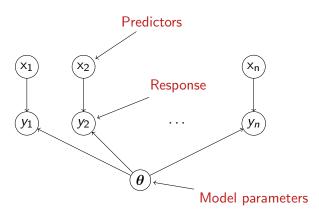
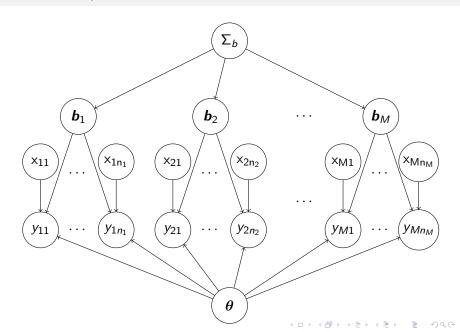
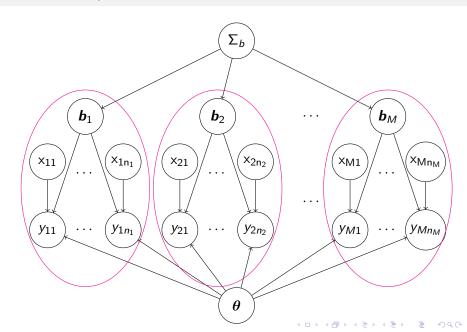
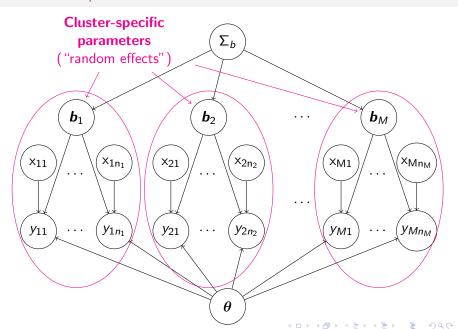
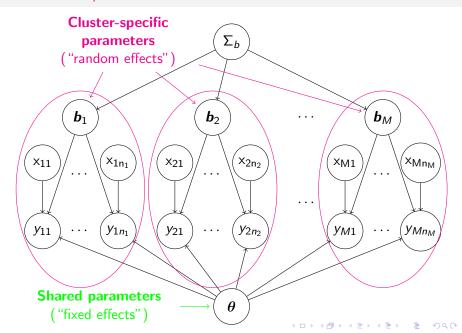
The non-hierarchical GLM picture:

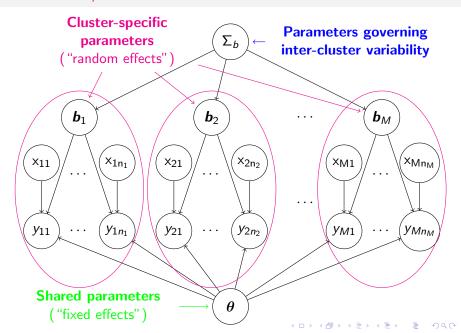












Multi-level Models I

An example of a multi-level model:

Back to your lexical-decision experiment tpozt Word or non-word? houze Word or non-word?

Non-words with different neighborhood densities should have different average decision time

Multi-level Models I

An example of a multi-level model:

- Back to your lexical-decision experiment tpozt Word or non-word? houze Word or non-word?
- Non-words with different neighborhood densities should have different average decision time
- Additionally, different participants in your study may also have:
 - different overall decision speeds
 - differing sensitivity to neighborhood density

Multi-level Models I

An example of a multi-level model:

- Back to your lexical-decision experiment tpozt Word or non-word? houze Word or non-word?
- Non-words with different neighborhood densities should have different average decision time
- Additionally, different participants in your study may also have:
 - different overall decision speeds
 - differing sensitivity to neighborhood density
- You want to draw inferences about all these things at the same time

Once again we'll assume for simplicity that the number of word neighbors x has a linear effect on mean reading time, and that trial-level noise is normally distributed*

- Once again we'll assume for simplicity that the number of word neighbors x has a linear effect on mean reading time, and that trial-level noise is normally distributed*
- Random effects, starting simple: let each participant i have idiosyncratic differences in reading speed

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

- Once again we'll assume for simplicity that the number of word neighbors x has a linear effect on mean reading time, and that trial-level noise is normally distributed*
- ▶ Random effects, starting simple: let each participant i have idiosyncratic differences in reading speed

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

▶ In R, we'd write this relationship as

```
RT \sim 1 + x + (1 | participant)
```

- Once again we'll assume for simplicity that the number of word neighbors x has a linear effect on mean reading time, and that trial-level noise is normally distributed*
- Random effects, starting simple: let each participant i have idiosyncratic differences in reading speed

$$RT_{ij} = \alpha + \beta x_{ij} + \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{N(0,\sigma_b)} N_{\text{oise}} N(0,\sigma_\epsilon)}_{N(0,\sigma_b)} + \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{N(0,\sigma_b)} N_{\text{oise}}}_{N(0,\sigma_b)}$$

▶ In R, we'd write this relationship as

RT
$$\sim$$
 1 + x + (1 | participant)

lackbox Once again we can leave off the 1, and the noise term ϵ_{ij} is implicit



- Once again we'll assume for simplicity that the number of word neighbors x has a linear effect on mean reading time, and that trial-level noise is normally distributed*
- Random effects, starting simple: let each participant i have idiosyncratic differences in reading speed

$$RT_{ij} = \alpha + \beta x_{ij} + \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{N(0,\sigma_b)} Noise N(0,\sigma_\epsilon)}_{Noise}$$

In R, we'd write this relationship as

RT
$$\sim$$
 x + (1 | participant)

▶ Once again we can leave off the 1, and the noise term ϵ_{ij} is implicit



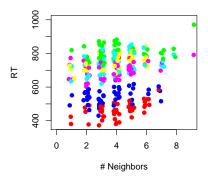
$$RT_{ij} = \alpha + \beta x_{ij} + \underbrace{b_i}^{\sim N(0,\sigma_b)} + \underbrace{\epsilon_{ij}}^{\text{Noise} \sim N(0,\sigma_\epsilon)}$$

- One beauty of multi-level models is that you can simulate trial-level data
- ► This is invaluable for achieving deeper understanding of both your analysis and your data

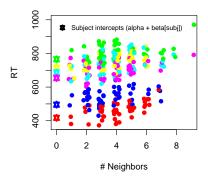
$$RT_{ij} = \alpha + \beta x_{ij} + \underbrace{b_i}^{\sim N(0,\sigma_b)} + \underbrace{\epsilon_{ij}}^{\text{Noise} \sim N(0,\sigma_\epsilon)}$$

- One beauty of multi-level models is that you can simulate trial-level data
- ► This is invaluable for achieving deeper understanding of both your analysis and your data

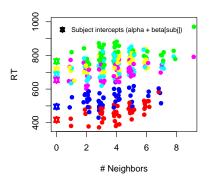
```
## simulate some data
> sigma.b <- 125
                        # inter-subject variation larger than
> sigma.e <- 40
                        # intra-subject, inter-trial variation
> alpha <- 500
> beta <- 12
> M <- 6
                                     # number of participants
> n < -50
                                     # trials per participant
> b <- rnorm(M, 0, sigma.b)</pre>
                                     # individual differences
> nneighbors <- rpois(M*n,3) + 1</pre>
                                     # generate num. neighbors
> subj <- rep(1:M,n)
> RT <- alpha + beta * nneighbors + # simulate RTs!
    b[subj] + rnorm(M*n,0,sigma.e)
                                         4D + 4B + 4B + B + 900
```



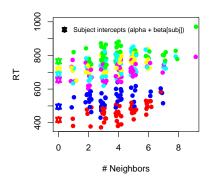
▶ Participant-level clustering is easily visible



▶ Participant-level clustering is easily visible



- ▶ Participant-level clustering is easily visible
- ► This reflects the fact that inter-participant variation (125ms) is larger than inter-trial variation (40ms)



- 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



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

Thus far, we've just defined a model and used it to generate data

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

- ► Thus far, we've just defined a model and used it to generate data
- ▶ We psycholinguists are usually in the opposite situation...

$$RT_{ij} = \alpha + \beta x_{ij} + \underbrace{^{\sim N(0,\sigma_b)}_{Noise} N_{0,\sigma_e}}_{Noise}$$

- ► Thus far, we've just defined a model and used it to generate data
- ▶ We psycholinguists are usually in the opposite situation...
- ▶ 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, ...}?

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

- ► Thus far, we've just defined a model and used it to generate data
- ▶ We psycholinguists are usually in the opposite situation...
- ▶ 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, ...}?
- Fortunately, we can use the same principles as before to do this:
 - ► The principle of maximum likelihood
 - Or Bayesian inference

```
RT_{ij} = \alpha + \beta x_{ij} + \sum_{b_i}^{N(0,\sigma_s)} \sum_{\epsilon_{ij}}^{N(0,\sigma_s)} \sum_{\epsilon_{ij}}^{N(0,\sigma_s)
```

Fixed effects:

Estimate Std. Error t value (Intercept) 583.787 11.082 52.68 neighbors.centered 8.986 1.278 7.03

```
Noise \sim N(0, \sigma_{\epsilon})
RT_{ii} = \alpha + \beta x_{ii} +
> m <- lmer(time ~ neighbors.centered +
   (1 | participant), dat, REML=F)
> print(m,corr=F)
Γ...
Random effects:
              Name
                       Variance Std.Dev.
 Groups
 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
(Intercept)
                      583.787
                                   11.082
                                             52.68
neighbors.centered 8.986 1.278 7.03
```

```
Noise \sim N(0, \sigma_{\epsilon})
RT_{ii} = \alpha + \beta x_{ii} +
> m <- lmer(time ~ neighbors.centered +
   (1 | participant), dat, REML=F)
> print(m,corr=F)
Γ...
Random effects:
               Name
                           Variance Std.Dev.
 Groups
 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
                       583.787
                                     11.082
(Intercept)
                                                52.68
```

8.986

neighbors.centered

1.278 7.03

```
Noise \sim N(0, \sigma_{\epsilon})
RT_{ii} = \alpha + \beta x_{ii} +
> m <- lmer(time ~ neighbors.centered +
   (1 | participant), dat, REML=F)
> print(m,corr=F)
Γ...
Random effects:
                          Variance Std.Dev.
 Groups
              Name
 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
                       583.787
                                    11.082
(Intercept)
                                              52.68
neighbors.centered
                         8.986
                                    1.278 7.03
```

```
Noise\sim N(0, \sigma_{\epsilon})
RT_{ii} = \alpha + \beta x_{ii} +
> m <- lmer(time ~ neighbors.centered +
   (1 | participant), dat, REML=F)
> print(m,corr=F)
Γ...
Random effects:
                          Variance Std.Dev.
 Groups
              Name
 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
                       583.787
                                    11.082
(Intercept)
                                               52.68
neighbors.centered
                         8.986
                                     1.278 7.03
```

Intercept	583.79
neighbors.centered	8.99
$\widehat{\sigma}_{b}$	70.18
$\widehat{\sigma}_{\epsilon}$	138.7

Intercept	583.79
neighbors.centered	8.99
$\widehat{\sigma}_{b}$	70.18
$\widehat{\sigma}_{\epsilon}$	138.7

► The *fixed effects* are interpreted just as in a traditional single-level model:

Intercept	583.79
neighbors.centered	8.99
$\widehat{\sigma}_{m{b}}$	70.18
$\widehat{\sigma}_{\epsilon}$	138.7

- ► The *fixed effects* are interpreted just as in a traditional single-level model:
 - ▶ The "average" RT for a non-word in this study is 583.79ms

Intercept	583.79
neighbors.centered	8.99
$\widehat{\sigma}_{m{b}}$	70.18
$\widehat{\sigma}_{\epsilon}$	138.7

- ► The *fixed effects* are interpreted just as in a traditional single-level model:
 - ▶ The "average" RT for a non-word in this study is 583.79ms
 - ► Every extra neighbor increases "average" RT by 8.99ms

Intercept	583.79
neighbors.centered	8.99
$\widehat{\sigma}_{\pmb{b}}$	70.18
$\widehat{\sigma}_{\epsilon}$	138.7

- ► The *fixed effects* are interpreted just as in a traditional single-level model:
 - ► The "average" RT for a non-word in this study is 583.79ms
 - ▶ Every extra neighbor increases "average" RT by 8.99ms
- Inter-trial variability σ_ϵ also has the same interpretation

Intercept	583.79
neighbors.centered	8.99
$\widehat{\sigma}_{b}$	70.18
$\widehat{\sigma}_{\epsilon}$	138.7
	I

- ► The *fixed effects* are interpreted just as in a traditional single-level model:
 - ► The "average" RT for a non-word in this study is 583.79ms
 - Every extra neighbor increases "average" RT by 8.99ms
- Inter-trial variability σ_{ϵ} also has the same interpretation
 - Inter-trial variability for a given participant is Gaussian, centered around the participant+word-specific mean with standard deviation 138.7ms

Intercept	583.79
neighbors.centered	8.99
$\widehat{\sigma}_{\pmb{b}}$	70.18
$\widehat{\sigma}_{\epsilon}$	138.7

- ► The *fixed effects* are interpreted just as in a traditional single-level model:
 - ▶ The "average" RT for a non-word in this study is 583.79ms
 - Every extra neighbor increases "average" RT by 8.99ms
- Inter-trial variability σ_ϵ also has the same interpretation
 - Inter-trial variability for a given participant is Gaussian, centered around the participant+word-specific mean with standard deviation 138.7ms
- ▶ Inter-participant variability σ_b is what's new:

Interpreting parameter estimates

Intercept	583.79
neighbors.centered	8.99
$\widehat{\sigma}_{\pmb{b}}$	70.18
$\widehat{\sigma}_{\epsilon}$	138.7

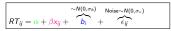
- ► The *fixed effects* are interpreted just as in a traditional single-level model:
 - ► The "average" RT for a non-word in this study is 583.79ms
 - Every extra neighbor increases "average" RT by 8.99ms
- Inter-trial variability σ_{ϵ} also has the same interpretation
 - Inter-trial variability for a given participant is Gaussian, centered around the participant+word-specific mean with standard deviation 138.7ms
- ▶ Inter-participant variability σ_b is what's new:
 - Variability in average RT in the population from which the participants were drawn has standard deviation 70.18ms

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

► What about the participants' idiosyncracies themselves—the *b_i*?

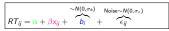
```
RT_{ij} = \alpha + \beta x_{ij} + \underbrace{ \stackrel{\sim N(0,\sigma_b)}{b_i} + \stackrel{\text{Noise}}{\epsilon_{ij}}}_{}^{N(0,\sigma_e)}
```

- ► What about the participants' idiosyncracies themselves—the *b_i*?
- ► We can also draw inferences about these—once again, a common estimate of them is known as the BLUP



- ► What about the participants' idiosyncracies themselves—the *b_i*?
- We can also draw inferences about these—once again, a common estimate of them is known as the BLUP
- ➤ To understand these: committing to fixed-effect and random-effect parameter estimates determines a conditional probability distribution on participant-specific effects:

$$P(b_i|\widehat{\alpha},\widehat{\beta},\widehat{\sigma}_b,\widehat{\sigma}_\epsilon)$$

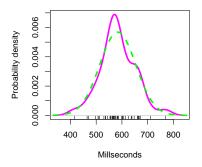


- ▶ What about the participants' idiosyncracies themselves—the b_i?
- We can also draw inferences about these—once again, a common estimate of them is known as the BLUP
- To understand these: committing to fixed-effect and random-effect parameter estimates determines a conditional probability distribution on participant-specific effects:

$$P(b_i|\widehat{\alpha},\widehat{\beta},\widehat{\sigma}_b,\widehat{\sigma}_\epsilon)$$

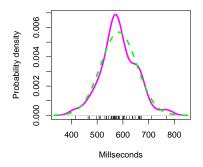
► The BLUPS are the conditional modes of *b_i*—the choices that maximize the above probability

► The BLUP participant-specific "average" RTs for this dataset are black lines on the base of this graph



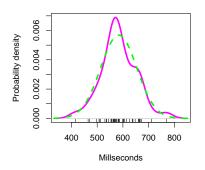
▶ The solid line is a guess at their distribution

► 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
- ► The dotted line is the distribution predicted by the model for the population from which the participants are drawn

► 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
- ► The dotted line is the distribution predicted by the model for the population from which the participants are drawn
- ► Reasonably close correspondence



 Participants may also have idiosyncratic sensitivities to neighborhood density

- Participants may also have idiosyncratic sensitivities to neighborhood density
- Incorporate by adding cluster-level slopes into the model:

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

- Participants may also have idiosyncratic sensitivities to neighborhood density
- Incorporate by adding cluster-level slopes into the model:

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

▶ In R (once again we can omit the 1's):

```
RT \sim 1 + x + (1 + x | participant)
```

- Participants may also have idiosyncratic sensitivities to neighborhood density
- Incorporate by adding cluster-level slopes into the model:

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

▶ In R (once again we can omit the 1's):

```
RT \sim 1 + x + (1 + x | participant)
```

> lmer(RT ~ neighbors.centered +
 (neighbors.centered | participant), dat,REML=F)
[...]

Random effects:

Groups Name Variance Std.Dev. Corr participant (Intercept) 4928.625 70.2042 neighbors.centered 19.421 4.4069 -0.307 Residual 19107.143 138.2286

- Participants may also have idiosyncratic sensitivities to neighborhood density
- Incorporate by adding cluster-level slopes into the model:

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

▶ In R (once again we can omit the 1's):

```
RT \sim 1 + x + (1 + x | participant)
```

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

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

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

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

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

```
Random effects:
```

```
Groups Name Variance Std.Dev. Corr participant (Intercept) 4928.625 70.2042 neighbors.centered 19.421 4.4069 -0.307
```

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

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

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

Random effects:

```
Groups Name Variance Std.Dev. Corr participant (Intercept) 4928.625 70.2042 neighbors.centered 19.421 4.4069 -0.307
```

The results of the lmer() fit are saying that the maximum-likelihood estimate of the covariance matrix Σ_b governing participant-specific variability is

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

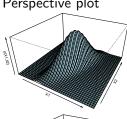


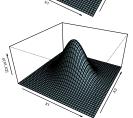
Visualizing some multivariate normal distributions:

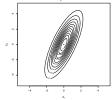
$$\Sigma_b = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.75 \\ 0.75 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

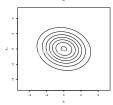
$$\Sigma_b = \begin{pmatrix} 2.5 & -0.13 \\ -0.13 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$



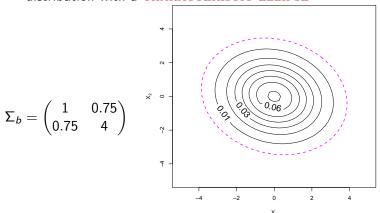




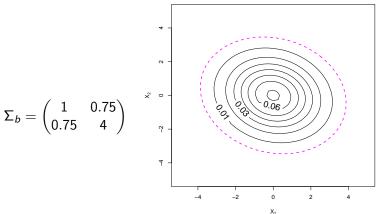




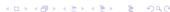
► In 2D we often visually summarize a multivariate normal distribution with a CHARACTERISTIC ELLIPSE

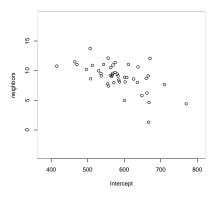


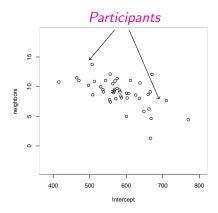
▶ In 2D we often visually summarize a multivariate normal distribution with a CHARACTERISTIC ELLIPSE

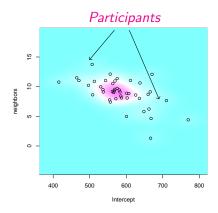


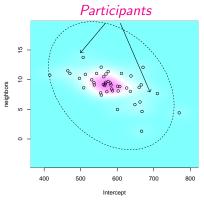
► This ellipse contains a certain proportion (here & conventionally, 95%) of the probability mass for the distribution in question



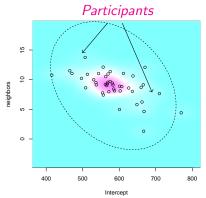








► Correlation visible in participant-specific BLUPs



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

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

Bayesian inference for multilevel models

$$P(\{\beta_i\}, \sigma_b, \sigma_\epsilon | Y) = \underbrace{\frac{\text{Likelihood}}{P(Y | \{\beta_i\}, \sigma_b, \sigma_\epsilon)} \underbrace{P(\{\beta_i\}, \sigma_b, \sigma_\epsilon)}_{P(Y)}}_{P(Y)} P(\{\beta_i\}, \sigma_b, \sigma_\epsilon)}$$

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

Bayesian inference for multilevel models

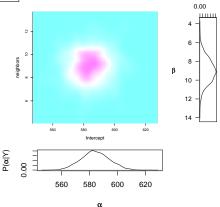
$$P(\{\beta_i\}, \sigma_b, \sigma_\epsilon | Y) = \underbrace{\frac{\text{Likelihood}}{P(Y | \{\beta_i\}, \sigma_b, \sigma_\epsilon)} \underbrace{P(\{\beta_i\}, \sigma_b, \sigma_\epsilon)}_{P(Y)}}_{P(Y)}$$

- We can also use Bayes' rule to draw inferences about fixed effects
- Computationally more challenging than with single-level regression;
 Markov-chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) sampling techniques allow us to approximate it

Bayesian inference for multilevel models



- We can also use Bayes' rule to draw inferences about fixed effects
- Computationally more challenging than with single-level regression; Markov-chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) sampling techniques allow us to approximate it



 $P(\alpha|Y)$

► We looked at models that both *included* and *didn't include* random slopes for the #-neighbors effect in this dataset

- ► We looked at models that both *included* and *didn't include* random slopes for the #-neighbors effect in this dataset
- Which one is the right model?

- ► We looked at models that both *included* and *didn't include* random slopes for the #-neighbors effect in this dataset
- ▶ Which one is the right model?
- ➤ This is a very general problem with no one solution, but I'll describe what I think are good answers for the situation where one ultimately wants to make inferences about the importance of a "fixed-effect" (shared) model parameter

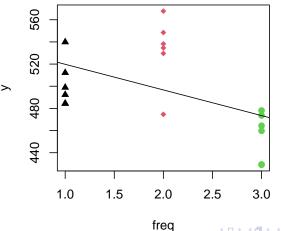
- ► We looked at models that both *included* and *didn't include* random slopes for the #-neighbors effect in this dataset
- ▶ Which one is the right model?
- ▶ This is a very general problem with no one solution, but I'll describe what I think are good answers for the situation where one ultimately wants to make inferences about the importance of a "fixed-effect" (shared) model parameter
- There are two situations:

- ► We looked at models that both *included* and *didn't include* random slopes for the #-neighbors effect in this dataset
- ▶ Which one is the right model?
- ▶ This is a very general problem with no one solution, but I'll describe what I think are good answers for the situation where one ultimately wants to make inferences about the importance of a "fixed-effect" (shared) model parameter
- There are two situations:
 - 1. When the (average) value that a fixed effect takes *varies* across clusters

- ► We looked at models that both *included* and *didn't include* random slopes for the #-neighbors effect in this dataset
- ▶ Which one is the right model?
- ▶ This is a very general problem with no one solution, but I'll describe what I think are good answers for the situation where one ultimately wants to make inferences about the importance of a "fixed-effect" (shared) model parameter
- 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:



Predictors varying between clusters



▶ If we were to ignore the potential cross-cluster variability here, it would look like we have good evidence for a word frequency effect

Predictors varying between clusters



- If we were to ignore the potential cross-cluster variability here, it would look like we have good evidence for a word frequency effect
- ▶ But we have measurements for only three words!



- If we were to ignore the potential cross-cluster variability here, it would look like we have good evidence for a word frequency effect
- But we have measurements for only three words!
- Suppose that there were no effect of word frequency, but words themselves varied idiosyncratically in their ease of recognition



- If we were to ignore the potential cross-cluster variability here, it would look like we have good evidence for a word frequency effect
- But we have measurements for only three words!
- Suppose that there were no effect of word frequency, but words themselves varied idiosyncratically in their ease of recognition
- ▶ But the probability that the observed means would have this monotonicity would still be $\frac{1}{6}$



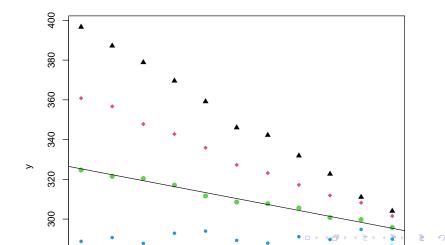
- If we were to ignore the potential cross-cluster variability here, it would look like we have good evidence for a word frequency effect
- But we have measurements for only three words!
- Suppose that there were no effect of word frequency, but words themselves varied idiosyncratically in their ease of recognition
- ▶ 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



- If we were to ignore the potential cross-cluster variability here, it would look like we have good evidence for a word frequency effect
- But we have measurements for only three words!
- Suppose that there were no effect of word frequency, but words themselves varied idiosyncratically in their ease of recognition
- ▶ 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 ? experiment had many different participants and many different nonwords

```
response \sim X + (1 | Word) + (1 + X | Participant)
```

- ► The ? experiment had many different participants and many different nonwords
- Each nonword has only one different number of neighbors, of course

```
response \sim X + (1 | Word) + (1 + X | Participant)
```

- ► The ? experiment had many different participants and many different nonwords
- Each nonword has only one different number of neighbors, of course
- Each participant is exposed to nonwords with many different numbers of neighbors

```
response \sim X + (1 | Word) + (1 + X | Participant)
```



- ► The ? experiment had many different participants and many different nonwords
- Each nonword has only one different number of neighbors, of course
- Each participant is exposed to nonwords with many different numbers of neighbors
- ► Hence, variation in neighborhood density is between-words but within-participant

```
response \sim X + (1 | Word) + (1 + X | Participant)
```

- ► The ? experiment had many different participants and many different nonwords
- Each nonword has only one different number of neighbors, of course
- Each participant is exposed to nonwords with many different numbers of neighbors
- ► Hence, variation in neighborhood density is between-words but within-participant
- ▶ In the formula syntax of R's 1me4 package:

```
response \sim X + (1 | Word) + (1 + X | Participant)
```



Exactly as for GLMs, the variance-covariance matrix of the fixed-effects covariance matrix contains a lot of information about confidence level in the parameters

- Exactly as for GLMs, the variance-covariance matrix of the fixed-effects covariance matrix contains a lot of information about confidence level in the parameters
- ▶ It can be used to determine a t-statistic for each parameter

- Exactly as for GLMs, the variance-covariance matrix of the fixed-effects covariance matrix contains a lot of information about confidence level in the parameters
- ▶ It can be used to determine a t-statistic for each parameter
- ► As with GLMs (but not as with LMs), the properties of this statistic are *asymptotic*—it is asymptotically normal

- Exactly as for GLMs, the variance-covariance matrix of the fixed-effects covariance matrix contains a lot of information about confidence level in the parameters
- ▶ It can be used to determine a t-statistic for each parameter
- ► As with GLMs (but not as with LMs), the properties of this statistic are *asymptotic*—it is asymptotically normal
- ► Likewise, the likelihood-ratio test can be used to compare models differing in fixed effects structure alone

- Exactly as for GLMs, the variance-covariance matrix of the fixed-effects covariance matrix contains a lot of information about confidence level in the parameters
- ▶ It can be used to determine a t-statistic for each parameter
- ► As with GLMs (but not as with LMs), the properties of this statistic are *asymptotic*—it is asymptotically normal
- ► Likewise, the likelihood-ratio test can be used to compare models differing in fixed effects structure alone
- It's slightly anticonservative, but not too bad in practice

- Exactly as for GLMs, the variance-covariance matrix of the fixed-effects covariance matrix contains a lot of information about confidence level in the parameters
- It can be used to determine a t-statistic for each parameter
- ► As with GLMs (but not as with LMs), the properties of this statistic are *asymptotic*—it is asymptotically normal
- ► Likewise, the likelihood-ratio test can be used to compare models differing in fixed effects structure alone
- lt'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

- Exactly as for GLMs, the variance-covariance matrix of the fixed-effects covariance matrix contains a lot of information about confidence level in the parameters
- It can be used to determine a t-statistic for each parameter
- ► As with GLMs (but not as with LMs), the properties of this statistic are *asymptotic*—it is asymptotically normal
- ► Likewise, the likelihood-ratio test can be used to compare models differing in fixed effects structure alone
- ▶ 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

```
##
## Attaching package: 'ellipse'
## The following object is masked from
'package:graphics':
##
## pairs
## Loading required package: Matrix
```

```
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)</pre>
```

► There has been disagreement/unclarity regarding how to specify random-effects structure for one's model

- ► There has been disagreement/unclarity regarding how to specify random-effects structure for one's model
 - ► Random intercepts are enough?

- ► There has been disagreement/unclarity regarding how to specify random-effects structure for one's model
 - Random intercepts are enough?
 - Start with random intercepts and then use model selection?

- ► There has been disagreement/unclarity regarding how to specify random-effects structure for one's model
 - Random intercepts are enough?
 - Start with random intercepts and then use model selection?
 - Maximal random effect structure, backing off to random intercepts if there are convergence problems?

- ► There has been disagreement/unclarity regarding how to specify random-effects structure for one's model
 - Random intercepts are enough?
 - Start with random intercepts and then use model selection?
 - Maximal random effect structure, backing off to random intercepts if there are convergence problems?
- ▶ In ? we have taken a strong but, we believe, traditional stand (really following ?):

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

- ► There has been disagreement/unclarity regarding how to specify random-effects structure for one's model
 - Random intercepts are enough?
 - Start with random intercepts and then use model selection?
 - Maximal random effect structure, backing off to random intercepts if there are convergence problems?
- ► In ? we have taken a strong but, we believe, traditional stand (really following ?):
 - Random-effect structure should be maximal with respect to the theoretically critical questions you are posing of your data.
- ► This position has been widely (though not universally) accepted by the field, and we continue to advocate for it

► For traditional, balanced designs with a small number of theoretically critical predictor, this means:

- ► For traditional, balanced designs with a small number of theoretically critical predictor, this means:
 - ► For every theoretically critical fixed-effect term in your model that varies *between* clusters (e.g., subjects or items), include a random intercept for that clustering

- ► For traditional, balanced designs with a small number of theoretically critical predictor, this means:
 - ► For every theoretically critical fixed-effect term in your model that varies *between* clusters (e.g., subjects or items), include a random intercept for that clustering
 - ► For every theoretically critical fixed-effect term in your model that varies *within* clusters, include a random slope for that clustering

➤ ? used self-paced reading to assess the real-time deployment of discourse knowledge in syntactic ambiguity resolution

- ? used self-paced reading to assess the real-time deployment of discourse knowledge in syntactic ambiguity resolution
- ► Sample item:

 John babysat the children of the musician who...

- ? used self-paced reading to assess the real-time deployment of discourse knowledge in syntactic ambiguity resolution
- ► Sample item:

 John babysat the children of the musician who...
 - ... was generally arrogant and rude.

- ? used self-paced reading to assess the real-time deployment of discourse knowledge in syntactic ambiguity resolution
- ► Sample item:

 John babysat the children of the musician who...
 - ... was generally arrogant and rude.
 - ... were generally arrogant and rude.

- ? used self-paced reading to assess the real-time deployment of discourse knowledge in syntactic ambiguity resolution
- ► Sample item:

 John babysat the children of the musician who...
 - ... was generally arrogant and rude.
 - ... were generally arrogant and rude.
- ► Sample item in implicit causality condition:

 John detested the children of the musician who...

- ➤ ? used self-paced reading to assess the real-time deployment of discourse knowledge in syntactic ambiguity resolution
- ► Sample item:

 John babysat the children of the musician who...
 - ... was generally arrogant and rude.
 - ... were generally arrogant and rude.
- Sample item in implicit causality condition: John detested the children of the musician who...
 - ... was generally arrogant and rude.

- ? used self-paced reading to assess the real-time deployment of discourse knowledge in syntactic ambiguity resolution
- ► Sample item:

 John babysat the children of the musician who...
 - ... was generally arrogant and rude.
 - ... were generally arrogant and rude.
- ► Sample item in implicit causality condition:

 John detested the children of the musician who...
 - ... was generally arrogant and rude.
 - ... were generally arrogant and rude.

- ? used self-paced reading to assess the real-time deployment of discourse knowledge in syntactic ambiguity resolution
- ► Sample item:

 John babysat the children of the musician who...
 - ... was generally arrogant and rude.
 - ... were generally arrogant and rude.
- ► Sample item in implicit causality condition:

 John detested the children of the musician who...
 - ... was generally arrogant and rude.
 - ... were generally arrogant and rude.
- ► 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).

▶ In self-paced reading, many kinds of word properties show up primarily in reading times one or more words downstream ("spillover" effects)

- In self-paced reading, many kinds of word properties show up primarily in reading times one or more words downstream ("spillover" effects)
- ► Thus we focus on statistical analysis of the word immediately after disambiguation:

John babysat/detested the children of the musician who was/were generally arrogant and rude

- In self-paced reading, many kinds of word properties show up primarily in reading times one or more words downstream ("spillover" effects)
- ► Thus we focus on statistical analysis of the word immediately after disambiguation:

John babysat/detested the children of the musician who was/were generally arrogant and rude

 We'll abbreviate the type of verb (implicit causality or not) the V factor and the RC's attachment level (high or low) the A factor

- In self-paced reading, many kinds of word properties show up primarily in reading times one or more words downstream ("spillover" effects)
- ► Thus we focus on statistical analysis of the word immediately after disambiguation:

John babysat/detested the children of the musician who was/were generally arrogant and rude

- We'll abbreviate the type of verb (implicit causality or not) the V factor and the RC's attachment level (high or low) the A factor
- ► These factors are crossed in the experiment, and both within-subject



Results of a maximal LME fit:

boundary (singular) fit: see help('isSingular')

```
## 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
## 12527.408 12647.990 -6238.704 12477.408 894
## Random effects:
## Groups Name Std.Dev. Corr
## subj (Intercept) 129.496
##
  V 21.820 -0.82
##
  A 4.939 -0.94 0.96
## V:A 111.507 -0.48 0.90 0.75
## item (Intercept) 38.996
               45.339 -0.80
40.787 0.06 -0.64
##
##
          V:A
                    74.371 0.04 0.56 -1.00
##
## Residual
                    196 208
## Number of obs: 919, groups: subi, 55; item, 20
## Fixed Effects:
## (Intercept) V A
                                        V - A
## 470 4938 -33 7621 -0 1967 -85 0056
## optimizer (nloptwrap) convergence code: 0 (OK); 0 optimizer warnings; 1 lme4 warnings
```

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

```
print(anova(rt.lmer.full,rt.lmer.null))
## Data: d
## Models:
## rt.lmer.null: rt ~ V + A + (V * A | subj) + (V * A | item)
## rt.lmer.full: rt ~ V * A + (V * A | subj) + (V * A | item)
## rt.lmer.full: rt ~ V * A + (V * A | subj) + (V * A | item)
## npar AIC BIC logLik deviance Chisq Df Pr(>Chisq)
## rt.lmer.null 24 12531 12647 -6241.5 12483
## rt.lmer.full 25 12527 12648 -6238.7 12477 5.5137 1 0.01887
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

Bayesian fitting of mixed models with brms

```
## Loading 'brms' package (version 2.21.0). Useful
instructions
## can be found by typing help('brms'). A more
detailed introduction
## to the package is available through
vignette('brms_overview').
##
## Attaching package: 'brms'
## The following object is masked from
'package: lme4':
##
##
       nqrps
## The following object is masked from
'package:stats':
##
##
       ar
## Compiling Stan program...
```

Bayesian fitting of mixed models with brms

cor(Intercept, V)

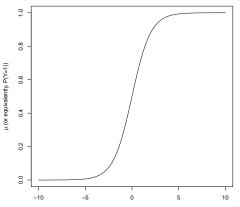
```
summary(rt.brm.full)
## Family: gaussian
##
   Links: mu = identity; sigma = identity
## Formula: rt ~ V * A + (V * A | subj) + (V * A | item)
## Data: d (Number of observations: 919)
## Draws: 4 chains, each with iter = 2000; warmup = 1000
##
          total post-warmup draws = 4000
##
## Multilevel Hyperparameters:
## ~item (Number of levels: 20)
##
                    Estimate Est.Error 1-95% CI u-95% CI
## sd(Intercept)
                      43.45 11.67 23.25
                                                69.27
## sd(V)
                      44.00 22.12 3.94
                                                89.83
## sd(A)
                   34.50 21.44 2.15 80.39
## sd(V:A)
                   71.18 42.53 3.76 159.64
```

-0.39 0.34 -0.91

0.39

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

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



➤ A generalized linear mixed model (GLMM) works exactly the same as an LME model; the cluster-level variables contribute to the linear predictor

- A generalized linear mixed model (GLMM) works exactly the same as an LME model; the cluster-level variables contribute to the linear predictor
- ▶ A mixed logit model thus has the logit link function:

$$\eta = \log \frac{\mu}{1 - \mu}$$

- A generalized linear mixed model (GLMM) works exactly the same as an LME model; the cluster-level variables contribute to the linear predictor
- ► A mixed logit model thus has the logit link function:

$$\eta = \log \frac{\mu}{1 - \mu}$$

▶ Bernoulli noise distribution around predicted mean μ :

$$P(Y=y|\mu) = egin{cases} \mu & y=1 \ 1-\mu & y=0 \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- A generalized linear mixed model (GLMM) works exactly the same as an LME model; the cluster-level variables contribute to the linear predictor
- A mixed logit model thus has the logit link function:

$$\eta = \log \frac{\mu}{1 - \mu}$$

▶ Bernoulli noise distribution around predicted mean μ :

$$P(Y=y|\mu) = egin{cases} \mu & y=1 \ 1-\mu & y=0 \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

And linear predictor

$$\eta = X\beta + Zb$$

where b is multivariate-normal distributed:

$$b \sim \textit{N}(0, \Sigma_b)$$



References I

Frequentist hypothesis testing means the Neyman-Pearson paradigm, with an asymmetry between null (H_0) and alternative (H_1) hypotheses

- Frequentist hypothesis testing means the Neyman-Pearson paradigm, with an asymmetry between null (H_0) and alternative (H_1) hypotheses
- A *p*-value from a dataset D is how unlikely a given dataset was to be produced under H_0

- Frequentist hypothesis testing means the Neyman-Pearson paradigm, with an asymmetry between null (H_0) and alternative (H_1) hypotheses
- A *p*-value from a dataset D is how unlikely a given dataset was to be produced under H_0
- Note that so-called "p_{MCMC}" is NOT a p-value in the Neyman-Pearson sense!

- Frequentist hypothesis testing means the Neyman-Pearson paradigm, with an asymmetry between null (H_0) and alternative (H_1) hypotheses
- A *p*-value from a dataset D is how unlikely a given dataset was to be produced under H_0
- 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)

$$\frac{P(H_0|D)}{P(H_1|D)} = \frac{P(D|H_0)}{P(D|H_1)} \frac{P(H_0)}{P(H_1)}$$

► Alternative: Bayesian hypothesis testing, which is symmetric:

$$\frac{P(H_0|D)}{P(H_1|D)} = \frac{P(D|H_0)}{P(D|H_1)} \frac{P(H_0)}{P(H_1)}$$

▶ I am fundamentally Bayesian in my philosophy of science

$$\frac{P(H_0|D)}{P(H_1|D)} = \frac{P(D|H_0)}{P(D|H_1)} \frac{P(H_0)}{P(H_1)}$$

- ▶ I am fundamentally Bayesian in my philosophy of science
- ▶ But, weakness in practice: your likelihoods $P(D|H_0)$ and $P(D|H_1)$ can depend on fine details of your assumptions about H_0 and H_1

$$\frac{P(H_0|D)}{P(H_1|D)} = \frac{P(D|H_0)}{P(D|H_1)} \frac{P(H_0)}{P(H_1)}$$

- ▶ I am fundamentally Bayesian in my philosophy of science
- ▶ But, weakness in practice: your likelihoods $P(D|H_0)$ and $P(D|H_1)$ can depend on fine details of your assumptions about H_0 and H_1
- I do not trust you to assess these likelihoods neutrally! (Nor should you trust me)

$$\frac{P(H_0|D)}{P(H_1|D)} = \frac{P(D|H_0)}{P(D|H_1)} \frac{P(H_0)}{P(H_1)}$$

- ▶ I am fundamentally Bayesian in my philosophy of science
- ▶ But, weakness in practice: your likelihoods $P(D|H_0)$ and $P(D|H_1)$ can depend on fine details of your assumptions about H_0 and H_1
- ► I do not trust you to assess these likelihoods neutrally! (Nor should you trust me)
- So for me, the *p*-value of your experiment serves as a rough indicator of how small $P(D|H_0)$ may be

$$\frac{P(H_0|D)}{P(H_1|D)} = \frac{P(D|H_0)}{P(D|H_1)} \frac{P(H_0)}{P(H_1)}$$

- ▶ I am fundamentally Bayesian in my philosophy of science
- ▶ But, weakness in practice: your likelihoods $P(D|H_0)$ and $P(D|H_1)$ can depend on fine details of your assumptions about H_0 and H_1
- I do not trust you to assess these likelihoods neutrally! (Nor should you trust me)
- 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)

