

1 **Exploring the legal, policy, ethical and practical implications of digitisation of botanical**
2 **and fungal collections**

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27 **Societal Impact Statement**

28 Dried plant and fungal specimens held in collections provide a unique asset to understand the
29 natural world and inform conservation approaches. By creating freely available, digital images
30 of these collections, these specimens can be used by more scientists from around the globe to
31 ask research questions and apply new technologies. We consider the relevant laws, policies
32 and agreements which are required to ensure this process is equitable, sustainable and
33 respects the rights of the countries and communities where material was collected. We offer

34 reflections on these challenges, share learnings from two case studies and explore the roles of
35 institutions and governments in addressing them.

36 Summary

37 Collections-based institutions around the world hold an extraordinary wealth of information
38 and knowledge through the specimens and associated information that they house. In recent
39 years, institutions holding botanical and fungal collections have invested significant energy and
40 resources into the digitisation of these collections to make them more accessible and better
41 connected. Digitisation poses a wide range of legal, policy and ethical questions, relating to
42 Open Access, Access and Benefit Sharing, data sovereignty and more. Overlapping policy and
43 legal frameworks at global and, increasingly, national levels create a complex landscape,
44 particularly as new technologies such as AI are applied to digitised collections. This paper
45 reviews the roles and responsibilities of institutions, funders and governments in navigating
46 these challenges in mitigating the risk of reproducing historical biases associated with these
47 collections and to ensure that data can be accessed equitably. We explore three case studies -
48 from University of Trans-Disciplinary Health Sciences and Technology (TDU) University in
49 Bengaluru, India, from Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew and from Manaaki Whenua, New Zealand,
50 to offer insight into equitable approaches to digitising specimens and linking to Traditional
51 Knowledge and Indigenous communities and use these to outline three options that institutions
52 should consider to help navigate this complex landscape.

53

54 Key words

55 Digitisation, Policy, Access and Benefit Sharing, Equity, Data Sovereignty, Infrastructure.

56 Introduction

57 This paper discusses emerging, unresolved and urgent legal, policy and ethical issues in the
58 context of digitisation of botanical and fungal collections. We use ‘digitisation’ to mean ‘the
59 creation and publication of digital images of an object’ (Bailey et al., 2024). In the context of
60 botanical and fungal collections, this generally consists of images of specimens and usually
61 includes transcription of the associated data (such as annotations, geo-locations and field
62 collecting notes). Though we focus on digitisation, we acknowledge the important connection
63 to the related term ‘digitalisation’, which refers to the more applied ‘use and implementation of
64 digitised content in a richer and broader context than its original sphere’(Bailey et al., 2024).
65 Digitalisation may, for instance, include artificial intelligence (AI) adoption, and the creation of

66 genetic Digital Sequence Information (DSI) from specimens, raising additional legal and policy
67 questions (Ruiz Muller, 2021 accessed 15.01.26).

68

69 Digitisation brings enormous benefits. These include increasing and widening access to the
70 collections and promoting global knowledge sharing; enhancing connectivity between historic
71 collections and making them available to new technological approaches, including AI; creating
72 a “digital twin” to reduce the need for handling and transporting fragile physical specimens and
73 to preserve materials in case of damage or loss; and increasing public engagement and
74 accessibility (Winters et al., 2022; Popov D, 2021; Boon et al., 2025).

75

76 Taken together, these benefits will be instrumental in facilitating research that supports
77 conservation actions and delivering benefits to wider society (Hardy et al., 2023; Popov D et al,
78 2021). Through widening access to information relevant to the conservation and sustainable
79 use of biodiversity, digitisation can also support delivery of global policy targets such as the
80 Kunming-Montreal Global Biodiversity Framework (KMGBF) and the associated Global Strategy
81 for Plant Conservation (GSPC) (Deloitte Access Economics, 2023; Global Partnership for Plant
82 Conservation, 2025; Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity, 2022).

83

84 Given these benefits, it is no surprise, that many institutions have progressed with efforts to
85 digitise their collections and have shared best practice and policy recommendations for with
86 other institutions looking to do the same (Bailey et al., 2024; De Smedt et al., 2024; DiSSCo UK
87 10-Year Digitisation Programme Announced, accessed 08.01.26; Reflora, accessed 27.08.25).

88

89 Despite the benefits, digitisation reveals legal, policy and ethical challenges, which are still
90 under-studied from a bio-heritage perspective, and in need of urgent articulation. These are
91 amplified by rapidly developing technologies such as AI, with increased scraping of digitised
92 heritage collections for commercial AI training (Michael Weinberg, accessed 30.04.26). Many of
93 these collections, often located in the global north and with complex colonial histories and
94 legacies, hold important historic and representative samples of the world’s known biodiversity,
95 as well as data and information related to it (Johnson et al., 2023; Park, 2023). Digitisation of
96 these collections therefore poses important questions around data sovereignty, respect for
97 Indigenous rights, and the equitable sharing of benefits. In some cases, existing global
98 agreements such as the Convention on Biological Diversity and its Nagoya Protocol (Secretariat
99 of the Convention on Biological Diversity, 1992, 2011) help to address these questions, but

100 these frameworks largely focus on regulating *physical* genetic resources – leaving a legal and
101 policy vacuum around how related *digital* material, and information derived from this, should
102 be treated. Some countries now cover these issues in their national legislations, and
103 institutions and communities around the world are collaborating to navigate and find fair and
104 workable solutions to these challenges together (Ljungqvist et al., 2025). Innovative,
105 collaborative approaches, such as Biocultural Labels (Grounding Indigenous Rights, accessed
106 08.01.26.) are also being employed to connect specimens to the associated Traditional
107 Knowledge and are explored in the case studies in the present article.

108

109 There are also practical challenges for delivering accessible, connected and representative
110 digitised collections. Realising the long-term value of these collections requires a far-sighted
111 view on the equity of access, sustainability and maintenance of the digital collections.

112

113 To address this gap, this paper maps out these interrelated challenges informed by case
114 studies, identifies the current gaps in policy and governance, and suggests strategies for how
115 these issues should be more integrally, holistically and directly addressed.

116

117 Policy and legal issues associated with digitisation of botanical and 118 fungal collections

119 Legal frameworks

120 Consideration of the policy and legal issues associated with digitisation begins with the UN's
121 1992 Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD), which sets out a pathway of ethical
122 expectations and legal norms for rebalancing equity around access to and use of genetic
123 resources – particularly with regard to the sharing of benefits derived from their use (Secretariat
124 of the Convention on Biological Diversity, 1992).

125

126 The CBD's Article 15 recognises the sovereign rights of States/Parties over their natural/genetic
127 resources and sets out the framework of an 'access and benefit sharing' (or 'ABS') regime. This
128 regime, which is subject to and implemented through national legislation, asks Parties to create
129 conditions to *facilitate* access to genetic resources for 'environmentally sound uses' (Article
130 15.2) on mutually agreed terms (Article 15.4) and subject to prior informed consent (Article 15.
131 5), unless otherwise determined. Furthermore, it requires the sharing, in a fair and equitable

132 way, of results of research and development, and the benefits arising from commercial and
133 other utilisation of genetic resources with the country providing those resources (Article 15.7).

134

135 The CBD's Nagoya Protocol (NP), adopted in 2010 to give more clarity to these 'ABS'
136 obligations, sets out that the utilisation of traditional knowledge associated with genetic
137 resources be included within this scope (NP Articles 7 and 12) (Secretariat of the Convention on
138 Biological Diversity, 2011). It also highlighted the rights of Indigenous Peoples and Local
139 Communities (IPLCs) to benefit from the utilisation of genetic resources within the State based
140 mechanism of the CBD.

141

142 While the CBD's articles and provisions appear primarily focused on conservation and
143 sustainable use of *physical* genetic resources, access to (and utilisation of) biodiversity
144 information has increasingly been recognised as a device through which the Convention's
145 objectives can be met. The CBD's Article 17 on exchange of information sets out the need for
146 Parties to 'facilitate the exchange of information from all publicly available sources [...] taking
147 into account the special needs of developing countries', which can be interpreted as broadly in
148 support of open data.

149

150 More recently, the CBD's Kunming-Montreal Global Biodiversity Framework (Secretariat of the
151 Convention on Biological Diversity, 2022), and its cross-cutting Target 21, reiterates that
152 biodiversity action requires 'the best available data, information and knowledge' to be
153 accessible to decision makers, practitioners and the public. The related GSPC voluntary
154 complementary action 21b specifically highlights digitisation of collections as a mechanism to
155 achieve this target (Global Partnership for Plant Conservation, 2025).

156

157 Concurrently, new national and global frameworks for use of information associated with
158 genetic resources are being developed. International examples include the newly agreed World
159 Intellectual Property Organisation (WIPO) Treaty on Intellectual Property, Genetic Resources
160 and Associated Traditional Knowledge (GRATK Treaty) 2024 and UN CBD decision 15/9 on
161 digital sequence information on genetic resources. Although these examples indicate
162 increased global focus on issues around the use of genetic resources, they are critiqued for
163 having weak enforcement mechanisms and for being diluted versions of the proposals originally
164 made (Henderson, 2025).

165

166 The WIPO GRATK Treaty 2024 (not yet in force) aims to prevent patents regarding genetic
167 resources and associated traditional knowledge from being erroneously granted for inventions
168 that are not novel or inventive. This treaty establishes requirements for source disclosure
169 (Article 3), such that patent applicants will be required to disclose the country of origin of the
170 genetic resources or the IPLCs of the associated traditional knowledge. If these are unknown,
171 the applicant must disclose the source of the information, and if this is also unknown, the
172 applicant must make a declaration to that effect. The treaty also establishes requirements for
173 information systems, including databases, to be made accessible to patent offices, noting that
174 this should be done in consultation with IPLCs and subject to appropriate safeguards (Article
175 6). There is ambiguity as to whether DSI is included within the scope of the disclosure
176 requirement, potentially leading to inconsistent national interpretations and applications of this
177 requirement as regards genetic data (Syam & Correa, 2024).

178

179 Given that publicly available information systems and databases could be scraped for
180 commercial AI training, it is crucial that discussions on the implementation of the WIPO GRATK
181 Treaty are given greater profile in AI policy and governance debates, for instance UN Global
182 Dialogue on AI Governance (UN, accessed 30.04.26).

183

184 Meanwhile, some countries, anxious to retain control of the use of digitised information relating
185 to their genetic resources, are placing national restrictions on the publication of digital
186 sequence information without specific prior informed consent or attribution (Bagley et al.,
187 2020).

188

189 This complex patchwork of rights established across national and international levels is further
190 complicated by a range of other bodies and instruments. At UNESCO level, the 2003
191 Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage (ICH), includes as a
192 manifestation of ICH, inter alia, 'knowledge and practices concerning nature'. The 2007 United
193 Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples (UNDRIP), state the right of
194 Indigenous peoples 'to maintain, control, protect and develop their cultural heritage,
195 Traditional Knowledge and traditional cultural expressions, as well as the manifestations of
196 their sciences, technologies and cultures, including human and genetic resources, seeds,
197 medicines, knowledge of the properties of fauna and flora (...)'. Despite relevant legal
198 advances, such as UNDRIP 2007, 'the implementation gap between the adoption of

199 international standards by States and their compliance still remains’ (De Mattos Vieira &
200 Viaene, 2024).

201

202 These frameworks - the CBD, NP and others - demonstrate an intrinsic tension: while
203 digitisation and open access data has the potential to support broader conservation objectives
204 these goals must be balanced against the recognition of sovereign rights, the need to respect
205 the rights of governments and stakeholders and to obtain prior informed consent for the use of
206 material from relevant stakeholders or IPLCs. This tension is amplified in light of commercial AI,
207 which aggravates the risk of loss of control, misappropriation and misuse of such data. It is
208 therefore crucial that WIPO GRATK Treaty, CBD, NP and related human rights and heritage
209 perspectives are more specifically addressed in AI governance fora, to ensure risks are
210 sufficiently addressed and mitigated. Integrating the environmental expertise of scientists and
211 Indigenous communities, for example, in the UN Global Dialogue on AI Governance, would also
212 help address the critical, but currently overlooked, impact of digital technologies in AI policy
213 and governance discussions(UN, accessed 30.04.26).

214

215 Permissions, consent and institutional decisions

216 Alongside global frameworks and national legislation, institutions must be aware of the terms
217 and conditions of access and use relating to their physical collections to ensure that
218 digitisation is allowed. In some cases, this may involve restricting access to sensitive data
219 (covered in more detail below).

220

221 Projects actively collecting plant and fungal specimens must consider possible future use of
222 data and images when negotiating bilateral agreements, so that the utility of these digitised
223 collections and associated information can be ‘future-proofed’. Digitisation of historic
224 collections is often more problematic as there is generally no, or less specific, detail relating to
225 consultation and/or consent for digitisation and open, unrestricted use of this data. Historic
226 specimens collected prior to national ABS legislation (or indeed any regulations around plant
227 collecting, export and use) raise complex and often unclear legal obligations regarding their
228 use.

229

230 Institutions must carefully consider how their own policies on “use” and digitisation balance
231 their objectives to maximise the use of the data they hold (e.g. to increase access to their
232 collections to support conservation and research) against their obligations to minimise harms

233 which might arise through either inappropriate publication of certain data (e.g. geo-location of
234 threatened species) or commercial use without consent where required, and appropriate
235 benefit sharing. Stewards of natural history collections must also develop responsible
236 approaches to the use of AI in relation to their digitised collections, which fulfil ethical and legal
237 obligations, (Global AI Summit on Africa, 2025; Lawson et al., 2025; Westenberger, 2024
238 Responsible AI for Heritage: Copyright and Human Rights Perspectives, accessed 08.01.26.).

239

240 Given the diversity of collections and the tangled national and international regulatory
241 landscape, there is no one size fits all approach. To make these judgements, collections-based
242 institutions should proactively engage with communities of practice around responsible and
243 ethical digitisation/digitalisation and furnish themselves with policy and legal expertise to
244 navigate this rapidly evolving governance landscape, rather than only seeking guidance from
245 legislative, judiciary and governmental bodies, which may be slower in responding to urgent
246 concerns, for example on AI impacts. Through these groups and communities, we consider that
247 practical tools for designing internal governance processes could be developed to address
248 specific needs and concerns.

249

250 Access, bias and Indigenous data sovereignty issues associated with 251 digitisation

252

253 As noted above, botanical and fungal collections can incorporate complex historical and
254 colonial legacies. Institutions located in several western and central European countries, as
255 well as in the United States, house over twice the number of species in their *ex-situ* collections
256 compared to the number which occur in the countries of origin of these species (Park, 2023).
257 Digitisation of these collections is not a neutral process, it is shaped by institutional priorities
258 past and present, logistical constraints, historical legacies, resource availability and subjective
259 choices (Heumann & Petersen, 2023).

260

261 The inverse relationship between where plant biodiversity exists in nature and where it is
262 housed in herbaria underpins the imperative for collections-based institutions to engage with
263 issues of access, equity and Indigenous data sovereignty(Park, 2023; Sathnam Sanghera,
264 2024).

265

266 Digitisation itself offers one opportunity to address historical inequities by ensuring that
267 digitised data are made findable and accessible through open access platforms such as the
268 Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF.org) and information related to Indigenous
269 knowledge is linked through emerging platforms such as Local Contexts (see case study
270 below).

271

272 However, estimates suggest that just one third of herbaria specimens are currently digitised,
273 primarily in the global north (Paton et al, 2025). Gaps in digitisation of the world’s herbaria will
274 introduce new bias if conservation policy decisions are taken on the basis of incomplete
275 datasets. These risks are further amplified if AI is trained on these incomplete datasets
276 (Westenberger & Farmaki, 2025). It is, therefore, imperative to resource the responsible
277 digitisation of collections around the world and to integrate these into global infrastructure
278 such as GBIF. This must include exploration of the role that both institutions and users of this
279 data should play in providing this resource.

280

281 Bilateral agreements tend to be limited in scope and have thus far failed to deliver the
282 necessary resources to achieve globally representative digitised collections, and thus
283 multilateral funding is likely to be required. Funds generated through the multilateral “Cali
284 Fund” (Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity, 2024) established at the CBD’s
285 CoP16 to enable users of DSI to contribute financially to global conservation efforts - have been
286 identified as one potential source of funding, should recipients choose to use it for this
287 purpose. However, the slow adoption of this funding mechanism (Oldham, 2025), and the many
288 competing demands on the funds it may generate, indicate that it is unlikely to be a significant
289 solution, and other multilateral funding sources will be required.

290

291 **Traditional Knowledge and Indigenous Data Sovereignty**

292 With the shift towards open science, the concept of data sovereignty – that data generated
293 within a state or nation is governed by that nation’s laws (rather than the laws of the nation in
294 which it is stored) - has gained significance, particularly in the context of the rights of
295 Indigenous people and source communities (Jennings et al., 2025).

296

297 This is important in the context of digitisation as historically (and currently), botanists relied
298 heavily on the knowledge of local and Indigenous people to locate, identify and accumulate the
299 specimens that make up today’s celebrated collections (Ashby, 2024). However Traditional
300 Knowledge associated with specimens, which may have been recorded in notebooks at the
301 time, was added inconsistently to specimen records or linked with specimen collection
302 information. Digitisation presents an opportunity to address this gap by considering not only the
303 physical act of digitising specimens, but also how to integrate any associated knowledge into
304 the digitised record. This must be balanced against the rights of those knowledge holders such
305 that it can be made accessible in a way which respects Indigenous data sovereignty. This
306 balance can be met through investing in collaborations between institutions and knowledge
307 holders as explored in case studies below.

308

309 More recently, the CARE (Collective benefit; Authority to control; Responsibility; Ethics)
310 principles set out data governance approaches to provide guidance on the creation, collection,
311 storage and use of Indigenous data(Carroll et al., 2020). Efforts to implement the CARE
312 principles are underway and guidance has been published for their application to ecology,
313 biodiversity and earth sciences research/data (Jennings et al., 2023; O’Brien et al., 2024). The
314 importance of these principles has been further emphasised by the UN Special Rapporteur in
315 the field of cultural rights’ recent report on digitisation of cultural heritage, which emphasises
316 the need for individuals and institutions to adhere to the CARE principles when digitising
317 collections comprising cultural heritage(UN Human Rights Council, 2025).

318

319 The true implementation of these principles can pose challenges to institutions digitising their
320 collections. Digitisation efforts to date have supported efforts to make physical collections
321 findable and accessible, through adoption of the FAIR principles (findable, accessible,
322 interoperable and reusability of data) (Wilkinson, 2016). Implementation of the CARE principles
323 creates a requirement for institutions to collaborate with indigenous communities with regard
324 to their data. This can, inherently, generate requests for collaboration which institutions may be
325 unable to meet.

326

327 We suggest three routes through which these collaborations can be achieved and provide case
328 studies below which demonstrate their feasibility:

329

- 330 i. Collections-based institutions create open access platforms for communities to
331 directly contact those institutions to commence discussions on what data they hold
332 and recognition and rights/sovereignty over that data. At its broadest, this would
333 entail opening up of entire global collections for dialogue with communities on
334 recognition of the associated Indigenous data and publishing of sensitive or
335 confidential data on material represented in those collections. This would be the
336 fullest implementation of the CARE principles. However, for many institutions, this
337 approach presents a risk of being unable to allocate the necessary resource
338 required to engage in truly collaborative relationships with communities interested
339 across the breadth of their global collections.
- 340 ii. Alternatively, institutions may proactively engage with specific communities or
341 institutions on a project-by-project approach. This can be done prospectively where
342 new collections are established, or associated with specific projects, as explored in
343 case studies below on Kew’s Digital Amazon project and Kew’s partnership with the
344 University of Trans-Disciplinary Health Sciences and Technology (TDU). This
345 approach allows investment in building trust with communities and truly equitable
346 collaboration such that the value of the collections can be enhanced by greater
347 inclusion of associated Traditional Knowledge. However, it is inevitably limited and
348 covers only subsections of the collections, where funding and resource allow.
- 349 iii. A third option involves the creation and adoption of shared infrastructure through
350 which communities are able to record and assert sovereignty of data and
351 knowledge, alongside expectations on its use, which institutions can then reflect in
352 the labelling of their (digitised) collections. The Manaaki Whenua case study and the
353 use of Local Context / Biocultural Notices provides further details on how this
354 approach can work in practice(Anderson et al., 2024; Liggins et al., 2021). The
355 success of this approach is dependent on the ability of institutions to commit to use
356 and adhere to these labelling requests.

357
358 **Case Study: Co-creation of knowledge of digitised specimens, The**
359 **University of Trans-Disciplinary Health Sciences and Technology**

360 *The University of Trans-Disciplinary Health Sciences and Technology (TDU), a leading research*
361 *university in Bengaluru, focuses on transdisciplinary research into health. Its Herbarium of the*
362 *Foundation for Revitalisation of Local Health Traditions (FRLH) and Raw Drug Repository focus*
363 *on medicinal plants used in Indian Medical System – Ayurveda, Unani, Siddha, Sowa-rigpa and*

364 Folk system. FRLH has 75,000 voucher specimens collected from various bio-geographic zones
365 and the Raw Drug Repository has 3,000 botanicals (medicinal and aromatic plants) traded in
366 the country(FRLH Herbarium, n.d.).

367

368 Through its digital Herbarium, TDU has thus far digitised voucher specimens of 1,500 plant
369 species, and 300 botanicals samples envis.frlht.org. There is a goal to digitise all the collections
370 at FRLH and as part of this, TDU and RBG Kew are collaborating to increase the precision and
371 interoperability of botanical names and pharmaceutical names by comparing data from TDU's
372 databases to RBG Kew's Medicinal Plant Names Services (<https://mpns.science.kew.org/>).

373

374 A TDU and RBG Kew project, funded by the British Academy, has used newly digitised images of
375 crude drugs to research changing knowledge of herbal medicines in India over the last 200
376 years, bringing fresh evidence to bear on contemporary plant-based healing practices, both in
377 India and in Ayurvedic medicine in the UK. The project compares textual and specimen data,
378 including the unique collection of 4,000 nineteenth century Indian drug specimens at the RBG
379 Kew and database textual sources held at the TDU, Bengaluru.

380

381 This pilot study had three key elements. The first was identification of relevant specimens in
382 RBG Kew's Economic Botany Collection, their photography, and standardisation of metadata
383 concerning botanical names, geography and collector. This element drew on the curation
384 expertise of Kew staff. The second element comprised comparison of RBG Kew's digitised
385 crude drugs with TDU physical specimens to validate and authenticate the identification of the
386 botanical images, drawing on knowledge of the botanical identity and medicinal preparation of
387 crude drugs held by TDU staff.

388

389 In the third element, a workshop was held bringing together contemporary knowledge holders in
390 history, medicine, herbal production, pharmacology and regulation to undertake a nuanced
391 comparison of historic and current day practices. In this project there is no single local
392 community or Indigenous group that could be linked to most of the historic specimens, many of
393 which were collected from trade sources or government institutions. In identifying the
394 stakeholder community, the project thus sought to be representative at national level, including
395 in relation to the different medical traditions of India. Many issues that the workshop identified
396 in relation to historic crude drugs, such as botanical identity, quality, and the adoption of new
397 plant species into traditional medical systems, remain current.

398

399 *The success of this project was underpinned by open communication and mutual respect*
400 *between all partners. This trust and understanding of local contexts required investment of time*
401 *to create truly collaborative and inclusive partnerships. In addition, sharing of resources and*
402 *credit has proved vital to long-term sustainability and shared ownership of digital initiatives. All*
403 *the digital images and project data have been deposited with TDU, which has unrestricted rights*
404 *to use these, for example as an addition to its online database. The images are also available*
405 *through RBG Kew's databases Medicinal Plant Names Services*
406 *(<https://mpns.science.kew.org/>) and the Kew Data Portal (<https://data.kew.org/>), ensuring*
407 *reach to the broadest possible audience. These experiences will inform future equitable digital*
408 *partnerships, including as TDU engages with other historical collections to generate an*
409 *understanding of the documented data of these collections and to ensure their continued use in*
410 *research, education, and conservation efforts.*

411

412 **Case Study: Digital Amazon and the collections of Richard Spruce**

413 *Beginning in 2015, the Digital Amazon project of Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew (RBG Kew) has*
414 *brought together researchers from the UK and Brazil and Indigenous peoples to reevaluate the*
415 *collections (herbarium specimens, artefacts and notebooks) made by the 19th century botanist*
416 *and collector, Richard Spruce (Cabalzar et al., 2017; Martins, 2021). This collaboration sought to*
417 *generate a holistic interpretation of these materials and associated knowledge as they were*
418 *digitised. The project was based on engagement with Indigenous communities in the Rio Negro*
419 *region of the Amazon, from where much of the Spruce collection originated. Through workshops*
420 *in Brazil and the UK, researchers and Indigenous communities were able to collaborate and*
421 *share expertise, views and perspectives on plants and their uses; deliver training in research*
422 *approaches; produce a textbook for use in Indigenous schools, and re-connect communities*
423 *with objects from their past using physical objects (during visits to the UK) and digital images.*

424

425 *Alongside the herbarium specimens, digital images of the objects collected by Richard Spruce,*
426 *housed in the Economic Botany Collection (EBC) of RBG Kew, are available on the EBC*
427 *Database (<https://ecbot.science.kew.org/index.php>) and the Reflora Virtual Herbarium hosted*
428 *by Rio de Janeiro Botanical Garden (<https://reflora.jbrj.gov.br/consulta/#CondicaoTaxonCP>).*
429 *Notes on the uses and plant components recorded by Spruce are available to all through this*
430 *database. Through visits and engagement with Indigenous communities, certain restrictions on*
431 *online publication, for example of the image of a sacred object, were agreed due to cultural*

432 sensitivities, emphasising the value of discussion and agreement between local knowledge
433 holders, researchers and institutions digitising their collections.

434 **Case Study: Indigenous data sovereignty/futures and the Manaaki Whenua**

435 *Manaaki Whenua Landcare Research is part of a newly formed New Zealand Institute for*
436 *Bioeconomy Science. It had previously operated as an independent Crown Research Institute*
437 *with a primary focus on land, environment, and biodiversity. A core component of its*
438 *responsibilities was stewarding Nationally Significant Collections and Databases (NSCDs) for*
439 *Aotearoa New Zealand. These biological collections comprise over 820,000 samples within:*

- 440 • *Allan Herbarium*
- 441 • *Te Kohinga Harakeke o Aotearoa (the living National New Zealand Flax Collection)*
- 442 • *Ngā Rauropi Whakaoranga (previously Ngā Tipu Whakaoranga) ethnobotany database*
- 443 • *National Vegetation Survey*
- 444 • *International Collection of Micro-organisms from Plants*
- 445 • *New Zealand Fungarium*
- 446 • *New Zealand Arthropod Collection*

447

448 *As Manaaki Whenua digitised its collections for use on an open biodiversity database*
449 *(Systematics Collections Database) it actively integrated Local Contexts Notices and*
450 *Biocultural (BC) Labels (developed through a Royal Society of New Zealand Catalyst Fund*
451 *project, with input from Aaron Wilton from Manaaki Whenua).*

452 *BC Labels and Notices serve as an ethical framework, providing a mechanism to recognize*
453 *Indigenous data sovereignty even in the absence of comprehensive legal protections. The*
454 *process is collaborative, involving Indigenous communities in decisions about how biological*
455 *collections are managed, accessed, and represented in scientific databases. The use of Local*
456 *Contexts tools addresses historical imbalances where scientific collections were made without*
457 *recognizing Indigenous rights or seeking permission from local communities.*

458 *Manaaki Whenua was the first research institute to apply Biocultural (BC) Labels and Notices to*
459 *an open biodiversity database using the Local Contexts Hub. This initiative is part of its broader*
460 *commitment to recognize and protect Indigenous rights and interests in scientific data, and to*
461 *uphold the principles of Te Tiriti o Waitangi/ The Treaty of Waitangi. The integration of Local*
462 *Contexts enriches the data held by Manaaki Whenua, making it more meaningful and*
463 *accessible to both scientists and Indigenous communities, while georeferencing allows for*

464 *precise identification of where specimens were collected, supporting transparency and*
465 *collaboration with local communities.*

466 *BC Notices have now been added to over 718,000 specimen records in Manaaki Whenua's*
467 *collections database, signaling to researchers and institutions that these specimens are*
468 *subject to Indigenous rights and interests. Biocultural labels, digital tags that reflect Indigenous*
469 *interests and authority in scientific data, can then be added by communities emphasizing*
470 *provenance (the connection to the originating community), protocols (cultural practices and*
471 *permissions), and consent (which permissions have been given for collection and use). Through*
472 *the Local Contexts Hub communities can add or change labels which are automatically*
473 *updated on Manaaki Whenua's Systematics Collection Database. To date three iwi (tribes)—Te*
474 *Whakatōhea, Ngāti Maru (Taranaki), and Te Roroa—have added BC Labels to over 6,500*
475 *specimen records collected from their respective rohe (territories). For example, Te*
476 *Whakatōhea have applied labels indicating provenance, research use, openness to*
477 *collaboration and openness to commercialisation to over 2000 specimens from their tribal*
478 *rohe.*

479
480 *The Local Contexts Hub enables Indigenous communities to assert cultural authority over*
481 *Indigenous flora and fauna collected from their territories, with Manaaki Whenua's work serving*
482 *as a leading example in New Zealand. Manaaki Whenua's approach is part of a global*
483 *movement to support Indigenous communities in identifying and re-establishing connections*
484 *with materials sourced from their lands, ensuring their voices and protocols are visible in digital*
485 *archives. Local Contexts is also being used by the Smithsonian Institute and New York*
486 *Botanical Garden, and has been integrated into the Genomic Observatories Metadatabase*
487 *(GEOME) and SPUN. A process to enable the use of Local Context Notices and Labels in the*
488 *Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF) is currently underway using Labelled datasets*
489 *from Manaaki Whenua, Geome, and SPUN.*

490
491 *These three case studies show the practical ways in which the options we outline above can*
492 *enable digitisation of physical specimens to recognise Indigenous rights, implement the CARE*
493 *principles and enhance the records in the process.*

494
495 *Institutions digitising their own collections must consider whether they can implement similar*
496 *approaches and engage in equitable collaboration. There is no single approach which will be*
497 *suitable for all institutions and therefore platforms which allow sharing of best practice and*

498 tailored toolkits will be required. Such platforms already are already being discussed in the
499 form of the recently established GBIF working group on “*Open data for people and purpose*”
500 and RBG Kew’s 2026 symposium focusing on digitisation of herbarium and fungarium
501 collections (Open Data for People and Purpose, accessed 16.04.26).

502 Long-term sustainability of digitisation

503 Beyond the legal and ethical implications of digitisation, institutions must consider the
504 collection management, funding and policy frameworks which underpin the long-term
505 sustainability of their digital collections. Digitisation inherently increases the resources
506 required to manage the digital copy alongside the original, physical specimens. For digitised
507 collections, these costs include but are not limited to, the cost of long-term sustainable and
508 interoperable digital infrastructure, investment in digital skills, and protections from cyber
509 security risks.

510

511 These challenges are not unique to botanical and fungal collections, and it is important that
512 collections-based institutions and sectors learn from one another. For instance, in the UK a
513 “Digitisation Taskforce” led by the National Archives set out guiding principles and
514 recommendations to ensure the cultural assets in these collections could be more
515 interoperable, discoverable and sustainable (Report of the UK Digitisation Taskforce, accessed
516 08.10.26). This finding was reinforced by the recent call to action from the UK’s “Towards a
517 National Collection” research programme which emphasised the importance of interoperability
518 through the FAIR principles (Bailey et al., 2024).

519

520 Interoperability is particularly critical for natural science collections, where linkage of digitised
521 records with data on geography and climate is essential. It is these linkages which will be
522 pivotal to realise the value of digitised collections by directing future research efforts.

523 Therefore, infrastructures such as the Distributed System of Scientific Collections (DiSSCo and
524 DiSSCo UK) have been established to connect these collections (Distributed System of
525 Scientific Collections, accessed 08.01.26). Maintaining these infrastructures requires
526 collaboration between institutions and substantial investment above and beyond the original
527 digitisation costs, with Governments, funders and institutions all having a role to play (Natural
528 History Museum, 2024). Importantly, the UK’s Towards a National Collection’s Call to Action
529 recommended standardised approaches to the production and management of digital
530 collections, supported by long-term open standards, models and frameworks (Report of the UK
531 Digitisation Taskforce, accessed 08.01.26).

532 Digital Skills

533 As many have commented before, digital skills maturity is essential to building and exploiting
534 accessible and secure digital collections(De Smedt et al., 2024).Two reports from the UK’s
535 Royal Society have identified the growing demand for these skills across many sectors,
536 including environmental sciences, and advised of the need for shared industry-academia
537 positions, braided careers and even mentorship to enable data scientists to donate their time
538 to applying data science to societal challenges and environmental challenges(Royal Society,
539 2019, 2020) .

540

541 Strengthening global capacity in digital skills is critical to maximise the benefits of digitised
542 collections and redress the historical inequities explored above. It is also essential in order to
543 fulfil the commitment of Parties’ to the CBD to “provide access to and transfer of technology
544 which makes use of genetic resources” (Article 16.3 and 16.4) (Secretariat of the Convention on
545 Biological Diversity, 1992).

546

547 A number of initiatives have sought to address the digital divide between global north and global
548 south through training and mentoring. For instance, the International Science Council’s
549 Committee on Data (CODATA), has established an International Network of “Data Schools”
550 and mentoring schemes with a particular focus on building digital skills in Lower and Middle
551 Income Countries (CODATA Connect – Early Career and Alumni Network, accessed 08.01.26;
552 CODATA-RDA Schools of Research Data Science, accessed 08.01.26). Meanwhile, the EU-
553 funded GBIF Biodiversity Information for Development (BID) has specifically targeted digital
554 skills training and capacity enhancement and has been found to have improved data quality
555 and data skills(Goodson & Catalano, 2023).

556

557 Addressing these data skills needs is a society and economy-wide challenge, with implications
558 for Governments, funders, and education systems and AI will undoubtedly change the skills
559 needs for our data scientists. However, initiatives such as CODATA’s Connect and GBIF’s BID
560 show that positive impacts can be delivered through collaborative networks and targeted
561 investment. Institutions and funders involved in digitisation must therefore also invest in the
562 digital skills that will underpin the ability to maintain and use these digital assets. They must do
563 so with a focus on equity of access and skills exchange.

564

565 The interlinked issues of infrastructure and skills are particularly important as we consider the
566 risks to which digital collections may be exposed. Whether through changing digital formats
567 and redundancies of software, or through more malicious cyber-attacks. One of the UK’s major
568 collections-based institutes, the British Library, learnt this first hand following a cyber-attack in
569 October 2023. Whilst the digitised collections were recovered, access was compromised for
570 several months, and full validation of the digitised collection required each dataset to be
571 checked as it was added to new digital infrastructure.

572

573 In their learnings from that attack, the British Library concluded that the vulnerabilities in their
574 systems (including legacy infrastructure arising from merged datasets and lack of access to
575 appropriate skills) were likely shared by other collections-based institutions (British Library,
576 2024). The British Library called for “investment, boldness and relentless focus” to ensure
577 future security of digitised collections. Natural history collections are subject to similar risks,
578 as seen in cyber attacks on the Museum für Naturkunde (Berlin) in 2023 and the Muséum
579 national d'Histoire naturelle (Paris) 2025, and should pay heed to these warnings.

580

581 Conclusions

582

583 This review of the legal, policy and ethical implications of digitisation of plant and fungal
584 materials reveals a complex, changing and overlapping set of regulations, obligations and
585 responsibilities which collections-based institutions must operate within as they digitise their
586 collections. Legal frameworks already exist, particularly in the context of use of physical
587 material, but as technologies and international and national approaches continue to evolve,
588 institutions must be proactive, forward looking and agile to respond – considering both the
589 current, but also potential future uses of the data they are generating. They must also be
590 prepared to operate on a risk-based approach where policy frameworks either do not provide
591 legal certainty or where regulatory frameworks appear to conflict with one another and they
592 must be proactive in engaging with communities of practice to co-develop shared best
593 practice.

594

595 In this paper, we recommended that current AI policy debates, such as in the context of the UN
596 Global Dialogue on AI Governance, should more directly reflect the issues and perspectives of
597 bio-heritage science stakeholders as regards the digitisation challenges noted here, by more
598 proactively engaging the relevant stakeholders.

599

600 The CARE and FAIR principles provide guidance of how to navigate some of these challenges in
601 an equitable, ethical and sustainable way. However, given the challenges institutions may face
602 in implementing these principles in practice, we consider three routes through which
603 institutions can manage the tension between Indigenous sovereignty and digitised collections:

- 604 i. Open access platforms through which for communities to directly contact institutions
605 to commence discussions on their rights in relation to data held in global collections.
- 606 ii. Project-by-project approaches, where institutions proactively engage with communities
607 as collecting takes place or as subsets of wider collections are digitised.
- 608 iii. Wide-scale adoption of shared infrastructure and labelling through which communities
609 express their expectations on use of Indigenous data and institutions recognise these
610 requests through labelling approaches.

611 Each of these models has limitations and there is unlikely to be a one-sized fits all approach,
612 however the case studies presented in this article demonstrate how the latter two approaches
613 can engender collaboration between institutions with source communities. We urge
614 institutions to come together to share best practice and codevelop practical tools to support
615 stewards of bio-cultural heritage collections in designing internal policies and workflows. We
616 highlight the GBIF “Open Data for People and Purpose” working group and Kew’s own State of
617 the World’s Plants and Fungi symposium as platforms for these important discussions.

618

619 In the long term, securing the safety and sustainability of our digital botanical and fungal
620 collections, requires commitments which must extend far beyond the completion of any single
621 digitisation effort. Institutions, Governments and users of digitised data must all reflect on their
622 responsibilities to maintain these collections (both physical and digital) and to ensure their fair
623 and equitable use. Moreover, further efforts and funding mechanisms are urgently required to
624 ensure that global datasets (on which AI models are being trained) include currently undigitized
625 collections from biodiverse regions and that this is achieved in such a way that recognises
626 community interests and supports ongoing efforts to ensure that global datasets are truly
627 representative.

628

629 Finally, the issues covered in this article intersect with recent debates around the creation,
630 publication and use of open access DSI, which raise similar questions on equity of access and
631 benefit sharing. While having the potential to provide critical information that can inform
632 conservation decisions, open access DSI also presents opportunities to develop products from

633 genetic resources without accessing those physical resources and bypassing bilateral benefit
634 sharing obligations and legislation. Institutions digitising their collections must be alert to the
635 related and evolving policy, legal and ethical frameworks associated with the creation of DSI
636 from their physical collections. Researchers should ensure that they have secured prior
637 informed consent from countries of origin to sample and sequence this material and upload
638 this information generated in publicly accessible databases(Muñoz-García et al., 2025).
639 Multilateral systems such as the Cali fund provide a mechanism for benefit sharing arising from
640 the onward use of DSI and other digital products, for example products derived from using
641 collection data to train AI. Users of digital information therefore need to recognise their
642 responsibility to share benefits arising from that use, for example through payments to the Cali
643 Fund.

644 Author Contributions

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646 contributed to the first draft and Noorunnisa Begum, William Milliken, Mark Nesbitt and Maui
647 Hudson provided case studies. All authors offered contributions and feedback on subsequent
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650

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