



1 **From Security Asset to Shared Infrastructure: Institutional**  
2 **Mechanics and Communicative Effects of Brazil's 2004**  
3 **CBERS Open-Data Policy**

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10 **Abstract.** In 2004, Brazil's National Institute for Space Research (INPE) became the first  
11 Global South institution to freely distribute medium-resolution satellite imagery from an  
12 operational national system, four years before the 2008 USGS Landsat opening widely  
13 treated as the originating moment of global open-data norms in Earth observation.  
14 Drawing on historical institutionalism and interpretive policy analysis of a documentary  
15 corpus of 63 documents, this study reconstructs the institutional mechanics of that  
16 decision and traces its communicative effects. Three findings emerge. First, INPE  
17 achieved its open-data policy by exploiting a specific bilateral treaty clause that  
18 dissociated domestic distribution from international commercial obligations within a  
19 military-controlled legal framework, without requiring legislative reform. Second,  
20 removing access barriers gradually created the structural conditions for satellite imagery  
21 to operate as a boundary-object at the infrastructural level: NGOs, enforcement agencies,  
22 journalists, and Indigenous communities each adopted the same open imagery for distinct  
23 institutional purposes, shifting environmental contestation toward actionable debates  
24 about enforcement and accountability. Third, Brazilian representatives systematically  
25 advocated for open-data principles in international forums including GEO, COPUOS, and  
26 CEOS, circulating in the institutional spaces where subsequent global open-data norms  
27 were contested, though the causal weight of that advocacy on those decisions cannot be  
28 established from the available record. The case documents an underexamined Global  
29 South contribution to open geoscience governance.

30 **1. Introduction**



31 In 2004, a developing nation became the first in the Global South to freely distribute  
32 medium-resolution satellite imagery from an operational national system over the internet  
33 – four years before the United States opened the Landsat archive, which is widely treated  
34 in the literature as the originating moment of global open Earth observation norms.  
35 Brazil’s National Institute for Space Research (INPE) adopted a policy of freely  
36 distributing medium-resolution satellite imagery from the China-Brazil Earth Resources  
37 Satellite (CBERS) program over the internet, initially to Brazilian users under a domestic  
38 clause, with a formal extension to all developing nations following a separate bilateral  
39 agreement in 2010 (GEO, 2007b, 2010; CRESDA and INPE, 2010). This represented a  
40 deliberate institutional choice to treat publicly funded satellite data as infrastructure for  
41 environmental transparency and multi-scalar governance, even within a legal framework  
42 that still treated remote sensing as a security matter under military oversight (Câmara,  
43 2006a, 2006b; Câmara, 2007a, 2007b; Ferreira and Câmara, 2008).

44 The 2004 decision was the product of a specific constellation of pressures: legal tension  
45 between military control and civilian science; capacity-building ambitions in the Global  
46 South; accelerating deforestation in the Amazon; and strategic calculations about where  
47 commercial value could be located within the Earth observation value chain. Beyond its  
48 immediate policy outcomes, the CBERS case illustrates how satellite imagery became  
49 embedded in terrestrial environmental management, how decisions about data access  
50 reflect broader struggles over sovereignty and knowledge authority, and how a Global  
51 South nation could systematically advocate for open Earth observation norms in  
52 international forums – preceding, and circulating alongside, the policy shifts that the  
53 literature has treated as the originating moment of global open-data governance.

54 The central contribution of this study is to demonstrate how a specific institutional  
55 decision about data access – Brazil’s 2004 CBERS open-data policy – restructured the  
56 conditions under which diverse actors could engage with satellite evidence of  
57 environmental change, converting a restricted technical asset into shared geospatial  
58 infrastructure for governance and public accountability. The case is significant for  
59 geoscience communication research because it represents the first documented instance  
60 of a Global South nation doing this for a nationally operated satellite system, and because  
61 it allows the communicative mechanisms of that transformation to be reconstructed from  
62 a substantial primary document corpus. The analysis addresses two interconnected



63 questions: 1) How and why did INPE implement a strategic open-data policy within a  
64 formally commercial and security-constrained institutional environment? 2) What does  
65 the 2004 decision reveal about the communicative mechanisms through which open Earth  
66 observation data becomes actionable evidence for heterogeneous governance actors?

67 The 2004 pivot was a calculated institutional response to a specific conjuncture of legal,  
68 commercial, and political pressures, not a spontaneous act of enlightened governance. By  
69 tracing this transition, the study shows how democratization altered the flow of  
70 environmental evidence, equipping intermediaries across civil society, enforcement  
71 agencies, and Indigenous movements with visual tools for public accountability and  
72 knowledge production, and shifting political contestation from whether environmental  
73 change was occurring to actionable debates about enforcement and policy response  
74 (Litfin, 2002; Rajão and Jarke, 2018).

75 The analysis proceeds through the following sections. Section 2 situates the 2004 decision  
76 within literature on satellites as environmental infrastructure, Brazil's remote-sensing  
77 legal history, PRODES and DETER development, and identifies the key gap this study  
78 addresses. Section 3 presents the theoretical framework, outlining three analytical lenses  
79 and their operationalization through the boundary-object concept. Section 4 details the  
80 research design and methods. Section 5 reconstructs the institutional context, strategic  
81 rationales, and implementation of the 2004 pivot. Section 6 examines its transformative  
82 effects on capacity building, transparency, accountability, and cross-disciplinary  
83 collaboration. Section 7 discusses contemporary implications for geosciences  
84 communications and open Earth observation governance, clearly distinguishing between  
85 historically documented findings and analytically informed implications. The conclusion  
86 synthesizes the study's contributions and outlines directions for future research.

## 87 **2. Literature Review and Contextual Background**

### 88 **2.1 Satellites as Environmental Governance Infrastructure**

89 Satellite Earth observation has become foundational to contemporary environmental  
90 governance, providing near-real-time data on forest cover, water resources, agricultural  
91 productivity, and disaster impacts – information prohibitively expensive to gather through  
92 ground surveys alone (Tatem et al., 2008; Wulder et al., 2022; Boscolo et al., 2024). Yet  
93 the scientific and governance value that satellite data can generate depends critically on



94 whether that data is accessible: where open access has been established, research  
95 demonstrates accelerated environmental threat detection, rapid policy response, and a  
96 fundamental shift in environmental science’s epistemic foundations (Wulder et al., 2022).  
97 How that access came to exist, and who drove it, is less well understood than the benefits  
98 it produced.

99 Within this landscape, the 2008 decision by the United States Geological Survey (USGS)  
100 to open the full Landsat archive at no cost is widely treated in the literature as the  
101 definitive catalyst for global open Earth observation norms. Wulder et al. (2012)  
102 document how annual data distributions rose from 25,000 to 2.5 million within two years  
103 of that decision, and subsequent analyses confirm that the social and economic value  
104 generated by Landsat-derived knowledge substantially exceeded the historical cost of the  
105 satellite systems themselves (Wulder et al., 2022). As the canonical sources acknowledge  
106 in passing, however, this account of origins is incomplete: a Global South nation had  
107 already established a comparable policy four years earlier, a precedent whose institutional  
108 mechanics and broader significance remain underexamined.

109 Prior to 2004-2008, satellite Earth observation remained bifurcated and exclusive.  
110 Commercial high-resolution imagery (e.g., Ikonos, QuickBird) remained accessible  
111 primarily to wealthy institutions, while even medium-resolution public datasets like US  
112 Landsat were controlled by cost-recovery mandates, charging up to \$4,000 per image  
113 (Wulder et al., 2022). This commercial logic extended to the Global South: medium-  
114 resolution imagery from developing countries was initially envisioned as a commercial  
115 product whose revenue would offset satellite costs (Câmara and Ning, 2004; MCTI, 2004;  
116 Borowitz, 2020), resulting in fewer than 1,000 CBERS image sales annually prior to any  
117 open-data transition, a commercial underperformance that would become one of INPE’s  
118 central justifications for abandoning the fee-based model entirely (Câmara, 2006a, 2006b;  
119 Ferreira and Câmara, 2008).

120 In this fragmented landscape, Brazil’s 2004 decision occupied a position the existing  
121 literature has not sufficiently examined, reached under institutional conditions including  
122 military-era legislation, commercial bilateral obligations, and acute resource constraints  
123 that made such a decision far from inevitable. Understanding how and why that decision  
124 was made, and what it set in motion for environmental governance and geoscience  
125 communication in Brazil and beyond, is the gap this study addresses.



## 126 **2.2 Brazil's Remote Sensing Legal History**

127 To understand why the 2004 pivot was strategically significant requires situating it within  
128 Brazil's decades-long institutional struggle over remote-sensing technology control. This  
129 legal history is not merely contextual background; it establishes why the 2004 decision  
130 constituted a communicative restructuring rather than a routine policy update, and why  
131 its effects on who could access and act upon satellite evidence were as consequential as  
132 they were. During military dictatorship (1964-1985), aerial photography and remote  
133 sensing were classified as sensitive technologies under military control, reflecting  
134 widespread Cold War anxiety that detailed satellite imagery could reveal military bases,  
135 infrastructure, or resource vulnerabilities. When Brazil began developing local Earth  
136 observation capabilities in the 1980s, this legal and institutional logic persisted (Ferreira  
137 and Câmara, 2008).

138 In 1997, the Brazilian government formalized this through Decree 2278/97<sup>1</sup>, establishing  
139 remote sensing as national-security matter and placing operational control over all  
140 satellite imagery and data dissemination under military authority (Brasil, 1997). This  
141 codified Cold War-era assumptions well into the civilian period. By the late 1990s,  
142 however, the framework was becoming technologically and politically untenable:  
143 commercial satellite companies were proliferating, international scientific collaboration  
144 increasingly required data sharing, and scientists recognized that restriction hampered  
145 Brazil's own remote sensing capacity (Litfin, 2002).

146 Between 2000 and 2003, proposed amendment to Brazilian law – Project of Law 3587/00<sup>2</sup>  
147 – sought to revise remote-sensing governance (Câmara dos Deputados, 2000). Rather  
148 than opening access outright, however, the draft threatened to expand military oversight.  
149 INPE, as a civilian scientific institution under the Ministry of Science, Technology and

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<sup>1</sup> Decree 2278/1997 classified orbital remote sensing as a national security activity, subjecting the dissemination of satellite imagery of Brazilian territory to the prior authorization of the Ministry of Defense (Brasil, 1997). This framework extended military-era regulatory logic into the civilian period, effectively centralizing data control.

<sup>2</sup> Proposed in 2000 by an inter-ministerial working group, Project Law 3587/00 defined remote sensing broadly as “the set of operations of reception, processing, interpretation, or distribution of satellite-collected data” covering Brazilian territory (Câmara dos Deputados, 2000). Ignoring the United Nations Remote Sensing Principles (UNGA, 1986) and the technical reality of global satellite observation, the bill sought to impose strict state control by requiring any citizen or institution to obtain specific government permission to use remote sensing data. This approach treated satellite imagery as equivalent to classified aerial photography, a stance that the scientific community, led by INPE, argued would make the distribution of environmental data practically impossible and legally untenable (Ferreira and Câmara, 2008). The project was finally archived in 2023.



150 Innovation (MCTI), faced a critical choice: accept a more restrictive legal regime or  
151 reshape what was politically and legally possible through practice. INPE chose the latter,  
152 adopting a systematic strategy of releasing remote-sensing data and tools over the  
153 internet, beginning in the late 1990s with the SPRING geographic information system,  
154 accelerating in 2003 with the publication of open PRODES deforestation data (Sá and  
155 Grieco, 2016; Maurano et al., 2019), and culminating with the 2004 CBERS free-data  
156 policy (Ferreira and Câmara, 2008).

157 Thus the 2004 pivot represented more than a technical upgrade; Rajão and Hayes (2009)  
158 argue it was calculated resistance against “conceptions of control” inherited from  
159 authoritarianism and Cold War days. By unilaterally opening the archive, INPE subverted  
160 legal frameworks treating satellite imagery as sensitive intelligence and established  
161 remote sensing as a public good, rendering the military-era information control paradigm  
162 practically obsolete (Câmara and Fonseca, 2007; Ferreira and Câmara, 2008).

### 163 **2.3 PRODES and DETER: Transparency as Environmental** 164 **Governance**

165 Brazil’s decision to open CBERS data must be understood within the specific context of  
166 its environmental monitoring infrastructure. Two systems, PRODES (Program for  
167 Monitoring Deforestation in the Amazon by Satellite) and DETER (System for Detection  
168 of Deforestation in Real Time), had established Brazil as a global leader in transparent  
169 deforestation monitoring by the early 2000s. PRODES, operational since 1988, provided  
170 annual Brazilian Amazon forest loss maps, derived primarily from Landsat imagery  
171 supplemented later with CBERS data. DETER, deployed in 2004, offered near-real-time  
172 deforestation event alerts to law enforcement agencies, integrating MODIS, CBERS WFI,  
173 and other sensors<sup>3</sup> (Soler et al., 2021; Rajão, 2012).

174 Significantly, INPE committed to publishing its results publicly: annual PRODES maps  
175 became freely digitally available from 2003 on, and in 2004, the newly created DETER  
176 system began circulating alerts among environmental agencies and the public (Rajão and

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<sup>3</sup> MODIS (Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer) and CBERS WFI (Wide Field Imager) are satellite sensors characterized by high temporal resolution (frequency of visits) but moderate spatial resolution. While sensors like Landsat provide detailed imagery (approx. 30m resolution) every 16 days, MODIS and CBERS WFI capture data daily or every 3-5 days over much larger swaths of territory (up to 890 km). This ‘coarser’ (64-260m) but more frequent data is technically optimized for the DETER system, which prioritizes the rapid detection of new deforestation ‘alerts’ over high-detail annual mapping.



177 Jarke, 2018; Sá and Grieco, 2016). The 2004 CBERS open-data policy followed directly  
178 from this emerging logic of transparency. If Brazil was now making deforestation maps  
179 and alerts public through PRODES and DETER, restricting the underlying satellite  
180 imagery seemed contradictory. Consequently, INPE adopted what Ferreira and Câmara  
181 (2008) call a “de facto data policy,” institutionalizing a commitment to transparent  
182 environmental governance rather than waiting for legislative reform.

183 By making both monitoring products and underlying imagery freely available, this dual  
184 transparency directly shifted political contestation from debates over whether  
185 deforestation was occurring to actionable discussions about enforcement and policy  
186 response (Rajão and Hayes, 2009; Rajão and Georgiadou, 2014).

## 187 **2.4 Literature Gap**

188 While the existing literature has significantly documented the scientific and economic  
189 benefits of open Earth observation data (Turner et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2019), it  
190 predominantly frames the 2008 USGS Landsat opening as the definitive catalyst for  
191 global open-data norms (Wulder et al., 2012; Zhu et al., 2019), treating it as the  
192 originating moment from which subsequent international policy shifts follow. In doing  
193 so, it underemphasizes the political and legal complexities involved in transitioning Earth  
194 observation from a military-controlled security asset into a shared geospatial resource –  
195 and leaves unexamined the fact that a Global South nation had already navigated precisely  
196 those complexities four years earlier.

197 The pattern is visible throughout different sources. Wulder et al. (2012), the definitive  
198 account of how free data enabled Landsat’s scientific promise, mentions CBERS only in  
199 passing – noting its free availability without examining the institutional decision that  
200 made it so, or the precedent it established before 2008. Turner et al. (2015) goes slightly  
201 further, acknowledging that the 2008 Landsat policy shift was in line with data policies  
202 previously instituted by the United States’ National Aeronautics and Space  
203 Administration (NASA), National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA),  
204 and the Brazilian Government – but devotes no further analysis to what that Brazilian  
205 policy was, how it was achieved under restrictive legal conditions, or why it matters for  
206 understanding how open-data norms emerge. Zhu et al. (2019) similarly credit the 2008  
207 decision as a catalyst for replication by other national and multi-national observation  
208 programs, without examining whether that process had earlier precedents. In each case,



209 Brazil is present enough to confirm that a policy existed, but insufficiently examined to  
210 establish what that policy was, how it was achieved, or why it matters.

211 This omission is partly explicable by how existing scholarship has approached the case:  
212 as a technical data-policy reform within the history of Earth observation openness  
213 (Borowitz, 2020; Wulder et al., 2022), as an institutional input to deforestation  
214 enforcement (Rajão and Hayes, 2009; Nunes et al., 2024), or as a transparency mechanism  
215 within Brazilian environmental politics (Rajão and Georgiadou, 2014; Rajão and Jarke,  
216 2018). The closest prior study to examine the open-data transition as a governance case  
217 in its own right is Sá and Grieco (2016), who trace INPE's shift from a closed to an open  
218 model using interview data alongside documents, and demonstrate how political  
219 resistance, usability barriers, and the role of intermediaries shaped the process. Their  
220 study, however, focuses primarily on PRODES and DETER as monitoring outputs and  
221 does not examine the CBERS bilateral treaty mechanism, the geoscience communication  
222 dimension, or the international norm-entrepreneurship trajectory that preceded and  
223 accompanied the 2004 decision. Each perspective offers genuine insight, but none has  
224 systematically integrated these strands to analyze the 2004 decision as a geoscience  
225 communication intervention.

226 This gap has two dimensions. Empirically, it leaves the 2004 CBERS pivot – the first  
227 instance of a Global South nation freely distributing medium-resolution satellite imagery  
228 from an operational national system – without an adequate institutional reconstruction.  
229 Analytically, it means the political and legal mechanisms through which open-data norms  
230 are actually forged, particularly outside the context of well-resourced Northern agencies,  
231 remain poorly understood. This study addresses both dimensions: by reconstructing the  
232 institutional mechanics and strategic rationales of the 2004 decision, it establishes the  
233 empirical foundation for what the introduction identifies as an underacknowledged but  
234 consequential Global South precedent in the governance of open Earth observation data.

### 235 **3. Theoretical Framework**

236 Before presenting the three analytical lenses and the boundary-object framework, it is  
237 necessary to situate this study within the field of geoscience communication. Geoscience  
238 communication, as defined by Illingworth et al. (2018), encompasses scientific activities  
239 at multiple levels that aim to increase attention to and public discussion of geoscientific  
240 results – ranging from policy briefings and open-data initiatives to the cultivation of two-



241 way dialogues between scientists and non-specialist audiences. Effective geoscience  
242 communication is increasingly understood as the construction of shared frameworks  
243 through which diverse actors – policymakers, civil society organizations, local  
244 communities – can engage with and act upon geoscientific evidence (Illingworth et al.,  
245 2018; Stewart and Lewis, 2017).

246 This study sits at the intersection of two defined areas: open geoscience, understood as  
247 the study of how geoscientific results can be made more accessible and how data-sharing  
248 practices shape public engagement with scientific knowledge; and geoscience policy,  
249 which examines the institutional and political conditions under which geoscientific  
250 actions are enabled or constrained (Illingworth et al., 2018). The 2004 CBERS case is a  
251 legitimate object of geoscience communication inquiry precisely because its significance  
252 lies in how a specific institutional decision about data access transformed the conditions  
253 under which varied actors could engage with orbital evidence of environmental change.  
254 The satellite data itself was a precondition, but it was the decision to open it that converted  
255 a technically specialized asset into shared geospatial infrastructure for governance,  
256 accountability, and cross-disciplinary collaboration. Analyzing this case through a  
257 geoscience communication lens requires three complementary analytical frameworks,  
258 each illuminating a different dimension of how the 2004 pivot simultaneously  
259 restructured the political economy of satellite data and the communicative conditions  
260 under which that data became accessible.

### 261 **3.1 Analytical Lenses**

262 The first analytical lens rests on the economic conception of *data as public good*.  
263 Traditionally, public goods are defined as resources that everyone can use without  
264 significantly reducing their availability to others, and which is impractical or inefficient  
265 to prevent people from accessing them (Samuelson, 1954; Kaul and Mendoza, 2003).  
266 Satellite Earth observation data from publicly funded systems largely fit this  
267 characterization. Once a satellite is operational, distributing additional data incurs almost  
268 no extra cost, since the primary expenses are tied to the initial investment. Under these  
269 conditions, restricting access through pricing or licensing suppresses downstream social  
270 and economic value (Câmara, 2006a, 2006b; Câmara, 2010a).

271 This public-goods perspective underpins Brazil's 2004 decision and resonates with recent  
272 international frameworks – FAIR principles (Findable, Accessible, Interoperable,



273 Reusable) and United Nations Global Geospatial Information Management (UN-GGIM)  
274 statements on geospatial data for public good (UN-GGIM, 2025) – explicitly framing  
275 environmental and scientific data as foundational infrastructure. Throughout this paper,  
276 “public good” implies the economic properties rendering exclusionary pricing of satellite  
277 data economically inefficient, and the normative claim that publicly funded data should  
278 be openly available when serving collective environmental governance (Câmara, 2010a,  
279 2010b; GEO, 2023; UN-GGIM, 2025).

280 Geospatial environmental information behind paywalls creates epistemic and material  
281 asymmetries: NGOs cannot conduct multi-year deforestation analyses without  
282 subscription costs; local governments cannot access baseline imagery for land use  
283 planning; university researchers in under-resourced institutions cannot undertake  
284 independent monitoring. By establishing satellite imagery as a public good, Brazil’s 2004  
285 policy democratized the capacity to interpret the landscape from orbital perspective,  
286 shifting from data scarcity and centralized control to data abundance enabling distributed  
287 knowledge production.

288 The second lens pertains to *institutional politics*, operationalized through historical  
289 institutionalism (Mahoney and Thelen, 2010; Thelen, 1999). Where the public-goods lens  
290 explains why commercial cost-recovery of satellite data was economically indefensible,  
291 this lens explains why economic logic alone was insufficient to produce the 2004 pivot.  
292 Legal frameworks, once established, create path dependencies that constrain subsequent  
293 actors: the security-control logic embedded in Brazil’s remote-sensing legislation  
294 (detailed in Section 2.2) did not dissolve simply because it had become economically  
295 irrational. Institutional change required active navigation of those constraints.

296 Historical institutionalism directs analytical attention to how actors exploit ambiguity  
297 within existing rules to shift what is politically and legally enforceable, without requiring  
298 formal legislative reform. Applied here, it accounts for INPE’s incremental strategy of  
299 releasing software, monitoring outputs, and ultimately raw satellite imagery in sequence  
300 – each step expanding the de facto open-data regime while remaining formally inside the  
301 restrictive bilateral and military-controlled framework. This lens thus explains the how  
302 of the 2004 decision: the specific institutional moves that converted economic rationale  
303 into enacted policy under adverse conditions.



304 The third lens extends the analysis beyond the domestic institutional context, situating  
305 the 2004 decision within the normative framework that Brazilian actors themselves  
306 deployed to describe and justify their open-data advocacy in international forums. From  
307 2002 onwards, INPE leadership argued that commercialization trends in publicly funded  
308 Earth observation systems would reduce the potential of geospatial technologies for the  
309 public good in the developing world, and called on emerging space powers – including  
310 India, China, and Russia – to adopt a public-oriented approach to geoinformation  
311 diffusion (Câmara, 2002). By 2010, this advocacy had a name. South Africa, during its  
312 Committee on Earth Observation Satellites (CEOS) Chairmanship, proposed the concept  
313 of “*data democracy*” – the proposition that open Earth observation data is foundational  
314 to the equitable participation of developing nations in global environmental knowledge  
315 production. Brazil adopted it as the organizing frame of its Group on Earth Observations  
316 (GEO) Second Ministerial Statement (GEO, 2010), giving institutional form to a  
317 normative argument that had been circulating in Brazilian advocacy since the early 2000s.

318 Applied as the third analytical lens, data democracy allows the Brazilian case to be  
319 situated within the normative claims the actors themselves articulated, rather than  
320 requiring the retrospective imposition of contemporary conceptual vocabulary. It is  
321 analytically distinct from the public-goods lens, which explains the economic logic of  
322 open data, because it foregrounds the distributional and geopolitical dimension: who gets  
323 to know, who gets to produce knowledge, and which institutions exercise the authority to  
324 represent territories from orbit. It is equally distinct from the institutional politics lens,  
325 which reconstructs the domestic mechanisms of the 2004 decision, because it examines  
326 how Brazil translated that domestic decision into an international normative argument  
327 about the obligations of publicly funded Earth observation programs. How that argument  
328 was received, and what its contemporary relevance is, is examined in Section 7.2.

### 329 **3.2 The Boundary-Object Framework: Operationalizing Geoscience** 330 **Communication**

331 The three lenses above explain why open data became politically viable and economically  
332 defensible in 2004, but they do not explain how satellite imagery actually crossed social  
333 worlds – how it became usable evidence for a journalist, a prosecutor, or an Indigenous  
334 territorial monitor who shared no common technical training with the satellite engineers  
335 who produced it. To account for that communicative dimension, this study draws on the



336 boundary-object framework (Star and Griesemer, 1989). Whereas the three lenses explain  
337 the political economy of the 2004 decision, the boundary-object framework explains its  
338 communicative effects: how open distribution transformed satellite data from a restricted  
339 technical product into a shared resource capable of sustaining governance action across  
340 heterogeneous communities.

341 In this study, satellite datasets and their derived maps are analyzed as artifacts robust  
342 enough to maintain a common identity across divergent social worlds (scientific, political,  
343 and activist) while remaining plastic enough to adapt to the specific informational needs  
344 of each. Within this framework, “shared geospatial language” – a standardized form  
345 enabling dispersed actors to work with the same data products without sharing technical  
346 training or interpretive frameworks (Star and Griesemer, 1989; Kuhn, 2005) – functions  
347 as a standardized informational package that enables cooperation among various actors  
348 without requiring consensus on underlying technical methodologies. In this study, its  
349 establishment is evidenced when actors from different institutional domains –  
350 enforcement agencies, NGOs, journalists, researchers, and Indigenous organizations – are  
351 documented using the same satellite-derived maps as the primary evidentiary basis for  
352 distinct and independently conducted activities.

353 “Communicative infrastructure” – the relational substrate through which boundary  
354 objects circulate and persist across social worlds, constituted by practice rather than by  
355 technical systems alone (Star and Ruhleder, 1996; Star, 1999) – encompasses the material  
356 systems (INPE’s web-based portals and data cubes) that make boundary objects  
357 accessible, stable, and replicable across institutional contexts. This concept is  
358 operationalized in the Brazilian environmental context by Rajão and Jarke (2018) and  
359 Assis et al. (2019). Communicative infrastructure is treated here as empirically present  
360 when the documentary record shows: first, that access to the data was technically  
361 available to non-specialist actors through standardized interfaces; second, that those  
362 actors demonstrably adopted it; and third, that the adoption produced governance  
363 outcomes linked to the imagery rather than to other information sources.

364 A full boundary-object analysis would require systematic ethnographic evidence tracing  
365 how the same artifact was interpreted differently within each social world, however what  
366 lies outside the scope of a document-based historical study. Therefore, this study will  
367 focus on the structural precondition for boundary-object dynamics: open distribution,



368 multi-community adoption, and documented governance outcomes across diverse actors.  
369 This is treated throughout as evidence that the data functioned as a boundary-object at the  
370 infrastructural level, while the community-level interpretive processes remain a  
371 productive direction for future empirical research.

372 It is important to highlight that the explanatory structure of this study is layered rather  
373 than additive. The *public-goods lens* clarifies why commercial cost-recovery was  
374 economically indefensible for medium-resolution data. The *institutional politics lens*  
375 explains why that economic logic alone was insufficient, and how INPE had to actively  
376 exploit legal ambiguity to make openness politically feasible. The *data democracy lens*  
377 supplies the normative vocabulary the actors themselves used in international forums.  
378 The boundary-object framework then explains what neither lens can: how the policy's  
379 effects actually reached a journalist, a prosecutor, or an Indigenous agent who do not  
380 share the same technical training that the satellite engineers who produced the data  
381 possess. Together, they allow the 2004 pivot to be read as a domestic governance strategy  
382 whose communicative impacts considerably exceeded the governance it was designed to  
383 serve.

#### 384 **4. Research Design and Methods**

385 This study combines historical institutionalism with interpretive policy analysis to  
386 reconstruct how Brazil's 2004 free-data decision was formulated, justified, and  
387 implemented, and how it subsequently shaped environmental governance and geoscience  
388 communication. These two methodological traditions are complementary: historical  
389 institutionalism provides the analytical vocabulary for explaining why the decision was  
390 possible at all – tracing path dependencies, identifying the conditions of the critical  
391 juncture, and reconstructing the incremental layering strategy through which INPE built  
392 a de facto open-data regime inside a formally restrictive legal framework (Mahoney and  
393 Thelen, 2010; Thelen, 1999); interpretive policy analysis provides the tools for examining  
394 how that decision was made legible and legitimate – attending to the policy narratives,  
395 metaphors, and framing contests through which satellite data was recharacterized from a  
396 security asset into a public good and, eventually, a diplomatic instrument (Yanow, 2000;  
397 Hajer, 1995).

398 This paper adopts a focused single-case design. Brazil's CBERS open-data decision  
399 qualifies as a critical case in Flyvbjerg's (2006) sense: the institutional conditions were



400 maximally unfavorable to an open-data outcome, which means that explaining the pivot  
401 requires reconstructing the specific moves INPE made rather than reading the result off  
402 from structural circumstances. The primary temporal scope is 2000-2012, capturing the  
403 pre-pivot legal tensions surrounding Decree 2278/97 and Project of Law 3587/00, the  
404 articulation and implementation of the 2004 policy, and the consolidation of Brazil's  
405 transparency infrastructure through the tenure of INPE Director Gilberto Câmara. Later  
406 episodes, such as the 2019-2022 contestation of INPE's deforestation data under political  
407 pressure, are discussed as stress tests of the infrastructure's resilience rather than as  
408 primary findings.

409 The empirical basis for the analytical approach is qualitative document analysis.  
410 Documents were selected if they directly addressed data access policy, institutional  
411 rationale for distribution decisions, or documented user and governance outcomes of the  
412 free-data regime; purely technical engineering manuals lacking these dimensions were  
413 excluded. Within this corpus, the analysis proceeds in two interpretive passes. The first  
414 reconstructs the chronological and institutional lineage of the 2004 pivot, establishing  
415 which actors held which positions at which moments and how the legal and political  
416 constraints evolved. The second attends to language: how satellite data was characterized  
417 across document types and over time, which actors deployed which framings, and how  
418 the vocabulary shifted from security to economic efficiency to democratic entitlement  
419 across the period 2000-2012. This attention to framing is not incidental; in the interpretive  
420 policy analysis tradition, the shift in how a problem is named and described is itself a  
421 political act that restructures what institutional responses appear reasonable (Hajer, 1995;  
422 Yanow, 2000).

423 The geoscience communication dimension was operationalized through a focused third  
424 pass over the corpus, attending specifically to documentary evidence of three phenomena:  
425 multi-actor adoption of the same satellite-derived evidence base for distinct institutional  
426 purposes; documented cases of non-specialist actors producing governance outcomes  
427 traceable to open imagery; and explicit framing contests in which the vocabulary used to  
428 describe satellite data shifted across actor communities or over time. These three markers  
429 were treated as empirically accessible representations for the communicative effects that



430 boundary-object theory predicts but that a document-based study cannot directly observe  
 431 at the community-interpretive level.

432 In this study, “primary” sources denote documents produced by the institutions directly  
 433 involved in negotiating, implementing, or contesting the CBERS data policy – including  
 434 bilateral agreements and legislation, INPE technical reports and legal analyses, and  
 435 technical or policy presentations by INPE leadership and partner organizations.  
 436 “Secondary” sources comprise private-sector testimonies, media reports, and academic  
 437 or NGO literature that independently assess remote sensing practices and environmental  
 438 governance outcomes, and are used to triangulate INPE’s self-descriptions and extend the  
 439 analysis beyond the institution’s own narrative. The “corpus type” and “analytic purpose”  
 440 columns in Table 1 therefore indicate, respectively, the institutional provenance and genre  
 441 of each cluster of documents, and the specific questions they are mobilized to answer  
 442 within the combined historical institutionalist and interpretive policy analysis.

443 Table 1 below summarizes the full analytical corpus, comprising 63 documents across  
 444 five categories spanning 1986 to 2025.

445 **Table 1: Summary of Analyzed Research Corpus (63 documents total)**

Corpus Type	Corpus Type/Specific	No. Documents	Date Range	Analytic Purpose	Document List
Primary	Bilateral policy documents & legislation	6	1986-2010	Establish the legal mandate of the CBERS program and the 2004 data policy framework.	UNGA, 1986; Brasil, 1997; Câmara dos Deputados, 2000; MCTI, 2004; Câmara and Ning, 2004; CRESDA and INPE, 2010.
Primary	INPE technical reports, publications, and legal analyses	10	2000-2024	Analyze internal rationales for data openness and methodologies (PRODES/DETER) for forest monitoring, as well as other publications.	Câmara et al. 1996; Sausen, 2001; Câmara and Fonseca, 2007; Ferreira and Câmara, 2008; Assis et al., 2019; Ferreira et al., 2020; Gomes et al., 2021; Soler et al., 2021; Satolo et al., 2023; Boscolo et al., 2024.
Primary	Technical & policy presentations by INPE leadership	16	2002-2012	Document the international advocacy of INPE leadership in redefining satellite imagery as a public infrastructure and a global utility, contrasting open-access benefits with restrictive commercial models.	Câmara, 2002; Câmara, 2003; Câmara, 2004; Câmara, 2005; Câmara, 2006a; Câmara, 2006b; Câmara, 2007a; Câmara, 2007b; GEO, 2007a; GEO, 2007b; Câmara, 2010a; Câmara, 2010b; Ferreira, 2010; GEO, 2010; Câmara, 2011; Epiphanyo and Silva, 2012.



Secondary	Private-sector testimonies & media reports	6	2006-2018	Document the commercial response to free satellite imagery and the “internet paradox” of zero-cost distribution.	Space News, 2006; Groom, 2007; MundoGEO, 2009; Marques, 2009; eoPortal, 2012; AWS Public Sector Blog, 2018.
Secondary	Supporting literature on remote sensing & environmental governance	22	2009-2025	Comprehend and evaluate long-term normative influence, and to triangulate institutional history with independent assessments of civic monitoring and deforestation control.	Rajão and Hayes, 2009; Borner, 2010; Rajão, 2012; Rajão, 2013; Vitel et al., 2013; Chazdon, 2014; Nepstad et al., 2014; Rajão and Georgiadou, 2014; May et al. 2016; Fearnside, 2017; Rajão and Jarke, 2018; Maurano et al., 2019; Nascimento, 2019; Cerbaro et al., 2020; Souza et al., 2020; Parente et al., 2021; West and Fearnside, 2021; Higa et al., 2022; Sales et al., 2022; GEO, 2023; Nunes et al., 2024; UN-GGIM, 2025.

446 This design has acknowledged limitations. It relies on publicly available documents<sup>4</sup>  
 447 rather than interviews with key decision-makers or access to classified material, and it  
 448 does not provide comparative analysis of parallel cases in other countries. The data  
 449 democracy framework, while drawn from the actors’ own international advocacy corpus  
 450 rather than imposed retrospectively, is applied in the discussion to evaluate longer-term  
 451 normative implications rather than as a characterization of the motivations operative in  
 452 2004. These constraints are consistent with the study’s purpose: to establish the  
 453 institutional and communicative mechanics of a critical but underexamined case, and to  
 454 generate theoretically grounded propositions that comparative analysis can subsequently  
 455 test.

456 **5. Findings: The 2004 Pivot – Institutional Context, Strategic**  
 457 **Rationales, and Implementation**

458 **5.1 Institutional Context: From Commercial Vision to Free Distribution**

459 The China-Brazil Earth Resources Satellite program, established by a 1988 cooperation  
 460 agreement and operationally initiated with the CBERS-1 launch in 1999, represented a

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<sup>4</sup> The corpus of technical and policy presentations by INPE leadership was mostly compiled through targeted searches of publicly available digital repositories. Gilberto Câmara’s personal academic archive ([http://www.dpi.inpe.br/gilberto/new\\_page.php?lm=present.csv&lr=present\\_right.csv](http://www.dpi.inpe.br/gilberto/new_page.php?lm=present.csv&lr=present_right.csv)) was reviewed to isolate presentations delivered to international institutions, such as the GEO and CODATA, which articulated the rationale for the free-data policy.



461 historic South-South technological collaboration (Sausen, 2001; eoPortal, 2012). Two  
462 developing nations pooled resources and expertise to build an independent medium-  
463 resolution Earth observation system designed to break the “pattern of single-country  
464 ownership” by wealthy nations (Sausen, 2001; GEO, 2007a). CBERS-1 and CBERS-2  
465 (launched 2003) featured a multi-sensor payload, notably a High-Resolution CCD  
466 Camera providing 20-meter spatial resolution imagery, a strategic niche between  
467 expensive commercial systems and coarser public alternatives (Sausen, 2001; eoPortal,  
468 2012).

469 Critically, both Brazil and China initially envisioned CBERS as a commercial venture.  
470 Early operational frameworks relied on selling imagery, reflecting conventional space-  
471 agency wisdom that data sales should help recover high capital costs (Groom, 2007;  
472 Borowitz, 2020). The total investment for the first two satellites eventually reached  
473 US\$350 million (Marques, 2009), and partners anticipated that commercial data sales  
474 would be necessary to fund operations and future satellites. This model underperformed  
475 significantly: INPE sold fewer than 1,000 CBERS images annually prior to the 2004 shift,  
476 a stark contrast to the approximately 2,000 Landsat scenes it distributed each year as a  
477 USGS distributor under the same fee-based regime (Ferreira and Câmara, 2008; Ferreira,  
478 2010).

479 It was precisely this commercial underperformance that created the institutional opening  
480 for a fundamentally different approach. The CBERS Data Policy Version 1.8, signed in  
481 June 2004 by Gilberto Câmara (INPE) and Guo Jian Ning (CRESDA), established a dual-  
482 regime framework crucial to understand accurately (Câmara and Ning, 2004). The formal  
483 policy was not a blanket open-data mandate; it codified commercial norms for  
484 international distribution, including revenue sharing and mandatory “international price  
485 lists” for third-party distributors (MCTI, 2004). However, a strategic clause explicitly  
486 stated that “distribution policy for data collected by [each nation’s] ground stations will  
487 be defined by each operator” (Câmara and Ning, 2004, p. 2). This legal artifice effectively  
488 dissociated domestic distribution from international commercial obligations, granting  
489 INPE autonomy to unilaterally abolish user fees for Brazilian territory without violating  
490 the bilateral treaty.

491 On June 28, 2004, INPE announced that all CBERS-2 imagery received at Brazilian  
492 ground stations would be freely distributed via the internet through the INPE Catalog and



493 Dissemination System for Remote Sensing Images (CDSR).<sup>5</sup> Contrary to past tiered  
494 pricing, this new regime required only user registration and eliminated fees for all sectors  
495 (Câmara, 2006a, 2006b; Nascimento, 2019). This was a strategic “de facto data policy,”  
496 adopted within a formally commercial bilateral framework and explicitly designed to  
497 bypass the security-constrained legal environment of Decree 2278/97 (Ferreira and  
498 Câmara, 2008). Distribution scaled progressively as adoption grew: INPE delivered  
499 53,000 scenes in the first eight months alone (averaging approximately 6,600 images per  
500 month), reaching 210,000 cumulative scenes by May 2006 and surpassing 350,000  
501 images distributed between April 2004 and January 2008 – at which point monthly  
502 distribution rates had climbed to over 10,000 images per month, effectively rendering the  
503 military-era information control paradigm obsolete (Câmara, 2006a, 2006b; Epiphany  
504 and Silva, 2012). This development, from less than 1,000 CBERS transactions annually  
505 under a fee regime to a cumulative 350,000 free distributions over 45 months, prefigures  
506 the pattern Wulder et al. (2012) later documented for Landsat after 2008, when annual  
507 distributions rose from 25,000 to 2.5 million within two years.

508 The domestic distribution logic of 2004 was formally extended at the international level  
509 in 2010, when Brazil and China signed an updated CBERS data policy establishing free  
510 and open access for all developing nations (GEO, 2010; CRESDA and INPE, 2010).  
511 Brazil simultaneously announced agreements with ground stations in the Canary Islands  
512 (Spain/Maspalomas), Egypt (Aswan), and South Africa (Hartebeesthoek) to expand the  
513 CBERS for Africa initiative launched at Cape Town in 2007, with ongoing discussions  
514 covering the Congo Basin, Gabon, and Kenya (GEO, 2010). This distribution trajectory  
515 – from a unilateral domestic clause in 2004 to a multilateral open-access commitment in  
516 2010 – illustrates how the institutional strategy reconstructed in this study scaled from  
517 national governance innovation to explicit South-South infrastructure diplomacy.

## 518 **5.2 Strategic Rationales**

519 Document analysis reveals that INPE justified the 2004 pivot through several interlocking  
520 arguments. The primary economic rationale was productivity: INPE leadership explicitly  
521 framed high data cost as a “barrier to entry” stifling innovation, arguing that removing

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<sup>5</sup> The CDSR interface allowed users to employ “quick-looks” (preview thumbnails) to verify cloud cover and scene relevance before downloading full-resolution files, significantly reducing bandwidth waste and user frustration (Ferreira, 2010).



522 financial and transactional hurdles would unleash repressed demand for geospatial  
523 information and catalyze an expansion in Earth observation capacity within Brazil and  
524 the Global South (Câmara, 2006a, 2006b; Groom, 2007).

525 The empirical record supports this hypothesis. As the distribution trajectory documented  
526 in Section 5.1 shows, demand was not absent but suppressed: once financial barriers were  
527 removed, uptake expanded at a scale that INPE's own productivity framing had  
528 anticipated. User surveys reinforced this, revealing that over 50% of registered users had  
529 never engaged with satellite imagery before the policy change, and that over half were  
530 private companies using free imagery to develop value-added services rather than for  
531 scientific purposes (MundoGEO, 2009; Câmara, 2006a, 2006b).

532 Beyond productivity, INPE justified the pivot as an assertion of strategic geopolitical  
533 autonomy. By offering satellite data as infrastructure for global science, Brazil and China  
534 demonstrated that developing nations could not only build independent Earth observation  
535 systems but provide essential infrastructure for global environmental monitoring  
536 (Câmara, 2006a, 2006b; Câmara, 2007a, 2007b; Epiphany and Silva, 2012). This  
537 repositioned CBERS from a unsuccessful commercial Landsat competitor into a  
538 complementary resource filling critical data gaps for the Global South (Space News,  
539 2006; Groom, 2007). INPE framed this as reinforcing Brazil's institutional leadership in  
540 tropical Earth observation and South-South technological cooperation, converting a  
541 commercial liability into a diplomatic asset (GEO, 2007a).

542 Regarding transparency and accountability, INPE emphasized that free CBERS data  
543 strengthened Brazil's environmental governance infrastructure. In a context where  
544 deforestation rates were accelerating dramatically in the early 2000s, satellite data became  
545 a critical tool for producing verifiable, reproducible evidence of environmental change  
546 and for "protecting our home planet" through improved rainforest monitoring (Câmara,  
547 2005, 2007b; Epiphany and Silva, 2012). DETER deployment in 2004 marked a turning  
548 point: by making both monitoring products (PRODES, DETER) and underlying satellite  
549 imagery freely available, Brazil made it significantly harder for state or private actors to  
550 deny or obscure forest loss (Câmara, 2006a; Câmara, 2007b). External actors – such as  
551 NGOs, scientists, environmental and Indigenous organizations – could independently  
552 verify and reanalyze official outputs, converting data into infrastructure for accountability  
553 rather than merely national environmental governance (Rajão and Georgiadou, 2014).



554 Finally, INPE justified the pivot through an industrial-policy logic, reimagining the  
555 state’s role in the geospatial value chain. Communications from INPE leadership and  
556 private-sector testimonies reveal a deliberate choice to shift commercial value from  
557 “upstream” satellite operation to “downstream” value-added services (Câmara, 2006a;  
558 Epiphania and Silva, 2012). Revenue from selling medium-resolution scenes was modest  
559 and insufficient to finance meaningful Research and Development (R&D), while pricing  
560 barriers stifled the broader economy (Groom, 2007). By removing these barriers, INPE  
561 subsidized raw data to catalyze a competitive market for analysis, Geographic  
562 Information System (GIS) integration, and specialized consulting targeted at  
563 environmental management, deforestation control, and land-use regulation (Câmara,  
564 2006a, 2006b; Epiphania and Silva, 2012; Nascimento, 2019). Private firms testified that  
565 free CBERS data enabled new business development and job creation by reducing data  
566 acquisition costs, allowing them to redirect capital from purchasing imagery to  
567 developing proprietary algorithms (Câmara, 2006a, 2006b; Epiphania and Silva, 2012;  
568 AWS Public Sector Blog, 2018; Cerbaro et al., 2020).

### 569 **5.3 Implementation: Web Portals and Direct Data Access**

570 The 2004 policy was operationalized through the deployment of INPE’s Catalog and  
571 Dissemination System for Remote Sensing Images (CDSR), mentioned in section 5.1.  
572 This web-based portal fundamentally altered the user experience by allowing individuals  
573 to search, preview, and download imagery without institutional intermediaries or  
574 specialized expertise (MundoGEO, 2009). Prior to web portals, data distribution was  
575 defined by high transactional costs: researchers were required to submit formal requests,  
576 wait for manual processing, and pay per-scene fees, a cycle restricting access to a small  
577 elite (Ferreira and Câmara, 2008). The web-based system democratized this infrastructure  
578 by making imagery browsable and immediately downloadable through standardized  
579 interfaces.

580 The logic of the “internet paradox”<sup>6</sup> meant that while digital platforms reduced  
581 distribution costs to near zero (the idea that “a pixel saved is a penny wasted”), a free-  
582 data policy was necessary to satisfy the enormous demand for imagery in developing

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<sup>6</sup> INPE’s use of “internet paradox” here is idiosyncratic and should not be confused with the productivity paradox identified by Solow (1987), which refers to the absence of computer-driven productivity gains in aggregate economic statistics. INPE’s usage refers specifically to the disjuncture between near-zero marginal distribution costs and artificially maintained access barriers.



583 nations (Câmara, 2006a, 2006b). This synergy transformed the CBERS archive from a  
584 static repository into a dynamic global resource, validating INPE's argument that  
585 removing barriers to entry was a prerequisite for capacity building (Câmara, 2006b).

586 However, while web portals successfully dismantled financial and institutional barriers,  
587 they simultaneously exposed a secondary limitation: the severe shortage of individuals  
588 possessing the technical skills needed to interpret and leverage newly available datasets  
589 (Câmara, 2006b). Although data access was democratized, taking full advantage of Earth  
590 observation archives still required considerable expertise in data management, specialized  
591 file formats, and spatial analysis (Gorelick et al., 2017). In the Brazilian context, the lack  
592 of skilled personnel capable of processing raw satellite imagery into actionable  
593 information emerged as the primary bottleneck for environmental management (Cerbaro  
594 et al., 2020). This knowledge gap highlighted that simply providing direct access to raw  
595 imagery was not always sufficient, and that overcoming the 'lack of expertise' remained  
596 a critical challenge in fully realizing the capacity-building potential of open-data policies  
597 (Câmara, 2002; Câmara, 2006b). The structural dimensions of this gap suggest that open-  
598 data policy is a necessary but not sufficient condition for the capacity-building outcomes  
599 INPE envisioned, presenting a limit that the distribution figures document but cannot  
600 fully explain.

## 601 **6. Analysis: Transformative Effects**

### 602 **6.1 Capacity Building Across Sectors**

603 The most immediate and measurable consequence of the 2004 pivot was the creation of  
604 a distributed monitoring ecosystem. By removing financial barriers to entry, INPE  
605 catalyzed a dramatic expansion in satellite data utilization, critically altering the  
606 operational capacity of environmental, academic, and governance sectors in Brazil.

607 Environmental organizations previously relying on expensive commissioned analysis  
608 gained autonomy to conduct independent monitoring and evaluation. Organizations such  
609 as the Amazon Institute of Environmental Research (Imazon) and the Socio-  
610 environmental Institute (ISA) utilized the open-data regime to undertake multi-year forest  
611 change analyses, publishing peer-reviewed reports holding the government accountable  
612 (Rajão and Georgiadou, 2014). The validation by external actors also reinforced official



613 alerts' political resonance, creating what Rajão and Hayes (2009) call “common ground”  
614 for policy debate.

615 The policy also addressed the acute knowledge gap in the Global South. Universities,  
616 often underfunded for research infrastructure, could finally access satellite imagery  
617 without dedicated grant funding solely for data acquisition (Groom, 2007). Access  
618 democratization promoted research frontier expansion beyond the Amazon: local  
619 universities began using CBERS and Landsat data to monitor the Cerrado biome, paving  
620 the way for later PRODES and DETER expansion to non-forest ecosystems (Parente et  
621 al., 2021). Through the “CBERS for Africa” initiative, Brazil exported this model,  
622 providing free imagery to ground stations in South Africa, Kenya, and Gabon (GEO,  
623 2007b, 2010).

624 At the state level, the open-data policy provided an operational backbone for  
625 environmental enforcement. Satellite data integration into enforcement operations via  
626 DETER allowed agencies including the Brazilian Institute of Environment and  
627 Renewable Natural Resources (Ibama) to shift from reactive to proactive policing (Sales  
628 et al., 2022). Real-time imagery enabled rapid identification of illegal logging and land-  
629 grabbing, facilitating enforcement deployment to precise coordinates (Nunes et al., 2024).  
630 Nunes et al. (2024) explicitly credit satellite-derived deforestation monitoring (combining  
631 PRODES, DETER, and CBERS data) with the acceleration of Brazil's historic  
632 deforestation reduction between 2004 and 2012. During this period, the correlation  
633 between deforestation hotspots and fines issued rose sharply, suggesting that transparency  
634 successfully converted data into operational state capacity.

635 The democratization of satellite imagery also catalyzed supply-chain interventions by  
636 bridging civil society activism and legal enforcement. Intermediary entities – including  
637 the public prosecutor's office (*Ministério Público*) acting alongside NGOs like  
638 Greenpeace – utilized newly accessible visual evidence to forge novel forms of corporate  
639 accountability. By translating raw Earth observation data into actionable market and legal  
640 metrics, these actors successfully pressured industries to adopt zero-deforestation supply



641 chain commitments, most notably the 2006 Soy Moratorium<sup>7</sup> and the 2009 Cattle  
642 Agreement<sup>8</sup> (Nepstad et al., 2014).

## 643 **6.2 Transparency, Verification, and Multi-Scalar Accountability**

644 Before freely accessible satellite data, quantifying forest loss depended almost solely on  
645 official government estimates, which could be contested or concealed by competing  
646 interests (Rajão and Georgiadou, 2014). Release of raw satellite imagery alongside  
647 processed monitoring data rendered denial politically costly: forest loss became visible,  
648 mapped, and quantifiable by any analyst with internet access (Rajão and Hayes, 2009).

649 The success of this transparency regime depended on a communicative infrastructure  
650 whose origins Rajão & Jarke (2018) document partially. They show that PRODES and  
651 DETER shaped the configuration of different forms of environmental activism through  
652 the material properties of the data. The documentary corpus examined here  
653 recontextualizes that finding: what they attribute to data materiality was also, and  
654 crucially, the communicative effect of the 2004 institutional decision to open the  
655 underlying satellite archive. Without CBERS free distribution, the disaggregated DETER  
656 alerts would have lacked the independent imagery layer that civil society monitors needed  
657 to cross-check official data. INPE leadership championed this logic under the motto  
658 “transparency builds governance,” and open satellite imagery fed directly into public  
659 monitoring platforms such as “amazônia.vc,” hosted by the media outlet Globo with  
660 INPE’s data (Câmara, 2010a; Sá and Grieco, 2016). The resulting visibility catalyzed  
661 widespread civic mobilization: campaigns urging citizens to “keep a watch on the  
662 Amazon and protest against its destruction” reportedly generated 500,000 registrations  
663 and 46 million protest actions (Câmara, 2010a). This distributed monitoring capacity also  
664 facilitated coordinated law enforcement on the ground, including illegal timber seizures  
665 by the Federal Police, and contributed to a historic decline in forest loss – Amazonian  
666 deforestation fell by roughly 78%, from over 27,000 km<sup>2</sup> in 2004 to just 6,200 km<sup>2</sup> by  
667 2011 (Câmara, 2010a).

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<sup>7</sup> Initiated in 2006 following a Greenpeace-led campaign targeting the Brazilian Amazon soy industry, the Soy Moratorium was a landmark agreement joined by major soybean buyers to exclude from their supply chains any farmers who grew soy on lands deforested after July 26, 2006.

<sup>8</sup> The 2009 Cattle Agreement emerged from targeted NGO campaigns combined with legal proceedings by the public prosecutor’s office against irregular slaughterhouses. It compelled the region’s largest beef processing companies to boycott livestock producers who deforested after October 2009.



668 This mechanism transformed both media practice and public accountability. Journalists  
669 could no longer be limited to official government sources; they collaborated with NGOs  
670 and independent researchers to translate technical satellite data into civic monitoring  
671 campaigns (Rajão and Jarke, 2018). The cumulative effect was to establish a public  
672 evidential resource that made political denialism of deforestation scientifically untenable  
673 (Rajão and Jarke, 2018).

674 The transparency infrastructure faced its most significant test between 2019 and 2022.  
675 Deforestation figures released by INPE were more trusted at a politically delicate moment  
676 precisely because independent researchers could replicate them with freely available data  
677 (Rajão and Georgiadou, 2014). Despite high-level political attempts to dispute INPE  
678 findings that culminated in the 2019 dismissal of INPE Director Ricardo Galvão<sup>9</sup> for  
679 publicly defending data accuracy, the open system nature of the infrastructure made it  
680 resilient. Because raw satellite imagery and interpretation methodologies remained  
681 public, independent organizations such as Imazon and MapBiomas could provide  
682 counter-verification of deforestation trends and support Galvão's claims.<sup>10</sup> This episode  
683 demonstrated that the 2004 pivot created epistemic resilience: even when the state's  
684 political narrative shifted away from conservation, the distributed geospatial  
685 infrastructure remained a public asset. However, this pattern of contestation and  
686 institutional resilience was not new to 2019.

687 An earlier episode, reconstructed by Sá and Grieco (2016) from interview data, occurred  
688 in early 2008 when the state government of Mato Grosso challenged the accuracy of  
689 DETER alerts, arguing they overstated deforestation within its borders. INPE's  
690 subsequent quality assessment demonstrated that 96% of its alerts were correct, and the  
691 controversy led to a formal monthly evaluation protocol that ultimately strengthened  
692 DETER's credibility rather than undermining it (Sá and Grieco, 2016). The episode is  
693 analytically consistent with the argument developed here: transparency, by making

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<sup>9</sup> In August 2019, INPE Director Ricardo Galvão was removed from his post after publicly defending the integrity of DETER and PRODES data against accusations of being “at the service of some NGO.” This event is widely cited as a benchmark for the tension between scientific autonomy and political interference in environmental monitoring.

<sup>10</sup> Independent monitoring systems, such as Imazon's SAD (Deforestation Alert System) and the multi-institutional MapBiomas Alerta, utilize the same open-data philosophy initiated in 2004, providing a civil-society safeguard that ensures data continuity even during periods of official government pressure or budget constraints.



694 methodology publicly auditable, converts political challenges into occasions for  
695 institutional reinforcement rather than collapse.

696 At the international level, the open-data policy functioned as a geopolitical asset, moving  
697 Brazil from a defensive target of environmental criticism to a proactive advocate for open-  
698 data norms for environmental monitoring. By providing verifiable evidence of forest  
699 monitoring capabilities, Brazil positioned itself as a responsible planetary resources  
700 manager at the time, a prerequisite for attracting international climate finance such as the  
701 Amazon Fund (Rajão and Georgiadou, 2014; May et al., 2016). This transformed satellite  
702 data into what effectively became a currency of trust required for REDD+ mechanisms,  
703 positioning Brazil as an active contributor to, rather than a passive recipient of, the  
704 technical standards emerging in international climate finance architecture (Borner et al.,  
705 2010). The 2010 GEO Ministerial Statement provides direct documentary evidence of  
706 this dynamic: Brazil described a 2009 COP-15 agreement with FAO committing it to  
707 transfer its forest monitoring technology to other developing nations under the UN-REDD  
708 program, with the Congo Basin as the primary focus and capacity-building operations  
709 planned for the first half of 2011 (GEO, 2010). This agreement materially demonstrates  
710 that Brazil's transparency infrastructure had become an exportable diplomatic asset,  
711 confirming the transformation of INPE's monitoring capacity from a domestic  
712 governance tool into a constitutive element of international climate finance architecture.

713 Perhaps the most symbolically significant consequence was the democratization of  
714 territorial monitoring for Indigenous communities. By removing cost and authorization  
715 barriers, the policy enabled a shift from state-led surveillance to the emergence of  
716 Indigenous counter-mapping initiatives (Peluso, 1995; Rajão, 2013). Subaltern actors  
717 began appropriating high-tech infrastructure to render their own territories visible and  
718 legally defensible, turning state-developed tools against illegal intrusion and occupation.

719 A landmark example, though one requiring careful qualification, is the Paiter Suruí  
720 Carbon Project (2009-2018). In its first years, the Suruí people strategically used open  
721 access satellite imagery to document forest carbon stocks, entering international carbon  
722 markets and exercising territorial sovereignty independently of federal intermediaries  
723 (Vitel et al., 2013). The project was indefinitely suspended in 2018, however, due to  
724 illegal mining incursion, internal governance breakdown, and a fundamental gap between  
725 monitoring capacity and state enforcement. Its suspension cannot be read as evidence of



726 open data’s limits, neither cause was addressable by the 2004 data policy. What the case  
727 demonstrates is more precise: open data was a necessary but insufficient condition for  
728 epistemic sovereignty, and its effectiveness was contingent on enforcement and  
729 institutional support structures that lay entirely outside INPE’s open-data infrastructure.

730 The transparency regime’s benefits were not without operational complications. Sá and  
731 Grieco (2016) document that by 2014, INPE and IBAMA had introduced a staggered  
732 release schedule for DETER alerts, publishing aggregate statistics at the end of each  
733 quarter while delaying spatially specific alert data by one additional quarter. The reason  
734 was a direct and somewhat paradoxical consequence of the open-data logic itself: those  
735 responsible for illegal deforestation had begun using real-time alerts to anticipate  
736 enforcement visits and prepare accordingly. This reveals a structural tension in  
737 transparency-as-governance, since the same openness that enables civic monitoring and  
738 accountability can, under certain conditions, also forearm the actors it was designed to  
739 surveil (Sá and Grieco, 2016). The authors affirm that the 2014 adjustment was a  
740 pragmatic recalibration rather than an abandonment of open-data principles, but this  
741 makes it clear that the transparency infrastructure was not self-sustaining once  
742 established; it required ongoing institutional management to remain effective without  
743 being turned against its own purpose.

### 744 **6.3 Cross-Disciplinary Collaboration and Shared Geospatial Language**

745 The transition toward open-access satellite data promoted a convergence of analytical  
746 languages across disciplines (Câmara, 2002; Câmara, 2004). By removing data access  
747 friction, this shift created the structural conditions for satellite imagery to operate as a  
748 boundary-object at the infrastructural level: the open archive provided historians,  
749 ecologists, and policymakers with a common baseline of evidence while leaving each  
750 community free to develop its own interpretive practices, a pattern documented in the  
751 secondary literature on Brazilian environmental governance (Star and Griesemer, 1989;  
752 Rajão, 2013; Wulder et al., 2022).

753 However, this cross-disciplinary collaboration was not automatic; it relied heavily on the  
754 active cultivation of geoscience communication. As data became abundant, a critical need  
755 emerged for “boundary-spanners” – credible mediators capable of translating between  
756 remote sensing experts and non-specialists (Ramachandran et al., 2021). These  
757 intermediaries were essential to ensure that shared geospatial language successfully



758    crossed disciplinary and social boundaries, turning raw boundary-objects into mutual  
759    understanding.

760    The availability of multi-decadal temporal series fundamentally shifted environmental  
761    history and political ecology. Environmental historians and anthropologists studying  
762    Amazonian occupation utilized these series to reconstruct land-use transitions with spatial  
763    precision (Brondizio and Moran, 2012). Ecological research transitioned from snapshot  
764    measurements to dynamic monitoring of forest fragmentation and wildlife corridor  
765    connectivity, quantifying “re-greening” signatures of secondary forests and forest  
766    regeneration (Chazdon, 2014; Fearnside, 2017).

767    The convergence on a common evidential baseline is most concretely documented in the  
768    MapBiomass initiative, where NGOs, universities, and technology companies used the  
769    same open satellite archive to produce land-cover maps that both civil society, media, and  
770    state agencies subsequently cited, an instance where shared access to the same imagery  
771    demonstrably sustained collaboration across institutional boundaries without  
772    methodological consensus (Souza et al., 2020).<sup>11</sup> By utilizing the open-data legacy  
773    alongside cloud computing platforms like Google Earth Engine, MapBiomass established  
774    a multi-institutional network effectively crowdsourcing land-use change interpretation  
775    across all Brazilian biomes (Souza et al., 2020). This decentralized satellite data, allowing  
776    civil society to speak the same geospatial language as the government, effectively  
777    transferred epistemic authority from the state to a distributed network of monitors (Rajão  
778    and Jarke, 2018; Souza et al., 2020). Policymakers and scientists’ dialogue was also  
779    transformed by PRODES and DETER outputs. Deforestation maps (visual, spatially  
780    explicit, and regularly updated) proved more persuasive than statistical tables alone, a  
781    representational clarity institutionalized through platforms like TerraBrasilis<sup>12</sup> (Assis et  
782    al., 2019).

783    The free availability of CBERS and Landsat data, paired with open-source software  
784    innovations – initially through INPE’s TerraLib/TerraAmazon, later through global  
785    platforms like QGIS and Google Earth Engine – democratized the capacity for high-level

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<sup>11</sup> MapBiomass, a collaborative network of NGOs, universities, and technology companies, builds upon the open-data foundation to produce annual land-cover and land-use maps, providing a high-resolution counter-narrative and validation for official state figures. Accessible at: <https://brasil.mapbiomas.org/>.

<sup>12</sup> TerraBrasilis is the official web-based platform created by INPE to provide access to the results of its monitoring programs (PRODES and DETER). Accessible at: <https://terrabrasilis.dpi.inpe.br/>.



786 analysis (Gorelick et al., 2017; Assis et al., 2019). This contributed to Global South  
787 researchers' ability to act as knowledge producers and confident communicators of their  
788 own environmental realities, rather than merely data subjects and consumers, which  
789 became central to what Brazilian actors would later articulate as the data democracy  
790 agenda (GEO, 2010; Câmara, 2011).

## 791 **7. Discussion: Implications for Geoscience Communication and** 792 **Open Earth Observation Governance**

793 The three implications developed in this section extend the historical findings into  
794 geoscience communication practice and open Earth observation governance. They are  
795 grounded in the documentary record but go beyond what it alone can demonstrate, and  
796 are offered as analytically informed propositions intended to orient comparative research  
797 rather than as independently established conclusions.

### 798 **7.1 Open Earth Observation Data as Infrastructure for Climate Finance** 799 **Transparency**

800 In the 2020s, satellite Earth observation data has become central to climate finance  
801 architecture. Monitoring, Reporting and Verification (MRV) systems for climate  
802 mitigation and adaptation depend fundamentally on transparent, non-proprietary data  
803 streams that allow donors and recipients to agree on consistent baselines (Wulder et al.,  
804 2022), and mechanisms under UNFCCC REDD+ programs and the Paris Agreement rely  
805 on this open infrastructure to verify emission reductions independent of state self-  
806 reporting (West and Fearnside, 2021). The genealogy of this infrastructure reaches further  
807 back than is commonly acknowledged: Zhu et al. (2019) note that the UNFCCC REDD+  
808 mechanism was specified partly based on what could be monitored using Landsat – a  
809 specification developed in the same international forums where Brazilian representatives  
810 were actively arguing for open Earth observation data as a precondition for equitable  
811 climate governance. Whether that advocacy directly shaped the final REDD+  
812 specifications cannot be established from the documentary record; what is demonstrable  
813 is that it circulated in precisely the institutional spaces where those decisions were made  
814 (Câmara, 2007b; Câmara, 2010b; Nascimento, 2019).



815 The broader pattern of Brazilian advocacy in these forums is well documented. In his  
816 2007 Royal Society lecture and subsequent Beijing briefing, Câmara framed CBERS as  
817 a contribution to a future constellation of satellites that would provide free global land  
818 imaging for all countries, explicitly calling for a CEOS land imaging constellation built  
819 on open-access norms (Câmara, 2007b; Câmara, 2010a). Brazil's 2010 GEO Ministerial  
820 Statement exemplifies this advocacy at the intergovernmental level: the Brazilian  
821 delegation linked open Earth observation data to sustainable development transitions for  
822 the Global South, outlined the expansion of CBERS data-sharing agreements across  
823 Africa, and announced the operationalization of the COP-15 FAO agreement for MRV  
824 technology transfer – all within the same forum where global Earth observation data  
825 norms were being actively debated (GEO, 2010).

826 Beyond carbon accounting mechanics, the open-data legacy has become a prerequisite  
827 for epistemic equity in Loss-and-Damage (L&D) assessments. As UNFCCC negotiations  
828 intensify following the L&D Fund establishment, non-proprietary satellite imagery  
829 enables developing countries and civil-society organizations to independently document  
830 climate-related disasters, challenging the geospatial dominance historically held by  
831 Global North agencies (Boscolo et al., 2024; Rufin et al., 2025; UN-GGIM, 2025). Recent  
832 work on CBERS-04A active fire mapping in the Brazilian Pantanal biome illustrates how  
833 nationally operated satellites and open data can generate high-resolution evidence of  
834 climate-related disasters in vulnerable biomes (Higa et al., 2022).

## 835 **7.2 Data Democracy as a Global South Framework for Open Earth** 836 **Observation**

837 As Section 3.1 established, the data democracy framework is grounded in the actors'  
838 (INPE's leadership) own vocabulary rather than imposed retrospectively. What that  
839 grounding enables, analytically, is a connection between the Brazilian case and a broader  
840 scholarly conversation about the distributive consequences of open data policies for the  
841 Global South. Academic usage of the concept has converged on a core tension: that mere  
842 availability of open data does not constitute data democracy if the capacity to interpret  
843 and derive policy-relevant knowledge from it remains concentrated in Northern  
844 institutions (Pearlman et al., 2016; Johnson et al., 2021). INPE's simultaneous investment  
845 in open software platforms (SPRING, TerraLib, TerraAmazon) alongside open imagery  
846 anticipates precisely this distinction: the 2004 decision was calibrated to enable



847 interpretation capacity, not just data access, across the Global South (Câmara and  
848 Fonseca, 2007; Ferreira and Câmara, 2008).

849 This tension was not theoretical for INPE. The same documents that record the triumph  
850 of free distribution also acknowledge its limit: within years of the 2004 pivot, INPE  
851 identified a severe shortage of personnel capable of processing raw satellite imagery into  
852 actionable information as the primary bottleneck to realizing the capacity-building  
853 potential of open access (Câmara, 2006b; Cerbaro et al., 2020). The 2004 opening was  
854 adjusted to address this by releasing open software alongside the data, but the gap between  
855 data availability and interpretive capacity persisted well beyond the initial distribution  
856 phase, pointing to a structural limit that free access alone could not resolve: the shortage  
857 of trained personnel capable of converting raw satellite imagery into actionable  
858 environmental knowledge.

859 Its contemporary relevance has only intensified. While medium-resolution data has been  
860 substantially democratized since 2004, new access pressures are emerging around high-  
861 resolution commercial imagery: operators increasingly gather granular data over Global  
862 South territories at resolutions unmatched by public systems, often selling this  
863 intelligence back to the very nations over which it was collected (Rufin et al., 2025).  
864 Grounded in the logic of publicly funded infrastructure obligations rather than efficiency  
865 arguments alone, the data democracy proposition offers a more durable normative  
866 foundation for resisting this enclosure than technical or economic reasoning alone. The  
867 2004 precedent established that a Global South nation could assert the terms of access to  
868 its own territorial data and build the institutional infrastructure necessary to sustain that  
869 assertion independently. Both the CBERS-04A active fire mapping work in the Pantanal  
870 (Higa et al., 2022) and the MapBiomass initiative (Souza et al., 2020) exemplify this  
871 trajectory: sovereign analytical capacity, grounded in publicly funded data and open-  
872 source tools, that has so far proven resilient against both commercial enclosure pressures  
873 and direct political interference – as the 2019-2022 episode demonstrated.

### 874 **7.3 Interdisciplinary Collaboration and Geoscience in Sustainable** 875 **Development**

876 The preceding analysis has shown how the 2004 decision transformed satellite imagery  
877 into shared infrastructure for cross-disciplinary knowledge production. What the  
878 historical record cannot resolve, however, is whether that transformation is sufficient for



879 the knowledge production demands of the present moment – and the evidence suggests  
880 that alone it is not.

881 Contemporary challenges (climate adaptation, biodiversity conservation, Indigenous  
882 territorial rights recognition, among others) require not only that data be accessible but  
883 that the capacity to interpret, analyze, and act upon it be genuinely distributed (Kapur et  
884 al., 2018). Other studies also identify a structural gap here: open data policies address the  
885 first condition but not the second, often failing to provide the institutional resources or  
886 shared infrastructures needed to translate raw data into actionable knowledge on the  
887 ground (Cerbaro et al., 2020; Craglia and Nativi, 2018). Modern Earth system science  
888 demands a shift toward open science more broadly conceived, entailing algorithmic and  
889 workflow transparency alongside raw imagery sharing, so that Global South researchers  
890 can function as active knowledge producers rather than data consumers who remain  
891 dependent on Northern analytical infrastructure (Ramachandran et al., 2021; Craglia and  
892 Nativi, 2018). Platforms co-locating data and computing (such as Data Cubes) are  
893 emerging as essential infrastructure to lower technical barriers for interdisciplinary teams  
894 (Baumann et al., 2018; Ferreira et al., 2020; Gomes et al., 2021; Satolo et al., 2023).

895 The 2004 decision anticipated this challenge more than is commonly recognized. By  
896 opening access to data and tools simultaneously, INPE implicitly acknowledged that data  
897 availability without interpretive capacity is insufficient. This simultaneity facilitated the  
898 emergence of a new generation of environmental data scientists and geoscience  
899 communicators across the developing world (Câmara and Fonseca, 2007; Kapur et al.,  
900 2018). The implication for contemporary open-data policy here is direct: the 2004  
901 model's most replicable feature is the institutional commitment to building sovereign  
902 analytical capacity alongside free distribution, a bundling that distinguishes it from  
903 policies that treated access as sufficient in itself. Where that commitment was present, the  
904 authority to define, monitor, and communicate environmental reality could be shared with  
905 the communities most affected by planetary change rather than concentrated in well-  
906 resourced institutions elsewhere (Câmara, 2002; Câmara, 2011).

## 907 **8. Conclusion**

908 This study aimed to answer two interconnected questions: how and why INPE was able  
909 to implement a strategic open-data policy within a formally commercial and security-



910 constrained institutional environment, and what the 2004 decision reveals about the  
911 communicative mechanisms through which open Earth observation data becomes  
912 actionable evidence for heterogeneous governance actors. By combining historical  
913 institutionalism with interpretive policy analysis of a 63-document corpus, the study  
914 reconstructed the institutional mechanics of Brazil's CBERS open-data pivot and traced  
915 its communicative effects across state agencies, civil society organizations, and  
916 Indigenous actors. In doing so, it established the CBERS case as an underexamined  
917 Global South contribution to open geoscience governance and demonstrated that what  
918 INPE achieved was not simply a data release but a governance intervention that  
919 restructured the rules of who could engage with orbital evidence of environmental change  
920 and on what terms, particularly in Brazil.

921 The three findings reconstructed in this study converge on a single institutional logic: that  
922 the communicative effects of Brazil's 2004 CBERS open-data policy were inseparable  
923 from the institutional conditions that made it possible. First, INPE navigated a legally  
924 restrictive, military-controlled environment by exploiting a specific bilateral treaty clause  
925 to dissociate domestic distribution from international commercial obligations, adopting a  
926 calculated "de facto data policy" rather than awaiting legislative reform. This institutional  
927 strategy, reconstructed from primary policy documents and internal INPE  
928 communications, establishes the 2004 pivot as a deliberate governance innovation rather  
929 than an incidental outcome.

930 Second, the decision restructured the geoscience communication landscape in ways the  
931 documentary record allows reconstruction at the infrastructural level. By removing  
932 financial and institutional barriers to satellite imagery, INPE created the structural  
933 conditions under which heterogeneous actors could engage with the same orbital evidence  
934 for distinct institutional purposes. The documentary record supports that this restructuring  
935 operated across heterogeneous institutional communities, each adopting the same open  
936 imagery for distinct and independently conducted purposes, a pattern consistent with  
937 boundary-object dynamics at the infrastructural level, though the community-level  
938 interpretive processes remain beyond what documentary evidence alone can establish. As  
939 previously presented by Rajão and Jarke (2018), the accountability infrastructure that  
940 resulted, evidenced most clearly in the combined operation of PRODES, DETER, and  
941 freely available CBERS imagery, shifted political contestation from whether



942 deforestation was occurring to actionable debates about enforcement and policy response.  
943 Its resilience was tested more than one time, particularly between 2019 and 2022, when  
944 independent organizations were able to counter official attempts to dispute INPE findings  
945 precisely because the underlying data and methodologies remained publicly available,  
946 demonstrating that open-data infrastructure can sustain epistemic continuity beyond any  
947 single government's administrative control.

948 Third, the Brazilian precedent established an underacknowledged Global South model for  
949 open Earth observation governance. Documentary evidence confirms that Brazilian  
950 representatives systematically advocated for open-data principles in international forums  
951 including GEO and the Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space (COPUOS), and  
952 that this advocacy was present in the same institutional forums where those subsequent  
953 policy decisions were debated, though whether it directly influenced them cannot be  
954 established from the available documentary record. What can be affirmed is that the 2004  
955 CBERS policy constituted the first operational example of free medium-resolution  
956 satellite data from a Global South national system, a precedent that preceded, and was  
957 cited in relation to, the broader global open-data shift.

958 These findings carry several limitations. The study relies on publicly available documents  
959 rather than interviews with key decision-makers, and the corpus of INPE leadership  
960 presentations carries inherent self-legitimation risk that triangulation with independent  
961 evidence only partially mitigates. The analysis does not provide systematic comparative  
962 examination of parallel cases in other countries, which would be necessary to assess the  
963 generalizability of the institutional mechanisms identified here. Comparative institutional  
964 analysis of Earth observation data policies in China, India, and the European Union would  
965 allow more precise isolation of the conditions under which public-goods framing  
966 succeeds in overcoming security-control logics. Ethnographic studies of how different  
967 communities (enforcement agencies, Indigenous organizations, independent scientists)  
968 actually interpret and dispute the same satellite imagery would provide a fuller boundary-  
969 object analysis than is possible from documentary sources.

## 970 **Data Availability**

971 All the materials consulted for this research are present in the References with proper  
972 access links.

## 973 **Author Contributions**



974 AGRO was responsible for conceptualization, methodology, formal analysis, data  
975 curation, and prepared the first draft of the manuscript. GM contributed to the  
976 investigation through literature review and assisted in the writing, review and editing of  
977 the manuscript.

## 978 **Competing Interests**

979 I declare that neither I nor my co-author have any competing interests.

## 980 **Ethical Statement**

981 This research article complies with the ethical standards of the authors' home institutions.  
982 The study relies exclusively on the analysis of publicly available policy documents,  
983 bilateral treaties, institutional communication materials, technical reports, and peer-  
984 reviewed academic literature. No human subjects were involved, nor was any classified  
985 or non-public material accessed during the investigation.

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997 open geoscience governance, and the boundary-object operationalization of geoscience  
998 communication – and analysis were developed and performed exclusively by the authors.

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