Hierarchical (a.k.a. Multilevel) Modeling

Joachim Vandekerckhove Spring 2025

Hierarchical modeling

A statistical framework for data with **dependencies** from **group structure**.

Hierarchical modeling

A statistical framework for data with **dependencies** from **group structure**.

- Examples: Students in classrooms, patients in hospitals, trials within participants, stimuli within conditions.
- Observations within the same group are typically correlated (non-independent).
- Standard methods ignore this structure, which can lead to biased estimates and incorrect inferences.

Pooling is a spectrum

Complete pooling (ignore structure) Analyze all data together.

- × Underestimates errors.
- \times Hides true group differences.
- × Doesnť quantify group variability.
- × Unlikely to generalize.

No pooling (separate analyses) Analyze each group separately.

- × Ignores within-group similarities.
- × Inefficient.
- \times Noisy estimates.
- × Impossible to generalize.

Hierarchical models provide a statistically principled compromise with partial pooling.

• Information is adaptively shared across units within populations.

- Information is adaptively shared across units within populations.
- Each unit contributes, weighted by its precision.

- Information is adaptively shared across units within populations.
- Each unit contributes, weighted by its precision.
- "Borrow strength": Units within populations inform each other.

- Information is adaptively shared across units within populations.
- Each unit contributes, weighted by its precision.
- "Borrow strength": Units within populations inform each other.
- Improves individual unit estimates (especially for noisy/small units) with good prior knowledge.

- Information is adaptively shared across units within populations.
- Each unit contributes, weighted by its precision.
- "Borrow strength": Units within populations inform each other.
- Improves individual unit estimates (especially for noisy/small units) with good prior knowledge.
- Simultaneously estimates population-level effects and the extent of variation between participants.

Let $y_{i|j}$ be outcome for observation i in group j, $x_{i|j}$ a predictor.

Let $y_{i|j}$ be outcome for observation i in group j, $x_{i|j}$ a predictor.

• Level 1 (within-group):

$$y_{i|j} = \alpha_j + \beta x_{i|j} + \epsilon_{i|j}$$
, with $\epsilon_{i|j} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_y^2)$

Intercept α_j varies by participant, while slope β is fixed (common).

Let $y_{i|j}$ be outcome for observation i in group j, $x_{i|j}$ a predictor.

• Level 1 (within-group):

$$y_{i|j} = \alpha_j + \beta x_{i|j} + \epsilon_{i|j}$$
, with $\epsilon_{i|j} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_y^2)$

Intercept α_i varies by participant, while slope β is fixed (common).

• Level 2 (between-group):

$$\alpha_j \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_\alpha, \sigma_\alpha^2)$$

The group intercepts (α_j) are drawn from a population distribution.

- μ_{α} : Population average intercept.
- σ_{α}^2 : Variance of intercepts across participants.

Let $y_{i|j}$ be outcome for observation i in group j, $x_{i|j}$ a predictor.

• Level 1 (within-group):

$$y_{i|j} = \alpha_j + \beta x_{i|j} + \epsilon_{i|j}$$
, with $\epsilon_{i|j} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_y^2)$

Intercept α_i varies by participant, while slope β is fixed (common).

• Level 2 (between-group):

$$\alpha_j \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_\alpha, \sigma_\alpha^2)$$

The group intercepts (α_j) are drawn from a population distribution.

- μ_{α} : Population average intercept.
- σ_{α}^2 : Variance of intercepts across participants.

This structure explicitly models the dependency within populations.

Hierarchical model structure

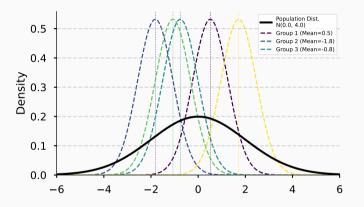


Figure 1: The population distribution (solid black line, representing $N(\mu_{\alpha}, \sigma_{\alpha}^2)$) describes the overall tendency for participant means. Person-specific distributions (dashed colored lines, representing $N(\alpha_j, \sigma_y^2)$ for different j) have means $(\alpha_j, \max_j \alpha_j)$ marked by dotted vertical lines) drawn from the population distribution.

Let $y_{i|j}$ be outcome for observation i in group j, $x_{i|j}$ a predictor.

$$y_{i|j} = \alpha_j + \beta x_{i|j} + \epsilon_{i|j}$$
, with $\epsilon_{i|j} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_y^2)$
 $\alpha_j = \mu_\alpha + u_j$, with $u_j \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_\alpha^2)$

All together: $y_{i|j} = \mu_{\alpha} + \beta x_{i|j} + u_j + \epsilon_{i|j}$

This model has a global intercept (μ_{α}) , a global slope (β) , a participant-specific deviation (u_j) , and a residual error $(\epsilon_{i|j})$.

Terminology

Fixed effects

Parameters that differ between participants and are estimated independently from one another – they do not share free parameters: $\alpha_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1), \alpha_2 \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1), \dots$

7

Terminology

Fixed effects

Parameters that differ between participants and are estimated independently from one another – they do not share free parameters: $\alpha_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1), \alpha_2 \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1), \dots$

Random effects

Parameters that differ between participants but are estimated as an interconnected set – they are affected by shared parameters:

$$\alpha_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_\alpha, \sigma_\alpha^2), \alpha_2 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_\alpha, \sigma_\alpha^2), \dots$$

Terminology

Fixed effects

Parameters that differ between participants and are estimated independently from one another – they do not share free parameters: $\alpha_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1), \alpha_2 \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1), \dots$

Random effects

Parameters that differ between participants but are estimated as an interconnected set – they are affected by shared parameters: $\alpha_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_{\alpha}, \sigma_{\alpha}^2), \alpha_2 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_{\alpha}, \sigma_{\alpha}^2), \dots$

$$(\mu \alpha)^{-1} (\mu \alpha)^{-1} (\mu \alpha)^{-1}$$

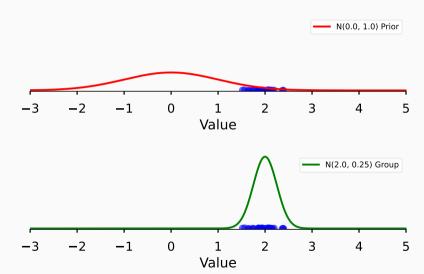
• Variance components

Parameters characterizing variability at different levels:

- Level 1: Residual variance σ_y^2 .
- Level 2: Random effect variances (σ_{α}^2) quantify the magnitude of inter-individual differences.

7

Fixed vs. random effects



Estimates for person-specific parameters (e.g., $\hat{\alpha}_j$) balance two sources of information:

Estimates for person-specific parameters (e.g., $\hat{\alpha}_j$) balance two sources of information:

- 1. From the person's own data (the no-pooling estimate, $\hat{\alpha}_{j,\text{no pool}}$).
- 2. From the overall population distribution (the population mean estimate, $\hat{\mu}_{\alpha}$).

Estimates for person-specific parameters (e.g., $\hat{\alpha}_j$) balance two sources of information:

- 1. From the person's own data (the no-pooling estimate, $\hat{\alpha}_{j,\text{no pool}}$).
- 2. From the overall population distribution (the population mean estimate, $\hat{\mu}_{\alpha}$).

$$\hat{lpha}_{j}pprox w_{j}\hat{lpha}_{j,\mathsf{no}\;\mathsf{pool}}+(1-w_{j})\hat{\mu}_{lpha}$$

Estimates for person-specific parameters (e.g., $\hat{\alpha}_j$) balance two sources of information:

- 1. From the person's own data (the no-pooling estimate, $\hat{\alpha}_{j,\text{no pool}}$).
- 2. From the overall population distribution (the population mean estimate, $\hat{\mu}_{\alpha}$).

$$\hat{lpha}_{j}pprox w_{j}\hat{lpha}_{j,\mathsf{no}\;\mathsf{pool}}+(1-w_{j})\hat{\mu}_{lpha}$$

The weight w_j (or shrinkage factor) depends on precision:

Estimates for person-specific parameters (e.g., $\hat{\alpha}_j$) balance two sources of information:

- 1. From the person's own data (the no-pooling estimate, $\hat{\alpha}_{j,\text{no pool}}$).
- 2. From the overall population distribution (the population mean estimate, $\hat{\mu}_{\alpha}$).

$$\hat{lpha}_{j}pprox w_{j}\hat{lpha}_{j,\mathsf{no\ pool}}+(1-w_{j})\hat{\mu}_{lpha}$$

The weight w_j (or shrinkage factor) depends on precision:

$$w_j pprox rac{ ext{individual precision}}{ ext{population precision} + ext{individual precision}} = rac{1/ ext{Var}(\hat{lpha}_{j, ext{no pool}})}{1/ ext{Var}(\hat{lpha}_{j, ext{no pool}}) + 1/\sigma_{lpha}^2}$$

9

Estimates for person-specific parameters (e.g., $\hat{\alpha}_j$) balance two sources of information:

- 1. From the person's own data (the no-pooling estimate, $\hat{\alpha}_{j,\text{no pool}}$).
- 2. From the overall population distribution (the population mean estimate, $\hat{\mu}_{\alpha}$).

$$\hat{lpha}_{j}pprox w_{j}\hat{lpha}_{j,\mathsf{no\ pool}}+(1-w_{j})\hat{\mu}_{lpha}$$

The weight w_j (or shrinkage factor) depends on precision:

$$w_j pprox rac{ ext{individual precision}}{ ext{population precision} + ext{individual precision}} = rac{1/ ext{Var}(\hat{lpha}_{j, ext{no pool}})}{1/ ext{Var}(\hat{lpha}_{j, ext{no pool}}) + 1/\sigma_{lpha}^2}$$

 $Var(\hat{\alpha}_{j,no\ pool})$ depends on participant sample size n_j and within-participant variance σ_y^2 . Person-specific estimates are **shrunk** towards the population mean.

Adaptive shrinkage

The amount of shrinkage is automatically adaptive and data-dependent:

More shrinkage (towards $\hat{\mu}_{\alpha}$) when:

- Participant has less data / noisy estimate (large $Var(\hat{\alpha}_{j,no pool})$).
- Participants are very similar (small between-participant variance σ_{α}^2).

Adaptive shrinkage

The amount of shrinkage is automatically adaptive and data-dependent:

More shrinkage (towards $\hat{\mu}_{\alpha}$) when:

- Participant has less data / noisy estimate (large $Var(\hat{\alpha}_{j,no pool})$).
- Participants are very similar (small between-participant variance σ_{α}^2).

Less shrinkage (estimate closer to participant's own data) when:

- Participant has more data / precise estimate (small $Var(\hat{\alpha}_{j,no pool})$).
- Participants are very dissimilar (large between-participant variance σ_{α}^2).

Shrinkage visualization

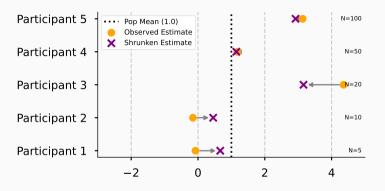


Figure 2: Observed group means (o) are pulled towards the estimated population mean (dashed line). The amount of shrinkage (length of gray arrow) is greater for groups with less data (smaller n_j), resulting in the shrunken estimates (x). The overall population mean estimate itself is informed by all participants.

- Full probability model: Specify the entire structure:
 - Level 1 likelihood: P(Data|Level 1 Params)
 - Level 2 priors: P(Level 1 Params|Level 2 Hyperparams)
 - Hyperpriors: *P*(Level 2 Hyperparams)

- Full probability model: Specify the entire structure:
 - Level 1 likelihood: P(Data|Level 1 Params)
 - Level 2 priors: P(Level 1 Params|Level 2 Hyperparams)
 - Hyperpriors: P(Level 2 Hyperparams)
- **Coherent uncertainty:** Get full posterior distributions for all parameters (fixed effects, random effects, variance components), naturally propagating uncertainty.

- Full probability model: Specify the entire structure:
 - Level 1 likelihood: P(Data|Level 1 Params)
 - Level 2 priors: P(Level 1 Params|Level 2 Hyperparams)
 - Hyperpriors: *P*(Level 2 Hyperparams)
- **Coherent uncertainty:** Get full posterior distributions for all parameters (fixed effects, random effects, variance components), naturally propagating uncertainty.
- Computation: Modern MCMC (e.g., HMC/NUTS in Stan, PyMC) handles complex posteriors effectively.

- Full probability model: Specify the entire structure:
 - Level 1 likelihood: P(Data|Level 1 Params)
 - Level 2 priors: P(Level 1 Params|Level 2 Hyperparams)
 - Hyperpriors: P(Level 2 Hyperparams)
- Coherent uncertainty: Get full posterior distributions for all parameters (fixed effects, random effects, variance components), naturally propagating uncertainty.
- Computation: Modern MCMC (e.g., HMC/NUTS in Stan, PyMC) handles complex posteriors effectively.
- Prior specification: Requires care!
 - Fixed Effects / Means (μ s): Often weakly informative (e.g., wide Normal).
 - Variance Components (σ s): Crucial! Use weakly informative priors concentrated away from zero (e.g., Half-Normal, Half-Cauchy) to avoid issues.

Model checking and interpretation

Fitting is just the start! Rigorous checking is essential:

Model checking and interpretation

Fitting is just the start! Rigorous checking is essential:

• MCMC convergence: Check \hat{R} (should be ≈ 1.0), Effective Sample Size (ESS), trace plots.

Model checking and interpretation

Fitting is just the start! Rigorous checking is essential:

- MCMC convergence: Check \hat{R} (should be ≈ 1.0), Effective Sample Size (ESS), trace plots.
- Prior sensitivity analysis: Do results change much with different reasonable priors?

Model checking and interpretation

Fitting is just the start! Rigorous checking is essential:

- MCMC convergence: Check \hat{R} (should be ≈ 1.0), Effective Sample Size (ESS), trace plots.
- Prior sensitivity analysis: Do results change much with different reasonable priors?
- Posterior predictive checks (PPCs):
 - Simulate data from the fitted model.
 - Compare simulated data distributions to observed data. Mismatches indicate model problems.

Model checking and interpretation

Fitting is just the start! Rigorous checking is essential:

- MCMC convergence: Check \hat{R} (should be ≈ 1.0), Effective Sample Size (ESS), trace plots.
- Prior sensitivity analysis: Do results change much with different reasonable priors?
- Posterior predictive checks (PPCs):
 - Simulate data from the fitted model.
 - Compare simulated data distributions to observed data. Mismatches indicate model problems.

Interpretation: Focus on population parameters (μ s, fixed β s), magnitude of variation (σ s), and potentially shrunken group estimates (α_j s, β_j s), always with uncertainty (posterior distributions / intervals).

Crossed vs. nested random effects

Nested: Students in classrooms, classrooms in schools.

$$y_{i|c|s} = \alpha_{c|s} + \beta x_{i|c,s} + \gamma_s + \epsilon_{i|c,s}$$

 Crossed: Participants respond to multiple stimuli (random effects for participant AND stimulus, not nested).

$$y_{ip} = \alpha_p + \gamma_i + \epsilon_{ip}$$

• Identification: There exists a unique solution for the parameters given the data.

- Identification: There exists a unique solution for the parameters given the data.
- Sometimes you can accidentally build a non-identified model.

- Identification: There exists a unique solution for the parameters given the data.
- Sometimes you can accidentally build a non-identified model.
- Here is a common example:

$$y_{ip} = \alpha_p + \gamma_i + \epsilon_{ip}$$
 with
$$\begin{cases} \alpha_p \sim N(\mu_\alpha, \sigma_\alpha^2) \\ \gamma_i \sim N(\mu_\gamma, \sigma_\gamma^2) \end{cases}$$

- If I increase μ_{α} by x and decrease μ_{γ} by x, the model makes identical predictions.
- This is a non-identified model.

- Identification: There exists a unique solution for the parameters given the data.
- Sometimes you can accidentally build a non-identified model.
- Here is a common example:

$$y_{ip} = \alpha_p + \gamma_i + \epsilon_{ip}$$
 with
$$\begin{cases} \alpha_p \sim N(\mu_\alpha, \sigma_\alpha^2) \\ \gamma_i \sim N(\mu_\gamma, \sigma_\gamma^2) \end{cases}$$

- If I increase μ_{α} by x and decrease μ_{γ} by x, the model makes identical predictions.
- This is a non-identified model.
- Fitting the model will go poorly if there aren't convergence issues, you will see that the posterior distributions for μ_{α} and μ_{γ} are strongly negatively correlated.

- Identification: There exists a unique solution for the parameters given the data.
- Sometimes you can accidentally build a non-identified model.
- Here is a common example:

$$y_{ip} = \alpha_p + \gamma_i + \epsilon_{ip}$$
 with
$$\begin{cases} \alpha_p \sim N(\mu_\alpha, \sigma_\alpha^2) \\ \gamma_i \sim N(\mu_\gamma, \sigma_\gamma^2) \end{cases}$$

- If I increase μ_{α} by x and decrease μ_{γ} by x, the model makes identical predictions.
- This is a non-identified model.
- Fitting the model will go poorly if there aren't convergence issues, you will see that the posterior distributions for μ_{α} and μ_{γ} are strongly negatively correlated.
- ullet The solution is to add a constraint, for example $\mu_{lpha}=$ 0.

Generalization to cognitive modeling

$$y_{ip} = \alpha_p + \gamma_i + \epsilon_{ip} \text{ with } \epsilon_{ip} \sim N(0, \sigma_{ip}^2)$$

 $\Leftrightarrow y_{ip} \sim N(\alpha_p + \gamma_i, \sigma_{ip}^2)$

In cognitive modeling, data are rarely normally distributed.

How do we deal with this?

• In psychometrics, we deal with binary data (e.g., correct/incorrect responses).

- In psychometrics, we deal with binary data (e.g., correct/incorrect responses).
- A useful distribution for this is the **Bernoulli distribution**:

$$y_{ip} \sim \mathsf{Bernoulli}(\pi_{ip})$$

- In psychometrics, we deal with binary data (e.g., correct/incorrect responses).
- A useful distribution for this is the **Bernoulli distribution**:

$$y_{ip} \sim \mathsf{Bernoulli}(\pi_{ip})$$

Now we handle the Bernoulli parameter as a to-be-explained dependent variable:

$$\pi_{ip} = \alpha_p + \gamma_i \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \pi_{ip} \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\alpha_p + \gamma_i)$$

- In psychometrics, we deal with binary data (e.g., correct/incorrect responses).
- A useful distribution for this is the **Bernoulli distribution**:

$$y_{ip} \sim \mathsf{Bernoulli}(\pi_{ip})$$

Now we handle the Bernoulli parameter as a to-be-explained dependent variable:

$$\pi_{ip} = \alpha_p + \gamma_i \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \pi_{ip} \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\alpha_p + \gamma_i)$$

• Psychometricians refer to α_p as the person side and γ_i as the item side.

- In psychometrics, we deal with binary data (e.g., correct/incorrect responses).
- A useful distribution for this is the **Bernoulli distribution**:

$$y_{ip} \sim \mathsf{Bernoulli}(\pi_{ip})$$

Now we handle the Bernoulli parameter as a to-be-explained dependent variable:

$$\pi_{ip} = \alpha_p + \gamma_i \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \pi_{ip} \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\alpha_p + \gamma_i)$$

- Psychometricians refer to α_p as the person side and γ_i as the item side.
- We can also handle either of these as a to-be-explained dependent variable:

$$\alpha_p = \beta_0 + \beta_1 z_p + \dots$$
$$\gamma_i = \zeta_0 + \zeta_1 q_i + \dots$$

First, in linear models (with normally distributed data), we did this decomposition:

$$y_{ip} \sim N(\mu_{ip}, \sigma_{ip}^2) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad y_{ip} \sim N(\alpha_p + \gamma_i, \sigma_{ip}^2)$$

First, in linear models (with normally distributed data), we did this decomposition:

$$y_{ip} \sim N(\mu_{ip}, \sigma_{ip}^2) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad y_{ip} \sim N(\alpha_p + \gamma_i, \sigma_{ip}^2)$$

Then, in psychometrics (with binary data), we did this decomposition:

$$y_{ip} \sim \mathsf{Bernoulli}(\pi_{ip}) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad y_{ip} \sim \mathsf{Bernoulli}(\alpha_p + \gamma_i)$$

First, in linear models (with normally distributed data), we did this decomposition:

$$y_{ip} \sim N(\mu_{ip}, \sigma_{ip}^2) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad y_{ip} \sim N(\alpha_p + \gamma_i, \sigma_{ip}^2)$$

Then, in psychometrics (with binary data), we did this decomposition:

$$y_{ip} \sim \mathsf{Bernoulli}(\pi_{ip}) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad y_{ip} \sim \mathsf{Bernoulli}(\alpha_p + \gamma_i)$$

Now, in cognitive modeling (with complex distributions), we're going to do this:

$$y_{ip} \sim \mathsf{Cognitive}(\psi_{ip}, \varsigma_{ip}) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad y_{ip} \sim \mathsf{Cognitive}(\alpha_p + \gamma_i, \varsigma_{ip})$$

First, in linear models (with normally distributed data), we did this decomposition:

$$y_{ip} \sim N(\mu_{ip}, \sigma_{ip}^2) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad y_{ip} \sim N(\alpha_p + \gamma_i, \sigma_{ip}^2)$$

Then, in psychometrics (with binary data), we did this decomposition:

$$y_{ip} \sim \mathsf{Bernoulli}(\pi_{ip}) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad y_{ip} \sim \mathsf{Bernoulli}(\alpha_p + \gamma_i)$$

Now, in cognitive modeling (with complex distributions), we're going to do this:

$$y_{ip} \sim \mathsf{Cognitive}(\psi_{ip}, \varsigma_{ip}) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad y_{ip} \sim \mathsf{Cognitive}(\alpha_p + \gamma_i, \varsigma_{ip})$$

As we go, we'll declare some parameters to be focal (ψ_{ip}) and others nuisance (ς_{ip}) .

Hierarchical cognitive models

This is just one way of decomposing model parameters:

$$y_{ip} \sim \mathsf{Cognitive}(\psi_{ip}, \varsigma_{ip}) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad y_{ip} \sim \mathsf{Cognitive}(\alpha_p + \gamma_i, \varsigma_{ip})$$

Having a hierarchical structure is optional, but almost always the right call:

$$\alpha_p \sim \mathsf{N}(\mu_\alpha, \sigma_\alpha^2)$$

Maybe $\mu_{\alpha} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 z_p + \dots$ really the world is your oyster at this point.

We can now write a hierarchical model for any cognitive model.

We can now write a hierarchical model for any cognitive model.

Say y_{ip} is person p's data from condition i:

We can now write a hierarchical model for any cognitive model.

Say y_{ip} is person p's data from condition i: $y_{ip} = (hit rate_{ip}, false alarm rate_{ip})$

We can now write a hierarchical model for any cognitive model.

Say y_{ip} is person p's data from condition i: $y_{ip} = (hit rate_{ip}, false alarm rate_{ip})$

$$y_{ip} \sim \text{SDT}(d'_{ip}, c'_{ip})$$
 $d'_{ip} = \alpha_p + \gamma_i$
 $\gamma_i = \zeta_0 + \zeta_1 \text{brightness}_i$
 $\alpha_p \sim \text{N}(\mu_\alpha, \sigma_\alpha^2)$

... where SDT () is shorthand for the signal detection theory functions covered earlier.

We can now write a hierarchical model for any cognitive model.

Say y_{ip} is person p's data from condition i: $y_{ip} = (hit rate_{ip}, false alarm rate_{ip})$

$$y_{ip} \sim \text{SDT}(d'_{ip}, c'_{ip})$$
 $d'_{ip} = \alpha_p + \gamma_i$
 $\gamma_i = \zeta_0 + \zeta_1 \text{brightness}_i$
 $\alpha_p \sim \text{N}(\mu_\alpha, \sigma_\alpha^2)$

... where SDT () is shorthand for the signal detection theory functions covered earlier.

The rest is just a lot of typing.

We can now write a hierarchical model for any cognitive model.

Say y_{ip} is person p's data from condition i: $y_{ip} = (hit rate_{ip}, false alarm rate_{ip})$

$$\begin{array}{lcl} y_{ip} & \sim & \mathrm{SDT}(d_{ip}', c_{ip}') \\ d_{ip}' & = & \alpha_p + \gamma_i \\ \gamma_i & = & \zeta_0 + \zeta_1 \mathrm{brightness}_i \\ \alpha_p & \sim & \mathrm{N}(\mu_\alpha, \sigma_\alpha^2) \end{array}$$

... where SDT () is shorthand for the signal detection theory functions covered earlier.

The rest is just a lot of typing.

This is an unidentified model, can you see why?

Assignment: Constrain an SDT model

Change how sensitivity (d') is modeled across conditions (k) in conditional.py.

Currently: conditional SDT model

- Independent d' per condition
- $d'_k \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 2^2)$
- Estimates an independent d'_k for each condition k
- Uses three free parameters to model d_k'

Desired: Condition explanatory SDT model

- Linear effect of difficulty C_k on d'_k
- $d'_k = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times C_k$, with
 - C = -1 for 'Easy'
 - *C* = 0 for 'Medium'
 - *C* = 1 for 'Hard'
- Uses only two free parameters to model d'_k :
 - $\beta_0 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 2^2)$
 - $\beta_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 0.5^2)$
- Estimates intercept and slope; d'_k is derived.

Advanced assignment: Constrain a hierarchical SDT model

Change how group-level sensitivity (d') is modeled across conditions (k) in full.py.

In either case, at the individual level, parameters for person p in condition k come from a population distribution: $d'_{pk} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_k, \sigma_k^2)$, with $\sigma_k \sim \text{HalfNormal}(1)$.

Current full hierarchical model

- The parameters of the population distribution are independent per condition:
 - $\mu_k \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 2^2)$
- Estimates a separate mean μ_k for each condition.

Condition explanatory hierarchical model

• The mean of the d' population distribution is linear over conditions:

$$\bullet \ \mu_k = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times C_k$$

with

- $\beta_0 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 2^2)$
- $\beta_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 0.5^2)$

Estimates intercept and slope; μ_k is derived.

Hierarchical (a.k.a. Multilevel) Modeling

Joachim Vandekerckhove Spring 2025