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Abstract	Ecofeminist philosophy is a development of feminist philosophy that addresses the intersection of sexism and environmental issues. Coined by Francoise d'Eaubonne, the term "ecofeminism" refers to a diverse collection of feminist thought that shares the conviction that the present environmental crisis is due not solely to the anthropomorphic nature of dominant conceptualisations of human-nature relations, with their emphasis on notion of mastery and control, but also to their androcentric nature. Ecofeminists hold that there is a strong connection between the oppression of women and the oppression of nature and that failure to pay heed to this women-nature connection threatens to compromise both environmental and feminist activism. Opinion differs amongst ecofeminists on the correct way to address this issue, with some arguing that liberation necessitates that women should reject the women-nature connection and others that they should affirm it.
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The Seeds of Violence. Ecofeminism, Technology, and Ecofeminist Philosophy of Technology

Gregory Morgan Swer

1 Introduction

Ecofeminist philosophy is a development of feminist philosophy that addresses the intersection of sexism and environmental issues. Coined by Francoise d'Eaubonne (1974), the term “ecofeminism” refers to a diverse collection of feminist thought that shares the conviction that the present environmental crisis is due not solely to the anthropomorphic nature of dominant conceptualisations of human-nature relations, with their emphasis on notion of mastery and control, but also to their androcentric nature. Ecofeminists hold that there is a strong connection between the oppression of women and the oppression of nature and that failure to pay heed to this women-nature connection threatens to compromise both environmental and feminist activism. Opinion differs amongst ecofeminists on the correct way to address this issue, with some arguing that liberation necessitates that women should reject the women-nature connection and others that they should affirm it.¹

The variety of ecofeminism that I will explore in this paper, *transformative ecofeminism*, takes a social constructivist position on the women-nature connection.² Transformative ecofeminists argue that the links between the oppression of women and the oppression require that the liberation of women involve the

¹Simone De Beauvoir (1952) provides an example of the former, and Mary Daly (1978, 1984) of the latter.

²The term transformative ecofeminism was coined by Ynestra King to demarcate her position from those of feminists seeking to either affirm or reject the connection between women and nature (1989).

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23 liberation of nature, and vice versa. They further argue, against essentialist forms
24 of ecofeminism, that the connection between women and nature is socially con-
25 structed and thereby amenable to alteration.³

26 In general, ecofeminist analyses offer a critique of the domination of women
27 and nature through the analysis of the material and spiritual consequences of such
28 domination and of the ideological functions of the conceptualisations of women
29 and nature that underpin and justify such domination. A particular focus of
30 ecofeminist analysis is the role of value dualisms in the conceptual categorization
31 of existence.⁴ These dualisms are antagonistic conceptual dyads (man/woman, rea-
32 son/emotion) that divide reality hierarchically with one part of the pair elevated at
33 the expense of the other. Exposing the ideological nature of such dualisms serves
34 to undermine both the conceptual schemas and the practices of domination that
35 they enable.

36 Technology features frequently in ecofeminist writings, in analyses of tech-
37 nocracy (Birkeland 1993), Nuclear Power (Caputi 1993), reproductive technolo-
38 gies (Diamond 1990), or the production of computer interfaces (Romberger 2011),
39 to give but a few examples. Despite being a recurrent theme, technology itself as
40 a phenomenon is rarely directly considered. For many ecofeminists technology
41 seems to operate as an umbrella term for a collection of artefacts whose positive or
42 negative characteristics are ultimately contingent upon the manner in which they
43 are employed.⁵ The individual technologies appear as value neutral. That is to say
44 that technology, as a class of objects, belongs to the realm of fact and is thus, in
45 and of itself, neutral with regards to human value systems. Issues concerning value
46 would only properly arise when considering issues involving the application of
47 technology, at which point questions regarding values can be directed towards the
48 actions and intentions of the persons employing the technology.

49 There are of course exceptions to this piecemeal approach to technological arte-
50 facts, and in this chapter I shall focus upon two ecofeminist philosophers whose
51 consideration of technology moves from the individual instance towards a more
52 general account of the nature of technology. The first, Karen Warren, gives tech-
53 nology a central place in her philosophical analysis. However, I shall suggest, her
54 commitment to an instrumental understanding of technology render her approach
55 problematic. I will then consider the work of Vandana Shiva. Best known as an
56 environmental activist and radical scientist, standard analyses of Shiva's work
57 tend to overlook the philosophical dimensions of her thought, in particular the
58 continuous emphasis on science and technology. I argue that Shiva puts forward

³Daly's *Gyn/Ecology* (1978) is the classic example of such an essentialist position.

⁴See for instance Rosemary Ruether (1975) or Dorothy Dinnerstein (1989).

⁵This situation rather belies the accusation occasionally levelled against ecofeminism of being anti-technological. To accuse ecofeminism of being 'technophobic', as Carol Stabile (1994) does, is to suggest that ecofeminists in general attribute some universal rebarbative character to technology. However, it is precisely the tendency to analyse features of individual technologies, rather than technology in general, that is the norm.



59 a sophisticated technological determinist philosophy of that emphasises the role
60 of political and patriarchal interests in technological development and subsequent
61 social and environmental interventions.⁶

62 2 Warren on Technology

63 One of the few ecofeminists to make technology central to the application of
64 their ecofeminist philosophical framework is Karen J. Warren. Warren argues that
65 “an adequate understanding of the dual dominations of women and nature must
66 include a discussion of technology” (Warren 1992: 14). Indeed, Warren character- **AQ1**
67 izes ecofeminism as emerging from the intersection of feminism, environmental
68 concerns, and concerns with science, technology and development (Warren 2000:
69 44). Just as ecofeminism holds that the environment is a feminist issue, so too, on
70 Warren’s account, does it hold that technology is likewise a feminist issue.

71 Warren states that “a deep conceptual understanding of ecofeminism requires
72 a discussion of the basic structure of beliefs and values underlying environmental
73 exploitation and the domination of women” (Warren 1992: 16). This basic struc-
74 ture is what Warren calls a conceptual framework, a socially constructed set of
75 beliefs, values, etc. which determine the way in which one perceives both one-
76 self and the world in general. According to Warren the primary focus of ecofemi-
77 nism is on oppressive conceptual structures which are held to be the origin of the
78 domination of both women and nature. Warren defines an oppressive conceptual
79 structure as that which “explains, maintains, and sanctions (unjustified) relations
80 of domination and subordination” (Warren 1992: 16).

81 Oppressive conceptual frameworks are said to possess five characteristics.
82 These are value-hierarchical thinking, value dualisms, power-over conceptions of
83 power, conceptions of privilege and a logic of domination.⁷ Warren defines a logic
84 of domination as, “a structure of argumentation which presumes that superiority
85 justifies subordination” (Warren 1992: 17). It is this last characteristic that Warren
86 holds to be the most significant, in that it is only when this characteristic is com-
87 bined with the others that one arrives at an oppressive form of conceptual frame-
88 work (Warren 1996: 21). And, for Warren, all ecofeminists share the belief that it
89 is this logic of domination within patriarchy that has served to justify and perpetu-
90 ate the domination of women and nature. So, what then is the relationship between
91 technology and these oppressive conceptual frameworks?

⁶This focus on Warren and Shiva is not meant to suggest that they represent the totality of ecofeminist engagement with the philosophy of technology. Attempts to fuse Heideggerian philosophy with ecofeminist thought represent another potential source for ecofeminist philosophy of technology (Bigwood 1993, Glazebrook 2001, Swer 2008). As does Dinnerstein’s engagement with Mumford’s philosophy of technology (Dinnerstein 1989), or Ariel Salleh’s appropriation of Critical Theory (Salleh 1997).

⁷Chris Cuomo suggests that Warren may have drawn this notion of a logic of domination from Adorno and Horkheimer (Cuomo 1998: 126).



92 Technology, for Warren, does not seem to be an integral part of the logic
93 of domination, nor imbued with the values of patriarchy. She states that,
94 “Ecofeminism welcomes appropriate ecological science and technology.
95 Environmental problems demand scientific and technological responses as part
96 of the solution” (Warren & Cheney 1996: 254). The application of technology to
97 environmental problems does not appear to be inherently problematic, on Warren’s
98 account, but rather necessary and (at least potentially) positive. Given the central
99 place that Warren gives technological matters in ecofeminist analysis, one would
100 expect to find at some point in Warren’s work a discussion of the connections
101 between the environment, women and technology which would elucidate exactly
102 why and how these three areas should be considered in conjunction as opposed
103 to separately. Instead, in her paper “Women, Nature and Technology”, Warren
104 chooses to explain by offering four examples that she feels demonstrate the con-
105 nection between environment, women and nature.

106 Let us focus on one of Warren’s examples, the tale of the Chipko movement
107 in India which originated with the actions of 27 women who halted a tree felling
108 operation by threatening to hug the trees. The use of ecofeminist theory in framing
109 her analysis allows Warren to identify connections between what appears initially
110 to be a purely environmental issue and specific women’s issues. For example, the
111 reliance of local women on the products of the forest means that the tree felling
112 becomes a feminist issue. Furthermore, by identifying a patriarchal oppressive
113 conceptual framework as the dominant oppressive framework operative in the
114 world, and making it the chief focus of ecofeminist analysis, Warren is able to
115 identify patriarchal elements present in the situations she studies. In the Chipko
116 example, Warren locates patriarchal attitudes at the very base of the tree felling
117 operation in the main ideas of the practitioners and advocates of scientific forestry,
118 who assume that their scientific knowledge is superior to the indigenous scientific
119 knowledge of the local women who use the forest.

120 The issue with Warren’s examples, with regards to technological analysis, is
121 that they don’t tell us much about technology. Each of her examples demonstrate
122 that there have been occasions in recent history which, when analysed from an
123 ecofeminist perspective, reveal technological aspects that are indeed connected
124 to both environmental and women’s issues.⁸ In the Chipko example, the assump-
125 tion that a patriarchal conceptual framework was a motivating factor in the origins
126 and nature of the dispute allowed Warren to ascertain that patriarchal notions were
127 operative in the thinking and practice of scientific forestry and that they led to the
128 development of a situation that was harmful to both women and the environment.
129 However, neither the Chipko example nor Warren’s other examples establish that
130 technology is anyway necessarily connected with the oppression of women or the
131 despoliation of the environment, or even perhaps strongly compatible with such
132 acts. What Warren establishes is that at some points in time technology was either

⁸The term “technological” here is intended to include both technology and science. The deliberate conflation of the two areas is quite common in ecofeminist theory.



133 used in a manner that was detrimental to women and the environment, or that there
134 are points in time in which a technological intervention of some sort would be
135 conducive to women's well being.

136 In short, on Warren's account technology is held to be entirely instrumental
137 in character. It simply exists as an object in the world and can be used in either
138 a positive or negative way depending on the context of use and the intentions of
139 the user. Given that technology is apparently neutral with regards to the ends of
140 its use, it is hard to see how one can support Warren's view that technology is
141 a feminist issue or that technology is at the heart of ecofeminist theory. Warren
142 does not give an account of what it is about technology that makes it central to
143 an understanding of nature and women. If technology is a feminist issue then it
144 would appear that it is only ever contingently so. Warren, in other words, does not
145 enquire into the nature of technology. Without such an enquiry one cannot estab-
146 lish what, if anything, in the character of technology connects it with women and
147 nature and their mutual oppression by the forces of patriarchy. Or, alternatively
148 whether technology can fulfill the liberatory potential for women and nature that
149 Warren foresees for it.

150 A possible reason for Warren's instrumentalist approach to technology might
151 lie in her acceptance of Frederick Ferré's definition of technology as "practical
152 implementations of intelligence", where 'intelligence' refers to the 'capacity for
153 self-disciplined mental activity'" (Warren 1992: 22). This rather cerebral definition
154 of technology places emphasis on the individual human consciousness from which
155 technology originates. It consequently ignores questions such as the possibility
156 of there being general characteristics of technology, or whether technologies can
157 develop or exhibit qualities unintended by the creator once they are brought into
158 being and put into operation. Such a view commits what Langdon Winner calls the
159 fallacy of technological mastery, the belief that "men know best what they them-
160 selves have made; that the things men make are under their firm control; that tech-
161 nology is essentially neutral, a means to an end..." (Winner 1977: 25).

162 A more likely reason is that issues of inherent technological values or techno-
163 logical autonomy simply lie outside Warren's field of interest. Warren's primary
164 concerns in her ecofeminist philosophy concern epistemology and ethics. In the
165 first case she critiques value-imbued conceptual schemes that privilege oppressive
166 hierarchies and exclude the situated-knowledge of those on the lower end of such
167 hierarchies. Science, on her account, as a form of knowledge is also value-imbued
168 and likewise situated in a specific historical and social context and she calls for the
169 inclusion of a diversity of perspective within a specific framework of investigation
170 (Warren 1996: 250–251). And at the ethical level she likewise argues for a contex-
171 tualism, an inclusive approach to justice that fosters equality without uniformity
172 and recognizes the situated, relational nature of ethical discourse (Warren 2000:
173 88). In effect Warren's philosophy tends to remain at the level of values.

174 Technology, on Warren's account, appears outside the realm of values. When
175 technology is included in her analysis it is usually in regards to oppressed groups'
176 lack of access to a technology, the unjust exposure of such groups to the nega-
177 tive effects of technology use, or their lack of inclusion regarding input into the



178 selection of technology (Warren 2000: 178). In other words, technology features in
179 relation to epistemological and ethical issues regarding its use. It however always
180 features as a fact, an object that is itself neutral with regards to human values.
181 Lying outside the realm of values, value considerations only pertain to the applica-
182 tion of technological means by human agents.

183 3 Shiva on Technology

184 An alternative ecofeminist account of technology to the instrumentalist tech-
185 nological outlook present in Warren's analysis is to be found in the writings of
186 Vandana Shiva. She advances a determinist technological position that rejects that
187 fact/value distinction present in Warren instrumentalism, and places technology
188 and science in the realm of values. Shiva's philosophy of technology is intrinsi-
189 cally connected with her ecofeminism. Shiva portrays science as imbued with the
190 ideology of capitalist economics, and technology as its point of contact with the
191 natural and social world. Shiva also argues that in the modern world we find a con-
192 vergence of systems of oppression, those of capitalism and patriarchy, such that
193 one can refer to them as one system, that of capitalist-patriarchy. Science then, is
194 imbued with a patriarchal ideology, and technology serves the interests of patriar-
195 chy through transformative alteration of the social and natural world. Shiva devel-
196 ops a Hindu-ecofeminist ontology, based upon the feminine principle understood
197 as Prakriti, which she employs as an alternative to what she terms western patriar-
198 chal reductionist metaphysics.

199 According to Shiva modern science, both as knowledge and practice, perpe-
200 trates violence both indirectly and directly against society and nature. Here Shiva's
201 views on technology and science intersect with her ecological metaphysics,
202 according to which the properties manifested by any element of a system under
203 study are determined by the relationships which are taken to define the context
204 of study. Thus, the selection of the context determines the properties perceived in
205 nature, and the selection of the context is itself determined by the values and pri-
206 orities guiding the perception of nature, in the case of modern science these deter-
207 mining values being reductionist.

208 This ontological distortion results in certain reductionist epistemological
209 assumptions, which Shiva identifies as being that knowledge of the parts of a sys-
210 tem gives knowledge of the whole, and that experts are the only legitimate seek-
211 ers and justifiers of knowledge. Interventions in nature in the form of technology
212 do harm due to the producers and utilisers' ignorance of the natural system. The
213 privileging of scientific knowledge, method and knowers not only prevents the
214 study of the other properties of nature by denying the epistemological legitimacy
215 of other modes of knowledge, it also transforms that majority of the populace it
216 'non-knowers' through the creation of the expert/non-expert dichotomy, even in
217 areas in which they regularly operate. Thus, modern reductionist science carries
218 out violence against humanity at an epistemological level by removing its cogni-
219 tive authority and it also carries out violence against nature of a physical kind. It



220 is, for Shiva, the combination of this cognitive alienation and the material con-
221 sequences of this natural violation that resulted in the environmental and social
222 destruction that she detailed in perhaps her best-known work, *The Violence of the*
223 *Green Revolution*.

224 Shiva conception of technology operates at several levels. Her understand-
225 ing of technology, like Warren's, includes the notion of technology as a mode of
226 knowledge. However, Shiva's philosophy also understands the term 'technology'
227 to include technology as a system, as an artefact, and as a type of metaphysics. I
228 argue that it is the Shiva's analysis of technology as a system that is foundational to
229 her technological critique. I further suggest that it is an appreciation of technologi-
230 cal at the level of sociotechnical structure that most clearly draws out most clearly
231 her argument that technology be viewed, contra Warren and others, as located
232 within the realm of values, in addition to the implications of such a position.

233 4 Technology as a System

234 Shiva's analysis of technology as a system undermines in several ways attempts
235 to maintain a fact/value distinction with regards to science and technology. Firstly,
236 Shiva holds technology and modern science to be cognitively inseparable due to
237 their mutually constitutive role in legitimating and perpetuating the power nexus
238 between western patriarchy and modern industrial capitalism. If science and tech-
239 nology are, effectively, identical, then it becomes impossible to hold that there is a
240 fact/value distinction between science and technology. Science cannot be treated
241 as belonging to a world of facts, removed from the ethical issues regarding tech-
242 nological development and application. Secondly, Shiva views science, technology
243 and modern capitalism as forming a sociotechnical system that operates for the
244 extension and maintenance of the power of the ruling elite. Shiva's account at this
245 level of analysis in many ways resembles that of Lewis Mumford. Technics, for
246 Mumford is any system, cognitive or material, which operates along mechanical
247 principles. So, in addition to science and technology as both theory and practice
248 and artefact, Mumford would also include any political or labour structure which
249 operated along centralised lines. To this extent it is fair to say that Mumford's
250 technics overlaps with all the elements present in Shiva's nexus. Both philosophers
251 further agree that there is little distinction to be made between modern science and
252 technology, due to the fact that science's purpose is the production of commer-
253 cially exploitable technology (Mumford 1970: 123). The implications of treating
254 science and technology (or technoscience) as forming a unit, and that unit as but
255 a component of a larger sociotechnical system, are that technology (in this sense)
256 must be treated as system which has both human and technological components.
257 If technology (as a system) contains humans as components then it is hard to see
258 how it can be treated as lying outside the realm of values. For Shiva the sociotech-
259 nical system that is patriarchal capitalism is thoroughly value-laden, and science/
260 technology is thus not immune from normative critique at any level (theory, organ-
261 isation, application, etc.).



262 What is of particular interest in comparing Shiva and Mumford's philosophies
263 is their recurrent use of ecology and ecological metaphors in critiquing the dominant
264 mechanistic sociotechnical system and in validating alternative systems. Both
265 Shiva and Mumford portray the world as being an organic system of interconnected
266 and varied parts, with stability and continued existence guaranteed through
267 the system's diversity. By characterising the world mechanically, science legitimates
268 the exploitation and transformation of the material world in a way which
269 threatens nature's 'dynamic equilibrium', and thereby threatens life (Mumford
270 1970: 127). Both advocate the rejection of the reductionist ideology or 'myth
271 of the machine' as Mumford describes it, in favour of a return to older, ecologically
272 sound systems or 'biotechnics'. In these systems work was not directed to
273 the accumulation of capital, but was merely a part of the overall cultural life of
274 the community, and operated within sustainable parameters of both production
275 and consumption. Mumford viewed such systems as on the verge of extinction as
276 global society was progressively restructured along mechanical lines to serve the
277 capitalist megatechnics, but felt that their legacies offered humanity a variety of
278 alternative patterns of life upon which we could draw for inspiration (Mumford
279 1970: 159). Shiva terms these traditional systems ethno-sciences, and points to the
280 success that their occasional revival has had (e.g. regarding breast-feeding, organic
281 farming), whilst at the same time warning that the Western development project
282 threatens to eradicate the remaining non-Western biotechnics.⁹

283 In summary then, it can be seen that on many of the key points of their different
284 philosophies Shiva and Mumford are in relative agreement. In particular, both
285 attach great significance to the influence of the ideological in bringing about transformations
286 in the both the natural and social world. Each argue that, in essence, there is no
287 meaningful distinction between thought and action. To view the world mechanically
288 is to treat it mechanically. Thus, science cannot claim that the negative ramifications
289 of the use of its creations are due to their misapplication or misappropriation, and
290 that the political or economic sphere must bear responsibility. Science and technology
291 are part of the political and economic sphere and technology which disrupts natural
292 processes by treating nature or humanity mechanically has been designed to do exactly
293 that. Whilst Shiva and Mumford disagree over the likely consequences of economic,
294 scientific and technological development, both

⁹It should be noted that Mumford and Shiva characterise the consequences of a failure to arrest the growth of capitalist technics and its accompanying mechanistic scientific ideology in somewhat different ways. For Mumford, the main danger lies in the impact that a truly global megatechnics would have on the quality of human life. He argues that humanity faces deprivation by material surfeit, and that if technology is allowed to develop unchecked we face the possible scenario of a life in which all human needs are satisfied artificially and all human development has been arrested. Shiva, by contrast, argues that the development of capitalist technics and its transformations of the natural world through the use of technology, threatens to end life itself, rather than the quality of life. The ecological ramifications of scientific exploitation threaten to directly affect those whose patterns of life are still modeled on the cycles of nature rather than those of the market.



295 portray this development as out of control. Not in that it operates under its own
296 dynamic, but in that it is in the control of an unaccountable elite all of whom are
297 under the sway of a highly destructive mechanistic ideology. And given that tech-
298 nology has been designed to further the interests of this elite, it cannot be ‘turned’
299 from its purpose and put to more egalitarian ends. And even if it could, due to the
300 fact that the principles of its operation are derived from the mechanistic paradigm,
301 its operation will inevitably do harm to nature.

302 However, the greatest and most significant similarity between Mumford and
303 Shiva’s philosophical positions concerns their critique of the ideology of modern
304 science/technology and its implications. This ideology serves, for both thinkers,
305 as a means by which to preserve and justify the existence and operations of the
306 sociotechnical system. Although Shiva describes this ideology as reductionist, and
307 Mumford describes it as mechanistic or mechanical, their characterisations of it
308 are relatively interchangeable. Mumford, like Shiva, sees the scientific revolution
309 as the starting point for the mechanistic worldview, and points to its ideological
310 and practical utility to the development of modern capitalism. Both argue that
311 the mechanistic/reductionist ideology is founded upon the premise that reality is
312 essentially a mechanical system, with the greater whole understandable through
313 the study of its uniform parts (Mumford 1970: 33, 68). Both consider this mechan-
314 ical model to be fallacious and destructive and both reject the model in favour of
315 a holistic, life-ensuring alternative. In terms of the analysis of technology, the role
316 of ideology as a rationalization for the operations of a pre-existing sociotechni-
317 cal system is fundamental to Shiva’s thought in that it underpins her analyses of
318 technology as metaphysics, epistemology and artefact. Each level, for Shiva, rep-
319 represents a different way in which the rulers of the technological system seek to nat-
320 uralise and operationalize that ideology. At the metaphysical level, technology is
321 the attempt to present the world in ways amenable to capitalist-patriarchal exploi-
322 tation and manipulation. At the epistemological level, technology represents the
323 hegemony of a calculative mode of reasoning that devalues and discounts all forms
324 of knowledge outside itself. And at the artefactual level, technology represents the
325 attempt to reorder the world such that it makes actual the ideological metaphysical
326 depiction of reality.

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327 5 Technology as Metaphysics

328 According to Shiva, modern science has constructed a reductionist and mecha-
329 nistic metaphysical picture of the world. She states that, “the ontological...
330 assumptions of reductionism are based on uniformity, perceiving all systems as
331 comprising the same basic constituents, discrete, and atomistic, and assuming all
332 basic processes to be mechanical” (Shiva 1993a: 23). In other words,, the meta-
333 physical picture of modern science represents all processes and entities as reduc-
334 ible to certain basic components and presents those components as possessing a
335 degree of uniformity and homogeneity. These basic components are held to inter-
336 act in a fairly linear, casual fashion.



337 Fundamental to this depiction of the world, for Shiva, is the metaphor of the
338 machine which functions as a conceptual blueprint for the understanding all
339 natural processes. This mechanical conception, Shiva claims, “was based on the
340 assumption of manipulability and divisibility” (Shiva 1993a: 23). In this way
341 nature and its processes are depicted as an assembly of individual parts, rather
342 than a whole. And accordingly, on this mechanical conception, the key to grasping
343 the essence of any natural process is to isolate the parts involved. This stands in
344 contrast to organic metaphors for the nature of reality, “in which concepts of order
345 and power were based on interdependence and reciprocity” (Shiva 1993a: 23).

346 For Shiva the purpose of this technological metaphysics is decidedly practical.
347 The metaphysical worldview serves to conceptually reorder the world in a manner
348 conducive to the interests of the patriarchal-capitalist system of which it is a part.
349 By focusing on the properties of individual components, science legitimates the
350 uncoupling of issues concerning the manipulation of those components from those
351 of the wellbeing of the system of which they are a part. It further serves to attrib-
352 ute ‘reality’, or at least significance, to only those aspects of nature which have
353 utility value to the sociotechnical system. And in this way technological metaphys-
354 ics prepares the way for the commercial exploitation of nature by representing it in
355 such a way that it invites such treatment.

356 6 Technology as Epistemology

357 For Shiva this reductionist metaphysical picture has two distinct functions; the
358 oppression and exploitation of nature, and the oppression and exploitation of women.
359 Both functions serve a capitalist-patriarchal power nexus that Shiva argues has
360 achieved dominance in the modern world. The reductionist metaphysics of modern
361 science stem from the reductionist ideology of this capitalist-patriarchal power nexus.
362 By portraying women and all values associated with them as inferior to those that
363 advance the interests of the western elite, the elite devalues the position of women
364 within society. Their lowered status enables them to be exploited in a way that serves
365 the economic interests of that elite. By devaluing women, they are able to view and
366 treat women as resources for the capitalist system to exploit. Shiva states that,

367
368 Through reductionist science, capital goes where it has never been before. The fragmen-
369 tation of reductionism opens up areas for exploitation and invasion. Technological develop-
370 ment under capitalist patriarchy proceeds steadily from what it has already transformed
371 and used up... towards that which has still not been consumed. It is in this sense that the
372 seed and women’s bodies as sites of regenerative power are, in the eyes of capitalist patri-
373 archy, among the last colonies. (Shiva 1993c: 129)

374 The superimposition by capitalist patriarchy of its technological metaphysics over
375 the natural world also serves an epistemological function. The insistence that the
376 mechanical worldview of the modern science is the only worldview with purchase
377 upon the true nature of reality facilitates the devaluing and dismissal of alterna-
378 tive worldviews less conducive to the extensive agenda of capitalist patriarchy.



379 Accordingly, the epistemological claims of those embedded within the western
380 scientific tradition have greater truth value than those outside that tradition. The
381 propagation of a reductionist metaphysical system in tandem with an insistence in
382 that system's monopoly on the truth enables the experts of the western scientific
383 tradition to act in effect as the gatekeepers of epistemological certainty on matters
384 concerning the understanding and treatment of the natural world.

385 This ideologically-motivated creation of an epistemological hierarchy enables
386 the encroachment of reductionist science into fields of human activity in which
387 there already exist long-standing traditions of theory and praxis by creating an
388 "arbitrary barrier between 'knowledge' (the specialist) and 'ignorance' (the non-
389 specialist)" which "operates effectively to exclude from the scientific domain
390 consideration of certain vital questions relating to the subject matter of science,
391 or certain forms of non-specialist knowledge" (Shiva 1993d: 22). Taking the appli-
392 cation of western reductionist science to Third World agriculture as an example,
393 Shiva points out that it is not the case that reductionist science arrives in a field in
394 which there is a dearth of relevant knowledge. Those involved there have centu-
395 ries of practical and theoretical expertise in agriculture appropriate to their specific
396 ecological conditions. If their practice appears 'backwards' owing to its lack of
397 technological sophistication, this is a reflection of the unwillingness of the west-
398 ern technologized mind to recognize skill and artifice outside the confines of its
399 own mechanical parameters. The seeds that Third World farmers utilize are not
400 'natural' in the sense of naturally occurring in their present state. They represent
401 technological expertise, albeit of a non-reductionist variety, and are themselves
402 technological artefacts.¹⁰ "They consist of improved and selected material, embod-
403 ying the experience, inventiveness and hard work of farmers, past and present;
404 and the evolutionary material processes they have undergone serve ecological and
405 social needs" (Shiva 1993c: 134).

406 The representation of seeds in particular, and Third World agriculture, as existing
407 in an 'state of nature' allows seeds to be treated as a raw material to be developed
408 by western science/technology, and severs the connections between the nature of
409 the seed and the knowledge of the farmers. As an 'unimproved' natural object, the
410 seed invites the improvement that reductionist technological agriculture can offer.
411 It also negates the history of the seed as an artefact, and thereby as a living tes-
412 tament to the expertise of non-reductionist, non-western, agriculturalists. The seed
413 becomes an atemporal component of the mechanical natural model, and the Third
414 World farmer's knowledge is invalidated. Their relation to the seed is now that of
415 the scientifically 'ignorant', and their interactions to it mediated by the technically
416 'learned'. For Shiva it is one of the epistemological premises of reductionism that,
417 "'experts' and 'specialists' are the only legitimate knowledge-seekers and knowl-
418 edge-justifiers" (Shiva 1988: 235). And the expertise of the technological expert is
419 held beyond the reach of the farmer, and thereby, beyond their question or input.

¹⁰The term 'technological' is here meant to suggest the Greek *techne*, rather than the mechanical technological device.



7 Technology as Artefact

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Shiva's philosophical focus is largely on the nature and effects of modern technology and her critique of modern technoscience is not limited to its metaphysical representations or its exclusionary epistemological practices. Shiva also analyses modern technology, and its role in the deterioration of the environment, at the artefactual level, the level of technological devices and products. And the specific artefact on which Shiva focuses is that of the seed, or rather the seed as 'technologised' by reductionist technoscience.

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Modern technology (in the form of technological devices and products) is for Shiva the consequence and ultimately the purpose of modern science. Reductionist science portrays nature as inert and open to exploitation. Technology is then created to carry out this project of exploitation. In other words, the purpose of science is to produce technology and the purpose of technology is to materially reorder the world to ensure that it manifests only those properties that accord with the capitalist-patriarchal system. Here we see the reasons for Shiva's rejection of instrumentalism. Namely that technology, of the contemporary Western variety, is thoroughly value-laden.

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In describing Shiva's position as a technological determinist one I do not mean to suggest that Shiva holds that there are fixed laws of technological development but rather that technology operates as a determining factor in societal development in that it can limit, shape or fix certain patterns of social and natural relations (Swer 2014: 203 f.). The metaphysical power of the technological artefact, on Shiva's account, lies in its ability to make the metaphysics of science actual. Through the intervention of technology in nature the metaphysical system proposed by science is imposed on nature (and thereby on society) and ceases to be a theoretical construct. Nature becomes as science describes it, and to 'use' nature 'productively', societies must adapt appropriate patterns of social and economic behavior.

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A further element of Shiva's technological determinism is the extent to which the values of the capitalist-patriarchal system inhere in the technological artefact. If the artefact is designed to reorder the world in a way amenable to capitalist-patriarchal exploitation, then the proper use of that artefact entails such material reordering. This deterministic element of contemporary technology is brought out most clearly in her analysis of the high yield variety seeds (HYVs) in the Green Revolution. The seed has now become a technological artefact, "*engineered* [my emphasis] and introduced on the basis of 'preferred' traits" (Shiva 1993a: 27). It is in itself a reordering of nature, that has been deliberately engineered to operate in a specific manner. And, if employed, it will continue to operate in that manner (in accordance of the values of those who produced it) regardless of the values or intentions of those who ultimately employ it. And thus, the question of values pertains not just to the epistemological and ethical dimensions of technological use as with Warren but, for Shiva, to the ontological level too.



462 Turning to Shiva's point about the role of the technological artefact in reconfig-
463 uring the social order at point of use, Shiva argues that the use of a technological
464 device necessitates a wider sociotechnical framework as an enabling condition for
465 the operation of that device. For Shiva the new, scientifically 'improved' seeds of
466 reductionist agriculture, such as the high yield varieties (HYVs) introduced into
467 India during the Green Revolution, differ significantly from the 'unimproved'
468 seeds previously used in traditional agriculture. An intrinsic feature of the new
469 seeds, on Shiva's account, is the imposition of control on a regenerative resource.
470 Whereas traditional crops generated their own seeds, and thereby future crops, the
471 hybrid crops do not produce efficacious ("true to type") seeds. The ability of the
472 seed to renew itself as resource is thus constrained, and the farmer is now obliged
473 to purchase new seeds rather than harvest their own.

474 And this increased reliance upon the market to supply the necessities of agricul-
475 tural practice, as opposed to the self-reliance that preceded the technologization of
476 agriculture, is reinforced by a second feature that Shiva argues is peculiar to the new
477 seeds. Namely, that the seeds themselves are inert. "The commoditized seed... cannot
478 *produce* by itself, to do so it needs the help of artificial, manufactured inputs" (Shiva
479 1993d: 30). For the new seed technology to function it requires a continuous supply
480 of chemical inputs, in the form of fertilizer and pesticides, which must be purchased.
481 The seeds also require increased water inputs. Many of the HYV crops were engi-
482 neered to facilitate mechanical harvesting, and hinder traditional methods of harvest-
483 ing by hand. Ease of harvesting then favours the acquisition of agricultural machinery
484 which in turn require petrochemical inputs in order to function. Collectively the intro-
485 duction of the new seeds created a demand for fertilisers, pesticides, water, seeds
486 and energy that had not been present before, or at least not in such quantity. There
487 external inputs had to purchased by the farmers from third parties, thereby altering
488 the agricultural model from one of self-sufficiency to one dependent on the consump-
489 tion of additional agricultural commodities. In addition to this market dependency, the
490 supply of these inputs necessitates the development of suitable infrastructure; large-
491 scale irrigation projects, transport networks, credit provision, etc. To make the tech-
492 nological seed function, its environment must be transformed in order to replicate the
493 social conditions of the sociotechnical structure from which it originated.

494 Shiva's view of the social and material reordering necessitated by the opera-
495 tional requirements of new technology resembles Bruno Latour's analysis of the
496 'transferal' of Pasteur's laboratory (Latour 1983). Here we find the relocation of
497 a natural entity, the seed on Shiva's account, into a scientific space. Under condi-
498 tions utterly unlike those found in its typical environment it is coaxed into mani-
499 festing certain properties. The effort is then made to transfer the now scientifically
500 understood entity from laboratory conditions into the external world and to compel
501 it to reproduce the same properties that were produced in the laboratory. Shiva's
502 point, like Latour's, is there is no real movement of the entity from *inside* the labo-
503 ratory to *outside* the laboratory. Rather the successful functioning of the entity is
504 contingent upon the extension of the laboratory conditions into the outside world.
505 To paraphrase Latour, seed technology is like a train, it doesn't work off its rails.
506 The laboratory must be expanded to encompass society and nature.



507 Shiva's claim about the power of the restructuring powers of the technological
508 artefact goes beyond the reordering of social relations and agricultural practice.
509 For Shiva in the laboratory reality is altered in that elements of it are removed
510 from their relational context and placed in isolation. Then these properties are
511 observed through the lens of a patriarchal-capitalist value-system such that only
512 properties of utility to commercial exploitation manifest themselves. So, firstly
513 reality is misrepresented in practice through the focus on objects in isolation.
514 Then, by viewing the object through a certain metaphysical representation of
515 nature, only properties that accommodate and reinforce that representation are
516 perceived. The significance of the technological artefact on Shiva's account is that
517 it reorders the natural world so that it corresponds to the metaphysical picture of
518 western science/technology. Technology as metaphysics serves an ideological
519 function by representing the world as an aggregate of resources. Technology as
520 artefact makes the representation actual by restructuring nature so that it accords
521 with the reductionist scientific worldview. In the case of the technological seed,
522 technology was inserted into the structure and operations of nature. Certain rela-
523 tions within nature were blocked through the use of technology, and technological
524 substitutes were put in place of many of the components usually found in tradi-
525 tional agriculture. In this way, certain natural processes were isolated from their
526 relational web, and through technological intervention compelled to manifest cer-
527 tain properties. Thus, rather than take nature into the laboratory, one blends the
528 laboratory with nature, producing a restructured form of reality that conforms to
529 the exploitative metaphysical model of patriarchal-capitalist science.

530 8 Technology and/as Violence

531 For Shiva, the consequences of the application of technology in the contexts that
532 she analyses are always disruptive. Technology serves an ideological function in
533 facilitating the extension of power by western capitalist-patriarchy and for Shiva
534 the effects of the exercise of this power are always violent.

535 At the metaphysical level technology represents the imposition of a mechanical
536 worldview over a relational web of life. Those aspects that have utility potential
537 are isolated from their relations to other parts of the web, and those that do not
538 are devalued. At the epistemological level technology negates pre-existing bodies
539 of knowledge and technological accomplishments, and dichotomises society into
540 the categories of expert and non-expert. Knowledge becomes the preserve of the
541 technologists, to whose judgment all non-knowers must defer, even in relation to
542 matters outside science's realm of 'fact'. The social effect is to rob those outside
543 the charmed epistemological circle of their cognitive authority and render their tra-
544 ditional knowledge worthless.

545 And at the artefactual level, the conceptual reordering of reality by technologi-
546 cal metaphysics is mirrored in the social and material reordering brought about
547 through technological use. The development of the necessary infrastructure
548 and supply chains for technology to function involves significant technological



549 transformation of the environment. It also reorients the practice of agriculture
550 away from a focus on self-reliance and social maintenance to one focused on profit
551 and the needs of the market. For Shiva this technological remodeling of social
552 relations disrupts social existence. Access to technological inputs becomes an
553 imperative, and this in turn brings about new relations of power within the agri-
554 cultural communities, and between them and those who control access to those
555 inputs. And the outcome of this alteration in political power has been conflict and
556 violence between communities and the state over access to these inputs. It has,
557 according to Shiva, “increased the commercialization of social relations” and
558 increased ethnic, cultural and religious conflict (Shiva 1993a: 173).

559 And at the material level, technology as artefact violently intervenes in the nat-
560 ural processes upon which life is dependent. “The *object* of knowledge is violated
561 when modern science, in a mindless effort to transform nature without a thought
562 for the consequences, destroys the innate integrity of nature and thereby robs it
563 of its regenerative capacity” (Shiva 1988: 233). The consequences of technologi-
564 cal intervention in the agricultural process are to be found in increased desertifica-
565 tion, loss of genetic diversity, increased pest-resistance, etc. And these ecological
566 crises greatly exacerbate the social conflicts already resulting from the switch to a
567 capital-intensive, high input mode of agriculture.

568 The effect of this violence is cumulative and falls most heavily on those who,
569 for contingent cultural and historical reasons, find themselves excluded from
570 access to the putative benefits of agricultural development and who are depend-
571 ent on sustenance-focused modes of production: women, tribals, peasants. And
572 for Shiva, given patriarchal attitudes towards the value of women’s ‘unproduc-
573 tive’, i.e. non-profit oriented, labour, it is women who bear the brunt of this vio-
574 lence. Development, for them, has the effect of eroding their already unequal
575 social standing. It has, according to Shiva, “destroyed women’s productivity both
576 by removing land, water and forests from their management and control, as well
577 as through the ecological destruction of soil, water and vegetation systems so
578 that nature’s productivity and renewability were impaired” (Shiva 1988: 3). The
579 technological development of agriculture has had the effect of increasing their
580 labour, damaging their health and rendering their existence, and through them that
581 of society, increasingly precarious. Shiva states that, “This poverty crisis touches
582 women most severely, first because they are the poorest among the poor, and then
583 because, with nature, they are the primary sustainers of society” (Shiva 1988: 5).
584 Technology, at every level of analysis, is therefore a gender issue.

585 9 Conclusion

586 It is my argument that eco-feminism, or at least the variety of transformative eco-
587 feminism espoused by Warren and Shiva, contains significant components of tech-
588 nological analysis that can be fruitfully understood as constituting a philosophy of
589 technology. Ecofeminists argue that the capitalist-patriarchal elite in Western soci-
590 ety impose a conceptual schema on nature and society that sanctions and furthers



591 their control. This schema tends to dichotomise the world and its contents into two
592 opposing halves with one part always perceived as superior to its pair. By plac-
593 ing those values that advance the capitalist patriarchal world system higher in the
594 hierarchy of dualisms, it is argued that those values are established as superior val-
595 ues. Conversely, those values that are placed in the lower half of the hierarchy are
596 denigrated and devalued. And thus devalued, are open to exploitation in ways that
597 serve the capitalist patriarchy. In this way values and structures associated with
598 women or nature and which do not facilitate capitalist values of ‘progress’ and
599 ‘development’ are judged to be either of less value or without value which in turn
600 sanctions the consequent exploitation of women and nature.

601 Warren’s ecofeminism takes an instrumentalist position on technology.
602 Technology is perceived as a natural object, and thereby value-neutral. Ethical
603 issues thus arise with regards to access to technology and decision-making regard-
604 ing the application of technology. Shiva’s philosophy of technology, I suggest,
605 draws on the above features of ecofeminist philosophy in order to fashion a criti-
606 que of the value-laden character of technology. Shiva takes a more determinist
607 position and argues that modern technology is inherently political, from the level
608 of scientific theory to level of the individual technological artefact. Through her
609 analysis of the development and application of agricultural technology in the Third
610 World, Shiva explores technology at several different levels; epistemological,
611 metaphysical, systemic and artefactual. Each level, she argues, serves an ideologi-
612 cal function in facilitating or enacting a project of technological colonisation and
613 exploitation. Consequently, for Shiva, the issue of values must be explored at both
614 the point of technological application and, contra Warren, the point of conception
615 too.

616 Shiva argues that the technological imposition of reductionist metaphysics on
617 nature inevitably results in the destruction of the natural processes that support
618 life. Secondly, Shiva argues, women are usually those in closest contact to nature
619 and its processes in that they are the ones who depend most upon the products of
620 the natural environment for their livelihoods and sustenance (Shiva 2009). Thus,
621 any impacts of the environmental degradation caused by technological interven-
622 tion will be felt by women first. And given the inferior status of women within
623 society, they will be the ones least able to bear the ramifications of the loss of their
624 livelihoods. In this way the destruction of nature and the destruction of women is
625 linked.

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