

## Unit 4: Activation of Chunks and Base-Level Learning

There are two objectives of this unit. The first is to introduce the subsymbolic quantity of activation associated with chunks. The other is to show how those activation values are learned through the history of usage of the chunks.

### 4.1 Introduction

We have seen **retrieval** requests in productions many times in the tutorial, like this one from the count model in unit 1:

```
(p start
  =goal>
    ISA      count-from
    start    =num1
    count    nil
==>
  =goal>
    ISA      count-from
    count    =num1
  +retrieval>
    ISA      number
    number   =num1
)
```

In this case an attempt is being made to retrieve a chunk with a particular number (bound to **=num1**) in its **number** slot. Up to now we have been working with the system at the symbolic level. If there was a chunk that matched that **retrieval** request it would be placed into the **retrieval** buffer, and if not then the request would fail and the buffer would indicate the failure. The system was deterministic and we did not consider any timing cost associated with that memory retrieval or the possibility that a matching chunk in declarative memory might fail to be retrieved. For the simple tasks we have looked at so far that was sufficient.

Most psychological tasks however are not that simple and issues such as accuracy and latency are measured over time or across different conditions. For modeling these more involved tasks one will typically need to use the subsymbolic components of ACT-R to accurately model and predict human performance. For the remainder of the tutorial, we will be looking at the subsymbolic components that control the performance of the system. To use the subsymbolic components we need to turn them on by setting the `:esc` parameter (enable subsymbolic computations) to `t`:

```
(sgp :esc t)
```

That setting will be included in all of the models from this point on in the tutorial.

### 4.2 Activation

Every chunk in ACT-R's declarative memory has associated with it a numerical value called its activation. The activation reflects the degree to which past experiences and current context indicate that chunk will be

useful at any particular moment. When a **retrieval** request is made the chunk with the greatest activation among those that match the specification of the request will be the one placed into the **retrieval** buffer. There is one constraint on that however. There is another parameter called the retrieval threshold which sets the minimum activation a chunk can have and still be retrieved. It is set with the `:rt` parameter:

```
(sgp :rt -0.5)
```

If the chunk with the highest activation among those that match the request has an activation which is less than the retrieval threshold, then no chunk will be placed into the **retrieval** buffer and a buffer failure will be indicated.

The activation  $A_i$  of a chunk  $i$  is computed from three components – the base-level, a context component, and a noise component. We will discuss the context component in the next unit. So, for now the activation equation is:

$$A_i = B_i + \epsilon_i$$

$B_i$ : The base-level activation. This reflects the recency and frequency of practice of the chunk  $i$ .

$\epsilon_i$ : The noise value. The noise is composed of two components: a permanent noise which is associated with each chunk when it is added to declarative memory and an instantaneous noise computed for each chunk at the time of a **retrieval** request.

We will discuss these components in detail below.

### 4.3 Base-level Learning

The equation describing learning of base-level activation for a chunk  $i$  is:

$$B_i = \ln\left(\sum_{j=1}^n t_j^{-d}\right)$$

$n$ : The number of presentations for chunk  $i$ .

$t_j$ : The time since the  $j$ th presentation.

$d$ : The decay parameter which is set using the `:bll` (base-level learning) parameter. This parameter is almost always set to 0.5.

This equation describes a process in which each time an item is presented there is an increase in its base-level activation, which decays away as a power function of the time since that presentation. These decay effects are summed and then passed through a logarithmic transformation.

There are two types of events that are considered as presentations of a chunk. The first is its initial entry into declarative memory. The other is when a chunk merges with a chunk that is already in declarative memory. The next two subsections describe those events in more detail.

### 4.3.1 Chunks Entering Declarative Memory

When a chunk is initially entered into declarative memory is counted as its first presentation. There are two ways for a chunk to be entered into declarative memory, both of which have been discussed in the previous units. They are:

- Explicitly by the modeler using the **add-dm** command. These chunks are entered at the time the call is executed, which is time 0 for a call in the body of the model definition.
- When the chunk is cleared from a buffer. We have seen this happen in many of the previous models as visual locations, visual objects, and goal chunks are cleared from their buffers they can then be found among the chunks in declarative memory.

### 4.3.2 Chunk Merging

Something we have not seen previously is what happens when the chunk cleared from a buffer is an identical match to a chunk which is already in declarative memory. If a chunk has the same set of slots and values as a chunk which already exists in the model's declarative memory then instead of being added to declarative memory that chunk goes through a process we refer to as merging with the existing chunk in declarative memory. Instead of adding the new chunk to declarative memory the preexisting chunk in declarative memory is credited with a presentation, and the name of the chunk that was cleared from the buffer now references the chunk that was already in declarative memory (if that buffer chunk's name was meaningful as described in the next unit) i.e. there is one chunk which now has two (or possibly more) names.

## 4.4 Optimized Learning

Because of the need to separately calculate the effect of each presentation, the learning rule is computationally expensive and for some models the real time cost of computation is too great to be able to actually run the model in a reasonable amount time. To reduce the computational cost there is an approximation that one can use when the presentations are approximately uniformly distributed over the time since the item was created. This approximation can be enabled by turning on the optimized learning parameter - :ol. In fact, its default setting is on (the value **t**). When optimized learning is enabled, the following equation applies:

$$B_i = \ln\left(\frac{n}{1-d}\right) - d * \ln(L)$$

**n**: The number of presentations of chunk *i*.

**L**: The lifetime of chunk *i* (the time since its creation).

**d**: The decay parameter.

## 4.5 Noise

The noise component of the activation equation contains two sources of noise. There is a permanent noise which can be associated with a chunk and an instantaneous noise value which will be recomputed at each retrieval attempt. Both noise values are generated according to a logistic distribution characterized by a parameter  $s$ . The mean of the logistic distribution is 0 and the variance,  $\sigma^2$ , is related to the  $s$  value by this equation:

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{\pi^2}{3} s^2$$

The permanent noise  $s$  value is set with the `:pas` parameter and the instantaneous noise  $s$  value is set with the `:ans` parameter. Typically, we are only concerned with the instantaneous noise (the variance from trial to trial) and leave the permanent noise turned off (a value of **nil**).

## 4.6 Probability of Recall

If we make a **retrieval** request and there is a matching chunk in declarative memory, that chunk will only be retrieved if its activation exceeds the retrieval threshold,  $\tau$ . The probability of this happening depends on the expected activation of the chunk (its activation without the instantaneous noise),  $A_i$ , and the amount of instantaneous noise in the system based on its  $s$  parameter:

$$recallprobability_i = \frac{1}{1 + e^{\frac{\tau - A_i}{s}}}$$

Inspection of that formula shows that, as  $A_i$  tends higher, the probability of recall approaches 1, whereas, as  $\tau$  tends higher, the probability decreases. In fact, when  $\tau = A_i$ , the probability of recall is .5. The  $s$  parameter controls the sensitivity of recall to changes in activation. If  $s$  is close to 0, the transition from near 0% recall to near 100% will be abrupt, whereas when  $s$  is larger, the transition will be a slow sigmoidal curve. It is important to note however that this is only a description of what can happen with the retrieval of a chunk. When a **retrieval** request is made the chunk's activation plus the instantaneous noise will either be above the threshold or not.

## 4.7 Retrieval Latency

The activation of a chunk also determines how quickly it can be retrieved. When a **retrieval** request is made, the time it takes until the chunk that is retrieved is available in the **retrieval** buffer is given by this equation:

$$Time = Fe^{-A}$$

**A**: The activation of the chunk which is retrieved.

**F**: The latency factor (set using the :lf parameter).

If no chunk matches the **retrieval** request, or no chunk has an activation which is greater than the retrieval threshold then a failure will occur. The time it takes for the failure to be signaled is:

$$Time = Fe^{-\tau}$$

**$\tau$** : The retrieval threshold.

**F**: The latency factor.

## 4.8 The Paired-Associate Example

Now that we have described how activation works, we will look at an example model which shows the effect of base-level learning. Anderson (1981) reported an experiment in which subjects studied and recalled a list of 20 paired associates for 8 trials. The paired associates consisted of 20 nouns like “house” associated with the digits 0 - 9. Each digit was used as a response twice. Below is the mean percent correct and mean latency to type the correct digit for each of the trials. Note subjects got 0% correct on the first trial because they were just studying them for the first time and the mean latency is 0 only because there were no correct responses.

Trial	Accuracy	Latency
1	.000	0.000
2	.526	2.156
3	.667	1.967
4	.798	1.762
5	.887	1.680

6	.924	1.552
7	.958	1.467
8	.954	1.402

The `paired-model.lisp` file in the `unit4` directory contains a model for this task and the code to run the experiment can be found in the `paired` file in the `Lisp` and `Python` directories. The experiment code is written to allow one to run a general form of the experiment. Both the number of pairs to present and the number of trials to run can be specified. You can run the model through `n` trials of `m` paired associates (`m` no greater than 20) with the `paired-task` function in the `Lisp` version and the `task` function in the `paired` module of the `Python` version:

```
? (paired-task m n)
>>> paired.task(m,n)
```

If you would like to do the task as a person you can provide a true value for the optional third parameter. To run yourself through 3 trials with 2 pairs that would look like this:

```
? (paired-task 2 3 t)
>>> paired.task(2,3,True)
```

For each of the `m` words you will see the stimulus for 5 seconds during which you have the opportunity to make your response. Then you will see the associated number for 5 seconds. The simplest form of the experiment is one in which a single pair is presented twice. To run the model through that task use the appropriate one of these function calls:

```
? (paired-task 1 2)
>>> paired.task(1,2)
```

Here is the trace of the model doing such a task. The first time the model has an opportunity to learn the pair and the second time it has a chance to recall the response from that learned pair:

```
0.000 GOAL SET-BUFFER-CHUNK GOAL GOAL NIL
0.000 VISION SET-BUFFER-CHUNK VISUAL-LOCATION VISUAL-LOCATION0 NIL
0.000 VISION visicon-update
0.000 PROCEDURAL CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
0.050 PROCEDURAL PRODUCTION-FIRED ATTEND-PROBE
0.050 PROCEDURAL CLEAR-BUFFER VISUAL-LOCATION
0.050 PROCEDURAL CLEAR-BUFFER VISUAL
0.050 PROCEDURAL CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
0.135 VISION Encoding-complete VISUAL-LOCATION0-0 NIL
0.135 VISION SET-BUFFER-CHUNK VISUAL TEXT0
0.135 PROCEDURAL CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
0.185 PROCEDURAL PRODUCTION-FIRED READ-PROBE
```

0.185	PROCEDURAL	CLEAR-BUFFER VISUAL
0.185	PROCEDURAL	CLEAR-BUFFER IMAGINAL
0.185	PROCEDURAL	CLEAR-BUFFER RETRIEVAL
0.185	DECLARATIVE	start-retrieval
0.185	PROCEDURAL	CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
0.385	IMAGINAL	SET-BUFFER-CHUNK-FROM-SPEC IMAGINAL
0.385	PROCEDURAL	CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
3.141	DECLARATIVE	RETRIEVAL-FAILURE
3.141	PROCEDURAL	CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
3.191	PROCEDURAL	PRODUCTION-FIRED CANNOT-RECALL
3.191	PROCEDURAL	CLEAR-BUFFER RETRIEVAL
3.191	PROCEDURAL	CLEAR-BUFFER VISUAL
3.191	VISION	CLEAR
3.191	PROCEDURAL	CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
3.241	PROCEDURAL	CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
5.000	-----	Stopped because time limit reached
5.000	VISION	SET-BUFFER-CHUNK VISUAL-LOCATION VISUAL-LOCATION1 NIL
5.000	VISION	visicon-update
5.000	PROCEDURAL	CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
5.050	PROCEDURAL	PRODUCTION-FIRED DETECT-STUDY-ITEM
5.050	PROCEDURAL	CLEAR-BUFFER VISUAL-LOCATION
5.050	PROCEDURAL	CLEAR-BUFFER VISUAL
5.050	PROCEDURAL	CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
5.135	VISION	Encoding-complete VISUAL-LOCATION1-0 NIL
5.135	VISION	SET-BUFFER-CHUNK VISUAL TEXT1
5.135	PROCEDURAL	CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
5.185	PROCEDURAL	PRODUCTION-FIRED ASSOCIATE
5.185	PROCEDURAL	CLEAR-BUFFER IMAGINAL
5.185	PROCEDURAL	CLEAR-BUFFER VISUAL
5.185	VISION	CLEAR
5.185	PROCEDURAL	CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
5.235	PROCEDURAL	CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
10.000	-----	Stopped because time limit reached
10.000	VISION	SET-BUFFER-CHUNK VISUAL-LOCATION VISUAL-LOCATION2 NIL
10.000	VISION	visicon-update
10.000	PROCEDURAL	CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
10.050	PROCEDURAL	PRODUCTION-FIRED ATTEND-PROBE
10.050	PROCEDURAL	CLEAR-BUFFER VISUAL-LOCATION
10.050	PROCEDURAL	CLEAR-BUFFER VISUAL
10.050	PROCEDURAL	CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
10.135	VISION	Encoding-complete VISUAL-LOCATION2-0 NIL
10.135	VISION	SET-BUFFER-CHUNK VISUAL TEXT2
10.135	PROCEDURAL	CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
10.185	PROCEDURAL	PRODUCTION-FIRED READ-PROBE
10.185	PROCEDURAL	CLEAR-BUFFER VISUAL
10.185	PROCEDURAL	CLEAR-BUFFER IMAGINAL
10.185	PROCEDURAL	CLEAR-BUFFER RETRIEVAL
10.185	DECLARATIVE	start-retrieval
10.185	PROCEDURAL	CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
10.385	IMAGINAL	SET-BUFFER-CHUNK-FROM-SPEC IMAGINAL
10.385	PROCEDURAL	CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
11.145	DECLARATIVE	RETRIEVED-CHUNK IMAGINAL-CHUNK0-0
11.145	DECLARATIVE	SET-BUFFER-CHUNK RETRIEVAL IMAGINAL-CHUNK0-0
11.145	PROCEDURAL	CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
11.195	PROCEDURAL	PRODUCTION-FIRED RECALL
11.195	PROCEDURAL	CLEAR-BUFFER RETRIEVAL
11.195	PROCEDURAL	CLEAR-BUFFER MANUAL
11.195	PROCEDURAL	CLEAR-BUFFER VISUAL
11.195	MOTOR	PRESS-KEY KEY 9
11.195	VISION	CLEAR
11.195	PROCEDURAL	CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
11.245	PROCEDURAL	CONFLICT-RESOLUTION

11.445	PROCEDURAL	CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
11.495	PROCEDURAL	CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
11.595	PROCEDURAL	CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
11.745	PROCEDURAL	CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
15.000	-----	Stopped because time limit reached
15.000	VISION	SET-BUFFER-CHUNK VISUAL-LOCATION VISUAL-LOCATION3 NIL
15.000	VISION	visicon-update
15.000	PROCEDURAL	CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
15.050	PROCEDURAL	PRODUCTION-FIRED DETECT-STUDY-ITEM
15.050	PROCEDURAL	CLEAR-BUFFER VISUAL-LOCATION
15.050	PROCEDURAL	CLEAR-BUFFER VISUAL
15.050	PROCEDURAL	CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
15.135	VISION	Encoding-complete VISUAL-LOCATION3-0 NIL
15.135	VISION	SET-BUFFER-CHUNK VISUAL TEXT3
15.135	PROCEDURAL	CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
15.185	PROCEDURAL	PRODUCTION-FIRED ASSOCIATE
15.185	PROCEDURAL	CLEAR-BUFFER IMAGINAL
15.185	PROCEDURAL	CLEAR-BUFFER VISUAL
15.185	VISION	CLEAR
15.185	PROCEDURAL	CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
15.235	PROCEDURAL	CONFLICT-RESOLUTION
20.000	-----	Stopped because time limit reached

The basic structure of the screen processing productions should be familiar by now. The one thing to note is that because this model must wait for stimuli to appear on screen it takes advantage of the buffer stuffing mechanism in the **visual-location** buffer so that it can wait for the change instead of continuously checking. The way it does that is by having the first production that will match, for either the probe or the associated number, have a **visual-location** buffer test on its LHS and no productions which make requests for visual-locations. Thus, those productions will only match once buffer stuffing places a chunk into the **visual-location** buffer. Here are the **attend-probe** and **detect-study-item** productions for reference:

```
(p attend-probe
  =goal>
    isa    goal
    state  start
  =visual-location>
  ?visual>
    state  free
  ==>
  +visual>
    cmd    move-attention
    screen-pos =visual-location
  =goal>
    state  attending-probe
)
(p detect-study-item
  =goal>
    isa    goal
    state  read-study-item
  =visual-location>
  ?visual>
    state  free
  ==>
  +visual>
    cmd    move-attention
    screen-pos =visual-location
  =goal>
    state  attending-target
)
```

Because the buffer is cleared automatically by strict harvesting and no later productions issue a request for a visual-location these productions must wait for buffer stuffing to put a chunk into the **visual-location** buffer before they can match. Since none of the other productions match in the mean time the model will just wait for the screen to change before doing anything else.

Now we will focus on the productions which are responsible for forming the association and retrieving the chunk. When the model attends to the probe with the **read-probe** production two actions are taken (in addition to the updating of the **goal** state):

```
(p read-probe
  =goal>
    isa    goal
    state  attending-probe
  =visual>
    isa    visual-object
    value  =val
  ?imaginal>
    state  free
  ==>
  +imaginal>
    isa    pair
    probe  =val
  +retrieval>
    isa    pair
    probe  =val
  =goal>
    state  testing
)
```

It makes a request to the **imaginal** buffer to create a chunk which will hold the value read from the screen in the probe slot. It also makes a request to the **retrieval** buffer to retrieve a chunk from declarative memory which has that same value in the probe slot.

We will come back to the **retrieval** request shortly. For now we will focus on the creation of the chunk for representing the pair of items in the **imaginal** buffer.

The **associate** production fires after the model reads the number which is associated with the probe:

```
(p associate
  =goal>
    isa    goal
    state  attending-target
  =visual>
    isa    visual-object
    value  =val
  =imaginal>
    isa    pair
    probe  =probe
  ?visual>
    state  free
)
```

```

==>
=imaginal>
  answer =val
-imaginal>
=goal>
  state   start
+visual>
  cmd     clear
)

```

This production sets the answer slot of the chunk in the **imaginal** buffer to the answer which was read from the screen. It also clears that chunk from the buffer so that it is entered into declarative memory. That will result in a chunk like this being added to the model's declarative memory:

```

IMAGINAL-CHUNK0-0
  PROBE  "zinc"
  ANSWER "g"

```

This chunk serves as the memory of this trial. An important thing to note is that the chunk in the buffer is not added to the model's declarative memory until that buffer is cleared. Often that happens when the model later harvests that chunk from the buffer, but in this case the model does not harvest the chunk later so it is explicitly cleared in the last production which modifies it. One could imagine adding additional productions which would rehearse that information clearing the buffer as it does so, but for the demonstration model that is not done.

This production also makes a request to the **visual** buffer to stop attending to the item. That is done so that the model does not perform the automatic re-encoding when the screen is updated.

Now, consider the **retrieval** request in the read-probe production again:

```

+retrieval>
  isa   pair
  probe =val

```

In response to that request the declarative memory module will attempt to retrieve a chunk with the requested probe value. Depending on whether a chunk can be retrieved, one of two production rules may apply corresponding to either the successful retrieval of such a chunk or the failure to retrieve a matching chunk:

```

(p recall
  =goal>
    isa   goal
    state testing
  =retrieval>
    isa   pair
    answer =ans
  ?manual>
    state free
  ?visual>
    state free

```

```

==>
+manual>
  cmd    press-key
  key    =ans
=goal>
  state  read-study-item
+visual>
  cmd    clear
)
(p cannot-recall
  =goal>
    isa   goal
    state testing
  ?retrieval>
    buffer failure
  ?visual>
    state free
==>
=goal>
  state  read-study-item
+visual>
  cmd    clear
)

```

The probability of the recall production firing and the mean latency for the recall will be determined by the activation of the corresponding chunk. The probability will increase with repeated presentations and successful retrievals, while the latency will decrease. That is because each repeated presentation will result in creating a new chunk in the **imaginal** buffer which will merge with the existing chunk for that trial in declarative memory thus increasing its activation. Similarly, when it successfully retrieves a chunk for a trial and the recall production fires that chunk in the **retrieval** buffer will be cleared by the strict harvesting mechanism and then merge with the chunk in declarative memory again increasing its activation.

This model gives a pretty good fit to the data as illustrated below in a run of 100 simulated subjects using the paired-experiment function in Lisp or the experiment function from the paired module in Python (because of stochasticity the results are more reliable if there are more runs and to generate that many runs in a reasonable amount of time one must turn off the trace and remove the seed parameter to allow for differences from run to run):

```
? (paired-experiment 100)
```

```
>>> paired.experiment(100)
```

```
Latency:
```

```
CORRELATION: 0.996
```

```
MEAN DEVIATION: 0.099
```

Trial	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	0.000	2.173	1.856	1.682	1.531	1.435	1.362	1.289

```
Accuracy:
```

```
CORRELATION: 0.994
```

```
MEAN DEVIATION: 0.042
```

Trial	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	0.000	0.555	0.764	0.858	0.905	0.935	0.952	0.964

## 4.9 Parameter estimation

To get the model to fit the data requires not only writing a plausible set of productions which can accomplish the task, but also setting the ACT-R parameters that control the behavior as described in the equations governing the operation of declarative memory. Running the model without enabling the base-level learning component of declarative memory (or setting any other declarative parameters) produces results like this:

```

Latency:
CORRELATION: 0.922
MEAN DEVIATION: 0.283
Trial  1      2      3      4      5      6      7      8
       0.000  1.548  1.548  1.547  1.550  1.554  1.548  1.550

Accuracy:
CORRELATION: 0.884
MEAN DEVIATION: 0.223
Trial  1      2      3      4      5      6      7      8
       0.000  1.000  1.000  1.000  1.000  1.000  1.000  1.000

```

That shows perfect recall after one presentation and essentially no difference in the time to respond across trials. Just turning on base-level learning by specifying the :bll parameter with the recommended value of 0.5 results in these results:

```

Latency:
CORRELATION: 0.000
MEAN DEVIATION: 1.619
Trial  1      2      3      4      5      6      7      8
       0.000  0.000  0.000  0.000  0.000  0.000  0.000  0.000

Accuracy:
CORRELATION: 0.000
MEAN DEVIATION: 0.777
Trial  1      2      3      4      5      6      7      8
       0.000  0.000  0.000  0.000  0.000  0.000  0.000  0.000

```

That shows a complete failure to retrieve any of the facts which would happen because they have an activation below the retrieval threshold (which defaults to 0). Lowering the retrieval threshold so that they can be retrieved results in something like this:

```

Latency:
CORRELATION: 0.961
MEAN DEVIATION: 1.124
Trial  1      2      3      4      5      6      7      8
       0.000  3.691  3.561  3.492  2.727  2.305  2.047  1.880

Accuracy:
CORRELATION: 0.880
MEAN DEVIATION: 0.220

```

Trial	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	0.000	0.100	0.260	0.925	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000

That shows some of the general trends, but does not fit the data well. The behavior of this model and the one that you will write for the assignment of this unit really depends on the settings of four parameters. Here are those parameters and their settings in this model. The retrieval threshold is set at -2. This determines how active a chunk has to be to be retrieved 50% of the time. The instantaneous activation noise is set at 0.5. This determines how quickly probability of retrieval changes as we move past the threshold. The latency factor is set at 0.4. This determines the magnitude of the activation effects on latency. Finally, the decay rate for base-level learning is set to the value 0.5 which is where we recommend it be set for most tasks that involve the base-level learning mechanism.

How to determine those values can be a tricky process because the equations are all related and thus they cannot be independently manipulated for a best fit. Typically some sort of searching is required, and there are many ways to accomplish that. For the tutorial models there will typically be only one or two parameters that you will need to adjust and we recommend that you work through the process “by hand” adjusting the parameters individually to see the effect that they have on the model. There are other ways of determining parameters that can be used, but we will not be covering any such mechanisms in the tutorial.

#### 4.10 The Activation trace

A parameter named `:act` is also set in the `sgp` call in this model. This is the activation trace parameter. If it is turned on, it causes the declarative memory system to print the details of the activation computations that occur during a **retrieval** request in the trace. If you set it to `t` and reload the model and run for two trials of one pair (like the trace above) you will find these additional details where the retrieval requests are handled by the declarative module:

```

0.185  DECLARATIVE          start-retrieval
No matching chunk found retrieval failure
...
10.185  DECLARATIVE          start-retrieval
Chunk IMAGINAL-CHUNK0-0 matches
Computing activation for chunk IMAGINAL-CHUNK0-0
Computing base-level
Starting with blc: 0.0
Computing base-level from 1 references (5.185)
  creation time: 5.185 decay: 0.5  Optimized-learning: T
base-level value: -0.11157179
Total base-level: -0.11157179
Adding transient noise -0.7636829
Adding permanent noise 0.0
Chunk IMAGINAL-CHUNK0-0 has an activation of: -0.8752547
Chunk IMAGINAL-CHUNK0-0 has the current best activation -0.8752547
Chunk IMAGINAL-CHUNK0-0 with activation -0.8752547 is the best
...

```

You may find this detailed accounting of the activation computation useful in debugging your models and in understanding how the system computes activation values.

### 4.11 The :ncnar Parameter

There is one final parameter being set in the model which you have not seen before - :ncnar (normalize chunk names after run). This parameter does not affect the model's performance on the tasks, but it does affect the actual time it takes to run the simulation. The details on what exactly it does can be found in the code description text for this unit. The reason it is turned off (set to **nil**) in the models for this unit is to decrease the time it takes to run the simulations.

### 4.12 Unit Exercise: Alpha-Arithmetic

The following data were obtained by N. J. Zbrodoff on judging alphabetic arithmetic problems. Participants were presented with an equation like  $A + 2 = C$  and had to respond yes or no whether the equation was correct based on counting in the alphabet – the preceding equation is correct, but  $B + 3 = F$  is not.

She manipulated whether the addend was 2, 3, or 4 and whether the problem was true or false. She had 2 versions of each of the 6 kinds of problems (3 addends x 2 responses) each with a different letter (a through f). She then manipulated the frequency with which problems were studied in sets of 24 trials:

- In the Control condition, each of the 2, 3, and 4 addend problems occurred twice.
- In the Standard condition, the 2 addend problems occurred three times, the 3 addend problems twice, and the 4 addend problems once.
- In the Reverse condition, the 2 addend problems occurred once, the 3 addend problems twice, and the 4 addend problems three times.

Each participant saw problems based on one of the three conditions. There were 8 repetitions of a set of 24 problems in a block (192 problems), and there were 3 blocks for 576 problems in all. The data presented below are in seconds to correctly judge the problems true or false based on the block and the addend. They are aggregated over both true and false responses:

Control Group (all problems equally frequently)

	Two	Three	Four
Block 1	1.840	2.460	2.820
Block 2	1.210	1.450	1.420
Block 3	1.140	1.210	1.170

Standard Group (smaller problems more frequent)

	Two	Three	Four
Block 1	1.840	2.650	3.550
Block 2	1.060	1.450	1.920
Block 3	0.910	1.080	1.480

Reverse Group (larger problems more frequent)

	Two	Three	Four
Block 1	2.250	2.530	2.440
Block 2	1.470	1.460	1.100
Block 3	1.240	1.120	0.870

The interesting phenomenon concerns the interaction between the effect of the addend and amount of practice. Presumably, the addend effect originally occurs because subjects have to engage in counting, but latter they come to rely mostly on retrieval of answers they have stored from previous computations.

The task for this unit is to develop a model of the control group data. Functions to run the experiment can be found in the appropriate zbrodoff file and most of a model that can perform the task is provided in the zbrodoff-model.lisp file with the unit materials. The model as given does the task by counting through the alphabet and numbers “in its head” to arrive at an answer which it compares to the initial equation to determine how to respond. The timing for this model to complete the task is determined by the perceptual and motor actions which it performs: reading the display, subvocalizing the items as it counts through the alphabet (similar to the speak action we saw earlier in the tutorial for the speech module), and pressing the response key. Here is the performance of this model on the task when run through the whole experiment once:

CORRELATION: 0.292  
MEAN DEVIATION: 1.539

	2 (64)	3 (64)	4 (64)
Block 1	2.408 (64)	3.045 (64)	3.651 (64)
Block 2	2.403 (64)	3.048 (64)	3.639 (64)
Block 3	2.398 (64)	3.045 (64)	3.643 (64)

It is always correct (the 64 on the top row indicates how many presentations per cell and the number correct is then displayed for each cell) but it does not get any faster from block to block because it always uses the counting strategy. Your first task is to extend the model so that it attempts to remember previous instances of the trials. If it can remember the answer it does not have to resort to the counting strategy and can respond much faster.

The starting model already creates chunks with the correct answer for a problem it solves by counting. A completed problem for a trial where the stimulus was “ $A+2 = C$ ” would look like this:

```
IMAGINAL-CHUNK0-0
  RESULT  C
  ARG1    A
  ARG2    TWO
```

The result slot contains the result of counting to solve the addition problem that was presented – not the letter that was presented as a possible answer.

To do the counting, the model uses slots of the **goal** buffer to hold the target answer and the numbers and letters as it counts. It counts as many letters as indicated to determine the correct result, and stores that in the result slot of the **imaginal** buffer. Then it compares the counted result to the presented answer to decide how to respond. Thus the same chunk will result from a trial where the stimulus presented is “ $A+2 = D$ ” because it counts A plus 2 and then compares the result of that, C, to the letter presented to determine if the problem is correct or not. The assumption is that the person is actually learning the letter counting facts and not just memorizing the stimulus-response pairings for the task. The model will learn one chunk for each of the additions which it encounters, which will be a total of six after it completes a set of trials.

A strong recommendation for adding the retrieval strategy to the model is to continue to use the existing encoding productions before the retrieval, the existing response productions (**final-answer-yes** and **final-answer-no**) after a successful retrieval, and the given counting productions if it fails to retrieve. It may be necessary to modify productions at the end of the encoding process and/or the beginning of the counting process to add the retrieval process into the model, but the response productions should **not** be modified in any way and you should **not** add any additional productions for responding. Using the given response productions is important because they already handle the important steps necessary for the model to repeatedly perform this task successfully: they create a new goal chunk which will make sure the model is ready for the next trial, they make the correct response based on the comparison of the value read from the screen and the correct value of the sum which has been encoded in the **imaginal** buffer, and that **imaginal** buffer chunk is cleared so that it can enter declarative memory and strengthen the knowledge for that fact.

After your model is able to utilize a retrieval strategy along with the counting strategy given, your next step is to adjust the parameters so that the model's performance better fits the experimental data. The results should look something like this after you have the retrieval strategy working with the parameters as set in the starting model:

CORRELATION: 0.949  
MEAN DEVIATION: 0.642

		2 (64)	3 (64)	4 (64)
Block 1	1.334 (64)	1.312 (64)	1.528 (64)	
Block 2	1.030 (64)	1.019 (64)	1.031 (64)	
Block 3	0.997 (64)	0.994 (64)	1.005 (64)	

The model is responding correctly on all trials, the correlation is good, but the deviation is quite high because the model is too fast overall. The model's performance will depend on the same four parameters as the paired associate model: latency factor, activation noise, base-level decay rate, and retrieval threshold. In the model you are given, the first three are set to the same values as in the paired associate model and represent reasonable values for this task. The retrieval threshold (the :rt parameter) is set to its default value of 0. This is the parameter you should adjust first to improve the fit to the data and gain some experience with how it affects the model's performance. Here is our fit to the data adjusting only the retrieval threshold:

CORRELATION: 0.989  
MEAN DEVIATION: 0.117

		2 (64)	3 (64)	4 (64)
Block 1	1.972 (64)	2.383 (64)	2.756 (64)	
Block 2	1.359 (64)	1.566 (64)	1.601 (64)	
Block 3	1.106 (64)	1.221 (64)	1.334 (64)	

If you would like to try to fit the data even better then you could also adjust the latency factor and activation noise parameters as well to gain some experience with the effects they have as well. The base-level decay rate parameter should be left at the value .5 (that is a recommended value which should not be adjusted in most models). Here is our best fit with adjusting all three parameters:

CORRELATION: 0.993  
 MEAN DEVIATION: 0.071

		2 (64)	3 (64)	4 (64)
Block 1	1.977 (64)	2.374 (64)	2.805 (64)	
Block 2	1.262 (64)	1.482 (64)	1.505 (64)	
Block 3	1.095 (64)	1.154 (64)	1.219 (64)	

This experiment is more complicated than the ones that you have seen previously. It runs continuously for many trials and the learning that occurs across trials is important. Thus the model cannot treat each trial as an independent event and be reset before each one as has been done in the previous units. While writing your model and testing the fit to the data you will probably want to test it on smaller runs than the whole task. There are five functions provided for running the experiment and subcomponents of the whole experiment.

The function to present a single problem to the model is called **zbrodoff-problem** in the Lisp version and **problem** in the zbrodoff module of the Python version. It takes four required parameters which are all single character strings and an optional fifth parameter. The first three parameters are the elements of the equation to present. The fourth is the correct key which should be pressed for the trial, where k is the correct key for a true problem and d for a false problem. The optional parameter indicates whether or not to show the task display. If the optional parameter is not provided then the window will not be shown (a virtual window will be used) and if it is a true value then it will show the task window. These examples would present the “a + 2 = c” problem (which is true) to the model with a window that is visible:

```
? (zbrodoff-problem "a" "2" "c" "k" t)
>>> zbrodoff.problem('a', '2', 'c', 'k', True)
```

Here are the twelve different problems which are used in this experiment:

```
true:  a+2=c, d+2=f, b+3=3, e+3=h, c+4=g, f+4=j
false: a+2=d, d+2=g, b+3=f, e+3=i, c+4=h, f+4=k
```

The single problem function should be used until you are certain that your model is able to successfully use a retrieval strategy along with counting. To do that you will want to present the model with the same trial again and again and make sure that at some point it can retrieve the correct fact and respond correctly. You will also want to test it with both true and false facts to make sure it can retrieve the right information and respond correctly in both cases. Finally, you should check the model’s declarative memory to make sure that it is only creating the correct facts – it should not be learning chunks which represent the wrong addition.

Once you are confident that your model is learning the correct chunks and can use both retrieval and counting to respond correctly you can use the functions to present a set or block of items: **zbrodoff-set** and **zbrodoff-block** in Lisp and **set** and **block** from the zbrodoff module in Python. Those will run the model over multiple trials and print the results. Each takes one optional parameter to control whether the task display is shown, and if it is not provided they will not show the display. The set function runs the model

through 24 trials of the task presenting each problem twice in a randomly generated order. The block function runs through 192 trials, which is 8 repetitions of the 24 trial set. Here are examples of running a set of trials in Lisp and a block in Python:

```
? (zbrodoff-set)

          2 ( 8)      3 ( 8)      4 ( 8)
Block 1  2.395 ( 8)  3.045 ( 8)  3.657 ( 8)

>>> zbrodoff.block()

          2 (64)      3 (64)      4 (64)
Block 1  2.392 (64)  3.045 (64)  3.650 (64)
```

After making sure the model can successfully complete a set and block of trials then you will want to test it with the function which resets the model and then runs one pass through the whole experiment: **zbrodoff-experiment** in Lisp and **experiment** in the zbrodoff module in Python. It has two optional parameters. The first determines whether the task window is visible or not, and the second determines whether the results are printed. The defaults are to not show the window and to show the results, which is probably how you want to run it:

```
? (zbrodoff-experiment)

>>> zbrodoff.experiment()

          2 (64)      3 (64)      4 (64)
Block 1  2.406 (64)  3.045 (64)  3.643 (64)
Block 2  2.395 (64)  3.043 (64)  3.658 (64)
Block 3  2.392 (64)  3.047 (64)  3.643 (64)
```

If the model is able to successfully complete the experiment you can move on to the function that runs the experiment multiple times, averages the results, and compares the results to the human data: **zbrodoff-compare** in Lisp and **compare** in the zbrodoff module in Python. Those functions take one parameter indicating the number of times to run the full experiment. It may take a while to run, especially if you request a lot of runs to average:

```
? (zbrodoff-compare 10)

>>> zbrodoff.compare(10)

CORRELATION:  0.288
MEAN DEVIATION:  1.540

          2 (64)      3 (64)      4 (64)
Block 1  2.406 (64)  3.045 (64)  3.643 (64)
Block 2  2.395 (64)  3.043 (64)  3.658 (64)
Block 3  2.392 (64)  3.047 (64)  3.643 (64)
```

An important thing to note is that among those functions the only ones that reset the model are the ones that run the full experiment. So if you are using the other functions while testing the model keep in mind that unless you explicitly reset the model (by pressing the “Reset” button on the Control Panel, reloading

the model, or calling the ACT-R **reset** function from the ACT-R prompt or the **actr.reset** function in Python) then the model will still have all the chunks which it has learned since the last time it was reset (or loaded) in its declarative memory.

As you look at the starting model, you will see one additional setting at the end of the model definition which you have not seen before:

```
(set-all-base-levels 100000 -1000)
```

This sets the base-level activation of all the chunks in declarative memory that exist when it is called (which are the number and letter chunks provided) to very large values by setting the parameters **n** and **L** of the optimized base-level equation for each one. The first parameter, 100000, specifies **n** and the second parameter, -1000, specifies the creation time of the chunk. This ensures that the initial chunks which encode the sequencing of numbers and letters maintain a very high base-level activation and do not fall below the retrieval threshold over the course of the task. The assumption is that counting and the order of the alphabet are very well learned tasks for the model and the human participants in the experiment and that knowledge does not have any significant effect of learning or decay during the course of the experiment.

Because this experiment involves a lot of trials and you need to run several experiments to get the average results of the model there are some additional things that can be done to improve the performance of running the experiment i.e. the real time it takes to run the model through the experiment not the simulated time the model reports for doing the task. Probably the most important will be to turn off the model's trace by setting the **:v** parameter to **nil**. The starting model has that setting, but while you are testing and debugging your addition of a retrieval process you will probably want to turn it back on by setting it to **t** so that you can see any warnings that may be reported when the model file is loaded and what is happening in your model when it runs. Something else which you will want to do when running the whole experiment is to close any of the Recordable data tools which you may have opened in the ACT-R Environment because there is a cost to recording the underlying data needed for those tools. You will also want to turn off the running indicator if you have enabled it because there is also a cost to update that display. The final thing which you may want to do is to use the Lisp version of the experiment from the ACT-R prompt instead of the version connected from Python because there is some additional cost to running the Python version of the experiments and for this task that might be noticeable over many runs.

**References**

Anderson, J.R. (1981). Interference: The relationship between response latency and response accuracy. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Learning and Memory*, 7, 326-343.

Zbrodoff, N. J. (1995). Why is  $9 + 7$  harder than  $2 + 3$ ? Strength and interference as explanations of the problem-size effect. *Memory & Cognition*, 23 (6), 689-700.