Hierarchical (a.k.a. Multilevel) Modeling

Joachim Vandekerckhove Spring 2025

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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.

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- "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.

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• 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).

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• 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.

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This structure explicitly models the dependency within populations.

Hierarchical model structure

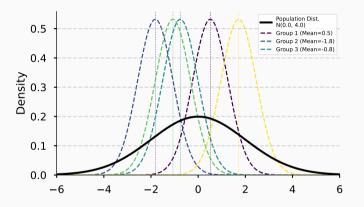


Figure 1: The population distribution (solid black line, representing $N(\mu_{\alpha}, \sigma_{\alpha}^2)$) describes the overall tendency for participant means. Person-specific distributions (dashed colored lines, representing $N(\alpha_j, \sigma_y^2)$ for different j) have means $(\alpha_j, \max_j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

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$$y_{i|j} = \alpha_j + \beta x_{i|j} + \epsilon_{i|j}$$
, 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 $(\epsilon_{i|j})$.

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Terminology

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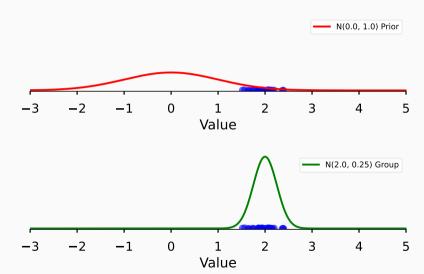
• Variance components

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.

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Fixed vs. random effects



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 $Var(\hat{\alpha}_{j,no\ pool})$ 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).

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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

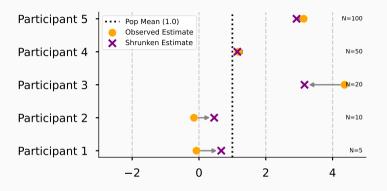


Figure 2: Observed group means (o) are pulled towards the estimated population mean (dashed line). The amount of shrinkage (length of gray arrow) is greater for groups with less data (smaller n_j), resulting in the shrunken estimates (x). The overall population mean estimate itself is informed by all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

- Full probability model: Specify the entire structure:
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- 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

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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).

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$$\begin{cases} \alpha_p \sim N(\mu_\alpha, \sigma_\alpha^2) \\ \gamma_i \sim N(\mu_\gamma, \sigma_\gamma^2) \end{cases}$$

- If I increase μ_{α} by x and decrease μ_{γ} by x, the model makes identical predictions.
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- 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?

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- 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:

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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:

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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.

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Bayesian modeling software mostly takes care of the rest.

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