

Global review of shorebird tracking publications: Gaps and priorities for research and conservation

Grégoire Michel^{1,2*}, Josh Nightingale^{3,4*†}, Martin Beal¹, Alice Bernard⁵, Maria P. Dias¹, José A. Alves^{3,4}

1. cE3c Center for Ecology, Evolution and Environmental Changes & CHANGE - Global Change and Sustainability Institute, Department of Animal Biology, Faculdade de Ciências, Universidade de Lisboa, Campo Grande, 1749-016 Lisboa, Portugal
2. University of La Rochelle, 23 Av. Albert Einstein, 17000 La Rochelle, France
3. South Iceland Research Centre, University of Iceland, Lindarbraut 4, 840 Laugarvatn, Iceland
4. CESAM—Centre for Environmental and Marine Studies, University of Aveiro, Campus de Santiago, 3810-193 Aveiro, Portugal
5. CEFE, University of Montpellier, CNRS, EPHE, IRD, Montpellier, France

*These authors contributed equally to this work

†Author for correspondence: josh@hi.is

Abstract

Electronic tracking has enabled rapid advances in knowledge of the movement behaviour and habitat use of shorebirds (Charadriiformes), and is thus making a growing contribution to their conservation. However, developing a useful coherent global strategy for tracking these taxa requires an overview of the current availability of data and how it varies along regional and ecological lines. To this end we undertook a comprehensive review of published shorebird tracking studies. We reviewed 353 scientific publications covering 73 species from five shorebird families. Over half of species, and half of families, lacked any tracking publication. Migratory species were more likely to be tracked, as were those of intermediate body size. Data availability was considerably higher in temperate regions and in migratory routes that include wealthy countries, and very few tags were deployed in the Global South. In total, only 27.2% of publications reported that the data is archived in a repository, though this figure is increasing. We highlight species and regions whose conservation needs and lack of available data make them relevant priorities for future tracking research. Given the increasing impact and potential of re-using tracking data stored in online repositories to inform conservation, we emphasise the need to improve both the co-ordination amongst shorebird trackers to deploy tags strategically, as well as the urgency of archiving tracking data and making it widely available to researchers and conservationists.

37 **Introduction**

38 Individual birds' movements have been tracked using miniature electronic devices since the late
39 1950s, with a rapid evolution and proliferation of the technologies in subsequent decades (Ropert-
40 Coudert & Wilson 2005). By providing spatio-temporal records of individual animals at unpreced-
41 ented resolution, electronic tracking technologies, such as GPS, PTT, GLS and VHF, have enabled a
42 considerable increase in knowledge of the movements, habitat use, and migratory behaviour of
43 many species (Hart & Hyrenbach 2009; Kays et al. 2015; López-López 2016).

44 Tracking data are also making a growing contribution to conservation research and policy (Fraser et
45 al. 2018; Hays et al. 2019; Lahoz-Monfort & Magrath 2021). For instance, tracking multiple species
46 of seabirds enabled identification of a marine protected area in a previously unknown foraging hot-
47 spot in the North Atlantic (Davies et al. 2021a), while tracking of urban gulls provided evidence
48 that enabled the detection of illegal refuse dumping (Navarro et al. 2016).

49 Although high-quality evidence is essential for implementing effective conservation strategies
50 (Sutherland et al. 2004), most scientific data collected has been quickly lost, due to a lack of future-
51 focused data-archiving practices (Whitlock 2011). Furthermore, especially in the case of threatened
52 species, there is a trade-off in the allocation of limited resources towards either research or manage-
53 ment itself (Buxton et al. 2020). Potential impacts of tracking on individuals can also be an import-
54 ant issue to consider, particularly when studying small populations (Fiedler 2009; Bodey et al.
55 2018; Geen et al. 2019). Therefore, to reduce impacts and unnecessary redundancy it is crucial for
56 researchers and managers to have an overview of what data currently exists, and be able to find,
57 access and utilise that data into the future (Wilkinson et al. 2016).

58 Registering, archiving and sharing of bio-logging data via online platforms has been proposed as a
59 way to address conservation evidence-gaps (Sequeira et al. 2021; Rutz 2022). As tracking data ac-
60 cumulates in online repositories, the potential impact of re-applying this existing evidence to inform
61 conservation grows (Hays et al. 2019). Many repositories are now used to store tracking data used
62 in scientific publications, including generalist archives such as Zenodo (<https://zenodo.org/>) and
63 Dryad (<https://datadryad.org/>), and specialized platforms such as Movebank (<https://movebank.org>)
64 for data from animal-borne sensors (Kays et al. 2022). In some fields, tracking-data archives collate
65 information from particular taxa (e.g. the Seabird Tracking Database;
66 <https://www.seabirdtracking.org/>; (Bernard et al. 2021)), or regions (e.g. Arctic Animal Movement

67 Archive; Davidson et al. 2020). However, the proportion of shorebird-tracking data currently
68 archived in online repositories, and its characteristics, is unknown.

69 Shorebirds, also known as waders (Charadriiformes), are a group of birds that has been extensively
70 tracked with electronic devices in the last decades. They occur in a multitude of ecosystems across
71 the globe, depending in particular on wetland habitats (Livezey 2010; Sutherland et al. 2012). Many
72 shorebirds are migratory, with some species performing among the most impressive migrations of
73 the animal kingdom (Battley et al. 2012; Alves et al. 2016; Conklin et al. 2017). However, despite
74 covering vast distances during their migrations, they often depend on a restricted set of feeding and
75 resting sites (Dias et al. 2006; Alves et al. 2012) to which they tend to be highly faithful throughout
76 their lives (Gill et al. 2019) and local changes can therefore have wide-ranging repercussions (Bur-
77 ton et al. 2006; Nightingale et al. 2023). Over 50% of wetlands globally have already been des-
78 troyed (Davidson 2014) or considerably changed (Finlayson et al. 2019; Santos et al. 2022), and
79 continued sea-level rise is expected to inundate coastal habitats worldwide (Nicholls & Cazenave
80 2010; He & Silliman 2019; Newton et al. 2020). At the same time, climate warming has a particu-
81 larly strong signal at the high latitudes where many shorebirds breed, a phenomenon known as polar
82 amplification (Cohen et al. 2014). Consequently, over the past few decades human activities have
83 had a significant impact on shorebird habitats worldwide (Santos et al. 2022), with 47% of species
84 showing declining population trends (IUCN 2023).

85 Shorebirds' use of many biomes around the globe and their vulnerability to the impacts of ecolog-
86 ical change make them useful indicators of changing climatic conditions and ecosystem health,
87 particularly in wetlands (Piersma & Lindström 2004; Sutherland et al. 2012). However, the diffi-
88 culties of conserving shorebirds are compounded by the migratory behaviour of many species,
89 which causes each population to be vulnerable to changes at disparate parts of its range (Robinson
90 et al. 2009), and raises the need for shared political responsibility for their safeguarding (Beal et al.
91 2021). Knowledge gaps regarding shorebird movements can lead to difficulties in estimating the
92 conservation needs of their populations. Indeed, at present, one in five species of shorebirds have
93 unknown population trends (IUCN 2023).

94 Tracking data can contribute to resolving knowledge gaps, by uncovering patterns of habitat use
95 (e.g. Schwemmer et al. 2016; Linhart et al. 2022), routes and timings of movements (e.g. Carneiro
96 et al. 2019; Chan et al. 2019; Zhu et al. 2021), appropriately designing and managing protected
97 areas (Choi et al. 2019; Davies et al. 2021b; Geldmann et al. 2021) and establishing the political

98 links resulting from migratory behaviour (Beal et al. 2021; Guilherme et al. 2023). However, the
99 effort and resources put into tracking different species varies. For instance, technological limitations
100 such as tag weight have historically restricted studies to species with larger body sizes (López-
101 López 2016; Gould et al. 2024). Behaviour, such as inter-annual site fidelity, mediates the ease with
102 which tags can be deployed and (where necessary) recovered. Furthermore, geographic disparities
103 in data availability are common in ecology (Hughes et al. 2021), including in bird ringing (Bairlein
104 2003). Therefore, it may be expected that these biases are replicated in tracking studies of shore-
105 birds: for instance, species that regularly occur in wealthier countries may receive higher tracking
106 effort. This may be particularly true for species that breed there, as the lengthy incubation period
107 and use of terrestrial habitats facilitates capture and re-capture of shorebirds during this stage of
108 their annual cycle.

109 Variations in the availability of data, structured along global and ecological lines, can have import-
110 ant implications for conservation: the species in more need of knowledge might not be the ones bet-
111 ter studied. We currently lack a global overview of shorebird-tracking studies, but such an exercise
112 is a necessary first step towards understanding the existing disparities in shorebird-tracking re-
113 search, and thus contribute towards developing a coherent global strategy for taxon-specific track-
114 ing (e.g. Bernard et al. 2021).

115 Here, we evaluated the current availability of knowledge derived from electronic tracking of shore-
116 bird species, by reviewing published literature in this topic. First, we investigated inter-specific
117 variation in the number of published tracking studies (hereafter, publications), to identify how
118 knowledge disparities may depend on characteristics such as body size, conservation status and geo-
119 graphical distribution. We then explored geographical variation in the number of tracking publica-
120 tions, to identify regions where knowledge may be concentrated or lacking. We also assessed the
121 extent of data availability by noting whether publications reported having archived tracking data in
122 accessible repositories. Finally, we sought to identify a set of priority species for potential future
123 tracking research, based jointly on (i) their conservation requirements, (ii) availability of existing
124 data and (iii) the potential usefulness of tracking for improving their conservation status.

125

126

127 **Material and methods**

128 *Literature search*

129 We reviewed the published literature following the method used by Bernard et al. (2021), with the
130 objective of finding and retrieving information from all papers reporting results from the use of
131 electronic devices to track the movements (hereafter “tracking devices”) of shorebirds over any
132 period of time. We searched two databases simultaneously, Thomson Reuters' Web of Sciences
133 (<http://apps.webofknowledge.com/>) and Scopus (<https://www.scopus.com>), for each shorebird spe-
134 cies. We considered as shorebirds all 195 species in the families Burhinidae, Charadriidae, Droma-
135 didae, Haemotopodidae, Ibidorhynchidae, Pluvianellidae, Pluvianidae, Recurvirostridae, Rostratul-
136 idae and Scolopacidae listed in the IUCN Red List (IUCN 2023).

137 We searched for the English and scientific names of each species in the title, abstract and keywords,
138 along with at least one of the following terms in the full text: gps, gls, ptt, vhf, biologging, argos,
139 telemetry, track* or geolocat* (the asterisk * at the end of some words extends the search to all
140 words beginning with that prefix, e.g. track* would match tracked, track, tracking, etc.). For ex-
141 ample, the search string for Black-tailed Godwit was:

142 (“Black-tailed Godwit” OR “Limosa limosa”) AND (GLS OR GPS OR PTT OR VHF OR ARGOS
143 OR biologging OR track* OR geolocat* OR satellite OR telemetry)

144 Using the above-listed search terms, a list of publications was established for each species, for both
145 databases (WOS and Scopus). Each publication was inspected and only those reporting results from
146 tracking devices (VHF, PTT, GPS and/or GLS; Table 1) to study shorebird movements were selec-
147 ted. The data collection period took place from January through July 2023.

148

149 *Review of tracking publications*

150 For each publication, information was extracted relating to four topics: (1) fieldwork; (2) tracking
151 data generated; (3) data presentation; and (4) geographical scope. Regarding the (1) fieldwork, we
152 recorded the following parameters: shorebird population(s) studied; country(ies) and year(s) in
153 which birds were captured; number of individuals equipped with a device; number of individuals
154 from which data were obtained, where applicable (e.g., archival tags that need to be retrieved). The
155 variables collected related to (2) tracking data were; type of device used (VHF, PTT, GPS and/or

Table 1: Main features of common electronic bird-tracking devices: Very high frequency radio (VHF); light-level geolocators (GLS); platform transmitting terminal (PTT) and global positioning system (GPS). Weights are minima. Data from: Seagar et al., 1996; Roger et al., 2001; Clark et al., 2006; Whitworth et al., 2007; Scarpignato et al., 2016; Lisovski et al., 2018; Lisovski et al., 2020.

Tracking device	VHF	GLS	PTT	GPS
First available	late 1950s / early 1960s	1990s	late 1980s	1990s
Weight (2007)	1 g	0.5 g	12 g	30 g
Weight (2016)	1 g	0.5 g	2.5 g	1 g
Accuracy (max.)	5 m - 1 km	100 - 200 km	100 - 200 m	10 - 20 m
Geolocation method	Manual	Light-level	Satellite	Satellite
Recapture necessary	No	Yes	No	Depends on device

156 GLS; Table 1); if the data used for the analysis was original, or if the publication reused previously
157 published data (and if so, from which publication); if the publication reported having archived the
158 data in a public repository (and if so, which). For (3) data presentation, we recorded if at least one
159 map showing migratory movements of individuals was presented, we coded these as “migration”,
160 whereas if the only map(s) showed locations of individuals within a single area or season, “local”.
161 Note that not all publications included maps. Finally, regarding the (4) geographical scope, we re-
162 corded the main migratory route used by the focal population(s), following BirdLife International
163 classification in eight flyways (BirdLife International 2010). We considered that a publication was
164 located in a flyway when a major part of the bird locations were situated in that flyway (via the
165 name of the region, country, or geographical coordinates indicated in the publication); publications
166 including data for several different flyways were classified as "multiflyway". For all publications
167 showing the positions of tracked birds (i.e., “migration” or “local”), we visually identified the broad
168 latitudinal range covered by the data (in 30-degree bands).

169 To explore how species’ traits and conservation status may influence tracking effort, we obtained
170 the migratory behaviour of each species (i.e., non-migratory, altitudinal or full migrant), its global
171 conservation status (Critically Endangered, CR, Endangered, EN, Vulnerable, VU, Data Deficient,
172 DD, Near Threatened, NT or Least Concern, LC) and population trend (decreasing, stable, increas-
173 ing or unknown), from the IUCN Red List (IUCN 2023). The average body mass of each species
174 was also obtained (Marchant et al. 2010), and the species were classified into four size categories
175 adapted from the body mass classes used by Geen et al. (2019) and Scarpignato et al. (2016): Small:
176 <100 g; Medium: 100-300 g; Large: 300-500 g; Very large: >500 g.

177

178 ***Conservation-priority species for tracking***

179 In order to inform future efforts, we ranked species based jointly on their (i) conservation require-
180 ments, (ii) availability of existing data and (iii) the potential usefulness of tracking for improving
181 their conservation status. Information was gathered from the latest IUCN Red List assessments for
182 each species (IUCN 2023), as published online prior to 18 July 2023. We included all species that
183 were (i) assessed as threatened or DD; or assessed as NT with a declining population trend; with (ii)
184 two or fewer previous tracking publications.

185

186 For all species meeting the above criteria, we examined the “Research Needed” and “Conservation
187 Actions Needed” sections of the Red List species account, to identify any needs which could benefit
188 from tracking studies. In particular, the identification of important sites or habitat preferences were
189 considered knowledge gaps that could be informed by tracking. For example, a need to “identify
190 key sites” would qualify, but a need to “protect important sites” that have already been identified
191 across the range would not. Any species with at least one research or conservation action need that
192 could be addressed by tracking was then included in the final list of priority species. To assess the
193 geographical distribution of these species, we obtained range maps from BirdLife International and
194 Handbook of the Birds of the World (2022).

195

196 ***Data analysis***

197 To test for disparities between families, we compared the number of original-data publications (i.e.,
198 removing publications re-using previously published datasets) per species between families using
199 Kruskal-Wallis tests, followed by post-hoc pairwise Wilcoxon tests (adjusting for the False Discov-
200 ery Rate) when results were significant (i.e., $p < 0.05$), grouping all families with fewer than five
201 species (i.e., Dromadidae, Ibidorhynchidae, Pluvianellidae, Pluvianidae and Rostratulidae).

202 To assess the geographical and taxonomic coverage of shorebird tracking publications, the total
203 number of shorebird species per flyway (including all species present in at least 1% of the flyway)
204 was obtained using distribution maps from BirdLife International and Handbook of the Birds of the
205 World (2022), as well as the extent of each major flyway from BirdLife International (BirdLife In-
206 ternational 2010). Six species, including one declining species (*Prosobonia parvirostris*) and five
207 threatened species (*Haematopus chathamensis*, *Coenocorypha pusilla*, *Thinornis novaeseelandiae*,
208 *Prosobonia parvirostris* and *Charadrius sanctaehelenae*), were not included in these analyses, as
209 they are resident in islands outside any major flyway.

210 We then calculated the proportion of species in each flyway featured in at least one publication, and
211 compared the flyways using G-tests. In addition, we calculated the total numbers of threatened (i.e.,
212 classified as CR, EN or VU) and declining species per flyway. We further refined this analysis for
213 publications classified as “migration” and “local” by subdividing each flyway into 30° latitudinal
214 bands and calculating the proportion of species tracked within each.

215 We carried out all statistical analyses out using R version 4.3.0 (R Core Team 2023), and mapped

216 spatial data with QGIS version 3.32.2 (QGIS Development Team 2023).

217

218

219 **Results**

220 ***Development of shorebird tracking***

221 In total, we found 353 scientific publications, covering 73 different shorebird species, published
222 between 1989 and 2023 (Figure 1). We recorded 275 publications reporting original data (78%),
223 with the remaining 78 representing analyses performed on data that had previously been published.
224 The annual production of tracking publications increased over the last 30 years, with only one pub-
225 lication from 1989, while 32 were published in 2022.

226 Tracking data from shorebirds began to be archived in repositories from 2011 (Figure 1). From
227 2015, data archiving was increasingly reported, and 2022 was the year with the highest level, en-
228 compassing 63.9% of datasets. In total, 27.2% of publications reported that the data is archived,
229 including 16.1% on Movebank and 6.8% on Dryad (Figure 1).

230

231 ***Variation between species***

232 We did not find any publications for 122 species, representing 62.6% of all shorebird species (Fig-
233 ure 2). Of the 73 tracked species, most were the focus of only a small number (1-5) of publications.
234 Twelve species featured in >10 publications and four, all Scolopacidae, were the focus of >20 pub-
235 lications (Red Knot *Calidris canutus*, Black-tailed Godwit *Limosa limosa*, Dunlin *Calidris alpina*
236 and Whimbrel *Numenius phaeopus*).

237 We found a significant difference in the number of publications per family ($K= 15.725$, $df = 5$, $p =$
238 0.008). Species in the family Scolopacidae were most studied on average, being the focus of $3.3 \pm$
239 6.1 publications (Table 2), though there were large variations between species, and none of the post-
240 hoc pairwise tests assessing differences between families were significant (all $p \geq 0.08$; Appendix
241 1). The percentage of species with at least one publication was higher for Recurvirostridae and
242 Scolopacidae and lower for the Burhinidae (10%), with only one species studied out of the 10 mem-

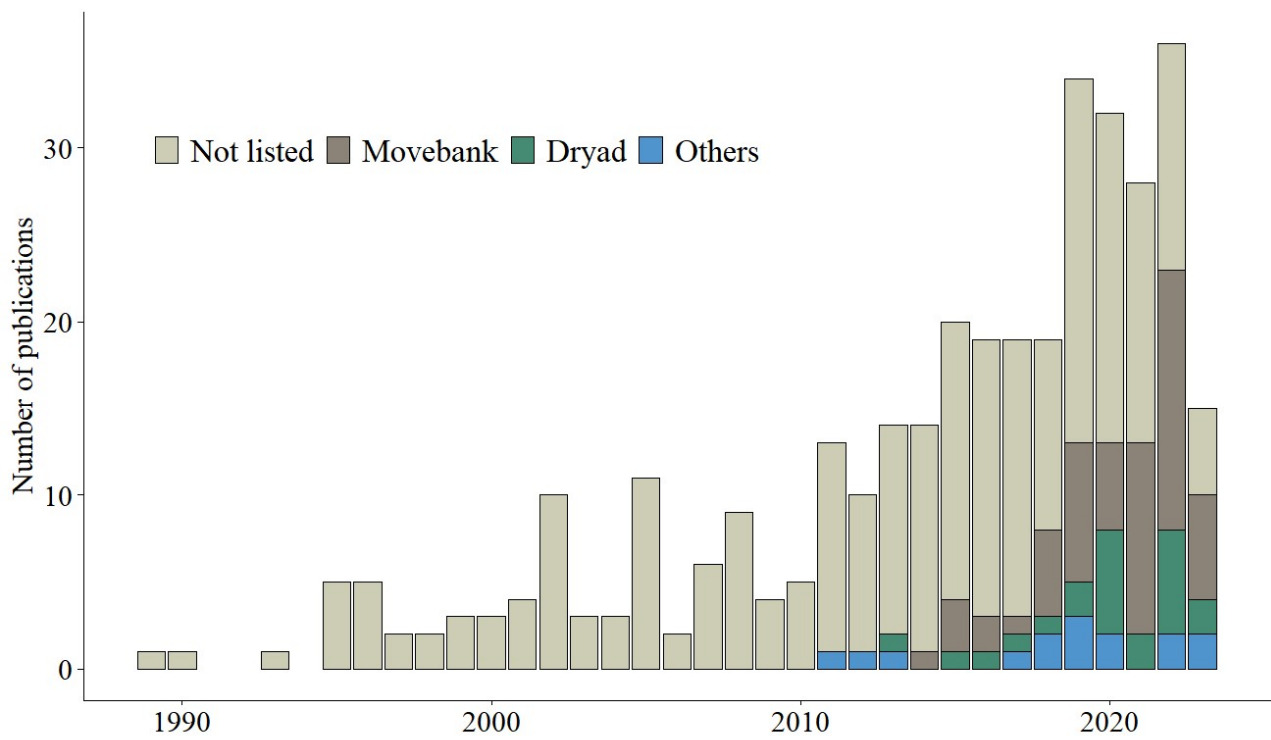


Figure 1: Frequency of publications (N = 353) with tracking data published between 1989 and 2023, per year. Colored bar segments indicate which data repository, if any, was reported in the paper.

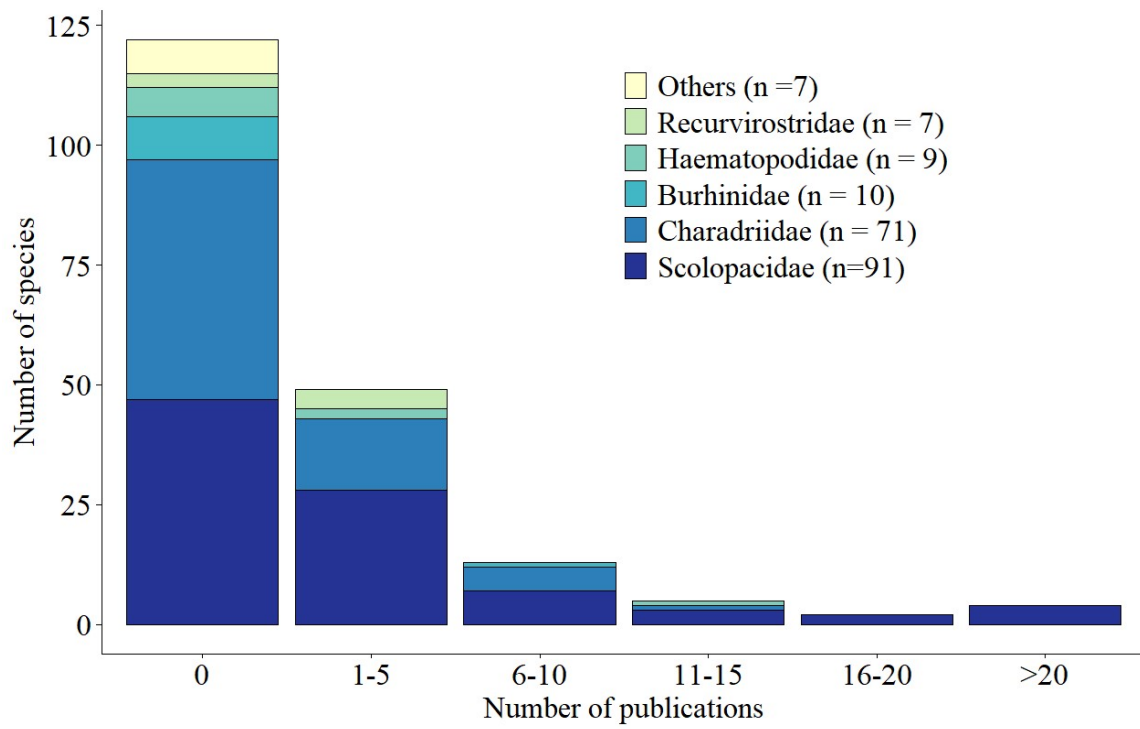


Figure 2: Distribution of the number of tracking studies per shorebird species (N = 195), coloured according to family. “Other families” includes families with fewer than five species (Dromadidae, Ibidorhynchidae, Pluvianellidae, Pluvianidae and Rostratulidae).

Table 2: Publication intensity of shorebird species per family: total number of species per family; the percentage of species with at least one publication identified in our review; the percentage of species that are migratory; and mean, standard deviation (SD) and maximum number of publications per species (the minimum was zero for all families). “Other families” includes families containing <5 species (Dromadidae, Ibidorhynchidae, Pluvianellidae, Pluvianidae and Rostratulidae).

Family	Number of species	% species tracked	% migratory species	Number of publications per species		
				Mean	SD	Maximum
Scolopacidae	91	48%	82%	3.3	6.1	32
Charadriidae	71	30%	55%	1.0	2.2	12
Burhinidae	10	10%	20%	0.7	2.2	7
Haemotopodidae	9	33%	33%	1.7	3.9	12
Recurvirostridae	7	57%	57%	1.6	1.8	5
Other families	7	0%	57%	0.0	0.0	0

243 bers of this family. Families containing few species (Dromadidae, Ibidorhynchidae, Pluvianellidae,
244 Pluvianidae and Rostratulidae) were not present in any published publications on tracking.

245 Fully migratory species represent 61% of the 195 shorebird species (Table 2), but more than 93% of
246 those tracked at least once. In contrast, non-migratory species represent 35% of all shorebirds, but
247 only 6.8% (5 out of 73) of the tracked species. None of the 8 altitudinal migrant species is the focus
248 of any publication.

249 In the early period of shorebird tracking from 1982, until 2009, the main type of tracking device
250 deployed was VHF radio-tag (Figure 3A). Most of these publications focused on medium-sized
251 shorebirds (100–300 g). From ca. 2006, the number of deployments increased rapidly, particularly
252 using GLS and PTT devices. From 2016 onwards, there was an increase in the use of GPS transmit-
253 ters, which have become the main type of tracking device used since 2018. However, we note that
254 the use of VHF transmitters has remained fairly constant until recently (Figure 3-A). Since 2005,
255 there has been a diversification in the size of species tracked, with an increasing number of publica-
256 tions focusing on both small and very large species (Figure 3B). From 2020 onwards the number of
257 deployments resulting in publications declines, likely due to the delay between data collection and
258 publication.

259

260 *Spatial patterns in tracking effort*

261 The data used in tracking publications were derived from shorebirds tagged in 39 countries (Figure
262 4), the majority in the northern hemisphere (85.8%). The country with most published deployments
263 was the United States, which featured in 109 publications, followed by the United Kingdom (29
264 publications). In the southern hemisphere, 22 publications dealt with data from birds tagged in Aus-
265 tralia (the country with third-most publications) and 13 publications contained information from
266 birds equipped in five South American countries (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Uruguay and
267 Venezuela). Deployments in just four African countries (Guinea-Bissau, Mauritania, Mozambique
268 and Senegal) resulted in five scientific publications.

269 The proportion of species tracked differed between the eight flyways ($G = 40.53$, $df = 7$, $p < 0.001$).
270 The Central Asian, Black Sea/Mediterranean and East Asian/East African Flyways had the lowest
271 proportions of tracked species, whereas the East Atlantic and Atlantic Americas flyways had the
272 highest (Table 3). The unevenness of tracking effort between flyways was also reflected in the num-

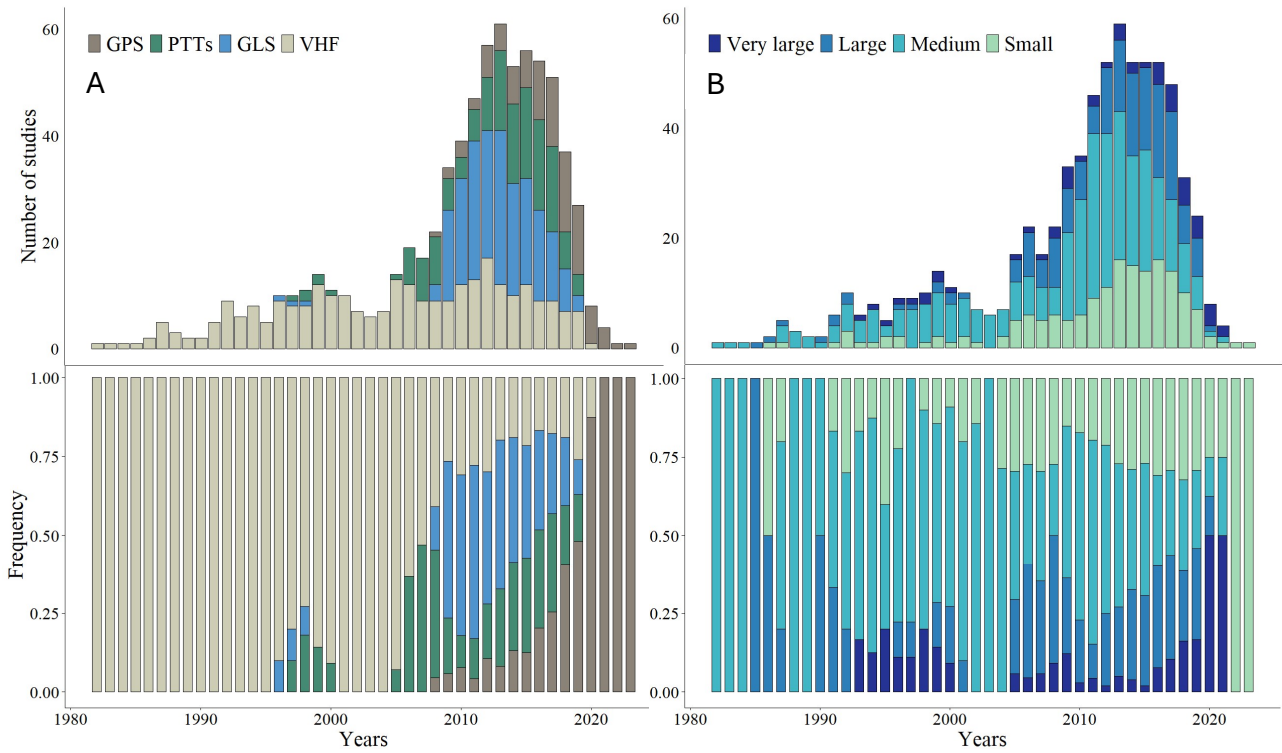


Figure 3: Variation in the number of shorebird tracking publications over time with respect to (A – left column) the type of tracking devices used, and (B – right column) the size category of the species studied (Small: <100 g; Medium: 100-300 g; Large: 300-500 g; Very large: >500 g.). Top panels show the number of articles per year, and bottom panels show frequency of articles in each category. The dates correspond to the years when the transmitters were deployed on the individuals, rather than the year of publication.

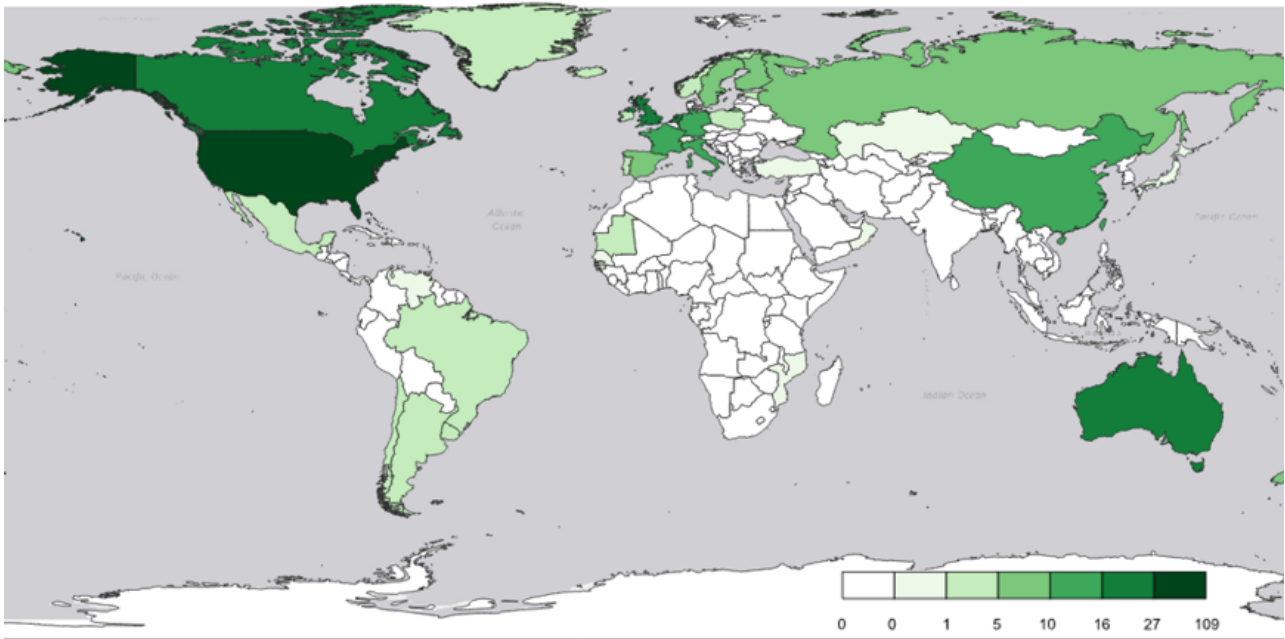


Figure 4: Geographical variation in the number of publications resulting from tracking devices deployed within each country (n = 39 countries with tag deployments on shorebirds).

Table 3: Variation amongst the eight flyways used by shorebirds in terms of number of species occurring, number of publications, number of species studied (i.e., featuring in at least one publication), the number of endangered species occurring and studied, and the number of species with declining population trends occurring and studied.

	Species ¹	Publications ²	Species studied	Threatened species: studied / total	Declining species: studied / total
East Asia / Australasia	131	63	29 (22%)	5 / 17 (29%)	22 / 71 (31%)
East Asia / East Africa	114	6	6 (5%) *	1 / 9 (11%)	5 / 58 (9%)
Pacific Americas	87	40	20 (23%)	0 / 4 (0%)	12 / 47 (26%)
Black Sea / Mediterranean	81	6	4 (5%) *	0 / 4 (0%)	3 / 38 (8%)
East Atlantic	78	84	26 (33%)	0 / 1 (0%)	17 / 38 (45%)
Central Asia	73	4	5 (7%) *	0 / 7 (0%)	2 / 44 (5%)
Central Americas	68	27	13 (19%)	0 / 1 (0%)	10 / 35 (29%)
Atlantic Americas	61	59	19 (30%)	0 / 1 (0%)	9 / 34 (27%)

Note:

¹ Includes all shorebird species present in at least 1% of the flyway.

² Includes original-data publications where the flyway was used by the birds tracked in the publication.

* *Flyways which formed a grouping significantly different from all others in pairwise G tests (all $p < 0.05$)*

273 ber of publications: the three flyways with a very low percentage of species tracked also had very
274 few publications (Table 3). Tracking effort also varied latitudinally: northern temperate regions
275 (30°–60° N band) are clearly better studied than tropical and polar latitudes in most flyways, a pat-
276 tern that is particularly obvious in the East Atlantic flyway (Figure 5; Appendix 2).

277

278 ***Priority shorebird species for future tracking***

279 Of the 24 shorebird species classified as threatened on the IUCN Red List (CR, EN, VU), only six
280 featured in tracking publications, located in two flyways: five in East Asia/Australasia and one East
281 Asia/East Africa. Of the 92 NT species with declining populations, 47 (51.1%) are included in at
282 least one publication. The East Atlantic and East Asia/Australasia flyways have the highest propor-
283 tions of declining species with tracking publications (Table 3).

284 We identified 13 species as priorities for future tracking research (Table 4), out of the 33 that met
285 our inclusion criteria (Appendix 3). Eight priority species belong to the family Scolopacidae, four
286 are Charadriidae, and one Rostratulidae. The most commonly reported Research Needs under the
287 IUCN research classification scheme were related to species Distribution (six species) or Life his-
288 tory (six species), with one species (Sulawesi Woodcock *Scolopax celebensis*) reported as needing
289 research related to Threats. In addition, three of these species had Conservation Actions Needed
290 under the IUCN conservation actions classification scheme, related to identifying sites and one to
291 identifying habitats. Just under half of these species are considered full migrants (n=6), with one
292 altitudinal migrant and six species that do not migrate. Most (n=8) have a medium body size, with
293 one large and four small species.

294 Of the 13 species considered to be priorities, 9 have at least part of their range in the East Asia/Aus-
295 tralasia flyway, with distributions highly concentrated in South-East Asia, Indonesia, and Australia
296 (Figure 6). Three species are endemic to South America (Imperial Snipe *Gallinago imperialis*, Dia-
297 demed Plover *Phegornis michelli* and Fuegian Snipe *Gallinago stricklandii*).

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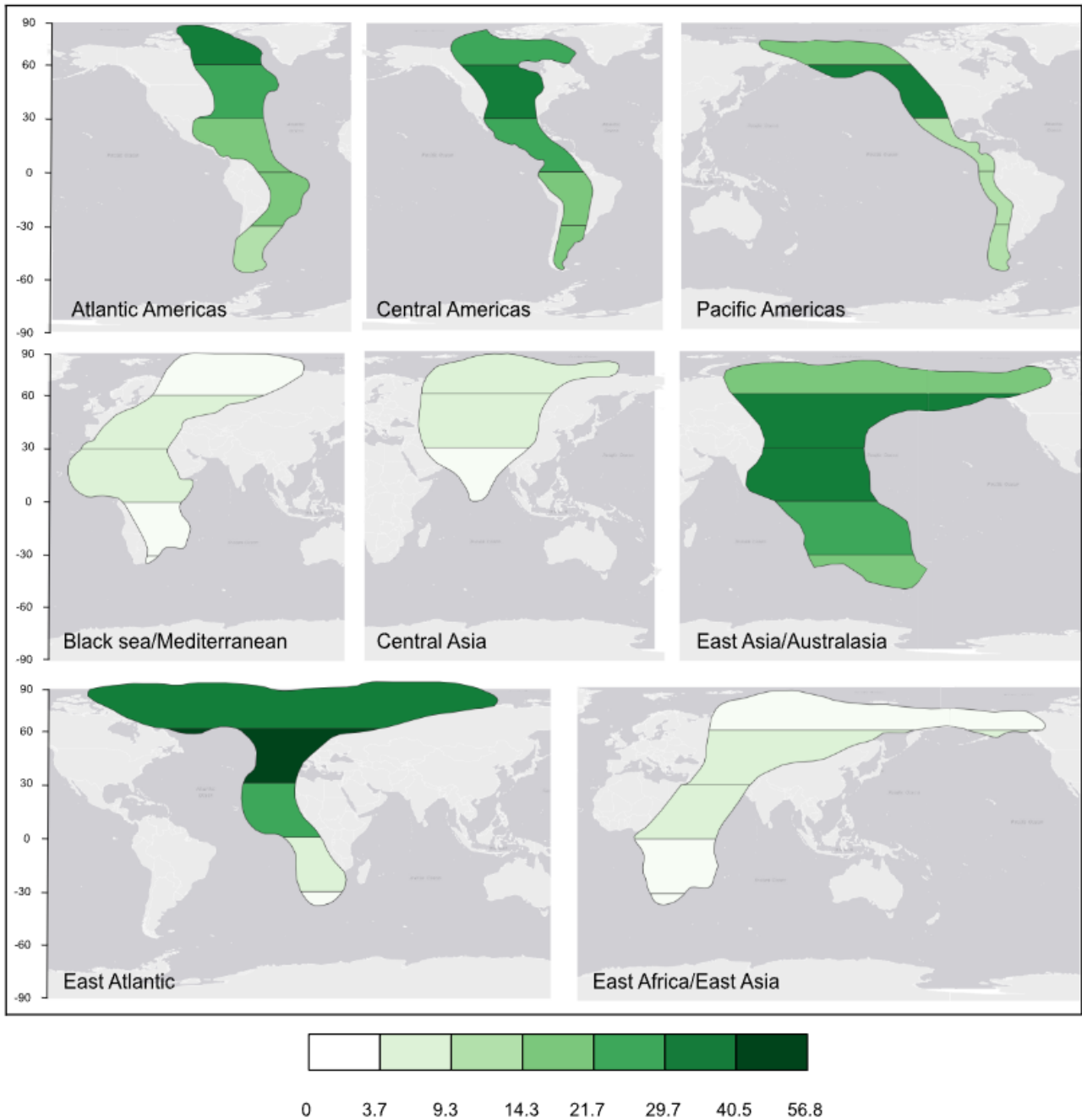


Figure 5: The percentage of species tracked in each 30° latitudinal band of each flyway (white-to-green polygons) in publications with maps showing the precise locations of tracked shorebirds (n = 149).

Table 4: Priority species for tracking studies based on IUCN assessments, including their most recently-assessed population trend and Red List category (CR=Critically Endangered; EN=Endangered; VU=Vulnerable; NT=Near Threatened; DD=Data Deficient). Body size and the number of published studies were identified in this research (see full text). We quote directly from the full IUCN account any entries under “Research Needed” or “Conservation Actions Needed” which were considered to have potential to be addressed using electronic tracking. We also report the migratory behaviour of the species (if any), according to the IUCN account. Species marked with a dagger (†) are considered possibly extinct.

Common name	Scientific name	Trend	Red List	Body size	Studies	Research needed	Conservation actions needed	Migration
Imperial Snipe	<i>Gallinago imperialis</i>	Decreasing	NT	Medium	0	<p><i>1.2 Distribution:</i> Search for the species in suitable habitat.</p> <p><i>1.3 Life history:</i> Research its biology.</p>		No
Australian Painted snipe	<i>Rostratula australis</i>	Decreasing	EN	Medium	0	<p><i>1.3 Life history:</i> Locate regularly used habitat in northern Australia and determine how and why these wetlands are used. Identify wetlands for management in drier years and drought refuges. Undertake further research to determine movements and improve knowledge of habitat preferences.</p>	<p><i>1.1 Sites:</i> Protect and manage principal breeding and wintering sites and, as a precautionary measure, identify and protect any additional habitat used by the species in the last 10 years</p>	No
Spotted Greenshank	<i>Tringa guttifer</i>	Decreasing	EN	Medium	0	<p><i>1.3 Life history:</i> Conduct research into its feeding ecology, roosting requirements and energy budgets, including at passage sites</p>		Full

Common name	Scientific name	Trend	Red List	Body size	Studies	Research needed	Conservation actions needed	Migration
Sulawesi Woodcock	<i>Scolopax celebensis</i>	Decreasing	NT	Medium	0	<p><i>1.2 Distribution:</i> Conduct surveys to estimate the size of the population and the extent of its distribution.</p> <p><i>1.5 Threats:</i> Investigate its tolerance of degraded forest and the extent of predation by feral cats.</p>		No
Diademed Plover	<i>Phegornis mitchellii</i>	Decreasing	NT	Small	0		<p><i>1.2 Habitats:</i> Effectively protect significant areas of suitable habitat at key sites, in both strictly protected areas and community led multiple use areas</p>	Altitudinal
Hooded Plover	<i>Thinornis cucullatus</i>	Decreasing	VU	Medium	2	<p><i>1.3 Life history:</i> Study demographic trends including population size, sex ratio, breeding success and growth rate, and the location of key breeding lakes and winter flocking sites (Schulz and Bamford 1987, Holdsworth and Park 1993, Weston 1993, Baird and Dann 2003, Garnett et al. (2011). Investigate breeding success in Western Australia.</p>		No

Common name	Scientific name	Trend	Red List	Body size	Studies	Research needed	Conservation actions needed	Migration
Malaysian Plover	<i>Charadrius peronii</i>	Decreasing	NT	Small	0	<i>1.2 Distribution:</i> Conduct surveys on the breeding and wintering grounds to estimate the size of the population and its specific habitat preferences.		No
White-faced Plover	<i>Charadrius dealbatus</i>	Unknown	DD	Small	0		<i>1.1 Sites:</i> Identify key sites and prevent their reclamation.	Full
Asian Dowitcher	<i>Limnodromus semipalmatus</i>	Decreasing	NT	Medium	0	<i>1.2 Distribution:</i> Conduct surveys to improve knowledge of breeding and wintering grounds.		Full
Curlew Sandpiper	<i>Calidris ferruginea</i>	Decreasing	NT	Small	1	<i>1.2 Distribution:</i> Conduct research to better understand the species's dependence on key migratory staging sites		Full
Fuegian Snipe	<i>Gallinago stricklandii</i>	Decreasing	NT	Medium	0		<i>1.1 Sites:</i> Protect areas of important habitat.	Full
Javan Woodcock	<i>Scolopax saturata</i>	Decreasing	NT	Medium	0	<i>1.2 Distribution:</i> Conduct surveys to estimate the size of the population and the extent of its distribution.		No

Common name	Scientific name	Trend	Red List	Body size	Studies	Research needed	Conservation actions needed	Migration
Slender-billed Curlew†	<i>Numenius tenuirostris</i>	Decreasing	CR	Large	0	1.3 Life history: Attach satellite transmitters to captured birds.		Full

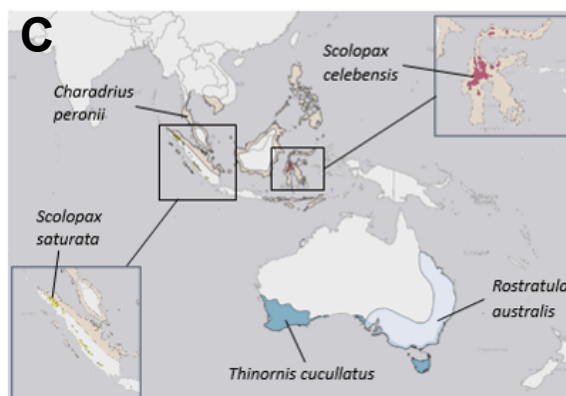
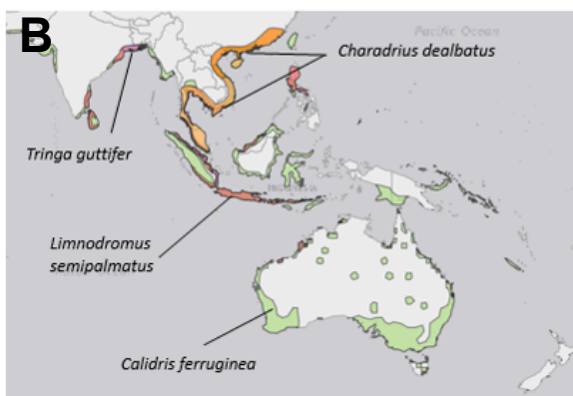
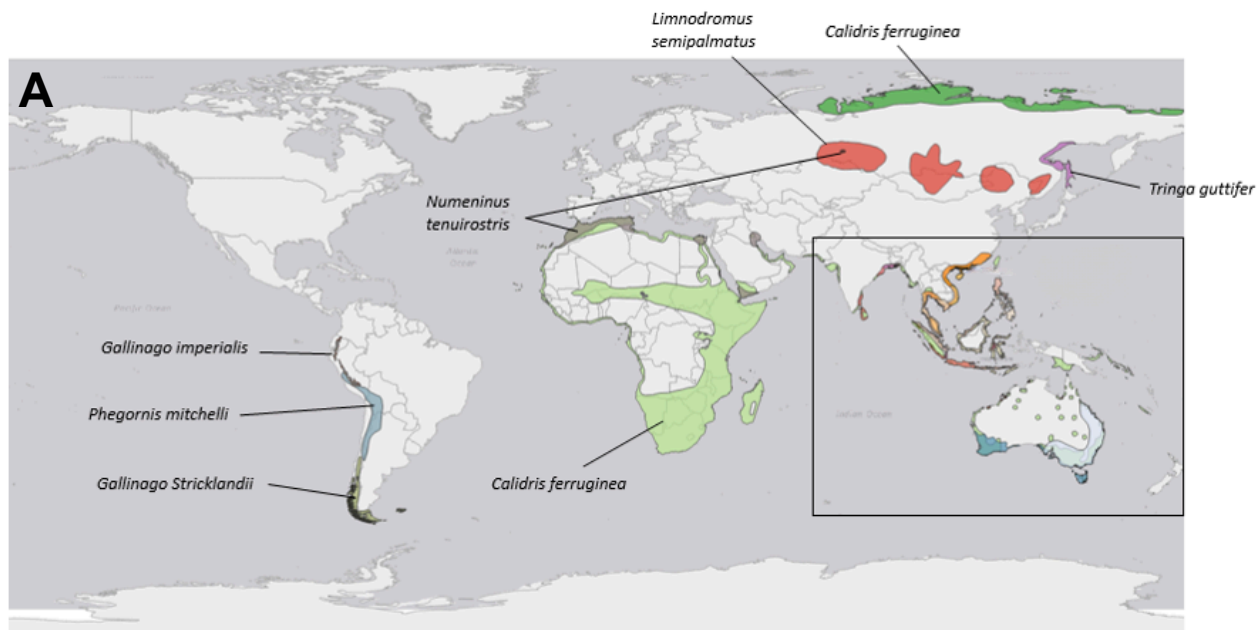


Figure 6: Distribution of the 13 priority shorebird species, showing (A) species with widespread distributions; and an inset highlighting migratory (B) and non-migratory (C) species in the South-East Asia and Australasia region.

300 **Discussion**

301 In this review, we assessed interspecific and geographical disparities in publications focused on
302 shorebird tracking, and analysed how data collection and archiving changed over time. We found
303 that both tracking and archiving have increased considerably since the 1990s and 2010s, respect-
304 ively, though less than a third of publications reported having archived data. A few species domin-
305 ate the shorebird tracking literature, particularly those that migrate, with the majority of shorebird
306 species (>60%) having never appeared in any tracking publication until the end of our study period
307 (July 2023). We also detected a clear, global pattern for more publications from birds tagged in the
308 northern hemisphere (especially North America and Europe), and more data collected (i.e., loca-
309 tions) in temperate regions. It is important to highlight, however, that our literature search was lim-
310 ited to academic publications in English, making it likely that we have missed some publications
311 written entirely in other languages (Amano et al. 2021), i.e. with no English abstract, as well as in
312 grey literature.

313 Our results show a growth in the number of shorebird tracking publications over time, similar to
314 patterns found for other groups of bird (e.g. Geen et al. 2019; Iverson et al. 2023). Early tracking
315 research focused on medium and large-sized species, with studies on smaller species developing
316 later. Our results echo the more general findings that tracking of small (<100 g) and medium-sized
317 (100 - 300 g) bird species was initially limited by technological and logistical constraints (Scarpig-
318 nato et al. 2016), as excessively large transmitters may alter behaviour and/or reduce survival
319 (Bodey et al. 2018; Geen et al. 2019). The emergence of smaller devices thus enabled a wider range
320 of species to be studied (Kays et al. 2015).

321 A small number of species – mostly of the family Scolopacidae - are relatively well studied, with
322 some included in several dozen publications. The large quantity of knowledge acquired by re-
323 peatedly tracking these species, which were generally among the earliest to be studied with elec-
324 tronic tracking, has helped to develop field and analytical methods which has likely facilitated sub-
325 sequent research on these same, and other, species (e.g. Beal et al. in prep.). The combination of
326 multiple, complementary tracking data types is likely to remain important for studying migration in
327 the future (e.g. Gregory et al. 2023).

328 The vast majority of tracking publications targeted migratory species. This may reflect the inherent
329 difficulties of studying long-distance migration, leading avian migration researchers to be amongst
330 the earliest adopters of tracking technology. On the other hand, this pattern could be explained by

331 the fact that sedentary shorebirds tend to occur in the tropics, where little deployment of tags has
332 taken place.

333 We also found that tracking publications focused disproportionately on declining species: whereas
334 47% of shorebird populations in the world are in decline, 64% of the species tracked have declining
335 populations. Several publications included in this review are explicitly conservation-oriented, using
336 tracking data to deal with the challenges of conservation (e.g. Exo et al. 2016), and promoting con-
337 servation programmes and strategies (e.g. Navedo & Ruiz 2020; Huysman et al. 2022).

338

339 ***Geographical scope of shorebird tracking***

340 Our analyses identified a greater amount of shorebird tracking data from the northern hemisphere,
341 as found for ecological data more generally (Hughes et al. 2021), and a bias towards northern hemi-
342 sphere countries in the deployment of devices (Figs. 4 & 5). These results are in line with other re-
343 views, which have shown that 93% of transmitter deployments on birds <500 g took place in the
344 northern hemisphere (Iverson et al. 2023), where most bird ringing also occurs (Bairlein 2003). This
345 disparity may partly be explained by the fact that in 62% of the publications, the tracked birds were
346 tagged on the breeding grounds, which are typically located in the northern hemisphere (Kraaijeveld
347 2014), again in line with previous reviews (65%; Iverson et al. 2023). Financial inequality can also
348 help explain such geographical biases (Amano & Sutherland 2013). The high cost of tracking
349 equipment, often exceeding USD \$1000 per device (Gould et al. 2024), implies that this method is
350 inaccessible to researchers in countries and organizations with limited financial resources, which
351 are more often based in the Global South. As an exception, the East Asia/Australasia Flyway was
352 the most latitudinally equitable in publications, with at least 21% of species tracked in each latitud-
353 inal band. As a general pattern, it is clear that the Black Sea/Mediterranean, Central Asia, and East
354 Asia/East Africa flyways are understudied, both in terms of the number of publications and species
355 studied.

356 We also note that publications often present location data from regions and countries of the world
357 where no shorebirds have been fitted with electronic devices, as individuals tracked from other
358 countries use these regions during their migrations. If these data can be discovered and re-used,
359 archiving tracking data in repositories may help to offset global imbalances in the existence and
360 accessibility of data (see e.g. Trisos et al. 2021). Existing initiatives to increase data archiving are

361 generally top-down, such as open data mandates from journals or funding bodies; however, bottom-
362 up initiatives originating within tracking communities can also play a valuable role in promoting
363 cultural change amongst practitioners (Aubin et al. 2020). To this end, the International Wader
364 Study Group has recently begun an initiative – the Global Wader Tracking Data Project – to pro-
365 mote the registration and archiving of shorebird tracking data collected by academics, conservation-
366 ists and volunteers (Nightingale 2023; <https://www.globalwader.org>).

367 As well as the disparities we found between species, there is also considerable variation between
368 populations of the same species. For instance, almost all publications we reviewed on the Black-
369 tailed Godwit refer to the nominate subspecies *Limosa limosa limosa*. The Icelandic subspecies *L. l.*
370 *islandica*, which despite occurring in the same flyway (East Atlantic) has a distinct distribution and
371 phenology, is the subject of only one publication (Nightingale et al. 2024) which was published
372 after this review was conducted. Similarly, the two subspecies occurring in the East Atlantic Fly-
373 way, *L. l. boharii* and *L. l. melanuroides* were jointly represented by a single publication (Zhu et al.
374 2021).

375

376 ***Priority species for future tracking***

377 By considering both the conservation status and state of current knowledge of shorebird species, we
378 were able to derive a relatively short list of species that could be considered priorities for electronic
379 tracking research. The priority species identified were generally species with medium or large body
380 sizes, which are likely suitable for tracking. Indeed, in most cases other species in the same genus
381 already have numerous publications, suggesting opportunities for knowledge-sharing in designing
382 pilot programs.

383 While many of the species meeting our initial inclusion criteria are endemic to islands (Appendix
384 1), few of those were reported to have research or conservation needs related to tracking, as the ma-
385 jor sites and threats are already known (in particular, introduced mammals and habitat loss; IUCN
386 2023). In these cases, conservation budgets may be more appropriately directed towards effective
387 site management (Buxton et al. 2020). By contrast, our method to refine priority species for tracking
388 mainly pinpointed species with larger ranges but lesser-known biology. Notably, most occur in the
389 Global South, especially the East Asian-Australasian flyway or inter-tropics. This reflects the gen-
390 eral geographical pattern in ecological knowledge gaps (Figures 4-5; Hughes et al. 2021). The non-

391 migratory priority species appear to be the most restricted geographically, occurring in regions/
392 countries where there is little capture and tracking of shorebirds listed in the literature, such as in
393 South-East Asia. Nevertheless, some priority species breed in hard-to-access regions such as north-
394 ern Siberia (e.g. Spotted Greenshank *Tringa guttifer*) or the Mongolian desert (e.g. Asian Dowitcher
395 *Limnodromus semipalmatus*), making them particularly difficult to study (Scarpignato et al. 2016).

396 Furthermore, species with cryptic behaviour were over-represented in our list of priority species,
397 such as snipes *Gallinago* spp., woodcocks *Scolopax* spp., and painted snipe *Rostratula* spp., reflect-
398 ing the difficulty of collecting information about such species (Rasmussen et al. 1996; Lindsey
399 2009). A need for tracking was specifically mentioned for only one species, the Slender-billed Cur-
400 lew *Numenius tenuirostris*; this is likely to be an exceptionally difficult species to track, as it is con-
401 sidered possibly extinct, with the last confirmed sighting in 1995 (Buchanan et al. 2018).

402 This list of Priority Species may be regarded as conservative because we did not consider a need to
403 expand protection of sites and habitats as indicating a need for tracking. However, while it may be
404 possible to identify sites based on existing data (e.g., from counts), the effectiveness of protection
405 depends on including a comprehensive range of sites and habitats used throughout the annual cycle
406 (Choi et al. 2019) and considering movements between them (Nightingale et al. 2023; Beal et al. in
407 prep.), so it is likely that tracking data could be a useful complement to existing information in
408 many more cases – as long as its collection does not delay or divert resources from implementing
409 necessary management actions (Buxton et al. 2020).

410

411 **Conclusions**

412 Here, we reviewed the current state of shorebird tracking globally. By identifying the existing taxo-
413 nomic and ecological disparities in shorebird-tracking research, our results contribute towards the
414 development of a coherent global strategy for tracking this enigmatic group of species. We high-
415 lighted shorebird species that may especially benefit from tracking research. Shorebird tracking data
416 represents an enormous and growing resource for science and conservation, providing evidence for
417 both the conservation of these species and the ecosystems they represent. Given the increasing im-
418 pact and potential of re-using tracking data stored in online repositories to inform conservation, we
419 emphasise the need to improve both the co-ordination amongst teams of shorebird trackers to de-
420 ploy tags strategically, and an urgent need to archive tracking data and make it available to re-

421 searchers and conservationists (Nightingale 2023). Our review suggests modest yet encouraging
422 progress in the use of repositories. However, we also note that accelerating environmental destruc-
423 tion renders early tracking data – those least likely to be archived – an invaluable baseline for un-
424 derstanding the movements of individual animals, and recommend that researchers take appropriate
425 steps to safeguard them.

426

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