

Analysis of Long-Term Rainfall Trends in Sri Lanka Using CHRIPS Estimates.

A.G. Amarasinghe,

Head, Department of Geography, University of Kelaniya, Dalugama, Sri Lanka.

ABSTRACT:- For a country like Sri Lanka where food security and the economy depend on timely water availability, it is extremely important to study rainfall trends. In this work, monthly, seasonal and annual rainfall trends were studied using a series of 30-year (1989-2019) monthly data for 30 sub-divisions (sub-regions) of Sri Lanka. The uniqueness of this study is the use of daily raster data generated by mixing satellite estimates and location data (CHRIPS) instead of traditional spatial rainfall measurements. In addition, the study was conducted by dividing Sri Lanka into four main areas (sub-divisions) considering the climatic and geographical factors of the country rather than finding out whether there is a significant trend in rainfall by the district level. These sub-divisions were named as SD-01, SD-02, SD-03 and SD-04. The main statistical method used in the study was the Man-Kandall and Sen's slope, which looked at whether the incidence of annual, seasonal and monthly rainfall was significantly reduced or increased. According to this analysis, all sub-divisions show an increasing tendency for annual rainfall, all of which were statistically significant. That is to say, the most important factor reflected in the last 30 years is the increase in annual rainfall in all parts of Sri Lanka. The special feature of the monsoon (southwest and northeast) in Sri Lanka is that it shows a significant trend of southwest rainfall but cannot be identified during the northeast. The study further exaggerated the long-term precipitation trend for each month using only monthly rainfall data. In doing so, it appears that not all four major areas show a significant trend except few months. In this regard, significant trends can be identified in March, August and September for SD-01, while significant trends in SD-02 and SD-03 can be seen in March, but no significant trend in any of the months can be identified in SD-04. It is further suggested that a small scale study should be carried out to study the trend of monthly rainfall.

Key words: Rainfall, Satellite, Significant, Sub-Divisions, Trend

I. INTRODUCTION

Global average rainfall is forecast to increase, but increases and decreases on a regional and continental scale are expected (Dor, 2005). More or less rainfall or changes in its spatial and seasonal distribution will affect the spatial and temporal distribution of overflow, soil moisture and groundwater reserves, as well as the frequency of droughts and floods.

According to the forecasts of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) changes of the global climate will affect agriculture, increase the risk of famine and water scarcity, and cause glaciers to melt more rapidly (IPCC, 2007, 2013 and 2014). Freshwater in some river basins in Sri Lanka have already been depleted due to climate change. This decline, along with population growth and rising living standards, could adversely affect many people in Sri Lanka by the 2050s.

Rapid glacial melting causes increased risk factors for flooding, slope destabilization, and reduced river flow (IPCC, 2007). Both Climate change or climate variability are not myths and there is ample evidence to support them (Adger, et al., 2002; Schuldt et al., 2011; Spence et al., 2011; Weber et al., 2011). Many researchers believe that human interactions have accelerated climate change (Chapin, et al., 2000; Hoegh-Guldberg and Bruno, 2010; Karl, 2003; Pearson and Dawson, 2003; Walther et al., 2002). Although climate variability is only one possibility, many as global warming (Schuldt et al., 2011), often refer to climate variability. Observations (Easterling et al., 2000; Knutti et al., 2002; Soja et al., 2007) and theoretical models (Karl, 2003; Kim et al., 2003; Tebaldi et al., 2007) are mainly used to understand current and future climate variables.

Climate variability can be identified as function of changes in rainfall and atmospheric temperature, slow winds, and acidification of the ocean. Atmospheric temperature and precipitation have also been identified by various studies as the two most sensitive factors for people. Changes in rainfall are one of the most important factors determining the overall impact of climate change, and it is clear that it affects society in a very big way.

Various researchers have predicted that warmer climates will intensify rainfall (Christensen and J. Christensen, 2004). This is most evident in the fact that more intense rainfall (precipitation) events can be identified after the onset of drier intervals. Other researchers have argued that the effects of climate change cannot be measured by regional rainfall over natural fluctuations (Chandler, 2001; Guowei and Jingpeng, 1999; Kundzewicz and Robson, 2000; Lindstrom, 1999; Lins, 1999; Robson, 2000; Robson, 2002; Robson, 1998). However, some cases show a strong correlation between human activity and climate change (Kawashima et al., 2004; Oreskes, 2004; Wang et al., 2007). Studies have shown that the unequal floods in England and Wales in the fall of 2000 were man-made (Jones and Reynard, 2006; Lorenzoni et al., 2007; Prudhomme et al., 2003).

Rainfall trend analysis was carried out in several important catchment areas of Sri Lanka. According to Jayawardena and others. The average annual rainfall in Colombo, Sri Lanka is a significant annual increase of 3.15 mm, while the other cities, Kandy and Nuwara Eliya, experience an annual decrease of 2.88 and 4.87, respectively (Jayawardene et al, 2005). Literature, It can be seen that a number of other researches have conducted precipitation research in many other important areas of Sri Lanka (Ampitiyawatta and Guo, 2010; Herath and Ratnayake, 2004; Jayawardene et al., 2015; Malmgren et al., 2003; Ranatunge et al., 2003; Suppiah, 1997; Wickramagamage, 2015).

However, the literature does not show that a precipitation trend analysis has been carried out based on satellite rainfall estimates at the district/regional level in Sri Lanka. Only (Alahacoon et al., 2018) done a basin level rainfall trend analysis using satellite estimated rainfall data. This study primarily focuses on conducting Sub-Division (SD-01 to SD-04) precipitation analysis using monthly rainfall data. Based on such studies, it is possible to identify if there is a shortage of water in the catchments.

In order to carry out homogeneity tests, it is important in daily rainfall measurements to ensure that data are recorded daily at the same time with the same equipment in the same location (Sahin and Cigizoglu, 2010; Perera et al., 2017; Wijemannage and Perera, 2018). However, recording daily rainfall measurements over long time intervals (such as 30 years or 100 years) can be tedious because the measurement patterns have changed over time, the measuring instruments have been re-installed, and so on. As literature explain by (Alexandersson and Moberg, 1997; Khaliq and Ouarda, 2007; Sahin and Cigizoglu, 2010; Wijngaard, 2003; Alexandersson, 1986; Buishand, 1982; Haylock et al., 2009) there are many homogeneity tests used to correct the rainfall data. The best answer to all the problems analyzed above is to use satellite estimate rainfall data.

Study Area

Sri Lanka is an island in the Indian Ocean southwest of the Bay of Bengal, between latitudes 5 ° and 10 N and longitudes 79 ° and 82 E. The island consists mostly of flat, rolling coastal plains and with south-central mountains. The rainfall pattern is affected by two monsoon winds in the Indian Ocean and the Bay of Bengal. Sri Lanka is divided into three main climatic zones, namely the "wet zone", the "dry zone" and the "semi-arid zone". The "wet zone" and southwesterly windy slopes of the country hills receive an average of 2,500 mm of rainfall each year. Most of the "dry zone" in the eastern, southeastern and northern parts of Sri Lanka receives between 1,200 and 1,900 mm of rainfall. This precipitation is mainly due to the northeast monsoon winds. Similarly, the semi-arid northwestern and southeastern coasts receive the minimum rainfall of 800 to 1200 mm.

Major monsoons are known as the Northeast Monsoon and the Southwest Monsoon distributed in December to February and May to September in each year. In addition, there are two intermittent monsoons between the two seasons: the 1st intermediate season from March to April and the 2nd intermediate monsoon from October to November. When consider the cultivation period it is aggregated as Yala (April to August) season and Maha season (October to February). 103 rivers are formed in Sri Lanka with the help of the monsoon winds and central mountains described above and cover 103 major and minor river basins. The longest of these rivers is the Mahaweli River which stretches for 335 km.

In terms of administration in Sri Lanka, It is divided into 9 provinces and 25 districts as the main administrative units. Each district is further subdivided into the Divisional Secretariat (DS-Divisions-256) and the Grama Niladhari Division (GN - approximately 16000).

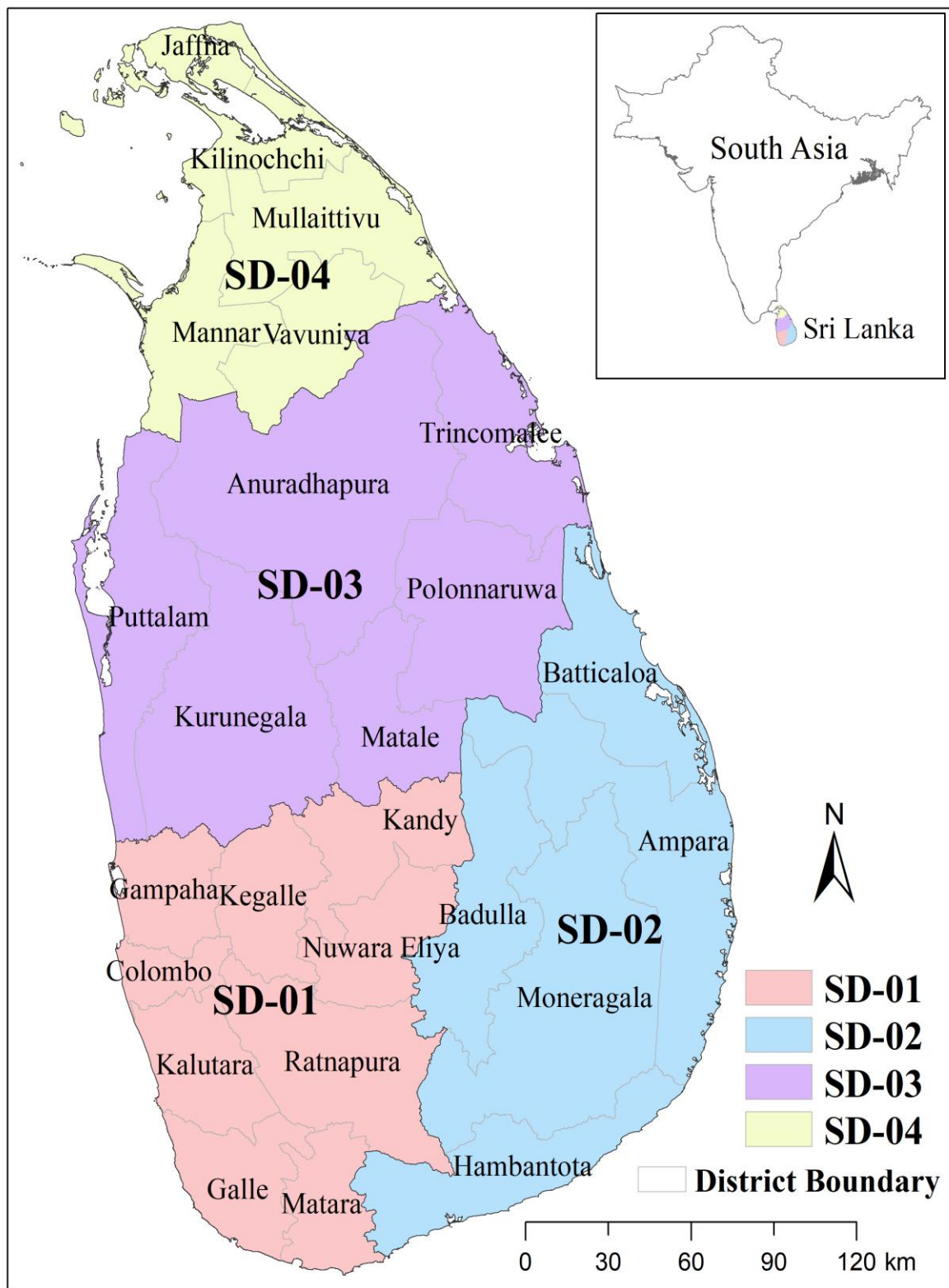


Figure 1: Sub-Division map of Sri Lanka used in this study.

As shown in Figure 1, the study initially divided Sri Lanka into four major regions, taking into account climatic distribution and geographical settings. These were named Sub-division 1 (SD1), Sub-division 2 (SD2), Sub-division 3 (SD3) and Sub-division 4 (SD4). Table 1 below shows the list of districts which are the administrative units included in these sub-divisions (SD1 to SD4).

Table 1: List of districts fallen in to four different sub-divisions

| Sub-Division name | Districts |
|------------------------------------|---|
| Sub-Division 01 (SD-01) | Colombo, Galle, Ganpaha, Kalutara, Kandy, Kegalle, Rathnapura, Nuvara-Eliya, Matara |
| Sub-Division 02 (SD-02) | Ampara, Badulla, Baticaloo, Hambantota, Monaragala |
| Sub-Division 03 (SD-03) | Anuradhapura, Matake, Kurunagala, Puttalam, Polonnaruwa, Trinco,alee |
| Sub-Division 04 (SD-04) | Jaffna, Kilinochchi, Mannar, Mullaitivu, Vavuniya |

II. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

Mann, (1945) proposed an asymmetric test to analyze the tendencies, while (Kendall, 1975) executed the Mann test. In addition, (Harsh et al., 1982) Seasonal assessment was added to the test. This tendency is now more widely known as the Man-Kendall test for trend analysis. It tests statistically monotonic ups and downs of the climate trends over the time and that test is widely used around the world (Robson, 2002; Khaniya et al., 2018; Mondal et al., 2012).

Man-Kendall's statistics

Man-Kendall's statistics S is given by the following formula (1):

$$s = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^n \text{sgn}(x_j - x_i) \tag{1}$$

x_j and x_i are the time series and n is the number of data points in the time series. The sign function "Sgn" can be expressed as follows (2);

$$\text{sgn}(x_j - x_i) = \begin{cases} +1, & (x_j - x_i) > 0 \\ 0, & (x_j - x_i) = 0 \\ -1, & (x_j - x_i) < 0 \end{cases} \tag{2}$$

The calculation of the variables in the Man-Kendall experiment is given by the following equation (3):

$$\text{Var}(s) = \frac{n(n-1)(2n+5) - \sum_{i=1}^m t_i(i-1)(2i+5)}{18} \tag{3}$$

Where t_i is the number of bonds specified in the sample i . then, Man-Kendall's statistics Z_c are given by the following expressions (4);

$$Z_c = \begin{cases} \frac{s-1}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(s)}}, & S > 0, \\ 0, & S = 0, \\ \frac{s+1}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(s)}}, & S < 0. \end{cases} \tag{4}$$

Z_c follows the standard normal distribution. A positive Z_c value shows a high (upward) tendency and a negative Z_c data gives a low (downward) tendency for the period.

Sen's slope estimation

The magnitude of given time trend can be found in Sen's Slope estimator (Sen, 1968). The test is widely used to estimate the magnitude of the propensity for rainfall ranges over time. Slope pairs can be calculated for all data using the following equation (5);

$$T_i = \frac{x_j - x_k}{j - k} \text{ for } i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n, j > k, \tag{5}$$

Where, T_i is the slope and x_j and x_k are the data values at time j and k , respectively.

The mean of the n values of T_i is encoded as Sen's Slope estimator (Q_i) and is calculated using following equation (6);

$$Z_c = \begin{cases} (T(n + 1/2), & n \text{ is Odd,} \\ \frac{1}{2}(T(n/2) + T(n + 2)/2), & n \text{ is even} \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

III. DATA

Climate Hazards Group Infra-Red Precipitation with Station Data provided (CHIPS) by the Climate Hazard Center, are the basic data used for this study. This data is available as Daily Gridding Rainfall and can be accessed (<https://data.chc.ucsb.edu/products/CHIRPS-2.0/>) from the web link from 1981 to the present. These data were then converted into monthly rainfall data using the method of daily accumulation sum at monthly basis. Geo-statistical Data Analysis method was applied to complete the above procedure. Finally, the monthly average rainfall value for each area used in the study was calculated by applying the zonal statistical method.

IV. RESULTS

Figure 2 shows the annual rainfall variation of by province. The spatial and temporal variation of rainfall can be clearly seen in this figure. All of this annual rainfall usually show different patterns with falls and rises and they show an increasing tendency. In addition, all regions except SD-01 received significantly less rainfall in 2016 compared to other years. Therefore, it can be considered as a drought year for them. Tests to show the homogeneity of rainfall data show that the data series are homogeneous for all four sub-divisions. As shown in Figure 2, all of these annual precipitates generally show more or less similar patterns with different annual accumulated rainfall values. For example, SD-01 has the highest annual rainfall and SD-04 shows the lowest annual rainfall. SD-02 and SD-03 represent more or less similar patterns except in 2015, with SD-03 receiving very good rainfall, the bumper crop year of Sri Lanka (Census and Statistics).

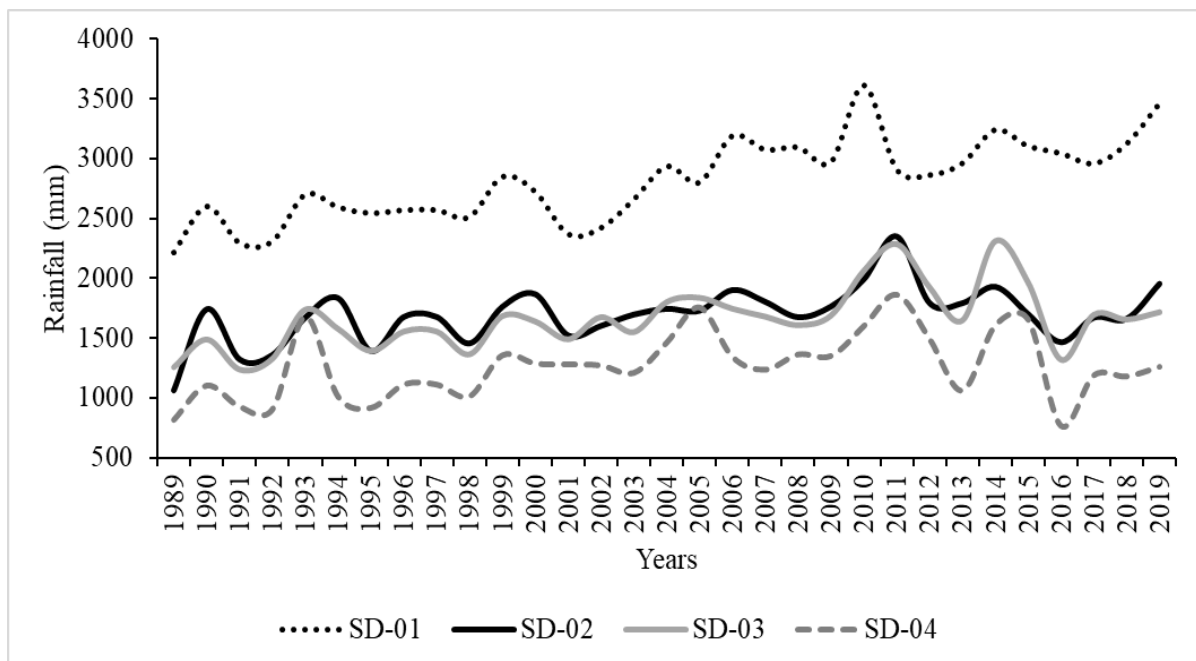


Figure 2: Representation of Annual rainfall distribution in identified four regions of Sri Lanka

Table 2: Mann-Kendall and Sen's slope calculation results for annual rainfall in four regions

| Geographical region | Kendall's tau | P values (two-tailed) | Significant (Yes)/ Insignificant (No) | Sen's Slope (Qi – mm/year) |
|---------------------|---------------|-----------------------|---------------------------------------|----------------------------|
| SD-01 | 0.589 | < 0.0001 | Yes | 27.610 |
| SD-02 | 0.290 | 0.0257 | Yes | 9.302 |
| SD-03 | 0.419 | 0.0012 | Yes | 14.824 |
| SD-04 | 0.276 | 0.0337 | Yes | 14.404 |

The results of the trend analysis (Mann-Kendall and Sen's slope) for the annual rainfall data are shown in Table 2. The table shows a very good trend in annual rainfall for SD-01, SD-02, SD-03 and SD-04 of all the rainfall zones. The most positive precipitation trends in SD-01 rainfall measurements can be identified and the less values are shown in SD-03 and SD-04. Although the precipitation value is medium less in the SD-02 division. The annual potential rainfall increase for all of these regions is significant, and the annual precipitation values can be seen from the Sen's slope. The most important point here is that SD-01 represents about 90% of the wet zone and the highest annual precipitation increase can be identified in this region, which is 27.61 mm / yr. The other peculiarity is that the increase in potential rainfall in Sri Lanka is not negative from the trend analysis.

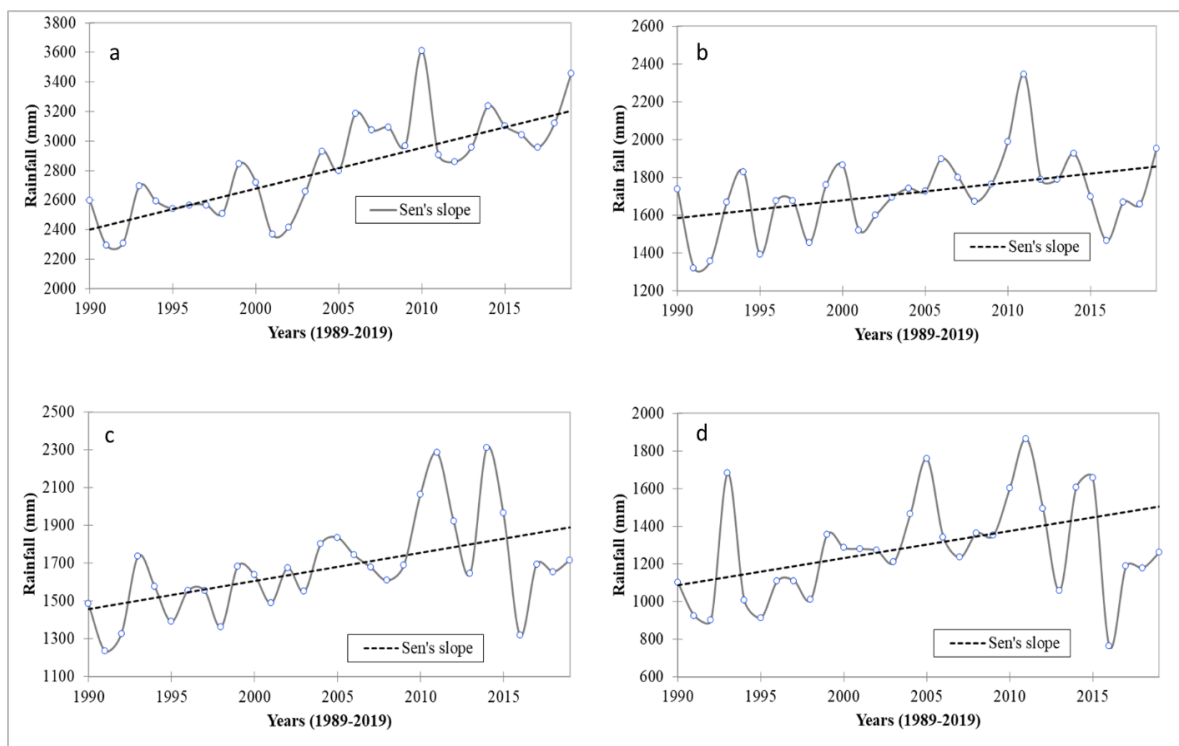


Figure 3: Temporal variation of Annual rainfall according to Mann-Crandall's and Sen's slope calculation, a. Sub-Division-01, b. Sub-Division-0, c. Sub-Division-03 and d. Sub-Division-04

This is an interesting finding identified in this study. According to the trend analysis, the catchment area of SD-01 is not subject to severe water scarcity. SD-01 is the main catchment area of Sri Lanka's major rivers Kalu Ganga, Mahaweli Ganga, Kelani Ganga and Walawe Ganga. However, due to the prevalence of this precipitation, SD-01 is most prone to floods. The area has been hit by three major floods (2016, 2017, 2018) in the last four years.

This analysis was expanded to identify the impact of seasonal rainfall in addition to the impact of annual rainfall on the water resources of the area in these study zones in Sri Lanka. SD-02 to SD-04, in particular, are famous for their irrigated agriculture and 90% of the total paddy cultivation in the country is done from these regions. Therefore, the analysis of seasonal rainfall trends will be an interesting topic for farmers in the area.

Table 3: Mann-Kendall and Sen's slope calculation results for seasonal rainfall in four regions

| Geographical region | Rainfall season | Kendall's tau | P values (two-tailed) | Significant (Yes)/ Insignificant (No) | Sen's Slope (Qi -mm/year) |
|---------------------|-----------------|---------------|-----------------------|---------------------------------------|---------------------------|
| SD-01 | Yala | 0.354 | 0.006 | Yes | 12.513 |
| | Maha | 0.118 | 0.378 | No | 4.72 |
| SD-02 | Yala | 0.299 | 0.021 | Yes | 3.184 |
| | Maha | -0.034 | 0.807 | No | -2.743 |
| SD-03 | Yala | 0.35 | 0.007 | Yes | 6.164 |
| | Maha | 0.064 | 0.639 | No | 3.248 |
| SD-04 | Yala | 0.331 | 0.011 | Yes | 3.016 |
| | Maha | 0.202 | 0.129 | No | 11.879 |

Statistics from Man-Kendall's test for seasonal rainfall and Sen's slope estimation are shown in Table 2. It is noteworthy that all divisions show significant trends for rainfall only during the Yala season. It is also important to note that SD-02 only shows a negative value (Figure 4) during the Maha season as this could exacerbate the drought.

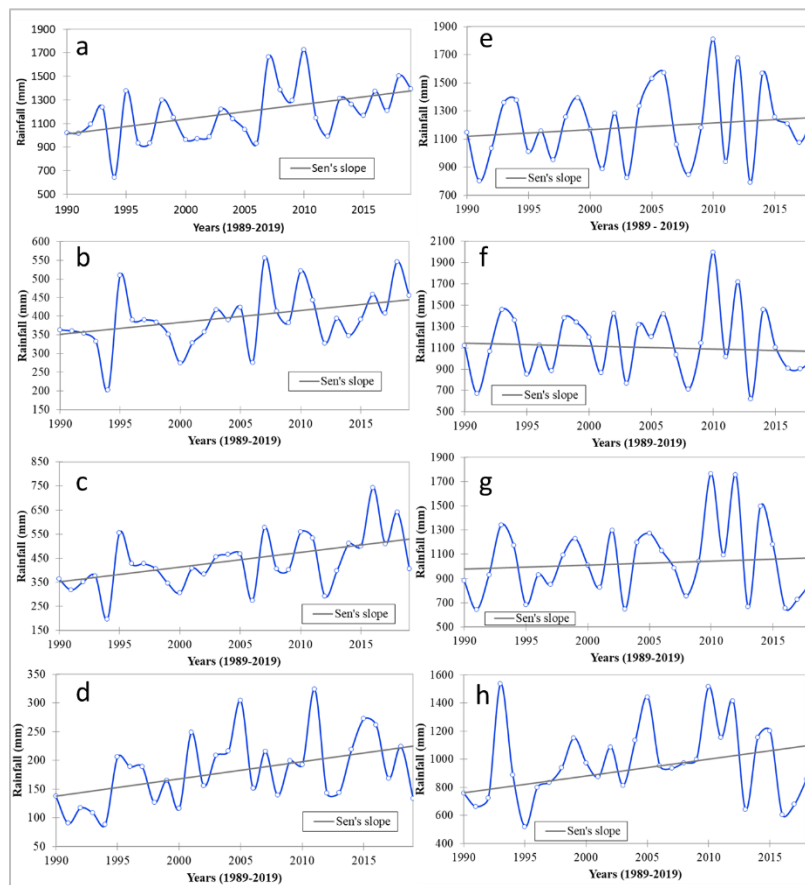


Figure 4: Temporal variation of Annual rainfall according to Mann-Crandall's and Sen's slope calculation, a-d Sub-Division 01, 02, 03 and 04 Yala season, e-h. Sub-Division-01, 02, 03 and 04 in Maha Season.

Furthermore, SD-02 and SD-04 are more closely related by geography and climatology, again, these rainfall trends and the slope of those divisions show similar variability. This is interesting and it will be interesting to study further the topographical contribution for this rainfall trends.

Table 4: Mann-Kendall and Sen's slope calculation results for monthly rainfall in four Regions

| Region | Months | Kendall's tau | p-value (Two-tailed) | Sen's slope (Qi – mm/year) | Region | Months | Kendall's tau | p-value (Two-tailed) | Sen's slope (Qi – mm/year) |
|--------|--------|---------------|----------------------|----------------------------|--------|--------|---------------|----------------------|----------------------------|
| SD-01 | Jan | -0.193 | 0.139 | -2.597 | SD-02 | Jan | -0.170 | 0.193 | -4.470 |
| | Feb | 0.147 | 0.261 | 1.492 | | Feb | 0.147 | 0.261 | 1.737 |
| | Mar | 0.258 | 0.048 | 3.787 | | Mar | 0.290 | 0.026 | 2.543 |
| | Apr | 0.133 | 0.309 | 2.946 | | Apr | 0.078 | 0.556 | 1.050 |
| | May | 0.092 | 0.486 | 3.352 | | May | 0.092 | 0.486 | 0.792 |
| | Jun | 0.074 | 0.580 | 0.761 | | Jun | -0.110 | 0.581 | -0.009 |
| | Jul | -0.078 | 0.556 | -0.293 | | Jul | -0.009 | 0.957 | -0.304 |
| | Aug | 0.350 | 0.007 | 4.358 | | Aug | 0.203 | 0.121 | 1.034 |
| | Sep | 0.290 | 0.026 | 5.419 | | Sep | 0.124 | 0.344 | 0.834 |
| | Oct | 0.170 | 0.193 | 4.139 | | Oct | 0.207 | 0.112 | 2.749 |
| | Nov | 0.198 | 0.129 | 2.122 | | Nov | -0.037 | 0.789 | -0.296 |
| | Dec | 0.060 | 0.656 | 0.784 | | Dec | 0.041 | 0.762 | 1.080 |
| SD-03 | Jan | -0.170 | 0.193 | -2.899 | SD-04 | Jan | -0.147 | 0.509 | -1.090 |
| | Feb | 0.147 | 0.261 | 1.235 | | Feb | 0.087 | 0.261 | 0.261 |
| | Mar | 0.216 | 0.097 | 1.625 | | Mar | 0.184 | 0.159 | 0.967 |
| | Apr | 0.133 | 0.309 | 1.646 | | Apr | 0.138 | 0.292 | 1.161 |
| | May | 0.175 | 0.203 | 1.635 | | May | 0.060 | 0.656 | 0.194 |
| | Jun | 0.028 | 0.844 | 0.043 | | Jun | 0.014 | 0.929 | 0.002 |
| | Jul | -0.087 | 0.509 | -0.281 | | Jul | 0.115 | 0.382 | 0.077 |
| | Aug | 0.157 | 0.232 | 0.936 | | Aug | 0.180 | 0.169 | 0.330 |
| | Sep | 0.041 | 0.762 | 0.385 | | Sep | 0.018 | 0.901 | 0.156 |
| | Oct | 0.087 | 0.509 | 2.158 | | Oct | 0.055 | 0.682 | 1.040 |
| | Nov | 0.028 | 0.844 | 1.023 | | Nov | 0.041 | 0.762 | 0.929 |
| | Dec | 0.101 | 0.443 | 2.534 | | Dec | 0.166 | 0.205 | 4.112 |

Monthly Trend Analysis Results for the four rain region areas are presented in Table 3. For SD-01, all months except January and July show a positive trend. However, the Sen's slope shows the highest values in August and September, with 4.35 and 5.41, respectively. This study shows that all four major areas show no significant trend except for a few months. In this regard, significant trends for SD-01 can be identified in March, August and September, while significant trends in SD-02 and SD-03 can be seen in March but no significant trend can be detected in any month SD-04.

V. CONCLUSIONS

Of paramount importance in this study is the division of Sri Lanka into four main regions and then the examination of rainfall trends using reconstructed precipitation data using satellite estimates and location data. The fact that the annual rainfall trend results show that no negative trends shows for any region of Sri Lanka Kendall's tau and Sen's flow and p values also represent that there is a significant positive trend everywhere in the country. When study the seasonal rainfall trend, It is clear that all zones show significant trends for rainfall only during the Yala season (Southwestern monsoon). Long-term (30 Years) precipitation studies show that there is no significant change in rainfall during the Maha season (Southwestern monsoon).

Furthermore, in terms of agricultural and seasonal rainfall trends, it is evident that the tendency to add more water to the river basins of all regions increases during the Yala season. This tendency is much higher in SD-01 compare to all other. In addition, droughts in SD-02, SD-03 and SD-04 regions can be minimized by

utilizing the increased rainfall during the Yala season, especially during the Maha season. Finally, it is recommended that a detailed and fine-scale analysis be performed using satellite-estimated precipitation data that bias corrects with gauge data to achieve much better results.

REFERENCES

- [1]. A. Ampitiyawatta and S. Guo, (200). "Precipitation trends in the Kalu Ganga basin in Sri Lanka," *Journal of Agricultural Sciences*, vol. 4, no. 1, pp. 10–18.
- A. J. Robson, (2002). "Evidence for trends in UK flooding," *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Series A: Mathematical, Physical and Engineering Sciences*, vol. 360, no. 1796, pp. 1327–1343.
- [2]. J. Robson, T. K. Jones, D. W. Reed, and A. C. Bayliss, (1998). "A study of national trend and variation in UK floods," *International Journal of Climatology*, vol. 18, no. 2, pp. 165–182.
- [3]. Kay, R. Jones, and N. Reynard, (2006). "RCM rainfall for UK flood frequency estimation. II. Climate change results," *Journal of Hydrology*, vol. 318, no. 1–4, pp. 163–172.
- [4]. Mondal, S. Kundu, and A. Mukhopadhyay, (2012). "Rainfall trend analysis by Mann-Kendall test: a case study of north-eastern part of Cuttack district, Orissa," *International Journal of Geology, Earth and Environmental Sciences*, vol. 2, no. 1, pp. 70–78.
- [5]. Soja, N. Tchebakova, N. French et al., (2007). "Climate-induced boreal forest change: predictions versus current observations," *Global and Planetary Change*, vol. 56, no. 3-4, pp. 274–296.
- [6]. Spence, W. Poortinga, and N. Pidgeon, (2011). "The psychological distance of climate change," *Risk Analysis*, vol. 32, no. 6, pp. 957–972.
- [7]. A. Malmgren, R. Hulugalla, Y. Hayashi, and T. Mikami, (2003). "Precipitation trends in Sri Lanka since the 1870s and relationships to El Niño-Southern oscillation," *International Journal of Climatology*, vol. 23, no. 10, pp. 1235–1252.
- [8]. Khaniya, H. G. Priyantha, N. Baduge, H. M. Azamathulla, and U. Rathnayake, (2018). "Impact of climate variability on hydropower generation: a case study from Sri Lanka," *ISH Journal of Hydraulic Engineering*, pp. 1–9.
- [9]. Prudhomme, D. Jakob, and C. Svensson, (2003). "Uncertainty and climate change impact on the flood regime of small UK catchments," *Journal of Hydrology*, vol. 277, no. 1-2, pp. 1–23.
- [10]. Tebaldi and R. Knutti, (2007) "The use of the multi-model ensemble in probabilistic climate projections," *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society A: Mathematical, Physical and Engineering Sciences*, vol. 365, no. 1857, pp. 053–2075.
- [11]. R. Easterling, G. Meehl, C. Parmesan, S. Changnon, T. Karl, and L. Mearns, (2000). "Climate extremes: observations, modeling, and impacts", *Science*, vol. 289, no. 5487, pp. 2068–2074.
- [12]. E.N.C. Perera, D. T. Jayawardana, and P. Jayasinghe, (2017). A Rainfall Intensity-Duration Threshold for Mass Movement in Badulla, Sri Lanka. *Journal of Geoscience and Environment Protection* 5, 135–152. Doi: 10.4236/gep.2017.512010.
- [13]. Ranatunge, B. Malmgren, Y. Hayashi et al., (2003). "Changes in the southwest monsoon mean daily rainfall intensity in Sri Lanka: relationship to the El Niño-Southern Oscillation," *Paleogeography, Paleoclimatology, Paleoecology*, vol. 197, no. 1-2, pp. 1–14.
- [14]. U. Weber and P. C. Stern, (2011). "Public understanding of climate change in the United States," *American Psychologist*, vol. 66, no. 4, pp. 315–328.
- [15]. S. Chapin, E. S. Zavaleta, V. T. Eviner, (2000). "Consequences of changing biodiversity," *Nature*, vol. 405, no. 6783, pp. 234–242.
- [16]. Lindstrom, (1999). "Trends and variability in Swedish floods," in *Proceedings of the IUGG, Hydrological Extremes: Understanding, Predicting, Mitigating*, pp. 91–98, IHS Publications, Birmingham, UK.
- [17]. G.R. Walther, E. Post, P. Convey, (2002). "Ecological responses to recent climate change," *Nature*, vol. 416, no. 6879, pp. 389–395.
- [18]. Alexandersson, (1986). "A homogeneity test applied to precipitation data," *Journal of Climatology*, vol. 6, no. 6, pp. 661–675.
- [19]. Alexandersson and A. Moberg, (1997). "Homogenization of Swedish temperature data. Part I: homogeneity test for linear trends," *International Journal of Climatology*, vol. 17, no. 1, pp. 25–34.
- [20]. H. B. Mann, (1945). "Nonparametric tests against trend," *Econometrica*, vol. 13, no. 3, pp. 245–259.
- [21]. H. F. Lins and J. R. Slack, (1999). "Streamflow trends in the United States," *Geophysical Research Letters*, vol. 26, no. 2, pp. 227–230.
- [22]. H. Jayawardene, D. Sonnadara, and D. Jayewardene, (2005). "Trends of rainfall in Sri Lanka over the last century," *Sri Lankan Journal of Physics*, vol. 6, pp. 7–17.

- [23]. H. Jayawardene, D. Jayewardene, and D. Sonnadara, (2015). "Interannual variability of precipitation in Sri Lanka," *Journal of the National Science Foundation of Sri Lanka*, vol. 43, no. 1, pp. 75–82.
- [24]. H. Wang, Z. Yang, Y. Saito, J. Liu, X. Sun, and Y. Wang, (2007). "Stepwise decreases of the Huanghe (Yellow River) sediment load (1950–2005): impacts of climate change and human activities," *Global and Planetary Change*, vol. 57, no. 3-4, pp. 331–354.
- [25]. Lorenzoni, S. Nicholson-Cole, and L. Whitmarsh, (2007). "Barriers perceived to engaging with climate change among the UK public and their policy implications," *Global Environmental Change*, vol. 17, no. 3-4, pp. 445–459.
- [26]. IPCC (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change) (2007) Summary for policymakers. In: *Climate Change 2007: The Physical Science Basis* (ed. by S. Solomon, D. Qin, M. Manning, Z. Chen, M. Marquis, K. B. Averyt, M. Tignor & H. L. Miller). Cambridge University Press, UK.
- [27]. IPCC, 2013: *Climate Change 2013: The Physical Science Basis, Contribution of Working Group I to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change* [Stocker, T.F., D. Qin, G.-K. Plattner, M. Tignor, S.K. Allen, J. Boschung, A. Nauels, Y. Xia, V. Bex and P.M. Midgley (eds.)]. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA, 1535pp.
- [28]. IPCC, 2014: *Climate Change 2014: Impacts, Adaptation, and Vulnerability. Part A: Global and Sectoral Aspects, Contribution of Working Group II to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change* [Field, C.B., Barros, V.R., D.J. Dokken, K.J. Mach, M.D. Mastrandrea, T.E. Bilir, M. Chatterjee, K.L. Ebi, Y.O. Estrada, R.C. Genova, B. Girma, E.S. Kissel, A.N. Levy, S. MacCracken, P.R. Mastrandrea, and L.L. White (eds.)]. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA, 1132pp.
- [29]. IPCC, 2014: *Climate Change 2014: Impacts, Adaptation, and Vulnerability. Part B: Regional Aspects, Contribution of Working Group II to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change* [Barros, V.R., C.B. Field, D.J. Dokken, M.D. Mastrandrea, K.J. Mach, T.E. Bilir, M. Chatterjee, K.L. Ebi, Y.O. Estrada, R.C. Genova, B. Girma, E.S. Kissel, A.N. Levy, S. MacCracken, P.R. Mastrandrea, and L.L. White (eds.)]. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA, 688pp.
- [30]. B. Wijngaard, A. M. G. Klein Tank, and G. P. Konnen, (2003). "Homogeneity of 20th century European daily temperature and precipitation series," *International Journal of Climatology*, vol. 23, no. 6, pp. 679–692.
- [31]. J. P. Schuldt, S. H. Konrath, and N. Schwarz, (2011). "Global warming" or "climate change"?: Whether the planet is warming depends on question wording," *Public Opinion Quarterly*, vol. 75, no. 1, pp. 115–124.
- [32]. Guowei and W. Jingpeng, (1999) "A study of extreme floods in China for the past 100 years," in *Proceedings of the IUGG, Hydrological Extremes: Understanding, Predicting, Mitigating*, pp. 109–119.
- [33]. Wijemannage, E.N.C. Perera, (2018). Comparison of spatial Interpolation Methods for Rainfall data over Sri Lanka. Asian Conference in Remote Sensing, 17-21 October, Colombo: Asian Association on Remote Sensing.
- [34]. Du, S. Kawashima, S. Yonemura, X. Zhang, and S. Chen, (2004). "Mutual influence between human activities and climate change in the Tibetan Plateau during recent years," *Global and Planetary Change*, vol. 41, no. 3-4, pp. 241–249.
- [35]. M. H. I. Dore (2005) Climate change and changes in global precipitation patterns: What do we know? *Environ. Int.* 31, 1167–1181.
- [36]. M. Kendall, (1975). *Rank Correlation Methods*, Charles Griffin & Co. Ltd., London, UK, 4th edition.
- [37]. M. N. Khaliq and T. B. M. J. Ouarda, (2007). "On the critical values of the standard normal homogeneity test (SNHT)," *International Journal of Climatology*, vol. 27, no. 5, pp. 681–687.
- [38]. Oreskes, (2004). The scientific consensus on climate change," *Science*, vol. 306, no. 5702, p. 1686.
- [39]. N. Alahacoon, K. Matheswaran, P. Pani, G. Amarnath, (2018). A Decadal Historical Satellite Data and Rainfall Trend Analysis (2001–2016) for Flood Hazard Mapping in Sri Lanka. *Remote Sens.* 10, 448.
- [40]. N. Hofstra, M. Haylock, M. New, and P. Jones, (2009). "Testing E-OBS European high-resolution gridded data set of daily precipitation and surface temperature," *Journal of Geophysical Research*, vol. 114, no. 21, pp. 1–16.
- [41]. Christensen and J. Christensen, (2004). "Intensification of extreme European summer precipitation in a warmer climate," *Global and Planetary Change*, vol. 44, no. 1–4, pp. 107–117.
- [42]. O. Hoegh-Guldberg and J. F. Bruno, (2010) "The impact of climate change on the world's marine ecosystems," *Science*, vol. 328, no. 5985, pp. 1523–1528.
- [43]. K. Sen, (1968). "Estimates of the regression coefficient based on Kendall's Tau," *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, vol. 63, no. 324, pp. 1379–1389.

- [44]. P. Wickramagamage, (2015). "Spatial and temporal variation of rainfall trends of Sri Lanka," *Theoretical and Applied Climatology*, vol. 125, no. 3-4, pp. 427–438.
- [45]. Chandler, (2001). "Irish floods, changing climate and generalized linear models," *Newsletter of British Hydrological Society*, vol. 69, pp. 5–7.
- [46]. G. Pearson and T. P. Dawson, (2003). "Predicting the impacts of climate change on the distribution of species: are bioclimate envelope models useful?," *Global Ecology and Biogeography*, vol. 12, no. 5, pp. 361–371.
- [47]. R. Knutti, T. F. Stocker, F. Joos, and G.-K. Plattner, (2002). "Constraints on radiative forcing and future climate change from observations and climate model ensembles," *Nature*, vol. 416, no. 6882, pp. 719–723.
- [48]. R. M. Hirsch, J. R. Slack, and R. A. Smith, (1982). "Techniques of trend analysis for monthly water quality data," *Water Resources Research*, vol. 18, no. 1, pp. 107–121.
- [49]. R. Suppiah, (1997). "Extremes of the southern oscillation phenomenon and the rainfall of Sri Lanka," *International Journal of Climatology*, vol. 17, no. 1, pp. 87–101.
- [50]. Herath and U. Ratnayake, (2004). "Monitoring rainfall trends to predict adverse impacts-a case study from Sri Lanka (1964–1993)," *Global Environmental Change*, vol. 14, pp. 71–79.
- [51]. S. Sahin and H. K. Cigizoglu, (2010). "Homogeneity analysis of Turkish meteorological data set," *Hydrological Processes*, vol. 24, no. 8, pp. 981–992.
- [52]. Buishand, (1982) "Some methods for testing the homogeneity of rainfall records," *Journal of Hydrology*, vol. 58, no. 1-2, pp. 11–27.
- [53]. T. R. Karl, "Modern global climate change, (2003)." *Science*, vol. 302, no. 5651, pp. 1719–1723.
- [54]. N. Adger, S. Huq, K. Brown, D. Conway, and M. Hulme, (2003) "Adaptation to climate change in the developing world," *Progress in Development Studies*, vol. 3, no. 3, pp. 179–195.
- [55]. Y. J. Kim, S. D. Eckermann, and H. Y. Chun, (2003). "An overview of the past, present and future of gravity-wave drag parametrization for numerical climate and weather prediction models," *Atmosphere-Ocean*, vol. 41, no. 1, pp. 65–98.
- [56]. Z. Kundzewicz and A. Robson, (2000). "Detecting trend and other changes in hydrological data. world climate programme data and monitoring, WCDMP-45," WMO/TD Report no. 1013, World Meteorological Organization, Geneva, Switzerland.