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3 The Political Matters: Exploring material feminist theories for understanding the
4 political in health, inequalities and nursing.
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9 Abstract

10 The recent 'turn to matter' evident in material feminist theories of the more than
11 human world offer distinct posthuman understandings of the world as continuously
12 relationally entangled, emergent or materialising. In this paper, I consider how these
13 premises both trouble conventional understandings of matter and/or materials, but
14 likewise potentially revise and revitalise understandings of the political for health
15 and inequalities, and for nursing. This is both timely and much needed given
16 contemporary contexts of austerity driven neoliberalism in healthcare and the
17 unprecedented growth in disparities of wealth and wellbeing. I wish to explore if
18 material feminisms allow us to retheorise connections between abstract theory and
19 material concerns like health and inequalities, differently. This is not theory in
20 opposition to practice or activism, but theory conceptualised as sets of entangled
21 emergent practices, but also what constitutes the political, as more fully relational to
22 and in praxis with health-related activism. I will argue these theories further justify
23 how practitioners can visibly care for and care more about social and health
24 inequalities. Drawing mainly on the work of material feminist, Karen Barad, and her
25 bringing together of queer and feminist theory, as well as feminist new materialisms
26 and understandings of posthumanism, I discuss how this turn to matter together
27 with meaning might transform understandings of health and inequalities.
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45 1. Introduction

46 In this paper I explore the potential of the recent 'turn to matter', as argued for in
47 material feminist theories of the more than human world, in order to consider the
48 potential for revitalising understandings of the political in nursing. There are a
49 number of reasons as to why this is both timely and much needed. Given the
50 interdependent nature of global health and contexts of unprecedented inequalities
51 in wealth, health and wellbeing in the West, driven by neoliberal austerity,
52 healthcare systems are increasingly struggling, even failing to meet demands or
53 needs, and especially for those most vulnerable (Dorling 2017; Pilketty, 2014;
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3 Wilkinson & Pickett, 2018). Represented in terms such as new materialisms,
4 relational ontology, or object orientated or ontological politics, as well as material
5 feminisms, these revised theories of materialism and matter offer distinct
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7 posthuman understandings of the world as continuously relationally entangled,
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9 emergent or materialising (Coole & Frost, 2010). I will consider how these premises
10 both trouble but potentially revise understandings of matter for understandings of
11 health and inequalities, as well as their ongoing continuing critique of humanism and
12 modern political philosophies and theories.
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20 I am also in part responding to a demand from a decade ago, by Einstein and
21 Shildrick (2009), arguing for retheorising gender inequalities by reconnecting
22 abstract theory to the material concerns of the women's health movement and
23 contemporary activism. I wish to explore if material feminisms allow us to
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25 retheorise these connections differently, not in opposition but with theory
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27 conceptualised as sets of entangled practices in the world, and hence the political
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29 more fully relational to and in praxis with a politics that manifests as health-related
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31 activism.
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36 These theories might further justify how practitioners can visibly care for and care
37 more about social and health inequalities. This means retaining the inherent critical
38 political activism of troubling, undoing or disrupting key foundational binaries still
39 dominant in biomedicine, including those of health and illness, the cartesian split
40 between body and mind, or binaries still framing debates in inequalities between
41 agency or structure, or subject and object (Abel & Frohlich, 2012). This work
42 remains vital, showing how language performs or inscribes rather than merely
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44 reflects or represents reality, producing real material effects such as interventions or
45 actions. However, on the insistence of material feminisms, a revised notion of
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47 matter is needed. Therefore to expand on poststructural meanings with posthuman
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49 notions of matter come different implications for understanding the political and
50 political logics in and for nursing. Drawing mainly on the work of material feminist,
51 Karen Barad (2007), and her bringing together of queer and feminist theory, as well
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53 as feminist new materialisms (Coole & Frost, 2010; Alaimo & Hekman, 2008) and
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3 posthumanism (Bradiotti, 2013; Haraway, 2008), I discuss how this turn to matter
4 with meaning might transform understandings of health and inequalities using key
5 examples relating to the body.
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9 10 2. Background

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13 Materials and matter are ever more central to everyday life and contemporary
14 healthcare (Coole & Frost 2010; Dolphijn & Van der Tuin, 2012). This centrality as
15 well as the vitality or perversity of materiality is apparent in the environment or
16 contexts in which healthcare unfolds. The global challenges posed by the
17 Anthropocene are now recognised as serious challenges and risks to public health
18 (Lang & Rayner, 2015). Moreover, rising concentrations of global capital have
19 produced unparalleled wealth disparities, intensifying levels of material inequality
20 and precarity for those most vulnerable and excluded (Dorling, 2015; 2017;
21 Wilkinson & Pickett, 2018). The extent of this precarity, unbelonging or
22 abandonment by the State in late liberalism, is now said to present serious threats to
23 social cohesiveness and future wellbeing (Piketty, 2014; Povillnelli, 2011).
24 Furthermore, these inequalities are far from external conditions; they become
25 inscribed inside bodies, causing damaging physical, mental and emotional ill health
26 through stress or misrecognition and devaluing of self in status, worth or esteem
27 (Wilkinson & Pickett, 2009; 2018;). Resultant fear and insecurity have led to a rise in
28 socio-political shifts to the right, with escalating nationalist populism giving voice or
29 finding expression in a growing intolerance, xenophobia, racism, violence or abuse
30 (Lang & Rayner, 2015).
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36 Similarly, materiality and matter is clearly evident in western healthcare, from
37 pathogens causing illness or disease to the importance of the environment in
38 epigenetics, or more recent recognition of the relationship of microbiota to
39 wellbeing (Donaldson & Rutter, 2017; Mukherjee, 2016; Valdes et al., 2017). More
40 immediate to nursing practice is the materiality of the body. There is a growing need
41 to respond to increasingly diverse genders, sexualities, cultures or ethnicities and
42 classes and rising numbers of disabled, ageing, frail bodies at the centre of much
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3 healthcare work (Buse & Twigg, 2018; Twigg, 2006; Kuhlmann & Annandale, 2012).
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5 Correspondingly, increasing demand and rising costs in healthcare systems have
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7 seen the extensive rise of digital, wireless or virtual technology in assessing,
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9 motivating, managing or improving health (Lupton, 2014; Mol, 2008; Mol, Moser &
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11 Pols., 2010).

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14 Even with these troubling social contexts of global health, most western political or
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16 social policy continues to focus on choice or reassert individual behavioural change
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18 models, even when widely recognised as failing to tackle the real 'causes of the
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20 causes' (Baum & Fisher, 2014; Marmot, 2010; Smith, Hill & Bamba, 2016).

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22 Revitalised thinking is needed in order for progressive transformative political
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24 change to be achieved. Moreover, given the global nature of increasingly poor staff
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26 morale and global struggles over healthcare recruitment and retention, a further
27
28 urgent need is to sustain practitioner commitment, or care for and about a politics
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30 that actively responds to damaging divisions in health and wellbeing (Allen et al.,
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32 2013; Bamba, Smith & Garthwaite, 2011).

33 34 3. Resistance and Health Activism 35 36

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38 With politics or the political deeply embedded in concepts of health, health activism
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40 has been defined as action on behalf of a cause (Laverack, 2013). This is action
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42 related to health that is beyond the conventional or routine. It is more politically
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44 overt in advocating, empowering or organising, often demanding responses to
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46 unrecognised needs, access or provision. Activists also challenge hegemonic
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48 definitions, working instead for example with collectivist or communitarian
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50 generated notions of wellbeing or recovery (Laverack, 2013). These models of
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52 wellbeing are not formal collective notions as embodied in state provision but tend
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54 to emerge from grassroot and community-based organisations, premised on values
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56 of solidarity, mutualism, localism and shared communal assets or strengths.

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58 One response to growing inequalities and exclusion, due to misrecognition of person
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60 and experience, is evident in the rise of social movements, like feminism, anti-racism

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3 or LGBT movements, or in the origins of many civil society organisations (Gill &
4 Scharff, 2011; Lim, Annandale, Ruzza, 2012; Richardson & Monro, 2012). Likewise,
5 activism has long been evident in mental health in fighting stereotypes or stigma
6 (Weinstein, 2010), and through gay, queer activism in struggles for HIV/AIDs
7 resources, together with resistance to discriminatory attitudes and behaviours,
8 stereotypes and healthcare practices (Stonewall, 2017). More recent health related
9 activism can be found in arguments for recognition of gender variant, diverse or non-
10 binary genders by Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Trans, Intersex and Queer or
11 Questioning (LGBTIQ) activists, with many scholars making visible the extent to
12 which entrenched homophobia or transphobia exists in healthcare globally (Cooper,
13 2019; Harrell & Sasser, 2018; Zeeman, Sheriff, Browne et al., 2018).
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26 These movements have sought to give voice to lived experience, challenging
27 dominant normative accounts to disrupt or trouble taken for granted assumptions
28 embedded in hegemonic discourses or logics in healthcare, be they biomedical,
29 professional or managerial (Aranda, 2018; Beedholm, & Frederiksen, 2018). Within
30 nursing, many challenges to neoliberal practices of health and care can be found.
31 There are arguments for proximal over normative distal practices, in resistance to
32 market imperatives in retaining a public sector ethos, or in using feminist theories to
33 challenge logics of choice to reinstate the value of a logic of care, or in the
34 misrecognition of people in normative notions of dignity, and making visible and
35 valuing non-normative experiences (Aranda 2010; McDonough, 2006; Malone, 2003;
36 Mol, 2008; Zeeman et al., 2014).
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48 A further impetus for a revised politics in healthcare comes from the
49 acknowledgement of the complexity and intractable nature of many public health
50 issues, known in policy terms as 'wicked problems' (Rittel & Webber, 1973). This
51 growing acceptance of the entangled nature of health with context points towards
52 ecologies or systems based or complexity theories, proposing more provisional and
53 bespoke responses instead of universal fixes (Haynes, 2015). Further similar shifts
54 can be found in theorising community health. Here there is a move away from
55 paternalism, with its top down expertise or pathologising, towards recognition of
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3 people's own strengths or assets, capabilities or capacities to promote health and
4 wellbeing (Sen, 2010). This shift in thinking has meant increasing calls for
5 participatory activism, with involvement of local communities or demands for
6 community engagement as well as the coproduction of services and care (O'Mara
7 Eves, et al., 2013; 2015; Palmer, Weavell, Callander et al., 2018). Central to the
8 concept of coproduction is an aspiration of jointly designed and delivered care or
9 service, premised on notions of people being active agents rather than passive
10 recipients of care. Coproduction assumes the possibility of equal, reciprocal
11 relationships between professionals and people using services, their families and/or
12 neighbours, although established power relations remain an ongoing challenge to
13 achieving these aims and ends (Boyle & Harris, 2013). This turn to community
14 engagement has proved rich conditions for increasing civil society organisations
15 involvement in public health (Hanlon, 2012; Lim, Annandale, & Ruzza, 2012; Public
16 Health England, 2018).

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31 Small scale radical activism are further good examples of community engagement,
32 with attempts to challenge or subvert dominant political discourses. This grass
33 community-based activism alters the frame of reference and terms of the debate to
34 reimagine politics differently, beyond the modern liberal democratic tradition, and
35 not just by making the polity more deliberative or participatory. Revisions of what
36 constitutes Utopia and the view of community activism as working the 'cracks of
37 capitalism' depict novel forms of resistance in challenging an assumed hegemony of
38 neoliberalism and dominant understandings of power (Cooper, 2010; Holloway,
39 2010; Levitas, 2013; 2017). Neoliberalism, conceived as complex shifting sets of
40 political and economic ideologies and rationalities that reinforce specific sets of
41 values have operated across global healthcare for over thirty years or more
42 (Zeeman, Aranda, Grant, 2014). During periods of financial crises, capitalism seeks to
43 intensify its pursuit of profit through reinforcing practices, values and logics of
44 individualism, freedom, competition, deregulation and markets as the more efficient
45 and effective means to allocate goods and services (Hall, Massey & Rustin, 2013). In
46 healthcare this manifests as increasing governance and disciplining of the healthcare
47 subject and body, resulting in demands for practices of self-care, distal, fragmented
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3 protocol driven relationships and outcomes led care, with cost effectiveness and
4 efficiency logic the only legitimate ethos and measure of what matters or count.
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9 10 11 4. The Limits of Modern Political Theory and Philosophy

12 Much health activism is premised on political theory or knowledge derived from
13 modern political theories and philosophies. This includes liberal, radical, critical
14 and/or emancipatory or communitarian theories, which in turn imply various
15 individual, interpersonal or socio structural interventions (Aranda, 2005, 2018).
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18 However, as poststructural feminist critiques of modern political theories showed,
19 there are inherent limits to these modern projects. Operating with core essentialist
20 categories, these theories were shown to contain a normative political subject
21 inherently premised on the exclusions of others. The gendered, heteronormative,
22 classed, racialised, ageist and ableist nature of the political subject at the centre of
23 modern political theory and philosophy ensures inclusion on particular terms
24 (Pateman, 1989; Phillips, 1998, Young, 1990). Arguments for inclusion, on the
25 grounds of sameness and/or difference work remain flawed in that they work within
26 the normative bounds of the modern polity; never fully destabilising nor overturning
27 these inherent norms or binaries at the heart of liberal or indeed all modern political
28 theory (Butler, 1990, 2004).
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42 Identity politics or politics of difference and arguments for intersectionality only
43 serve to reveal the far reaching extent and intractable nature of this partiality
44 (Crenshaw, 1991; Mouffe, 2013, Young, 2000). These critiques additionally expose
45 western modern feminisms innate limits and inadequate response to questions of
46 difference initially posed by black and postcolonial feminism (hooks, 1982; Lorde,
47 2007, Spivak,1988). Similar critiques were to be made by disability and LGBTIQ
48 activists (Butler, 1990; 2004a). The theoretical 'turn to culture' initially appeared to
49 resolve this impasse by giving visibility to difference in exploring identity, affect,
50 desire or subjectivity (Butler 2004a). Nevertheless, as theories now criticised for
51 failing to engage with real world issues of material inequality and disadvantage,
52 demands for connections to global inequality over pay, reproductive rights,
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3 harassment, domestic violence, sex trafficking and/or rape have emerged (Baynard,
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5 2010; Phipps. 2014).
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9 Further responses to the theoretical impasse and limits of modern political theory
10 towards difference and inequality can be found in later retheorizations of concepts
11 of power. Conceptualised as being more ambivalent and diffuse, or multifaceted,
12 distributed, non-possessive and productive, power is then complex and far from
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14 being merely repressive. With power conceived in its effects as governing and
15 disciplining, but present all relations and so resistive and productive, these more
16 distributive, non-possessive accounts show how subjects of healthcare or desires
17 and subjectivities or practices of self-care are generated (Foucault, 1980; Lukes,
18 2005). Further conceptualisations attempt to conceive of power as sets of practices;
19 as forms of doing rather than having, whereby power is comprised of elements of
20 competencies, materials and meanings, is emergent and entangled, but connecting
21 to and scaling up to create networks of power (Watson, 2017).
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33 However, the task of achieving meaningful, systemic transformations of inequality
34 remains. Though how this is envisioned requires fuller consideration given the limits
35 of modernity's grand narratives of progress and change. Chantal Mouffe (1994;
36 2013) long argued for a notion of democracy as plural and radical, with equality not
37 as a fixed end goal, but as processual, continuously becoming and emerging. I argue
38 material feminist theories utilise these later forms of the political to suggest the
39 beginnings of revised visions of the political by providing novel ways to attend to
40 both matter and meaning. These theories offer productive and progressive
41 responses to many of the limits and challenges inherent to the foundations or
42 grounds of modern political theories and philosophies.
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53 5. Material Feminisms and The Turn to Matter: Key Arguments 54

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56 A theoretical or epistemic 'turn' is an academic term to describe an emerging but
57 increasingly popular direction gaining momentum in the literature. Previous
58 moments have included the linguistic or cultural turn, and the practice turn
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3 (Schatzki, 2001); whereby discourses or practices respectively become the foci for
4 understanding social life or phenomena as opposed to more conventional cognitive,
5 experiential or intersubjective accounts (Reckwitz, 2002). Material feminists and
6 new materialisms indicate a theoretical turn towards, or return to questions of
7 materiality or matter, drawing on revised understandings. As Alaimo & Hekman
8 (2008) argue the 'new' in new materialisms suggests something radically different.
9 Previous accounts imply a fixed or deterministic materiality seen in socioeconomic
10 conditions or witnessed in the historical materialism of Marxist theories. This is also
11 the notion of materiality second wave feminism rejected in order to avoid
12 essentialist or biologically reductionist readings of the female body. New
13 materialism operates with a different notion of matter and the material, not as
14 determining or as an inert structures, but as lively, active, relational and in process
15 with the non-human world. Starting from a premise of relational ontology and
16 radical interrogation of the processes bringing materiality or nature together with
17 language or words (Alaimo & Hekman, 2008), this revised understanding creates a
18 focus on meaning *and* matter as always intimately connected (Barad, 2007).
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34 These theories draw on posthuman understandings of materiality, with deep
35 connections between humans and the non-human world (Braidotti, 2013).
36 Posthuman understandings of the world challenge the assumptions inherent to the
37 anthropocentrism of western thought; that is the centrality, sovereignty and
38 authority of the human subject as the point of reference for knowing to further
39 progressive change or emancipation (Braidotti, 2013). Posthumanism confronts
40 these presumptions by questioning this centrality of the human subject in
41 knowledge making processes. Rather than ignoring or removing the human subject,
42 posthumanism decentres the subject, challenging the exclusive focus on human
43 experience. There is instead an important expansion of concerns and matters
44 through the recognition of the interrelated nature of the physical, sentient and non-
45 sentient beings, with humans. This creates more inclusive accounts of a more-than-
46 human world.
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3 The theoretical turn to matter has gained further impetus from discoveries in life
4 and biological sciences. Matter once viewed as static or fixed is now considered
5 dynamic, lively and emergent (Birke, 2003; Fausto-Sterling, 2003; Fausto-Sterling,
6 2012). As Bennett (2013) suggests, this vitality of matter, whilst admired, also refers
7 to the capacity of things or materials to impede or subvert the will of humans; it
8 refers to things having propensities, trajectories or tendencies of their own. These
9 conceptions of matter challenge assumptions of binary thinking which reinforce
10 understandings of a separation of nature from culture or of objects from subjects, or
11 matter, genes, organisms and the environment as divided off from, or mere
12 backdrop to, changing historical, cultural or social worlds and contexts. These ideas
13 suggest therefore a revised account of ontology and the subject/object binary.
14 Reality and being become more laterally connected, networked or distributed; this is
15 a flatter ontology that includes but does not solely focus on the human subject to
16 understand phenomena, cause, action, behaviour or change.
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31 Studies that draw on these posthuman or more-than-human understandings
32 emphasise attachments and connections to multiple ecologies of belonging
33 (Bradotti, 2013; Haraway, 2008). This in turn places a different burden of
34 responsibility on the human species towards the world and raises the need for
35 revised notions of politics and ethics (Bradotti, 2013; Haraway, 2008). This level of
36 relationality moves beyond dominant concerns over relations between humans to
37 include connections between sentient and non-sentient beings, objects,
38 technologies, even attachments to memories or desires; as in a more-than-human
39 world (Bradotti, 2013). The aim is to acknowledge both matter and meaning, as well
40 as the vitality of matter or materials alongside more conventional or discursive
41 understandings represented in words or meanings. Next, I review further the key
42 features of one feminist philosopher emblematic of this turn to matter, Karen Barad
43 (2003; 2007; 2013).
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57 6. Ontoepistemology, intra-action and agential realism
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3 For Barad the previous poststructural, discursive or cultural turn produced valuable,
4 critical analyses of how power and knowledge came together to discipline or govern
5 subjects, subjectivities and societies. However, she contends such thinking grants
6 words or language too much power in treating materials as passive and inert (Barad,
7 2003; 2007). Barad wants to retain the criticality of the valuable knowledge from
8 discursive analyses but argues for an equivalent attention to matter, because
9 matter, like meaning, is deemed dynamic and agentic. She asserts humans are not
10 the source of all change as this assumes a natural world with no agency, or that a
11 divide between nature and culture actually exists, as opposed to being an effect of
12 language and thought.
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Materiality is not assumed to be a fixed inherent property of independently existing
objects, things or bodies, separate from humans, but always coming into being with
meaning, through language or discourse. She therefore views the materiality of the
world as performative, "not a thing but a doing" (Barad, 2003:828). With matter
conceived as vital energies at work in the world, the possibilities for intervening or
change become more extensive than just a focus on human intention and practices
alone. Bringing these ideas together, she proposes an epistemological ontological
and ethical framework for understanding the role of the human and non-human,
material and discursive, and natural and cultural in all social practices (Barad 2007;
2013).

6.1 *Ontoepistemology*

Barad's notion of ontoepistemology, therefore argues for an inseparability and
mutual entanglement of ontology and epistemology rather than the separation or
opposition of subject and object or being and knowing or humans from the
nonhuman world. For Barad, the absence of the hyphen is deliberate and
emphasises this important theoretical point. This means the material and discursive
have no ontological or epistemological prior existence for Barad; they cannot be
explained in terms of the other, neither are they reducible to the other. As she
suggests,

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5 "Neither has privileged status in determining the other. Neither is articulated
6 or articulable in the absence of the other; matter and meaning are mutually
7 articulated" (Barad, 2007:152).
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12 This suggests a relational ontology in which the material and the linguistic or
13 discursive are entangled and constantly reconfigured. This disrupts common sense
14 understandings of reality, being or knowledge as somehow external or internal or
15 distinct phenomena; likewise, it suggests a very different relationship between
16 subjects and objects. For the phenomena power, care or inequalities this suggests
17 complete understanding is only possible when entanglements with matter are taken
18 seriously.
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26 27 *6.2 Agential realism*

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31 With the concept of agential realism, Barad (2007: 132) again emphasises the
32 importance of material *and* discursive practices. She reminds us of the ways in which
33 representationalism, individualism and humanism work hand in hand to uphold a
34 particular worldview in which the power of language or words is assumed to
35 unproblematically represent pre-existing things which in turn positions us as above
36 or outside the world. In contrast, a performative view:
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44 "Insists on understanding thinking, observing, theorising as practices of engagement
45 with and as part for the world in which we have our being" (Barad, 2007:135).
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49 For Barad, these practices include realities, things, technology, materials, bodies,
50 identities, culture and the social world; all are constituted through these "matters of
51 practices, doings and actions" (Barad 2007:135). An agential realism assumes
52 therefore that:
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3 "Discursive practices are specific material (re)configurations of the world through
4 which the determination of boundaries, properties, and meanings is differentially
5 enacted" (Barad, 2007:148).
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10 Many of these boundaries and properties and meanings are central to binaries at
11 work in health, care and inequalities work. For example, common binaries of the
12 subject and object, female and male, old or young, gay or straight, cis or
13 transgender, nature or culture, body and mind. Arising from this is her concept of
14 intra-action.
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20 21 22 *6.3 Intra-action* 23

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25 The concept of intra-action reinforces the permeability of boundaries and contests
26 humanist concerns with the interaction between two separate bodies or entities. For
27 Barad, intra-action pays attention to the constant active dynamism of the world in its
28 making. For Barad, a concept of intra-action, as opposed to interaction, better
29 captures the entanglement of relations involved and the dynamic nature of material.
30 She reminds us that the specificity of any intra-actions will always be shaped by
31 specific configurations of power enacting this agency (Barad 2012). For example, the
32 body is then an intra-action of both material and discursive relations, with agency
33 resulting not from intention but as an effect of these entanglements, though Barad
34 also acknowledges the uneven distribution of agency across objects and subjects due
35 to power.
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47 To summarise thus far, material feminists suggest matter has the potential to evade,
48 hinder, even defy human will or intention in some circumstances, such as with
49 technology, microbiota or climate change. This suggests an indeterminacy and
50 complex 'choreography' to matter which material feminists argue has consequences
51 for how modern, humanist notions of ontology, of cause and effect and change or
52 agency are conceived and understood (Coole & Frost, 2010:9). The focus on matter
53 and its performative processes and effects as outlined in these theories overlap
54 somewhat with many recent modern theories of change, evident in complexity or
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3 systems-based thinking and recent socio-materials theories of practice and science
4 technology studies (Aranda, 2018). These common concerns centre therefore on
5 emergent systems, constantly redefining and resembling, comprised of: "forces,
6 energies, and intensities (rather than substances) and complex, even random
7 processes" that are unstable, dynamic, unpredictable and can evolve into
8 unexpected forms (Coole & Frost, 2010; Barad, 2007; Aliamo & Hekman, 2008).
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15 16 7. Exploring Examples 17 18 19

20 Together these theories suggest a revised framework for a politics of health-related
21 theorising, and activism. This entangled biosociomaterialcultural dynamic or
22 framework offers new ways of thinking together bodies, biology, health and care or
23 sex, gender, age, or affect or emotions, desires, as well as ethics, with materials such
24 as technologies, objects, environments or social contexts. The full implications of
25 these theories for health politics have yet to be realised but it would mean working
26 with radically different accounts of cause, agency, experience and change as well as
27 promising more comprehensive and inclusive accounts of both human and non-
28 human worlds. For example, understandings of agency, as performative, rather than
29 intentional or aligned with subjectivity, emerging from entanglements with other
30 subjects/objects means important overlooked or neglected objects or contexts come
31 to the fore. The productive forces of technologies in healthcare are then noted, the
32 tinkering with equipment and the necessary resources needed to deliver care are
33 made visible and are discernible, the importance of office space to vital equipment,
34 and the often invisible nature of environment or conditions entangled with
35 delivering or managing care become explicit, but importantly, central to fuller
36 understandings of healthcare or inequalities (Mol, 2008; Mol et al, 2010). With
37 these posthuman theories, agency is no longer theorised as a possession or attribute
38 expressed as will or intent and belonging to an individual or even a collective;
39 instead, agency becomes understood as performative, a form of doing; as socio-
40 material practices or assemblages distributed across a landscape of contexts or
41 concerns (Barad, 2013; 2003).
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3 These performative, processual and distributed understandings of agency are
4 increasingly explored in the sociology of health and illness as assemblages, or
5 constellations of practices involving relational subjects-identities-objects or matter
6 and materials -affect-histories and socio cultural forces, so relational to more than
7 just other humans (Fox & Alldred, 2014). In research with older nurses' experiences
8 of work, concepts of age and gender materialise as politicised, emergent,
9 performative phenomena. Previously theorised or studied as distinct even
10 intersecting, these concepts are now understood as connected to intersecting
11 assemblages of bodies, objects, technologies, organizational practices, policies with
12 subjectivities and identities (Halford, Lotherington & Obstfelder et al., 2018).
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23 More specific to the health sciences is the work of critical physiotherapists breaking
24 new ground drawing upon new materialist ideas. Using these theories allows
25 technology to be conceived as part of more or less stable assemblages of bodies,
26 things and spaces that have capacities to enable or constrain (Gibson et al., 2016).
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31 As Gibson et al., (2016) suggest in exploring the experiences of young people with
32 disabilities, these theories decentre the autonomous subject of western neoliberal
33 healthcare to instead analyse the interactions between humans and nonhuman
34 entities, but without privileging one over the other. This they suggest creates a space
35 to interrogate how people's abilities/inabilities are produced – and how different
36 subjects are enacted through various configurations of elements (Gibson et al.,
37 2016). In challenging biomedical accounts these theories offer opportunities for
38 changes in rehabilitation practices, through fine-grained analysis of socio-technical
39 interactions (Gibson et al 2016:4).
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49 Other public health scholars are exploring the active materiality of environments or
50 technologies involved in constructing, enabling or shaping the so called healthy
51 subject or subjectivities (Maller, 2015; Maller & Strengers, 2019), as well as the role
52 of materials in reconceptualised notions of resilience as socio-material practices, and
53 how these relate to tackling inequalities (Aranda & Hart, 2014). Next, I examine
54 more specifically the potential these theories may offer in terms of revised
55 understandings of the body
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7. 1 *Revising Matters of the Body*

The matter or materiality at the centre of much health and care work is the body. Given the gendered or intersectional nature of this (Kuhlmann & Annandale, 2012; Aranda, 2018), future research agendas will inevitably concern configurations of intersecting embodied differences and diversities of age, gender, disability and/or sexuality (Aranda 2014; 2018; Draper, 2014). New materialist feminisms bring this intersectional body to the fore; bodies become a central concept for analysis and action. As Coole and Frost (2010: 24) argue:

"The sheer materiality and mass of bodies - their numbers, their needs, their fecundity, their productivity, their sustainability and so on - is becoming a key dimension of political analysis and intervention" (Coole & Frost, 2010:24).

7.1.1 *The Body and Healthcare*

In the West, feminists and sociologists challenged essentialist notions of the body as merely biological, showing instead how historical and socio-cultural forces were at work. For example, using socio-cultural concepts of gender, feminists challenged any equivalence of biology with natural or inevitable prescribed normative roles aligning reproduction with mothering instincts or innate caring abilities. They argued instead these were socially constructed notions, relative to time and place. This allowed feminists to argue they were open to challenge and change (Oakley, 1985). While these analyses produced invaluable evidence and arguments for political change, many feminists continued to be frustrated with socially constructed or culturally discursive understandings of the body, arguing much theorising of the body continued to treat it as a cultural phenomena (Davis, 2007). This tended to ignore the messy outer and inner workings of the body (Birke, 2003).

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3 More recent theorising moved beyond these social accounts to rethink bodily
4 concerns or corporeality through the poststructural and phenomenological, and
5 associated concepts of performativity and embodiment (Twigg, 2006; Aranda, 2014;
6 Draper 2014). This produced understandings of bodies, identities and experiences as
7 relational, embodied and constantly becoming, as both enhanced or constrained by
8 the cultural, discursive and material world (Butler, 1990; 1993; Shildrick & Steinberg,
9 2015). This research and theorising revealed how notions of acceptable and
10 unacceptable bodies, with related identities and lives, emerged or were constructed
11 through healthcare discourses or theories. These discourses inform everyday
12 knowledge or practices and have real material effects in terms of interventions or
13 treatments. Further feminist poststructural or queer activist analyses additionally
14 showed how, in transgressing contemporary corporeal norms, these discursively
15 constituted bodies produced those most subject to the material consequences of
16 abjection, stigma, violence, discrimination or oppression (Harrell & Sasser 2018).
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31 However, materialist theories go further. The turn to matter demands a revised
32 corporeal realism to rethink the complexity of the material body (Einstein &
33 Shildrick, 2009; Grosz, 1994; Grosz, 2011). Material feminisms view bodies as part of
34 an on-going generation of matter and meaning through socio-material practices. In
35 this conceptualisation the body is seen as a practical and emergent accomplishment
36 (Frost, 2014). Feminist new materialist understandings would therefore seek to
37 understand how vulnerable bodies in health, experiencing inequality, illness, care, or
38 those living with dementia, or long-term conditions materialise. These would be
39 emergent understandings of embodied vulnerabilities that are socially, culturally and
40 materially produced. These phenomena are emergent in the sense of never being
41 finalised or fixed, always becoming, being produced, being resisted, being shaped by,
42 and in relation to the entangled nature of the biopsychosocialmaterial contexts of
43 healthcare. So rather than vulnerability being an essentialist attribute or subjective
44 disposition of a self or individual, vulnerability becomes an emergent relationally
45 generated phenomena; the result of sets of socio-material relations in contexts that
46 are culturally and historically specific; it is these assemblages or relations to
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3 materials, for example, in clothing or dressing for staff caring for those living with
4 dementia, that need to be analysed (Buse & Twigg, 2018).
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9 To re-acknowledge the materiality of bodies would reinforce recognition of a shared
10 vulnerability and the complex realities of bodies experiencing health, illness,
11 disability or pain, suffering, abused, raped or exposed to power. Although as Butler et
12 al argue (2016), vulnerability is a complex term as it can lead to essentialised notions
13 of a fixed notion of passivity or powerlessness, and can further stigmatise, implying
14 assumptions of victimhood or that vulnerable people have little or no agency.
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21 With assumptions of health or sickness as fixed states being destabilised by
22 bioscience and medicine itself (Birke, 2003), using material feminist theories would
23 shift the focus of health or bodies from experience or agency, with questions of
24 choice or action, to understandings of the detailed composition of networks,
25 practices, assemblages or arrangement, and the emergence of such, within specific
26 historical and cultural contexts. Drawing on relational understandings of health and
27 bodies, the focus for research would be on dynamic, fluid notions of embodiment
28 and the ways bodies interact with space, place, with others, or with discourses,
29 practices and matter or material objects.
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39 In terms of inequalities, the particular assemblages of bodies, spaces, technologies
40 and affect that produce contemporary neoliberal social and health inequalities
41 would be studied for the differentiated or diverse connections, knots or nexuses of
42 socio-material practices, that together with spaces and technologies or objects,
43 materialise as disadvantage. Analyses of sociomaterial practices of inequalities, of
44 poor physical and mental health, or of being judged, misrecognised and othered,
45 would aim to identify how these attachments or connections form and where
46 potential capacities or capabilities for transformations, change or action could occur
47 (Walker 2017). Such perspectives therefore focus on untangling the multiple
48 relations of practices, networks, assemblages held together sometimes precariously,
49 but in turn often holding together larger categories of inequalities, gender, age or
50 sexuality.
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5 In public health nowhere is the central concern over bodies more deeply implicated
6 that in global debates over obesity. Drawing on the turn to matter, philosopher Jane
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8 Bennett (2010) questions what happens to public health when we view food and
9 eating practices through these new materialist lenses. Eating would become an
10 assemblage made up of forces, desires, of human and nonhuman entities that are
11 beyond individual control. She considers what happens when we understand eating
12 and food relations where matter, like food, has a vitality that has the potential to
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14 defy human intent. For Bennett (2010) vitality refers to the capacity of things to
15 hinder or undermine the will of humans; in other words, matter or things have
16 propensities or tendencies of their own. Food and eating practices are therefore
17 not merely the outcome of social custom or ritual, nor is food a commodity or object
18 but food and eating practices are instead actants. She draws on Actor Network
19 Theory and Latour's (2007) understanding of things as a source of action; meaning
20 food does things; it produces effects. This suggests a more distributed agency with
21 human and nonhuman entities being on a less vertical plane; a flatter ontology
22 (Bennett 2010) than in the assumed fixed ontology of realist and constructionist
23 humanism, even though these positions are far from being a simple fixed and
24 oppositional binary, given the many variations across and within in these terms
25 (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018).

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42 She asks what happens to an understanding of public health when we view eating as
43 an assemblage of forces, desires, of human and nonhuman entities rather than
44 entirely under individual control. She argues for conceptions of food as an actant,
45 within a particular agentic assemblage - often nonlinear, producing transforming
46 effects inside the body and mind seen in changes in emotions or affect, in
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48 biochemistry, metabolism, and of course outside size, shape, and self and other
49 response. This type of theorisation seriously challenges dominant individualised
50 shame and blame discourses of biomedical accounts of obesity (Scambler, 2012).

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58 The theoretical and analytical demand is for a full account of resources and materials
59 involved in such phenomena; features long argued to be conveniently overlooked in
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3 much inequalities research (Smith et al., 2012). Materialist feminist accounts offer
4 deeper understandings of how socially, culturally and materially the phenomena of
5 inequalities, of obesity and health, emerge or materialise as a product of human and
6 nonhuman relations (Warin, 2014). With digital health technologies now such an
7 everyday part of motivating, managing or improving body size and health,
8 technologies and the body become central to understanding new emerging forms of
9 embodiment and subjectivity, especially those of gender and age (Lupton, 2014;
10 Halford et al., 2015).

11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 8. Discussion

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23 The increasing presence and concerns over materials or matter in healthcare will
24 continue to require deeper, ever-more detailed, effective explanations and
25 understandings. It will change the nature of interventions and implies health
26 activism requires theories that are more inclusive of the more than human world
27 than to date (Laverack, 2013). To decentre but not do away with the human subject
28 in theories makes visible that which is often overlooked; it reveals a context that is
29 more than mere backdrop to human action; it shows how subjects of healthcare, in
30 any setting, are not only always relational, in the sense of being connected or
31 attached to other bodies, but are attached to differing technologies, things, or
32 affect, desires, or places and spaces that enable or constrain (Mol, 2008).

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44 With the example of the body, these theories show unequal bodies can be conceived
45 as both produced by and entangled in sociomaterial relations that make it not just
46 social, or material, and not just human, but emergent from and entangled in
47 spatiotemporal, material, discursive relations. It is this landscape of dynamic
48 configurations, reconfigurations, entanglements and relationalities or rearticulations
49 becomes the foci for study, analysis and sites for political action. These more
50 complex, relational, biopsychosocial intersectional approaches to health and gender
51 and political action now argued for, and is work urgently needed in neoliberal
52 capitalism and neoconservative times (Phipps, 2014; Springer, Hankivsky & Bates,
53 2012). Although never monolithic nor totally determining, neoliberalism
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3 nevertheless endorses particular values, truths and identities, which align, though
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5 sometimes work in tension with, neoconservatism. These latter moral and political
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7 discourses advocate a return to traditional values and ways of life, in gender roles,
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9 family structures, and the centrality of church to social life as well as a defence of
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11 national and cultural borders. Together, these ideologies create important political
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13 sites of complex, often conflictual and contested debates especially over the body
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15 (Phipps, 2014).

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18 Moreover, material feminist theorising reveals the far-reaching extent of our
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20 interdependent, shared vulnerabilities. This level of connection and our multiple
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22 capacities for diverse relations further revises the nature of politics as well as
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24 healthcare ethics. A posthuman ethics implies a new way of combining ethical values
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26 with an enlarged sense of community. This suggests different ethical bonds to that of
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28 an individual subject, seen in classical humanism, or in Kantian moral universal
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30 accounts with its reliance on rational decision-making. A posthuman ethics is not
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32 just premised on reactive grounds of a shared vulnerability, but on more positive
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34 grounds of joint projects and activities. A speculative ethics in more than human
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36 worlds, for example, revises matters of care as a form of doing rather than moral
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38 intention (Bradotti 2013; Puig del la Bellacasa, 2017). This expresses a grounded,
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40 partial form of accountability based on a strong sense of collectivity and relationally
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42 that results in new kind of belonging. Haraway (2008) suggests an ethical concept of
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44 the 'modest witness' as this constitutes an accountability and ethics that is situated.
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46 This understanding of ethics draws on partial knowledge that encourages open-
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48 ended dialogue and critical thinking that aims to witness not judge but aims instead
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50 to give fuller accounts of inequalities or disparities in access and means (Haraway,
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52 2008).

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54 There are caveats to consider in any endorsement of the turn to matter. For
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56 example, Gunnarsson (2013) argues there is a tendency to overstate the
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58 'glorification' of the dynamic and unruly, indeterminate, unpredictable and
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60 unbounded concept of matter or nature. She argues instead such qualities are not in
themselves liberators and can be just as much features of determinism or long

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3 standing structures of oppression or marginalization, as argued in Marxist, realist
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5 feminist theorising (Gunnarsson, 2013).
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9 Likewise, Haraway (2008; 1991) offers a similar caution against a naive celebration of
10 the turn to matter or suggestions of a posthuman moment. She argues there is still
11 so much work to do in understanding how materials and humans, let alone the more
12 than human world, interrelate and are intersected by difference. She favours closer
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14 examination of these patterns of relationality and our need to rethink these as who
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16 we are is only ever with and alongside companion species. For Haraway, humans are
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18 always in knots of meaning and matter with other species, co-shaping one another,
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20 in layers of reciprocating complexity, all the way down (Haraway, 2008).
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25 Furthermore, exactly what is new in these theories remains contested. Claims of
26 originality are argued to be indicative of a western myopia or Eurocentric way of
27 knowing (Taylor & Inverson, 2013; Taylor & Hughes, 2016). A view of the natural
28 world as active, deeply connected to and inseparable from the cultural or human
29 world has long been present for example in environmental and in aboriginal and
30 indigenous ways of knowing (Smith, 2012; Kovach, 2009).
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38 Finally, discussions of potential or relevance for this type of theorising and its use in
39 nursing or health-related activism may ultimately depend on strong or weaker
40 readings of posthumanism. The radical tenets of such thinking appear deeply
41 incongruent with or in opposition to what remain dominant humanistic concerns in
42 health and care. Conceivably, as with previous debates concerning the threat or
43 value of postmodern or poststructural thinking to feminist or modern social theory
44 goals and aspirations (Butler, 1992), posthumanism and material feminisms may be
45 similarly envisioned not as a post era, beyond modern theory, but as an ongoing
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47 critical dialogue with humanism. This in turn may radically revise but retain
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49 humanism's key concepts or priorities such as emancipation, agency or progressive
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51 change.
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60 9. Conclusion

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5 At a minimum the turn to matter evident in material feminisms is a serious call for
6 an attentiveness and respect towards matter together with meaning. However, I
7 contend such understandings offer potential to further revise the limits of modern
8 political theories and activism through interrogating taken for granted core
9 assumptions and concepts governing the normative concerns and matters of health,
10 care or inequalities. These theories theoretically and methodologically revitalise
11 investigations of these concerns, revealing more complete accounts of how
12 assemblages of bodies, technologies, things and spaces relate, attach, or come
13 together to produce the phenomena we label or categorise as health, care or
14 inequalities. Exploring matter and meaning as co-implicated serves to politically
15 challenge dominant biomedical, authorial, normative understandings of experience
16 and positivistic, outcome-based evidence. These theories reinforce the value of fine-
17 grained, complex, detailed narratives and empirical accounts and the importance of
18 more comprehensive, effective and inclusive explanations and understandings as the
19 grounds for activism. To undertake such work is political in reimagining possibilities
20 for more ethical, affirming and sustainable responses to the enduring global
21 challenges of our shared world.
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