



## Improving visibility for knowledge holders in ethnobiological and ethnopharmacological publications

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1 **Improving visibility for knowledge holders in ethnobiological and ethnopharmacological**  
2 **publications**

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51  
52 **Abstract**

53 **Ethnopharmacological relevance:** Ethnopharmacology and ethnobiology largely focus on the  
54 study of traditional knowledge related to medicinal and other uses of plants, animals or  
55 minerals. Despite decades of political advocacy, ethnopharmacological and ethnobiological  
56 information is still sometimes published without proper attribution of the cultural identities and  
57 affiliations of the communities that shared it.

58 **Aim of the study:** Identify key guidelines to ensure the proper attribution of ethnobiological  
59 and ethnopharmacological knowledge recorded in scientific publications to the communities  
60 who provided it.

61 **Material and methods:** This article is based on extensive group discussions that started at a  
62 workshop entitled “A worldwide database of local uses of biodiversity: Why? For whom? And  
63 how?” (18th Congress of the International Society of Ethnobiology in Marrakech, Morocco,  
64 May 15-19, 2024), and was attended by around 50 participants. The guidelines were developed  
65 through an iterative revision process.

66 **Results:** We propose practical guidelines to improve the attribution and thus, visibility, of  
67 communities whose knowledge contributes to ethnobiological and ethnopharmacological  
68 publications.

69 **Conclusion:** Transparent and consistent reporting of the provenance of place-based ancestral  
70 knowledge from communities is essential for advancing the objectives of the Nagoya Protocol,  
71 the Treaty on Intellectual Property, Genetic Resources and Associated Traditional Knowledge,  
72 and for strengthening academic inquiry.

73  
74 **Keywords:** CARE principles, cross-cultural studies, FAIR principles, guidelines, Indigenous  
75 Data Sovereignty, Nagoya protocol, transdisciplinarity.

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78 **1. Visibility of knowledge holders in publications including traditional knowledge about  
79 biodiversity**

80 Proper attribution is a means of reducing the invisibility and the muting of marginalized social  
81 groups in the research process. Invisibility is a form of social and epistemic injustice inflicted  
82 on knowledge holders. Epistemic injustice refers to the harm done to people specifically in  
83 their capacity as knowledgeable individuals and the systemic discrimination of those who  
84 developed specific knowledge (Fricker, 2007). Indigenous and other place-based, non-  
85 academic knowledge “holders” are often invisible in public discourses and debates (Levis et  
86 al., 2024; Molnár et al., 2023). The quotation marks around the word “holders” serve as a  
87 reminder that expressions which refer to the people who collaborate with academics in  
88 ethnobiological and ethnopharmacological studies can have different meanings to different  
89 audiences. For instance, the “holder” can refer to the one who knows, but can also refer to the  
90 one who controls and appropriates knowledge. Indigenous Peoples may learn directly from  
91 Mother Nature and may share this knowledge with each other and other peoples spontaneously,  
92 it is relational and fluid, not fixed or contained. Academic literature often refers to “informants”  
93 or “participants,” yet these terms can intentionally or unintentionally frame individuals in  
94 passive roles. The more neutral term “participants” may often fall short of capturing the active,  
95 reciprocal, and sovereign nature of knowledge exchange in many Indigenous and local  
96 contexts. Through the text, we use the term “holders”, recognising that it may not be adequate  
97 to refer to all peoples having different forms of knowledge about biodiversity.

100 Ensuring fair and consistent attribution to knowledge holders is a general issue in ethnobiology  
101 (encompassing ethnobotany and ethnozoology; Cooke et al., 2021; Walter et al., 2021),  
102 ethnomedicine, and ethnopharmacology (Weckerle et al., 2018). At the same time, there are  
103 increasing efforts to work collaboratively and equitably with Indigenous Peoples, Afro-  
104 descendant communities and other diaspora, and local communities (hereafter “communities”,  
105 while acknowledging the substantial power imbalances that exist both among these  
106 communities, as well as in relation to dominant or majority populations globally) in  
107 sustainability decision-making, healthcare planning, and biodiversity conservation (e.g., Carrie  
108 et al., 2015; Hill et al., 2020; McElwee et al., 2020; Vandebroek et al., 2023). For example, one  
109 of the key discussions at the 2024 United Nations Biodiversity Conference of the Parties to the  
110 UN Convention on Biological Diversity (COP16) focused on the role of communities in  
111 biodiversity conservation and resulted in the creation of a working group on article 8j (CBD,  
112 2024). The marginalization of traditional medical knowledge—due to limited research,  
113 insufficient policy engagement, and poor or lacking integration frameworks—undermines its  
114 incorporation into national health systems. As a result, health policies and materials often lack  
115 cultural sensitivity (WHO, 2005; Caceres Guido et al., 2015), while respecting cultural  
116 acceptance of medical care is fundamental for achieving Universal Health Coverage (WHO,  
117 2013; UN General Assembly, 2015).

118 To date, knowledge holders are not reliably and consistently acknowledged in publications  
119 reporting the use and stewardship of biodiversity (Carmona et al., 2023). In a review about  
120 medicinal plant use surveys conducted in the Brazilian Atlantic Forest, 57% of the 162  
121 referenced articles did not provide *any* information on knowledge holders (Zank et al., 2023)  
122 while a review of English academic literature about cultural keystone species revealed that 20%  
123 of 313 articles did not specify for which sociocultural group the species were important  
124 (Mattalia et al., 2024). Identifying a community of knowledge holders can be challenging.  
125 Communities are often a mosaic of languages and cultures that have exchanged knowledge for  
126 centuries, sometimes through recognised knowledge guardians, and many other times through  
127 more diffuse, collectively held practices. However, this should not dissuade the reporting of  
128 communities’ identity in ethnopharmacological and ethnobiological publications. There is  
129 considerable variation in how researchers and research projects engage with knowledge holders  
130 during collaborations, as well as in the extent to which communities’ identities are  
131 acknowledged or disclosed in resulting publications. In publications and databases, a  
132 continuum exists between not mentioning who knows and uses specific biodiversity (e.g.,  
133 Species Use Database <https://speciesusedatabase.com>) and conducting research and building  
134 up databases together with communities (e.g., Ethno-ornithology World Atlas  
135 <https://ewatlas.net>). The Ethno-ornithology World Atlas uses the Mukurtu platform  
136 (<https://mukurtu.org/>) and Traditional Knowledge Labels (<https://localcontexts.org>), which  
137 enable communities to manage, share and exchange aspects of their heritage within a database  
138 in culturally relevant and ethical ways. The platform and the labels allow regulating access and  
139 tagging knowledge in databases regarding the provenance, permissions, and protocols of use  
140 of information. Other examples of co-created databases are the UseFlora  
141 ([www.useflora.ufsc.br](http://www.useflora.ufsc.br)) and the EthnoFlora DB French Guiana. UseFlora is being built by a  
142 team including Indigenous and non-Indigenous researchers to structure a database about useful  
143 plants and their users in Brazil, respecting both academic and Indigenous perspectives.  
144 EthnoFlora has been developed to gather in a single database all the published information  
145 about French Guianese ethnobotany in order to repatriate it to the knowledge holders so they  
146 gain access on what’s been published about them. Transdisciplinary research, co-steered and  
147 co-authored with local researchers and community members, is perceived as increasingly  
148 relevant and important to foster sustainable development, mitigate biodiversity loss and the  
149

150 effects of climate change, and contribute to social justice (Ibarra et al. 2023; Norström et al.,  
151 2020; Vandebroek et al., 2023). There is a need to increase the quality of publications and  
152 databases explicitly reporting the origin of recorded knowledge, improving visibility of  
153 knowledge holders, and echoing these voices, territories, knowledge systems, and ways of  
154 understanding and engaging with nature (Díaz-Reviriego et al., 2024). After extensive  
155 discussions among the co-authoring team, we concluded that shared standards are required for  
156 reporting cultural background data of the involved communities because culture affects human-  
157 nature relationships, how these relationships are perceived, and how solutions can be developed  
158 and pursued.

159

160 This contribution emerges from discussions between an international group of ethnobiologists  
161 and Indigenous representatives during a workshop entitled “A worldwide database of local uses  
162 of biodiversity: Why? For whom? And how?” that took place during the 18th Congress of the  
163 International Society of Ethnobiology in Marrakech (Morocco; May 15-19, 2024). The  
164 workshop was attended by around 50 participants, who were invited to follow-up discussions  
165 leading to the proposed guidelines. To support these discussions, a first review of existing  
166 authorship guidelines in journals dedicated to ethnobiology and ethnopharmacology  
167 (Supplementary File 1) was conducted. This literature review found that authorship guidelines  
168 are often unspecific when it comes to reporting of identities of communities (e.g. ‘ethnographic  
169 background information’), though they may refer authors to publication standards and best  
170 practice literature (e.g., Heinrich et al. 2018; Weckerle et al. 2018). The guidelines presented  
171 here were developed through an iterative revision process based on this existing literature, with  
172 a specific focus on ensuring the visibility of communities whose knowledge is published in  
173 ethnobiological and ethnopharmacological research.

174

175

## 176 **2. Accurate reporting of knowledge holders’ identity is essential for fair and consistent 177 knowledge attribution**

178

179 The Nagoya Protocol on Access and Benefit Sharing (ABS) of the Convention on Biological  
180 Diversity aims to ensure the fair and equitable sharing of benefits arising from the utilisation  
181 of genetic resources and *associated traditional knowledge* (CBD, 2011; see Footnote 1). The  
182 ABS agreement stipulates that knowledge holders must be part of the ABS process for any  
183 project concerning their understanding about and use of biodiversity, that Free, Prior Informed  
184 Consent is required, and mutually agreed terms have to be established. However, ABS  
185 guidelines do not specify how the representation of knowledge holders is to be ensured. Article  
186 12.2 of the Nagoya protocol indicates that “Parties, with the effective participation of the  
187 indigenous [sic] and local communities concerned, shall establish mechanisms to inform  
188 potential users of traditional knowledge associated with genetic resources about their  
189 obligations” (established by community protocols, contracts and agreements establishing  
190 mutually agreed terms, and/or contractual clauses for benefit-sharing; CBD, 2011). Thus, the  
191 absence of specific instructions does not negate the responsibility to fulfil the ABS  
192 requirements towards knowledge holders.

193

194 Reporting knowledge holders’ group identity in research outputs can establish a direct link  
195 between their knowledge and the intellectual property rights owners. This can influence the  
196 patentability of interventions that need to fulfil the requirements of novelty and inventiveness.  
197 Such requirements are often not fulfilled when applications are already known to communities,  
198 which constitutes “prior art” (World Intellectual Property Organization—WIPO, 2024;  
199 although a caveat exists as new combinations and applications based on mixing use

200 applications can sometimes satisfy the requirements for novelty; Patwardhan, 2013). In that  
201 case, they would qualify for equitable benefit-sharing agreements. Taking one step forward  
202 towards Indigenous data sovereignty and governance, Carroll et al. (2023) proposed the CARE  
203 Principles as a measure to strengthen the consistent and accurate attribution of knowledge  
204 holders in publications and databases, which can be extended beyond Indigenous communities.  
205 CARE principles include Collective benefit, Authority to control, Responsibility, and Ethics,  
206 and refer to actions applicable within research, government and institutional data settings  
207 (Carroll et al., 2023). For example, the implementation of CARE principles on archaeological  
208 data repositories (e.g., universities, libraries) in Canada is under development, by attaching  
209 permanent machine-readable information (i.e., meta-data) on authority, consent, and conditions  
210 of use to Indigenous digital archaeological data throughout the data life cycle (Gupta et al.,  
211 2023).

### 212 213 **3. Academic importance of accurately reporting knowledge holders' group identity 214 affiliation**

215 Attributing knowledge to specific communities is critically important when reporting on uses  
216 of biodiversity, as cultural context strongly shapes medicinal practices, interpretations of  
217 illness, and understandings of disease aetiology (Berlin et al., 1993; Foster and Anderson, 1978;  
218 Gesler, 1992; Hofmann and Hinton, 2014; Nichter, 1992), as well as spirituality, ethics and  
219 governance, including biodiversity stewardship (Berkes 2018; Chan et al., 2016). Diverse  
220 forms of illness prevention and healing practices connecting spirituality characterise traditional  
221 medicines. This aspect distinguishes traditional medicines from the biomedical model, which  
222 is often perceived as reductionistic, objectifying patients as passive targets of medicalization  
223 (Rocca and Anjum, 2020). Also, perceived effectiveness of medicines and responses to  
224 therapeutic interventions depend on sociocultural contexts (Browner et al., 1988; Etkin, 1988;  
225 Nichter, 1992). Human diet, ingestive behaviour and specific cultural practices are associated  
226 with disease risk and epidemiology (Etkin and Ross, 1982; Johns, 1990; Dressler, 2004;  
227 Lindeberg, 2010; Nakatsuka et al., 2017; Gajurel and Deresinski, 2021) and thus influence  
228 patients' health-seeking behaviour and the selection of medicines.  
229

230 Connecting specific knowledge about the natural world with knowledge holders also allows  
231 for the scalability of environmental stewardship. The Intergovernmental Science-Policy  
232 Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services has identified the synthesis of traditional  
233 knowledge about the status of biodiversity and environmental trends as a global knowledge  
234 gap (IPBES, 2019). Moreover, communities often suffer from detrimental transformations of  
235 their environments because of deforestation, environmental degradation, chemical  
236 contamination, and climate change (Fernández-Llamazares et al., 2021). These changes can  
237 lead to the emergence of new diseases and the spread of old diseases, compromising livelihoods  
238 and the full expression and transmission of some cultural practices. Therefore, accurate  
239 reporting of knowledge holders' group identity through academic research can inform a large  
240 diversity of cross-cultural studies, from cultural history and evolution to commons governance  
241 and epidemiology. Without data on group identity, review articles and databases, including  
242 those emerging from pharmacological, clinical, retrospective and biodiversity conservation  
243 studies, lack cultural meaning and relevance. These data are necessary to scale up results,  
244 supporting the importance of local knowledge systems in global science-policy arenas (Geck  
245 et al., 2020; Fernández-Llamazares et al., 2024).

### 246 247 **4. Suggested guidelines for properly acknowledging the communities of knowledge 248 holders in ethnopharmacological and ethnobiological publications**

250  
251 Most ethnobiologists adhere to the guiding principles of the International Society of  
252 Ethnobiology Code of Ethics (ISE, 2006), yet requirements for reporting ethnobiological data  
253 from field studies vary widely across journals (Supplementary File 1). Most journal guidelines  
254 require the reporting of Linnaean taxonomy and evidence of ethics committees' approval for  
255 publication. However, expectations regarding the reporting of communities' identities are less  
256 articulated.  
257  
258 Improvements in publication standards by encouraging the inclusion of simple baseline  
259 information could contribute towards a major visibility and recognition of knowledge holders'  
260 identity. Mandatory inclusion of the ethnographic and linguistic background of knowledge  
261 holders in journal submission guidelines would help foster greater awareness and consistency  
262 in publication practices. Drawing from advances towards Findable, Accessible, Interoperable,  
263 and Reusable (FAIR) data made in cross-cultural anthropology and linguistics (e.g., Forkel and  
264 Hammarström, 2022), we suggest a set of minimal information that should be strongly  
265 encouraged or required in authorship and data sharing guidelines.  
266  
267 The absence of key information, such as community identity and language, should be flagged  
268 during the peer review process. When working with secondary data (e.g., literature reviews,  
269 herbarium vouchers, or biocultural collections), original cultural information should be  
270 reported wherever possible. If this is missing, all good-faith efforts should be made to retrieve  
271 community identity data using the information available in the secondary source (e.g., by  
272 contacting the authors of the publications and/or cultural groups). However, we recognise that  
273 searching for this information retrospectively is not always possible. If the original source is  
274 not available or no longer traceable, this should be mentioned in the final publication.  
275  
276 We suggest the following publication guidelines to ensure attribution and foster the intellectual  
277 property rights of knowledge holders through accurate identification of their cultural  
278 background:  
279 1. **Document Free Prior Informed Consent:** Include a description of how Free Prior  
280 Informed Consent was obtained, along with copy of the institutional ethics approval in  
281 the supplementary material (see Footnote 2), and detail the procedures used to comply  
282 with specific national legislations and any applicable community protocols (if the latter  
283 exist). Include a description of the community-determined actions that enable access to,  
284 use of, and publication of data.  
285 2. **Use self-declared group names:** Report the self-declared name for the cultural group  
286 in their own language. For example, the terms 'Baka' and 'Amazigh' should be used  
287 instead of the pejorative terms 'Pygmies' and 'Berbers'. Reporting non-pejorative  
288 group names also supports their autonomy. D-PLACE, the most up-to-date and  
289 comprehensive curated database for cross-cultural research (Kirby et al., 2016),  
290 maintains lists of validated group names. If communities prefer not to have their  
291 identity disclosed, a general statement to that effect should be included.  
292 3. **Include language identifiers:** Use language identification codes (Forkel and  
293 Hammarström, 2022). Glottolog language identifiers (or three-digit ISO-639-3 codes;  
294 Hammarström et al. 2025; <https://glottolog.org/glottolog/language>) can be mentioned  
295 for the language(s) spoken in the community and the language(s) of vernacular names  
296 reported in the study (e.g., plant or animal names, habitat type names). This is especially  
297 important for endangered languages and can support linguistic conservation efforts.  
298 4. **Provide geographical information:** Report the name(s) of the locality, geographical  
299 coordinates and administrative units of the study area, with the authorization of the

300        communities involved. Coordinates should be omitted if communities express privacy  
301        concerns or cultural sensitivities around sharing location data.  
302

303        The suggested guidelines align with ongoing efforts by knowledge holders to strengthen  
304        governance, decision-making and cultural authority over their data concerning their  
305        communities. “Indigenous People’s Data” refer to the information and knowledge recorded by  
306        or about Indigenous peoples, their governments, and non-human relations (Taitingfong et al.,  
307        2023). Here we extend the concept of Indigenous People’s Data to all communities whose  
308        information and knowledge about biodiversity are recorded in ethnobiological and  
309        ethnopharmacological research. In practice, upholding Indigenous data sovereignty and  
310        governance is done through the inclusion of metadata that provide critical information for the  
311        proper attribution and guide access to communities’ knowledge and data (i.e., Taitingfong et  
312        al., 2023). Indigenous metadata bundles include information about governance, provenance,  
313        physical space, protocols, and data rights (Taitingfong et al., 2023) that are reported alongside  
314        knowledge about biodiversity.  
315

316        These guidelines are not intended to replace the ethical review processes or legal requirements  
317        for permits (e.g., Brazil’s national legislation regarding the mandatory registration procedures  
318        for accessing traditional knowledge associated with biodiversity; Castro & Santos, 2022), but  
319        rather to complement them. Ultimately, these guidelines aim to inform future publication  
320        practices linking cultural and ecological information. We encourage ethnobiologists and  
321        ethnopharmacologists to actively support communities’ data sovereignty and governance and  
322        work towards greater visibility, recognition, and equity in our inter- and transdisciplinary fields  
323        of research.  
324  
325

## 326        **FOOTNOTES**

327

- 328        1. While not all countries have yet signed and ratified the protocol, we strongly urge  
329        ethnobiology and ethnopharmacology researchers from these countries or working in these  
330        countries to follow the best practices outlined here. Moreover, any country may have  
331        national rules and permits regarding the documentation of traditional knowledge, which  
332        should be followed and obtained by researchers.
- 333        2. In many countries, ethics committees only take into account medical and psychological  
334        research. Sometimes, an ethics approval can be obtained from the country where a  
335        researcher is based, if a committee does not exist in the country where the research is  
336        conducted. If this is not possible, researchers should nevertheless follow ethical guidelines  
337        (e.g., ISE 2006) and obtain the necessary research permits (Vandebroek et al., 2025).

## 338 339        **POSITIONALITY STATEMENT**

340

341        We are a diverse group of researchers and practitioners working on a range of aspects of  
342        Indigenous and local knowledge about biodiversity, including Indigenous data sovereignty.  
343        Most of us are based in academic institutions in Oceania, Central and South America (including  
344        the Caribbean), and Europe. Although most authors share a Western background, we have long-  
345        term experience working with Indigenous Peoples and/or Afro-descendant and local  
346        communities with a plurality of knowledge systems, understandings, and visions. We all  
347        regularly (co-)write academic publications, but we have multiple sensitivities and affinities  
348

349 regarding knowledge production, co-creation, and dissemination. Writing this viewpoint has  
350 been an exercise of careful listening and compromise.

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376 Conceptualisation (ITT, NH, GO), Investigation (all), Writing original draft (ITT, NH, GO,  
377 ML, IV, JW), Review and editing (all), Validation (all).

## 380 **DATA STATEMENT**

381 This article does not use data.

## 383 **ABBREVIATION LIST**

384 ABS: Access and Benefit Sharing

385 CARE: Collective benefit, Authority to control, Responsibility, and Ethics

386 FAIR: Findable, Accessible, Interoperable, and Reusable

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