

1 **Optimal sampling design for spatial** 2 **capture-recapture**

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10 **Abstract**

11 Spatial capture-recapture (SCR) has emerged as the industry standard for estimating
12 population density by leveraging information from spatial locations of repeat
13 encounters of individuals. The precision of density estimates depends fundamentally on
14 the number and spatial configuration of traps. Despite this knowledge, existing
15 sampling design recommendations are heuristic and their performance remains untested
16 for most practical applications. To address this issue, we propose a genetic algorithm
17 that minimizes any sensible, criteria-based objective function to produce near-optimal
18 sampling designs. To motivate the idea of optimality, we compare the performance of
19 designs optimized using three model-based criteria related to the probability of capture.
20 We use simulation to show that these designs out-perform those based on existing
21 recommendations in terms of bias, precision, and accuracy in the estimation of
22 population size. Our approach allows conservation practitioners and researchers to
23 generate customized and improved sampling designs for wildlife monitoring.

24 **Keywords**— SCR, spatial capture-recapture, spatially-explicit capture-recapture, camera
25 traps, density, optimal design, sampling design, spatial sampling, trap spacing, genetic
26 algorithm

27 **Introduction**

28 The need for conservation managers and practitioners to obtain reliable estimates of
29 population size (Williams et al., 2002) has driven the rapid development of data collection
30 and estimation methods. Capture-recapture (CR), and more recently, spatial
31 capture-recapture (SCR; Efford, 2004; Borchers and Efford, 2008) methods were developed
32 specifically for this purpose and are now routinely applied in ecological research.
33 Concurrently, SCR methods estimate detection, space use, and density by analyzing
34 individual encounter histories while explicitly incorporating auxiliary information from the

35 spatial organization of encounters (Efford, 2004; Royle et al., 2014). Despite widespread
36 adoption and rapid method development, recommendations about spatial sampling design
37 have received relatively little attention and are arguably heuristic.

38 The effects of sampling design have been investigated for both CR (Dillon and Kelly
39 2007; Bondrup-Nielsen 1983) and SCR methods (discussed below). While CR methods aim to
40 balance the number of captures and the number of recaptures, SCR requires a third
41 consideration, the spatial pattern of individual encounter histories. The ability to reliably
42 estimate density is directly related to these considerations: the number of captured
43 individuals n is the sample size; the number of recaptures is directly related to the baseline
44 detection probability, g_0 ; and the number and spatial distribution of recaptures are directly
45 related to the spatial scale parameter, σ . Therefore, improving sampling design has great
46 potential to increase the quality of the data and the precision of parameter estimates.

47 Several simulation studies evaluating SCR designs have shown that inference is robust
48 to the spatial configuration of traps, as long as some minimum requirements are met: the
49 trap spacing must not be too large relative to individual space use in order to reliably
50 estimate σ , but the array must not be too small such that too few individuals are exposed to
51 capture (Sollmann et al., 2012; Sun et al., 2014; Wilton et al., 2014; Efford and Boulanger,
52 2019; Tobler and Powell, 2013). Repeated illustrations of this trade-off have lead to
53 recommendations that trap spacing should be approximately two times σ , which maximizes
54 accuracy and minimizes bias of abundance estimates (Sollmann et al., 2012; Efford and
55 Fewster, 2013; Efford and Boulanger, 2019). While most of this research has focused on
56 uniform grids, simulation has also shown that clustered designs can outperform uniform
57 designs (Efford and Fewster, 2013; Sun et al., 2014), particularly for heterogeneously
58 distributed populations (Efford and Fewster, 2013; Wilton et al., 2014). In summary, the idea
59 of optimal sampling design for SCR remains poorly understood beyond these few, basic
60 recommendations. In particular, it is unclear whether existing design heuristics generally hold
61 for spatially-varying density patterns, or in highly-structured landscapes where recommended

62 regular trapping arrays can not be accommodated, and guidance of generating clustered
63 designs is lacking.

64 Generally speaking, sampling design for SCR can be conceived as a problem of selecting
65 a subset of all possible trap locations that maximizes some SCR-relevant objective function.
66 Here we develop an analytical framework that directly addresses this challenge. Our approach
67 generates a near-optimal sampling design with respect to some appropriately defined
68 objective function and information about available resources (traps), a set of all possible trap
69 locations, and information about SCR model parameters. To motivate the idea of optimality,
70 we use simulation to compare the performance of existing recommendation to designs
71 optimized using three model-based criteria related to current thinking about the relationship
72 between data quality and estimator bias and precision. We explore design performances for
73 scenarios where we vary the spatial coverage of traps, the landscape geometry, and deviations
74 from uniform spatial distribution of individuals.

75 **Methods**

76 **The standard SCR model**

77 Typically, SCR models have two model components: a spatial model of abundance
78 describing the distribution of individuals characterized by the center of their home range
79 (hereby referred to as an activity center), and a spatial model of detection that relates
80 encounter rates to the distance between the activity center and a trap (e.g., a camera trap).
81 The most basic form assumes a uniform prior for the distribution of activity centers, s_i :

$$s_i \sim \text{Uniform}(\mathcal{S}),$$

82 where \mathcal{S} , referred to as the state-space, describes all possible locations of activity centers. To
83 facilitate analysis, \mathcal{S} is represented as a uniform grid of points representing the centroids of
84 equal-sized pixels. All individuals within the region, N , are exposed to capture resulting in
85 the observation of n individuals and hence $n_0 = N - n$ unobserved individuals.

86 While several formulations of the encounter model exist, we use, without loss of
87 generality, a half-normal encounter model that describes encounter probability as a decreasing
88 function of distance from an individual's activity center s_i :

$$p_{ijk} = g_0 \times \exp(-d(s_i, x_j)^2 / (2\sigma^2)), \quad (1)$$

89 where p_{ijk} is the probability of detection of individual i with activity center s_i at trap j
90 during sampling occasion k ; $d(s_i, x_j)$ is the distance between the activity center s_i and the
91 trap x_j , and g_0 and σ are the baseline encounter probability and spatial scale parameters,
92 respectively.

93 Model-based objective functions

94 From Equation 1, we can use values of g_0 and σ (e.g., from the literature or estimates
95 from a pilot study), to compute the probability that an individual with an activity center s_i
96 is detected in *any* trap in an array \mathcal{X} , which we denote as \bar{p} :

$$\bar{p}(s_i, \mathcal{X}) = 1 - \prod_{j=1}^J \{1 - p(s_i, x_j)\}.$$

97 The corresponding marginal probability of not being encountered is thus: $\bar{p}_0(s_i, \mathcal{X}) = 1 -$
98 $\bar{p}(s_i, \mathcal{X})$. Taking the average over all G activity center locations in the landscape \mathcal{S} , we can
99 compute the marginal probability of encounter:

$$\bar{p}(\mathcal{X}) = \frac{1}{G} \sum_s \bar{p}(s_i, \mathcal{X}).$$

100 We can also compute the probability of being captured in exactly one trap:

$$\bar{p}_1(s_i, \mathcal{X}) = \bar{p}_0(s_i, \mathcal{X}) \sum_{j=1}^J \frac{p(s_i, x_j)}{1 - p(s_i, x_j)}.$$

101 Finally, the marginal probability of being encountered at more than one trap, i.e., of a spatial
102 recapture is:

$$\bar{p}_m(\mathcal{X}) = \frac{1}{G} \sum_s \{1 - \bar{p}_0(s_i, \mathcal{X}) - \bar{p}_1(s_i, \mathcal{X})\}.$$

103 Given that the precision of SCR density estimates depends on the total number of
104 individuals captured, n , and the number of spatial recaptures, m (Efford and Boulanger,
105 2019; Royle et al., 2014) – $Q_{\bar{p}}$ and $Q_{\bar{p}_m}$ represent logical criteria for optimizing SCR designs
106 (Royle et al. 2014, Chapter 10). Herein lies one of our novel contributions: we suggest three
107 design criteria: $Q_{\bar{p}} = -\bar{p}(\mathcal{X})$, $Q_{\bar{p}_m} = -\bar{p}_m(\mathcal{X})$, and $Q_{\bar{p}_b} = Q_{\bar{p}} + Q_{\bar{p}_m}$. Importantly, if
108 approximate values of the SCR parameters, g_0 and σ , are available, these objective functions
109 can be evaluated analytically for any number and configuration of traps, providing a metric
110 for efficient identification of optimal SCR designs.

111 **Optimization method**

112 We applied a genetic algorithm (GA) to the task of finding a design that minimizes any
113 criterion, noting that optimality here is with respect to the defined criteria, and in the
114 context of the GA is 'near-optimal' (see Appendix S1 & Goldberg, 1989). The GA is a
115 random search algorithm which produces multiple generations of solutions, where subsequent
116 generations retain characteristics of top performing solutions from the previous generation.
117 Generations are produced until converging on a near-optimal solution is achieved. Wolters
118 (2015) adapted the algorithm to solve a *k-of-n* problem which describes concisely the
119 challenge of the SCR sampling design: the selection of some number of traps, k , in a
120 landscape of n possible locations according to some objective function. We provide a detailed
121 description of the general GA, the *k-of-n* adaptation, and our implementation in the R
122 package `oSCR` in Appendix S1 and Appendix S4.

123 Conceptually, minimizing the space-filling objective function $Q_{\bar{p}}$ maximizes the expected
124 sample size n . In contrast, minimizing $Q_{\bar{p}_m}$ prioritizes the exposure of individuals to more
125 than one trap and should maximize the number of spatial recaptures m . The third criteria,
126 $Q_{\bar{p}_b}$, attempts to balance $Q_{\bar{p}}$ and $Q_{\bar{p}_m}$.

127 **Design constraints**

128 We were primarily interested in evaluating the performance of SCR designs produced
129 by our framework under a range of biologically-realistic scenarios in an attempt to develop a
130 more general understanding of how performance varies as a function of the following design
131 constraints: *geometry*, defined as the shape of the study area and ease at which a regular
132 square trapping grid can be deployed; *density pattern*, defined as the nature of departure from
133 uniform distribution of individuals; and *effort*, defined as the number of traps available for
134 the design.

135 **Geometry** – As has been typical in studies investigating SCR sampling designs, we
136 begin using a square study area with complete accessibility and which lends itself to uniform
137 trapping grids (the *regular area*, Figure 1). To replicate the design challenges posed when
138 generating real-world designs, we also consider an *irregular area* (Figure 1). For this, we use
139 one of the study areas that motivated this work: a large area in Northern Pakistan (3865
140 km^2) that is the focus of a snow leopard (*Panthera uncia*) camera trapping study, but that
141 has several logistical challenges that determine accessibility (i.e., remoteness, private property,
142 altitude, and slope). To define the complete region of the state-space, we used a 3σ buffer
143 around the trapping extent. The regular area is represented by 24 x 24 landscape with a
144 resolution of 0.5 units, the irregular study area is represented by 89.85 x 133.04 landscape
145 with a resolution of 1.73 units, for a total of 2304 cells in each of the geometries (Figure 1).
146 While these two state-spaces differ in absolute terms, we insured comparability in relative
147 terms by the definition of area-specific sigma (see below).

148 **Density pattern** – Existing investigations of SCR sampling designs typically assume a
149 homogeneous distribution of individuals (but see Efford and Fewster, 2013). Here we formally
150 test the adequacy of designs under specific violations of this assumption. We consider three
151 spatial density patterns: a uniform and two spatially-varying. To generate non-uniform
152 density patterns, we simulated landscapes defined by a parametric Gaussian random field that
153 allows for specification of the degree and range of spatial autocorrelation. Gaussian random

154 fields were generated using the R package, NLMR (Sciaini et al., 2018). The values of the
155 simulated landscape were scaled from 0 to 1 and individual activity centers distributed
156 according to the following cell probabilities:

$$\pi_i = \frac{e^{\beta_1 * X_i}}{\sum e^{\beta_1 * X_i}}, \quad (2)$$

157 where X_i is the scaled landscape value at pixel i and β_1 is defined as 1.2 to represent a weak
158 but apparent density pattern. The two inhomogeneous density patterns differ in the scale of
159 spatial autocorrelation. For consistency, we defined this distance in relative terms to the
160 length of the longest side of the state-space: 6% for a *weak* density pattern that produces a
161 patchy landscape, and 100% for a *strong* density pattern produces a landscape with a more
162 contiguous gradient (see Figure 1 for a single realization of the density patterns). Using these
163 three density patterns allows us to evaluate designs through a full range of biological realism,
164 with uniform and strong density patterns representing the polar ends of reality, and the
165 patchy landscape representing the most realistic sampling scenario.

166 Design generation

167 Designs were generated using fixed values of g_0 and σ (see below), a set of potential
168 trap locations, and the number of traps that are available to deploy. It is assumed that the
169 user has knowledge or access to data on information approximate values of SCR parameters,
170 would be able to produce a set of all potential sampling points, and would have some idea of
171 resources (traps) available. For the regular area, we generated $Q_{\bar{p}}$, $Q_{\bar{p}_m}$, and $Q_{\bar{p}_b}$ designs for
172 each of the three levels of effort where there was no restriction on where traps could be
173 placed. In addition, we generated a regular 2σ design for comparison. For the irregular area
174 in the mountains of Pakistan, we generated only criteria-based designs at each of the three
175 levels of effort (Figure 2). In this case, areas known to be too remote, too high altitude, or
176 too steep to be accessed were removed from the set of potential trap locations. Mirroring real
177 design challenges faced by managers, it was not practical to generate a 2σ grid for the
178 irregular area, and therefore it is not included. This full scenario analysis resulted in a total

179 of 21 designs; 12 designs for the regular area (the three optimized and the 2σ design), and 9
180 designs for the irregular area (optimized designs only).

181 **Evaluation by simulation**

182 We exposed a population of $N = 300$ individuals to sampling via each of the 21 designs
183 described above. We simulated encounter histories assuming proximity detectors and under
184 the binomial encounter model encounter (Eq.1) with $g_0 = 0.2$, $k = 5$. The two geometries
185 differ in terms of their spatial units so area-specific σ values were chosen such that the
186 number of home ranges required to fill the areas and achieve an equal density was equivalent:
187 $\sigma_{reg} = 0.80$ and $\sigma_{irreg} = 2.59$. We simulated individuals according to the three density
188 patterns described above (Eq.2), resulting in a total of 63 scenarios of interest (three density
189 patterns for each of the 21 designs (Figure 2, Appendix S2)).

190 For each scenario, we simulated 300 realizations of activity centers. Covariate surfaces
191 were generated randomly using the same seed, again resulting in variation among simulations
192 but consistency across scenarios. In some cases, the realization of activity centers did not
193 provide at least one spatial recapture; we recorded the number of these *failure* and generated
194 a new realization of activity centers until a single spatial recapture was obtained in order to
195 proceed with model fitting. This only occurred for $Q_{\bar{p}}$ designs with minimum effort, and for
196 less than 5% of the simulations.

197 We analyzed the resulting encounter history data using a null SCR model ($d.$) and, for
198 spatially structured density scenarios, a density-varying model (d_s). This allowed us to test
199 if accounting for the landscape would improve bias and precision in parameter estimates. For
200 each simulation, and each model, we retained estimates of g_0 , σ , and total abundance (\hat{N}).

201 We compared estimates of model parameters to the data-generating values in terms of
202 bias (percent relative bias, %RB), precision (coefficient of variation, CV), and accuracy
203 (scaled root mean square error, SRMSE). All simulations were conducted in R, SCR models
204 were fit using the package oSCR (Sutherland et al., 2019), and designs were generated using
205 the `scrdesignGA()` function also in oSCR (detailed workflow provided in Appendix S3).

206 Design generation and simulations were performed in R version 3.6.1 (R Core Team, 2019).

207 Results

208 We first focus on relative bias. Encouragingly, under the regular-area,
209 homogeneous-density scenario, designs generated using the genetic algorithm perform as well
210 as existing 2σ recommendations, producing unbiased estimates of abundance for nearly all
211 combinations of design and effort (Figure 3, Table 1). In the case of the irregular geometry
212 with uniform density, $Q_{\bar{p}_m}$ designs perform well for all levels of effort, but performance of $Q_{\bar{p}}$
213 and $Q_{\bar{p}_b}$ designs declines as the number of traps is reduced, a consequence of widely-spaced
214 traps and consequently very few spatial recaptures (Figure 3, Table 1, Appendix S5,
215 Appendix S6, Appendix S7).

216 For scenarios from the regular study area with inhomogeneous density, all designs
217 produced unbiased estimates of abundance, generally. There is a slight bias ($\pm 5\%$)
218 introduced as the number of traps declines, even for the 2σ designs. However, this
219 phenomenon is less apparent in $Q_{\bar{p}_m}$ designs, suggesting improved performance. In the
220 irregular study area, design performance is more dependent on the spatial structure of
221 density. Once again, $Q_{\bar{p}_m}$ designs produced unbiased estimates, and $Q_{\bar{p}}$ and $Q_{\bar{p}_b}$ designs
222 performed poorly with fewer traps (Figure 3, Table 1, Appendix S5, Appendix S6, Appendix
223 S7).

224 Interestingly, explicitly including the landscape covariate governing spatial variation in
225 density (i.e., d_s rather than d .) does not improve performance metrics for any of the designs
226 in any scenario (Figure 3, Table 1), reinforcing the general opinion that SCR models are
227 robust to misspecification of the density model. In fact, fitting the data-generating model for
228 the inhomogeneous cases actually performs worse in low effort scenarios. This suggests that
229 the low numbers of traps do not adequately represent the variation in the landscape, and
230 therefore, the model is unable to reliably estimate the underlying landscape effect (Figure 3,
231 Table 1).

232 Estimator precision and accuracy generally follow the same patterns as for the bias
233 (Appendix S5 and Appendix S6, and Appendix S7, respectively). Design performance
234 declines as effort decreases for all designs across every scenario. In the regular study area
235 with uniform density, the 2σ and $Q_{\bar{p}_m}$ designs share similar levels of precision, while the $Q_{\bar{p}}$
236 and $Q_{\bar{p}_b}$ designs with minimal effort are less precise in comparison, with this pattern being
237 magnified in the irregular area. Generally, there is a slight loss of precision in estimates across
238 all designs, but this effect is less apparent for $Q_{\bar{p}_m}$ designs, which maintain their relative
239 equivalency to the standard recommendation, including for the lowest level of effort (when
240 considering comparison across geometries). In scenarios with inhomogenous density, both $Q_{\bar{p}}$
241 and $Q_{\bar{p}_b}$ designs with minimum effort show precision that is obviously reduced using the null
242 model. However, the density-varying model once again shows no noticeable improvement, and
243 causes a decrease in precision for $Q_{\bar{p}_m}$ designs with the fewest traps.

244 Overall, designs generated using our proposed framework showed comparable
245 performance to standard recommendations, and critically, these designs are robust to a
246 variety of constraints that include effort, density signal, and geometry.

247 Discussion

248 In this study, we develop a conceptual and analytical framework for generating
249 near-optimal designs for SCR studies. We suggested three intuitive and statistically-grounded
250 design criteria that can be optimized to produce candidate designs. We demonstrate that
251 designs generated using our framework can perform at least as well as those based on existing
252 heuristics, and further, that the generality and flexibility of our approach means it can be
253 applied to any species or landscape according to logistics and available resources.

254 It is worth noting that the designs produced using this framework can be considered
255 approximate in terms of specific location, and that the actual, finer-scale site-selection for
256 traps can be informed by knowledge of the species' biology and behavior (e.g., Fabiano et al.,
257 2020). Further, while we develop this framework with camera traps in mind, this method can

258 easily be applied to determine the general location of other non-invasive surveys, wherein the
259 selection of a sampling location instead activates some other form of sampling effort (see
260 Fuller et al. 2016; Sutherland et al. 2018). Importantly, the degree of sampling effort must be
261 maintained among all selected sampling locations.

262 The designs we created using model-based criteria exhibit their own unique behaviors
263 (Figure 2, Appendix S2). The $Q_{\bar{p}}$ criteria generates space-filling designs to maximize the area
264 covered and thereby the expected sample size of unique individuals. As more traps are added,
265 the inner area becomes fully-saturated (such that it is insured that every possible home range
266 will contain at least one trap), and the criteria instead focuses on selecting external traps that
267 patrol the edge of the trapping extent in order to increase the probability of capture for
268 individuals outside of that area. However, despite the benefit of increasing the sample size (n
269 captured individuals), traps placed too distant from each other fail to generate important
270 spatial recaptures. This is precisely the issue that propagated failures for both $Q_{\bar{p}}$ and $Q_{\bar{p}_b}$
271 designs with minimum effort (Appendix S8).

272 In contrast, $Q_{\bar{p}_m}$ designs are space-restricting as a result of an inherent trade-off
273 between increasing the number of individuals exposed to capture and having traps close
274 together to insure captures at more than one trap. With fewer traps, however, the effective
275 sampling area is markedly decreased (Figure 2), thereby reducing the sample size. This
276 observation further motivated our evaluations of the designs for inhomogeneous density, which
277 along with the reduced spatial coverage and hence non-representative sampling, is likely
278 responsible for the bias observed in those scenarios, as well as the lower precision.

279 The $Q_{\bar{p}_b}$ designs can best be described as "clustered space-filling" (Figure 2, Appendix
280 S2), as this criteria aims to balance the objectives of $Q_{\bar{p}}$ and $Q_{\bar{p}_m}$, which it can do effectively
281 when provided with a sufficient number of traps. However, as seen with $Q_{\bar{p}}$ designs, the $Q_{\bar{p}_b}$
282 design performance suffers when too few traps are employed due to even larger distances
283 between traps as a result of clustering, greatly reducing performance even beyond that of $Q_{\bar{p}}$.

284 More generally, these designs support previous recommendations while also providing

285 new insights into sampling design for SCR. When full effort is possible in the regular area
286 geometry, the $Q_{\bar{p}}$ design fully saturates the trapping extent with some traps to spare in order
287 to meet its objective, while $Q_{\bar{p}_m}$ does not quite fill the trapping area (Figure 2, Appendix S2).
288 Interestingly, the 2σ design falls somewhere between these two extents, likely striking an
289 effective balance between the number of captures (as in $Q_{\bar{p}}$) against the number of spatial
290 recaptures (as in $Q_{\bar{p}_m}$), which we also see with $Q_{\bar{p}_b}$ and similar to the effect described by
291 Efford and Boulanger (2019). Despite these differences in spatial configuration, differences in
292 design performance are mostly negligible (Figure 3, Table 1, Appendix S5, Appendix S6,
293 Appendix S7).

294 As shown by Sun et al. (2014), incorporating trap clustering into sampling designs can
295 be advantageous, as doing so allows for increased likelihood of spatial recaptures to facilitate
296 estimation of the spatial scale parameter, σ . However, the clustered designs proposed by Sun
297 et al. (2014) follow a regular pattern such that there are a limited number of levels of trap
298 spacing, whereas the designs we generated result in a wider distribution of distances between
299 traps. This shifts the importance away from a regular spatial structure of trap configuration
300 to one that is decidedly irregular in order to gain better resolution of movement distances for
301 estimating σ . This is especially useful knowledge and central to generating designs for
302 irregular study areas. Interestingly, this results in designs with smaller effective sampling
303 areas, suggesting that it might be better to reduce the total area covered by the design rather
304 than focus on completely covering the area (within reason). A major insight here is that
305 hierarchical clustering (the selection of approximately 2σ -spaced clusters of traps with further
306 reduced within-cluster spacing) emerges naturally from the $Q_{\bar{p}_m}$ criterion, effectively
307 formalizing the clustering heuristic proposed by Sun et al. (2014).

308 Our proposed criteria produced designs which perform well, yet there is scope for
309 refinement. With a decrease in effective sampling area, the introduction of bias and
310 imprecision in parameter estimates could be complicated further when the population being
311 sampled has a stronger degree of spatial structuring than we tested here. Designs sampling

312 only areas where individuals are concentrated will result in overestimates of population size
313 and density relative to the whole study area, while those sampling away from concentrated
314 areas will do just the opposite. This effect is particularly noticeable from the density-varying
315 model (d_s), which generally has relatively lower performance over the fully invariant model as
316 it is including information from nearby traps sampling a landscape that is intrinsically
317 spatially auto-correlated. Advancing this framework to generate designs that explicitly
318 account for the spatial patterns in density as a function of a given landscape is clearly an area
319 for further development, especially if the inferential objective is to estimate density-landscape
320 relationships rather than density or total abundance.

321 Recently SCR sampling design for multi-species sampling has been considered, with
322 some discussion on how the distribution of trap spacing can allow for better estimates for
323 species with a variety of home range sizes (Rich et al., 2019). However, the design proposed
324 for this purpose lacks a reproducible framework that can be generalized to any biological
325 community. Alternatively, employing our framework for multi-species sampling could be a
326 straightforward approach to this problem, with important implications for the use of SCR to
327 be more easily applied for the study of ecological communities. Again, a highly appealing
328 feature of our $Q_{\bar{p}_m}$ approach is the emergence of designs with much better distribution of trap
329 spacing than under regular designs such as 2σ grids, ideal for sampling groups of species with
330 varying spatial movement ecology.

331 We considered three criteria that are intuitive in the context of the performance trade
332 off of sample size (n) and spatial recaptures (m). While intuitive, alternative criteria surely
333 exist. For example, Efford and Boulanger 2019 propose an approximation of the variance of
334 density which is related to n and m , and therefore can easily be formulated as an objective
335 function to be optimized in the same way as $Q_{\bar{p}}$ and $Q_{\bar{p}_m}$. Indeed, the function
336 `scrdesignGA()` is designed such that any user-defined objective functions can be used (e.g.,
337 Durbach *et al.* In review). We hope that this ability to simultaneously (and efficiently)
338 generate and evaluate designs based on a variety of design criteria will motivate further

339 research on SCR study design.

340 Our results show that designs obtained under our proposed criteria perform well
341 relative to design heuristics and can be obtained efficiently as solutions to an optimization
342 problem for arbitrary configurations of possible trapping locations and landscapes, unlike
343 standard recommendations based on 2σ and cluster designs. Both CR and SCR studies are
344 extremely expensive and require substantial effort to conduct, making it imperative that
345 managers are provided with a method to select detector placement before deployment, such
346 as the approach we have presented here. As a result, designs will produce a greater amount of
347 expected information and will lead to more accurate estimates of parameters that describe
348 biological populations of interest, which is critical to global conservation efforts, especially for
349 low density and declining species that are of conservation concern but challenging to monitor.

350 **Acknowledgements**

351 This work received support from Panthera, the Pakistan Snow Leopard and Ecosystem
352 Protection Program, and the Snow Leopard Foundation. We thank the Sutherland Lab
353 Group, especially Patricia Levasseur, as well as Katherine Zeller and Daniel Linden, for
354 improving the manuscript. Any use of trade, product, or firm names is for descriptive
355 purposes only and does not imply endorsement by the U.S. Government.

356 **Author contributions:** CS, JAR, GD devised the study. CS and JAR wrote the functions
357 for design generation. GD developed and conducted simulations. GD wrote the manuscript
358 with contributions from all authors.

359 **Data availability:** Metadata and code & data are available in Metadata S1 and Data S1.

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Table 1: Percent relative bias of baseline detection (g_0), space use (σ) and total abundance (EN) for each simulation scenario, varying: design criteria (*Design*), landscape shape (*Geometry, Regular or Irregular*), the number of traps (*Effort*), and density patterns (*Density*). We present results from null ($d.$) and varying density (d_s) models.

Effort	Density	Design	Regular						Irregular					
			g_0		σ		EN		g_0		σ		EN	
			$d.$	d_s	$d.$	d_s	$d.$	d_s	$d.$	d_s	$d.$	d_s	$d.$	d_s
49	uniform	2σ	2.52	-	-0.38	-	0.78	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		$Q_{\bar{p}}$	0.82	-	-1.00	-	7.27	-	2.27	-	-1.84	-	8.34	-
		$Q_{\bar{p}_m}$	1.33	-	-0.19	-	1.76	-	1.78	-	-0.15	-	0.62	-
	weak	$Q_{\bar{p}_b}$	-0.61	-	-2.06	-	13.32	-	2.53	-	-4.11	-	17.90	-
		2σ	3.16	3.16	-0.62	-0.61	-0.26	-0.05	-	-	-	-	-	-
		$Q_{\bar{p}}$	-0.58	-0.58	0.20	0.25	5.70	5.75	-1.51	-1.51	-1.11	-1.07	9.93	9.89
	strong	$Q_{\bar{p}_m}$	0.08	0.08	0.06	0.11	0.99	1.99	1.15	1.15	-0.27	-0.22	0.07	2.74
		$Q_{\bar{p}_b}$	-2.73	-2.73	-2.36	-2.16	16.12	14.83	0.19	0.19	-1.48	-1.46	13.68	14.09
		2σ	2.26	2.26	-0.47	-0.48	1.82	3.48	-	-	-	-	-	-
		$Q_{\bar{p}}$	1.84	1.84	-0.75	-0.78	6.43	6.55	1.18	1.18	-0.27	-0.32	5.80	6.17
		$Q_{\bar{p}_m}$	2.09	2.09	-0.47	-0.48	1.20	6.82	2.29	2.29	-1.03	-1.01	2.40	9.02
		$Q_{\bar{p}_b}$	0.99	0.99	-3.47	-3.41	14.54	14.10	2.75	2.75	-3.32	-3.26	15.13	15.14
100	uniform	2σ	2.04	-	-0.69	-	0.58	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		$Q_{\bar{p}}$	2.42	-	-0.61	-	0.90	-	1.42	-	-0.77	-	2.11	-
		$Q_{\bar{p}_m}$	-0.97	-	0.20	-	1.07	-	0.74	-	-0.18	-	0.83	-
	weak	$Q_{\bar{p}_b}$	0.07	-	0.05	-	1.12	-	-0.15	-	-0.51	-	2.55	-
		2σ	-0.13	-0.13	0.15	0.14	-0.34	-0.19	-	-	-	-	-	-
		$Q_{\bar{p}}$	0.61	0.61	-0.27	-0.29	0.95	0.98	0.97	0.97	-0.48	-0.49	1.82	1.89
	strong	$Q_{\bar{p}_m}$	1.68	1.68	-0.77	-0.78	-0.24	0.34	-0.09	-0.09	0.09	0.08	0.34	1.04
		$Q_{\bar{p}_b}$	1.07	1.07	-0.16	-0.18	0.01	0.03	1.23	1.23	-0.30	-0.27	1.06	1.11
		2σ	0.35	0.35	-0.30	-0.30	1.42	1.72	-	-	-	-	-	-
		$Q_{\bar{p}}$	0.18	0.18	-0.93	-0.95	2.89	3.12	1.07	1.07	-0.46	-0.49	0.93	1.40
		$Q_{\bar{p}_m}$	0.64	0.64	-0.04	-0.05	0.90	1.47	1.97	1.97	-0.56	-0.59	-0.44	1.34
		$Q_{\bar{p}_b}$	0.60	0.60	-0.43	-0.43	1.36	1.44	0.21	0.21	-0.05	-0.06	0.40	0.80
144	uniform	2σ	1.32	-	-0.25	-	0.27	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		$Q_{\bar{p}}$	-1.06	-	0.28	-	1.53	-	0.72	-	0.08	-	-0.27	-
		$Q_{\bar{p}_m}$	0.93	-	-0.28	-	0.88	-	0.53	-	0.00	-	0.75	-
	weak	$Q_{\bar{p}_b}$	0.35	-	-0.07	-	0.90	-	2.12	-	-0.77	-	0.72	-
		2σ	0.49	0.49	-0.33	-0.33	0.41	0.50	-	-	-	-	-	-
		$Q_{\bar{p}}$	0.64	0.64	-0.24	-0.25	0.44	0.47	0.61	0.61	-0.20	-0.20	0.50	0.51
	strong	$Q_{\bar{p}_m}$	1.31	1.31	-0.47	-0.48	-0.39	-0.21	0.03	0.03	0.05	0.04	0.07	0.43
		$Q_{\bar{p}_b}$	-0.02	-0.02	-0.32	-0.33	1.00	0.98	0.77	0.77	-0.25	-0.26	0.93	0.92
		2σ	0.70	0.70	-0.25	-0.25	0.80	1.01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		$Q_{\bar{p}}$	1.35	1.35	-0.31	-0.32	0.32	0.47	-0.13	-0.13	0.21	0.19	0.33	0.66
		$Q_{\bar{p}_m}$	0.14	0.14	0.15	0.14	0.32	0.58	1.74	1.74	-0.55	-0.57	-0.22	0.69
		$Q_{\bar{p}_b}$	1.18	1.18	-0.19	-0.20	-0.03	0.14	-0.59	-0.59	0.12	0.09	0.20	0.62

411 **Figure legends**

412 **Figure 1**

413 Simulation structure. Here we show all possible trap locations overlaid on the uniform
414 landscape for the regular (top) and irregular (bottom) study area geometries alongside a
415 single realization of two (weak: middle, strong: right) of the three (uniform not shown)
416 landscape covariates. For the regular geometry, we tested 12 designs each. For the irregular
417 geometry, we tested 9 designs each. This makes for a total of 63 scenarios.

418 **Figure 2**

419 Irregular study area with designs generated using our new framework with three
420 SCR-intuitive, model-based criteria ($Q_{\bar{p}}$, $Q_{\bar{p}_m}$, and $Q_{\bar{p}_b}$), under three levels of effort. 144 traps
421 represents the same number of traps as used to generate a full 2σ grid in a regular study area
422 of the same area. 100 traps is nearly two-thirds as many traps, and 49 is nearly one-third as
423 many traps. Each pixel of the state-space is colored according to the probability of capture,
424 p , for an individual with an activity center at the centroid of the pixel.

425 **Figure 3**

426 Percent relative bias (%RB) of estimates of total abundance from the three tested
427 sampling designs under three levels of effort on three density surfaces within two geometries,
428 where estimates are the result of one of two SCR models: density invariant (d ., open shapes)
429 or density-varying (d_s , closed shapes). The four designs – 2σ , $Q_{\bar{p}}$, $Q_{\bar{p}_m}$, $Q_{\bar{p}_b}$ – are represented
430 by the four shapes: circles, triangles, squares, and diamonds, respectively. To illustrate
431 estimator precision, vertical lines are 50% confidence intervals, noting that the 50% intervals
432 are proportional to 95% intervals but offer a visual balance of bias and associated variance.
433 The thick horizontal line represents no bias in estimates, with the thin horizontal lines
434 representing an allowable amount of bias ($\pm 5\%$).

Figure 1

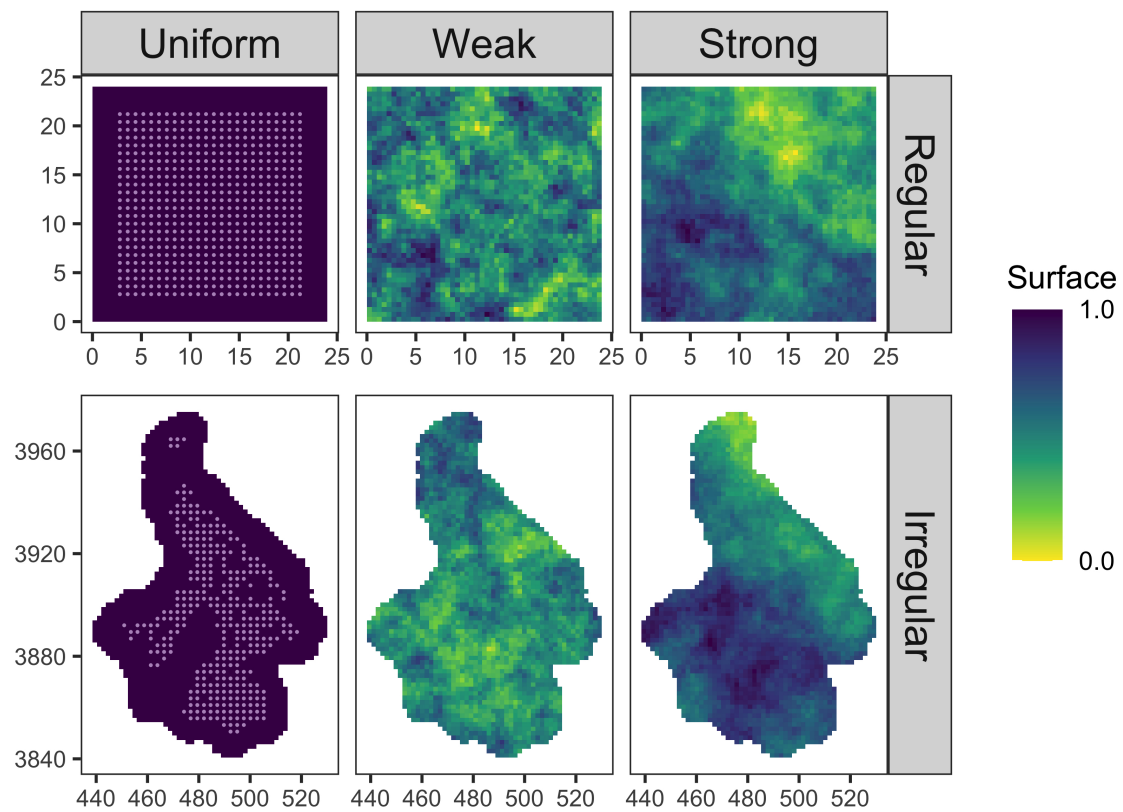


Figure 2

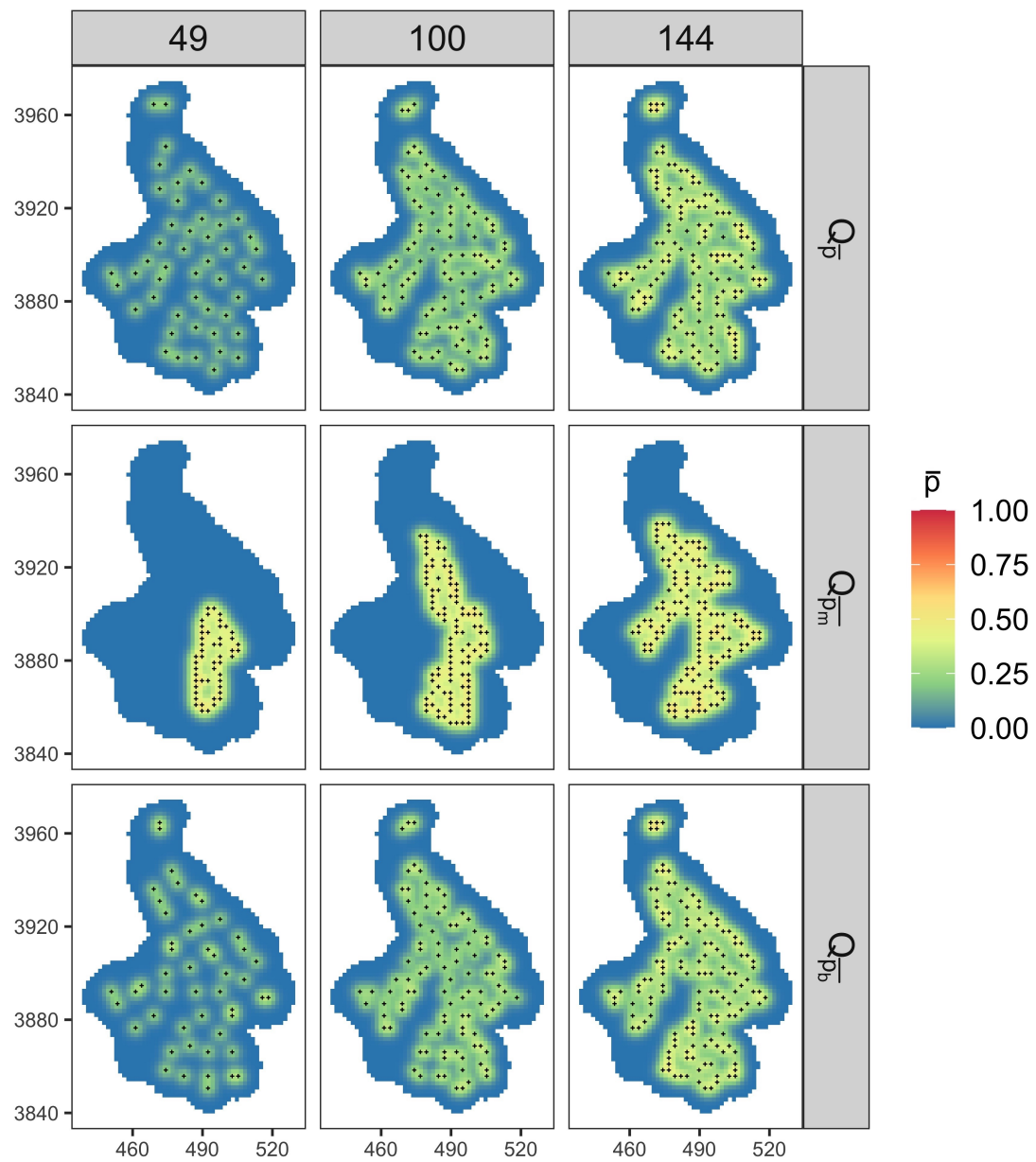


Figure 3

