

Retrospective Change Point Detection: From Parametric to Distribution Free Policies

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The literature displays change point detection problems in the context of one of the key issues that belong to testing statistical hypotheses. The main focus in this article is to review recent retrospective change point policies and propose new relevant procedures. Commonly applied practical quality control purposes have declared statements of the change point problems. Various biostatistical and engineering applications cause consideration of an extended form of the change point problem. In this article, we consider parametric and distribution free generalized change point detection policies, attending to different contexts of optimality and robustness of the procedures. We conducted a broad Monte Carlo study to compare various parametric and nonparametric tests, also investigating a sensitivity of the change point detection policies with respect to assumptions required for correct executions of the procedures. An example based on real biomarker measurements is provided to judge our conclusions.

Keywords Change point; CUSUM; Entropy; Likelihood ratio; Most powerful; Nonparametric likelihood; Nonparametric tests; Optimal testing; Robustness; Shirayev–Roberts.

Mathematics Subject Classification ■

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1. Introduction

In this article, we aim to introduce and examine different tests for a change in the distribution of independent observations X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n with the fixed sample size n . In the formal context of hypotheses testing, we state the problem to test for

$$\begin{aligned} H_0, \text{ the null: } & X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \sim F_0 \quad \text{versus} \\ H_1, \text{ the alternative: } & X_i \sim F_1, X_j \sim F_2, \quad i = 1, \dots, v-1, \quad j = v, \dots, n, \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

Received April 7, 2009; Accepted January 27, 2010

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50 where F_0, F_1, F_2 are distribution functions that correspond to density functions $f_0,$
 51 f_1, f_2 . The unknown parameter $v, 1 \leq v \leq n$ is called a *change point*. Following
 52 certain applied aspects of quality control studies, the literature assumes commonly
 53 the function F_1 is equal to F_0 (e.g., Gombay and Horvath, 1994; James et al.,
 54 1987). We state a general case when F_1 can be different from the null distribution
 55 F_0 . Various biostatistical and engineering studies can motivate to eliminate the
 56 constraint $F_1 = F_0$ (e.g., Vexler et al., 2009b).

57 In accordance with the statistical literature, we can investigate the problem
 58 (1) in parametric or nonparametric forms, depending on assumptions made on the
 59 distribution functions $F_0, F_1,$ and F_2 . In the parametric case of (1), we assume the
 60 distribution functions $F_0, F_1,$ and F_2 have known forms that can contain certain
 61 unknown parameters (e.g., Gombay and Horvath, 1994; Gurevich, 2007; James
 62 et al., 1987; Vexler, 2006; Vexler and Gurevich, 2009a).

63 In the nonparametric case of (1), the functions F_0, F_1, F_2 are assumed to
 64 be completely unknown (e.g., Ferger, 1994; Gombay, 2000, 2001; Gurevich, 2006;
 65 Wolfe and Schechtman, 1984; Zou et al., 2007).

66 In this article, we review, develop, and compare different policies for the
 67 problem (1), in both the parametric and nonparametric cases, attending to different
 68 contexts of optimality of tests. In Secs. 2 and 3 we present the parametric and
 69 nonparametric methods, correspondingly. Section 4 displays a Monte Carlo study to
 70 compare the powers of parametric and nonparametric change point tests, analyzing
 71 sensitivity (robustness) of the change point policies with respect to assumptions that
 72 are required for correct executions of the procedures. Section 5 provides an example
 73 based on real biomarker measurements that judges reviewed change point detection
 74 policies in practice. We state our conclusion in Sec. 6.

76 2. Parametric Methods

77
 78 The parametric case of testing the change point problem (1) has been dealt with
 79 extensively in both the theoretical and applied literature (e.g., Chernoff and Zacks,
 80 1964; Csorgo and Horvath, 1997; Gombay and Horvath, 1994; Gurevich, 2007;
 81 Gurevich and Vexler, 2005; James et al., 1987; Kander and Zacks, 1966; Sen and
 82 Srivastava, 1975). Chernoff and Zacks (1964) considered the problem (1) based
 83 on normally distributed observations with $F_0 = F_1 = N(\theta_0, 1), F_2 = N(\theta, 1)$, where
 84 θ_0 and $\theta > \theta_0$ are unknown. In this case, a noninformative uniform prior for v
 85 was assumed and a Bayesian test statistic was proposed. Kander and Zacks (1966)
 86 extended Chernoff and Zacks's (1964) results to a case based on data from the
 87 one-parameter exponential family. Sen and Srivastava (1975) used the maximum
 88 likelihood technique to present a test statistic. James et al. (1987) proposed, in the
 89 context of (1), decision rules based on likelihood ratios and recursive residuals. This
 90 change point literature concluded that there is not a globally (with respect to values
 91 of v , under H_1) preferable test for (1). It turned out that Chernoff and Zacks's (1964)
 92 test has a larger power than that of tests based on the likelihood ratio or recursive
 93 residuals when v is around $n/2$, but this property is reversed if the change point v is
 94 close to the edges; i.e., when $v \approx n$ or $v \approx 1$.

95 Because the change point v is unknown, the maximum likelihood estimation of
 96 v and unknown parameters of F_0, F_1, F_2 can be applied, and then the likelihood
 97 ratio tests can be defined to test for (1). The resulting tests have a CUSUM type
 98 structure that is well addressed in the literature (e.g., Gombay and Horvath, 1994;

99 Gurevich, 2007). Gombay and Horvath (1994), Lai (1995), Gurevich and Vexler
 100 (2005, 2006), and Gurevich (2007) proved that the CUSUM approach implies very
 101 powerful parametric change point policies.

102 When, in accordance with the statement (1), observations can have the density
 103 functions f_0 , f_1 , or f_2 based on likelihood ratio, which are assumed to be completely
 104 known, the CUSUM statistic has the form of

$$105 \Delta_n = \max_{1 \leq k \leq n} \Lambda_k^n, \quad (2)$$

106 where the likelihood ratios

$$107 \Lambda_k^n = \frac{\prod_{i=1}^{k-1} f_1(X_i) \prod_{i=k}^n f_2(X_i)}{\prod_{i=1}^n f_0(X_i)}, \quad \prod_{i=1}^0 f_1(X_i) = 1.$$

108 (Here, as mentioned above, the maximum likelihood estimator $\hat{v} = \arg \max_{1 \leq k \leq n} \Lambda_k^n$
 109 of the unknown parameter v was used, modifying the most powerful test statistic
 110 Λ_v^n to have the maximum likelihood ratio form Δ_n ; for details, see, e.g., Vexler
 111 and Gurevich, 2009a. Under certain assumptions, one can show the estimator
 112 \hat{v} is consistent; e.g., Borovkov, 1999; Gurevich and Vexler, 2005; Pollak and
 113 Tartakovsky, 2009; Tartakovsky et al., 2009.)

114 The null hypothesis H_0 of (1) is proposed to be rejected for large values of the
 115 CUSUM test statistic. It is clear that, when the density functions f_0 , f_1 , and f_2 have
 116 forms with unknown parameters, one needs to estimate the unknown parameters
 117 and then an approximated CUSUM type test statistic can be defined. For example,
 118 Gombay and Horvath (1994) considered the following situation; that is,

$$119 f_0(x) = f(x; \theta_0), \quad f_1(x) = f(x; \theta_1), \quad f_2(x) = f(x; \theta_2), \quad (3)$$

120 where the vector parameters $\theta_i \in \Theta \subseteq R^d$, $i = 0, 1, 2$ are unknown, $\theta_1 \neq \theta_2$. Gombay
 121 and Horvath suggested rejecting the hypothesis H_0 of (1), if, for a fixed test threshold
 122 $C_1 > 0$, AQ2

$$123 \max_{1 < k \leq n} \Lambda_k^{*n} > C_1, \quad (4)$$

124 where

$$125 \Lambda_k^{*n} = \frac{\sup_{\theta_1 \in \Theta} \prod_{i=1}^{k-1} f(X_i; \theta_1) \sup_{\theta_2 \in \Theta} \prod_{i=k}^n f(X_i; \theta_2)}{\sup_{\theta_0 \in \Theta} \prod_{i=1}^n f(X_i; \theta_0)}.$$

126 To control the type I error of CUSUM-type tests, evaluation of the null distribution
 127 of the corresponding CUSUM test statistics is commonly required. Therefore,
 128 investigators need to use a simulation study or complex asymptotic ($n \rightarrow \infty$)
 129 propositions to approximate the type I error of CUSUM type tests. Gombay and
 130 Horvath (1994, 1996) obtained the asymptotic null distribution of the statistic (4)
 131 and the rate of convergence of this approximation. Note that there are no results
 132 that show a nonasymptotic optimality of CUSUM-type tests in a general setting
 133 of (1).

134 Alternatively, and in contrast to the CUSUM method, Vexler (2006, 2008) as
 135 well as Vexler and Gurevich (2009a) proposed to use retrospectively the Shirayayev–
 136 Roberts (SR) approach that is well accepted for developing optimal sequential
 137

148 change point detection procedures (e.g., Krieger et al., 2003; Pollak, 1985; Pollak
 149 and Tartakovsky, 2009; Tartakovsky et al., 2009). In the context of this method, the
 150 authors suggested avoiding estimating the change point v location, when tests for
 151 (1) are considered. When f_0 , f_1 , and f_2 of (1) are completely known, the SR test
 152 statistic has the form of

$$153 \quad R_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \Lambda_k^n, \quad (5)$$

154 where Λ_k^n is stated in (2). The hypothesis H_0 of (1) is proposed to be rejected if

$$155 \quad R_n > C_2, \quad (6)$$

156 for a fixed test threshold $C_2 > 0$.

157 The change point literature concludes, generally speaking, there are no
 158 uniformly most powerful tests for (1) (e.g., James et al., 1987). Vexler and Gurevich
 159 (2009a) proved the following proposition, pointing out an optimal nonasymptotic
 160 property of the decision rule (6). To formulate this proposition, we define
 161 probability measures $P_{H_0}(A) = \Pr(A | H_0)$ and $P_{v=k}(A) = \Pr(A | H_1, v = k)$, where A
 162 is a random event, $k = 1, \dots, n$.

163 **Proposition 1.** *The policy (6) is average most powerful; i.e., for any decision rule δ*
 164 *based on $\{X_i, i = 1, \dots, n\}$ we have*

$$165 \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n P_{v=k}(R_n > C) \geq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n P_{v=k}(\delta \text{ rejects } H_0), \quad (7)$$

166 when the significance level of tests is fixed to be $\alpha = P_{H_0}(\delta \text{ rejects } H_0)$.

167 **Remark.** While assuming conditions (3), we propose to modify the SR test statistic
 168 (5) to have the appropriate form

$$169 \quad \sum_{k=2}^n \Lambda_k^{*n}, \quad (8)$$

170 where the ratios Λ_k^{*n} are denoted in (4). (The stated problem (1) with $f_0 \neq f_1$ has
 171 not been well addressed in the parametric change point literature. The retrospective
 172 test based on (8) is not examined well in the literature, in general cases, even when
 173 $f_0 = f_1$.)

174 3. Nonparametric Methods

175 When the problem (1) is stated nonparametrically, there is no universal powerful
 176 methodology (e.g., as the likelihood methods mentioned in Sec. 2) for this subject.
 177 In this case, common components of nonparametric change point detection policies
 178 have been proposed to be based on signs and/or ranks and/or U statistics (e.g.,
 179 Csorgo and Horvath, 1997; Ferger, 1994; Gombay, 2000, 2001; Gurevich, 2006;
 180 Wolfe and Schechtman, 1984). Sen and Srivastava (1975) focused on the problem (1)

197 with the unknown distributions $F_0(x) = F_1(x)$, $F_2(x) = F_1(x - \beta)$, $\beta > 0$. The authors
 198 suggested to reject H_0 , for large values of the statistic

$$199$$

$$200 D_1 = \max_{2 \leq k \leq n} \left\{ \left[U_{k-1, n-k+1} - ((k-1)(n-k+1))/2 \right] / \left[(k-1)(n-k+1)(n+1)/12 \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \right\},$$

$$201 \quad (9)$$

$$202$$

203 where $U_{k-1, n-k+1}$ is the Mann–Whitney statistic for two samples of size $k-1$ and
 204 $n-k+1$. Setting the problem (1) in a similar manner to Sen and Srivastava (1975),
 205 Pettitt (1979) used the statistic

$$206$$

$$207 K = \max_{2 \leq k \leq n} \left\{ - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \sum_{j=k}^n Q_{ij} \right\}, \quad Q_{ij} = \text{sign}(X_i - X_j) = \begin{cases} 1 & X_i > X_j \\ 0 & X_i = X_j \\ -1 & X_i < X_j \end{cases} \quad (10)$$

$$208$$

$$209$$

$$210$$

$$211$$

212 to propose a change point detection policy. Wolfe and Schechtman
 213 (1984) showed that the statistic K can be presented as $2 \max_{2 \leq k \leq n}$
 214 $\{ U_{k-1, n-k+1} - (k-1)(n-k+1)/2 \}$. Then, the statistics K and D_1 have a similar
 215 structure. In this case, Csorgo and Horvath (1988) modified the statistics D_1 and K
 216 to have the form of

$$217 D_2 = \sqrt{3} \max_{2 \leq k \leq n} \frac{U_k}{[(k-1)(n-k+2)n]^{\frac{1}{2}}}, \quad (11)$$

$$218$$

$$219$$

220 where $U_k = - \sum_{1 \leq i \leq k-1} \sum_{k \leq j \leq n} \text{sign}(X_i - X_j)$. This modification was introduced to
 221 evaluate asymptotically ($n \rightarrow \infty$) the type I error of the corresponding to the
 222 statistic (11) test that requires rejecting H_0 , if $D_2 > C_3$, where C_3 is a test threshold.
 223 When the two-sided statement $F_0(x) = F_1(x)$, $F_2(x) = F_1(x - \beta)$, $\beta \neq 0$ is assumed,
 224 the absolute values of the statistics (9)–(11) should be considered to construct the
 225 tests for the two-sided alternative. Gurevich (2006) analyzed the problem (1), when
 226 $F_0 = F_1$ is unknown and the post-change distribution function F_2 is stochastically
 227 larger than the pre-change distribution function F_1 . In contrast to the methods
 228 above, in this case, a test statistic is suggested to be based on the likelihood ratio
 229 of the ranks of observations, assuming that flat prior information regarding the
 230 pre- and post-change distribution functions F_1 and F_2 is available. Especially, the
 231 technique of Gurevich (2006) considers the rank-based likelihood ratios

$$232$$

$$233 \Lambda_k^n(\rho) = \frac{f_{H_1; v=k}[\rho(1, n), \rho(2, n), \dots, \rho(n, n)]}{f_{H_0}[\rho(1, n), \rho(2, n), \dots, \rho(n, n)]}, \quad \rho(j, n) = \sum_{k=1}^n I_{\{X_k \leq X_j\}}$$

$$234$$

$$235$$

236 (here, $f(\cdot)$ denotes a joint density, $I_{\{A\}}$ is the indicator function of an event A) to
 237 be main components of the CUSUM-type test statistic. To simplify these likelihood
 238 ratios, presenting analytical forms, Gurevich (2006) invited a method by Gordon
 239 and Pollak (1995) that was proposed to create a robust sequential surveillance
 240 scheme for stochastically ordered alternatives. This approach proposes pretending
 241 that observations follow a distribution from an exponential family, say, Ψ , under
 242 the null hypothesis of (1), whereas, under the alternative H_1 , the observations are
 243 distributed corresponding to a mixture of distribution functions that belong also to
 244 Ψ and depend on a set of parameters. By virtue of the probabilistic characteristics of
 245 the rank statistics and the maximum likelihood methodology, the parameters can be

reasonably derived to maximize $E_{X \sim F_2} \{\log [f_1^p(F_0^{p-1}[F_0(X)]) / f_0^p(F_0^{p-1}[F_0(X)])]\}$ based on a guess regarding the pre- and post-change distributions F_0, F_2 (here, f_0^p, f_1^p denote the pretended pre- and post-change density functions; F^{-1} corresponds to the inverse function of F). In this case, the null hypothesis H_0 is proposed to be rejected if the test statistic

$$D = \max \left\{ \max_{\frac{q}{2}+1 \leq k \leq n} \Lambda_k^n(\rho_n, \underline{X}), \max_{\frac{q}{2}+1 \leq k \leq n} \Lambda_k^n(\rho_n^*, \underline{Z}) \right\} > C_D, \quad (12)$$

for a fixed test threshold $C_D > 0$, where

$$\Lambda_k^n(\rho_n, \underline{X}) = \sum_{m=0}^n \lambda_{k,m}^n(\rho_n, \underline{X}), \quad (13)$$

$\lambda_{k,m}^n(\rho_n, \underline{X}) = \binom{n}{m} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n \left(\frac{p\alpha}{q\beta}\right)^{U_k(m,n)} (2q\beta)^{n+1-k} \prod_{i=1}^m \left(1 + \frac{V_k(i,n)}{i}(\beta - 1)\right)^{-1} \prod_{i=m+1}^n \left(1 + \frac{U_k(i-1,n)}{n+1-i}(\alpha - 1)\right)^{-1}$, $U_k(m, n) = \sum_{j=k}^n I_{\{\rho(j,n) > m\}}$, $\rho(i, n) = \sum_{j=1}^n I_{\{X_j \leq X_i\}}$ is the rank of observation X_i , $V_k(m, n) = (n + 1 - k) - U_k(m, n)$; p, q, α, β are some positive parameters, $q = 1 - p$; $Z_i = -X_{n-i+1}$, $i = 1, \dots, n$,

$$\Lambda_k^n(\rho_n^*, \underline{Z}) = \sum_{m=0}^n \lambda_{k,m}^n(\rho_n^*, \underline{Z}), \quad (14)$$

$$\lambda_{k,m}^n(\rho_n^*, \underline{Z}) = \binom{n}{m} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n \left(\frac{p^*\alpha^*}{q^*\beta^*}\right)^{U_k^*(m,n)} (2q^*\beta^*)^{n+1-k} \prod_{i=1}^m \left(1 + \frac{V_k^*(i,n)}{i}(\beta^* - 1)\right)^{-1} \\ \times \prod_{i=m+1}^n \left(1 + \frac{U_k^*(i-1,n)}{n+1-i}(\alpha^* - 1)\right)^{-1},$$

$U_k^*(m, n) = \sum_{j=k}^n I_{\{\rho^*(j,n) > m\}}$, $\rho^*(i, n) = \sum_{j=1}^n I_{\{Z_j \leq Z_i\}}$ is the rank of the observation Z_i , $V_k^*(m, n) = (n + 1 - k) - U_k^*(m, n)$, $p^*, q^*, \alpha^*, \beta^*$ are some positive parameters, $q^* = 1 - p^*$. To obtain optimal values of $p, \alpha, \beta, p^*, \alpha^*, \beta^*$, corresponding to a maximum power of the test (12), Gurevich (2006) proposed to utilize different suppositions regarding F_1 and F_2 . For example, when we suspect the pre- and post-change distribution functions are close to $N(0, 1)$ and $N(1, 1)$, respectively, the optimal values of the parameters are

$$p = p^* \approx 0.8413, \quad \alpha = \alpha^* \approx 0.531, \quad \beta = \beta^* \approx 1.703. \quad (15)$$

The proposed procedure possesses robustness of validity, because it is based on ranks. Thus, the procedure with near-optimal parameters obtained for specific alternatives is assumed to be a powerful change point detection policy for various alternatives (Gurevich, 2006; Gordon and Pollak, 1995). In this article, Sec. 4 will present Monte Carlo simulations to confirm this proposition.

To evaluate the p -values of the test (12), Gurevich (2006) derived asymptotically a distribution-free upper bound for the type I error of the policy (12).

We extend the policy of Gurevich (2006) to allow for cases when a stochastic order between the distribution functions F_1 and F_2 cannot be assumed to be known. Note that, when, under H_1 , $X_v, \dots, X_n \sim F_2$ are stochastically larger than X_1, \dots, X_{v-1} , we can construct a test using similar schemes to those

295 that are mentioned above (see the notations (12)–(15)). However, if, under
 296 the alternative H_1 , observations $X_v, \dots, X_n \sim F_2$ are stochastically smaller than
 297 X_1, \dots, X_{v-1} we transform the sample $\{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$ to be presented in the form of
 298 $\{-X_1, \dots, -X_n\}$. Then, $-X_1, \dots, -X_{v-1} \sim F_0^*$; $-X_v, \dots, -X_n \sim F_2^*$, where $F_0^*(x) =$
 299 $1 - F_0(-x)$, $F_2^*(x) = 1 - F_2(-x)$. That is, $-X_v, \dots, -X_n$ are stochastically larger
 300 than $-X_1, \dots, -X_{v-1}$. For example, if $F_0 = N(0, 1)$ and $F_2 = N(-1, 1)$, then

$$302 \quad F_0^* = N(0, 1) < F_2^* = N(1, 1). \quad (16)$$

305 Rewrite the definitions (13) and (14), utilizing $-X_i$, $i = 1, \dots, n$, instead of X_i ,
 306 $i = 1, \dots, n$, we have

$$308 \quad \Lambda 1_k^n(\rho 1_n, -\underline{X}) = \sum_{m=0}^n \lambda_{k,m}^n(\rho 1_n, -\underline{X}), \quad (17)$$

312 $\lambda 1_{k,m}^n(\rho 1_n, -\underline{X}) = \binom{n}{m} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n \left(\frac{p_1 \alpha_1}{q_1 \beta_1}\right)^{U 1_k(m,n)} (2q_1 \beta_1)^{n+1-k} \prod_{i=1}^m \left(1 + \frac{V 1_k(i,n)}{i} (\beta_1 - 1)\right)^{-1}$
 313 $\prod_{i=m+1}^n \left(1 + \frac{U 1_k(i-1,n)}{n+1-i} (\alpha_1 - 1)\right)^{-1} U 1_k(m, n) = \sum_{j=k}^n I_{\{\rho 1(j,n) > m\}}, \quad \rho 1(i, n) = \sum_{j=1}^n$
 314 $I_{\{-X_j \leq -X_i\}}, \quad V 1_k(m, n) = (n+1-k) - U 1_k(m, n), \quad p_1, q_1, \alpha_1, \beta_1$ are certain positive
 315 parameters, $q_1 = 1 - p_1, -Z_i = X_{n-i+1}, i = 1, 2, \dots, n,$

$$317 \quad \Lambda 1_k^n(\rho 1_n^*, -\underline{Z}) = \sum_{m=0}^n \lambda 1_{k,m}^n(\rho 1_n^*, -\underline{Z}), \quad (18)$$

320 $\lambda 1_{k,m}^n(\rho 1_n^*, -\underline{Z}) = \binom{n}{m} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n \left(\frac{p_1^* \alpha_1^*}{q_1^* \beta_1^*}\right)^{U 1_k^*(m,n)} (2q_1^* \beta_1^*)^{n+1-k} \prod_{i=1}^m \left(1 + \frac{V 1_k^*(i, n)}{i} (\beta_1^* - 1)\right)^{-1}$
 321 $\times \prod_{i=m+1}^n \left(1 + \frac{U 1_k^*(i-1, n)}{n+1-i} (\alpha_1^* - 1)\right)^{-1}$

322 $U 1_k^*(m, n) = \sum_{j=k}^n I_{\{\rho 1^*(j,n) > m\}}, \quad \rho 1^*(i, n) = \sum_{j=1}^n I_{\{-Z_j \leq -Z_i\}}, \quad (i = 1, 2, \dots, n),$

326 $V 1_k^*(m, n) = (n+1-k) - U 1_k^*(m, n), p_1^*, q_1^*, \alpha_1^*, \beta_1^*$ are certain positive parameters,
 327 $q_1^* = 1 - p_1^*$. The proposed policy is to reject H_0 if

$$330 \quad DD = \max \left\{ \max_{\frac{n}{2}+1 \leq k \leq n} \left(\frac{1}{2} \Lambda_k^n(\rho_n, \underline{X}) + \frac{1}{2} \Lambda_k^n(\rho_n^*, \underline{Z}) \right), \right. \\ \left. \max_{\frac{n}{2}+1 \leq k \leq n} \left(\frac{1}{2} \Lambda 1_k^n(\rho 1_n, -\underline{X}) + \frac{1}{2} \Lambda 1_k^n(\rho 1_n^*, -\underline{Z}) \right) \right\} > C_{DD}, \quad (19)$$

333 for a fixed test threshold $C_{DD} > 0$. Optimal values of the parameters $p_1, \alpha_1, \beta_1, p_1^*,$
 334 α_1^*, β_1^* can be defined via the method presented by Gurevich (2006), when suspected
 335 representatives of the pre- and post-change distributions are used. To control the
 336 type I error of the test (19), we present the next proposition.

Proposition 2. Set up $p\alpha \geq q\beta$, $p_1\alpha_1 \geq q_1\beta_1$, $p^*\alpha^* \geq q^*\beta^*$, $p_1^*\alpha_1^* \geq q_1^*\beta_1^*$. Then, for all $C_{DD} > 0$,

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{F_0} P_{H_0}(DD > C_{DD}) \leq \frac{2}{C_{DD}}. \quad (20)$$

The proof scheme of Proposition 2 is technically based on that of Theorem 2.1 presented by Gurevich (2006). Proposition 2 provides a distribution free upper bound for the significance level of the test (19). That is, for large values of the sample size n , we can use $2/C_{DD}$ to approximate the significance level of the policy (19). In Sec. 4, we Monte Carlo study the accuracy of this approximation based on data with different sample sizes.

Remark. One can show that if $F_0 = F_1$ and F_2 are expected to be close to $N(0, 1)$ and $N(\mu, 1)$ with $|\mu| = 1$, then the optimal values of the parameters of (19) are

$$p = p_1 = p^* = p_1^* \approx 0.8413, \quad \alpha = \alpha_1 = \alpha^* = \alpha_1^* \approx 0.531, \quad \beta = \beta_1 = \beta^* = \beta_1^* \approx 1.703. \quad (21)$$

Thus, we can conclude that the well-addressed nonparametric tests for (1) in the literature have been initially defined in cases with stochastically ordered one-sided alternatives. Then, practical applications have required modifying the tests to be adjusted for two-sided alternatives. Note also that, commonly, the change point literature has paid attention to different comparisons between the powers of change point policies, when the pre- and post-change distributions (F_1 and F_2 , respectively) have the same form with different parameters (e.g., Ferger, 1994; Gurevich, 2006; Wolfe and Schechtman, 1984).

Alternatively to traditional change point detection schemes' constructions, Vexler and Gurevich (2009b) proposed to approximate nonparametrically the likelihood ratio's components of the parametric CUSUM (2) and SR (5) test statistics. Toward this end, principles of the empirical likelihood methodology (e.g., Owen, 2001; Vexler et al., 2009a) were proposed to be applied. To approximate likelihood ratios, Vexler and Gurevich (2009b) used and extended a nonparametric methodology proposed by Vexler and Gurevich (2010), considering the likelihood ratio $\prod_{i=1}^{k-1} \frac{f_1(X_i)}{f_0(X_i)} \prod_{i=k}^n \frac{f_2(X_i)}{f_0(X_i)}$ from (2) as a product of n unknown parameters that should be maximum likelihood estimated, under constraints having forms of empirical approximations to $\int f_1 du = 1$ and $\int f_2 du = 1$. That is, for example, the Lagrange multiplier method provides values of f_{1r}/f_{0r} , $r = 1, \dots, k-1$ to approximate the ratios $f_1(X_{(r,k-1)})/f_0(X_{(r,k-1)})$, $r = 1, \dots, k-1$ that are present in the likelihood ratio $\prod_{r=1}^{k-1} \frac{f_1(X_{(k,k-1)})}{f_0(X_{(k,k-1)})} = \prod_{r=1}^{k-1} \frac{f_1(X_r)}{f_0(X_r)}$, where $X_{(r,k-1)}$ is the r -order statistic based on X_1, \dots, X_{k-1} . Toward this end, f_{1r}/f_{0r} , $r = 1, \dots, k-1$ can be chosen to maximize the corresponding log likelihood function provided that an empirical approximation to $\int f_1 du = 1$ is satisfied; i.e., f_{1r}/f_{0r} , $r = 1, \dots, k-1$ can be derived from the equation

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial(f_{1r}/f_{0r})} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \log \frac{f_{1i}}{f_{0i}} + \lambda \left(1 - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \frac{f_{1i}}{f_{0i}} \Delta_{i,k-1} \right) \right] = 0,$$

where λ is the Lagrange multiplier; $\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \frac{f_{1i}}{f_{0i}} \Delta_{i,k-1}$ is assumed to be equal to 1, because $\Delta_{i,k-1}$ must be defined to approximate empirically $\int f_1 du$ using

393 $\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \frac{f_{1i}}{f_{0i}} \Delta_{i,k-1}$. In a similar manner to the $\prod_{r=1}^{k-1} \frac{f_1(X_r)}{f_0(X_r)}$ approximation, the likelihood
 394 ratio $\prod_{i=k}^n \frac{f_2(X_i)}{f_0(X_i)}$ can be evaluated. Thus, one can show that Λ_k^n from (2) can be
 395 approximated by
 396

$$397 \quad \tilde{\Lambda}_k^n = \min_{1 \leq m \leq (k-1)^{1-\delta}} \left(\prod_{i=1}^{k-1} \frac{2m}{(k-1)(F_{0n}(Z_{(i+m)}) - F_{0n}(Z_{(i-m)}))} \right)$$

$$398 \quad \times \min_{1 \leq r \leq (n-k+1)^{1-\delta}} \left(\prod_{j=1}^{n-k+1} \frac{2r}{(n-k+1)(F_{0n}(Y_{(j+r)}) - F_{0n}(Y_{(j-r)}))} \right), \quad (22)$$

403 where $0 < \delta < 1$, $Z_i = X_i$, $i = 1, \dots, k-1$, $Y_j = X_{k-1+j}$, $j = 1, \dots, n-k+1$; $Z_{(l)}$
 404 is the order statistic based on Z_1, \dots, Z_k , $Z_{(l)} = Z_{(1)}$, if $l \leq 1$, and $Z_{(l)} = Z_{(k-1)}$,
 405 if $l \geq k-1$; $Y_{(l)}$ is the order statistic based on Y_1, \dots, Y_{n-k+1} , $Y_{(l)} = Y_{(1)}$, if $l \leq$
 406 1, and $Y_{(l)} = Y_{(n-k+1)}$, if $l \geq n-k+1$; $F_{0n}(x) = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n I_{\{X_i \leq x\}} = n^{-1} (\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} I_{\{Z_i \leq x\}} +$
 407 $\sum_{j=1}^{n-k+1} I_{\{Y_j \leq x\}})$ is the empirical distribution function that estimates $F_0(x)$.
 408

409 Vexler and Gurevich (2009b) proved that the approximate likelihood ratio (22)
 410 is an entropy-based likelihood ratio. Entropy-based methods are well developed in
 411 the context of tests for goodness of fit (e.g., Vasicek, 1976). The statistics $\tilde{\Lambda}_k^n$ used
 412 instead of Λ_k^n in the structures of the CUSUM and SR statistics provide the very
 413 powerful nonparametric test statistics
 414

$$415 \quad \tilde{\Delta}_n = \max_{2 \leq k \leq n} \tilde{\Lambda}_k^n, \quad (23)$$

$$416 \quad \tilde{R}_n = \sum_{k=2}^n \tilde{\Lambda}_k^n. \quad (24)$$

420 In the next section, we compare numerically the considered tests. We will also
 421 Monte Carlo study how parametric assumptions mentioned in Sec. 2 are robust, in
 422 the context of the parametric change point detection schemes, compared with the
 423 nonparametric policies.
 424

425

426 4. Monte Carlo Study

427 To examine the change point policies, we begin with definitions of notations
 428 presented in Table 1. These notations will be utilized in this section. T1
 429

430 To conduct the Monte Carlo simulations below, for each distribution set
 431 with different sample sizes, we generated 10,000 times corresponding data. The
 432 Monte Carlo powers of the nonparametric tests were evaluated at the level of
 433 significance 0.05 that was fixed experimentally by choosing special values of the test
 434 thresholds. (Under the null hypothesis of (1), the baseline distribution functions of
 435 the nonparametric test statistics of *RDD*, *RAK*, *RAD*₁, *NPCUS*, *NPSR* do not depend
 436 on data distributions, only tables of critical values of the tests are required for their
 437 implementation.) The 95% critical values of the parametric tests *PCUS* and *PSR*
 438 were calculated using the assumption that under the null hypothesis we observe data
 439 from $f_0(x) = f_{N(0,1)}(x)$, because this assumption was used theoretically to construct
 440 the structure of the tests (i.e., when we apply *PCUS* and *PSR*, we believe (quasi-
 441 correctly) the parametric assumption).

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Table 1
The notations and their descriptions that are utilized in Sec. 4

Notation	Description
<i>RDD</i>	Nonparametric test (19), where the parameters of the statistic <i>DD</i> are defined by (21);
<i>RAK</i>	Nonparametric test based on the absolute value of the statistic (10); i.e., we assume rejecting H_0 , if $ K > C_K$;
<i>RAD</i> ₁	Nonparametric test based on the absolute value of the statistics (9); i.e., reject H_0 if $ D_1 > C_{D_1}$;
<i>NPCUS</i>	Nonparametric test based on the statistic (23); i.e., to reject H_0 if $\tilde{\Delta}_n > C_{\tilde{\Delta}}$;
<i>NPSR</i>	Nonparametric test based on the statistic (24); i.e., to reject H_0 , if $\tilde{R}_n > C_{\tilde{R}}$;
<i>PCUS</i>	Parametric test (4) based on the adjusted CUSUM statistic, when a tester believes that $f_0(x) = f_{N(\mu, \sigma^2)}(x)$, $f_1(x) = f_{N(\mu + \beta_1 \sigma, \sigma^2)}(x)$, $f_2(x) = f_{N(\mu + \beta_2 \sigma, \sigma^2)}(x)$ with unknown μ, σ, β_i , $i = 1, 2$, $\beta_1 \neq \beta_2$; i.e., <i>PCUS</i> declares rejection of H_0 , if $\max_{1 < k \leq n} \Lambda_k^{*n} = \max_{2 \leq k \leq n} \left\{ (k-1)S_n/n - S_{k-1} \right\} / \left\{ (k-1)[1 - (k-1)/n] \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}} > C_1$, $S_k = \sum_{i=1}^k X_i$;
<i>PSR</i>	Parametric test (8) based on the adjusted Shiryaev–Roberts type statistic, when a tester believes that $f_0(x) = f_{N(\mu, \sigma^2)}(x)$, $f_1(x) = f_{N(\mu + \beta_1 \sigma, \sigma^2)}(x)$, $f_2(x) = f_{N(\mu + \beta_2 \sigma, \sigma^2)}(x)$ with unknown μ, σ, β_i , $i = 1, 2$, $\beta_1 \neq \beta_2$; i.e., <i>PSR</i> rejects H_0 if $\sum_{k=2}^n \left\{ (k-1)S_n/n - S_{k-1} \right\} / \left\{ (k-1)(1 - (k-1)/n) \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}} > C_{SR}$.

Table 2 reports a Monte Carlo comparison of the powers of the nonparametric tests *RDD*, *RAK*, *RAD*₁, *NPCUS*, and *NPSR* when the actual pre- and post-change distributions are $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ and $N(\mu + \beta\sigma, \sigma^2)$, $\beta \neq 0$, respectively. (Note that computations of the statistics of *RDD*, *RAK*, *RAD*₁, *NPCUS*, and *NPSR* do not depend on the parameters μ and σ .) In this case, it is clear that the tests *PCUS* and *PSR* are created utilizing the correct information regarding the actual pre- and post-change distributions and hence these tests are expected to be very powerful. Therefore, we calculated and presented the Monte Carlo powers of the parametric tests in Table 2 to judge the nonparametric procedures. (The statistics of the parametric tests do not depend on the parameter μ but do depend on the parameter σ .)

The power functions of the tests are symmetric with respect to values of $v - 1$ regarding $v - 1 = n/2$. We note also that the powers of these tests do not depend on a sign of β , for all fixed v . In accordance with Table 2, the parametric *PSR* test is mostly more powerful (not just more powerful in average; see Proposition 1) than the well accepted *PCUS* test in the literature. However, when the change point location v is relatively very close to 1, *PCUS* is weakly superior to *PSR*. The proposed nonparametric procedure *RDD* is very efficient, especially when v is not relatively large; however, we should note that the parameters setting (21) used in *RDD* is appropriate to the cases considered in Table 2 (e.g., when $n = 70$, $v - 1 = 10$, $\beta = 1$, *RDD* demonstrated the power that is comparable with that of the parametric tests). Generally speaking, all the tests displayed good power properties in Table 1. Here, *RAD*₁ and *RAK* are known to be especially very efficient when

Table 2

The Monte Carlo powers of the nonparametric tests RDD , RAK , RAD_1 , $NPCUS$, $NPSR$, and the parametric tests $PCUS$, PSR , when the actual pre- and post-change distributions are $F_0 = F_1 = N(0, 1)$ and $F_2 = N(\beta, 1)$, correspondingly. Observations with the subscript $v - 1$ are the last observations before the change. The significance level is $\alpha = 0.05$

n	β	$v - 1$	RDD	RAK	RAD_1	$NPCUS$	$NPSR$	$PCUS$	PSR
20	0.8	10	0.283	0.309	0.260	0.215	0.223	0.280	0.331
		5	0.175	0.162	0.177	0.144	0.140	0.205	0.220
		3	0.096	0.080	0.098	0.084	0.085	0.144	0.134
	1.0	10	0.411	0.452	0.383	0.309	0.322	0.421	0.486
		5	0.257	0.229	0.257	0.201	0.199	0.311	0.326
		3	0.125	0.093	0.128	0.107	0.108	0.206	0.187
	1.2	10	0.558	0.602	0.525	0.428	0.447	0.582	0.638
		5	0.355	0.310	0.355	0.279	0.277	0.440	0.454
		3	0.159	0.109	0.164	0.138	0.139	0.291	0.252
40	0.8	20	0.518	0.570	0.487	0.368	0.401	0.513	0.606
		10	0.376	0.329	0.357	0.228	0.241	0.385	0.422
		5	0.170	0.099	0.174	0.106	0.104	0.221	0.205
	1.0	20	0.720	0.769	0.688	0.553	0.592	0.727	0.797
		10	0.545	0.490	0.526	0.358	0.374	0.576	0.609
		5	0.255	0.128	0.263	0.147	0.145	0.332	0.290
	1.2	20	0.873	0.898	0.852	0.732	0.765	0.884	0.921
		10	0.723	0.656	0.694	0.513	0.529	0.763	0.776
		5	0.358	0.162	0.367	0.209	0.198	0.473	0.400
70	0.8	35	0.750	0.847	0.766	0.614	0.638	0.771	0.835
		20	0.659	0.675	0.648	0.453	0.460	0.667	0.707
		10	0.417	0.235	0.382	0.182	0.172	0.404	0.362
	1.0	35	0.925	0.960	0.929	0.831	0.846	0.937	0.957
		20	0.855	0.869	0.856	0.682	0.693	0.873	0.891
		10	0.612	0.361	0.571	0.291	0.276	0.616	0.544
	1.2	35	0.986	0.993	0.986	0.953	0.958	0.990	0.994
		20	0.958	0.966	0.960	0.864	0.866	0.967	0.969
		10	0.781	0.505	0.748	0.448	0.427	0.794	0.723

the change β in a location of observations is in effect (Wolfe and Schechtman, 1984), whereas tests $NPCUS$ and $NPSR$ are developed to attend to various complex alternatives.

In Table 3, we present results of the Monte Carlo comparison between the powers of the tests RDD , RAK , RAD_1 , $NPCUS$, $NPSR$, $PCUS$, PSR , when the actual pre- and post-change distributions are $T_{(3)}(\eta)$ and $T_{(3)}(\eta + \beta)$, $\beta \neq 0$, respectively, where $T_{(3)}(\eta)$ denotes a noncentral Student's distribution with three degree of freedom and the parameter of noncentrality η . None of the test-statistics depend on the parameter η .

In fact, the powers of the parametric tests are incorrect, because the actual Type I error of this tests is not 0.05 (the corresponding critical values were

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Table 3

The Monte Carlo powers of the tests RDD , RAK , RAD_1 , $NPCUS$, $NPSR$, $PCUS$, PSR , when the actual distributions are $F_0 = F_1 = T_{(3)}(0)$ and $F_2 = T_{(3)}(\beta)$. Observations with the subscript $v - 1$ are the last observations before the change. The significance level is fixed to be $\alpha = 0.05$

n	β	$v - 1$	RDD	RAK	RAD_1	$NPCUS$	$NPSR$	$PCUS$	PSR
20	0.8	10	0.262	0.290	0.241	0.193	0.201	0.666	0.627
		5	0.173	0.158	0.174	0.139	0.134	0.618	0.561
		3	0.098	0.081	0.099	0.090	0.088	0.565	0.483
	1.0	10	0.371	0.413	0.352	0.280	0.292	0.756	0.731
		5	0.241	0.219	0.243	0.192	0.190	0.711	0.657
		3	0.121	0.095	0.126	0.111	0.113	0.640	0.564
	1.2	10	0.489	0.543	0.466	0.383	0.400	0.845	0.824
		5	0.325	0.288	0.326	0.258	0.263	0.791	0.749
		3	0.156	0.112	0.160	0.136	0.141	0.719	0.639
40	0.8	20	0.460	0.535	0.451	0.332	0.363	0.854	0.826
		10	0.329	0.301	0.325	0.207	0.217	0.794	0.747
		5	0.153	0.095	0.164	0.099	0.099	0.694	0.603
	1.0	20	0.642	0.728	0.645	0.490	0.524	0.931	0.919
		10	0.490	0.445	0.479	0.314	0.333	0.886	0.848
		5	0.225	0.123	0.241	0.135	0.132	0.784	0.698
	1.2	20	0.800	0.866	0.805	0.653	0.685	0.974	0.968
		10	0.653	0.600	0.638	0.446	0.471	0.950	0.924
		5	0.319	0.154	0.339	0.190	0.183	0.865	0.789
70	0.8	35	0.663	0.796	0.714	0.534	0.554	0.950	0.940
		20	0.577	0.624	0.599	0.399	0.406	0.924	0.896
		10	0.359	0.217	0.352	0.174	0.166	0.838	0.742
	1.0	35	0.856	0.938	0.889	0.755	0.770	0.988	0.984
		20	0.780	0.816	0.800	0.601	0.610	0.975	0.963
		10	0.534	0.320	0.529	0.266	0.255	0.921	0.851
	1.2	35	0.956	0.986	0.971	0.903	0.912	0.998	0.997
		20	0.914	0.931	0.924	0.776	0.786	0.995	0.990
		10	0.703	0.450	0.689	0.391	0.380	0.970	0.927

still chosen under the conjecture $f_0(x) = f_{N(\mu_0, 1)}(x)$; see the paragraph above the description for Table 2). Table 6 presents the actual Type I error of $PCUS$ and PSR that are not close to the expected level 0.05, in the case of $F_0 = T_{(3)}(0)$. However, with respect to the risk $\Pr\{\text{to reject } H_0|H_1\} - \Pr\{\text{to reject } H_0|H_0\}$, the rule PSR seems to be more preferable than $PCUS$. Note that, in this experiment, the power functions of the tests are symmetric around $v - 1 = n/2$ and the powers of the tests do not depend on a sign of β for a fixed v . Although the parameters setting (21) used in RDD does not allow for the situations of Table 3, the test RDD is shown to be reasonable to be applied, especially when values of v are expected to be relatively close to 1 or n .

Table 4 Monte Carlo compares between the powers of the tests RDD , RAK , RAD_1 , $NPCUS$, $NPSR$, $PCUS$, PSR , when the actual pre- and post-change distributions are $N(0, 1)$ and $Unif(a, b)$, $a < b$, respectively.

Table 5

The Monte Carlo powers (at $\alpha = 0.05$) of the tests RDD , RAK , RAD_1 , $NPCUS$, $NPSR$, $PCUS$, PSR , $PCUS^*$, PSR^* when the actual distributions are $F_0 = N(0, 1)$, $F_1 = N(0, 0.5^2)$, $F_2 = N(0, 1.5^2)$ (design (a)); and $F_0 = N(0.7, 1/12)$, $F_1 = Exp(1)$, $F_2 = Unif(0, 1)$ (design (b)). Observations with the subscript $\nu - 1$ are the last observations before the change

n	$\nu - 1$	RDD	RAK	RAD_1	$NPCUS$	$NPSR$	$PCUS$	PSR	$PCUS^*$	PSR^*
Design (a)										
20	17	0.100	0.058	0.100	0.098	0.103	0.108	0.047	0.301	0.336
	15	0.118	0.074	0.112	0.121	0.131	0.139	0.071	0.378	0.436
	10	0.085	0.079	0.087	0.206	0.252	0.185	0.095	0.341	0.414
	5	0.056	0.059	0.057	0.203	0.196	0.237	0.135	0.138	0.159
	3	0.051	0.053	0.047	0.086	0.087	0.270	0.169	0.093	0.099
40	35	0.138	0.057	0.128	0.111	0.121	0.131	0.039	0.581	0.630
	30	0.132	0.073	0.132	0.221	0.314	0.172	0.070	0.796	0.850
	20	0.082	0.081	0.100	0.723	0.789	0.222	0.100	0.846	0.905
	10	0.054	0.061	0.062	0.590	0.585	0.272	0.145	0.467	0.561
	5	0.048	0.058	0.050	0.181	0.168	0.313	0.196	0.152	0.176
70	60	0.199	0.062	0.148	0.215	0.279	0.164	0.045	0.911	0.917
	50	0.162	0.078	0.143	0.762	0.848	0.205	0.077	0.985	0.991
	35	0.094	0.085	0.105	0.988	0.990	0.244	0.100	0.994	0.997
	20	0.058	0.068	0.067	0.962	0.957	0.284	0.134	0.954	0.977
	10	0.045	0.052	0.049	0.541	0.479	0.320	0.177	0.505	0.576
Design (b)										
20	17	0.059	0.066	0.061	0.069	0.069	0.063	0.052	0.952	0.968
	15	0.076	0.090	0.082	0.113	0.111	0.070	0.066	0.961	0.975
	10	0.147	0.152	0.135	0.171	0.191	0.089	0.086	0.955	0.968
	5	0.144	0.109	0.140	0.127	0.136	0.083	0.055	0.892	0.917
	3	0.114	0.064	0.111	0.104	0.108	0.065	0.032	0.815	0.851
40	35	0.065	0.065	0.070	0.104	0.100	0.066	0.066	0.999	1.000
	30	0.124	0.138	0.128	0.299	0.297	0.090	0.114	0.992	1.000
	20	0.242	0.257	0.222	0.556	0.621	0.136	0.181	0.999	0.999
	10	0.260	0.160	0.209	0.244	0.314	0.123	0.099	0.995	0.997
	5	0.188	0.073	0.155	0.131	0.143	0.084	0.033	0.985	0.989
70	60	0.105	0.110	0.117	0.237	0.204	0.083	0.099	1.000	1.000
	50	0.240	0.287	0.246	0.817	0.789	0.149	0.228	1.000	1.000
	35	0.372	0.432	0.354	0.951	0.959	0.226	0.337	1.000	1.000
	20	0.433	0.309	0.329	0.691	0.787	0.195	0.212	1.000	1.000
	10	0.385	0.131	0.228	0.241	0.298	0.126	0.063	1.000	1.000

(The test RDD was created pretending the alternative distributions have forms that belong to exponential families. Moreover, the test statistic of RDD contains parameters with optimal values obtained assuming F_1 and F_2 are expected to be close to $N(0, 1)$ and $N(\mu, 1)$.) Thus, in this case, the power property of RDD is demonstrated to be more robust than that of the parametric tests $PCUS$ and PSR , when the assumptions regarding distributions F_1 and F_2 are incorrect.

687 Table 5 depicts the Monte Carlo comparison between the powers of the T5
 688 nonparametric and parametric decision rules corresponding to the designs $F_0 =$
 689 $N(0, 1)$, $F_1 = N(0, 0.5^2)$, $F_2 = N(0, 1.5^2)$ (the design (a) of the table) and $F_0 =$
 690 $N(0.7, 1/12)$, $F_1 = Exp(1)$, $F_2 = Unif(0, 1)$ (the design (b) of the table). Taking
 691 into account the designs of Table 5 and utilizing the methods of Sec. 2, we
 692 constructed the correct parametric tests $PCUS^*$ and PSR^* based on the test statistics
 693 $\max_{1 < k \leq n} \tilde{\Lambda}_k^{*n}$ and $\sum_{k=2}^n \tilde{\Lambda}_k^{*n}$, respectively, with

$$694 \tilde{\Lambda}_k^{*n} = \frac{\sup_{\theta_1 \in \Theta} \prod_{i=1}^{k-1} f_1(X_i; \theta_1) \sup_{\theta_2 \in \Theta} \prod_{i=k}^n f_2(X_i; \theta_2)}{\sup_{\theta_0 \in \Theta} \prod_{i=1}^n f_0(X_i; \theta_0)},$$

695 where

$$696 \tilde{\Lambda}_k^{*n} = \begin{cases} S_0^n (S_1^{k-1} S_2^{n-k+1})^{-1} & \text{if } 2 < k < n, \\ 0 & \text{if } k = 2, n \end{cases}, \quad S_0 = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n)^2}, \quad \bar{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i,$$

$$697 S_1 = \sqrt{\frac{1}{k-1} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} (X_i - \bar{X}_{k-1})^2}, \quad \bar{X}_{k-1} = \frac{1}{k-1} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} X_i,$$

$$698 S_2 = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-k+1} \sum_{i=k}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_{n-k+1}^*)^2},$$

$$699 \bar{X}_{n-k+1}^* = \frac{1}{n-k+1} \sum_{i=k}^n X_i, \text{ for the design (a);}$$

$$700 \tilde{\Lambda}_k^{*n} = \frac{(\bar{X}_{k-1} e)^{-(k-1)} (\max_{k \leq i \leq n} X_i - \min_{k \leq i \leq n} X_i)^{-(n-k+1)} I_{\{\min_{1 \leq i < k} X_i > 0\}}}{(2\pi e S_0^2)^{-n/2}},$$

701 for the design (b). Here the correct information regarding parametric forms of the
 702 distributions F_0 , F_1 , and F_2 are applied.

703 Table 5 demonstrates the parametric tests to be very efficient, provided that
 704 correct parametric forms of the null and alternative distributions F_0 , F_1 , and F_2
 705 are known. In these examples, the proposed test PSR^* is superior to the classical
 706 test $PCUS^*$ based on the CUSUM-type statistic. The parametric tests $PCUS$ and
 707 PSR have weak powers even for $n = 40, 70$. That is to say, the parametric tests
 708 for the change point problem do not have robust power properties. Note that,
 709 perhaps, the problem of developing goodness-of-fit tests under the regime of (1)
 710 does not have simple solutions. The nonparametric tests RDD , RAK , and RAD_1
 711 are shown to be inefficient (these tests are close to being biased, in certain cases).
 712 This is partly because the tests RDD , RAK , RAD_1 were proposed assuming the
 713 stochastically ordered alternatives. The proposed $NPCUS$ and $NPSR$ procedures are
 714 superior to the rest of the considered nonparametric tests in terms of their powers, in
 715 almost all Monte Carlo experiments conducted to present Table 5. The simulations
 716 related to design (b) of Table 5 confirm that the proposed nonparametric test RDD
 717 is significantly more robust to the assumptions on distributions F_0 , F_1 , and F_2 than
 718 the parametric tests $PCUS$ and PSR .

719 To investigate a sensitivity of the parametric change point policies with respect
 720 to assumptions required for correct executions of the procedures, we conducted
 721 Monte Carlo experiments. The outputs of these experiments are shown in Table 6. T6

736 Generally speaking, we must note that these parametric tests are not robust,
 737 in the context of the Type I error control. When the degree of freedom of a
 738 t -distribution is greater than 25, the actual type I error is comparable with the
 739 expected 0.05. However, it is clear: testers should be very accurate when choosing
 740 parametric forms of the null distribution of (1). This issue has not been well
 741 addressed in the literature. In this context, the proposed decision rule PSR is also
 742 shown to be more preferable than the classical retrospective detection scheme $PCUS$.
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Table 6

747 The actual Monte Carlo type I errors of the parametric tests
 748 $PCUS$ and PSR with the critical values that correspond to the
 749 conjecture $f_0(x) = f_{N(0,1)}(x)$ for the different null distributions and
 750 sample sizes n
 751

752 Null 753 distribution	n	Type I error of the $PCUS$	Type I error of the PSR
754 $T_{(2)}(0)$	20	0.626	0.529
	40	0.744	0.636
	70	0.820	0.689
757 $T_{(3)}(0)$	20	0.402	0.316
	40	0.472	0.360
	70	0.534	0.373
760 $T_{(10)}(0)$	20	0.119	0.093
	40	0.126	0.095
	70	0.135	0.096
763 $T_{(15)}(0)$	20	0.088	0.072
	40	0.096	0.077
	70	0.102	0.080
766 $T_{(25)}(0)$	20	0.072	0.064
	40	0.075	0.068
	70	0.075	0.069
769 $LogNorm(1, 1)$	20	0.970	0.951
	40	0.995	0.988
	70	1.000	1.000
772 $Uni f[0, 1]$	20	< 0.005	< 0.005
	40	< 0.005	< 0.005
	70	< 0.005	< 0.005
775 $Exp(1)$	20	0.098	0.067
	40	0.101	0.062
	70	0.105	0.056
778 $Norm(0, 0.5^2)$	20	< 0.005	< 0.005
	40	< 0.005	< 0.005
	70	< 0.005	< 0.005
781 $Norm(0, 1.5^2)$	20	0.393	0.281
	40	0.446	0.312
	70	0.473	0.298

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Table 7

The Monte Carlo levels of significance of the test RDD with the threshold $C_{DD} = 2/\alpha = 40$

Sample size	$n = 10$	$n = 20$	$n = 30$	$n = 40$	$n = 70$	$n = 100$	$n = 150$
Level of significance	0.000	0.005	0.021	0.032	0.043	0.042	0.037

The biases between the actual and expected the type I errors depend on the sample sizes n , but these dependencies are not strong.

Proposition 2 provides asymptotically ($n \rightarrow \infty$) the distribution free upper bound for the Type I error of the test RDD . To examine the accuracy of this result, we determine a critical value for the test RDD , taking into account the inequality (20), in the form of $2/\alpha$, for finite sample sizes. We present in Table 7 the Monte Carlo Type I errors of the test RDD with the test threshold $C_{DD} = 2/\alpha = 40$, expecting to obtain the nominal significance level that is close to $\alpha = 0.05$.

In this case, we do not recommend to utilize Proposition 2 for obtaining the critical values of the test RDD , when $n \leq 20$; however, when $n \geq 30$ the asymptotic result (20) can be used in practice.

Remark. This article focuses on testing the hypothesis of (1). Gurevich and Vexler (2005, 2006) showed that, in general, a process of estimation of the change point

Table 8

The Monte Carlo means and standard deviations of the estimator \hat{v} , when $F_1 = Exp(1)$, $F_2 = Unif(0, 1)$, for different sample sizes n and values of v

		$n = 40$					
v	∞ (No change)		21	36			
Mean		21.048	20.835	25.617			
STD		10.534	4.770	10.411			
		$n = 70$					
v	∞ (No change)		21	36			
Mean		35.779	24.176	35.309			
STD		16.681	8.154	4.059			
		$n = 100$					
v	∞ (No change)		21	36	51		
Mean		51.337	28.296	36.126	49.955		
STD		21.963	14.027	5.127	3.531		
		$n = 120$					
v	∞ (No change)		21	36	51	61	
Mean		60.856	30.869	36.440	50.180	59.846	
STD		25.213	17.459	6.046	3.639	3.389	
		$n = 150$					
v	∞ (No change)		21	36	51	61	76
Mean		76.416	35.941	37.449	50.453	60.004	74.772
STD		29.391	23.726	8.472	4.126	3.376	3.079

834 ν should be started if needed, provided that just the null hypothesis is rejected.
 835 When H_0 is rejected, the issue to estimate the unknown parameter ν can be stated.
 836 Borovkov (1999) as well as Gurevich and Vexler (2005) investigated different
 837 parametric estimators of the change point ν based on the likelihood ratios Λ_k^n
 838 or Λ_k^{*n} . Section 3 introduces the nonparametric tests *NPCUS* and *NPSR* based
 839 on the approximations $\tilde{\Lambda}_k^n$ from (22) to the parametric likelihood ratio Λ_k^n . Thus,
 840 combining the material of Sec. 3 and the techniques of Borovkov (1999) and
 841 Gurevich and Vexler (2005), we can propose, e.g., the maximum nonparametric
 842 likelihood estimator

$$843 \hat{\nu} = \arg \max_{2 \leq k \leq n} \tilde{\Lambda}_k^n$$

846 of ν . Theoretical evaluations of $\hat{\nu}$ need substantial mathematical details that
 847 are beyond the scope of this article. To illustrate briefly the behavior of the
 848 estimator, we conducted the following experiments. Table 8 presents the Monte T8
 849 Carlo estimators of means and standard deviations of the estimator $\hat{\nu}$, when samples
 850 of X s were drawn from $F_1 = \text{Exp}(1)$, $F_2 = \text{Unif}(0, 1)$, for different sample sizes n
 851 and values of ν .

852
 853 It seems from Table 8 that the estimator $\hat{\nu}$ is consistent when $\nu \rightarrow \infty$, $n - \nu \rightarrow \infty$
 854 and can be recommended to be applied in practice.

856 5. A Data Example

857
 858 In this section, we exemplify the proposed methods to evaluate a biomarker
 859 related to atherosclerotic coronary heart disease in the context of having potential
 860 discriminatory abilities for myocardial infarction (MI). We consider the biomarker
 861 called *Cholesterol* that measures sub-products of lipid peroxidation and has been
 862 proposed as a discriminating measurement between individuals with cardiovascular
 863 disease and healthy populations (for details see, e.g., Vexler et al., 2008a,b). A cohort
 864 of 799 men and women without myocardial infarction (say, $\text{MI} = 0$) and 143
 865 individuals who recently survived an MI (say, $\text{MI} = 1$) were selected for the analyses
 866 to present data that contain measurements of cholesterol. Participants provided a
 867 12-h fasting food specimen for biochemical analysis at baseline, and a number of
 868 parameters were examined from fresh blood samples.

870 5.1. Type I Error Evaluation

871
 872 To evaluate the type I error of the proposed tests we apply a bootstrap-type
 873 procedure. The strategy was that a Bernoulli random variable $\tau(\Pr\{\tau = 0\} =$
 874 $\Pr\{\tau = 1\} = 1/2)$ was generated and then a sample of cholesterol measurements
 875 with size $n = 70$ was randomly selected from individuals with $\text{MI} = \tau$. We repeated
 876 this strategy 10,000 times calculating the frequencies of the event {Test statistic >
 877 Theoretical 95% Critical value} based on measurements related to the status $\text{MI} = \tau$.
 878 In this evaluation we present situations when investigators do not know whether
 879 data correspond to healthy or diseased populations (i.e., F_0 of (1) is an unknown
 880 mixture distribution), and the biomarker has no discriminatory ability. The derived
 881 results are presented in Table 9. The parametric tests *PCUS** and *PSR** were defined
 882 in Sec. 4 to present outputs of Table 5: design (a). (In many epidemiological studies,

Table 9

The bootstrap-type evaluation of the ability of cholesterol to discriminate groups of populations for myocardial infarction (MI)

	<i>NPCUS</i>	<i>NPSR</i>	<i>RDD</i>	<i>RAK</i>	<i>RAD</i> ₁	<i>PCUS</i> *	<i>PSR</i> *
Type I error evaluation	0.058	0.055	0.051	0.056	0.054	0.151	0.163
$\nu - 1 = 30$	0.703	0.742	0.541	0.598	0.515	0.339	0.464
$\nu - 1 = 50$	0.489	0.475	0.366	0.448	0.404	0.239	0.318

cholesterol measurements are shown to be normally distributed; e.g., Vexler et al., 2008a,b.) It is clear; Table 9 does not recommend applying the parametric tests to the study that evaluates the cholesterol biomarker related to atherosclerotic coronary heart disease.

T9

5.2. Power Evaluation

In certain situations, to analyze objectively the discriminatory ability of a biomarker, investigators observe groups of individuals with $MI = 0$ and $MI = 1$ when groups sizes are unknown (i.e., we do not know when we finish observing measurements from population with $MI = 0$ and start to survey measurements from individuals with $MI = 1$). Note that, corresponding to the paragraph above, we consider the problem (1), when $F_0 \neq F_1$. We sampled first $\nu - 1$ observations from the population with the status $MI = 0$ and $70 - \nu + 1$ observations from the population with $MI = 1$. We repeated this sampling 10,000 times, obtaining decisions of the tests, for $\nu - 1 = 30$ and 50. Thus, we evaluated the powers of the tests. In accordance with Table 9, the cholesterol biomarker can clearly discriminate the populations. The proposed nonparametric tests *NPCUS* and *NPSR* can be highly recommended to be applied to different epidemiological studies that evaluate the cholesterol biomarker related to atherosclerotic coronary heart disease.

6. Conclusion

The main aims of this article were to review, develop, and compare various techniques applied to create decision rules for the retrospective change point detection issue. We concentrated on presenting general ideas regarding the change point tests' constructions. Thus, although we concern ourselves the relatively simple statement of the problem (1) with independent observations, in a similar manner to considerations mentioned in this article, complex models (including regressions, autoregressions, etc., see, e.g., Vexler, 2008) can be tested for different change points' occurrences in data distributions.

Commonly, the theoretical change point literature has introduced retrospective change point detection problems based on statements that are typical of modified sequential quality control issues. In this context, while considering (1), investigators have declared that $F_1 = F_0$. In this article, we pointed out that the retrospective statement of the change point problem cannot require assuming that $F_1 = F_0$, in a general context. This leads to extend forms of the known parametric and distribution free change point detection policies.

932 We examined various parametric and nonparametric tests for the change point
933 problem (1), attending to different contexts of optimality and robustness of the
934 procedures.

935 We showed that the recently developed (in the retrospective context) parametric
936 Shirayayev–Roberts policy is appropriate to replace the classical CUSUM scheme in
937 many practical applications, because the SR rule demonstrates the optimal property,
938 efficiency, and robustness, compared with the CUSUM test. However, future studies
939 are needed to investigate theoretically different sorts of SR-type tests.

940 We indicate that the parametric change point detection policies are very
941 sensitive to the null distribution assumptions, in the context of a type I error control.
942 Generally speaking, the parametric policies examined in Sec. 4 have constructions
943 that are based on sums of independent random variables. (Section 4 evaluated
944 the normally distributed data-based CUSUM procedure that is well addressed
945 in the theoretical change point literature.) Thus, one would expect that, at least,
946 these policies are robust when instead of assumed baseline normal distributions,
947 t -distributed observations are in effect. We cannot confirm this property. This issue
948 has not been well addressed in the literature, and hence future studies are required.
949 Perhaps the problem of developing goodness-of-fit tests under the regime of (1)
950 does not have simple solutions. We introduced the nonparametric procedure (19)
951 that possesses robustness of validity, because it is based on ranks. A near-optimal
952 property of (19) can be obtained for specific alternatives. However, in contrast to the
953 parametric tests, because (19) utilizes rank statistics, the proposed nonparametric
954 procedure has been shown to be a powerful change point detection policy when
955 a guess related to the alternatives is incorrect. It is interesting to note that we
956 observed that a small change in expected and assumed distribution forms can lead
957 the parametric tests being helpless in the context of the type I error control, whereas
958 in the same conditions the test (19) demonstrated powerful characteristics.

959 The proposed nonparametric tests are shown to be very efficient under various
960 alternative hypotheses.

961 Section 3 of this article introduced the nonparametric methodology for
962 approximating the likelihood ratios. This method can be applied to construct
963 nonparametric estimators of the unknown change point parameter, provided
964 that the null hypothesis of (1) is rejected. Toward this end, relevant parametric
965 techniques (e.g., Borovkov, 1999; Gurevich and Vexler, 2005) can be approximated
966 in the nonparametric manner. Our limited simulation results have shown that this
967 approach is reasonable to investigate intensively and applied in practice.

968 Thus, we believe that the outputs of this manuscript have great potential to be
969 applied in practice and induce investigators to study the retrospective change point
970 issues.

971 **Acknowledgments**

972 We are grateful to the editor and two anonymous referees for their helpful
973 comments that clearly improved this article. This work was partially supported by
974 the Internal Funding Program of the Shamoan College of Engineering (SCE).
975

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