1

Title: Harmonising distributed tree inventory datasets across India can fill critical gaps in tropical ecology

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ABSTRACT

1. Global analyses of tree diversity and function are strongly biased geographically, with poor representation from forests of the Indian subcontinent. Even though data from India - representing two-thirds of the subcontinent and spanning a wide range of tree-based biomes - exists, a barrier to syntheses is the absence of accessible and standardised data. Further, with increasing human footprint across ecosystems, data from Indian landscapes, with their long history of human-nature interactions is a key link to understand the future of tropical forested landscapes. Given the long history of human-nature interactions and high human footprint in the region, accessible and standardized data from the subcontinent can enable understanding the future of tropical landscapes under increasing human footprints globally.

2. Combining literature searches with manual data retrieval, we assembled the INdia Tree Inventory dataset, INvenTree. INvenTree is the largest meta-dataset of peer-reviewed publications (n = 465) from 1991-2023 on geolocated plot-based tree inventories of multispecies communities from Indian ecosystems, in aggregate covering 4653.64 ha and all of its woody biomes.

3. Using INvenTree, we show extensive sampling across tropical moist and dry forests, the dominant ecosystem types in the country. However, most studies have low sampling effort (median sampled area = 2 ha) and data across studies is not openly accessible (73.33 % of studies representing 83.43% of the sampled area), potentially hindering inclusion into regional or global syntheses.

4. Significantly, we show majority authorship from within the country; 82.8% of corresponding authors were from India and 73.33% of the studies had all authors affiliated with Indian institutions. We also identify ecological and conservation sampling priority regions based on forest cover and forest loss and set a blueprint for future sampling efforts in the country.

5. Based on extensive Indian scholarship in forest ecology showcased through the INvenTree dataset, we see opportunity for regional collaboration to create scientific inferences that are larger and scalable, while prioritising data and knowledge equity. Harmonising these existing datasets, and synthesising historic and grey literature, will contribute enormously to understanding the human dimension of tropical ecology as well as informing regional management and conservation.

KEYWORDS

tree inventory; India; macroecology; bibliometrics

INTRODUCTION

Distributed tree inventories, typically collected using standardised methodologies, are powerful tools for addressing fundamental macro- and micro- ecological questions. Tree inventory information is a crucial baseline to understand ecological communities and their susceptibility and resilience in the face of global change including advancing our understanding of forest structure and dynamics, carbon stocks and fluxes, and improving predictions under climate change scenarios (Anderson-Teixeira et al., 2015, 2015, 2018; Cazzolla Gatti et al., 2022; ForestPlots.net et al., 2021, 2021; Jung et al., 2021; Malhi et al., 2002; Poulter et al., 2019). However, the global distribution of these tree inventory datasets is geographically biased, leading to highly variable and weakly constrained predictions from data-poor regions, many of which overlap deforestation and climate-change hotspots (Carvalho et al., 2023).

Continental biases in data pose a barrier to truly global ecology, both because of ecological and anthropic differences among the global tropics. Firstly, tropical biomes show continental scale differences in species richness, stem density and carbon stocks, because of differences in earth history and biogeography (ForestPlots.net et al., 2021; Hagen et al., 2021; Sullivan et al., 2017). Secondly, there is growing recognition of historical and ongoing human influence in shaping natural landscapes, influencing patterns, processes and functioning (Barlow et al., 2012; Fraser et al., 2024). This human influence on ecosystems has differences across continents and biomes, with some tropical biomes having only <1% under low human influence (Riggio et al., 2020; Venter et al., 2016). Yet, global analyses using tree inventories draw on sparse and biased data from the tropics, hindering truly "global" ecological knowledge (Martin et al., 2012; Stocks et al., 2008). Global syntheses use publicly available data (e.g. hosted at GBIF or Dryad) and aggregate national scale data (e.g. US Forest Inventory and Analysis), inadvertently reflecting and propagating the biases within these datasets. At the global scale, collection and compilation of biodiversity data is biased towards countries with high domestic product, high proportions of English speakers and high levels of security (Amano & Sutherland, 2013; Hughes et al., 2021). Temperate biomes are oversampled, while tropical biomes are understudied, and the Neotropics are studied more than the Paleotropics (Martin et al., 2012; Stocks et al., 2008). For a robust understanding of tropical ecology in the Anthropocene, ecological understanding must span variation on both ecological and human dimensions.

The Indian subcontinent is a pronounced gap in most global datasets and analyses, occluding a robust understanding of both ecological and human dimension of tropical ecology. The Indian subcontinent is one of the oldest and most biodiverse regions of tropical Asia, with a long human history and present-day footprint. Human settlement here has been recorded as early as 700,000 to 400,000 years before present (Briggs, 2003; Gadgil & Thapar, 1990; Mani, 1974). Among the global tropics, this region ranks highest in present-day human footprint on ecosystems, on par with highly built areas of the industrialised temperate regions (Venter et al., 2016). To this day, these ecosystems continue to support high human densities and human use,

for timber, fuelwood, fodder and non-timber forest products (Karanth & DeFries, 2010;
Shahabuddin & Prasad, 2004-04/2004-06). Despite this unique combination of bioclimatic,
biogeographic and human forces in shaping present-day natural landscapes, the subcontinent
continues to be excluded from macroecological syntheses, including estimates of tree density,
forest age and species richness (e.g. Cazzolla Gatti et al., 2022; Crowther et al., 2015; Poulter et
al., 2019). These geographic gaps could be due to a combination of factors including gaps in
data collection within the subcontinent (e.g. across biomes or regions of interest) or gaps in data
reusability (e.g. data stored in repositories are missing data or metadata components).

Within the Indian subcontinent, data availability and accessibility could be affected not only by
sampling constraints, but by legacies of scientific inequalities, further hindering collaboration
and synthesis. Stemming from colonial legacies, tropical ecology research and publishing has
been has been dominated by researchers from high-income countries, leading to "parachute
science" (Maas et al., 2021; Miller et al., 2023; Nuñez et al., 2021; Odeny & Bosurgi, 2022; Raja et
al., 2021; Stocks et al., 2008). Moreover, despite ecological research increasingly moving to a big-
data and collaborative discipline, its costs and benefits continue to be unevenly distributed
(Farley et al., 2018; Maas et al., 2021). This is especially stark for synthesis and meta-analyses
requiring quantitative skills and no new data collections (Mori et al., 2015; Stocks et al., 2008).
As voiced by researchers in the Neotropics and in Africa, researchers based in the Global South
experience multistep challenges in the scientific publishing pipeline - lack of funding, language
barriers, inequalities at the peer-review stage and inability to pay high open access publishing
costs - as well as transient and transactional partnerships with Global North researchers (Asase
et al., 2022; Kwon, 2022; Mekonnen et al., 2021; Ramírez-Castañeda, 2020; Smith et al., 2023).
The Indian subcontinent, with legacies of its recent colonial past reflected in society, including
in ecology and forestry practices, is likely affected by these same issues. A large and diverse
region such as the Indian subcontinent is prone to parachute science by Global North
researchers into the region, as well as parachute science within the region: researchers with
more resources may extract data and knowledge from distant, often resource-poor regions
within the subcontinent. Such academic inequalities could disincentivise data sharing,
especially in the absence of clear incentives (De Lima et al., 2022). Since barriers to data access
have strong social dimensions, it is important to carefully examine the geographic distribution
of the researchers, biomes and publication patterns, to understand the community of data
owners and assess collaboration needs.

As the largest country in the Indian subcontinent, and representative of its diversity and human
footprint, data collation from India can further ecological understanding for the region, beyond
biodiversity assessment. India, currently the most populous country in the world, continues to
have large forest cover and high species diversity under four biodiversity hotspots (Mittermeier
et al., 2004; Mugal et al., 2023; Myers et al., 2000). Ecosystems in India cover 10 biomes as
proposed by Dinerstein et al. (2017), covering all biomes of South Asia. Moreover, ecosystems in
India are human-dominated; they continue to support high human densities along with high

biodiversity to the extent that 85% of high priority conservation areas in India are outside of
protected areas and embedded in wider human-nature landscapes (Karanth & DeFries, 2010;
Srivathsa et al., 2023). India, therefore, provides a unique "model" to understand human-
dominated tropical landscapes as the human footprint on natural landscapes across the world
continues to grow (Karanth & DeFries, 2010; Roberts et al., 2021). Further, Indian scholarship in
forest ecology is extensive, with a growing number of research programmes and investment,
including over 250 long-term monitoring efforts (Tiruvaimozhi et al., 2024). Given its large
human capital, collaborative frameworks from India can also set benchmarks for inclusive
tropical ecology. Here, we assembled INvenTree, the largest meta-dataset of geolocated plot-
based tree inventories from India and assessed (i) sampling patterns, (ii) geographic gaps in
sampling and (ii) authorship patterns in tree community research in India to aid future
syntheses.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

STUDY AREA

The Indian subcontinent is one of the oldest regions in tropical Asia (Briggs, 2003; Mani, 1974).
Its complex geo-climatic and biogeographic history has resulted in a rich variety of biomes with
high diversity and endemism of flora and fauna (Fig 1). Within the subcontinent, India, 6° 440
and 35° 300 N latitude and 68° 70 and 97° 250 E longitude, comprises the largest landmass, with
four global biodiversity hotspots occurring within mainland India (Mittermeier et al., 2004;
Myers et al., 2000). It comprises ten biogeographic subdivisions based on phytogeography
(Rodgers & Panwar, 1988), and five major broad forest types are commonly recognised: tropical
moist forest, tropical dry forest, subtropical forest, temperate and sub-alpine forest (Champion
& Seth, 1968; Reddy et al., 2015) (Fig S1). Among these, the tropical dry forest is the most
dominant vegetation type in terms of land cover (Reddy et al., 2015). The current distribution of
flora within the mainland is predominantly shaped by the interplay of past and current climatic
events and biogeography (Mani, 1974). Seasonal rainfall driven by the Himalayan orogeny is
one of the major drivers of current vegetation patterns with most of the subcontinent strongly
governed by monsoonal rainfall. For ease of comparison with global studies we used the
classification proposed by Dinerstein et al. (2017), which resulted in classification of the Indian
mainland and the Andaman and Nicobar Islands into ten biomes with several ecoregions nested
under these (Fig 1, Fig S2).

The Indian subcontinent has a long history of human populations with the earliest human
settlement recorded between 700,000 to 400,000 years before present (Gadgil & Thapar, 1990).
Human population spread throughout the subcontinent at low densities in the terminal
pleistocene (20000 - 10000 years BP) and by 4000 years BP, agricultural settlements had covered
the entire subcontinent. India is currently the most populous country in the world, with a
population of 1.4 billion which is projected to continue rising in the coming decades [World

Population Prospects]. To this day, forested landscapes in India also house large densities of
human populations with forest- or other natural-resource-dependent livelihoods.

Figure 1: INvenTree dataset. The location of study sites in papers that form part of the INvenTree
dataset in relation to the 10 vegetated biomes (and Rock and Ice) in India as per the Dinerstein et al.
(2017) dataset. Each point corresponds to the centroid of the sampled location reported in each study.

ASSEMBLING THE INVENTREE DATASET

We created a meta-dataset of plot-based tree inventory studies on multispecies communities
from Indian forested ecosystems from 1991 to 2023. We used both Google Scholar (last search
in November 2021) and Web of Science (last search in February 2023) to include a wide range of
journals as well as book chapters that publish forestry research from India. The Google Scholar
search terms included (Tree diversity OR plot OR dbh) AND (India) and was later updated to
exclude other countries where "India" or "Indians" may have been used in other contexts
(e.g.,other countries in the Indian sub-continent such as Pakistan, Nepal, Myanmar etc.,
American Indian reservations). We used a broader list of search terms on Web of Science with
the keywords AB=((tree diversity OR forest structure OR (tree* AND biomass) OR (forest* AND
biomass) OR carbon stock OR vegetation survey OR vegetation sampling OR (tree* AND plot)
OR (forest AND plot) OR (measur* AND tree) OR (checklist AND flora) OR (checklist AND
tree) OR (checklist AND plant*)) AND India). We supplemented this list with an additional set
of papers we were aware of but weren't present in the Google Scholar or Web of Science results
(e.g. global studies that report on datasets from India but are not captured by the keywords),
and with papers that we found through snowball sampling the known papers' references. We
merged the lists from all three sources and removed duplicates, resulting in 3758 entries. We
then manually sorted the list based on the title and the abstract to remove papers that were not
related to forests in India, resulting in 657 potentially relevant papers. We accessed shortlisted
papers and screened them based on the following criteria– (1) the study involved collection of
plot level or checklist data of trees, (2) the study sites were natural multi-species stands of trees
from inland woody ecosystems or coastal forests and mangroves. We excluded papers focussing
on seedlings, single species studies and those based in managed or urban environments. Based
on these criteria we identified **465 papers that formed the INvenTree dataset**.

From each paper in the INvenTree dataset, we extracted data on i) geographic location of study
ii) area sampled iii) author affiliations and iv) data accessibility. i) We recorded the latitude and
longitude of the study area reported either from the text or from a map provided. For studies
with more than one plot, where separate locations were reported for each, we estimated the
centroid of the study area. ii) To calculate the total area sampled in each study, we recorded plot
shape, plot dimensions and number of plots, for all plot-based studies. Since we were focussed
on exhaustive inventories, for studies that sampled subplots within a larger plot (e.g. five 20 m x
20 m plots sampled within a 1 ha area), we recorded the total area of the subplots which were
exhaustively sampled (5x 400 m^2) instead of the reported study area (1 ha). Further, for studies
that inventoried plots across natural and managed communities or plantations, we only
counted plots that were in natural multi-species communities. (iii) We verified (for Web of
Science search) or manually added information on author affiliations and addresses. (iv) To
assess the accessibility of the full paper and data, we recorded whether the papers were freely
available (open access) on the publisher's webpage and whether individual level or species level
summaries of the tree data were freely accessible in the paper, in appendices, or in open access
data sharing websites like FigShare, Dryad or Zenodo. Finally, we identified papers that used
the same datasets - either large scale datasets or long-term datasets. We excluded large-scale

datasets from analysis of biome-distributions as they covered several biomes; for long-term
datasets we included only the first published paper. For analyses of authorship, we used all
published papers including large-scale and repeat datasets.

ANALYSING DATA ACCESSIBILITY AND REUSABILITY

We first examined the number of studies, total area and percent area sampled within each
biome. We also examined the open access status and the data access status of studies across
biomes. Although some of our sites fell outside of biomes expected to have tree cover (e.g. in
Montane grasslands and shrublands), we included them if they included tree inventories, as this
information is likely to be more accurate than biome classifications. To further understand the
practical constraints on the reuse of these data, we assessed each dataset on two axes: the data
resolution and reusability. We considered these axes independently because for full reusability
for synthesis, data should be available at the finest resolution, stem level data, but some
synthesis might be possible with aggregate data as well. For each study that had reported data
beyond broad summaries, we accessed the data from external repositories or from the paper.
We used the FAIR framework for scientific data management (Wilkinson et al., 2016) to assess
the reusability status of dataset in INvenTree, by categorising datasets in each study based on
whether they are Findable, Accessible, Interoperable and Reusable. We categorised these
datasets on the FAIR-ness axis, for three different data resolutions - plot-level, species-level and
stem-level data. We defined plot-level data as data aggregated at the plot level, where plot is the
smallest spatial unit of sampling, species-level data as data aggregated at the species level,
whether within or across plots, and stem-level data as data reported at the level of data
collection - individual stems. For detailed methods, refer to the supplementary material.

ANALYSING GEOGRAPHIC PATTERNS IN SAMPLING

We assessed sampling gaps in India in two different ways; we compared the spread of our data
in relation to a) tree cover (as a proxy of ecological sampling priority) and b) its loss in India
(conservation sampling priority). Indian forested ecosystems have a large range of natural tree
cover, spanning closed canopy forests to open natural ecosystems. For robust ecological
understanding, sampling should span this range of variation in tree cover. We defined
ecological sampling priority as undersampled areas across the tree cover gradient. We also
defined conservation priority sampling areas as areas of high tree cover loss but low sampling
effort. We used the Hansen et al. (2013) dataset of tree cover in the year 2000 (within the period
of interest) and tree cover loss from 2000-2021 cropped to the limits of India using Google Earth
Engine (code here - https://code.earthengine.google.com/1f887c3af348300241dfc60e3da21cff).
For these 30 m x 30 m pixels, we followed Friedl & Sulla-Menashe (2022)'s definition of forested
pixels as >30% forest cover. This would include woody savannas (30-60% cover) but exclude
more open and grassy savannas (10-30%).

India has 594 districts as of the 2011 census with a median area of 4077.48 km^2 ranging from 15.7
km^2 to 47858 km^2 area. We chose district as our sampling unit as the sampling scale of most of
the studies in the INvenTree dataset was contained within a district. Moreover, ecological
heterogeneity is often small enough within a district and summaries at this scale are meaningful
for further use by multiple stakeholders (Srivathsa et al., 2023). We used an administrative map
of districts from [GADM] and extracted the tree cover (number of forested pixels) and cover loss
(number of pixels experiencing loss) for each district using the *extract* function from the *terra*
package (Hijmans, 2022b). For each district, we then calculated our variables of interest - % tree
cover (percentage of district area with tree cover) and % forest loss (number of pixels that
experienced forest loss divided by number of forested pixels). We chose to analyse % forest loss
instead of absolute forest loss since there is a large distribution of forest cover across districts
and absolute loss would be somewhat correlated to forest cover (for analysis of absolute forest
loss, refer to the supplementary appendix). We then summarised the proportion of area
sampled in each district as the sum of the total area sampled in each study that fell within its
boundaries divided by the district area. We limited the analysis to districts that have non-zero
forest cover (n=341) and excluded all points that fell outside these even though they may have
reported on tree-based biomes, because of high uncertainties.

To analyse the spatial distribution of data, we assigned each district into one of three categories
(low, medium, high) along each variable assessed - % tree cover, % forest loss and sampling
effort. For %tree cover, we split districts as three quantiles and scored them as 1-3, i.e. districts
that fell in the lowest 1/3rd of % tree cover values was scored as 1. Many districts had zero tree
cover loss (n=115 out of 341) or zero sampling effort (n=205) and so, it was not possible to split
the districts into three evenly sized groups based on the values of these variables. Moreover,
zero sampling and zero loss are qualitatively different from low sampling and need to be
highlighted. We, therefore, assigned all districts with zero tree cover loss as category 1, and
split the remaining districts evenly between categories 2 and 3. We used a similar logic for
sampling effort, but since our aim was to highlight research gaps, for sampled effort, we
assigned a reverse scale. All districts with no sampling were categorised as the highest
"sampling gap" and assigned category 3. The remaining districts were split evenly between
categories 1 and 2. In our scale, a district falling in the highest quantile of tree cover and no
sampling effort would be scored (3,3) to highlight high priority ecological sampling. Similarly, a
district with high loss and no sampling effort would be scored (3,3) to highlight high priority
conservation sampling. We visualised spatial overlaps in tree cover or tree cover loss and
sampling gaps using bivariate chloropleth maps. We repeated these steps for sampling gaps
across ecoregions. For detailed methods and data distributions, refer to the supplementary
material.

ANALYSING AUTHOR AFFILIATIONS AND PARACHUTE SCIENCE

We considered the full INvenTree dataset (n = 465) for the bibliometric analysis. For each unique
study, we extracted the addresses of all authors. For corresponding authors, we used the
address provided through Web of Science or extracted from the paper manually. Some
publications in our dataset did not have an identifiable corresponding author, in which case it
was left empty. In cases where the corresponding author had multiple affiliations, we
considered only the first. For each study, we identified the unique affiliation addresses and the
number of authors affiliated to each address. We ran all unique addresses from papers through
a Google Maps-based geocoding software on Google Sheets, Awesome Table Geocode, that
returns latitude and longitude for each address (https://awesome-table.com).

To analyse collaboration potential within the region for future syntheses, we compared the
geographic positions of the authors and the papers in different ways. For these analyses, we
limited the dataset to only those studies where we had information on the location of the
authors as well as the site (n=456). First, we examined the proportion of authors in each study
that were affiliated with institutions in India and its relation to the area sampled.   Second, we
examined the distance of the study site from the corresponding author institution for each
study, by calculating the Haversine distance (the shortest distance between the two points
assuming a spherical earth) between the two pairs of coordinates using the *geosphere* package
(Hijmans, 2022a). We then looked at how this distance has changed over the years.

All analyses were performed in R version 4.1.3 (R Core Team, 2022) using packages *dplyr* and
tidyverse (Wickham et al., 2019, 2022).

Figure 2: Data availability and accessibility across biomes. *a) Number of studies and b)total area sampled across the 10 vegetated biomes of India among tree inventories studies in India. Solid bars represent data accessible in repositories or in the appendix while empty bars represent inaccessible data. Lightly coloured bars represent studies where the accessibility status was uncertain. Studies focussing on a single biome are only reported here. See supplementary material for details. c) Data distribution along data graininess and Findable, Accessible, Interoperable, Reusable (FAIR) principles of data reuse. Data reported only for studies where data was accessible for at least one of the categories of data graininess, the rest has been excluded from this figure. Legends F, FA, FAI, FAIR represent position along the reusability scale as defined by these principles. N represents data that were not findable. Size of the bars represent total sampled area in each of these categories. For detailed methods, refer to the supplementary material.*

RESULTS

DATA AVAILABILITY AND ACCESSIBILITY

The 465 studies reported in the journal articles in the INvenTree dataset span 10 biomes and cover 31 of the 36 states and union territories of India (Fig 1). We identified 436 studies of this

dataset that report on area-based inventories, e.g. transects or plot-based measures, sampling a total of 4653.64 ha (Fig 1). The remaining were checklists, duplicates or did not report key metrics to estimate sampling effort. The most commonly studied biome was Tropical & Subtropical Moist Broadleaf Forests (236 out of 465, 50.75%), followed by Tropical & Subtropical Dry Broadleaf Forests (86 out of 465, 18.49%) (Fig 2a). In terms of area, the most extensively sampled biome was Tropical & Subtropical Moist Broadleaf Forests with a total area of 2169.3 ha sampled across 221 studies (Fig 2b).

Most studies in the INvenTree dataset had low effort in terms of total area sampled; the median sampled area of the studies was 2 ha. Of these, 84.73% report on datasets that sample less than a total area of 100 ha, 72.47% less than 10 ha, 27.96% less than 1 ha. Across these studies, data accessibility was poor; only 101 studies, representing 21.72% of the studies and 14.8% of the area had data that was available either as a table, appendix, supplementary information or archived in a repository. Sampled area was not statistically significantly different between data-accessible and data-inaccessible studies (one-way ANOVA, df=1, SS=0.22, p=0.45). Data access was fairly evenly limited across the bioregions studied (-squared test statistic for number of studies = 40, p=0.1, for area = 80, p=0.2) (Fig 2b).

While examining the reusability of the datasets under the FAIR framework, we found considerable variation in the level of detail of findable and reusable data across studies that had "accessible" data (Fig 2c). Much of the datasets classified broadly as "accessible" (14.8% of the total sampled area) met reusability standards only for plot-level (12.81% of total sampled area across studies) or species-level data (1.95% of sampled area). Among the studies assessed, only 5 representing 0.47% of sampled area met reusability standards for stem level data, the finest grain of tree inventory information assessed. Despite limited data accessibility, the text of 56.77% of published articles were openly accessible (Fig S4). Studies were most commonly published in the journal Tropical Ecology (n=40) (Fig S4).

AUTHORSHIP PATTERNS

Over 4 in 5 of the corresponding authors of papers in the INvenTree dataset were based in institutions in India (82.8%), with a small proportion of corresponding authors (14.19%) from other countries, primarily the United States (4.73%), France (2.37%) and China (1.72%) (Fig 3). Within India, affiliations were spread widely across the country, showing authorship and data ownership across institutions (Fig 3a). The number of publications have grown over the years and much of this increase is attributable to corresponding authors based in India (Fig S13). A clear majority, 1612 out of a total 1870 authors across articles in the meta-dataset were affiliated with Indian institutions and organisations ('domestic' in Fig 3), but 24.95% of papers also had authors affiliated with non-Indian institutions ('foreign' in Fig 3). When scored for the percentage of Indian-affiliated authors in a study, 90.11% of studies had more than 50% authors affiliated to India. 73.33% studies had all authors affiliated to Indian institutions. Although

large-scale studies were few, they tended to have high or near-total in-country authorship (Fig
3). We observed an increasing trend of large-scale studies over the years (S13), but local and
small-scale studies also continue to be published (Fig 3). Further, most studies in the INvenTree
dataset were conducted locally, close to the institution of the corresponding author; the median
distance between corresponding author affiliation and study site was 280.38 km (Fig 3).

Figure 3: INvenTree authorship patterns and data equity. a) Locations of corresponding authors of
papers in the INvenTree dataset, b) top five countries, representing 92.26%, where corresponding authors
were affiliated; c) Measuring equity within the country - distance between corresponding author
affiliation and study site across studies. d) Investigating parachute research - proportion of domestic and
foreign authors in the INvenTree dataset and their relationship to area sampled. Size of the points
represents number of authors in the study, colour is indicative of the proportion of in-country authors.

SAMPLING PRIORITIES

The INvenTree dataset was used to identify sampling priority regions for ecological and
conservation research (Fig 4). The INvenTree dataset showed disproportionate sampling across
districts, with most (223 out of 341) districts with tree cover never sampled (Fig S6). When
sampling gaps were visualised along tree cover and tree cover loss gradients, high
heterogeneity among sites and biomes emerged (Fig 4). Notably, among districts with high tree
cover, the northern Western Ghats, several districts of North-east India, parts of the Western
Himalayas, and a few districts in eastern India fell in the lowest quantile of area sampled (Fig 4,
Fig S6). Ecological sampling priority regions that fall in lower tree cover quantiles were many of
the drier districts in peninsular India like the Deccan plateau, Eastern Ghats, Central India, as
well as the western Himalayan foothills and the Nicobar Islands. There were also a few datasets
reporting on tree-based inventories that fell outside of these forested districts (Fig S5). When
considering sampling effort across ecoregions, the effort was highly skewed and most regions
were highly undersampled relative to their extent (Fig S12).

Districts of the highest conservation sampling priority were largely different from those of the
ecological sampling priority districts. Districts in the highest quantile of forest loss relative to
forest cover were clustered mainly in north-east India and the eastern states of Odisha, Andhra
Pradesh, Telengana and Chattisgarh (Fig S9). Among districts that fell in the highest quantile of
tree cover loss, districts in the north-east and eastern India were the least studied (Fig 4). Data
availability from areas of tree cover loss was poor from the northern Western Ghats, northeast
India and the Nicobar Islands.

DISCUSSION

The INvenTree dataset, to our knowledge, is the first and largest meta-dataset of tree inventory
information from India. This dataset covers all tree-based biomes of India and spans a total of
4653.64 ha. Using this dataset, we identify geographic and biome gaps in sampling and define
ecological and conservation sampling priority regions. Most studies in the INvenTree dataset
are authored by researchers affiliated to Indian universities and study local ecosystems.
Although 80% of the dataset is not accessible, the strong presence of researchers in Indian
organisations who are owners of high quality local data indicates potential for a regional
network to promote a better understanding of ecological processes across larger spatial scales.

Harmonising these datasets under fair sharing protocols is a first step towards synthetic
research in the region. Given India's high biodiversity and human-dominated landscapes, such
a network could promote a better understanding of ecosystems in the Anthropocene, while
benefiting research and researchers.

Using the INvenTree dataset, we identified the extent and sampling biases across biomes and
regions, providing directions to align future sampling of tree-based biomes within the country
(Fig 4). The INvenTree dataset spans all of India's diverse tree-based biomes, but shows non-
uniform sampling across these. Among biomes, tropical and subtropical moist and dry forests
were well sampled relative to their area. However, within India, there has been increased
attention on the diversity of tropical dry forest types (Ratnam et al., 2016), their high
biodiversity and threats to their conservation (Nerlekar et al., 2022, 2024). Our result highlights
potential for these tree inventory data, once collated and standardized, to contribute to our
larger understanding of dry tropical forests which remain among the least understood and most
threatened tropical tree biomes globally (Miles et al., 2006; Siyum, 2020). Although the moist
forests were better sampled, the distribution of the plots was clustered in the southern western
ghats and north eastern forests, which are more speciose (Fig 1).   Consequently, we report
ecological sampling priority in the northern Western Ghats and north-east India and
conservation sampling priority in north-east India as well as eastern India (Fig 4). Regional
disparities in sampling can lead to biased understanding of ecological heterogeneity in patterns
and processes which may result in inappropriate management, conservation or restoration
practices.   It is concerning that our proposed regions of priority conservation sampling (high
loss/low sampling) overlap regions of large conservation concern with megaprojects (e.g. dams
and oil palm expansion in North-East India, Bhattacharya (2022), Srinivasan et al. (2021);
proposed development in the Nicobar Islands, Ramachandran (2022); mineral resource
extraction in eastern India, Aggarwal (2021)). As these regions continue to lose tree cover, it is an
urgent need to collect baseline information to support stakeholders in appropriate conservation
action. Our proposed ecological and conservation sampling priority maps can provide a
blueprint for the next decades of tree sampling in the country to help refine our ecological
understanding and inform management and conservation.

Figure 4: Ecological and conservation sampling priority regions. *Bivariate chloropleth maps showing sampling gaps in plot-based tree inventories across districts in India in relation to a) mean tree cover in the district in 2000 and b) mean tree cover loss from 2000-2021 averaged over the area of the district. Sampling gaps were categorised into three categories; districts with 0 sampling effort were coded as the highest gap, the rest were split into two groups. Refer methods and supplementary for details.*

Table 1 | Potential applications emerging from a combined, harmonised INvenTree

Category	Applications	Examples
Basic ecological research	Understanding patterns and drivers of taxonomic and phylogenetic diversity	Page and Shanker (2020)
	Patterns in ecosystem function (productivity, temporal and spatial stability, carbon balance, etc.) across heterogenous landscapes	Osuri et al. (2020)
	Ecological forecasting of ecosystem functions with climate	
Conservation and policy	Monitoring, evaluation and learning on forest restoration and other nature based solutions for climate change mitigation	REDD+, carbon credits
	Habitat assessment for in situ conservation of keystone species	Koulgi et al. (2019)
	Aiding natural resource management and measuring its effectiveness (based on different metrics such as carbon stocks, biodiversity, etc)	

Table 1 | Potential applications emerging from a combined, harmonised INvenTree

Category	Applications	Examples
	Policies to promote future research in underserved regions	Critical Ecosystem Partnership Fund
Socio-cultural dimensions	Enable sustainable use and biocultural conservation of important forest resources	Pradhan and Ormsby (2020)
	Eco-tourism and other recreational uses	
	Potential for data-based teaching modules on tropical ecology	Organisation for Tropical Studies Field Courses

CHALLENGES AND PROMISES OF SYNTHESISING INVENTREE DATA

A harmonised database of tree inventories from India, beyond the INvenTree meta-dataset, can
fill crucial knowledge gaps in the human dimension of global tropical ecology to aid research,
conservation and socio-cultural dimensions (Table 1). Large-scale datasets are more than the
sum of their parts; for example, data published by Ramesh et al. (2010), covering the Western
Ghats, has allowed for several syntheses, both at regional and global scales ranging from
patterns and drivers of diversity to drivers of above ground carbon storage(e.g. Hardy et al.
(2012); Krishnadas et al. (2021); Osuri et al. (2020); Davidar et al. (2018)). Spatially distributed
datasets like the Forest Inventory and Analysis programme in the United States have led to at
least 180 publications and increased the accuracy of predictive modeling of ecological
communities (Tinkham et al., 2018). Similar to other national programmes, The Forest Survey
of India (FSI) conducts country-wide tree inventories spanning ~ 3500 ha total area every 5 years
with a systematic gridded approach (https://fsi.nic.in/about-forest-inventory, Tewari (2016)). In
comparison, studies in the INvenTree dataset in aggregate covers more than this area even after
accounting for sites sampled multiple times. A harmonised database such as INvenTree will
enable synthetic research on the patterns and processes structuring ecosystems across the
region. Moreover, datasets with repeat sampling could also lend to ecological forecasting of
ecosystems states with climate (e.g. Heilman et al. (2022)). Such data could immensely improve
conservation efforts both by government and private actors by improving data available for
monitoring and evaluation of forest management, restoration efforts, carbon credit projects and
other nature-based solutions to mitigate climate change. These data would also be useful for
universities and educators, making it possible to create data-driven educational products for
ecology courses in India (e.g. Organisation for Tropical Studies courses in other geographies).
We also envision that INvenTree data would serve as crucial baselines for practitioners and local
communities involved in sustainable use of forest resources as well as "biocultural"

conservation that balances conservation goals with local cultural values and worldviews
(Sterling et al., 2017).

The INvenTree dataset highlights the potential for collaborative approaches within the country
to facilitate inclusion of high quality data into regional and global syntheses. Most research
represented in the INvenTree dataset was conducted locally, likely integrating deep knowledge
of landscape context, taxonomy and natural history. In heterogeneous tropical landscapes like
India with high alpha and beta diversity, such localized, specialized data collection can be
crucial for data quality. However, at present, the reusability of these data for further analyses is
hindered by the small scale of individual datasets and their distributed ownership. Since many
of these datasets have total sampling effort < 2 ha, the effort required to individually request
permissions from authors and harmonise these may outweigh the benefits of their inclusion into
previous global syntheses. An accepted set of best practices for data reusability is described by
the FAIR principles for data; Findable, Accessible, Interoperable and Reusable (Wilkinson et al.,
2016). Our assessment of the reusability of these datasets revealed that even while datasets were
"findable" and "accessible", the current forms in which they are publicly available most often
did not meet reusability standards, especially for the finest grain, stem-level data, required for
many syntheses. Despite the limited access at the stem level, plot-based vegetation studies are
multi-layered in their data as well as further utility, allowing useful, scalable, synthetic research
even with plot and species level data. Harmonising these heterogeneous datasets, to achieve
"Interoperability" and "Reusability", is difficult as they can be conducted using slightly
different methodologies or adapted to context. Moreover, standardising species names across
studies, including dealing with local names, requires taxonomic expertise and biogeographic
knowledge (Singh, 2008). Assembling such a database would require close, continuous,
collaborations with data owners and collectors.

The distributed inventories collated in INvenTree are important not just because of their extent,
but the perspective of data sovereignty, and equity. FAIR principles for data sharing are not
always fair for tropical forest data owners and making data unconditionally open could lead to
further extractive science, as quantitative skills and publishing power tends to be concentrated
in the global north and in elite universities (De Lima et al., 2022; Mori et al., 2015). Existing
networks such as ForestPlots, respond to this inequity by insisting on co-authorship for primary
data collectors (ForestPlots.net et al., 2021). We are encouraged by our findings that showcase a
steady pattern of in-country authorship on tree-inventory-based publications from India, a
positive contrast to the global pattern of parachute research in tropical landscapes (Asase et al.,
2022; Miller et al., 2023). Acknowledging the enormous efforts and potential needs of current
and future data owners, we envision a regional network that prioritises fair sharing policies as
well as quantitative processing tools (e.g. open source code, tutorials, periodic data workshops).
Combining frameworks for data sharing with tools and networks can empower Indian
researchers, especially early-career researchers and those in under-funded universities to access
and utilise these data for their research.

In conclusion, using the first synthesized metadataset of tree inventory data from India, we
identified geographic gaps in sampling and highlighted priority regions for future sampling to
fill critical gaps in tropical ecology. We also identify strong scholarship in forest ecology within
India, demonstrated by a large number of authors and data owners affiliated to Indian
institutions. Based on our findings, we propose The India Tree Inventory Network, a regional
network of forest researchers from India that will promote synthetic forest research in India
while prioritising data sovereignty and knowledge equity at the global and national scale. The
INvenTree network will build on existing frameworks for data and knowledge sharing that
acknowledge diverse contributions, costs and benefits inherent to an unequal world (Cooke et
al., 2021; De Lima et al., 2022; Ocampo-Ariza et al., 2023).

POSITIONALITY STATEMENT

All authors of this paper are Indian nationals, working in ecology and allied fields, with
substantial field experience in India. KA and NM are currently postdoctoral researchers in US
institutions and were also affiliated with US universities for their PhD, but have studied and
worked in Indian institutions up to the Masters level. KA has led field data collection in India
through all stages of her professional life starting from undergrad. AG and AK are PhD
students in Indian institutions. AS is affiliated with US institutions for his PhD and has studied
and worked in India until the Masters level. AJ is a Masters student in Europe. TN is a PhD
student in the UK doing field work in India and has studied in India until her undergraduate
degree. SO is a PhD student in Germany. MS is a Professor at an Indian institution.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

539 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

DATA ACCESSIBILITY STATEMENT

The data and code used in this manuscript will be made available on the India-INvenTree
GitHub repository (www.github.com/India-INvenTree/metadata-analysis) and on Zenodo upon
acceptance of this manuscript.

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