

1 **Riverkin: seizing the moment to remake vital relations in the UK and beyond**

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22 **Funding**

23 The conceptual development and writing of this paper were made possible by the generous

24 support of several funding sources at The University of Leeds. These were The Interdisciplinary

25 Research and Impact Fund for Culture at Leeds Arts & Humanities Research Institute;

26 water@leeds; and the School of Politics and International Studies' Strategic Research Investment

27 Fund. This work was supported by the Integrated Catchment Solutions Programme (iCASP)

28 funded by the UK Natural Environment Research Council's Regional Impact from Science of the
29 Environment scheme (grant NE/P011160/1).

30

31

32 **Acknowledgements**

33 We would like to acknowledge the University of Leeds and our respective Schools for helping

34 foster cross-disciplinary discussion and the formation of 'The Water Value Research Group',

35 comprised of the current authors.

36

37 **Conflict of interest**

38 The authors are not aware of any conflict of interest associated with this article.

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43 **Abstract**

- 44 1. We show how the dire state of the Earth's rivers entangles intimately with ‘thingifying’
45 processes at the heart of colonial modernity. Known in many precolonial and Indigenous
46 contexts as person-like *kin*, we describe how rivers the world over have been re-done
47 primarily as *thing* – amoral, controllable, a potential commodity like anything else.
- 48 2. We develop and work with a provisory concept of kin as *those constituents of*
49 *environments that reciprocally nurture, and contribute to the substance of, one another’s*
50 *life and well-being.*
- 51 3. We show how kinship with rivers figures centrally in primarily Indigenous-led struggles
52 in various regions of the globe for the recognition and enforcement of river personhood
53 and rights. This is partly because people are motivated to fight passionately for their kin.
- 54 4. With some careful caveats, we argue that associating river kinship exclusively with
55 Indigenous worlds undermines its potential for global impact. Thus, as an apposite case
56 study, the latter part of the paper focuses on some of the social-ecological trends which
57 we suggest are opening up the possibility for the re-establishment of ‘riverkinship’ in the
58 United Kingdom.
- 59 5. We reflect on the potential for riverkinship to help cultivate political constellations fitting
60 to the challenges of the Anthropocene.

61 **Word Count**

62 Including main body of text and endnotes, excluding abstract and references: 8495

63 **Keywords**

64 Kin; Rivers; Global North; Anthropocene; United Kingdom; Thingification.

65

66 **Introduction**

67 Rivers have been drawing media attention recently, mostly for all the wrong reasons (e.g.
68 Barkham, 2021; Laville, 2021a; Laville, 2021b; Westfall, 2021; Begg, 2021; Austin, 2021;
69 Monbiot, 2022; Bullough 2022; Laville and Horton, 2023). Pollution, damming, climate change
70 and other pressures mean that only a third of the world’s rivers remain free-flowing (Grill et al.,
71 2019). Since 1970, global migratory fish populations have dropped 76%, freshwater vertebrate
72 populations 83% (Deinet et al., 2020). Freshwater habitats are the worst affected over the last
73 fifty years within a global mass extinction event where 68% of mammals, birds, fish and reptiles
74 have been lost (Almond et al., 2020; IPBES 2019), along with over 85% of global wetland area
75 (IPBES, 2019). According to one influential analysis, we have already crossed four of nine
76 mutually interacting ‘*planetary boundaries*’ (Lade et al., 2020). Once such boundaries are
77 sufficiently transgressed, ecological systems may no longer maintain Earth within the relatively
78 stable conditions of the Holocene –conditions which are linked to the development of large-
79 scale, settled social-political forms (Lade et al., 2020: 119; O’Neill et al., 2018; Rockström et al.,
80 2009).

81 Note: Given the plurality of ways of knowing and relating discussed below, we acknowledge that
82 ‘river’ can never be *one* thing. It is nevertheless a powerful concept for focusing attention on
83 what we are primarily interested in here – i.e., waters’ confluent, flowing state as part of the
84 freshwater cycles that all lives are part of.

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89 **Overview of our argument**

90 Part of the reason for our precarious situation is the long history of transformations in human
91 relationships to freshwater. This has been a process whereby overriding economic, technological
92 and philosophical logics have privileged relating to waters as *things* over forms of *kin*.
93 Understanding that history as processes whereby historically particular and local ways of
94 knowing and doing became globally dominant, suggests other possibilities, including moving
95 away from what we characterize as the *derangement of relationship* with our ‘riverkin’ⁱ entailed
96 by this history. Kinship with waters has figured centrally in the vital, primarily Indigenous-led
97 struggles for the recognition of the life, agency, voice, and or personhood of rivers in New
98 Zealand, Australia, Canada and elsewhere (Manikuakanishtiku et al 2021; Martuwarra
99 RiverOfLife et al 2021; Nixon; 2021; Strang 2020b; Wooltorton 2021). This marks an important
100 potential inflection point in how humanity relates to the nonhuman world, although its
101 transformative potential will necessarily be curtailed if kinship with waters is associated *solely*
102 with Indigenous worlds. Once again privileging relating to rivers as kin also in the very centres
103 of colonial-modernity might allow a fuller, more radical seizing of this moment. Offering the
104 example of the United Kingdom, the literature explored here suggests that this proposition might
105 not be quite as strange and improbable as it could first appear. We do not suggest that simply
106 recognizing this kinship as a ‘nice idea’ will be enough on its own to transform our treatment of
107 rivers. We argue that it would constitute a step in the right direction towards the formulation of
108 political constellations fitting to the challenges of the Anthropocene.

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112 **The Anthropocene concept**

113 From the Greek for ‘man’ and ‘new’, the term ‘Anthropocene’ is widely used to describe the
114 current geological epoch in which humans have come to significantly influence global
115 ecosystems (Prillaman 2022). The term has been well critiqued, commonly for being too
116 generalizing, as if all humans have played an equal role in creating our perilous situation
117 (Hayman et al 2018). Hence, terms like ‘Capitalocene’ and ‘Plantationocene’ have been
118 proposed (Haraway, 2015b; Moore, 2017). We stick with Anthropocene because it is a term most
119 people will be familiar with, and because of the distinct lack of charm of the ‘Thingocene’.

120

121 **From kin to thing**

122 How we know, relate to and value water is deeply interwoven with human beings’ relationships
123 with one another and the planet. Many scholars (e.g. Ingold, 2000; Strang, 2004, 2014b, 2015;
124 Kohn, 2007, 2013; Bird-David, 1999, 2020; Viveiros De Castro, 1998), including those with
125 family and other heritage ties to such ways of life (e.g. Salmón, 2000a, 2015; Donald, 2009;
126 Kopenawa and Albert, 2013; Borrows, 2016; Watts, 2020, 2013; Little Bear, 2012), argue that
127 for many hunters and gatherers and subsistence farmers, living through a world they depend on
128 but cannot control to any significant degree, ‘nature’ often figures as differing forms of
129 personhood to be engaged with in mutualistic terms. Because in such ontologies, personhood –
130 as a relational phenomenon that speaks of agency and intention– is not limited to the human,
131 neither are various kinds of relation which might be preserved for human beings in a typified
132 ‘Western’ context. Enrique Salmón, Indigenous Tarahumara from Chihuahua Mexico, for
133 example, argues that such worlds are founded on what he terms a ‘kincentric ecology,’ in
134 ‘[which people are part] of an extended ecological family that shares ancestry and origins ... an

135 awareness that life in any environment is viable only when humans view the life surrounding
136 them as kin' (Salmón, 2000b: 1332). As in many of the examples cited above (e.g. Kopenawa
137 and Albert, 2013; Bird-David, 2020), this conveys a diffuse, rhizomatic sense of kinship,
138 constituted by the multifaceted, ongoing broad field of relations through which people, places,
139 plants, waters, animals and various kinds of ancestor bring one another into being as social-
140 physical entities. Such forms of kinship, those beyond immediate human relations, were long
141 categorized by anthropologists and others as 'fictive' – i.e. not *really* real (Ingold, 2000: 109).
142 Critiquing this assumed rational superiority of what he refers to as the 'genealogical model' of
143 kinship, Ingold makes the point that in other kinship models, such as those of the hunting and
144 gathering Nayaka of Tamil Naidu, India,

145 the role of parents is not, as the genealogical model implies, to pass on to their
146 offspring the essential specifications of personhood in advance of their entry into
147 the lifeworld, but rather – by their presence, their activities and the nurturance they
148 provide – to establish the necessary conditions in the environment for their
149 children's growth and development. *This is what kinship is all about.*

150 (Our emphasis, Ingold, 2000: 140-141).

151 There is no reason, therefore, for 'fictive' kinship relations to be any less real than those which
152 exist between human parents and their children. In this perspective, *kin are those constituents of*
153 *environments that reciprocally nurture, and contribute to the substance of, one another's life and*
154 *well-being.* Importantly, kinship is not simply given in the singular acts of conception and birth;
155 instead they derive their worth and meaning through an ongoing, embodied, practical kind of
156 cultivation (Ingold 2000; 144).

157 With its associations with life of all kinds, water has commonly been central to such relational
158 webs. Mirroring their shimmering movement-in-transformation, perhaps the most common
159 figure such waters have taken has been the *snake*. From the shape-shifting *waterslang* in
160 Southern Africa, to horned serpents in North America, Europe and Scandinavia, they speak of a
161 living, agential world where water is less something to be possessed and subject to human will,
162 and more someone with whom it is necessary to maintain a reciprocal relationship in order to
163 thrive as biosocial persons (Strang, 2014b; Strang, 2015; Toussaint et al., 2005; Cohen, 2020;
164 Green, 2020). ‘Kin-making’, Donna Haraway writes, ‘is making persons, not necessarily as
165 individuals or as humans’ (Haraway, 2015a: 161).

166 At the same time, the capricious character of many water beings does not suggest a world free of
167 danger or fear – neither in the human nor the nonhumanⁱⁱ world. It does suggest a world where
168 morality extends in an unbroken way beyond human relations. So while avoiding any undue
169 romanticization, we suggest that it is very much worthwhile recognizing that such ways of
170 relating to waters (and the rivers they take form as) are associated with ways of life that in many
171 instances have persisted for millenia without destroying the ecological bases for human and
172 nonhuman life (Green, 2020; Strang, 2015; Brightman and Lewis, 2017; Fitzhugh et al., 2019;
173 Gowdy, 2020).

174 Strang argues that as hunting and small scale agricultural modes of egalitarian sociality have
175 been progressively replaced by more hierarchical forms, and as waters have been increasingly
176 controlled through canalization and so on, waters’ character in social imaginaries has also tended
177 to change (Strang, 2014b; Strang, 2015). Mutualistic relations with water beings have tended to
178 be replaced by gods in human form in increasingly hierarchical relationship to humans, as the
179 agency and personhood of water itself has diminished (Strang, 2014b; Strang, 2015). While

180 Graeber and Wengrow (2021) have convincingly challenged the equations *settled agriculture*
181 *and city life (necessarily) = hierarchy* and *hunting and gathering (necessarily) = equality*,
182 Strang’s point that the perceived passivity of water reaches a kind of zenith through the scientific
183 and industrial revolutions of the 17th to 19th centuries still holds (Strang, 2014a; Strang, 2014b;
184 Strang, 2015).

185 The development of technologies and sciences during this period rendered humans and
186 environments countable and knowable at increasingly large scales (Scott, 1998; Foucault, 2007;
187 Foucault, 1970; Ball et al., 2012; Higgs, 2001; Bowler, 2000). Interwoven with such practical
188 means, newly dominant mechanistic philosophies seemed to offer European elites the key to
189 finally master nature, to turn it to human politics and industry – both in Europe and in rapidly
190 expanding colonial networks (Gottschalk, 2013; Delbourgo, 2008; Reidy and Rozwadowski,
191 2014; Césaire, 1972; Grove, 1996).

192 In works of the likes of Descartes, Newton, and Galileo, the way to true knowledge was:

193 ... to look for what is evident (‘present to eye’s gaze’); reduce it to as many parts
194 as possible; order and enumerate those parts; and then put them together again as a
195 long chain of inference ... [in this way] ... the ideas of modernist thought which
196 undergirded coloniality were of a world made of things connected only by their
197 presence in space, from which they were extractable to whatever extent was
198 humanly possible. *Life* and ecological *relations* were incidental and optional
199 extras... (Our emphasis, Green, 2020: 40)

200 Succinctly put, this is what Aimé Césaire has referred to as the ‘thing-ification’ of the world at
201 the heart of coloniality. Underpinning the absolute division between nature and culture in

202 Latour's 'Modern Constitution', here we note that colonizers construed kinship beyond the
203 human as a cultural construct *projected* on to a world of pure matter (Latour, 1991; Césaire,
204 1972). This is also essentially the metaphysical parallel to the commodity form central to the
205 development of our current global political economy; the foundational gesture underpinning
206 neoclassical economics' notion of value (Screpanti and Zamagni, 2005; Gómez-Baggethun et al.,
207 2010). That is, that *everything* and *anything* can in principle be exchanged for *anything* else
208 through the magical medium of money. All other social entanglements become (imagined to be)
209 secondary or irrelevant (Marx, 2007; Harvey, 2017).

210 It was within these technological, philosophical, political and economic processes, that what
211 Linton has referred to as 'modern water' emerged (Linton, 2010; Illich, 1985; Hamlin, 2000).
212 Linton argues that while Euro-Greek philosophical currents have for millennia conceived of
213 water in both local, animistic *and* generalizable, naturalistic terms, it is with the invention of
214 'modern water' that *exclusively* generalizable naturalistic accounts – culminating in 1811 in the
215 formula H_2O - became considered as *proper* knowledge. Linton argues that reconceiving water as
216 value free, disconnected from all human entanglements, achieved, in reality, the opposite.
217 Modern water – mappable, eminently controllable, a potential commodity like *anything* else –
218 did not dissolve human relations from water. Rather it cultivated new forms of relation,
219 articulated through new infrastructures, while (not coincidentally) corresponding with the aims
220 of imperial European states: economic expansion and 'civilizing' missions at home and abroad
221 (Linton, 2010).

222 When such ways of relating to the world met collectivities whose primary forms of knowledge
223 and valuation lay in acknowledging and attempting to work synergistically with webs of
224 relationship that sustain all lives, the former, time and again, destroyed the latter (Gordon, 1992;

225 Escobar, 1995; Penn, 2005; Luxemburg and Bukharin, 1972; McIntosh, 2004). Landscapes’
226 *watery* constituents – rivers, lakes, streams – reckoned as pure matter, imagined only in terms of
227 their physical relationships after their human relations had been removed, could, with little moral
228 consideration, be turned to the satisfaction of exclusively human wants and needs, often to the
229 interests of the market. As leisure landscape, canalized transport and repository of human and
230 industrial waste (Green, 2020; MacDowall, 1994; Hartley, 1964; Gilmartin, 1994; Martin-Ortega
231 et al., 2019).

232 As Moore (2015) and Collis (2016) might put it, rivers became part of the ‘biotariat’; their life
233 processes giving ‘free’ surplus value to capitalist processes, in the same way that the unpaid part
234 of human labour does (Moore, 2017). So, while rivers provided a small percentage of the world’s
235 human population with the conditions for their own development and spectacular thriving, this
236 became an increasingly one-way relationship. People’s sense of kinship with water withered,
237 deprived of the ongoing reciprocal efforts, considerations and practices that are any
238 relationship’s life-source. In this light, we might say that our ecological situation derives as much
239 from a *derangement of relationship* as anything else (cf. Kessler, 2019; Ghosh, 2016). This
240 began apace during the period of the industrial revolution in Europe and its colonies, but such
241 thingified patterns of knowing, relating to and valuing water are today very much ongoing and
242 powerful, intimately tied to rivers’ dire ecological states. They are expressed in the fourth
243 principle of the 1992 Dublin Statement on Water and Sustainable Development, which states that
244 ‘Managing water as an *economic good* is an important way of achieving efficient and equitable
245 use’ (Our emphasis, Theodore and Dupont, 2020: 402).

246 This principle is a core building block in Integrated Water Resource Management (IWRM)
247 which has been has become the dominant concept of global water governance, guiding all major

248 action on water governance locally, regionally, nationally, and globally (Ofori and Mdee, 2020)
249 – with IWRM codified as part of the Sustainable Development Goals, target 6.5 (United
250 Nations, 2018: 75). Thingified patterns of knowing, relating to and valuing are expressed when
251 mining companies bet the economic costs of maintaining tailings dams against the socio-
252 ecological consequences of aging structures spilling heavily contaminated water into the Doce
253 River watershed, Brazil (Carmo et al., 2017; Borges and Maso, 2017; Fernandes et al., 2016).
254 Zooming out to the global scale, they are expressed in influential ‘Ecosystem Services’ (ES)
255 frameworks that assume the purpose of the nonhuman world is to satisfy human need, ascribing a
256 monetary price for services rendered (Comberti et al., 2015; Gómez-Baggethun et al., 2010).

257 Of course, it is possible to point to the positive obverse of such historical processes: food
258 security, disease reduction and rising living standards for billions (Rosling, 2019; Pinker, 2018;
259 Shahzad et al., 2017). While we in no way deny such potential and actual benefits, we would
260 point out that aside from disastrous impacts on the nonhuman world, 1) Indigenous and other
261 lives decimated across the planet are an impossibly high price to pay; 2) what ‘living standards’
262 actually means for human flourishing is highly contested (Graeber and Wengrow, 2021;
263 Mathews and Izquierdo, 2008; McGregor, 2018); and 3) the political economic context within
264 which science and technology have advanced means that, without profound change in that
265 context, such (unequally shared gains) are likely to be very short lived for many. In most cases,
266 this is likely to be a matter of one or two generations before they are undone by climate change,
267 pandemics, war, and economic volatility (World Bank Group, 2022; Olaberria and Reinhart,
268 2022; Oxfam International, 2022).

269

270 **Colonial-modernity's nightmare scenario as an opening to other possibilities**

271 If, through the means of thingification, colonial-modernity's ultimate dream has been total
272 mastery over 'nature', coupled with a future-oriented trajectory of development and progress,
273 then it seems fair to say that we are entering into its nightmare scenario. Apocalyptic ecological
274 devastations and planetary boundaries transgressed threaten to undermine the ability of the planet
275 to sustain the very kinds of settled, hierarchical human social forms that colonial-modernity
276 exists as (Lade et al., 2020; O'Neill et al., 2018; Gowdy, 2020; Mattison et al., 2016; Hussain
277 and Riede, 2020). In response, in the form of increasingly extreme weather, flooding and
278 droughts, water asserts its uncontrollable agency. Worse still, there is no place left in that thin
279 sliver of Earth we call home that can even be imagined to be free from human presence and
280 influence.

281 How can culture exert control over nature when the condition required for the latter to exist can
282 no longer be found? One response has been a doubling down on methods of measurement and
283 control at ever greater scales and complexity within the same, expanding political economy
284 (Espinoza and Aronczyk, 2021; Milojevic-Dupont and Creutzig, 2021; Liu, 2020; Iberdrola,
285 2021). This is part of a broader agenda to datarize and render *everything* predictable and
286 profitable, from the workings of our esophagi to 'the whole planet' (Zuboff, 2019 208). Data
287 can always be a powerful ally, and we need rigorous, engaged research of many kinds to
288 understand the task in front of us. We also recognize that systems thinking, Science and
289 Technology Studies and pushes toward transdisciplinary research, among other shifts, have in
290 many important ways transformed 20th and 21st century environmental scientific practice and
291 theory (Kuhn, 2012; Capra and Luisi 2014; Latour 1993a; Kelly et al 2018). Yet, if we are being
292 forced to accept that mastery of nature, of water, is an illusion, and a fundamental part of the

293 problem, then a breaking of the spell is required, asking of us much more radical forms of
294 thinking and action (cf. Stengers and Pignarre, 2011). What might modes of relating to, knowing,
295 and valuing water look like in a 21st century that does not destroy the biosphere upon which we
296 all depend?

297 In several regions of the globe, one possible answer to this question is being formed by
298 movements largely spearheaded by formerly colonized peoples whose worlds have been undone
299 by processes of thingification outlined above (Reid et al., 2014; Gentry, 2015; Kahui and
300 Richards, 2014; Kirmayer et al., 2011). After sketching out some of the important dimensions of
301 these movements, we go on to discuss possible lessons and resonances for the United Kingdom.

302 **Kin over thing once more?**

303 On February 16th 2021, Quebec’s Muteshekau-shipu (‘Magpie River’) became the latest in a
304 series of rivers to be granted legal personhood – including, in 2017, the Wanghanui River in
305 Aotearoa (New Zealand) (Nixon, 2021; Strang, 2020a), in 2016, the Atrato River in Colombia,
306 and in 2019, *all* rivers in Bangladesh (Eckstein et al., 2019). With rights of nature initiatives
307 currently in place in at least 39 countries (Putzer et al 2022), campaigns for river personhood are
308 part of a wider global trend – often related to Indigenous struggles - to recognize and grant rights
309 to ‘nature’ in general (Eckstein et al., 2019; Hall, 2011; O’Donnell, 2017). The overall
310 conception is that just as, over recent centuries, inalienable rights have been extended to an
311 increasingly inclusive range of human kinds, there is no reason, apart from cultural prejudice,
312 that comparable rights should not be extended to nonhumans (Stone [1972] 2010; Boyd, 2017).
313 The hope is that valuing plants, rivers, animals, mountains and so on not because of their use as
314 resources for the servicing of human needs and wants, but because of their inherent sovereign
315 existence, might render them less vulnerable to the depredations of human society – a task that

316 existing legal frameworks which typically treat the natural world as forms of human property,
317 have very often proved themselves incapable of achieving (Boyd, 2017).

318 Such moves have been read as a potentially productive way that ‘modern’ legal structures might
319 speak to and uphold Indigenous worldviews in which rivers and the constituents of ‘nature’ more
320 generally, are literal living persons (Strang, 2020a).

321 Werry writes:

322 The Bill recognizes in law the genealogy that makes Whanganui *iwi* [Māori
323 kin collectives] and river kin, and affirms a concept of well-being in which the
324 spiritual and physical health of people and river are interdependent. (2019:
325 2)

326 Of course, conferring rights on the world is no guarantee that such rights will be upheld.
327 Reading the UN’s (1948) Universal Declaration of Human Rights’ 30 articles in light of the last
328 70 years of world history, is not a cheering experience (un.org, 2021). The implementation and
329 enforcement of rivers’ legal rights has often produced, overall, fairly ambiguous results. In the
330 Whanganui case, some signs are emerging of the potentially positive value of legally considering
331 the river as kin, ‘an indivisible whole ... from the mountains to the sea’ (Ngā Tāngata Tiaki,
332 2021). This includes the river, through its human *iwi*, having more say in the redevelopment of
333 the Whanganui Port (Ellis, 2022). On the other hand, conferring rights of nature can also risk
334 sidestepping structural power questions such as human access to and ownership of land
335 (Coombes 2020, 2021). Considering that control over land in one way or the other runs to the
336 basic heart of so many issues of inequality, poverty, and ecosystem destruction across the
337 formerly colonized world (e.g. Francis and Webster 2019; Crow 2021), this is something any

338 Rights of Nature advocate should keep in mind. Also, legal personhood was conferred on
339 Ganges and Yamuna rivers, India, with seemingly little thought for the practicable means
340 through which this status might actually affect how these polluted rivers are treated (Eckstein et
341 al., 2019; Bowes et al., 2020). All in all, such realities echo more longstanding human rights-
342 based approaches to addressing injustice – effective for building legal grounds against powerful
343 interests, but not for challenging wider political economic structures (e.g. Fassbender and
344 Traisbach, 2019; Meissner, 2021).

345 Not discounting the gains to be made from a rights-based approach, another, more radical
346 potential of this trend might lie in a wider shift in relationship between human beings and planet
347 that it cultivates and provokes. This is because it constitutes the most serious and widespread
348 attempt since the constitution of colonial modernity to incorporate Indigenous ecological ways of
349 knowing, relating and valuing into national and international environmental governance; and
350 because it does so on a conceptual basis that if taken to its logical conclusion undermines a
351 central tenet upon which our global political economy is constructed – that the world is
352 fundamentally thing, not kin.

353 **Rivers as kin in the United Kingdom**

354 It may perhaps be easier to imagine a shift to something like a ‘kincentric river ecology’ in
355 contexts with more immediate connections to pre-colonial worlds with active, locally rooted
356 Indigenous movements. We argue, however, that the need for such radical changes is perhaps
357 even more pressing in the industrialized Global North where notions of kinship with rivers might
358 seem abstract, ‘exotic’:

359 1) Because of the dire socio-ecological state of many rivers in such places (Deinet et al., 2020).

360 2) Because it is the rich nations that have a determining say in global water policy.

361 3) Because it is precisely the naturalization of ‘thingified’ understandings of water, and the
362 estrangement of water kinship, that we believe needs to be unsettled.

363 Acting as means of transport, power source, and drainage for *the* global imperial, industrializing
364 power of the 18th to 19th centuries, the rivers of the UK were particularly adversely affected by
365 industrialization (Gomersall, 2000; McTominey, 2020; McTominey, 2017; Allen, 2009; Clapp,
366 1994; Rosenthal, 2014; Mathias, 2013). While localized deindustrialization and regulation have
367 since improved water quality, especially in previously industrialized rivers, serious problems
368 remain. 97% of the UK’s river network is fragmented by human interventions (Jones et al.,
369 2019). This undermines biodiversity, and especially under conditions of climate change, raises
370 the risks of flooding (Adger et al., 2016; Berry, 2017; Alam, 2020). Recent Environment
371 Agency (EA) figures show that just 14% of English rivers are of ‘good ecological standard’ [or
372 close to their natural state]. For the first time, all English rivers failed to meet pollution limits, in
373 large measure due to industrial, agricultural and domestic wastes pouring into them (Laville,
374 2020), related to government having slashed two thirds of financial support for pollution
375 measures since 2010 (Laville, 2021a, Bullough 2022). Unfortunately, the situation could easily
376 get worse as the post-Brexit government appears unwilling to guarantee EU-linked water
377 pollution standards (Laville 2023).

378 Within a national water governance context where water is treated primarily as a commodity
379 (Loftus et al., 2019; Bayliss et al., 2020), all of this makes the UK an apposite illustrative
380 example of a Global North country that might benefit from learning to again recognise and
381 cultivate kinship with its rivers. Fortunately, existing literatures do point to long-standing

382 counter-currents in the ways people relate to, know and value ‘nature’ within the UK. This
383 suggests that foundations for a push toward something like this may already exist. While other
384 taxonomies could be drawn up, other literatures included, we tease out four, very much
385 interconnected strands that we see as significant in relation to this proposal. These involve: 1)
386 studies of ‘water beings’ in the history of water-human relationships; 2) explorations of people’s
387 engagements with waters and wellbeing; 3) various aspects of Nature Based Solutions; and 4)
388 rights of nature campaigns.

389 **Water beings**

390 Recent interpretations of prehistoric archaeological materials found in the UK suggest that
391 people inhabited animist worlds - not entirely dissimilar to extant Indigenous ontologies - where
392 human beings recognized an inherent kinship with the world (e.g. Johnston, 2020; Jones, 2020).
393 The large number of British Neolithic rock art sites with sinuous, concentric circle or zig zag
394 forms have been interpreted as rocky reflections of watery ripples and movement. These are
395 often spatially associated with rivers, (Haughey, 2009; Beckensall, 2002), as are stone circles
396 (Strang, 2004), possibly suggesting modes of interacting with and propitiating these worldly
397 riverine agencies (Fowler, 2021). Collections of food vessels and quartz at certain sites have
398 been interpreted as part of the maintenance of mutualistic relations with nonhuman personhoods
399 (Wallis, 2009). We cannot know the degree to which such interpretations reflect the projection
400 of contemporary concerns on to the past. What is clearer is that when Romans began arriving in
401 the sixth decade BC,
402 ‘Britannia’ was still inhabited by Celtic tribes who combined hunting and
403 gathering with low-key agricultural trade and ... worshipped water beings and

404 conducted propitiatory rituals at thousands of sacred water sites across the
405 British landscape. (Strang, 2015: 12)

406 As Romans sought to control water on a large scale as a key part of their occupying control over
407 the landscape, so did modes of relating to water necessarily change. In time, sites associated with
408 water beings were appropriated and named after Christian saints, with ‘pagan’ practices
409 explicitly banned in 391 (Strang, 2015: 12). When Christianity became increasingly hegemonic
410 after the Norman conquest in 1066, the country faced a plague of monstrous water ‘worms’, old
411 English for snake or dragon, needing to be slain by Christian warriors - the new order
412 demonizing and destroying the natives’ water kin along with their worlds. Despite a thousand
413 years of Christianity and later the dominance of mechanistic versions of science, folklorists and
414 others who scoured the countryside in the 19th and early 20th centuries encountered stories of all
415 kinds of personhoods associated with waters, some of which persist in living memory. These
416 include fairies and banshees (McDonough, 2019), ‘Jenny Greenteeth’ (Simpson and Roud,
417 2000), sea-spirits (Teit, 1918), water worms (Strang, 2015), and ‘knowing’ waters (Ditchfield,
418 1896: 105). Today, echoes of pre-Roman animist water beings persist in place names, including
419 ‘Holywells’ all over the country – which Strang argues point to the Christian appropriation of
420 sites connected to Celtic water serpents (Strang, 2015); Old Father Thames, (Wood, 2020; Bord
421 and Bord, 1986); the river Dee, named after the goddess Deva, (Knight, 1998); and the Trent
422 Bore linked to an Old Norse deity (Wood, 2020). There are also rituals like well-dressing, traced
423 by some scholars to pre-Roman propitiation of water deities. Well-dressing is a community event
424 where water wells are celebrated and decorated in flowers and other colourful materials (Shirley,
425 2017).

426 Such phenomena mix in complex ways with rehabilitations of pagan ritual and nature
427 consciousness that began in the early 19th century, largely in response to the socio-ecological
428 deprivations of the industrial revolution (Hutton, 2019). Accurate estimates of numbers of
429 Pagans, Wiccans and other nature-spiritualities in the UK are hard to come by, but can range
430 from 95,000 up to 200,000, and are normally accepted as growing in number, as reflected in the
431 2021 census (Strang, 2015; Statistics, 2011; Booth et al 2022). There is a large academic
432 literature on their origins, practices and conceptual worlds (e.g. Greenwood, 2020b; Greenwood,
433 2020a; Hutton, 2019; Hutton, 2013; Cusack, 2012), as well as any number of popular how-to
434 guides and online resources (e.g. #Pagan, paganfed.org, MacEowen, 2002; Forest, 2020; Eason,
435 2013; Aldag, 2020; Conway, 2019). Rivers and other waters feature centrally in both of these
436 literatures as places where watery personhoods can be encountered as the embodiment of a
437 universal flow constituting the radical interconnection of all things within animate ecologies.
438 Indeed, as Rountree writes ‘Love for and kinship with nature’ is the first principle of the Pagan
439 Federation (Rountree, 2012: 305). The long-running magazine *Quest* ‘contains material on
440 magic, witchcraft and practical occultism’. In a 2020 issue, Woodⁱⁱⁱ asks, in reference to the UK,
441 ‘Can we decolonize and re-indigenize ourselves, and re-establish a respectful, responsible
442 relationship with our river kin?’

443 Nature-spiritualities overlap with various environmental movements, many of which are animist
444 in outlook (Taylor, 2009; Cianchi, 2015). Water often plays a foundational role as concept and
445 phenomenon in many religions practiced in the UK (Russo and Smith 2013; Serafino 2020).
446 There are, for example, contemporary Christian groups influenced by the 13th century mystic
447 philosophy of Francis of Assisi who preached of the fellowship of all things, of ‘Mother Earth’
448 and of ‘sister water’ (stg-stj.org.uk 2020; franciscancompanionsofthecross.co.uk). Spirituality

449 and riverkinship will likely be associated in many more ways than we have space to articulate
450 here – including, perhaps, in the work of scientists (Sheldrake 2017).

451 Before moving on, we want to note that at a time when populist politics in the UK and many
452 other places are recapitulating the kinds of ancestral, exclusivist place-belonging once promoted
453 by colonial and fascist political orders, we are very much alive to the risks of describing in a
454 positive light these kinds of kinship relations to waters. While there may be those in Pagan or
455 other nature spiritual movements in the UK that hold to landscape kinship as expressing some
456 kind of national (white?) belonging, we would emphasize the notion of kinship described by
457 Ingold, above. Fundamentally antithetical to genealogical models of being that undergird
458 nationalism and racism, these are, to quote ourselves above, ‘diffuse, rhizomatic senses of
459 kinship, constituted by the multifaceted, ongoing broad field of relations through which people,
460 places, plants, waters, animals and various kinds of ancestor bring one another into being as
461 social-physical entities.’ If we mention water beings, practices, and philosophies with long
462 associations with ‘the UK’ these are as potential, possibly locally resonant filaments that might
463 be woven by the full diversity of ways people know, relate to and value waters into ongoing,
464 plural, changing tapestries of kinship. Such tapestries must make sense in a 21st century world
465 whose nonhuman agencies in some ways recall pre-modern eras, but whose social-economic-
466 political-ecological conditions are very different.

467

468 **2. Watery practices and wellbeing**

469 As part of a wider research trend in nature-based health (Kellert and Wilson, 1993; Djohari et al.,
470 2018; Louv, 2008; Lackey et al., 2019), disciplines as diverse as anthropology and planning
471 have become increasingly interested in how urban and rural ‘bluespace’ – or visible surface

472 waters - intersects with, and might better cultivate, human wellbeing (Foley et al., 2019).
473 Although dealing with generally more secular contexts and framings than nature spiritualities,
474 there is certainly some blurring and overlap here, where kin or kin-like relations emerge in
475 ‘even’ the most seemingly prosaic of people’s interactions with water. Recent studies have
476 looked at ways in which angling (Djohari et al., 2018; Mordue and Wilson 2022), kayaking
477 (Thompson and Wilkie, 2020), swimming (Denton and Aranda 2020; Thompson and Wilkie,
478 2020; Foley, 2015, 2017; England, 2017), holy wells (Foley, 2011; Foley, 2013), scuba diving
479 (Straughan, 2012), the beach (Ashbullby et al., 2013), and living closer to the coast (Garrett et
480 al., 2019) are positively associated with greater senses of positive self-identity and wellbeing –
481 albeit that such benefits are often unequally shared across the UK’s class and race hierarchies
482 (Pitt, 2018). In some of these studies, practitioners actively express feelings of kinship, such as
483 when an angler expresses sadness upon the death of a favourite, aged fish named ‘Quasimodo’
484 (Mordue and Wilson 2022, 6). We would contend that where rivers end and fish start is not a
485 simple or settled question. Such everyday, practical ways of relating to waters make of people
486 who they are, and vice versa. It is really almost no step at all from here to the claim, that water
487 bodies are kin in the sense, proposed above, of being *‘those constituents of environments that*
488 *reciprocally nurture, and contribute to the substance of, one another’s life and well-being’*.

489
490 This kind of work generates an important evidence-based counterpoint to government and
491 private utilities’ treatment of the UK’s waterways (Bullough 2022). As others have touched on, a
492 concern to (at least be being seen to) care for people’s wellbeing can be a good way to garner
493 local governmental support and bring expanded human-nonhuman socialities into political arenas
494 (Mordue and Wilson 2022). Such work also lends support to campaigns for safe water access

495 such as the high profile Ilkley Clean River Campaign which in 2020 won bathing water status for
496 the Wharfe River in Yorkshire. This was the first UK river to be granted this status, followed in
497 early 2022 by Wolvercote Mill Stream, Oxfordshire (Thames Water, 2022). More may follow in
498 the near future (Vaughan and Yeomans, 2023; Laille, 2021c).

499 Some studies, particularly in anthropology, cultural geography, and related disciplines draw on
500 forms of non-representational theory to think through the processes that engender the vital
501 affective relations that people feel for the waters that make life worth living (e.g. Dhohari et al ,
502 Watson 2019a, 2019b). Watson (2019a, 2019b), for example, shows how the ‘vital materiality’
503 of the ponds and lido of Hampstead Heath stir up passionate bonds in those who regularly
504 immerse their bodies in them, playing an active role in the constitution of social and political
505 constellations. When local authorities plan to dam and privatize these waters, swimmers are
506 moved to take action. One of Watson’s interlocutors explains that

507 You can’t recreate it ... it will always make me feel better. So for that reason it is
508 personal so when somebody says we want to do something to the lido or there’s
509 anything that they might want to change ..., then I react because I want to save it
510 (Watson, 2019b: 969)

511 Working with the Water and Integrated Local Delivery (WILD) project on the river Churn,
512 Phillips and Lyon explore how volunteering to practically care for rivers is key in cultivating
513 what they term ‘eco-social healing’ (Phillips and Lyons, 2019). Across the UK, such volunteer
514 organizations, often couched in the language of kinship (e.g. ‘Friends of the River ...’, ‘Adopt
515 a ...’) play a core role in river care and advocacy, especially as the state increasingly cuts funds
516 to the EA (Friends of the River Dean, 2022; Friends of the River Frome, 2022; UK Rivers

517 Network, 2013, Clinch 2021). Thinking with Felix Guattari’s ([1989] 2000) concept of the
518 ‘three ecologies’, Philips and Lyons show how such work, physically exercising with purpose in
519 sensorial environments with others engaged in similar activity, can generate wellbeing on
520 individual, social, and environmental registers (Phillips and Lyons 2019; see their website
521 hydocitizenship.com).

522

523 **3. Nature based solutions**

524 While definitions of ‘NBS’ vary across the literature (Barciela-Rial et al., 2020), and can blur
525 with concepts like close-to-river techniques (Woo, 2020), a core idea is that instead of seeking to
526 artificially *control* nature, we should be working *with* its processes as much as possible. Recent
527 years have seen increased interest from governments, conservation organizations and other
528 agencies in ‘NBS’s as ways of responding to socio-ecological challenges (Bark et al., 2021).
529 This very often relates to fresh-water biodiversity loss, pollution, flooding, and drought
530 (Acreman et al., 2021; Anderson et al., 2021; Giordano et al., 2021; Giordano et al., 2020;
531 Turkelboom et al., 2021; Kiedrzyńska et al., 2021). NBS is a concept developed and promoted
532 by two influential European-based organizations - the International Union for Conservation of
533 Nature (IUCN) and the European Commission (Bridgewater, 2018). In the UK, NBSs are built
534 into the 25 Year Environment Plan (HM Government, 2018), and seem to have, at least in the
535 case of Natural Flood Management, some popular support – if not sufficient allocated funds
536 (Bark et al., 2021). NBS approaches this might mean: ‘renaturalizing’ rivers as a way to generate
537 multiple social-ecological benefits such as biodiversity and leisure and reconnecting people
538 affectively with riverscapes (Bell et al., 2021), or reconnecting rivers to floodplains and other
539 landscape features as a way of mitigating flood risk in place of hard infrastructures (Wilkinson et

540 al., 2019). Taking the approach further, Gary Brierley proposes ‘a more-than-human approach to
541 living with living rivers ... applying a river rights framework that conceptualizes rivers as
542 sentient entities’ (Brierley, 2019: viii).

543

544 Overall, NBS and related approaches present a rich body of evidence and experience of relevant,
545 practical ways of working with rivers, which in important ways move away from water as a thing
546 to be controlled, to water as a kind of agential ally. This can point to what can work, and where
547 serious challenges may lie, such as deeply engrained private property regimes (Bark et al., 2021)
548 and the inherent unpredictabilities of working with natural processes (Seddon et al., 2020).
549 However, it is common in NBS literature to think in terms of NBS’ *benefits to society* (e.g. Di
550 Grazia et al., 2021; Gómez Martín et al., 2020; Lin et al., 2020; Midgley et al., 2021; Rizzo et al.,
551 2020; Symmank et al., 2020). This is also apparent in NBS policy, being defined for example by
552 the European Commission as ‘solutions for addressing societal challenges... that ...
553 simultaneously provide environmental, social and economic benefits and help build resilience’
554 (Giordano et al., 2020: 2). In such framings, nature and rivers are not a *part of society* but are
555 there for human benefit in an instrumental ES mode – and indeed these two concepts very often
556 go together (e.g. Albert et al., 2019; Di Grazia et al., 2021; Gkiatas et al., 2021; Jakubínský et
557 al., 2021; Kaiser et al., 2021; Symmank et al., 2020; Terêncio et al., 2021; Rizzo et al., 2020;
558 Turkelboom et al., 2021; Wilkinson et al., 2019).

559 Recent years have seen attempts to nuance what ‘Ecosystem Service’ might mean. For example,
560 The Intergovernmental Science-Policy Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services, also a
561 strong proponent of NBS, includes relational values as a core component in its Conceptual
562 Framework (IPBES CF) (Díaz et al., 2015a; Díaz et al., 2015b; IPBES, 2019). This reflects a

563 growing interest in relational values in environmental management literature (Admiraal et al.,
564 2017; Arias-Arévalo et al., 2017; Gould et al., 2015; Gould and Lincoln, 2017; Himes and
565 Muraca, 2018; Kaiser et al., 2021).

566 In the IPBES CF, the incorporation of relational values marks a conscious effort to depart from
567 the dominance of instrumental, economic and monetary forms of valuation in ES towards more
568 pluralistic models where, for example, ‘living in harmony with ... Mother Earth’ can in itself be
569 understood as part of what makes a good life (Díaz et al., 2015a: 13). This is part of a
570 commitment within IPBES to recognize and work with Indigenous and other ways of relating
571 and knowing ‘in which’, for example, ‘certain places, water bodies, forests ... are imbued with
572 ancestral and divine ... significance’ (Díaz et al., 2015a: 9). In all but word this means kinship
573 with the nonhuman world, and indeed elsewhere in the literature, such kinship is explicitly
574 referenced as a subset of relational values (Gould et al., 2015: 580).

575 Our position, however, deviates from IPBES in at least three ways. Firstly, where it renders
576 Indigenous knowledge, and the relational values associated with it, as by definition ‘context
577 specific perspective[s]’ rather than being more widely and generally applicable (IPBES, 2019:
578 3). This, despite the fact that Indigenous ideas underpin many of the key tools now used in the
579 humanities and social sciences for understanding the precarious, interconnected ‘non-modern’
580 world we live in (e.g. Latour [1991] 1993, Morton 2016, Haraway 2015b, Ingold 2000, Tsing
581 2016). Our problem here is not that we believe there should be an Indigenous knowledge free-
582 for-all where elites from the Global North can take and do with it what they will. We recognize
583 with Watts (2013) and Todd (2016) the centrality and *specificity* of *place* often associated with
584 such ways of knowing and relating. Rather, we are uneasy with the sense that something such as
585 kinship with the nonhuman world necessarily derives from and somehow belongs in the

586 periphery, the traditional – precisely the ideological and geographical spaces ascribed to
587 indigeneity by the leading edges of colonial-modernity (Weaver, 2000; Fanon, 2007; Latour and
588 Porter, 2010; Shepherd and Robins, 2008; Boonzaier and Sharp, 1988). Secondly, in the IPBES
589 CF, ‘ancestral significance’ is framed as just one legitimate way among others of valuing the
590 nonhuman world – appropriate in one situation, just as ascribing monetary value to it might be in
591 another (Díaz et al., 2015a: 11). Given the devastating histories associated with the thingification
592 of the world, and the vast flows of capital and established political and legal structures that this
593 form of valuation can tap in to the moment it comes into being, this is not an equivocation we are
594 prepared to make. On the other hand, fundamentally undoing established nature-as-human-
595 property legal structures might go some way to shifting the terms of this debate (cf. Brierley
596 2020, above). Thirdly, if water really is our kin, then we cannot not support any idea that
597 humanity, like some spoilt child, should be served up benefits without recognizing and nurturing
598 water in return in appropriate and caring ways.

599 **4. Rights of nature**

600 Although, as seen above, rights movements have been more visible and successful in places with
601 strong Indigenous movements, this has started to change in Europe (e.g. Kalantzakos
602 2017Pentinat, 2020; Schoukens, 2020 Schimmöller 2020). On July 13th 2022, campaigners
603 secured legal personhood for Spain’s Mar Menor lagoon – the first ecosystem in Europe to be
604 granted such status (McLaren-Kennedy 2022). In the UK, where Rights of Nature sentiment is
605 certainly growing, it looks like the combination of citizen protest and a determined local
606 councillor’s frustration with water company inaction will soon lead to legal rights being
607 conferred on the River Ouse (Kaminsski 2023; on other similar campaigns see Lampkin and
608 Wyatt, 2020; Kaminsky, 2021; Lawyers for Nature, 2021, Stockwell, 2022). Such success can

609 only encourage further campaigns. Whether or not new legal frameworks will be enough to undo
610 capitalist entanglements which have regularly unraveled the aims of rights of nature legislation
611 in places like Ecuador, Bolivia, and India, is of course extremely hard to say. Indeed, considering
612 its history of internal colonization by way of land enclosures, especially in the 18th and 19th
613 centuries (Foster et al. 2021, Olwig 2016, Thompson 1991), concerns raised above in regards to
614 other formerly colonized regions have much relevance here. Any rights conferred on nature
615 could, for example, run the risk of sidestepping crucial structural power issues of who controls
616 and has a say over and access to lands and their waters. This is perhaps especially relevant in
617 England where landownership is shrouded in particularly thick legal and financial fog (Shrubsole
618 2019).

619
620 Water governance in the UK is overall defined by privatization and property regimes, where
621 human beings figure as owners of the nonhuman world around them. If we want to introduce into
622 such contexts new ways of water ‘governance’ (recognizing that this is an inadequate word),
623 where something like riverkinship is taken seriously, we will need to learn from Indigenous,
624 Afro-Colombian and other struggles that have achieved some successes in moving toward a
625 world less defined by this derangement of relationship. We note that, despite obvious historical
626 and cultural differences, we might want to listen especially closely to Aotearoa New Zealand.
627 Here there has accumulated more collective experience of subverting British-derived water law
628 and policy (and comparable attendant social, cultural and ecological degradations) than maybe
629 anywhere else (Hikuroa et al 2021, Salmond et al 2019, Salmond et al 2022). For example: how
630 kin relations might be a more powerful, meaningful and sustainable way of proscribing certain
631 river related behaviours than legalistic injunctions; or how to be alive to the risks of river rights

632 becoming just another law rather than a linchpin for transformative human-river relationships
633 (Hikuroa et al 2021). On the latter point, “decision-making structures based on strong values
634 with specific mandates” seem to be key (ibid, 80). While there are many lessons to learn, one
635 that seems especially apposite to the foregoing arguments and examples, and which is a constant
636 across historical and cultural differences from Aotearoa to Colombia, is the basic importance of
637 the presence of human populations for whom *waters are kin*. It is through them that waters enter
638 into political terrains in deeply felt and urgent forms.

639

640 **Concluding thoughts**

641 Making of the world an infinite collection of things ‘connected only by their presence in space’
642 has proven to be spectacularly, terrifyingly successful (Green, 2020: 40). As humanity confronts
643 the devastating consequences of that success, we search for ways of valuing, knowing, and
644 relating to the nonhuman world which might not destroy the biosphere upon which we all
645 depend. Much inspiration has come from people and places where memory and practice live on
646 of worlds not defined by the derangement of relationship that thingification represents. In the
647 work of Indigenous scholars, anthropologists and others, these ways of knowing, valuing, and
648 relating are often expressed in the language of kin. Such ‘kinship relations’ drive passionate
649 campaigns that in some ways have been successful in redefining how nation states relate to their
650 nonhuman constituents. And yet, those complex assemblages of places, people, philosophies,
651 and technologies that have led the charge in thingifying the world, that have benefited most from
652 it, are also those that bear the highest debts to people and planet. This means that at least as much
653 as anywhere else, there is a pressing need for the assemblage called ‘the UK’ - to reimagine, and
654 to cultivate anew, its relationships to its nonhuman constituents.

655

656 We find ourselves in a complex moment where quite different ways of responding to,
657 understanding and treating ‘nature’ are in tension. On the one hand, insights from Indigenous
658 worlds, and evidence in many disciplines, especially the ecological ones, has pushed us toward
659 the recognition of the interdependence of processes from the geological to the atmospheric, to
660 the (human) social. On the other hand, there are countervailing tendencies, supporting powerful
661 interests, which tend to increasing abstraction and fragmentation, as in the datafication of the
662 world, where data, and the elements of the world it stands in for, is now one of the most
663 important global currencies (Zuboff 2019). Things could go quite different ways – more
664 thingification, more commodification, or less, towards more genuinely sustainable relations -
665 depending on our collective thoughts and actions at this moment. Hence the role for
666 interventions like ours (as modest as it might be) in discursive spaces like this.

667

668 We do not pretend to possess any knowledge of what *exactly should* happen for a longer-term,
669 genuinely sustainable alternative to be realized in the UK and elsewhere – this can only be
670 worked out through ongoing campaigns which would no doubt gain more passionate impetus the
671 more people feel and actively engage in riverkinship. However, it does seem that struggles need
672 to aim beyond policy and law and strategize on the terrain of capital itself – that which has been
673 core to the undoing of kinship with waters and the world. If we adopt Moore’s/Collis’ concept of
674 the ‘biotariat,’ then we suggest that opposing the logics of capital requires committed forms of
675 human-nonhuman solidarity between those whose ‘free gifts’ of life force are the basis for
676 capital accumulation. Here, the partial successes of movements for the personhood of rivers,
677 where kinship plays a key role in struggles as embodied vitalization, motivation and meaning,

678 suggest that riverkin can be *active allies* in cultivating such new (old?) political-ecological
679 constellations suited to the challenges of the Anthropocene. As Anna Krzywoszynska points out
680 in relation to farming and soil care in the UK, ‘it is only when caring is more than the obligation
681 of particular individuals, and becomes a systemic project, that the radical potential of
682 attentiveness can be fulfilled’ (Krzywoszynska 2019, 672). Such constellations could force the
683 creation and *enforcement* of legislation and regulation as a good place to start - although clearly
684 more radical transformations, including but not limited to water governance, are needed if capital
685 isn't to reassert itself at every opportunity. In this regard, we see a pressing need to creatively
686 combine ecological solidarities with the resistive power that labour-based politics in the UK is
687 cultivating once again (Booth, Elgot and Duncan 2022; Middleton et al 2023). After all,
688 thingification involved social, political, economic, and ontological redosings that stretched from
689 minuscule atomic interactions, to water on Earth, to the far reaches of the universe.

690

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ⁱ As far as we are aware this is a neologism, although see Wood (2020), discussed below.

ⁱⁱ We are in agreement with much of the literature on the nonhuman where it argues that what we might typically delineate as ‘human’ is always *more* in the sense that ‘I’ at any moment includes bacteria, air, food, DNA which is ‘not me’, as well as ongoing mutually constituting relations with animals, plants, waters (e.g. Tsing 2013, Panelli 2010, Searle et al 2020). Such a sense of deep, inextricable hybridity should be taken as read in this article. At the same time, we do think that there is something particular about humanity and that is it sometimes necessary to be able to point to such ways of being and doing in contradistinction to other aspects of the world which are not not human but which are also not human entirely.

ⁱⁱⁱ An article we found when searching for the term ‘Riverkin’.