geosample: an R Package for Geostatistical Sampling Designs

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Abstract

In this paper we introduce a new R package, geosample, for constructing geostatistical sampling designs. The new package implements classes of adaptive and non-adaptive probability-based sampling designs. Non-adaptive sampling designs choose all sampling locations in a single wave without reference to existing data. Adaptive sampling designs use information from existing data to inform a choice of additional sample locations at each sampling wave. We illustrate the use of the package through the construction of both adaptive and non-adaptive designs, using a simulated data-set and malaria prevalence data from southern Malawi.

Keywords: adaptive sampling designs, inhibitory sampling designs, geostatistics, surveillance sampling, R.

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1. Introduction

Geostatistics is primarily concerned with the investigation of an unobserved spatial phenomenon \( S = \{S(x) : x \in D \subset \mathbb{R}^2\} \), where \( D \) is a geographical region of interest, using data in the form of measurements \( y_i \) at locations \( x_i \in D \). Typically, each \( y_i \) can be regarded as a noisy version of \( S(x_i) \). We write \( \mathcal{X} = \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\} \) and call \( \mathcal{X} \) the sampling design. This paper introduces a new R (R Core Team 2017) package, geosample, for geostatistical sampling designs. The work was motivated by applications to disease prevalence mapping, where the main focus of scientific interest is on deciding which households to sample in each round of sampling so as to optimise the precision of the resulting sequence of area-wide prevalence maps.

Geostatistical analysis can address either or both of two broad objectives: estimation of the parameters that define a stochastic model for the unobserved process \( S \) and the observed data
\{(y_i, x_i) : i = 1, \ldots, n\}; and prediction of the unobserved realisation of S(x), or particular characteristics of this realisation.

In practice, geostatistical sampling designs that are efficient for parameter estimation are generally inefficient for spatial prediction, and vice-versa (Diggle and Ribeiro 2007; Müller 2007). Additionally, parameter values are usually unknown in practice, hence design for prediction involves a compromise. Furthermore, the diversity of potential predictive targets requires design strategies to be context-specific (Chipeta, Terlouw, Phiri, and Diggle 2016a). Another important distinction is between non-adaptive sampling designs that must be completely specified prior to data-collection, and adaptive designs, for which data are collected over a period of time and later sampling locations can depend on data collected from earlier locations (Chipeta et al. 2016a; Chipeta, Terlouw, Phiri, and Diggle 2016b).

In this paper, we describe the implementation of geostatistical sampling algorithms for constructing adaptive and non-adaptive classes of designs as described in Chipeta et al. (2016a) and Chipeta et al. (2016b), respectively. The geosample package includes functionality to determine sampling locations within a set of spatial constraints and information from existing sampling locations. The package makes use of functions from other R packages, including sp, splancs, rgeos and pdist, which support data manipulation and computation.

In order to determine new sampling locations in the case of adaptive sampling, geosample requires predictions to be made at all unobserved (potential sampling) locations. These can be obtained from existing packages including PrevMap, geoR, lgcp and spatstat that can carry out predictive inference.

The paper is structured as follows. In Section 2 we give the theoretical background within which adaptive and non-adaptive designs have been developed. Section 2.1 describes a class of non-adaptive designs, including random and inhibitory sampling (with or without close pairs). Section 2.2 describes a class of adaptive designs. Section 3 gives an overview of the package by way of a walk-through of a simulated dataset, and an application to malaria prevalence mapping in southern Malawi. Section 4 is a concluding discussion.

2. Methodological framework

Geostatistical design problems can be classified according to whether the primary objective is parameter estimation or spatial prediction and, in the latter case, whether model parameters are assumed known or unknown. Methods in the geosample package focus on designs for efficient prediction when model parameters are unknown.

2.1. Non-adaptive designs
We first consider non-adaptive geostatistical designs. These offer standard ways of collecting and analysing geostatistical data in which sampling locations are fixed in advance of any data collection. Two standard non-adaptive designs are a completely random design, in which the sample locations $x_i$ form an independent random sample from the uniform distribution on $\mathcal{D}$, and a completely regular design in which the $x_i$ form a regular square or, less commonly, triangular lattice, ensuring an even coverage over the study region. Diggle and Lophaven (2006) implemented lattice-based designs and Chipeta et al. (2016b) implemented inhibitory geostatistical designs in which sampled locations exhibit a degree of spatial regularity, intermediate between completely random and lattice designs.

**Completely random designs**

A completely randomised design has locations $x_i; i = 1, \ldots, n$, chosen independently, each with a uniform distribution over $\mathcal{D}$. This ensures that the design is stochastically independent of the underlying spatial phenomenon of interest $S(x)$, which is a requirement for the validity of standard geostatistical methods (Diggle, Menezes, and Su 2010). However, the resulting uneven coverage of $\mathcal{D}$ has a negative impact on spatial prediction. Completely randomised design strategies are well established in classical survey sampling (Cochran 1977). An undesirable feature of these designs when the goal is prediction is their tendency to leave large swaths of unsampled areas (Müller 2007). Nevertheless, previous research studies have shown that this class of designs is efficient for estimation of covariance structure. See, for example, Russo (1984); Warrick and Myers (1987); Müller and Zimmerman (1999); Lark (2002).

In the geosample package, a completely randomised design $\mathcal{X}$ is implemented by the function `random.sample`. The function takes a sample of the specified number of locations $n$, either from $N$ potential sampling locations without replacement, or as an independent sample from a designated region $\mathcal{D}$.

**Inhibitory designs**

In some geostatistical analysis problems, the covariance structure is assumed to be known, and the goal is spatial prediction. Previous research has shown that classes of completely regular designs are then more efficient than completely random designs. See, for example, McBratney, Webster, and Burgess (1981); McBratney and Webster (1981); Yfantis, Flatman, and Behar (1987); Ritter (1996). In practice, the covariance structure is usually unknown and needs to be estimated. Usually, one has to use the same data for estimation of covariance parameters and for spatial prediction, and efficient prediction requires good estimates of the second order characteristics (Müller, Pronzato, Rendas, and Waldl 2015). Designs that offer a compromise between the two contrasting aims are therefore attractive. One such example is the following class of inhibitory designs.
An inhibitory design has \( n \) random locations in \( \mathcal{D} \) with the constraint that no two locations are separated by a distance of less than a specified value \( \delta \). Inhibitory designs adhere to the established principles of random sampling theory while guaranteeing some degree of spatial regularity. This construction has also been suggested as a model for naturally occurring patterns of points that exhibit spatial regularity (Matérn 1986) (originally published in 1960). All design points \( \mathcal{X} \) that meet the inhibitory constraint are equally likely to be picked. Chipeta et al. (2016b) developed and implemented simple inhibitory (SI) and inhibitory with close pairs (ICP) design strategies. In the latter, \( n - k \) simple inhibitory sample locations are augmented by \( k \) locations each positioned close to one of the randomly selected \( n - k \) locations in the simple inhibitory design, uniformly distributed within a disk of radius \( \zeta \). Inclusion of close pairs of sampled locations helps to identify a suitable parametric family for the specified correlation structure of a geostatistical dataset.

Inhibitory design construction can be applied whether or not the potential sampling locations are confined to a finite set of points. In the geosample package, inhibitory designs for a finite set of points are implemented by the function `discrete.inhibit.sample`, and for points in a continuum, by the function `contin.inhibit.sample`. In each of these implementations, geosample package can generate simple inhibitory or inhibitory with close pair samples.

An inhibitory design, \( \text{SI}(n, \delta) \), is implemented as follows. Choose a packing density for the design, i.e. the proportion of \( \mathcal{D} \) covered by \( n \) non-overlapping disks of diameter \( \delta \), given by \( \rho = (n\pi\delta^2)/(4|\mathcal{D}|) \). An \( \text{SI}(n, \delta) \) design on \( \mathcal{D} \) is then generated by the following steps.

- Step 1: Draw a sample of locations \( x_i : i = 1, \ldots, n \) completely at random in \( \mathcal{D} \);
- Step 2: Set \( i = 1 \);
- Step 3: Calculate the minimum, \( d_{\text{min}} \), of the distances from \( x_i \) to all other \( x_j \) in the current sample;
- Step 4: If \( d_{\text{min}} \geq \delta \), increase \( i \) by 1 and return to step 3 if \( i \leq n \), otherwise stop;
- Step 5: If \( d_{\text{min}} < \delta \), replace \( x_i \) by a new location drawn completely at random in \( \mathcal{D} \) and return to step 4.

For efficient parameter estimation, the simple inhibitory sampling scheme can be augmented by pairs of closely spaced points. The algorithm then requires the following additional steps. Let \( k \) be the required number of close pairs. Choose a value \( \zeta \) such that a close pair of points will be separated by a distance of at most \( \zeta \). For a total of \( n \) points, an \( \text{ICP}(n, k, \delta, \zeta) \) design consists of an \( \text{SI}(n - k, \delta) \) design with inhibition distance \( \delta \) augmented by \( k \) locations each positioned relative to one of the randomly selected \( n - k \) locations in the \( \text{SI} \) design according to the uniform distribution over a disk of radius \( \zeta \). The following steps generate the \( \text{ICP}(n, k, \delta, \zeta) \) design.
• Step 1: Construct a simple inhibitory design $\text{SI}(n - k, \delta)$;
• Step 2: Sample $k$ from $x_1, \ldots, x_{n-k}$ without replacement and call this set $x_j^*, j = 1, \ldots, k$;
• Step 3: For $j = 1, \ldots, k, x_{n-k+j}$ is uniformly distributed on the disk with center $x_j^*$ and radius $\zeta$.

2.2. Adaptive designs

We now focus on a class of adaptive geostatistical designs, in which sampled locations are defined in batches at a sequence of times, and the locations in any batch use data from earlier batches to optimise data collection towards the analysis objective. The adaptive sampling design criterion ensures that data are collected only from locations that will deliver useful additional information (Chipeta et al. 2016a).

An adaptive design strategy takes the following approach.

• Step 1: Specify the finite set, $\mathcal{X}^*$ say, of $n^*$ potential sampling locations $x_i \in \mathcal{D}$. If all points $x \in \mathcal{D}$ are eligible, we approximate this by specifying $\mathcal{X}^*$ as a finely spaced grid to cover $\mathcal{D}$;
• Step 2: Use a non-adaptive design to choose an initial set of sample locations, $\mathcal{X}_0 = \{x_i \in \mathcal{D} : i = 1, \ldots, n_0\}$;
• Step 3: Use the corresponding data $Y_0$ to estimate the parameters of an assumed geostatistical model;
• Step 4: Specify a selection criterion for the addition of one or more new sample locations to form an enlarged set $\mathcal{X}_0 \cup \mathcal{X}_1$;
• Step 5: Repeat steps 3 and 4 with augmented data $Y_1$ at the points in $\mathcal{X}_1$;
• Step 6: Continue until the required number of points has been sampled, a required performance criterion has been achieved or no more potential sampling points are available.

In step 2, any initial design can be supplied, but our general recommendation would be to use an inhibitory plus close pairs design.

Adaptive sampling is implemented by adaptive.sample function. The function implements singleton adaptive sampling, in which individual locations are chosen sequentially, allowing $x_{k+1}$ to depend on data obtained at all earlier locations $x_1, \ldots, x_k$, and batch adaptive sampling, where sets of $b > 1$ locations are chosen, with each set $(x_{k+1}, \ldots, x_{k+b})$, dependent on data from all earlier locations $x_1, \ldots, x_k$. 
2.3. Selection criteria

The adaptive.sample function offers a choice of either predictive variance (PV) or exceedance probabilities (EP) selection criteria in step 4 above. For the predictive target $T = S(x)$ at a particular location $x$, given an initial set of sampling locations $X_0 = (x_1, \ldots, x_{n_0})$ the available set of additional sampling locations is $A_0 = X^* \setminus X_0$.

In the PV selection criterion, any $x \in A_0$ has the predictive variance, $PV(x) = \text{Var}(T|Y_0)$ (Diggle and Ribeiro 2007). The algorithm then chooses the locations $x^*$ with the largest values of $PV(x)$, either singly or in batches (Chipeta et al. 2016a). For the EP selection criterion, each $x \in A_0$ has exceedance probability, $EP(x) = P[T(x) > t|y_0] - 0.5$ for a given threshold $t$ (Giorgi and Diggle 2017). The algorithm then chooses the locations $x^* = \text{arg min}_{A_0} EP(x)$, either singly or in batches. When locations are chosen in batches, a minimum distance penalty is imposed for both PV and EP criteria. This ensures that no two sampling locations are separated by a distance of less than $\delta$, to avoid sampling from multiple locations $x$ at which the corresponding $S(x)$ are highly correlated.

2.4. Performance criteria

For design strategies implemented in geosample, we focus on a predictive target $T = T(S)$, where the property of $S$ is of primary interest. We use a generic measure of the predictive accuracy of a design $X^*$, the mean square error,

$$MSE(\hat{T}) = E[(T - \hat{T})^2]$$

where $\hat{T} = E[T|Y; X^*]$ is the minimum mean square error predictor of $T$ for any given design $X^*$ in $D$.

3. Introduction to the geosample package

In this section, we present an introduction to the geosample package functionality by means of a walk-through of some geostatistical sampling examples. The geosample package provides compatibility with common spatial packages including sp and sf. In Section 3.1 we give a unifying workflow for using geosample with other R packages, such as PrevMap, geoR and other spatial statistics packages, for generating geostatistical samples, estimating parameters and predicting the phenomenon of interest in unobserved locations $x^*$. Section 3.2 outlines sampling and inference from a simulated dataset using classes of design discussed earlier. Section 3.3 reports an application of the geosample package functionality to adaptive sampling for malaria prevalence mapping in Majete, southern Malawi.
3.1. Geostatistical sampling workflow

The geosample package focuses on geostatistical sampling designs that compromise between designing for efficient parameter estimation and designing for efficient prediction given the values of relevant model parameters. The workflow relies on functionality and outputs from other R packages as determined by the user, mainly to do with parameter estimation and spatial predictions. Figure 1 is a diagrammatic representation of the workflow.

The first stage involves deciding on and implementing the initial sampling design, dependent on the objective(s) of the geostatistical analysis problem at hand. The initial design is a non-adaptive design, which can be any of the designs outlined in Section 2.1. Once data have been collected from sample locations in the chosen design, the second stage is to analyse the data in order to estimate model parameters, within an assumed geostatistical model. Parameter estimation can take several forms including guess work, also known as curve fitting “by eye”, variogram fitting or formal estimation using methods such as maximum likelihood estimation. See Mardia and Marshall (1984); Christensen (2004); Diggle and Ribeiro (2007) for details. In our walk through examples, we assume a linear Gaussian model of the form:

\[ Y_i = d(x_i)\beta + S(x_i) + Z_i, \ i = 1, \ldots, n \]  

where the \( Z_i \) are mutually independent \( N(0, \tau^2) \) random variables and \( S(x) \) is a stationary Gaussian process, with mean \( \mu \), variance \( \sigma^2 = \text{Var}(S(x)) \) and correlation function \( \rho(u) = \text{Corr}(S(x), S(x')) \), where \( u = ||x - x'|| \) and \( || \cdot || \) denotes Euclidean distance. The \( d(x_i) \) are spatially referenced covariates. In all the examples, we work with the Matérn correlation function (Matérn 1986; Diggle and Ribeiro 2007):

\[ \rho(u, \phi, \kappa) = \left(2^{\phi-1}\Gamma(\kappa)\right)^{-1}(u/\phi)^\phi \kappa_\nu(u/\phi). \]  

The third stage is to predict \( T^* = (T(x_{(n+1)}), \ldots, T(x_{(n+q)})) \) at \( q \) additional locations where measurements have not been taken. Estimates of all model parameters are plugged into the prediction equation as if they were the true parameter values, in a process referred to as “plug-in prediction”. Inferences can be made, depending on the context, for a range of predictive targets, for example: a single value \( S(x_0) \); the value of \( S(\cdot) \) over an area of interest or subsets thereof; the minimum or maximum value of \( S(x) \); or the probability that \( S(x) \) is below or above a particular threshold. This requires all relevant explanatory variables to be available at the prediction locations.

The fourth stage is the implementation of adaptive sampling if there is need for additional samples to achieve the required predictive accuracy. Required inputs include predictions at
all unobserved (potential sampling) locations, a sample selection criterion and any spatial constraints. Several sampling rounds can be implemented, allowing for spatial constraints to change at each cycle. This process involves repeated estimation and prediction stages. Adaptive sampling stops when the specified stopping condition(s) have been achieved, see Section 2.2 for details.

Figure 1: Geostatistical sampling workflow within geosample package. **D1:** user decision for initial design. **D2:** user decision whether to sample additional samples, in which case adaptive sample will be generated. **D3:** user decision to update sampling constraints. **D4:** user decision to stop further sampling. See text for detailed explanation.

### 3.2. Simulation example

In this example, we generated a binomial dataset available in the package as sim.data. We generated a realisation of Gaussian process $S(x)$ on a 35 by 35 grid covering the unit square, giving a total of $n^* = 1225$ potential sampling locations. We specified $S(x)$ to have expectation $\mu = 0$, variance $\sigma^2 = 1$ and Matérn correlation function (3), with $\phi = 0.15$ and $\kappa = 1.5$, and no measurement error, i.e. $\tau^2 = 0$. Binomial observations, with 8 trials at each grid point and
probabilities given by the anti-logit of the simulated values of the Gaussian process, constitute
the response variable $y$. For the initial sample, we use a simple inhibitory design to sample $n_0 = 30$
locations with $\delta = 0.04$. The results are shown in Figure 2.

```r
library("geosample")
library("viridisLite")
data(sim.data)
head(sim.data, n = 6L, addrownums = TRUE)

## Simple feature collection with 6 features and 3 fields
## geometry type: POINT
## dimension: XY
## bbox: xmin: 0 ymin: 0 xmax: 0.1471 ymax: 0
## epsg (SRID): NA
## proj4string: NA
## data y units.m geometry
## 1 1.042 4 8 POINT (0 0)
## 2 1.126 5 8 POINT (0.02941 0)
## 3 1.183 6 8 POINT (0.05882 0)
## 4 1.185 7 8 POINT (0.08824 0)
## 5 1.131 5 8 POINT (0.1176 0)
## 6 1.088 5 8 POINT (0.1471 0)

set.seed(123)
my.sample <- discrete.inhibit.sample(obj = sim.data, size = 30,
delta = 0.04, plotit = TRUE)
```

The first argument in the function `discrete.inhibit.sample` specifies a spatial object i.e.
`sf` or `sp` object in which each row contains a spatial location and any associated covariates.
Sample size is specified via the argument `size`. Inhibition distance is set via `delta`. Sampled
locations are plotted by default, whilst setting the argument `plotit` to `FALSE` turns the
plotting off.

For both model parameter estimation and spatial predictions, we use functions from the
`PrevMap` package (Giorgi and Diggle 2017). The `binomial.logistic.MCML` function fits a
geostatistical binomial logistic model with the following inputs: random variables $Y_i$ of positive
counts, binomial denominators $m_i$, explanatory variables $d_i \in \mathbb{R}^p$ and associated sampling
locations $x_i : i = 1, \ldots, n$ in the study region. Conditionally on a zero-mean Gaussian process
Figure 2: Simple inhibitory (discrete) design with $\delta = 0.04$ and $n_0 = 30$. 
\( S(x) \) and mutually independent zero-mean Gaussian variables \( Z_i \), each \( Y_i \) follows a binomial distribution with mean \( E(Y_i|S(x), Z_i) = m_i p_i \) and

\[
\log \left\{ \frac{p}{1-p} \right\} = d(x_i) \beta + S(x_i) + Z_i.
\] (4)

```r
library("PrevMap")
knots <- as.matrix(expand.grid(seq(-0.2, 1.2, length = 15),
                               seq(-0.2, 1.2, length = 15)))
mcmc.ctr <- control.mcmc.MCML(n.sim = 5500, burnin=500, thin = 5)
dat <- my.sample[[4]]
par0 <- c(0.001, 1, 0.4)
model.fit <-
  binomial.logistic.MCML(y ~ 1, units.m = ~units.m, data = dat, par0 = par0,
                          coords=st_coordinates(dat), fixed.rel.nugget = 0,
                          start.cov.pars = par0[3], control.mcmc = mcmc.ctr,
                          low.rank = TRUE, knots = knots, kappa = 1.5,
                          method = "BFGS", messages = FALSE,
                          plot.correlogram = FALSE)
summary(model.fit, log.cov.pars = FALSE)
```
We use the resulting binomial fit to generate spatial predictions of prevalence at each of the 1225 sampling locations using the `spatial.pred.binomial.MCML` function.

```r
model.pred <- spatial.pred.binomial.MCML(object = model.fit, type = "joint",  
control.mcmc = mcmc.ctr, thresholds = 0.45,  
grid.pred = st_coordinates(sim.data),  
scale.predictions = "prevalence",  
scale.thresholds = "prevalence",  
standard.errors = TRUE, messages = FALSE,  
plot.correlogram = FALSE)
```

Several results can be summarised and visualised from the prediction results, including predictions and exceedance probabilities at each of the prediction locations.

```r
par(mfrow = c(1,2))
plot(model.pred, type = "prevalence", col = viridis(256, direction = -1),  
summary = "predictions", zlim = c(0, 1))
contour(model.pred, type="prevalence", summary="predictions", zlim = c(0, 1),  
levels = seq(0.1, 0.9, 0.1), add = TRUE)
plot(model.pred, summary="exceedance.prob", zlim = c(0,1),  
col = viridis(256, direction = -1))
contour(model.pred, summary = "exceedance.prob", zlim = c(0, 1),  
levels = seq(0.1, 0.3, 0.1), add = TRUE)
par(mfrow = c(1,1))
```

To implement a minimum distance batch adaptive sampling of 10 additional locations, using the prediction variance selection criterion, we extract prediction variances at all potential locations. We set the minimum sampling distance to be \(\delta = 0.1\).

```r
obj.1 <- as.data.frame(cbind(model.pred$grid,  
c(model.pred$prevalence$standard.errors)^2))
colnames(obj.1) <- c("coord1", "coord2", "pred.var")
```
Figure 3: Spatial prediction visualisation. Spatial predictions on the LHS and exceedance probabilities \( P(x; 0.45) = P(\text{prev} > 0.45 \text{ at location } x) \) on the RHS.
obj.1 <- sf::st_as_sf(obj.1, coords = c('coord1', 'coord2'))
adapt.sample.pv <-
adaptive.sample(pv = obj1 = obj.1, obj2 = dat,
    pred.var.col = 1, criterion = "predvar",
    delta = 0.1, batch.size = 10, poly = NULL,
    plotit = TRUE)

The argument obj1 specifies a spatial object that contains potential sampling locations and their associated prediction variance and/or exceedance probabilities. Locations from the existing (initial) design are specified via argument obj2, which is also a spatial object such as sf or sp object. The batch.size determines the number of additional locations to be sampled per sampling round. A batch size equal to 1 will implement a singleton adaptive design. The function has a default behaviour to plot sample locations. These are shown in Figure 4.

Note that similar/comparable parameter estimation and spatial prediction results can be obtained from several other R packages. The choice of which package to use depends on a number of factors including, methodological implementation in the packages, analysis objective(s) and ease of use by the user. These packages include geoRglm, geostatsp, geoBayes, spBayes, spGLM, spaMM, spMvGLM and geoCount for count data. See https://cran.r-project.org/web/views/Spatial.html for a comprehensive list.

3.3. Case study: malaria prevalence in Majete, southern Malawi.

We now illustrate the use of the geosample package to construct a survey sample for malaria prevalence mapping in an area surrounding Majete Wildlife Reserve (MWR) within Chikwawa district, southern Malawi. The MWR is situated in the lower Shire valley at the edge of the African Rift Valley (15.97°S; 34.76°E). The whole perimeter is home to a population of around 100,000 (at the time of writing). Figure 5 shows the households of the study area. The perimeter is subdivided into 19 community-based organizations (CBOs). In the study, three sets of these CBOs (CBOs - 1 & 2, CBOs -15 & 16, and CBOs - 6, 7 & 8) define focal areas A, B, and C, respectively. See Chipeta et al. (2016a,b); Kabaghe, Chipeta, McCann, Phiri, van Vugt, Takken, Diggle, and Terlouw (2017); McCann, van den Berg, Diggle, van Vugt, Terlouw, Phiri, Di Pasquale, Maire, Gowelo, Mburu, Kabaghe, Mzilahowa, Chipeta, and Takken (2017) for more details.

The first stage in the geostatistical design was a complete enumeration of households in the study region, including their geo-location collected using Global Positioning System devices on a Samsung Galaxy Tab 3 running the Android 4.1 Jellybean operating system. We consider focal area A of the study area and use a simple inhibitory design to sample 60 households in
Figure 4: Adaptive sampling design with $\delta = 0.1$ and $b = 10$. Dark blue dots ($n_0 = 30$) are the initial sampling locations. Red dots ($n_a = 10$) are adaptive sampling locations added after analysing data from the initial design.
Figure 5: Majete Wildlife Reserve (brown) is surrounded by 19 CBOs (grey and green) comprising the Majete perimeter. Three focal areas (green), labelled as A, B, and C mark the communities selected for malaria indicator surveys. The rest of the CBOs (grey) are outside the project’s catchment area. Reprinted from Kabaghe et al. (2017).

The initial sample. Data from these households are then analysed using the binomial logistic model (4), and predictive analysis is carried out to map malaria prevalence.

All potential (available) household locations are shown in Figure 6.

```r
data("border")
data("majete")
plot(st_geometry(majete), pch = 19, cex = 0.5,
     xlim=range(st_coordinates(border)[,1]),
     ylim=range(st_coordinates(border)[,2]),
     axes = TRUE, xlab="longitude", ylab="latitude")
plot(border, lwd = 2, add= TRUE)
```

The sampled households (black dots) are shown in Figure 7.

```r
set.seed(1234)
init.sample <-
  discrete.inhibit.sample(obj = majete, size = 60, delta = 0.4,
```
Figure 6: All potential household sampling locations in Majete.
We extract data from the sampled households, and fit the binomial logistic model (4) to the data. The binomial logistic estimates are then used for prediction at unobserved households. See Giorgi and Diggle (2017) for details.

```r
mrdt <- init.sample[[4]]
glmfit <- glm(rdt ~ 1, data = mrdt, 
              family = binomial(link = logit))
ID.coords <- create.ID.coords(data = as.data.frame(mrdt), 
                             coords = -st_coordinates(mrdt))
mrdt$units.m <- rep(1, nrow(mrdt))
par0 <- c(coef(glmfit), cov.pars = c(0.93171, 3.9549))
control.mcmc <- control.mcmc.MCML(n.sim = 5500, burnin = 500, thin = 5)
model.fit <-
  binomial.logistic.MCML(rdt ~ 1, units.m = -units.m, par0 = par0, 
                         coords = -st_coordinates(mrdt), data = mrdt, 
                         ID.coords = ID.coords, kappa = 0.5, 
                         control.mcmc = control.mcmc, method = "BFGS", 
                         fixed.rel.nugget = 0, start.cov.pars = c(par0[3]), 
                         messages = FALSE, plot.correlogram = FALSE)
## Fixed relative variance of the nugget effect: 0
summary(model.fit, log.cov.pars = FALSE)
## Geostatistical binomial model
## Call:
## binomial.logistic.MCML(formula = rdt ~ 1, units.m = ~units.m, 
##                         coords = -st_coordinates(mrdt), data = mrdt, ID.coords = ID.coords, 
##                         par0 = par0, control.mcmc = control.mcmc, kappa = 0.5, fixed.rel.nugget = 0, 
##                         start.cov.pars = c(par0[3]), method = "BFGS", messages = FALSE, 
##                         plot.correlogram = FALSE)
##
## Estimate Std. Err z value p.value
## (Intercept) -2.13 0.35 -6.1 1e-09 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```
Figure 7: Simple inhibitory (discrete) design with $\delta = 400$ meters and $n_0 = 60$ households (black dots) in Majete.
We now carry out spatial predictions over all unobserved households, with the model parameters fixed at the MCML estimates, and summarise the predictive distribution of prevalence at each location through its mean, standard deviation and probability that the estimated prevalence is above 15%. Using these results, an adaptive sample of 40 additional households is taken. The results are shown in Figure 8.

```r
avail.locs <- majete[!(majete$geometry) %in% (mrdt$geometry),]
model.pred <-
  spatial.pred.binomial.MCML(model.fit,
    grid.pred=unique(st_coordinates(avail.locs)),
    control.mcmc=control.mcmc, type = "marginal",
    scale.predictions = "prevalence",
    standard.errors = TRUE, thresholds = 0.15,
    scale.thresholds = "prevalence",
    messages = FALSE, plot.correlogram = FALSE)
pred.vars <- as.data.frame(cbind(model.pred$grid,
    c(model.pred$prevalence$standard.errors)^2))
colnames(pred.vars)<- c("coord1", "coord2", "pred.var")
pred.vars <- sf::st_as_sf(pred.vars, coords = c('coord1', 'coord2'))
st_crs(pred.vars) <- st_crs(mrdt)
adapt.sample.pv <-
  adaptive.sample(obj1 = pred.vars, obj2 = mrdt,
    pred.var.col = 1, criterion = "predvar")
```
Model parameter estimates are updated using the augmented data from the adaptive sampling.

\[
\text{delta} = 0.15, \text{ batch.size} = 40, \\
poly = \text{border}, \text{ plotit} = \text{TRUE})
\]

```r
mrdt <- majete[(majete$geometry) %in% 
(adapt.sample.pv$sample.locs$curr.sample$geometry),]

ID.coords <- create.ID.coords(data=as.data.frame(mrdt), 
coords=~st_coordinates(mrdt))
mrdt$units.m <- rep(1,nrow(mrdt))
par0 <- c(coef(model.fit))
model.fit <- 
  binomial.logistic.MCML(rdt~1, units.m=~units.m,par0=par0, 
  coords=~st_coordinates(mrdt),data=mrdt, 
  ID.coords = ID.coords, 
  control.mcmc=control.mcmc, kappa=0.5, 
  fixed.rel.nugget = 0, 
  start.cov.pars=c(par0[3]), 
  method="BFGS", messages = FALSE, 
  plot.correlogram = FALSE)

## Fixed relative variance of the nugget effect: 0
summary(model.fit, log.cov.pars = FALSE)

## Geostatistical binomial model
## Call:
## binomial.logistic.MCML(formula = rdt ~ 1, units.m = ~units.m, 
## coords = ~st_coordinates(mrdt), data = mrdt, ID.coords = ID.coords, 
## par0 = par0, control.mcmc = control.mcmc, kappa = 0.5, fixed.rel.nugget = 0, 
## start.cov.pars = c(par0[3]), method = "BFGS", messages = FALSE, 
## plot.correlogram = FALSE)
##
## Estimate Std. Err z value p.value
## (Intercept) -2.131 0.415 -5.14 2.8e-07 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```
Figure 8: Adaptive sampling design with $\delta = 150$ meters and $b = 40$. Blue dots ($n_0 = 60$) are the initial sampling households. Red dots ($n_a = 40$) are adaptive samples added after analysing data from the initial design.
We now carry out spatial predictions over a 5 metre by 5 metre regular grid, with model parameters fixed at the MCML estimates from the accrued data, and summarise the predictive distribution of prevalence in each grid cell through its mean, standard deviation and probability that the estimated prevalence is above 15%.

```r
library(splancs)

## Spatial Point Pattern Analysis Code in S-Plus
## Version 2 - Spatial and Space-Time analysis
## Attaching package: 'splancs'
## The following object is masked from 'package:raster':
## zoom

pred.poly <- as_Spatial(border)@polygons[[1]]@Polygons[[1]]@coords
grid.pred <- gridpts(pred.poly, xs=0.05, ys=0.05)

model.pred <-
  spatial.pred.binomial.MCML(model.fit, grid.pred=grid.pred,
                           control.mcmc=control.mcmc,
                           type = "marginal",
                           scale.predictions = "prevalence",
                           standard.errors = TRUE, thresholds = 0.15,
                           scale.thresholds = "prevalence",
                           ...)```

## Objective function: 0.4206
## Covariance parameters Matern function
## (fixed relative variance tau^2/sigma^2= 0)
## Estimate StdErr
## sigma^2 1.20 0.77
## phi 3.68 0.25
##
## Legend:
## sigma^2 = variance of the Gaussian process
## phi = scale of the spatial correlation
## 1. Prevalence predictions

prevpred <-
  rasterFromXYZ(cbind(model.pred$grid[,1],
                      model.pred$grid[,2],
                      model.pred$prevalence$predictions))
prevpred <- raster::disaggregate(prevpred, fact = 10,
                                 method = "bilinear")

## 2. Std error

stderr <-
  rasterFromXYZ(cbind(model.pred$grid[,1],
                      model.pred$grid[,2],
                      model.pred$prevalence$standard.errors))
stderr <- raster::disaggregate(stderr, fact = 10,
                               method = "bilinear")

## 3. Exceedance probabilities

exceed <-
  rasterFromXYZ(cbind(model.pred$grid[,1],
                      model.pred$grid[,2],
                      model.pred$exceedance.prob))
exceed <- raster::disaggregate(exceed, fact = 10,
                               method = "bilinear")

par(mfrow = c(2,2))
plot(prevpred, main = "(a)", col = viridis(256, direction = -1))
plot(exceed, main="(b)", zlim = c(0,1), col = viridis(256, direction = -1))
plot(stderr, main = "(c)", col = viridis(256, direction = -1))
par(mfrow = c(1,1))

### 4. Conclusions and future developments

We have demonstrated the use of the geosample package for geostatistical sampling of spatially referenced data. The package is compatible with existing R packages for parameter estimation and predictive inference. It uses novel and computationally efficient algorithms for constructing adaptive and non-adaptive geostatistical designs, including traditional random sampling. The package also provides automatic visualisation of the results by plotting the sampled locations...
Figure 9: (a) Malaria prevalence in Majete. (b) Exceedance probabilities $P(x; 0.15)$ for the predictions. $P(x; 0.15) = P(\text{prev} > 0.15 \text{ at location } x)$. (c) Standard errors of predictions.
as illustrated in Figures 2 and 4. When sampling is only possible at a pre-determined set of locations, for example households within a community or communities within a region, the package requires that all such potential sampling locations are available in georeferenced form.

In the adaptive case, the package offers the user a choice between two design selection criteria: prediction variance and exceedance probability. We plan to add flexibility to this aspect of the package by allowing the user to define their own criterion.

We also plan to incorporate costs associated with travelling between any two potential sampling locations. Given a cost matrix, least-cost path (LCP) selection criterion would identify the most economical path of travel (Adriaensen, Chardon, De Blust, Swinnen, Villalba, Gulinck, and Matthysen 2003), which could be balanced against statistical efficiency so as to give an optimal design for fixed total cost, rather than for fixed total sample size. In contexts like our example of malaria prevalence mapping, an appropriate cost matrix might need to take account of distance, terrain and predicted travel times/speeds (Driezen, Adriaensen, Rondinini, Doncaster, and Matthysen 2007; Houben, Van Boeckel, Mwinuka, Mzumara, Branson, Linard, Chimbwandira, French, Glynn, and Crampin 2012; Li, Li, Li, Qiao, Yang, and Zhang 2010).

A third extension is to relax the requirement for all potential sampling locations to be georeferenced beforehand. In our example of malaria prevalence mapping for the Majete study this involved substantial effort in the field. For prevalence mapping at larger geographical scales, the corresponding effort would have been prohibitive. One approach that we plan to investigate is to use a two-stage stratified sampling procedure, in which the study area is divided into a large number of strata, for example administrative units. A suitable design strategy might then be first to sample strata using a convenient reference location for each stratum, for example its centroid, then to georeference all potential sampling units within each sampled stratum.

We will report these extensions separately in due course.

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Diggle 2017), geoR (Ribeiro Jr. and Diggle 2016), sp (Pebesma and Bivand 2005) and sf (Pebesma 2018).

References


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**geosample: an R Package for Geostatistical Sampling Designs**


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