

## Why telecoupling needs to account for environmental justice

Engaging with normative questions in land system science is a key challenge. This debate paper highlights the potential of incorporating elements of environmental justice scholarship into the evolving telecoupling framework that focuses on distant interactions in land systems. We first expose the reasons why environmental justice matters in understanding telecoupled systems, and the relevant approaches suited to mainstream environmental justice into telecoupled contexts. We then explore which specific elements of environmental justice need to be incorporated into telecoupling research. We focus on 1) the distribution of social-ecological burdens and benefits across distances, 2) power and justice issues in governing distantly tied systems, and 3) recognition issues in information flows, framings and discourses across distance. We conclude our paper highlighting key mechanisms to address injustices in telecoupled land systems.

Keywords: telecoupling, environmental justice, ecosystem services, power, governance, decolonial thought

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### Introduction

The expansion of socio-economic globalization has widened the distance between the benefits and costs of land use change. For example, soybean imports have enabled China to avoid domestic agricultural expansion and spare land for afforestation (Torres, Moran, & Silva, 2017), but have led to deforestation in exporting countries including Brazil and Argentina (Garrett, Lambin, & Naylor, 2013; Vallejos et al., 2015). In Argentina, soybean expansion in the Chaco region has displaced indigenous peoples and small-scale farmers (Cáceres, 2015; Leguizamón, 2016), and exposed them to flooding and reduced availability of forest products (Camino, Cortez, Altrichter, & Matteucci, 2018). Furthermore, the conversion of soybean fields to corn and paddy increased nitrogen pollution in former soybean production areas in China, such as the

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3 Heilongjiang province (Sun et al., 2018), affecting vulnerable social groups such as  
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5 children (Zhai et al., 2017).  
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8           This example shows how land use change generates social-ecological impacts  
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10 across distance and scales. The concept of telecoupling helps to explore these effects by  
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12 linking globalization with land use change (Eakin et al., 2014; Friis et al., 2016;  
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14 Lenschow, Newig, & Challies, 2016; Liu et al., 2013). Telecoupled systems are  
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16 distantly connected social-ecological systems sending and receiving goods and services,  
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18 energy matter, information and living species through their enabling agents (Liu et al.,  
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20 2013). The connected systems (in the example above, deforested lands in Argentina and  
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22 Brazil and spared land in China) can also directly or indirectly affect additional  
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24 “spillover” systems (in the example above, Canada, Russia, Belarus and Germany as  
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26 fertilizer producers [Liu et al., 2018], and nitrogen pollution sources in China). The  
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28 novelty and analytical potential of a telecoupling lens is to reveal such distant ties from  
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30 a social-ecological perspective, while earlier approaches have focused either on  
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32 ecological or socio-economic aspects (Liu et al., 2013). Nevertheless, telecoupling  
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34 studies still need to engage with normative questions in order to deal with the moral  
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36 consequences of decision-making (Nielsen et al., 2019). This has not happened  
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38 systematically yet (Corbera, Busck-Lumholt, Mempel, & Rodríguez-Labajos, 2019).  
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40 We contend that an environmental justice lens can contribute significantly to critically  
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42 reflect and operationalize the normative dimensions of telecouplings.  
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49           In what follows, we first explain why environmental (in)justices are fundamental  
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51 features of telecoupled systems. We demonstrate why telecoupled systems produce  
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53 social and environmental inequalities qualified as unjust, and which approaches of  
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55 environmental justice are most suited for analysing these situations. Secondly, we  
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57 explore which elements of environmental justice can and should already be incorporated  
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3 in telecoupling research, and which new research domains and questions arise as a  
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5 result. We conclude by highlighting possible mechanisms towards achieving greater  
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7 environmental justice in telecoupled systems.  
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### 10 **Why telecoupling needs environmental justice**

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12 Because sending and receiving goods through distance implies a redistribution of the  
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14 environmental costs of their production, environmental inequality is prominent in  
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16 telecoupled systems. In the introduction example, soybeans are consumed in Europe and  
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18 China while the environmental burdens concentrate at the producing locations in South  
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20 America. There is wide empirical evidence that more affluent people and economies can  
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22 shift the environmental costs of their consumption, such as carbon emissions (Xiong,  
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24 Millington, & Xu, 2018) or deforestation (Jorgenson, 2006) to distant places. In these  
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26 places, land use changes due to the production of global commodities have strong  
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28 negative impacts on socio-economically disadvantaged and disempowered social groups  
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30 (Borras, Franco, Kay, & Spoor, 2011; Peluso & Lund, 2011).  
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36 Hornborg (1998) explains the mechanisms that lead to global environmental  
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38 inequalities through the theory of ecological unequal exchange (EUE). EUE postulates  
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40 that though raw materials have a greater productive potential and that their extraction  
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42 has high environmental impacts, their monetary value is lower than processed goods  
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44 (Givens, Huang, & Jorgenson, 2019). In a connected global system where nations have  
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46 historically unequal positions (Wallerstein, 1984), centres of consumption concentrate  
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48 exchange value while they undermine the productive potential that they absorb through  
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50 trade from their peripheries. This accumulation of exchange value allows centres to  
51  
52 further extract raw materials and cheap labour at their periphery (Martinez-Alier, 2009)  
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54 and systematically shift environmental burdens and social costs onto those who have  
55  
56 less access to consumption of goods and services (Fitzgerald & Auerbach, 2016; Rice,  
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3 2007). Though the periphery often corresponds to the Global South, unequal exchange  
4 and core-periphery dynamics work both within and between nations (Dunaway &  
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7 Clelland, 2016; W. Zhang et al., 2018), as the nitrogen pollution in China in the soybean  
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10 example shows.

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12         Why is justice an appealing concept for analysing such unequal social-  
13  
14 ecological exchange? Justice is a fundamental evaluative criteria in moral philosophy  
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16 (Rawls, 1971; Sen, 2009). John Locke (2005 [1690]) showed that justice has an intrinsic  
17  
18 value ensuring people the opportunities for a life worth living, as well as an  
19  
20 instrumental value (as a ‘social contract’ in Locke’s terms) because justice is considered  
21  
22 to be a condition that enables collective action towards goals such as sustainability  
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24 (Martin, 2013: 99). This bivalent intrinsic/instrumental notion of justice is visible in  
25  
26 sustainability literature. For example, the concept of a *safe and just* operating space  
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28 postulates that ending poverty while staying within earth’s limits should only be  
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30 achieved by greater equity besides greater efficiency (Dearing et al., 2014; Leach,  
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32 Raworth, & Rockström, 2013).

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38         In telecoupled systems, nevertheless, sustainability and justice might not be two  
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40 separate conditions as usually framed. EUE suggests that unsustainable and unjust  
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42 conditions tend to be causally inter-linked. Empirical evidence shows that more unequal  
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44 societies tend to have more degraded environments, in particular air and water  
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46 (Cushing, Morello-Frosch, Wander, & Pastor, 2015). Inversely, socially just  
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48 environmental measures and policies are more likely to be effective (Brondizio & Le  
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50 Tourneau, 2016; Pascual et al., 2014). Boyce (2018) explains this link through the  
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52 power-weighted social decision rule: powerful people and nations are less likely to  
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54 address environmental costs when they can shift them to others who lack sufficient  
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56 economic and political power to take environmentally relevant decisions.  
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3 We postulate that environmental justice provides the most developed framing to  
4 understand environmental inequalities and their causes in telecoupled systems.  
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7 Environmental justice has expanded its initial focus on characterizing environmental  
8 burdens among disadvantaged groups (Bullard, 1994) to understand the causes of these  
9 inequalities as well as justice claims, discourses and practices in environmental issues  
10 (Holifield, Porter, & Walker, 2009). Schlosberg (2007, 2013) has shown that  
11 environmental justice issues and claims work along three dimensions: 1) the distribution  
12 of environmental burdens and benefits, 2) procedural justice, the fairness and autonomy  
13 of environmental decisions-making and 3) recognition justice including issues of rights,  
14 power, and respect for cultural differences in knowing and shaping the environment  
15 (Martin, 2013).  
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19 This framing is particularly relevant for telecoupling research. A distributive  
20 environmental justice lens can help to identify the telecoupling dynamics and flows that  
21 matter from a normative point of view. Procedural and recognition justice contribute to  
22 integrate a power perspective in telecoupling research. Finally, incorporating the study  
23 of environmental justice movements can enhance the understanding of feedback  
24 processes and their potential to make telecoupled systems more just and sustainable.  
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28 Despite the relevance of environmental justice issues in telecoupling, few  
29 studies have addressed it explicitly. A recent review of 48 telecoupling studies (Corbera  
30 et al., 2019) found only three contributions that integrate justice explicitly, and also  
31 found that those studies that do integrate justice implicitly generally concentrate on  
32 distributive equity aspects. This suggests that environmental justice and telecoupling  
33 have remained largely disconnected in the global land systems and sustainability  
34 science literatures, with few exceptions (e.g. Boillat et al., 2018; Lundsgaard-Hansen et  
35 al., 2018; Oberlack et al., 2018; Schröter et al., 2018; Zimmerer, Lambin, & Vanek,  
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3 2018). In the next sections, we discuss each dimension of environmental justice and  
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5 which related questions and empirical approaches could help enriching the study of  
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7 telecoupled systems. The table in supplementary material summarizes these questions.  
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## 10 **Elements of environmental justice to incorporate into telecoupling**

### 11 *Distributive justice: benefits and burdens across distances*

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15 In telecoupled systems, distributive justice is about the benefits and burdens generated  
16  
17 by social-ecological flows across distances. This includes “embedded” natural resources  
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19 and emissions in commodities, such as virtual water (Hoekstra & Mekonnen, 2012),  
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21 land (Yu, Feng, & Hubacek, 2013; J. Zhang, Zhao, Liu, & Liu, 2016), and greenhouse  
22  
23 gases (Xiong et al., 2018). Schröter et al. (2018) conceptualize environmental benefits  
24  
25 in telecoupled systems as benefits from interregional flows of ecosystem services,  
26  
27 including trade of goods, active and passive biophysical flows and information flows  
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29 between systems. Pascual et al. (2017) identify negative impacts through ecosystem  
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31 service burdens that can be distant but also delayed and spatially diffuse.  
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37 Assessing cultural and regulating ecosystem services involves dealing with  
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39 complexity and uncertainty (Schröter et al., 2018) and requires choices (such as scale  
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41 parameters) that cannot be innocent of politics or other values. The ecosystem service  
42  
43 framing in itself represents a utilitarian conception of nature and justice that cannot be  
44  
45 assumed to be shared among the actors involved (Díaz et al., 2018; Sikor, 2014).  
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47 Assessing distributive justice in telecoupled systems should therefore include  
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49 knowledge co-production methods that combine accounting of the diversity of  
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51 perceptions about nature’s contributions to people’s quality of life (beyond a utilitarian  
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53 ecosystem service flow framing) (Ellis, Pascual, & Mertz, 2019) with empirical,  
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3 bottom-up accounts from involved actors (Sikor, Martin, Fisher, & He, 2014;  
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5 Zaehring, Schneider, Heinemann, & Messerli, 2019).  
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8 Ecosystem services also often focus only on those social outcomes that arise  
9 from ecological change (Lele, Springate-Baginski, Lakerveld, Deb, & Dash, 2013) and  
10 would thus miss the effects of telecouplings that directly affect social outcomes, for  
11  
12 example when distant trade flows affect the labour practices in connected systems (Li,  
13  
14 2011). The distribution of labour, terms of trade, entitlements and the control of land  
15  
16 and natural resources in telecoupled systems needs to be investigated. In turn, the  
17  
18 distribution of these assets can feed back into how environmental benefits and burdens  
19  
20 affect differentiated social groups. For example, a narrow ecosystem service framing  
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22 focusing on landowners may overlook service providers who lack formal recognition  
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24 such as land tenants, informal users and women. Social differentiation must therefore be  
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26 examined carefully in its multi-dimensional forms (Daw, Brown, Rosendo, & Pomeroy,  
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28 2011; Dawson & Martin, 2015).  
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### 37 ***Procedural justice: decision-making spaces, actors and power***

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39 Procedural justice is about the extent to which legitimate voices and interests of  
40 individuals and social groups are represented in decision-making. One first needs to  
41 identify the relevant decision-making spaces, namely the set of collectively binding,  
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43 coordination and steering decisions gathered under the broad concept of governance  
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45 (Newig, Lenschow, Challies, Cotta, & Schilling-Vacaflor, 2019). In telecoupled  
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47 systems, these governance spaces can concern focal or distant territorial systems as well  
48  
49 as flow-based governance between these systems (Oberlack et al., 2018; Sikor et al.,  
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51 2013) Researching flow-based governance implies to pay more attention to the network  
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53 of vertical and horizontal norms, institutions and power relations governing production  
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3 networks, contract farming, commodity and value chains (Adams, Gerber, Amacker, &  
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5 Haller, 2018; Gibbon, Bair, & Ponte, 2008).  
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8         Second, one needs to inquire about who is potentially affected by decisions  
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10 under governance spaces that favour telecoupling. This refers to distributive justice, but  
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12 also considers how the different actors involved define the subjects of justice, namely  
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14 those considered legitimate holders of claims to land, ecosystem services and benefits  
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16 (Sikor et al., 2014). In telecoupled systems that typically cross borders, subjects of  
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18 justice cannot be restricted to members of a sovereign nation-state as Rawlsian theory  
19  
20 does (Fraser, 2010a). They may be defined through the all-subjected principle (Fraser,  
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22 2010b) which posits that all people that are affected by governing decisions taken in  
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24 relation with a telecoupling process or a telecoupled system are subjects of justice.  
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28         We finally need to look at the relation between the relevant governance spaces,  
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30 and the participation and power of potentially affected subjects across distant places.  
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32 From an institutional analysis perspective (Ostrom, 2005), the social spaces in which  
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34 actors interact and make decisions are called action situations (Ostrom, 2011). In  
35  
36 telecoupled systems, local, distant and flow-centered action situations interact in  
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38 networks and constitute polycentric governance systems (Oberlack et al., 2018). We  
39  
40 hypothesize that the position of actors across action situation types and their ability to  
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42 bridge physical, social or institutional distances has a strong relation with their power  
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44 (Boillat et al., 2018; Eakin, Rueda, & Mahanti, 2017; Kashwan, 2015).  
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### 51 ***Recognition justice: information flows, framings and discourses***

52 Recognition injustices involve harms linked to discrimination and domination, produced  
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54 through formal rules (e.g. tenure rules that discriminate against women) as well as  
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56 informal norms (e.g. prevailing traditional institutions that prevent women controlling  
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58 land) that disregard some people to make legitimate claims. Structural inequalities are  
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3 expressed at multiple scales through institutions, practices, language and symbols,  
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5 producing problem framings that strongly influence distributive and procedural  
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7 outcomes (Fraser, 2000; Schlosberg, 2007; Young, 1990).  
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10 At a global scale, there is particular attention in environmental justice literatures  
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12 to the recognition injustices linked to coloniality (Álvarez & Coolsaet, 2018; Martin et  
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14 al., 2016; Rodriguez, 2013; Rodríguez & Inturias, 2018). Coloniality postulates that  
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16 environmental injustices arise because governance spaces are driven by dominant  
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18 knowledge and values, which in turn shape both problem analysis and solutions in ways  
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20 that reflect and reproduce colonial power asymmetries and reinforce social distance (De  
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22 Sousa Santos, 2010). From a telecoupling perspective, these spaces embody and project  
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24 dominant conceptions of nature in distant places. Safeguards to ‘recognise’ local or  
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26 indigenous community rights might exist, but within a colonial politics of recognition  
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28 that requires to assimilate dominant values that are in turn sedimented by legitimized  
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30 epistemic communities, e.g. by entering into compensation or benefit-sharing schemes  
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32 that are rooted in the same imposed knowledge system (Martin et al., 2016).  
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37 We thus propose to integrate recognition justice concerns into telecoupling  
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39 through an examination of discourses, scale choices, evidence framing, views on nature  
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41 and views of justice expressed in information flows from a decolonial or more generally  
42  
43 critical perspective on dominant values. This focus emphasizes that ‘information flows’  
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45 are rarely if ever innocent of injustice. Information is entangled with issues of ‘whose  
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47 knowledge’, ‘whose values’ and ultimately ‘whose justice’ is made visible or invisible.  
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49 Such questions are relevant to everyday practices that are presented as neutral but are in  
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51 fact deeply political, such as choices over appropriate scales of analysis (Towers, 2000),  
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53 what subjects of justice are considered (Sikor et al., 2014), what kind of evidence is  
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55 admissible, and so on. To enhance recognition justice, our analysis of telecoupled  
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3 systems should therefore employ a ‘thickened’ sense of information flows that asks  
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5 whose knowledge, values and interests are considered, and whose are rendered  
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7 invisible.  
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### 10 **Addressing injustices in telecoupled systems**

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12 Overall, telecouplings do create the conditions for some people to bear adverse effects  
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14 (burdens) in both social and ecological terms. We postulate that these people – often  
15  
16 disempowered, marginalized and invisibilized communities – can be key allies for  
17  
18 sustainability. What are then the possible mechanisms to address these injustices?  
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23 First, environmental injustices often trigger social movements (Martinez-Alier,  
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25 Temper, Del Bene, & Scheidel, 2016), that are increasingly interconnected around  
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27 common values, concerns and interests (Anguelovski & Martínez Alier, 2014; Temper,  
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29 Demaria, Scheidel, Del Bene, & Martinez-Alier, 2018). Through the *boomerang*  
30  
31 *mechanism* (Keck & Sikkink, 1998: 12-13), local activists can purposefully seek  
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33 transnational allies to draw attention to the existing injustices, mobilize international  
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35 leverage and eventually reshape power asymmetries (Keck & Sikkink, 1998; Veuthey &  
36  
37 Gerber, 2012). These allies can include foreign and international NGOs (Carruthers,  
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39 2008; Keck & Sikkink, 1998), financial and trade organizations (Nelson, 2002), courts  
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41 and tribunals (Spalding, 2017) or company shareholders (McAteer & Pulver, 2009).  
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46 This mechanism can potentially empower marginalized subjects of justice, defend  
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48 community rights and resources, reinvigorate local identities and better recognition of  
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50 local ecological knowledge (Oberlack, Tejada, Messerli, Rist, & Giger, 2016;  
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Villamayor-Tomas & García-López, 2018).

55 The *catapult mechanism* describes the inverse setting, in which transnational  
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57 actors such as international NGOs initiate alliances with local actors. They can  
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59 harmonize their own agenda with local environmental justice struggles (Temper, 2019)  
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3 and proactively support the agency of local resource users (Lundsgaard-Hansen et al.,  
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5 2018). Resistance movements can also scale of their effects through the *minefield*  
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7 *mechanism*, through which highly conflictive projects can change the overall perception  
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9 of similar projects (e.g. in terms of risk and profitability), leading to alterations in  
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11 investment behaviour, legal action, or regulatory changes (Temper, 2019). For example,  
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13 wide-spread citizen resistance enhanced the open pit mining ban in Costa Rica in 2010  
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15 (Broad & Fischer-Mackey, 2017).  
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19 Finally, an increasing number of initiatives attempt to transform justice conflicts  
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21 in natural resource use through *enhanced transparency* (Anseeuw, Lay, Messerli, Giger,  
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23 & Taylor, 2013; Gardner et al., 2019). Better public access to information, including  
24  
25 environmental data, can constrain elites to extract resource rents and to form patronage  
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27 networks (Corrigan, 2014; Dillon et al., 2017). Transparency initiatives may provide  
28  
29 new means of participation and accountability in land and resource governance (Mejía  
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31 Acosta, 2013; Vijge, Metcalfe, Wallbott, & Oberlack, 2019). Taken together, these  
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33 mechanisms can co-occur and interact. More mechanisms to transform injustices in  
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35 telecoupled systems exist for instance through global institutions or states (Lenschow et  
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37 al., 2016). Future research needs to delineate them clearly and to identify the precise  
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39 conditions under which particular mechanisms do and do not operate effectively.  
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## 45 46 **Conclusion**

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48 In this article, we have advocated for the inclusion of a justice perspective in  
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50 telecoupling research. We have shown how social-ecological flows across distances  
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52 create winners and losers, how to assess them and under which conditions injustices can  
53  
54 be reduced. Because telecouplings are social-ecological interactions, some people in  
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56 some contexts are likely to bear adverse effects in both social and ecological terms  
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58 while, in other contexts, telecouplings might not necessarily translate into subjectively  
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3 felt injustices. In this regard, we would refer to the Rawlsian principle that only  
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5 processes which do achieve better conditions for the worst off can be labelled as just.  
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8 Specifically, we have argued for the incorporation of procedural and recognition  
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10 perspectives in telecoupling research, which pays increased attention to governance  
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12 systems, power, discourses and values. Such perspective can contribute to a richer  
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14 understanding of which mechanisms create and reproduce injustices at different scales  
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16 for different actors in telecoupled systems. This will also complement other existing  
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18 approaches that explain environmental injustice through a socio-metabolic, global  
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20 perspective (Martinez-Alier et al., 2016).  
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## Supplementary material: Environmental justice aspects for integration into telecoupling research.

Dimension	Key research questions	Possible approaches and methods
1. Distributive justice	1.1. What is the distribution of the benefits and burdens of social-ecological interactions across distant regions?	Ecological benefits: interregional flows of ecosystem services (Schröter et al., 2018) Ecological burdens: off-stage ecosystem service burdens (distant, delayed and diffuse negative effects on ecosystems) (Pascual et al., 2017) Direct social effects of telecouplings: distribution of labour, terms of trade and entitlements
	1.2. How are these benefits and burdens felt and perceived by affected people?	“Bottom-up” accounts on felt benefits and burdens in terms of perceptions (Daw, Brown, Rosendo, & Pomeroy, 2011; Dawson & Martin, 2015)
	1.3. How are these benefits and burdens distributed among differentiated social groups?	Social differentiation of burdened/benefited people: capabilities and well-being (Dawson & Martin, 2015)
2. Procedural justice	2.1. What are the relevant decision-making spaces in telecoupling processes?	Spaces and scales that induce, coordinate and respond to telecouplings (Newig, Lenschow, Challies, Cotta, & Schilling-Vacaflor, 2019) Spaces that govern focal and distant territories and flows between them (Oberlack et al., 2018)
	2.2. Who are affected by these decision-making spaces?	All-subjected principle (Fraser, 2010) Social connection model (Young, 2006)
	2.3. To what extent can those affected take autonomous decisions?	Compare actors with decision-making power with those affected (Lundsgaard-Hansen et al., 2018)
	2.4. What is the decision-making power of those affected and left aside?	Observable, hidden and invisible power forms (Gaventa, 2006) Networks of action situations (Oberlack et al., 2018) Policy resources analysis (Knoepfel, Larrue, Varone, & Hill, 2011)
3. Recognition justice	3.1. What are the implicit framings and value systems embedded in the	Qualitative assessment of information flows: discourses, scale choices, evidence framing, views on nature and

	governance of telecoupling processes?	views on justice expressed in decision-making (Martin, Akol, & Gross-Camp, 2015)
	3.2. To what extent do telecoupling governance systems reframe and reproduce domination patterns?	Decolonial analysis: whose knowledge', 'whose values' and 'whose justice' prevail in framings and discourses? (Álvarez & Coolsaet, 2018; Rodríguez & Inturias, 2018)

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