

# 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 :

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

with

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

The mean of  $S$  is  $E[S] = 0$  and the variance  $\sigma^2$  is

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

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

$$Z = \begin{cases} \frac{S-1}{\sigma} & \text{if } S > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } S = 0 \\ \frac{S+1}{\sigma} & \text{if } S < 0 \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

The statistic  $S$  is closely related to Kendall's  $\tau$  as given by:

$$\tau = \frac{S}{D} \quad (5)$$

where

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

The univariate Mann-Kendall test is invoked 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
-144.000000 10450.000000 -0.1454545
```

### 1.2 Seasonal Mann-Kendall Test

The Mann-Kendall statistic for the  $g$ th season is calculated as:

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

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

$$\hat{S} = \sum_{g=1}^m S_g \quad (8)$$

For further information, the reader is referred to Hipel and McLeod (1994, p. 866-869) and Hirsch *et al.* (1982). The seasonal Mann-Kendall test is 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 corelated with e.g. the pre-ceeding months. For further information the reader is referred to Hipel and McLoed (1994, p. 869-871).

```
> require(trend)
> csmk.test(nottem)
```

```
Correlated Seasonal Mann-Kendall Test
```

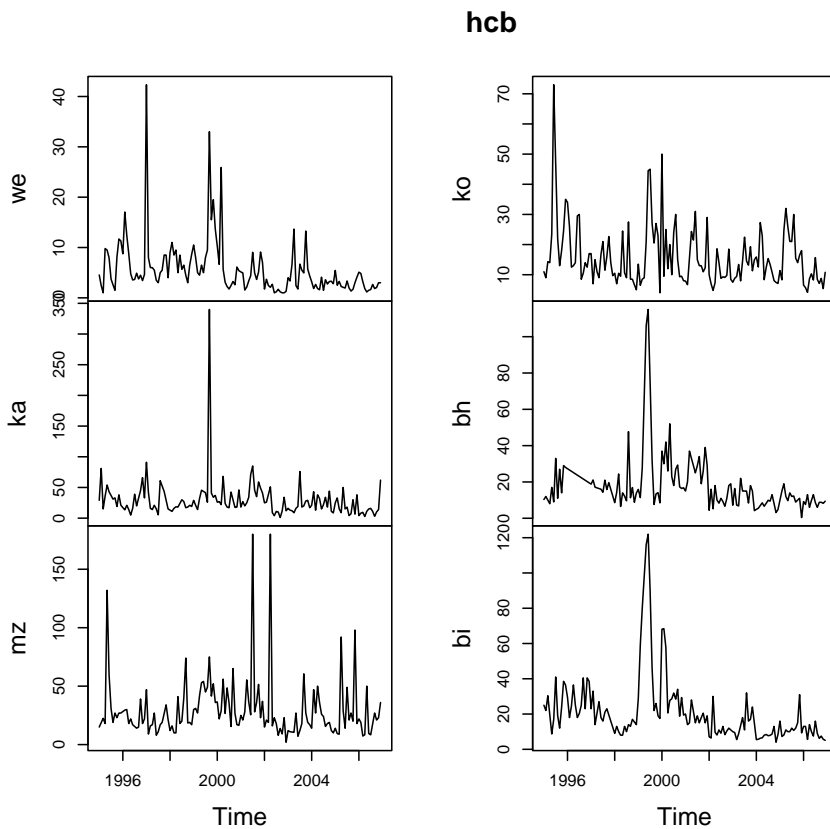
```
data: nottem
z = 1.5974, p-value = 0.1102
alternative hypothesis: true S is not equal to 0
sample estimates:
      S      varS
224.00 19663.33
```

### 1.4 Multivariate Mann-Kendall Test

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

Particle bound Hexacholorobenzene (HCB,  $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ ) was monthly measured in suspended matter at six monitoring sites along the river stretch 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)
```



```
> ## 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

```
data: hcb[, site[i]]
z = -5.8753, n = 144, p-value = 4.221e-09
alternative hypothesis: true S is not equal to 0
sample estimates:
      S      varS      tau
-3.402000e+03  3.350867e+05 -3.317108e-01
```

```
[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:
      S      varS      tau
-4.12000e+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

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.

```

> data(maxau)
> s <- maxau[,"s"]; Q <- maxau[,"Q"]
> cor.test(s,Q, meth="spearman")

```

#### Spearman's rank correlation rho

```

data: s and Q
S = 10564, p-value = 0.0427
alternative hypothesis: true rho is not equal to 0
sample estimates:
      rho
0.3040843

```

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.

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

### Spearman's Partial Correlation Trend Test

```
data: t AND s . Q
t = -4.158, df = 43, p-value = 0.0001503
alternative hypothesis: true rho is not equal to 0
sample estimates:
  r(ts.Q)
-0.5355055
```

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 H0 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:

$$d_k = \frac{X_j - X_i}{j - i} \quad (9)$$

for  $(1 \leq i < j \leq n)$ , 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

$$a_t = X_t - b * t \quad (10)$$

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:

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

for each  $(x_{ij}, x_{ik})$  pair  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ , where  $1 \leq k < j \leq n_i$  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:

$$K_T = \max |U_{t,T}|, \quad (12)$$

where

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

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

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

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:

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

$\epsilon \approx N(0, \sigma)$ . 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

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

The test statistic is calculated as:

$$Rb = \frac{\max S_k - \min S_k}{\sigma} \quad (17)$$

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

```

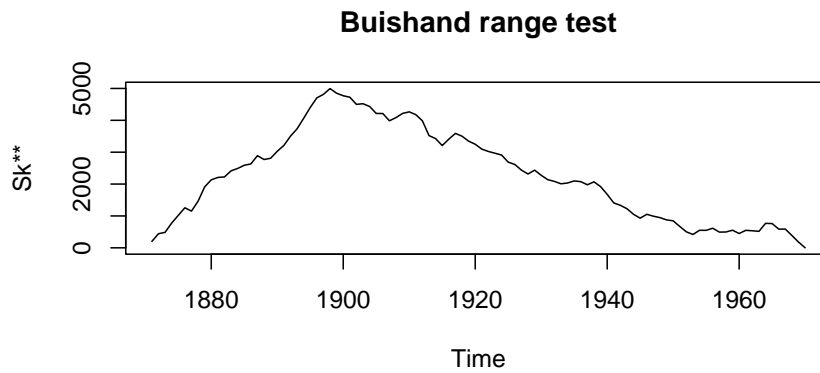
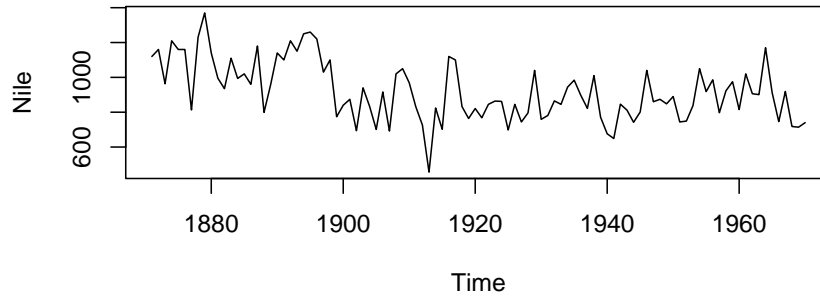
> require(trend)
> (res <- br.test(Nile))

      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

```

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



### 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

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

with

$$D_x = \sqrt{n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \quad (19)$$

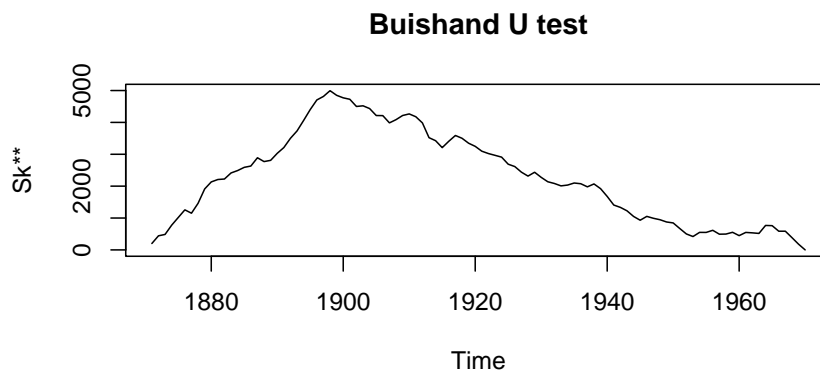
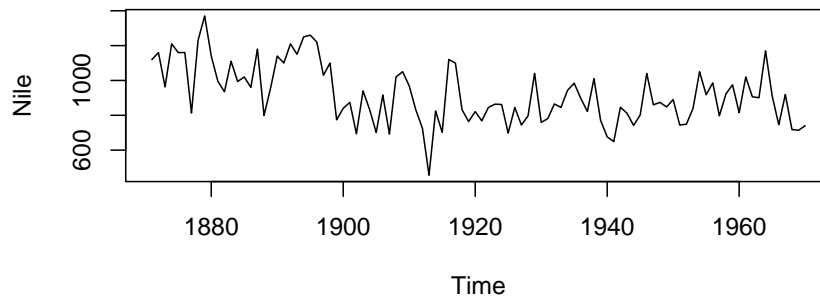
and  $S_k$  as given in Eq. 16. The p.value is estimated with a Monte Carlo simulation using  $m$  replicates.

```
> require(trend)
> (res <- bu.test(Nile))
```

Buishand U test

```
data: Nile
U = 2.4764, 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)
```



### 3.4 Standard Normal Homogeneity Test

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

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

where

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

The critical value is:

$$T = \max T_k \quad (22)$$

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

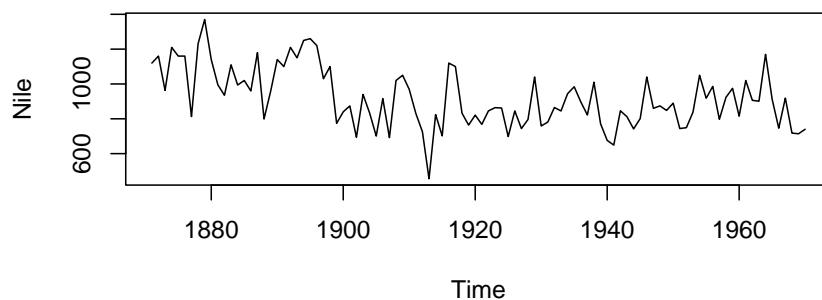
```
> require(trend)
> (res <- snh.test(Nile))
```

Standard Normal Homogeneity Test (SNHT)

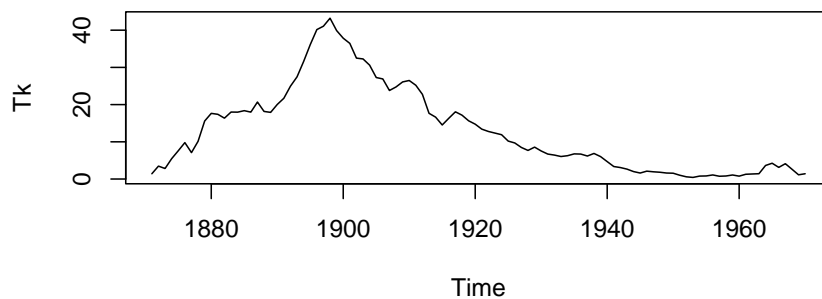
```
data: Nile
T = 43.219, n = 100, p-value < 2.2e-16
alternative hypothesis: true delta is not equal to 0
sample estimates:
probable change point at time K
```

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 H0 on a level of p < 0.05
> x <- 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 <- 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
independence and stationarity
```

## References

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