

Title: Researching natural hazards: the harmful legacy of colonialism in geoscience

Authors: Jazmin P. Scarlett

Affiliation: School of Environmental Science, University of East Anglia, Norwich Research Park,  
Norwich, NR4 7TJ

Email address: [jazmin.scarlett@uea.ac.uk](mailto:jazmin.scarlett@uea.ac.uk)

Paper submitted to: Nature Communications

Paper is a non-peer reviewed preprint submitted to EarthArXiv

# 1 Researching natural hazards: the harmful legacy of colonialism in 2 geoscience

## 3 Abstract

4 Geoscience is a colonial science; its agenda was to survey and map landscapes in  
5 colonised nations which could be exploited to grow colonial empire's wealth at the expense  
6 of the local population. Natural hazard processes have been part of these landscapes,  
7 however their colonial legacy is sometimes neglected in discussions in how to live with them  
8 today. Former colonised nations' interactions with natural hazard processes are part of the  
9 legacy in geoscience that is ongoing. Geoscience's role in colonialism, interactions of  
10 colonial decisions and natural hazards with examples, and actions for the future will be  
11 explored.

## 12 Introduction

13 Geoscience is a colonial science; its agenda was to survey and map landscapes in  
14 colonised nations which could be exploited to grow colonial empire's wealth at the expense  
15 of the local population. Natural hazard processes have been part of these landscapes,  
16 however their colonial legacy is sometimes neglected in discussions in how to live with them  
17 today.

## 18 History and legacy of colonialism in geoscience

19 Although colonialism is supposedly historical, the ramifications are still felt. One aspect of  
20 this was the development of scientific disciplines, including Geoscience. It is often forgotten  
21 that Geoscience is considered a 'colonial science', which has been shaped by social and  
22 political issues and agendas of colonial expansion (Cartier, 2021). The imperial agenda was  
23 to survey and map landscapes, waterscapes, and natural resources in colonised and  
24 occupied lands by the various European colonial empires. This was done so that these lands  
25 and waters could then be exploited by the colonial powers to grow their own wealth at the  
26 expense of the local population (Driver, 1992; Stafford, 2017). Historically, local indigenous  
27 populations were intellectually and socioeconomically exploited to gain access and extract  
28 natural resources that benefitted the colonial powers, usually in violation of indigenous  
29 peoples cultural understanding and significance of a site to them (Whyte, 2016, 2018).

30 Former colonised nations' interactions with natural hazard processes are part of the legacy  
31 in geoscience that is ongoing. Geoscience's role in colonialism, interactions of colonial  
32 decisions and natural hazards and actions for the future will be explored.

### 33 Colonial legacy of surveying and mapping

34 Who benefitted (and still benefits) from the surveying and mapping of natural resources and  
35 land? It was part of the transfer of technical and specialist knowledge by European  
36 colonialism (e.g. Stone, 1987; Home, 2006; Atkinson, 2016) and a means to harmfully  
37 extract natural resources to increase colonial empire wealth (Byrnes, 1998; Garuba 2002).  
38 Many expeditions sought to document the landscape as a justification of who should live on  
39 and use the land, as well as using physical geography to designate the inferiority or  
40 superiority of human races that evolved in different landscapes (Pico et al., 2020). Today,  
41 the reasons are not as extreme however, surveying and resulting exploitation now takes the  
42 form of capitalism and transnational corporations. For example, the Diavik Diamond Mine in  
43 Canada was 'discovered' in 1992 and opened in 2003. However, there is a clear difference  
44 in socioeconomic status and inequalities of the settlers compared to the First Nations people  
45 in the area.

46 The British colonialists practice of surveying and mapping the volcanic fertile soil in areas  
47 that were originally "reserved" by the colonialists for the indigenous peoples in St. Vincent in  
48 the Caribbean led to obtaining land through encroachment, voluntary sale and military force.  
49 This eventually led to two civil wars (The First and Second Carib War) and the forcible  
50 removal of the Garifuna to present-day Honduras. These maps in turn led to the  
51 establishment of some of the largest sugar plantations on the island, using enslaved African  
52 labour to produce sugar, molasses and rum to meet the demands of the British Empire in  
53 what we now know is in the high-risk zone of the volcano La Soufrière. The establishment of  
54 these plantations that turned into settlements post-emancipation that endure today, and the  
55 forced land settlement leads to greater risk from a variety of natural hazards, including  
56 volcanic eruptions, landslides, flooding and tropical storms (Scarlett, 2020). However,  
57 colonialism and its harms are neglected in natural hazard research within geoscience.

### 58 Colonialism and natural hazards

59 Colonialism created a social hierarchy that marginalises particular social groups who are  
60 made vulnerable to natural hazards in a variety of ways, such as the limited accessibility to  
61 resources to recover from natural hazards events and disasters. Often, marginalisation  
62 forces those who are not as socially, economically and/or politically mobile into high-risk  
63 areas such as floodplains, due to marginalised/low productive land, uneven development,  
64 economic barriers and natural hazard susceptibility (Collins, 2009, 2010; Sultana, 2011).  
65 This creates an environment where 'resilience' building has also been created under – and  
66 are thus a reproduction of - colonial and post-colonial strategies (Cheek and Chmutina.  
67 2021).

68 Many island nations are exposed to a wide range of natural hazards and traditionally, pre-  
69 colonial communities coped relatively well and remained resilient. Inter- and -intra  
70 community cooperation on the small Indonesian volcanic Archipelago islands of Siau  
71 Tagulandang Biaro for example, allowed for the sharing of food resources and for the  
72 knowledge exchange of adapting to volcanic and meteorological hazards (Rampengan et al.  
73 2014). However, the processes of contact, colonisation, and independence caused many of  
74 the facets of resilience that once existed to decline. This is attributed to three processes:

- 75 1) The provision of relief food reduced the need to store famine food,
- 76 2) Diminished need to store food and the introduction of a cash economy and imported foods  
77 - colonial governments and missionaries worked to reduce the significance of traditional  
78 ceremonies and rituals that were viewed as “wasteful” or “un-Christian”,
- 79 3) As more cash crops were planted, the amount of land set aside for subsistence food  
80 production was reduced. Rotation periods dropped and, soil fertility decreased therefore  
81 leading to increased dependency on remittances and imports (Campbell, 2009).

82 These culturally embedded behaviours were developed over many cycles of experiencing  
83 natural hazards. However, the behaviours were undermined by colonists because they did  
84 not fit the ‘ideals’ of colonial behaviour, leading to financial, education and scientific  
85 knowledge shortcomings, which post-colonial societies struggle to overcome. The changed  
86 behaviours also mean that local people can be more affected by natural hazards. In the case  
87 of Peru, colonisation diminished pre-Columbian cultural adaptations to earthquakes.  
88 Urban planning concentrated indigenous peoples in new settlements for the purpose of  
89 social control and indoctrination, within structures using inappropriate construction materials  
90 that made them more vulnerable (Oliver-Smith, 2016).

91 For geoscientists to effectively mitigate natural hazard processes today in a world where  
92 climate change is making these inequities worse, there needs to be more interrogation of the  
93 past – the connections between society and the changing of the environment.

94 The ideologies and philosophical framework of colonialism have been influencing our  
95 understanding of the environment and natural hazard phenomena, including the physical  
96 aspects of geohazards, without the inclusion of indigenous knowledges from people who  
97 lived in the environments and were experiencing natural hazard phenomena. For example, it  
98 was noted that despite deep Māori information and knowledge on earthquakes in  
99 Christchurch, Aotearoa New Zealand, their knowledge is eliminated from booklets and  
100 brochures (McBride, 2017), however there are increasing effects of Māori’s inclusion in  
101 urban recovery (Hobbs et al. 2022). Colonialism influences development as well as,

102 socioeconomic and political mobility, which in turn, influenced risk, exposure, vulnerability as  
103 well as, disaster response and recovery (Rivera, 2020; Gahman et al. 2021).

104 The indigenous population becomes invisible, their own knowledge and experience silenced  
105 and diminished for the benefit of advancing the 'debate' on Western sciences' own  
106 constructed knowledge systems (e.g. Pouchepadass, 1995; Ojala and Nordin, 2015). This  
107 creates a dichotomy of two different knowledge systems, and leads to the question: who  
108 gets to decide what is and is not 'useful' knowledge to understand the environments we  
109 research and live in?

110 Despite the examples given, it is important to acknowledge that the various ways colonialism  
111 impacts natural hazard risk varies from country to country, and there are many issues that  
112 are difficult to address.

### 113 [Actions for the future](#)

114 Colonialism continues to block local geoscientists from researching natural hazard  
115 phenomena that they live with. This is done by removing agency in their own knowledge and  
116 understanding of natural hazard phenomena, the lack of resources to train 'homegrown'  
117 geoscientists and to support the research of local geoscientists, who in some cases, must  
118 rely on the collaboration of overseas partners to access the funding. 'Western' geoscience  
119 has historically excluded different types of knowledge. But these excluded perspectives and  
120 voices would be just as, or even more so, valuable; this is highlighted by Feminist Standpoint  
121 Theory. The theory states that members of marginalised groups can become subjects and  
122 authors of knowledge that speak from a certain location, experience and standpoint  
123 (Harding, 2004; Arnot and Reay, 2007).

124 There are multiple approaches to address the colonial legacies in geoscience, such as  
125 through teaching, research, strong collaborations. One would be to implement teaching the  
126 next generations of geoscientists to break the cycle - to have courses, lectures and  
127 resources like [Geocontext](#). *Geocontext* provides resources that integrate topics on racism,  
128 colonialism, imperialism, environmental damage and exploitation of natural resources into  
129 subjects commonly taught within geoscience programs. Whilst these resources are aimed  
130 for the US curriculum, inclusion of *Geocontext* studies can also be supported more broadly,  
131 especially since many geoscientists work overseas. This is starting to be addressed in the  
132 UK by acknowledging the lack of diversity in geoscience in scientific special interest groups,  
133 research and approaches to decolonising the geology curriculum (Gibson et al. 2020; Dowe  
134 et al. 2021; Rogers et al. 2021).

135 An additional approach is the acknowledgement that the historical development of  
136 geoscience and the people that conducted it, should no longer be separated and

137 importantly, that it is okay to change. For example, the University of Glasgow recently  
138 acknowledged and renamed a building originally named after the geologist John Walter  
139 Gregory, who documented the East African Rift (also known as the Gregory Rift), after  
140 learning he supported white supremacy and called for racial segregation (Horne, 2021). In  
141 depth work can be done not only on Gregory's contribution to geology, but also  
142 demonstrating the social and political contexts that shaped Gregory's views. This approach  
143 would be a way to introduce positionality in research conducted today.

144 Positionality is fundamental for a researcher to consider. Positionality requires the  
145 researcher to acknowledge and pinpoint their own views, values, beliefs, biases, and the  
146 social and political context of the study in relation to research design, process and  
147 interpretation of research findings. This has been important to consider in my research  
148 investigating the historical volcanic eruptions of La Soufrière on St. Vincent. Understanding  
149 my positionality as a researcher led me to find meaningful ways to include a diverse range of  
150 local voices in sharing their experiences and knowledge who in the past, had been  
151 neglected. I utilised Feminist Standpoint Theory to rebalance whose knowledge systems  
152 were present and absent, in understanding one of the most active volcanoes in the  
153 Caribbean. I was not just a scientist studying a place I had a distant connection to, but rather  
154 a scientist who could provide different perspectives to understand the historical and social  
155 context of living with a volcano in the Caribbean.

156 Another option is to recognise and avoid 'parachute' science (the practice of side-lining local  
157 researchers on field studies conducted in their own countries, Watson, 2021) by working  
158 meaningfully with local knowledge. The ideologies of colonialism ran deep and touched all  
159 aspects of society that are both tangible and intangible, and therefore require the same level  
160 of scrutiny into understanding how people have lived and continue to live with natural  
161 hazards. This is not to say that geoscientists must now also be social scientists and  
162 historians, but instead develop equitable partnerships from research inception and design,  
163 especially in natural hazards research – involve local social scientists and historians who  
164 have local knowledge in the creation of hazard and risk assessments.

165 There is also the opportunity to learn from indigenous and cultural knowledge in living with  
166 natural hazards. For example, there is an interconnectivity among human, non-human and  
167 the metaphysical in making sense of disasters in Zamboanga Peninsula, Southern  
168 Philippines (Quilo et al. 2015). While indigenous knowledge of earthquakes in Indonesia has  
169 led to adaptation of house construction that have endured for centuries (Kurnio et al. 2021).  
170 These examples and more, have seen a mixture of success from research into  
171 implementation however, if to be incorporated into the postcolonial society, they will require

172 a large cultural shift and retrofitting of infrastructure that may not be possible for some  
173 countries at present.

174 It may be easy to dismiss colonialism as something that 'happened in the past'. But for many  
175 people living in once occupied locations, it is generational trauma that cannot be so easily  
176 forgotten, as there is a continued perpetuation of colonialism. Being complicit to these  
177 knowledge systems touched by white supremacy and imperialism is violence. There is no  
178 shame in acknowledging the tainted roots of our disciplines and there should be celebration  
179 in wanting to do and be better, as that is a benefit for all, not just the privileged few.

## 180 References

181 Arnot M. and Reay D. (2007) 'A Sociology of Pedagogic Voice: Power, inequality and pupil  
182 consultation', *Discourse*, 28(3), pp. 311–325.

183 Atkinson D. (2016) Geographical knowledge and scientific survey in the construction of  
184 Italian Libya. *Morden Italy*. Vol. 8(1). Pg. 9-29.

185 Byrnes G.M. (1998) Affixing names to places: colonial surveying and the construction of  
186 cultural space. *New Zealand Studies*. Vol. 8(1). Pg. 22-28.

187 Campbell J. (2009) 'Islandness: Vulnerability and Resilience in Oceania', *Shima: The  
188 International Journal of Research into Island Cultures*, 3(1), pp. 85–97.

189 Cartier K.M.S. (2021) Teaching Geoscience History in Context (online)  
190 <https://eos.org/articles/teaching-geoscience-history-in-context> [accessed 27/09/21]

191 Cheek W.W. and Chmutina K. (2021) 'Building back better' is neoliberal post-disaster  
192 reconstruction. *Disasters*. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1111/disa.12502>

193 Collins T.W. (2009) The production of unequal risk in hazardscapes: an explanatory frame  
194 applied to disaster at the US-Mexico border. *Geoforum*. Vol. 40(4). Pg. 589-601.

195 Collins T.W. (2010) Marginalisation, facilitation, and the production of unequal risk: the 2006  
196 Paso del Norte floods. *Antipode*. Vol. 42(2). Pg. 258-288.

197 Dowey N., Barclay J., Fernando B., Giles S., Houghton J., Jackson C., Khatwa A., Lawrence  
198 A., Mills K., Newton A., Rogers S. and Williams R. (2021) A UK Perspective on Tackling the  
199 Geoscience Racial Diversity in the Global North. *Nature Geoscience*. Vol. 14(5). Pg. 256-  
200 259.

201 Driver F. (1992) *Geography's Empire: Histories of Geographical Knowledge*. *Environment  
202 and Planning D: Society and Space*. Vol. 10(1). Pg. 23-40.

203 Gahman L., Thongs G. and Greenidge A. (2021) Disaster debt, and 'underdevelopment': the  
204 cunning of colonial-capitalism in the Caribbean. *Development*. DOI:  
205 <https://doi.org/10.1057/s41301-021-00282-4>

206 Garuba H. (2002) Mapping the land/body/subject: colonial and postcolonial geographies in  
207 African narrative. *Alternation*. Vol. 9(1). Pg. 87-116.

208 Gibson S., Engwell S. and Kavanagh J. (2020) The Volcanic and Magmatic Studies Group  
209 Equality, Diversity and Inclusion Report 2020 [preprint]  
210 <https://eartharxiv.org/repository/view/70/>

211 Harding S. (ed.) (2004) *The feminist standpoint theory reader: intellectual and political  
212 controversies*. London: Routledge.

213 Hobbs M., Ahuriri-Driscoll A., Kingham S., Wiki J., Marek L., Dionisio M.R., Curl A., Schluter  
214 P., Banwell K. and Mackenbach J.D. (2022) A city profile of Ōtautahi Christchurch. *Cities*.  
215 Vol. 121. 103481.

216 Home R. (2006) Scientific survey and land settlement in British colonialism, with particular  
217 reference to land tenure reform in the Middle East 1920-50. *Planning Perspectives*. Vol.  
218 21(1). Pg. 1-22.

219 Horne M. (2021) Gregory Building renamed: Race rift casts out giant of geology (online)  
220 [https://www.thetimes.co.uk/article/gregory-building-renamed-race-rift-casts-out-giant-of-  
221 geology-wvz7vfgrz](https://www.thetimes.co.uk/article/gregory-building-renamed-race-rift-casts-out-giant-of-geology-wvz7vfgrz) [accessed 30/09/21]

222 Kurnio H., Fekete A., Naz F., Noff C. and Jüpner R. (2021) Resilience Learning and  
223 Indigenous Knowledge of Earthquake Risk in Indonesia. *International Journal of Disaster  
224 Risk Reduction*. Vol. 62. Pg. 1-11.

225 Moulton A.A. and Machado M.R. (2019) Bouncing forward after Irma and Maria:  
226 acknowledging colonialism, problematising resilience and thinking climate justice. *Journal of  
227 extreme events*. Vol. 6(1).

228 McBride S.K. (2017) *The Canterbury Tales: An Insider's Lessons and Reflections From the  
229 Canterbury Earthquake Sequence to Inform Better Public Communication Models*. PhD  
230 Thesis. New Zealand: Massey University.

231 Oliver-Smith A. (2016) Haiti and the Historical Construction of Disasters. *NACLA Report on  
232 the Americas*. Vol. 43(4). Pg. 32-36.



233 Ojala C-G. and Nordin J.M. (2015) Mining Sápmi: Colonial Histories, Sámi Archaeology, and  
234 the Exploitation of Natural Resources in Northern Sweden. *Arctic Anthro.* Vol. 52(2). Pg. 6-  
235 21.

236 Pico T. et al. (2020) Geocontext: a social and political context for geoscience education  
237 [online] <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.14158457> [accessed 18/10/21]

238 Pouchepadass J. (1995) Colonialism and Environment in India. *Economic and Political*  
239 *Weekly.* Vol. 30(33). Pg. 2059-2067.

240 Quilo Q.S., Mabini M.A.T, Tamiroy N.P.O., Mendoza M.J.A., Ponce S.L. and Vilorio L.S.  
241 (2015) Indigenous Knowledge and Practices: Approach to Understanding Disaster.  
242 *Philippine Sociological Review.* Vol. 63. Pg. 105-130.

243 Rampengan M.M.F. et al. (2014) Capacities in Facing Natural Hazards: A Small Island  
244 Perspective', *International Journal of Disaster Risk Science*, 5(4), pp. 247–264

245 Rivera D.Z. (2020) Disaster colonialism: a commentary on disasters beyond singular events  
246 to structural violence. *International Journal of Urban and Regional Research.* DOI:  
247 <https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-2427.12950>

248 Rogers S.L., Doney N., Lau L., Sheikh H. and Williams R. (2021) Geology Uprooted!  
249 Decolonising the Curriculum for Geologists. *Geoscience Communication Discussion*  
250 [preprint] <https://doi.org/10.5194/gc-2021-35>, in review.

251 Scarlett J.P. (2020) Coexisting With Volcanoes: The Relationships Between La Soufrière  
252 and the Society of St. Vincent, Lesser Antilles. Hull: The University of Hull. Available at:  
253 <https://hydra.hull.ac.uk/resources/hull:18230>.

254 Stafford R.A. (2017) Annexing the Landscapes of the Past. In: MacKenzie J.M. (ed)  
255 *Imperialism and the Natural World.* Manchester: Manchester University Press.

256 Stone J.C. (1988) Imperialism, colonialism and cartography. *Trans. Inst. Br. Geogr.* Vol. 13.  
257 Pg. 57-64.

258 Sultana F. (2011) Living in hazardous waterscapes: gendered vulnerabilities and  
259 experiences of floods and disasters. *Environmental Hazards.* Vol. 9(1) Pg. 43-53.

260 Watson C. (2021) Parachute science falls to earth [online]  
261 <https://www.natureindex.com/news-blog/parachute-science-falls-to-earth> [accessed  
262 28/10/21]

263 Whyte K.P. (2016) Is it Colonial Déjà Vu? Indigenous Peoples and Climate Injustice. In:  
264 (Adamson J. and Davis M.) (eds). *Humanities for the Environment* (1st ed.) London:  
265 Routledge.

266 Whyte K. (2018) Settler Colonialism, Ecology, and Environmental Injustice. *Environment and*  
267 *Society*. Vol. 9(1). Pg. 125-144.