Non-Parametric Trend Tests and Change-Point Detection

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1 Trend detection

1.1 Mann-Kendall Test

The non-parametric Mann-Kendall test is commonly employed to detect monotonic trends in series of environmental data, climate data or hydrological data. The null hypothesis, H_0 , is that the data come from a population with independent realizations and are identically distributed. The alternative hypothesis, H_A , is that the data follow a monotonic trend. The Mann-Kendall test statistic is calculated according to:

$$S = \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=k+1}^{n} \operatorname{sgn}(X_j - X_k)$$
 (1)

with

$$sgn(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x > 0\\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0\\ -1 & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$
 (2)

The mean of S is E[S] = 0 and the variance σ^2 is

$$\sigma^{2} = \left\{ n (n-1) (2n+5) - \sum_{j=1}^{p} t_{j} (t_{j} - 1) (2t_{j} + 5) \right\} / 18$$
 (3)

where p is the number of the tied groups in the data set and t_j is the number of data points in the jth tied group. The statistic S is approximately normal distributed provided that the following Z-transformation is employed:

$$Z = \begin{cases} \frac{S-1}{\sigma} & \text{if } S > 0\\ 0 & \text{if } S = 0\\ \frac{S+1}{\sigma} & \text{if } S > 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\tag{4}$$

The statistic S is closely related to Kendall's τ as given by:

$$\tau = \frac{S}{D} \tag{5}$$

where

$$D = \left[\frac{1}{2} n (n-1) - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{p} t_j (t_j - 1) \right]^{1/2} \left[\frac{1}{2} n (n-1) \right]^{1/2}$$
 (6)

The univariate Mann-Kendall test is envoked as follows:

- > require(trend)
- > data(maxau)
- > Q <- maxau[,"Q"]
- > mk.test(Q)

Mann-Kendall trend test

data: Q z = -1.3989, n = 45, p-value = 0.1619 alternative hypothesis: true S is not equal to 0 sample estimates: S varS tau $-144.0000000 \ 10450.00000000 \ -0.1454545$

1.2 Seasonal Mann-Kendall Test

The Mann-Kendall statistic for the gth season is calculated as:

$$S_g = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^n \operatorname{sgn}(X_{jg} - X_{ig}), \quad g = 1, 2, \dots, m$$
 (7)

According to Hirsch *et al.* (1982), the seasonal Mann-Kendall statistic, \hat{S} , for the entire series is calculated according to

$$\hat{S} = \sum_{g=1}^{m} S_g \tag{8}$$

For further information, the reader is referred to Hipel and McLoed (1994, p. 866-869) and Hirsch *et al.* (1982). The seasonal Mann-Kendall test ist conducted as follows:

> require(trend)
> smk.test(nottem)

Seasonal Mann-Kendall trend test (Hirsch-Slack test)

data: nottem
z = 2.0919, p-value = 0.03645
alternative hypothesis: true S is not equal to 0
sample estimates:
 S varS
224 11364

Only the temperature data in Nottingham for August (S=80, p=0.009) as well as for September (S=67, p=0.029) show a significant (p<0.05) positive trend according to the seasonal Mann-Kendall test. Thus, the global trend for the entire series is significant (S=224, p=0.036).

1.3 Correlated Seasonal Mann-Kendall Test

The correlated seasonal Mann-Kendall test can be employed, if the data are coreelated with e.g. the pre-ceeding months. For further information the reader is referred to Hipel and McLoed (1994, p. 869-871).

1.4 Multivariate Mann-Kendall Test

Lettenmeier (1988) extended the Mann-Kendall test for trend to a multivariate or multisite trend test. In this package the formulation of Libiseller and Grimvall (2002) is used for the test.

Particle bound Hexacholorobenzene (HCB, $\mu g \ kg^-1$) was monthly measured in suspended matter at six monitoring sites along the river strech of the River Rhine (Pohlert et al., 2011). The below code-snippet tests for trend of each site and for the global trend at the multiple sites.

```
> require(trend)
> data(hcb)
> plot(hcb)
```

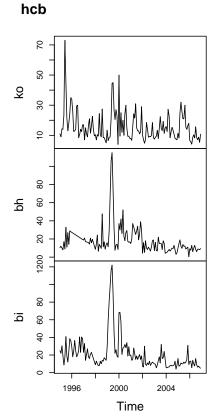
mz ka we so 150 150 150 150 250 380 10 20 30 40

2000

Time

2004

1996



```
> ## Single site trends
> site <- c("we", "ka", "mz", "ko", "bh", "bi")
> for (i in 1:6) {print(site[i]) ; print(mk.test(hcb[,site[i]], continuity = TRUE))}
[1] "we"
```

Mann-Kendall trend test

[1] "ka"

Mann-Kendall trend test

data: hcb[, site[i]]

z = -3.5283, n = 144, p-value = 0.0004182

alternative hypothesis: true S is not equal to 0

sample estimates:

S varS tau

-2.043000e+03 3.349430e+05 -1.998191e-01

[1] "mz"

Mann-Kendall trend test

data: hcb[, site[i]]

z = -1.4447, n = 144, p-value = 0.1485

alternative hypothesis: true S is not equal to 0

sample estimates:

S varS tau

-8.370000e+02 3.348423e+05 -8.198541e-02

[1] "ko"

Mann-Kendall trend test

data: hcb[, site[i]]

z = -2.7916, n = 144, p-value = 0.005244

alternative hypothesis: true S is not equal to 0

sample estimates:

S varS tau

-1.617000e+03 3.350937e+05 -1.575802e-01

[1] "bh"

Mann-Kendall trend test

data: hcb[, site[i]]

z = -5.7681, n = 144, p-value = 8.018e-09

alternative hypothesis: true S is not equal to 0

sample estimates:

S varS

tau

-3.340000e+03 3.350967e+05 -3.254744e-01

[1] "bi"

Mann-Kendall trend test

```
data: hcb[, site[i]]
z = -7.1165, n = 144, p-value = 1.107e-12
alternative hypothesis: true S is not equal to 0
sample estimates:
                       varS
                                      tau
-4.120000e+03 3.350080e+05 -4.023498e-01
> ## Regional trend (all stations including covariance between stations
> mult.mk.test(hcb)
       Multivariate Mann-Kendall Trend Test
data: hcb
z = -6.686, p-value = 2.293e-11
alternative hypothesis: true S is not equal to 0
sample estimates:
     S
           varS
-15359 5277014
```

1.5 Partial Mann-Kendall Test

> data(maxau)

This test can be conducted in the presence of co-variates. For full information, the reader is referred to Libiseller and Grimvall (2002).

We assume a correlation between concentration of suspended sediments (s) and flow at Maxau.

As s is significantly positive related to flow, the partial Mann-Kendall test can be employed as follows.

```
> require(trend)
> data(maxau)
> s <- maxau[,"s"]; Q <- maxau[,"Q"]
> partial.mk.test(s,Q)
```

Partial Mann-Kendall Trend Test

```
data: t AND s . Q z = -3.597, p-value = 0.0003218 alternative hypothesis: true S is not equal to 0 sample estimates: S varS cor -350.6576077 \ 9503.2897820 \ 0.3009888
```

The test indicates a highly significant decreasing trend (S = -350.7, p < 0.001) of s, when Q is partialled out.

1.6 Partial correlation trend test

This test performs a partial correlation trend test with either the Pearson's or the Spearman's correlation coefficients (r(tx.z)). The magnitude of the linear / monotonic trend with time is computed while the impact of the co-variate is partialled out.

Likewise to the partial Mann-Kendall test, the partial correlation trend test using Spearman's correlation coefficient indicates a highly significant decreasing trend ($r_{S(ts,Q)} = -0.536$, n = 45, p < 0.001) of s when Q is partialled out.

1.7 Cox and Stuart Trend Test

The non-parametric Cox and Stuart Trend test tests the first third of the series with the last third for trend.

```
> ## Example from Schoenwiese (1992, p. 114)
> ## Number of frost days in April at Munich from 1957 to 1968
> ## z = -0.5, Accept H0
> frost <- ts(data=c(9,12,4,3,0,4,2,1,4,2,9,7), start=1957)
> cs.test(frost)
```

Cox and Stuart Trend test

```
data: frost
z = -0.5, n = 12, p-value = 0.6171
alternative hypothesis: monotonic trend
> ## Example from Sachs (1997, p. 486-487)
> ## z ~ 2.1, Reject HO on a level of p = 0.0357
> x <- c(5,6,2,3,5,6,4,3,7,8,9,7,5,3,4,7,3,5,6,7,8,9)
> cs.test(x)
```

Cox and Stuart Trend test

data: x
z = 2.0926, n = 22, p-value = 0.03639
alternative hypothesis: monotonic trend

2 Magnitude of trend

2.1 Sen's slope

This test computes both the slope (i.e. linear rate of change) and intercept according to Sen's method. First, a set of linear slopes is calculated as follows:

$$d_k = \frac{X_j - X_i}{j - i} \tag{9}$$

for $(1 \le i < j \le n)$, where d is the slope, X denotes the variable, n is the number of data, and i, j are indices.

Sen's slope is then calculated as the median from all slopes: $b = \text{Median } d_k$. The intercepts are computed for each timestep t as given by

$$a_t = X_t - b * t \tag{10}$$

and the corresponding intercept is as well the median of all intercepts.

This function also computes the upper and lower confidence limits for sens slope.

```
> require(trend)
> s <- maxau[,"s"]
> sens.slope(s)
Sen's slope
```

```
data: s z = -3.8445, n = 45, p-value = 0.0001208 alternative hypothesis: true z is not equal to 0
```

95 percent confidence interval: -0.4196477 -0.1519026 sample estimates: Sen's slope -0.2876139

2.2 Seasonal Sen's slope

According to Hirsch et al. (1982) the seasonal Sen's slope is calculated as follows:

$$d_{ijk} = \frac{X_{ij} - x_{ik}}{j - k} \tag{11}$$

for each $(x_{ij}, x_{ik} \text{ pair } i = 1, 2, ..., m$, where $1 \le k < j \le n_i$ and n_i is the number of known values in the *i*th season. The seasonal slope estimator is the median of the d_{ijk} values.

> require(trend)

> sea.sens.slope(nottem)

[1] 0.05

3 Change-point detection

3.1 Pettitt's test

The approach after Pettitt (1979) is commonly applied to detect a single change-point in hydrological series or climate series with continuous data. It tests the H_0 : The T variables follow one or more distributions that have the same location parameter (no change), against the alternative: a change point exists. The non-parametric statistic is defined as:

$$K_T = \max |U_{t,T}|, \tag{12}$$

where

$$U_{t,T} = \sum_{i=1}^{t} \sum_{j=t+1}^{T} \operatorname{sgn}(X_i - X_j)$$
 (13)

The change-point of the series is located at K_T , provided that the statistic is significant. The significance probability of K_T is approximated for $p \leq 0.05$ with

$$p \simeq 2 \exp\left(\frac{-6 K_T^2}{T^3 + T^2}\right) \tag{14}$$

The Pettitt-test is conducted in such a way:

- > require(trend)
- > data(PagesData)
- > pettitt.test(PagesData)

Pettitt's test for single change-point detection

data: PagesData

U* = 232, p-value = 0.01456

alternative hypothesis: two.sided

sample estimates:

probable change point at time K

17

As given in the publication of Pettitt (1979) the change-point of Page's data is located at t = 17, with $K_T = 232$ and p = 0.014.

3.2 Buishand Range Test

Let X denote a normal random variate, then the following model with a single shift (change-point) can be proposed:

$$x_i = \begin{cases} \mu + \epsilon_i, & i = 1, \dots, m \\ \mu + \Delta + \epsilon_i & i = m + 1, \dots, n \end{cases}$$
 (15)

 $\epsilon \approx N(0, \sigma)$. The null hypothesis $\Delta = 0$ is tested against the alternative $\Delta \neq 0$.

In the Buishand range test (Buishand, 1982), the rescaled adjusted partial sums are calculated as

$$S_k = \sum_{i=1}^k (x_i - \hat{x}) \qquad (1 \le i \le n)$$
 (16)

The test statistic is calculated as:

$$Rb = \frac{\max S_k - \min S_k}{\sigma} \tag{17}$$

the p.value is estimated with a Monte Carlo simulation using m replicates.

- > require(trend)
- > (res <- br.test(Nile))</pre>

Buishand range test

data: Nile

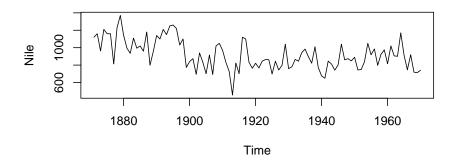
R / sqrt(n) = 2.9518, n = 100, p-value < 2.2e-16

alternative hypothesis: true delta is not equal to 0

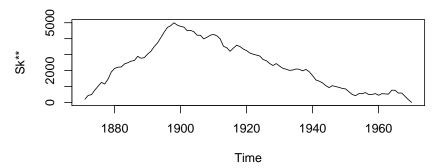
sample estimates:

probable change point at time K

28



Buishand range test



3.3 Buishand U Test

In the Buishand U Test (Buishand, 1984), the null hypothesis is the same as in the Buishand Range Test (see Eq. 15). The test statistic is

$$U = [n(n+1)]^{-1} \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} (S_k/D_x)^2$$
(18)

with

$$D_x = \sqrt{n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})}$$
 (19)

and S_k as given in Eq. 16. The p.value is estimated with a Monte Carlo simulation using m replicates.

```
> require(trend)
> (res <- bu.test(Nile))
Buishand U test</pre>
```

data: Nile

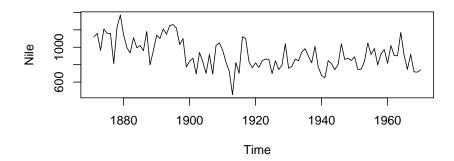
U = 2.4764, n = 100, p-value < 2.2e-16

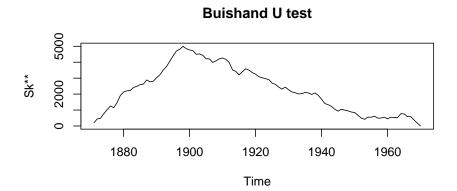
alternative hypothesis: true delta is not equal to ${\tt 0}$

sample estimates:

probable change point at time K 28

> par(mfrow=c(2,1))
> plot(Nile); plot(res)





3.4 Standard Normal Homogeinity Test

In the Standard Normal Homogeinity Test (?), the null hypothesis is the same as in the Buishand Range Test (see Eq. 15). The test statistic is

$$T_k = kz_1^2 + (n-k)z_2^2$$
 $(1 \le k < n)$ (20)

where

$$z_1 = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma} \quad z_2 = \frac{1}{n-k} \sum_{i=k+1}^n \frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma}.$$
 (21)

The critical value is:

$$T = \max T_k \tag{22}$$

The p.value is estimated with a Monte Carlo simulation using m replicates.

- > require(trend)
- > (res <- snh.test(Nile))</pre>

Standard Normal Homogeneity Test (SNHT)

data: Nile

T = 43.219, n = 100, p-value < 2.2e-16

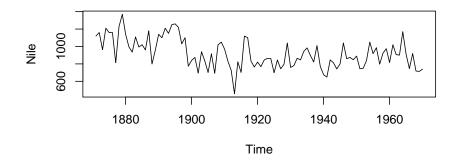
alternative hypothesis: true delta is not equal to 0

sample estimates:

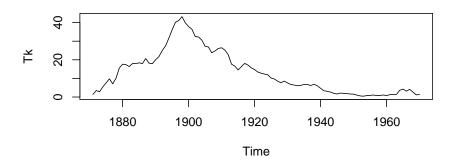
probable change point at time K

28

- > par(mfrow=c(2,1))
- > plot(Nile); plot(res)



Standard Normal Homogeneity Test (SNHT)



4 Randomness

4.1 Wallis and Moore phase-frequency test

A phase frequency test was proposed by Wallis and Moore (1941) and is used for testing a series for randomness:

- > ## Example from Schoenwiese (1992, p. 113) > ## Number of frost days in April at Munich from 1957 to 1968 > ## z = -0.124, Accept H0 > frost <- ts(data=c(9,12,4,3,0,4,2,1,4,2,9,7), start=1957) > wm.test(frost)
 - Wallis and Moore Phase-Frequency test

data: frost

z = -0.12384, p-value = 0.9014

alternative hypothesis: The series is significantly different from randomness

```
> ## Example from Sachs (1997, p. 486)
> ## z = 2.56, Reject HO on a level of p < 0.05
> x \leftarrow c(5,6,2,3,5,6,4,3,7,8,9,7,5,3,4,7,3,5,6,7,8,9)
> wm.test(x)
        Wallis and Moore Phase-Frequency test
```

data: x

z = 2.5513, p-value = 0.01073

alternative hypothesis: The series is significantly different from randomness

4.2 Bartels test for randomness

Bartels (1982) has proposed a rank version of von Neumann's ratio test for testing a series for randomness:

```
> ## Example from Schoenwiese (1992, p. 113)
> ## Number of frost days in April at Munich from 1957 to 1968
> ##
> frost <- ts(data=c(9,12,4,3,0,4,2,1,4,2,9,7), start=1957)
> bartels.test(frost)
```

Bartels's test for randomness

```
data: frost
RVN = 1.3304, p-value = 0.1137
alternative hypothesis: The series is significantly different from randomness
> ## Example from Sachs (1997, p. 486)
> x < -c(5,6,2,3,5,6,4,3,7,8,9,7,5,3,4,7,3,5,6,7,8,9)
> bartels.test(x)
```

Bartels's test for randomness

```
data: x
RVN = 1.0444, p-value = 0.008371
alternative hypothesis: The series is significantly different from randomness
> ## Example from Bartels (1982, p. 43)
> x <- c(4, 7, 16, 14, 12, 3, 9, 13, 15, 10, 6, 5, 8, 2, 1, 11, 18, 17)
> bartels.test(x)
```

Bartels's test for randomness

```
data: x
RVN = 0.97626, p-value = 0.009463
alternative hypothesis: The series is significantly different from randomness
```

4.3 Wald-Wolfowitz test for stationarity and independence

```
Wald and Wolfowitz (1942) have proposed a test for randomness:
```

```
> ## Example from Schoenwiese (1992, p. 113)
> ## Number of frost days in April at Munich from 1957 to 1968
> ##
> frost <- ts(data=c(9,12,4,3,0,4,2,1,4,2,9,7), start=1957)
> ww.test(frost)
        Wald-Wolfowitz test for independence and stationarity
data: frost
z = 1.9198, n = 12, p-value = 0.05488
alternative hypothesis: The series is significantly different from
 independence and stationarity
> ## Example from Sachs (1997, p. 486)
> x \leftarrow c(5,6,2,3,5,6,4,3,7,8,9,7,5,3,4,7,3,5,6,7,8,9)
> ww.test(x)
        Wald-Wolfowitz test for independence and stationarity
data: x
z = 2.1394, n = 22, p-value = 0.03241
alternative hypothesis: The series is significantly different from
 independence and stationarity
> ## Example from Bartels (1982, p. 43)
> x <- c(4, 7, 16, 14, 12, 3, 9, 13, 15, 10, 6, 5, 8, 2, 1, 11, 18, 17)
> ww.test(x)
        Wald-Wolfowitz test for independence and stationarity
data: x
z = 1.7304, n = 18, p-value = 0.08357
alternative hypothesis: The series is significantly different from
```

References

independence and stationarity

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