

# Journal for Oyster Representations Project

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## 1 Ecosystem services and non-human labor

A key model for conceptualizing the relational structure of oysters within the econo-ecosystem<sup>1</sup> of the Chesapeake Bay is the ecosystems services model<sup>2</sup>. Although in not inherently an economic model, when combined with neoliberal ideas the ecosystem services model allows for the inclusion of the labor of non-human organisms into the economics of the system by modeling the value of the products of this labor if it was performed by humans within the market<sup>3</sup>. The idea behind the ecosystem services model is that the quantification of market value for the products of non-human labor will incentivize the conservation of the ecosystem that supports that labor through market forces<sup>4</sup>. In the case of oysters, researchers have documented a long list of ecosystem services that are provided by oyster reefs, including water quality improvement, shoreline stabilization, and habitat creation<sup>5</sup>. Grabowski et al. found that the market value of the ecosystem services provide by oyster reefs substantially exceeded the market value of the oysters if they were harvested for meat<sup>6</sup> thereby suggesting that the market should incentivize the creation of sanctuary reefs (i.e., reefs that are not open to harvest). This conceptualization of oyster reefs as the providers of ecosystem services embeds the reefs and the labor of the oysters within the capitalist market system and relies on market forces and capitalist values to

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<sup>1</sup>The econo-ecosystem highlights the interdependency of human and non-human systems and recognizes that “nature” is the product of non-human labor (Barron & Hess, 2020)

<sup>2</sup>Although the idea the ecosystems provide services to humans is not new, the contemporary idea of ecosystem services was formalized by the United Nations Millennium Ecosystems Assessment which defined ecosystem services as “benefits people obtain from ecosystems” and divide these benefits into provisioning services that create the resources humans need, such as food and water, regulating services that maintain environmental variability within ranges of human tolerance, supporting services that create and maintain the biophysical systems that humans depend upon, and cultural services that provide for the intangible benefits humans derive from nature (Reid et al., 2005)

<sup>3</sup>(Costanza et al., 1998)

<sup>4</sup>(Costanza et al., 1998)

<sup>5</sup>(Grabowski et al., 2012; ?, ?)

<sup>6</sup>The highest value ecosystem services provided by the oyster reefs, according to (Grabowski et al., 2012) was shoreline protection. When this service was included in the analysis, the reefs recovered their cost of construction within 2 years of construction. However, even when shoreline protection was omitted from the analysis, the reefs recovered their cost of construction within a decade.

23 define conservation goals. The problem with this approach is that the goals  
 24 of the capitalist system, to maximize productivity and profit, means that the  
 25 ecosystem services model does not actually incentivize conservation but in fact  
 26 incentivises intensification<sup>7</sup> and the maximization of value through optimization  
 27 and efficiency increases.

28 An example of the co-option of non-human labor for the maximization of  
 29 production and profit can be seen in the movement to harness the power of  
 30 soil microbiota to create soil fertility<sup>8</sup>. There is increasing recognition that the  
 31 fertility of the soil is the result of the labor of soil microbiota and therefore the  
 32 productivity of a farm has changed from being “an activity carried out predomi-  
 33 nantly by human bodies to an activity carried out by the soil biota under human  
 34 management”<sup>9</sup>. The recognition of this ecosystem service (i.e., the creation of  
 35 soil fertility), by soil biota, has not lead to the conservation of soil ecosystems  
 36 but has rather lead to the “direct and indirect manipulation [of the lives of the  
 37 soil biota] in the name of capital accumulation through e.g. greater efficiency  
 38 and productivity. . .”<sup>10</sup>. Although Krzywoszynska do not explicitly reference the  
 39 ecosystem services model in their example, it is clear that the farmers that they  
 40 interview see the nonhuman labor of the soil biota primarily through the lens  
 41 of the services they provide. Krzywoszynska notes that for the farmers, “what  
 42 matters about agrarian soils. . . is not so much what they are but what they can  
 43 do”<sup>11</sup>. This emphasis on the “services” that the soils provide when combined  
 44 with the goals of a capitalist system — namely the accumulation of surplus  
 45 value — results in a representation of the system that invites reduction. If the  
 46 system is not a “system” per se, but rather an aggregation of ecosystem services,  
 47 then there is no barrier to the isolation and optimization of those services in  
 48 the name of production. For the farmers interviewed by (Krzywoszynska, 2020)  
 49 the primary goal of their “collaboration” with the soils was “the promise of  
 50 greater farm productivity that soil biota enable” footnote(Krzywoszynska, 2020,  
 51 p. 243).

52 An alternative to the ecosystem services model for understanding ecosystems  
 53 is the foundation species model. In the foundation species model the persistence  
 54 of an ecosystem is facilitated by one or a few species that create biotic and abi-  
 55 otic habitat for the other species in the system and stabilizes the biogeochemical  
 56 environment<sup>12</sup>. Unlike the ecosystem services model of ecosystems, the founda-  
 57 tion species model is not explicitly defined by its relationship with humans or  
 58 human activities. Humans are incorporated into the ecosystem in relation to the  
 59 existing structure and processes created by the foundation species. The nature  
 60 of human relations is not explicitly defined as in the case of the ecosystem ser-  
 61 vices model, where benefits flow from nature to humans<sup>13</sup>. Because foundation

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<sup>7</sup>need to see (Bommarco, Kleijn, & Potts, 2013)

<sup>8</sup>(Krzywoszynska, 2020)

<sup>9</sup>(Krzywoszynska, 2020, p. ?)

<sup>10</sup>(Krzywoszynska, 2020, p. 239)

<sup>11</sup>(Krzywoszynska, 2020, p. 234)

<sup>12</sup>cite Foundation species here

<sup>13</sup>(Costanza et al., 1998)

species are strong interactors<sup>14</sup> human-caused alterations to their abundance or function will have disproportionately large effects on the ecosystem. Hemlock forests create a unique physiochemical environment due to the impacts of their leaf litter on soil nutrient content, soil moisture, and light availability, that supports a unique community of facilitated organisms<sup>15</sup>. However, hemlock forests do not reestablish themselves following harvest by humans but are replaced by hardwood species<sup>16</sup>, so the exploitation of hemlock trees as a raw material results in not only the co-opting of the metabolic labor of the hemlock trees but undermines their creative power within the system. The application of the ecosystem services model to this system would recognize that in addition to the market value of the wood provided by the forest, the hemlock forest might also provide services that are valuable to humans, such as recreation, habitat for other valuable species, or a repository of bio-products such as medicine. As a result, the total value of the forest to humans could exceed the market value of the wood and the market should drive its preservation<sup>17</sup>. Although under this analysis, the forest may be preserved, the forest ecosystem has been reduced to simply a spreadsheet of services. Battistoni writes<sup>18</sup>

Turning ecosystems into property requires that they be represented for the market as an array of individualized services that fails to adequately reflect their actual functioning or necessary independence; thus the complexity and relationality of what is being preserved is often lost as ecosystems are divided into packages of services. . .

The “complexity and relationality” of the ecosystem that Battistoni refers to here is precisely what is created by the foundation species. It is through the relationships with the other species in the system that the foundation species “creates” a unique ecosystem. In this sense the ecosystem is not an aggregation of services but the result of the emergent properties of organisms in relation.

The foundation species concept shows that the ecosystem that emerges from the labor of the foundation species is more than just a representation applied by humans but has biological materiality. The ecosystem is a “thing” that is created by the relational structure and emergent properties of its constituents in collaboration with the labor of the foundation species. Therefore, as Battistoni notes, the ecosystem has “necessary independence” as well. Through the recognition of the ecosystem’s materiality and creative agency, the ecosystem becomes not only economic but also political. That is to say that the ecosystem and its members are represented not by the value that they bring to the market but as co-creators, as Battistoni says “as a collective distributed undertaking of humans and nonhumans to reproduce, regenerate, and renew a common world”

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<sup>14</sup>Strong interactors are species that have an impact on the structure or function of an ecosystem that is disproportionate to either their abundance or the impact of other species in the system [CITE strong interactors here]

<sup>15</sup>(?, ?)

<sup>16</sup>(?, ?)

<sup>17</sup>(Costanza et al., 1998)

<sup>18</sup>(Battistoni, 2017, p. 11)

100 through “hybrid-labor”<sup>19</sup>. This idea is also represented by extending Marx’s  
101 concept of “species-being” to nonhumans, where nonhumans as well as humans  
102 labor within a relational framework with others for their own wellbeing<sup>20</sup>.

103 Any attempt at conservation risks creating a distinction between the “natu-  
104 ral” and the “human”, and then seeking to erase the “human” from the “natu-  
105 ral” to return to a preferred “pristine” state. Latour classically showed that the  
106 distinction between the nature and culture is a myth of modernity but nonethe-  
107 less it remains a compelling and persistent model influencing our interactions  
108 with the environment. For our present analysis, it becomes relevant in the appli-  
109 cation of the ecosystem services model to conservation. The ecosystem services  
110 model is “the idea that we should care for the non-human world because of all  
111 the services it provides to humans to maintain the world we need and want”  
112 <sup>21</sup>. In this conception the needs and wants of humans seen as distinct from the  
113 needs and wants of the non-human and therefore permits the exploitation of  
114 non-human labor to serve the needs and wants of humans. However, this model  
115 fails to recognize the interdependency of the human and non-human worlds for  
116 the co-creation of “nature” <sup>22</sup>. Barron and Hess propose the concept of the  
117 “econo-ecological” system, which highlights the interdependency of human and  
118 non-human interactions. This model alludes to the same relational structure  
119 that ecologists have recognized in the foundation species model, where the struc-  
120 ture and function of the system is the result of facilitating interactions between  
121 its members, what Barron and Hess call “in-kind” labor interactions. In this  
122 type of relational structure, the labor of one species provides the conditions  
123 necessary for other species to thrive.

124 In my attempt to put ecological models and humanist frameworks in conver-  
125 sation, I am coming up against an issue of “translation” between the two fields.  
126 The humanist emphasis on “thriving” and “well-being” that is captured in Fair  
127 and McMullen description of “species-being”, whereby a species is capable of  
128 applying its labor for its own welfare, does not map well to ecological under-  
129 standings of the success for species, which are rooted in the Darwinian idea of  
130 “fitness”. From the perspective of biological evolution, fitness is the number of  
131 reproductively mature offspring that an individual produces. So if one squirrel  
132 individual produces 4 reproductively viable offspring, and another squirrel  
133 individual produces only 3 reproductively viable offspring, then the former is  
134 considered to have greater fitness. This matters, of course, because the princi-  
135 ple metric of “success” in evolutionary biology is the temporal transference of  
136 genetic information, which is done through the production of viable offspring.  
137 This narrow definition of “success” is not easily reconciled with humanist ideas  
138 of “thriving” or “well-being”, since they produce a conundrum whereby we can  
139 recognize that from a human perspective these terms do not simply mean the  
140 production of viable offspring, and in the case of a feminist ideas<sup>23</sup>, may explic-

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<sup>19</sup>(Battistoni, 2017, p. 6)

<sup>20</sup>(Fair & McMullen, 2023)

<sup>21</sup>(Barron & Hess, 2020)

<sup>22</sup>(Barron & Hess, 2020; Richardson & Weszkalnys, 2014; Krzywoszynska, 2020)

<sup>23</sup>()

141 itly reject reproduction as a definition of well-being. On the other hand, since it  
142 is impossible to know the experience of non-humans<sup>24</sup>, applying human-based  
143 definitions of thriving or well-being to non-humans is irrevocably fraught. For  
144 the purposes of this project then, I am drawn to the idea that “thriving” and  
145 “well-being” are connected to being able to participate in the full suite of eco-  
146 logical relationships that reflect a species’ evolutionary history.

147 Evolutionary history reflect the synthesis of relational structure and creation,  
148 since changes in the structural and genetic information of a species<sup>25</sup> are linked  
149 to environmental (i.e., relational) factors that an individual encounters. This  
150 transfer of information and matter through time by the combined processes of  
151 biological evolution and metabolism aligns with the connections between matter  
152 and semiotics in new materialist ideas<sup>26</sup> where matter and meaning are entan-  
153 gled and arise from the “world’s process of becoming”<sup>27</sup>. This act of co-creation  
154 of biomass and information, matter and semiotics, linked through a temporally  
155 specific relational structure represents in the most explicit way, what it means  
156 to be an individual and a species. Tsing describes the process of “alienation” as  
157 being removed from the context in which the developed or exist. The specific  
158 ecological relational structure of a species and the history that created it most  
159 basically this context of development and existence. Therefore, alienation from  
160 the specific ecological relationships that reflect a species’ evolutionary history  
161 represents alienation from “thriving” and a species capacity to labor toward its  
162 own “well-being”, that is to manifest its species-being<sup>28</sup>, irrespective of whether  
163 a species is producing viable offspring. This relational structure is why exploita-  
164 tion for ecosystem services, even if the species is productive (or even freed from  
165 suffering, as is the goal of much animal liberation activity) is alienation, in that  
166 it is impossible to simultaneously maximize a subset of organismal or ecologi-  
167 cal functions that produce “services” for humans and maintain the historically  
168 contingent relational structure of the system. The foundation species model,  
169 in contrast, inherently recognizes the eco-historical relational structure of the  
170 system because what is considered the “system” is explicitly the manifestation  
171 of those relationships over time<sup>29</sup>.

172 Emerging ideas about the relationship between matter and meaning can in-  
173 form our understanding of this eco-historical relational system, that is what it  
174 means to develop into an oyster reef in relationship within the context of the  
175 Bay. The recognition that non-humans and even inanimate matter can have

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<sup>24</sup>(Fair & McMullen, 2023)

<sup>25</sup>Structural information refers to the specific arrangement of materials that make up an individual of a species. The structural information is created through the process of development by the genetic information, which is the specific sequence of nucleotide bases in the DNA molecules of the individual’s genome. The two forms of information are inextricably linked in that the structural information (i.e., the biological configuration of the organism) is needed to use the genetic information and the genetic information *specifies* the structural information, mostly by specifying which enzymes the individual can synthesize.

<sup>26</sup>(Iovino & Oppermann, 2012)

<sup>27</sup>(Iovino & Oppermann, 2012, p. 453)

<sup>28</sup>(Fair & McMullen, 2023)

<sup>29</sup>(Angelini, Altieri, Silliman, & Bertness, 2011)

176 agentic capacity<sup>30</sup> means that the development of the reef and its associated  
 177 ecology has relational, historical, and contingent components. That is to say  
 178 that the specific interactions that have and are taking place between the living  
 179 and non-living components of the system are the process of continually creating  
 180 the reef. Why this matters is because if we are to assert that the conceptualiza-  
 181 tion of ecosystems based on their capacity to provide ecosystem services is an  
 182 act of alienation in the sense described by Tsing, then we need to have some way  
 183 of understanding from what the organisms in the system are being alienated.  
 184 Iovino and Oppermann in their “Diptych” on new and postmodern materialism,  
 185 show how these movements allow us to consider the integration of matter and  
 186 meaning. In these concepts the relationships between the human, non-human,  
 187 and even inanimate matter create “things which are material, specific, non-self-  
 188 identical, and semiotically active<sup>31</sup> and thus matter and meaning are entangled  
 189 and emerge due to “world’s process of becoming”<sup>32</sup>. Applying these ideas to  
 190 our oyster reef, we can thus see the oyster reef as the continual creation of the  
 191 thing that is the reef. There is no reef independent of the eco-historical rela-  
 192 tionships that are the material and semiotic processes of the combined agentic  
 193 capacity of the matter of the system. In other words, what exists now as a  
 194 reef is the product of a process that can be understood narratively and emerges  
 195 from the meaning-matter interrelationships. Pushing these ideas even further  
 196 away from the dualism of matter *and* meaning, ? argues that agency does not  
 197 exist independent of the relationships of the actors but rather “emerges through  
 198 *intra-action*”<sup>33</sup>. That is to say that the system does not consist of the coming  
 199 together of the independent agentic capacity of things but rather the coming  
 200 together, the *intra-action*, is the agentic capacity. In this conception then,  
 201 we can see that viewing an ecosystem as an aggregation of ecosystem services  
 202 completely overlooks processes from which those services arise. The ecosystem  
 203 services model maintains the dualism of a human that can receive and benefit  
 204 from services produced by a system that has an independent existence and fur-  
 205 thermore that can be acted upon (e.g., certain services maximized for human  
 206 benefit), independent of the history and relational structure that brought those  
 207 services into being. When we see the system as one in which humans benefit  
 208 from the services of a non-human system, we have rendered the outcomes of  
 209 non-human labor as resources. That is to say that the ecosystem has become  
 210 a source of resources for humans to extract. We can connect resources and ser-  
 211 vices if we view resources as “ubiquitous and energentic substances that play  
 212 an active part in the making of worlds”<sup>34</sup>. Imagining an oyster reef as a source  
 213 of resources, immediately draws one to the idea of what can be extracted and  
 214 removed for use by humans. The most obvious example of this is of course the  
 215 meat of the oyster, but also the shell, which can be used for building material<sup>35</sup>

<sup>30</sup>(Iovino & Oppermann, 2012)

<sup>31</sup>(Iovino & Oppermann, 2012, p. 462)

<sup>32</sup>(Iovino & Oppermann, 2012, p. 453)

<sup>33</sup>(Iovino & Oppermann, 2012, p. 466)

<sup>34</sup>(Richardson & Weszkalnys, 2014, p. 6)

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216 and as a substrate to cultivate more oysters<sup>36</sup>. In the case of ecosystem services,  
 217 the resource that is “taken” from the reef is less obvious. When we conceptu-  
 218 alize a reef as a provider of services like phytoplankton removal or shoreline  
 219 protection, are we utilizing the reef as a resource? I argue yes. In this case  
 220 what is being extracted from the reef is the labor of the oysters. The oysters  
 221 are no longer seen as contributing labor for their own well being but rather for  
 222 the benefit of humans<sup>37</sup> who are outside of the relational structure of the reef.  
 223 That is, the resource flows unidirectionally from the oysters to humans and the  
 224 labor of the oysters is a “free gift” of nature that is available for human use<sup>38</sup>.  
 225 This view however, ignores the relational structure of natural systems where  
 226 the labor of the oysters are not only in relation with humans but also with  
 227 myriad other organisms in the complex ecosystem of the reef. The importance  
 228 of the interdependency of the human and non-human members of the system  
 229 is highlighted if we consider some of the other ecosystem services attributed  
 230 to oyster reefs<sup>39</sup>, for example the removal of nitrogen via denitrification. In  
 231 this case the oysters themselves are incapable of performing denitrification but  
 232 rather they create the conditions required for denitrifying bacteria to perform  
 233 this function<sup>40</sup> and therefore are part of a facilitation cascade<sup>41</sup> that only  
 234 emerges from the relational structure of the reef. What then is the resource  
 235 that is being utilized by humans? In the case of denitrification, it is the la-  
 236 bor of the denitrifying bacteria that is providing the service that is of use to  
 237 humans but this labor is only made possible by the world-building activity of  
 238 the oysters. Similar relationally-dependent structures are observed with other  
 239 ecosystem services (i.e., resources) provided by oyster reefs, such as habitat cre-  
 240 ation for economically important fish species<sup>42</sup>. It would seem then that the  
 241 principle resource provided by the oysters then is their capacity to enter into  
 242 ecological relationships. Richardson and Weszkalnys argue that resources come  
 243 into being via abstraction which is the “separation, parting, simplification, and  
 244 reduction... of both material and conceptual levels.”<sup>43</sup>. When oyster reefs are  
 245 modeled as a set of ecosystem services, which is to conceive them primarily as  
 246 resources, the necessary abstraction that is required in the process of resource-  
 247 making obscures the relational structure that creates the material thing from

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<sup>37</sup>This is similar to what Fair and McMullen (2023) observe for the labor of soil biota.

<sup>38</sup>(Richardson & Weszkalnys, 2014; Battistoni, 2017)

<sup>39</sup>For a full list of the ecosystem services that are provided by oyster reefs see (Grabowski et al., 2012) and ()

<sup>40</sup>Denitrifying bacteria are either facultative or obligate anaerobes that use nitrate ( $\text{NO}_3$ ) as the final electron acceptor in cellular respiration (i.e., the cellular process that extracts biologically useful energy from organic matter). Since nitrate yields less energy than oxygen, denitrification is only favored when there is no oxygen available. The conditions then that favor denitrification are those where oxygen is limited, nitrate is abundant, and organic matter is abundant. It is precisely these conditions that are created in the sediments around oyster reefs (?, ?)

<sup>41</sup>Facilitation cascades occur when the activity of one species creates the conditions that make the colonization and persistence of another species possible (Angelini et al., 2011)

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<sup>43</sup>(Richardson & Weszkalnys, 2014, p. 13)

248 which humans derive value.

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