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

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Abstract

Global analyses of tree diversity and function are strongly biased geographically, with poor representation from South Asian forests. Even though data from India - representing two-thirds of South Asia 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. Combining literature searches with manual data retrieval, we assembled INvenTree, the INdia Tree Inventory dataset, 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 vegetated biomes. Using the INvenTree dataset, we show extensive sampling across tropical moist and dry forests, the dominant ecosystem types in the country. We also identify ecological and conservation sampling priority regions based on forest cover and loss and set a blueprint for future sampling efforts in the country. However, most studies are small scale (median = 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. 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. 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 datasets would 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

Tree inventory information is a crucial baseline to understand ecological communities, their ecological status as well as their susceptibility and resilience in the face of global change (Anderson-Teixeira et al., 2015; Cazzolla Gatti et al., 2022; ForestPlots.net et al., 2021). Distributed tree inventories, typically collected using standardised methodologies, are powerful tools for addressing fundamental macro- and micro- ecological questions including advancing our understanding of forest structure, dynamics, carbon stocks and fluxes, and improving predictions under climate change scenarios (Anderson-Teixeira et al., 2015, 2018; ForestPlots.net et al., 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 with deforestation and climate-change hotspots (Carvalho et al., 2023). There is an urgent need to identify and fill these gaps as combined tree inventories as well as their derived products form crucial baselines to inform conservation priorities, restoration efforts and climate change action.

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 often 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, wealth, language, geographic location and its level of security pose barriers to collection and compilation of biodiversity data (Amano & Sutherland, 2013; Hughes et al., 2021). Across terrestrial ecological observations, 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). Continental biases 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). For a robust understanding of tropical ecology in the Anthropocene, ecological understanding must span variation on both ecological and human dimensions.

South Asia is a pronounced gap in most global datasets and analyses including those that estimate basic quantities like tree density, forest age and species richness (e.g. Cazzolla Gatti et al., 2022; Crowther et al., 2015; Poulter et al., 2019). ForestPlots.net, a voluntary, researcher-contributed database that collates and hosts data on forest monitoring across the tropics reports 7044 plots in 63 countries, concentrated in the tropics. This dataset, however, includes only 8 plots from South Asia (as of February 2024) highlighting the underrepresentation of data from this region. Data from India, the largest country in South Asia and representing most of its

diverse ecosystems and species, can be a crucial link to filling these geographic gaps. 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 South Asia are human-dominated; they continue to support high human densities along with high biodiversity (Karanth & DeFries, 2010). India also 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). Mapping sampling effort across geographies and biomes is the first step to examine the data availability and set future sampling priorities.

While sampling gaps are more readily addressed, addressing data access barriers requires confronting and acknowledging legacies of inequality in ecology and conservation. Despite ecological research increasingly moving to a big-data and collaborative discipline, its costs and benefits continue to be unevenly distributed (Maas et al., 2021). 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). 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). Besides funding, researchers based in the Global South experience multistep challenges in the scientific publishing pipeline - because of language barriers, inequalities at the peer-review stage and inability to pay high open access publishing costs (Kwon, 2022; Mekonnen et al., 2021; Ramírez-Castañeda, 2020; Smith et al., 2023). Even when collaborating with researchers from the Global North, researchers in the Global South experience transient and transactional partnerships, where they are relegated to subordinate roles with few opportunities to contribute to project design or development (Asase et al., 2022). 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 of South Asian biomes and publication patterns, to understand the community of data owners and assess collaboration needs.

As the largest country in South Asia, and representative of its diversity and human footprint, data collation from India can further ecological understanding for the region, beyond biodiversity assessment. Moreover, 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.

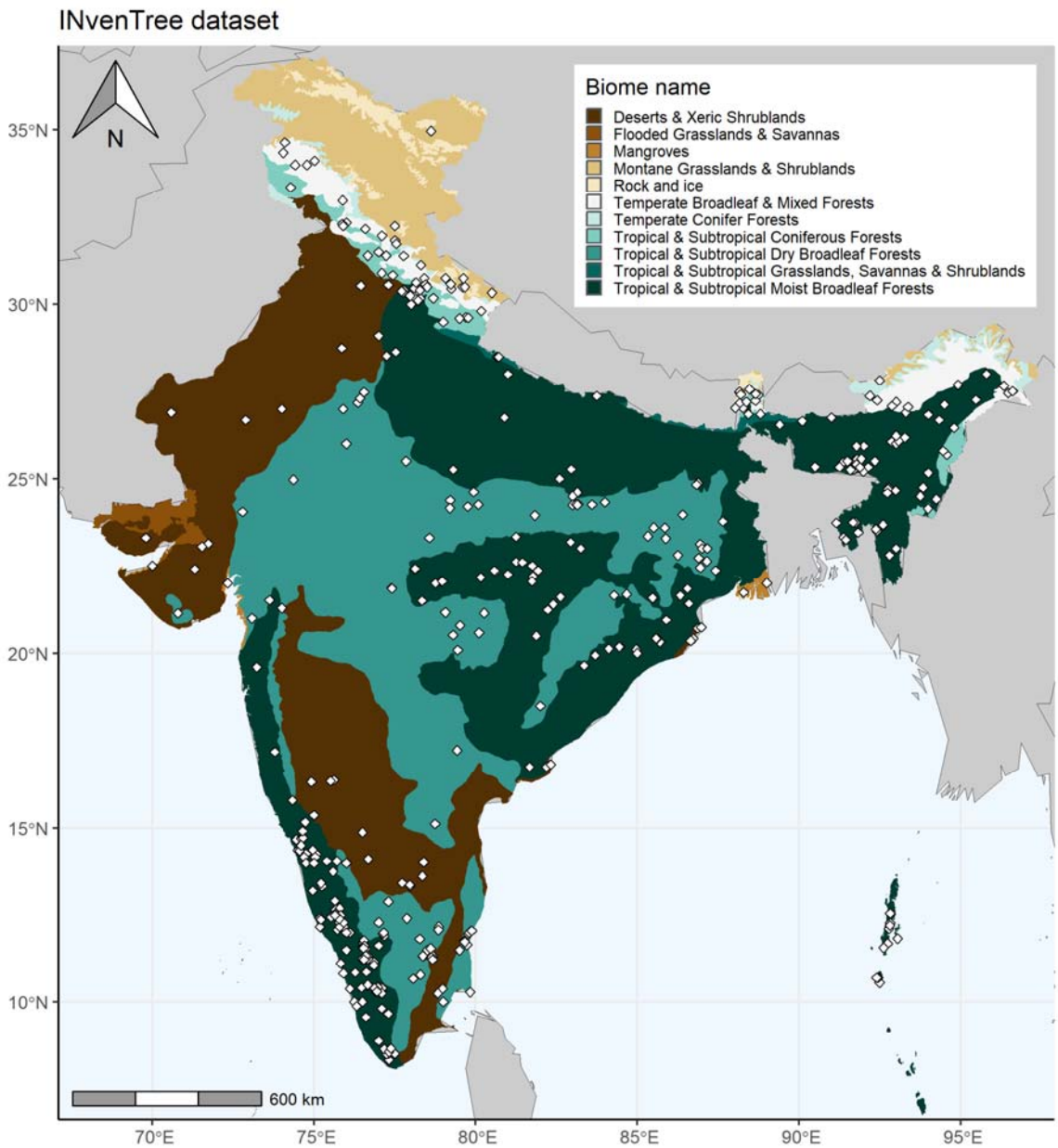


Figure 1: INvenTree dataset. *The location of study sites in papers that form part of the INvenTree dataset in relation to the 10 vegetated biomes (and Rock and Ice) in India as per the Dinerstein et al. (2017) dataset. Each point corresponds to the centroid of the sampled location reported in each study.*

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 tapestry of biomes with high diversity and endemism of flora and fauna, with four global biodiversity hotspots occurring within mainland India (Mittermeier et al., 2004; Myers et al., 2000). Forested landscapes in India also house large densities of human populations with forest- or other natural-resource-dependent livelihoods. The Indian subcontinent has a long history of human populations with the earliest human settlement recorded between 700000 to 40000 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. 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.

Within the subcontinent, India, 6˚ 440 and 35˚ 300 N latitude and 68˚ 70 and 97˚ 250 E longitude, comprises the largest landmass. 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]. 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). Among these, the tropical dry forest is the most dominant vegetation type in terms of land cover (Reddy et al., 2015). For ease of comparison with global studies we used the ecoregion classification proposed by Dinerstein et al. (2017), which resulted in classification of the Indian mainland forests into ten ecoregions (Fig 1).

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 aimed to arrive at 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 (40 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.

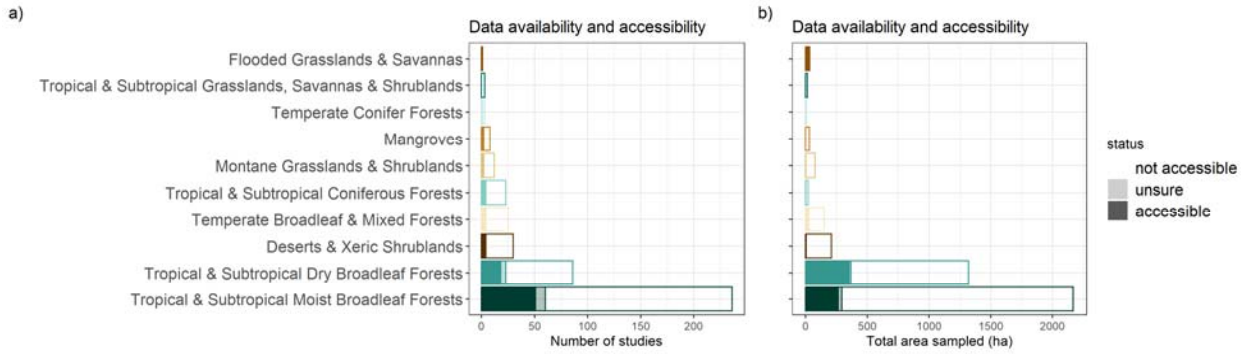


Figure 2: Data availability and accessibility across biomes. *a) Number of studies and b)total area sampled across the 10 vegetated biomes of India among tree inventories studies in India. Solid bars represent data accessible in repositories or in the appendix while empty bars represent inaccessible data. Studies focussing on a single biome are only reported here. See supplementary for details.*

ANALYSING GEOGRAPHIC PATTERNS AND ACCESSIBILITY

We 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.

We assessed sampling gaps in India in two different ways; we compared the spread of our data in relation to a) tree cover (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). We defined forested pixels as any pixel with >30% forest cover. This would include woody savannas (30-60% cover) but exclude more open and grassy savannas (10-30%) as per Friedl & Sulla-Menashe (2022).

India has 594 districts as of the 2011 census 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. 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.

Analysing author spread

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 WoS 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 that resulted from level 1 sorting through a Google Maps-based geocoding software on Google Sheets, Awesome Table Geocode, that returns geographic coordinates (latitude & longitude) for each address.

To analyse collaboration potential within the region for future syntheses, we compared the geography 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). Firstly, we examined the proportion of authors in each study that were affiliated with institutions in India and its relation to the area sampled. Secondly, 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). Finally, we 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).

Results

Data availability and accessibility

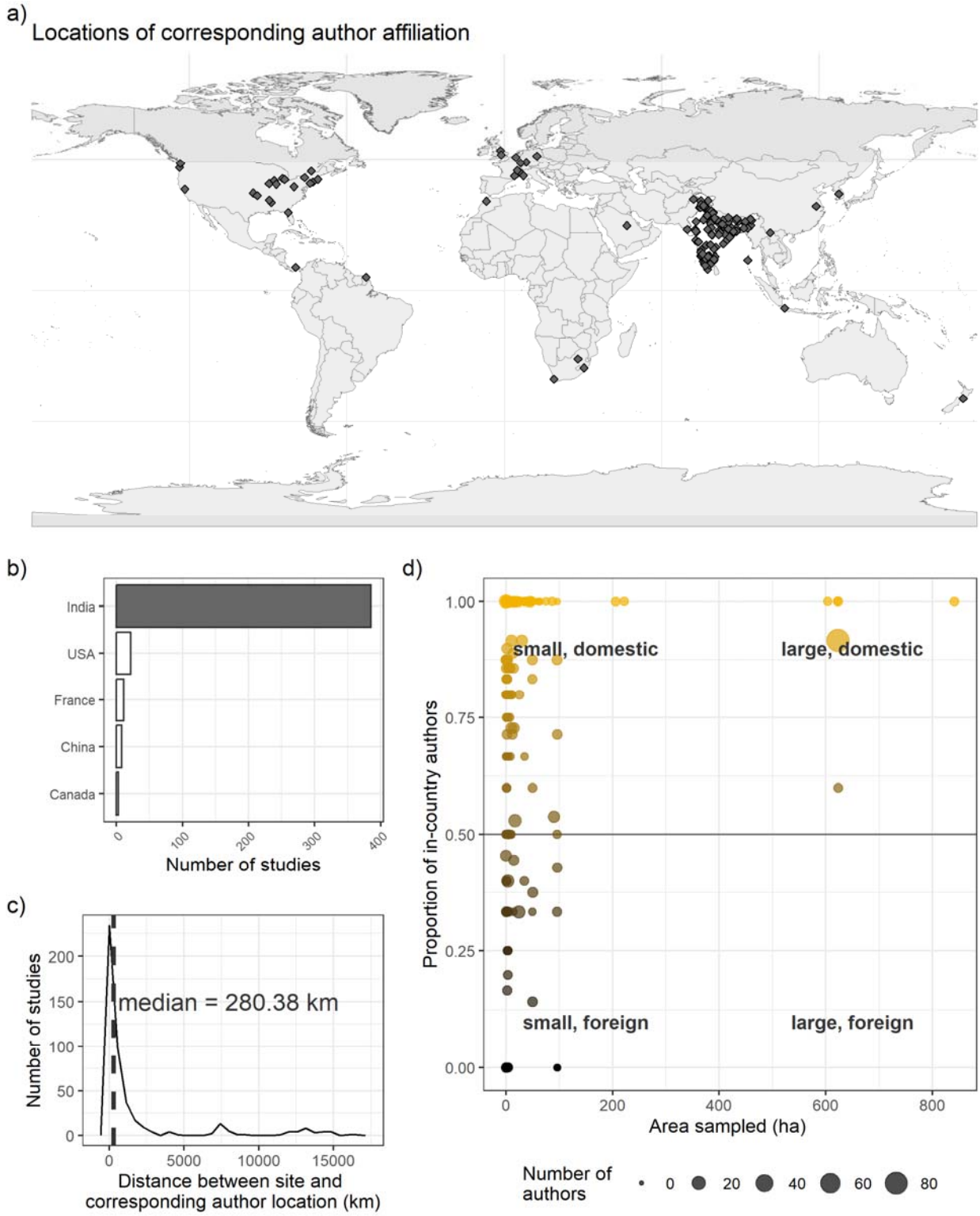
The plots reported in the papers in the INvenTree dataset (n=465) span 10 biomes and cover 31 of the 36 states and union territories (Fig 1). We then identified 436 of this dataset that report on area-based inventories, e.g. transects or plot-based measures, covering a total of 4653.64 ha (Fig 1). The 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 (n = 236 out of 465), followed by Tropical & Subtropical Dry Broadleaf Forests (n = 86) (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 are small-scale; the median sampled area of the studies was 2 ha. Out of these studies, 84.73% report on datasets that are less than 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 inaccessible studies (one-way ANOVA, df=1, SS=0.22, p=0.45). Data access was fairly evenly limited across the bioregions studied (Fig 2b). Despite the data being inaccessible, most published papers were openly accessible (Fig S4). Studies were most commonly published in the journal Tropical Ecology (n=40).

Authorship patterns

Most 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). Majority of the authors of the papers in the meta-dataset were affiliated with Indian institutions and organisations ('domestic'), but less than 50% of papers also had authors affiliated with non-

Indian institutions ('foreign'). 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 (n=341) had all authors affiliated to Indian institutions accounting for 49.98% of the area sampled. Although large-scale studies were rare, they tended to have high or near-total in-country authorship (Fig 3). There has been an increasing trend of large-scale studies over the years, but local and small-scale studies also continue to be published (Fig 3). Further, most studies in the INvenTree dataset are local; the median distance between corresponding author affiliation and study site was 280.38 km (Fig 3).


a)
Locations of corresponding author affiliation
b)
India
USA
France
China
Canada
0
100
200
300
400
Number of studies
c)
Number of studies
200
150
100
50
0
median = 280.38 km
0
5000
10000
15000
Distance between site and corresponding author location (km)
d)
Proportion of in-country authors
1.00
0.75
0.50
0.25
0.00
small, domestic
large, domestic
small, foreign
large, foreign
0
200
400
600
800
Area sampled (ha)
Number of authors
0
20
40
60
80

321

Figure 3: INvenTree authorship patterns and data equity. *a) Locations of corresponding authors of papers in the INvenTree dataset, b) top five countries 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.*

Sampling priorities

The INvenTree dataset was used to identify sampling priority regions for ecological and conservation research (Fig 4). The INvenTree dataset showed high skew in sampling across districts, with most districts 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, the northeast 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 universities 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.

The INvenTree dataset spans all of India's diverse tree-based biomes, but shows non-uniform sampling across these. Tropical and subtropical moist and dry forests were well sampled relative to their area. But few broader scale syntheses exist especially for tropical dry forests which are highly threatened, not just in India, but also globally (Miles et al., 2006). Within India, there has been increased attention on the biodiversity and conservation of these biomes in recent years (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 tropical tree biomes (Siyum, 2020). Although the moist forests were better sampled, the distribution of the plots tends to be concentrated in certain regions such as few locations in the southern western ghats and north eastern forests, which are more speciose. While our ecoregion map has 10 vegetated biomes, it is not sufficiently comprehensive to capture sub-categories such as seasonally dry forests and savannas which may further reduce representation from certain types of biomes. However, even this is an important contribution at the global scale as most of our understanding of the tropical forests come from neo-tropical sites that are different from the paleo- tropics (ForestPlots.net et al., 2021; Sullivan et al., 2017).

Using the INvenTree dataset, we identified strong biases within regions, providing directions to align future sampling of tree-based biomes within the country (Fig 4). Notably, 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. For example, recent frameworks using plant traits and dominant structural processes suggests that many of "forest" landscapes in South Asia are in fact savannas and have been previously misclassified and managed accordingly (Ratnam et al., 2011, 2016). Similarly, the INvenTree dataset records studies on tree communities in biomes classified as "montane grassland" or "desert" by Dinerstein et al. (2017), suggesting fine-scale spatial heterogeneity in these biome types that is currently overlooked by global classifications. 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 in North-East India, Bhattacharya (2022); a transshipment terminal in Nicobar, Ramachandran (2022); natural resource extraction in eastern India, Aggarwal (2021)). While tree inventories may not be priority research in these areas, as these regions continue to lose tree cover, it is an urgent need to collect baseline information to inform effective conservation action. Our proposed ecological and conservation sampling priority maps can provide a blueprint for the next decades of tree sampling in the

country and help refine our understanding of landscape heterogeneity and inform management and conservation.

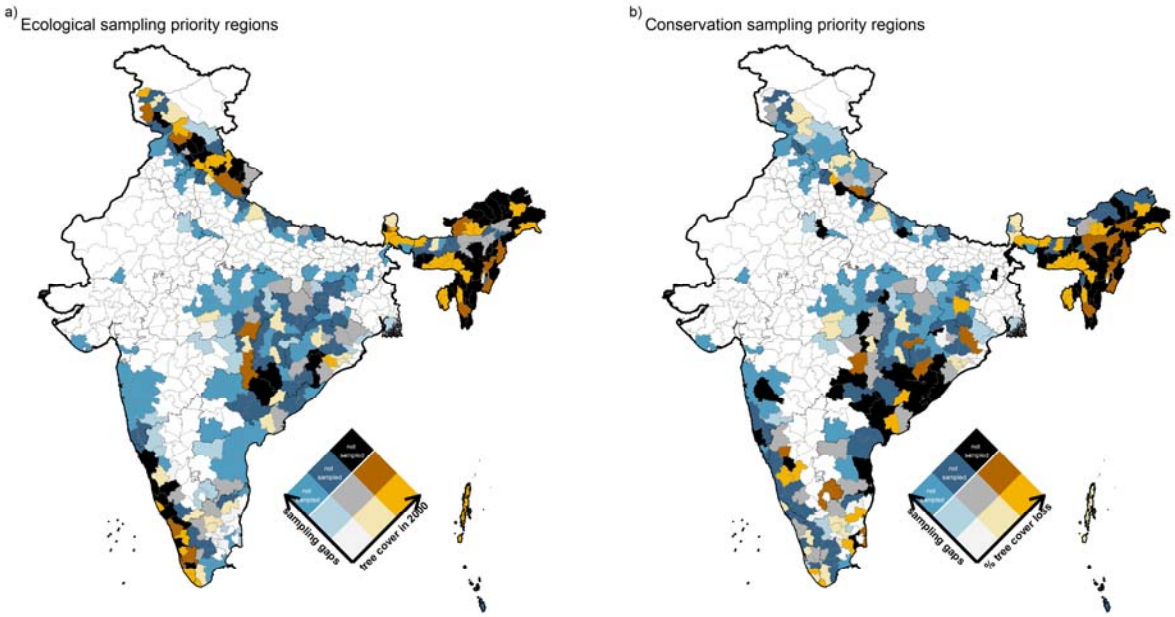


Figure 4: Ecological and conservation sampling priority regions. *Bivariate chloropleth maps showing sampling gaps in plot-based tree inventories across districts in India in relation to a) mean tree cover in the district in 2000 and b) mean tree cover loss from 2000-2021 averaged over the area of the 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)). 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. In comparison, studies in the INvenTree dataset in aggregate covers more than this area even after accounting for sites sampled multiple times. A harmonised INvenTree will enable synthetic research on the patterns and processes structuring ecosystems across India. Moreover, datasets with repeat sampling could also lend to ecological forecasting of ecosystems states with climate. 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. We also envision that INvenTree data would also enable communities interested in sustainable use of forest resources as well as "biocultural" conservation that balances conservation goals with local cultural values and worldviews.

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, crucial aspects besides measurement techniques. In heterogeneous tropical landscapes like India with hundreds of species per site and high 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 are small-scale studies, 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 study assessed the Findability and Accessibility of the datasets and found gaps. Harmonising datasets from small-scale studies, 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. Assembling such a database would require close, continuous, collaborations with data owners and collectors.

The distributed inventories collated in INvenTree are important not just from its 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 a 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 significant 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 has completed a masters in the UK. MS is a Professor at an Indian institution.

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