

1 Earth system boundaries and Earth system justice: Sharing the ecospace

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12 Abstract

13 The literature on planetary and Earth system boundaries calls on humans to live within those
14 boundaries. Sharing such limited ecospace raises questions of justice. Global environmental
15 assessments and scholarship are increasingly paying attention to justice issues, yet
16 inadequately define how to share the limited ecospace. Against this background we ask: how
17 can global environmental assessments' concerns for justice be enhanced through an Earth
18 system justice (ESJ) framework that guides how the global community could share and
19 flourish within the limited ecospace? Based on an analysis of how justice concerns are
20 addressed in the Assessment of Assessments and global environmental change projects, we
21 build an Earth system justice framework that discusses how ecospace can be shared fairly
22 through the setting of Earth system boundaries and the provision of minimum resource
23 needs for all, and how this can be achieved through an equitable redistribution of resources,
24 rights, and responsibilities focused on addressing inequality, overconsumption, and harmful
25 accumulation.

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37 1. Introduction¹

38 Since 1950, increasing resource use and waste has impacted the Earth system and society
 39 across scales, harming humans and nature (United Nations Environment Programme
 40 [UNEP], 2019). This has led to proposals for planetary/Earth system boundaries (Dyckman,
 41 2020; Rockström et al. 2009) which limit the available ecospace – “... the space that people
 42 can use if they want to sustain the earth’s resources and continuously reuse them” (Gupta,
 43 2016, p. 272). This ecospace can be shared in more, or less, equitable ways (Gupta, 1998).

44 Much of this ecospace has already been unequally divided through colonialism, land grabs,
 45 and unbounded economic growth. While since 1950, average GDP has grown, trade and the
 46 economy has increased by 10 and 5 times respectively, and extreme poverty has declined
 47 (UNEP, 2021; Piketty, 2014), but inequality in resource use, pollution (Milanovic, 2013) and
 48 exposure to pollution have grown (Gupta et al., 2019). Despite action from environmental
 49 justice movements and governments (Berkhout et al., 2021; Dale, 2021), opposition to
 50 government regulation, exploitation of the commons, and cuts to social programs, many
 51 associated with neoliberal ideas, have furthered degradation and inequality (Blaikie &
 52 Brookfield, 2015). Finding just ways to live within the ecospace remains an enduring
 53 challenge.

54 Four reasons justify sharing ecospace. First, a limited ecospace calls for finding
 55 transformative ways for sharing it (Rammelt et al. 2022) including a rethinking of market
 56 mechanisms to allocate scarce resources. These mechanisms often lead to increased resource
 57 prices, making them unaffordable for the many, and concentrating capital and wealth. For
 58 example, water privatization in many regions has created water stress for poor farmers
 59 (Bakker, 2003).

60 Second, the need for just approaches is increasingly demonstrated in global assessments of
 61 scholarship on environmental issues and global governance work (see sections 2 & 3 below),
 62 legitimizing further work in this field. Third, this broadbased scientific consensus is also
 63 supported by the global political consensus in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development
 64 (United Nations [UN], 2015) which calls for reducing inequality and simultaneously
 65 addressing social, ecological and environmental challenges, and in human rights,
 66 transboundary water and environmental treaties. Finally, considering justice may increase the
 67 chances of broad public acceptability of necessary measures (UNEP, 2021). Behavioural
 68 experiments show that perceptions of fairness among the parties involved can lead to norms
 69 that motivate collaboration and restraint from overharvesting while increasing inequality may
 70 lead to vicious cycles of overexploitation and resource scarcity (Gampfer, 2014; Marotzke et
 71 al., 2019; Owusu et al., 2019; Liebrand et al., 1986).

72 Hence, we ask: How can global environmental assessments’ concerns for justice be
 73 enhanced through an Earth system justice (ESJ) framework that guides how the global
 74 community could share and flourish within the limited ecospace?
 75

76 The scope of this paper is limited. In choosing assessments as a starting point, we are
 77 building on how justice scholarship is moving from niche to mainstream in environmental
 78 assessments and global governance scholarship. Section 2 examines how the “Assessment
 79 of Assessments” (UNEP, 2021) – frames justice. Section 3 surveys the growing focus on
 80 environmental justice concerns within the epistemic communities working on global
 81 environmental governance; and Section 4 extracts the core common elements of justice

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82 from the previous two sections as critical elements of our perspective on Earth system
 83 justice. Our aim is to make proposals that can work within the existing institutional
 84 framework.

85
 86 Our Earth system justice (ESJ) proposal aims to define the safe and just boundaries that can
 87 define the ecospace, and share the ecospace substantively through access to minimum
 88 resources and allocation of the remaining resources, risks and responsibilities. ESJ has
 89 emerged from several years of research and conversations among social and natural scientists
 90 from the Global North and South and is part of the ongoing work of the Earth Commission.
 91 ESJ goes beyond planetary justice (Biermann & Kalfagianni, 2020) to be explicit about goals
 92 and governance interventions. ESJ also recognizes the legitimate critique that there is no
 93 singular ‘anthropos’ that has caused the current sustainability crisis and that this needs to be
 94 recognized in how we address justice and equity in the Anthropocene (Preiser et al., 2017).

95 2. Environmental assessments call for just transformations, not 96 concrete visions on how to share the global ecospace

97 The global community has synthesized environmental scholarship for three decades. Making
 98 Peace with Nature (MPN) (UNEP, 2021) reviewed 25 assessments (including on climate
 99 (IPCC), biodiversity (IPBES), environment (GEO) and resources (IRP)) to send an
 100 integrated message to the UN conference celebrating 50 years since the first Stockholm
 101 conference on the Human Environment in 1972.

102 MPN finds that three interlocking crises – climate change, deforestation and land
 103 degradation, and biodiversity loss – reduce human wellbeing now and into the future. MPN
 104 calls for rapid reductions in resource use and pollution. It recognizes the need for just
 105 approaches and references justice-related terms frequently: inequality 54 times, equal (70),
 106 equity (50), access (119), just (219), transformation (124), fair (19), justice (3), allocation (1),
 107 benefit sharing (1) times. Despite this, MPN does not explore what justice might entail; who
 108 is accountable for environmental damage, where and how; how to address inequality in
 109 resource use and pollution; and how just transformations can be realized. This may be
 110 because many scholars see justice as normative, justice scholarship is often philosophical and
 111 discursive, or the selection criteria for reviewing relevant justice issues may be limited.
 112 However, MPN presents some clear messages:

113 First, *environmental degradation undermines the achievement of the SDGs and their goals of eradicating*
 114 *poverty and hunger, ensuring resource access for all, and reducing inequality*. MPN argues that “the
 115 burden of environmental decline is unjustly distributed” (p. 51) and threatens “the
 116 achievement of SDGs” (p. 27). It states that “Inequalities in environmental opportunities
 117 and burdens along ethnicity, gender, race and income levels hamper efforts to reduce
 118 inequalities within and among countries (SDG 10)” (p. 25), may exacerbate social conflict (p.
 119 34) and increase infectious disease (p. 35, 25).

120 Second, *environmental degradation exacerbates vulnerability*. MPN discusses the injustices
 121 associated with vulnerability to harm from environmental change. The poor and otherwise
 122 disadvantaged are disproportionately harmed by environmental change (Eakin & Luers,
 123 2006), while they may be less responsible for such harm. MPN argues that vulnerability
 124 results from “socioeconomic developments, such as in population, trade, consumption and
 125 inequality” (p. 87) and that “inequalities start at birth and accumulate through life in all
 126 countries” (p. 58). Recognizing that vulnerability is not innate and that environmental
 127 degradation exacerbates inequality is a first step towards arguing about what needs to happen.

128 Third, *reducing inequality and addressing vulnerability requires addressing issues of access to resources and*
129 *services and supporting livelihoods*. MPN recognizes that “Removing inequality requires steps to
130 address individual and community property rights, persistent poverty, hunger, education,
131 equity and inclusion in resource management” (p. 34), especially for local communities and
132 small-scale artisanal fisheries (p. 122). This requires meeting access to clean water (p. 121),
133 clean and affordable energy (p. 17, 35), “basic nutritional requirements”, access to “long-
134 term employment, adequate income and dignified and equal working and living conditions
135 for everybody involved in agricultural value chains” and enabling people to cope with “strong
136 price fluctuations” (p. 152, 34). The report thus elaborates on meeting minimum access issues
137 but does not really show how inequality can be addressed.

138 Fourth, *although inequality is addressed more in terms of meeting minimum needs than in terms of changing*
139 *the allocation of responsibilities, risks and resources, it provides hints about what changing such an allocation*
140 *may mean*. Beyond minimum access, MPN does not discuss allocation mechanisms except
141 for “changing dietary choices and consumer behavior in high-income countries and groups”
142 (p.16) and that SDG achievement “will require large changes in economic activities, national
143 accounts, financial systems and governance. Securing equitable access to goods and services
144 while averting dangerous climate change and avoiding environmental harm will require major
145 structural changes in economic activities” (p. 119). MPN proposed “Measures to prevent
146 and reduce conflict include supporting co-management regimes for collaborative water
147 management, fostering equity between water users (while maintaining minimum flows for
148 aquatic ecosystems) and promoting transparency and access to information” (p.130).
149 Equitable sharing of water and biodiversity is mentioned (p. 130), while on climate change,
150 the report states that “rapid reductions” of emissions are to be achieved “on the basis of
151 equity, and in the context of sustainable development and efforts to eradicate poverty”. “The
152 connections between eradicating poverty and reducing inequality and addressing climate
153 change are embedded in the sustainable development goals” (p. 68). Thus the report
154 emphasizes in different places that systems need to change and provides some hints but does
155 not create a systematic narrative.

156 Fifth, MPN calls for *just transformations*. Its authors argue for alternative measures such as “a
157 Genuine Progress Indicator to correct GDP ...” (p. 33). Transformation of the food, water
158 and energy systems must occur “in an equitable, resilient and environmentally-friendly
159 manner” (p.16), address drivers (p. 54) and “major shifts in investment and regulation are
160 key to just and informed transformations that overcome inertia and opposition from vested
161 interests” (p.15). It calls for education, knowledge generation and sharing but notes that this
162 requires “transformations in human health, equity and peace” (p. 103). MPN argues that
163 “Transformation can also enable the realization of the collective vision of a sustainable future
164 for humanity, one that involves a rapid and thorough decarbonization, food security for all,
165 an end to poverty, harmony with life on land and beneath the water, and substantial
166 improvements in justice and fairness” (p.101). It highlights that “A sustainable future is
167 achievable, and it can be a just and prosperous one...” but that this “requires the
168 transformation of economic and financial systems” (p.119). Finally, “participatory and
169 equitable processes can raise public acceptance of transformative change” (p.104, 102, 129,
170 36, 133).

171 Thus, MPN shows that: (a) environmental degradation undermines SDG achievement; (b)
172 vulnerability created by inequality makes environmental impacts worse and increases harm;
173 (c) reducing inequality requires providing basic needs and services for all; (d), production and
174 consumption patterns need to change; and (e) a just transformation is necessary and possible.
175 It creates the groundwork needed for developing an Earth system justice narrative.

176 3. The rise of environmental justice concerns in global governance
177 scholarship

178 **3.1 Introduction**

179 Making Peace with Nature shows that global assessments do account for some justice issues
180 but do not address the full scope of global environmental justice. Different terms have been
181 used to conceptualize justice but Figure 1 shows, based on a review of selected terms in
182 SCOPUS, that the term ‘environmental justice’ has become more acceptable and popular
183 when compared to environmental inclusion, equity and fairness² and may also reflect the rise
184 of environmental justice movements worldwide (Temper & Shmelev, 2015).

185 [Figure 1]

186 Instead of examining the scattered justice scholarship, we focus on how environmental
187 justice concerns have evolved within two global epistemic communities i.e. the
188 International Human Dimensions Programme’s (IHDP) project on Institutional
189 Dimensions of Global Environmental Change (IDGEC) and the follow-up Earth System
190 Governance project which falls under Future Earth – the world’s largest social science
191 network. These two programmes aimed to create a global epistemic community on global
192 to local environmental change issues. The justice literature produced has been theoretical,
193 discursive, focused on specific issues and solutions, but has been limited in terms of
194 actionable suggestions as to how humans might equitably share its limited ecospace.

195
196 **3.2 Environmental justice issues within IDGEC/ESG: From behavioral approaches
197 via access and allocation to theorizing planetary justice**

198 *Behavioural approaches:* The IHDP/IDGEC’s New Institutional program (1995-2008) aimed
199 to understand causality (how do institutions influence behavior), performance (why do some
200 institutions work and some not) and design (how can one improve institutional design)
201 (Young et al. 1999). The scholarship revealed that ‘justice’ was implicitly addressed via
202 discussions of international cooperation through collective action or social practice models
203 (Young 2001). Collective action models build on the utilitarian logic of consequences by
204 March and Olsen (1998) and focus on the rational actor maximizing net benefits through
205 markets and market-based institutions, preferring smaller governments; this may lead to
206 ‘thin’ market justice (Ehresman & Okereke, 2015).

207 Scholars from the social practice school assessed whether action is appropriate and legitimate
208 and how and which norms become institutionalized through customs or socialization; they
209 call for constraining the market through social movements or through the regulatory
210 authority of a legitimate democratic government. In 2009, the project ended by reviewing
211 institutional scholarship on global environmental change and examining institutional
212 performance, inter alia, in terms of equity (Young, King and Schroeder (eds.) 2008).

213 *Operationalizing justice as access and allocation:* Going beyond how institutions and people interact
214 to solve problems, the follow up Earth System Governance (ESG) project focused on
215 effective, efficient and equitable strategies for managing an increasingly unstable Earth
216 system. ESG operationalized justice into access (to basic resources and services) and
217 allocation of the remaining resources, risks and responsibilities (Biermann et al., 2009; Gupta
218 & Lebel, 2010). A review of ten years of ESG scholarship revealed that issues of access are

² Hundreds of papers cover environmental vulnerability and are excluded here as we focused on papers that explicitly covered the justice issues involved in addressing vulnerability.

219 prioritized over allocation (Kalfagianni & Meisch, 2020; Gupta & Lebel, 2020), not least as
220 access has been included in the 2030 Agenda. This matches our analysis of how Making
221 Peace with Nature addresses access and allocation.

222 *Theorizing Planetary justice*. Most recently, ESG scholars have called for “a fundamental
223 departure from old thinking about justice in 20th century ‘Holocene’ terms” (Biermann et al.,
224 2020, para. 3) and have set up the *Task Force on Planetary Justice Research*. Planetary justice
225 “encompasses traditional concerns of environmental justice but foregrounds that the entire
226 human and non-human world is now at stake, not merely a locality ... goes beyond traditional
227 understandings of ecological justice, which we see as a more ecocentric idea ... [and], in
228 contrast, is concerned with justice among humans as well as between humans and the natural
229 world ... [and] is equally concerned with the global and the local, with state and non-state
230 actors, and with individuals and collectives” (Biermann et al. (2020, para 3). It focuses on
231 social-ecological systems and the resulting moral obligations across geography, time, and the
232 community of life at a local to planetary scale (Biermann & Kalfagianni, 2020; Dirth et al.,
233 2020; Dryzek & Pickering, 2019; Gupta et al., 2021; Hickey & Robeyns, 2020).

234 Legal scholars are increasingly focused on planetary justice in the Anthropocene (Kotzé &
235 Kim, 2019; Pereira, 2014; Cardesa-Salzmann & Cocciolo, 2019; Ebbesson, 2010; Kim &
236 Bosselmann, 2013; Kim & Mackey, 2014; Kotzé, 2019; Kotzé & French, 2018; Lawrence,
237 2014; Stephens, 2019). Kotzé and Kim (2019) conceptualize Earth system law in terms of
238 regulatory object (spanning environmental, ecological and Earth law), and jurisdictional
239 scope (international to planetary). They argue that international environmental law could
240 transform into planetary Earth law through: (a) protecting individuals’ environmental rights,
241 rejecting the ecocentric-anthropocentric dualism in favour of life as social-ecological systems;
242 (b) a future-orientation given unpredictable Anthropocene conditions (Bai et al., 2016); and
243 (c) a move from ecological to geological timescales. Jurisdictional change would see a
244 transformation from a state-centric order through a non-state-centric order to a planetary
245 law paradigm. Other authors call for international environmental law to be embedded within
246 an overarching goal, or *Grundnorm* (Cardesa-Salzmann & Cocciolo, 2019; cf. Kim &
247 Bosselmann, 2013; Kim & Mackey, 2014) as in its absence, international environmental law
248 only manages the externalized risks of our economy and is currently embedded in particular
249 understandings of private property and cost-benefit analysis. They call instead for a global
250 environmental constitution (Kotzé, 2019) and citizenship that is informed by planetary
251 boundaries, the socio-environmental impacts of the global socio-economic metabolism
252 (GSM), human rights and obligations, and global justice. There are also calls for translating
253 planetary boundaries into legal boundaries (Chapron et al., 2017; Stephens 2019). This runs
254 parallel to discussions that *human rights* law requires a new, “Anthropocene-relevant reading”
255 (Hey, 2018) and that the *Declaration on Human Rights and Climate Change* sees human rights as
256 indispensable to addressing climate change (Davies et al., 2017).

257 However, this growing convergence in global environmental assessments and scholarship on
258 the need to incorporate justice concerns in the governance of global environmental problems
259 has often been lost in discussions about what exactly is justice and has not always been
260 accompanied by actionable, pragmatic suggestions as to how humanity might equitably share
261 its ecospace through the existing international institutional architecture. The next section
262 aims to address this gap.

263 4. Conceptualizing Earth system justice as a way to share ecospace

264 4.1 Multiple perspectives on justice

265 Justice is an essentially plural and multi-dimensional concept (Kalfagianni & Meisch, 2020).
 266 Whereas some promote core common elements of justice (Wells, 2008), others argue for
 267 plurality in justice (Schlosberg, 2007) and call for critical climate justice scholarship to
 268 “reframe mainstream debates to usher in critical attention to social impacts, outcomes, and
 269 justice concerns” (Sultana 2021, p. 118). Moreover, while some scholars focus on the local
 270 level and critique the opaqueness and risks of global policies (Boelens et al., 2018; Hulme,
 271 2020; Lövbrand et al., 2015), others argue that in the Anthropocene one must also consider
 272 global justice issues (Kotzé & Kim, 2019). Straddling both of these divides, we argue below
 273 that global environmental degradation and increasing inequality are best addressed by
 274 identifying some common elements of justice, which are both capable of cultural, religious,
 275 and philosophical contextual adaptation and exist within a broader framework of multiple
 276 value systems in order to ensure a stable Earth for human and non-human species’ well-
 277 being. Such core values need to focus on how humans collectively share the ecospace.

278 We argue here in favor of an Earth system justice (ESJ) approach (Gupta et al. 2023) that
 279 builds on the consensus justice ideas as developed within MPN — environmental
 280 degradation undermining SDG achievement and exacerbating vulnerability, and the need to
 281 reduce inequality through providing access to minimum resources, changing production and
 282 consumption patterns, and promoting just transformations (see 2). We also recognize ideas
 283 emerging from global governance scholarship in terms of the need to operationalize through:
 284 finding grundnorms, enabling access and allocation, and recognizing the role of collective
 285 action and social practice models in solutions (see 3). Here we argue that an ESJ approach
 286 needs to start from defining safe and just planetary boundaries that then define an ecospace.
 287 It subsequently needs to meet minimum needs within such an ecospace. The remaining
 288 ecospace then needs to be allocated according to some fair principles. Clearly this will not
 289 be easy, as there may be legal (e.g. property rights to water, secretive investor-state contracts,
 290 unregulated privatization and land grabbing etc.), political (e.g. erosion of democracy, the
 291 rise of the far right), socio-cultural (marketing that promotes a consumer culture), and
 292 economic (the problem of stranded resources, technological and infrastructural lock-in,
 293 flawed metrics of growth) barriers. Below we define a shared ecospace (see Figure 2).

294 4.2 Defining the ecospace: Earth system boundaries and the 3 I’s of justice

295 Environmental scholars show that, following present consumption patterns, environmental
 296 degradation, and population trends, the world’s ecospace is limited. But how limited is it?
 297 That depends on whether we take an anthropocentric perspective or go beyond it, rejecting
 298 human exceptionalism. Beyond anthropocentrism, there is scholarship on what humans owe
 299 other species and their relationship with other species. Non-anthropocentric justice can be
 300 grouped into justice that is owed to other beings that can ‘feel’ (sentientism); justice for all
 301 living beings (biocentrism), and justice which includes all biotic communities and ecosystems
 302 (ecocentrism). Anthropocentric justice, on the other hand, focuses on justice between
 303 generations (intergenerational), within generations (intragenerational), between fellow
 304 citizens (nationalist), between states (international), and between individuals irrespective of
 305 domicile (global).

306 Building on this rich tradition, we argue that if ESJ is to enable discussions on how the global
 307 ecospace is to be shared, its scope should minimally encompass “3 I’s” (Gupta et al., 2023)
 308 – interspecies justice (Burke & Fishel, 2020) and Earth system stability (I1); intergenerational

309 justice (I2) (Meyer, 2021), and intragenerational justice (I3) (Okereke, 2006); the latter can be
 310 further conceptualized to include international (Blake & Smith, 2021), inter-community, and
 311 individual justice (Kahl, 2022). An intersectional justice lens (see Amorim-Maia et al., 2022)
 312 can be further used to focus attention on marginalized groups in both inter- and
 313 intragenerational justice considerations.

314 [Figure 2]

315 It is essential to ensure that humans live in harmony with Mother Earth, respecting nature's
 316 limits and processes. Thus, our scope of justice includes justice to other species and Earth
 317 system stability to ensure the continuation of life-support systems as well as recognizing their
 318 existence value (interspecies justice and Earth system stability) (I1). Since we need to live in
 319 harmony with species and ecosystems, this requires setting boundaries (e.g. with respect to
 320 land and water use) from local to global levels; hence we focus on Earth system boundaries
 321 (ESBs) and not just planetary boundaries. This may not, however, protect all species and
 322 ecosystems adequately, as we are in the midst of the sixth biodiversity extinction event.
 323 Moreover, we found it more fruitful to inductively, rather than deductively, operationalize
 324 'interspecies justice and Earth system stability' through discussions with experts in the
 325 different biophysical domains – climate change, water, nutrients, aerosols – based on their
 326 own scholarship. This led to domain specific analysis – on climate change the focus was on
 327 avoiding tipping points; on groundwater it was to remain within recharge levels; on the
 328 biosphere it was based on recognizing that too many injustices had already occurred to other
 329 species and ecosystems and we have to find boundaries at both global and per square
 330 kilometre level. This was not a philosophical exercise, but a pragmatic operationalization
 331 based on existing scholarship and expert judgement.

332 Second, the scope of ESJ concerns duties between past, present and future generations in
 333 order to account for the temporal dimensions and trade-offs related to resource use and
 334 environmental degradation. This is captured within intergenerational justice (I2). This can be
 335 further operationalized into different components, including determining whether the
 336 boundaries are just.

337 Third, ESJ includes attention to intragenerational justice or justice in the here and now.
 338 Generally, this refers to the need to prioritize the needs of the poor and of developing
 339 countries (e.g. see Rio Principle 6; the right to development) and attention to issues of
 340 allocation. It includes (a) international justice or justice between nations; (b) inter-community
 341 justice focuses on justice within and between local communities; and (c) individual justice
 342 focuses on justice for individuals from the human rights perspective.

343 We use the 3 I's to assess proposals for Earth system boundaries. We ask: do Earth system
 344 boundaries minimize significant harm to other species and/or ensure Earth system stability
 345 (I1), minimize or otherwise address significant harm from past generations to current ones
 346 (I2a) and from current ones to future generations (I2b), and how do present generations
 347 minimize harm to each other (I3)? In principle, boundaries that meet the I1 criteria also meet
 348 the I2b criteria in protecting the stability of the Earth for future generations, but may not
 349 adequately meet the criteria of protecting present generations from past harm (I2a). This
 350 means that the I1 criteria may have to be sharpened or complemented with other standards
 351 to reduce or address significant harm to current generations. The boundaries often may not
 352 meet the I3 criteria of protecting individuals, communities and countries from harm.
 353 Defining what is significant harm is challenging given that millions of people are harmed
 354 today from environmental degradation. We note that our I1, I2 and I3 criteria cannot reduce
 355 harm to *all* people and *all* species/ecosystems as the levels of harm today are already

356 exceedingly high. Leaving no one behind is becoming increasingly impossible from a harm
357 perspective. Moreover, making space for future generations is likely to require heavy
358 sacrifices from current generations.

359 **4.3 Sharing the ecospace: Guaranteeing minimum access to resources**

360

361 The identification of boundaries limits the available local to global ecospace and may even
362 shrink this ecospace over time. Hence, we operationalize substantive justice in terms of
363 access and allocation of resources (Gupta & Lebel, 2020). We take a prioritarian approach to
364 justice to argue for ensuring minimum access rights without placing additional pressures on
365 the Earth system (Fanning et al., 2021; Hickel, 2019; O'Neill et al., 2018; Rammelt et al.,
366 2022). Such minimum access enables humans to have a dignified life and even escape from
367 poverty and flourish and may enhance the adaptive capacity of people to environmental
368 threats (Greksch & Klock, 2020). Moreover, the inability of many to access basic resources
369 and services such as clean air and water, energy, and health care can be attributed to systemic
370 exploitation, discrimination, and exclusion of these people from the benefits of development.
371 Such minimum access can be a first step in sharing ecospace in line with the aspirations of
372 the Millennium and Sustainable Development Goals and the longstanding human rights
373 tradition. In our ESJ research we have operationalized such minimum needs and calculated
374 its impacts on boundaries. Our thought experiment shows, however, that meeting minimum
375 needs in the unequal world of 2018 led to further crossing planetary boundaries even though
376 the emissions of the 3 billion people at the bottom was not more than that of the top 1-4%
377 (Rammelt et al. 2022). This implies that without redistributing the available resources it will
378 be impossible to meet these social goals within Earth system boundaries.

379 **4.4 Sharing the ecospace: Equitable allocation of the remaining resources and** 380 **related responsibilities**

381 However, rules to allocate resources often hamper access. Scarce resources become
382 expensive in the market. Private sector engagement in sanitation services, for example, has
383 made access to affordable services difficult (Dellas, 2011). The financialization of the food
384 sector has led to food price volatility and reorientation towards export markets which affects
385 food affordability (Galaz, 2014; Schroeder 2014), and the extraterritorial impacts of biofuel
386 policies in e.g. Europe have led to changes in land use in exporting countries (Lima & Gupta,
387 2014). Sharing ecospace will also require discussions regarding how transboundary waters
388 can be allocated between riparian states. The 1997 UN Watercourses Convention
389 recommends equitable and optimal utilization of the waters and has unpacked this into
390 several criteria; yet many countries are reluctant to engage in such equitable sharing (see e.g.
391 Onencan & de Walle, 2018). Sharing ecospace on climate change requires an understanding
392 of how the limited greenhouse gas emissions should be allocated between countries and how
393 the risk of stranded assets is to be shared (Gupta et al., 2020).

394 Thus, sharing ecospace via markets, trade and investment is challenging (Gonenc et al.,
395 2020). There is growing evidence of how Northern countries are selling their wastes to the
396 South – plastics, electronics (Cotta, 2020), old ships and so on – since it is ‘cheaper’ to do so
397 despite huge environmental consequences. Trade rules affect resource use and allocation
398 worldwide, and often environmental protection is only supported when it also facilitates
399 open trade (Kim, 2016); moreover, trade itself has major environmental impacts (Conca,
400 2000). Investments tend to be directed at high economic returns and have led to greater
401 investment in fossil fuel (Gupta et al., 2020), in harmful use of pesticides (Schroeder, 2014),

402 and the promotion of a wasteful, consumption-oriented economy (Ehresman & Okereke,
403 2015).

404 Sharing ecospace equitably involves tackling three key drivers of Earth system change and
405 vulnerability: inequality, overconsumption, and harmful accumulation and investment. While
406 environmental scholarship has paid considerably less attention to the rich rather than the
407 poor (Otto, 2019), we argue that a better balance must be struck. Addressing the corrosive
408 effect of increasing inequality on people's ability to share ecospace can include both pre-
409 distributive (minimum wages rules; free education; rent controls; antitrust laws etc.) and re-
410 distributive measures (tax justice, debt justice for climate reparations (Táíwò & Bigger, 2022))
411 (Chancel et al., 2022). Overconsumption can begin to be addressed by encouraging
412 discussions on the idea of limitarian justice. The idea of economic limitarianism (Robeyns,
413 2019) is that no one should hold surplus money, defined as the money that one has in
414 addition to what is needed for a fully flourishing life. It is argued that a world in which no
415 one would be above this "riches lines" would be a better world. We propose reframing and
416 extending this concept to not only refer to money, but also to key natural resources such as
417 water, food, energy, and living infrastructure. In line with Robeyns (2019), we propose that
418 when surplus resources no longer contribute to people's wellbeing and negatively affect the
419 wellbeing of others, their consumption may be limited in order to meet urgent unmet needs
420 and finance actions that tackle planetary degradation; the latter have higher urgency from an
421 evolving human rights perspective than the desires of the rich for luxurious lifestyles. Lastly,
422 greater scrutiny and accountability is needed in order to monitor and govern harmful
423 accumulation and investment, including accumulation by dispossession (Mrozowski, 2019),
424 accumulation without dispossession (e.g. rising developing country debt, contract farming in
425 many countries) (Shrimali, 2016), and, most recently, reparative accumulation (e.g. some
426 instances of green finance) (Cohen et al., 2021). This process of redistribution of the global
427 ecospace may therefore also entail a reframing of who owes what to whom, as it is also
428 increasingly being argued in the climate domain.

429 **4.5 Sharing the ecospace: Equitable allocation of responsibilities with respect to** 430 **harm caused**

431 Those who are most affected by negative environmental impacts are often those least
432 responsible for them. Therefore, equitably assigning responsibilities for remedying
433 vulnerability and exposure to such impacts is important to prevent the burden of action from
434 quietly shifting to those suffering from environmental harm (Pichler et al., 2017). It is urgent
435 to critically reinsert the principle of no significant harm in the global political agenda. This
436 principle was not adopted in the climate change and biodiversity conventions and the 2030
437 Agenda. However, it is very much part of international water law. Concretely, responsibility
438 for harm could involve preventative measures (principles of precaution, due diligence,
439 environmental standards, environmental and health impact assessments, notification of
440 planned measures, prior informed consent, disaster risk reduction etc.) (Raftopoulos &
441 Short, 2019) as well as restorative ones (compensation, reparation, injunctive relief that stops
442 an activity causing harm, liability, extended producer responsibility, allocation of loss and
443 damage, and adaptation) (Schmeier & Gupta, 2020).

444 445 5. Conclusion

446 The closely connected challenges of planetary degradation and increasing inequality have led
447 environmental scholarship and global assessments to increasingly call for environmental and
448 planetary justice and just transformations. Yet these calls often do not offer the necessary

449 concrete suggestions as to how humanity's limited environmental utilization space (ecospace)
450 might be equitably shared. We suggest that an equitable sharing of ecospace might depend
451 on doing politics differently under a new ethical paradigm: Earth system justice. Earth system
452 justice foregrounds the importance of critical engagement with Earth system boundaries in
453 light of interspecies justice and Earth system stability, intergenerational, and intragenerational
454 justice concerns; local through to global efforts to meet the minimum resource needs of all;
455 and an equitable redistribution of resources, rights, and responsibilities that focuses on
456 addressing the drivers of inequality, overconsumption, and harmful accumulation and the
457 reinsertion of the no significant harm principle in the global political agenda as part of a new
458 Glocal Constitutionalism.

459

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467

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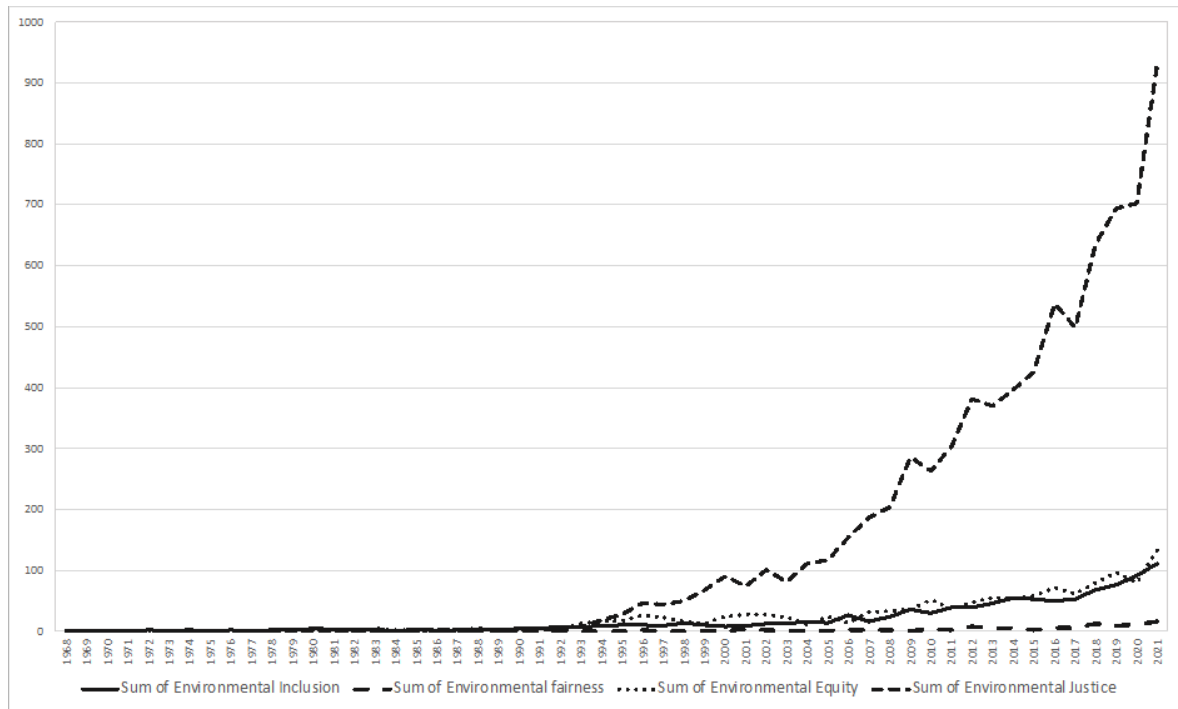
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759 Figures

760 Figure 1. Rising scholarship on environmental justice

761



762 Note: The search was conducted on SCOPUS for the period 1968-2021 using the following search terms in
 763 titles, abstracts, and keywords: “environmental justice,” “environmental fairness,” “environmental equity,”
 764 and “environmental inclusion.”

765

766 Figure 2. The scope of Earth system justice: Safe and just boundaries, minimum access and
 767 just allocation of remaining resources, risks and responsibilities

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