When can we trust population trends? Quantifying the effects of sampling interval and duration

Hannah Wauchope[1], Alison Johnston[1, 2], Tatsuya Amano[1, 3], William Sutherland[1]
[1]Conservation Science Group, Dpt Zoology, University of Cambridge, David Attenborough Building, Cambridge, UK
[2]Cornell Lab of Ornithology, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY 14850, USA
[3]Centre for the Study of Existential Risk, University of Cambridge, 16 Mill Lane, Cambridge, UK

Abstract
Species' population trends are fundamental to conservation, underpinning IUCN red-list classifications, many national lists of threatened species and are also used globally to convey to policy makers the state of nature. Clearly, it's crucial to quantify how much we can trust population trend data. Yet many studies analyzing large numbers of population time series lack a straightforward way to estimate confidence in each trend. Here we artificially degrade 27,930 waterbird population time series to see how often subsets of the data correctly estimate the direction and magnitude of each population's true trend. We find you need to sample many years to be confident that there is no significant trend in a population. Conversely, if a significant trend is detected, even from only a small subset of years, this is likely to be representative of the population's true trend. This means that if a significant decline is detected in a population, it is likely to be correct and conservation action should be taken immediately, but if the trend is insignificant, confidence in this can only be high with many samples. Our full results provide a clear and quantitative way to assign confidence to species trends, and lays the foundation for similar studies of other taxa that can help to add rigor to large-scale population analyses.

Introduction
Many crucial conservation decisions rely on knowing the general trend of a species or population. This information underpins IUCN red-list classification (Loh *et al.*, 2005; Rodrigues *et al.*, 2006;), many national threatened species ranking systems and can convey to policy makers the state of nature globally, regionally and locally (Gärdenfors, 2001; Collen *et al.*, 2009). It is important that conservationists understand how much they can trust the apparent trend of a population, both to ensure that at-risk species are not ignored and to avoid misallocating conservation resources towards species that are not actually at risk. We have a poor understanding of how confident we can be in the trend of a population, especially when data on variability and measurement error are not available. In addition, many large-scale analyses and policy recommendations (e.g. Collen *et al.*, 2009; Living & Index, 2016) rely on aggregating trends on many populations and there is little guidance on how to weight trends by their likely veracity.

Studies estimating the trend of a population generally use a series of counts over time (typically years, as considered here). Linear or non-linear models are fit and regressed to estimate yearly change (e.g. 1% decline per year), or modelled counts are compared between two years to highlight change over a period (e.g. a 10% increase over 10 years). The number of years of data, sampled frequency, degree of measurement error and population variability all affect confidence in the derived trend. When data is available on measurement and population variability, power analyses are recommended to estimate levels of confidence in trend estimates (Hayes & Steidl, 2002; Magurran *et al.*, 2010; Johnson *et al.*, 2014). Although power analyses are worthwhile to carry out for the few occasions where sufficient data are available, there is often not sufficient data to carry them out, especially when assessing many populations, or using already gathered data.

Other studies have therefore attempted to quantify confidence in trends using simulated data. These conclude that longer time scales are needed for better trend estimates, and that there are high margins of error when detecting small declines (Wilson *et al.*, 2011; Prozt *et al.*, 2012; Connors *et al.*, 2014). Studies working with real data on diverse taxa have found that populations exhibiting a particular trend across one time interval often show an opposing trend in later years (Dunn, 2002; Keith *et al.*, 2015). The number of years of sampling required to reliably detect a trend has been estimated at both 10 (Rueda-Cediel *et al.*, 2015 - a snail; White, 2018 - various vertebrates) and 21 years (Reynolds *et al.*, 2011 - brown bears).

These studies are useful for gaining an approximate idea of confidence, but do not provide a straightforward way for a study to assign a value of confidence to a population time series. In the absence of better guidance, large scale studies based on many population trends often lack the data or guidance to make any quantification of uncertainty (e.g. Craigie *et al.*, 2010, Loh *et al.*, 2005).

Here we ask two central questions, using an empirical dataset of yearly counts of 122 waterbird species at 1104 sites in North America (a total of 27,930 site by species combinations): 1) How confident can one be in a trend derived from a certain number of years of data, based on the time over which a trend estimate is desired? (e.g. how well do 8 consecutive years of survey data represent the trend of a population over 10 years?); and 2) How confident can one be in trends derived from data sampled at different intervals, such as samples taken every year over a 30-year period compared to every 5 years over the same period? We quantify confidence both in terms of accuracy of trend direction and magnitude of change. Finally, we investigate two factors that we expect to impact confidence: species generation time and shape of the 'true' trend. We expect that species with longer generation times will require longer survey periods, as there will be a lag before populations show responses to changes in birth rate while older individuals are still living. We also expect that samples from more complex trends will be less accurate than samples from linear trends. Providing these estimates for waterbird data is particularly beneficial as data on waterbirds are available at large spatio-temporal scales and waterbird studies can provide insights into broader conservation goals (Piersma & Lindström, 2004; Amat & Green, 2010; Amano *et al.*, 2018).

All our analyses hinge on the basic concept of comparing the trend derived from a 'sample' (a subset of the full set of counts for a population) to the 'complete' trend of that population, derived from the full set of counts. Normally, one would possess only the sample, and we therefore hope to provide an estimate of confidence of how likely that sample is to represent the complete trend, regardless of sample or complete trend length. Our work provides an explicit measure of the confidence in a trend and provide an evidence-based justification for excluding samples below a certain length, according to the degree of confidence desired for a study. Finally, these results could be used to plan multi-species monitoring programs, to give the highest likelihood of capturing representative trends for the most species.

Methods:

Data

We obtained yearly count data for 208 waterbird species in North America from the Christmas Bird Count (CBC; Dunn *et al.*, 2005) at 1,125 sites spanning the years 1966 to 2013, from which 30 years of consecutive counts were taken for each site by species combination. We selected 30 years because it represented a good balance between a long-term survey period, but one for which adequate data was still available. In cases where are

site was sampled for more than 30 years, the most recent 30 years were taken. The supplementary material provides a list of species and a map of spatial coverage. The CBC has been conducted yearly since 1900, primarily in the US and Canada, and involves a count of all bird individuals within a 'site', defined as a circle 24.1km in diameter. Sites are accessed by a variety of means including foot, car, boat, and snow mobile. Effort varies between sites, but the number of survey hours spent per count is documented, allowing effort to be accounted for (see below). CBC is used to survey all bird species, and has been used to estimate trends for many waterbird species. We considered each species at each site as an independent population: as we were not attempting to estimate the trends of entire species, correlations between sites were irrelevant. This gave us an initial dataset of 48,653 populations.

Data preparation

Christmas Bird Count data is not standardized by sampling effort, meaning this must be accounted for in the modelling process. To account for effort, we must know the relationship between effort and detection. The most common expected relationship is a linear relationship between count and the log-transformed effort: the likelihood of detecting individuals decreases with increasing effort. Following Butcher & McCulloch (1988) and Xu *et al.* (2015), we chose to only retain species where a significant linear relationship between detection and log of effort (defined as number of survey hours) was shown, found by running a simple linear model of the relationship between log of effort and number of individuals counted, at all years and sites:

$$C_i = \log(e_i)$$

Where C_i is all counts of species i and e_i is the number of survey hours for each count. Any species found to have a non-significant relationship were removed from analysis, as were those that had a negative significant relationship between count and effort (i.e. as effort increased, detection decreased). We then used an offset term in our models to account for this sampling effort (see below). We also removed any populations with a sum of less than 30 observations over the 30-year sampling period, to remove populations with mostly zero counts. This resulted in our final dataset: 27,930 populations, comprising 122 species at 1104 sites.

As species varied in the extent to which they occurred at sites, we also ran our analysis on a standardized subset of the data: 98 species with 50 randomly selected sites each, 4900 populations in total. Even though this dataset was less than 20% of the size of our full dataset, the results were highly congruent.

Modelling Specifications

We used Generalized Linear Models (GLMs) to estimate the population growth rate, r, with population counts as the response variable and years as the explanatory variable, run with the R package stats (R Core Team, 2017). As Christmas Bird Count data is not standardized by effort, we accounted for this using the 'offset' parameter.

For each model, the coefficient of years, i.e. the population growth rate, r, and p-value of the coefficient were noted. For our main analysis, we followed the convention of setting a significance level of $p<0.05$. This is an arbitrary threshold, and circumstances may arise where the risk of making a missed detection is greater than the risk of a false alarm (e.g. a high risk group of species), in which case it is better to set a higher p-value (Taylor &

Gerrodette, 1993; Field *et al.*, 2007), and *vice versa*. Therefore, in the supplementary material we have provided additional results at p-values of 0.01, 0.1 and 0.2.

GLMs allow specification of a statistical distribution that describes a frequency distribution of response variables. For count data, it is usual to use Poisson, quasi-Poisson or negative binomial distributions, with the latter two being more appropriate if there is over-dispersion, with the variance of the response variable exceeding the mean. Waterbird count data is often highly over-dispersed: in our dataset 99.7% of samples were over-dispersed, with 77% of these by at least an order of magnitude. We therefore ran our models using the negative-binomial distribution as it is the most appropriate for modelling highly over-dispersed data.

All models were run in R version 3.4.1 (R Core Team, 2017) using the Cambridge Service for Data Driven Discovery High Performance Computing service (https://www.hpc.cam.ac.uk, last visited 14th Dec, 2018).

Sampling Methods

An important element of our analysis is consideration of the definition of a 'complete' or 'true' trend (we have chosen to use the word 'complete' in this study as even with yearly counts we cannot claim to know the true population trend). The 'complete' trend was initially estimated from annual surveys over the full 30-year time-period. We then consider two ways in which sampling could be conducted, and took samples from the complete data according to these.

The first sampling method was consecutive sampling (Figure 1a), and the second was sampling in intervals of years (Figure 1b). We took samples according to both sampling strategies, and considered how well sample trends represent the complete trend. We did not take any samples with less than 3 observations, as significant trend estimate is not possible with only two samples.

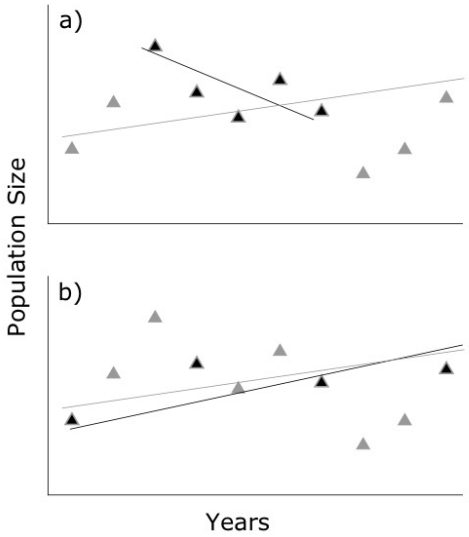

Figure 1. Schematic diagram showing sampling and modelling technique for comparing sample and complete trends. Triangles show counts for a hypothetical population, all counts are used to model the complete population trend (grey line), and only black triangles are used to model the sample population trend (black line). Shows examples of Consecutive sampling (a): a five-year chunk sampled from a ten-year period; and Interval sampling (b): four years

sampled at three-year intervals from a ten-year period. We ran analysis on all possible Consecutive lengths, Interval lengths and complete trend lengths.

Given most populations fluctuate over time in response to the positive and negative pressures affecting them, we felt it was incorrect to maintain a static length of time of 30 years from which to define the complete trend. What if one had a sample of 5 years of data, but wished to know how representative this was of the 20-year trend of a species? Reflecting this, we also conducted our analysis with differing lengths of complete years. For example, we might define the complete trend as the trend a population exhibited over a 10-year period. To do this, for each of our 27,930 populations, we took all possible 10 year segments (e.g. 1-10, 2-11, 3-12 etc), and calculated the trend on all possible consecutive subsets of those ten years, which would range from 3 to 9 years in length. We would then compare these to trends calculated from the complete 10 years. We repeated this for Complete trend lengths ranging from 4 years to the full 30 years.

For sample trends calculated using interval subsampling, we compared only to the complete trend length of 30 years. We varied the interval length (the number of years between samples) from 1 year between samples (i.e. consecutive years) to 14 years (i.e. samples taken at years 1, 15 and 29, or 2, 16 and 30 years) and took all possible numbers of samples within these iterations to fill the 30-year period, that were at least three years in length. This is best understood through an example, see Table 1.

Table 1. All iterations used for interval samples taken every 8 years (i.e. interval length = 8). For lower interval lengths, higher numbers of years sampled were possible (up to interval lengths of 1, i.e. consecutive years, which could have up to 29 years sampled)

3 years sampled	4 years sampled
1, 9, 17	1, 9, 17, 25
2, 10, 18	2, 10, 18, 26
3, 11, 19	3, 11, 19, 27
4, 12, 20	4, 12, 20, 28
5, 13, 21	5, 13, 21, 29
6, 14, 22	6, 14, 22, 30
7, 15, 23	
8, 16, 24	
9, 17, 25	
10, 18, 26	
11, 19, 27	
12, 20, 28	
13, 21, 29	
14, 22, 30	

Comparison Types

We used two ways to assess whether a sample represented a complete trend. First, we took the simple direction of the trend, defining it as positive, negative or insignificant. Using this, a sample would be classified as correct if it was the same direction as the complete trend; opposing if it was the opposite direction; a false alarm if it was positive or negative, but the complete trend was insignificant; and a missed detection if it was insignificant, but the

complete trend was positive or negative (Figure 2). We term this the 'Direction' comparison method.

Table 1. Categories used for Direction comparison method. Columns show direction of trend from complete time series and rows direction of trend from sample time series. Cells show category, based on sample and complete trend direction including whether statistically significant.

		Complete Trend		
		Positive	Negative	Insignificant
Sample Trend	Positive	Correct	Opposing	False Alarm
	Negative	Opposing	Correct	False Alarm
	Insignificant	Missed Detection	Missed Detection	Correct

Second, for cases where a significant population growth rate *r* (i.e. the slope of a log-linear model) was obtained from both the sample and complete dataset (i.e. cases of 'Correct' or 'Opposing' from the Direction comparison method), we considered the absolute difference between *r* of the two; giving an idea of the degree of 'correctness'. We defined tolerance levels ranging from ±0.01 to ±0.5, specifying that if the sample *r* differed from the complete *r* by less than the tolerance level, the sample represented the complete trend and was correct, and was incorrect if it did not. This was the 'Magnitude' comparison method (Fig. 2).

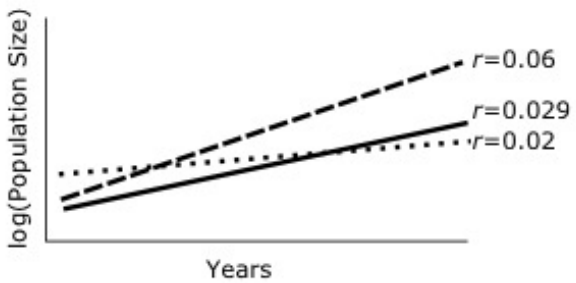

Figure 2. Example of Magnitude comparison method showing three populations with modelled log population size vs. time. If the solid line is the trend derived from the complete population, then the dotted line sample would be correct at a tolerance of ±0.01 (because |0.02-0.029|<0.01, but the dashed line would not (because |0.02-0.06|>0.01).

In all cases, we obtained a sample *r* and a complete *r* for each population, the significance level of each, and then compared them to give a category for representativeness. We then found, for each combination of sample and complete dataset lengths and sampling types, the percentage of our 27,930 populations in each representativeness category.

Generation Length

We considered generation length as a major factor that is likely to influence the duration of sampling required. To assess this, we divided our species into three groups based on generation length: short (1-5 years), medium (6-10 years) and long (11-15 years). Generation length data was obtained from birdlife.org species fact sheets (e.g.

http://datazone.birdlife.org/species/factsheet/ruddy-turnstone-arenaria-interpres/details, accessed 26.07.2018). We then categorised our results using these three groups.

Trend Shape

To assess how our results are affected by trends of different shapes, we used Generalised Additive Models (GAMs) with the R package MASS (Venables & Ripley, 2002). These non-parametric models allow for non-linear relationships, i.e. they allow for a trend that 'wiggles' through time rather than following, say, a linear or exponential curve. A key aspect of these models is the degrees of freedom, which can be viewed as a rough proxy for the 'degree of wiggliness' of a trend: a trend with a degree of freedom of one will be linear, and one with many degrees of freedom will be highly wiggly. If the user does not specify a degree of freedom, the GAM will estimate it and this can be extracted to gain an idea of curve shape. We therefore ran GAMs on all complete 30 year trends, and took the estimated degrees of freedom (EDF) for each. EDFs ranged from 1 to 8.57, so we divided our trends into four shape groups, linear or quadratic (EDF = 1 - 2.99), cubic or low degree polynomial (EDF = 3 - 4.99), mid degree polynomial (EDF = 5 – 6.99) and high degree polynomial (EDF = 7 - 8.99). We then organized our standard analysis (using GLMs) according to these four categories, to see whether samples were more of less representative when sampled from complete trends of different shapes.

Results

See supplementary material for summary statistics of the full dataset.

Direction Comparison of Consecutive Sampling

We found that large samples were required to be highly confident that the direction of a sample matched that of a complete trend. E.g. to have an 80-100% chance of a sample trend being correct based on trend direction required, the sample needed to be just a few years fewer than the complete trend (Fig. 4a). However, sample trends opposed the complete sample trend less than 10% of the time. (Fig 4b).

The chance of a false alarm or missed detection (Fig 4c, d) was low regardless of the length of the sample or complete trend, however there were missed detections, particularly when the sample trend length was considerably shorter than the complete trend length (Fig 4d). This suggests that shorter samples have lower power to detect complete trends.

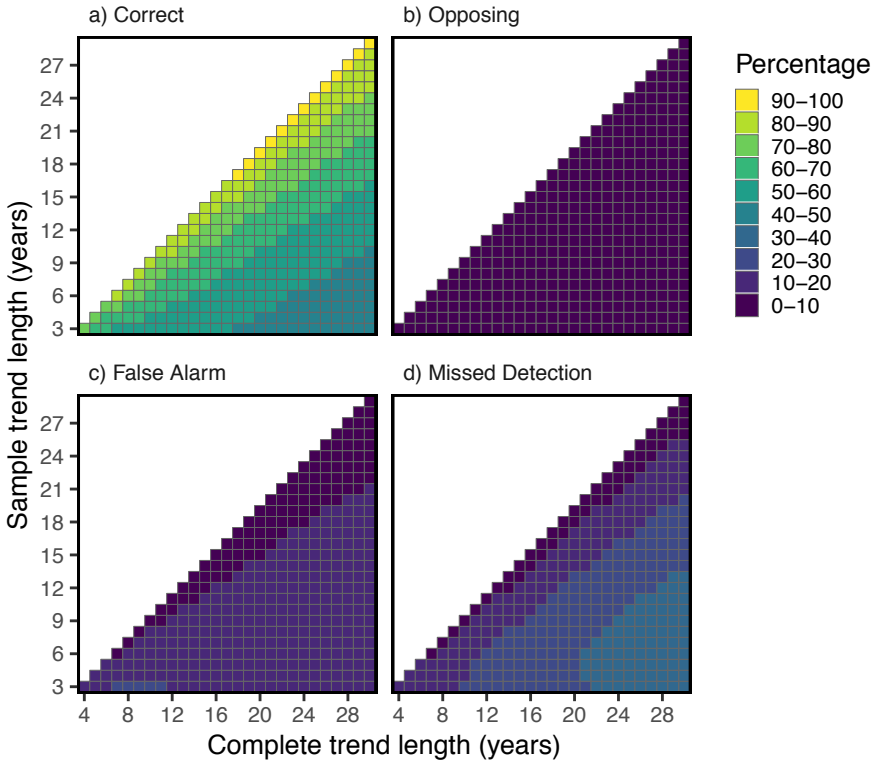

Figure 3. Direction comparison of sample population trends using consecutive sampling. Heat shows percentage of sample trends that, relative to the complete trend, were correct, opposing, a false alarm or a missed detection (see Table 1). Shown for all combinations of sample trend lengths, taken consecutively (y-axis), and complete trend lengths (x-axis).

Direction Comparison of Interval Sampling

Our results show that sampling in intervals can be more representative than sampling in consecutive years when considering trend direction. For example, sampling for 26 consecutive years (out of a 30-year complete trend) gave the correct result 80% of the time (Fig. 5a, bottom row, note, this is equal to Fig. 4a rightmost column), the same level of confidence could be obtained by sampling 13 times every two years (Fig. 5a, second row). More strikingly, 3 years sampled every 11 to 14 years (Fig. 5a, first column) gave the same percentage correct (60%) as up to 17 years of consecutive sampling (Fig. 5a, bottom row).

As with consecutive sampling, the percentage opposing for interval sampling was very low (Fig. 5b), the chance of making a false alarm remained at 10-20% for almost all sampling combinations (Fig. 5c) and though missed detections were slightly more likely, the chance never exceeded 40% (Fig. 5d).

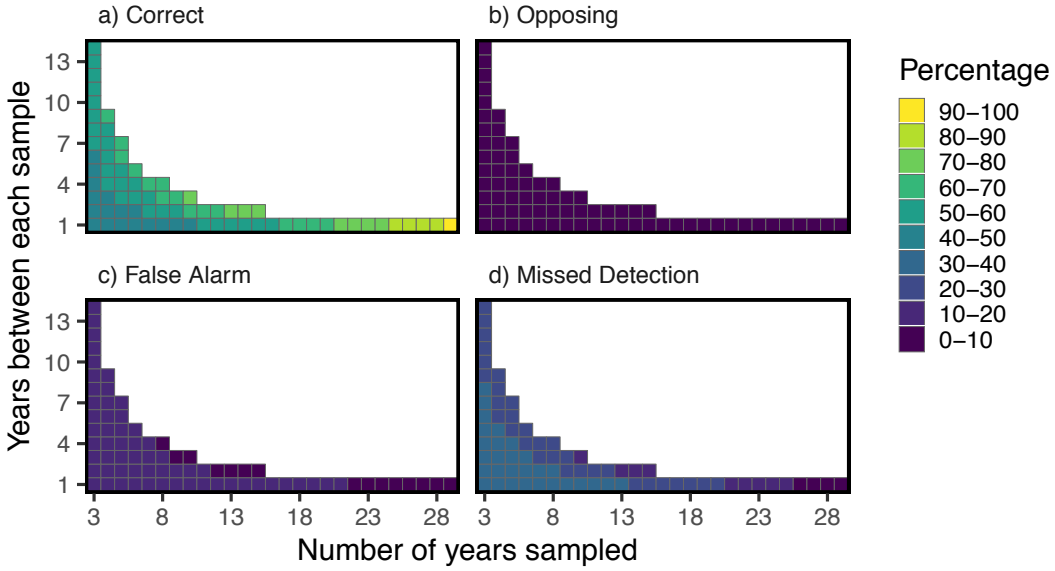

Figure 4. Trend Direction Comparison of population trends using the Consecutive sampling technique showing percentage of sample trends that, relative to the complete trend, were correct, opposing, a false alarm or a missed detection (see Figure 2). Shown for all combinations of interval sampling, with number of years sampled (x-axis) and years between samples (y-axis). Thus 8 on the x-axis and 4 on the y-axis would mean 8 samples were taken, one every 4 years. The bottom row of each plot is equal to the right most column of the equivalent Figure 4 plot, but is included here to ease comparison. Complete trend length is always 30 years.

Magnitude Comparison of Consecutive Sampling

It is substantially more difficult to obtain a reasonably accurate growth rate estimate (r) of a complete trend. For ease of interpretation these results are displayed at four complete trend lengths: 5, 10, 20 and 30 years. We find that the longer a complete trend is, the lower the proportion of it that needs to be sampled to be within a particular tolerance. For example, at a tolerance of ±0.05 (i.e. 5% population change per year) and complete trend length of 10 years, samples were never correct more than ~60% of the time, even if they were 9 years in length. However, at the same tolerance level, but at a complete trend length of 20 years, samples were correct 60% or more of the time with samples of 15 years or more. And with 30 year complete trends, sample trends were correct 60% or more of the time when only around 18 years in length.

At a high tolerance, $r = \pm 0.5$, almost 100% of samples are within the tolerance when approximately 20 or more of 30 years were sampled (Fig. 6d) and 14 or more of 20 years were sampled (Fig. 6c). This asymptote at 100% appears to be reached at later and later points as the tolerance is reduced.

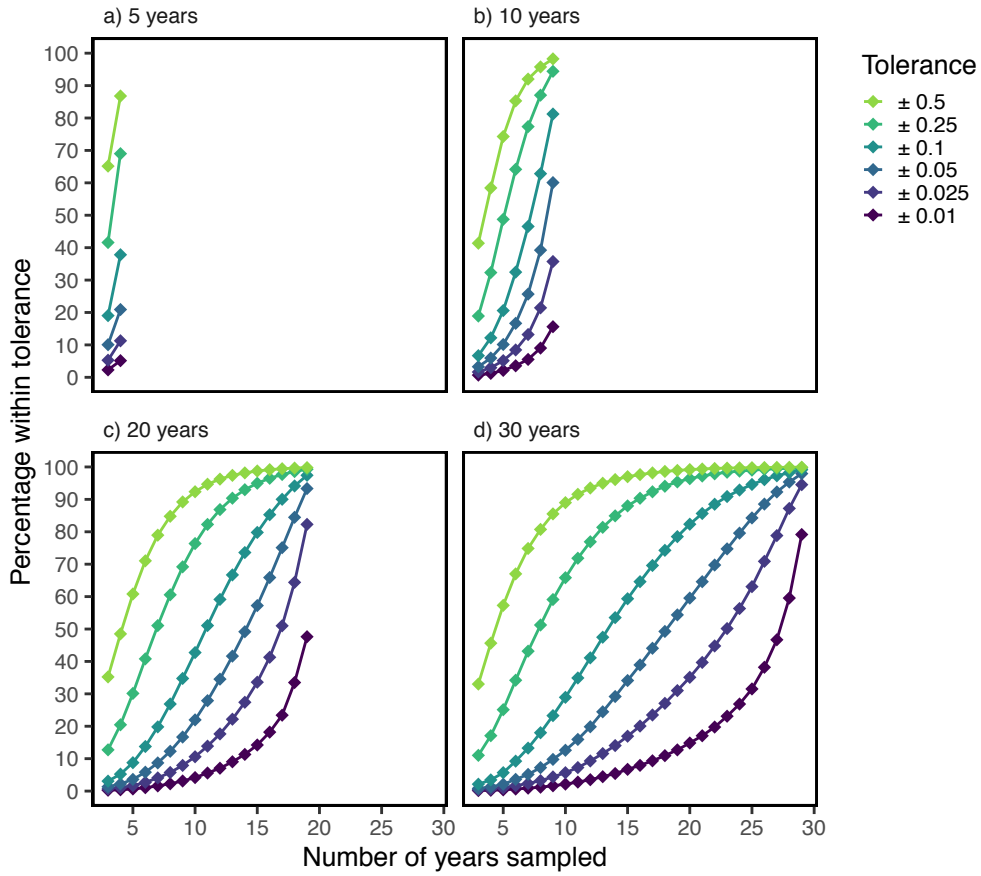

Figure 5. Percentage of sampled trends that correctly match the complete trend, measured by whether the sample *r* matches the complete *r* within the threshold (colours); samples taken according to the consecutive sampling method. Shown for four complete trend lengths, 5, 10, 20, and 30 years, and for all sample lengths (x-axis).

Magnitude Comparison of Interval Sampling

When sampling in intervals, it was not possible to achieve above even 65% of correct samples at low thresholds ($r = \pm 0.01$ - 0.025), i.e. population changes of 1-2.5% per year (Fig 7). Although when simply comparing trend direction, sampling at intervals gave better results, when comparing the actual *r*, interval sampling did not perform as well over the time scales we measured. The direction of curves indicates that high correct percentages could be attained with enough years of sampling at large intervals, but this would mean sampling over very long time scales. Though high accuracy could be obtained at very broad thresholds ($r = \pm 0.5$ - ± 0.25), these thresholds are likely too broad to be meaningful in any ecological context.

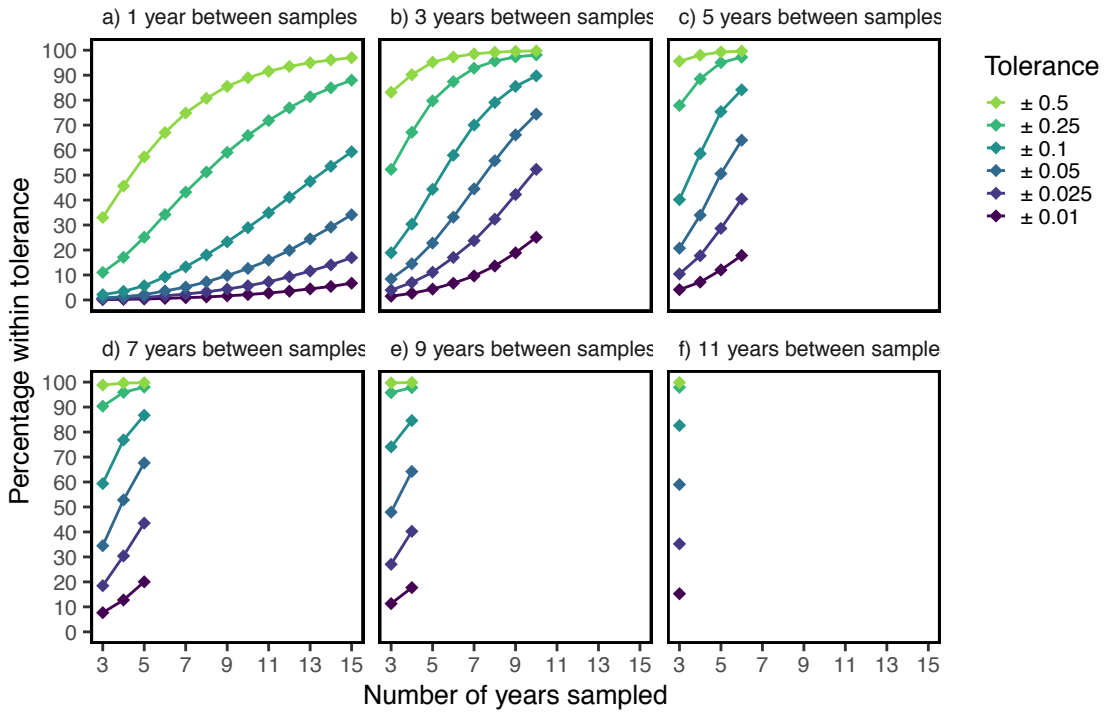

Figure 6. Percentage of samples (y-axis) that correctly match the complete trend, measured by whether the sample *r* matches the complete *r* within the threshold (colours); samples taken according to the Interval sampling method. Shown for four stages of interval sampling: samples taken either every 2, 3, 4 or 5 years; and for all possible number of years sampled (x-axis). Complete trend length is always 30 years.

Generation Length and Trend Shape

We found that, for populations with long generation lengths, short samples of long time series are less likely to be correct and missed detections are more likely (Fig. 8, Supplementary Figure 2). False alarms and opposing trends were roughly equal among populations of different generation lengths (Fig. 8, Supplementary Figure 2). However, populations of different generation lengths performed similarly when comparing the magnitude of difference between sample and complete trends.

For populations showing different trend shapes, false alarms were more likely with small samples of complete trends of high EDFs, but the percentage of samples that were correct remained reasonably constant across EDFs (Supplementary Figure 3, 4). However, populations of trend shapes performed similarly when comparing the magnitude of difference between sample and complete trends.

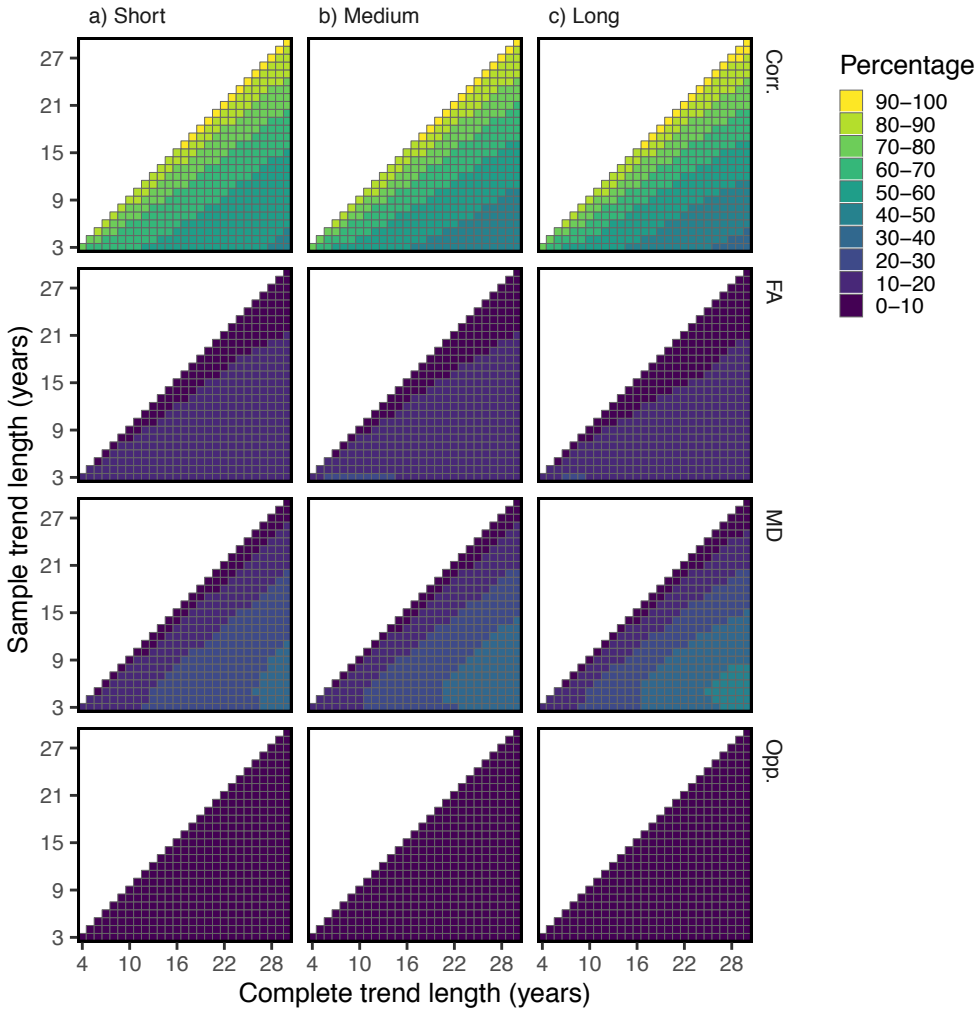

Figure 7. Percentage of samples (y-axis) that correctly match the complete trend (shown for three trend lengths, columns), measured by whether the sample *r* matches the complete *r* within the threshold (shown for three thresholds, rows). Divided by populations whose species are classified into three generation lengths: short (1-5 years), medium (6-10 years) and long (11-15 years).

Discussion

These results show that if a significant trend is obtained from a population time series, even when the data is from a few years, it is likely to reflect the true trend direction of the population, though not necessarily the magnitude. Further, few samples at widely spaced intervals can produce similar levels of confidence in trend direction compared to double the number of samples taken in consecutive years. Although these results are derived from an entirely empirical dataset with no simulations, they show a surprising amount of convergence (e.g. Fig 6.), indicating that our sample sizes are large enough to give a reliable estimate of likelihood for each category. Our results were robust to standardization of the number of populations per species, sub-setting of species into three separate groups based on generation length (see also White, 2018) and sub-setting of populations into different trend shapes.

To be confident that an insignificant trend is an accurate reflection of a population over the time-period from which an estimate is desired, a sample needs to be almost the same length as the full time period; samples below this point risk missing the true trend of the species. But

we also find that, if a significant trend is detected in the sample it is highly likely to be the same direction as the true trend. Therefore, these results indicate that to be confident in a *lack* of trend, i.e. an insignificant result, one must obtain a very high number of samples. However, if a *significant* trend is detected, it is likely to be representative of the complete trend. Keith *et al.* (2015) studying birds similarly found that past population trajectory was a good predictor of future population trajectory. Møller *et al.* (2008) and Sanderson *et al.* (2006) also found a similar, though weak, correlation between trends of migratory birds between 1970-1990 and 1990-2000. However, Keith *et al.* (2015) found that past trajectories were not a good predictor of future trajectories in mammals, salmon and other fish, meaning our analyses should be extended to other taxa with caution.

Sampling in intervals provided better, and surprisingly accurate, results than sampling in consecutive years. We found that, when sampling a fixed number of times, accuracy increased with the distance between each sample. Presumably a limit exists at some point, but according to these results it is greater than 13 years. This is surprising given the high amounts of variability in waterbird data, we would expect that sampling at such wide intervals would not be able to produce such accurate results. Other studies have found similar results (Urquhart *et al.*, 1998; Starcevich *et al.*, 2018), for example Reynolds *et al.* (2011) found that surveying brown bears every 10 years gave similar model performance to surveying in 3 out of every 5 years. Sampling at such wide intervals is not always practical however, especially for high risk species where declines may need to be detected and acted on quickly. In addition, whilst interval sampling could be good for cheaply obtaining trend estimates, it is not a replacement for long term monitoring that takes yearly samples, which can provide data for analyses considering drivers of population change.

What of cases where analyses or management decisions depend not only on the direction of a population trajectory, but the actual rate of change? We find that samples are much less likely to be representative of complete trends when considering this. To be 80% correct at a rate of population change of 1-2.5% per year, one must sample for at least 19 years. These results are roughly in agreement with other studies on diverse taxa that find samples should be between 10 (Rueda-Cediel *et al.*, 2015; White, 2018) and 21 years (Reynolds *et al.*, 2011). Sampling in intervals also struggled to produce accurate results, 80% confidence was never achieved if samples had to be correct at anything less than a rate of change of 10% per year (i.e. drastic population change).

This study can be used as a means of assigning confidence to large scale analyses that use many population time-series, either by removing all populations below a certain confidence threshold, or by weighting analysis by confidence in each trend. The analysis should define a 'complete' trend length for the study (in most cases this would be the length of the longest time series possessed in the dataset), and extract the confidence estimates for this complete trend length from our provided data (supplementary material). If the analysis intends to use all data available, confidence estimates can then be assigned to each time series based on how long each is, and any analyses can then be weighted according to confidence in each time series. Or, a confidence threshold can be set, and any time series shorter that this can be removed, and analyses can proceed using this 'high quality' dataset. We readily agree that such confidence levels are not infallible: we have not taken a universal survey of all species always, and therefore can never know exactly how representative any trend derived from a time-period can be. However, this seems is a significant improvement on making an arbitrary cutoff point to clean datasets, or on having no way of weighting populations. For those

working with large datasets who cannot conduct power analysis or quantify measurement error in their populations, this is a way to assign at least some level of confidence to results.

These results could also be used to help plan future monitoring schemes, but we would advise that it is used with caution. Monitoring is always best when tailored to the species in question (Ficetola *et al.*, 2017), should be adaptive and adjusted according to desired management outcomes (Hauser *et al.*, 2006; Legg & Nagy, 2006; Nichols & Williams, 2006; Lindenmayer & Likens, 2009; McDonald-Madden *et al.*, 2010), and avoid being based on the ability to detect trends where possible (Seavy & Reynolds, 2007). However, the fact remains that many programs are carried out with the goal of detecting trends (Marsh & Trenham, 2008) and for these we can provide some very general guidance, namely that monitoring for many years is essential to accurately capturing population trends, and that resources can be conserved and possibly allocated to more locations if sampling is conducted in intervals rather than every year.

This analysis was deliberately simple by restricting it to single location time series, and by restricting sampling to a minimum of once every year. Increasing the number of samples in each time period can improve confidence and accuracy in derived trends (Atkinson *et al.*, 2006) and it is likely that percentage confidence in derived trends would increase if this was considered. Detecting trends in species, not populations, generally means combining analyses from a number of survey locations (Rhodes & Jonzén, 2011), which would also influence results, however this introduced too many variables to consider for our analysis. Some studies have found that sampling at more locations improved trend detection better than longer time series (Sims *et al.*, 2006, though see Schumann *et al.*, 2013) and so modelling trends from multiple locations is likely to influence our confidence estimates.

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