

# Collectomics in plant biodiversity research - looking into the past to understand the present and shape the future

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**Abstract:** Global biodiversity is changing at unprecedented rates during the Anthropocene. Whereas current biodiversity patterns can be observed directly, information from the recent past is far less easily retrieved yet urgently needed to understand present observations and predict future developments. For plants, herbaria offer such a unique glimpse into the past. Evaluation of plant specimens allows determining a wide range of attributes like species identity, morphological and phenological traits and even signs of biotic interactions. Specimen's labels convey data such as species identity (and identification history), date and locality of collection, as well as the surrounding biotic and abiotic environment. Current methodological developments in sensor technology and computer vision increasingly enable us to extract this information in a high throughput and automated way. Equally vast developments in data science allow to integrate data from other sources for much more comprehensive analyses than before. With millions of specimens already digitized and digitization schemes running in many institutions, we will be increasingly able to determine characteristics of

species and link them via distribution records to large-scale climate change scenarios. This allows us to better predict species' threat levels, and to develop scenarios on the consequences of biodiversity change for ecosystem functioning. The present contribution reviews recent herbaria research and describes potential avenues with respect to Museomics and the Extended Specimen, and we propose Collectomics as a new framework to unravel, understand, and cope with the Anthropocene biodiversity change.

Keywords: Anthropocene Biodiversity loss; Computer vision: Herbaria; Extended Specimen; Natural history collection

## 1           **1. Introduction**

2           The term Anthropocene and its exact start are still under debate, but clearly humans have  
3 become a major force on planet Earth. This is defined by easily traceable golden spikes in geological  
4 records (Lewis and Maslin 2015, Zalasiewicz et al. 2015), e.g. the discovery of the so called “New  
5 World”, and the 16<sup>th</sup> century subsequent spread of infectious diseases as well as exchange of  
6 biodiversity between continents (Lewis and Maslin 2015), or the radioactivity peak after launch of the  
7 first nuclear weapons, i.e., 1950 or 1964 (Lewis and Maslin 2015, Zalasiewicz et al. 2015). Whichever  
8 date will be finally agreed upon, humanity has become a major driving force of change in life on Earth,  
9 which has subsequently and irreversibly changed at unprecedented rates during the Anthropocene.  
10 Not only have human actions caused a shift in global nutrient cycles as well as climate conditions (IPCC  
11 2007, Hoegh-Guldberg et al. 2018) but they have also triggered a massive decline in biodiversity  
12 (Johnson et al. 2017). It is now widely acknowledged that these changes started to affect the  
13 functioning of entire ecosystems and will do more so in the future. This may ultimately also threaten  
14 the well-being of humankind.

15 While few long-term datasets span decades or even centuries, natural history collections offer valuable  
16 archives to study the changes during the Anthropocene (Meineke et al. 2019b). Such information from  
17 the past is urgently needed to analyse and understand patterns and drivers of biodiversity change.  
18 Based on this, we can build better models that can predict the future consequences of global change  
19 and take measures to mitigate the impact of our actions. In this work, we want to outline novel  
20 approaches that we propose to summarise under the term Collectomics, which aims to ever more  
21 strongly combining scientific collections with informatics (Sigwart et al. 2025). This ‘omics’ approach  
22 does not only allow to retrieve and use data from natural history collections where we have digital  
23 specimens, but also to do this automatically and thus very quickly, opening the avenue for high-  
24 throughput data analyses for a vastly extended values chain. We also aim to highlight the impacts of  
25 Anthropocene changes on plant life as documented in herbaria. Based on this, we present our vision  
26 for modern ways of analysing these changes, and apply this framework to e.g., zoological collections  
27 as well.

## 30           **2. Historical Herbarium collections – unlocking the treasure trove**

31           Since the 16<sup>th</sup> century, scientists have collected herbarium specimens mainly of vascular plant  
32 species, but also of bryophytes and other cryptogams, and the value of these collections for modern  
33 science is widely acknowledged in various fields of biodiversity research (Johnson et al. 2011, Lavoie  
34 2013, Meineke et al. 2018, Lang et al. 2019, Raxworthy and Smith 2021, Baldini et al. 2022, Davis 2023,  
35 Flannery 2023, Jones et al. 2024, Karbstein et al. 2024). These specimens are preserved and curated in

36 herbaria, which do not only house the plant material itself, but for most specimens (at least from the  
37 19<sup>th</sup> century onwards) also preserve records on where, when and by whom specimens were collected.  
38 We can use this data as information from the past, especially in the light of global change. Worldwide,  
39 herbarium collections currently house nearly 400 million specimens (Davis 2023, Thiers 2024), and they  
40 continue to grow. We are still just beginning to unlock this vast treasure trove, and further progress  
41 offers the possibility to shape the future of biodiversity research.

42 Herbarium specimens have been used mainly in taxonomy and floristics (e.g., species description  
43 and identification, biogeography, floristic accounts), but these fields had been increasingly declining as  
44 many herbaria faced cut of funding; entire collections were closed which also led to a lack of  
45 taxonomists and curators (Miller et al. 2020, Edwards et al. 2024). More recently, herbaria have,  
46 however, experienced a renaissance for more advanced scientific research (e.g., molecular systematics,  
47 macroecology and evolution, future predictions), as a wider circle of scientists has begun to recognize  
48 their value. Herbarium specimens can document shifts in geographic ranges of plant species, with many  
49 studies reporting shifts to higher elevation and latitude in the course of ongoing climate warming  
50 (Graham et al. 2004, Newbold 2010, Feeley 2012). A particularly easily monitored facet of  
51 Anthropocene biodiversity change is the arrival of neophytes. Since new plant species have always  
52 been of vast interest to collectors, their distribution has been particularly well recorded (Lavoie et al.  
53 2007, Crawford and Hoagland 2009). The analysis of historic plant material from herbaria can  
54 furthermore help to assess whether a species is naturally rare or has declined due to anthropogenic  
55 activities (Albani Rocchetti et al. 2021, Vörös et al. 2025), one of the several applications for  
56 assessments in the context of IUCN Red Lists (Zizka et al. 2021, Zizka et al. 2022). It is also estimated  
57 that more than 50% of undescribed species are already harboured in our herbaria and simply need to  
58 be identified (Little et al. 2020).

59 We can also derive information beyond species identity, facilitated by rapidly developing techniques  
60 for studying specimens (Figure 1). Changes in species morphology and physiology due to changes in  
61 temperature, increases in nitrogen and heavy metal depositions and the rising CO<sub>2</sub> concentration of  
62 the atmosphere can be documented over time, using samples derived from the preserved plant tissues  
63 such as stomatal imprints or isotopic signals (Woodward 1987, Law and Salick 2005, Miller-Rushing et  
64 al. 2009, Bonal et al. 2011, Leger 2013, Lang et al. 2019, Heberling 2022). Genomic DNA can be  
65 extracted from the preserved plant material to study phylogenetic relationships, phylogeographic  
66 patterns, population and range dynamics, or the spread of plant diseases (Gugerli et al. 2005, Wandeler  
67 et al. 2007, Yoshida et al. 2013, Meineke et al. 2018, Gutaker et al. 2019, Burbano and Gutaker 2023).  
68 Modern spectroscopic methods allow for determination of nutrient concentrations in leaves without  
69 the necessity of destructive sampling (Kothari et al. 2023, Kühn et al. 2024, Kühn et al. 2025). Likewise,  
70 specific secondary compounds of plants can be analysed, and the evolution of metabolic pathways thus

71 be monitored (Lankau et al. 2009, Mendes Resende et al. 2020, Barnes et al. 2023). Herbaria have  
72 proven instrumental in studies on various aspects of plant phenology, the recurring events in life history  
73 such as flowering or senescence, and collections thus allowed to extend the time span of phenological  
74 observations into the past (Primack et al. 2004, Bolmgren and Lönnberg 2005, Miller-Rushing et al.  
75 2006, Everill et al. 2014, Ramirez-Parada et al. 2022, Ahlstrand et al. 2023, Lee et al. 2024, Iwanycki  
76 Ahlstrand et al. 2025). Some studies also use plant collections to assess the impact of insect herbivory  
77 of the past with admittedly varying degrees of success (Meineke et al. 2018, Meineke et al. 2019a,  
78 Kozlov et al. 2020, Ward 2024), or the interactions between flowering species and their pollinators  
79 themselves (Ziska et al. 2016, Streher et al. 2024). First studies also showed success in reviving already  
80 extinct plant species from propagules, which are sometimes included in herbarium specimens (Abeli  
81 et al. 2020). Not only has the range of biodiversity facets that can be studied with specimens increased,  
82 but also are the data almost exclusively digital, enabling a completely new level of integration.

83

### 84 **3. Herbarium digitization**

85 Soltis (2017) gives a nice overview on the use of digitization in herbaria and argues that just  
86 like fine wine, the value of these collections increases with age (Soltis 2017, Younis et al. 2020b,  
87 Karbstein et al. 2024). Herbarium collections are only recently used in Computer Science or in  
88 collaborations between informatics and biodiversity research, which opens new directions of  
89 herbarium research. Given the new methods available in computer vision, a huge field of potential and  
90 fruitful collaborations emerges (Heberling et al. 2019, Hedrick et al. 2020, Hardisty et al. 2022),  
91 especially with respect of analysing species and trait responses to Anthropocene biodiversity change.  
92 During the past decades, many herbaria conducted massive digitization efforts of their collections  
93 (Willis et al. 2017, Hedrick et al. 2020). Meanwhile, information on millions of herbarium specimens  
94 available through research platforms such as the Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF,  
95 <https://www.gbif.org/>), the integrated Digitized Biological Collections (iDigBio,  
96 <https://www.idigbio.org/>) or the pan-European Research Infrastructure Distributed System of Scientific  
97 Collections (DiSSCo, <https://www.dissco.eu>) will greatly facilitate global access to specimens avoiding  
98 personal travels and shipment of loans (Davis 2023). Digitization efforts also lead to a decentralisation  
99 and a more democratic use of herbarium specimens, which can empower a more diverse research  
100 community (Drew et al. 2017). This also helps to address colonial legacies of many herbaria (Park et al.  
101 2023) and allows for much more equal access. Dedicated software for curation of specimens is  
102 developed and matching protocols are pivotal for a joint effort in digitizing herbaria and to implement  
103 the FAIR principles of data collection and accessibility (data must be Findable, Accessible, Interoperable  
104 and Reusable; Borsch et al. 2020, Manzano and Julier 2021). Currently, even metadata such as sampling  
105 locality and date of collection are available for less than 30% of the specimens within herbaria, whereas

106 for less than 10% are digital images available (Park et al. 2023). German herbaria hold around 23 million  
107 specimens, 87% of which are not yet digitized (Borsch et al. 2020). One of the biggest issues now is that  
108 digitized specimens are hosted on different data portals. Therefore, there is an urgent need for a global  
109 federated collection management system which facilitates the effective mobilization of already  
110 digitized specimens (Weaver and Smith 2023).

111 This digital information is very valuable, as information and specimens from very remote places and  
112 from long ago are now available and can be accessed remotely, thus from anywhere in the world. The  
113 biggest game-changer is, however, not only the improved accessibility and connectivity, but the  
114 increasingly comprehensive information that can be gained from specimens. Manual data assembly  
115 from specimens used to be very laborious, but information from herbarium collections can now be  
116 assessed using machine learning, such as deep learning, artificial neural networks, and optical  
117 character recognition (Albani Rocchetti et al. 2021, Goëau et al. 2022, Hussein et al. 2022). However,  
118 until now, comprehensive benchmark datasets of herbarium specimens with annotations for algorithm  
119 training are still scarce, and those published mostly focus on the species identification (Tan et al. 2019,  
120 de Lutio et al. 2022). This could serve as starting point for the development of new techniques, but  
121 would require an enormous effort to find suitable, representative specimens and to perform thorough  
122 data annotation of individual plant organs (Hussein et al. 2022). These and any subsequent efforts need  
123 strong collaborations between biologists and computer scientists to bring this research field forward.

124

#### 125 **4. Applications of artificial intelligence (AI) in herbaria**

126 One of the most promising avenues are AI methods using herbarium collections are summarized  
127 in Figure 1. In the following, we will exemplify the potential of these new applications and address  
128 some of the still existing obstacles.

129 With respect to the metadata, the information provided on the label can be deciphered using  
130 handwriting recognition tools, and can be automatically transferred to the metadata of the collection  
131 (Weaver et al. 2023). Automatic species identification with AI tools (Carranza-Rojas et al. 2017b,  
132 Hussein et al. 2022, Shirai et al. 2022, Karbstein et al. 2024) helps, within certain limitations, to filter  
133 out specimens which are incorrectly identified or were not identified at all (de Lutio et al. 2022, Chulif  
134 et al. 2023). This is particularly valuable, since botanists who can identify plants are becoming  
135 increasingly rarer as described above (Miller et al. 2020, Edwards et al. 2024). Artificial intelligence also  
136 increasingly contributes to keep pace with the growing knowledge in taxonomy, as it can automatically  
137 compare existing accepted taxonomies (i.e., taxonomic synopses and revisions, national checklists), as  
138 well as valid nomenclatural names and their synonyms (reviewed in Hussein et al. (2022)). With AI-  
139 tools improving further, increasingly precise automated species identification, correct assignment of  
140 previously unresolved names and misinterpreted homo- and heterotypic synonyms, and pattern

141 recognition from the non-digital literature (i.e., diagnoses, descriptions, handwritten annotations,  
142 taxonomic keys, etc.) together will open new avenues. Since the labels typically include information  
143 about the sampling locality and the date of collection, occurrence data on present and past distribution  
144 of the plants can be extracted and compared (Jones et al. 2024). Sometimes, further information such  
145 as on the habitat where the specimen was collected is indicated, providing information on species'  
146 ecology and e.g., potential shifts of its ecological niche. Furthermore, the name of the collector is given  
147 on the label opening the possibility to analyse the collection from a cultural and historical perspective.  
148 If the collector is not specified, handwriting recognition may assist in identifying the author and thus  
149 contribute to unveil the history of the collection.

150 Artificial intelligence will also boost working with specimens themselves. Standardized scans  
151 provide a scale and a colour code to assist in analysing the size and colour of the specimen, or of more  
152 specific size-related traits such as leaf area or the diameter of inflorescence (Rehman et al. 2019).  
153 Although herbarium specimens exhibit notable changes in colour and appearance caused by drying,  
154 pressing and other conserving treatments, important information can be gained from them. Based on  
155 the colour of the leaves, potentially performance traits such as chlorophyll content could also be  
156 evaluated. This also makes it easier to analyse the phenological stage of the specimen, such as  
157 flowering, fruiting or senescence (Hardisty et al. 2022). Based on the colour, not only the visible  
158 spectrum and size of the flowers, but also potential pollination syndromes such as bird or bee  
159 pollination can be inferred (Streher et al. 2024). Pattern recognition allows to segment and analyse  
160 different plant organs to infer information (e.g., Younis et al. 2020b). Additionally, the herbivory status  
161 of the plants can be assessed to some extent or a potential infestation with pathogens such as gall  
162 wasps or fungal infections can be detected, and thus biotic interactions can be analysed. Moreover, X-  
163 ray techniques allow to determine leaf venation, which gives valuable insights into predicting the  
164 effects of climate change as it relates to water supply and demand (Schneider et al. 2017, Schneider et  
165 al. 2018).

166 In the past years, with the development of modern techniques, an increasing number of tools for  
167 automated specimen analysis have been published, yet most of them focus on specific aspects of plants  
168 such as species identification (Carranza-Rojas et al. 2017a, Carranza-Rojas et al. 2017b, Karbstein et al.  
169 2024), morphological traits (Carranza-Rojas et al. 2017a, Zhu et al. 2017, Weaver and Smith 2023) or  
170 growth phenology (Goëau et al. 2022). There are applications available such as the LeafMachine2 – a  
171 program comprising a suite of modular machine learning and computer vision tools which  
172 automatically extract leaf traits from digitized herbarium specimens and texts from labels (Weaver and  
173 Smith 2023). However, we envision the extraction of a specimens' information as a whole and propose  
174 an automatic link of these results to other relevant databases as outlined below, which is described by  
175 the Collectomics approach (Sigwart et al. 2025).

176

## 177 **5. Extending the Extended Specimen – a technical perspective**

178 On account of the wealth of different specimen-related data sources, Webster (2017)  
179 introduced a new concept, describing the Extended Specimen as a combination of specimen and data  
180 types, which aims at representing the multidimensional phenotype and genotype of a physical  
181 specimen. Here, we propose to further analyse and combine these Extended Specimens.

182 The European Research Infrastructure Distributed System of Scientific Collections (DiSSCo) developed  
183 its foundational data model, the Digital Specimen, in close coordination with both the Extended  
184 Specimen concept and the FAIR Digital Objects (FDO) approach (Alliance for biodiversity knowledge  
185 2017). These offer a technical implementation path for policies associated with FAIR principles for  
186 complex digital objects distributed over the internet (Islam et al. 2020, Hardisty et al. 2022). The goal  
187 is to bundle the disparate information about such an object into one cohesive package (Wittenburg et  
188 al. 2023). In line with this approach, a Digital Specimen as an FDO type contains or persistently links  
189 relevant information artefacts about the physical specimen including sequence data, images,  
190 descriptions of locations and habitats, geochemical measurements or taxonomic determinations  
191 (Hardisty et al. 2021). These resources can be available locally as files, or are linked and stored in  
192 domain-specific repositories such as the European Nucleotide Archive (Leinonen et al. 2010). In this  
193 manner, an object-centred and machine-interpretable digital twin of the physical specimen and its  
194 relationships is realized. Concepts of the Extended Specimen and “Holistic Sampling” provide the  
195 structure for modelling the specimen’s domain-specific content (Schindel and Cook 2018, Lendemmer  
196 et al. 2020), while compliance with FDO specifications enables software agents or, in brief, machines  
197 to autonomously process the Digital Specimen and makes it therewith FAIR and AI-ready at the same  
198 time (Jacobsen et al. 2020). Building on this unified data model, the concept of “Machine learning as a  
199 Service” (MLaaS) was developed within the context of DiSSCo (Grieb et al. 2021). As shown in Figure  
200 2, MLaaS facilitates the integration of Machine Learning-assisted services for data enrichment  
201 embedded by DiSSCo partners into the central Digital Specimen architecture (DSArch, Koureas et al.  
202 2024).

203 As an extension of a previous study on extracting specimen data from herbarium sheets (Younis et al.  
204 2020b), we developed an initial service for the implementation of the Collectomics concept using the  
205 Digital Specimen concept and DSArch as blueprints (Figure 2). Features extracted by the pipelines of  
206 the service, such as plant organs and morphological traits, are stored in addition to contextual data in  
207 a digital object model based on our previous studies (Grieb et al. 2021). Reusing an annotated dataset  
208 (Younis et al. 2020a), the study was further extended to perform plant organ segmentation to uniquely  
209 identify and extract additional information of each object in the digital herbarium specimen. In  
210 accordance with similar studies (Sapkota et al. 2024), we switched the model from Mask R-CNN to

211 YOLO11, because the latter that performed better for our use case (He et al. 2017, Jocher et al. 2024).  
212 YOLO11 is then applied and trained on the annotated dataset from the previous study. The segmented  
213 organs are further used for morphological analysis such as surface area calculation from digital images.  
214 To perform surface area calculation, the YOLO11 detection model is trained to detect scales from the  
215 herbarium images. Following scale detection, the tesseract OCR (Smith 2007) is applied on detected  
216 scales to calculate the pixel distance between the digits. The relative pixel distance is transformed into  
217 an absolute measurement in square centimetre (cm<sup>2</sup>) using the detected scale. Then the transformed  
218 absolute measurement is applied on segmented organs and surface area is calculated for segmented  
219 regions of interest as an additional feature (Figure 3). To promote the reusability of the digitization  
220 output, we store the annotations together with the processed images in a container format compatible  
221 with the FDO approach called RO-Crate (Soiland-Reyes et al. 2024). This enables lightweight packaging  
222 of research outputs along with structured metadata. The RO-Crate comprising the complete dataset  
223 on which Figure 3 is based and is provided as supplementary material. It includes the processed images  
224 and annotations semantically mapped to the Flora Phenotype Ontology, a framework which allows  
225 cross-domain re-usability and enables the consecutive analysis of plant trait data (Hoehndorf et al.  
226 2016).

227

## 228 **6. Conclusions – towards a digital Collectomics framework**

229 The renewed interest in herbaria is not without problems, as some methods require destructive  
230 sampling. As curators, we strongly advocate to handle specimens as sustainably as possible (Davis et  
231 al. 2024), and we also trust that technology will increasingly develop more and more non-destructive  
232 approaches such as NIRs technology or X-ray (Schneider et al. 2018, Kühn et al. 2024). We do, however,  
233 firmly believe in benefits of active research for collection maintenance and development, and thus new  
234 opportunities should be welcomed. Therefore, the present contribution is also an appeal to the  
235 scientific community to collect more specimens in current ecological and biological projects and to  
236 acknowledge the valuable contribution of natural history collections such as nicely summarized in  
237 Miller et al. (2020). Research from German herbaria could demonstrate, for example, that there is a  
238 current reduction of specimens being collected, especially when it comes to other species than rare  
239 ones or neophytes, which will obviously imply a bias in future studies (Renner and Rockinger 2016). Of  
240 course, broadening the perspective requires additional resources, such as those for storage and  
241 curation of the collections as well as digitization, but we are firmly convinced this is worth investing.  
242 When handled wisely, preserved specimens in herbaria offer a unique opportunity to do both, study  
243 the past and predict the future of ecosystems and species distributions. We propose to link modern  
244 data retrieval techniques, AI-data science approaches and biodiversity research to analyse patterns in  
245 plant biodiversity and the changes of plant life throughout the Anthropocene using herbarium

246 specimens. We strongly rely on the continued efforts to digitize and collect such specimens worldwide,  
247 but we are confident that more and more become available online, as this was already identified as a  
248 huge need by the scientific community (Borsch et al. 2020).

249 In the new era, we can take digital Extended Specimens even one step further and envision the  
250 automatic link between the information extracted from the specimens such as plant name, sampling  
251 locality, etc. with further information such as climate data, the species' distributional range, genetic  
252 data or threat levels. This will significantly expand the concept of Museomics, which currently mainly  
253 involves extracting DNA data from specimens (Raxworthy and Smith 2021). We thus echo pleas to think  
254 in a larger framework, recently being termed Collectomics by Sigwart et al. (2025). In that view,  
255 Collectomics is not only more precise than Museomics, as it specifically addresses collections and does  
256 not invoke other core museum activities such as for example exhibitions. It is also not restricted to  
257 biological specimens only. Collectomics also embraces the ground-breaking idea of the Extended  
258 Specimen and puts this in context of a full-scale values chain ranging from specimens to derived data  
259 ultimately inform fields as diverse as large-scale modelling, or studies on cultural history (Sigwart et al.  
260 2025, and examples therein such as (Tobias et al. 2022)).

261 Herbaria already play a pioneering role not only because imaging techniques are well and taxonomical  
262 backbones are relatively stable. Concepts such as trait-based analysis (Díaz et al. 2016), phenological  
263 studies (Parmesan and Yohe 2003) or non-invasive measurement of nutrient contents (Kühn et al. 2024)  
264 are particularly advanced in plant biodiversity research, and the pivotal role of plants for ecosystem  
265 primary production also makes plants crucial for Earth System Modelling (Thavhana et al. 2024). In this  
266 way, we expect that herbarium research will make big step forward, enabling us to process large  
267 amounts of data in a fast, yet meaningful manner, thereby opening the treasure trove of scientific plant  
268 collections to the scientific community. Lessons learnt will ultimately benefit other natural historical  
269 collections, and potentially even collections of cultural or technical artefacts.

270

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272 We acknowledge support from the Leibniz-Gesellschaft for developing our Collectomics  
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274 the relevance of collections and provided budget for maintaining and developing them in the future.  
275 Comments of two anonymous reviewers greatly helped us to sharpen our ideas.

276

## 277 **7. Data availability statement**

278 The dataset consisting of 100 annotated, digitized herbarium specimens, which is referenced in  
279 section 4, is available as an RO-Crate under a Creative Commons license and openly published under  
280 <https://doi.org/10.12761/w2c1-x551>.

281

282 **8. Authors contributions:**

283 SFB, SG, JG, MK, JM, CMR, RR, CW, KW, KV, CR- conceptualization

284 JG, JM, RR, CW, KV- Data curation

285 JG, RR, CW- Formal analysis

286 SFB, JG, RR, CW- Visualisation

287 SFB, SG, JG, MK, JM, CMR, RR, CW, KW, KV, CR- Writing original draft

288 SFB, SG, JG, MK, JM, CMR, RR, CW, KW, KV, CR- Writing review & editing

289

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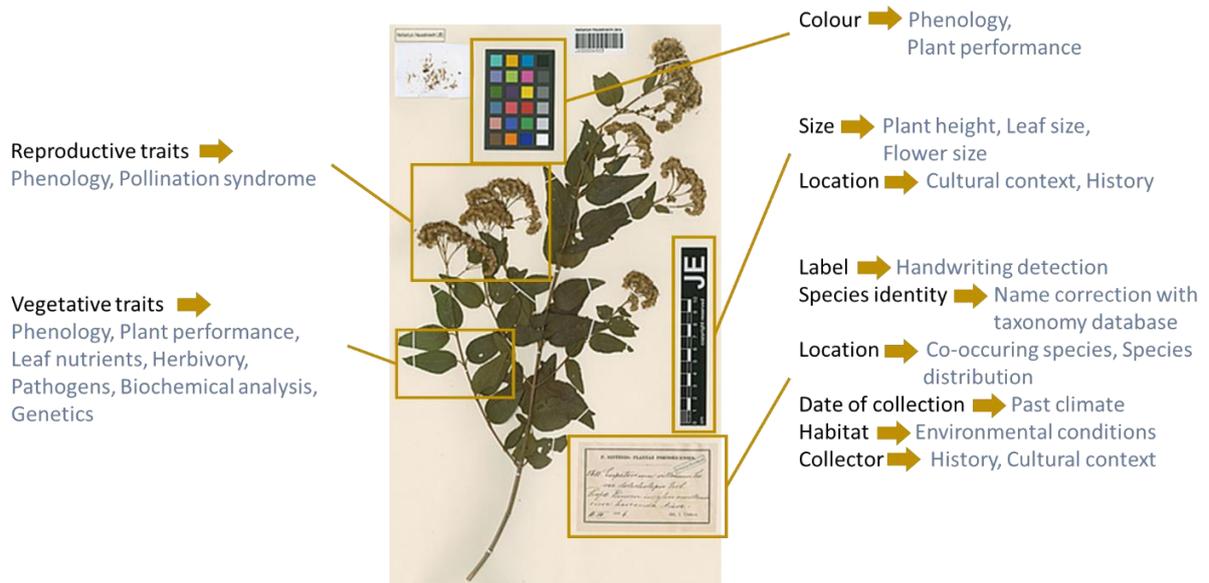
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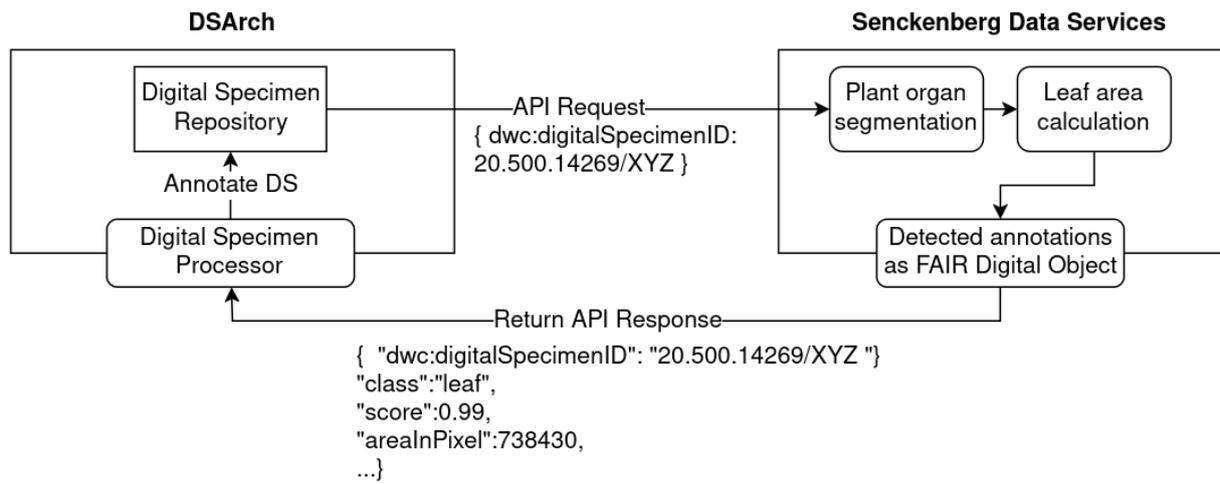
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587 Figure 1: Schematic display of an herbarium specimen and its use as an Extended Specimen.

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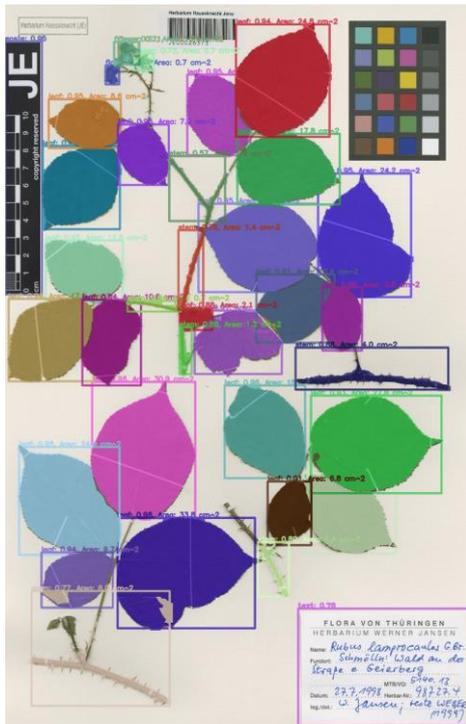


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590 Figure 2: Blueprint for the integration of an annotation service into DiSSCo’s core Digital Specimen  
 591 architecture (DSArch). Identifiability, traceability and persistence of the processed research element is  
 592 realized by a specific identifier, the [digital SpecimenID](#), which is proposed as an extension for the  
 593 Darwin Core vocabulary.

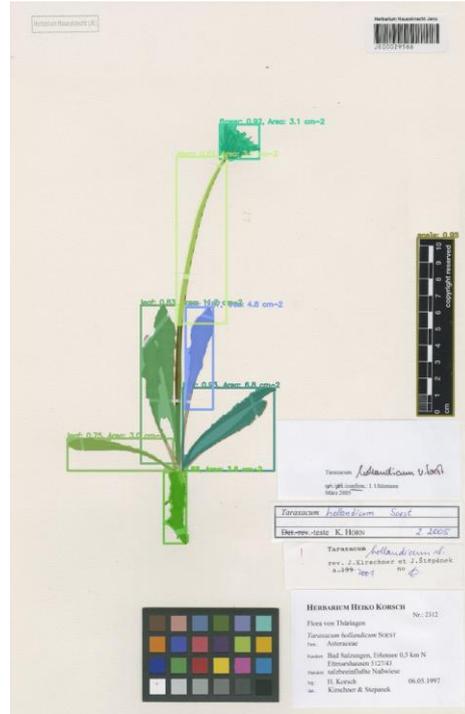
594

A)



008

B)



609

610 Figure 3: Detection of regions of interest (ROI) corresponding to categorized plant organs (leaf, flower,  
611 fruit, seed, stem, root) and subsequent instance segmentation of identified organs of two plant genera  
612 (*Rubus*, *Taraxacum*). Based on the segmentation in addition to scale bar detection, the visible surface  
613 area in cm<sup>2</sup> of the plant organs is computed and included in the resulting digital object. Shown are  
614 predicted annotations for two example specimens (A: *Rubus pruinosus* Arrh.; B: *Taraxacum subalpinum*  
615 Hudziok) from a compiled example dataset of 100 specimens from the Herbarium Senckenbergianum  
616 – Herbarium Haussknecht (JE).

617

618