

Mixed-effects (a.k.a. multi-level, or hierarchical) models

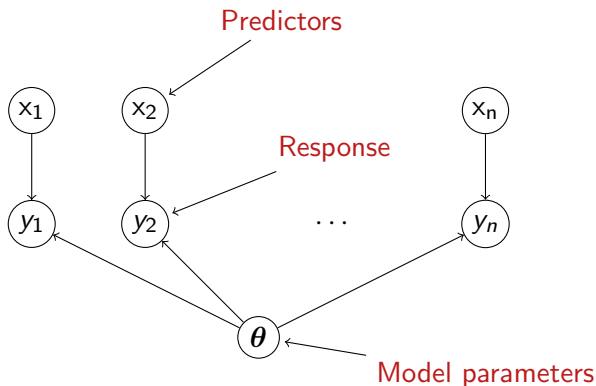
Roger Levy

Massachusetts Institute of Technology

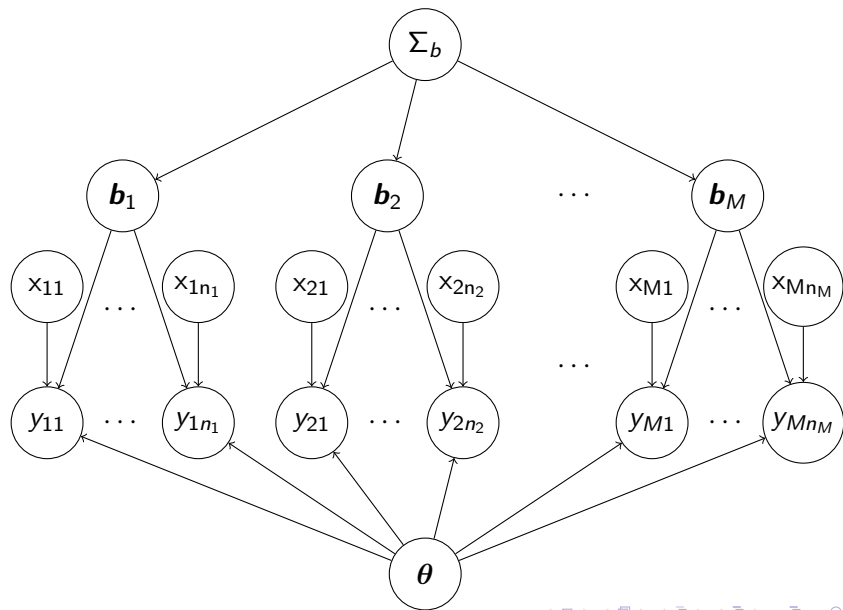
March 12, 2025

Mixed-effects/hierarchical GLMs

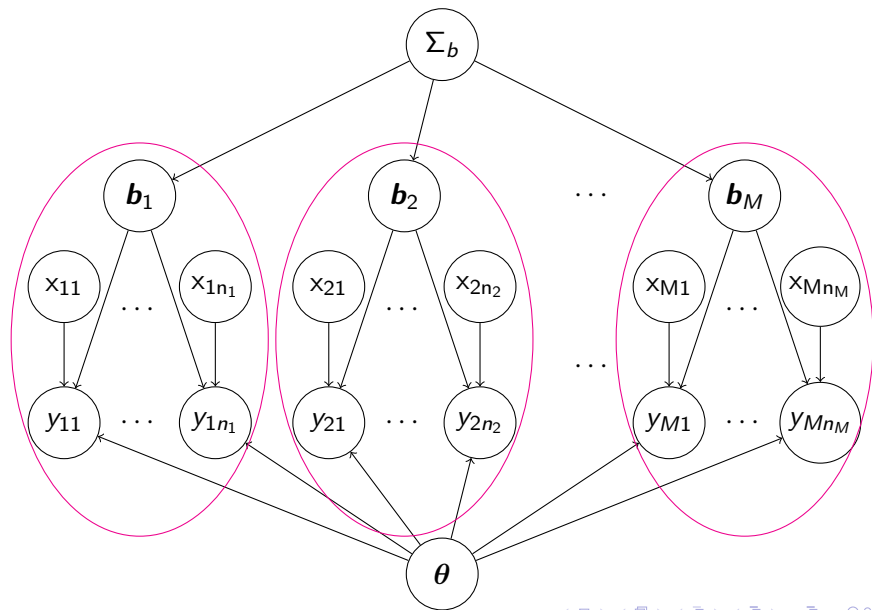
The non-hierarchical GLM picture:



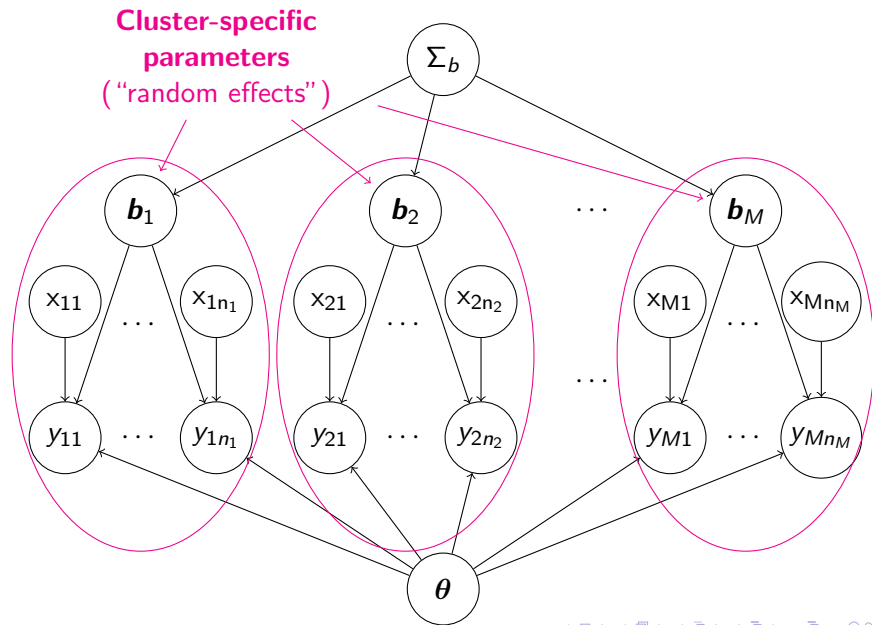
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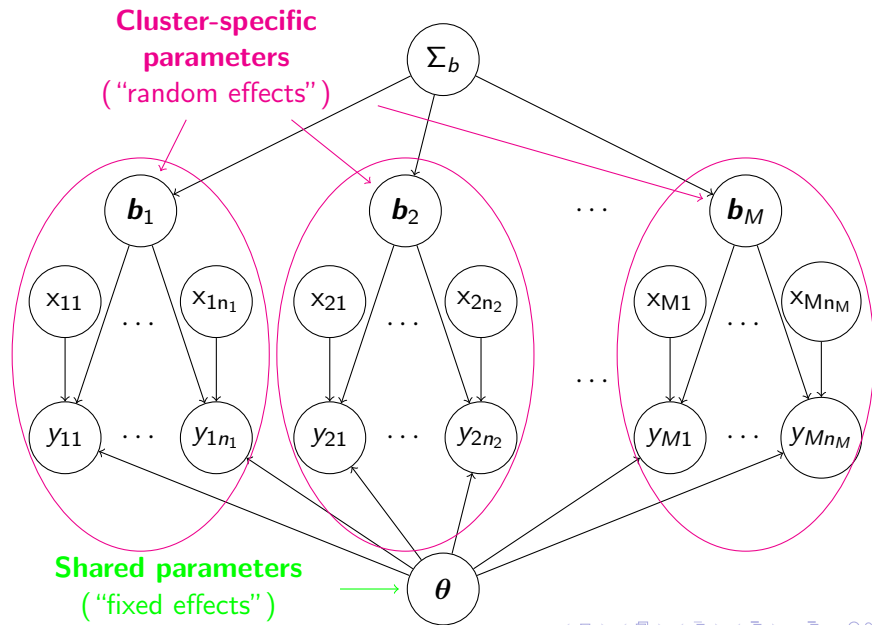
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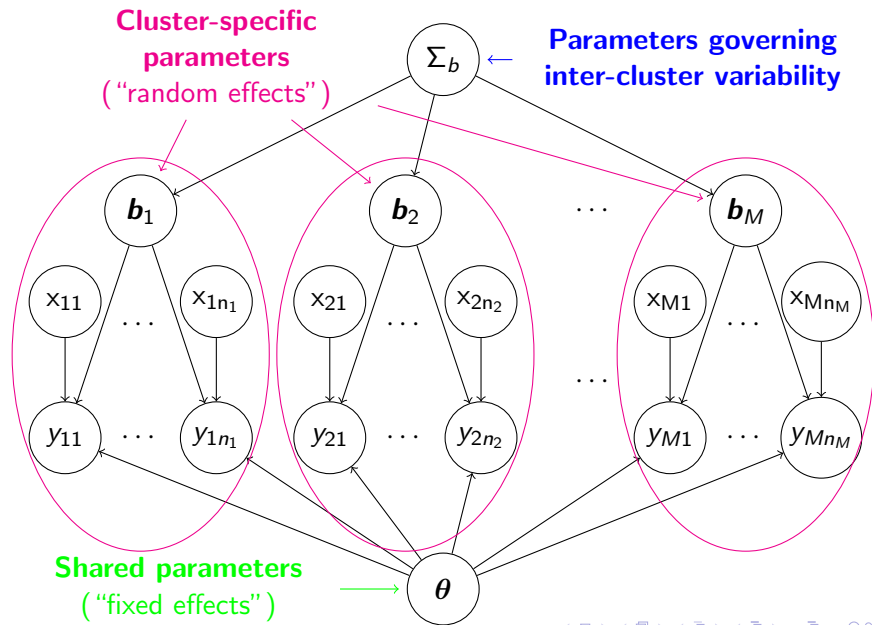
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Multi-level Models I

An example of a multi-level model:

- ▶ Back to your lexical-decision experiment
tpozt *Word or non-word?*
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- ▶ **Additionally**, different participants in your study may also have:
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 - ▶ differing sensitivity to neighborhood density
- ▶ You want to draw inferences about all these things at the same time

Multi-level Models I: Model construction

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Multi-level Models II: simulating data

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- ▶ This is invaluable for achieving deeper understanding of both your analysis and your data

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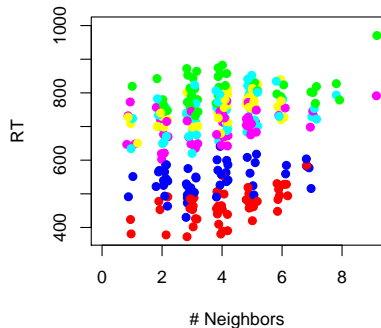
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## simulate some data
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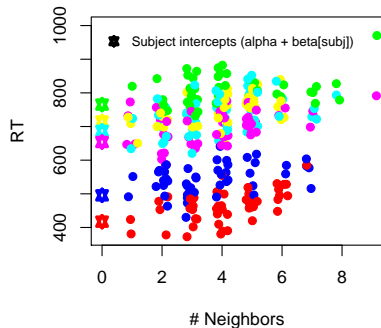
```
> sigma.b <- 125          # inter-subject variation larger than
> sigma.e <- 40           # intra-subject, inter-trial variation
> alpha <- 500
> beta <- 12
> M <- 6                  # number of participants
> n <- 50                 # trials per participant
> b <- rnorm(M, 0, sigma.b) # individual differences
> nneighbors <- rpois(M*n,3) + 1 # generate num. neighbors
> subj <- rep(1:M,n)
> RT <- alpha + beta * nneighbors + # simulate RTs!
  b[subj] + rnorm(M*n,0,sigma.e) #
```

Multi-level Models III: simulating data



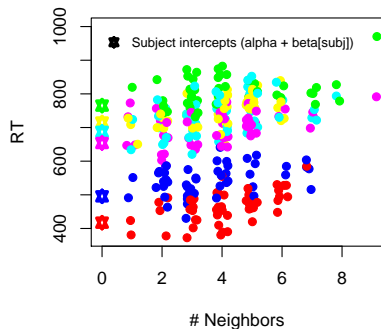
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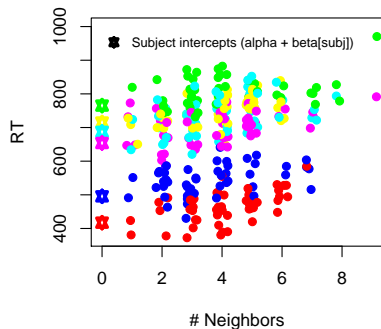
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- ▶ Participant-level clustering is easily visible
- ▶ This reflects the fact that inter-participant variation (125ms) is larger than inter-trial variation (40ms)
- ▶ And the effects of neighborhood density are also visible

Statistical inference with multi-level models

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- ▶ We *have* data and we need to infer a model
 - ▶ Specifically, the “fixed-effect” parameters α , β , and σ_ϵ , plus the parameter governing inter-subject variation, σ_b
 - ▶ e.g., hypothesis tests about effects of neighborhood density: can we reliably infer that β is {non-zero, positive, ...}?

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can we reliably infer that β is {non-zero, positive, ...}?
- ▶ Fortunately, we can use the same principles as before to do this:
 - ▶ The principle of maximum likelihood
 - ▶ Or Bayesian inference

Fitting a multi-level model using maximum likelihood

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> m <- lmer(time ~ neighbors.centered +  
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[...]
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Random effects:

| Groups | Name | Variance | Std.Dev. |
|-------------|-------------|----------|----------|
| participant | (Intercept) | 4924.9 | 70.177 |
| Residual | | 19240.5 | 138.710 |

Number of obs: 1760, groups: participant, 44

Fixed effects:

| | Estimate | Std. Error | t value |
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 - ▶ Variability in average RT in the population from which the participants were drawn has standard deviation 70.18ms

Inferences about cluster-level parameters

$$RT_{ij} = \alpha + \beta x_{ij} + \underbrace{b_i}_{\sim N(0, \sigma_b)} + \underbrace{\epsilon_{ij}}_{\text{Noise} \sim N(0, \sigma_\epsilon)}$$

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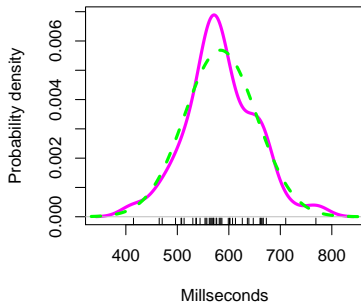
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- ▶ The BLUPS are the **conditional modes** of b_i —the choices that maximize the above probability

Inferences about cluster-level parameters II

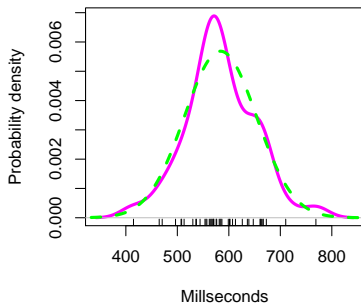
- ▶ The BLUP participant-specific “average” RTs for this dataset are black lines on the base of this graph



- ▶ The solid line is a guess at their distribution

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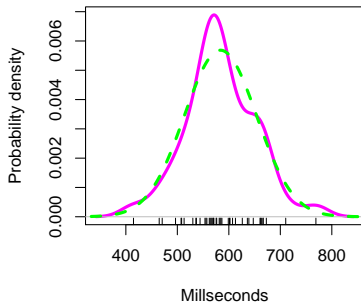
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- ▶ Reasonably close correspondence

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- ▶ Incorporate by adding cluster-level slopes into the model:

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These three numbers jointly characterize $\hat{\Sigma}_b$

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- ▶ We've said that participant-specific idiosyncracies are **MULTIVARIATE NORMALLY DISTRIBUTED** around the origin with covariance matrix Σ_b

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| | neighbors.centered | 19.421 | 4.4069 | -0.307 |

Inferences about cluster-level parameters IV

- ▶ Let's talk a little more about cluster-level slopes

$$RT_{ij} = \alpha + \beta x_{ij} + \underbrace{b_{1i} + b_{2i}}^{\sim N(0, \Sigma_b)} x_{ij} + \underbrace{\epsilon_{ij}}_{\text{Noise} \sim N(0, \sigma_\epsilon)}$$

- ▶ We've said that participant-specific idiosyncrasies are **MULTIVARIATE NORMALLY DISTRIBUTED** around the origin with covariance matrix Σ_b

Random effects:

| Groups | Name | Variance | Std.Dev. | Corr |
|-------------|--------------------|----------|----------|--------|
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- ▶ The results of the `lmer()` fit are saying that the maximum-likelihood estimate of the covariance matrix Σ_b governing participant-specific variability is

$$\widehat{\Sigma_b} = \begin{pmatrix} 70.20 & -0.3097 \\ -0.3097 & 4.41 \end{pmatrix}$$

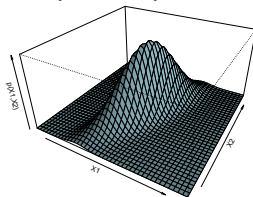
Inference about cluster-level parameters V

- ▶ Visualizing some multivariate normal distributions:

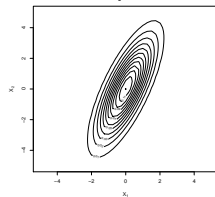
Covariance matrix

$$\Sigma_b = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.75 \\ 0.75 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

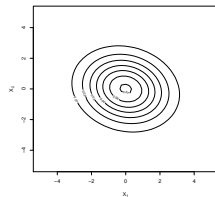
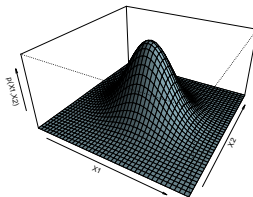
Perspective plot



Contour plot



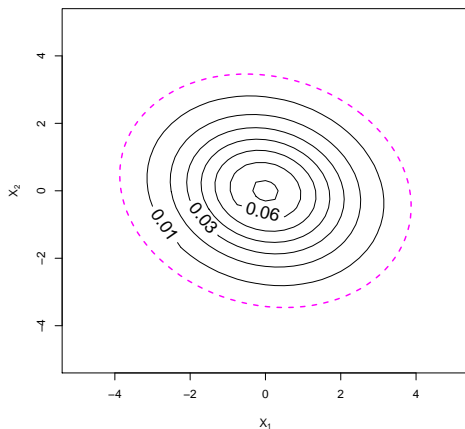
$$\Sigma_b = \begin{pmatrix} 2.5 & -0.13 \\ -0.13 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$



Inference about cluster-level parameters VI

- In 2D we often visually summarize a multivariate normal distribution with a **CHARACTERISTIC ELLIPSE**

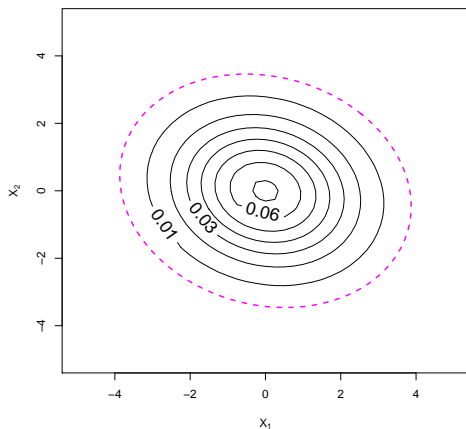
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Inference about cluster-level parameters VI

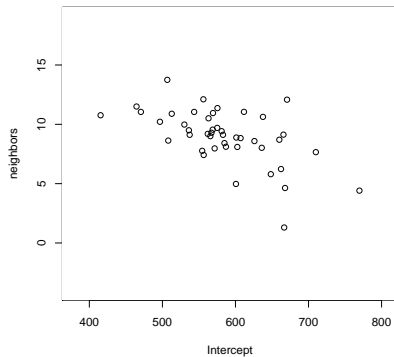
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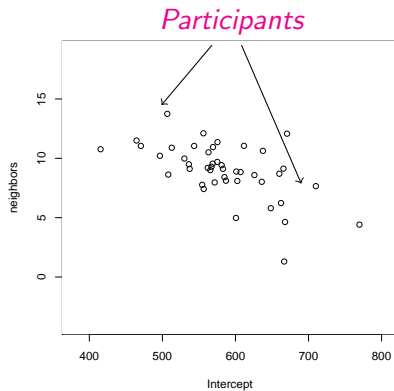


- This ellipse contains a certain proportion (here & conventionally, 95%) of the probability mass for the distribution in question

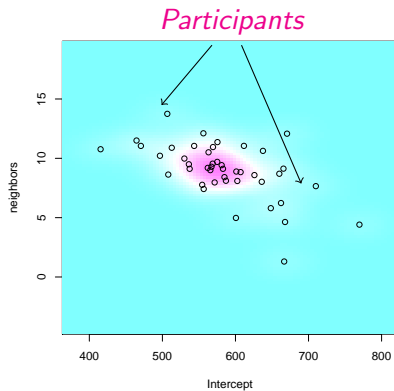
Inference about cluster-level parameters VII



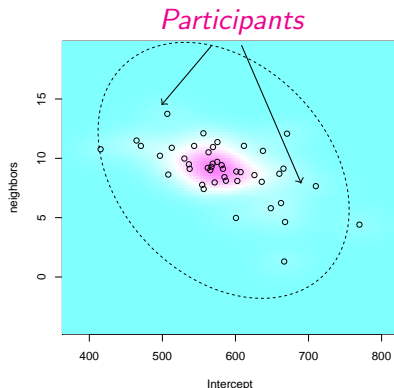
Inference about cluster-level parameters VII



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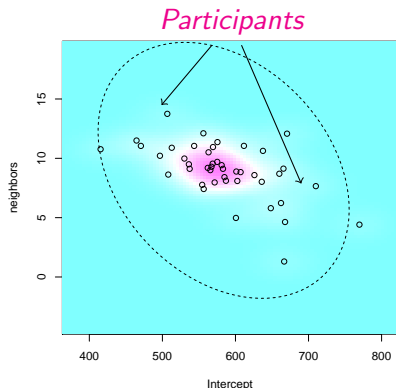


Inference about cluster-level parameters VII



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Inference about cluster-level parameters VII



- ▶ Correlation visible in participant-specific BLUPs
- ▶ Participants who were faster overall also tend to be more affected by neighborhood density

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Bayesian inference for multilevel models

$$P(\{\beta_i\}, \sigma_b, \sigma_\epsilon | Y) = \frac{\overbrace{P(Y|\{\beta_i\}, \sigma_b, \sigma_\epsilon)}^{\text{Likelihood}} \overbrace{P(\{\beta_i\}, \sigma_b, \sigma_\epsilon)}^{\text{Prior}}}{P(Y)}$$

- We can also use Bayes' rule to draw inferences about fixed effects

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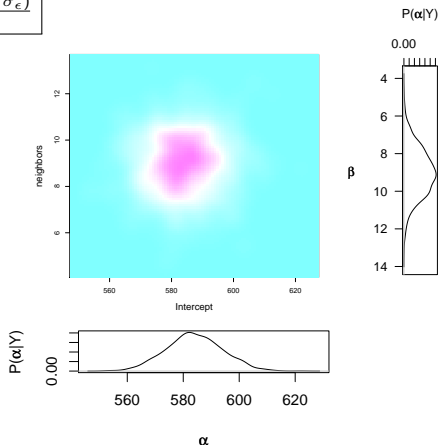
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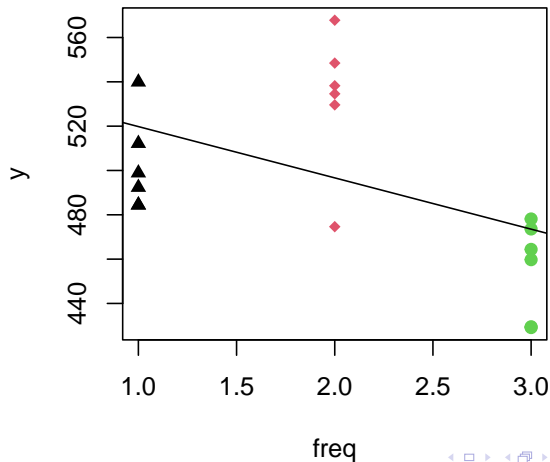
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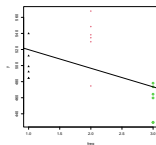
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- ▶ There are two situations:
 1. When the (average) value that a fixed effect takes *varies across clusters*
 2. When the value that a fixed effect takes *varies within some or all clusters*

Predictors varying between clusters

Hypothetical relationship observed for three words:

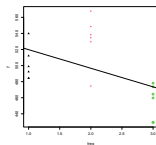


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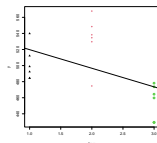
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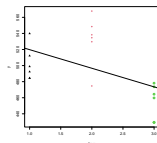
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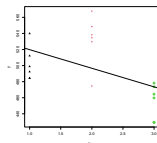
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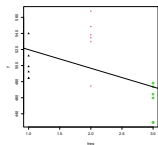
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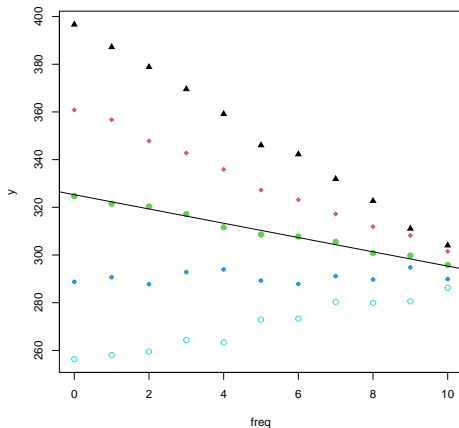
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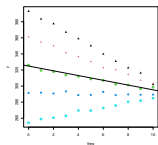
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- ▶ But the probability that the observed means would have this monotonicity would still be $\frac{1}{6}$
- ▶ To address this issue we need a **random intercept**
- ▶ Our model will wind up answering the question of whether there is a systematic trend across words for frequency sensitivity, *above and beyond idiosyncratic variation among*

Predictors varying within clusters

Hypothetical frequency-based responses for five different individual participants:



Predictors varying within clusters I



- It looks like we have good evidence for frequency-sensitivity of the response

Predictors varying within clusters II

- ▶ Classic question: *above and beyond idiosyncratic sensitivities of different individuals to context-driven predictability*, are predictable words in general named faster than unpredictable words?
- ▶ In mixed-effects models, this implies a need for a **random by-speaker slope** in our null-hypothesis model
- ▶ Inferences about the fixed effect will wind up meaning, *is there a systematic effect of word frequency, above and beyond idiosyncratic speaker-specific sensitivities to word frequency?*

The nonwords experiment

- ▶ The Bicknell et al. (2010) experiment had many different participants and many different nonwords

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- ▶ In the formula syntax of R's lme4 package:

```
response ~ X + (1 | Word) + (1 + X | Participant)
```

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- ▶ It's slightly anticonservative, but not too bad in practice
- ▶ Finally, models differing in **random effects structure alone** can *in principle* be compared with likelihood-ratio tests
 - ▶ However, these results can be either conservative or anti-conservative, so take them with a grain of salt

Results for the nonword-recognition experiment

```
dat$X <- dat$neighbors
m2 <- lmer(time ~ X + (1 + X | participant) + (1|target), dat, REML=F)

## Warning in checkConv(attr(opt, "derivs"), opt$par, ctrl =
## control$checkConv, : Model failed to converge with max|grad| =
## 0.0021026 (tol = 0.002, component 1)

print(m2, corr=F)

## Linear mixed model fit by maximum likelihood ['lmerMod']
## Formula: time ~ X + (1 + X | participant) + (1 | target)
## Data: dat
##      AIC      BIC    logLik  deviance  df.resid
## 22451.93 22490.24 -11218.96  22437.93      1753
## Random effects:
## Groups      Name      Std.Dev. Corr
## participant (Intercept) 76.140
##           X           4.803  -0.46
## target      (Intercept) 25.485
## Residual                135.763
## Number of obs: 1760, groups:  participant, 44; target, 40
## Fixed Effects:
```

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Random-effect structure should be maximal with respect to the theoretically critical questions you are posing of your data.

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- ▶ **This position has been widely** (though not universally) **accepted by the field, and we continue to advocate for it**

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 - ▶ For every theoretically critical fixed-effect term in your model that varies *within* clusters, include a random slope for that clustering

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- ▶ The question of theoretical interest for our data is whether the processing penalty induced by disambiguation of the RC attachment would show up immediately (before potentially biasing semantic content of the RC shows up).

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- ▶ These factors are crossed in the experiment, and both within-subject. We **sum-code** the two factors to give the main effects the desired interpretation.

A controlled experiment III

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► Results of a maximal LME fit:

```
## Linear mixed model fit by maximum likelihood ['lmerMod']
## Formula: rt ~ V * A + (V * A | subj) + (V * A | item)
## Data: d
##
##          AIC          BIC    logLik deviance df.resid
## 12527.4   12648.0   -6238.7  12477.4      894
##
## Scaled residuals:
##      Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
## -2.0464 -0.5641 -0.1500  0.2521  6.0545
##
## Random effects:
## Groups      Name                Variance Std.Dev. Corr
## subj      (Intercept) 16769.20 129.496
##           V           476.13  21.820   -0.82
##           A           24.39   4.939   -0.94  0.96
##           V:A         12433.81 111.507   -0.48  0.90  0.75
## item      (Intercept) 1520.66  38.996
##           V           2055.65  45.339   -0.80
##           A           1663.59  40.787    0.06 -0.64
##           V:A         5531.05  74.371    0.04  0.56 -1.00
## Residual                38497.55 196.208
## Number of obs: 919, groups:  subj, 55; item, 20
##
## Fixed effects:
##              Estimate Std. Error t value
## (Intercept) 470.4938    20.5949  22.845
## V           -33.7621    16.8373  -2.005
## A            -0.1967    15.9802  -0.012
## V:A         -85.0056    34.4913  -2.465
## optimizer (nloptwrap) convergence code: 0 (OK)
## boundary (singular) fit: see help('isSingular')
```

A controlled experiment III

- Likelihood-ratio-based hypothesis testing for a fixed effect:

```
## Error: bad 'data': object 'd' not found
```

```
rt.lmer.null <- lmer(rt ~ V + A + ( V*A | subj) + ( V*A | item),  
  data=d, REML=F)
```

```
print(anova(rt.lmer.full, rt.lmer.null))
```

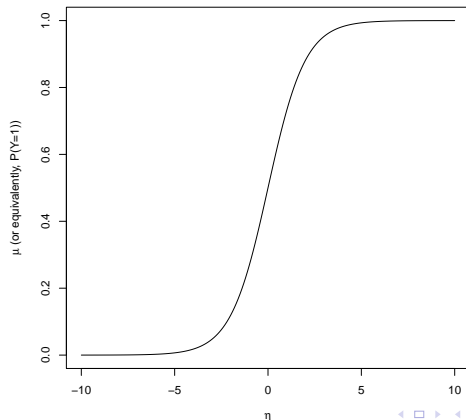
```
## Error in h(simpleError(msg, call)): error in evaluating the  
argument 'x' in selecting a method for function 'print': object  
'rt.lmer.null' not found
```

```
##  
## Attaching package: 'bayesm'  
## The following object is masked from  
## 'package:brms':  
##  
##      rdirichlet
```

Mixed logit models

Recall the inverse logit function that we used for logistic regression:

$$\mu = \frac{e^{\eta}}{1 + e^{\eta}}$$



Mixed logit models

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- ▶ And linear predictor

$$\eta = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}\mathbf{b}$$

where \mathbf{b} is multivariate-normal distributed:

$$\mathbf{b} \sim N(0, \Sigma_{\mathbf{b}})$$

References I

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- ▶ Note that so-called “ p_{MCMC} ” is **NOT** a p -value in the Neyman-Pearson sense!
- ▶ Weakness, both in practice and in principle: the alternative hypothesis is never actually used (except indirectly in determining optimal acceptance and rejection regions)

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- ▶ So for me, the p -value of your experiment serves as a rough indicator of how small $P(D|H_0)$ may be
- ▶ Technically, such a measure doesn't need to be a true Neyman-Pearson p -value (p_{MCMC} falls into this category)