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2 chain management, human rights due diligence, coproduction, resilience thinking, emancipatory  
3 scholarship.

4 **Article classification:** Conceptual paper

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## 6 **1. Introduction**

7         The worsening environmental crisis is also a ‘inequity crisis’ (Gualandris et al., 2024). The  
8 burdens of our environmentally unsustainable economic system fall disproportionately on those  
9 least responsible for it, that is, marginalized communities, vulnerable groups and the world’s poor  
10 (Kashwan et al., 2020; Martinez-Alier, et al., 2014; Versey, 2021). This fundamental unfairness  
11 has led to a ‘justice turn’ in public discourses on sustainability (Biermann and Kalfagianni, 2020).  
12 The calls for our global political economy to be transformed in line with environmental justice  
13 (EJ) are increasing in number and volume. Perhaps the loudest of these calls is for climate justice  
14 (UN, 2022) but there are many more calls for EJ being made, for example, for water justice and  
15 for justice in relation to waste disposal, transportation, food, land-system change and land rights  
16 (Martinez-Alier et al., 2014). Despite supply chains being a major driver of environmental  
17 injustices (Global Witness, 2020; 2022), EJ remains a marginal concern for SSCM scholarship.

18         EJ has emerged as the pre-eminent discourse for understanding and acting on the  
19 inequitable distribution of environmental impacts and risks (Martinez-Alier et al., 2014;  
20 Schlosberg, 2007). EJ, as we will see later, was a key goal for the original articulation of the Triple  
21 Bottom Line (TBL) framework that has been central for SSCM scholarship since Carter and  
22 Rogers (2008). However, it has been left to other fields, such as Geography and Political Ecology  
23 (Lai et al., 2021; Matthews and Silva, 2024), to shed light on the environmental injustices caused

1 by supply chain activity. This paper attempts to reverse this trend by arguing that EJ should be a  
2 central concern for SSCM (Matthews and Silva, 2024).

3 Grounded in the discourse of EJ, this conceptual article reflects on how SSCM scholarship  
4 can contribute to eliminating local and global environmental injustices. By offering a non-  
5 instrumental approach to environmental sustainability, EJ will ensure that SSCM has equity as its  
6 central concern, incorporating the political aspects of supply chain activity and ensuring that the  
7 perspectives of vulnerable and marginalized supply chain stakeholders, such as local communities,  
8 indigenous peoples, environmental defenders and lower-tier suppliers, are incorporated into SSCM  
9 strategies (Touboulic et al., 2020).

10 The paper is structured as follows. After this introduction, we provide an overview of  
11 concepts related to SSCM and EJ. This theoretical background section helps us provide a concept  
12 for ‘environmentally just supply chains’ (see Section 2.3). Next, we elaborate on three pathways  
13 that can be used to operationalize environmental just supply chains. Finally, we outline the main  
14 implications of this study are before concluding the article with some reflections on the limitations  
15 of the paper and ideas for future research.

16

## 17 **2. Theoretical background: Environmentally just supply chains**

18 EJ initially seems like a novel and challenging concept for SSCM scholarship, but in this  
19 section, we ground it in familiar SSCM concepts, starting with the TBL framework.

20

### 21 **2.1 Revisiting the Triple Bottom Line (TBL)**

22 The TBL has been central to SSCM scholarship since Carter and Rogers’ (2008) seminal  
23 article. Although EJ has been a peripheral concern for SSCM theory and practice (Matthews and

1 Silva, 2024), it was an important concept within Elkington’s (1997) original presentation of the  
2 TBL framework (see Figure 1a). If, as Carter and Rogers (2008) argue, ‘true’ sustainability requires  
3 delivering against all three bottom lines, EJ should be a key concern for the theory and practice of  
4 SSCM.

5 Figure 1a represents the TBL in its original formulation with each bottom line represented  
6 with their original names. The three bottom-lines are presented hierarchically with environmental  
7 quality being the ‘ultimate bottom line’ (Elkington, 1997: p.73). This is consistent with nested  
8 models of sustainability, such as Montabon et al.’s (2016) SSCM framework that is based on an  
9 ‘ecologically dominant’ logic.

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11

**[Insert Figures 1a and 1b]**

12

**Figures 1a and 1b. The original formulation of the TBL (based on Elkington, 1997).**

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**[Insert Figure 2]**

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**Figure 2. The three ‘shear zones’ of the TBL (based on Elkington, 1997).**

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Much SSCM scholarship has been done within shear zones 1 and 2, helping us understand the economic benefits of action on environmental and social sustainability (Miemczyk and Luzzini, 2018). However, SSCM scholarship in shear zone 3 on the relationship between social and environmental sustainability remains a peripheral concern for SSCM scholarship. An example of SSCM scholarship in shear zone 3 is the emergent theorization of socio-ecological systems (Gualandris et al., 2024; Silva et al., 2023; Wieland, 2021) but to date the socio-ecological systems lens has not been explicitly linked to EJ.

As can be seen from Figure 2, EJ emerges at the shear zone between the ‘social justice’ and ‘environmental quality’ bottom lines. Social justice can broadly be understood as the equitable distribution of goods (resources, freedoms and opportunities) within society, which EJ extends to the include environmental goods and bads (Bullard, 1996; Elkington, 1997). There is a mutually reinforcing relationship between social justice and EJ as social justice cannot be achieved if there are environmental injustices and the inequitable distribution of environmental harms and risks both reflects and exacerbates broader social injustices, such as racism and poverty (Elkington, 1997; Schlosberg, 2013) and gender inequalities (McKinney and Wright, 2023). The presentation of EJ within the original formulation of the TBL (Elkington, 1997) drew on the theory and practice of EJ at the time of writing but the EJ literature has expanded and evolved significantly since 1997. We will draw upon this literature in the next section to better explain EJ.

**2.2 Environmental Justice (EJ): Schlosberg’s ‘integrative’ framework**

EJ is articulated when marginalized and vulnerable communities as well as social movements struggle against environmental injustices (Foster et al., 2024). These injustices are

1 experienced in a wide variety of ways, using grassroots conceptualizations of EJ that have been  
2 developed outside of academia (Martinez-Alier et al, 2014). As a result, EJ is a ‘heterogeneous’  
3 discourse’ (Schlosberg, 2007, p.5) as different communities and social movements will articulate  
4 their experiences of environmental injustice differently. Indeed, communities and movements  
5 ‘often employ multiple conceptions of justice simultaneously’ (Schlosberg, 2007, p.5). EJ is  
6 therefore what is known as an essentially contested concept, that is, an inherently pluralistic  
7 concept upon which there can never be consensus (Gallie, 1956; Ehrenfeld, 2008; Matthews and  
8 Silva, 2024).

9         Despite the inherent plurality and ambiguity of the EJ discourse, Schlosberg (2007; 2013)  
10 believes that there are commonalities among global EJ struggles. Inspired by the works of Fraser,  
11 Honneth, Sen and Young on social justice, Schlosberg (2007) presents an ‘integrative’ framework  
12 for EJ that synthesizes the following four dimensions: distribution, procedure, recognition and  
13 capabilities. These dimensions of justice will be familiar to many SSCM scholars (for example,  
14 see Fia and Sacconi, 2019; Huo et al., 2016; Narasimhan et al., 2013; Stephens et al., 2024) but  
15 are here considered in relation to EJ.

16         Table 1 presents the four dimensions of Schlosberg’s (2007; 2013) EJ framework with  
17 definitions and links to relevant literature on social justice and EJ. Henceforth, these dimensions  
18 will be referred to as the dimensions of EJ. Schlosberg (2007; 2013) argues that communities and  
19 movements will draw on one or more of these dimensions in their struggles against environmental  
20 injustices depending on the context-specific nature of the EJ conflict. Schlosberg’s (2007) EJ  
21 framework argues that the inequitable distribution of environmental risks and harms are shaped by  
22 recognitional injustices and that the struggles for equitable distribution and recognition occur in  
23 the procedural arena. Further, Schlosberg (2007; 2013), drawing on the work of Sen (2001), adopts

1 a ‘capabilities approach’ to EJ that expands the concept of environmental ‘goods’ to include more  
2 than just resources to also include rights, freedoms and opportunities. A capabilities approach shifts  
3 the emphasis from reducing environmental injustices to seeing EJ as essential for the flourishing  
4 of individuals and their communities (Schlosberg, 2007; 2013).

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6

**[Insert Table 1]**

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**Table 1. The four dimensions of environmental justice (Source: Own elaboration).**

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9 Within the original formulation of the TBL, human rights are an important element of EJ  
10 (Elkington, 1997) and cuts across the four dimensions of EJ (Schlosberg, 2007). Distribution  
11 includes the distribution of human rights (Schlosberg, 2007) and environmental injustice leads to  
12 an inequitable distribution of human rights (Adeola, 2001; 2017). Human rights are an important  
13 aspect of recognition and the ‘denial of rights’ caused by environmental injustices is a form of  
14 ‘disrespect’. Capabilities include freedoms and human rights, such as ‘participatory rights’  
15 (Schlosberg, 2007, p.34) and are a prerequisite for enjoying our human rights. In the absence of a  
16 healthy environment, individuals and communities lack the capabilities to enjoy their human  
17 rights, for example, the right to food can only be enjoyed when we have functioning ecosystems  
18 that can provide that food (Knox, 2018).

19 It is increasingly understood that our human rights ultimately depend upon healthy, resilient  
20 ecosystems and that individuals and communities exercising their human rights to oppose  
21 environmental injustice is essential to ensure environmental sustainability (Knox, 2018; UN, 2022,  
22 UNDP, 2024). There are two approaches that can be used to understand human rights obligations  
23 in relation to EJ. First, there are ‘environmental rights’, which consist of explicit rights that

1 individuals have to a healthy environment (UN, 2022). Second, there is the ‘greening’ of our  
2 existing human rights (Knox, 2018), which states that we cannot enjoy our human rights without  
3 a healthy environment. For example, the right to life for many people is threatened by climate  
4 change (*Ibid.*).

5         Those people exercising their human rights to oppose environmental injustice are *de facto*  
6 human rights defenders (HRDs), defined as ‘people who, individually or with others, act to  
7 promote or protect human rights in a peaceful manner’ (OHCHR, 2024, n.p.). Specifically, HRDs  
8 concerned with environmental rights are classified as Environmental Rights Defenders, defined by  
9 the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) as those ‘individuals and groups who, in  
10 their personal or professional capacity and in a peaceful manner, strive to protect and promote  
11 human rights relating to the environment, including water, air, land, flora and fauna’ (UNEP, 2016,  
12 p.4).

13         The consideration of rights also links to the related concept of ‘rights of nature’, which  
14 calls for ecosystems such as rivers to be given rights, for example, the Whanganui River in New  
15 Zealand which was given the status of a ‘legal person’ in 2017 (Kramm, 2020). The argument is  
16 that by giving ecosystems the rights of legal persons, this will protect them and enhance the rights  
17 of those people that depend on them, for example, supporting the right to food and water, and  
18 therefore the right to life, of the Māori tribes that live along the Whanganui River (Butler, 2020).

19         SSCM scholarship on EJ will be sensitive to the justice demands made by social  
20 movements and their concerns with the impacts of global supply chains practices on the lives of  
21 marginalized people (Martinez-Alier, 2002). SSCM scholars adopting this approach to EJ will  
22 acknowledge the pluralistic nature of justice in environmental struggles, producing context-  
23 specific analyses to understand and support the EJ demands of affected supply chain stakeholders



1 and businesses responding to them (Martin et al., 2016; Martinez-Alier et al., 2016; Sikor and  
2 Newell, 2014). The need to produce context-specific analyses also has implications in terms of the  
3 level of analysis to be adopted by SSCM scholars using an EJ lens. Specific EJ struggles will  
4 require different levels of analysis, for example, river-based pollution and deforestation may be  
5 studied at the level of local communities but issues such as climate change affects the whole Earth  
6 System (Steffen et al., 2015) and its impacts will vary from region to region (IPCC, 2021). The  
7 ways in which supply chains contribute to these different environmental injustices will vary, which  
8 will also have implications for how they are remedied.

9

### 10 **2.3. Towards environmentally just supply chains**

11 In Sections 2.1 and 2.2 above, EJ was linked to familiar concepts used by SSCM scholars,  
12 namely the TBL (Carter and Rogers, 2008), theories of justice (Fia and Sacconi, 2019; Huo et al.,  
13 2016; Stephens et al., 2024) and human rights (Hofman et al., 2018). In this section, we present  
14 the concept of the ‘environmentally just supply chain’, which expands the responsibilities of  
15 SSCM to include EJ. Building on Schlosberg’s (2007; 2013) EJ framework, the ‘environmentally  
16 just supply chain’ is defined as *a supply chain that supports an equitable distribution of  
17 environmental goods, according to the principles of procedural and recognitional justice to  
18 support the capabilities of all its stakeholders to flourish.*

19 The concept of the environmentally just supply chain contributes to the emergent  
20 theorization of transformative SSCM, which aims to broaden the scope of our scholarship from  
21 incrementalist, harm reduction approaches to a radical approach that fundamentally rethinks how  
22 supply chain are organized as well as the broader political economy within which they are  
23 embedded (Knight et al., 2022; Matos et al., 2024; Wieland, 2021). Transformative SSCM adopts

1 a problematization approach to instrumental logic that sees sustainability as a means to improve  
2 operational and financial performance, seeing it as unable to drive the systemic changes needed to  
3 create an equitable environmentally sustainable political economy (Gold and Schleper, 2017;  
4 Gualandris et al., 2024; Matthews et al., 2016).

5 The concept of environmentally just supply chain contributes to scholarship on  
6 transformative SSCM by reconceiving the obligations of SSCM in line with the concept of the  
7 ‘just supply chain’ (New, 1997) and Matthews and Silva’s (2024) conceptualization of ‘supply  
8 chain justice’. This is an ethical approach to SCM that places a greater importance on the  
9 distribution of benefits and harms of supply chain activity than on conventional conceptualizations  
10 of supply chain performance, such as efficiency, flexibility and responsiveness (*Ibid.*). This  
11 approach is consistent with the view of justice as equity (Rawls, 1971), with (New, 1997, p.20)  
12 arguing that ‘a benefit to one [stakeholder] does not permit an injustice to another’. The ethical  
13 principle of equity similarly informs the environmentally just supply chain with trade-offs between  
14 environmental injustice and supply chain performance considered unacceptable.

15 EJ, like sustainability more broadly (Matthews et al., 2016), needs to be conceptualized as  
16 a multi-level phenomenon (Matthews and Silva, 2024). The calls for EJ from communities,  
17 movements, non-governmental organizations and the United Nations will be contested at other  
18 levels, for example, by regional and national levels of government pursuing economic growth and  
19 development (Luzzini et al., 2024). Supply chains will inevitably be subject to pressures from  
20 multiple levels, as well as the pressure to deliver against conventional supply chain performance  
21 criteria (Gualandris et al., 2024).

22 These tensions may in some cases be articulated as tensions between different communities  
23 in relation to environmental issues (Chamanara et al., 2021). For instance, the tensions between

1 those communities that supported deforestation in the Brazilian Amazon, seeing it as an  
2 opportunity to see the perceived benefits of development, by integrating the deforested lands into  
3 supply chains (for example for beef), and those communities seeing deforestation as an  
4 environmental injustice, threatening their traditions and livelihoods (Bales and Sovacool, 2021).  
5 In such contexts where there are tensions within and between communities, what is considered just  
6 will be contested, with EJ seen as unfair for those seeing environmental protection as at odds with  
7 economic growth and development.

8           In extreme cases, the tensions within and between levels will result in violence. In the case  
9 of the Brazilian Amazon, it is alleged that the local police were complicit in deforestation and  
10 violence against those EJ activists and communities opposing it (Phillips, 2017). This is reflected  
11 in EJ conflicts globally, with 177 environmental defenders killed in 2021 on the frontiers of global  
12 commodity supply chains (Global Witness, 2022). According to Gibb's (2020), the governance of  
13 global supply chains often obscures the relationships between resource extraction and violence,  
14 reducing the transparency of global injustices for supply chain stakeholders. In response to this  
15 issue, Butt et al. (2019) developed the concept of the 'supply chain of violence' to capture the  
16 violence experienced by those individuals and communities defending their environmental rights  
17 on the frontiers of global commodity supply chains. Criminal elements are often involved in the  
18 supply chain of violence (Butt et al., 2019; Global Witness, 2021), which links to emergent SSCM  
19 scholarship on the 'criminal supply chain' (Duensing et al., 2023). There are also unfortunate  
20 linkages between unsustainable supply chain activity and modern slavery with slaves being  
21 deployed to destroy ecosystems so that they can be integrated into supply chains (Gold et al., 2015;  
22 Wang and Lofti, 2024).

1           A useful concept for understanding the responsibilities and obligations implied by EJ is  
2 that of ‘societal supply chain risks’. The responsibility of the environmentally just supply chain  
3 extends to preventing, mitigating and remedying ‘societal supply chain risks’, defined as the  
4 ‘unintended consequences that emanate from or materialize within supply chains’ (Duensing et al.,  
5 2023, p.24). Risk here is understood not as a risk to the business caused by supply chain activity  
6 but the risks that a business’ supply chain causes to society (*Ibid.*), which will be especially harmful  
7 for marginalized communities (Schlosberg, 2007). EJ allows SSCM scholars to understand the  
8 social impacts of the environmental harms produced by supply chain activity (Wang and Lofti,  
9 2024), an area of scholarship that has been peripheral to SSCM scholarship.

10           A societal supply chain risk relevant to the concept of the environmentally just supply chain  
11 is the impact of supply chain organization on the resilience of socio-ecological systems (Folke et  
12 al., 2010; Folke et al., 2016; Reyers et al., 2018). Supply chains threaten the resilience of socio-  
13 ecological systems when their activity pushes past their breaking point (Folke et al., 2010). Many  
14 socio-ecological systems lack resilience (Ursino, 2019), often due to ‘socio-ecological traps’,  
15 which are pathologies of socio-ecological systems that lock them into unsustainable trajectories  
16 (Stockholm Resilience Centre, 2016). Due to the economic opportunities presented by exploiting  
17 natural resources, actors within a supply chain may be blinded to the effects on the resilience of  
18 socio-ecological systems that provide those resources (Steneck et al., 2011). This exploitation is  
19 bound up with environmental injustices, which are therefore indicative of a misalignment between  
20 supply chain organization and broader social and ecological systems. In such instances,  
21 incrementalist strategies will likely not be effective in restoring resilience and creating the basis  
22 for EJ (*Ibid.*). EJ is a means to problematize conventional SCM approaches based on supply chain

1 efficiency and responsiveness and transform social-ecological systems in line with the ethical  
2 principle of equity (Gualandris et al., 2024).

3 The social impacts of environmentally unsustainable supply chains are complex and are a  
4 challenge for incrementalist approaches based on harm reduction. Broadening the scope of SSCM  
5 to include EJ responsibilities and obligations is a means to address these challenges and in the next  
6 section, we will look at how these responsibilities and obligations can be operationalized.

7

### 8 **3. Towards environmentally just supply chains: Three transformative pathways**

9 In the previous section, we presented the normative argument that businesses should accept  
10 and act on the **obligations** implied by EJ. However, normative arguments will only change mental  
11 models, behaviours and practices when they are also plausible (Daly, 2015; Nye, 2015). To  
12 increase the plausibility of our normative argument, we show how EJ can be delivered through  
13 emergent SSCM strategies. The criteria for selection were that they had to be existing SSCM  
14 practices that could viably be used to support EJ. In this section, we therefore attempt to bridge  
15 the normative argument for EJ with the practice of SSCM by linking to the following levers for  
16 transformative SSCM: human rights due diligence, resilience thinking and coproduction. Out of  
17 these three SSCM strategies we present three pathways for creating environmentally just supply  
18 chains. The section concludes by considering the linkages between the three pathways.

19

#### 20 **3.1 Pathway 1: Human rights due diligence and EJ**

21 Given the importance of human rights to EJ (Elkington, 1997; OHCHR, 2024; UNDP,  
22 2024), we present a human rights pathway and link this to the existing SSCM practice of human  
23 rights due diligence, henceforth referred to as HRDD (OHCHR, 2011). As we have seen,

1 environmental injustices are bound up with adverse impacts on the rights of individuals and  
2 communities (Elkington, 1997; Scheidel et al., 2018; Schlosberg, 2007) and therefore a human-  
3 rights based approach to EJ is needed that ‘addresses immediate environmental justice needs and  
4 tackles the structural inequalities that cause and perpetuate environmental injustice’ (UNDP, 2024:  
5 n.p). This is consistent with the view that human rights are a fundamental pillar of social justice’  
6 (OHCHR, 2024).

7 A human rights approach to EJ allows businesses to link EJ with their existing  
8 commitments to respect human rights within supply chains (OHCHR, 2011). HRDD is an existing  
9 SSCM practice that many businesses are in the process of operationalizing (Schrempf-Stirling and  
10 Van Buren III, 2024; Smit et al., 2021). The overarching human rights framework for businesses  
11 is the United Nations Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights (OHCHR, 2011),  
12 commonly referred to as the UNGPs, which can be used as a ‘practical framework for translating  
13 environmental justice into sustainable business practice’ (Okai, 2022). Despite its increasing  
14 importance for supply chain practitioners, for example in relation to labour rights, modern slavey  
15 and child labour (Sherman, 2020), the UNGPs have rarely been researched in SSCM scholarship,  
16 although they have been linked to SCM by scholars from other fields (e.g., Schilling-Vacaflor and  
17 Gustafsson, 2024; Weisert, 2018). This is unfortunate, however, as the UNGPs represent an  
18 important lever for potentially transformative change within supply chains (Hofman et al., 2018;  
19 Sarfaty and Deberdt, 2023).

20 HRDD refers to a management process used to ‘identify, prevent, mitigate, and account for  
21 how [businesses] address their adverse human rights impacts’ (OHCHR, 2011, p.17). The HRDD  
22 should include ‘assessing actual and potential human rights impacts, integrating and acting upon  
23 the findings, tracking responses, and communicating how impacts are addressed’ (*Ibid.*). HDRR

1 goes beyond simply identifying and managing material risks to the business itself, to include the  
2 effects of societal supply chain risks on rights-holders and needs to be conducted at the start of  
3 new SC activities, relationships and contracts (*Ibid.*). The scope of the business' HRDD will be  
4 defined by a policy commitment to respect human rights (*Ibid.*). When expanded to include supply  
5 chain contributions towards environmental injustices, HRDD processes support distributive justice  
6 by preventing and remedy inequitable distributions of environmental harms and risks.

7 To support EJ, businesses should include environmental rights within their human rights  
8 policy. As EJ is bound up with physical violence against individuals and communities opposing  
9 environmental injustices (Butt et al., 2019), businesses should make a public commitment to  
10 respect the human rights of Environmental Rights Defenders (ERDs). This should then be assessed  
11 and acted upon through their HRDD processes. This is consistent with recognition justice as it  
12 recognizes communities affected by environmental injustices and ERDs not simply as stakeholders  
13 but as rights-holders and considers the violence that can result from non-recognition and  
14 misrecognition.

15 In those instances where HRDD has identified adverse human rights impacts in relation to  
16 environmental rights and environmental defenders, remedy will be needed (OHCHR, 2011). For  
17 those affected by environmental injustices caused by supply chain activity, businesses should have  
18 operational-level grievance mechanisms to capture those impacts and understand how those  
19 impacted would like the situation to be remedied (OHCHR, 2011). Remedying environmental  
20 injustices for supply chain stakeholders includes ensuring 'access to justice', which may refer to  
21 the following: The feeling that justice has been done in the case of effective remedy; effective  
22 judicial remedy; and resolving broader issues, e.g. political, economic and social factors, that  
23 contributed to an environmental injustice (UN, 2024).

1           It is not a widely adopted practice for HRDD to assess environmental rights and impacts  
2 on environmental defenders but there are a number of businesses that support EJ through their  
3 human rights strategy. Coca-Cola has a policy to protect the land rights of traditional and  
4 indigenous communities. As part of this policy, they have adopted a zero-tolerance stance on ‘land  
5 grabs’ within their supply chains, which is monitored through ‘third-party social, environmental  
6 and human rights assessments of its suppliers’ (Corpwatch, 2022). As land-grabs are a major driver  
7 of environmental injustices (Anguelovski and Martinez-Alier, 2014), this policy indirectly  
8 supports EJ.

9           We are also aware of three businesses that have human rights policies that explicitly respect  
10 the rights of environmental defenders: Del Monte Philippines, Kellogg’s and Rio Tinto (BHRRC,  
11 2020). These examples come from the Business and Human Rights Resource Centre’s ‘Business  
12 Policies & statements that mention Human Rights Defenders & civic freedoms’ (BHRRC, 2020).  
13 ‘In their Human Rights Policy’, Del Monte Philippines states they ‘shall not tolerate threats,  
14 harassment or attacks against human rights and environmental defenders’ (BHRRC, 2020, p.2).  
15 Kellogg’s Supplier Code of Conduct ‘states’ that ‘[s]uppliers shall not engage in any form of  
16 retaliation including threats, intimidation, physical, or legal attacks against human or  
17 environmental rights defenders’ (BHRRC, 2020, p.4). Rio Tinto states in their document on the  
18 ‘Role of civil society organisations’ that they ‘recognise the particular risks faced by human rights  
19 and environmental defenders, respect their human rights and make it clear that attacks on them  
20 will not be accepted, including when we engage with our business partners.’ (BHRRC, 2020,  
21 p.25).

22           While the four businesses used as examples could go further in relation to EJ, they can be  
23 seen as adopting elements of a preventative human rights approach to environmental injustice.



1 There are also reasons to believe that EJ will become an important part of HRDD in the future,  
2 such as the growth of the environmental justice movement, the mainstreaming of the climate  
3 justice cause, high-profile legal action against environmental injustices, such as the landmark  
4 *Lungowe v. Verdanta Resources plc* case (Ojeda, 2020), and the new EU Corporate Sustainability  
5 Due Diligence Directive that will require businesses to conduct appropriate human rights and  
6 environmental due diligence, including within their supply chains. (European Union, 2024).  
7 Further, complementary guidance to the UNGPs is being provided that connects HRDD explicitly  
8 with environmental issues. The UN Working Group on Business and Human Rights (2023) has  
9 produced an ‘Information Note on Climate Change and the UNGPs’ and the UNDP (2023) has  
10 recently developed guidelines for ‘human rights due diligence with an environmental perspective’  
11 (HRDD+E). These are all developments that present opportunities for SSCM scholarship using an  
12 EJ lens.

13

### 14 **3.2 Pathway 2: Resilience thinking, EJ and socio-ecological systems**

15 Our second pathway concerns the resilience of socio-ecological systems, an emergent area  
16 of scholarship within SSCM (Gualandris et al., 2024; Silva et al., 2023; Wieland, 2021),  
17 specifically through the adoption of ‘resilience thinking’, which is concerned with the three aspects  
18 of resilience: persistence, adaptability and transformability (Folke et al., 2010). Resilience thinking  
19 understands that the persistence of social-ecological systems depends on adaptability and  
20 transformability, with the later needed when systems become untenable (*Ibid.*).

21 Key to resilience thinking is the idea that small scale changes within a social-ecological  
22 system can lead to larger scale transformations throughout the system (Folke et al., 2010). This  
23 heightens the transformative potential of SSCM strategies operationalizing the environmentally

1 just supply chain. There is an emergent literature on SSCM strategies that operationalize resilience  
2 thinking to restore and regenerate social-ecological systems (Gualandris et al., 2024; Urzedo et al,  
3 2022). Such strategies are needed to remedy and prevent environmental injustices by increasing  
4 the resilience of social-ecological systems (Urzedo et al, 2022).

5 Many SSCM strategies are focussed on mitigation, that is, strategies that reduce or prevent  
6 the negative environmental impacts of a supply chain (Matthews et al., 2016) but for many  
7 environmental issues mitigation will not be enough to remedy the environmental injustices caused  
8 by unsustainable social-ecological systems (Stockholm Resilience Centre, 2016). In the case of  
9 climate change, which is one of the greatest threats to the sustainability of social-ecological  
10 systems globally, EJ cannot be achieved by reducing supply chain emissions as concentrations of  
11 greenhouse gases in the atmosphere are incompatible with a stable climate system and stay in the  
12 atmosphere for hundreds (sometimes thousands) of years (Royal Society, 2024). Climate justice  
13 will only be possible if carbon dioxide is removed from the atmosphere. For this reason, even  
14 radical climate change mitigation strategies increasing resource productivity by Factor 10 or higher  
15 (Elkington, 1997) would be insufficient to return the climate system to stability.

16 In contrast to mitigation-based SSCM strategies, resilience thinking aims to create supply  
17 chains that ‘actively regenerate social–ecological systems’ (Gualandris et al., 2024, p.53).  
18 Although Gualandris et al (2024) do not explicitly mention EJ, SSCM strategies based on  
19 resilience thinking can be established to remedy environmental injustices, whether they were  
20 caused by the business or by a business seeking to resolve environmental injustices caused by other  
21 businesses, often within other industries. Gualandris et al. (2024) provide many examples of such  
22 supply chains, such as Interface (a carpet manufacturer) helping to regenerate ocean systems by  
23 using abandoned, lost, or discarded fishing gear as an input into their production processes. This

1 will help to increase the resilience of coral reefs, which are social-ecological systems upon which  
2 hundreds of millions of people worldwide depend for their livelihoods and food (Burke et al.,  
3 2011).

4 Besides helping to increase the resilience of local ecosystems, such as rivers, forests and  
5 coral reefs, nature positive SSCM strategies can be used to restabilize the climate system. Matos  
6 et al. (2024) present negative emission technologies (NETs) as an example of a transformative  
7 SSCM strategy. NETs involve removing carbon dioxide from the atmosphere, which can be done  
8 via supporting the carbon cycle (e.g., reforestation) or through technological innovation. In their  
9 paper Matos et al. (2024) research three types of NET strategy that have been used to support  
10 SSCM strategies: Biochar, a nature-based NET that enables carbon to be captured and stored  
11 within soil systems; direct air carbon capture and storage, an engineering NET that requires the  
12 technology to both remove and store carbon dioxide; and ocean alkalinity enhancement, an ocean-  
13 based NET that stores carbon dioxide in carbonate minerals (e.g., limestone) within the ocean  
14 system. SSCM strategies using NETs can positively support reversing climate change (Gualandris  
15 et al., 2024) and support climate justice by restabilizing the climate system. Those industrialized  
16 countries that have contributed the most towards climate destabilization through their emissions  
17 (both current and historical) should take a leadership role in supporting NETs within the supply  
18 chains of their businesses and/or finance the adoption of NETs within poorer countries, which will  
19 likely require the creation of new supply chains.

20 Resilience thinking is an essential strategy supporting the creation of environmentally just  
21 supply chains, which in turn can contribute towards increasing the resilience of social-ecological  
22 systems. Resilient social-ecological systems are the foundation for EJ and for communities to  
23 flourish. Regenerative supply chains are strategies that can be used to create environmentally just

1 supply chains, supporting distributive justice by reducing environmental bads and increasing  
2 environmental goods.

3

### 4 **3.3. Pathway 3: Coproduction of environmentally just supply chains**

5         The first two pathways presented have the focal business within the supply chain as the  
6 primary actor driving action on EJ. In pathway 3, the emphasis shifts to the coproduction of  
7 environmentally just supply chains with stakeholders. This shift is necessary as, in many cases, the  
8 causes of environmental injustices may be beyond the scope of individual businesses (Nidumolu  
9 et al., 2014). In such instances, many businesses participate in multistakeholder initiatives (MSIs),  
10 also known as multilateral partnerships. These are governance mechanisms set up to resolve  
11 complex social and environmental issues that include a range of societal actors, for example,  
12 businesses, including competitors and suppliers, community representatives, policy makers and  
13 civil society organizations (Mena and Palazzo, 2012; Soundararajan et al., 2019).

14         MSIs are emerging as a governance response to the failure of numerous businesses to  
15 overcome the persistent environmental problems within their industries that are driving  
16 sustainability issues within their supply chains, e.g. deforestation, climate change and biodiversity  
17 loss (Nidumolu et al., 2014). It is common for MSIs to be established to resolve environmental  
18 issues affecting the supply chains of an individual business (Carmagnac et al., 2022) or a whole  
19 industry (Urzedo et al, 2022). EJ may also require cross-sector collaboration, for example, Heldt  
20 and Beske-Janssen (2023) argue that working across sectors can be helpful to fight against  
21 deforestation. The potential advantage of MSIs is that they leverage the resources and perspectives  
22 of multiple stakeholders to resolve complex sustainability challenges (Clarke and MacDonald,

1 2019), although it has been questioned whether MSIs truly leverage the perspectives of non-  
2 corporate partners (Banerjee, 2018).

3 MSIs should be a participatory forum to articulate the needs of the affected communities  
4 and mobilise the resources needed to remedy environmental injustices (Urzedo et al., 2022).  
5 However, MSIs have been criticized for failing to drive the transformations needed to create  
6 sustainable supply chains (Carmagnac et al., 2022). Further, it has been claimed that MSIs are  
7 being used to govern global supply chain's 'at a distance', based on an 'ethic of detachment'  
8 (Serfaty and Deberdt, 2023). This is even happening in areas with well-established regulations  
9 against modern slavery, e.g. the 'dirty list' in Brazil (Gold et al., 2015) and the UK Modern Slavery  
10 Act (Serfaty and Deberdt, 2023). These issues can be understood as failures to adhere to the  
11 principle of procedural justice (Arenas et al., 2020). To address these issues, there needs to be  
12 consultations with affected communities to turn MSIs into 'effective advocacy platforms' (Global  
13 Witness, 2020, p.20). However, consultation in itself will not ensure that MSIs meet the needs of  
14 affected communities if the perspective of businesses is privileged (Arenas et al., 2020; Banerjee,  
15 2018).

16 To ensure that MSIs able to coproduce environmentally just supply chains that meet the  
17 needs of affected communities, there needs to be a pluralist approach to knowledge (Urzedo et al.,  
18 2022). This approach to valuing the knowledge of non-corporate partners within MSIs is consistent  
19 with the recognition dimension of EJ (Schlosberg, 2007; 2013). Urzedo et al.'s (2022) study of  
20 mining restoration supply chains in Australia provides a useful example of coproducing  
21 environmentally just supply chains for seeds with communities based on a pluralist approach to  
22 knowledge. According to these authors, a transformative governance structure was developed to  
23 engage indigenous peoples in developing environmentally just practices, plans, and policies. This

1 was only possible when indigenous knowledge was valued and institutionalized socio-  
2 environmental inequalities were recognized and dismantled.

3 The coproduction strategy for creating environmentally just supply chains is consistent  
4 with the procedural, recognitional and capabilities dimensions of EJ. Consistent with the principle  
5 of procedural justice, it ensures that affected communities participate in the SSCM solutions  
6 addressing environmental injustices and supports participation through a recognition of the value  
7 of the knowledge affected communities have. As participatory rights are also a key EJ capability,  
8 a capabilities approach is also supported. By synthesizing the procedural, recognitional and  
9 capabilities dimensions of EJ, the distribution of environmental bads and goods can be aligned  
10 with the interests of affected communities.

11

### 12 **3.4 Overview of the three transformative EJ pathways**

13 Table 2 shows the three transformative pathways supporting the four dimensions of EJ  
14 outlined in Section 2.2. The table also indicates the primary actors within each pathway, for  
15 pathways 1 and 2 this is the focal business within the supply chain and for pathway 3 the primary  
16 actors are MSIs.

17

18 **[Insert Table 2]**

19 **Table 2. The three pathways linked to the four dimensions of environmental justice (source:**  
20 **Own elaboration)**

21

22 In sections 3.1-3.3, the three pathways were presented as independent strategies that can  
23 be pursued to create environmentally just supply chains, but the strategies are also potentially

1 complementary. The HRDD approach to EJ outlined in pathway 1 could be leveraged to support  
2 pathways 2 and 3. Changing the values and ethics of actors within social-ecological systems is a  
3 high leverage intervention that can help increase their resilience (Folke et al., 2010). By adopting  
4 a human rights approach to environmental risks and harms businesses can create supply chains  
5 that support local communities trying to increase the resilience of the social-ecological systems  
6 within which they are embedded.

7 A resilience approach to social-ecological systems based on resilience thinking supports  
8 pathway 1. This is done by helping businesses to remedy the adverse human rights impacts of  
9 environmental injustices through restoration and regenerative supply chains (Gualandris et al.,  
10 2024; Urzedo et al., 2022). Further, by prioritizing the resilience of social-ecological systems over  
11 the conventional supply chain approaches of efficiency and responsiveness, SSCM strategies can  
12 support a preventive approach to environmental injustices.

13 The coproduction approach outlined in pathway 3 can be leveraged to support pathways 1  
14 and 2. Coproduction with communities is an SSCM strategy for EJ that can support pathway 1 by  
15 ensuring that HRDD mechanisms are implemented across an industry in ways that meet the needs  
16 of communities (Sarfaty and Deberdt, 2023). Pathway 3 can also support pathway 2 by ensuring  
17 that restoration and regenerative supply chains draw on the knowledge of affected communities  
18 (Urzedo et al., 2022).

19

#### 20 **4. EJ and the need for emancipatory scholarship**

21 The concept of the environmentally just supply chain presents challenges as well as  
22 opportunities for SSCM scholarship. The challenges of creating environmentally just supply  
23 chains invites SSCM scholars to reflect on the type of knowledge we produce, how it is produced,

1 who uses this knowledge and how it is used. The ‘core’ of SCM scholarship has been based on a  
2 theory of knowledge production that assumes that SCM scholars are detached observers of the  
3 realities of SCM (Gold, 2014). This leads to an approach to theorization based on ‘[c]ause and  
4 effect relationships, universal laws, explanation of supply chain functioning’ (Gold, 2014, p.5). As  
5 we have seen, the theory and practice of EJ defies such approaches to theorization as communities  
6 and activists draw on and rearticulate the essentially contested concept of social justice in response  
7 to environmental injustices. In contrast to the dominant SCM approach to theorization based on  
8 generalization (Gold, 2014; Cornelissen et al., 2024), SSCM scholars will need to be comfortable  
9 working with essentially contested concepts within a multi-level understanding of sustainability  
10 and EJ. They may also need to be able to negotiate real world contestations of EJ.

11 A further challenge to the detached mode of SSCM scholarship is that EJ would require  
12 significant changes in the organization of supply chains, requiring a concomitant transformation  
13 in the mental models of supply chain managers. Although we have considered a number of factors  
14 that are likely to see EJ rise up the mainstream sustainability agenda, for example, the  
15 mainstreaming of the climate justice cause and related high-profile legal actions (UNEP, 2023), EJ  
16 is unlikely to be central to the SSCM strategies of many businesses at present. SSCM scholars  
17 motivated by EJ will thus need to see themselves as change agents in order to support the creation  
18 of environmentally just supply chains. This would require a less detached, more involved form of  
19 knowledge production than is typical of core SCM scholarship. This is consistent with calls in the  
20 field to move away from traditional scholarship that seeks to produce propositional knowledge  
21 (abstract, decontextualized statements) based on empirical observations to embrace more  
22 ‘emancipatory’ scholarship, defined as a critical approach to knowledge production that seeks to



1 present a case for transforming supply chains in line with the values and ideals of the scholar  
2 (Cornelissen et al., 2024).

3         Emancipatory scholarship is a form of SSCM scholarship that is motivated by the epistemic  
4 goal of emancipation, which draws on a scholar's values and ideals to problematize current  
5 approaches to theorizing and managing supply chains and present alternative theoretical and  
6 practical approaches (Cornelissen et al., 2024). In contrast to the detached ideal of core SCM  
7 scholarship (Gold, 2014), the emancipatory scholar motivated by EJ would adopt an 'involved'  
8 stance based on their views on social justice and environmental sustainability. The involved stance  
9 of the emancipatory scholar is at odds with the preferred methods of detached SCM scholarship,  
10 such as '[s]urveys, modeling, content analyses and data mining, case study research according to  
11 Yin and Eisenhardt' (Gold, 2014, p.5). For SSCM scholars that adopt an emancipatory stance on  
12 EJ and understand social justice as an essentially contested concept, these methods will not be  
13 suitable.

14         A further issue with a detached, objectivist approach to researching EJ is that there are few  
15 positive examples of environmentally just supply chains that could be researched at present –  
16 indeed we have struggled to find examples for this paper. Instead, some SSCM scholars may feel  
17 the need to take responsibility for their creation. 'Engaged' and 'activist' research have emerged  
18 as two methods that SSCM scholars can adopt to work with relevant stakeholders to create  
19 environmentally just supply chains (Touboulic et al., 2020; Touboulic and McCarthy, 2020). This  
20 would be consistent with the tradition of 'scholar-activists' within EJ scholarship more broadly  
21 (Foster et al., 2024).

22         The aim of engaged and activist SSCM scholars would be to produce knowledge that is  
23 both context-specific enough to be useful for the non-scholars involved in the research (Halme et

1 al., 2024) but also produce knowledge that is of general interest, i.e. of interest to scholars, activists  
2 and managers not involved in the research (Touboulic et al., 2020). This more general theory could  
3 then inform the practice of those working to create environmentally just supply chains. A specific  
4 form of engaged scholarship that can lead to better SSCM theory is ‘critical engaged research’  
5 (Touboulic et al., 2020). This is due to its emphasis on ‘problematization’ (Touboulic et al., 2020),  
6 which has emerged as an important trend within (S)SCM scholarship in recent years (see also:  
7 Hardy et al., 2020; Matthews et al., 2016; Stephens et al., 2022). Critical engaged research requires  
8 scholars to engage in a process of problematization in which their preferred theoretical  
9 perspectives are questioned by surfacing and reflecting upon the assumptions upon which they are  
10 based (Alvesson and Sandberg, 2011).

11         One way in which SSCM scholarship can be problematized is through engagement with  
12 EJ activists and environmental justice organizations (EJOs) (Martinez-Alier et al., 2014). For  
13 example, in global supply chains, engagement with EJ activists and EJOs may challenge colonial  
14 and postcolonial perspectives that blind SSCM scholars to environmental injustices (Matthews and  
15 Silva, 2024). By opening themselves up to different perspectives from the Global South and East,  
16 SSCM scholars may encounter decolonial perspectives that question the sustainability solutions  
17 provided by Northern and ‘developed’ countries, enabling them to see alternative solutions  
18 grounded in EJ (Marques et al., 2021; Myers et al., 2020; see also Girei et al., 2024 and Kirchherr,  
19 2021 on decolonizing the circular economy). Collaborating with scholars from those fields that  
20 have done the most to develop EJ scholarship, such as political ecology, will also help SSCM  
21 scholars to produce theories through problematization of our field’s unquestioned assumptions  
22 (Matthews and Silva, 2024).

1           To conclude this section, we will consider how SSCM scholarship can be leveraged to help  
2 businesses realize the transformative potential of the three pathways presented in Section 3. SSCM  
3 scholars can help address these issues through emancipatory scholarship, whether that is through  
4 critical theorization, such as this paper, or through research, for example using the methods of  
5 engaged and activist research. To support pathway 1, ‘engaged’ and ‘activist’ scholars can work  
6 with supply chain managers and stakeholders to ensure that a business’ human rights strategy  
7 includes EJ, environmental human rights and protections for ERDs.

8           To support pathway 2, engaged and activist scholars could help actors within a supply chain  
9 to adopt resilience thinking and consider the resilience of social-ecological systems when  
10 developing their SSCM strategies (Folke et al., 2010). They could help managers to see that  
11 restoration and regeneration strategies would help them realize their human rights obligations (as  
12 outlined in pathway 1). SSCM scholars could also help businesses identify the economic benefits  
13 that an EJ lens could provide by acting as a driver for new approaches to SSCM, for example,  
14 sourcing ocean plastic instead of producing new plastic, or even creating new business models  
15 based on restoration supply chains (Gualandris et al., 2024).

16           To support pathway 3, the scope of engaged and activist research can engage with MSIs to  
17 expand their scope to include EJ or help establish MSIs focused on EJ. SSCM scholars can help  
18 MSIs coproduce environmental policies and practices based on due consideration for the realities  
19 faced by local and indigenous communities (Pearson et al., 2023). An EJ approach to SSCM can  
20 reshape accountability systems by bringing the voices and perspectives of local and marginalized  
21 voices, for example, those of indigenous peoples, into the decision-making and implementation  
22 processes of SCM (Urzedo et al., 2022). SSCM scholars could support recognition justice by  
23 supporting and facilitating a pluralist approach to knowledge to ensure that the knowledges of

1 affected communities are respected within MSIs (*Ibid.*). Empowering communities in this way is  
2 crucial for ensuring that critical social and environmental needs are addressed and for fostering  
3 sustainable, environmentally just practices within and across supply chains (Touboulic et al.,  
4 2020).

5

## 6 **5. Conclusions**

7         The aim of this paper was to show that EJ is a potentially transformative goal for SSCM  
8 scholarship. Although EJ may initially appear to be a challenging concept for the theory and  
9 practice of SSCM, we show that the EJ discourse has strong links with SSCM scholarship and can  
10 be operationalized through emergent SSCM practices. We thus believe EJ represents a viable way  
11 forward for transformative SSCM scholarship and presented three transformative pathways that  
12 could be used to create environmentally just supply chains.

13         The goal of making EJ a central concern for transformative supply chains is consistent with  
14 an incipient ‘justice turn’ within SSCM scholarship. Recently, for example, Matthews et al. (2024)  
15 considered social justice in their conceptualization of diversity, equity and inclusion (DEI) within  
16 OSCM scholarship, Kroes et al (2024) researched the relationship between gender and social  
17 justice within SCM. and Stephens et al. (2024) made recognition justice the central concept within  
18 their conceptualization of worker voice within supply chains. Karaosman et al. (2024) have also  
19 proposed that the just transition, which they consider includes EJ, become a central concern for  
20 SSCM scholarship.

21         We hope SSCM scholars will find our article a fruitful resource and support those reflecting  
22 on the efficacy of the field in supporting the transition to environmental sustainability. But we also  
23 acknowledge that the paper has a number of limitations. First, the article presents a normative

1 argument in favour of including EJ within the theory and practice of SSCM, that is, an argument  
2 for how the authors believe the world *should* be, rather than a description of how it is. Second,  
3 while we believe that there are political and societal forces that will lead to EJ becoming a higher  
4 priority for SSCM in the future, we must acknowledge that EJ remains a marginal concern for  
5 many supply chain managers at present. Third, we are very much aware that there are considerable  
6 barriers to the mainstreaming of EJ within SSCM. A recent meta-analysis highlighted the barriers  
7 to SSCM, including cost of adoption, resistance to change and poor organisational capabilities  
8 (Khan et al., 2021). We must acknowledge that these barriers will likely be higher towards EJ.

9         Despite the limitations of our article, we believe that it offers a number of opportunities for  
10 future research. In this paper, we have advocated for engaged and activist SSCM scholarship, but  
11 other methodological paths can of course be followed to work with the new concepts that emerge  
12 from the EJ discourse. Wieland et al. (2024) explored some qualitative research that would be rich  
13 in this regard. For these authors, grounded theory, ethnography, sensemaking, sociomateriality,  
14 narrative research and historical research are some examples of how to advance (S)SCM research.  
15 SSCM scholars could also use novel datasets, for example, satellite data to better understand the  
16 drivers of environmental injustices, such as deforestation caused multi-tiered supply chains (see  
17 Heldt and Beske-Janssen, 2023).

18

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1 **Figures 1a and 1b. The original formulation of the TBL (based on Elkington, 1997).**

**Figure 1a. The Triple Bottom Line (TBL) framework**



**Figure 1b. The TBL framework showing misalignment between the bottom lines**

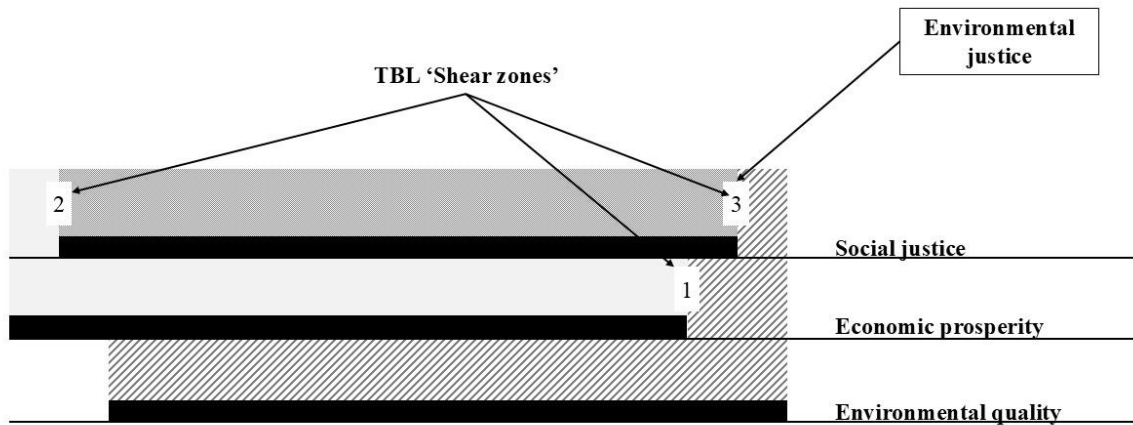


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**Figure 2. The three 'shear zones' of the TBL (based on Elkington, 1997).**



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1 **Table 1. The four dimensions of environmental justice**

	<b>Definitions</b>	<b>Key areas of concern</b>	<b>Application to EJ</b>
<b>Distributive justice</b>	<p>The fair distribution of goods within a given society (Rawls, 1971).</p> <p>Fair is often understood to mean equitable (Rawls, 1971).</p> <p>Goods are not just limited to resources, such as money or physical goods, e.g. food. Goods include opportunities, rights and liberties (Schlosberg, 2007).</p>	<p>The focus is on what is distributed and how it gets distributed.</p> <p>What goods are distributed? How are those goods distributed? How can we ensure a fair distribution of goods?</p> <p>See: Rawls (1971), Fraser (2001), Honneth (2001), Young (2022).</p> <p>Please note that each of the above theorists conceptualizes distributive justice differently. Rawls (1991) attempts to establish universal rules for distributive justice, whereas Fraser (2001), Honneth (2001) and Young (2022) ground distribution</p>	<p><i>Distributive justice</i> emphasizes the unequal distribution of environmental harms and risks. It includes both the environmental goods, e.g. fresh water and clean air, and the environmental bads, e.g. pollution.</p> <p>EJ links to different social groups, showing how some groups are advantaged by environmental decision-making.</p> <p>EJ also links distributive justice to conflicts over environmental issues. Martinez-Alier (2004; 2021) calls these ‘ecological distribution conflicts’.</p>

		within specific social, political and cultural processes.	See: Bullard, 1994; Schlosberg, 2007; Martinez-Alier et al., 2014.
<b>Recognitional Justice</b>	<p>Recognition of the value of others based on respect for their identity, cultural traditions and difference. Non-recognition and misrecognition will affect the distribution of goods in a society (Fraser, 2001).</p> <p>Recognition is concerned with the self-esteem that individuals have. It is thus important in itself (Honneth, 2001).</p> <p>Self-esteem is understood as an inter-subjective process, i.e. a person's self-esteem is bound up</p>	<p>How are unfair distributions of goods embedded in social, cultural and political processes of disrespect?</p> <p>How are processes of disrespect institutionalized within societies?</p> <p>What are the consequences of non-recognition and misrecognition for individuals and communities, for example, their physical safety, their human rights and psychological wellbeing.</p> <p>See: Fraser (2001), Honneth (2001), Young (2022).</p>	<p><i>Recognitional justice</i> provides an explanatory framework for the social, cultural and political causes of 'ecological distribution conflicts.' The recognition lens shows how environmental inequities are linked to racism, poverty and gender.</p> <p>Remedies for environmental injustices are based on recognition of identity, cultural traditions and differences of those impacted. Remedies can therefore be more effectively developed and implemented.</p>

	with how others treat them (Honneth, 2001).	Please note that each of the above theorists conceptualizes the relationship between recognition and distributive justice differently. For more detail, see the debate between Fraser and Honneth (2003).	See: Ertör, 2023; Lai et al., 2021; Li and Semedi, 2021).
<b>Procedural justice</b>	<p>The decision-making procedures for distributing goods are fair and inclusive (Fraser, 2001).</p> <p>Those affected by distribution of goods should be able to participate within decision-making procedures on equal terms, known as ‘participatory parity’ (Fraser, 2001).</p> <p>Procedural justice is linked to recognition as decision-making</p>	<p>How are decision-making processes for the distribution of goods designed and implemented?</p> <p>Are decision-making processes based on the principle of justice as recognition?</p> <p>Is there ‘participatory parity’ among those involved in the decision-making process?</p>	<p><i>Procedural justice</i> ensures that environmental decision-making, whether at the level of government or the supply chain, is inclusive and based on the principle of ‘participatory parity’.</p> <p>EJ scholarship is sensitive to the lack of meaningful participation for cultural minorities and women in environmental decision-making due to limited access to power and information.</p>

	procedures cannot be fair and inclusive in the absence of respect for those impacted by the decision (Fraser, 2001).	See: Fraser (2001). Fraser presents a trivalent framework that includes distribution, recognition and procedure.	See: Ampaire et al., 2020; Satyal et al., 2018.
<b>Capabilities approach to justice</b>	<p>The opportunities a person has to live they life they want for themselves. An individual needs to have the resources needed to live their chosen life and the agency to make decisions about their own lives.</p> <p>The capabilities approach to justice is linked to the concept of ‘flourishing’, i.e. it is not just about having the minimum resources to survive but to have the opportunities to live the best life possible.</p>	<p>Linking to distributive justice, do individuals have the goods needed to flourish?</p> <p>Linking to procedural justice, are individuals able to exercise agency in relation to their own lives?</p> <p>See: Sen (2001)</p>	<p><i>Capabilities approach to justice</i> includes environmental goods and decision-making procedures. It extends capabilities from individual level to the level of communities.</p> <p>Do communities have the environmental goods needed to flourish and do communities have agency to live as they choose?</p>

1 **Table 2. The three pathways linked to the four dimensions of environmental justice**

	<b>Primary actor</b>	<b>Distribution</b>	<b>Recognition</b>	<b>Procedure</b>	<b>Capabilities</b>
<b>Human rights due diligence and EJ</b>	Business	Prevents and remedies human rights impacts of environmental injustices.	Recognition of affected communities and environmental rights defenders as rights-holders.  Supported by human rights due diligence processes, human rights policy and remediation processes, including providing access to justice.		
<b>Resilience thinking, EJ and socio-ecological systems</b>	Business	Regenerative supply chains support			Environmentally just supply chains contribute to

		distributive justice by reducing environmental bads and increasing environmental goods.			resilient social-ecological systems, which are the foundation of individual and community flourishing.
<b>Coproduction of environmentally just supply chains</b>	Multistakeholder initiatives	The synthesis of the recognition, procedural and capabilities dimensions of justice should support just distribution of environmental goods and harms for affected communities.	Recognition of value of knowledge of affected communities.	Affected communities participate in coproduction of environmentally just supply chains.	Participation in decision-making supports agency, a key environmental justice capability.

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