

1 *SPECIES OF PASSIONATE INTEREST: Practicing Biocultural Conservation and*  
2 *Eco-social Transformation Together*

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11 *Abstract*

12 *Species of Passionate Interest* expands on the concept of the "cultural keystone species,"  
13 reviewing its intellectual history and proposing future applications in the field of biodiversity  
14 conservation. The paper critiques the classic view of the "keystone" species in Western  
15 conservation science, emphasizing the need to consider the dynamic cultural context and the  
16 diversity of emotional connections humans weave with the wider ecological world. Through  
17 relating biodiversity loss to human consciousness and the possibility of social transformation by  
18 way of "ecosophy," the paper emphasizes the importance of future-oriented approaches that go  
19 beyond preservation towards creating new eco-social cultural formations altogether. "Species of  
20 passionate interest," whether the result of sustenance, ritual, sport, admiration, conflict or  
21 economic promise, are found across all cultures and are exceedingly consequential for the ways  
22 we hope to understand how different cultural contexts might more ethically relate to one  
23 another. As such, the lens offered to conservation praxis by species of passionate interest might  
24 just provide the inspiration for developing more flexible and creative conservation practices,  
25 ones which combine biocultural conservation and eco-social transformation together.

26 *Keywords* [ *Biocultural Conservation, Affect Theory, Cultural Keystone Species, Biodiversity,*  
27 *Natural-Cultural Systems, Ecosophy*]

28 *Highlights*

30     ● *Literature review and critique of the Cultural Keystone Species concept*  
31     ● *Offers the more flexible and creative "Species of Passionate Interest" as an*  
32 *alternative*  
33     ● *Gives examples of Species of Passionate Interest in complex, heterogenous*  
34 *societies*  
35     ● *The result: a praxis capable of conserving and transforming simultaneously*

36

37 *Introduction*

38

39 All biodiversity conservation questions are alike because each conservation situation is complex  
40 in its very own way. If this sounds like a paradox, it's because best conservation practices are  
41 difficult to muster: a diversity of stakeholders with divergent value systems, the intersection of  
42 economic and ecological processes, overlapping governmental jurisdictions and co-management  
43 strategies, multi-species interactions across a variety of scales (Sandbrook et al. 2010; Karp et al.  
44 2015; Manfredo et al. 2017), all of which results in the emergence of *something* a single person  
45 cannot easily comprehend. This wide array of variables is one reason why conservation biology  
46 has captivated the intellectual imaginary of an increasingly interdisciplinary group of scholars,  
47 but also why conservation has more generally gained traction as a broad-based, popular  
48 movement for change (Manfredo et al. 2020). The idea of improving our relations with the  
49 environment is both exceedingly complex and widely inspiring. Its work necessitates both the  
50 highest orders of thinking and the everyday actions of ordinary people.

51

52 In what follows we offer what is perhaps a novel reformulation of how we imagine the work of  
53 conservation is done, through the mobilization of “passionate interests,” which we hope  
54 emphasizes the constructed nature of conservation controversies (Latour and Lépinay 2009).  
55 Inspired by the intellectual history and specific applications of the “cultural keystone species”  
56 (Garibaldi and Turner 2004), our intent is to expand on this fruitful concept in order to make it  
57 more widely applicable *and* locally useful. By re-focusing our attention around the way  
58 conservation often revolves around *species of passionate interest*, we would like to further  
59 commit to protecting those biocultural relations that continue to support multispecies flourishing,  
60 while simultaneously opening up the field to consider those social systems in need of change and  
61 also those potentially beneficial ecosocial relations that do not yet currently exist.

62

63 Increasingly today, in this epoch of intensified human-wrought environmental change, there is  
64 little reason to believe we are going back to some previous state of things, and so “to conserve”  
65 means both to save what we can, but also “to adapt” to these newly disturbing conditions. This  
66 intricate tension between continuity and change is a dance held in common by all of the living,  
67 and it involves our relations with other species, of course, but also the subtle undulations of the  
68 human psyche (Bateson 2000). We believe approaching conservation through the lens of *species*  
69 *of passionate interest* will allow for a better understanding of the processes by which the  
70 environment, society, and human subjectivity are synergistically constructed through what the  
71 philosopher Felix Guattari has called “social ecosophy” (Guattari 2000). In calling for such a re-  
72 orientation, we hope to welcome new creativity in the field and the proliferation of practices both  
73 encouraging of biocultural conservation and inviting of ecosocial transformation alike.

74

75

76 *The ‘cultural keystone species’ and its ramifications*

77

78 Since its description by R. T. Paine in *The American Naturalist* of 1969, the concept of the  
79 “keystone species” has taken on a life of its own, undergoing permutations across generations of  
80 community ecologists and conservation biologists who sensed in its imaginative background a  
81 promising utility (Paine 1969). For these primarily Western scientists, the possibility of detecting  
82 the hidden patterns of ecosystem complexity proved to be seductive, since the very species  
83 interactions they were finding to be of central importance to ecosystem structure were also  
84 proving to be the levers of ecosystem regulation and control (Estes et al. 2011). By identifying  
85 the keystone species (or the keystone complex of species), the thinking went, conservationists  
86 could efficiently support the whole ecological web by focusing their energies on protecting the  
87 “strong” species interactions at the center of these ecosystemic networks (Power et al. 1996;  
88 Holling 1992).

89

90 In recent years, and surely as a testament to the concept’s power, the scheme of the idea of the  
91 “keystone” has jumped to other domains as well, as the interdisciplinary nature of the  
92 biodiversity crisis (now considered a biocultural diversity crisis) inspired scholars working at the  
93 nexus of nature and culture to consider whether there might be something called a “cultural  
94 keystone species,” hereafter CKS (Garibaldi and Turner 2004; Cristancho and Vining 2024;  
95 Reyes-García et al. 2023; Dirzo et al. 2014). According to Garibaldi and Turner, CKS are  
96 “culturally salient species that shape in a major way the cultural identity of a people... reflected  
97 in the fundamental roles these species play in diet, materials, medicine, and/or spiritual  
98 practices” (Garibaldi and Turner 2004). Though a CKS does not have to be an ecological  
99 keystone as well, the fundamental idea for biocultural conservation is the same: some species  
100 play an outsized role in structuring the social relations of a given culture, and by focusing our  
101 attention on these species interactions specifically, human cultures and the ecosystems they rely  
102 on for their collective continuance might be better conserved (Reyes-García et al. 2023). And in  
103 fact, the concept of the CKS has proven exceedingly useful, especially for Métis and First  
104 Nations peoples in the Canadian context, where its role as a “bridge concept” for cross-cultural  
105 understanding has resulted in its deployment as a powerful legal tool in the service of more  
106 autonomy for Indigenous Peoples (Lukawiecki et al. 2024; Garibaldi 2009).

107

108 From CKS, still other scholars have broadened the scope of the concept’s framing to consider  
109 wider aspects of the natural-cultural system as well, proposing “cultural keystone place,”  
110 “cultural keystone practice,” “cultural keystone food group,” and “cultural keystone complex,”  
111 (see Box 1- Glossary) as possible alternatives to the theory’s originally more narrow focus on the  
112 single species (Cuerrier et al. 2015; Arinyo-i-Prats et al., under review; Platten and Henfrey 2009;  
113 Taylor and Anderson 2020). Over the course of this conceptual and practical evolution (the  
114 unfolding of a cultural keystone praxis), Platten and Henfrey (2009) have maybe said it best with  
115 their emphasis on the surrounding *complex*: “We assert that a cultural keystone is not a

116 biological species per se, but a complex...often centered upon a particular species, a cultural  
117 keystone complex also includes numerous other system elements, both material and non-  
118 material" (Platten and Henfrey 2009). The remarkable longevity of the "keystone" as an  
119 imaginary aside, the concept's trajectory from something designating the ecological function of a  
120 single species to something far more nuanced and vaporous — "system elements, both material  
121 and non-material" — speaks to the parallel advances in understanding the holism of coupled  
122 human-natural systems more generally (Orr et al. 2015; Oyama 2000; O'Malley 2017).  
123  
124

125 **Table 1. Glossary of terms elaborated in the wake of "cultural keystone species"**

126  
127 ***Cultural Keystone Place:*** "A given site or location with high cultural salience for one or more groups of people and which plays,  
128 or has played in the past, an exceptional role in a people's cultural identity, as reflected in their day to day living, food production  
129 and other resource-based activities, land and resource management, language, stories, history, and social and ceremonial  
130 practices." (Cuerrier et al. 2015)

131  
132 ***Cultural Keystone (Complex):*** "We assert that a cultural keystone is not a biological species per se, but a complex. Although  
133 often centred upon a particular species, a cultural keystone complex also includes numerous other system elements, both material  
134 and non-material...cultural keystone complexes combine biological species, knowledge, and technical practice. We propose  
135 defining cultural keystones, like ecological keystones and literal keystones, according to their structural roles, within social  
136 systems. We thus define cultural keystones as system elements with crucial non-redundant functions in maintaining any  
137 particular level of structural complexity." (Platten and Henfrey 2009)

138  
139 ***Cultural Keystone Practice:*** "Cultural practices that are both salient and essential for a community's well-being...traditions,  
140 knowledge, customs, uses, habits, or rituals with high cultural salience for one or more communities. [CKPr] play (or have played  
141 in the past) an exceptional role in the community's cultural identity, as reflected in their dependence on the practice for societal  
142 lifestyle, well-being, social structure, relation to environment and self-identity. CKPr have an identifiable name in the language  
143 and are encoded in a distinctive set of rules, conventions, knowledge or skills." (Arinyo-i-Prats et al., under review)

144  
145 ***Cultural Keystone Food Group:*** "Our emphasis on a group of crops rather than on a single species...is appropriate in that it  
146 recognizes the importance of a culturally cohesive food category. Furthermore, it recognizes that in some, and perhaps many,  
147 instances, it is not a single species – a single crop - but a number of species from a group of crops that are the 'keystone.' The  
148 "food group" concept also allows for flexibility, for personal choice within the larger category, while still recognizing the cultural  
149 importance of the category." (Taylor and Anderson 2020)

150  
151 ***Nonconsumptive Cultural Keystone Species:*** "Here, we extend the concept to more explicitly include species with which  
152 cultures have a primarily nonconsumptive relationship, but that are nonetheless disproportionately important to well-being and  
153 identity...species that often serve as ecological "flagship species" in conservation efforts, are also important CKS despite...not  
154 being used extractively. We describe how these species illustrate the importance of recognizing the significance of many species  
155 to the cultures with which they have shared landscapes with since time immemorial, even independent of material benefits."  
156 (Clark et al. 2021)

157  
158 ***Cultural Keystone Relationship:*** "Cultural relationships to wild species that are intimately tied to language, knowledge,  
159 practices, and places in ways that are deeply interconnected. We posit that by centering the importance of relationships to CKS in  
160 conservation, practitioners can begin to reintegrate the divide between humans and nature, by recognizing that species cannot be  
161 protected in isolation from the human cultures in which they are held in close relation." (Lukawiecki et al., 2024)

162  
163 ***Culturally Important Species:*** "Here defined as species that have a recognized role in supporting cultural identity, as they are  
164 generally the basis for religious, spiritual, and social cohesion and provide a common sense of place, purpose, belonging, or  
165 rootedness associated with the living world" (Reyes-García et al. 2023)

166 *Methods: What is a theory good for?*

167

168 Considering the robust critique of the concept of the CKS in scholarly journals, we will let the  
169 considerable elaboration of related terms speak for themselves (See: **Table 1**). Rather than  
170 belabor any shortcomings, we take inspiration from the insights generated by the CKS discourse  
171 regarding the intimate links between nature and culture, and want to utilize the energy  
172 surrounding this interest to expand the CKS conversation to include a wider array of  
173 conservation issues, mainly those eliciting *passionate interest*. In what follows we attempt to  
174 critically engage with the conceptual legacy of the CKS discourse, and to offer a theoretical  
175 expansion that could be applied to more conservation contexts. This is a decidedly reflexive  
176 exercise, and one involving an extensive literature review, but also a kind of critical  
177 reimagination of the CKS concept. Even though it remains to be seen whether *species of*  
178 *passionate interest* offers a meaningful adaptation of the working theory, the following list of  
179 principles have guided our work towards constructing this new affect-based framework.

180

181 Firstly, a good theory must be generally useful but not universalizing (Liboiron 2021). Whereas  
182 much of the debate around the CKS concept has centered around the protocols for defining a  
183 CKS specifically, focusing on the intensity of passion around a given species generally allows  
184 for a movable way of identifying critically significant aspects of an ecosystem without  
185 attempting to specifically define the terms of these relationships from the outside. Secondly, a  
186 good theory, like a tool, must allow for the focusing of energy and attention in such a way that  
187 allows for “becoming sensitive” to discrete phenomena (Latour 2004). Since one of the main  
188 benefits of the CKS concept is that it purports to gather actionable conservation intelligence, by  
189 looking towards those species that induce the greatest passion, we can still sensitize our  
190 conservation priorities to the situations where there is already vivacious interest, and to generate  
191 new interest where there is none. Afterall, scientists themselves participate in these ecosystems,  
192 and themselves and their work are imbued with a passionate interest for the systems they study.  
193 Third, a good theory must lead to understanding relationships without grasping or desiring to  
194 overtly control (Latimer 2013). If there is one thing that cannot be controlled it is the passions —  
195 emotions can be understood, felt, communicated, and held, but one cannot control them by force.

196

197 And finally, a good theory must show us that we can be otherwise, or in other words, that we can  
198 make bad relations into good relations (Hage 2012). Although, as of late, there has been  
199 recognition in the CKS literature of context dependency and the necessity of grappling with  
200 ecosystemic change, even still, the genealogy of the concept remains largely conservative in the  
201 sense that it is oriented around stability and structure (Platten and Henfrey 2009). By focusing on  
202 those species that elicit the greatest passions, and perhaps especially on those eliciting  
203 oppositional passions, we believe we can honor the original hope for the keystone concept (i.e.,  
204 to preserve species and also entire ecosystems), while also recognizing the always changing and  
205 decidedly constructed cultural context of our own and others’ ecological practices. Where worlds

206 collide, there are opportunities to learn without flattening, and to let foreign concepts work over  
207 our own while respecting those practices of others that have led to earthly flourishing. Focusing  
208 on passion, we believe, offers the best hope for biocultural conservation *and* radical change.

209  
210

211 *How do we define a ‘species of passionate interest’?*

212

213 The need for a clear and quantifiable definition of a CKS and to scientifically systemize its  
214 categorization has been fundamental to the intellectual history of the concept and one of the main  
215 drivers of its robust critique (Coe and Gaoe 2020). From the beginning, Garibaldi and Turner  
216 offered a quantitative index for determining the cultural influence of a species, which included  
217 such elements as the intensity and multiplicity of use, its role in language, ritual and narrative,  
218 and the extent to which the species could be replaced or substituted (Garibaldi and Turner 2004).  
219 Since then, some scholars have wondered about the difference between cultural and economic  
220 importance (Cristancho and Vining 2004). Others have called for using the term “culturally  
221 important species,” which combines knowledge about both biological and cultural status in such  
222 a way that encourages meaningful conservation action across scales (Reyes-García et al. 2023).  
223 And still others have questioned the utility of a concept that might vary significantly depending  
224 on the cultural context in question and have suggested a sliding scale for determining the  
225 intensity of the CKS relation (Mattalia et al. 2024).

226

227 In our eyes, however, the difficulty of operationalizing the definition is not a problem to be  
228 solved by further refining the parameters towards the concept’s universal application, but rather,  
229 it is a distraction from the higher order consideration of the fact that good conservation praxis  
230 necessitates recognizing the incommensurability of definitions, the non-fungibility of relations,  
231 and the difficulty with discrete relational categories in the first place (Chan et al. 2016). Instead,  
232 we propose prioritizing conservation initiatives around *species of passionate interest* most  
233 generally, and by attending to the production of these emotions, the textures and entanglements  
234 generated by these multispecies relations, we will inevitably be led to those species of special  
235 conservation concern. In ecologies, just as in economies (where nature and culture are inevitably  
236 intertwined), there is always the continuous and invisible transmission of feelings — an  
237 exchange of persuasions, excitements and energies through conversation, human or otherwise,  
238 which creates the conditions of possibility (Latour and Lepinay 2009). In a sense, then,  
239 passionate intensity, whether constructive or destructive, is identical to the structuring logic of  
240 the original keystone concept, except here it’s framed as socially constructed: whereas the  
241 keystone species purports to indicate the functionality of a species as a central node within a  
242 complex web of relations, we believe *passion is ecosystem complexity’s mythic sign*.

243

244 Increasingly today, some of the more intractable conservation issues involve an array of diverse  
245 stakeholders and rights holders, ranging from Indigenous Peoples and Local Communities to

246 ranching and industry interests, from sportsmen and recreationists to the conservation biologists  
247 who also add themselves to the ecologies they study. In these cases, the concept of CKS might  
248 only prove technically applicable to one or a few of these groups' relations with the species in  
249 question — and for the most part this label has almost exclusively been applied by Settler  
250 scholars to define the relations of Indigenous Peoples. And yet many different kinds of groups  
251 (cultures of affinity) are passionately interested in the ecosystems where these species (and many  
252 other species as well) make their homes, sometimes for the better, but oftentimes for the worse.  
253 Considering most people today are living in novel ecosystems, both in the sense that ecosystems  
254 are changing and people are moving across the Earth as well, how should we consider this wider  
255 web of emerging relations (Hobbs et al. 2009; Kung et al. 2023)? In order to adapt our  
256 conservation action to an ever-changing world, we need a conservation framework that  
257 simultaneously honors the cultural significance of species to Indigenous Peoples, while also  
258 recognizing the multicultural context of today's most complex conservation questions.  
259

260 Although there maybe many ways to measure the passionate intensity latent to any given  
261 conservation situation — through surveys, review of press materials, semi-structured interviews,  
262 analysis of legal codes, investigative accounting, ethnography of ritual, documentation of  
263 violence, etc. — there are perhaps two critical reasons why refocusing conservation around  
264 emotion makes sense. Firstly, by attending to the passions generally, we are not attempting to  
265 define any single group's relationship with another species, but rather, we are allowing these  
266 relations to speak for themselves in the terms of the emotions they generate from the inside.  
267 Aside from a few examples, rarely has the designation of a CKS come from the “bottom up”  
268 (Goolmeer et al. 2024), and in fact, the term does not always resonate with how Indigenous  
269 Peoples understand their own “kincentric” relations (Lukawiecki et al. 2024). And secondly, by  
270 focusing on the passions without defining them, we are also opening ourselves up to considering  
271 conservation situations where difficult, destructive emotions, or even emotions in opposition to  
272 one another, are sustaining a seemingly intractable conservation problem. In most complex  
273 ecologies, especially where Settler Colonialism or economies of extraction still dominate the  
274 landscape, regimes of co-management between multiple entities involves a complex matrix of  
275 emotions where common understandings are few and far between (**See Fig. 1 for examples**).  
276

	<p>Various species of cranberries, such as the Mountain Cranberry (<i>Vaccinium vitis-idaea</i>), Bog Cranberry (<i>Oxycoccus oxyacoccus</i>), and Lowbush Cranberry (<i>Viburnum edule</i>) are used by the Cree, Dene, and Métis communities of Fort McKay in the Northern Boreal Forest of Alberta, Canada, for sustenance and medicinal purposes (Garibaldi 2009). Lying at the epicenter of large-scale oil sand extraction, these CKS have been utilized as a legal tool towards restoration and reclamation linking ecological and social processes.</p>
	<p>The common Mosquito (<i>Aedes aegypti</i>) is not traditionally known as a CKS since it's not generally associated with cultural identity, sustenance or ritual for Indigenous peoples, and yet of all the species on the planet, perhaps the mosquito receives the most attention due to its role as a vector for disease. Considering the vast sums of money, scientific research and cultural practices associated with managing human-mosquito relations, the mosquito is undoubtedly a global-scale species of passionate interest (Reis-Castro 2021).</p>
	<p>The Gray Wolf (<i>Canis lupus</i>) of North America has been reintroduced into much of its native range, and yet not without controversy. Once hunted to the edge of extinction by ranchers, and now celebrated as conservation success story by environmentalists, the Wolf as a species is also critical for the cultural identity of Indigenous peoples who have called the Western US home since time immemorial. Since its continued flourishing has become a flashpoint for the political fault lines of the wider North American society, we consider the Wolf as a “complex” species of passionate interest, or a confluence of manifold and oftentimes antagonistic passionate attachments (See Figure 2).</p>
	<p>The Oil Palm (<i>Elaeis guineensis</i>) is broadly cultivated across the tropics and used in a preponderance of products on the global market, in everything from soap to beauty products to plastics to foodstuffs. Whole economies rely on its continuing production for their existence, and “plantations” have been spreading in order to capitalize on this demand, which has undoubtedly been damaging for global biocultural diversity (Tsing 2012). Considering the intense financial investments, the amount of people who rely on this crop for their livelihood, and the sheer landmass of its cultivation, we consider the oil palm to be a species of passionate interest.</p>
	<p>The Devil's Hole pupfish (<i>Cyprinodon diabolis</i>) is a critically endangered species of fish found only in a single water-filled cavern in the US state of Nevada known as “Devil’s Hole.” Due to the research of ichthyologists, there’s been considerable <i>in situ</i> and <i>ex situ</i> conservation action towards maintaining this precarious population of endangered fish, such as designating the area as a National Wildlife Refuge, taking legal action against the use of water by local agricultural interests, and building captive breeding facilities. Because of this intense interest, even by a small minority of specialized scientist-activists, the pupfish is a species of passionate interest.</p>

277

278 **Figure 1. Examples of *Species of Passionate Interest* (All images from Creative Commons)**

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281 *Conservation: A Matter of Understanding Misunderstandings*

282

283 By focusing on passions generally, there is no attempt to make “our” concept universally  
 284 operational, and in fact, there is no requirement even to recognize a common conceptual world.  
 285 The goal, rather, would be to attend to productive divergences in order to harmonize those  
 286 oppositions that are preventing progress on the most pressing conservation concerns.  
 287 Conservation, then, becomes oriented around *species of passionate interest*, and its task is to  
 288 recognize the uncommon ground there in order to weave something more cohesive from a world  
 289 of many often irreconcilable differences (Blaser and De la Cadena 2017). Although there is still  
 290 much to learn about ecosystems, for example, we tend to know by now what is good for salmon,  
 291 even if it remains difficult to cultivate a common understanding of the right use of river water  
 292 (**See Fig. 2**). The theory of species of passionate interest here draws us towards those  
 293 confluences of oppositional emotional intensity, and asks us as biodiversity conservationists to  
 294 dwell there, in what the anthropologist Eduardo Vivieros de Castro calls “equivocation zones”  
 295 (Viveiros De Castro 2004):

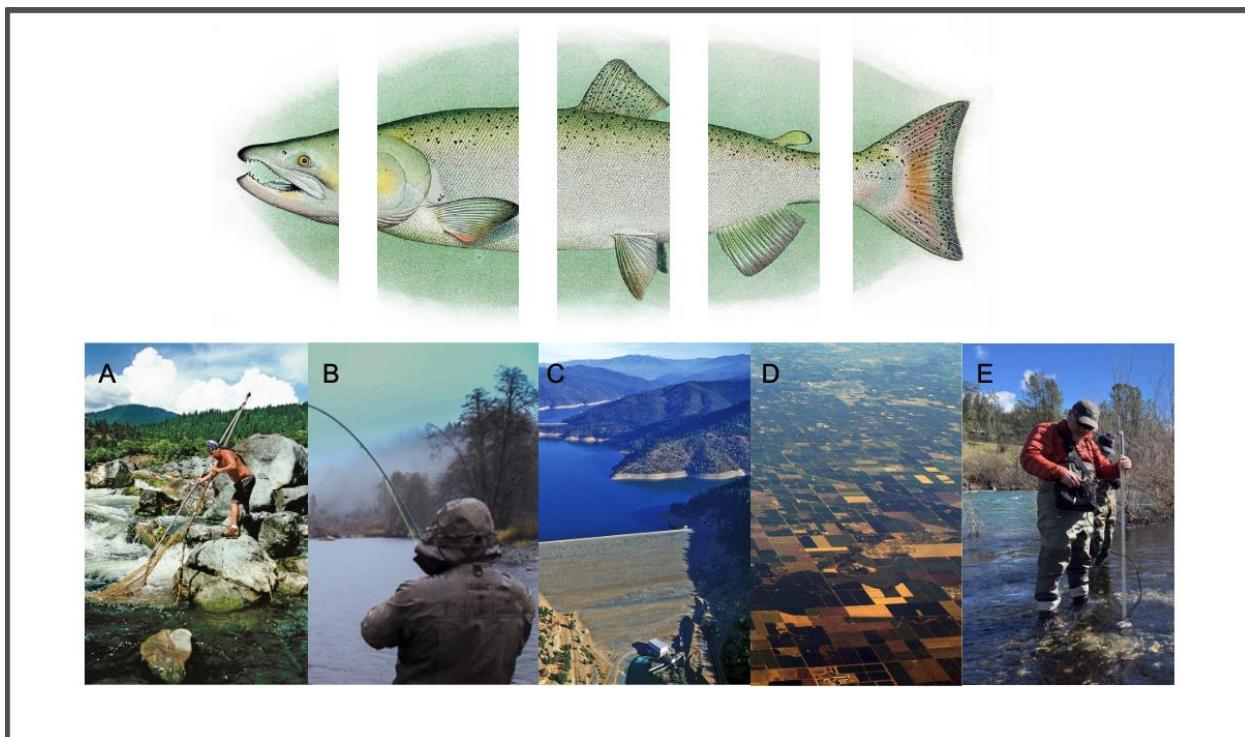
296

297 *An equivocation is not just a “failure to understand” (Oxford English Dictionary, 1989), but a  
 298 failure to understand that understandings are necessarily not the same, and that they are not  
 299 related to imaginary ways of “seeing the world” but to the real worlds that are being seen”* (11).

300 Or in other words, the work of conversation becomes amending the failure to understand that  
301 when referring to a given species, ecosystem, place, or even a practice, different groups of  
302 people might mean very different things. For some, a wolf is a majestic symbol of the American  
303 West to be protected, and for others this same wolf is a thief who threatens their livelihood; still  
304 for others this wolf is quite literally a member of their family, or kin. A species of passionate  
305 interest, then, is one whose ongoing existence is a loci of passion that is also a cipher for the  
306 wider political fault lines constitutive of the society in question (and so sometimes this species is  
307 a site of struggle, as well, but also possibly the site of productive translations leading to greater  
308 social harmony). These cultural fissures do not necessarily have to go away in order for  
309 ecological relations to be repaired, but only if these uncommon interests can be remade in the  
310 service of co-existence (Niesner et al. 2024). Moving towards this trouble is what it means to  
311 make bad relations into good relations.

312  
313 The scholar of emotion Eve Sedgwick, in one of the foundational texts on “affect theory,” says  
314 there are generally two emotional styles or “positions” of practicing politics, which are often  
315 deployed together in a kind of to and fro movement: the paranoid and the reparative (Sedgwick  
316 2003). For Sedgwick, the paranoid position is a strong theory of negative affect, it is anticipatory  
317 of hidden violences, and it places its faith in exposing the dangers posed by potentially bad  
318 actors. Critically, it leads to *reifications*, those sticky ossifications of being that are the result and  
319 the cause of distinctly rigid relations (Strathern 1988). The reparative position, on the other hand,  
320 is the “heartbeat of contingency.” Additive, creative, and oftentimes imbued with a sentimental  
321 surplus of love, hope, and good humor, the reparative process attempts to turn one’s own  
322 resources towards the task of repairing or assembling our fractured bits of relations into  
323 something like a “new whole.” According to Sedgwick, the reparative position: “inaugurates  
324 ethical possibility — in the form of a guilty, empathetic view of the other as at once good,  
325 damaged, integral, and requiring and eliciting love and care” (Sedgwick 2003, pp. 137). Such  
326 ethical possibility, however, is also founded on the very fragile concern of caring for oneself as  
327 well, and critically, the reparative position thus leads the practitioner to seek pleasure and  
328 nourishment in an environment where such opportunities are perceived as scant or non-existent.  
329

330 How, then, might we become *affect*-oriented in conservation biology, and in particular, oriented  
331 towards those nourishing, positive emotions for those practicing this work? It might look  
332 something like attending to the social-ecological rifts, breaks and fissures of the ecologies in  
333 question, to those places where the passions of the wider society guide us, and dwelling there, in  
334 the hopes of repairing something of the larger whole. This is difficult work to be sure, but  
335 certainly worthwhile. It might mean inventing new desires for ourselves and others as well,  
336 which could sustain the practices of whatever we (biocultural conservationists) may find useful  
337 and nourishing. In turning towards the resources of our own and other’s passionate creativity,  
338 repair and transformation might justly be made possible.  
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**Figure 2. The Potential Complexity of a Species of Passionate Interest:** The Potential Complexity of SPI — *Species of passionate interest* like the Chinook Salmon (*Oncorhynchus tshawytscha*) can become the loci of manifold passions involving a variety of cultural practices, ranging from (A) Indigenous customs and livelihoods, which pictured here is Karuk dip net fishing (B) Sport fishing, (C) Hydropower extraction and stillwater recreation, (D) Irrigation for industrial agriculture, (E) The science of riparian ecology. Where these passions overlap, the work of conservation becomes navigating the political reality of these different mis/understandings [Photo A from *The Times Standard*; photos B, C, D, from *Creative Commons*; photo E from *The Trinity River Restoration Program*].

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350 *The relationship between biodiversity and human consciousness*

351

352 We are living in an intensifying cataclysm of global biodiversity loss (Dirzo et al. 2014), which  
353 is also intertwined with the imminent threat to the integrity and very survival of countless  
354 Indigenous and Local Cultures that rely on this tapestry of life for their continuing existence  
355 (Reyes-Garcia 2023). Fields such as ethnobiology, linguistic ecology, and environmental  
356 anthropology have also begun to express in practice what's been known to metaphysicians from  
357 a variety of cultural contexts for a long time: the perception of diversity is the basic condition for  
358 the flourishing of human consciousness (Maffi 2005). The human psyche is constructed by a  
359 diversity of worldly relations, many of which are more-than-human in nature (Kohn 2013). Or as  
360 Alfred North Whitehead says, “we are in the world and the world is in us” (Whitehead 1934). Of  
361 course, this intertwining of biodiversity and human consciousness provides the inspiration and  
362 moral imperative for protecting biocultural diversity wherever it may live.

363

364 Attending to *species of passionate interest* then allows conservation to tap into the deep  
365 emotional landscape that sustains both personal connection and public action. Positive  
366 psychology has shown that experiences of awe, hope, beauty and purpose can significantly  
367 enhance well-being and motivate prosocial behavior (Corral Verdugo 2012). As Susan Clayton  
368 has argued, environmental concern is often deeply tied to identity and emotional investment,  
369 meaning that conservation disputes are rarely just technical disagreements, but expressions of  
370 core values and affective commitments (Clayton and Opotow 2003). Understanding how desire,  
371 joy, grief, and anger intermingle in conservation settings requires a psychological lens attuned to  
372 both the sustaining power of positive emotions and the constructive role of emotional conflict  
373 (Castillo-Huitrón et al. 2020). By recognizing the emotional undercurrents of conservation  
374 questions, we can better grasp how passion (e.g., whether for species, places, or cultural  
375 traditions) shapes identity and conservation outcomes alike, for better or worse.  
376

377 Thus far, theories of biocultural conservation, of which the discourse around the CKS takes part,  
378 has largely focused on the way biodiversity has sustained Indigenous and Local Cultures (Franco  
379 2022), and this theorizing has resulted in practices of knowledge gathering and political  
380 movements to conserve and preserve this diversity for posterity and for a variety of evolving  
381 purposes (Gavin et al. 2015). The discipline of ethnobiology, for example, was originally  
382 oriented around colonial utilitarianism, where this research sought to extract information from  
383 local cultures for use in other, Western contexts (Hunn 2007). Only in recent decades, however,  
384 has the field shifted to allow holders of traditional ecological knowledge (TEK) more control  
385 over how this knowledge is obtained, shared and used, and the field has commendably moved to  
386 ‘decolonize’ (Edwards 2023). Today, the autonomy of Indigenous Peoples themselves, what’s  
387 known generally as “collective continuance,” is intensely prioritized, and the agency of the wider  
388 other-than-human world, too, is considered as worthy of recognition (Whyte 2018). Of course,  
389 for many of the world’s Indigenous Peoples, practices of tending to the land in order to increase  
390 biodiversity has been and is continually central to their existence since “time immemorial”  
391 (Anderson 2005; Norgaard 2019).  
392

393 These cultures must be defended, protected, and respected, for their flourishing is not only  
394 valuable in its own right, but it is also inextricably linked with the ongoing survival of humans  
395 more generally on this planet (Danowski and Viveiros de Castro 2017). But this task of  
396 “conserving” is perhaps only one critical aspect of a larger process that involves so many of the  
397 Earth’s human residents who are not already sensitized to local biodiversity concerns. As people  
398 move across the globe, they change the landscape immensely, and bring with them other living  
399 beings as well — one of the most bio-destructive movements of people, of course, is broadly  
400 known as “settler colonialism” (Whyte 2018). And in order to adapt to living on this changing  
401 planet, firstly, the existing biocultural diversity must be conserved, protected and given the sense  
402 of self-determination necessary to flourish; but secondly, and this is equally critical to Earthly  
403 survival, whole societies must be inspired to undergo radical transformations towards becoming

404 more ecologically conscious. In a sense, CKS must necessarily be conserved, but something like  
405 *new* CKS relations must be cultivated as well. These twin imperatives of addressing conservation  
406 and inspiring change are certainly related, but the terms of the relationship are delicate,  
407 contingent and still evolving. Neo-colonial dynamics must surely be avoided — we must learn  
408 from history. What's certain, however, is that without the simultaneous articulation of  
409 conservation and social change, there is little hope of humans continuing to flourish on a planet  
410 with a diversity of other life forms flourishing as well.

411  
412 In his 2000 short book *The Three Ecologies*, the philosopher Felix Guattari gives shape to what  
413 he calls *social ecosophy*, an ethico-political articulation of the way three ecological registers are  
414 inextricably linked: the environment, social relations and human subjectivity (Guattari 2000).  
415 For Guattari, social ecosophy consists in developing specific social practices that will modify  
416 and reinvent the ways in which we live, with radical consequences for the environment:  
417

418 *Obviously it would be inconceivable to try and go back to the old formulas...But it will be a*  
419 *question of literally reconstructing the modalities of 'group-being,' not only through*  
420 *'communicational' interventions but through existential mutations driven by the motor of*  
421 *subjectivity. Instead of clinging to general recommendations, we would be implementing*  
422 *effective practices of experimentation, as much on a microsocial level as on a larger institutional*  
423 *scale. For its part, mental ecosophy will lead us to reinvent the relation of the subject to the*  
424 *body, to phantasm, to the passage of time, to the 'mysteries' of life and death. It will lead us to*  
425 *search for antidotes... Its ways of operating will be more like those of an artist [34-35].*

426  
427 If we need to experiment with relating to the other-than-human world, then *species of passionate*  
428 *interest* might just provide the opportunity for developing these critically transformative  
429 practices. Curiously, rather than speak of human “consciousness,” or even human “subjectivity,”  
430 Guattari invokes “the motor of subjectivity,” and elsewhere he describes the human mind as less  
431 of an individuated mass and more like something of a “terminal” for processing relations, “the  
432 crossroads of multiple components that are relatively autonomous, but also sometimes in open  
433 conflict.” In other words, humans are constructed by our relations, our being is drawn out of us  
434 by those *components of subjectification*, the sensibilities, intelligences, and desires whose  
435 cultivation allows us to continually reinvent who we are within the web of our ecological and  
436 social relations ( **See Fig. 3 for a list of components of subjectification related to SPI**).  
437

438  
439  
440  
441

<p>Groups formed for the purposes of protesting and organizing political power are a common source of ecological consciousness raising, and thus provide one of the main <i>components of subjectification</i> that leads towards new socio-ecological arrangements. Pictured here are activists from the tribes of the Klamath Basin, whose tireless organizing over decades finally led to the largest dam removal project in the world taking place on the Klamath River between 2021-2024. [Image from bringthesalmonhome.org]</p>	
<p>Likely the most meaningful way people interact with their environment is through the food they choose to eat, and although many people in the world are now alienated from the true source of their nutrients, consumer choice is still a major <i>component of subjectification</i>. With many brands now touting bio-culturally responsible certifications, the stories being told at the grocery store are a major way people learn to consider their wider web of ecological relations. [Image from the Creative Commons]</p>	
<p>Process-based restoration practices are increasingly common, and they often serve to involve people in the work of stewarding the natural landscape in such a way that changes people even as they change the environment. Pictured here are stewards with "Rio Grande Returns," an organization in Northern New Mexico, USA dedicated to building "analog-beaver dams," a transformational practice that certainly contains meaningful <i>components of subjectification</i> for the way these participants also contribute to the environment. [Image from Rio Grande Returns]</p>	
<p>Outdoor recreation activities that sensitize participants to the wider biodiverse world are exceptionally powerful engines for cultivating subjectivities finely attuned to the changing patterns of the ecosystems around them. Hunting and fishing are common pursuits in the sporting tradition, but pictured here is birdwatching, which is perhaps doubly useful as a <i>component of subjectification</i> for the way these participants also contribute scientific data to ornithology. [Image from Creative Commons]</p>	
<p>Of course, many of the world's Indigenous Peoples and Local Cultures practice long held customs and rituals that connect their ways of living to the wider ecological world. These biocultural practices must be protected, and also oftentimes they must be honored as sacred rites belonging to the people who practice them. Pictured here are canoe builders in Micronesia, who rely on local materials in order to construct these canoes that are so critical for their way of life. [Image from ich.unesco.org]</p>	

442

443 **Figure 3: List of components of subjectification relevant to eco-social relations**

444

445

446 *Conclusion*

447

448 In any given conservation situation, subjectivities new and old are fashioned and refashioned in  
 449 the fulcrum of *passionate intensity* that is the result of the relations surrounding these biocultural  
 450 diversity controversies. These questions in their given locale often subsume all existing modes of  
 451 being: the intimacies of multispecies relations, questions concerning the stewardship of the wider  
 452 environment, and the activation of organized groups for the purposes of local activism, statecraft,  
 453 wildlife management, and even for family or business interests. Here, where a *species of*  
 454 *passionate interest* signals the existence of a complex web of eco-cultural relations, the intense  
 455 emotions that accrue must be recognized for their conservation potential, no matter whether these  
 456 emotions are oppositional, compassionate, harmonious, or destructive. If the CKS discourse  
 457 identifies a critical species to be conserved for the purposes of maintaining the resilience of a  
 458 given culture, then a *species of passionate interest* might designate a resilient cultural complex  
 459 holding within itself the energy necessary for doing the work of species conservation into the  
 460 future. It's a subtle difference, but the dilation of the CKS concept to include the passions most  
 461 generally keeps open the possibility of simultaneously protecting threatened biocultural  
 462 arrangements, but also for constructing *new ecological arrangements* in a world where this  
 463 sensitivity is increasingly required for survival.

464

465 What new biocultural relations, communities, assemblages might we be able to form if we focus  
 466 our resources around the passions surrounding some of the most intense conservation concerns?  
 467 How might we be able to preserve the good practices and transform the bad practices through the

468 delicate interaction of (or translation between) biocultural worlds? How do we hold space for  
469 these passions from the “reparative position” in order to create a sense of wholeness that is  
470 wholly different from what these ecosystems once were? In so many ways, this work is already  
471 occurring in places where biocultural conservation is being prioritized. A first step towards  
472 furthering the proliferation and diversification of these practices would be to ask towards some  
473 of the specific ways people involve themselves in issues of biocultural conversation. What are  
474 the sensibilities, intelligences, and desires that either support or thwart this work, and how do we  
475 steward these intensities for the purposes of inviting new eco-social arrangements? The creativity  
476 of our social practices are in synergy with the creativity of the ecosystems we hope to conserve.  
477 What this looks, and *feels* like, remains open to evolution.

478

479

480 **Table. 2 - Outstanding Questions**

481

- 482 1. How should we understand the relationship between a *species of passionate interest* and the wider ecology  
483 of which this species is a part? If we are to take a holistic understanding, how do we also emphasize  
484 “place,” “practice,” and “complex” as contributing to the survival of discrete species?
- 485 2. *Species of passionate interest* can be those species that must be conserved, those species that are currently  
486 flourishing, but also those species which may not receive a lot of attention (just yet). How should we think  
487 about this future-oriented, creative aspect of the theory, which in some cases calls for creating passionate  
488 interest around a given species where there currently is little or none to be found?
- 489 3. What should the relationship be between Indigenous cultural practices and those of the wider, dominant  
490 society that are in need of changing? Without inviting neocolonial dynamics, ie exploitation, extraction,  
491 how might cultures learn from each other in order to cultivate best conservation practices for everyone?
- 492 4. Are there different kinds of *species of passionate interest*, and would these different categories call for  
493 different conservation action? For example, is there a meaningful difference between a “complex” SPI —  
494 one which invites various and sometimes antagonistic emotional attachments — and an SPI that is more  
495 like a traditional cultural keystone species?
- 496 5. How do we cultivate the right kind of *components of subjectification* while simultaneously working to  
497 mitigate the effects of the most destructive forms of environmental subjectivities? If biocultural  
498 conservation becomes oriented now around emotions, do we need to formalize a more “therapeutic”  
499 dimension to this work, which could address feelings around conflict and extraction?
- 500 6. In order to hold space for conflicting, contradictory, or even antagonistic emotions, what new forms of  
501 environmental governance might *species of passionate interest* invite us to construct for managing the  
502 complex natural-cultural situations around conservation concerns? How do we foster dialogue between  
503 people who have different value systems, and who hold different beliefs about the ecosystems in question?

504

505

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