

# Markov Switching Dirichlet Process Mixture Regression

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**Abstract.** Markov switching models can be used to study heterogeneous populations that are observed over time. This paper explores modeling the group characteristics nonparametrically, under both homogeneous and nonhomogeneous Markov switching for group probabilities. The model formulation involves a finite mixture of conditionally independent Dirichlet process mixtures, with a Markov chain defining the mixing distribution. The proposed methodology focuses on settings where the number of subpopulations is small and can be assumed to be known, and flexible modeling is required for group regressions. We develop Dirichlet process mixture prior probability models for the joint distribution of individual group responses and covariates. The implied conditional distribution of the response given the covariates is then used for inference. The modeling framework allows for both non-linearities in the resulting regression functions and non-standard shapes in the response distributions. We design a simulation-based model fitting method for full posterior inference. Furthermore, we propose a general approach for inclusion of external covariates dependent on the Markov chain but conditionally independent from the response. The methodology is applied to a problem from fisheries research involving analysis of stock-recruitment data under shifts in the ecosystem state.

**Keywords:** Dirichlet process prior; hidden Markov model; Markov chain Monte Carlo; multivariate normal mixture; stock-recruitment relationship.

## 1 Introduction

The focus of this work is to develop a flexible approach to nonparametric switching regression which combines Dirichlet process (DP) mixture nonparametric regression with a hidden Markov model. A modeling framework for data that has been drawn from a number of unobserved *states* (or *regimes*), where each state defines a different relationship between response and covariates, switching regression was originally developed in the context of econometrics (Goldfeld and Quandt 1973; Quandt and Ramsey 1978) and has primarily been approached through likelihood-based estimation. A hidden Markov mixture model in this context holds that the state vector constitutes a Markov chain, and thus introduces an underlying dependence into the data. In such models, the regression functions corresponding to individual population regimes are typically linear with additive error, and may or may not include an explicit time-series component (e.g., Hamilton 1989; McCulloch and Tsay 1994). The work presented here has a dif-

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ferent focus: flexible nonparametric inference within regimes, guided by an informative parametric hidden Markov model for regime state switching. Such approaches reveal a baseline inference: the posterior distribution for individual regression functions when informed by little more than the state switching model. The proposed posterior simulation algorithms will also serve as a useful framework for more general inference about mixtures of conditionally independent nonparametric processes.

Bayesian nonparametrics, and DP mixtures in particular, provide highly flexible models for inference. Indeed, the practical implication of this flexibility is that, for inference based on small to moderate sample sizes, a certain amount of prior information must be provided to avoid a uselessly diffuse posterior. The DP hyperparameters provide the natural mechanism for introducing prior information. However, it is also possible to constrain inference by embedding the nonparametric component within a larger model. The typical semiparametric extension to linear regression – nonparametric modeling for the additive error distribution – is a familiar example of this approach. One can afford to be very noninformative about the error distribution only because linearity of the mean imposes a substantial constraint on model flexibility.

This paper explores one such class of semiparametric inference settings: nonparametric density or regression estimation for heterogeneous populations, using a DP mixture framework, nested within an informative parametric model for the group membership, using an either homogeneous or nonhomogeneous hidden Markov switching model. Although this framework applies generally to nonparametric density estimation, our particular focus is Markov switching nonparametric regression, specified in detail in Section 2, including model elaboration for the inclusion of external covariates. Following this, Section 3 describes efficient forward-backward posterior simulation methodology for dependent mixtures of nonparametric mixture models, along with details for full posterior inference.

In Section 4, the methods are illustrated with an application from fisheries research involving analysis of stock-recruitment data under shifts in the ecosystem state, which can be characterized as regimes that are either favorable or unfavorable for reproduction. Here, the Markov switching nonparametric regression framework enables simultaneous inference for the regime-specific biological stock-recruitment relationship and for the probability of regime switching. Moreover, the DP mixture regression approach relaxes parametric regression assumptions for the stock-recruitment relationships, and yields inference that can capture non-standard response density shapes. These are important features of the proposed model, since they can improve predictive inference for years beyond the end of the observed time series, a key inferential objective for fishery management. Finally, Section 5 concludes with a summary and discussion of possible extensions.

## 2 Markov Switching Nonparametric Regression

In Section 2.1, we introduce the two building blocks upon which our modeling approach is based: Markov switching mixtures of DP mixtures, and fully nonparametric implied

conditional regression. Section 2.2 presents the hidden Markov DP mixture model, and Section 2.3 extends the model to include external variables that are correlated with the underlying Markov chain, but conditionally independent of the joint covariate-response distribution.

## 2.1 Mixtures of Conditionally Independent Dirichlet Process Mixtures

The generic nonparametric DP mixture model is written as  $f(z; G) = \int k(z; \theta) dG(\theta)$  for the density of  $z$ , with a parametric kernel density,  $k(z; \theta)$ , and a random mixing distribution  $G$  that is assigned a DP prior (Ferguson 1973; Antoniak 1974). In particular,  $G \sim \text{DP}(\alpha, G_0)$ , where  $\alpha$  is the precision parameter, and  $G_0$  is the centering distribution.

More specifically, the starting point for our approach is Bayesian nonparametric implied conditional regression, wherein DP mixtures are used to model the joint distribution of response and covariates, from which full inference is obtained for the desired conditional distribution for response given covariates. Both the response distribution and, implicitly, the regression function are modeled nonparametrically, thus providing a flexible framework for the general regression problem. In particular, working with (real-valued) continuous variables, DP mixtures of multivariate normal densities can be used to model the joint density of the covariates,  $\mathbf{X}$ , and response  $Y$  (as in, e.g., Müller et al. 1996). Hence, the normal DP mixture regression model can be described as follows:

$$f(\mathbf{z}; G) = \int \text{N}(\mathbf{z}; \mu, \Sigma) dG(\mu, \Sigma), \quad G \mid \alpha, \psi \sim \text{DP}(\alpha, G_0), \quad (1)$$

where  $\mathbf{z} = (\mathbf{x}, y)$ , and  $G_0$  can be built from independent normal and inverse Wishart components for  $\mu$  and  $\Sigma$ , respectively. Inference for the implied conditional response distribution under our Markov switching regression model is discussed in Section 3, following the development in Taddy and Kottas (2009), where full inference about  $f(y \mid \mathbf{x}; G)$  was required to estimate quantile regression functions.

A model for multiple heterogeneous populations may be built upon the DP mixture platform under either the density estimation or regression setting discussed above. Assume  $R$  distinct random mixing distributions  $G_1, \dots, G_R$ , each characterized as a DP in the prior, such that, for observations  $z_1, \dots, z_n$  with population membership vector  $\mathbf{h} = (h_1, \dots, h_n)$ ,  $f(z_i; G_{h_i}) = \int k(z_i; \theta) dG_{h_i}(\theta)$ . This leads to the  $G_r$  being independent in the posterior full conditional (due, in particular, to conditioning on  $\mathbf{h}$ ), which is both conceptually important and, in Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) simulation, practically useful. Model specification is completed with a state probability vector,  $\mathbf{p}_i = (p_{i,1}, \dots, p_{i,R})$ , defining the probability that the  $i$ -th observation was drawn from the DP mixture corresponding to each of the  $G_r$ . The goal of this framework is to introduce information into the model through the  $\mathbf{p}_i$ .

One way to inform  $p_{i,r}$  is to incorporate temporal structure, and a natural way to do so is by assuming that the  $h_i$  constitute a Markov chain. Robert et al. (1993) and Chib

(1996) discuss such hidden Markov models in the estimation of mixtures of parametric densities. Moreover, the basic Markov switching regression model defines distinct regression functions for data that have been drawn from populations corresponding to a number of unobserved states (see, e.g., Chapters 10 and 11 in Frühwirth-Schnatter 2006). Following the early work of Goldfeld and Quandt (1973) and Quandt and Ramsey (1978), the more recent literature includes, for instance, approaches for switching dynamic linear models (Shumway and Stoffer 1991) and switching ARMA models (Billio et al. 1999). Moreover, Hurn et al. (2003) describe a Bayesian decision theoretic approach to estimation for mixtures of linear regressions, whereas the approach of Shi et al. (2005) offers a departure from the linear regression assumption through a mixture of Gaussian process regressions.

Since, in our context, the  $G_r$  are modeled nonparametrically, this leads to inference that is driven primarily by state membership and, in particular, the Markov transition probabilities. Taking this approach further, the proposed nonparametric switching regression methodology will be most effective when state membership probabilities are informed by external covariates. Hughes and Guttorp (1994) and Berliner and Lu (1999) have proposed nonhomogeneous hidden Markov models where each observation's state probability vector  $\mathbf{p}_i$  is regressed onto a set of external covariates,  $u_i$ . In Section 2.3, we obtain a similar model by assuming that the external  $u_i$  are randomly distributed according to a state dependent density function,  $p_{h_i}(u_i)$ . Conditioning on  $u_i$  then implies a nonhomogeneous hidden Markov model for  $\mathbf{h}$ .

Hence, our methodological framework involves a known (small) number of states where prior information is available on the properties of the underlying state Markov chain, but there is a need for nonparametric modeling within each subpopulation. The assumption that the number of mixture states is known fits within the general premise of an informative state estimation coupled with flexible nonparametric modeling for regression estimation. Thus, while the methodology is not generally suitable for settings with little information about state membership, it offers a practical solution to switching regression problems that lack prior information about the shape of the individual regression functions and/or the form of the corresponding conditional response densities.

## 2.2 Model Specification for Hidden Markov Nonparametric Switching Regression

Mixtures of regressions are used to study multiple populations each of which involves a different conditional relationship between response and covariates. The generic mixtures of regressions setting holds that the response  $Y$  given covariates  $\mathbf{X}$  has been drawn from a member of a heterogeneous set of  $R$  conditional distributions defined by the densities  $f_1(y | \mathbf{x}), \dots, f_R(y | \mathbf{x})$ , and hence that  $\Pr(y | \mathbf{x}) = p_1 f_1(y | \mathbf{x}) + \dots + p_R f_R(y | \mathbf{x})$ , where  $\sum_{r=1}^R p_r = 1$ . We propose a departure from this standard form, wherein the response and covariates are jointly distributed according to one of the densities  $f_1(\mathbf{x}, y), \dots, f_R(\mathbf{x}, y)$  – i.e., now  $\Pr(\mathbf{x}, y) = p_1 f_1(\mathbf{x}, y) + \dots + p_R f_R(\mathbf{x}, y)$  – and

therefore  $\Pr(y | \mathbf{x}) = \rho_1 f_1(\mathbf{x}, y) + \dots + \rho_R f_R(\mathbf{x}, y)$ , where  $\rho_r = p_r / \sum_{\ell=1}^R p_\ell f_\ell(\mathbf{x})$ . Thus, the approach is particularly appropriate whenever mixture component probabilities for a given  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $y$  should be dependent upon the joint distribution for response and covariates, even though primary interest is in the regression relationship for response given covariates.

Specifically, we develop the extension of DP mixture implied conditional regression to the context of time dependent switching regression. The data consist of covariate vectors  $\mathbf{x}_t = (x_t^1, \dots, x_t^{d_x})$ , and corresponding responses  $y_t$  observed at times  $t = 1, \dots, T$ , where  $d_x$  is the dimension of the covariate space. The data from each time point are associated with a hidden state variable,  $h_t \in \{1, \dots, R\}$ , such that, given  $h_t$ , the response-covariate joint distribution is defined by a state-specific density  $f_{h_t}(\mathbf{x}_t, y_t)$ . We begin by describing density estimation in the  $d = d_x + 1$  dimensional setting, with data  $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{z}_t = (\mathbf{x}_t, y_t) : t = 1, \dots, T\}$ . Now, however, the successive observations  $\mathbf{z}_t$  are correlated through dependence in state membership  $\mathbf{h} = (h_1, \dots, h_T)$ , which constitutes a stationary Markov chain defined by an  $R \times R$  transition matrix  $\mathbf{Q}$ . Although we consider only first-order dependence in the Markov chain, the model and posterior simulation methods can be extended to handle higher order Markov chains.

The first-order hidden Markov location-scale normal DP mixture model (referred to as model  $\mathcal{M1}$ ) can then be expressed as follows,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{z}_t | h_t, G_{h_t} &\stackrel{ind}{\sim} f_{h_t}(\mathbf{z}_t) \equiv f(\mathbf{z}_t; G_{h_t}) = \int N(\mathbf{z}_t; \mu, \Sigma) dG_{h_t}(\mu, \Sigma), \quad t = 1, \dots, T \\ G_r | \alpha_r, \psi_r &\stackrel{ind}{\sim} DP(\alpha_r, G_0(\psi_r)), \quad r = 1, \dots, R \\ \mathbf{h} | \mathbf{Q} &\sim \Pr(\mathbf{h} | \mathbf{Q}) = \prod_{t=2}^T Q_{h_{t-1}, h_t}, \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

where we denote the  $r$ -th row of  $\mathbf{Q}$  by  $Q_r = (Q_{r,1}, \dots, Q_{r,R})$ , with  $Q_{r,s} = \Pr(h_t = s | h_{t-1} = r)$ , for  $r, s = 1, \dots, R$  (and  $t = 2, \dots, T$ ). Moreover, the DP centering distributions,  $G_0(\mu, \Sigma; \psi_r) = N(\mu; m_r, V_r) W_{\nu_r}(\Sigma^{-1}; S_r^{-1})$ , with  $\psi_r = (m_r, V_r, S_r)$ . Here,  $W_v(\cdot; M)$  denotes the Wishart distribution with  $v$  degrees of freedom and expectation  $vM$ .

Applying the regression approach discussed in Section 2.1, the joint response-covariate density specification in (2) yields our proposed hidden Markov switching regression model. In particular, for state  $r$ , the prior model for the marginal density for  $\mathbf{X}$  can be written as  $f(\mathbf{x}; G_r) = \int N(\mathbf{x}; \mu^x, \Sigma^{xx}) dG_r(\mu, \Sigma)$ , after the mean vector and covariance matrix of the normal kernel have been partitioned. In particular,  $\mu$  comprises  $(d_x \times 1)$  vector  $\mu^x$  and scalar  $\mu^y$ , and  $\Sigma$  is a square block matrix with diagonal elements given by  $(d_x \times d_x)$  covariance matrix  $\Sigma^{xx}$  and scalar variance  $\Sigma^y$ , and above and below diagonal vectors  $\Sigma^{xy}$ , and  $\Sigma^{yx}$ , respectively.

We assume that, in the prior, each state is equally likely for  $h_1$ . For  $r = 1, \dots, R$ , we place hyperpriors on  $\psi_r$  and  $\alpha_r$  such that  $\pi(\psi_r) = N(m_r; a_{m_r}, B_{m_r}) W_{\nu_r}(V_r^{-1}; B_{V_r}^{-1}) W_{\nu_r}(S_r; B_{S_r})$ , and  $\pi(\alpha_r) = \Gamma(\alpha_r; a_{\alpha_r}, b_{\alpha_r})$ . The prior for  $\mathbf{Q}$  is built from independent Dirichlet distributions,  $\pi(Q_r) = \text{Dir}(Q_r; \lambda_r)$ , where  $\text{Dir}(Q_r; \lambda_r)$ , with  $\lambda_r = (\lambda_{r,1}, \dots, \lambda_{r,R})$ , denotes the Dirichlet distribution such that  $\mathbb{E}[Q_{r,s}] = \lambda_{r,s} / (\sum_{i=1}^R \lambda_{r,i})$ .

In practice, the hyperparameters for the  $\alpha_r$ ,  $\psi_r$  and for  $\mathbf{Q}$  need to be carefully chosen; our approach to prior specification is detailed in Appendix A.

### 2.3 Extension to Semiparametric Modeling with External Covariates

In the spirit of allowing the switching probabilities to drive the nonparametric regression, we extend here model  $\mathcal{M}1$  to include additional information about the state vector in the form of an external covariate,  $U$ , with values  $\mathbf{u} = \{u_1, \dots, u_T\}$ . (Although we present the methodology for a single covariate, the work can be readily extended to the setting with multiple external covariates.) The modeling extension involves a non-homogeneous Markov mixture where the hidden state provides a link between the joint covariate-response random variable and the external covariate.

The standard non-homogeneous hidden Markov model holds that the transition probabilities are dependent upon the external covariates, such that  $\Pr(h_t | h_1, \dots, h_{t-1}, \mathbf{u}) = \Pr(h_t | h_{t-1}, u_t)$ . [Berliner and Lu \(1999\)](#) present a Bayesian parametric approach to non-homogeneous hidden Markov models in which  $\Pr(h_t | h_{t-1}, u_t)$  is estimated through probit regression. Also related is the likelihood analysis of [Hughes and Guttorp \(1994\)](#), wherein a heuristic argument, using Bayes theorem, is proposed to justify the model  $\Pr(h_t | h_{t-1}, u_t) \propto \Pr(h_t | h_{t-1})\mathcal{L}(h_t; u_t)$ , where the likelihood  $\mathcal{L}(h_t; u_t)$  in their example is normal with state dependent mean.

Treating each  $u_t$  as the realization of a random variable yields a natural modeling framework in the context of our approach. Hence, we obtain a semiparametric extension of model  $\mathcal{M}1$  (referred to as model  $\mathcal{M}2$ ) by adding a further stage,  $u_t | h_t \stackrel{ind}{\sim} p(u_t | \gamma_{h_t})$ , to the model, along with hyperpriors for  $\gamma = \{\gamma_r : r = 1, \dots, R\}$ , the state-specific parameters of the distribution for the external covariate. Moreover, we assume that  $\mathbf{u}$  is conditionally independent of  $\{\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_T\}$  given  $\mathbf{h}$ . Thus, for model  $\mathcal{M}2$ , the first stage in (2) is replaced with

$$\mathbf{z}_t, u_t | h_t, G_{h_t}, \gamma \stackrel{ind}{\sim} p(u_t | \gamma_{h_t})f(\mathbf{z}_t; G_{h_t}), \quad t = 1, \dots, T.$$

Clearly, the formulation of model  $\mathcal{M}2$  implies that the hidden Markov chain is non-homogeneous conditional on  $\mathbf{u}$ . However, unconditionally in the prior, it is more accurate to say that  $\{\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_T\}$  and  $\mathbf{u}$  are dependent upon a shared homogeneous Markov chain, and that they are conditionally independent given  $\mathbf{h}$ . In Section 4, we illustrate with a Gaussian form for  $p(u_t | \gamma_{h_t})$ . More general examples, with multiple external covariates, could incorporate dependence relationships, or even model some subset of the vector of external covariates as a function of the others.

## 3 Efficient Posterior Simulation

Here, we present MCMC methods for posterior inference under the models developed in Section 2, beginning with model  $\mathcal{M}1$  and adapting this to external covariates in Section 2.3. To obtain the full probability model, we introduce latent parameters  $\boldsymbol{\theta} =$

$\{\theta_t = (\mu_t, \Sigma_t) : t = 1, \dots, T\}$  such that the first stage in (2) is replaced with  $\mathbf{z}_t | \theta_t \stackrel{ind}{\sim} N(\mathbf{z}_t; \theta_t)$  and  $\theta_t | h_t, G_{h_t} \stackrel{ind}{\sim} G_{h_t}$ , for  $t = 1, \dots, T$ . The standard approach to posterior simulation from DP-based hierarchical models involves marginalization of the random mixing distributions  $G_r$  in (2) over their DP priors. Conditionally on  $\mathbf{h}$ , the vector of latent mixing parameters breaks down into state-specific subvectors  $\boldsymbol{\theta}_r = \{\theta_t : h_t = r\}$ ,  $r = 1, \dots, R$ , such that the distribution of each  $\boldsymbol{\theta}_r$  is built from independent  $G_r$  distributions for the  $\theta_t$  corresponding to state  $r$ . Thus, the full posterior can be written as  $\Pr(\mathbf{h} | \mathbf{Q}) \prod_{r=1}^R \pi(\alpha_r) \pi(\psi_r) \pi(Q_r) \Pr(\boldsymbol{\theta}_r | \mathbf{h}, \alpha_r, \psi_r) \text{DP}(G_r; \alpha_r^*, G_{r0}^*) \prod_{t=1}^T N(\mathbf{z}_t; \theta_t)$ , using results from Blackwell and MacQueen (1973) and Antoniak (1974). Here,  $\Pr(\boldsymbol{\theta}_r | \mathbf{h}, \alpha_r, \psi_r)$  is the Pólya urn marginal prior for  $\boldsymbol{\theta}_r$ ;  $\alpha_r^* = \alpha_r + n_r$  (where  $n_r = |\{t : h_t = r\}|$ ); and  $G_{r0}^*(\cdot) \equiv G_{r0}^*(\cdot | \mathbf{h}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_r, \alpha_r, \psi_r) = (\alpha_r + n_r)^{-1} \left[ \alpha_r dG_0(\cdot; \psi_r) + \sum_{\{t: h_t=r\}} \delta_{\theta_t}(\cdot) \right]$ .

This posterior can be sampled extending standard MCMC techniques for DP mixtures (e.g., Neal 2000; Gelfand and Kottas 2002). However, marginalization over the  $G_r$  requires that each pair  $(\theta_t, h_t)$  must be sampled jointly, conditional on the remaining parameters  $(\theta_{t'}, h_{t'})$ , for all  $t' \neq t$ . This is possible, but inefficient, through use of a Metropolis-Hastings step with proposal distribution built from a marginal  $\Pr(h_t = r) \propto Q_{h_{t-1}, r} Q_{r, h_{t+1}}$ ,  $r = 1, \dots, R$ , and a conditional for  $\theta_t | h_t = r$  given by the Pólya urn prior full conditional arising from  $\Pr(\boldsymbol{\theta}_r | \mathbf{h}, \alpha_r, \psi_r)$ .

### 3.1 Blocked Gibbs with Forward-Backward Sampling

The posterior simulation approach discussed above requires updating each  $h_t$  one at a time, whereas forward-backward sampling for the entire state vector  $\mathbf{h}$  is a substantially more efficient method for exploring the state space (see, e.g., Scott 2002). To implement forward-backward sampling, we need to evaluate the joint probability mass function for states  $(h_{t-1}, h_t)$  conditional on the incomplete data vector  $\{\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_t\}$  and relevant model parameters, which include the random mixing distributions  $\{G_1, \dots, G_R\}$ . Therefore, to compute state probabilities, it is necessary to obtain realizations for each  $G_r$  in the course of the MCMC algorithm. The blocked Gibbs sampling approach for DP mixture models (Ishwaran and James 2001) provides a natural approach wherein the entire MCMC method is based on a finite truncation approximation of the DP, using its stick-breaking definition (Sethuraman 1994). Based on this definition, a  $\text{DP}(\alpha, G_0)$  realization is almost surely a discrete distribution with a countable number of possible values drawn i.i.d. from  $G_0$ , and corresponding weights that are built from i.i.d.  $\beta(1, \alpha)$  variables through stick-breaking. (We use  $\beta(a, b)$  to denote the Beta distribution with mean  $a/(a + b)$ .) As well as being the consistent choice if the truncated distributions are used in state vector draws, blocked Gibbs can lead to very efficient sampling for the complete posterior.

Using the DP stick-breaking representation, we replace each  $G_r$  in model  $\mathcal{M1}$  with a truncation approximation. Specifically, for specified (finite)  $L$ , we work with

$$G_r^L(\cdot) = \sum_{l=1}^L \omega_{l,r} \delta_{\tilde{\theta}_{l,r}}(\cdot),$$

where the  $\tilde{\theta}_{l,r} = (\tilde{\mu}_{l,r}, \tilde{\Sigma}_{l,r})$ ,  $l = 1, \dots, L$ , are i.i.d.  $G_0(\psi_r)$ , and the finite stick-breaking prior for  $\boldsymbol{\omega}_r = (\omega_{1,r}, \dots, \omega_{L,r})$  (denoted by  $\mathcal{P}_L(\boldsymbol{\omega}_r | 1, \alpha_r)$ ) is defined constructively by

$$\zeta_1, \dots, \zeta_{L-1} \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \beta(1, \alpha_r), \quad \zeta_L = 1; \quad \text{and for } l = 1, \dots, L: \quad \omega_{l,r} = \zeta_l \prod_{s=1}^{l-1} (1 - \zeta_s). \quad (3)$$

Hence, each  $G_r^L$  is defined by the set of  $L$  location-scale parameters  $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_r = (\tilde{\theta}_{1,r}, \dots, \tilde{\theta}_{L,r})$  and weights  $\boldsymbol{\omega}_r$ . Guidelines to choose the truncation level  $L$ , up to any desired accuracy, can be obtained, e.g., from [Ishwaran and Zarepour \(2000\)](#).

The first stage of model (2) is replaced with  $\mathbf{z}_t | h_t, (\boldsymbol{\omega}_{h_t}, \tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{h_t}) \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \sum_{l=1}^L \omega_{l,h_t} \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{z}_t; \tilde{\theta}_{l,h_t})$ ,  $t = 1, \dots, T$ . The limiting case of this finite mixture model (as  $L \rightarrow \infty$ ) is the countable DP mixture model  $f(\mathbf{z}_t; G_{h_t}) = \int \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{z}_t; \theta) dG_{h_t}(\theta)$  in (2). Again, we can introduce latent parameters  $\theta_t = (\mu_t, \Sigma_t)$  to expand the first stage specification to  $\mathbf{z}_t | \theta_t \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{z}_t; \theta_t)$  and  $\theta_t | h_t, (\boldsymbol{\omega}_{h_t}, \tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{h_t}) \stackrel{iid}{\sim} G_{h_t}^L$ , for  $t = 1, \dots, T$ . Alternatively, since  $\theta_t = \tilde{\theta}_{l,h_t}$  with probability  $\omega_{l,h_t}$ , we can work with configuration variables  $\mathbf{k} = (k_1, \dots, k_T)$ , where each  $k_t$  takes values in  $\{1, \dots, L\}$ , such that, conditionally on  $h_t$ ,  $k_t = l$  if and only if  $\theta_t = \tilde{\theta}_{l,h_t}$ . Hence, model  $\mathcal{M1}$  with the DP truncation approximation can be expressed in the following hierarchical form

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{z}_t | \tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{h_t}, k_t &\stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{z}_t; \tilde{\theta}_{k_t, h_t}), \quad t = 1, \dots, T \\ k_t | h_t, \boldsymbol{\omega}_{h_t} &\stackrel{iid}{\sim} \sum_{l=1}^L \omega_{l, h_t} \delta_l(k_t), \quad t = 1, \dots, T \\ \boldsymbol{\omega}_r, \tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_r | \alpha_r, \psi_r &\stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{P}_L(\boldsymbol{\omega}_r | 1, \alpha_r) \prod_{l=1}^L dG_0(\tilde{\theta}_{l,r}; \psi_r), \quad r = 1, \dots, R \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

with  $\mathbf{h} | \mathbf{Q} \sim \Pr(\mathbf{h} | \mathbf{Q}) = \prod_{t=2}^T Q_{h_{t-1}, h_t}$ , and the hyperpriors for  $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ,  $\boldsymbol{\psi}$ , and  $\mathbf{Q}$  given in Section 2.2.

Denote by  $\boldsymbol{\phi}$  the vector comprising model parameters  $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ ,  $\boldsymbol{\psi}$ ,  $\mathbf{k}$ ,  $\mathbf{Q}$ , and  $\{(\boldsymbol{\omega}_r, \tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_r) : r = 1, \dots, R\}$ . The full posterior,  $\Pr(\boldsymbol{\phi}, \mathbf{h} | \mathcal{D})$ , corresponding to model (4) is now proportional to

$$\Pr(\mathbf{h} | \mathbf{Q}) \prod_{r=1}^R \left[ \pi(\alpha_r) \pi(\psi_r) \pi(Q_r) \mathcal{P}_L(\boldsymbol{\omega}_r | 1, \alpha_r) \prod_{l=1}^L dG_0(\tilde{\theta}_{l,r}; \psi_r) \prod_{\{t: h_t=r\}} \left( \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{z}_t; \tilde{\theta}_{k_t, r}) \sum_{l=1}^L \omega_{l,r} \delta_l(k_t) \right) \right].$$

Here, the key observation is that, conditionally on  $\mathbf{h}$ , the first two stages of model (4),  $\prod_{t=1}^T \Pr(\mathbf{z}_t, k_t | h_t, (\boldsymbol{\omega}_{h_t}, \tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{h_t})) = \prod_{t=1}^T \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{z}_t; \tilde{\theta}_{k_t, h_t}) \left\{ \sum_{l=1}^L \omega_{l, h_t} \delta_l(k_t) \right\}$ , can be expressed in the state-specific form,  $\prod_{r=1}^R \left\{ \prod_{\{t: h_t=r\}} \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{z}_t; \tilde{\theta}_{k_t, r}) \left\{ \sum_{l=1}^L \omega_{l,r} \delta_l(k_t) \right\} \right\}$ . To explore the full posterior, we develop an MCMC approach that combines Gibbs sampling steps

for parameters in  $\phi$  with forward-backward sampling for the state vector  $\mathbf{h}$ . We discuss the latter next, deferring to Appendix B the details of the Gibbs sampler for all other parameters.

As discussed above, sampling the truncated random mixing distribution  $G_r^L \equiv (\omega_r, \tilde{\theta}_r)$  for each state  $r$ , enables use of forward-backward recursive sampling for the posterior full conditional distribution,  $\Pr(\mathbf{h} \mid \phi, \mathcal{D})$ . Note that this conditional distribution can be written, in general, as  $\Pr(h_T \mid \phi, \mathcal{D}) \prod_{t=1}^{T-1} \Pr(h_{T-t} \mid \{h_{T-t+1}, \dots, h_T\}, \phi, \mathcal{D})$ , whereas under the hidden Markov model structure it simplifies to

$$\Pr(\mathbf{h} \mid \phi, \mathcal{D}) = \Pr(h_T \mid \phi, \mathcal{D}) \prod_{t=1}^{T-1} \Pr(h_{T-t} \mid h_{T-t+1}, \phi, \{\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_{T-t+1}\}). \quad (5)$$

Hence, the state vector can be updated as a block in each MCMC iteration by sampling from each component in (5).

To this end, the forward-backward sampling scheme begins by recursively calculating the *forward* matrices  $F^{(t)}$ , for  $t = 2, \dots, T$ , where  $F_{r,s}^{(t)} = \Pr(h_{t-1} = r, h_t = s \mid \phi, \{\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_t\})$ , for  $r, s = 1, \dots, R$ . Thus,  $F^{(t)}$  defines the joint distribution for  $(h_{t-1}, h_t)$  given model parameters and data up to time  $t$ . For  $t = 3, \dots, T$ ,  $F^{(t)}$  is obtained from  $F^{(t-1)}$  through the following recursive calculation:

$$\begin{aligned} F_{r,s}^{(t)} &\propto \Pr(h_{t-1} = r, h_t = s, \mathbf{z}_t \mid \phi, \{\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_{t-1}\}) \\ &= \Pr(h_t = s \mid h_{t-1} = r, \phi) \Pr(\mathbf{z}_t \mid h_t = s, \phi) \Pr(h_{t-1} = r \mid \phi, \{\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_{t-1}\}) \\ &= Q_{r,s} \sum_{l=1}^L \omega_{l,s} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{z}_t; \tilde{\theta}_{l,s}) \sum_{i=1}^R \Pr(h_{t-2} = i, h_{t-1} = r \mid \phi, \{\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_{t-1}\}) \\ &= Q_{r,s} \sum_{l=1}^L \omega_{l,s} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{z}_t; \tilde{\theta}_{l,s}) \sum_{i=1}^R F_{i,r}^{(t-1)} \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

where the proportionality constant is obtained from  $\sum_{r=1}^R \sum_{s=1}^R F_{r,s}^{(t)} = 1$ . For  $t = 2$ , a similar calculation yields  $F_{r,s}^{(2)} \propto Q_{r,s} \sum_{l=1}^L \omega_{l,s} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{z}_2; \tilde{\theta}_{l,s}) \sum_{l=1}^L \omega_{l,r} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{z}_1; \tilde{\theta}_{l,r})$ , where, again, the proportionality constant results from  $\sum_{r=1}^R \sum_{s=1}^R F_{r,s}^{(2)} = 1$ .

Next, exploiting the form in (5), the (stochastic) backward sampling step begins by drawing  $h_T$  according to  $\Pr(h_T = r \mid \phi, \mathcal{D}) = \sum_{i=1}^R \Pr(h_{T-1} = i, h_T = r \mid \phi, \mathcal{D}) = \sum_{i=1}^R F_{i,r}^{(T)}$ , for  $r = 1, \dots, R$ . Sampling from (5) is then completed by drawing for each  $t = T - 1, T - 2, \dots, 1$  from  $\Pr(h_t = r \mid h_{t+1}, \phi, \{\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_{t+1}\}) \propto \Pr(h_t = r, h_{t+1} \mid \phi, \{\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_{t+1}\}) = F_{r,h_{t+1}}^{(t+1)}$ , for  $r = 1, \dots, R$ , where the proportionality constant arises from  $\sum_{r=1}^R F_{r,h_{t+1}}^{(t+1)}$ .

### 3.2 Inference and Forecasting for Regression Relationships

The posterior samples for the truncated DP parameters,  $\{(\omega_{l,r}, (\tilde{\mu}_{l,r}, \tilde{\Sigma}_{l,r})) : l = 1, \dots, L\}$ , for each state  $r = 1, \dots, R$  can be used to develop inference for the state-specific regres-

sions. In particular, conditional on the posterior draw for the state-specific mixing distribution,  $G_r^L$ , the posterior realization for the conditional response density,  $f(y | \mathbf{x}; G_r)$ , corresponding to state  $r$  is

$$f(y | \mathbf{x}; G_r^L) = \frac{f(\mathbf{x}, y; G_r^L)}{f(\mathbf{x}; G_r^L)} = \frac{\sum_{l=1}^L \omega_{l,r} \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{x}, y; \tilde{\mu}_{l,r}, \tilde{\Sigma}_{l,r})}{\sum_{l=1}^L \omega_{l,r} \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{x}; \tilde{\mu}_{l,r}^{\mathbf{x}}, \tilde{\Sigma}_{l,r}^{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}})} \quad (7)$$

for any specified value  $(\mathbf{x}, y)$ .

In addition, the structure of conditional moments for the normal mixture kernel enables posterior sampling of the state-specific conditional mean regression functions without having to compute the corresponding conditional density. Specifically,

$$\mathbb{E}[Y | \mathbf{x}; G_r^L] = \frac{1}{f(\mathbf{x}; G_r^L)} \sum_{l=1}^L \omega_{l,r} \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{x}; \tilde{\mu}_{l,r}^{\mathbf{x}}, \tilde{\Sigma}_{l,r}^{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}}) \left[ \tilde{\mu}_{l,r}^y + \tilde{\Sigma}_{l,r}^{y\mathbf{x}} (\tilde{\Sigma}_{l,r}^{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}})^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \tilde{\mu}_{l,r}^{\mathbf{x}}) \right],$$

which, evaluated over a grid in  $\mathbf{x}$ , yields posterior realizations of the conditional mean regression function for each state.

Moreover, of interest is prediction in future years (forecasting) for the joint response-covariate distribution and the corresponding implied conditional regression relationship. Illustrating with year  $T + 1$ , the full model that includes the future covariate-response vector  $(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}, y_{T+1})$  and corresponding regime state  $h_{T+1}$ , can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr((\mathbf{x}_{T+1}, y_{T+1}), h_{T+1}, \phi, \mathbf{h} | \mathcal{D}) \\ = \Pr(\phi, \mathbf{h} | \mathcal{D}) Q_{h_T, h_{T+1}} \sum_{l=1}^L \omega_{l, h_{T+1}} \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}, y_{T+1}; \tilde{\theta}_{l, h_{T+1}}). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, the posterior samples for  $(\phi, \mathbf{h})$  along with draws for the new regime state  $h_{T+1}$ , driven by  $\mathbf{Q}$  and  $h_T$ , can be used to estimate the joint posterior forecast density  $\Pr(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}, y_{T+1} | \mathcal{D})$ . More generally, using the posterior samples for  $(\phi, \mathbf{h})$  and  $h_{T+1}$ , we obtain posterior realizations for the conditional response density in year  $T + 1$  through  $f(y | \mathbf{x}; G_{h_{T+1}}^L) = f(\mathbf{x}, y; G_{h_{T+1}}^L) / f(\mathbf{x}; G_{h_{T+1}}^L)$ . Note that, in contrast to (7), these realizations incorporate posterior uncertainty in  $h_{T+1}$ . This type of inference is illustrated with the data example of Section 4.

### 3.3 Extension to External Covariates

Posterior inference under model  $\mathcal{M}2$ , discussed in Section 2.3, can be implemented with a straightforward extension of the MCMC algorithm of Section 3.1. The parameters  $\gamma$  can be sampled conditional on only  $\mathbf{u}$  and the state vector  $\mathbf{h}$ . Regarding the other model parameters, only the MCMC draws that involve  $\mathbf{h}$  need to be altered. In particular, the starting point is again an expression analogous to (5) for the posterior full conditional for  $\mathbf{h}$ . Specifically,  $\Pr(\mathbf{h} | \phi, \gamma, \mathcal{D}) = \Pr(h_T | \phi, \gamma, \mathcal{D}) \prod_{t=1}^{T-1} \Pr(h_{T-t} | h_{T-t+1}, \phi, \gamma, \{(\mathbf{z}_\ell, u_\ell) : \ell = 1, \dots, T-t+1\})$ . Note that now the data vector  $\mathcal{D}$  comprises

$\{(\mathbf{z}_t, u_t) : t = 1, \dots, T\}$ . For  $t = 3, \dots, T$ , the recursive calculation of (6) for the forward matrices becomes

$$F_{r,s}^{(t)} \propto Q_{r,s} \mathbb{P}(u_t \mid \gamma_s) \sum_{l=1}^L \omega_{l,s} \mathbb{N}(\mathbf{z}_t; \tilde{\theta}_{l,s}) \sum_{i=1}^R F_{i,r}^{(t-1)},$$

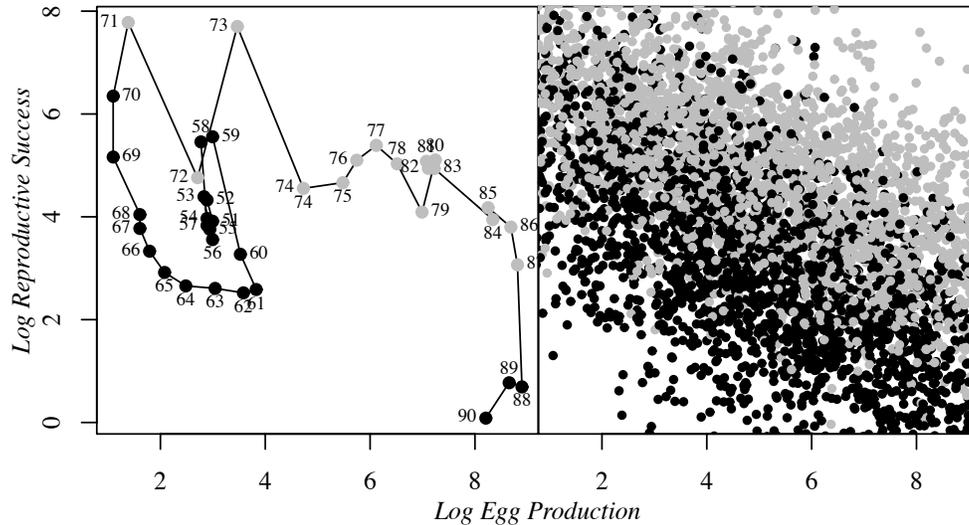
with the proportionality constant obtained from  $\sum_{r=1}^R \sum_{s=1}^R F_{r,s}^{(t)} = 1$ . Moreover,  $F_{r,s}^{(2)} \propto Q_{r,s} \mathbb{P}(u_2 \mid \gamma_s) \mathbb{P}(u_1 \mid \gamma_r) \sum_{l=1}^L \omega_{l,s} \mathbb{N}(\mathbf{z}_2; \tilde{\theta}_{l,s}) \sum_{l=1}^L \omega_{l,r} \mathbb{N}(\mathbf{z}_1; \tilde{\theta}_{l,r})$ , where  $\sum_{r=1}^R \sum_{s=1}^R F_{r,s}^{(2)} = 1$ . Finally, the backward sampling step proceeds as described in Section 3.1 using probabilities from the forward matrices  $F^{(T)}, F^{(T-1)}, \dots, F^{(2)}$ .

## 4 Analysis of Stock-Recruitment Relationships Under Environmental Regime Shifts

The relationship between the number of mature individuals of a species (stock) and the production of offspring (recruitment) is fundamental to the behavior of any ecological system. This has special relevance in fisheries research, where the stock-recruitment relationship applies directly to decision problems of fishery management with serious policy implications (e.g., Quinn and Derisio 1999). A standard ecological modeling assumption holds that as stock abundance increases, successful recruitment per individual (reproductive success) decreases. However, a wide variety of factors will influence this reproductive relationship and there are many competing models for the influence of biological and physical mechanisms. Munch et al. (2005) present an overview of the literature on parametric modeling for stock-recruitment functions, arguing for the utility of standard semiparametric Gaussian process regression modeling. In the same spirit, albeit under the more general DP mixture modeling framework developed in Section 2, our focus is to allow flexible regression to capture the nature of recruitment dependence upon stock without making parametric assumptions for either the stock-recruitment function or the errors around it.

An added complexity in studying stock-recruitment relationships is introduced by ecosystem *regime switching*. It has been observed that rapid shifts in the ecosystem state can occur, during which biological relationships, such as that between stock and recruitment, will undergo major change. This has been observed in the North Pacific in particular (McGowan et al. 1998; Hare and Mantua 2000). Although empirical evidence of regime shifts is well documented and there have been attempts to establish mechanisms for the effect of this switching on stock-recruitment (e.g., Jacobson et al. 2005), the relationship between the physical effects of regime shifts and their biological manifestation is still unclear. This presents an ideal setting for Markov-dependent switching regression models due to their ability to link observed processes that occur on different scales (in this case, biological and physical) and are correlated in an undetermined manner.

To illustrate our Markov switching regression models, we use data on annual stock and recruitment for Japanese sardine from years 1951 to 1990. Wada and Jacobson



**Figure 1:** The left panel plots the data with the regime allocation from [Wada and Jacobson \(1998\)](#). The right panel includes draws from the bivariate normal distribution, which, under each regime, is defined by the marginal mean and covariance matrix for the location of a single DP mixture component (see Section 4 for details). In both panels, black and grey color indicate the unfavorable and favorable regime, respectively.

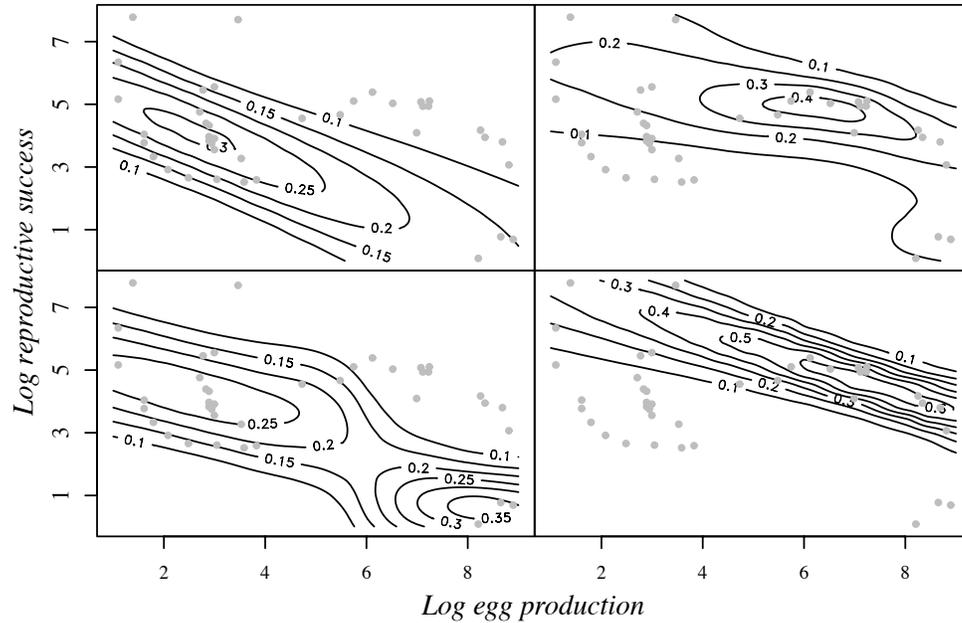
[\(1998\)](#) use modeling of catch abundance and egg count samples to estimate  $R$ , the successful recruits of age less than one (in multiples of  $10^6$  fish). With estimated annual egg production  $E$  (in multiples of  $10^{12}$  eggs) used as a proxy for stock abundance, they investigate the relationship between  $\log(E)$  and  $\log(R/E)$ . Japanese sardine have been observed to switch between *favorable* and *unfavorable* feeding regime states related to the North Pacific environmental regime switching discussed above. Based upon a predetermined regime allocation (see Figure 1), [Wada and Jacobson \(1998\)](#) fit a linear regression relationship for  $\log(E)$  vs  $\log(R/E)$  within each regime.

We consider an analysis of the Japanese sardine data using the modeling framework developed in Section 2, which relaxes parametric (linear) regression assumptions and allows for simultaneous estimation of regime state allocation and regime-specific stock-recruitment relationships. As in the original analysis by [Wada and Jacobson \(1998\)](#), this model formulation does not take into account temporal dependence between successive observations from the same regime. This suits the purposes of our application, but one can envision many settings where a structured time series model is more appropriate than the fully nonparametric approach. Although the low dimensionality of this example is useful for illustrative purposes, the techniques will perhaps be most powerful in the exploration of higher dimensional datasets where such temporal structure is not assumed (an example of implied conditional regression in higher dimensions is studied in [Taddy](#)

and Kottas 2009).

We first apply model  $\mathcal{M}1$  in (4) to the sardine data,  $\mathbf{z}_t = (\log(E_t), \log(R_t/E_t))$ , available for  $T = 40$  years from 1951 to 1990, with the underlying states  $h_t$  defined by either the unfavorable or favorable feeding regime (with values 1 or 2, respectively). A (conservative) truncation of  $L = 100$  was used in the stick-breaking priors. Regarding the prior hyperparameters, we set  $a_\alpha = 2$  and  $b_\alpha = 0.2$  in the gamma prior for  $\alpha$ . The prior for  $\psi_r$  is specified as outlined in Appendix A such that, conditional on the prior regime allocation taken from Wada and Jacobson (1998),  $a_{m_1}$  and  $a_{m_2}$  are set to data means (5, 3) and (5, 5) for the unfavorable and favorable regime observations, respectively, while  $B_{m_1}$  and  $(a_{V_1} - 3)^{-1}B_{V_1}$ , with diagonal (5.3, 2.6) and off-diagonal  $-3.1$ , and  $B_{m_2}$  and  $(a_{V_2} - 3)^{-1}B_{V_2}$ , with diagonal (4.5, 1.4) and off-diagonal  $-2.0$ , is the observed covariance matrix for each regime. The  $B_{S_r}$ , for  $r = 1, 2$ , are diagonal matrices and are specified by setting the diagonal entries of  $a_{S_r}B_{S_r}$  equal to (7.8, 7.7), which defines one quarter of the data range. Finally, we set  $\nu_1 = \nu_2 = a_{V_1} = a_{V_2} = a_{S_1} = a_{S_2} = 2(d + 1) = 6$ . The prior for  $\mathbf{Q}$  is induced by a  $\beta(3, 1.5)$  prior for the probability of staying in the same state, which reflects the relative rarity of regime shifts. The data and prior allocation are shown in Figure 1 along with bivariate normal draws based on the marginal mean and covariance matrix for the location,  $\mu_r$ , of a single component of the DP mixture, for each of the two regimes. Hence, the right panel of Figure 1 shows draws from the prior expectation of the random mixing distribution for the  $\mu_r$  (i.e., from state-specific normal distributions with means  $\mathbb{E}[\mu_r] = a_{m_r}$  and variance  $\text{var}(\mu_r) = \text{var}(m_r) + \mathbb{E}[V_r] = B_{m_r} + (a_{V_r} - 3)^{-1}B_{V_r}$ ). Noting that this does not include prior uncertainty in the  $\mu_r$  due to the DP mixture, clearly shows that the prior specification has not overly restricted mixture components.

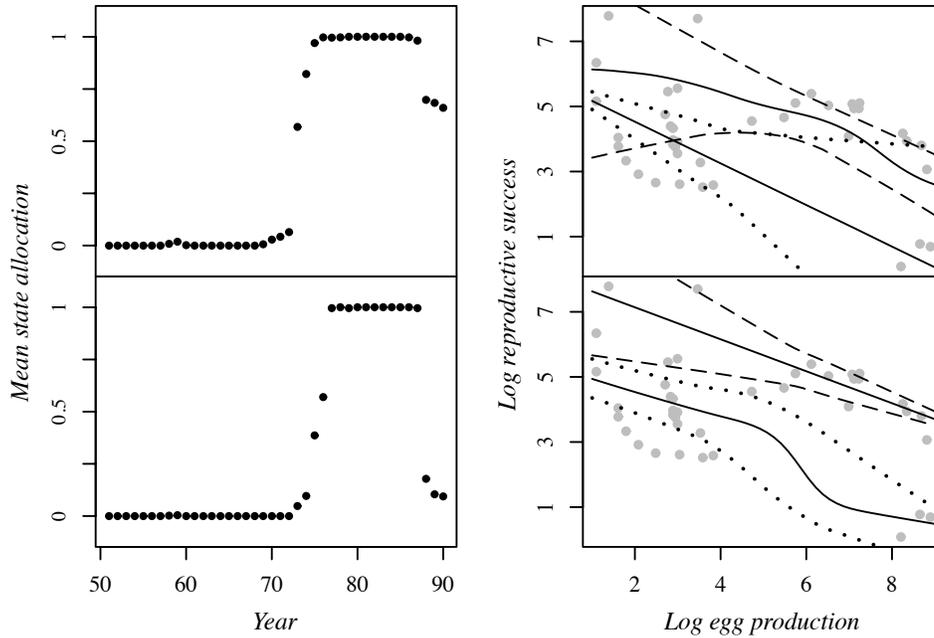
As described above, the sardine feeding regime is part of a larger ecosystem state for this region of the North Pacific. The physical variables that are linked to the ecosystem state switching can be used as external covariates for the hidden Markov chain. Hence, to illustrate the modeling approach of Section 2.3, we choose a physical variable as the single external covariate, specifically, the winter average Pacific decadal oscillation (PDO) index, which is highly correlated with biological regime switching (Hare and Mantua 2000). The PDO index provides the first principle component of an aggregate of North Pacific sea surface temperatures. Although not directly responsible, sea surface temperature is believed to be a proxy for mechanisms such as current flow that control the regime switching (MacCall 2002). Therefore, with vector  $\mathbf{u}$  comprising winter average PDO values from 1951 to 1990, we apply model  $\mathcal{M}2$  to the sardine data working with a normal PDO distribution with state-specific mean. Hence, we assume  $u_t | h_t \stackrel{\text{ind}}{\sim} N(u_t; \gamma_{h_t}, \tau^{-2})$ , with (independent) normal priors for  $\gamma = \{\gamma_1, \gamma_2\}$  and a gamma prior for  $\tau^2$ , in particular,  $\gamma_1 \sim N(-0.44, 0.26)$ ,  $\gamma_2 \sim N(0.73, 0.26)$ , and  $\tau^2 \sim \Gamma(0.5, 0.125)$ . The  $\gamma_r$  prior mean values are average winter PDO for two ten year periods that are generally accepted to fall within each ecosystem regime (Hare and Mantua 2000); the common  $\gamma_r$  prior variance is the pooled variance for these mean estimates, and the prior median for  $\tau^{-2}$  is chosen to provide some overlap between prior PDO densities for each regime. Extending the MCMC algorithm of Section 3.1 to sample the  $\gamma_r$  and  $\tau^2$  is straightforward, since their posterior full conditionals, conditional on



**Figure 2:** Mean posterior conditional density surface for each regime. The unfavorable regime is plotted on the left panels and the favorable on the right panels. The top row corresponds to the analysis from model  $\mathcal{M}1$  and the bottom row to model  $\mathcal{M}2$ , which includes PDO as an external covariate. In each panel, the grey points represent the data, i.e., the observed values for  $(\log(E_t), \log(R_t/E_t))$ ,  $t = 1, \dots, 40$ .

$\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{h}$ , are given by normal and gamma distributions, respectively. The posterior means for  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  are given by  $-0.65$  and  $0.69$ , with 90% posterior intervals of  $(-0.89, -0.40)$  and  $(0.30, 1.10)$ , respectively, and  $\tau^{-2}$  has posterior mean  $0.68$  with a 90% posterior interval of  $(0.45, 1.00)$ .

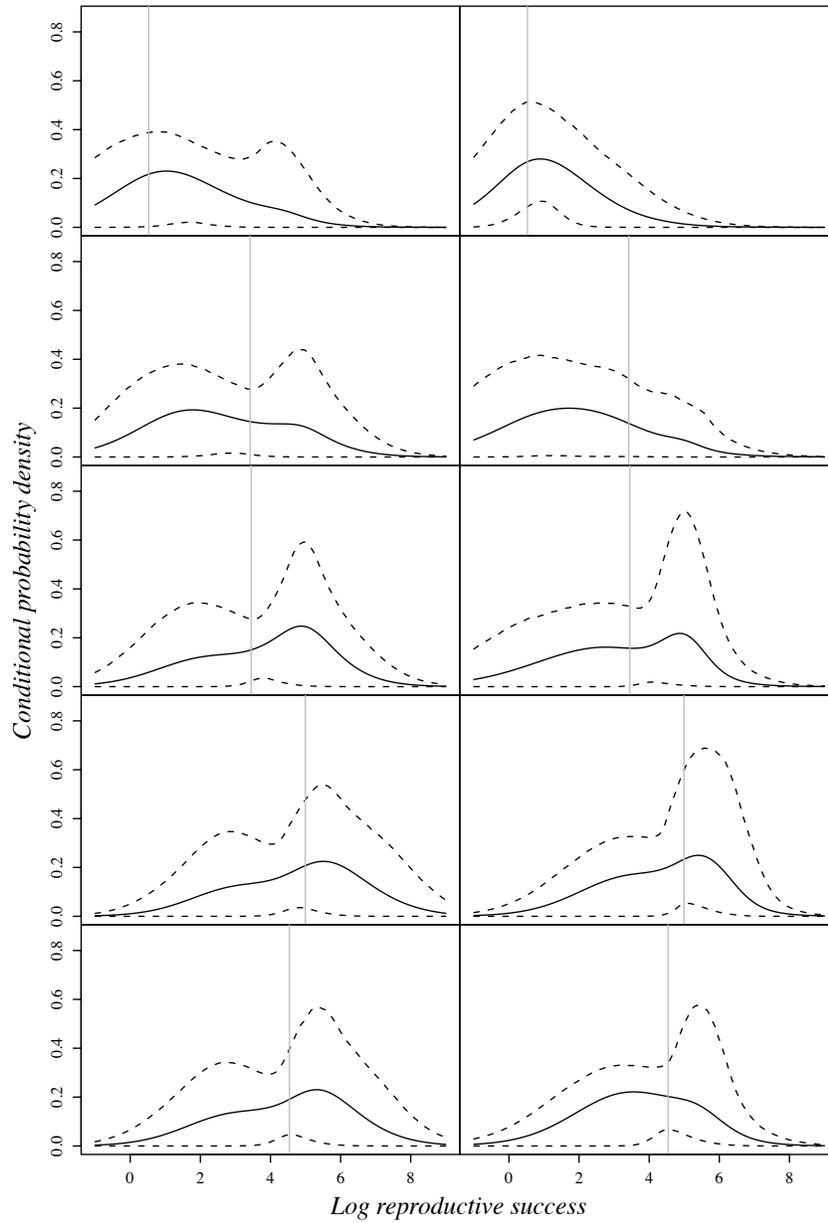
Results from the analyses under the two models are presented in Figures 2 – 4. The regime-specific posterior mean implied conditional densities,  $\mathbb{E}[f(\log(R/E) \mid \log(E); G_r^L) \mid \mathcal{D}]$ , evaluated over a  $50 \times 50$  grid, are shown in Figure 2. These provide point estimates of the conditional relationship between stock and recruitment for each regime. Figure 3 shows the posterior mean for the state vector  $\mathbf{h}$  as well as posterior point and interval estimates for mean regression functions,  $\mathbb{E}[\log(R/E) \mid \log(E); G_r^L]$ , for each regime. The impact of inclusion of PDO as an external variable is evident. In the absence of such information, the observations for years 1988 – 1990 are more likely to be allocated in the favorable regime due to the rarity of regime shifting (i.e., due to posterior realizations of  $\mathbf{Q}$  which put a high probability on staying in the same state). However, with the inclusion of PDO, these years are more probably associated with the unfavorable regime. Also, the posterior estimates for the regime-specific mean regression curves do not exclude the possibility of a linear mean relationship between log egg production



**Figure 3:** The left panels show the posterior mean regime membership by year, where 0 corresponds to the unfavorable regime. The right panels include posterior point and 90% interval estimates for the conditional mean regression function under each regime (interval estimates are denoted by dashed lines for the favorable regime, and by dotted lines for the unfavorable). Also included on the right panels are the observed values for  $(\log(E_t), \log(R_t/E_t))$ ,  $t = 1, \dots, 40$ , denoted by the grey points. The top row corresponds to model  $\mathcal{M}1$  and the bottom row to model  $\mathcal{M}2$ , which includes PDO as an external covariate.

and log reproductive success. Hence, it is interesting to note that the more general DP mixture switching regression modeling framework provides a certain level of support to the original assumptions of [Wada and Jacobson \(1998\)](#).

[Wada and Jacobson \(1998\)](#) also provide egg production and estimated recruit numbers for the years 1991 – 1995, and winter PDO is readily available. The recruit estimates after 1990 are regarded as less accurate than field data from previous years, and for this reason they were not included in our original analysis. However, prediction for this estimated out-of-sample data provides a useful criterion for model comparison. Hence, repeated prediction conditional on each existing parameter state was incorporated into the MCMC algorithm. In each successive year, a regime state is drawn conditional on the sampled regime corresponding to the previous year, and prediction for log reproductive success is provided by the associated conditional response density in year 199\*,  $f(\log(R/E) \mid \log(E_{199*}); G_{h_{199*}}^L)$ , where 199\* runs from year 1991 to 1995. The regime state is then resampled conditional on actual log reproductive success (i.e., conditional on  $\log(R_{199*}/E_{199*})$  and  $\log(E_{199*})$ ), and the process is repeated with this



**Figure 4:** Predictive inference for years 1991 – 1995 (by row, moving from 1991 at top to 1995 at bottom). The left column corresponds to model  $\mathcal{M}1$ , and the right column to model  $\mathcal{M}2$  with PDO as an external covariate. Each panel plots posterior mean and 90% interval estimates (solid and dashed lines, respectively) for the one-step-ahead conditional density, corresponding to  $\log(E)$  values for 1991 – 1995 of [7.58, 6.51, 6.13, 4.67, 4.93]. The grey vertical lines mark the true log reproductive success for each year reported in [Wada and Jacobson \(1998\)](#).

state used as the basis for the next year's prediction. More precisely, considering model  $\mathcal{M}1$ , prediction for year 1991 proceeds exactly as outlined in Section 3.2. Next, for year 1992, we sample the previous regime from  $\Pr(h_{1991} = r \mid h_{1990}, G_1^L, G_2^L, E_{1991}, R_{1991}) \propto f(\log(E_{1991}), \log(R_{1991}/E_{1991}); G_r^L) Q_{h_{1990}, r}$ , for  $r = 1, 2$ , and use the sampled state  $r$  for prediction through  $f(\log(R/E) \mid \log(E_{1992}); G_r^L)$ . Prediction for years 1993 – 1995 proceeds in an analogous fashion, and the general approach is similar for prediction under model  $\mathcal{M}2$ . Since this occurs at each MCMC iteration, we are averaging over uncertainty in both  $h_{199*}$  and the  $G_r^L$ . The results are shown in Figure 4, and it can be seen that the introduction of PDO as an external covariate leads to subtle changes in conditional predictive information. In particular, the predictions for year 1991 benefit from additional information about the regime state in this year (and in the preceding three years), resulting in a conditional response density for model  $\mathcal{M}2$  that is both more accurate and less dispersed than the one obtained under model  $\mathcal{M}1$ . As the first-order Markov model is only informative in relatively short-term prediction, distributions corresponding to both models become fairly diffuse in later years. However, model  $\mathcal{M}2$  assigned consistently higher one-step-ahead mean conditional probability at the true log reproductive success values, and the average total log probability assigned to observations from 1991 – 1995 was  $-8.2$  for model  $\mathcal{M}2$  against only  $-8.6$  for model  $\mathcal{M}1$ .

The inference results reported in Figure 4 illustrate the posterior variability and non-standard shapes of the predicted conditional response densities. The quantification of this variability as well as the capacity of the DP mixture switching regression models to capture non-standard features of the response distribution are important aspects of the proposed nonparametric modeling framework.

## 5 Conclusion

We have presented a general framework for semiparametric hidden Markov switching regression. While the basic switching DP mixture regression methodology provides a powerful modeling technique in its own right, we feel that it is most practically important when combined with further parametric modeling for the effect of external covariates on state membership. Both modeling techniques, with or without external covariates, have been illustrated with the analysis of stock-recruitment data.

The general approach of having informative parametric modeling linked with nonparametric models through an underlying hidden stochastic process is both theoretically appealing and practically powerful. We believe that there is great potential for such models, since they provide an efficient way to bridge the difference in scale between two observed processes, and the MCMC algorithms presented in this paper can be the basis for extended techniques in other settings.

We have focused on models for switching regression, but the methodology is applicable in more general settings involving hidden Markov model structure. In particular, since the switching occurs at the level of the joint distribution for response and covariates, the modeling approach is directly applicable to nonparametric density es-

timization through DP mixtures of multivariate normals for heterogeneous populations where switching between subpopulations occurs as a Markov chain. Furthermore, the modeling framework can be elaborated for problems where the multivariate normal is not a suitable choice for the DP mixture kernel. For instance, categorical covariates can be accommodated through mixed continuous-discrete kernels. Finally, our work in the development of the MCMC algorithm can be extended to incorporate stick-breaking priors other than the DP.

## Appendix A: Prior Specification

Here, we discuss the approach to prior specification for the hyperparameters of model  $\mathcal{M}1$  developed in Section 2.2.

Our approach is motivated by a setting where prior information is available on the state vector  $\mathbf{h}$ , and the  $\lambda_r$  parameters of  $\pi(Q_r)$  are chosen based on prior expectation for the probabilities of moving from state  $r$  to each state in a single time step. However, this prior information pertains only to the transition probabilities between states and does not fully identify the state components. Thus, we need to provide enough information to facilitate identification of the mixture components and ensure that the transition probabilities defined by  $\mathbf{Q}$  refer to the intended states. On the other hand, the nonparametric regression is motivated by a desire to allow flexible inference about each regression component and we thus seek a more automatic prior specification for each  $\psi_r$ .

Within the framework of our DP mixture implied conditional regression, it is possible to have each state-specific centering distribution,  $G_0(\psi_r)$ , associate the densities  $\int N(\mathbf{z}; \mu, \Sigma) dG_r(\mu, \Sigma)$  with specific regions of the joint response-covariate space, without putting prior information on the shape of the conditional response density or regression curve within each region. Since the prior parameters  $m_r$  and  $V_r$  control the location of the normal kernels, the hyperparameters  $a_{m_r}$ ,  $B_{m_r}$ ,  $a_{V_r}$ , and  $B_{V_r}$  can be used to express prior belief about the state-specific joint response-covariate distributions. Specifically, assume a prior guess for the mean and covariance matrix corresponding to the population for state  $r$ , where prior information for the covariance may only be available in the form of a diagonal matrix. Then, we can set  $a_{m_r}$  equal to the prior mean,  $B_{m_r}$  to the prior covariance, and choose  $a_{V_r}$  and  $B_{V_r}$  such that  $\mathbb{E}[V_r]$  is equal to the prior covariance (alternatively,  $\mathbb{E}[V_r^{-1}]$  can be set equal to the inverse of the prior covariance matrix and we have observed the method to be robust to either specification). In the absence of such prior information, one can use a data-dependent prior specification technique. Given a prior allocation of observations expressed as the state vector  $\mathbf{h}^\pi = (h_1^\pi, \dots, h_T^\pi)$ , each set  $\{a_{m_r}, B_{m_r}, B_{V_r}\}$  can be specified through the mean and covariance of the data subset  $\{\mathbf{z}_t : h_t^\pi = r\}$ . In particular,  $a_{m_r}$  is set to the state-specific data mean and both  $B_{m_r}$  and  $\mathbb{E}[V_r] = (a_{V_r} - d - 1)^{-1} B_{V_r}$  are set to the state-specific data covariance. With care taken to ensure that it does not overly restrict the component locations, this approach provides an automatic prior specification that combines strong state allocation beliefs with weak information about the state-specific regression functions.

For the  $S_r$  we seek only to scale the mixture components to the data, and thus we set all the  $\mathbb{E}(S_r) = a_{S_r} B_{S_r}$  equal to a diagonal matrix with each diagonal entry a quarter of the full data range for the respective dimension. The precision parameters  $a_{V_r}$ ,  $a_{S_r}$ , and  $\nu_r$ , for  $r = 1, \dots, R$ , are set to values slightly larger than  $d + 2$ ; in practice, we have found  $2(d + 1)$  to work well. Working with various data sets, including the one in Section 4, we have observed results to be insensitive to reasonable changes in this specification. In particular, experimentation with a variety of choices for the matrices  $B_{S_r}$ , indicating prior expectation of either more or less diffuse normal kernel components, resulted in robust posterior inference.

Specification of the hyperpriors on DP precision parameters is facilitated by the role that each  $\alpha_r$  plays in the prior distribution for the number of unique components in the set of  $n_r$  latent mixing parameters  $\theta_t = (\mu_t, \Sigma_t)$  corresponding to state  $r$ . For a given  $n_r$  (i.e., conditional on  $\mathbf{h}$ ), we can use results from Antoniak (1974) to explore properties of this prior for different  $\alpha_r$  values. For instance, the prior expected number of unique components in the set  $\{\theta_t : h_t = r\}$  is approximately  $\alpha_r \log[(n_r + \alpha_r)/\alpha_r]$ , and this expression may be used to guide prior intuition about the  $\alpha_r$ .

## Appendix B: MCMC Posterior Simulation

Here, we develop the approach to MCMC posterior simulation discussed in Section 3. Recall that the key to the finite stick-breaking algorithm is that we are able to use forward-backward recursive sampling of the posterior conditional distribution for  $\mathbf{h}$  as described in Section 3.1. Gibbs sampling details for all other parameters of model (4) are provided below.

First, for each  $t = 1, \dots, T$ ,  $k_t$  has a discrete posterior full conditional distribution with values in  $\{1, \dots, L\}$  and corresponding probabilities  $\omega_{l,h_t} \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{z}_t; \tilde{\theta}_{l,h_t}) / \sum_{m=1}^L \omega_{m,h_t} \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{z}_t; \tilde{\theta}_{m,h_t})$ , for  $l = 1, \dots, L$ .

For each  $r = 1, \dots, R$ , the posterior full conditional distribution for  $\omega_r$ , is proportional to  $\mathcal{P}_L(\omega_r | 1, \alpha_r) \prod_{\{t:h_t=r\}} \left( \sum_{l=1}^L \omega_{l,r} \delta_l(k_t) \right) = \mathcal{P}_L(\omega_r | 1, \alpha_r) \prod_{l=1}^L \omega_{l,r}^{M_{l,r}}$ , where  $M_{l,r} = |\{t : h_t = r, k_t = l\}|$ . Note that the  $\mathcal{P}_L(\omega_r | 1, \alpha_r)$  prior for  $\omega_r$ , defined constructively in (3), is given by

$$\mathcal{P}_L(\omega_r | 1, \alpha_r) = \alpha_r^{L-1} \omega_{L,r}^{\alpha_r-1} (1 - \omega_{1,r})^{-1} (1 - (\omega_{1,r} + \omega_{2,r}))^{-1} \dots \left( 1 - \sum_{l=1}^{L-2} \omega_{l,r} \right)^{-1}. \tag{B.1}$$

Recall the *generalized Dirichlet distribution*  $\mathcal{GD}(\mathbf{p}; \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})$  (Connor and Mosimann 1969) for random vector  $\mathbf{p} = (p_1, \dots, p_L)$ , supported on the  $L$  dimensional simplex, with density proportional to  $p_1^{\mathbf{a}_1-1} \dots p_{L-1}^{\mathbf{a}_{L-1}-1} p_L^{\mathbf{b}_{L-1}-1} (1 - p_1)^{\mathbf{b}_1-(\mathbf{a}_2+\mathbf{b}_2)} \dots (1 - (p_1 + \dots + p_{L-2}))^{\mathbf{b}_{L-2}-(\mathbf{a}_{L-1}+\mathbf{b}_{L-1})}$ , where the parameters are  $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, \dots, a_{L-1})$  and  $\mathbf{b} = (b_1, \dots, b_{L-1})$ . Then,  $\mathcal{P}_L(\omega_r | 1, \alpha_r) \equiv \mathcal{GD}(\omega_r; \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})$  with  $\mathbf{a} = (1, \dots, 1)$  and  $\mathbf{b} = (\alpha_r, \dots, \alpha_r)$ . Moreover, the  $\prod_{l=1}^L \omega_{l,r}^{M_{l,r}}$  form is also proportional to a  $\mathcal{GD}(\omega_r; \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})$  distribution with  $\mathbf{a} = (M_{1,r} + 1, \dots, M_{L-1,r} + 1)$  and  $\mathbf{b} = ((L - 1) + \sum_{l=2}^L M_{l,r}, \dots, 2 + M_{L-1,r} + M_{L,r}, 1 +$

$M_{L,r}$ ). Hence, the posterior full conditional for  $\omega_r$  can be completed to a generalized Dirichlet distribution with parameters  $\mathbf{a} = (M_{1,r} + 1, \dots, M_{L-1,r} + 1)$  and  $\mathbf{b} = (\alpha_r + \sum_{l=2}^L M_{l,r}, \alpha_r + \sum_{l=3}^L M_{l,r}, \dots, \alpha_r + M_{L,r})$ . This distribution can be sampled constructively by first drawing independent  $\zeta_l \sim \beta(1 + M_{l,r}, \alpha_r + \sum_{s=l+1}^L M_{s,r})$ , for  $l = 1, \dots, L-1$ , and then setting  $\omega_{1,r} = \zeta_1$ ;  $\omega_{l,r} = \zeta_l \prod_{s=1}^{l-1} (1 - \zeta_s)$ ,  $l = 2, \dots, L-1$ ; and  $\omega_{L,r} = 1 - \sum_{l=1}^{L-1} \omega_{l,r}$ .

Next, for each  $r = 1, \dots, R$ , the posterior full conditional distribution for  $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_r$  is proportional to  $\prod_{l=1}^L dG_0(\tilde{\theta}_{l,r}; \psi_r) \prod_{j=1}^{n_r^*} \prod_{\{t: h_t=r, k_t=k_j^*\}} \text{N}(\mathbf{z}_t; \tilde{\theta}_{k_j^*,r})$ . Here,  $n_r^*$  is the number of distinct values of the  $k_t$  that correspond to the  $r$ -th state, i.e., the number of distinct  $k_t$  for  $t \in \{t : h_t = r\}$ . These distinct values are denoted by  $k_j^*$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, n_r^*$ . Now, for all  $l \notin \{k_j^* : j = 1, \dots, n_r^*\}$ , we can draw  $\tilde{\theta}_{l,r}$  i.i.d.  $G_0(\psi_r)$ . Otherwise, the posterior full conditional for  $\tilde{\theta}_{k_j^*,r} \equiv (\tilde{\mu}_{j,r}^*, \tilde{\Sigma}_{j,r}^*)$  is proportional to

$$\text{N}(\tilde{\mu}_{j,r}^*; m_r, V_r) \text{W}_{\nu_r}(\tilde{\Sigma}_{j,r}^{*-1}; S_r^{-1}) \prod_{\{t: h_t=r, k_t=k_j^*\}} \text{N}(\mathbf{z}_t; \tilde{\mu}_{j,r}^*, \tilde{\Sigma}_{j,r}^*),$$

and can be sampled by extending the Gibbs sampler to draw from the full conditional for  $\tilde{\mu}_{j,r}^*$  and for  $\tilde{\Sigma}_{j,r}^{*-1}$ . The former is normal with covariance matrix  $T_j = (V_r^{-1} + M_{j,r}^* \tilde{\Sigma}_{j,r}^{*-1})^{-1}$ , where  $M_{j,r}^* = |\{t : h_t = r, k_t = k_j^*\}|$ , and mean vector  $T_j(V_r^{-1} m_r + \tilde{\Sigma}_{j,r}^{*-1} \sum_{\{t: h_t=r, k_t=k_j^*\}} \mathbf{z}_t)$ . The latter is  $\text{W}_{\nu_r + M_{j,r}^*}(\cdot; (S_r + \sum_{\{t: h_t=r, k_t=k_j^*\}} (\mathbf{z}_t - \tilde{\mu}_{j,r}^*)(\mathbf{z}_t - \tilde{\mu}_{j,r}^*)^T)^{-1})$ .

The posterior full conditional for the hyperparameters,  $\psi_r = (m_r, V_r, S_r)$ , can be simplified by marginalizing the joint posterior full conditional for  $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_r$  and  $\psi_r$  over all the  $\tilde{\theta}_{l,r}$  for  $l \notin \{k_j^* : j = 1, \dots, n_r^*\}$ . Thus, for each  $r = 1, \dots, R$ , the full conditional for  $\psi_r$  is proportional to

$$\text{N}(m_r; a_{m_r}, B_{m_r}) \text{W}_{a_{V_r}}(V_r^{-1}; B_{V_r}^{-1}) \text{W}_{a_{S_r}}(S_r; B_{S_r}) \prod_{j=1}^{n_r^*} \text{N}(\tilde{\mu}_{j,r}^*; m_r, V_r) \text{W}_{\nu_r}(\tilde{\Sigma}_{j,r}^{*-1}; S_r^{-1}).$$

Hence,  $\psi_r$  can be updated by separate draws from the posterior full conditionals for  $m_r$ ,  $V_r$ , and  $S_r$ . The full conditional for  $m_r$  is normal with covariance matrix  $B'_{m_r} = (B_{m_r}^{-1} + n_r^* V_r^{-1})^{-1}$  and mean vector  $B'_{m_r} (B_{m_r}^{-1} a_{m_r} + V_r^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n_r^*} \tilde{\mu}_{j,r}^*)$ . The full conditional for  $V_r^{-1}$  is  $\text{W}_{n_r^* + a_{V_r}}(\cdot; (B_{V_r} + \sum_{j=1}^{n_r^*} (\tilde{\mu}_{j,r}^* - m_r)(\tilde{\mu}_{j,r}^* - m_r)^T)^{-1})$ , and the full conditional for  $S_r$  is  $\text{W}_{\nu_r n_r^* + a_{S_r}}(\cdot; (B_{S_r}^{-1} + \sum_{j=1}^{n_r^*} \tilde{\Sigma}_{j,r}^{*-1})^{-1})$ .

Regarding the DP precision parameters, combining the  $\Gamma(a_{\alpha_r}, b_{\alpha_r})$  prior for  $\alpha_r$  with the relevant terms from (B.1), we obtain that, for each  $r = 1, \dots, R$ , the posterior full conditional for  $\alpha_r$  is a  $\Gamma(a_{\alpha_r} + L - 1, -\log(\omega_{L,r}) + b_{\alpha_r})$  distribution.

Finally, with the  $\text{Dir}(Q_r; \lambda_r)$  prior on each row  $Q_r$  of the transition matrix  $\mathbf{Q}$ , the posterior full conditional for  $Q_r$  is  $\text{Dir}(Q_r; \lambda_r + J_r)$ , where  $J_r = (J_{r,1}, \dots, J_{r,R})$  with  $J_{r,s}$  denoting the number of transitions from state  $r$  to state  $s$ , which are defined by the currently imputed state vector  $\mathbf{h}$ .

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