

## Placing the *Anthropos* in Anthropocene

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### Abstract

In this article, we review the place of “the human” in influential approaches to the Anthropocene to expose the diverse conceptualizations of humanity and human futures. First, we synthesize current research on humans as landscape modifiers across space and time, making a key distinction between the “old Anthropocene” (beginning with human food production) and the “new Anthropocene” (coinciding with the start of the Industrial Revolution). Second, we engage critical perspectives on the structuring effects of capitalist and colonialist systems—now periodized as the “Capitalocene” and “Plantationocene,” respectively—that have driven environmental degradation and human inequality over the past half-millennium. In the third section, we introduce alternative perspectives from anthropological and ethnographic research that confront the socio-ecological disruptions of capitalism and colonialism, drawing on indigenous Amazonian perspectives that have a more capacious understanding of the human—including species other than *Homo sapiens*. Finally, to conclude, we extend our analysis to a broader suite of visions for building socially and environmentally just futures captured in the framework of the “pluriverse,” which stands in strong contrast with the techno-modernist aspirations for the next stage in which humans become separated from Earth, in space. In recognizing these varied understandings of humanity, we hope to call attention to the diverse possibilities for human futures beyond the Anthropocene.

Keywords: Anthropocene, Capitalocene, Human-environment interactions, Plantationocene, Pluriverse

## 1 **Introduction**

2           The Anthropocene has proven to be a useful—albeit controversial, concept for  
3 recognizing cumulative human impacts on the Earth’s systems and for generating robust  
4 discussion regarding pending environmental collapse. The ongoing debates about the  
5 origins and causes of the Anthropocene also have important implications for how we  
6 address this crisis. Given the centrality of *anthropos*—the human—to the issue and the  
7 solution, we offer a focus on humans as agents of environmental change. By looking  
8 across time and space, we aim to question and scrutinize human-environment relations  
9 and associated structures, ideologies, events, and technologies that have contributed  
10 either directly or indirectly to the recognition of the Anthropocene. Through cross-  
11 cultural and cross-disciplinary examination, we also draw attention to the different ways  
12 in which humans have conceived of human-environment relationships, including the  
13 concept of nature and the place of non-human actors in our socio-ecological relations.  
14 Where and how we place the *anthropos* in the Anthropocene has implications for more  
15 than just scholarly debates or our understanding of human-environment relations over  
16 time. It also has potential consequences for how we collectively imagine the human place  
17 on the planet, who gets counted under that umbrella of humanity, and how that vision  
18 should dictate the future of our socio-ecological relations on this planet and beyond

19           This article examines the human through a variety of social scientific, humanistic,  
20 and interdisciplinary frameworks to offer a deeper understanding of just what is meant  
21 when we speak of the “age of humans,” or the Anthropocene. As anthropologists, we  
22 center humans in the study of human-environment relations and environmental impacts  
23 across time and space, and follow other critical scholars in our examination of the the

24 ways that humans are conceptualized in scholarly and political debates about  
25 developmental and environmental futures. The paper has four main sections, each  
26 focused on human-environment relations and the systems in which they are embedded at  
27 distinct points in human history that contribute to or emerge from the Anthropocene.  
28 First, we draw on diverse disciplinary literatures to assess human management and  
29 landscape modification over time, identifying an “old Anthropocene” popularized in  
30 archaeology that stands in contrast to a “new Anthropocene” that is associated with the  
31 onset of the Industrial Revolution and modern technological expansion. We then delve  
32 into critical engagement with the Anthropocene from scholars that approach this new  
33 geological epoch through the structuring effects of global capitalism and colonialism over  
34 the past 500 years—now referred to as the Capitalocene and Plantationocene,  
35 respectively. In the third section, we begin to rethink the *anthropos* in the Anthropocene  
36 by drawing attention to how Amazonian indigenous perspectives fundamentally question  
37 humanity as a condition unique to *Homo sapiens*. Then, to conclude, we consider  
38 alternatives to capitalist and eco-modernist futures of ever-expanding economic growth  
39 and technological “progress” that eventually extend human life beyond the bounds of  
40 Earth. Recognizing that the human is many things across time, and that more just and  
41 equitable futures are not only possible but necessary, we close with an examination of  
42 how decolonizing practices in the present offer a vision for a future world “in which  
43 many worlds fit” (Kothari et al. 2019; Marcos 2002). In other words, by exposing the  
44 diverse conceptualizations of humanity, we highlight the diverse possibilities for human  
45 futures beyond the Anthropocene.

46 **The Old and New Anthropocene**

47           The concept of the Anthropocene is rooted in the simple notion that humans have  
48 fundamentally altered the planet. Since the concept was first introduced by Crutzen and  
49 Stoermer in 2000, wide-ranging debate has opened regarding the origins of the  
50 Anthropocene and the precise activities and behaviors responsible for this planetary  
51 transformation. To simplify these scholarly debates, we contend that there are two  
52 different visions of this geological epoch's origins presented by scholars working in such  
53 diverse fields as geology, geography, history, and archaeology, among many others. In  
54 most basic terms, there is an old Anthropocene and there is a new Anthropocene. The old  
55 Anthropocene is linked to the earliest forms of human landscape modification—from the  
56 manipulation of fire and early food production strategies to the development of  
57 agriculture (Glikson 2013; Stephens et al. 2019). The new Anthropocene, on the other  
58 hand, is squarely placed in the modern industrial era. Several of the advocates of the new  
59 Anthropocene see its origin at the dawn of industrialization (e.g. Steffen et al. 2007; Ellis  
60 et al. 2010), but others like the Anthropocene Working Group (AWG), pin it to nuclear  
61 bomb testing in the 1950s (Carrington 2016; Zalasiewicz et al. 2015). Despite the  
62 differences between them (and variation within them), both the old and new  
63 Anthropocene share a recognition of humans as landscape managers and modifiers, *par*  
64 *excellence*. What makes these two visions of the Anthropocene distinct are the forms of  
65 human impact on the planet deemed to be significant, as well as the different types of  
66 arguments and evidence they employ for delineating this new geological epoch.

67           When the Anthropocene began to gain steam as a concept at the beginning of the  
68 21st century, it was first linked to the rise of European industrialization. Crutzen and  
69 Stoermer (2000) saw that changes to Earth's climate beginning with the accelerated

70 release of greenhouses that followed the onset of the industrial period around 1850 A.D.  
71 Soon after the term appeared in print, other scholars began to question this origin story of  
72 the (European) industrial Anthropocene. Notably, environmental scientist William  
73 Ruddiman (2003) responded with the “early-anthropogenic hypothesis” that argued  
74 human alteration of the planet could be witnessed thousands of years ago with the start of  
75 crop and livestock domestication and the beginnings of agriculture—sometimes known as  
76 the “Neolithic revolution” (see also Ruddiman 2013). Ruddiman’s model drew both on  
77 archaeological and climatological data to make its case. Specifically, he argued that  
78 atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> began an anomalous increase 8,000 years ago coinciding with forest  
79 clearance in Eurasia resulting from early agriculture. A similar trend for atmospheric  
80 methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) could be found around 5,000 years ago, which Ruddiman linked to the  
81 expansion of rice irrigation in Asia. In sum, Ruddiman contended that the origins of  
82 agriculture and the origins of the Anthropocene were one and the same.

83         Researchers in archaeology, in particular, began to support this view of an older  
84 Anthropocene, offering additional forms of evidence. Not only did forest clearing  
85 resulting from agriculture have impacts on the climate thousands of years ago but the  
86 growth of sedentary societies and the concentrated deposition of organic wastes  
87 (“middening”) led to the formation of anthropogenic soils, which could serve as the  
88 “golden spikes” or markers of the Anthropocene (Certini and Scalenghe 2011). Even  
89 places like Amazonia, where domestication and agriculture took on different forms, offer  
90 evidence to support the early Anthropocene model, including the presence of  
91 anthropogenic forests, anthropogenic mounds, raised agricultural fields, and football  
92 field-sized geoglyphs (Schaan 2010; Levis et al. 2012; Watling 2017). A recent synthesis

93 of research by more than 250 archaeologists also supports this old Anthropocene model  
94 (Stephens et al. 2019). Although there is considerable variation in the timeframe in which  
95 different world regions were altered by human food production, this study asserts that by  
96 3,000 years ago, most of the planet was already transformed by hunter-gatherers, farmers,  
97 and pastoralists.

98         Though there has been considerable support for the old Anthropocene model, it  
99 has led to deeper consideration of the scale and extent of human modification of the  
100 environment across time as well as the temporal variability of human impacts. Models of  
101 the new Anthropocene have identified geological signatures linked to anthropogenic  
102 activity that can be found in much greater ubiquity, albeit in thinner slices of time. These  
103 include everything from the remains of the modern broiler chicken (Bennett et al. 2018)  
104 to industrially-produced microplastics that now blanket Earth and even can be found in  
105 deep ocean trenches (Zalasiewicz et al. 2016; see also Williams et al. 2016.). However,  
106 the AWG has argued that the sharpest of these signals comes from artificial radionuclides  
107 that spread globally via nuclear bomb testing in the early 1950s (see Zalasiewicz et al.  
108 2015). It is this date—1950 A.D. specifically—which the AWG will submit to the  
109 International Commission on Stratigraphy in a formal proposal by 2021. In the meantime,  
110 there is still much to debate regarding the underlying behaviors, systems, and even  
111 ideologies driving current planetary changes.

## 112 **The Capitalocene and Plantationocene**

113         The questions about the origins of the Anthropocene are important for how we  
114 understand the problem as well as theorize and enact potential solutions. While it is  
115 certain that the effects of the Anthropocene are evident in a number of indicators

116 associated with “the Great Acceleration” in the mid-twentieth century (Steffen et al.  
117 2011), the concept does little to explain what led us to this point. Critical social scientists  
118 in the fields of anthropology, geography, and sociology, in particular, draw attention to  
119 all that is obscured and erased by a term that designates a generalized humanity as  
120 universally responsible for the present ecological crisis (Malm and Hornborg 2014;  
121 Hornborg 2017). Two of the most influential reconceptualizations of the Anthropocene—  
122 the Capitalocene and the Plantationocene—argue for attention to the enjoined systems  
123 that began to shape the world around 500 years ago: global capitalism and colonialism.  
124 While these alternative proposals have different foci and arguments, they share an  
125 interest in how humans are differentially situated within broader political-economic  
126 systems undergirded by power-laden hierarchies that drive human social inequality and  
127 environmental destruction

128         Jason Moore, one of the principal proponents of the Capitalocene concept,  
129 critiques the attribution of environmental change to the “human enterprise” as a “mighty,  
130 largely homogeneous, acting unit” (2017, 3). According to Moore (2017), early  
131 capitalism created patterns of power, capital, and nature that laid the groundwork for the  
132 commonly understood origins of the Anthropocene. Andreas Malm, in *Fossil capital:  
133 The rise of steam power and the roots of global warming* (2016), similarly argues against  
134 the myth that humans are predestined to degrade the environment, since such a narrative  
135 ignores the structuring effects of capitalism.

136         The development of capitalism is intimately linked with colonialism, and a  
137 specific suite of socio-ecological relationships, beginning roughly in the mid-fifteenth  
138 century. In Donna Haraway and colleagues’ 2016 article, another increasingly influential

139 term was coined—the Plantationocene (Haraway et al. 2016). The Plantationocene  
140 emphasizes the plantation as a central analytic for understanding the rationalized  
141 production system that requires the simultaneous exploitation of nature and human labor  
142 (Mintz 1986; McKittrick 2011; Li 2018; Paredes 2020).

143         The global environmental implications of colonialism and the emerging global  
144 world system can also be seen in the geological record. According to the “Orbis Spike,”  
145 global declines in atmospheric carbon dioxide between 1570 and 1620 A.D. were the  
146 result of massive Native American population declines following the spread of disease  
147 and violence under European colonialism (Lewis and Maslin 2015, 175-176). For this  
148 reason, Davis and Todd (2017) argue that the starting date of the Anthropocene should  
149 coincide with the colonization of the Americas due to the reverberating effects of  
150 dispossession and genocide of Native peoples as well as the endurance of colonial  
151 ecocidal regimes.

152         As noted above, scholars who have proposed the ideas of the Capitalocene and  
153 Plantationocene assert that it is not necessarily all humans who are responsible for  
154 widespread ecological degradation on the planet, but rather the capitalist system and  
155 global elites invested in the most rapacious forms of natural resource extraction and agro-  
156 industrial production. The Capitalocene and the Plantationocene emphasize how the  
157 diffuse, contextual relations between capitalism and assemblages of humans and non-  
158 humans work together to produce environmental destruction. Both perspectives seek to  
159 bridge the divide and confront the ideologies that place *Homo sapiens* in a privileged  
160 position over other organisms, seeking to re-insert humanity back into the web of life  
161 (Moore 2017) and “make kin” across species lines (Haraway 2015).

162           Black geographers, in particular, have productively examined how the  
163 Anthropocene and its derivatives like the Plantationocene have overlooked the  
164 importance of racial politics in the past and continuing in the present (Davis et al. 2019)  
165 and racialized geographies—gaps that continue to persist in the ways that the  
166 Anthropocene has led to generalized discourses about humanity (Pulido 2018; Whyte  
167 2018; Yusoff 2018; Resnick, *forthcoming*). Perspectives from eco-feminism,  
168 environmental racism, and environmental justice argue that reconnection requires  
169 confronting the linkages between capitalism, racism, and sexism that result in  
170 environmental degradation and disproportionately affect the poor, women, and people of  
171 color (Pellow 2007; Shiva 2016). Crucial to achieving socio-environmental  
172 transformations is critical analysis of the factors directly affecting vulnerable populations,  
173 but also the structures that perpetuate the parallel forms of domination against nature and  
174 humans, such as with colonial drives to “domesticate” nature and racialized subjects  
175 (Marquez 2014; Hage 2017) and the role of scientific rationalism in the exploitation of  
176 women and nature (Merchant 1980). As such, socially and environmentally just solutions  
177 are only achieved by diversifying and de-colonizing anthropocentric hierarchies between  
178 human and non-human while also demanding recognition that environmental struggles  
179 are inextricably linked with social struggles for equality.

### 180 **Rethinking “the Human” in the Age of Humans**

181           As greenhouse gases accumulate in the Earth’s atmosphere, industrial plastics  
182 become ubiquitous in the oceans, and our discards begin to form distinctive stratigraphic  
183 layers, we are coming to grips with the fact that we cannot so easily separate ourselves  
184 from our environs, much less exert full control over them. The Anthropocene thus

185 presents a fundamental paradox—with the increased recognition of humanity’s capacity  
186 to alter the environment, the separation between the human and non-human has grown  
187 increasingly fuzzy, and it is unclear who or what is really in control. This is why the  
188 geographer Jamie Lorimer (2012) argues that the Anthropocene essentially represents the  
189 nail in the coffin for the modern dichotomy between nature and culture. The question  
190 now is: how might we—particularly in so-called Western industrial societies—think  
191 differently about our relations with the world around us? And perhaps even more  
192 important, how might this help us rethink the basic condition of humanity, or *anthropos*?

193         As the Anthropocene has gained greater recognition across scholarly disciplines,  
194 social scientists have grappled with the fact that “the human” is being drawn to the center  
195 of the perceived environmental crisis. In the process, it has actually prompted new  
196 methodological experiments and forms of theorization that attempt to “decenter” the  
197 human and draw other beings and entities into social scientific and humanistic analyses.  
198 Multispecies ethnography is one example of this shift that has been taken up by scholars  
199 in the environmental social sciences and humanities, which seeks to contextualize human  
200 lives within wider networks of relations with different organisms and non-human (or  
201 “more-than-human”) others (Kirksey and Helmreich 2011; Haraway 2013; Van Dooren  
202 2014; Tsing 2015).

203         In an even more radical rethinking of “the human” at the center of the  
204 Anthropocene, the anthropologist Eduardo Viveiros de Castro (2017) has called attention  
205 to the limited scope of Euro-American anthropocentrism. His concern is that it associates  
206 humanity with just one species alone: *Homo sapiens*. Although scholarly Western  
207 Enlightenment thinking promulgates this view in a manner that often goes unquestioned,

208 Viveiros de Castro reminds us that many people understand that *Homo sapiens* is not the  
209 only species that is human. In the day-to-day lives of peoples across the world,  
210 particularly indigenous peoples, it is apparent that humanity is a shared quality not an  
211 exclusionary one. As Viveiros de Castro remarks in his treatise *Cannibal Metaphysics*:  
212 “When everything is human, the human becomes a wholly other thing” (2017, 63).

213         Many anthropologists have noted that Amazonian indigenous peoples  
214 acknowledge diverse beings in the world as persons with subjective agencies, “each  
215 endowed with the same generic type of soul [or], same set of cognitive and volitional  
216 capacities” that allow them to see themselves as human (Viveiros de Castro 2004:6; see  
217 also Fausto 2008; Vilaça 2005). While humans may perceive other living forms as  
218 animals or plants or spirits, the framework of Amerindian perspectivism suggests that  
219 perception is borne out of bodily difference and positionality in intersubjective relations.

220         What, then, might an expansion beyond Western Enlightenment ideas about the  
221 human—or even simply personhood—do for Anthropocenic politics? What futures can  
222 be conjured when, as Sylvia Wynter (2003) shows us, we challenge the  
223 overrepresentation of Western bourgeois “man” in scholarly thinking about human  
224 existence and human freedoms? It seems evident in this time of ecological crisis that  
225 rather than cling to a Euro-North American *Homo sapiens*-centered view of the world,  
226 new perspectives are very much needed. In *Human, All Too Human*, Nietzsche wrote:  
227 “Most people are far too much occupied with themselves to be malicious” (1910, 88).  
228 Our fear is that he was very much wrong. There is a subtle maliciousness found in the  
229 disregard for others and their place on the planet, and it is embedded in our very limited

230 notion of who counts as human, whose lives matter and whose lives are treated as  
231 dispensable.

## 232 **Two Visions of Human Futures: The Pluriverse and the Space Age**

233 By questioning the human, we are not arguing for one specific or monolithic  
234 vision of humanity. Instead, we insist that *anthropos* and its diverse forms should not be  
235 assumed or taken for granted. By considering different dimensions of humanity and the  
236 different possibilities of its constitution—including the notion that humanity is not  
237 synonymous with *Homo sapiens*—this can invite deeper engagement with two very  
238 distinct visions of human futures: an earthly pluriverse, or an escape to space.

239 In recent years, critical analyses have been combined with scholar-activist  
240 proposals for alternative socioecological futures, such as in the 2015 Special Issue of this  
241 journal (Braun 2015). Although there are many allied terms and approaches, here we  
242 discuss these under the umbrella of the “pluriverse” (Escobar 2018; Kothari et al. 2019).  
243 While a number of social scientists have adopted this notion, it is perhaps best  
244 encapsulated by the Zapatistas who have argued that they are working toward “a world in  
245 which many worlds fit” (Marcos 2000, 80; see also de la Cadena and Blaser 2018).

246 In *Pluriverse: A Post-Development Dictionary*, Kothari and colleagues elaborate  
247 on this idea, describing the pluriverse as “a broad trans-cultural compilation of concepts,  
248 worldviews and practices from around the world, challenging the modernist ontology of  
249 universalism in favor of a multiplicity of possible worlds” (2019, xvii). The pluriverse,  
250 then, includes experimental alternatives in the present, such as agro-ecology (Toledo  
251 2019) and degrowth (DeMaria and LaTouche 2019; see also Kallis and March 2015).  
252 Attention to structural change in the present can contribute to “Civilizational Transitions”

253 away from the dominant Western “capitalist hetero patriarchal modernity” toward a more  
254 socio-ecologically just world in the pluriverse (Escobar 2019: 121).

255         On the other extreme is a world of monocultures, resource extraction, and capital  
256 accumulation in the hands of a very limited swath of humanity that is not only a single  
257 species, but a very limited portion of that one. Social scientists who have proposed the  
258 ideas of the Capitalocene and Plantationocene often overlap with perspectives associated  
259 with the pluriverse, in their critical assessment of the philosophical and structural  
260 underpinnings of dominant “reformist” approaches to addressing the climate crisis, such  
261 as ecomodernism, in which “knowledge and technology, applied with wisdom, might  
262 allow for a good, or even great, Anthropocene” (Asafa-Adjaye et al. 2015, 6). Such  
263 techno-centric approaches include geoengineering as a response to climate change (see  
264 Keith 2000) and transhumanism, in which humans achieve “the singularity”—the  
265 merging of “biological existence to technology” (Kurzweil 2005, 9). What ecomodernism  
266 and other reformist philosophies avoid is addressing the fundamental exploitation of the  
267 capitalist system and a lack of scrutiny of linear visions of development centered on the  
268 assumed universal benefits of technological solutions and economic growth (Sachs 1992;  
269 Escobar 2011). In other words, the future of the Anthropocene as currently conceived is  
270 one in which *anthropos* is treated as synonymous with *Homo sapiens*, but in practice is a  
271 world that largely upholds the system of capitalist hetero-patriarchal modernity.

272         In *The future of humanity*, physicist Michio Kaku explains why planetary  
273 conquest is the next logical step for humans (2018). According to Kaku, it is the fate of  
274 *Homo sapiens* to “become like the gods” and “shape the universe in our image” (ibid.:  
275 14). For the author, colonizing and terraforming other planets is an extension of inherent

276 human “restlessness” harnessed through scientific inquiry and technological innovation.  
277 Kaku argues for this future in space by pitting humans against a hostile nature that must  
278 be escaped before it is too late, making little mention of the anthropogenic climate  
279 change that narrows the range of environmental futures in the Anthropocene. In the end,  
280 terraforming Mars seems like the next logical step for humanity, and certainly less  
281 audacious than finding a way to live together on Earth. Perhaps if we could redirect the  
282 “restlessness” of humans that Kaku projects to space and apply it to this world, a better  
283 future might be possible, as voices from the Pluriverse argue. By drawing together  
284 different disciplinary perspectives, as well as the voices of activists and populations  
285 whose voices have historically been neglected or appropriated, alternatives to colonialism  
286 and capitalism might flourish.

## 287 **Conclusion**

288         How we place the *anthropos* in the Anthropocene matters for how we understand  
289 human nature and how we envision a collective future on the planet. If we see the  
290 Anthropocene as nothing more than an extension of humanity’s innate tendency to  
291 modify and transform its surroundings, then such a view would seem to support  
292 continued and perhaps even more radical technological intervention into the Earth’s  
293 systems and beyond, from geoengineering schemes to space colonization. As we already  
294 know, many techno-optimists are actively advocating for this vision of humanity and its  
295 future, from Elon Musk’s SpaceX program to unprecedented schemes that involve  
296 spraying sulphate into the stratosphere to reflect solar radiation.

297         Rather than lobby for another extreme makeover of the Earth’s systems or  
298 otherwise seek to escape from the planet entirely, we should think more ambitiously

299 about how we address the Anthropocene both socially and politically. Of course, this  
300 would first require us to spend time thinking more deeply about our collective history on  
301 this planet and confront how we have come to this point of crisis. Indigenous scholars  
302 like Kyle Powis Whyte (2018) have shown that the unfolding apocalypse associated with  
303 climate change and global environmental change more broadly is only seen as new to  
304 European settler colonial society. For indigenous peoples of the Americas and those  
305 whose lives were swept up in the horrors of the transatlantic slave trade, it has been  
306 ongoing for the last 500 years.

307         Some environmentalists today argue that due to the urgency and imminence of the  
308 climate crisis, it must command all of our attention if we hope to avoid planetary  
309 catastrophe. The question is if we can truly address such a crisis without meaningfully  
310 addressing the forms of social and environmental inequality that brought us here in the  
311 first place. If we continue to see the world as divided in half, between nature and culture,  
312 then it is only logical that we will see violence against humans and non-humans as  
313 separate problems. But, if we begin to see the world as one, then we may find that these  
314 problems are in fact one and the same.

315

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