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# Nonparametric CUSUM Charts for Circular Data with Applications in Health Science and Astrophysics

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Abstract:

- This paper develops non-parametric rotation invariant CUSUMs suited to the detection of changes in the mean direction as well as changes in the concentration parameter of circular data. The properties of the CUSUMs are illustrated by theoretical calculations, Monte Carlo simulation and application to sequentially observed angular data from health science and astrophysics.

Key-Words:

- *Average run length; Cumulative sum; Directional data.*

AMS Subject Classification:

- 62L10, 62G99, 62H11.



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## 1. Introduction

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Sequential CUSUM methods for detecting parameter changes in distributions on the real line is a well developed field with an extensive literature. The same cannot be said about CUSUM methods to detect changes of location in non-Euclidean spaces such as the circle. Distributions on the circle generate data which cannot generally be treated in the same manner as linear data - see Fisher (1993, Chapter 1 and Section 3.1), Mardia and Jupp (2000, Chapter 1) and Jammalamadaka and SenGupta (2001, Section 1.2.2). One impediment to the application of linear CUSUM methods is the fact that a circle has no well separated beginning and end. Whichever point is selected as the beginning point, the distance between it and the endpoint is zero. A family of distributions with a fixed arc on the circle as support could in principle be treated as if the sample space were a finite fixed interval on the real line. However, the options involved in formulating a changepoint model would then be severely curtailed: a model involving shifts of arbitrary size in the location of the distribution would be out of the question. The distributions from which the data in our applications in Section 5 arise encompass the full circle and are therefore not amenable to analysis by linear CUSUM methods.

Lombard, Hawkins and Potgieter (2018) reviewed the current state of change detection procedures for circular data. They also constructed distribution free CUSUMs for circular data in which the numerical value of an in-control mean direction is specified, the objective being to detect a change in mean direction away from this value. The situation is analogous to that in which the well known Page (1954) CUSUM is applied, namely detection of a change away from a specified numerical value of the mean of a distribution on the real line. However, in the examples treated in Section 5 of the present paper, no in-control circular mean

value is specified and the objective is to detect a change away from the unknown current circular mean value, whatever it may be. Such a CUSUM, unlike that proposed by Lombard, Hawkins and Potgieter (2018), must be rotation invariant because the outcome of the analysis should not depend upon which point on the circle is chosen as the origin of angular measurement.

The main contribution of the present paper is the construction of such invariant CUSUMs for circular data. The CUSUMs we construct are non-parametric in the sense that their form is not dependent upon an underlying parametrically specified distribution. The in-control properties of the CUSUMs are shown in a Monte Carlo study to be quite robust over a wide class of circular distributions, which makes them near distribution free over this class. As far as we are aware, no CUSUMs of this nature for circular data have to date been treated in the statistical literature.

Section 2 of the paper focuses on mean direction. We provide justifications for the form of our CUSUM and discuss some computational details. In Section 3 we elaborate on its in-control and out-of control properties. The results of an extensive Monte Carlo study are also reported. In Section 4 we briefly consider a CUSUM for detecting concentration changes. Section 5 demonstrates the application of the CUSUMs to two sets of data and Section 6 summarizes our results.

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## 2. Detecting direction change

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### 2.1. Derivation of the CUSUM statistic

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Initially the data  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  come from a non-uniform and unimodal continuous distribution  $F$  with unknown mean direction  $\nu = \nu_0$  on the circle  $[-\pi, \pi)$ . This defines the in-control state. (Since mean direction is a vacuous concept in a uniform distribution, the latter is excluded from consideration. The CUSUM of Lombard and Maxwell (2012), which is rotation invariant, can be used to detect a change from a uniform to a non-uniform distribution.) We estimate  $\nu$  by

$$(2.1) \quad \hat{\nu}_n = \text{atan2}(S_n, C_n)$$

where for  $n = 2, 3, \dots$ ,

$$(2.2) \quad C_n = \sum_{j=1}^n \cos X_j, \quad S_n = \sum_{j=1}^n \sin X_j,$$

and  $\text{atan2}$  denotes the four-quadrant inverse tangent function

$$\text{atan2}(x, y) = \begin{cases} \tan^{-1}(x/y) & \text{if } y > 0 \\ \tan^{-1}(x/y) + \pi \text{sign}(x) & \text{if } y < 0 \\ (\pi/2)\text{sign}(x) & \text{if } y = 0, x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } y = x = 0, \end{cases}$$

the symbol  $\tan^{-1}$  denoting the usual inverse tangent function with range restricted to  $(-\pi/2, \pi/2)$ . This non-parametric estimator is, in fact, also the maximum likelihood estimator of mean direction in a von Mises distribution, which

is arguably the best known among circular distributions. The von Mises distribution with mean direction  $\nu$  and concentration  $\kappa$ , has density function

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi I_0(\kappa)} \exp[\kappa \cos(x - \nu)], \quad -\pi \leq x < \pi,$$

where  $I_0$  denotes the modified Bessel function of the first kind of order zero. The log-likelihood ratio based on observations  $X_1 + \delta, \dots, X_n + \delta$  is, apart from a factor not depending upon  $\delta$ , given by

$$l(\delta) = \cos(X_n - \delta - \nu)$$

and a locally most powerful test of the hypothesis  $H_0 : \delta = 0$  is therefore based on the derivative

$$\left. \frac{dl(\delta)}{d\delta} \right|_{\delta=0} = \sin(X_n - \nu).$$

Replacing  $\nu$  by  $\hat{\nu}_{n-1}$  leads to consideration of a CUSUM based on the statistic

$$(2.3) \quad V_n = \sin(X_n - \hat{\nu}_{n-1}).$$

Despite the fact that  $V_n$  originates from the von Mises distribution, it has at least two purely non-parametric origins that do not depend upon any assumption involving the type of the underlying distribution.

The first of these follows upon expanding the sine function and using the trigonometric relations

$$\sin(\hat{\nu}_{n-1}) = S_{n-1}/R_{n-1}, \quad \cos(\hat{\nu}_{n-1}) = C_{n-1}/R_{n-1},$$

wherein

$$(2.4) \quad R_n^2 = C_n^2 + S_n^2.$$

This gives

$$(2.5) \quad V_n = (C_{n-1}/R_{n-1}) \sin X_n - (S_{n-1}/R_{n-1}) \cos X_n,$$

which is the (signed) area of the parallelogram spanned by the unit length vectors  $(C_{n-1}, S_{n-1})/R_n$  and  $(\sin X_n, \cos X_n)$ . The former of these vectors points in the mean direction of the data  $X_1, \dots, X_{n-1}$  while the latter vector points in the direction of the new observation  $X_n$ . and the greater the angular distance between the two directions is, the larger will be the area of the parallelogram. Thus, if a change in mean direction  $\nu$  occurs at index  $n$ , we can expect a succession of positive or negative values  $V_n$ ,  $n > \tau$ .

A second non-parametric argument leading to consideration of  $V_n$  comes from considering the change  $\hat{\nu}_n - \hat{\nu}_{n-1}$  in the estimate of  $\nu$  effected by a change in mean direction from  $\nu$  to  $\nu + \delta$  occurring at index  $n$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\nu}_n &= \text{atan2}[S_{n-1} + \sin(X_n + \delta), C_{n-1} + \cos(X_n + \delta)] \\ &= \text{atan2}(S_{n-1}/n + \delta_{1,n}, C_{n-1}/n + \delta_{2,n}) \end{aligned}$$

where

$$n\delta_{1,n} = \sin(X_n + \delta) = \sin X_n + O(\delta),$$

$$n\delta_{2,n} = \cos(X_n + \delta) = \cos X_n + O(\delta).$$

Since both  $S_{n-1}/n$  and  $C_{n-1}/n$  converge as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , and both  $\delta_{1,n}$  and  $\delta_{2,n}$  tend

to zero, we can make a Taylor expansion around  $(S_{n-1}/n, C_{n-1}/n)$ . This gives

$$\begin{aligned} R_{n-1}(\hat{v}_n - \hat{v}_{n-1}) &= n\delta_{1,n} \frac{C_{n-1}}{R_{n-1}} - n\delta_{2,n} \frac{S_{n-1}}{R_{n-1}} + O(n^{-1}) \\ &= \frac{C_{n-1}}{R_{n-1}} \sin X_n - \frac{S_{n-1}}{R_{n-1}} \cos X_n + O(\delta) + O(n^{-1}) \\ &= V_n + O(\delta) + O(n^{-1}), \end{aligned}$$

which shows again the relevance of  $V_n$  for detecting changes in mean direction.

The most important property of  $V_n$  as far as motivation for the present paper is concerned is its rotation invariance: its numerical values are unaffected if *all* the data are rotated through the same fixed, but unknown, angle. Thus, a CUSUM based on  $V_n$  will be applicable in situations where no in-control direction is specified and the objective is merely to detect deviations from this arbitrary in-control direction. Both examples treated in Section 5 of the paper are of this nature. This contrasts with the distribution free CUSUMs in Lombard, Hawkins and Potgieter (2017), which require a specified numerical value of the in-control mean direction.

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## 2.2. Construction of the CUSUM

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When the process is in control, that is, when  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  are independently and identically distributed (but with unknown mean direction), then

$$(2.6) \quad \xi_n := (V_n - E_{n-1}[V_n]) / \sqrt{\text{Var}_{n-1}[V_n]}, \quad n \geq 2,$$



is a martingale difference sequence with conditional variance 1. Here and elsewhere,  $E_{n-1}[\cdot]$  and  $\text{Var}_{n-1}[\cdot]$  denote expected value and variance computed conditionally upon  $X_1, \dots, X_{n-1}$ . Using standard martingale central limit theory, we can show that cumulative sums of the  $\xi_n$  will be asymptotically normally distributed regardless of the type of underlying distribution - see, e.g. Helland (1982, Theorem 3.2). Furthermore, if  $\nu = \nu_0$  changes by an amount  $\delta$  to  $\nu = \nu_0 + \delta$  at observation  $X_{\tau+1}$  ( $\tau$  being the last in-control observation) then by either of the two arguments following (2.3), we can expect  $E_{\tau}[\xi_{\tau+1}]$  to be non-zero. Thus, a standard two-sided normal CUSUM for data on the real line, applied to the  $\xi_n$  sequence, could be expected to be effective in detecting a change away from the initial direction. Furthermore, the in-control behaviour should be *quantitatively* similar to that of a standard normal CUSUM.

The conditional mean and variance in (2.6) depend on the first two moments of  $\sin X$  and  $\cos X$ , which are unknown parameters. Accordingly, given observations  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ , we estimate the conditional mean and variance non-parametrically by

$$\hat{E}_{n-1}[V_n] = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sin(X_i - \hat{\nu}_{n-1}) = 0$$

and

$$(2.7) \quad \widehat{\text{Var}}_{n-1}[V_n] = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sin^2(X_i - \hat{\nu}_{n-1}) := B_{n-1}^2.$$

Then a computable CUSUM is obtained upon replacing  $\xi_n$  in (2.6) by

$$(2.8) \quad \hat{\xi}_n = V_n / B_{n-1}.$$

The CUSUM is started at observation  $m+1$  by setting  $D_i^{\pm} = 0$  for  $i = 1, \dots, m$

and

$$(2.9) \quad D_{m+n}^+ = \max\{0, D_{m+n-1} + \hat{\xi}_{m+n} - \zeta\}$$

$$D_{m+n}^- = \min\{0, D_{m+n-1} + \hat{\xi}_{m+n} + \zeta\}$$

for  $n \geq 1$ , where  $\zeta$  is the reference value. The run length,  $N$ , is the first index  $n$  at which either  $D_{m+n}^+ \geq h$  or  $D_{m+n}^- \leq -h$ , where  $h$  is a control limit. The control limit is chosen to produce a specified in-control average run length (ARL), which we denote throughout by  $ARL_0$ . The first  $m$  observations serve to make an initial estimate of the population moments *after which the estimates are updated with the arrival of each new observation*. Since the random variables  $\sin X$  and  $\cos X$  are bounded, convergence of sample moments to population moments would be quite rapid so that a relatively small number  $m$  of observations should suffice to initialize the CUSUM.

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### 2.3. Implementation

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Implementation of the CUSUM scheme requires an efficient method of updating the summand  $\hat{\xi}_{n-1}$  upon arrival of a new observation  $X_n$ . For this, set

$$s_n = \sin X_n, \quad c_n = \cos X_n$$

and

$$C_n^{(2)} = \sum_{j=1}^n c_j^2, \quad S_n^{(2)} = \sum_{j=1}^n s_j^2, \quad A_n^{(2)} = \sum_{j=1}^n s_j c_j$$

and observe that

$$(2.10) \quad (n-1)B_{n-1}^2 = \frac{C_{n-1}^2}{R_{n-1}^2} S_{n-1}^{(2)} + \frac{S_{n-1}^2}{R_{n-1}^2} C_{n-1}^{(2)} - 2 \frac{C_{n-1} S_{n-1}}{R_{n-1}^2} A_{n-1}^{(2)}.$$

In particular, we see that the  $R_{n-1}$  factors in  $V_n$  and  $B_{n-1}$  cancel, whence

$$(2.11) \quad \hat{\xi}_n = \frac{V_n^*}{B_{n-1}^*} := \frac{C_{n-1} \sin X_n - S_{n-1} \cos X_n}{\sqrt{\left(C_{n-1}^2 S_{n-1}^{(2)} + S_{n-1}^2 C_{n-1}^{(2)} - 2C_{n-1} S_{n-1} A_{n-1}^{(2)}\right) / (n-1)}}$$

Next, note the simple recursions

$$S_{n-1} = S_{n-2} + s_{n-1}, \quad C_{n-1} = C_{n-2} + c_{n-1},$$

$$S_{n-1}^{(2)} = S_{n-2}^{(2)} + s_{n-1}^2, \quad C_{n-1}^{(2)} = C_{n-2}^{(2)} + c_{n-1}^2$$

and

$$A_{n-1}^{(2)} = A_{n-2}^{(2)} + s_{n-1} c_{n-1}.$$

To compute  $V_n^*$  in (2.11) given  $S_{n-2}, C_{n-2}, c_{n-1}, c_n, s_{n-1}$  and  $s_n$ , use the first of these recursions. To compute  $B_{n-1}$ , given  $S_{n-1}, C_{n-1}, S_{n-1}^{(2)}, C_{n-1}^{(2)}, A_{n-1}^{(2)}, c_{n-1}$ , and  $s_{n-1}$ , use (2.10).

A rational basis for specifying a reference value  $\zeta$  is also required. This aspect of the CUSUM design is considered in Section 3.3 of the paper.

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### 3. In-control properties

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While the proposed CUSUM is not distribution free, the asymptotic in-control normality of CUSUMs of  $\hat{\xi}_n$  suggests that it may be nearly so. Then, use of standard normal distribution CUSUM control limits should lead to an in-control ARL sufficiently close to the nominal value to make the CUSUMs of practical use. The requisite control limit  $h$  can be obtained from the widely available software packages of Hawkins, Olwell and Wang, (2016) or Knoth (2016). To check this expectation we estimated by Monte Carlo simulation the in-control ARL over a range of unimodal symmetric and asymmetric distributions on the

circle. Among the multitude of possible distributions, the class of wrapped stable and Student  $t$  distributions, together with their skew versions, represent a wide range of unimodal distribution shapes on the circle. Simulated data from these distributions are easily obtained by generating random numbers  $Y$  from the distribution on the real line and then wrapping these around the circle by the simple transformation  $Y(\bmod 2\pi)$ . Algorithms for generating the random numbers  $Y$  are given in Nolan (2015) and in Azzalini and Capitanio (2003). The algorithms were implemented in Matlab and the relevant programs are included in the supplementary material to this paper.

Some simulations were also run on data from other types of distribution which are defined directly on the circle and not obtained by wrapping. Specifically, we used the sine-skewed distributions developed Umbach and Jammalamadaka (2011) and by Abe and Pewsey (2011). In contrast to the wrapped stable and Student  $t$  distributions, the densities of these distributions have closed form expressions, which facilitates model fitting and parameter estimation. The various unimodal distribution shapes available in these classes of distributions are quite similar to those in the class of wrapped distributions. Since the behaviour of a non-parametric CUSUM depends more on the general shape of the underlying distribution than on the specific parameter values producing that shape, it comes as no surprise that the in-control behaviour of the CUSUMs proposed here is quite similar in the two classes (wrapped and directly constructed) of distributions. Since wrapped distributions are widely known and understood, we frame our discussion in the context of these distributions. Some simulation results for data from the sine-skewed distributions are included in the supplementary material to this paper. In the discussion that follows,  $S_\alpha$ ,  $0 < \alpha \leq 2$ , denotes a stable distribution with index  $\alpha$  and  $t_n$ ,  $n \geq 1$  denotes a Student  $t$ -distribution with  $n$  degrees of freedom.

In assessing the performance of the direction CUSUM under various sym-

metric in-control and out-of-control distributions, we standardize the observations to a common measure of concentration. The concentration parameter  $\kappa$  of the von Mises( $\nu, \kappa$ ) distribution satisfies the relation

$$(3.1) \quad \kappa = A^{-1}(\mathbb{E}[\cos(X - \nu)])$$

where  $A(\kappa) = I_1(\kappa)/I_0(\kappa)$  and  $I_1$  denotes the modified Bessel function of the first kind of order 1. In view of the status of the von Mises distribution among circular distributions, which is much like that of the normal distribution among distributions on the real line, we use in this paper  $\kappa$  in (3.1) as a measure of the concentration of a unimodal circular distribution with mean direction  $\nu$ . Thus, given  $\kappa$  and the density function of  $Y$ , the scale parameter  $\sigma$  is chosen to make the distribution of the wrapped random variable

$$X = (\sigma Y)_w := \sigma Y \pmod{2\pi}$$

satisfy (3.1).

For instance, suppose  $Y$  has an  $S_\alpha$  distribution with characteristic function

$$\phi(t; \alpha) = \mathbb{E}[\cos tY] = \exp(-|t|^\alpha).$$

Then (Jammalamadaka and SenGupta, 2001, Proposition 2.1),

$$\mathbb{E}[\cos(\sigma Y)_w] = \phi(\sigma; \alpha) = \exp(-\sigma^\alpha)$$

so that

$$(3.2) \quad \sigma = (-\log(A(\kappa)))^{1/\alpha}.$$

As another example, a Student  $t$ -distribution with  $\alpha$  degrees of freedom has

characteristic function

$$\phi(t; \alpha) = \frac{K_{\alpha/2}(\sqrt{\alpha}t)(\sqrt{\alpha}t)^{\alpha/2}}{2^{\alpha/2-1}\Gamma(\frac{\alpha}{2})}$$

where  $K_{\alpha/2}$  denotes the modified Bessel function of the second kind order  $\alpha/2$  and  $\Gamma$  denotes the gamma function. Thus, in this case,

$$E[\cos(\sigma Y)_w] = \phi(\sigma; \alpha) = \frac{K_{\alpha/2}(\sqrt{\alpha}\sigma)(\sqrt{\alpha}\sigma)^{\alpha/2}}{2^{\alpha/2-1}\Gamma(\frac{\alpha}{2})},$$

and  $\sigma$  is the solution to the equation

$$(3.3) \quad K_{\alpha/2}(\sqrt{\alpha}\sigma)(\sqrt{\alpha}\sigma)^{\alpha/2} = 2^{\alpha/2-1}\Gamma(\frac{\alpha}{2})A(\kappa).$$

Some numerical values that were used in the simulation study which is reported next, are shown in Table 1.

	$\kappa = 1$	$\kappa = 2$	$\kappa = 3$
$S_2$	0.90	0.60	0.46
$S_1$	0.81	0.36	0.21
$S_{1/2}$	0.65	0.13	0.04
$t_3$	1.07	0.64	0.46
$t_2$	1.00	0.55	0.38

Table 1: Scale parameter  $\sigma$  solving (3.2) and (3.3)

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### 3.1. Symmetric distributions

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We used standard normal control limits in 50,000 Monte Carlo realizations of the two-sided CUSUM in each of five underlying symmetric unimodal distributions: wrapped Student  $t$ -distributions with 2 and 3 degrees of freedom and three wrapped stable distributions with indexes  $\alpha = 2$  (the wrapped normal distribution),  $\alpha = 1$  (the wrapped Cauchy distribution, which is also the wrapped

Student  $t$ -distribution with 1 degree of freedom) and  $\alpha = 1/2$  (the wrapped symmetrized Lévy distribution). Except for the wrapped normal, these are wrapped versions of heavy-tailed symmetric distributions on the real line. Each of the distributions was standardized to concentrations of  $\kappa = 1, 2$  and  $3$  by specifying the scale parameter  $\sigma$  (see Table 1) in accordance with (3.2) and (3.3). Two sets of simulations were run. In the first set, the CUSUMs were initiated at  $n = 11$ , the first  $m = 10$  observations serving to establish initial estimates of the unknown parameters. In the second set we took  $m = 25$ , initiating the CUSUM at  $n = 26$ .

We present in Tables 2.1 and 2.2 aggregated sets of results representing the general picture. (Detailed tables are given in the supplementary material to this paper.) Each entry is the average of five estimated in-control ARLs, one from each of the five distributions. The number in brackets shows the range of the five estimates. The tables show the results for reference values  $\zeta = 0$  and  $\zeta = 0.25$ .

$ARL_0$	$\zeta = 0$			$\zeta = 0.25$		
	$\kappa = 1$	$\kappa = 2$	$\kappa = 3$	$\kappa = 1$	$\kappa = 2$	$\kappa = 3$
250	242 (2)	243 (5)	242 (4)	236* (4)	233* (2)	225* (20)
500	490 (3)	491 (6)	491 (10)	493 (9)	483 (8)	464* (52)
1000	1037 (9)	1039 (14)	1042 (20)	1018 (7)	997 (30)	958*† (117)

Table 2.1: Average in-control ARL of the non-parametric CUSUM in five symmetric distributions ( $m = 10$ ). The number in brackets is the range of the five estimates.

$ARL_0$	$\zeta = 0$			$\zeta = 0.25$		
	$\kappa = 1$	$\kappa = 2$	$\kappa = 3$	$\kappa = 1$	$\kappa = 2$	$\kappa = 3$
250	244 (2)	244 (6)	245 (7)	242 (4)	239 (3)	234* (8)
500	492 (4)	493 (7)	493 (10)	498 (9)	491 (7)	478 (28)
1000	1039 (11)	1041 (10)	1045 (17)	1024 (13)	1005 (26)	971 (82)

Table 2.2: Average in-control ARL of the non-parametric CUSUM in five symmetric distributions ( $m = 25$ ). The number in brackets is the range of the five estimates.

All but the four starred estimates shown in the Tables lie within 5% of the nominal value. The exceptions, which all lie within 10%, occur at  $\zeta = 0.25$  and predominantly at the smaller warmup  $m = 10$ . In the cell marked  $^*\dagger$  the five estimates were 874, 959, 976, 988 and 991, the outlier 874 coming from the very heavy tailed Lévy distribution. In fact, all three discrepancies in this column are attributable to a substantial underestimate from the Lévy distribution. Clearly, the CUSUM is very near distribution free overall when a reference constant close to zero is used. With a larger reference constant, as the concentration increases so does the variation in true ARL between distributions. This behaviour can be explained to a large extent by reference to the martingale central limit theorem upon which the construction of the CUSUM rests. If the summand  $\xi_n$  is replaced by  $\xi_n \mp \zeta$ , the cumulative sums take the form  $S_k \mp k\zeta$  where

$$(3.4) \quad S_k = \sum_{n=m+1}^{m+k} \hat{\xi}_n, \quad k \geq 1$$

and  $\zeta$  is positive. The rationale behind the construction of the CUSUM consists essentially in replacing the discrete time process  $S_k/h = \sum_{n=m+1}^{m+k} \hat{\xi}_n/h$ ,  $k \geq 1$ , where  $h$  is the control limit, by a continuous time Brownian motion process,  $W(t)$ ,  $t > 0$ . This is effected by changing the time scale. We identify  $k$  with  $th^2$  where  $h$  is the control limit, and then replace  $S_k/h$  by  $W(th^2)/h$ , which has the same distribution as  $W(t)$ . Similarly,  $k\zeta$  is replaced by  $th^2\zeta/h = th\zeta$ . Thus,  $(S_k \mp k\zeta)/h$ ,  $k \geq 1$ , is replaced by  $W(t) - th\zeta$ . The validity of this procedure requires that  $h$  tends to  $\infty$ . Now, if  $\zeta$  is positive and  $h \rightarrow \infty$  then the drift term  $th\zeta \rightarrow \infty$ , which makes the resulting CUSUM useless. To avoid this effect,  $\zeta$  must be chosen to be  $O(1/h)$ , which in practical terms means that  $\zeta$  should be a small positive number or zero.

Next, the effect of any Phase I estimation on the in-control Phase II performance of the CUSUM needs to be considered. Given  $\hat{\zeta}$ , let  $\hat{h}$  be the control limit which gives a standard normal CUSUM an in-control ARL value  $ARL_0$ . The



simulation results in Tables 2 and 3 together with the ensuing discussion indicate that the resulting Phase II CUSUM is near distribution free provided that the reference constant is suitably close to zero. Thus, regardless of the form of the underlying distribution, in such cases the true Phase II in-control ARL will be nearly constant and acceptably close to the nominal value  $ARL_0$ . This behaviour is in stark contrast to that of parametric CUSUMs where estimating unknown parameters from Phase I data and then pretending that the Phase I estimate is the true value, affects irrevocably the in-control ARL of the Phase II CUSUM. Then there is no guarantee that the in-control ARL will be equal to, or even near, the nominal value. This point has been made repeatedly in the published literature, most recently by Keefe, et al. (2015, Introduction section) and Saleh et Al. (2016). Hawkins and Olwell (1998, pages 159-160) give a realistic example in which the true in-control ARL of a normal distribution CUSUM, with variance estimated from Phase I data, differs by two orders of magnitude from the nominal value.

In this connection, and to illustrate further the in-control behaviour of the nonparametric CUSUM, we present next a result that is representative of a general pattern. Consider a situation in which data arise from a wrapped  $t_3$  distribution with concentration parameter  $\kappa$  - see (3.3). CUSUMs with reference constants  $\zeta = 0$  and  $\zeta = 0.25$  and nominal in-control ARL 500 are run at  $\kappa = 1$  and  $\kappa = 3$ . A Phase I sample of size  $m = 30$  is used in each case to obtain an initial value  $B_m^*$  of the sequence of denominators in the summands  $\hat{\xi}_n$  see (2.11). The "true" in-control ARLs, estimated from 50,000 Monte Carlo trials in each instance, are shown in Table 3.

	$\zeta = 0$	$\zeta = 0.25$
$\kappa = 1$	492	499
$\kappa = 3$	492	482

Table 3: Estimated in-control ARL of direction CUSUM for data from a wrapped  $t_3$  distribution with concentration parameter  $\kappa$ . Warmup  $m = 30$  and based on 50,000 Monte Carlo trials.

In each of the six instances the 50,000 values of  $B_m^*$  were grouped into bins of unit length and the average of the corresponding run lengths in each bin calculated. Figure 1 shows plots of these average run lengths against the midpoints of the bins together with confidence intervals of width equal to three estimated standard errors (Bins containing fewer than 100 observations, which contain the less commonly occurring values of  $B_m^*$ , are not shown.) The figure thus provides a representation of the Phase II in-control ARL, *conditional upon* the Phase I estimate  $B_m^*$ . It is only at the combination  $\kappa = 3$ ,  $\zeta = 0.25$ . that the Phase II in-control ARL exhibits substantial systematic variation away from the corresponding unconditional value in Table 3.

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### 3.2. Asymmetric distributions

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To assess the effect of skewness in the underlying distribution on the in-control ARL, we generated data from wrapped skew-normal distributions (Pewsey, 2000) with mean direction zero and skewness parameters  $\lambda = 2$  (lightly skewed),  $\lambda = 7$  (moderately skewed) and  $\lambda = \infty$  (heavily skewed), wrapped skew-stable Cauchy- and Lévy distributions with skewness parameters  $\beta = 0.75$  and  $1.0$  (Jammallamadaka and SenGupta, 2001, Section 2.2.8) and from wrapping skew- $t$  distributions (Jones and Faddy, 2003) with 2 and 3 degrees of freedom and skewness parameters  $\lambda = 2$ , 7 and  $\infty$ . The aggregated results are in Tables 4.1 and 4.2. Comparing the results with those in Tables 2.1 and 2.2, we see that the general pattern is the same. The main contributors to the apparent degradation seen at  $\zeta = 0.25$ ,  $\kappa = 3$  are the excessively skewed distributions, namely the wrapped skew-normal and  $t$ -distributions with skewness parameter  $\lambda = \infty$  and the wrapped Lévy distribution with skewness parameter  $\beta = 1$ . These distributions produce estimates that are consistently substantially lower than the

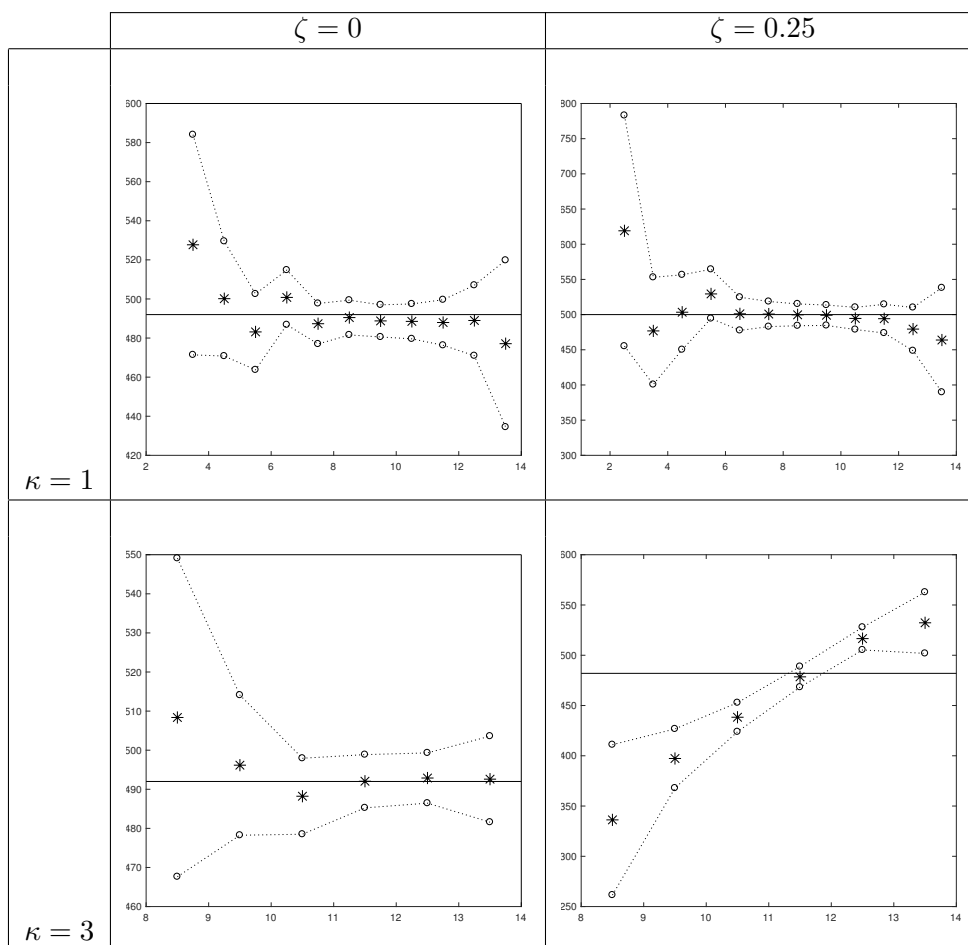


Figure 1: In-control ARL (on the vertical axis), conditional upon the value of  $B_{30}^*$  (on the horizontal axis), for two concentrations  $\kappa$  and two reference values  $\zeta$  in wrapped  $t_3$  distributions. The stars denote the ARL values and the dotted lines are 95% confidence intervals

rest. This is perhaps not too surprising if one takes account of their shape. The supplementary material to this paper has a Figure showing a plot of a wrapped skew-t density with 2 degrees of freedom and skewness parameters  $\lambda = 0, 2$  and  $7$  at  $\kappa = 3$ . The extreme skewness and high concentration at  $\lambda = 7$  magnifies the deleterious effect that a large reference value has on the approximation to the nominal in-control ARL (Section 3.1, first paragraph after Table 2.2). The degradation noted above largely disappears when such highly skewed distributions are eliminated from consideration.

$ARL_0$	$\zeta = 0$			$\zeta = 0.25$		
	$\kappa = 1$	$\kappa = 2$	$\kappa = 3$	$\kappa = 1$	$\kappa = 2$	$\kappa = 3$
250	241 (2)	240 (4)	238 (7)	235 (5)	228 (11)	217 (25)
500	489 (4)	487 (6)	484 (9)	490 (8)	474 (29)	448 (71)
1000	1039 (11)	1036 (9)	1031 (13)	1013 (13)	979 (61)	915 (178)

Table 4.1: Average in-control ARL of the non-parametric CUSUM in thirteen asymmetric distributions ( $m = 10$ ). The number in brackets is the range of the thirteen estimates.

$ARL_0$	$\zeta = 0$			$\zeta = 0.25$		
	$\kappa = 1$	$\kappa = 2$	$\kappa = 3$	$\kappa = 1$	$\kappa = 2$	$\kappa = 3$
250	243 (2)	242 (3)	242 (4)	240 (3)	235 (7)	229 (22)
500	491 (5)	490 (6)	489 (7)	494 (7)	484 (25)	463 (59)
1000	1039 (13)	1038 (10)	1038 (11)	1019 (17)	988 (65)	935 (161)

Table 4.2: Average in-control ARL of the non-parametric CUSUM in thirteen asymmetric distributions ( $m = 25$ ). The number in brackets is the range of the thirteen estimates.

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### 3.3. Choice of reference constant

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We saw in Sections 3.1 and 3.2 that the CUSUM exhibits good in-and out-of-control behaviour throughout when a small positive reference constant  $\zeta$  is used. In analogy with a normal distribution CUSUM, one would expect the CUSUM to then be quite adept at detecting small changes but less effective if the change is of substantial magnitude. In the latter case, efficient detection of a change requires use of a larger reference constant. Again in analogy with a normal distribution CUSUM, an appropriate choice of reference constant for efficient detection of a rotation of size  $\geq \delta_0$  could be

$$\zeta = \frac{\mathbb{E}[\sin(X + \delta_0 - \nu) - \sin(X - \nu)]}{\sqrt{\text{Var}[\sin(X - \nu)]}},$$

which can be estimated from some in-control Phase I data  $X_1, \dots, X_m$  by

$$(3.5) \quad \hat{\zeta} = \frac{\delta_0}{2} \times \frac{m^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^m \sin(X_j + \delta_0 - \hat{\nu}_m)}{\sqrt{m^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^m \sin^2(X_j - \hat{\nu}_m)}}.$$

Clearly, the variability of the estimator  $\hat{\zeta}$  will depend on both the size  $m$  of the in-control Phase I sample and on the type of the unknown underlying distribution. If  $\hat{\zeta}$  turns out to be too large given the known limitations of the CUSUM, one could use a reference value  $\hat{\zeta} \leq 0.25$ , say, and solve for  $\delta_0$  from (3.5). This  $\delta_0$  would serve as an indication of the magnitude of change that the CUSUM could be expected to detect efficiently.

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### 3.4. Out-of-control properties

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While the in-control behaviour of the CUSUM is similar to that of a CUSUM for normal data on the real line, the same is not true in respect of its out-of-control behaviour. In fact, we show next that a consequence of the continual updating of the mean direction estimator  $\hat{\nu}_n$  from (2.1) is that after a change of mean direction the CUSUM will return eventually to what appears to be an in-control state. This behaviour is similar to that of self-starting CUSUMs for linear data, and is a warning to users of the need for corrective action as soon as a change is diagnosed- see Hawkins and Olwell (1998, Section 7.1).

Suppose there is a rotation of size  $\delta$  from  $n = \tau + 1$  onwards and set  $Y_i = X_{i+\tau} + \delta$ ,  $i \geq 1$ . Then, using the approximations

$$\frac{1}{\tau + k} \approx 0 \text{ and } \frac{k}{\tau + k} \approx 1$$

for large  $k$  and fixed  $\tau \geq m$ , the mean direction estimated from the data  $X_1, \dots, X_\tau, Y_1, \dots, Y_k$

is

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\nu}_{\tau+k} &= \text{atan2} \left( \frac{S_\tau + \sum_{i=1}^k \sin Y_i}{\tau + k}, \frac{C_\tau + \sum_{i=1}^k \cos Y_i}{\tau + k} \right) \\ &\approx \text{atan2} \left( \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k \sin Y_i}{k}, \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k \cos Y_i}{k} \right) := \hat{\nu}_k(Y),\end{aligned}$$

which is the estimated mean direction of  $Y_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq k$ . Thus, for sufficiently large  $k$ ,  $\hat{\nu}_{\tau+k}$  is in effect estimating the mean direction of the post-change observations  $Y_1, \dots, Y_k$ . Consequently,

$$\hat{\xi}_{\tau+k+1} \approx \frac{\sin(Y_{k+1} - \hat{\nu}_k(Y))}{\sqrt{k^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^k \sin^2(Y_i - \hat{\nu}_k(Y))}}$$

which, because of its rotation invariance, has the same distribution as the in-control variable  $\hat{\xi}_k$ .

A further consequence of this behaviour is that, in the absence of a substantial amount of in-control Phase I data there is no simple manner in which to assess, a priori, the out-of-control ARL

$$E[N - \tau | N > \tau]$$

of the CUSUM. Here  $N - \tau$  is the time taken for an alarm to be raised after a change has occurred, the expected value being calculated upon an assumption of no false alarms prior to the change. Nevertheless, simulation results indicate that the out-of-control ARL of the two-sided CUSUM behaves in an appropriate manner, namely that the out-of-control ARL is less than the in-control  $ARL_0$  and that it decreases as the size of the shift increases from 0 to  $\pi/2$ . For shifts of size in excess of  $\pi/2$ , the ARL starts increasing again. This behaviour is a result of the periodic nature of the CUSUM summand. Furthermore, that choosing  $\zeta = 0$  leads to substantially larger out-of-control ARLs compared to those produced by

small positive reference constants.

To illustrate that the general pattern of out-of-control ARL behaviour mimics that of a normal distribution CUSUM, Table 5 gives out-of-control ARL estimates from 10,000 simulations involving in each case shifts  $\delta$  of sizes ranging from  $\pi/8$ , to  $7\pi/8$  in a wrapped Cauchy distribution with  $\kappa = 2$ , a warmup sample size  $m = 25$  and reference constants  $\zeta = 0$ ,  $\zeta = 0.125$  and  $\zeta = 0.25$ . The in-control ARL was 1,000 throughout. The results are for shifts induced respectively at observation  $\tau = 100$  and at observation  $\tau = 200$ .

	$\tau = 100$			$\tau = 200$		
	$\zeta = 0$	$\zeta = 0.125$	$\zeta = 0.25$	$\zeta = 0$	$\zeta = 0.125$	$\zeta = 0.25$
$\delta = \pi/8$	123	49	82	82	37	39
$\delta = \pi/4$	50	17	14	40	17	13
$\delta = \pi/2$	31	11	8	28	11	8
$\delta = 3\pi/4$	38	16	12	37	15	12
$\delta = 7\pi/8$	58	29	26	61	31	28

Table 5: Estimated out-of-control ARL of direction CUSUM for data from a wrapped Cauchy distribution with concentration parameter  $\kappa = 2$ . Warmup  $m = 25$ . Changepoints  $\tau = 100$  and  $\tau = 200$ .

If a sufficiently large amount of in-control Phase I data are available to allow a non-trivial nonparametric estimate of the underlying density to be made (Taylor, 2008), the in-control and out-of-control properties of the CUSUM can be fathomed by sampling from the estimated density.

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### 3.5. Bimodal distributions

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Thus far attention has focussed on unimodal distributions. However, many of the properties of the proposed CUSUM remain intact when the underlying distribution is multimodal. Here, we restrict attention to bimodal densities of

the form

$$(3.6) \quad f(\theta) = pg(\theta) + (1-p)g(\theta - \mu_0)$$

with  $1/2 \leq p < 1$  and a unimodal density  $g$  on the circle. Since the concentration of  $f$  will be less than that of  $g$ , one finds that the approximation to the nominal in-control ARL often improves markedly, even at a reference constant 0.25. For instance, let  $g$  in (3.6) be a von Mises density with high concentration  $\kappa = 3.42$  and mean 0. Then, if  $p = 1$  (which is the unimodal case), and with  $\zeta = 0.25$  and a nominal in-control ARL of 500, the estimated true in-control ARL is 461. On the other hand if  $p = 1/3$  and  $\mu_0 = -3\pi/4$ , in which case  $f$  is bimodal with concentration equal to 1, the estimated true in-control ARL of 492 is much closer to the nominal value.

On the other hand, the ability of the CUSUM to detect a change of size  $\delta \neq 0$  decreases as  $\mu_0$  in (3.6) nears  $\pm\pi$  and vanishes when  $f$  in (3.6) is antipodal, that is, when  $p = 1/2$  and  $|\mu_0| = \pi$ . Put another way, the CUSUM is then unable to distinguish between  $f(\theta)$  and  $f(\theta - \delta)$ . The ostensible reason for this behaviour is that an antipodal distribution does not possess a well defined mean or median. Nevertheless, a non-trivial CUSUM will result upon replacing the data  $X_i$  by  $2X_i$ . This replacement transforms  $f(\theta)$  to  $g(\theta/2)/2$ , which is unimodal - see, for instance, Jammalamadaka and SenGupta (2001, page 48).

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#### 4. Concentration change

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For data  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  from a von Mises( $\nu, \kappa$ ) distribution, locally most powerful tests of the hypothesis  $\kappa = \kappa_0$  ( $\neq 0$ ) are based on the statistic  $\sum_{i=1}^n \cos(X_i - \nu)$ . However, the fact that  $\kappa$  is not a scale parameter of the distribution of  $X$  complicates matters. Hawkins and Lombard (2017) showed that even if the mean



direction  $\nu$  is known, control limits for a specified in-control ARL in a von Mises CUSUM for detecting change away from  $\kappa_0$  depend upon  $\kappa_0$ . Nonetheless, the locally most powerful test statistic suggests application of a CUSUM based on

$$V'_n = \cos(X_n - \hat{\nu}_{n-1}), \quad n \geq 1.$$

Again, there are purely non-parametric interpretations of  $V'_n$ , devoid of any reference to a von Mises distribution. For instance, since

$$V'_n = (C_{n-1}/R_{n-1}) \cos X_n + (S_{n-1}/R_{n-1}) \sin X_n,$$

we see that  $V'_n$  is the (signed) length of the projection of the vector  $y_n = (\sin X_n, \cos X_n)$  in the direction  $\hat{\nu}_{n-1} \approx \nu$  of the unit vector  $(S_{n-1}/R_{n-1}, C_{n-1}/R_{n-1})$ . If the concentration increases (decreases) after  $n = \tau$ , the average of  $V'_{\tau+1}, \dots, V'_{\tau+k}$  will tend to be greater (smaller) than the average of  $V'_1, \dots, V'_\tau$ . Another non-parametric interpretation rests on the fact that  $R_n^2$  in (2.4) is a frequently used non-parametric measure of concentration in a sample  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ . Simple algebra shows that the relative change in  $R_{n-1}^2$  brought about by the next observation  $X_n$  is

$$\frac{R_n^2}{R_{n-1}^2} - 1 = \frac{2V'_n}{R_{n-1}} + \frac{1}{R_{n-1}^2},$$

again justifying consideration of  $V'_n$ .

Proceeding in much the same manner as in Section 2.2, a CUSUM of

$$(4.1) \quad \hat{\xi}'_n = \frac{\cos(X_n - \hat{\nu}_{n-1}) - R_{n-1}/(n-1)}{B'_{n-1}}$$

where

$$B'_n = \sqrt{n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \cos^2(X_i - \hat{\nu}_n) - R_n^2/n^2},$$

is suggested to detect a change in concentration.

A change in the numerical value of  $\kappa$  has a much greater effect on the denominator  $B'_{n-1}$  in (4.1) than a change of direction has on the denominator  $B_{n-1}$  in (2.8). Furthermore, the distribution of  $V'_n$  is heavily skewed. Consequently, a CUSUM based on  $\hat{\xi}'_n$  cannot be expected to have a near distribution free in-control ARL over a wide range of reference values. Indeed, simulation results indicate that one is essentially restricted to  $\zeta = 0$  and a large ( $\geq 500$ ) nominal in-control ARL if a satisfactory degree of in-control distribution freeness is to be had over the families of distributions considered in Section 3.

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## 5. Applications

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In the two applications treated here we define the sample mean direction of data  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  by

$$\hat{\nu}_n = \text{atan2} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \sin X_i, \sum_{i=1}^n \cos X_i \right)$$

and the sample concentration, by

$$\hat{\kappa}_n = A^{-1} \left( n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \cos(X_i - \hat{\nu}_n) \right) = A^{-1} \left( \frac{R_n}{n} \right),$$

in analogy with (3.1). After a CUSUM signals, we estimate the changepoint  $\tau$  in the conventional manner. That is, if the CUSUM signals with  $D^+$  ( $D^-$ ) at  $n = N$ , the changepoint estimate is the last index  $n < N$  at which  $D_n^+ = 0$  ( $D_n^- = 0$ ). Both data sets are included in the supplementary material to the paper.

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### 5.1. Acrophase data

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The data, kindly provided by Dr. Germaine Cornelissen of the University of Minnesota Chronobiology Laboratory, come from ambulatory monitoring equipment worn by a patient suffering from episodes of clinical depression. The time at which systolic blood pressure reaches its maximum value on a given day is called the acrophase. Monitoring the acrophase can provide an automated early warning of a possible medical condition before it becomes clinically obvious. We show the results of a two-sided CUSUM analysis with reference constant  $\zeta = 0.25$  (recommended reference value from (3.5) to enable detection of a 30 degree, i.e.  $\pi/6 = 0.52$  radian, rotation) and control limits  $h = \pm 8.59$ , which leads to an in-control ARL of approximately 500. The first  $m = 30$  observations are used to find initial estimates of the required parameters.

The left-hand panel in Figure 2 shows the CUSUM. The upper CUSUM  $D^+$  signals at  $n = 66$  and the changepoint estimate is  $\hat{\tau} = 57$ , that is, 27 observations after the warmup period. The right-hand panel in Figure 2 shows the CUSUM after restarting at  $n = 88$ , observations 58 through 87 serving as a warmup to estimate the new direction. A sustained decrease in the lower CUSUM  $D^-$  is evident. The CUSUM signals at  $n = 120$ , a changepoint being indicated at  $n = 110$ . Continuing in this manner produces the results in Table 6, which shows the progress of the CUSUMs as the data accrue. The estimate of the mean direction and concentration in each segment is shown in the third and fourth columns of the table.

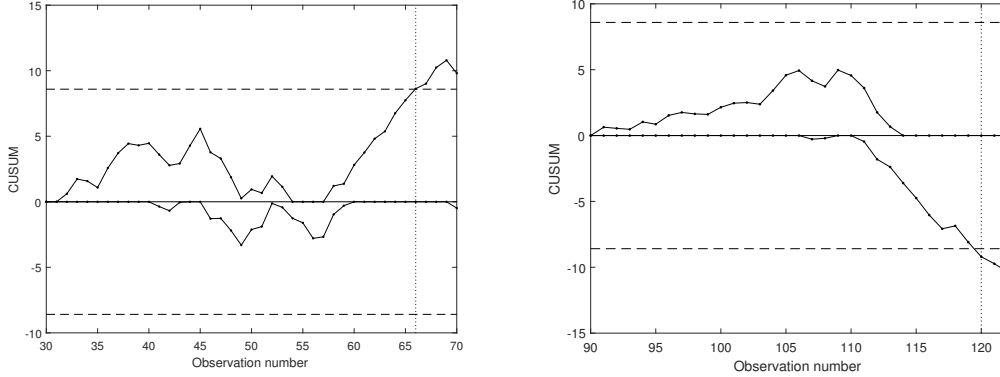


Figure 2: Direction CUSUMs of acrophase data. Left-hand panel: CUSUM after start at  $n = 31$ . Right-hand panel: CUSUM after restart at  $n = 88$ . The vertical dotted lines indicate the location of the estimated changepoints. The dashed horizontal lines indicate the control limits.

segment	signal at	$\hat{\nu}$	$\hat{\kappa}$
1 – 57	66	$-1.70$ ( $263^\circ$ )	1.86
58 – 110	120	$-0.76$ ( $317^\circ$ )	0.78
111 – 140	178	$-1.90$ ( $251^\circ$ )	2.60
141 – 241	255	$-1.19$ ( $292^\circ$ )	2.51
242 – 282	299	$-0.90$ ( $308^\circ$ )	0.31
283 – 306	none	$-.007$ ( $360^\circ$ )	1.68

Table 6: Acrophase data: Progression of CUSUMs

Figure 3 shows dot plots, constructed after the fact, of the data in the six identified segments together with an indication of the mean in each segment. A noticeable feature in this plot is the first two increases followed by a sudden large decrease to more or less the original mean value. This is indicative of an external intervention in the treatment of the patient to reset the acrophase. After that, there follows a sustained increase, this time without any apparent external intervention. The figure also reveals some variation between the concentrations within the six segments - see the fourth column in Table 6. This does not affect the validity of the CUSUM since there is no assumption that the concentrations in the various segments must all be the same. In retrospect, it seems that the

CUSUM has done a good job of identifying location changes.

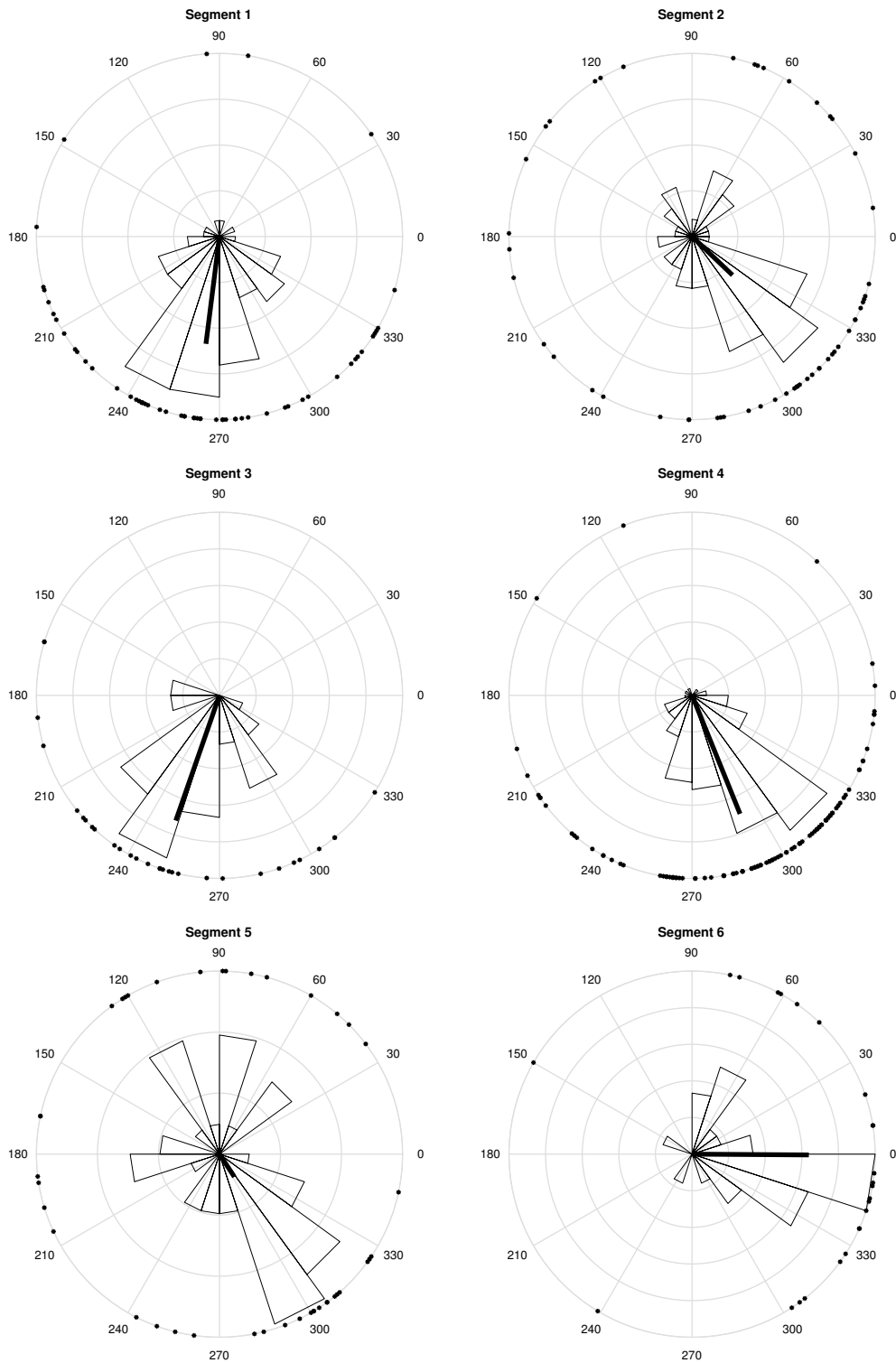


Figure 3: Rose plots of the data in each of the six identified segments of the acrophase data.

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## 5.2. Pulsar data

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Lombard and Maxwell (2012) developed a rotation invariant cusum to detect deviation from a uniform distribution on the circle and applied it to some data consisting of arrival times of cosmic rays from the vicinity of a pulsar. The objective is to detect periods of sustained high energy radiation. Following a standard procedure in Astrophysics, the data were wrapped around a circle of circumference equal to the period of the pulsar. If no high energy radiation is present the wrapped data should be more or less uniformly distributed on the circumference of the circle, while a non-uniform distribution should manifest itself during periods of high energy radiation. They found that the first 190 observations could reasonably be assumed to have arisen from a uniform distribution. We now apply to observations 191 through 1250 the concentration CUSUMs from Section 4 of the present paper to detect further changes in concentration. The in-control ARL of the chart is set at 500 observations with reference value  $\zeta = 0$  (again, the recommended reference value from (3.5) to enable detection of a 30 degree, i.e.  $\pi/6 = 0.52$  radian, rotation) and control limits  $\pm 30.46$ . The first  $m = 50$  observations are used to obtain initial estimates of the required means, variances and covariance of  $\sin X$  and  $\cos X$ .

The full extent of the concentration CUSUM, without restarts, is shown in Figure 4. The first signal is at  $n = 191 + 495 = 686$  and the changepoint is estimated at  $n = 191 + 331 = 522$ . The estimated concentration in the segment  $[192, 522]$  is 0.35. Thereafter, the lower CUSUM  $D^-$  shows a sustained decrease to the end of the data series. In fact, if the CUSUM is restarted at  $n = 523$ , a changepoint is indicated at  $n = 523$ . Such a pattern is indicative of a more or less continuous decrease in concentration as the series progresses. The estimated concentration of the observations in the segment  $[523, 1250]$  is 0.06, suggesting

a uniform distribution in this segment. Hawkins and Lombard (2015) applied a retrospective segmentation method to these data. Except for a short segment [191 – 207], which falls within the warmup set used to initiate the CUSUM, the results of the CUSUM analysis agree quite well with their results. The numerical details are shown in Table 7.

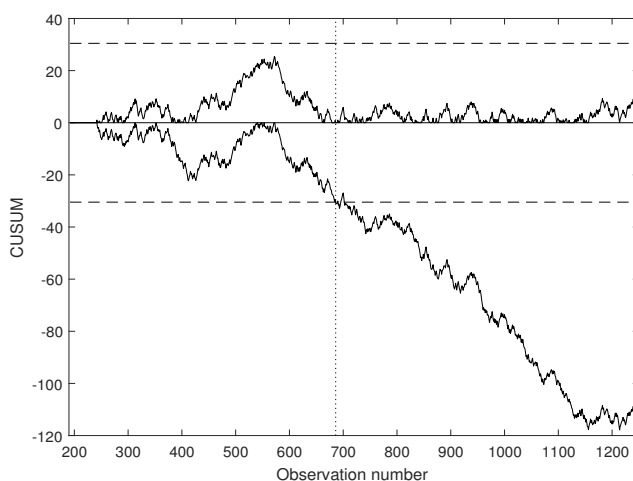


Figure 4: Concentration CUSUM of the pulsar data.

Retrospective			CUSUM		
segment	$\hat{\nu}$	$\hat{\kappa}$	segment	$\hat{\nu}$	$\hat{\kappa}$
191-207	-0.41	1.89			
208-573	-1.58	0.35	191-522	-1.44	0.35
574-1250	-	0.0	523-1250	-	0.06

Table 7: Pulsar data. Segments delineated by sequential CUSUM and retrospective segmentation

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## 6. Summary

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We develop non-parametric rotation invariant CUSUMs for detecting changes in the mean direction and concentration of a circular distribution. The CUSUMs are designed for situations in which the initial mean direction and concentration

are unspecified, the objective being to detect a change from the initial values, whatever the latter may be. Monte Carlo simulation results indicate that the CUSUMs have in-control average run lengths that are acceptably close to the nominal values over a wide class of symmetric and asymmetric circular distributions. Two applications of the methodology to data from Health Science and Astrophysics are discussed.

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### Supplementary Material & Acknowledgements

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Supplementary material for this publication is available on GitHub at <https://github.com/cpotgieter/nonparametric-cusums>. The supplementary files consist of a pdf document with detailed simulation results, an Excel file with the datasets used in this paper, and the Matlab code for implementing the CUSUM procedures proposed here.

The authors thank two referees for some valuable comments that led to an improved presentation of the results in the paper.

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