

Supplementary Materials:
Competing theories of multi-alternative,
multi-attribute preferential choice

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Key words: Multiattribute Linear Ballistic Accumulator model, Leaky
Competing Accumulator model, Multialternative Decision Field Theory
model, Associations and Accumulation model

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This research was supported by National Science Foundation grant 1358507.

1 **Contents**

2	1 Study 1: Additional Results	3
3	1.1 Modeling Analysis 1: No Individual Differences	3
4	1.1.1 Model Specification: No Individual Differences	4
5	1.1.2 Fitting the Models	7
6	1.2 Modeling Analysis 2: Hierarchical Models	8
7	1.2.1 Model Specification: Hierarchical Models	8
8	1.2.2 Fitting the Models	12
9	1.3 Estimated Posterior Distributions: No Individual Differences .	13
10	1.4 Hierarchical Fits to Data by Subject	16
11	2 Study 2: Additional Results	18
12	2.1 Modeling Analysis 1: No Individual Differences	18
13	2.1.1 Model Specification: No Individual Differences	18
14	2.1.2 Fitting the Models	20
15	2.2 Modeling Analysis 2: Hierarchical Models	20
16	2.2.1 Fitting the Models	20
17	2.3 Aggregated Fits to Data by Condition	21
18	2.4 Hierarchical Fits to Data by Condition	23
19	2.5 Hierarchical Fits to Data by Subject	27

20 The supplementary materials below consist of two sections. First, we
21 provide additional details from our hierarchical analysis of Experiment 1, as
22 it offers finer granularity than what was reported in the main text. Second, we
23 provide additional results from our analyses of Experiment 2. Specifically, we
24 provide plots of the best-fitting model predictions – both the aggregated and
25 hierarchical models – against the observed data, as well as fits to individual
26 subjects.

27 **1. Study 1: Additional Results**

28 In this section, we provide three additional details that were not reported
29 in the paper. First, we present the technical specification of the models and
30 the details of our sampling algorithms. Second, we show estimated posterior
31 distributions for each of the nonhierarchical models. Third, we show fit
32 statistics for the hierarchical models for each individual subject.

33 *1.1. Modeling Analysis 1: No Individual Differences*

34 The first analysis we performed collapsed across subjects, resulting in
35 a total of nine probabilities: three probabilities corresponding to the three
36 choice options, times the three context effects. This is a sparse amount of
37 data, especially given that the three probabilities within a context effect must
38 sum to one. However, because we collapsed across subjects for this analysis,
39 each observation consists of 48×3 judgments, where the three effects were
40 collapsed across the various items (see Berkowitsch et al., 2014).

41 We had many choices in fitting the models to data. Each model has a
42 custom set of mechanisms available, and it is easy to imagine how mecha-
43 nisms from other models can be borrowed to obtain better fits to the data.
44 To limit the number of possibilities, we investigated at least two versions of
45 each model: the core version put forth in the original publication, and the
46 core version adapted to incorporate biases in the attribute space. Because
47 the products offered in the consumer goods experiment of Berkowitsch et al.
48 (2014) varied along different dimensions, the additional attribute bias param-
49 eters allowed the models to capture effects that may have been an artifact
50 of the data aggregation process. Furthermore, we tested many simpler (i.e.,
51 having fewer parameters) nested variants of the “base” models described be-
52 low, such as removing the leakage parameters of the MLCA model. However,
53 these simpler models usually performed worse, and so we do not report them
54 here. For the AAM, we found that adding a lateral inhibition mechanism

55 greatly improved the model fit, and so we report it below for sake of discus-
56 sion. The technical details of each model can be found in the supplementary
57 materials.

58 *1.1.1. Model Specification: No Individual Differences*

59 A total of four stock models were fit to the data: MDFT, MLCA, AAM,
60 and MLBA. Within each stock model, we investigated at least two variants
61 of each model, one variant having attribute bias parameters, and one that
62 did not. For the AAM, although not used in Bhatia (2013), we investigated
63 whether having a lateral inhibition term improved the model’s fit to data.
64 In parallel with the introduction, we now discuss each of the four models
65 chronologically.

66 *MDFT.* We investigated two variants of the MDFT model. The first vari-
67 ant, which we call MDFT 1.0, is the base version of the model following Roe
68 et al. (2001) with the additional insights from Hotelling et al. (2010). This
69 version of the model has a total of four parameters: the within-trial vari-
70 ability term Σ , the sensitivity parameter ϕ_1 , the decay parameter ϕ_2 , and
71 the bias term β for gains. MDFT 1.0 assumes that each attribute dimension
72 is sampled with equal probability (i.e., $\omega = 0.5$), but the bias term β does
73 allow for the attributes to have larger magnitudes in affecting the prefer-
74 ence states when a particular dimension is sampled (see the Supplementary
75 Materials for derivations). Considering this, we also investigated a version
76 of the model where the attribute dimensions could be sampled with unequal
77 probability. This model, which we refer to as MDFT 2.0, freely estimates the
78 parameter ω . Hence, MDFT 2.0 allows for a bias in the input of a particular
79 attribute dimension to the accumulators, and also a bias in the saliency of
80 each attribute.

81 The MDFT – like the MLCA and AAM models below – has two forms
82 of accumulation termination policies. The first version is that the preference
83 states stochastically grow until a predefined threshold θ is reached. The
84 second version simply evaluates the preference states up to a pre-specified
85 number of iterations T . To maintain consistency with all models, we used
86 the second termination policy by setting $T = 100$.

87 The final consideration is the constraints on the model parameters. The
88 parameters Σ , ϕ_1 , ϕ_2 , and β are all constrained to be positive values. As
89 such, we modeled these parameters on the log scale to facilitate posterior
90 sampling. Specifically, when the parameters are near their boundary, the

91 efficiency of our particular sampling algorithm decreases. Transformations
92 to log scale help to avoid this problem altogether (see Turner and Sederberg,
93 2014, for a discussion). A similar issue could arise for the attribute dimension
94 bias parameter ω which is bound by $[0, 1]$. As such, we applied a logit trans-
95 formation to ω so that it also had continuous, uniform support. Considering
96 the scale of the parameters Σ , ϕ_1 , ϕ_2 , and ω , we specified a uniform prior
97 on the interval $(-1000, 1000)$. However, for β , we followed Hotaling et al.
98 (2010) and constrained $\beta > 1$. The motivation for this choice is that the
99 distance function (see the Supplementary Materials) should weigh changes
100 in the dominance direction more than the indifference direction, and so the
101 weight β should only increase the value of the dominance distance. Because
102 we modeled β on the log scale, we incorporated this constraint by specifying
103 a uniform prior on the interval $(0, 1000)$.

104 *MLCA*. We investigated two versions of the MLCA model. The first version
105 of the model had a total of four parameters: the lateral inhibition parameter
106 L , the leakage parameter k , the within-trial noise parameter η , and the base-
107 line level of input I_0 . We refer to this model as MLCA 1.0 because it is the
108 most basic model and assumes each attribute dimension is equally likely to
109 be sampled in the accumulation process (i.e., $\omega = 0.5$). To extend the basic
110 model to have a biased attribute-sampling process, we freely estimated one
111 additional parameter ω . We refer to this extended variant of the model as
112 MLCA 2.0.

113 As discussed above (also see the Supplementary Materials), we chose a
114 loss aversion function that did not require any parameters to be estimated,
115 consistent with Usher and McClelland (2004). Unfortunately, this particular
116 loss aversion function is not well suited for raw stimulus inputs on the range
117 $(0, 10)$. Because the values of the stimulus dimensions are in arbitrary units,
118 we scaled the stimulus values by first dividing each input by 10.

119 The MLCA is unique in the way the time steps are specified to approxi-
120 mate the stochastic differential equation that governs its accumulation pro-
121 cess. For our purposes, we set $dt = 0.1$ and $\tau = 0.1$. Similar to the MDFT
122 model above, we must also specify a termination policy for the accumulation
123 process. Here, given the settings of dt and τ , we required longer integration
124 times to be on the same scale as the AAM and MDFT model, and so we set
125 $T = 500$.

126 The final specification is how the model parameters are constrained. The
127 parameters η and I_0 are constrained to be positive, and we estimated them

128 on the log scale. The parameters k , L , and ω are assumed to be between zero
129 and one, so we estimated them on the logit scale. Given the transformations
130 for each model parameter, we specified completely uniform priors on the
131 interval $(-1000, 1000)$.

132 *AAM*. In total, we report four different variants of the AAM. The first vari-
133 ant, AAM 1.0, is the stock version of the model that assumes each attribute
134 dimension is preferred equally and has no lateral inhibition component. In
135 total, AAM 1.0 has four parameters, the baseline activation input a_0 , the
136 attribute association α , decay or leakage d , and the within-trial noise term
137 e . Although not explored in Bhatia (2013), we investigated the effects of
138 lateral inhibition on the model’s ability to capture data. To this end, we
139 added the parameter l to enforce inhibition across the response alternatives
140 in an analogous way to the MLCA and MDFT models. We refer to this
141 extended model as AAM 2.0. Consistent with the other model variants, we
142 also investigated AAM 3.0 which instantiates an attribute bias. In AAM 1.0,
143 the baseline activation input parameter a_0 is assumed to be constant across
144 time and across dimensions. To instantiate a bias in the baseline activation
145 across dimensions, we replaced a_0 with the parameter a_0^1 which only operates
146 on the first attribute dimension, and the parameter a_0^2 which only operates
147 on the second attribute dimension. This change added a single parameter,
148 leaving AAM 3.0 with five total parameters. The final model, AAM 4.0,
149 investigates the interaction of attribute bias and lateral inhibition by adding
150 a lateral inhibition term to AAM 3.0. In counting the number of parameters,
151 AAM 4.0 has six total parameters, which is the most of any of the models
152 we investigated.

153 Similar to the MDFT model above, the AAM allows two different stopping
154 policies. To ensure consistency with the other models we investigated here,
155 we chose the second version of stopping policy by running the model for
156 $T = 100$ iterations for each parameter proposal in our fitting algorithm.

157 The final specification for these models is the choice of prior. For each of
158 the model parameters, the only explicit constraint is that the parameters be
159 greater than zero. Because the AAM has not been fit to data prior to this
160 article, we wished to avoid any undue constraint on the parameters, and so
161 we specified uniform priors on the interval $(0, 1000)$.

162 *MLBA*. We also investigated two versions of the MLBA model. The first
163 version is the basic form of the model from (Trueblood et al., 2014), which

164 we call MLBA 1.0. For this version of the model, a total of four parameters
165 were freely estimated: the base input parameter I_0 , the curvature exponent
166 parameter m , and two attention weight parameters λ_1 and λ_2 . Because
167 MLBA 1.0 assumes that the attribute weights are equal, we also investigated
168 a version of the model that allows for an asymmetry in the attribute weights.
169 This model, which we call MDFT 2.0, introduces a bias parameter β that
170 mediates the attention weights across the attribute dimensions (cf. Trueblood
171 et al., 2014).

172 Unlike the other three models, the MLBA model has a specific stopping
173 rule in both free response and interrogation paradigms. The decision mech-
174 anism is equivalent to that of the LBA model where three accumulators race
175 to a threshold amount of evidence χ . There are also between-trial variability
176 parameters in the starting point A , and drift rate s . Following Trueblood
177 et al. (2014), we set these parameters to fixed values across all model fits by
178 setting $\chi = 2$, $A = 1$, and $s = 1$.

179 Following Trueblood et al. (2014), the parameters I_0 , m , λ_1 , and λ_2 ,
180 were all constrained to be positive. For sampling purposes, these parameters
181 were estimated on the log scale. The parameter β does not have a lower
182 bound constraint, and so we estimated it on the regular scale. Given these
183 constraints, we specified uniform priors for each parameter on the interval
184 $(-1000, 1000)$.

185 *1.1.2. Fitting the Models*

186 Of the models we investigated here, only the MLBA model has a tractable
187 likelihood function. To fit the other models to data in a Bayesian context, we
188 must rely on algorithms to approximate the likelihood function. We chose a
189 likelihood-approximation technique called the probability density approxima-
190 tion (PDA; Turner and Sederberg, 2014) method. The PDA method works
191 by generating a synthetic set of data for each parameter proposal by simu-
192 lating the model many times. Once the synthetic data have been created,
193 the distribution of data can be smoothed using a kernel density estimate
194 (Silverman, 1986) to provide better resolution in the approximation of the
195 likelihood function. For each parameter proposal, we simulated the model
196 30,000 times for each of the three conditions.

197 Because the MLBA model has a tractable likelihood function, it provides
198 us an opportunity to study the accuracy of the PDA method for this par-
199 ticular paradigm. To this end, we used both likelihood-free and likelihood-
200 informed methods to estimate the posterior distribution of the MLBA model

201 parameters. By comparing the estimated posterior distributions obtained
202 from each method, we can evaluate the quality of the posterior estimates
203 obtained using our PDA method.

204 To generate good parameter proposals, we used differential evolution with
205 Markov chain Monte Carlo (DE-MCMC; ter Braak, 2006; Turner et al.,
206 2013b) to estimate the shape of the joint posterior distribution. We used
207 24 chains and obtained 3,000 samples after a burn-in period of 1,000 sam-
208 ples. The burn-in period allowed us to converge quickly to the high-density
209 regions of the posterior distribution, while the rest of the samples allowed
210 us to improve the reliability of the estimates. For the first 500 iterations, a
211 migration step was used (see Turner and Sederberg, 2012, 2014, for details)
212 with probability 0.1, but after this period, the migration probability was set
213 to 0. Thus, our estimates of the joint posterior distribution for each model
214 are based on 48,000 samples.

215 Finally, one other step was necessary to arrive at quality estimates of the
216 posterior. Sometimes in estimating posteriors for simulation-based models,
217 proposals can generate data that have a superficially close fit to data. When
218 this occurs, a practical solution is to periodically reevaluate the likelihood
219 approximation for that proposal (see Holmes, 2015). This step, which we refer
220 to as a “purification” step, was performed for all chains every 10 iterations.
221 Convergence of the chains was assessed through visual inspection.

222 1.2. Modeling Analysis 2: Hierarchical Models

223 1.2.1. Model Specification: Hierarchical Models

224 Two versions of each model were fit to the data, closely following the mod-
225 els 1.0 and 2.0 presented in our Analysis 1 above. Specifically, the first version
226 contained no bias terms to account for attribute asymmetry, whereas the sec-
227 ond version possessed additional bias terms to allow for unequal weighting
228 of the attribute dimensions.

229 *MDFT*. The hierarchal MDFT (HMDFT) models we used closely followed
230 the basic structure of the model presented in our Analysis 1 above. Except
231 where stated, all details of model implementation were identical to that of
232 Analysis 1. The first hierarchical model contained four parameters per sub-
233 ject: a within-trial variability term Σ_j , a sensitivity parameter $\phi_{1,j}$, a decay
234 parameter $\phi_{2,j}$, and a bias term β_j for gains. We maintained that all four of
235 these model parameters should be modeled on the log scale. This transfor-
236 mation provided two benefits. First, it enforced that all model parameters

237 should be positive once they were exponentiated. Second, it facilitated the
 238 development of the hierarchical models here. Specifically, with appropri-
 239 ate choices for priors on the subject-specific parameters, we could establish
 240 a conjugate relationship between the prior and the posterior. A conjugate
 241 relationship makes posterior sampling more efficient, enabling us to gather
 242 more samples at a faster rate.

243 To build the hierarchical model, we assumed

$$\begin{aligned} \log(\Sigma_j) &\sim \mathcal{N}(\Sigma_\mu, \Sigma_\sigma), \\ \log(\phi_{1,j}) &\sim \mathcal{N}(\phi_\mu^{(1)}, \phi_\sigma^{(1)}), \\ \log(\phi_{2,j}) &\sim \mathcal{N}(\phi_\mu^{(2)}, \phi_\sigma^{(2)}), \text{ and} \\ \log(\beta_j) &\sim \mathcal{N}(\beta_\mu, \beta_\sigma), \end{aligned}$$

244 where $\mathcal{N}(a, b)$ denotes a normal distribution with mean a and standard devi-
 245 ation b . For the group-level mean parameters, we specified mildly informative
 246 priors, hoping to remain agnostic so as to avoid any undue constraint:

$$\begin{aligned} \Sigma_\mu &\sim \mathcal{N}(\log(10), 100), \\ \phi_\mu^{(1)} &\sim \mathcal{N}(\log(0.5), 100), \\ \phi_\mu^{(2)} &\sim \mathcal{N}(\log(0.5), 100), \text{ and} \\ \beta_\mu &\sim \mathcal{N}(\log(12), 100). \end{aligned}$$

247 For the group-level standard deviation parameters, we supplied more infor-
 248 mative priors based on previous research for the spread of subject-to-subject
 249 parameters for other cognitive models (Turner et al., 2013b):

$$\Sigma_\sigma, \phi_\sigma^{(1)}, \phi_\sigma^{(2)}, \beta_\sigma \sim \Gamma(4, 10),$$

250 where $\Gamma(a, b)$ denotes the Gamma distribution with shape parameter a , and
 251 rate parameter b .

252 For the first hierarchical MDFT model, HMDFT 1.0, the attribute bias
 253 parameter ω was set to 0.5 for each subject. However, the second hierarchical
 254 model HMDFT 2.0 added the possibility for the attribute dimensions to
 255 be sampled asymmetrically. As in MDFT 2.0 above, in HMDFT 2.0 we
 256 maintained that ω_j should be modeled on the logit scale so that group level
 257 distributions could be easily specified. Here, ω_j was freely estimated for each
 258 subject, with similar prior specifications as the other model parameters from

259 HMDFT 1.0. Namely,

$$\begin{aligned}\text{logit}(\omega_j) &\sim \mathcal{N}(\omega_\mu, \omega_\sigma), \\ \omega_\mu &\sim \mathcal{N}(0, 100), \text{ and} \\ \omega_\sigma &\sim \Gamma(4, 10).\end{aligned}\tag{1}$$

260 *MLCA*. As with HMDFT, we investigated two versions of the hierarchical
261 MLCA (HMLCA) model. The first version of the model, HMLCA 1.0, had a
262 total of four subject-specific parameters: a lateral inhibition parameter L_j , a
263 leakage parameter k_j , a within-trial noise parameter η_j , and a baseline level
264 of input $I_{0,j}$. To build the hierarchal model, we assumed

$$\begin{aligned}\text{logit}(L_j) &\sim \mathcal{N}(L_\mu, L_\sigma), \\ \text{logit}(k_j) &\sim \mathcal{N}(k_\mu, k_\sigma), \\ \log(\eta_j) &\sim \mathcal{N}(\eta_\mu, \eta_\sigma), \text{ and} \\ \log(I_{0,j}) &\sim \mathcal{N}(I_\mu, I_\sigma).\end{aligned}$$

265 Maintaining consistency with the HMDFT model above, we assumed the
266 following priors for the HMLCA model:

$$\begin{aligned}L_\mu &\sim \mathcal{N}(\log(0.5), 100), \\ k_\mu &\sim \mathcal{N}(\log(0.5), 100), \\ \eta_\mu &\sim \mathcal{N}(\log(0.25), 100), \\ I_\mu &\sim \mathcal{N}(\log(1), 100), \text{ and} \\ L_\sigma, k_\sigma, \eta_\sigma, I_\sigma &\sim \Gamma(4, 10).\end{aligned}$$

267 In the HMLCA 2.0 model, we investigated the role of the attribute bias
268 parameter ω . As in HMDFT 2.0, we freely estimated ω for each subject, and
269 specified the same hierarchical structure as in Equation 1.

270 *AAM*. Because of the results from our Analysis 1 above, we only investigated
271 two hierarchical versions of the AAM (HAAM). The first version, HAAM 1.0,
272 included five subject-specific parameters: a baseline activation input $a_{0,j}$, an
273 attribute association α_j , decay d_j , lateral inhibition l_j , and the within-trial

274 noise term e_j . To build the hierarchical model, we assumed:

$$\begin{aligned}\log(a_{0,j}) &\sim \mathcal{N}(a_\mu, a_\sigma), \\ \log(\alpha_j) &\sim \mathcal{N}(\alpha_\mu, \alpha_\sigma), \\ \log(d_j) &\sim \mathcal{N}(d_\mu, d_\sigma), \\ \log(l_j) &\sim \mathcal{N}(l_\mu, l_\sigma), \text{ and} \\ \log(e_j) &\sim \mathcal{N}(e_\mu, e_\sigma).\end{aligned}$$

275 To be consistent with our other hierarchical models, we assumed the following
276 priors for the group-level parameters:

$$\begin{aligned}a_\mu &\sim \mathcal{N}(\log(45), 100), \\ \alpha_\mu &\sim \mathcal{N}(\log(0.65), 100), \\ d_\mu &\sim \mathcal{N}(\log(0.9), 100), \\ l_\mu &\sim \mathcal{N}(\log(0.1), 100), \\ e_\mu &\sim \mathcal{N}(\log(2.5), 100), \text{ and} \\ a_\sigma, \alpha_\sigma, d_\sigma, l_\sigma, e_\sigma &\sim \Gamma(4, 10).\end{aligned}$$

277 To instantiate an attribute bias in the model, we incorporated a second
278 baseline activation parameter a_0 to correspond to the second attribute di-
279 mension, as in the MDFT 3.0 and MDFT 4.0 models from our Analysis 1.
280 This new parameter $a_{0,j}^2$ was treated equivalently to the $a_{0,j}$ parameter above
281 by enforcing the same hierarchal structure (i.e., $\log(a_{0,j}^2) \sim \mathcal{N}(a_\mu^2, a_\sigma^2)$) with
282 identical priors for the group level parameters a_μ^2 and a_σ^2 . We refer to this
283 hierarchical AAM models with attribute bias as HAAM 2.0.

284 *MLBA*. We fit two hierarchical versions of the MLBA model to data. The
285 first version, HMLBA 1.0, included four subject-specific parameters: a base
286 input parameter $I_{0,j}$, a curvature exponent parameter m_j , and two attention
287 weight parameters $\lambda_{1,j}$ and $\lambda_{2,j}$. To build the hierarchical model, we assumed:

$$\begin{aligned}\log(I_{0,j}) &\sim \mathcal{N}(I_\mu, I_\sigma), \\ \log(m_j) &\sim \mathcal{N}(m_\mu, m_\sigma), \\ \log(\lambda_{1,j}) &\sim \mathcal{N}(\lambda_\mu^1, \lambda_\sigma^1), \text{ and} \\ \log(\lambda_{2,j}) &\sim \mathcal{N}(\lambda_\mu^2, \lambda_\sigma^2).\end{aligned}$$

288 To be consistent with our other hierarchical models, we assumed the following
 289 priors for the group-level parameters:

$$\begin{aligned}
 I_\mu &\sim \mathcal{N}(\log(13), 100), \\
 m_\mu &\sim \mathcal{N}(\log(22), 100), \\
 \lambda_\mu^1 &\sim \mathcal{N}(\log(0.1), 100), \\
 \lambda_\mu^2 &\sim \mathcal{N}(\log(0.1), 100), \text{ and} \\
 I_\sigma, m_\sigma, \lambda_\sigma^1, \lambda_\sigma^2 &\sim \Gamma(4, 10).
 \end{aligned}$$

290 Following MLBA 2.0 from our Analysis 1, the second hierarchical MLBA
 291 model – HMLBA 2.0 – added a bias parameter β_j for each subject to mediate
 292 the attention weights across the attribute dimensions. For this parameter,
 293 we specified a similar hierarchical structure as the other model parameters,
 294 such that

$$\begin{aligned}
 \log(\beta_j) &\sim \mathcal{N}(\beta_\mu, \beta_\sigma), \\
 \beta_\mu &\sim \mathcal{N}(0, 100), \text{ and} \\
 \beta_\sigma &\sim \Gamma(4, 10).
 \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

295 1.2.2. *Fitting the Models*

296 At the level of the subject-specific effects, our strategy for fitting the
 297 hierarchical models to data was similar to that applied in Analysis 1: we
 298 used the PDA (Turner and Sederberg, 2014) method to approximate the
 299 joint posterior distribution for each subject. For each parameter proposal,
 300 a synthetic data set of the same size as the observed data was generated,
 301 and probabilities for each response were calculated for each of the three con-
 302 text effects. These probabilities were used as the long term predictions of the
 303 model, and the multinomial likelihood was used to characterize the mismatch
 304 between model predictions and observed data (see Turner and Van Zandt,
 305 2012; Turner et al., 2013a). Fewer model simulations per proposal were nec-
 306 essary compared to our Analysis 1 because we did not need to integrate over
 307 the subject-to-subject variability as we do when aggregating across subjects.

308 To estimate the group level effects, we relied on the Gibbs ABC algorithm
 309 (Turner and Van Zandt, 2014). Gibbs ABC is a likelihood-free algorithm that
 310 is well suited for fitting hierarchical models to data because it efficiently par-
 311 titions the parameter space into group and subject-specific levels. The Gibbs
 312 ABC algorithm, combined with the conjugate relationship for the group-level

313 parameter, allowed us to estimate the group-level parameters simultaneously
314 with the subject-level parameters using the PDA method.

315 We again used DE-MCMC to generate good parameter proposals, and a
316 purification step every 10 iterations. We used 24 chains and obtained 9,000
317 samples after a burn-in period of 5,000 samples. For these models, we did
318 not use a migration step and thinned the samples by retaining every other
319 iteration. Thus, our estimates of the joint posterior distribution for each
320 model are based on 48,000 samples.

321 *1.3. Estimated Posterior Distributions: No Individual Differences*

322 Figure 1 shows the estimated posterior distributions for the parameters
323 in each model. Starting with the MDFT model (i.e., Row 1), we felt that
324 two parameters estimates are worth mentioning. First, the parameter β
325 is much larger than 1 (i.e., the mean of β is 66.69), which implies that the
326 dominance dimension greatly outweighs the indifference dimension. Second,
327 the parameter ω is slightly less than 0.5 (i.e., its mean is 0.48). This setting
328 of ω means that the second attribute dimension is sampled more frequently
329 moment-by-moment, a feature of the model that is consistent with the AAM.

330 The MLCA model (i.e., Row 2) has four parameters of interest. The
331 first parameter is the baseline input parameter I_0 , which has a mean of 0.14.
332 It appears that for the MLCA model, some baseline input is required to
333 obtain good fits to data, whereas in the MLBA model (i.e., Row 4), the
334 baseline input was completely unnecessary. We suspect this has to do with
335 the stochastic nature of the MLCA model interacting with the loss aversion
336 function. Because the attribute values are relatively small, some baseline
337 input is necessary to allow for the response competition that ensues in the
338 model. This is not the case for the MLBA model, whose evidence accumu-
339 lation process is completely independent. Second, the attribute dimension
340 weight ω has a mean of 0.506, suggesting a small preference for the first
341 attribute dimension. This result is consistent with the MLBA model, but
342 inconsistent with the AAM and MDFT models. Finally, the estimates of
343 leakage k and lateral inhibition L suggest that the accumulation process is
344 leak dominant (e.g., Gao et al., 2011). Also note that the parameter esti-
345 mate for the parameter L on the logit scale spans the negative axis of the
346 parameter space. This simply implies that the value of L is very near
347 zero (i.e., its mean is 0.001).

348 For the AAM (i.e., Row 3), we first note that while the a_0^1 and a_0^2 pa-
349 rameters are quite similar, the a_0^2 parameter is slightly larger which indicates

350 a preference for the second attribute dimension for these data. Another in-
351 teresting aspect of the model parameters is that to fit these data, the AAM
352 is lateral inhibition dominant, meaning that the parameter l is larger than
353 the decay parameter d . When examining the joint posterior distribution of
354 (d, l) , we observed a strong negative correlation ($r = -0.93$) between the
355 parameters.

356 Finally, three parameters are of interest for the MLBA model (i.e., Row
357 4). First, the estimates for the curvature parameter m suggest that the
358 mapping function is convex (i.e., the mean for m is 1.22). Having a con-
359 vex mapping function is what produces the compromise effect in the model,
360 something that allows a preference advantage for the target option (see the
361 main text). However, as Figure 1 reveals, the curvature function is not con-
362 vex enough as the MLBA model undershoots the strength of the compromise
363 effect for these data. However, simply increasing the estimate for the m pa-
364 rameter would not cause the model to fit the data better because it could
365 cause the model to miss other effects. A second parameter of interest is the β
366 parameter, whose mean is 0.89. When $\beta < 1$, a bias toward the first attribute
367 dimension is observed, something that is inconsistent with AAM or MDFT
368 models. Finally, the mean for the baseline input I_0 parameter is 0.0001 on
369 the normal scale, suggesting that no input is necessary for these data.

370 Recall that for the MLBA model we estimated the parameters using both
371 likelihood-free and likelihood-informed methods. The black densities in the
372 third row of Figure 1 are the estimates obtained when using the analytic ex-
373 pressions for the likelihood function. Comparing across the panels, Figure 1
374 shows that the estimates using both methods are similar, with an exception
375 being the baseline input parameter. We suspect that this misestimation oc-
376 curred due to some numerical instabilities in calculating the likelihood func-
377 tion. We conclude this on the basis of several posterior recovery studies we
378 performed on synthetic data when the baseline input parameter I_0 was larger
379 than zero (e.g., $I_0 = 5$, following Trueblood et al., 2014). In these studies,
380 the PDA-estimated posteriors were extremely accurate, and in particular, no
381 misestimation for I_0 was observed. Although there is no way to guarantee
382 that the posterior distributions for the other parameters are being correctly
383 estimated, we find the convergence of the two estimated posterior distribu-
384 tions in the MLBA model to be reassuring when using PDA to approximate
385 the likelihood function.

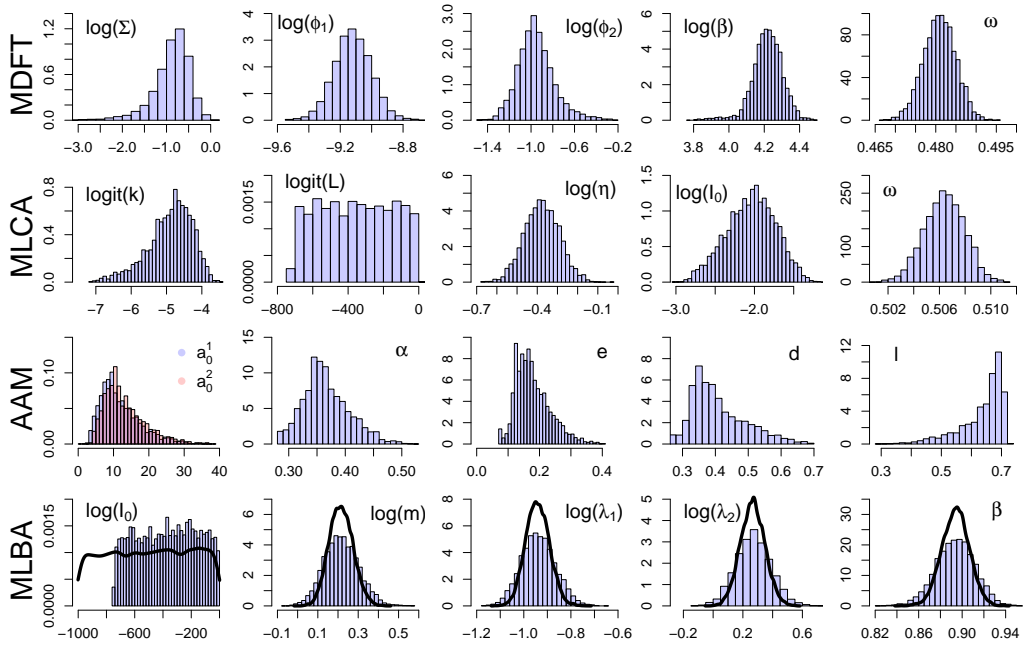


Figure 1: Estimated posterior distributions for each parameter (columns) of each of the best-fitting model variants: MDFT (first), MLCA (second), AAM (third), and MLBA (fourth). For the MLBA model, we estimated the model parameters using both likelihood-informed (black densities) and likelihood-free (i.e., the probability density approximation) method (histograms).

386 *1.4. Hierarchical Fits to Data by Subject*

387 When fitting a hierarchical model to data, we have a few choices about
 388 how to assess the model’s performance on the levels of the hierarchy. One
 389 measure is to collapse across the subject level and provide a single measure
 390 for model fit and complexity – measures that we reported in Table 2 of
 391 the main text. Another measure though, is to break this statistic apart
 392 and assess how well the model fits to each individual subject. Here, we
 393 simply assessed the deviance information criterion (DIC) for each subject by
 394 model combination separately, and placed them in Table 1. We could then
 395 evaluate these DIC values relative to each of the best-fitting models (i.e., the
 396 symmetric models) from Experiment 1. The final line in Table 1 shows the
 397 total number of wins obtained by each model. In this analysis, the HAAM
 398 and HMLCA models perform very similarly, whereas HMLBA and HMDFT
 399 perform substantially worse relative to these models. Although the ordering
 400 of the model performance is identical to the results at the aggregate level
 401 (i.e., Table 2 in the main text), this is not always necessarily the case.

Subject	HMDFT 1.0	HMLCA 1.0	HAAM 1.0	HMLBA 1.0
1	63.18	51.71	54.89	53.46
2	40.99	34.49	38.76	32.23
3	62.38	51.11	45.40	44.76
4	106.91	72.38	34.23	36.40
5	32.68	26.67	34.78	42.58
6	29.18	34.33	36.42	42.63
7	66.93	51.06	32.88	42.07
8	39.70	43.74	39.08	43.68
9	35.80	33.79	37.96	37.94
10	56.61	50.66	51.07	37.56
11	40.91	44.29	48.79	39.19
12	31.77	30.73	34.02	45.07
13	37.76	33.62	31.27	38.32
14	81.08	60.21	59.55	77.07
15	54.71	43.69	38.02	47.21
16	54.20	44.65	36.89	43.49
17	89.21	61.78	42.02	73.50
18	48.49	34.14	41.98	43.30
19	96.92	63.73	34.34	60.94
20	28.86	30.76	30.62	45.88

21	40.57	37.77	36.37	43.00
22	33.89	30.31	41.79	41.49
23	82.08	36.18	37.86	63.72
24	48.26	42.84	46.45	54.07
25	88.06	76.63	64.66	75.92
26	109.50	78.87	36.76	30.06
27	29.65	32.45	37.55	38.20
28	47.66	36.18	41.43	41.61
29	36.17	36.98	40.99	36.56
30	52.74	51.36	58.49	63.71
31	42.73	43.60	46.04	60.06
32	30.44	28.03	32.95	50.63
33	35.76	38.53	44.09	36.57
34	30.08	30.73	29.30	45.40
35	73.22	50.98	39.10	40.98
36	107.62	39.45	38.90	62.87
37	57.66	47.04	41.31	44.00
38	37.39	36.67	34.70	34.94
39	81.86	72.40	59.28	55.86
40	75.02	60.48	49.22	47.66
41	33.78	33.64	38.09	39.17
42	35.86	31.52	36.32	46.83
43	48.98	41.84	32.56	39.08
44	102.66	74.81	42.33	61.26
45	31.63	30.13	34.91	45.92
46	60.06	38.09	30.94	36.90
47	67.17	51.63	46.20	52.66
48	36.85	35.66	38.88	49.65
Total	7	16	18	7

Table 1: Deviance information criterion (DIC) values for each subject (rows) and each best-fitting hierarchical model (columns) applied to Experiment 1. Each value represents the mean statistic obtained across all chains in the sampling algorithm. The best performing model for each subject is shown in bold-face type.

402 2. Study 2: Additional Results

403 For the analyses of Experiment 2, we provide four elaborated results.
404 First, we provide the technical specifications of each model and the details
405 of the sampling algorithms used to estimate the model parameters. Second,
406 plots of the best-fitting single-level model fits against the aggregated data
407 from each condition of our experiment. Third, we provide analogous plots
408 of the best-fitting hierarchical model fits against the aggregated data from
409 each condition of our experiment. These plots essentially separate out the
410 points shown in Figures 5 and 6 so that fits to individual conditions can be
411 appreciated. These plots reveal interesting weaknesses and strengths of each
412 model, which we discussed in the main text. Finally, we provide a table
413 of fit statistics comparing the best-fitting hierarchical models on a subject-
414 by-subject basis. The results from this analysis reveal that while at the
415 aggregated level, the hierarchical AAM fit best, the competition was much
416 closer at the individual subject level.

417 2.1. Modeling Analysis 1: No Individual Differences

418 2.1.1. Model Specification: No Individual Differences

419 *MDFT*. For the MDFT model, we investigated both MDFT 1.0 and MDFT
420 2.0 from the Study 1 above. Recall that the MDFT 1.0 model assumes a
421 within-trial variability term Σ , a sensitivity parameter ϕ_1 , a decay parameter
422 ϕ_2 , and a bias term for gains β . MDFT 2.0 extends MDFT 1.0 by allowing one
423 additional attribute bias parameter ω to be freely estimated, whereas MDFT
424 1.0 sets $\omega = 0.5$. Similar to the MDFT model variants above, we instantiated
425 a termination policy by setting $T = 100$. We again modeled the attribute bias
426 parameters (of MDFT 2.0) on the logit scale, and all of the other parameters
427 on the log scale. Given these transformations, we specified a continuous
428 uniform prior on the interval $(-1000, 1000)$ for all model parameters except
429 the bias for gains parameters β . For these parameters, we constrained $\beta >$
430 1 by specifying a uniform prior on the interval $(0, 1000)$ on the log scale.
431 We chose against using the priors from the previous study to constrain the
432 parameter estimates because the previous study was based completely on
433 consumer goods, which may have adversely affected the models ability to fit
434 data from a perceptual experiment.

435 *MLCA*. We investigated both the MLCA 1.0 and MLCA 2.0 models from
436 Study 1 above. Recall that base MLCA 1.0 model include a base input pa-
437 rameter I_0 , a lateral inhibition parameter L , a leakage parameter k , and a

438 within-trial noise parameter η . MLCA 2.0 includes an attribute bias paramete-
439 ter ω to allow for asymmetric attribute dimension sampling, whereas MLCA
440 1.0 sets $\omega = 0.5$. To implement the model with our specific loss aversion
441 function, we again scaled the stimulus values by first dividing each input by
442 10. As in the MLCA variants in Study 1, we approximated the stochastic
443 differential equation by setting $dt = 0.1$ and $\tau = 0.1$ (Brown et al., 2006),
444 and instantiated a stopping rule by running the model for $T = 500$ iterations.
445 The parameters η and I_0 were log transformed, whereas the parameters L , k ,
446 and ω were all logit transformed. Following these transformations, we again
447 specified a continuous uniform prior for all model parameters on the interval
448 $(-1000, 1000)$.

449 *AAM*. For the AAM, we used the same complete set of model parameters
450 from AAM 2.0 for the symmetric version of the model, and AAM 4.0 for
451 the asymmetric version. Recall that for the AAM 2.0, a total of four pa-
452 rameters are allowed to vary: an attribute association parameter α , a decay
453 parameter d , a lateral inhibition parameter l , a within-trial noise term e ,
454 and an attribute dimension parameter a_0 . For the AAM 4.0, we replaced
455 the attribute dimension parameter a_0 with two parameters corresponding to
456 each attribute dimension: a_0^1 (i.e., for width) and a_0^2 (for height). We again
457 instantiated a termination policy by setting $T = 100$. Consistent with our
458 prior specifications from above, we specified completely uniformed priors on
459 the interval $(0, 1000)$ for each of the model parameters, which were modeled
460 on their regular scale.

461 *MLBA*. We investigated both the MLBA 1.0 and MLBA 2.0 models from
462 Study 1. Recall that the MLBA 1.0 model assumes a base input paramete-
463 ter I_0 , a curvature exponent parameters m , and a pair of attention weight
464 parameters λ_1 and λ_2 . To capture potential attribute dimension biases, the
465 MLBA 2.0 model allowed β to freely vary, whereas in MLBA 1.0, $\beta = 1$.
466 To instantiate a stopping rule in the MLBA model, we maintained the same
467 specifications for as the MLBA model above (as well as Trueblood et al.,
468 2014): $A = 1$, $\chi = 2$, and $s = 1$. Consistent with the variants of the MLBA
469 model investigated in Study 1, we applied a log transformation for each
470 model parameter, and specified a continuous uniform prior on the interval
471 $(-1000, 1000)$ on these transformed parameters.

472 *2.1.2. Fitting the Models*

473 We again used the probability density approximation (PDA; Turner and
474 Sederberg, 2014) method to fit the models to data. This time, because there
475 were many more cells to the experimental design (i.e., 15 cells in total re-
476 quiring model simulations), we used a smaller number of model simulations
477 to approximate the likelihood function. Specifically, we used 5,000 simula-
478 tions per cell, totaling 300,000 model simulations per parameter proposal.
479 We again used a purification step for all chains every 10 iterations (Holmes,
480 2015).

481 We again used differential evolution with Markov chain Monte Carlo (DE-
482 MCMC; ter Braak, 2006; Turner et al., 2013b) to estimate the shape of the
483 joint posterior distribution. We used 24 chains and obtained 8,000 samples
484 after a burn-in period of 5,000 samples. For the first 2,500 iterations, a mi-
485 gration step was used (see Turner and Sederberg, 2012, 2014, for details)
486 with probability 0.1, but after this period, the migration probability was set
487 to zero. Once the samples had been obtained, we thinned the chains by
488 retaining every other sample, which helps to reduce autocorrelation and im-
489 prove the quality of the estimates. Hence, our estimates of the joint posterior
490 distribution for each model are based on 96,000 samples. Convergence of the
491 chains was assessed through visual inspection.

492 *2.2. Modeling Analysis 2: Hierarchical Models*

493 *2.2.1. Fitting the Models*

494 Unless otherwise stated, we used an identical process to fit the hierarchical
495 models in this study as was reported in our Study 1. We again used a
496 mixture of the Gibbs ABC algorithm for the group-level effects Turner and
497 Van Zandt (2014), and the PDA method Turner and Sederberg (2014) nested
498 within Gibbs ABC to estimate the subject-specific effects (i.e., to form an
499 approximation of the likelihood). We again used DE-MCMC to generate
500 good parameter proposals, and a purification step every 10 iterations. We
501 used 24 chains and obtained 7,000 samples after a burn-in period of 3,000
502 samples. For these models, we did use a migration step probability of 0.1
503 for the first 900 iterations, and then set the migration probability to 0. We
504 thinned our chains following the burn-in period by retaining the samples from
505 every other iteration. Thus, our estimates of the joint posterior distribution
506 for each model are based on 48,000 samples.

507 *2.3. Aggregated Fits to Data by Condition*

508 Table 3 in the main text describes the set of stimuli we used in our
509 Experiment 2 for both ternary and binary trials. Examination of this table
510 reveals that only seven unique stimuli were used, as it is the comparison
511 of these stimuli in the context of other items that distorts the choice share
512 in interesting ways. In conjunction with Table 3 of the main text, we also
513 provide a map of the unique stimuli used in Experiment 2. Figure 2 shows
514 the seven stimuli in their attribute space, where the dots indicate the physical
515 value used in the experiment, and the corresponding text labels the individual
516 items. For example, the three primary comparison items are labeled “X1”,
517 “X2”, and “X3”, respectively. As the sum of the attribute dimensions of
518 these items is equal to 10, subjects should be indifferent to these choice
519 options, assuming no bias is present in the relative weighting of the attribute
520 dimensions. The stimulus set also contains two types of decoys, two that are
521 dominated by the other options (i.e., the sum of their attribute dimensions
522 is less than 10), and two that should be of equal valuation relative to the
523 primary comparison items (i.e., the sum of their attribute dimension is equal
524 to 10). The two dominated decoys are labeled “D1” and “D2”, whereas the
525 undominated decoys are labeled “S1” and “S2”. Each item in the stimulus
526 set is color coded to facilitate a comparison across conditions in the model
527 fit plots below. For example, Item X3, which sits between X1 and X2 in
528 the attribute space, is colored purple as it is the average of blue (i.e., X1)
529 and red (i.e., X2). Dominated options are labeled with colors expressing a
530 dilution of the primary option, such that D1 is light blue as it is dominated
531 by X1 (i.e., blue), and D2 is pink as it is dominated by X2 (i.e., red). The
532 undominated decoys are colored with secondary colors that are closest in hue
533 to their primary-colored primary comparison item such that S1 is green (i.e.,
534 closest to the blue X1), and S2 is orange (i.e., closest to the red X2).

535 Figures 3, 4, 5, and 6 show bar plots of the observed data against the best-
536 fitting model predictions for the MDFT 1.0, MLCA 2.0, AAM 2.0, and MLBA
537 1.0, respectively. Recall that for these fits, no clear pattern of asymmetric or
538 symmetric weighting was revealed across models in our evaluation (see Table
539 4 in the main text). For MLCA and AAM, asymmetric variants performed
540 best, whereas for MLBA and MDFT, symmetric models performed best. Re-
541 garding the model predictions, we first obtained the best fitting parameter
542 set for each model, and then simulated data from model with identical num-
543 bers of observations relative to the observed data. Similarly, the data in each
544 of the bar plots below are the average preference for each item, averaged

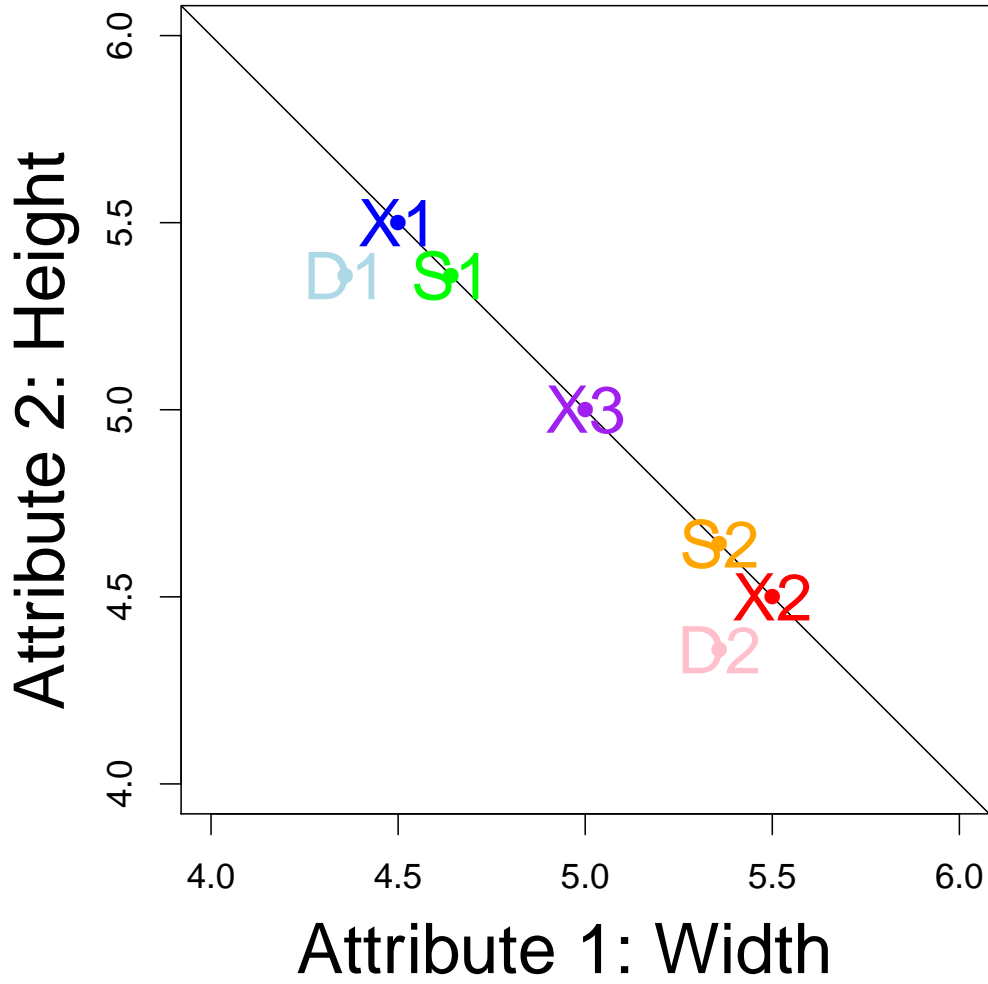


Figure 2: Illustration of the stimulus set used in Experiment 2. The stimuli are spread across the attribute space in a symmetric manner, and they consist of three “targets” (i.e., Xs), two dominated “decoys” (i.e., Ds), and two undominated decoys (i.e., Ss). In all, we used 15 different combinations of these stimuli, with 7 binary trials and 8 ternary trials (i.e., see Table 3 in the main text). The color of each stimulus value in the set corresponds to the bar plots in the model fits below.

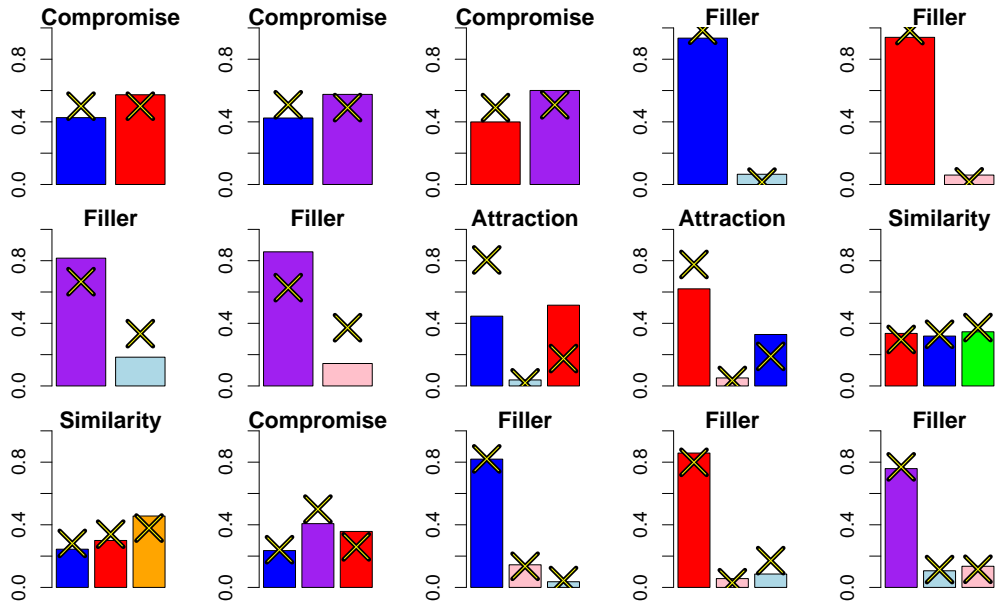


Figure 3: Fits of the MDFT 1.0 (“X” symbols) against the data from Experiment 2. Each panel shows the data and best-fitting model predictions for a specific condition, where the bars are color coded according to the stimuli presented in that condition, corresponding to Figure 2.

545 over subjects and displayed for each condition in Experiment 2. The color
 546 of each bar corresponds to the stimulus used in each condition according to
 547 the stimulus map in Figure 2.

548 2.4. Hierarchical Fits to Data by Condition

549 Figures 7, 8, 9, and 10 show bar plots of the observed data against the
 550 best-fitting model predictions for the HMDFT 2.0, HMLCA 2.0, HAAM 2.0,
 551 and HMLBA 2.0, respectively. Recall that when applying hierarchical mod-
 552 els to the data from Experiment 2, asymmetric models were preferred (see
 553 Table 5 in the main text), suggesting that some distortion of the preference
 554 space is observed when averaging across subjects, as we did in the aggregate
 555 analyses above. The model predictions were performed slightly differently
 556 that in the preceding section. Here, we looped through each subject in the
 557 experiment, found the best fitting parameter values for that subject, and
 558 then generated data with the same number of trials that the corresponding

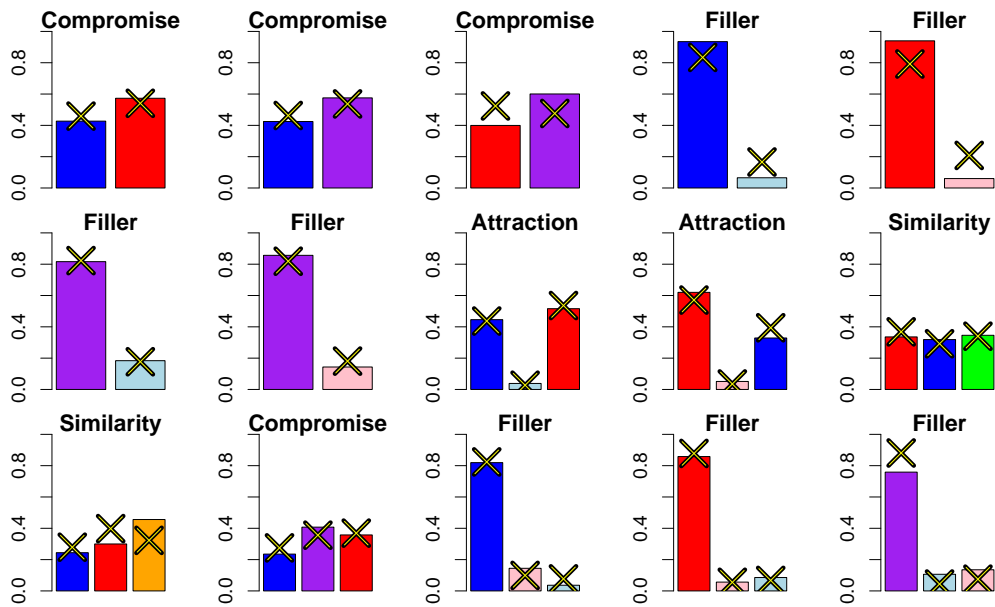


Figure 4: Fits of the MLCA 2.0 (“X” symbols) against the data from Experiment 2. Each panel shows the data and best-fitting model predictions for a specific condition, where the bars are color coded according to the stimuli presented in that condition, corresponding to Figure 2.

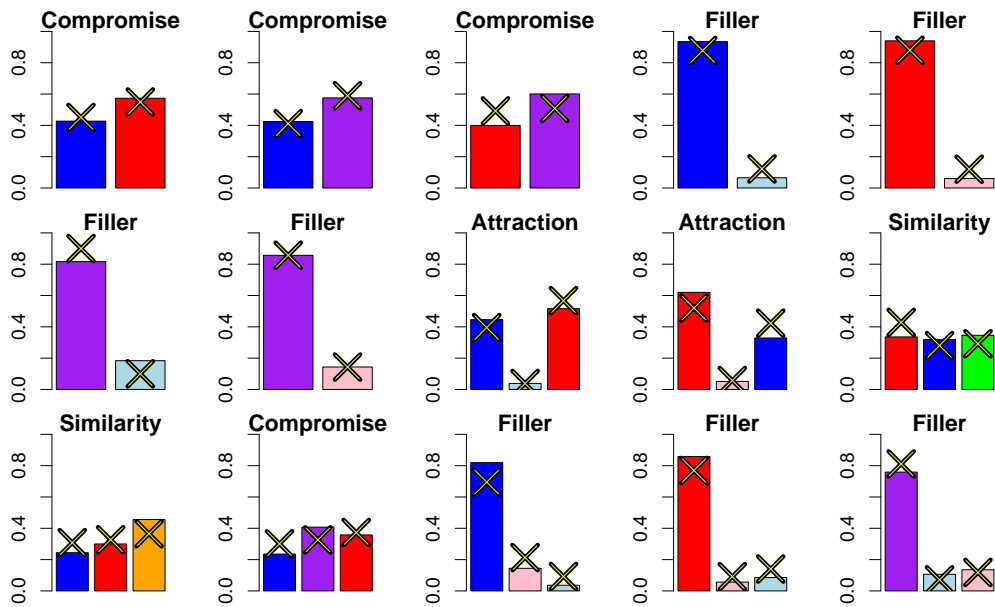


Figure 5: Fits of the AAM 2.0 (“X” symbols) against the data from Experiment 2. Each panel shows the data and best-fitting model predictions for a specific condition, where the bars are color coded according to the stimuli presented in that condition, corresponding to Figure 2.

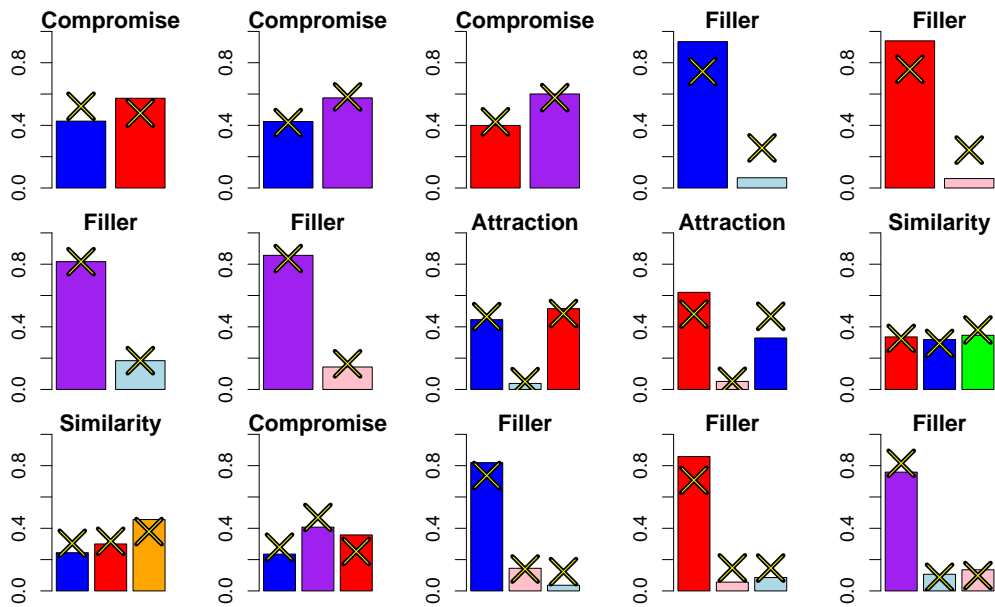


Figure 6: Fits of the MLBA 1.0 (“X” symbols) against the data from Experiment 2. Each panel shows the data and best-fitting model predictions for a specific condition, where the bars are color coded according to the stimuli presented in that condition, corresponding to Figure 2.

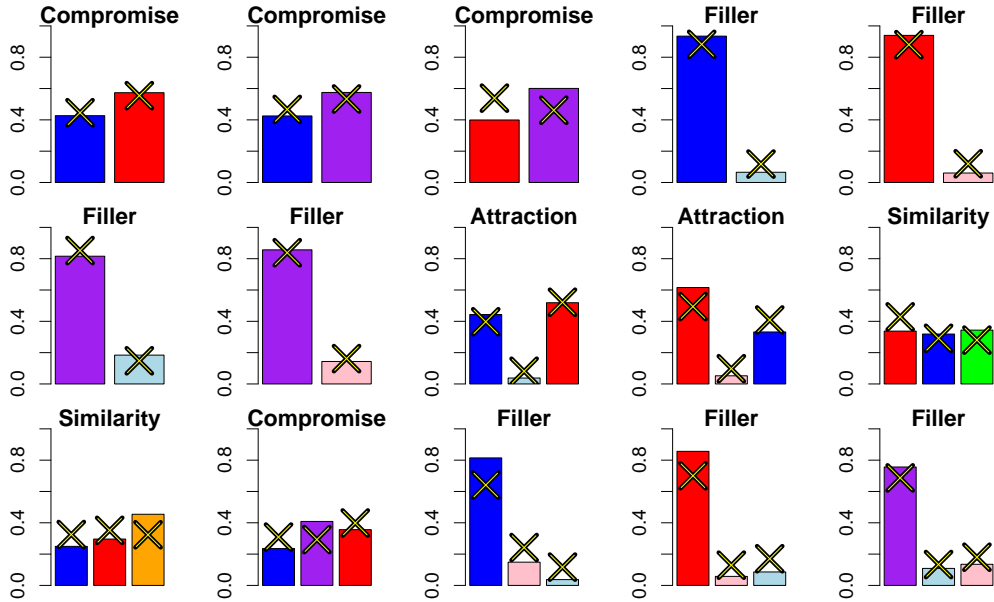


Figure 7: Fits of the HMDFT 2.0 (“X” symbols) against the data from Experiment 2. Each panel shows the data and best-fitting model predictions for a specific condition, where the bars are color coded according to the stimuli presented in that condition, corresponding to Figure 2.

559 subject provided. With these subject-by-subject predictions in hand, we averaged
 560 the predictions so that they appeared on the same level as that of
 561 the observed data. To gain some insight into the variability inherent in these
 562 predictions, the reader is directed to Figure 6 in the main text. As in the
 563 bar plots in the preceding section, the color of each bar corresponds to the
 564 stimulus used in each condition according to the stimulus map in Figure 2.

565 2.5. Hierarchical Fits to Data by Subject

566 Similar to the analyses presented in Table 1, we computed the DIC values
 567 for each subject in our Experiment 2, for each of the best-fitting hierarchical
 568 models. Recall that the best fitting hierarchical models in Experiment 2
 569 were asymmetric, meaning they required attribute bias parameters enabling
 570 differential weighting of height relative to width. Once the DIC values were
 571 computed for each subject by model combination, we could tabulate the
 572 number of subjects for which a given model provided the best fit. The last
 573 line of Table 2 shows these results. While in the main text we reported

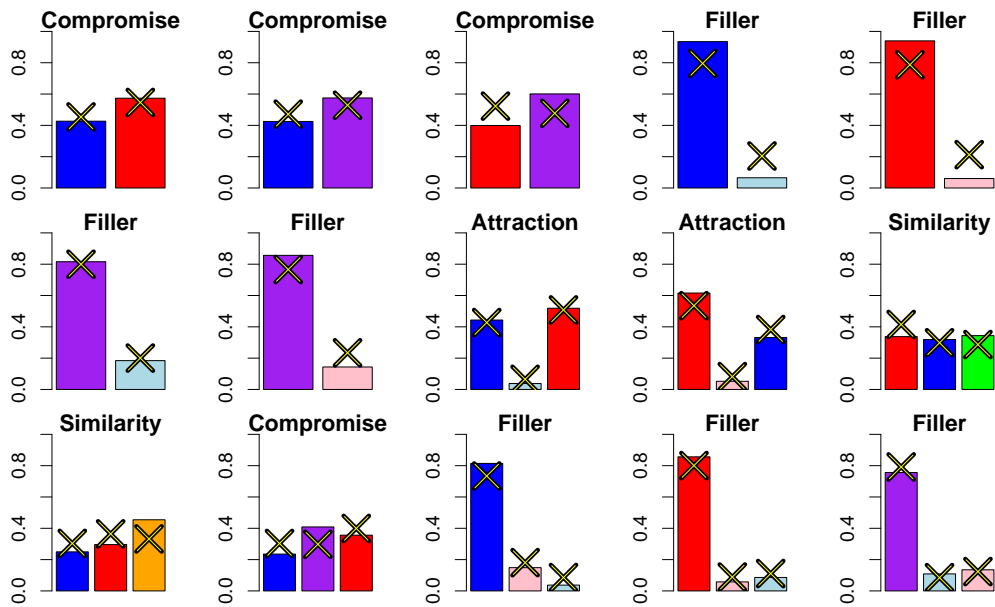


Figure 8: Fits of the HMLCA 2.0 (“X” symbols) against the data from Experiment 2. Each panel shows the data and best-fitting model predictions for a specific condition, where the bars are color coded according to the stimuli presented in that condition, corresponding to Figure 2.

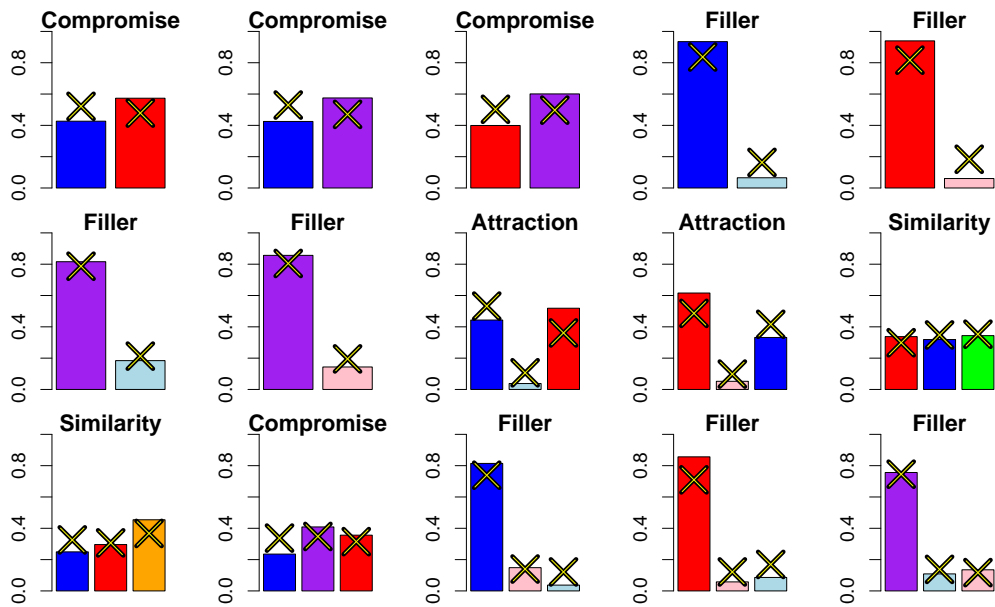


Figure 9: Fits of the HAAM 2.0 (“X” symbols) against the data from Experiment 2. Each panel shows the data and best-fitting model predictions for a specific condition, where the bars are color coded according to the stimuli presented in that condition, corresponding to Figure 2.

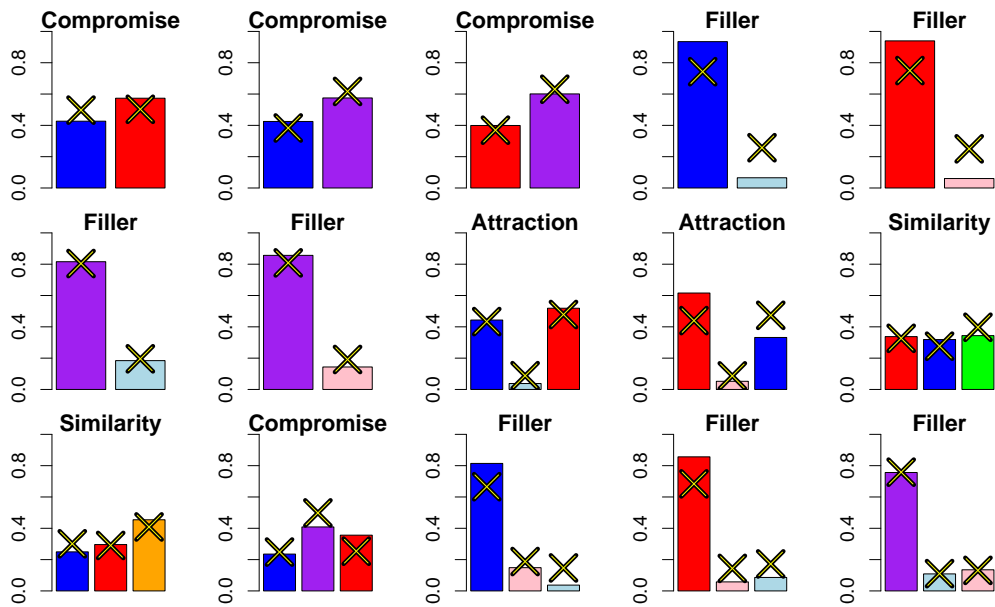


Figure 10: Fits of the HMLBA 2.0 (“X” symbols) against the data from Experiment 2. Each panel shows the data and best-fitting model predictions for a specific condition, where the bars are color coded according to the stimuli presented in that condition, corresponding to Figure 2.

574 that the order of the best models was (1) HAAM 2.0, (2) HMLCA 2.0, (3)
575 HMLBA 2.0, and (4) HMDFT 2.0, the results in Table 2 show that the
576 competition among models was more close, suggesting a tie for first between
577 HAAM, HMLCA, and HMLBA, and a distant second for HMDFT. What
578 this suggests at the aggregate level is that HAAM 2.0 and HMLCA 2.0 fit
579 the data relatively consistently, providing good fits for each subject even
580 when it did not necessarily provide the best fit overall. However, models like
581 HMLCA 2.0 had more variance in the quality of their fits, providing fits on
582 par with the best fitting models for some subjects, but also providing poor
583 fits to other subjects. When averaging the model fits across subjects, this
584 leads to MLBA 2.0 performing worse relative to HAAM 2.0 and HMLCA
585 2.0.

Subject	HMDFT 2.0	HMLCA 2.0	HAAM 2.0	HMLBA 2.0
1	384.01	479.19	322.15	389.54
2	715.87	177.11	665.80	194.84
3	189.63	303.82	164.59	183.03
4	220.53	209.14	243.84	248.00
5	464.92	738.74	406.90	449.99
6	251.31	274.26	263.96	366.04
7	251.36	395.54	221.05	183.00
8	292.30	324.68	295.75	463.41
9	312.88	462.97	269.21	371.46
10	298.93	262.74	314.79	293.56
11	632.38	396.51	571.87	247.60
12	223.20	363.28	226.71	245.77
13	223.27	282.69	208.45	287.59
14	242.78	246.01	219.76	264.20
15	738.19	454.31	645.46	228.01
16	314.36	233.38	286.83	248.21
17	311.57	302.70	270.43	369.43
18	184.43	480.53	207.80	181.63
19	356.30	403.27	362.45	387.41
20	282.74	287.35	284.61	280.04
21	295.14	308.31	246.88	432.49
22	287.20	302.44	260.26	213.38
23	397.46	511.61	343.55	338.32
24	318.85	312.96	386.19	326.53

25	336.68	357.63	304.23	324.04
26	554.29	208.88	476.61	242.27
27	211.40	308.92	197.21	246.25
28	464.98	365.47	421.94	283.81
29	277.11	486.58	274.35	344.99
30	518.22	476.95	512.59	244.38
31	908.00	402.34	868.21	487.77
32	418.86	449.68	373.30	370.93
33	402.73	189.93	318.95	307.82
34	339.41	474.09	264.85	351.88
35	580.26	635.80	512.66	260.35
36	226.37	345.71	232.74	300.95
37	493.73	246.58	420.73	288.19
38	757.37	181.71	722.54	228.55
39	386.64	209.88	325.98	531.73
40	375.91	686.76	378.29	222.71
41	522.11	445.86	518.79	494.52
42	150.24	313.73	152.98	176.18
Total	6	12	12	12

Table 2: Deviance information criterion (DIC) values for each subject (rows) and each best-fitting hierarchical model (columns) applied to Study 2. Each value represents the mean statistic obtained across all chains in the sampling algorithm. The best performing model for each subject is shown in bold-face type.

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