Using linear mixed-effects models in psycholinguistic research

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The main goals today

- This is a non-technical and intuitive introduction to the use of linear mixed-effects models in psycholinguistic research.
- ▶ The focus is on hypothesis testing, not prediction.
- I will provide a real-life example from my own research to show how mixed-effects models can help us to build better and more informative statistical models.
- Towards the end I will also give some examples of how the R code relates to the content discussed in this document.

These slides can be downloaded from: http://www.ling.uni-potsdam.de/~vasishth/SFLS.html.

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The broad research question

- A current focus in sentence processing research is the issue of locality and anti-locality during online reading.
- The key claim in the literature is that argument-head distance is a (or perhaps the) major determinant of processing difficulty. This is the foundational idea behind several theories (such as Gibson's and Hawkins').
- But there are two issues:
 - There is significant evidence against locality (Konieczny 2000), (Vasishth 2003), (Vasishth & Lewis 2006), (Vasishth & Scheepers, in preparation)).
 - Current theories have no room for interference effects, except as an afterthought. The alternative we are exploring is that locality, anti-locality, and interference emerge from more general constraints on the human cognitive system.
- We'll explore one aspect of this issue today with some recent results (see Suckow et al. 2005, 2006).

Interference

The interference effect is a well-researched phenomenon in sentence processing. Gordon and colleagues, Van Dyke and Lewis, and others has shown that retrieving an element like an NP at a verb is harder when similar elements are available in working memory. Consider the following sentence:

(1) Der Anwalt, den der Zeuge/Säbel, den der Spion The lawyer who the witness/sword that the spy betrachtete, schnitt, überzeugte den Richter looked-at cut convinced the judge

Interference predicts greater processing difficulty at the verb *betrachtete* when all three preceding NPs are human.

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Experiment design and method

- There are two factors of interest: Similarity and Grammaticality.
- A 2 × 2 within-subjects (n=51) experiment was conducted, with 3 items per condition. Four counterbalanced lists were prepared and the 12 critical items in each list were interspersed with approximately 50 distractor sentences and the lists were pseudo-randomized. Subjects were randomly assigned to lists.
- The dependent measure of interest was total reading time at NP2, NP3, the first verb (V3), and the last (V1). Call these the critical regions.

[NP1+ [NP2+ [NP3+ VP3] (VP2)] VP1] [NP1+ [NP2- [NP3+ VP3] (VP2)] VP1]

The missing VP effect

Previous research by Gibson and Thomas (1999) has shown for English that omitting the second verb in center embeddings results in *improved* grammaticality judgements.

However, only offline judgements or auto-paced reading have been brought to bear in the empirical issues. In (Suckow et al. 2006) we tried to replicate this missing VP effect using eyetracking.

(2) Der Anwalt, den der Zeuge/Säbel, den der Spion The lawyer who the witness/sword that the spy betrachtete, (schnitt,) überzeugte den Richter looked-at cut convinced the judge

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Hypothesis 1: Interference

Suckow, Vasishth, Lewis, and Smith (2006) hypothesized that interference could have a much more extensive effect.

[NP1+ [NP2+ [NP3+ VP3] VP2] VP1] [NP1+ [NP2- [NP3+ VP3] VP2] VP1]

- (a) ENCODING INTERFERENCE: Encoding an NP should be more difficult when a similar NP has recently been encoded, NP2 and NP3 should be harder to process when NP2 is human (after factoring out frequency and length differences)
- (b) RETRIEVAL INTERFERENCE: Interference predicts greater processing difficulty at V3 if all NPs previously seen are animate, since the verb is looking for a human argument and there are three candidates.

Hypothesis 2: The missing VP effect

- If VP2 is forgotten, then no disription (no increase in reading time) should occur at VP1 in the missing VP conditions (c, d) compared to the grammatical conditions.
- If VP2 is not forgotten, a disruption is expected at or just after the VP1 in the missing VP conditions (c, d).
- a. [NP1+ [NP2+ [NP3+ VP3] VP2] VP1]
- b. [NP1+ [NP2- [NP3+ VP3] VP2] VP1]
- c. [NP1+ [NP2+ [NP3+ VP3]] VP1]
- d. [NP1+ [NP2- [NP3+ VP3]] VP1]



Critical regions



Experiment results

In this talk the analysis results are almost beside the point, but I'll tell you anyway:

- > Evidence for encoding and retrieval interference was found
- Surprisingly, German native speakers immediately detect the missing VP. This expresses itself as longer RTs at the final verb in the missing-VP conditions. This result goes against the simple "memory overload" explanation of Gibson and Thomas (1999), whereby the prediction for the second verb is forgotten–Germans don't forget.
- Interesting side note: in parallel English reading studies conducted at Ann Arbor, Michigan, we found that English speakers *do* seem to forget the middle verb's prediction. See Suckow et al. (CUNY 2006 poster) for details.

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The data analysis problem

In this talk I will focus only on (a) the Similarity effect at NP2 and the region preceding NP3, and (b) the Grammaticality effect at V1. There are two complications in the data analysis:

- Frequency and length of NP2 differ in the manipulation: higher frequency NPs and shorter NPs will be processed faster and this could confound the results.
- Eyetracking data are sometimes unbalanced: sometimes subjects do not look at particular words or not look long enough, so we will probably not have exactly identical numbers of repeated measures for each subject.

Our basic statistical model (without interactions) will look something like this:

$$RT = baseline RT + Sim + Gram + Freq + Len + residual$$
 (1)

- ► In general, effects can be "fixed" or "random"
- An example of a random effect is subjects: we are taking a random sample (well, in theory anyway) from a population.
- The factor(s) being manipulated (e.g. similarity) is a fixed factor, since we fixed it at +/- similar when we designed the experiment.
- However, fixed factors like similarity can also be treated as random factors. I will just explain what this amounts to.

A mixed-effects model is one that has both fixed and random effects.

Subject-similarity interaction at NP2



Most-but not all-subjects show a faster RT in the dissimilar condition.

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Similarity-word frequency interaction at NP2



Dissimilar NPs are more frequent in all but two cases.

Similarity-word length interaction at NP2



Dissimilar NPs happen to be sometimes shorter.

Log frequency-RT interaction at NP2





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Starting small

The interaction plots confirm the importance of taking frequency and length of NP2 as explanatory covariates. Let's start by fitting a simple model: Fixed factors:

- Similarity
- Word length
- Word frequency

Random factor:

Subjects

$$y_{ij} = \mu + b_i + \beta_1 \operatorname{Sim}_{ij} + \beta_2 \operatorname{Len}_i + \beta_3 \operatorname{Freq}_i + \epsilon_{ij}$$
(2)

 b_i is a separate coefficient (intercept) for each subject.

Length-RT interaction at NP2



Longer words have slower RT (also no surprise).

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Model 1 estimates

Fixed effects coefficients (extracted from R output):

(Intercept)	Sim	Len	Freq
6.09	-0.16	0.07	-0.03

Random effects (standard deviations):

Random effects: Formula: ~1 | subject (Intercept) Residual StdDev: 0.640562 0.572838

$$y_{ij} = \mu + b_i + \beta_1 \operatorname{Sim}_{ij} + \beta_2 \operatorname{Len}_i + \beta_3 \operatorname{Freq}_i + \epsilon_{ij}$$
(3)

$$y_{ij} = 6.09 + b_i + (-0.16) \times \operatorname{Sim}_{ij} + 0.07 \times \operatorname{Len}_i + (-0.03) \times \operatorname{Freq}_i + \epsilon_{ij}$$
(4)

$$Var(b_i)=0.64^2$$
, $Var(\epsilon_{ij})=0.57^2$

Model 1 estimates

R> intervals(fm0.NP2) Approximate 95% confidence intervals Fixed effects: lower est. upper (Intercept) 5.67040041 6.08701853 6.503636645 similaritydissim -0.26841254 -0.15744779 -0.046483036 len 0.04807326 0.07251362 0.096953981 lf -0.07036548 -0.03263034 0.005104804 attr(,"label") [1] "Fixed effects:" Random Effects: Level: subject lower est. upper sd((Intercept)) 0.5186496 0.640562 0.7911309 Within-group standard error: lower est. upper 0.5382067 0.5728380 0.6096978

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Model 1 analysis of variance

We can also compute the ANOVA based on the fitted model:

	numDF	denDF	F-value	p-value
sim	1	494	55.52	4.165557e-13
len	1	494	76.50	0.00000e+00
lf	1	494	2.89	8.995200e-02

Model 1 estimates

- The three fixed effects each have a single (mean) coefficient across all subjects. A standard error is estimated for each coefficient as well.
- The mean coefficent and its SE together allow us to ask if there is a significant effect of each fixed factor. This is just asking, for each factor, whether we can reject the null hypothesis that β is zero (H_o : β_k = o). We can just compute the t-statistic for each coefficient (t = β_k=o)/SE.

	Value	Std.Error	DF	t-value	p-value
(Intercept)	6.088	0.212	494	28.706	0
sim	-0.157	0.056	494	-2.788	0.006
len	0.073	0.0124	494	5.829	0
lf	-0.033	0.0192	494	-1.699	0.09

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A more complex model

Fixed factors:

- Similarity
- Word length
- ► Word frequency

Random factors:

- Subjects
- Similarity is nested as a random factor inside Subject (separate term for each subject's exposure to similar and dissimilar conditions)

$$y_{ij} = \mu + b_i + b_{ij} + \beta_1 \operatorname{Sim}_{ij} + \beta_2 \operatorname{Len}_i + \beta_3 \operatorname{Freq}_i + \epsilon_{ij} \quad (5)$$

Model 2 coefficients

The key change is in the random effects:

Random effects: Formula: ~1 | subject (Intercept) StdDev: 0.640562

Formula: ~1 | similarity %in% subject (Intercept) Residual StdDev: 5.526901e-05 0.572838

$$y_{ij} = \mu + b_i + b_{ij} + \beta_1 \operatorname{Sim}_{ij} + \beta_2 \operatorname{Len}_i + \beta_3 \operatorname{Freq}_i + \epsilon_{ij} \quad (6)$$

29/dissim -1.938749e-09 30/sim 9.077410e-10 30/dissim -3.705271e-09

Model 2 ANOVA

	numDF	denDF	F-value	p-value
similarity	1	50	55.52	1.183873e-09
lf	1	444	45.41	4.985123e-11
len	1	444	33.98	1.071035e-08

Table: NP2: similarity effect, logTRT, by subjects

Model 1 vs. 2 random effects

Model 1:

$$y_{ij} = \mu + b_i + \beta_1 \operatorname{Sim}_{ij} + \beta_2 \operatorname{Len}_i + \beta_3 \operatorname{Freq}_i + \epsilon_{ij}$$
(7)

Random effects: Formula: ~1 | subject (Intercept) Residual StdDev: 0.640562 0.572838

Model 2:

$$y_{ij} = \mu + b_i + \underline{b_{ij}} + \beta_1 \operatorname{Sim}_{ij} + \beta_2 \operatorname{Len}_i + \beta_3 \operatorname{Freq}_i + \epsilon_{ij}$$
(8)

Random effects: Formula: ~1 | subject (Intercept) StdDev: 0.640562

Formula: ~1 | similarity %in% subject (Intercept) Residual StdDev: 5.526901e-05 0.572838

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Comparing Models 1 and 2

Which model is better? There are various ways to quantify this; the Akaike Information Criterion is one (it's based on log-likelihood and the number of parameters in the model). The lower the AIC the better the fit.

Model	df	AIC	p-value
1	6	1108.965	
2	7	1110.965	0.9996

There is not much motivation for fitting the nested random effect for similarity.

The region preceding the NP3

The motivation for spillover correction at den

(3) Der Anwalt, den der Zeuge/Säbel, den der Spion The lawyer who the witness/sword that the spy betrachtete, schnitt, überzeugte den Richter looked-at cut convinced the judge

Total reading time at the region preceding NP3 also includes parafoveal processing of NP3. We assumed that several factors would affect RT at der:

- Similarity, frequency, length of NP2 (as before)
- ► Spillover from the preceding region (*den*)



Subjects show varying patterns of spillover from region n-1; there appears to be a subject-spillover interaction.

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Model 1: Spillover as fixed effect

 $y_{ij} = \mu + b_i + \beta_1 \operatorname{Sim}_{ij} + \beta_2 \operatorname{Len}_i + \beta_3 \operatorname{Freq}_i + \beta_4 \operatorname{Spillover}_i + \epsilon_{ij}$ (9)

Random effects:

Formula: ~1 | subject (Intercept) Residual StdDev: 0.4059250 0.6029987

```
Fixed effects: logTRT ~ similarity + lf + len + logTRTnValue Std.Error DF t-value p-value(Intercept)5.047819 0.3697377 394 13.652433 0.0000similaritydissim-0.212096 0.0669203 394 -3.169379 0.0016lf0.019708 0.0231064 394 0.852926 0.3942len-0.021247 0.0144652 394 -1.468806 0.1427logTRTn0.193461 0.0444901 394 4.348397 0.0000
```

Model 1 ANOVA

	numDF	denDF	F-value	p-value
(Intercept)	1	394	9096.16	0.000000e+00
similarity	1	394	7.24	7.422626e-03
lf	1	394	5.01	2.574450e-02
len	1	394	2.47	1.171585e-01
logTRTn	1	394	18.91	1.748319e-05

Model 2: Adding separate spillover slopes for subjects

Model 2 ANOVA

$y_{ij} = \mu + b_i + \beta_1 \operatorname{Sim}_{ij} + \beta_2 \operatorname{Len}_i + \beta_3 \operatorname{Freq}_i + (\beta_4 + \zeta_i) \operatorname{Spill}_i + \epsilon_{ij}$ (10)

Random effects:	
Formula: ~1 + lo	gTRTn subject
StdDe	v Corr
(Intercept) 1.192	1421 (Intr)
logTRTn 0.207	6766 -0.958
Residual 0.591	3787
> ranef(fm0a.NP3)	
(Intercept)	logTRTn
29 -0.84606792	0.102989271
30 -0.19850234 -	0.002079418
D: 1 CC 1 1	mpm ~ · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
Fixed effects: 10	giki similarity + 11 + 1en + logikin
(=	Value Std.Error DF t-Value p-Value
(Intercept)	5.111320 0.4080183 394 12.527183 0.0000
similaritydissim	-0.204901 0.0665910 394 -3.077012 0.0022
lf	0.025584 0.0230279 394 1.111013 0.2672
len	-0.020878 0.0144536 394 -1.444454 0.1494
logTRTn	0.170734 0.0545716 394 3.128623 0.0019

	numDF	denDF	F-value	p-value
(Intercept)	1	394	10165.61	0.000000e+00
similarity	1	394	4.66	3.138734e-02
lf	1	394	6.51	1.112292e-02
len	1	394	2.33	1.278449e-01
logTRTn	1	394	9.79	1.886893e-03

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Comparing Models 1 and 2

 Model
 df
 AIC
 p-value

 1
 7
 934.2326
 9

 2
 9
 931.3991
 0.0328

The model with the separate spillover slopes for each subject is a better fit.

The missing VP effect

- If VP2 is forgotten, then no disturbance should occur at VP1 in the missing VP conditions (c, d) compared to the grammatical conditions.
- If VP2 is not forgotten, a disturbance is expected at VP1 in the missing VP conditions (c, d).
- a. [NP1+ [NP2+ [NP3+ VP3] VP2] VP1]
- b. [NP1+ [NP2- [NP3+ VP3] VP2] VP1]
- c. [NP1+ [NP2+ [NP3+ VP3] -] VP1]
- d. [NP1+ [NP2- [NP3+ VP3] -] VP1]



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Subject-Spillover interaction at V1





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Model 1: Spillover as fixed effect

 $y_{ij} = \mu + b_i + \beta_1 \operatorname{Sim}_{ij} + \beta_2 \operatorname{Gram}_{ij} + \beta_3 \operatorname{Spill}_i + \beta_4 \operatorname{Sim}_{ij} \times \operatorname{Gram}_{ij} + \epsilon_{ij}$ (11)

Random effects: Formula: ~1 | subject (Intercept) Residual StdDev: 0.2700488 0.5804452

Fixed effect	s: logT	RT ~ Sim *	Gram	+ Spillover	
	Value	Std.Error	DF	t-value	p-value
(Intercept)	3.54	0.278	522	12.77	0.00
Sim	-0.02	0.069	522	-0.30	0.76
Gram	0.08	0.069	522	1.21	0.23
Spillover	0.45	0.040	522	11.06	0.00
Sim:Gram	0.24	0.097	522	2.49	0.01

Model 2: Separate	e intercepts an	id slopes for	spillover
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 $y_{ij} = \mu + b_i + \beta_1 \operatorname{Sim}_{ij} + \beta_2 \operatorname{Gram}_{ij} + (\beta_3 + \zeta_i) \operatorname{Spill}_i + \beta_4 \operatorname{Sim}_{ij} \times \operatorname{Gram}_{ij} + \epsilon_{ij}$ (12)

Random effects: Formula: ~1 + logTRTn | subject StdDev Corr (Intercept) 0.8052335 (Intr) logTRTn 0.1548788 -0.988 Residual 0.5750767

Fixed effects: logTRT ~ Sim * Gram + Spillover					
	Value	Std.Error	DF	t-value	p-value
(Intercept)	3.51	0.29	522	12.04	0.00
Sim	-0.01	0.07	522	-0.17	0.86
Gram	0.096	0.07	522	1.4	0.16
Spillover	0.45	0.05	522	9.79	0.00
Sim:Gram	0.24	0.10	522	2.50	0.01

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p-value

3.615563e-02

12.55 4.312170e-04

6.22 1.293493e-02

127.50 0.000000e+00

Model 2 ANOVA

Model comparison

	numDF	denDF	F-value	p-value
(Intercept)	1	522	25012.29	0.000000e+00
similarity	1	522	5.18	2.331227e-02
grammaticality	1	522	15.77	8.137455e-05
logTRTn	1	522	99.55	0.000000e+00
similarity:grammaticality	1	522	6.22	1.293434e-02

numDF

1

1

1

1

similarity

logTRTn

grammaticality

similarity:grammaticality

denDF

522

522

522

522

F-value

4.41

Model df AIC p-value 1 7 1101.749 2 9 1097.620 0.0172

Some practical details regarding R usage

An example of the shape of the data that was used for the analyses:

	subject	logTRT	lf	grammaticality	similarity
1	100	4.767884	4.077537	gram	sim
2	104	6.080139	4.077537	gram	sim
3	109	5.913125	4.077537	gram	sim
4	113	5.594674	4.077537	gram	sim
5	117	6.355778	4.077537	gram	sim
6	121	7.960833	4.077537	gram	sim

Several packages can be used for linear mixed effects models in R. Two are nlme and lme4. I show the basic usage in the following slides, with reference to the examples shown above.

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Similarity effect at NP2: Model 2

$$y_{ij} = \mu + b_i + b_{ij} + \beta_1 \operatorname{Sim}_{ij} + \beta_2 \operatorname{Len}_i + \beta_3 \operatorname{Freq}_i + \epsilon_{ij}$$
(14)

nlme syntax:

Ime4 syntax:

Similarity effect at NP2: Model 1

$$y_{ij} = \mu + b_i + \beta_1 \operatorname{Sim}_{ij} + \beta_2 \operatorname{Len}_i + \beta_3 \operatorname{Freq}_i + \epsilon_{ij}$$
(13)

nlme syntax:

fm0.NP2	<-	<pre>lme(logTRT~similarity+)</pre>	len+lf+logTRTn,	
random=~1 subject,				
		data=pos5datafreql	data=pos5datafreqlen.gp,	
		na.action=na.omit,	<pre>method="REML")</pre>	

Ime4 syntax:

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Region preceding NP3: Model 1

$$y_{ij} = \mu + b_i + \beta_1 \operatorname{Sim}_{ij} + \beta_2 \operatorname{Len}_i + \beta_3 \operatorname{Freq}_i + (\beta_4) \operatorname{Spill}_i + \epsilon_{ij}$$
(15)

nlme syntax:

Ime4 syntax:

Region preceding NP3: Model 2

$$y_{ij} = \mu + b_i + \beta_1 \operatorname{Sim}_{ij} + \beta_2 \operatorname{Len}_i + \beta_3 \operatorname{Freq}_i + (\beta_4 + \zeta_i) \operatorname{Spill}_i + \epsilon_{ij}$$
(16)

nlme syntax:

Ime4 syntax:

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XY plots in R

library(lattice)

ylab="Log frequency", ylab="Log total reading times", panel=drawfittedline, scales=scalelist))

Interaction plots in R

attach(pos5datafreqlen)
interaction.plot(similarity,itemnum,lf,las=1,
 fun = function(x) mean(x, na.rm=TRUE),
 ylab="log(Frequency)",
 xlab="Conditions",
 lwd=2,
 fixed=FALSE,
 cex.lab=1.5,
 col=rainbow(51))
detach(pos5datafreqlen)

Selected bibliography

- Julian Faraway. Extending the linear model with R. Chapman and Hall,/CRC, Boca Raton, FL, 2006. A somewhat sketchy presentation, but has many examples of the latest lme4 package's usage.
- Stephen W. Raudenbush and Anthony S. Bryk. Hierarchical Linear Models: Applications and Data analysis methods. Quantitative techniques in the social sciences. Sage, second edition, 2002. This is the most important reference of all; it provides a detailed and accessible treatment of the theory behind HLMs.
- José C. Pinheiro and Douglas M. Bates. Mixed-Effects Models in S and S-PLUS. Springer-Verlag, New York, 2000. A very useful (and expensive) user's manual for nlme, with a lot of technical detail.
- W. N. Venables and B. D. Ripley. Modern Applied Statistics with S-PLUS. Springer, New York, 1999. Terse and tight-lipped treatment of everything statistical. Will put hair on your chest.

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