

Lecture 9

Further hierarchical models

Outline

There is huge scope for elaborating the basic hierarchical models discussed in the previous lecture to reflect additional structure and complexity in the data, e.g.

- Adding covariates at different levels of the hierarchy
- Adding further levels to the hierarchy (patients within wards within hospitals, pupils within schools within local authorities, ...)
- Adding non-nested (cross-classified) levels (patients within GPs crossed with hospitals, ...)
- Repeated observations on some/all units (longitudinal data)
- Modelling temporal or spatial structure in data, ...

In this lecture, we will discuss:

- Hierarchical models for count data and including covariates
- Hierarchical models for longitudinal data
- Cross-classified models

Hierarchical models for count data: Disease mapping

- In disease mapping, we are interested in modelling counts of disease cases collected on each of a number of geographical areas within a study region
- Here we consider data on the observed number of cases of childhood leukaemia, y_i , diagnosed in a 10 year period in each of $i = 1, \dots, 879$ areas (electoral wards) in London (data from Thames Cancer Registry)
- Using national age/sex-standardised reference rates for leukaemia and Census population counts, we can also calculate the expected number of cases, E_i , in each area
- Assume a Poisson likelihood for the disease count in each area:

$$y_i \sim \text{Poisson}(\mu_i); \quad \mu_i = \lambda_i E_i; \quad i = 1, \dots, 879$$

- We have 879 *distinct* relative risk parameters λ_i
- What prior should we specify for each λ_i ?

Different modelling assumptions

Identical parameters

Assume $\lambda_i = \lambda$ for all i and assign a prior

$$\lambda \sim \text{Gamma}(a, b)$$

with *specified values* of a and b , e.g.

$$\lambda \sim \text{Gamma}(1, 1)$$

→ conjugate Poisson-gamma model

Independent parameters

Assume independent vague priors for each relative risk, e.g.

$$\lambda_i \sim \text{Gamma}(0.1, 0.1), \quad i = 1, \dots, 879$$

→ This will give estimates of the posterior mean for $\lambda_i \approx y_i/E_i$, which is the MLE (also termed standardised morbidity ratio, SMR)

Different modelling assumptions (continued)

Similar (exchangeable) parameters

Specify a **hierarchical** random effects prior:

$$\lambda_i \sim \text{Gamma}(a, b), \quad i = 1, \dots, 879$$

where a and b are **unknown parameters** to also be **estimated**

- assign hyperprior distributions to a and b
- what is a suitable hyperprior for these parameters?

A more flexible hierarchical prior for the relative risks

- A gamma random effects prior for the λ_i is mathematically convenient, but may be restrictive:
 - ▶ covariate adjustment (regression) is difficult
 - ▶ no possibility for allowing spatial correlation between risks in nearby areas
- A normal random effects prior for $\log \lambda_i$ is more flexible:

$$\begin{aligned}y_i &\sim \text{Poisson}(\mu_i = \lambda_i E_i) \\ \log \lambda_i &= \alpha + \theta_i \\ \theta_i &\sim \text{Normal}(0, \sigma^2)\end{aligned}$$

- Need to specify hyperprior distributions for
 - σ^2 (between-area variance), e.g. $\sigma^{-2} \sim \text{Gamma}(0.001, 0.001)$
 - α (mean log relative risk), e.g. $\alpha \sim \text{Normal}(0, 10000)$

Parameter Interpretation

- θ_i are the **random effects**
- $\lambda_i = \exp(\alpha + \theta_i)$ = relative risk in area i compared to expected risk based on age and sex of population
- θ_i can also be thought of as a latent variable which captures the effects of unknown or unmeasured area level covariates
- If these area level covariates are spatially structured (e.g. environmental effects), our model for θ_i should allow for this (i.e. replace normal random effects distribution by spatial distribution — not covered in this course)
- The variance of the random effects (σ^2) reflects the amount of extra-Poisson variation in the data

Ranking in hierarchical models

- Recent trend in UK towards ranking ‘institutional’ performance e.g. schools, hospitals or areas
- Rank of a point estimate is a highly unreliable summary statistic
 - ▶ would like measure of uncertainty about rank
- Bayesian methods provide posterior interval estimates for ranks
- For the leukemia example, at each MCMC iteration, ranking sampled values of $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_{879}$ gives sample from posterior distribution of ranks for each area
- See Goldstein and Spiegelhalter (1996) for further discussion on ranking

BUGS contains ‘built-in’ options for ranks:

- Rank option of Inference menu monitors the rank of the elements of a specified vector
- `rank(x[], i)` returns the rank of the *i*th element of *x*
- `ranked(x[], i)` returns the value of the *i*th-ranked element of *x*

Quantile ratios to summarise level 2 variability

- Unclear how to define or calculate the VPC for generalised linear hierarchical models
- Alternative summary of variability between units in a hierarchical model is to rank the random effects and calculate the difference or ratio between two units at opposite extremes
- For the leukemia example, suppose we consider the 5th and 95th percentiles of the area relative risk distribution
 - ▶ let $\lambda_{5\%}$ denote the relative risk of leukemia for the area ranked at the 5th percentile
 - ▶ let $\lambda_{95\%}$ denote the relative risk of leukemia for the area ranked at the 95th percentile
 - ▶ then $QR_{90} = \frac{\lambda_{95\%}}{\lambda_{5\%}}$ = ratio of relative risks of leukemia between the top and bottom 5% of areas
- Using MCMC, we can calculate the ranks, and hence the QR_{90} , at each iteration, and hence obtain a posterior distribution for QR_{90}

BUGS code

```
model {  
  for(i in 1 : N) {  
    Y[i] ~ dpois(mu[i])  
    log(mu[i]) <- log(E[i]) + alpha + theta[i]  
    theta[i] ~ dnorm(0, tau) # area random effects  
    lambda[i] <- exp(alpha + theta[i]) # area relative risk  
  }  
  # Priors:  
  alpha ~ dnorm(0, 0.0001) # vague prior on overall intercept  
  tau ~ dgamma(0.5, 0.0005) # precision of area random effects  
  sigma <- 1/sqrt(tau)      # between-area sd of random effects  
  
  # 90% quantile ratio for area relative risks  
  QR90 <- ranked(lambda[],835)/ranked(lambda[],44)  
  
  #rank  
  for(i in 1 : N) {  
    rank.lambda[i] <- rank(lambda[], i) # rank of area i  
  }  
}
```

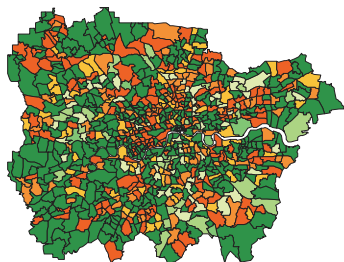
Results for childhood leukaemia example

Parameters of interest:

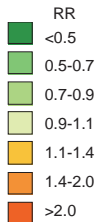
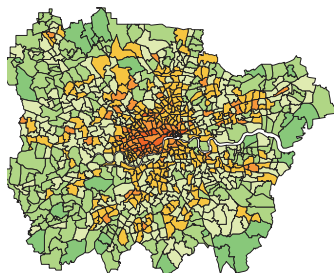
- $e^{\alpha + \theta_i}(\text{lambda}[i])$ = relative risk of leukaemia in area i relative to expected (see map)
- $\sigma(\text{sigma})$ = between-area standard deviation of log relative risk of leukaemia
 - ▶ posterior mean and 95% interval = 0.46 (0.34, 0.62)
- $\text{QR}_{90}(\text{QR90}) = 4.7$ (95% interval 2.9 to 7.5)
 - ▶ so 4.7-fold variation in relative risk of leukemia between top and bottom 5% of areas

Maps of estimated area-specific RR of leukaemia

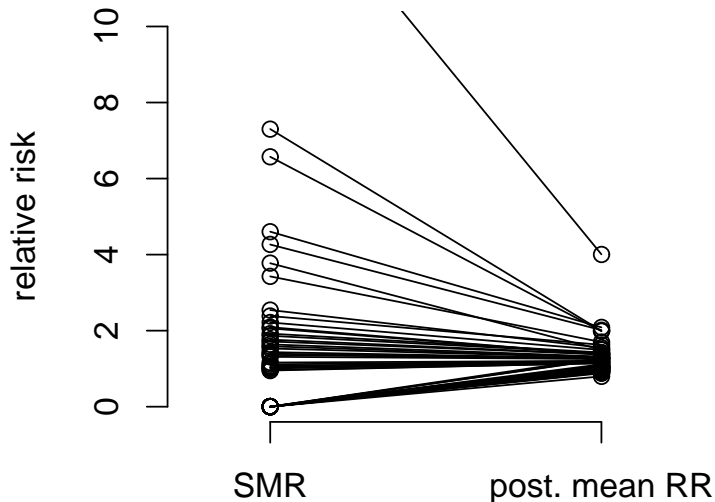
SMR



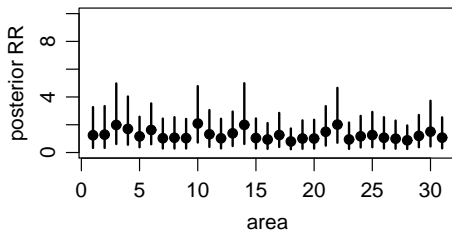
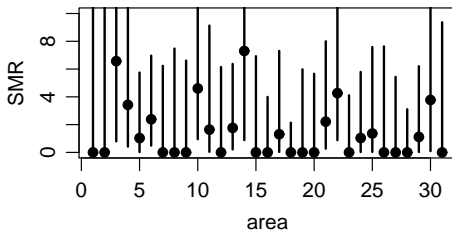
Smoothed RR



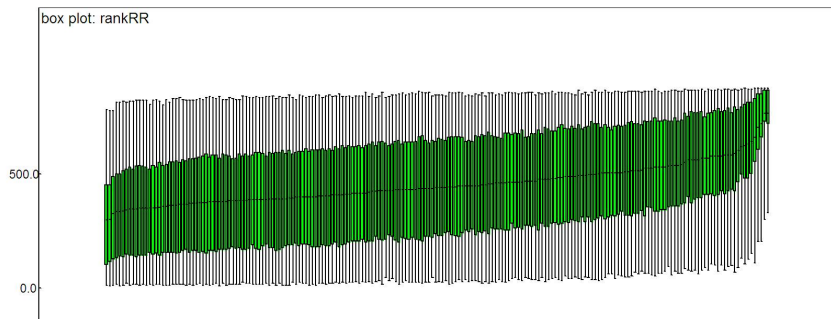
SMR versus posterior mean RR for selected areas



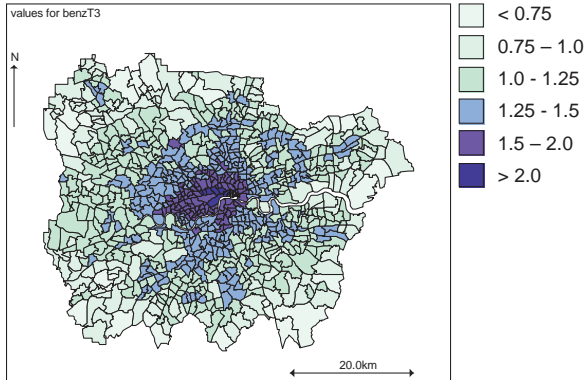
Point estimate and 95% interval for relative risk in selected areas



Posterior distribution of area ranks



Map of mean benzene levels per ward (tonnes per annum on cube root scale)



- Can we explain some of the variation in risk of leukaemia by environmental exposure to benzene?

Including covariates in hierarchical models

- Let X_i = average benzene emissions (tonnes per annum) in ward i (following cube-root transformation to reduce skew)
- Include X as a covariate in the hierarchical model:

$$y_i \sim \text{Poisson}(E_i \lambda_i); \quad i = 1, \dots, 873$$

$$\log \lambda_i = \alpha + \beta X_i + \theta_i$$

$$\theta_i \sim \text{Normal}(0, \sigma^2)$$

$$\alpha, \beta, \sigma^2 \sim \text{vague priors}$$

Extract from BUGS code

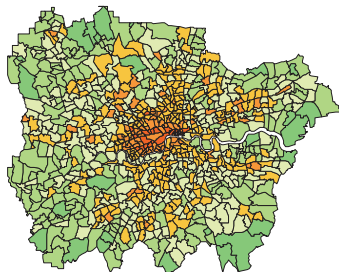
```
for(i in 1 : N) {  
  Y[i] ~ dpois(mu[i])  
  log(mu[i]) <- log(E[i]) + alpha + beta*X[i] + theta[i]  
  theta[i] ~ dnorm(0, tau) # area random effects  
  lambda[i] <- exp(alpha + beta*X[i] + theta[i]) # area RR  
  residRR[i] <- exp(theta[i]) # unexplained area residual RR  
}  
# Priors:  
alpha ~ dnorm(0, 0.0001) # vague prior on overall intercept  
beta ~ dnorm(0, 0.0001) # vague prior on regression coefficient  
RR.benz <- exp(beta) # RR per unit increase in X (benzene)  
  
tau ~ dgamma(0.5, 0.0005) # precision of area random effects  
sigma <- 1/sqrt(tau) # between-area sd of random effects  
  
# 90% quantile ratio for area relative risks  
QR90 <- ranked(lambda[],835)/ranked(lambda[],44)  
# 90% quantile ratio for area residual relative risks  
residQR90 <- ranked(residRR[],835)/ranked(residRR[],44)
```

Results

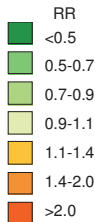
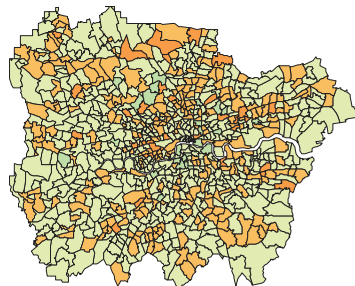
- $e^{\beta}(\text{RR.benz})$ = RR of leukaemia associated with unit increase in cube root benzene emissions in area of residence = 2.23 (1.64, 2.96)
- Residual 90% quantile ratio (residQR_{90}) indicates that there is a 3.9-fold (95% CI 1.8 to 5.0-fold) variation in residual relative risk between the top and bottom 5% of areas **after adjusting for effects of benzene**
 - ▶ Compare with estimate of $\text{QR}_{90} = 4.7$ from model without benzene
- $\lambda_i(\text{lambda})$ = RR of leukaemia in area i relative to London average (see map)
- $e^{\theta_i}(\text{residRR})$ = residual relative risk of leukaemia in area i relative to London average **after adjusting for effects of benzene** (see map)

Maps of area-specific RR of leukaemia

Smoothed RR



Smoothed residual RR
after adjusting for benzene



Longitudinal data

- Arise in studies where individual (or units) are measured repeatedly over time
- For a given individual, observations over time will be typically dependent
- Longitudinal data can arise in various forms:
 - ▶ continuous or discrete response
 - discrete response can be binary/binomial, categorical or counts
 - ▶ equally spaced or irregularly spaced
 - ▶ same or different time points for each individual
 - ▶ with or without missing data
 - ▶ many or few time points, T
 - ▶ many or few individuals or units, n

Analysing longitudinal data

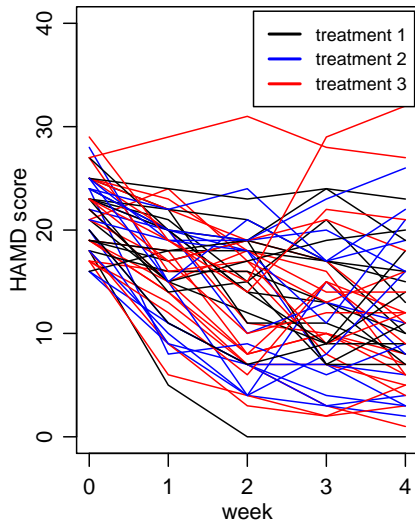
- There are many different ways to analyse longitudinal data
- The key feature of longitudinal data is the need to account for the dependence structure of the data
- Two common methods:
 - ▶ random effects (hierarchical) models
 - ▶ autoregressive models
- Here, we will focus on random effects models

HAMD Example: antidepressant clinical trial

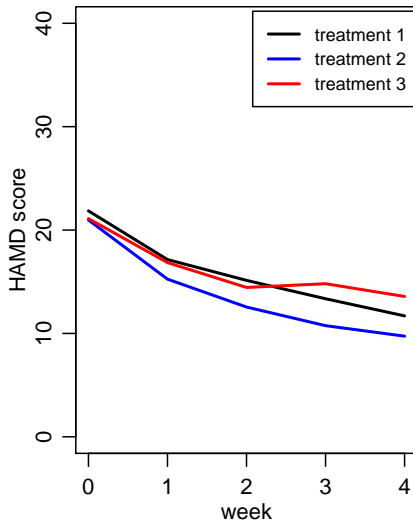
- 6 centre clinical trial, comparing 3 treatments of depression
- 367 subjects randomised to one of 3 treatments
- Subjects rated on Hamilton depression score (HAMD) on 5 weekly visits
 - ▶ week 0 before treatment
 - ▶ weeks 1-4 during treatment
- HAMD score takes values 0-50
 - ▶ the higher the score, the more severe the depression
- Subjects drop out from week 2 onwards, but for now we
 - ▶ ignore the subjects who dropped out
 - ▶ analyse the 246 complete cases
- Data was previously analysed by Diggle and Kenward (1994)

HAMD Example: data

50 Individual Profiles



Mean Response Profiles



HAMD Example: objective

- Study objective: are there any differences in the effects of the 3 treatments on the change in HAMD score over time?
- The variables we will use are:
 - y: Hamilton depression (HAMD) score
 - t: treatment
 - w: week
- For simplicity we will
 - ▶ ignore any centre effects
 - ▶ assume linear relationships
- The models we will consider are:
 - ▶ a non-hierarchical model (standard linear regression)
 - ▶ a hierarchical model with random intercepts
 - ▶ a hierarchical model with random intercepts and random slopes

HAMD Example: a Bayesian (non-hierarchical) linear model (LM)

- Specification:

- ▶ probability distribution for responses:

$$y_{iw} \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_{iw}, \sigma^2)$$

y_{iw} = the HAMD score for individual i in week w (weeks 0, ..., 4)

- ▶ linear predictor: $\mu_{iw} = \alpha + \beta_{\text{treat}(i)} w$

$\text{treat}(i)$ = the treatment indicator of individual i , so it can take values 1, 2 or 3

w = the week of the visit, takes value 0 for visit before treatment and values 1-4 for follow-up visits

- In this model no account is taken of the repeated structure (observations are nested within individuals)
- Assume vague priors for all parameters:

$$\alpha, \beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3 \sim \text{Normal}(0, 10000)$$

$$\frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sim \text{Gamma}(0.001, 0.001)$$

HAMD Example: a Bayesian hierarchical linear model

- Modify LM to allow a separate intercept for each individual:

$$\begin{aligned}y_{iw} &\sim \text{Normal}(\mu_{iw}, \sigma^2) \\ \mu_{iw} &= \alpha_j + \beta_{\text{treat}(i)} w\end{aligned}$$

We are assuming that *conditionally* on α_j , $\{y_{iw}, w = 0, \dots, 4\}$ are independent

- Assume that all the $\{\alpha_j\}$ follow a *common* prior distribution, e.g.

$$\alpha_j \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_\alpha, \sigma_\alpha^2) \quad j = 1, \dots, 246$$

Here we are assuming exchangeability between all the individuals

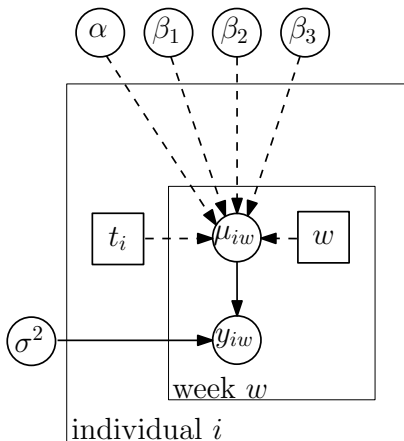
- We may then assume vague priors for the *hyperparameters* of the population distribution:

$$\begin{aligned}\mu_\alpha &\sim \text{Normal}(0, 10000) \\ \sigma_\alpha &\sim \text{Uniform}(0, 100)\end{aligned}$$

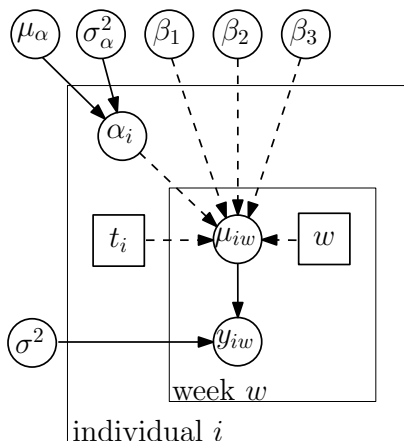
- This is an example of a *Hierarchical LM* or *Linear Mixed Model (LMM)* or *Random Intercepts* model

HAMD Example: DAGs for LM and LMM

non-hierarchical model (LM)



hierarchical model (LMM)



t_i represents the treatment indicator of individual i

HAMD Example: WinBUGS code for LM and LMM

Part of WinBUGS code for non-hierarchical model:

```
for (i in 1:N) { # N individuals
  for (w in 1:W) { # W weeks
    hamd[i,w]~dnorm(mu[i,w],tau)
    mu[i,w]<-alpha+beta[treat[i]]*(w-1)
  }
}
# specification of priors ....
```

Part of WinBUGS code for hierarchical model:

```
for (i in 1:N) { # N individuals
  for (w in 1:W) { # W weeks
    hamd[i,w]~dnorm(mu[i,w],tau)
    mu[i,w]<-alpha[i]+beta[treat[i]]*(w-1)
  }
  alpha[i]~dnorm(alpha.mu,alpha.tau) # random intercepts
}
# specification of priors ....
```

HAMD Example: WinBUGS code for priors

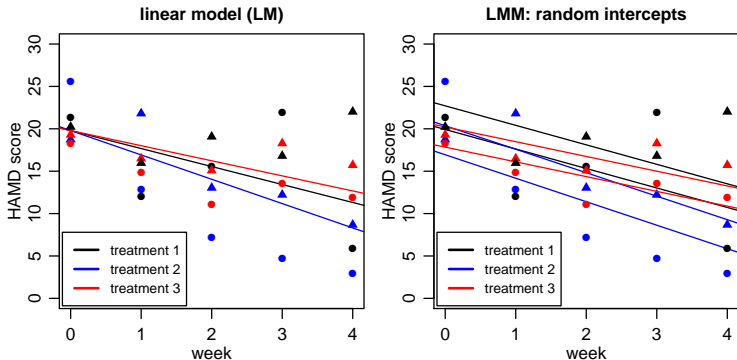
Prior specification for non-hierarchical model:

```
alpha~dnorm(0,0.00001)
for (t in 1:T){ # T treatments
  beta[t]~dnorm(0,0.00001)
}
tau~dgamma(0.001,0.001)
sigma.sq<-1/tau # Normal errors
```

Prior specification for hierarchical model:

```
alpha.mu~dnorm(0,0.00001)
alpha.sigma~dunif(0,100)
alpha.sigma.sq<-pow(alpha.sigma,2)
alpha.tau<-1/alpha.sigma.sq
for (t in 1:T){ # T treatments
  beta[t]~dnorm(0,0.00001)
}
tau~dgamma(0.001,0.001)
sigma.sq<-1/tau # Normal errors
```

HAMD Example: LM and LMM fitted lines



circles and triangles represent scores for 6 individuals (2 for each treatment)

- LM:

- ▶ 3 regressions lines fitted, 1 for each treatment
- ▶ each treatment has the same intercept, but a different slope

- LMM:

- ▶ each individual has a different regression line
- ▶ but for each treatment, individuals have the same slope

HAMD Example: results for LM and LMM

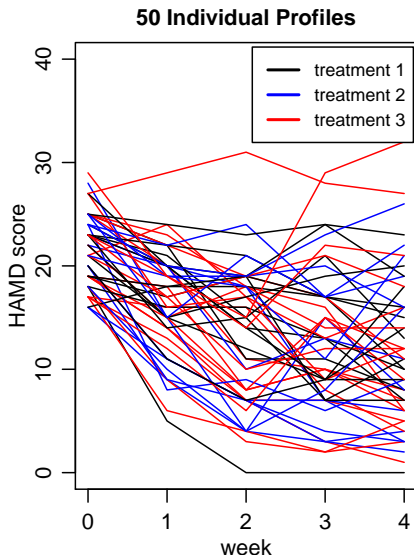
Table: posterior mean (95% credible interval) for the non-hierarchical and hierarchical models fitted to the HAMD data

	non-hierarchical model			hierarchical model	
α	19.8	(19.2,20.4)	μ_α	19.8	(19.1,20.5)
			σ_α^2	17.6	(14.0,21.9)
β_1	-2.1	(-2.4,-1.8)	β_1	-2.3	(-2.6,-2.0)
β_2	-2.9	(-3.2,-2.6)	β_2	-2.8	(-3.0,-2.5)
β_3	-1.8	(-2.1,-1.5)	β_3	-1.7	(-2.0,-1.5)
σ^2	35.4	(32.6,38.5)	σ^2	18.2	(16.6,19.8)

Note

- the variability in the intercept in the hierarchical model
- how the residual variance (σ^2) is reduced when random effects are incorporated

HAMD Example: revisiting the data



The plot of the raw data

- indicates that separate intercepts are appropriate
- also suggests including separate slopes

So we add random slopes to the hierarchical model

HAMD Example: adding random slopes

- Modify LMM to allow a separate slope for each individual:

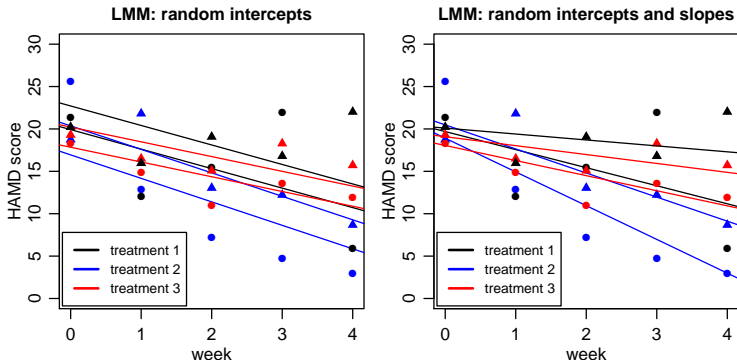
$$y_{iw} \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_{iw}, \sigma^2)$$

$$\mu_{iw} = \alpha_i + \beta_{(\text{treat}(i), i)} w$$

- As for the $\{\alpha_i\}$, assume that the $\{\beta_{(1,i)}\}, \{\beta_{(2,i)}\}$ & $\{\beta_{(3,i)}\}$ follow *common* prior distributions with vague priors on their *hyperparameters*

```
for (i in 1:N) { # N individuals
  for (w in 1:W) { # W weeks
    hamd[i,w]~dnorm(mu[i,w],tau)
    mu[i,w]<-alpha[i]+beta[treat[i],i]*(w-1)
  }
  alpha[i]~dnorm(alpha.mu,alpha.tau)
  for (t in 1:T){beta[t,i]~dnorm(beta.mu[t],beta.tau[t])}
}
# Priors
for (t in 1:T){ # T treatments
  beta.mu[t]~dnorm(0,0.00001)
  beta.sigma[t]~dunif(0,100)
  beta.sigma.sq[t]<-pow(beta.sigma[t],2)
  beta.tau[t]<-1/beta.sigma.sq[t]
} # specification of other priors as before ....
```

HAMD Example: random intercepts and slopes



circles and triangles represent scores for 6 individuals (2 for each treatment)

- LMM with random intercepts only:
 - ▶ each individual has a different regression line
 - ▶ but for each treatment, only intercept varies by individual
- LMM with random intercepts and random slopes:
 - ▶ now intercepts and slopes both vary
 - ▶ better fit for each individual

HAMD Example: results comparison

Table: posterior mean (95% credible interval) for the non-hierarchical and hierarchical models fitted to the HAMD data

	linear model			hierarchical model 1*			hierarchical model 2†	
α	19.8	(19.2,20.4)	μ_α	19.8	(19.1,20.5)	μ_α	19.8	(19.2,20.4)
			σ_α^2	17.6	(14.0,21.9)	σ_α^2	11.1	(8.4,14.4)
β_1	-2.1	(-2.4,-1.8)	β_1	-2.3	(-2.6,-2.0)	μ_{β_1}	-2.3	(-2.7,-1.9)
						$\sigma_{\beta_1}^2$	2.0	(1.2,3.0)
β_2	-2.9	(-3.2,-2.6)	β_2	-2.8	(-3.0,-2.5)	μ_{β_2}	-2.8	(-3.2,-2.4)
						$\sigma_{\beta_2}^2$	1.2	(0.5,2.0)
β_3	-1.8	(-2.1,-1.5)	β_3	-1.7	(-2.0,-1.5)	μ_{β_3}	-1.7	(-2.1,-1.4)
						$\sigma_{\beta_3}^2$	1.9	(1.1,2.9)
σ^2	35.4	(32.6,38.5)	σ^2	18.2	(16.6,19.8)	σ^2	14.4	(13.0,15.9)
p_D	5		p_D	207		p_D	314	
DIC	7882		DIC	7263		DIC	7082	

* random intercepts only

† random intercepts and random slopes

HAMD Example: interpretation of results

- Study objective: are there any differences in the effects of the 3 treatments on the change in HAMD score over time?
- So we are particularly interested in the differences in the slope parameters, i.e.
 - ▶ $\beta_1 - \beta_2$, $\beta_1 - \beta_3$ and $\beta_2 - \beta_3$ or
 - ▶ $\mu_{\beta_1} - \mu_{\beta_2}$, $\mu_{\beta_1} - \mu_{\beta_3}$ and $\mu_{\beta_2} - \mu_{\beta_3}$ for models with random slopes
- To monitor these contrasts, add the following lines of BUGS code

```
# Calculate contrasts
contrasts[1]<-beta[1]-beta[2]
contrasts[2]<-beta[1]-beta[3]
contrasts[3]<-beta[2]-beta[3]
```

or

```
contrasts[1]<-beta.mu[1]-beta.mu[2] ...
```

HAMD Example: contrasts

Table: posterior mean (95% credible interval) for the contrasts (treatment comparisons) from models fitted to the HAMD data

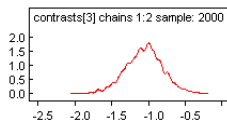
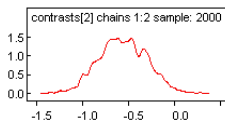
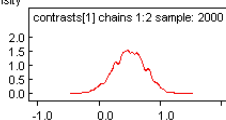
treatments	linear model		hierarchical 1 [*]		hierarchical 2 [†]	
1 v 2	0.8	(0.4,1.1)	0.5	(0.1,0.8)	0.5	(0.0,1.0)
1 v 3	-0.3	(-0.7,0.0)	-0.6	(-0.9,-0.2)	-0.6	(-1.1,0.0)
2 v 3	-1.1	(-1.4,-0.8)	-1.0	(-1.4,-0.7)	-1.1	(-1.6,-0.6)

^{*} random intercepts only

[†] random intercepts and random slopes

Density plots for hierarchical 2

Kernel density



Cross-classified random effects models

- Straightforward to extend basic hierarchical model to include non-nested random effects structures, e.g.
 - ▶ THM measurements cross-classified within zones and years
 - ▶ pupils cross-classified within primary and secondary schools
- Easiest to formulate cross-classified models in BUGS using nested index notation (see example)

Example: Schools – exam scores cross-classified by primary and secondary school

- These data were obtained from the MLwiN website
www.mlwin.com/softrev/2lev-xc.html
- We use a random sample of 800 children who attended 132 primary schools and 19 secondary schools in Scotland
- The following variables were used
 - Y exam attainment score of pupils at age 16
 - VRQ verbal reasoning score taken on secondary school entry
 - SEX pupil's gender (0 = boy, 1 = girl)
 - PID primary school identifying code
 - SID secondary school identifying code
- **Model 1:** Normal hierarchical model with independent random effects for primary school and secondary school
- **Model 2:** Verbal reasoning score + gender included as 'fixed' covariate effects (but note that in Bayesian framework, 'fixed' effect coefficients are still assigned prior distributions)

BUGS model code (Model 2)

```
for(i in 1:Nobs) {
  Y[i] ~ dnorm(mu[i], tau.e)
  mu[i] <- alpha + beta[1]*SEX[i] + beta[2]*VRQ[i] +
           theta.ps[PID[i]] + theta.ss[SID[i]]
}

### random effects distributions
for(j in 1:Nprim) { theta.ps[j] ~ dnorm(0, tau.ps) } # primary
for(k in 1:Nsec) { theta.ss[k] ~ dnorm(0, tau.ss) } # secondary
### priors on regression coefficients and variances
tau.e ~ dgamma(0.001, 0.001)
sigma2.e <- 1/tau.e           # residual error variance
tau.ps ~ dgamma(0.001, 0.001)
sigma2.ps <- 1/tau.ps         # between primary school var.
tau.ss ~ dgamma(0.001, 0.001)
sigma2.ss <- 1/tau.ss         # between secondary school var.
alpha ~ dnorm(0, 0.000001)    # intercept
for(q in 1:2) {beta[q] ~ dnorm(0, 0.000001)} # regression coeff.
### percentage of total variance explained
VPC.ps <- sigma2.ps/(sigma2.e+sigma2.ps+sigma2.ss) # primary
VPC.ss <- sigma2.ss/(sigma2.e+sigma2.ps+sigma2.ss) # secondary
```

Results

Parameters	Model 1		Model 2	
α	5.53	(5.17, 5.88)	5.85	(5.59, 6.10)
β_1 (sex)	—	—	0.23	(-0.08, 0.53)
β_2 (VRQ)	—	—	0.16	(0.15, 0.17)
$\sigma_{[e]}^2$	8.18	(7.35, 9.10)	4.49	(4.03, 5.00)
$\sigma_{[ps]}^2$	1.12	(0.43, 1.98)	0.36	(0.08, 0.70)
$\sigma_{[ss]}^2$	0.19	(0.10, 0.82)	0.02	(0.0007, 0.12)
VPC_{ps}	11.8%	(4.7%, 19.8%)	7.4%	(1.5%, 13.8%)
VPC_{ss}	2.0%	(0.1%, 8.3%)	0.4%	(0.01%, 2.4%)
DIC	4008		3514	
p_D	58.0		43.8	

