binGroup2: Statistical Tools for Infection Identification via Group Testing

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Abstract Group testing is the process of testing items as an amalgamation, rather than separately, to determine the binary status for each item. Its use was especially important during the COVID-19 pandemic through testing specimens for SARS-CoV-2. The adoption of group testing for this and many other applications is because members of a negative testing group can be declared negative with potentially only one test. This subsequently leads to significant increases in laboratory testing capacity. Whenever a group testing algorithm is put into practice, it is critical for laboratories to understand the algorithm's operating characteristics, such as the expected number of tests. Our paper presents the binGroup2 package that provides the statistical tools for this purpose. This R package is the first to address the identification aspect of group testing for a wide variety of algorithms. We illustrate its use through COVID-19 and chlamydia/gonorrhea applications of group testing.

1 Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic showed the need for accessible, fast, and reliable testing for severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) and for infections in general. To meet this need, many laboratories turned to the use of group testing. Group testing—also known as pooled testing, specimen pooling, batch testing, and bulk testing—involves combining portions of multiple specimens from different individuals into a "group" and testing this group as if it were a single specimen. If the group tests negative, all individuals represented within it generally can be declared negative. Thus, for a group of size 10, it takes only one test to determine whether all 10 individuals are infection free, whereas it would take 10 tests if each specimen was tested separately. Alternatively, if a group tests positive, retesting in some form is needed to determine who is positive or negative within the group. Dorfman (1943) proposed the original retesting method that involved simply retesting each group member separately using the remaining portions of their specimens. Since this seminal paper, many other group testing algorithms have been proposed. These algorithms are categorized into hierarchical and non-hierarchical approaches corresponding to whether specimens are tested in non-overlapping or overlapping groups, respectively, at each stage of the algorithm (Hitt et al. 2019).

A large number of research papers (see e.g. Abdalhamid et al. 2020; Hogan et al. 2020; Barathidasan et al. 2022), articles in the news media (see e.g. Abdelmalek 2020; Mandavilli 2020; Anthes 2022), and Emergency Use Authorizations given by the US Food and Drug Administration (LabCorp 2022; Verily Life Sciences 2022; Yale University 2022) showed that group testing was one of the important tools available to mitigate the crisis caused by COVID-19. Our new **binGroup2** package for the R software environment provides the statistical tools that researchers and laboratories need for group testing. This package is available from the Comprehensive R Archive Network (CRAN) at `https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=binGroup2`. By its name, one can surmise that it is the second large-scale implementation of the package. The **binGroup** package (Bilder et al. 2010b) focused on estimation using the unique type of data that arises through group testing. Its applications ranged from estimating an overall infection prevalence to estimating a regression model for individual-specific infection probabilities as a function of risk factors. Bilder et al. (2010b) encouraged researchers to provide new functions so that there would be one main package for group testing in R. This resulted in new functions for estimation and a few functions focused on the identification aspect of group testing (i.e., determine a positive/negative outcome for each individual). Over time, these additions resulted in many different syntax styles among functions, making use of the package inconsistent and more difficult. The new **binGroup2** package was created to unify function syntax and, most importantly, to incorporate a new suite of functions for identification. These new functions provide the information that laboratories need to increase their testing capacity to its fullest potential.

Our paper focuses on these identification functions of **binGroup2** because they represent the main new contribution of the package. There are two other R packages on CRAN that also examine the identification aspect of group testing but for different settings. First, the **gtcorr** package (Lendle 2011; archived in 2022) examines hierarchical and non-hierarchical algorithms for a homogeneous population when there is a constant correlation among individuals within a group. This package implements the work of Lendle et al. (2012) that uses single-infection assays only. Second, the **mMPA** package (Liu and Xu 2018) examines three hierarchical algorithms, where two are for homogeneous populations and one is for heterogeneous populations. This package implements the work of Liu
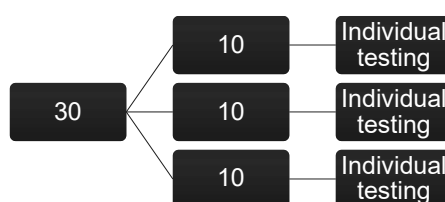
Figure 1: The hierarchical testing algorithm of Lohse et al. (2020).

et al. (2017) for single-infection assays that return an additive count outcome (e.g., viral load) when applied to a group. Both **gtcorr** and **mMPA** are useful for their specialized situations. Our package encompasses a total of 27 different algorithms that include homogeneous/heterogeneous populations and hierarchical/non-hierarchical algorithms. These algorithms are constructed for the most common setting of a binary test response (positive/negative) from independent individuals within a group. We allow for the possibility of testing error and single or multiple-infection assays. Our package implements the work of more than ten papers on the identification aspect of group testing (e.g., Kim et al. 2007; McMahan et al. 2012b; Hou et al. 2020).

An outline of our paper is as follows. The next section provides a review of group testing algorithms that are commonly used by laboratories. The third section discusses how to calculate important operating characteristics, such as the expected number of tests, for a group testing algorithm by using **binGroup2**. This section also demonstrates how one can choose the most efficient implementation of an algorithm. Finally, we conclude with an overview of changes to estimation functions and future extensions of the package. Throughout our text, we phrase our discussion in the context of testing humans for infectious diseases. Applications of group testing for this purpose outside of COVID-19 include testing for influenza (Van et al. 2012), gonorrhea (Ando et al. 2021), HIV (Kim et al. 2014), and West Nile virus (American Red Cross 2023). The package can also be used in a wide variety of other areas where group testing is implemented, such as infectious disease testing for farm animals (Nebraska Veterinary Diagnostic Center 2023), detection of human exposure to pollutants (Thai et al. 2020), determination of virus presence in insect carriers (Zhao and Rosa 2020), development of new pharmaceuticals (Salzer et al. 2016), and security of computer networks (Thai 2011).

2 Algorithms

Laboratories select a group testing algorithm by examining 1) the expected number of tests needed to make a positive/negative determination for every individual, 2) the expected accuracy of the positive/negative determinations, 3) the information available on individuals tested, and 4) the ease of implementation. The **binGroup2** package provides computations needed to address 1) through 3), while laboratories need to address 4) relative to their work environment. Overall, there is not one group testing algorithm that is best for all situations, which has resulted in many different hierarchical and non-hierarchical algorithms being used in practice.

2.1 Hierarchical algorithms

Hierarchical group testing algorithms involve testing a group and splitting its members into smaller, non-overlapping sub-groups for retesting if the original group tests positive. These sub-groups are split further whenever they test positive. If a group/sub-group tests negative, its members are declared negative, so that no further testing is performed upon them. Overall, testing can continue until each group member is tested separately.

A recent example of a hierarchical algorithm comes from Lohse et al. (2020) to test for SARS-CoV-2 (see Figure 1). Individuals were put into non-overlapping groups of size 30. If a group tested positive, three non-overlapping groups of size 10 were formed from its members. If one of these sub-groups tested positive, each of its members were retested separately (i.e., individual testing). This hierarchical algorithm is referred to as a three-stage algorithm because three distinct stages are defined for it.

Hierarchical algorithms can have more or fewer stages than used by Lohse et al. (2020). For example, Abdalhamid et al. (2020) used two stages for SARS-CoV-2 detection by testing in groups of size 5 and subsequently retesting each member of a positive group separately. More than three stages are possible as well, but applications are much rarer because of logistics, larger chance for error, and delay in obtaining the positive/negative individual outcomes. With respect to the last reason, this delay can be significant for nucleic acid amplification tests which can take hours to complete.
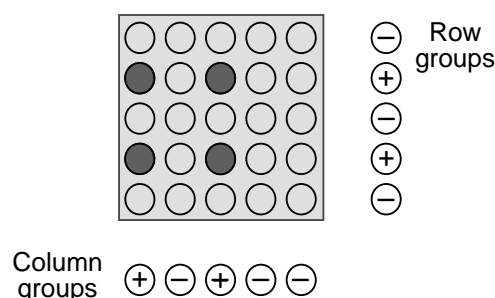
Figure 2: The array testing algorithm of LabCorp (2022). Circles within the square represent specimen locations. Row and column groups are formed from the specimens with two each testing positive. The intersections of these positive rows and columns indicate which specimens need to be retested (filled-in circles).

For example, the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention's assay to detect SARS-CoV-2 takes approximately four hours to complete.

2.2 Non-hierarchical algorithms

Non-hierarchical algorithms were developed to minimize the number of retests needed after an initial stage of testing. The most prominent of these algorithms is referred to as array testing (also known as matrix pooling). For this algorithm, specimens are arranged in a grid (see Figure 2). Groups are formed by row and by column, and each of these groups are subsequently tested. Specimens that lie at the intersections of positive testing rows and positive testing columns are retested separately in a second stage to determine a positive/negative outcome for each of them. All other specimens are declared negative. Because the accuracy of infectious disease assays is not perfect, ambiguities may occur, resulting in positive rows (columns) without any positive columns (rows). In those situations, members of positive rows (columns) should be retested separately (Kim et al. 2007). A recent example of an array testing algorithm is the use of a 5×5 array by LabCorp for SARS-CoV-2 detection (LabCorp 2022).

Array testing has a number of variants in application. For example, a master group containing portions of all specimens within an array can be tested first. If this master group is negative, all individuals are quickly declared negative. If the master group is positive, row and column groups are tested as usual.

2.3 Additional considerations

The probability an individual has an infection plays a very important role in determining the number of tests needed by any group testing algorithm. For a homogeneous population of individuals tested, we can define p as this probability. Equivalently, this p is the overall infection prevalence. In general, the lower (higher) the p, the lower (higher) the expected number of tests needed for group testing (see e.g. Figure 3 of Kim et al. (2007) and Table 1 of Bilder et al. (2021a)).

In many situations, additional information is available on each individual to be tested. This information can be used to determine an individual-specific probability of an infection, say p_i, which can be incorporated into the group testing algorithm to reduce the number of tests (Bilder et al. 2010b; Lewis et al. 2012). For example, testing is performed by public health laboratories across the United States for *Chlamydia trachomatis* (CT) and *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* (NG), the bacteria that lead to chlamydia and gonorrhea, respectively. Clinics collecting specimens also obtain important information on their patients, including recent sexual history and whether a patient has symptoms, and this information can be incorporated into a statistical model to estimate individual-specific probabilities of infection. In general, group testing algorithms that take advantage of this type of additional information are referred to as being "informative" hierarchical/non-hierarchical algorithms (McMahan et al. 2012a; McMahan et al. 2012b).

Group testing algorithms can also be used with multiplex assays. Thus, rather than testing for only one infection, multiple infections can be detected simultaneously. For example, Roche was the first to receive an Emergency Use Authorization for their SARS-CoV-2 and influenza multiplex assay (Roche 2020). Also, the widely adopted Aptima Combo 2 Assay (Hologic 2023) is used for CT and NG detection via group testing. Algorithms with multiplex assays are implemented in the same way as for

single-infection assays, but now a group that tests positive for *at least one* infection leads to retesting for *all* infections in the next stage. For example, if a group tests positive for CT and negative for NG in a two-stage hierarchical algorithm, each group member is retested for both bacteria in the second stage. Testing is performed in this manner, rather than retesting for CT only, because of the dedicated testing platforms used.

3   Identification

Identifying infected individuals is most often the primary goal of infectious disease testing. Prior to implementing a particular group testing algorithm for this purpose, laboratories need to know the expected number of tests. This information is used for planning purposes to make sure enough resources and staff are available to implement testing. Because cost is often directly proportional to the number of tests, the expected number of tests can be used for budgeting purposes as well.

Define T as the number of tests required to determine the positive/negative outcomes for I individuals. These I individuals may be those represented within one initial group for hierarchical testing or in one array for array testing. For the simplest algorithm, two-stage hierarchical testing, suppose a single-infection assay is applied to a homogeneous population. The expected number of tests is

$$E(T) = 1 + I \left[S_e^{(1)} + (1 - S_p^{(1)} - S_e^{(1)})(1-p)^I \right],$$

where $S_e^{(1)}$ and $S_p^{(1)}$ are the first-stage sensitivity and specificity, respectively, of the assay. This expression includes a leading 1 because a single group test starts the testing process. The I outside of the square brackets is for the separate tests performed on each individual when the group tests positive (which has the probability given within the square brackets; see Kim et al. (2007) and Bilder (2019)). Expressions for $E(T)$ become much more complicated with other group testing algorithms. This is especially the case for informative algorithms and when multiplex assays are used. We refer interested readers to the works of Kim et al. (2007), McMahan et al. (2012a), McMahan et al. (2012a), Black et al. (2015), Bilder et al. (2019), and Hou et al. (2020) for specific expressions and calculation details.

The efficiency of a group testing algorithm is expressed typically as the expected number of tests per individual $E(T)/I$, rather than $E(T)$ alone, so that comparisons can be made for different I. The optimal testing configuration (OTC) is the group size or set of group sizes needed by a single algorithm to minimize $E(T)/I$. This testing configuration represents the most efficient process to implement group testing. In other words, it is the group size(s) that increases a laboratory's testing capacity to its fullest potential, because resources saved from its application can be used to test more specimens by the same algorithm. Unfortunately, closed form expressions for the OTC do not exist, but grid searches are sufficient to find it. Note that group testing is more efficient than initially testing each individual separately when $E(T)/I<1$. This is simply because testing each individual separately results in 1 test per individual.

Accuracy is also important to examine for group testing algorithms. This includes the pooling sensitivity, the probability a truly positive individual is found to be positive from the group testing algorithm, and the pooling specificity, the probability a truly negative individual is found to be negative from the group testing algorithm. These probabilities are not necessarily equal to an assay's stated sensitivity and specificity because individuals are tested in one or more groups. For example, the pooling sensitivity for a two-stage hierarchical algorithm can be shown to be $S_e^{(1)} S_e^{(2)}$, where $S_e^{(2)}$ is the sensitivity of the assay at the second stage (Johnson et al. 1991, Kim et al. 2007, and Hitt 2020). Expressions for these accuracy measures corresponding to other algorithms are available in the previously mentioned references for $E(T)$.

One issue related to accuracy is what is known as the *dilution effect* that sometimes can reduce the sensitivity of a group test. If the same sample volume is used for a group and individual test, the dilution effect can occur because each individual is represented by a smaller portion in the group than if each individual was tested separately. For example, Abdalhamid et al. (2020) used a sample volume of $250\mu L$ for a group of size 5 with each individual contributing $50\mu L$. In their validation study, specimens were tested one at a time using a sample volume of $250\mu L$. Thus, there can be less pathogen present for the test performed upon the group than for a test performed upon a single specimen. Bilder et al. (2021b) discussed the potential dilution effect and solutions for it. In summary, the resulting outcome from the dilution effect is often known for assays (Tan et al. 2020), like for those using real-time reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR) which was widely used for SARS-CoV-2 testing. This effect can be accounted for by specifying a smaller value for a group test sensitivity when computing $E(T)$. Alternatively, the process for applying the assay can be changed so

Table 1: Values for `algorithm` in `opChar1()` and `opChar2()`. A five-stage informative hierarchical algorithm (ID5) is also available for two infections. Informative array testing is not included for `opChar2()` because closed-form expressions of operating characteristics have not been proposed in the literature.

algorithm	Description
A2	Array testing
A2M	Array testing with master group
D2	Two-stage hierarchical
D3	Three-stage hierarchical
D4	Four-stage hierarchical
IA2	Informative array testing
ID2	Two-stage, informative hierarchical
ID3	Three-stage, informative hierarchical
ID4	Four-stage, informative hierarchical

that there is not a reduction in the sensitivity (Abdalhamid et al. 2020, Sanghani et al. 2021).

3.1 Main functions

There are two main sets of functions in **binGroup2** used for identification. First, the `opChar1()` and `opChar2()` functions calculate operating characteristics for a group testing algorithm. These functions are for single-infection and two-infection assays, where the number in the name designates the number of infections. Calculations for three or more infection assays are discussed in the concluding section of the paper. The syntax for `opChar1()` is

```
opChar1(algorithm, p = NULL, probabilities = NULL, Se = 0.99,
    Sp = 0.99, hier.config = NULL, rowcol.sz = NULL, alpha = 2,
    a = NULL, print.time = TRUE, ...)
```

The required `algorithm` argument specifies the chosen group testing algorithm. Possible values for this argument are listed in Table 1. For example, a value of "D2" indicates two-stage hierarchical testing in a homogeneous population (the "D" is for its originator, Robert Dorfman). The remaining arguments are dependent on the algorithm chosen or are optional. To indicate the probability of an infection, a scalar can be given for `p` or a vector of potentially different probabilities for each individual can be given for `probabilities`. Rather than providing a specific vector of probabilities, the `p` and `alpha` arguments can be used together for informative group testing algorithms to specify a beta distribution from which the expected values of order statistics are found. For this case, `p` represents the expected value of a beta random variable and `alpha` represents a shape parameter. This type of specification is helpful when probabilities of infection can be characterized well by a beta distribution.

For hierarchical algorithms, a group membership matrix (Bilder et al. 2019) must be provided for `hier.config` to detail the testing of each individual. In this matrix, the rows correspond to the stages of testing, the columns correspond to each individual to be tested, and the cell values specify the group number of each individual at each stage. We provide an example of its use shortly. For non-hierarchical algorithms, the `rowcol.sz` argument must be provided for the row and column size of a square array.

Additional arguments include `Se` and `Sp` for the sensitivity and specificity of the assay, respectively. If a single value is given for one of these arguments, this value is used for each stage. Otherwise, a vector of values can be given in order of stage. The `a` argument specifies individuals for which to compute accuracy measures. By default, accuracy measures are computed for all individuals. Finally, `print.time` allows users to turn off information regarding the duration of calculations.

The `opChar2()` function follows a similar syntax so we do not provide it here. The main difference involves `p` becoming a vector of joint probabilities of infection. For example, `p = (0.90, 0.03, 0.02, 0.05)` represents $(p_{--}, p_{+-}, p_{-+}, p_{++})$, where p_{ab} is the probability of being positive/negative ($+/-$) for infections a and b. Also, the `probabilities` argument value becomes a $4 \times I$ matrix of these probabilities. Similarly, the `alpha` argument becomes the parameter vector for a Dirichlet distribution.

The second set of functions are `OTC1()` and `OTC2()` that find the OTC corresponding to single-infection and two-infection assays, respectively. The syntax for `OTC1()` is

```
OTC1(algorithm, p = NULL, probabilities = NULL, Se = 0.99, Sp = 0.99,
    group.sz, obj.fn = "ET", weights = NULL, alpha = 2, trace = TRUE,
```

```
    print.time = TRUE, ...)
```

The syntax is similar to opChar1() as well, so we highlight the main differences only. There is no group membership matrix or row/column size specified because OTC1() searches for the OTC. Instead, the group.sz argument specifies the initial group sizes to search over. For example, a value of 3:10 searches over initial group sizes of 3 to 10 for hierarchical testing or array testing (row/column size).

The obj.fn argument of OTC1() indicates which objective function to minimize when searching for the OTC. Earlier in this section, we focused on using the expected number of tests per individual as this objective function (obj.fn = "ET"). While this is used most often in practice, other objective functions are possible (Hitt et al. 2019). For example, Graff and Roeloffs (1972) proposed to minimize a linear combination of the expected number of tests and the number of misclassified individuals (false positives, false negatives). This objective function is specified using "GR", and the coefficients in this linear combination are given in the weights argument.

The OTC2() function follows a similar syntax as OTC1() with changes like those for opChar2() compared to opChar1(). We next provide examples using these functions for group testing applications.

3.2 Operating characteristics

We illustrate the use of opChar1() for the three-stage hierarchical testing algorithm of Lohse et al. (2020). The group membership matrix for this application is the 3×30 matrix below.

```
> group.member <- matrix(data = c(rep(1, times = 30), rep(1:3, each = 10),
    1:30), nrow = 3, ncol = 30, byrow = TRUE)
> group.member[, 11]

[1]  1  2 11
```

For example, the 11th individual is tested initially in a group of size 30 that includes every specimen (one group overall). In the second stage, this individual is tested in the second sub-group of 10 individuals if its first-stage group is positive. In the third stage, this individual is tested separately if its second-stage group is positive.

We need to specify p or p_i for each individual. In actual practice, these values will be unknown. However, very good point estimates are usually available from past testing results in high volume clinical specimen settings where group testing is used. For the Lohse et al. (2020) application, the observed prevalence of SARS-CoV-2 was 0.0193, so we use this value here for p. By specifying "D3" for algorithm to represent three-stage hierarchical testing, we invoke opChar1() as follows.

```
> library(package = "binGroup2")
> save.Lohse <- opChar1(algorithm = "D3", p = 0.0193, Se = 1, Sp = 1,
    hier.config = group.member, print.time = FALSE)
> summary(save.Lohse)


Algorithm: Non-informative three-stage hierarchical testing

Testing configuration:
Stage 1: 30
Stage 2: 10,10,10

Expected number of tests: 7.64
Expected number of tests per individual: 0.2547


Accuracy for individuals:
     PSe    PSp    PPPV   PNPV Individuals
1 1.0000 1.0000 1.0000 1.0000         All

Overall accuracy of the algorithm:
     PSe    PSp    PPPV   PNPV
1 1.0000 1.0000 1.0000 1.0000

PSe denotes the pooling sensitivity.
PSp denotes the pooling specificity.
PPPV denotes the pooling positive predictive value.
PNPV denotes the pooling negative predictive value.
```

The sensitivity (Se) and the specificity (Sp) are set to 1 for each stage because the assay accuracy is not stated in Lohse et al. (2020) or in the product insert of the assay (Altona Diagnostics 2023). While the algorithm's accuracy values produced will not be useful, this approach is often followed in practice to focus on the expected number of tests regardless of false positives/negatives.

The generic `summary()` function uses the corresponding method function for the class to summarize the operating characteristics. For example, the expected number of tests per individual is $E(T)/I = 0.2547$. A more compact summary based on the expected number of tests is available with `ExpTests()`.

```
> ExpTests(save.Lohse)

  ExpTests ExpTestsPerIndividual PercentReductionTests PercentIncreaseTestCap
1   7.6403                0.2547                 74.53                 292.66
```

Group testing requires $1 - E(T)/I = 75\%$ fewer tests on average than testing each specimen separately. In turn, this leads to a $100\{1/[E(T)/I - 1]\}\% = 293\%$ increase in testing capacity on average when applying the algorithm to a continuous stream of specimens. This type of large increase in testing capacity is why laboratories implemented group testing during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Our second example focuses on the Aptima Combo 2 Assay and its use by the State Hygienic Laboratory (SHL) at the University of Iowa. The SHL tests thousands of female swab specimens each year in groups of size four using a two-stage hierarchical algorithm. We focus here instead on their male urine specimens because group testing is not currently implemented. The reason is due to concern that their infection prevalence may be too large for group testing to be beneficial. Bilder et al. (2019) provided a Dirichlet distribution with parameter vector $\alpha = (10.99, 0.18, 2.04, 0.31)$ to describe a vector of the joint probabilities of infection for CT and NG that take into account risk factors, such as symptoms and exposure to an infected individual. Using a first-stage group size of 5, we want to calculate how well three-stage hierarchical testing would perform when allowing for differences among probabilities of infection for individuals. To begin, we simulate what one potential set of probabilities of infection could be using the Dirichlet distribution and the `rdirichlet()` function of the **rBeta2009** package (Cheng et al. 2012). These probabilities are ordered by the probability of having at least one infection.

```
> library(package = "rBeta2009")
> set.seed(3789)
> p.unordered <- t(rdirichlet(n = 5, shape = c(10.99, 0.18, 2.04, 0.31)))
> p.ordered <- p.unordered[, order(1 - p.unordered[1, ])]
> round(p.ordered, 4)

       [,1]   [,2]   [,3]   [,4]   [,5]
[1,] 0.9714 0.8841 0.8356 0.8291 0.7009
[2,] 0.0001 0.0006 0.0000 0.0238 0.0000
[3,] 0.0274 0.0879 0.1643 0.1292 0.2991
[4,] 0.0011 0.0274 0.0001 0.0178 0.0000
```

Next, we create the group membership matrix for three-stage informative hierarchical testing using the OTC found in Bilder et al. (2019). Because individuals 4 and 5 are tested separately in the second stage, a NA is used for them in the third stage of the group membership matrix.

```
> group.member <- matrix(data = c(rep(1, times = 5), 1, 1, 1, 2, 3, 1, 2,
    3, NA, NA), nrow = 3, ncol = 5, byrow = TRUE)
> group.member

    [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5]
[1,]   1    1    1    1    1
[2,]   1    1    1    2    3
[3,]   1    2    3   NA   NA
```

Lastly, the `opChar2()` function calculates the operating characteristics for the algorithm. The Se and Sp matrices provide the sensitivity and specificity values, respectively, for each infection at each stage (ICBSS 2014). Because these accuracies are equal across the stages, the sensitivity (specificity) for CT and NG could be instead included as a single vector of length 2 for the Se (Sp) argument of `opChar2()`. Alternatively, if accuracies were different across stages, the full matrices provide a general way to include this information.

```
> Se <- matrix(data = rep(c(0.979, 0.985), times = 3), nrow = 2, ncol = 3,
    dimnames = list(Infection = 1:2, Stage = 1:3))
> Sp <- matrix(data = rep(c(0.985, 0.996), times = 3), nrow = 2, ncol = 3,
```

```
        dimnames = list(Infection = 1:2, Stage = 1:3))
> save.SHL <- opChar2(algorithm = "ID3", probabilities = p.ordered, Se = Se,
    Sp = Sp, hier.config = group.member, print.time = FALSE)
> summary(save.SHL)


Algorithm: Informative three-stage hierarchical testing

Testing configuration:
Stage 1: 5
Stage 2: 3,1,1

Expected number of tests: 3.59
Expected number of tests per individual: 0.7182

Disease 1 accuracy for individuals:
     PSe    PSp    PPPV   PNPV Individuals
1 0.9770 0.9958 0.2111 1.0000           1
2 0.9778 0.9961 0.8784 0.9994           2
3 0.9784 0.9958 0.0124 1.0000           3
4 0.9729 0.9915 0.8330 0.9988           4
5 0.9787 0.9913 0.0012 1.0000           5

Disease 2 accuracy for individuals:
     PSe    PSp    PPPV   PNPV Individuals
1 0.9585 0.9990 0.9643 0.9988           1
2 0.9633 0.9992 0.9940 0.9952           2
3 0.9575 0.9994 0.9969 0.9917           3
4 0.9725 0.9979 0.9879 0.9953           4
5 0.9714 0.9984 0.9961 0.9879           5

Overall accuracy of the algorithm:
     PSe    PSp    PPPV   PNPV
1 0.9749 0.9941 0.7039 0.9996
2 0.9669 0.9988 0.9931 0.9941

PSe denotes the pooling sensitivity.
PSp denotes the pooling specificity.
PPPV denotes the pooling positive predictive value.
PNPV denotes the pooling negative predictive value.
```

The expected number of tests per individual is 0.7182. Because this value is less than 1, group testing would be more efficient on average than testing each individual separately. The PSe and PSp values in the output are the pooling sensitivity and specificity, respectively. Additionally, values are given for the pooling positive predictive value (PPPV) and the pooling negative predictive value (PNPV; see Altman and Bland (1994) and Hitt et al. (2019)).

Of course, not every set of 5 individuals has these 5 joint probabilities of infection. When this group testing algorithm was applied to the data from which the Dirichlet distribution was estimated, Bilder et al. (2019) showed that the number of tests decreased by approximately 26% on average.

3.3 Optimal testing configuration

Returning to the three-stage hierarchical algorithm of Lohse et al. (2020), suppose again that $p = 0.0193$. The OTC is found using the following code.

```
> OTC.Lohse <- OTC1(algorithm = "D3", p = 0.0193, Se = 1, Sp = 1,
    group.sz = 3:20, obj.fn = "ET", print.time = FALSE)

Initial Group Size = 3
Initial Group Size = 4
Initial Group Size = 5
Initial Group Size = 6
Initial Group Size = 7
Initial Group Size = 8
```

```
Initial Group Size = 9
Initial Group Size = 10
Initial Group Size = 11
Initial Group Size = 12
Initial Group Size = 13
Initial Group Size = 14
Initial Group Size = 15
Initial Group Size = 16
Initial Group Size = 17
Initial Group Size = 18
Initial Group Size = 19
Initial Group Size = 20

> summary(OTC.Lohse)


Algorithm: Non-informative three-stage hierarchical testing

Optimal testing configuration:
   Stage 1 Stage 2
ET      16 4,4,4,4

Expected number of tests:
   E(T)  Value
ET 3.27 0.2045

E(T) denotes the expected number of tests.
Value denotes the objective function value per individual.

Overall accuracy of the algorithm:
      PSe    PSp   PPPV   PNPV
ET 1.0000 1.0000 1.0000 1.0000

PSe denotes the pooling sensitivity.
PSp denotes the pooling specificity.
PPPV denotes the pooling positive predictive value.
PNPV denotes the pooling negative predictive value.
```

The summary() function summarizes the OTC. The first-stage group size is 16, the second stage has 4 groups of size 4, and the third stage uses individual testing. The expected number of tests per individual is 0.2045. Therefore, the OTC decreases the expected number of tests per individual further by almost 20% ($= (0.2547 - 0.2045)/0.2547$) over the testing configuration used by Lohse et al. (2020). In terms of expected test capacity, one can show with ExpTests(OTC.Lohse) that the OTC leads to a 389% increase in testing capacity when compared to testing each specimen separately. Again, this is significantly better than the testing configuration chosen by Lohse et al. (2020) and helps to show the importance of choosing a testing configuration.

The OTC1() function searches for the optimal set of group sizes at *each* first-stage group size specified in the group.sz argument. By default, the function's progress is printed during its running (trace = TRUE). We take this approach to finding the OTC, rather than optimizing over all group sizes initially, because a laboratory may prefer a sub-optimal testing configuration due to their work environment. The Config() function provides information about these sub-optimal testing configurations. This function extracts each of the best testing configurations by initial group size and returns them as a data frame sorted by the value of the objective function ($E(T)/I$) because the default was used in OTC1()).

```
> Config(OTC.Lohse)

   I    config      ET  value PSe PSp PPPV PNPV
1 16   4,4,4,4 3.2714 0.2045   1   1    1    1
2 17   5,4,4,4 3.4922 0.2054   1   1    1    1
3 15   4,4,4,3 3.0842 0.2056   1   1    1    1
4 20 4,4,4,4,4 4.1138 0.2057   1   1    1    1
5 19 4,4,4,4,3 3.9176 0.2062   1   1    1    1
```

Adding top.overall = TRUE to Config() provides the same information but with the top testing configurations overall rather than for each initial group size.
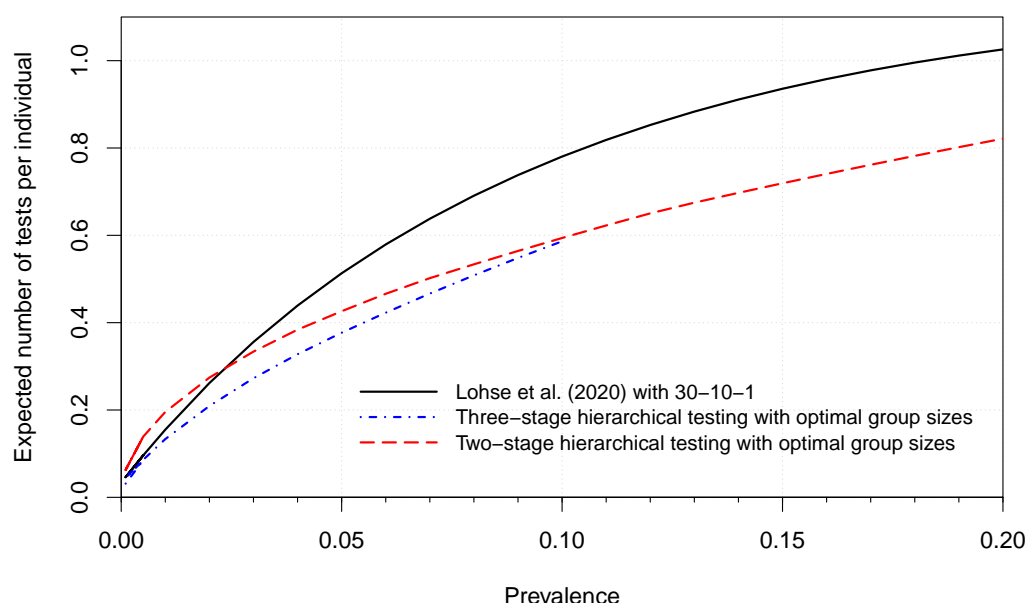
Figure 3: Expected number of tests per individual as a function of infection prevalence. Three-stage hierarchical testing using the OTC is not plotted for prevalences greater than 0.10 because two stages results in a lower expected number of tests.

The most efficient outcome from the OTC depends on the chosen value of p. As mentioned earlier in this section, very good point estimates for p are often available. Still, it would be of interest to determine what would occur for other choices of p. The **binGroup2** package provides the tools needed by experienced R users for this more in depth examination. Our Appendix A discusses additional code using OTC1() to produce Figure 3. The testing configuration chosen by Lohse et al. (2020) is never optimal. In fact, two-stage hierarchical group testing is more efficient than Lohse et al. (2020) for $p > 0.03$.

Our second example focuses on SARS-CoV-2 detection again, but now in the context of LabCorp's array testing. LabCorp (2022) examined the potential performance of their approach using possible prevalences between 0.001 and 0.15, so we begin with using a prevalence of 0.05. Also, LabCorp (2022) estimated that approximately 0.023 of all positives would be missed using array testing rather than individual testing. This is not quite the sensitivity of the assay, but we will use 0.977 and 1 as the sensitivity for the first and second stages, respectively, for illustration purposes. We will also use 1 as the specificity for illustration purposes. The expected number of tests per individual for the algorithm is found first using opChar1() with algorithm = "A2".

```
> save.LabCorp <- opChar1(algorithm = "A2", p = 0.05, rowcol.sz = 5,
    Se = c(1 - 0.023, 1), Sp = 1, print.time = FALSE)
> ExpTests(save.LabCorp)

  ExpTests ExpTestsPerIndividual PercentReductionTests PercentIncreaseTestCap
1  12.0763               0.4831                 51.69                  107.02
```

The expected number of tests per individual is 0.48, resulting in an expected 107% increase in testing capacity.

Could LabCorp do better? Below is the code used to find the OTC for a range of group sizes from 3 to 10 with array testing.

```
> OTC.LabCorp.Array <- OTC1(algorithm = "A2", p = 0.05, Se = c(0.977,
    1), Sp = 1, group.sz = 3:10, obj.fn = "ET", trace = FALSE,
    print.time = FALSE)
> summary(OTC.LabCorp.Array)
```

```
Algorithm: Non-informative array testing without master pooling

Optimal testing configuration:
   Row/column size Array size
ET              10        100

Expected number of tests:
    E(T)  Value
ET 37.20 0.3720

E(T) denotes the expected number of tests.
Value denotes the objective function value per individual.

Overall accuracy of the algorithm:
      PSe    PSp   PPPV   PNPV
ET 0.9550 1.0000 1.0000 0.9976

PSe denotes the pooling sensitivity.
PSp denotes the pooling specificity.
PPPV denotes the pooling positive predictive value.
PNPV denotes the pooling negative predictive value.

> ExpTests(OTC.LabCorp.Array)

       ExpTests ExpTestsPerInd PercentReductionTests PercentIncreaseTestCap
opt.ET  37.1953         0.3720                 62.80                 168.85
```

The OTC for array testing is a 10×10 array that has an expected number of tests per individual of 0.37 and an increase in testing capacity of 169%. This is a significant improvement over the 5×5 array. One could perform similar calculations using two-stage hierarchical testing with `algorithm = "D2"` in `OTC1`. This results in an OTC that uses an initial group size of 5 and leads to an expected number of tests per individual of 0.42.

Because these calculations rely on $p = 0.05$, Appendix B includes additional results for different values of p and a discussion of the corresponding more advanced code. In most cases, we find that a 5×5 array is not the OTC.

3.4 Additional functions

Not all group testing algorithms fit well within a general computing framework. For this reason, we include a few additional functions outside of those discussed previously. In particular, the `halving()` and `Sterrett()` functions provide alternative ways to use hierarchical testing algorithms. The former function calculates operating characteristics when positive testing groups are split only in half (Litvak et al. 1994; Black et al. 2012). The latter function calculates operating characteristics for algorithms that retest only one specimen at a time from a positive group (Sterrett 1957; Bilder et al. 2010a). Once a positive is found, the remaining specimens are retested again in a group. The idea behind this strategy is there will likely be only one positive (or few positives) in the original group.

4   Conclusion

The **binGroup2** package provides researchers and laboratories with the statistical tools needed to implement group testing effectively. An earlier version of this package was used as well by *The New York Times* to help readers understand the benefits from group testing during the COVID-19 pandemic (Bui et al. 2020). Similar to Bilder et al. (2010b), we encourage researchers to submit their own functions to us to be included within the package. This will allow users to have one overall package rather than many packages that may duplicate the work of others.

The identification functions are for one and two-infection assays. While there are a few three- and four-infection assays for infectious disease detection that have been recently released (e.g., the BD Max CT/GC/TV assay (BD 2023) that tests for pathogens which lead to chlamydia, gonorrhea, and trichomoniasis), these assays are used currently much less than single and two-infection assays. Also, derivations for operating characteristics become much more complex for more than two infections, so there are no closed-form expressions available for these types of assays. For example, Hou et al.

(2020) needed Monte Carlo simulation for a three-infection assay. We anticipate that it will be useful to include Monte Carlo simulation-based estimates of operating characteristics in future versions of **binGroup2** as these types of multiplex assays become more widely used. New research is needed though to find efficient computational approaches when searching for the OTC because of these simulation aspects.

While not the focus of this paper, the estimation functions from **binGroup** have been simplified and expanded upon using a coherent style. The new `propCI()` function combines three previous functions into one to calculate point estimates and confidence intervals for an infection prevalence. The new `propDiffCI()` provides similar functionality for the difference of two infection prevalences. Both functions incorporate new research since Bilder et al. (2010b). In particular, the bias correction methods of Hepworth and Biggerstaff (2017) are included to account for the long-standing problem of bias for point estimates in group testing (Swallow 1985). The `gtReg()` function combines three previous **binGroup** functions used to estimate regression models with group testing data that arise from different testing algorithms. The `gtSim()` function also combines three previous **binGroup** functions to simulate group testing data with covariates that can arise from different testing algorithms.

5 Acknowledgments

6 Appendix A: Details for figure

Our separate R program provides the code to create Figure 3. This figure presents a comparison of the three-stage hierarchical testing algorithm of Lohse et al. (2020) to using the OTC for two- and three-stage hierarchical testing. We use the `OTC1()` function to find the OTCs for the prevalences of 0.001, 0.005, and 0.01 to 0.20 by 0.01 with a maximum group size of 64. The large number of prevalences and large group sizes will result in a significant amount of computational time. For readers interested in testing the code, we recommend using a few prevalence values and a maximum group size of 30 for an initial running of it.

7 Appendix B: Labcorp's array testing

LabCorp (2022) described the use of arrays for up to size 5×5. Our separate R program provides the code to create Figure 4 that examines their use further. This figure provides evidence that a 5×5 array size is not an optimal choice. For the corresponding calculations, we found the OTC for array testing by minimizing the expected number of tests per individual for the prevalences of 0.001, 0.005, and 0.01 to 0.20 by 0.01. Because two-stage hierarchical testing is also frequently used for SARS-CoV-2 detection, we also found the OTC for this algorithm. Throughout these calculations, we conservatively limit the maximum group size to 10.

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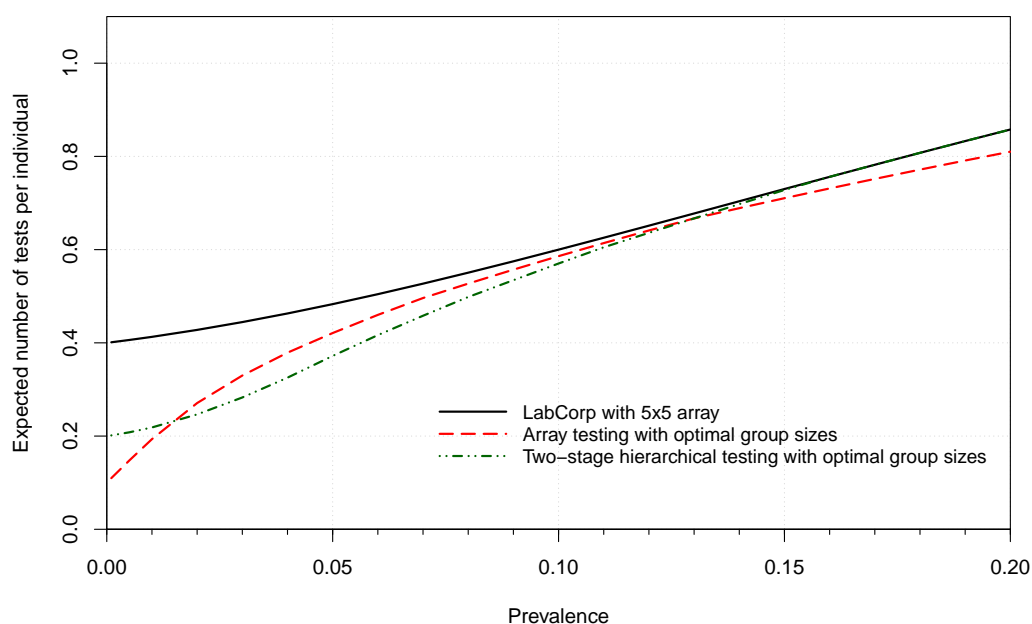
Figure 4: Expected number of tests per individual as a function of infection prevalence for LabCorp's setting.

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