a power to produce interpretants (sign-effects). It takes the form of development of semiotic artifacts, such as writing tools, instruments of observation, notational systems, languages, and so forth. Our objective in this paper is to explore the connection between a semiotic theory of mind and the conception of situatedness and extended mind through the notions of iconicity and abductive inference, taking advantage of an empirical example of investigation in distributed problem solving (Tower of Hanoi).

## 1 Introduction

Charles S. Peirce can be considered an important precursor of situated mind and distributed cognition thesis. But differently from the anti-cartesianism defended by some embodied-situated cognitive scientists, which is predominantly anti-representationalist, as recently explored in a Merleau-Pontyan [1], Heidegerian [2], or a Gibsonian [3] trend, for Peirce, mind is semiosis (sign-action) in a dialogical—hence communicational—materially embodied form, and cognition is the development of available semiotic material artifacts in which it is embodied as a power to produce interpretants. It takes the form of development of semiotic artifacts, such as writing tools, instruments of observation, notational systems,

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26 languages, and so forth, as stressed by Skagestad [4] with respect to the concept of  
27 intelligence augmentation.

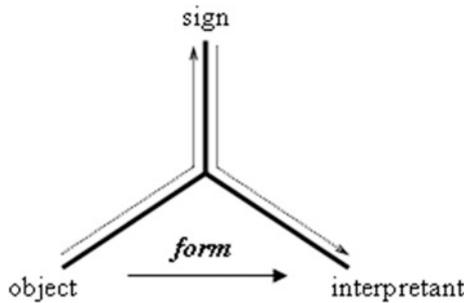
28 Although only recently a more systematic discussion upon the distributed  
29 nature of the mental processes have been established in empirical fields (e.g.  
30 neurocognitive science, artificial intelligence), the philosophical basis of this thesis  
31 and its variations have well-known predecessors. Among them, the most quoted  
32 are William James, Wittgenstein, John Dewey, James Gibson, Vigotsky, Merleau-  
33 Ponty, Heidegger (see [2, 5]). However, Charles Sanders Peirce, the least men-  
34 tioned among the pragmatists in this context, can be considered an avant-garde  
35 situated and embodied cognition proposer. In Peircean Semiotic Theory of Mind  
36 the fundamental unit of cognitive interest is reconceived—disembodied mind is  
37 replaced by environmentally embedded space of semiotic skills and artifacts.

38 Our objective in this work is to explore the connection between a semiotic  
39 theory of mind and the conception of situatedness through the notions of iconicity  
40 and abductive inference, taking advantage of an empirical example of investiga-  
41 tion in distributed problem solving (Tower of Hanoi). In the following sections we  
42 introduce: (i) the basic semiotic relations that ground a semiotic theory of mind,  
43 (ii) the notions of iconicity and abductive inference as specially near to the con-  
44 ceptualization of situatedness and distributedness of reasoning, (iii) the experiment  
45 of the Tower of Hanoi, conducted by Zhang and Norman [6], analyzed through the  
46 framework provided.

## 47 2 Semiosis and Semiotic Theory of Mind

48 Peircean approach of semiotic processes (semiosis) is related to formal attempts to  
49 describe cognitive processes in general. This framework provides: (i) a pragmatic  
50 model of semiosis, (ii) a conception of mind as a sign-interpretation process (see  
51 [7]), and (iii) a list of fundamental varieties of representations based on a theory of  
52 logical-phenomenological categories.

53 According to the Peircean model, a meaning process involves a relational  
54 complex constituted by three terms *irreducibly* connected—Sign, Object and  
55 Interpretant (S–O–I). The *irreducibility* indicates a logical property of this  
56 complex: the sign process must be regarded as associated to the *interpretant*, as an  
57 ongoing process of interpretation [8], and is not decomposable into any simpler  
58 relation (CP 5.484). Peirce also defines a sign as a medium for the communication  
59 of a *form* or *habit* embodied in the object [9, 10]. This *form* is communicated to the  
60 interpretant, so as to constrain (in general) the interpretant as a sign or (in bio-  
61 logical systems) the interpreter’s behavior. The object of sign transmission is a  
62 habit (a regularity, a rule of action, or a ‘pattern of constraints’) embodied as a  
63 constraining factor of interpretative behavior—a logically ‘would be’ fact of  
64 response. The habit embodied in the object allows a semiotic system to interpret  
65 the sign as indicative of a class of entities or phenomena [11]. Meaning and  
66 meaning change are conceived as a constraining factor of possible patterns of



**Fig. 1** Semiosis as a relation between three irreducibly connected terms (sign-object-interpretant, S–O–I). This triadic relationship communicates a form from the object to the interpretant through the sign (symbolized by the *horizontal arrow*). The other *two arrows* indicate that the form is conveyed from the object to the interpretant through a determination of the sign by the object, and a determination of the interpretant by the sign

67 interpretative behavior through habit and change of habit. The mediation of a sign  
 68 results in a consistent relationship between variations in the form of the object and  
 69 the corresponding effects on the interpreter (Queiroz et al. 2008) (Fig. 1).

70 Sign-mediated processes show a remarkable variety. The construction of  
 71 appropriate typologies of these processes is a requisite for a deeper and more  
 72 refined understanding of cognition. In an attempt to advance in the understanding  
 73 of semiotic processes, Peirce proposed several typologies, with different degrees of  
 74 refinement and several relationships to one another. A basic typology in his  
 75 framework differentiates between iconic, indexical, and symbolic processes.

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### 76 3 Fundamental Kinds of Signs: Icons, Indices, 77 and Symbols

78 Icons, indices, and symbols are differentiated by Peirce based on how the sign  
 79 relates to its object, that might be defined as the item to which the interpretants are  
 80 related by the mediation of sign (see [12]). This typology exhibits a property  
 81 capable of functioning as an operational criterion to distinguish different kinds of  
 82 signs: the relative dependence of sign-object-interpretant (S–O–I) components in  
 83 triadic relation [13, 14].

84 A symbol is an S–O relationship logically dependent of I. This relation has been  
 85 characterized as a law ascribing S–O. A symbol is “a Sign (q.v.) which is con-  
 86 stituted a sign merely or mainly by the fact that it is used and understood as such,  
 87 whether the habit is natural or conventional, and without regard to the motives  
 88 which originally governed its selection” (CP 2.307). Differently, an index is  
 89 dependent of O. The relation between S and O has been characterized as one of  
 90 contiguity: constraints resulting from the space–time existence of the object—  
 91 irrelevant in symbolic processes—are the reason for the representation of O

**Table 1** The fundamental types of signs underlying meaning processes—icons, indexes, and symbols

Type of sign	S–O relation	S–O–I dependence	
Icon	Similarity	Monadic (S)	Dependent of intrinsic properties of S
Index	Contiguity	Dyadic (S–O)	Dependent of S–O spatio-temporal correlation
Symbol	Law	Triadic (S–O–I)	S–O dependent of I mediation

They are characterized in terms of relative dependence of sign-object-interpretant (S–O–I) components in triadic relation. The icon is the sign whose relevant properties for signification are its own intrinsic qualities: S depends on S

92 through S. In that case, S is really determined by O, in such a way that both must  
93 exist as events. The notion of spatio-temporal co-variation is the most character-  
94 istic property of indexical processes. When S is an icon, S signifies by means of  
95 qualities of S. Icons are dependent on the material, form and structure that are  
96 made—“An Icon is a sign which refers to the Object that it denotes merely by virtue  
97 of characters of its own, and which it possesses, just the same, whether any such  
98 Object actually exists or not” (CP 2.247). This relation between S and O based on  
99 the qualities of S has been characterized as one of similarity. The problem with the  
100 notion of similarity, however, is that it is too vague (see [15]). In order to detri-  
101 vialize the notion of icon as a sign based on similarity it is possible to give an  
102 operational definition of the icon (Table 1).

#### 103 4 Iconicity: Operational Notion

104 The icons’ dependence of its own materiality makes them suitable for modeling  
105 and experimentation. When an *operational criterion* is adopted, the icon is defined  
106 as anything whose manipulation can reveal more information about its object.  
107 Algebra, syntax, graphs, and formalizations of all types should be recognized as  
108 icons. This definition is considered a detriavilization of the notion that the icon is  
109 fundamentally based on a relation of similarity (see [15]; also [16]).

110 The key of iconicity is not perceived resemblance between the sign and what it signifies  
111 but rather the possibility of making new discoveries about the object of a sign through  
112 observing features of the sign itself. Thus a mathematical model of a physical system is an  
113 iconic representation because its use provides new information about the physical system.  
114 This is the distinctive feature and value of iconic representation: a sign *resembles* its object  
115 if, and only if, study of the sign can yield new information about the object [16, p. 102].

116 The icon is notably related to situatedness and distributedness of reasoning. It is  
117 the sign whose signification is S-dependent (that means, dependent on the sign  
118 itself) and allows, through its manipulation, some discovery about the object. The  
119 notion of iconicity attests the capacity of material features to be the semiotic basis  
120 of cognitive operation, and not only play a secondary role.

121 **5 Abduction: First Stage of Inquiry**

122 Inferences are also understood as semiotic processes and have a place reserved  
123 under Peirce's typology. They are classified into three irreducible types—abduction,  
124 deduction and induction—corresponding to three subsequent phases in the  
125 process of scientific inquiry (CP 6.469-473). Abduction rises from the observation  
126 of a mass of facts that doesn't fit into the habits and expectations of the observer  
127 and culminates with the formation and selection of a hypothesis. Deduction  
128 develops testable consequences of the previously generated hypothesis. Based on  
129 these consequences, induction performs tests to evaluate it.

130 The characterization of abduction as the transformation of mass of facts into  
131 hypotheses and the first stage of inquiry brings it close to perception (see [17, 18]).  
132 For Peirce, perception involves an interpretative process (CP 5.181). It is through  
133 an inferential-like perceptual judgment that percepts are subsumed under general  
134 classes. This perceptual judgment accounts for the transformation of sense data  
135 into knowledge applicable to theoretical or practical use. It is subconscious, but if  
136 it was subjected to logical analysis, it would present an inferential—abductive—  
137 form (CP 5.181). Therefore, “all that makes knowledge applicable comes to us via  
138 abduction” (MS 692).

139 As an “act of insight” that “comes to us like a flash” (CP 5.181) abduction is  
140 germane to creativity. For Peirce, abduction is also the logical inference by which  
141 new knowledge can be obtained: “Abduction consists in studying the facts and  
142 devising a theory to explain them. It is the only kind of argument which starts a  
143 new idea” (CP 2.96). Magnani [19] introduces the concept of “manipulative  
144 abduction” to refer to those cases where the inference depends on the exploration  
145 of external resources—it “happens when we are thinking *through* doing and not  
146 only, in a pragmatic sense, about doing” [19, p. 274]. According to Paavola [20],  
147 in abduction the iconic character of reasoning is more prominent. Icons,  
148 abductions and perceptual judgments all have important similarities between  
149 themselves.

150 In all of them, some characteristics or phenomena suggest a potential way of interpreting  
151 or explaining these characteristics or phenomena and bringing them into some kind of an  
152 order [20, p. 305]

153 Paavola has referred to these characteristics that only *suggest* a way in which  
154 they could be interpreted as *clue-like* characteristics. In abduction, these clue-like  
155 characteristics, together with background knowledge, lead to the conclusion of a  
156 hypothesis (i.e., a promising way of arranging a mass of facts). This is a distributed  
157 process whenever these *clue-like characteristics* are predominantly material  
158 qualities of external signs. Abduction is especially near to the conceptualization of  
159 distributedness because it is an inference which relies on a mass of perceived data  
160 for its conclusion.

161 To see how iconicity and abduction are related to situatedness, we analyze in  
162 the next section an example of distributed reasoning. More specifically, we

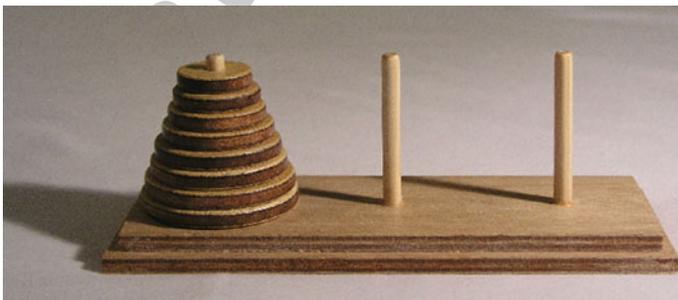
163 identify the role of both icons and abductions in the distributed problem solving  
 164 task of the Tower of Hanoi.

## 165 **6 Externalization of Constraints as an Iconic-Embedded** 166 **Abductive Process**

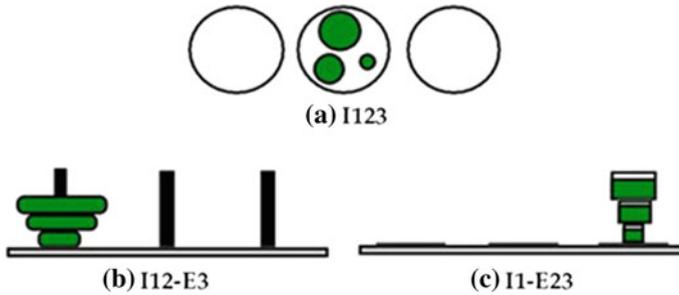
167 The Tower of Hanoi is a puzzle game. It is (normally) constituted of three poles  
 168 and several disks of variable diameters with a hole in the centre in order to be  
 169 stacked in the poles (see Fig. 2). The diameter of the disks represents the hierarchy  
 170 according to which they may be organized or moved across the poles. The goal of  
 171 the game is to rearrange the disks from a specific initial state to a specific goal  
 172 state, while observing some basic rules. The formal structure of the game is  
 173 composed by the pieces (disks, for example), places (poles), hierarchy (disk  
 174 diameters), rules, initial state, and goal state.

175 Zhang and Norman [6] have used the tower of Hanoi game to study the  
 176 influence of representations in cognition. More specifically, they were dealing with  
 177 the Representational Effect: difference in cognitive behavior caused solely by  
 178 representational features. The Representational Effect is investigated through the  
 179 comparison of performance upon isomorphic representations in problem solving  
 180 tasks, i.e., representations that carry the same amount of information, but that vary  
 181 in the way that this information is presented. In the experiment treated here, the  
 182 authors have used the isomorphic versions of the Tower of Hanoi puzzle showed in  
 183 Fig. 3.

184 Zhang and Norman's tests covered several levels of isomorphism between  
 185 representations (level of object representations, level of dimensional representa-  
 186 tions, level of rule representations and level of problem space structures). The  
 187 particular experiment that interests us (experiment 2, Zhang and Norman [6],



**Fig. 2** The classical version of the Tower of Hanoi puzzle, with three poles and several disks stacked from the largest, in the base, to the smallest, in the top. In the experiments treated here, this order was altered: larger pieces should be put on top of smaller pieces. Image taken from Wikimedia Commons



**Fig. 3** Three isomorphs of the tower of Hanoi which vary in respect to the externalization of constraints. In **a** the three rules of the game are internal. In **b** two of the rules are internal and one is external. In **c** only one of the rules is internal, and the other two are external [6]

188 pp. 20–23) is the level of rule representations. In this level, the rules of the game  
 189 itself can be represented in two ways: they are either (i) stated in instructions and  
 190 memorized by the players or (ii) automatically embedded in the possibilities of  
 191 move offered by the material of play. Rules introduced according to (i) and (ii) are  
 192 termed, respectively, *internal* and *external* rules, kept, in the act of play, either in  
 193 the memory of the players or in the material of play itself.

194 There were three rules in the game for this experiment (see Table 2) and two  
 195 ways in which these rules could be introduced (internal or external rules). Three  
 196 isomorphs were used (see Table 3) the, “waitresses and oranges”, “waitresses and  
 197 donuts” and “waitresses and coffee”, that differently represent the elements that  
 198 compose the formal structure of the game. The oranges version utilizes balls  
 199 (“oranges”) as the pieces, plates as the places and the size of the balls as the  
 200 hierarchy. The donuts version utilizes disks (“donuts”) as the pieces, poles as the  
 201 places and the diameter of the disks as the hierarchy. The “coffee” version utilizes  
 202 cups filled with coffee as the pieces, plates as the places and the size of the cups as  
 203 the hierarchy. Each of the three rules were either internal (given as a list of  
 204 instruction read before the experiment and memorized by the players) or external  
 205 (automatically embedded in the material of play). In the “oranges” version, all the  
 206 three rules were internal (I123). In the “donuts” version, rules 1 and 2 were  
 207 internal and rule 3 was external (I12 E3). In the “coffee” version, only rule 1 was  
 208 internal and rules 2 and 3 were external (I1 E23). The oranges version is internal  
 209 in respect to all rules because the balls in plates can be physically moved without any  
 210 constraining in relation to each other. The donuts version is external in respect to  
 211 rule 3 because the stacking of disks in poles only allow that the disk in top be  
 212 physically moved (unless you take more than one disk, but in this case you would

**Table 2** Rules of the TOH, experiment 2

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1. Only one piece can be transferred at a time
  2. A piece can only be transferred to a place on which it will be the largest
  3. Only the largest piece in a place can be transferred to another place
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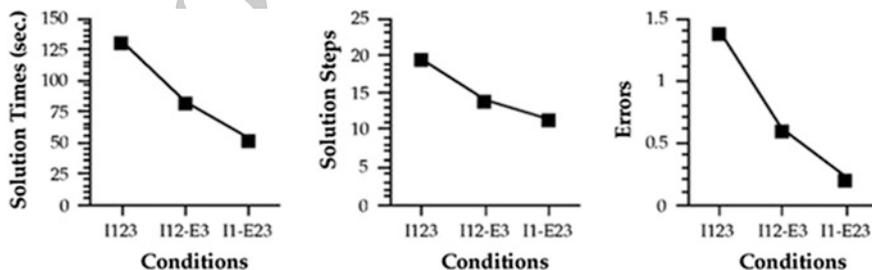
**Table 3** Isomorphic representations of the game's formal structure

	"Oranges" (I123)	"Donuts" (I12 E3)	"Coffee" (I1 E23)
Pieces	Balls	Disks	Cups filled with coffee
Places	Plates	Poles	Plates
Hierarchy	Size of balls	Diameter of disks	Sizes of cups
Rules	1. Instruction 2. Instruction 3. Instruction	1. Instruction 2. Instruction 3. Material	1. Instruction 2. Material 3. Material

213 be breaking the internal rule 1). The coffee version is external in respect to rules  
 214 2, 3 because, beyond being stacked one on top of the other (rule 3), a smaller cup,  
 215 filled with coffee, cannot be placed on top of a bigger cup, filled with coffee,  
 216 because in this case the coffee will spill. In a context where it is understood that  
 217 spilling coffee is bad, rule 2 has also been externalized.

218 The experiment measured the time required for solution, the number of steps  
 219 required for solution and the number of wrong moves for each of the three  
 220 isomorphs. In the three cases, the results for the most internalized version (orange-  
 221 ges) were the worst: more time to solve, more number of steps required to solve  
 222 and more wrong moves. For the most externalized (coffee) the results were the  
 223 best: less time to solve, less number of steps required and almost no wrong moves.  
 224 The donuts version stayed in the middle (see Fig. 4). This experiment, together  
 225 with others in the same article, have led the authors to propose that more external-  
 226 ized representations are also more efficient representations for problem solving  
 227 (see also [21, 22]).

228 The criterion the authors have used to classify between internal and external  
 229 rules matches a criterion for iconicity, namely, dependence of material properties,  
 230 i.e. S-dependence. The different isomorphs of the experiment can be modeled as  
 231 semiotic processes of communication of a form or habit from an object to an  
 232 interpretant through the mediation of the sign. The object (O) of this triadic  
 233 relation is the formal structure of the game that is common to all isomorphs. The  
 234 sign (S) is the medium through which the game is played, i.e., the specific pieces  
 235 and places and also the list of written instructions. The interpretant (I) is the  
 236 constraining in behavior that characterizes the act of play itself. With this


**Fig. 4** Results of the experiment for each of the isomorphs [6]

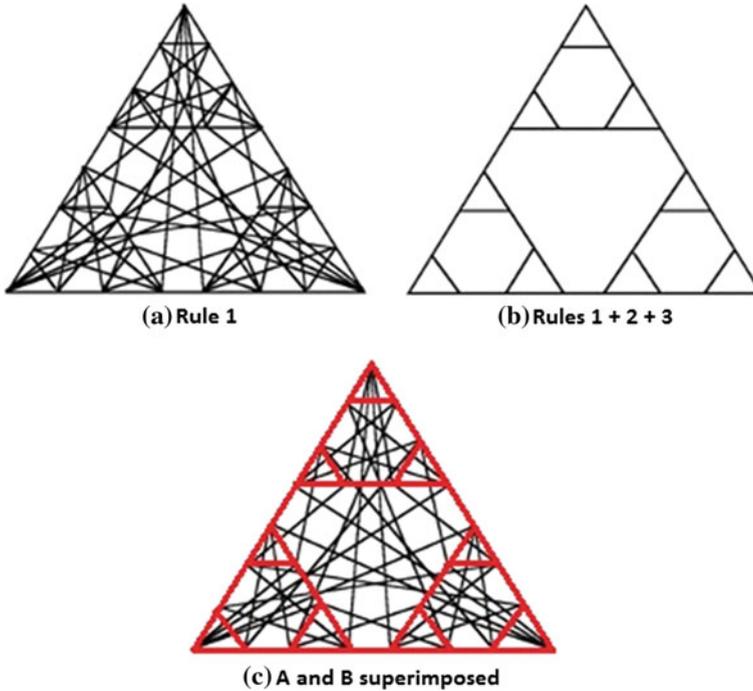
237 framework in mind, and taking into consideration the criterion of relative  
 238 dependence of terms for the fundamental classification of signs, we conclude that,  
 239 for the (i) internal and (ii) external cases:

- 240 (i) O (formal structure of the game) is independent of S (material of play). If you  
 241 change the materials used to play, the game remains the same. The S–O  
 242 relation cannot be established by these two terms alone, it requires the medi-  
 243 ation of a third term (I). The constraining upon the specific material of play,  
 244 that makes it correspond to the formal structure of the game, only happen as a  
 245 cognitive constraining in the behavior of the player, in the act of play itself. As  
 246 S–O relation is dependent of I, this is an example of symbolic semiosis.
- 247 (ii) The game is S-dependent. If you change the materials used to play, the formal  
 248 structure of the game changes. The S–O relation is already established  
 249 independently of the third term (I), because the constraints of S are a mate-  
 250 rialization of the formal structure of the game. The constraining upon the  
 251 specific material of play, that makes it correspond to the formal structure of  
 252 the game, is already given in the material of play, before the game is played.  
 253 As S–O is dependent of S, this is an example of iconic semiosis.

254 The results for this particular case can be generalized to any other case of  
 255 externalization of constraints. First, because to be *external* implies to be physically  
 256 materialized. Second, because the constraints of the physical material limit  
 257 cognitive behavior, and not the other way around. Therefore, to say that a repre-  
 258 sentation is external in respect to some constraints already implies that these  
 259 constraints are S-dependent, and that we are dealing with iconic semiosis.

261 To identify the role of abduction in this process, we stress the inferential  
 262 activity involved in making each move in the game. To solve the game, the player  
 263 must arrive at some conclusion as how to arrive at a goal state departing from an  
 264 initial state. To do that, he/she passes through intermediary problem states. The  
 265 player is making inferences whenever he makes decision as how to pass from one  
 266 problem state to another. To go from one problem state to another, the player  
 267 needs to move according to the rules. The rules give the player a certain number of  
 268 possibilities that he can choose between. This inference is abductive because it is  
 269 fallible (i.e., it doesn't necessarily conclude the best solution to play) and takes the  
 270 form of the formation and selection of possible hypothesis of play by departing  
 271 from a set of constraints.

272 Figure 5 shows three diagrams depicting constraints in the game. Each node of  
 273 the diagrams is a problem state, i.e., a particular arrangement of pieces in their  
 274 places. Each line of the diagrams is a possibility to move from one problem state to  
 275 another, i.e., to move a piece in the game, according to the rules. One of the nodes  
 276 is the initial state. Another node is the goal state. To play the game is to go from  
 277 the initial state node to the goal state node through the possibilities offered by the  
 278 lines. In the first diagram we have the possible moves as constrained only by the  
 279 rule 1. In the second diagram we have the same, but now for rules 1, 2 and 3. Let's  
 280 imagine that these diagrams corresponded to externalized isomorphic representa-  
 281 tions of the TOH. The first diagram would be a representation in which only rule 1



**Fig. 5** Constraints of the game for Rule 1 (a) and Rules 1 + 2 + 3 (b). c A superimposition of b upon a. Adapted from Zhang and Norman [6]

282 is externalized. The second diagram would be a representation in which all the  
 283 three rules are externalized. In the game, to perform a move that is out of the rules  
 284 is considered an error. Therefore, the second diagram, which includes the constraints  
 285 of all the rules, represents an error-proof scenario (regarding errors that are  
 286 caused because of moves that are out of the rules). The third diagram shows a  
 287 comparison between the two isomorphs. In black, is all that was wrong and have  
 288 been ruled out by the second isomorph in relation to the first. In this sense, we can  
 289 see the material as a selector of possibilities of play.

290 A more externally constrained representation is also one where there are fewer  
 291 possibilities to move the pieces. This doesn't mean that no inferences are present.  
 292 There is an inferential and perceptual process in the act itself of dealing with the  
 293 external constraints. For example, when a player chooses to move a cup of coffee  
 294 to a certain place instead of another because in this better place the coffee will not  
 295 spill. This inference is supported by external constraints that, as we have seen, are  
 296 icons of the formal structure of the game. Externalization of constraints (and  
 297 therefore iconicity) acts as a way to build *better* materials of play. *Better*, here,  
 298 refers to an economy of possibilities, to the supporting of abductions by the

299 materials of play. In this sense, we have an example of abductive process which is  
 300 distributed in iconic-embedded features of an externalized semiosis.

## 301 **7 Situated Semiotic Theory of Mind: Some Implications** 302 **of Abduction and Iconicity**

303 We have presented an externalist semiotic perspective of cognition, where mind is  
 304 the result of manipulation of signs and (i) manipulation is described by irreducible  
 305 forms of inferences; (ii) signs are classified by different morphologies. Abduction  
 306 and iconicity correspond respectively to the categories of inference and sign  
 307 processes in which the situated aspect of Peirce's conception of mind is especially  
 308 conceptualized. Abduction is a weak form of inference (see [23]) related to per-  
 309 ceptual features, while the icon is the S-dependent semiotic process. This treat-  
 310 ment suggests that a reconsideration of the embodied-situated paradigm's own  
 311 philosophical foundations can behave in semiotic terms. Peirce's semiotic theory  
 312 of mind neither restricts representations to symbolic semiosis and inferential  
 313 processes to deduction and induction as in orthodox representationalism, nor rejects  
 314 representations and inferences as in anti-representationalism (see Table 4).

315 This position was exemplified in the case of externalization of constraints in the  
 316 Tower of Hanoi puzzle. In the example, the task of deciding how to move the  
 317 pieces of the puzzle was crucially dependent on the materiality of the play, so that  
 318 isomorphic representations that varied their representational features had great  
 319 influence on the cognitive behavior of the players (Representational Effect). The  
 320 game play was facilitated when constraints (the set of rules) were externalized.  
 321 Externalization of constraints in this context corresponds to the embedment, in an  
 322 external sign, of better chances to reach an adequate conclusion. We have argued  
 323 that this process is abductive: it limits the universe of possible moves to a few  
 324 optimal ones, performing a selection of hypotheses; it provides, through percep-  
 325 tion, an optimal hypothesis for further consideration; it gives the first step for the  
 326 solution of the problem.

**Table 4** Comparison between orthodox representationalism, anti-representationalism and the Semiotic Theory of Mind

	Representationalism	Anti-representationalism	Semiotic theory of mind
Signs	Symbolic	No	Not only symbolic but indexical and iconic
Inferences	Deductive, inductive	No	Deductive and inductive and abductive
Locus	Internal	External	Inference relies on internal and external resources

## 8 Conclusion

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328 Recently, the distributed cognition and extended mind approach (see [24, 25])  
329 have questioned the legitimacy of skin and skull to serve as criteria for the  
330 demarcation of the boundaries between mind and the outside world. The accep-  
331 tance of external representation as parts of human cognition leads to different  
332 conceptions on the relation between cognition and environment. As we adapt the  
333 environment to facilitate our purposes, deploying our mind in external  
334 representations, we participate in the construction of cognitive niches, which  
335 fundamentally alter our cognitive capabilities (see [26]).

336 According to Peirce's semiotic theory of mind, thinking *is* semiosis, the process  
337 of sign action. While "representationalist", the semiotic theory of mind expands  
338 the understanding of signs and inferences beyond orthodox representationalist  
339 notions, making it possible to combine representations with an externalist view of  
340 the mind. Against any form of internalism, Peirce can be considered a precursor of  
341 situated mind and distributed cognition thesis. In the example treated, some of the  
342 best solutions, or "ideas" about how to win the game, were embedded in the  
343 outside world. Inferences were drawn based on perceptual qualities of material  
344 objects rather than an abstract understanding or the 'mind's-eye'. Peirce's broad  
345 ideas concerning signs and inferences are an important tool for advancing in the  
346 development of an externalist theory of mind.

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