

# Sampling designs




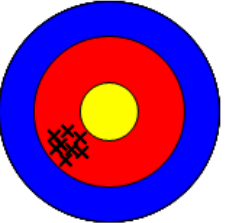

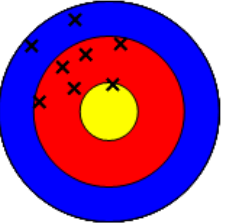
# Sampling

- Complete information is nearly always either impossible, impractical, or not advisable to obtain
- We must base our monitoring on samples of the quantities we're interested in
  - A sample = a subset of the population of interest
- We are interested in population-level parameters, so we estimate these from our samples
  - The **point estimate** is our estimate of the true value
  - The point estimate should be accompanied by a measure of sampling variation (the standard error), and an **interval estimate** (a confidence interval)



# Minimizing bias, maximizing precision

- The two ways estimates can be bad:
  - They can be inaccurate = wrong on average (a.k.a. biased)
  - They can be imprecise = low repeatability, large differences between repeated estimates (big standard error)
- Neither is good, but one is not worse than the other
- The sampling design affects both

	Accurate	Inaccurate (systematic error)
Precise		
Imprecise (reproducibility error)		

# Sampling design

- Refers to the method by which a sample is selected
- There are many, but the best ones are a type of probability sample = one in which the probability of inclusion in the sample is known for each sampling unit
  - If the probability is the same for every unit, then we are using Simple Random Sampling (SRS)
  - If the probability the same for every unit within identified groups (strata), but different between the groups, we are using Stratified Random Sampling (StRS)
- Probability samples have good properties
  - Unbiased estimates of parameters
  - Possible to know the sampling error from a single sample
- Compare these good properties to a bad alternative, convenience sampling

# Samples of convenience

- Collecting data that is easy to get
  - Not probability sampling!
  - Probability of inclusion is not known (but is presumably high for convenient locations, close to 0 for locations that are not convenient)
- May be very precise! Locations that are easy to reach may be homogeneous
- The problem is, areas that are easy to access may not be representative of an entire area → bias
  - More motorized vehicle traffic
  - More horses
  - More hikers
  - Topographically non-random
- There is no way to know from just the sample that is collected how un-representative the sample is



# Roads, trails



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# Simple random sampling

- The simplest, most commonly used probability sampling design
- Each sampling unit has an equal chance of being selected
- Unbiased estimates = the average of all possible estimates is the population parameter
- It's the assumed sampling design for our common estimators of mean, variance, and standard error
- Example: estimating the density of chamise plants in the SDR watershed



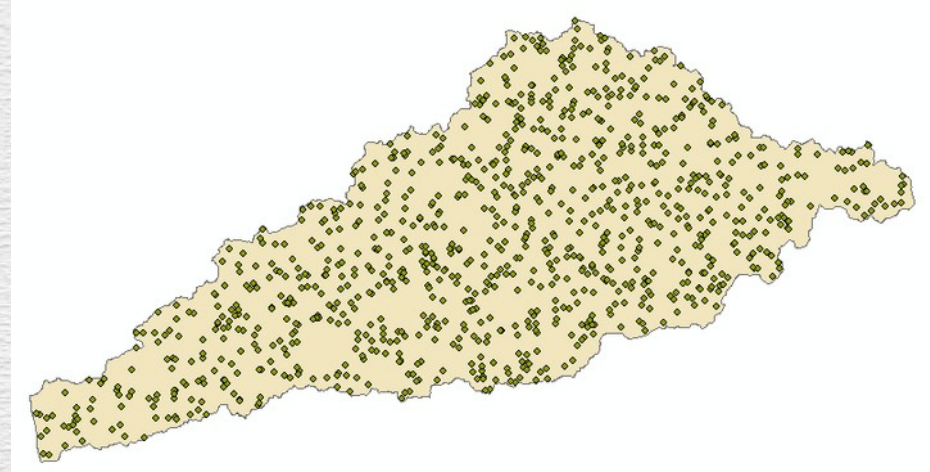
# Estimators for SRS – the old, familiar formulas!

Mean:  $\bar{x} = \frac{\sum x_i}{n}$

Variance:  $s^2 = \frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n-1}$

Standard deviation:  $s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n-1}}$

Standard error of the mean:  $s_{\bar{x}} = \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$



*This will be an estimate  
per ha for the entire  
watershed*



# Confidence intervals

- Once you have an estimate of the mean, you know it's likely to be wrong
- Given how much sampling variation you expect, what interval is likely to contain the mean?

Confidence interval:  $\bar{x} \pm t_{\alpha, \nu} s_{\bar{x}}$

- Specify the **confidence level**, i.e. 95%
- This specifies the **alpha level**, i.e. 5%, so  $\alpha = 0.05$
- Sample size for both is  $n = 100$
- Lower-case Greek nu ( $\nu$ ) is degrees of freedom
  - For SRS,  $df = n-1$
  - For StRS,  $df = n-h$

# SRS 95% CI calculation: density of Chamise per ha

$$\bar{x} = 5,000$$

$$s = 500$$

$$s_{\bar{x}} = \frac{500}{\sqrt{100}} = 50$$

$$t_{0.05,99} = 1.98$$

Confidence interval:  $\bar{x} \pm t_{\alpha, \nu} s_{\bar{x}}$

$$\text{Lower: } 5,000 - 1.98 \times 50 = 4,901$$

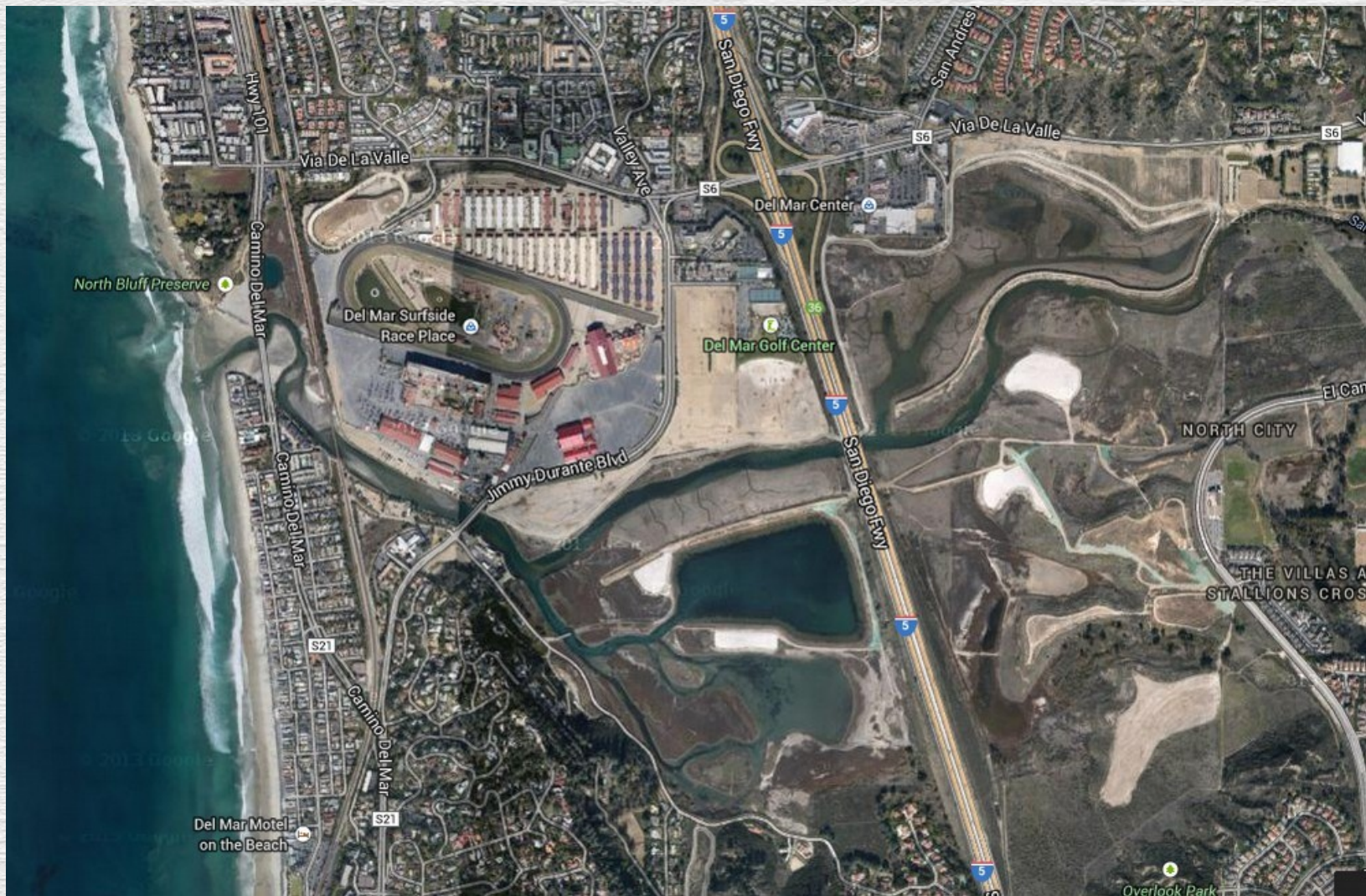
$$\text{Upper: } 5,000 + 1.98 \times 50 = 5,099$$



# Problems with SRS

- Doesn't account for strata = groupings in the data, such as cover types
  - Points fall into cover types in proportion to their areal coverage – may not be the best allocation
  - Rare strata may not receive any sampling at all by chance
  - Some strata may be more variable than others
- Will not always give you the smallest possible standard errors for the sample size used





*Is the density of chamise the same in all of these cover types?*



# Stratified random sampling

- Takes into account qualitative groupings of units
  - Categorical grouping variable defines the “strata”
  - Within strata, sampling is SRS – use the SRS estimators
- Units (plots, individuals) are measured within all strata
  - Get strata statistics (means,  $s$ ,  $se$ )
  - From these, estimate mean and  $se$  for the entire region
- Need different estimators for mean and standard error when we want an overall estimate

# Estimators for StRS

Mean:  $\bar{x} = \sum W_h \bar{x}_h$

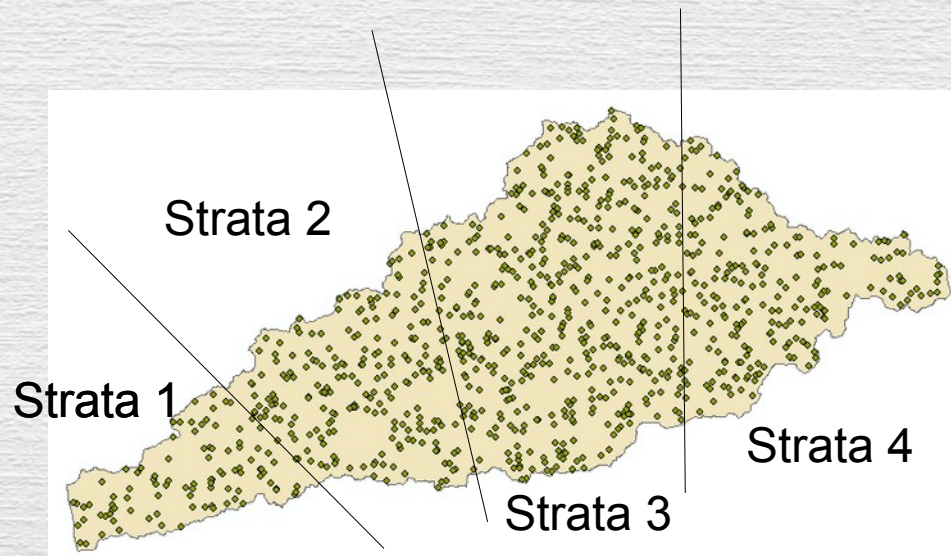
Strata weights:  $W_h = \frac{n_h}{n}$

*Weights = probability of inclusion for a unit in strata h*

*If samples are allocated proportionate to size of strata, this is the proportion of the area that is strata h*

Variance of the mean:  $s_{\bar{x}}^2 = \sum W_h^2 \frac{\sigma_h^2}{n_h}$

Standard error of the mean:  $s_{\bar{x}} = \sqrt{s_{\bar{x}}^2}$





# Calculation of mean for stratified samples

Strata	Mean	s	n	$s_{\bar{x}}$
Strata 1	4,800	100	20	22.36
Strata 2	5,000	110	30	20.08
Strata 3	5,800	105	30	19.17
Strata 4	4,000	80	20	17.88

*Within strata estimates*



Strata	Weights	$W \bar{x}$
Strata 1	0.2	960
Strata 2	0.3	1500
Strata 3	0.3	1740
Strata 4	0.2	800
Mean:		5000

*Estimate for entire watershed*



# StRS 95% CI calculation: density of Chamise per ha

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Strata 4	0.2	800
Mean:		5000

Strata	Weights	$W^2 s^2/n$
Strata 1	0.2	20.0
Strata 2	0.3	36.3
Strata 3	0.3	33.1
Strata 4	0.2	12.8
$s_{\bar{x}}^2$		102.2
$s_{\bar{x}}$		10.1



# StRS 95% CI calculation: density of Chamise per ha

$$\bar{x} = 5,000$$

$$s_{\bar{x}} = 10.1$$

$$t_{0.05,96} = 1.98$$

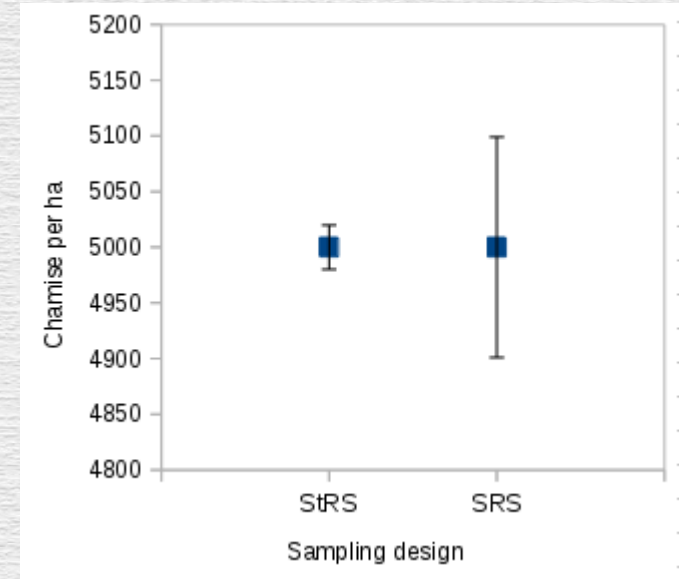
Confidence interval:  $\bar{x} \pm t_{\alpha, \nu} s_{\bar{x}}$

$$\text{Lower: } 5,000 - 1.98 \times 10.1 = 4,980$$

$$\text{Upper: } 5,000 + 1.98 \times 10.1 = 5,020$$

# 95% CI's for SRS and StRS

- The size of the CI depends on:
  - How variable the data are (s)
  - How much data is collected (n)
  - The sampling design (SRS or StRS)
- StRS is better if:
  - The amount of difference between strata means is big compared to the amount of variation within the strata
  - How big? Big enough to compensate for the lower df
- Note that you only get the benefit of StRS if you use the StRS estimators



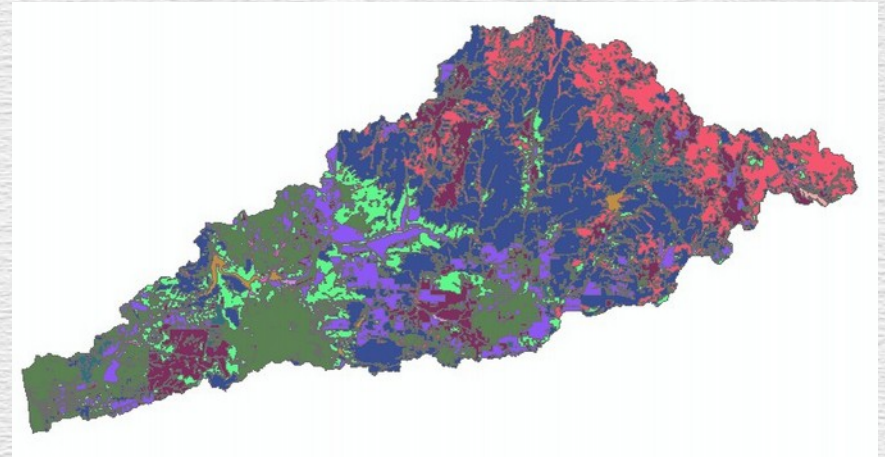


# Stratified sampling vs. ANOVA

- A stratified sampling design is very similar to an ANOVA experimental design
- But, the purposes are different
  - ANOVA = compare means between groups
  - Stratified sampling = estimate an overall mean, using strata to minimize the standard error
- This difference in purpose can lead to different advice relative to design
  - ANOVA = assumes equal variances among groups, works best with balanced designs (equal  $n$  per group)
  - Stratified sampling = does not assume equal variances, more samples should be allocated to the most variable strata to reduce the standard error of the overall estimate

# Ways to allocate samples in StRS

- Stratified sampling does not require a particular allocation of samples to strata
- Some possible approaches:
  - Equal numbers in each strata
  - Numbers proportionate to strata size
  - Numbers proportionate to strata standard deviations
- All will give unbiased estimates
- Allocating proportionate to standard deviation size will give the smallest standard errors

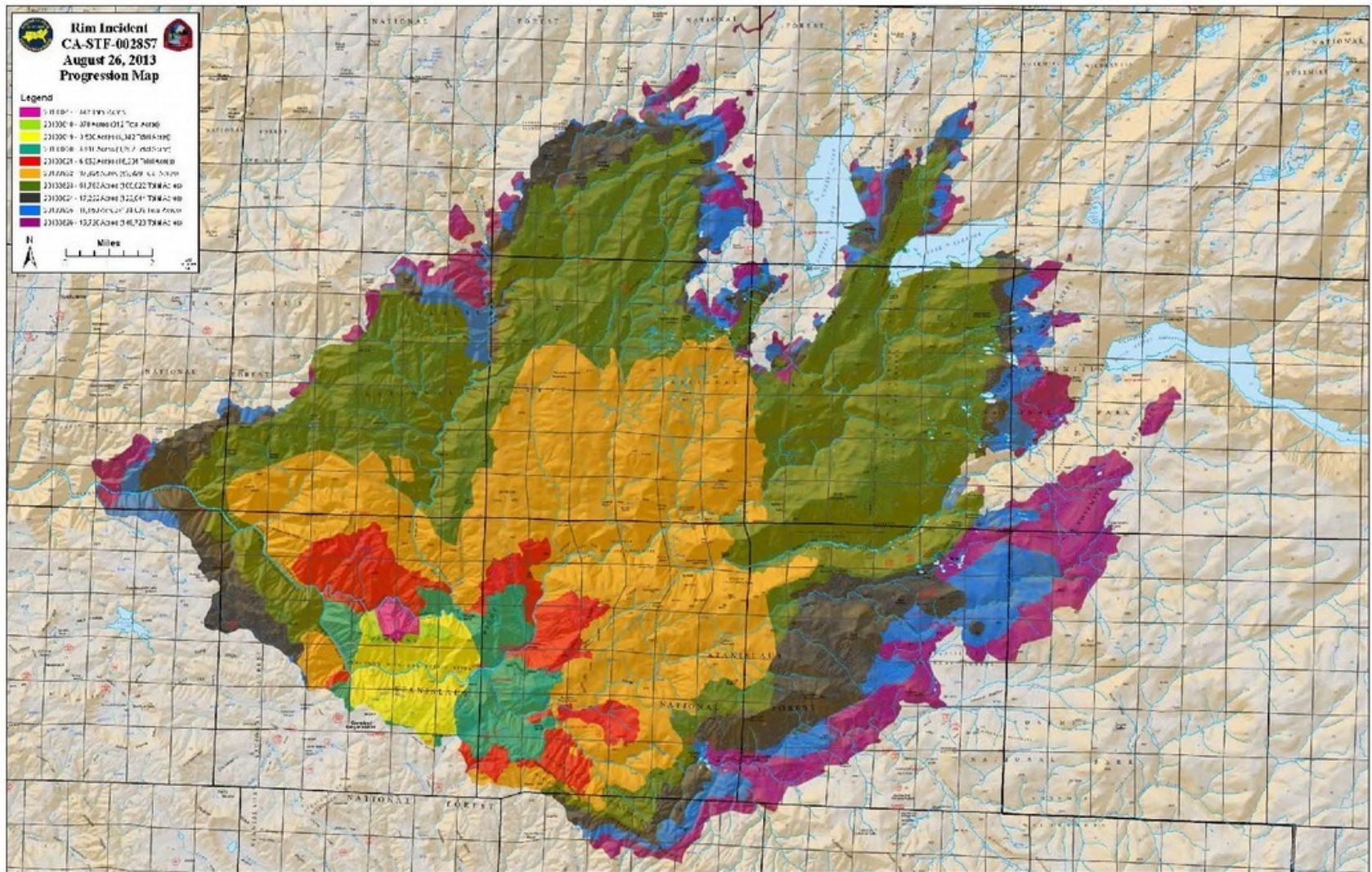




# Independence of units

- In sampling, we are often observing data as it is found – no experimental manipulation
- In a designed experiment, we assume responses are independent of one another – lack of independence is a violation of an assumption
  - Estimates of the effects of a treatment will be biased
  - Will often set a minimum distance between samples to ensure independence
  - May try to characterize spatial dependence and extract its effect from our study
- In sampling, if units are not independent that's just a feature of the population we are studying
  - Estimates of the parameter are still unbiased even if the units are dependent





## Rim fire map – spread over time



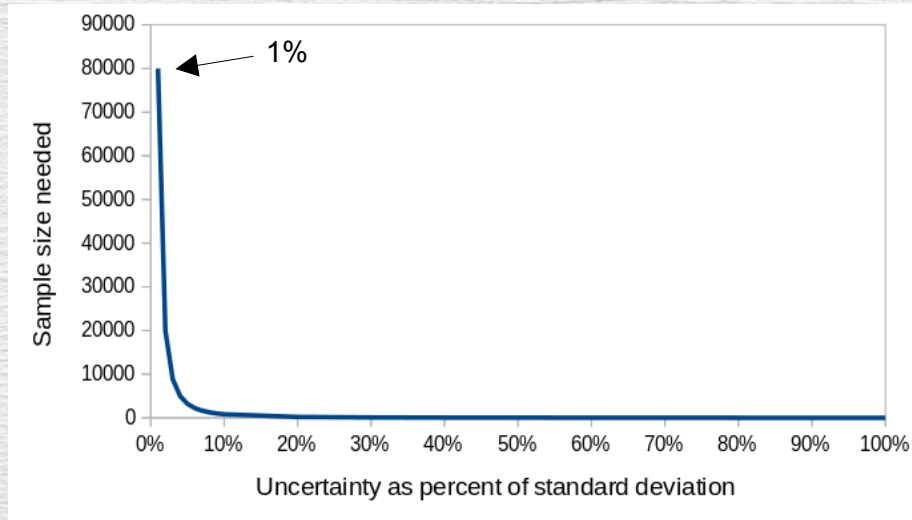
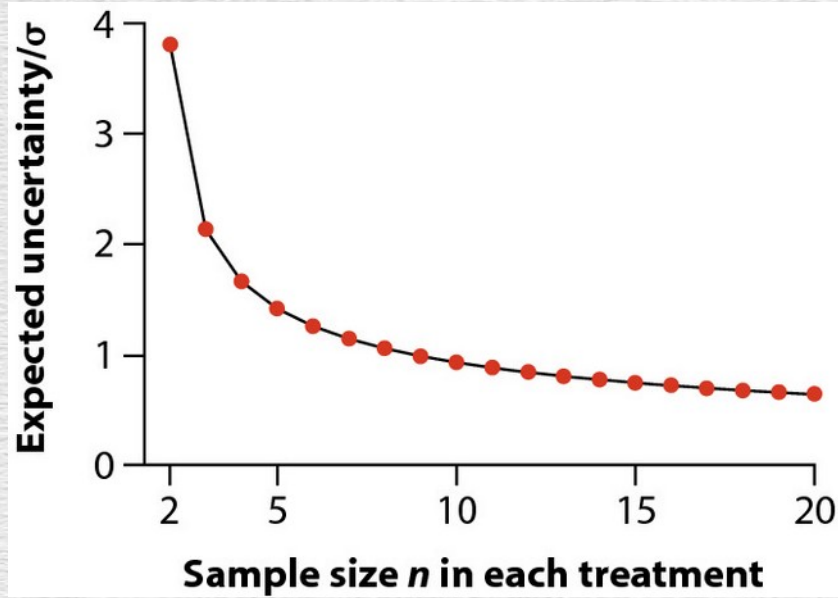
# Some additional considerations

- Sample size issues
  - How many total points should be measured?
  - How many points should you measure in each strata?
  - How many visits to each point? Is a single measurement enough, or do you need to account for season, detectability issues, etc.?
- Early detection vs. unbiased estimates
  - If you're trying to detect an invasive exotic, you are more worried about finding it early than about getting unbiased estimates of biomass
  - How does this change things?

# Picking a sample size

- We know that...
  - More data is always better
  - More data is more expensive
- Question is: at what point do you have enough data that additional samples are not worth the expense?
- Couple of approaches:
  - Sample size equations
  - Empirical methods





Picking sample size to achieve a desired level of precision

- $\text{Uncertainty}/\sigma = \text{uncertainty } (ts_{\bar{x}})$  as number of standard deviations
- Bigger samples lead to less uncertainty
- We can specify the uncertainty we want to achieve, and calculate sample size needed

# Using uncertainty to calculate a needed n

- Specify a desired uncertainty level, then plug into this equation:

$$n = 8 \left( \frac{\sigma}{\text{uncertainty}} \right)^2 = 8 \left( \frac{0.4}{0.1} \right)^2 = 128$$

- This says that to achieve an uncertainty of 0.1 when the standard deviation is 0.4 we need to collect a sample of  $n = 128$
- Values for  $\sigma$  and uncertainty can come from:
  - A small “pilot study” (preliminary data)
  - A desired ratio - “uncertainty should be no more than 25% of s” - then use  $1/0.25 = 4$



# Empirical methods

- Can do a pilot study
- Collect samples one at a time
- Update the estimate each time a new unit is sampled
- Plot the estimates against sample number
- When the estimate stops changing greatly with each new sample the sample size is adequate

# STUDY DESIGN AND ANALYSIS

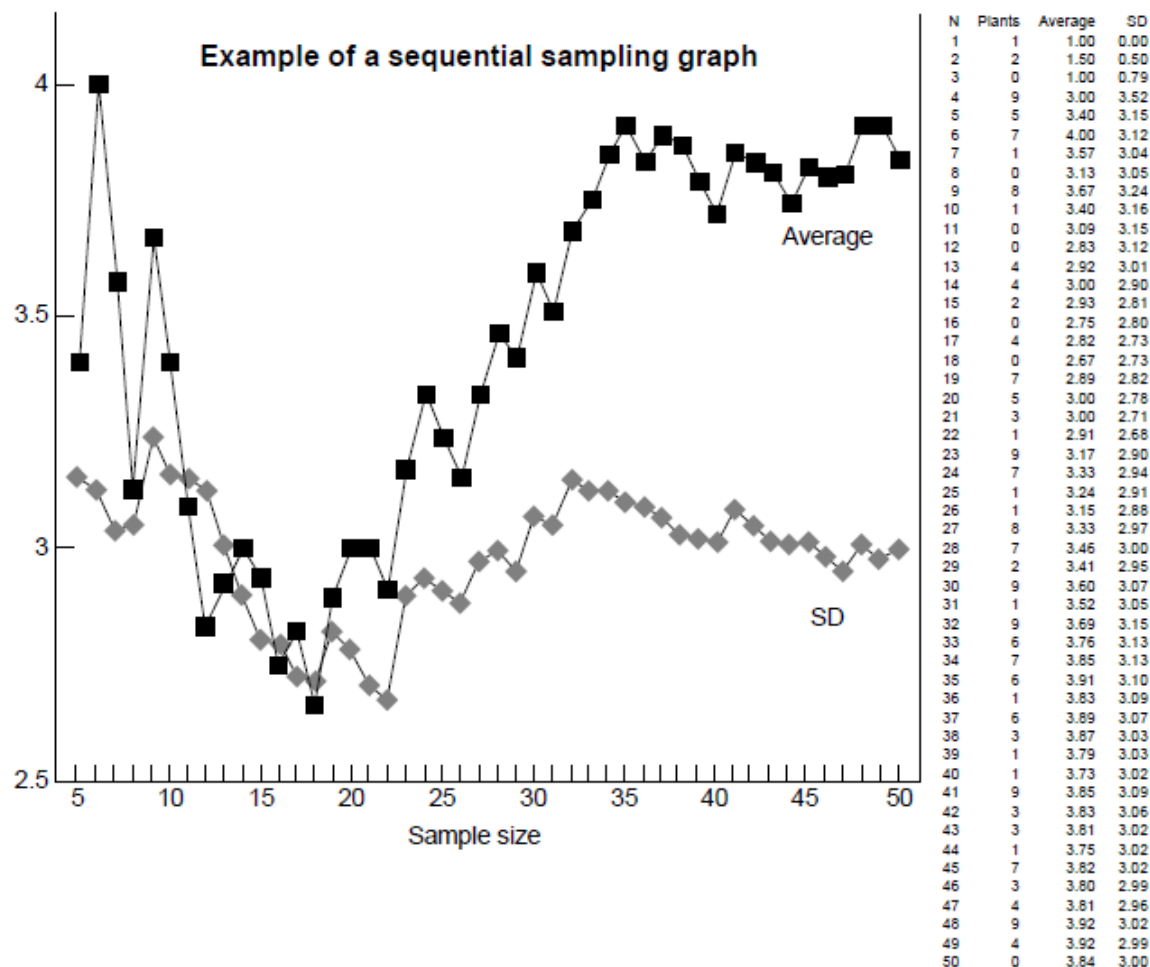


Figure 5. Example of a sequential sampling graph. The running average and standard deviation are plotted for sample sizes of  $n=5$  up to  $n=50$ . Sampling was conducted in an area of 50 m x 100 m with a quadrat size of 1 m x 5 m. Actual values are shown on the right.



# Sampling for early detection

- Sometimes we are not primarily concerned about estimates of parameters
- Example: perennial pepperweed
  - Invasive plant
  - Has been located in San Diego County, within the SDRP
  - When it's found, it's attacked and removed to avoid spread
- An unbiased estimate of the amount of cover, biomass, etc. is not needed – just need to find it as early as possible and kill it
- Sampling should be **extensive**, but less **intensive** (many sites surveyed, rapid assessment techniques at each site)





Perennial pepperweed



Caulerpa in Agua Hedionda

### Invasive Plant Early Detection & Rapid Response Training





# Rapid assessment

- This can mean sampling in the field
  - Driving roads during periods of high detectability
  - Aerial search
  - Sticky traps for arthropods
- Can mean remote sensing
- Can mean use of “citizen scientists”
  - Volunteers are cheap
  - Information is less reliable than from professionals
  - Consider this a “low resolution” method, subject to high error rates (false positives and false negatives)



# Use models to guide early detection

- Invasives don't generally show up at random
- Some sites are more likely to support them
  - Environmental, habitat information
- Some sites are more likely for them to arrive
  - Spread from existing populations outside of the park
  - Higher risk near developments, along roads, trails, waterways