

1 **Green Health in Guatemala - How can we build mutual trust**
2 **and partnerships for developing local medicines' evidence-**
3 **base and potential?**

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17 **ABSTRACT**

18 The implementation of access and benefit-sharing (ABS) protocols and especially the Nagoya
19 Protocol has created new hurdles for collaborations around Indigenous Traditional Knowledge and
20 international collaborations. Overall, these frameworks push for the development of novel
21 collaborative North-South agendas in order to improve the fair distribution of benefits. The Green
22 Health project (Guatemala) aims to implement a culturally pertinent and mutually accepted
23 framework for sustainable use, access and benefit-sharing (ABS) of traditional medicinal plants. It
24 involves developing a consensus among indigenous groups, government officials, industry, and
25 academia. We describe steps undertaken to design and implement an intercultural transdisciplinary
26 process that promotes trust building and advances herbal medicine research in a respectful and
27 innovative way. This involves joint definition of goals and methods. The consortium co-researched
28 Q'eqchi' Maya traditional medicine, collected voucher specimens of medicinal plants with
29 traditional healers, identified their taxa, and later developed a literature-based evaluation
30 identifying species for potential product development. No samples for further research and
31 development are collected. By applying the emic-etic concept, the project was able to understand
32 the main drivers of each stakeholder and the associated obstacles for reaching an ABS agreement.
33 This results in the emergence of potential new drivers for developing evidence-based herbal
34 medicine from the perspective of academia, policy and cooperation and grass-roots indigenous
35 movements.

36 **KEYWORDS:** Guatemala, Access and Benefit Sharing, Q'eqchi', Transdisciplinary process, traditional
37 medicine, ethnopharmacology

39 **ABBREVIATIONS**

40 ABS – Access and Benefit Sharing

41 CBD – Convention on Biological Diversity

42 CITES – Convention of International Trade in Endangered Species

43 CONAP - Consejo Nacional de Areas Protegidas

44 IPR - Intellectual Property Rights

45 TCM – Traditional Chinese Medicine

46 TD – Transdisciplinarity

47 TM – Traditional Medicine

48

49 INTRODUCTION

50 Recent years have seen a tremendous increase in research on some traditional medical systems, albeit
51 the drivers have been different in each world region. This increase clearly results from the numerous
52 pharmacological and phytochemical studies on traditional medicines, often based on an ongoing drive
53 to investigate local and traditional knowledge systems (Heinrich and Jaeger, 2015). Globally, clinical
54 and intervention studies remain rare and have had a limited impact in advancing knowledge on
55 efficacy, while the safety and potential toxicity concerns about herbal medicines have remained a
56 small but essential aspect of this field of research. In Asian countries, the main drive seems to be a
57 push for recognising and ‘validating’ traditional practices using medicinal plants, fungi and other drugs,
58 where the case of China is certainly the most impressive of these examples (Li et al., 2018). The medical
59 classification of Traditional Chinese Medicine (TCM) is now included in the latest edition of the
60 international classification of diseases (ICD-11; <https://icd.who.int/en>) as a supplementary chapter on
61 traditional medicine conditions and specifically ‘Ancient Chinese Medicine’. Another driver for herbal
62 medicine research is based on the framework of bioeconomy or biotechnology, where local medical
63 resources are seen as means to drive both the national or regional bio-economies, with a vision to
64 support biotechnological capabilities on a sustainable basis, also resulting in strategies to overcome
65 some of the challenges of environmental degradation (Valli et al., 2018). In contrast, in American
66 countries with a strong indigenous representation an important drive to advance herbal medicine
67 research, more recently, is linked to emancipatory processes of indigenous peoples and towards
68 developing more sustainable and culturally pertinent models for healthcare delivery, under the
69 concept of ‘health sovereignty’. This drive to promote universal health coverage by promoting
70 research on TM and integrating TM services into national health care delivery is also found on the
71 World Health Organization’s Traditional Medicine Strategy 2014-2023 (WHO, 2013). The Convention
72 on Biological Diversity (CBD), and the Nagoya Protocol in particular, have generated yet another driver
73 towards researching traditional peoples’ knowledge on herbal medicine, pushing for the development
74 of collaborative North-South agendas aiming at a fair distribution of benefits. Amidst this great
75 complexity of interests coming together, the issue of how to build trustworthy research partnerships
76 between diverse stakeholders becomes of great importance for truly advancing acceptable herbal
77 medicine research. This article uses the case of the ‘Green Health Project’ in Guatemala to discuss
78 what this path may look like. It is a project conducted by a consortium of partners under a UK’s Darwin
79 Initiative Grant to develop an ABS framework in Guatemala.

80 Understanding local medicinal systems in the context of a culture has a long tradition in (medical)
81 anthropology and ethnobotany, including in Mesoamerica (e.g. Ortiz de Montellano 1990; Rubel et
82 al., 1991; Berlin and Jara, 1993; Berlin and Berlin 1996). Debates have gone from cross-cultural
83 comparison (Browner et al., 1998) towards critical views on the co-existence of plurimedical systems
84 in conditions of inequity (Singer and Baer, 1995), and into discussions on the role of local (indigenous)
85 systems of knowledge (epistemologies) using approaches, based on mutual respect (decolonial
86 approaches) to address healthcare and development alternatives (Basile, 2018). Therefore, recent
87 attempts to incorporate culture-specific epistemologies can actually benefit from a debate, which has
88 been an important element in the context of the ethnobotany and ethnopharmacology of the
89 Americas (e.g., Bourbonnais-Spear et al., 2007).

90 Traditionally, the emic-etic distinction has played a role in defining from which perspective a particular
91 medical system is being described (Headland et al., 1990). An emic perspective on medicine offers a
92 viewpoint from within a culture or society / group (i.e., focusing on perspectives of the subjects that
93 are 'native' to a particular epistemology) (Pike 1954 and later editions). The etic distinction (often
94 referred as the "outsider's approach") describes using explanatory models and interpretations from
95 the perspective of an observer outside of the specific cultural group studied. Etic accounts usually
96 refer to the perspective of a 'scientific' (academic) observer. An early example of combining an emic
97 and an etic approach from the Americas is Ortiz de Montellano's work (1975) on 'Aztec empirical
98 medicine', which specifically looked at treatment outcomes of diseases in the historic Aztec culture.
99 Numerous later studies addressed this dichotomy of perspectives and contributed to an
100 understanding of local medical traditions using elements from modern Western epistemologies to
101 compare them, as for example when relating 'cultural syndromes' with specific aetiologies or
102 identifying plant taxa used in traditional herbal medicines (Berlin and Jara, 1993; Menegoni, 1996).

103 In Guatemala, 'Raxnaq'il Nuk'aslemal: Maya Medicine in Guatemala' is an example of a purely emic
104 account that is part of an indigenous revitalization movement. Published by the *Maya Council of*
105 *Indigenous Healers by Birth* (CMMM, 2016), it presents concepts of health and well-being, the
106 taxonomy of diseases as conceived in Maya medicine and ways to diagnose and treat diseases, among
107 other topics, without attempting to find correlations to modern biomedicine. In contrast, the drive for
108 enabling national or regional bio-economies based on the knowledge of specific local and indigenous
109 medical systems would traditionally stem from an etic perspective. This development has been
110 embedded in the implementation of the principles and specific requirements of the CBD (1992) and
111 its subsequent treaties and protocols, including national and regional implementation procedures
112 (Heinrich 2010; Heinrich et al., 2020). Within this framework, there remain serious concerns about a
113 lack of mechanisms for equitable access and benefit sharing. The ambiguities of implementing these

114 agreements have also impacted negatively on ethnobotanical and ethnopharmacological research in
115 the Americas and elsewhere, because of unclear procedures that de-incentivise research. Yet we need
116 to ask the question: “what new drivers could emerge if we broaden the application of the emic-etic
117 dichotomy when building multi-stakeholder partnerships for advancing herbal medicine research?”

118 In many regions of the Americas, there is an increasing trend towards reaching ‘health sovereignty’.
119 Research approaches promoting traditional knowledge systems historically excluded from public
120 health strategies are an integral part of this strategy (De Sousa Santos, 2010). Traditional systems give
121 local phytomedicines an important role to increase cultural pertinence and access to healthcare
122 delivery (Rocha-Buelvas, 2017). This movement, stemming from the ‘Epistemologies of the South’ (De
123 Sousa Santos, 2011), advocates for promoting a diverse ‘ecology of knowledge systems’ that places
124 holders of traditional knowledge at the forefront of applied research endeavours (Basile, 2018; Laurell
125 2010). This approach means going beyond mere participatory orientations in research and instead
126 into deeper equal partnerships breaking away from reproducing the historical inequities of the *status*
127 *quo*, and discussing the deeper aspects of trust-building (Christopher et al., 2008; Berger-Gonzalez et
128 al., 2016a). In this context, many indigenous universities in the Americas have emerged (Manriquez
129 and Gareiz, 2014; Pérez, 2019). These institutions embrace an emancipatory philosophy and challenge
130 methodologies that, in their view, contribute to a systematic destruction of any indigenous knowledge
131 base (epistemicide; Bennet, 2015). Although this might seem as a purely political position, it is in fact
132 affecting the integration of academic partnerships worldwide and causing a reflexive process from
133 academia in Europe and elsewhere in the global North (Carbonnier and Kontinen, 2015; Kontinen and
134 Nguyahambi 2020). In this process, all institutions pursuing any form of research across hemispheres,
135 cultures, societal stakeholders or knowledge systems, have been invited to reconceptualise
136 partnerships that better reflect the potential for understanding sustainability amidst complex settings
137 (Seidl et al., 2013).

138 Transdisciplinarity (TD) has emerged as an approach to research that transcends disciplinary
139 (academic) boundaries but that, nonetheless, is able to incorporate state-of-the-art interdisciplinary
140 approaches. Many studies have summarized the state-of-the-art in transdisciplinarity (Lawrence and
141 Després, 2004; Wickson et al., 2006; Bergmann and Schramm, 2008; Hirsch Hadorn et al., 2008; Klein,
142 2008; Frodeman et al, 2010; Jahn et al. 2012). These latter studies recognize that different members
143 of society hold particular epistemologies, which comprise diverse knowledge systems that need to be
144 equally taken into account. TD recognizes the co-existence of a myriad of perspectives on shared
145 societal concerns, with different degrees of awareness among them. According to Pohl and Hirsch
146 Hadorn (2007:20), “there is a need for transdisciplinary research when knowledge about a societally
147 relevant problem field is uncertain, when the concrete nature of problems is disputed, and when there

148 is a great deal at stake for those concerned by problems and involved in dealing with them.
149 Transdisciplinary research deals with problem fields in such a way that it can: a) grasp the complexity
150 of problems, b) take into account the diversity of societal and scientific perceptions of problems, c)
151 link abstract and case specific knowledge, and d) constitute knowledge and practices that promote
152 what is perceived to be the common good." We see here an acknowledgement for uncertainty and a
153 recognition that the collaborative process will not be static but rather subjected to constant change.
154 This is perhaps one of the most important characteristics of the transdisciplinary approach in the
155 Green Health project.

156 In TD, mutual learning among participants is a key concept referring to the process of "exchange,
157 generation and integration of existing or newly developing knowledge in different parts of science and
158 society" (Scholz, 2011:8). Many authors agree that symmetry in the acquisition of new knowledge
159 among all stakeholders (not just scientists) is a key component and a goal of TD (Miller et al., 2008;
160 Pohl, 2008; Aeberhard and Rist, 2009). This idea of a mutual learning process derives a notion of
161 equality that requires active steps to go beyond lip service. The practice of equity in a TD process is
162 often challenged by power asymmetries between the participating actors (Nowotny et.al. 2001).
163 Understanding power relations among all participants is a prerequisite directly affecting the outcomes
164 from a mutual learning process (Möbjork 2010). In multicultural contexts, the issue of power needs to
165 be understood also as the degree of agency of each group within the partnership to represent their
166 interests and voice concerns based on their own epistemology. The reflexive question to start with
167 becomes: 'how many distinctive emic constructs are represented here?' This enables partners to
168 understand the centrality of exchanging and reinterpreting evidence presented to them. In this
169 process, one cultural group often reassigns significance over another's emic constructs (thus creating
170 an etic interpretation). This can sometimes lead to misrepresenting a given culture's knowledge
171 system, or to overlook their associated values and preferences, potentially leading to a conflict. In
172 multicultural settings, with diverse systems of knowledge (pluri-epistemic), transdisciplinary
173 collaboration requires all participants to bring forth their emic explanatory models about the issue
174 at hand and present them to each other, creating in the process many etic interpretations (for
175 example, traditional healers reinterpreting a biomedical doctor's explanations about a zoonotic
176 disease, and vice versa). The challenge is to facilitate a process for dialogue where multiple emics of
177 *self-representation* and etics of *otherness-representation* can find a common ground for mutual
178 learning, reducing ethnocentric behaviour that may lead to bias in research, and aiming instead
179 towards co-creation of new knowledge to address the target problem (Berger-Gonzalez et al., 2016a).
180 Trust-building is one of the most important elements determining a successful partnership in
181 complex contexts. We propose that a carefully designed intercultural transdisciplinary process can

182 promote avenues for building trust and advance research on useful plants and, specifically, herbal
183 medicines in a respectful and innovative way. We present evidence of how this process aids in
184 building agency for under-represented groups and the associated perils, as well as discuss the
185 emergence of potential new drivers for developing evidence-based herbal medicine from the
186 perspective of academia, policy, cooperation and grass-roots indigenous movements.

187 **BACKGROUND**

188 Central America and Guatemala

189 Central America has a population growth rate of >2% per year with high levels of poverty,
190 unsustainable exploitation of natural resources, soil erosion and one of the world's highest rates of
191 deforestation. From 2001 to 2019, Guatemala lost 1.48 Mha of forest, equivalent to a 19% loss
192 since 2000 (Global Forest Watch 2020), resulting in forest fragmentation, biodiversity loss,
193 malnutrition and poor socioeconomic access to natural capital (Torres, 2020).

194 Guatemala is one of the mega-diverse countries that together host 70% of Earth's terrestrial
195 biodiversity (FAO, 2018). Its contrasting topographic variations produce a complex variety of climatic
196 conditions and ecosystems accounting for its broad diversity (Byers and Lopez Selva, 2016).
197 Categorized into 14 ecoregions by the WWF in 2001, this complexity contributes to making Guatemala
198 the Central American country having the highest number of endemic species (Olson et al., 2001), with
199 a long-standing/ancient traditional knowledge related to them.

200 Holding a medium human development index (0.663) (PNUD, 2020), Guatemala is characterized by
201 great inequalities within society. There are 21 indigenous groups representing around half of the
202 country's population (UNHCR, 2013; CIA, 2019). About 79% of these people live in conditions of
203 poverty and 40% suffer extreme poverty (CIA, 2019). Traditional ways of life remain important,
204 including a strong reliance on local natural resources for daily lives. Within this context, it is clear how
205 the conservation of Guatemala's biodiversity assumes great social and political significance for the
206 country. Guatemala's main source of income and employment is agriculture, with a growing cattle
207 sector expanding in the lowlands of subtropical rainforest (MAGA, 2016). Exacerbated migration to
208 the United States contributed to remittances accounting for 14.6% of Guatemala's gross internal
209 product in 2020, according to Guatemala's National Bank reports. The political instability and
210 widespread corruption create a generalized sense of mistrust towards authorities, even those in place
211 to promote and drive conservation.

212 The Green Health project's main study area is located in the Petén lowlands, a vast territory of 35,854
213 km², where biodiversity loss is rapidly increasing due to urbanization, oil palm (*Elaeis guineensis* Jacq.)

214 plantations, and cattle farms (Torres, 2020). Culturally, the area is diverse owing to historical human
215 immigration from other parts of the country. Indigenous Maya peoples, mostly Q'eqchi', Itza' and
216 Mopan, account for up to one third of the population, living mostly in rural areas. With some of the
217 largest Mayan cities from pre-Hispanic times, the Petén is a popular tourist destination. Cultural
218 heritage of many indigenous groups in the region, such as the Mopan and the Itza' can be traced to
219 the pre-Hispanic period. The many land-use pressures have put many species at risk due to habitat
220 loss and degradation, with a consequent negative impact on livelihoods of vulnerable populations. In
221 the municipality of Poptun, where the Q'eqchi' Council of Elders that co-leads this research project is
222 located, over half of the population has poor access to official healthcare services and relies mainly on
223 traditional Maya practitioners using herbal medicines (Hitziger et al., 2017).

224 Regulating collaborative biological research – The International framework

225
226 Due to the challenges related to the conservation of species and the problems associated with
227 international trade, the regulation of and access to biological resources and associated knowledge has
228 been increasingly institutionalized through several internationally agreed frameworks. For example,
229 the Convention of International Trade in Endangered Species (CITES) was adopted to ensure that
230 international trade is non-detrimental to the survival of traded species. Sustainable use and fair and
231 equitable sharing of benefits arising out of the utilization of genetic resources are key objectives of
232 the CBD. Its supplementary Nagoya Protocol (NP) regulates access to genetic resources, and the
233 sharing of benefits arising from research and development of these resources and associated
234 traditional knowledge. Both CITES and NP operate on the basis of permit systems that are binding on
235 their Parties. Similar objectives are also pursued in less prominent agreements, such as the
236 International Treaty on Plant Genetic Resources for Food and Agriculture, hosted under the auspices
237 of the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO). CBD's non-binding Addis Ababa
238 principles complement these regulations to provide a framework for sustainable use of biodiversity at
239 national level. They emphasize, in particular, participative and adaptive decision making and
240 management that involves local communities. Additional non-binding guidance also exists in other
241 fora, such as the code of ethics proposed by the International Society of Ethnobiology. These
242 frameworks are, therefore, key to ethnobotanical/pharmacological collaborations that aim at
243 scientific research or product development from biological resources and associated traditional
244 knowledge.

245
246 Some previous ethnobotanical/pharmacological research consortia aimed to overcome specific
247 negative ecological, socio-cultural and economic consequences of research into biological resources
248 and their associated traditional knowledge. Examples are the international cooperative biodiversity

249 group (ICBG), a large-scale, participative bioprospecting consortium established jointly with Mayan
250 people in Mexico (Berlin and Berlin 2004), and the MACOCC (Maya and contemporary conceptions
251 of cancer) project, aimed at advancing innovative transdisciplinary approaches of North-South
252 research on traditional medicinal knowledge in Guatemala (Hitziger et al., 2016; Berger-Gonzalez et
253 al., 2016a). However, the nature of such consortia implies that they need to bridge not only different
254 disciplines but, more importantly, they can only be successful if aligning interests and facilitating
255 successful collaboration among local communities, researchers, and (mostly international)
256 pharmaceutical industries. Implementing such consortia within the frameworks adopted by national
257 and international regulators may pose additional challenges.

258 The ICBG Maya in Chiapas, México (1999-2000), which predates the Nagoya Protocol, was a short
259 lived international collaborative programme funded by various US government agencies. It started
260 with the key aim to 'return cultural as well as economic benefits in the form of books, videos, and
261 community gardens' to indigenous peoples of Chiapas (Berlin et al., 1999). In the end it failed within
262 the complex political and social framework in Chiapas and México just a few years after a major
263 conflict linked to the North American Free Trade Agreement, which came into force on 01/01/1994.
264 On the same day an uprising started in Chiapas. There can be no doubt that the project was both
265 well-intended and was based on aims to achieve mutually agreed terms for using biological
266 resources and for benefit sharing, as well as conserving biodiversity. However, the project came
267 under serious criticism which resulted in the project's termination in 2000. ,

268 The implementation of access and benefit sharing instruments was then stipulated much more
269 explicitly in the Nagoya protocol but remains problematic (Heinrich et al., 2020). Therefore, the
270 Green Health Project is, to our knowledge, the first intercultural ethnopharmacological North-South
271 consortium that brings together local communities, researchers, and pharmaceutical industry in
272 Guatemala and beyond.

273 The Green Health Project Partnership

274 Funded by the UK's Dept. of Environment, Food and Rural Affairs, through the Darwin Initiative Fund,
275 the Green Health Project was developed as a transdisciplinary collaboration among partners from
276 academia, industry, government and an indigenous council. It is based on previous collaborations that
277 have nurtured a relationship built on mutual trust and respect.

278 Two universities lead the academic aspects of this project: a research group at the UCL School of
279 Pharmacy in London, and the Unit of Medical Anthropology of the Center for Health Studies at
280 Universidad del Valle de Guatemala (UVG). Representing industry, Indigena Biodiversity Ltd. is an
281 important partner bridging the know-how of commercialization efforts centred around ABS. The
282 Council for Protected Areas (CONAP - Consejo Nacional de Areas Protegidas), represents the

283 Guatemala government in all matters concerning biodiversity use, as it is the appointed national focal
284 point for the CBD.

285 At the centre of this partnership stands the Association of Councils of Maya Spiritual Guides *Releb'aal*
286 *Saq'e'* (ACGERS), a group representing *Ajq'ij*, *Ajlonel* and *Comadronas* (spiritual guides, herbalists and
287 midwives) from more than 40 different Q'eqchi' towns in Petén, las Verapaces, and Izabal. The ACGERS
288 Council's mission is to document, revitalize and teach to new generations the values of Maya
289 spirituality, medical practice, traditional music and overall cultural heritage. Since 2010, they have
290 been part of three other transdisciplinary process studying traditional approaches to cancer, zoonotic
291 diseases and models of healthcare delivery (Berger-Gonzalez, et al., 2016b, Hitziger et al., 2016;
292 Berger-Gonzalez et al., 2020;), which have enhanced linkages of mutual trust between the Council and
293 the academic partners of the Green Health Project. Due to a complex history of navigating interactions
294 between indigenous groups and the government, two other partners from multilateral cooperation
295 agencies within the UN system (an expert on conservation of medicinal plant species and an ABS
296 expert) joined the partnership to aid in the process.

297

298 PROJECT AIMS

299 The project aims to implement a culturally pertinent and mutually accepted framework for sustainable
300 use, access and benefit-sharing (ABS) of medicinal plants, based on natural capital and traditional
301 knowledge in Guatemala, involving a consensus among relevant stakeholders. Specifically, the project
302 is designed to build a framework for a policy on biodiversity and ABS, developed through a
303 transdisciplinary dialogue among indigenous groups, government, academia and industry. Such an
304 intercultural dialogue aims to help break down barriers and misunderstandings that have opposed the
305 ratification of the Nagoya Protocol, as we will describe later, and serve as a basis for future research
306 collaboration on traditional medical Maya knowledge, sustainable use of biodiversity, intellectual
307 property recognition and other forms of benefit sharing.

308 Implementing an ABS mechanism is linked to ongoing empirical research on traditional medicine and
309 intercultural health in order to understand the embedding of traditional knowledge in its use of a
310 rich ecosystem. Therefore, this project also contributes to understanding the traditional medicine
311 practices of the Q'eqchi' of the Petén.

312

313 THE FRAMEWORK FOR COLLABORATION: ETIC AND EMIC VIEWS

314 Regulatory framework on biodiversity research and development in Guatemala

315 Specialised knowledge of, and international access to, priced biological resources have always been
316 sensitive political concerns. Famous examples were the global dissemination of silk moths [*Bombyx*
317 *mori* (L.)] and mulberry trees on which the moths feed (*Morus alba* (L.)), as well as many tropical spices
318 and other species that were important political drivers throughout the age of colonialism. Large scale
319 commercial use has frequently resulted in the unsustainable exploitation of harvested species
320 (ecological dimension), allegations of unfair appropriation and exploitation of specialised knowledge
321 (sociocultural dimension), and economical exploitation of local communities (economic dimension).
322 Based on the long history of exploitation of land, people, and the region, there is a complicated
323 situation in Guatemala from the point of view of legislation around ABS.

324 In 1995, Guatemala ratified the Convention on Biological Diversity and, in 2014, ratified the Nagoya
325 Protocol, through legislative decrees 5-1995 and 6-2014, respectively. The ABS National Focal Point
326 for Guatemala is CONAP, which also acts as the Competent National Authority. In Guatemala, there is
327 no legislation defining access to traditional knowledge associated with genetic resources. In 2016 -
328 2018, CONAP instituted a process towards developing a new law and policies for access to
329 Guatemala's genetic resources, including derivatives, and for the associated traditional knowledge.
330 Part of this process included 26 "Regional Dialogue" sessions, held across the country to understand
331 the concerns of indigenous and other local communities.

332 The proposed law would have its own institutional framework through the creation of a state entity,
333 with functional, budgetary and regulatory independence, which would enable generation of financial
334 and functional self-sustainability. The law was to be implemented through a National Policy for
335 Genetic Resources and Biocultural Heritage that would consider the valuation, conservation,
336 protection, sustainable use and exploitation of genetic resources used by indigenous peoples and local
337 communities. This policy was to include a *sui generis* mechanism called the "Biocultural Heritage of
338 Indigenous Peoples and Local Communities" for providing access to resources.

339 However, in 2016, before the NP could be implemented through a new law and policy, the
340 consultation process was temporarily suspended. The suspension came after the process was
341 challenged in the courts as unconstitutional by an indigenous congressman. This challenge was based
342 on a recommendation of the Gran Consejo de Autoridades Ancestrales de los Pueblos Indígenas de
343 Guatemala (GCAAG—The Grand Council of Ancestral Authorities of the Indigenous Peoples of
344 Guatemala) and indigenous members of the REDSAG (Network for Food and Nutritional Security),
345 supported by a number of local non-government organisations. There were concerns expressed about
346 inadequacies in the process with respect to indigenous peoples. The rationale for the suspension by
347 the court was that the NP had been approved too quickly and with insufficient attention to the

348 constitutional requirement that all issues affecting indigenous peoples should follow a careful
349 consultation process. As a result, there will have to be further consultations before a policy or law
350 affecting indigenous peoples' knowledge can be successfully implemented. To this date, Guatemala
351 still lacks any policy or laws to regulate intellectual property rights (IPR) regarding traditional
352 knowledge (Risoli, 2019).

353 Guatemala has been attempting to move forward with an ABS protocol but currently any applications
354 for the use or export of Guatemalan genetic resources are considered only on a case-by-case basis.
355 The first (of only two) applications of the Nagoya Protocol in Guatemala occurred in 2018, and both
356 are for internal (within Guatemala) academic use. One permission was granted for a non-commercial
357 study of gene flow in mahogany (*Swietenia macrophylla*) populations in the Maya Biosphere Reserve
358 of Petén (van Zonneveld et al., 2018).

359 The current implementation of the international biodiversity regulation was recently assessed
360 (Heinrich et al., 2020). As noted, Guatemala has no legislation regulating ABS and the regulatory core
361 weaknesses that we identified include:

- 362 • There is a general uncertainty for foreign entities interested in accessing and potentially
363 developing local resources, pushing potential involvement abroad to countries, such as
364 Panama, with easier routes to access, due to the temporary suspension of
365 implementing the Nagoya Protocol from 2016 to 2021.
- 366 • No framework is in place to support the evaluation of who owns traditional knowledge
367 and genetic resources.
- 368 • No policy or law exists to regulate intellectual property rights regarding traditional
369 knowledge and limitations.

370 Importantly, IPR is an alien concept to many indigenous groups, proving difficult to negotiate, and
371 not necessarily designed to protect traditional knowledge often considered to belong to a *social*
372 *corpus* rather than individuals or small tangible groups. While there is interest in commercial
373 applications from potential users of genetic resources, the lack of clarity about ABS laws and policy
374 in this regard has hampered any advance, as outlined below.

375 An emic view on Access and Conservation

376
377 Traditional healers remain embedded in a plurimedical system that puts them in conditions of inequity,
378 where no formal public policy recognizes the importance of their services in providing healthcare
379 (Hoyler, 2018). A limited program within the Ministry of Health is supposed to promote traditional
380 and alternative medicine including herbal medicines, but it has not had any impact at either the policy

381 or the technical levels. The ostracism inflicted on Maya healers through historical exclusion and racism
382 (Chary et al., 2018), topped with religious intolerance equating healers to witches (as shown in the
383 2020 murder of traditional healer Domingo Choc Che – see Abbot, 2020) is in stark contrast with the
384 ACGERS Council's recognition of traditional healers' as "walking natural pharmacies". The ACGERS
385 Council see healers as having an intrinsic role as guardians of the forests, charged by their nawales
386 (spiritual energy guides) to care for plants and animals. One of the main interests of the ACGERS
387 Council is the protection of the forest and a desire to learn how to secure access to important
388 medicinal plants.

389 The pressure on forests in Petén is increasing due to an accelerated change in land-use patterns
390 brought by cattle ranching, cultivation of monocrops and other activities (Torres, 2020), resulting in
391 less availability for medicinal plants in their natural habitat. Because of this, healers have been forced
392 to collect plants in areas that are increasingly threatened. These areas include populated centers
393 (market and trade centers), family gardens, cornfields or general agricultural plots, along the roads
394 and even between pasture lands.

395

396 **OUR APPROACH AND METHODS DEVELOPED FOR THE GREEN HEALTH PROJECT**

397 On a national policy level in Guatemala, it is essential to secure a constructive dialogue between key
398 stakeholders. These groups have historically clashed on issues relating to the use and protection of
399 traditional knowledge, as well as on the equitable use of resources and for ABS. Based on prior
400 successful experiences, we used a TD methodology to foster participatory processes on an equal
401 footing of a highly reflexive nature (Figure 1). This approach facilitates collaboration and mutual
402 learning across knowledge systems and societal boundaries.

403 **Figure 1 here**

404

405 1) Preparing a reflexive field

406 The preparatory phase included a mapping of relevant stakeholders, while also researching historical,
407 structural, sociocultural, economic, and other relevant conditions acting as potential behavioural
408 drivers. Analytic lenses from intersectional analyses helped reveal gender issues affecting equal
409 participation by men and women, while an analysis of power differentials across other societal divides
410 became the starting point to develop tools needed to bring forth a horizontal multilateral exchange.
411 For example, the TD process requires all stakeholders to participate in co-defining the interests and
412 objectives to be reached by the project, as well as to agree on the activities and the methods. We

413 therefore used analytical tools in a backward planning exercise to check our assumptions and identify
414 where there are conditions generating gaps between the goal and observed reality (as shown in Figure
415 2). For each negative condition, specific tools were developed by the team to apply within the TD
416 process as modulators of change.

417 **Figure 2 here**

418 The Green Health consortia followed traditional Maya protocols, as requested by the Elders of the
419 ACGERS Council, to determine the degree of research and participation to be allowed. These included
420 traditional sacred fire ceremonies and spiritual consultations with Ancestors and Guides of the Council.
421 Reciprocally, Q'eqchi' participants underwent training in protocol concepts from modern western
422 science to help set a base for mutual understanding and respect.

423 2) Developing an intercultural transdisciplinary workshop

424 An important phase in the project was the first transdisciplinary meeting, where stakeholders came
425 together formally to build a partnership. To address interlingual differences, we included on-site
426 simultaneous translation of Spanish, English, and Q'eqchi'. For easing intra- and inter-lingual
427 complexity, we developed a glossary of terms of key concepts and values of each main epistemology
428 present in the consortium (i.e., traditional respect titles of Maya elders, important values in the
429 Q'eqchi' community, or science concepts such as 'objectivity' or 'reliability').

430 In meetings of previous TD-projects, there was criticism that the academic partners controlled the
431 agenda, since the meetings almost solely focused on research approaches. In this project we
432 encouraged all interest groups (representatives from the government, midwives, Maya Ajilonel
433 (healers), European researchers, Guatemalan researchers, and community leaders), to prepare
434 summary presentations of their groups' history related to herbal medicine approaches and the focus,
435 values and preferences that they brought to the project. Emic interpretations were discussed to help
436 participants understand the multiplicity of epistemic (knowledge) systems in the room, and to build
437 tolerance. Perhaps one of the most important aspects in this phase was employing pertinent
438 methodologies to enter into de discussion of each groups' interest and their inclusion or exclusion
439 within the project. We employed three components of individual work, smaller interest groups, and
440 plenary discussions, to facilitate equal representation among stakeholders, and particularly of women,
441 who tend to be ignored in Maya indigenous societies when participating in public fora. The use of
442 flashcards (aided by pictures and support from students) allowed participation of illiterate Elders and
443 guaranteed that everyone had the same chance of presenting their ideas. An open dialogue lasted
444 over 6 hours and allowed the plenary to choose which interests should be kept, which ones should be
445 forwarded to other forums, and which ones had to be left out. This exercise was key for transparency

446 and trust building because once preferences are out and agreements are reached, there is less room
447 for false expectations to remain. Table 1 presents a summary of the overarching aims / interests
448 presented by each partner in the consortium.

449 Note: The UN partners that accompanied this consortium were also interested in providing accurate
450 advice on the NP, CBD and CITES where needed as the project evolved, to ensure clarity.

451 To facilitate the sharing of responsibilities and resources, a steering-board with representatives from
452 the key societal actors and institutions needed to affect change, was created. This has been
453 operational since the start of the project in 2019 and includes indigenous leaders (> 30%) and women
454 (>30%). This board leads negotiations of participants from wider institutional sectors including
455 academia, industry and local and international regulatory bodies. Importantly, financial resources are
456 shared by all partners and all resources flowing to the Council are discussed openly in the TD
457 workshops.

458 As part of the initial TD workshop, intercultural rules for engagement were discussed and recorded
459 for future reference. All stakeholders then engaged in defining an Action Plan for the first year of the
460 project, where for each objective (defined from the discussion on joint interests) there are activities
461 defined, indicators created, and responsible partners assigned. This is the basis for the continued
462 monitoring of the project in order to measure advances, identify problems and needs to adapt on a
463 timely manner.

464 Ethical approvals

465 Due to the transdisciplinary nature of this project, there were two ethical assessments. The first
466 followed Maya ritual protocols (consuetudinary procedures) through and included a detailed revision
467 of the proposal by Elders of the ACGERS Council. This was accompanied by a ceremonial process led
468 by traditional Ajq'ijab' (Spiritual Guides). Permission to co-lead the research was granted on June 2019
469 and is recorded in the Councils' *Libro de Actas* (Folio No. 05-2019). Secondly, this project was reviewed
470 by the Institutional Review Board of the *Universidad del Valle de Guatemala* (Protocol rev.13-04-20);
471 a change request due to Covid19 delays was resubmitted and is pending final approval (March 2021).
472 No plant material has been or will be exported from Guatemala as a part of this project.

473 Joint Implementation of Methods

474 Knowledge co-production requires the buy-in of all participants from the start of the project and joint
475 design of the principal elements of the tools used in the research. A rich interdisciplinary discussion
476 between social scientists, biologists, ethnobotanists and a medical practitioner opened up to include
477 all actors in defining the following activities.

478 Understanding Q'eqchi' phytotherapy

479 To understand the role of local biodiversity in traditional healthcare practice, the Mayan Councils of
480 Elders selected 16 *Ajilonel* or herbalists to participate in research to document their own medical
481 practices. Activities chosen by our team included:

- 482 • Correlating biomedical epidemiology with 'cultural epidemiology' records: In most
483 American countries, there is no data on what consultations healers do and what the
484 outcomes are. Our team developed a tool similar to the epidemiology records kept in
485 public health services, training *Ajilonel* to record all consultations that they provided
486 to indigenous patients over a period of 6 months. This database contains a description
487 of emic categories of cultural syndromes, traditional diagnostic methods, general
488 treatment approach and specific mentioning of herbal medicines. It also includes a
489 large initial inventory of local plants used in treatments. These data served as the basis
490 for transect walks with the *Ajilonel* to collect specimens in the forest.
- 491 • In-depth reconstruction of medical cases: Representatives of biomedicine and Maya
492 medicine jointly diagnose a patient, discuss the case with each other and the patient,
493 and offer treatment, explaining to each other the logic for the selected treatment and
494 follow up. This thorough documentation of Maya medicine in specific ailments
495 enables a better understanding of the approach's limits and opportunities, facilitation
496 the design of intercultural healthcare modes, and quantifying preferences for specific
497 herbal medicines. Ethnographic tools, including participatory observation, open and
498 structured interviews and focus groups, used to document Maya medicine and
499 understand the embeddedness of plant use. Species used were later collected also
500 using transect walks with healers. Plants collected were curated and since April 2020
501 are being identified at the herbarium of UVG.

502 Experiential exchanges between project partners continued during this phase as a mechanism to reach
503 consensus towards the implementation mechanisms for ABS. This includes reflexive dialogues in a
504 multi-epistemological setting addressing differing knowledge systems, values, and institutional
505 organization styles. For this reason, patients and plants can be considered 'boundary mechanisms'
506 (Kertcher and Coslor, 2020), tangibly bridging mutual learning opportunities across societal divides
507 through becoming the focus of common interest.

508 3) Ethnobotanical methods

509 Transects consisted of walks at places where traditional healers collect their plants. These included
510 forests, orchards, near the healers' houses, urban areas, along roads, forest patches, mountain forests,

511 or areas near paddocks. The search included listed and non-listed medicinal plants that the traditional
512 healers recognized. During the process, two community researchers from the council of Maya Elders
513 were trained in sample collecting of plants, including the process of curation and note-taking.
514 Collection of plants was carried out from November 2019 to October 2020. For each plant collected,
515 a semi-structured interview took place to document its role in Maya medicine. Each plant was
516 collected with a duplicate, when possible, coded and photographed. The ethnographic and
517 ethnobotanical information documented was transcribed to a digital database for later analysis.

518 We conducted 32 transect walks in 15 different communities' areas. Two hundred fifty three samples
519 were collected, from which 123 are from eight healers in the Petén areas of Cantutú, Ixobel, Santa
520 Cruz, Concomá, Jolobob, La Florida, Sehamay, and Chimay within the Poptún and San Luis
521 municipalities. We collected 66 plants from three healers in Izabal at Los Zapotillos, San José Pacayal,
522 and Chunacté within Livingston municipality; and 64 from four healers of the Alta Verapaz' villages of
523 San Juan el Paraíso, San Fernando, and San Agustín, within the Chahal municipality.

524 OUTCOMES AND DISCUSSION

525 Areas where healers from the ACGERS Council collected medicinal plants for this project were in forest
526 patches or forest edges, surrounded by non-forest areas that have been used for agriculture and
527 pastures (Figure 3). The white and gray areas show degraded landscapes where cattle and farming
528 practices have destroyed primary forests, leaving behind second growth. It is evident that Maya
529 healers face tremendous difficulties to continue harvesting forest products for ensuing their
530 traditional medical practices, owing to substantial forest loss.

531 **Figure 3 here**

532
533 The impact of negative effects on forests, such as pressure towards the use of forests by different
534 physical-social activities, occurs up to a distance of 3 km from the main activity, deforesting from 22%
535 to 51% of the forest's original area (Vergara and Gayoso, 2004). Applied in a reverse fashion, Elder's
536 proposals to recuperate degraded land through regenerating (planting) a buffer of 1 km around the
537 collection areas, would result in there being enough forest patches converging to create a possible
538 'corridor' of medicinal plants and other local species. Traditional healers from the ACGERS Council are
539 primarily worried about securing access to critical resources used in the medical care they provide in
540 their towns. The Council's interest may represent an opportunity for the creation of conservation
541 corridors. In recent meetings the ACGERS Council's has expressed its eagerness to continue this TD
542 partnership as a mechanism to find avenues to guarantee continued access of medicinal plant species

543 in the forest or via assisted reproduction (for which partnerships with academic institutions are seen
544 as important). From an emic perspective, ABS should help in improving access to key natural resources
545 for future generations of Q'eqchi' Ajilonel, and not so much on the immediate monetization of plant
546 knowledge. This follows the traditional Maya way to understand collective benefits for the well-being
547 of generations to come, over economic gains for only the present generation of healers.

548 The industrial experience focusing on biodiversity in Guatemala

549 In order to understand the current challenges in the context of commercial uses, it is essential to
550 understand the recent history of developing high-value products from Guatemalan resources. The
551 project partnership includes Indigena Biodiversity Limited, a UK-based company, established to
552 operate under the legal and ethical principles of the CBD and NP. The company's objective is to provide
553 research access to valuable genetic resources from biodiversity-rich countries and manage equitable
554 sharing of any commercial benefits arising from its utilization with provider countries.

555 Indigena began operations in 2014, shortly after the introduction of the NP and chose Guatemala as
556 its first potential provider country. A local manager and a local lawyer were recruited. Early on, there
557 were local misperceptions and a culture of opposition to intellectual property on plant varieties, which
558 spilled over to a suspicion of any foreign entity wishing to export plants. Initially, there were conflicting
559 reports on whether there were even any CBD/NP regulations in place.

560 During 2014, contact was made with the Guatemala National Focal Point at CONAP. Although
561 Guatemala had ratified both CBD and the NP, no ABS regulation was in place (see above). Prompted
562 by Indigena's enquiries, CONAP initiated a project to formulate the requirements for access. The first
563 suggestion, in 2015, was that Indigena should establish a company registered in Guatemala. Indigena
564 countered that such a requirement would in fact deter foreign access, which is one of the principles
565 of the CBD. In 2015, Indigena wanted to export plant material for research purposes with no plans for
566 direct commercial uses of products, which was made clear to CONAP's working group. It was
567 acknowledged that the access regulations in Guatemala were being developed through the practical
568 input that the company was providing.

569 Under revised rules, the local company requirement was dropped and instead, two forms were
570 required:

- 571 1. Request for a research licence
- 572 2. Request for collection

573 In addition, a list of further requirements was listed, including the preparation of a detailed research
574 plan, to be approved by a university in Guatemala.

575 In 2016, Indigena put together a consortium to carry out research on a plant species endemic to
576 Guatemala, in particular for *Ageratina ligustrina* (DC.) R.M.King & H.Rob. (syn.: *Eupatorium*
577 *semialatum* Benth.), which is used locally for treating malaria. The research partners in the UK planned
578 to modify the constituents of the natural product to attempt to improve the antimalarial activity,
579 providing a more effective treatment in Guatemala, plus financial benefits, if a new medical substance
580 could be developed and marketed.

581 The plan was presented at a meeting at CONAP, chaired by the director of the newly established
582 Biodiversity Technical Office of CONAP, who was very helpful and offered to facilitate the required
583 endorsement from the University of San Carlos. If approved, this species would be the first plant to be
584 object of a permit under the new ABS regulations in Guatemala. Unfortunately, San Carlos did not
585 wish to approve the plan and instead, in 2017, Indigena approached Universidad del Valle de
586 Guatemala, who were interested in entering into a partnership.

587 However, in 2017, there was an increasing and significant local opposition to bioprospecting in
588 Guatemala and late in 2017, the legal challenge of the ratification of the NP effectively halted any
589 access applications, including Indigena's.

590 These regulatory challenges were known prior to the start of our project and overcoming certain
591 legislative obstacles was part of the overarching goal. Unfortunately, in 2020, CONAP, released a
592 directive requiring, in all cases, that 50% of the "rights and benefits" need to go to a Guatemalan entity
593 (CONAP 2020). From Indigena's perspective (and likely of any industrial partner), this created a major
594 hurdle for the collaboration and is currently seriously jeopardising the project's desired outcome. Any
595 industrial partner, as the provider of structural and financial investment, could not accept such terms,
596 especially the sharing of patent rights (which is another requirement in the policy). This 'event' links
597 back to the current complicated situation. In the specific case of this project, Indigena is not prepared
598 to sign an ABS agreement (with mutually agreed terms - MAT) under the proposed terms when there
599 is no way for a company to develop business relations while abiding by the law; therefore, the
600 collaboration remains in a cul-de-sac. More generally, despite Indigena's efforts to protect local
601 traditional knowledge and genetic resources, while attempting to provide satisfactory benefits and
602 revenues, the history of exploitation has sadly resulted in a legal situation that will undoubtedly
603 discourage research and commercial investment in Guatemala. Interestingly despite having been
604 working alongside CONAP, only recently has there been clarity about the exact restrictions posed by
605 the regulations in place. This exemplifies how complicated the regulatory situation currently is.

606 As a result, therefore, this part of the project has not been able to progress to a workable solution in
607 Guatemala. Nevertheless, a great deal has been achieved through the TD process. For example, an
608 outline ABS framework has been proposed, to inform future dialogue on possible regulations that
609 could attract industrial involvement. In addition, a possible future positive outcome has been
610 specifically set out in terms of a selection of species with a potential to provide research leads. A model
611 ABS agreement is available for an exemplary commercial project. The law needs to change and the
612 future is unclear, but we have provided a clear positive vision of what the future could look like.

613 Defining a framework for benefits

614 A core element of our approach is a review and assessment of the current framework for using
615 Guatemalan biodiversity for further research and development, to contribute to a better evidence-
616 base for current practices and for generating opportunities in the context of developing new
617 medicines, supplements and/or cosmetics. Discussions with indigenous counterparts and national
618 institutions responsible for biodiversity protection have been conducted and continue to explore
619 potential monetary and non-monetary benefits on which to focus, from the possible implementation
620 of the CBD and Nagoya Protocol in Guatemala, enabling an assessment of the biodiversity's future
621 potential impact on Mayan communities. This includes a focus on recuperating endangered medicinal
622 plants, and protect and use the local biodiversity. None of this is – at this stage- feasible, since the
623 core of this project is on establishing a basis for future development of ABS mechanisms.

624 In spite of this, developing the *know-how* on how to build a trustful relationship upon which to develop
625 such a desired ABS mechanism, has been a major contribution of this project. All documentation from
626 participatory research provides input into the transdisciplinary process and guides the discussions to
627 assess all relevant data. Consequently, stakeholders have co-developed tools to assess the correct
628 mechanisms to: 1) formally recognize indigenous traditional knowledge concerning medicinal plants,
629 2) identify appropriate mechanisms for protection of intellectual property if desired, and 3) define
630 concrete mechanisms for benefit sharing. The intercultural transdisciplinary process in itself is part of
631 the academic endeavour to systematize the mechanisms fostering dialogue and negotiations towards
632 consensus of policy, from which specific tools (manuals or technical guides being developed) will
633 facilitate future replicability.

634 Medicinal Plant Research - Outcomes from local uses to global potential

635 Of the 253 samples collected, until March 2021, 150 specimens were identified (including species
636 reported more than once by different healers), belonging to 48 families and 77 genera. On average, a
637 healer takes up to an hour to collect around nine plants (9 plants/1.2 hours), depending on their

638 location. For some plants it took up to four hours to collect a single specimen. Evidently, access to the
639 plants varies greatly depending on their preferred habitat and current distribution (see above). From
640 all collected plants, 28% were collected in and near the healer's house, 66% in forests, near paddocks,
641 or forest patches, 4% came from interdepartmental transfer upon request from the healers, and 2%
642 were obtained on a local market. According to the frequency of use, at least 51 medicinal plants are
643 frequently used by the healers throughout the three departments. At least 59% of the plants used
644 have no contraindications or toxicity (based on the healers' assessment).

645 Literature review of a selection of species

646 We conducted a literature review for each plant species identified by the UVG herbarium team by
647 assessing previous ethnobotanical records, pharmacological and toxicological published data. These
648 reviews meant to inform the assessment of the current economic potential of target species including
649 potential for exclusivity provided by intellectual property and possible commercially viable uses of
650 products from these target species. The aim of this part of the project is twofold. On the one hand, it
651 helps to understand the existing knowledge about a species' pharmacology and toxicology which can
652 be used locally. On the other hand, it provides a basis for understanding larger scale uses of these
653 resources outside of their region of origin, an aim defined in etic terms and as such one not directly
654 transparent in the local context.

655 The medicinal flora of the Neotropis and specifically of the lowlands of México, Guatemala and Belize
656 is not well known, but some species have already been assessed in considerable detail (Geck et al.,
657 2020). In this project, no samples for pharmacological and phytochemical research were collected.
658 Instead, it includes a literature-based assessment of the existing evidence on a species'
659 pharmacological effects and toxicological risks. In a first analysis, we assessed the distribution of the
660 species in order to understand whether the species is restricted or not.

661 Assessing the evidence base and potential of selected species

662 Among the specimens collected, 58 species have been assessed so far (i.e. the ones reported until
663 01.02.2021). For each species, a literature review was performed to inform the selection of species
664 of relevance for potential 'utilization', as defined by the CBD, but no assessment was made of the
665 plants as commodity products. As a first step, very widely or globally known, generally non-native
666 species, were separated from those in essence restricted to the Neotropics. A more restricted
667 distribution would provide products, which will result in local opportunities for ABS. However, this
668 research also provides an opportunity for assessing the potential of other species (for example, by
669 identifying very widely used plants, which may have research potential).

670 We excluded, in the first instance widely known, used and well-researched taxa such as *Aloe vera* (L.)
671 Burm.f. *Salvia rosmarinus* Spenn. (better known as *Rosmarinus officinalis* L.), or *Theobroma cacao* L.
672 (Geck et al., 2020). For such well-known species, a large body of evidence including pharmacological
673 and toxicological data are available. Therefore, there is very little scope for new lines of research
674 resulting in new products with benefits for the region.

675 Secondly, species that are not native to Guatemala or Central America were also excluded, including
676 widespread and globally used species. They have become accessible/imported in the Neotropics and
677 are an integral part of the local practice mostly as food or medicine. Examples include *Kalanchoe*
678 *pinnata* (Lam.) Pers., native to Madagascar and *S. rosmarinus*, native to the Mediterranean region.

679 We excluded additional species if they were either endangered or well-known for being toxic. This is
680 the case for *Aristolochia tonduzii* O.C. Schmid, as the entire genus *Aristolochia* is of major toxicological
681 concern, due to the presence of aristolochic acid derivatives (Michl et al., 2014)

682 These three criteria led to the exclusion of 17 species from the initial list (Figure 4, selection stages A
683 + B + C). In the following steps, we looked at the different levels of pharmacological evidence and the
684 reports of traditional uses for the remaining 41 species.

685 **Figure 4 here**

686 Previously some species characteristic of the Flora Neotropica have been investigated extensively for
687 their potential medicinal properties. For example, *Neurolaena lobata* (L.) Cass. is the subject of
688 numerous publications supporting its *in vitro* antiprotozoal (including antiplasmodial) and cytotoxic
689 activity (Berger et al., 2001), in vivo wound healing properties (Nayak et al., 2014) linked to its
690 sesquiterpene lactones', and anti-inflammatory activity (François et al., 1996; Walshe-Roussel et al.,
691 2013). Similarly, *Guazuma ulmifolia* Lam. has been studied in considerable detail in relation to its
692 potential antibacterial, antihypertensive, and antidiabetic properties (Alonso-Castro et al., 2008;
693 Magos et al., 2008).

694 Other species have been reported as traditional medicines but no evidence related to their
695 pharmacology and chemistry is available. For example, *Lygodium heterodoxum* Kunze, has previously
696 only been reported as used by Q'eqchi' for medicinal purposes (Walsh-Roussel, 2014) and
697 *Odontonema callistachyum* (Cham. & Schltld.) Kuntze, is mentioned in relation to the traditional
698 medicine of some indigenous people of Mexico, specifically the Mazatecs in Oaxaca, (Giovannini and
699 Heinrich, 2009) and the Popoluca (Leonti et al., 2001).

700 Interestingly, some species have been reported as Q'eqchi' traditional medicine previously but for a
701 different use, compared to the uses mentioned by the healers involved in our project. For example,

702 *Gurania makoyana* Cogn. was reported by Walsh-Roussel (2014) as used by Q'eqchi for
703 immunomodulatory purposes, while in Petén the species is used to reduce fever and treat
704 haemorrhage.

705 Other species have not been previously reported for their medicinal uses and have only been
706 investigated botanically, such as *Heliconia aurantiaca* Ghiesbr. In this case, there are a considerable
707 number of reports (>50 published papers) but these are limited to botanical descriptions and location
708 or biodiversity and environmental importance (Iremonger et al., 1995; Castro-Luna et al., 2011; Collins,
709 2015; Gomez-Dominguez et al., 2015).

710 Finally, some species are almost unknown, including *Philodendron hoffmannii* Schott. and
711 *Stenospermation robustum* Engl. (both Araceae), with minimal published records (less than 10 found),
712 and limited to their existence as reported by the botanists who named them (Hilje, 2007), or reported
713 on local floras (e.g., Flora of Panama, Standley, 1944), or their specific location as part of local
714 biodiversity investigations (Kohlmann et al., 2010; Valdez-Porón, 2012).

715 The list was shared with the industrial partner, who, taking into account the academic and patent
716 literature available, removed 10 species for which prior extensive studies meant that an exclusive
717 position was unlikely to be achievable. For example, *Piper peltatum* has been well researched and its
718 main constituents are known, so that there is little possibility to find a patentable outcome from a
719 research program. That left a preliminary list of 31 species.

720 The industrial partner then carried out a further study of the information available to assess the
721 commercial potential of the remaining species. From that list, 12 species were first removed because
722 they exhibited too many activities; such a variety of properties would make it unlikely to be able to
723 develop a product treat a specific human disease or condition, without other side-effects. Secondly, a
724 further 15 species were excluded because the reported activities would be unlikely to translate into a
725 high value commercial application.

726 That analysis led to a shortlist of four species with a potential for further research and development.
727 As an example, *Phalaris canariensis* L. is traditionally used for "blood in urine"/prostate treatment,
728 which is certainly a condition that could have a commercial potential. Kchaou et al. (2015) describe
729 anti-acetylcholinesterase activity for the species. As other anticholinergics are used as treatments for
730 benign prostate, this finding could explain the traditional use of this species. Furthermore,
731 anticholinergics have also been proposed for treating Alzheimer's disease, which would be a very
732 commercially attractive target.

733 *P. canariensis* was not, however, among our two selected species because it is well known globally as
734 canary seed, although not explored in terms of medical potential. Secondly, the desired activities are
735 already suggested in the literature. Nevertheless, the individual metabolites responsible for the
736 activity are not known; and identification of those molecules, or chemical modifications thereof, could
737 provide valuable research targets for a commercial product.

738 Core obstacles and opportunities

739 The project has resulted in a unique collaborative perspective, has enabled a mutual understanding
740 of what is possible for developing high value products from indigenous traditional knowledge on local
741 biodiversity, and has built a basis of trust among very different stakeholders. The TD process has
742 developed a pathway for consensus building, mutual understanding and learning, but core challenges
743 remain to move ahead due to constraints in the CONAP current policy framework.

744 There is still a need to develop an ABS mechanism agreed on by all parties. A way forward could be to
745 open a discussion with CONAP for a decision to lobby its way into amending article 26 of *Acuerdo*
746 *Gubernativo No. 759-90* directly, possibly by adding a clause (f) for projects operating under the NP,
747 providing for a more reasonable and attractive sharing of patent rights and benefits. This, however,
748 would need the re-ratification of the NP by Congress, which can only happen after a detailed
749 consulting with indigenous peoples. Although this seems like a lengthy process, we propose the use
750 of an intercultural transdisciplinary framework, like the one employed in our Green Health project, for
751 this purpose.

752 In the context of the Green Health project, the most realistic way forward would be a joint effort of
753 CONAP, indigenous communities and industry to amend the *Acuerdo Gubernativo No. 759-90*, also
754 giving better opportunities to the indigenous representatives to negotiate access and benefits. Based
755 on this case, the project could keep working to produce a long term plan for changing the law and
756 show what that scenario could look like. This will also develop into an example of scientific
757 collaboration with ABS mechanisms.

758 CONAP's efforts in conservation constitute a mitigation strategy against deforestation, but it has a
759 zero tolerance policy on formally using protected areas in any way, further preventing healers from
760 accessing medicinal plants in healthy forests. This is why on the last TD workshop held in December
761 2020, members of the ACGERS Council formally requested CONAP to create a mechanism by which
762 traditional healers could be given a formal ID allowing them to go into National Parks and protected
763 areas to harvest traditional medicinal plants in a sustainable fashion. This idea is being pondered by
764 both sides but it won't be operational within a legal framework of CONAP any time soon. On the other

765 hand, Guatemala's K'atun 2032 National Development Plan considers the restoration of 1.2 million
766 hectares of forest with an assessment of opportunities for landscape restoration in Guatemala.
767 However, State policies still favour capitalist agro-export development, including promotion of
768 industrial logging, extensive cultivation of monocultured crops, and cattle farms. Factors, such as
769 increasing land concentration, soil depletion, biodiversity loss and inadequate access to markets,
770 healthcare and food, threaten small land holders' health and nutritional welfare (Márquez and
771 Schwartz, 2008). As traditional healers try to cope with landscape-level changes, the suitable areas for
772 plant collection continue to shrink, forcing them to generate agreements with landowners to avoid
773 legal consequences for trespassing.

774 The emic view of the Q'eqchi' Ajilonel on protecting access to genetic resources through the creation
775 of conservation corridors, and their desire for ongoing research to understand the characteristics of
776 each species for determining assisted reproduction and safety use, is a key element that needs to be
777 addressed in any further discussions on ABS in the region. Rather than adopting only the principles of
778 an etic perspective on developing ABS mechanisms following the guidelines of foreign experiences,
779 incorporating emic concepts of 'value' regarding increased access to genetic resources can tilt the
780 balance towards promoting the needed policy change. For future successful partnerships, this interest
781 of local indigenous epistemologies could be the starting point to move the needed ABS policy
782 framework forward, while at the same time advancing collaboration on researching herbal medicines
783 and contributing to conservation of biodiversity in Guatemala.

784

785 Conclusion

786 At first sight the most obvious outcome from the etic perspective of an industry partner is a list of
787 prioritized species of interest for future pharmaceutical evaluation. Importantly, the concept of
788 developing local resources is shared widely also within the community participants. While in this paper,
789 only interim outcomes can be reported, at the end of the project these list of priority species can be
790 the basis for new collaborations, which actually focus on the research and development of target
791 species that may also include emic Q'eqchi' Maya categories of 'valuable' plants.

792 Our project has achieved a platform for developing a trustful collaboration of different stakeholders,
793 who, at the same time, share a common interest in biodiversity and their sustainable use. This was
794 done through developing an inter-institutional culture of open dialogues at equal footing by
795 promoting the inclusion of all relevant perspectives. Applying a multidirectional emic-etic reflexive
796 exercise when assessing desired project outcomes enhances the mutual understanding of different

797 drivers and potential approaches and provides a better chance to build long lasting partnerships for
798 advancing the needs and interests of all stakeholders. Such a process enables an intercultural and
799 international dialogue within a transdisciplinary process. Overall, our Green Health project has
800 demonstrated that for any successful future collaborations between diverse stakeholders interested
801 in research and development of herbal medicines and derived uses, it is necessary to invest the time
802 and resources in developing a reflexive and respectful participatory process that builds mutual trust.
803 Most importantly, however, future stakeholders, for example, from industry need to seriously
804 incorporate the desired benefits from the emic views of indigenous communities.

805 Without overcoming the regulatory problems, our project, however, remains theoretical in its efforts
806 to develop an actual ABS contract between industry and indigenous peoples in Guatemala. In a wider
807 context, the project also highlights that the national implementation of the NP and associated
808 international agreements will impact not only on a country's global competitiveness, but also directly
809 on what opportunities exist for local stakeholders, including the indigenous groups. The
810 implementation of the NP differs among Central American countries, and this has resulted in some
811 countries developing their bioeconomies faster than others. Overall, while we have proof that
812 incorporating emic drivers and views make potential ABS agreements more socially robust, these need
813 to meet at the middle with etic views of scientifically robust, clear, legal frameworks that reduce
814 uncertainty for all stakeholders involved.

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1053 **Table 1:** Overarching aims and interested as presented by the indigenous, governmental, industrial
 1054 and academic partners.

Interests of academic Partners	<p>To advance knowledge on ethnopharmacology and ethnobotany of the Q'eqchi</p> <p>Generate a basic evidence-base for advancing herbal medicine research.</p> <p>Case study for safety use of most used plants.</p> <p>To increase the repository of medicinal spp. at the UVG herbarium.</p> <p>To develop a case study for ABS understanding role of science partners.</p> <p>To develop intercultural transdisciplinary methods for building N-S partnerships</p>
Interests of the Indigenous Council	<p>To increase information on the plants used by the Ajilonel, particularly their safety and ability to be reproduced outside of the forest.</p> <p>To develop a plant nursery and seed repository of medicinal plant species.</p> <p>To create an agreement with local government officials for the creation of a protected area.</p> <p>To discuss potential income generation strategies with foreign partners, for the development of the Council's families.</p>
Interests of CONAP (Government partner)	<p>To develop the first case study on how to create an ABS format for negotiating agreements between indigenous peoples and a foreign institution.</p> <p>To develop tools and manuals for the replicability of the experience with other indigenous groups.</p> <p>To generate evidence for CONAP's use on further advancing the negotiation of regulatory frameworks.</p>
Interests of industry partner	<p>To gain access to information on indigenous plant use for evaluating potential commercial uses.</p> <p>To develop the first ABS agreement with an indigenous group and a partner from industry, as a step to advance clear policy and regulatory frameworks.</p>

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1061 **Figure legends:**

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1063 **Figure 1.** Architecture of transdisciplinary design of the Green Health Project, depicting four project
1064 phases in order to reach the desired goal.

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1066 **Figure 2.** Flow diagram of the backward planning process to identify assumptions in multicultural
1067 settings, detect participation gaps, and develop modulators of change to facilitate the original desired
1068 goal, a key element of the TD process. (based on Berger-Gonzalez et al., 2020)

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1070 **Figure 3.** Dynamics of forest coverage, non-forest lands, and points for plant collection by traditional
1071 healers. The color version of this map is available at <https://discovery.ucl.ac.uk/>.

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1073 **Figure 4:** Flow diagram showing the selection of species that are of potential commercial interest
1074 based on the literature review.

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1076

Figure 1

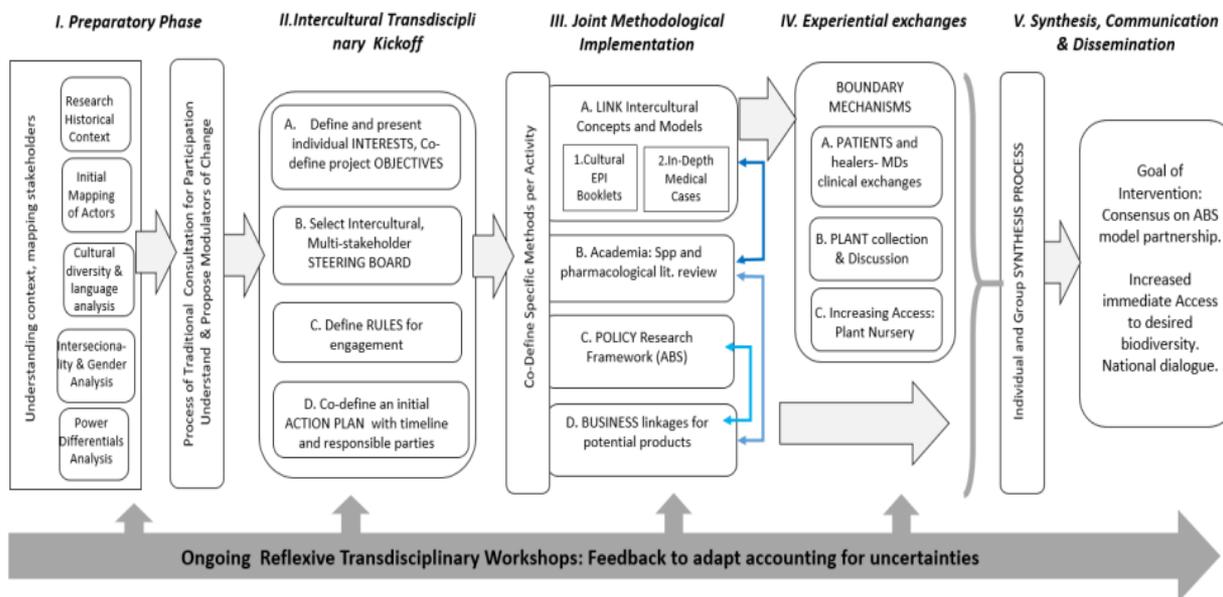
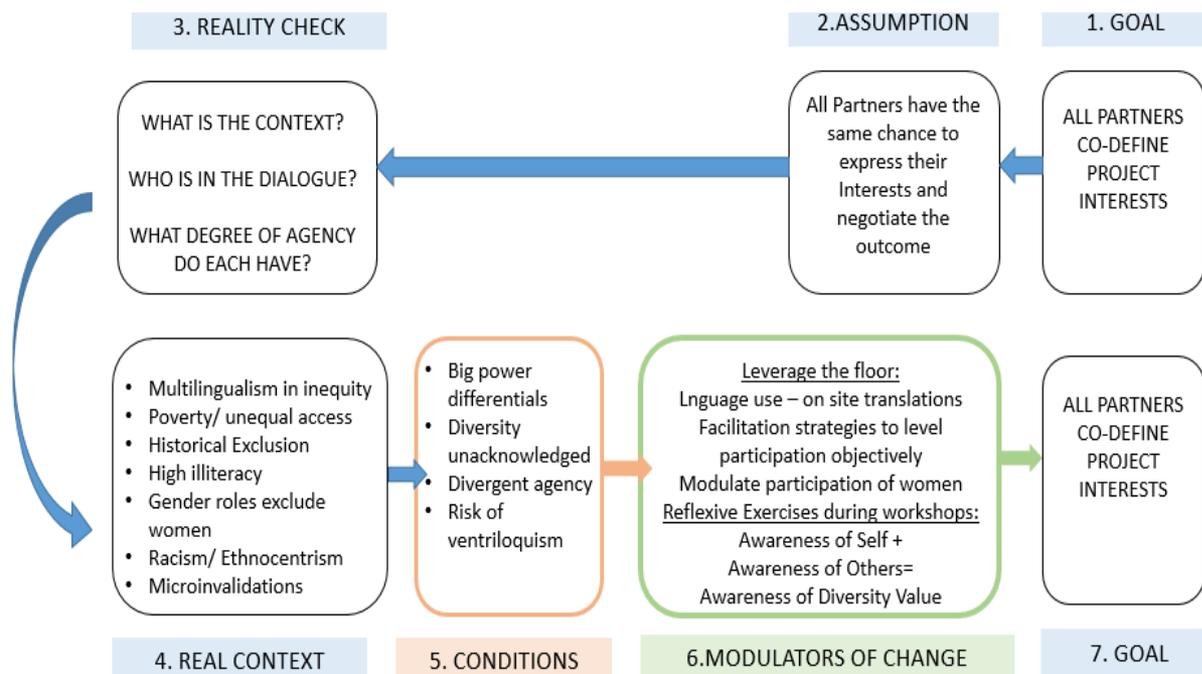
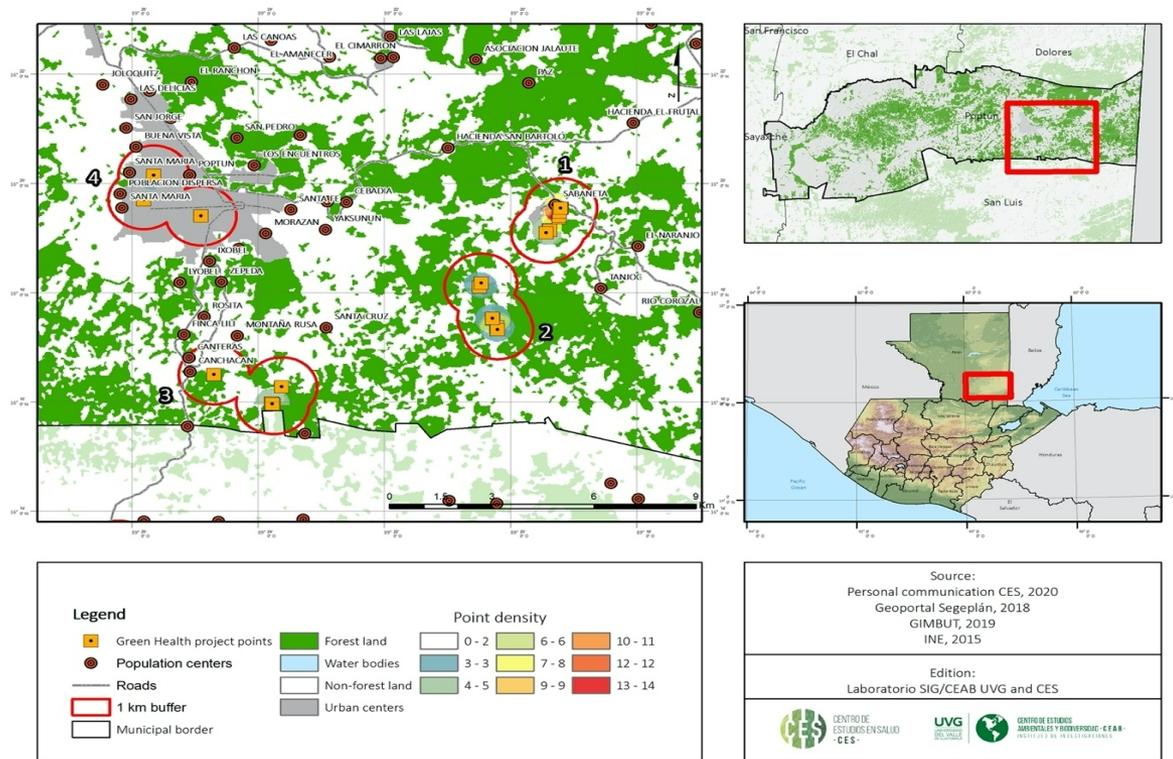


Figure 2



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Figure 3



122 local names and specimens

