# Statistical methods for linguistic research: Advanced Tools

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August 9, 2015

#### Today's goals

In this lecture, my goal is to

- present two simple examples of how linear mixed models can be fit in JAGS.
- 2 show you how the same models could be fit in Stan
- 3 show you how to scale up to more complex models.

Step 1: Set up data

Set up data for JAGS (and Stan). The data must be a list containing vectors.

Step 1: Set up data

#### Step 2: Define model

1 We literally write out the model that is assumed to have generated the data:

$$RT_{i} = \beta_{0} + u_{0j} + w_{0k} + (\beta_{1} + u_{1j} + w_{1k})x_{i} + \varepsilon_{i}$$
 (1)

$$\begin{pmatrix} u_{0j} \\ u_{1j} \end{pmatrix} \sim N \begin{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \Sigma_u \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} w_{0k} \\ w_{1k} \end{pmatrix} \sim N \begin{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \Sigma_w \end{pmatrix} \quad (2)$$

$$\varepsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$
 (3)

2 We will also need to define priors for the parameters  $\beta_0, \beta_1, \Sigma_u, \Sigma_w, \sigma$ .

#### Variance vs Precision

As discussed earlier, in JAGS, instead of variance, we talk about precision, which is the **inverse** of variance. So we can write the variance components as follows.

$$\begin{pmatrix} u_{0j} \\ u_{1j} \end{pmatrix} \sim N \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \Omega_u \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} w_{0k} \\ w_{1k} \end{pmatrix} \sim N \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \Omega_w \end{pmatrix} \tag{4}$$

$$\varepsilon_i \sim N(0, \tau^2)$$
 (5)

Here,  $\Omega_u = \Sigma_u^{-1}$ ,  $\Omega_w = \Sigma_w^{-1}$ , and  $\tau = \frac{1}{\sigma^2}$ .  $\Sigma_u^{-1}$  is the **inverse** of  $\Sigma_u$ , and yields a precision matrix. We will define priors on the precision matrix rather than the variance-covariance matrix.

#### Looking ahead

Our goal will be to determine the **posterior distribution** of  $\beta_1$ , which is the estimate of the effect of relative clause type. Gibson and Wu expect  $\beta_1$  to be negative and significantly different from 0. To anticipate the result, using a uniform prior for  $\beta_1$ , what we will get (in the **reciprocal rt** scale) is:

# Posterior distribution Posterior distribution

 $\beta_1$ 

#### Step 2: Define model

}

First, write out how the data are assumed to be generated.

$$\mu_i = \beta_0 + u_{0j} + w_{0k} + (\beta_1 + u_{1j} + w_{1k}) x_i$$
 (6)

$$rrt_i \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma_e^2)$$
 (7)

```
# Define model for each observational unit
    for( i in 1:N )
    mu[i] \leftarrow (beta[1] + u[subj[i],1] + w[item[i],1])
+ (beta[2] + u[subj[i],2] + w[item[i],2]) * (x[i])
    rrt[i] ~ dnorm( mu[i], tau.e )
```

Step 2: Define model

$$\begin{pmatrix} u_{0j} \\ u_{1j} \end{pmatrix} \sim N \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \Sigma_u \end{pmatrix} \quad \Omega_u = \Sigma_u^{-1}$$
 (8)

```
data
{    zero[1] <- 0
    zero[2] <- 0
}
    # Intercept and slope for each subj
    for( j in 1:J )
{
    u[j,1:2] ~ dmnorm(zero,Omega.u)
}</pre>
```

Step 2: Define model

```
\binom{w_{0k}}{w_{1k}} \sim N \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \Sigma_w \end{pmatrix} \quad \Omega_w = \Sigma_w^{-1} 
# Intercept and slope for each item for (k in 1:K)
\{ w[k,1:2] \quad \text{dmnorm(zero,Omega.w)} \}
```

Step 2: Define model (priors for fixed effect coefficients)

$$eta_0 \sim \textit{N}(\mu = 0, \sigma^2 = 1.0 \times 10^5) \quad eta_1 \sim \textit{N}(\mu = 0, \sigma^2 = 1.0 \times 10^5)$$
 (10)

Recall that in JAGS  $\sigma^2$  is expressed as precision  $\tau = \frac{1}{\sigma^2}$ :

```
# Priors:
# Fixed intercept and slope (weakly informative)
beta[1] ~ dnorm(0.0,1.0E-5)
beta[2] ~ dnorm(0.0,1.0E-5)
```

These priors express a belief that the  $\beta$  are likely to be centered around 0 (Note: not reasonable for  $\beta_0$ ), but that we are very unsure about this.

Step 2: Define model (priors for variance components)

$$\sigma^2 \sim \textit{Uniform}(0,100)$$
 (11)

```
# Residual variance
tau.e <- sigma.e^(-2)
sigma.e ~ dunif(0,100)</pre>
```

Note: in JAGS, another way to write sigma.e to the power of -2 is

```
pow(sigma.e,-2)
```

#### Step 2: Define model (priors for variance components)

- $\Sigma_u$  and  $\Sigma_w$  can be expressed as precision matrices by inverting them:  $\Sigma_u^{-1} = \Omega_u$  and  $\Sigma_w^{-1} = \Omega_w$ .
- We will define a Wishart distribution as a prior for  $\Omega_u$  and  $\Omega_w$ .
- The Wishart is the multivariate version of the gamma distribution and is a reasonable prior for precision matrices (see references at the end of these slides for more details).
- The prior will be Wishart(R,2), where R is an initial guess at a variance-covariance matrix, and 2 is the number of dimensions of the matrix:

$$\Omega_u \sim Wishart(R_u, 2)$$
  
 $\Omega_w \sim Wishart(R_w, 2)$ 

Step 2: Define model (priors for variance components)

The steps for defining the prior for the precision matrix are:

- **1** State that  $\Omega_u \sim Wishart(R_u, 2)$
- **3** Define priors for each parameter used to build u  $R_u$ :

$$R_{u} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{u0}^{2} & \rho_{u} \sigma_{u0} \sigma_{u1} \\ \rho_{u} \sigma_{u0} \sigma_{u1} & \sigma_{u1}^{2} \end{bmatrix}$$
 (12)

- 1  $\sigma_{u0} \sim Uniform(0,10)$
- $\sigma_{\rm u1} \sim Uniform(0,10)$
- $\rho_u \sim Uniform(-1,1).$

#### Step 2: Define model (priors for variance components)

```
## Prior on precision:
Omega.u ~ dwish(R.u, 2)
## Fill in R matrix:
R.u[1,1] <- sigma.a^2
R.u[2,2] \leftarrow sigma.b^2
R.u[1,2] <- rho.u*sigma.a*sigma.b
R.u[2,1] <- rho.u*sigma.a*sigma.b
## Prior for varying intercepts sd:
sigma.a ~ dunif(0,10)
## prior for varying slopes sd:
sigma.b ~ dunif(0,10)
## prior for correlation:
rho.u \sim dunif(-1,1)
```

Step 2: Define model

See R code accompanying these lectures for full model specification in JAGS.

#### Step 3: Fit model

Decide which variables you want to track the posterior distribution of.

```
library(rjags)
## Linked to JAGS 3.4.0
## Loaded modules: basemod, bugs
```

Step 3: Fit model

```
headnoun.mod <- jags.model(
  file="gwmaximal.jag",
  data = headnoun.dat,
  n.chains = 4,
  n.adapt =2000 , quiet=T)</pre>
```

Step 4: Generate posterior samples

Step 4: Generate posterior samples

summary(headnoun.res)

```
##
## Iterations = 2001:12000
## Thinning interval = 1
## Number of chains = 4
## Sample size per chain = 10000
##
   1. Empirical mean and standard deviation for each varial
##
     plus standard error of the mean:
##
##
              Mean
                    SD Naive SE Time-series SE
## beta[1] -2.66798 0.15240 0.0007620
                                         0.0037267
```

## beta[2] -0.03842 0.05028 0.0002514 0.0004237

## rho u = 0.26636 0.50929 0.0025464

0 0120320

Step 4: Generate posterior samples

```
## not plotted
#plot(headnoun.res)
```

#### Frequentist LMM

Comparison with Imer

```
m0<-lmer(rrt~x + (1+x|subj)+(1+x|item),headnoun)
m1<-lmer(rrt~x + (1+x|subj)+(1|item),headnoun)
m2<-lmer(rrt~x + (1|subj)+(1|item),headnoun)</pre>
```

#### Frequentist LMM

Comparison with Imer

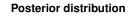
```
anova(m1,m2)
## refitting model(s) with ML (instead of REML)
## Data: headnoun
## Models:
## m2: rrt ~ x + (1 | subj) + (1 | item)
## m1: rrt ~ x + (1 + x | subj) + (1 | item)
## Df AIC BIC logLik deviance Chisq Chi Df Pr(>Chisq)
## m2 5 1603.5 1625.0 -796.76 1593.5
## m1 7 1605.6 1635.7 -795.78 1591.6 1.9509 2 0.377
```

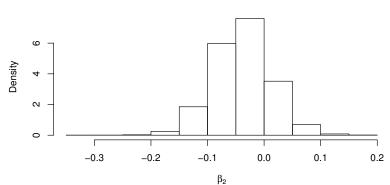
#### Frequentist LMM

Comparison with Imer

```
summary(m0)$coef[2,1] - 2 * summary(m0)$coef[2,2]
## [1] -0.1316779
summary(m0)$coef[2,1] + 2 * summary(m0)$coef[2,2]
## [1] 0.0540964
```

Step 5: Inference





Step 5: Inference

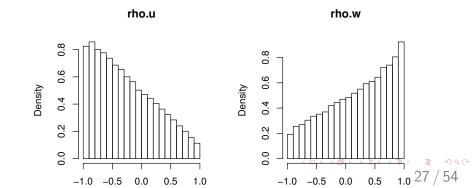
```
mean(mcmcChain[,2]<0)
## [1] 0.78535
```

Bayesian LMMs using JAGS

#### Bayesian LMM

Step 5: Inference

```
op<-par(mfrow=c(1,2),pty="s")
hist(mcmcChain[,3],freq=F,main="rho.u")
hist(mcmcChain[,4],freq=F,main="rho.w")</pre>
```



Step 5: Inference

```
## posterior probability of beta_1 < 0
## given data:
(meanbeta1<-mean(mcmcChain[,2]<0))
## [1] 0.78535</pre>
```

The conclusion here is that Gibson and Wu's claim seems to be weakly supported by the data: there is a 0.79 probability of  $\beta_1$  being less than 0.

Lack of power (here, small sample size) and replicability are still the key issues.

#### Checking convergence:

- The Gelman-Rubin (or Brooks-Gelman-Rubin) diagnostic involves sampling from multiple chains and then comparing between and within group variability. It's analogous to the F-score in anova.
- Within variance is represented by the mean width of the 95% posterior Credible Intervals (CrI) of all chains, from the final T iterations.
- Between variance is represented by the width of the 95% CrI using all chains pooled together (for the T iterations). If the ratio  $\hat{R} = B/W$  is approximately 1, we have convergence.

Checking convergence:

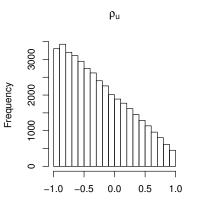
```
gelman.diag(headnoun.res)
## Potential scale reduction factors:
##
##
         Point est. Upper C.I.
## beta[1]
                     1.00
               1.00
## beta[2]
              1.00
                      1.00
## rho.u
              1.01
                      1.02
            1.00
                     1.01
## rho.w
                     1.00
## sigma.a 1.00
              1.02 1.07
## sigma.b
## sigma.c
              1.00
                        1.00
## sigma.d
              1.01
                      1.03
## sigma.e
               1.00
                        1.00
44
```

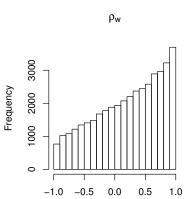
# Comparison of Imer and JAGS fit

Parameter estimate	lmer	JAGS
$\hat{eta}_0$	-2.67 (0.14)	-2.68 (0.13)
$\hat{\beta}_1$	-0.08 (0.10)	-0.08 (0.10)
$\hat{\sigma}_{subj,int}$	0.61	0.78
$\hat{\sigma}_{subj,sl}$	0.23	0.20
$\hat{ ho}_{ extstyle subj}$	-0.51	-0.09 (0.55)
$\hat{\sigma}_{item,int}$	0.33	0.39
$\hat{\sigma}_{item,sl}$	0.10	0.19
$\hat{ ho}_{item}$	1.00*	-0.11 (0.58)

<sup>\*</sup> degenerate var-cov matrix, one reason why you should not fit a maximal model here with Imer.

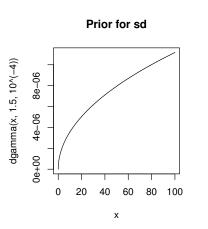
#### The posterior distributions of the correlations

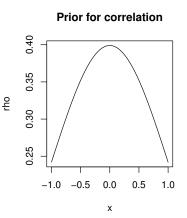




#### What to do about $\pm 1$ correlation estimates?

Suggestion from Chung et al (unpublished MS)





Model with regularization for correlation

The only innovation now is to have more informative priors for correlations.

We write a new model (see gwmaximal2.jag in accompanying R code).

Run model

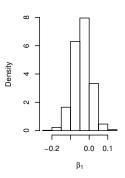
```
headnoun.mod2 <- jags.model(
  file="gwmaximal2.jag",
  data = headnoun.dat,
  n.chains = 4,
  n.adapt =2000 , quiet=T)</pre>
```

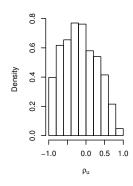
Generate posterior samples

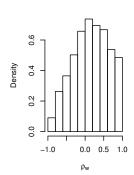
Plot posterior distributions

You would need to have a lot of data to shift the posterior for the  $\rho$  away from 0, but you could do that, in principle.

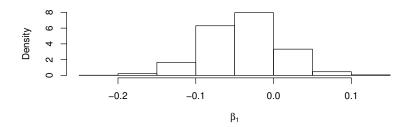
#### Plot posterior distributions







Probability of  $eta_1 < 0$ 



Probability of  $\beta_1 < 0$ 

```
mean(MCMCchain[,2]<0)
## [1] 0.8075
```

Thus, given this data-set, there is some reason to believe that  $\beta_1$  is less than 0, as predicted by Gibson and Wu.

# Comparison of Imer and JAGS fit (model 2)

Parameter estimate	lmer	JAGS
$\hat{eta}_0$	-2.67 (0.14)	-2.69 (0.11)
$\hat{eta}_1$	-0.08 (0.10)	-0.09 (0.10)
$\hat{\sigma}_{subj,int}$	0.61	0.02
$\hat{\sigma}_{subj,sl}$	0.23	0.01
$\hat{ ho}_{subj}$	-0.51	-0.02 (0.47)
$\hat{\sigma}_{item,int}$	0.33	0.01
$\hat{\sigma}_{item,sl}$	0.10	0.01
$\hat{ ho}_{item}$	1.00*	-0.07 (0.49)

<sup>\*</sup> degenerate var-cov matrix

### Why ignore prior knowledge?

Suppose (just hypothetically) that you have good reason to believe (based on theory or data) that

$$eta_1 \sim N(\mu = 0.10, \sigma^2 = 0.10^2)$$

We can take this prior knowledge into account in the model by simply making this our prior for  $\beta_1$ .

Here, the probability that  $\beta_1 < 0$  given the data is only:

```
mean(MCMCchain[,2]<0)
## [1] 0.6375
```

Of course, with enough data, you could in principle shift the posterior distribution in either direction, i.e., change your belief in the face of enough evidence!

### Meta-analyses

The controversy about Chinese relative clauses

source	coef.	SE	n	method
Gibson Wu 2012	-123.20	46.84	36	SPR
Vasishth et al 2013 expt 3	-109.40	54.80	40	SPR
Lin et al 2011 expt 1	-100.00	30.00	48	SPR
Lin et al 2011 expt 2	-30.00	32.05	40	SPR
Qiao et al 2012 expt 2	-28.00	23.80	24	LMaze
Qiao et al 2012 expt 1	-16.00	44.26	32	GMaze
Wu et al 2011	50.00	40.00	48	SPR
Hsiao and Gibson 2003	50.00	25.00	35	SPR
Wu et al 2009	50.00	23.00	40	SPR
Jaeger et al 2013 expt 1	55.62	65.14	49	SPR
Chen et al 2008	75.00	35.50	39	SPR
Jaeger et al 2013 expt 2	81.92	36.25	49	ET
Vasishth et al 2013 expt 2	82.60	41.20	61	SPR
Vasishth et al 2013 expt 1	148.50	50.90	60	SPR

#### A Bayesian meta-analysis

- **1** Let  $Y_i$  be the effect size in the i-th study, where i ranges from 1 to k (here, k=14). The unit is milliseconds; a positive sign means a subject relative advantage and a negative sign an object relative advantage.
- **2** Let *d* be the underlying effect size, to be estimated by the model.
- 3 Let  $v_i^2$  be the estimated within-study variance.
- 4 Then, our model is:

$$Y_i \sim N(\delta_i, v_i^2) \quad i = 1, \dots, k \tag{13}$$

where

$$\delta_i \sim N(d, \tau^2) \quad i = 1, \dots, k$$
 (14)

The variance parameter  $\tau^2$  represents between study variance. The prior for  $\sqrt{\tau}$  could be a uniform distribution, or in inverse gamma 4 / 54

#### A Bayesian meta-analysis

Plausible values of the subject/object relative clause advantage can be assumed to range between -300 and 300 ms. But we will assume three different levels of uncertainty: The 95% credible intervals are

$$(-1.96 \times 100, 1.96 \times 100) = (-196, 196);$$

$$(-1.96 \times 200, 1.96 \times 200) = (-392, 392);$$
 and

$$(-1.96 \times 300, 1.96 \times 300) = (-588, 588).$$

We therefore try three priors for d:  $N(0, \sigma^2)$ , with  $\sigma = 100, 200, 300$ . These priors correspond to an agnostic starting point with increasing levels of uncertainty about the range of plausible values for the relative clause processing difference.

#### Analysis with all the data

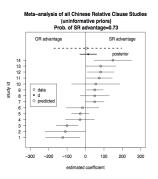


Figure 2: Meta-analysis with all data,  $d\sim N(0,1/300^2)$  and  $\tau\sim Ga(0.001,0.001).$ 

#### Analysis using existing data as prior

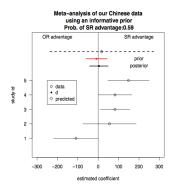


Figure 3: Evaluation of my data using posterior of previous data as my prior.

Concluding remarks

Given existing evidence, even believers in the object-relative advantage for Chinese would have to be skeptical about their belief: Prob(Object Relative Advantage | data)=0.41 to 0.27, depending on what prior we have.

Two key advantages of Bayesian LMMs in this example are that

- We can assign a probability to our belief given the data.
  Quantifying uncertainty is the central goal, not a binary reject-accept decision.
- 2 We can use prior knowledge in our analyses.

## Fitting LMMs of greater complexity, using Stan

I will discuss the following papers if there is time:

- Sorensen, Hohenstein, Vasishth, Bayesian Linear Mixed Models using Stan: A tutorial for psychologists, linguists, and cognitive scientists http://www.ling.unipotsdam.de/∼vasishth/statistics/BayesLMMs.html
- 2 Bates, Kliegl, Vasishth, Baayen, Parsimonious Mixed Models. ArXiv preprint: http://arxiv.org/abs/1506.04967

# Our articles using Stan or JAGS

- Dario Paape and Shravan Vasishth. Local coherence and preemptive digging-in effects in German. Language and Speech, 2015. Accepted pending minor revisions.
- 2 Samar Husain, Shravan Vasishth, and Narayanan Srinivasan. Integration and prediction difficulty in Hindi sentence comprehension: Evidence from an eye-tracking corpus. Journal of Eye Movement Research, 8(2):1-12, 2015.
- Stefan L. Frank, Thijs Trompenaars, and Shravan Vasishth. Cross-linguistic differences in processing double-embedded relative clauses: Working-memory constraints or language statistics? submitted, 2015.
- 4 Samar Husain, Shravan Vasishth, and Narayanan Srinivasan. Strong Expectations Cancel Locality Effects: Evidence from Hindi. PLoS ONE, 9(7):1-14, 2014.
- 5 Philip Hofmeister and Shravan Vasishth. Distinctiveness and encoding effects in online sentence comprehension. page n/a, 2014. accepted in Frontiers Special Issue, http://journal.frontiersin.org/ResearchTopic/1545
- Shravan Vasishth, Zhong Chen, Qiang Li, and Gueilan Guo. Processing Chinese Relative Clauses: Evidence for the Subject-Relative Advantage. PLoS ONE, 8(10):1-14, 10 2013.

## Recommended reading

- Lynch SM (2007) Introduction to applied Bayesian statistics and estimation for social scientists. Springer.
- 2 Lunn et al. (2012) The BUGS book: A practical introduction to Bayesian analysis. CRC Press.
- Gelman A, & Hill J (2007) Data analysis using regression and multilevel/hierarchical models. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Lee, M.D., & Wagenmakers, E.-J. (2013). Bayesian Cognitive Modeling: A Practical Course. Cambridge University Press. http://faculty.sites.uci.edu/mdlee/bgm/
- Gelman, A., Carlin, J. B., Stern, H. S., & Rubin, D. B. (2014). Bayesian data analysis (Vol. 2). London: Chapman & Hall/CRC.

You can also get a lot of help from the JAGS and Stan mailing lists.

#### In closing

- Don't be seduced by the illusion that computing p-values ≠ doing science.
- 2 The first goal is to build a reasonable model for the data at hand. Inference is the next step.
- 3 Aim for high power and replicability above all else.

### In closing

- Don't look for or blindly follow guidelines (except this one!), instead aim for developing understanding of statistical methods.
- 2 It's not about Bayes vs Frequentist methods; both are useful depending on context. When you have a lot of data, Frequentist methods can be adequate. When you have sparse data, Bayesian methods are very powerful.
- If you want flexibility in model specification, the Bayesian approach is the way to go.
- 4 You can of course use Bayesian methods without exception, even for standard models. This is what I do.

#### In closing

"Do the best experiments you can, and always tell the truth. That's all."

Sydney Brenner