

Aspects of regression to the mean

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Shrinkage of results can be seen
to be a necessary fact of life.

(Stephen Senn)

1. Shrinkage is a fact of life

- Galton 1889: *Regression toward mediocrity*: Phenomenon where if one sample of a random variable is extreme, the next sampling of the same random variable is likely to be closer to its mean.

2. True and observed

Assume true diastolic blood pressure, τ , at baseline is measured with error ϵ so that

$$X = \tau + \epsilon \tag{1}$$

is the *observed* blood pressure. Let the *true* mean difference between patients be Δ and the *observed* mean difference D , then the expectation of D is

$$E(D \mid \Delta = \delta) = \delta, \tag{2}$$

that is, we have “classical” *unbiasedness*, since $\beta_{D|\Delta} = \frac{\text{Cov}(\Delta, D)}{\sigma_\Delta^2} = 1$.

However, the contrary is not true. We have for the expectation of Δ , given an observed difference d ,

$$|E(\Delta \mid D = d)| < |d|, \quad (3)$$

since $\beta_{\Delta|D} = \frac{\text{Cov}(\Delta, D)}{\sigma_D^2} < 1$, and we have *regression to the mean*¹.

Reliability as upper bound The maximal possible correlation between Δ and D is $\sqrt{rel_D}$.

1

In a Bayesian approach, shrinking is *natural* and we have *inverse unbiasedness*. Most bayesians are rather unconcerned about unbiasedness (at least in the formal sampling-theory sense above) of their estimates. For example, Gelman et al (1995) write: “From a Bayesian perspective, the principle of unbiasedness is reasonable in the limit of large samples, but otherwise it is potentially misleading. Unbiasedness as conventionally understood is not a necessary property of good inferences”. Assume without loss of generality $E(\Delta) = 0$ and $\hat{\Delta}$ an unbiased estimate of a given effect Δ and $\hat{\Delta}_{shrunk}$ a shrunk estimate. Although $\hat{\Delta}_{shrunk}$ is not unbiased in the classic forward sense, $E(\hat{\Delta}_{shrunk} \mid \Delta = \delta) \neq \delta$ it is unbiased in the Bayesian backward sense: $E(\Delta \mid \hat{\Delta}_{shrunk} = \hat{\delta}_{shrunk}) = \hat{\delta}_{shrunk}$.

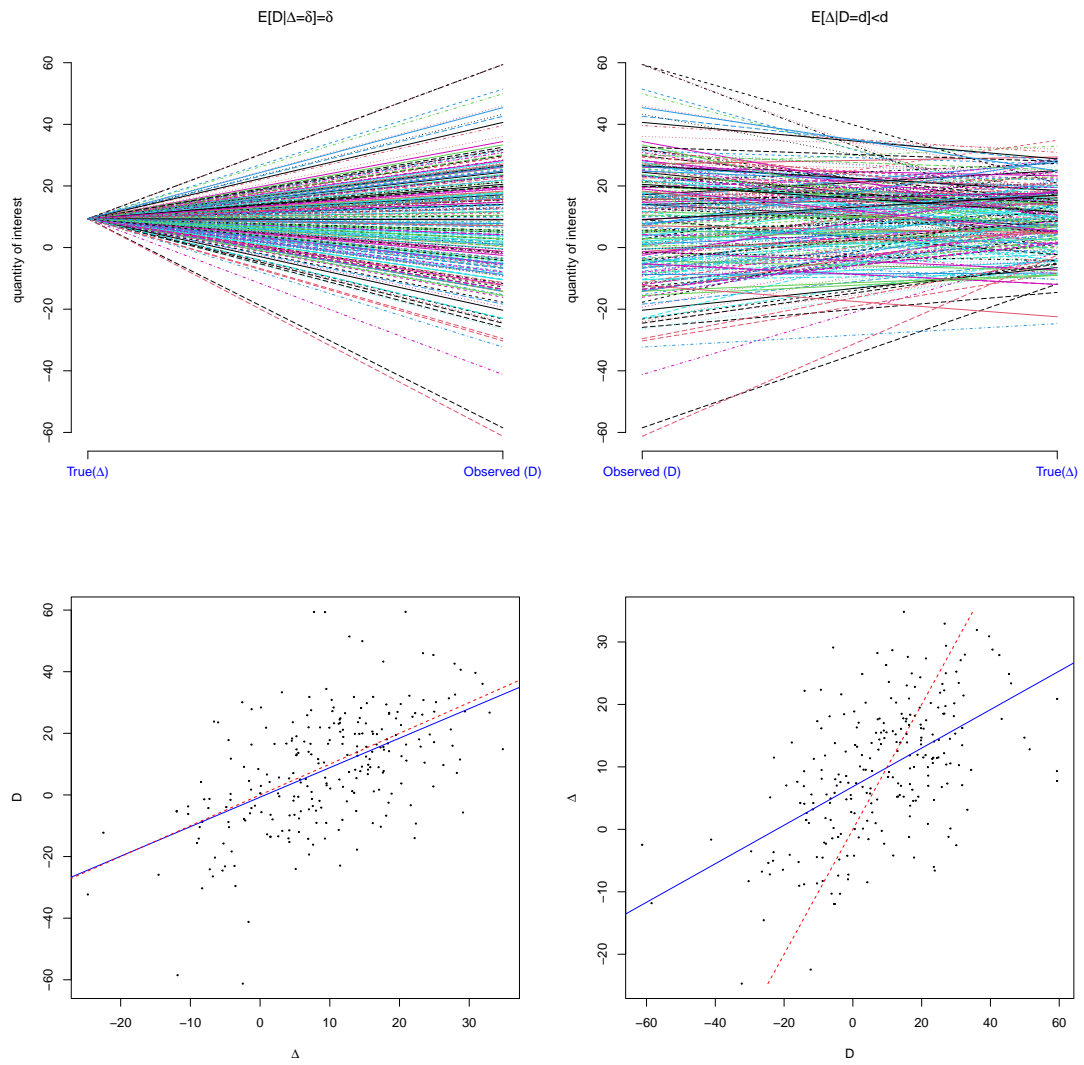


Figure 1: Shrinkage as a fact of life

3. Placebo as a statistical phenomenon

Placebo effects can often be interpreted as a purely statistical – not a psychological – phenomenon.

Assuming no true change. We simulate correlated pre-post diastolic blood pressure data assuming *no change* from baseline to follow-up: simulations from parameters: $\rho_{BL,FU} = 0.76, \mu_{BL} = \mu_{FU} = 90, \sigma_{BL} = \sigma_{FU} = 8$. Then let us look at the *subgroup* of “hypertensive at baseline” only. We have regression to the mean, since $\beta_{FU|BL} = \frac{\sigma_{FU,BL}}{\sigma_{BL}^2} = r \leq 1$.

```
library(RegToMeanExample)
args(DBP.RTM)

## function (mu = 90, sigma = 8, r = 0.76, n = 1000, limit = 95,
##       TrueChange = 0, show.plot = TRUE, show.out = FALSE)
## NULL

res <- DBP.RTM(show.plot = FALSE)
```

```
res$tttestall$p.value

## NULL

res$tttestextrem$p.value

## NULL
```

```
DBP.RTM(show.plot = TRUE)
```

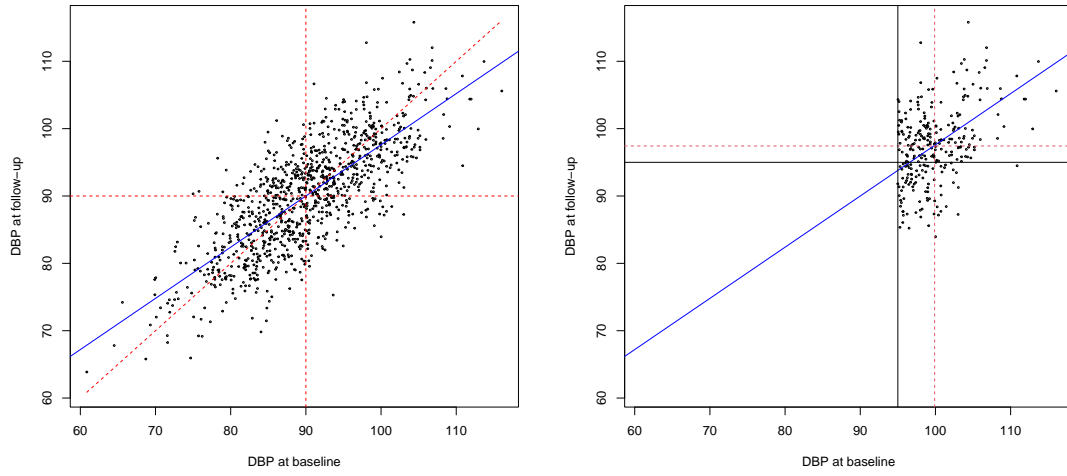
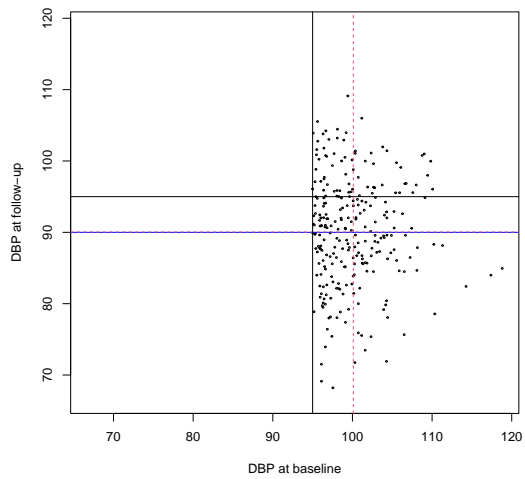
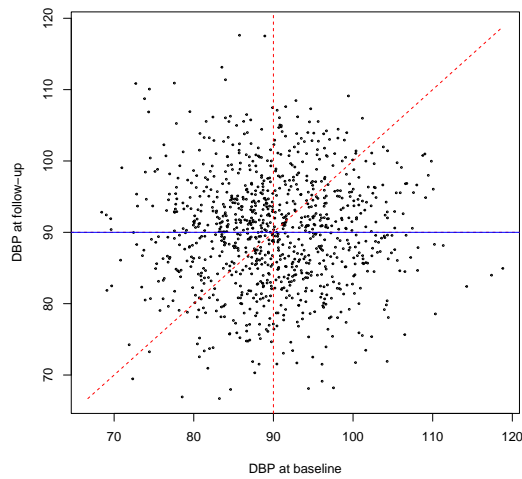


Figure 2: Simulation of diastolic blood pressure data. Simulations from parameters: $\rho_{BL,FU} = 0.76, \mu_{BL} = \mu_{FU} = 90, \sigma_{BL} = \sigma_{FU} = 8$. Left panel: Baseline versus Follow-up for diastolic blood pressure: no change in the mean. Right panel: Baseline versus Follow-up for “hypertensive at baseline” only. We observe an apparent change due to regression to the mean (Solid line: Regression of follow-up on baseline-measure (that is, by fixing baseline)). Dashed lines: mean values and equality lines.

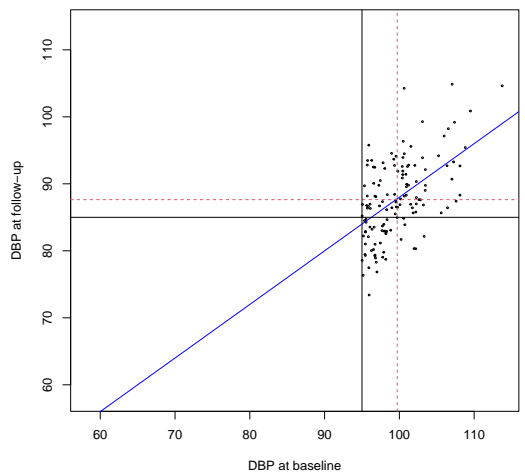
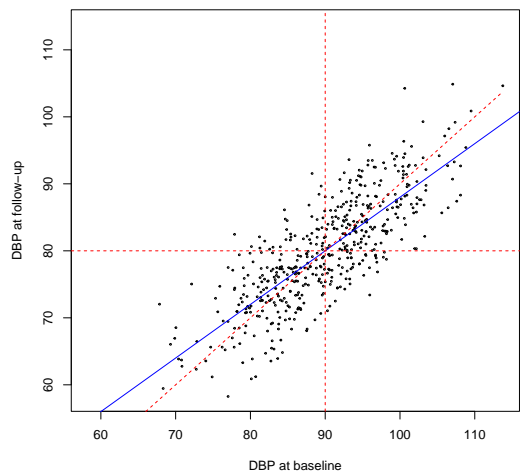
Extreme case: $\rho=0$

```
DBP.RTM(r = 0, show.plot = TRUE)
```



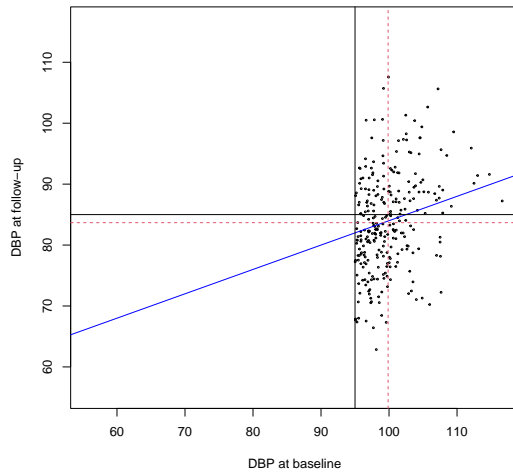
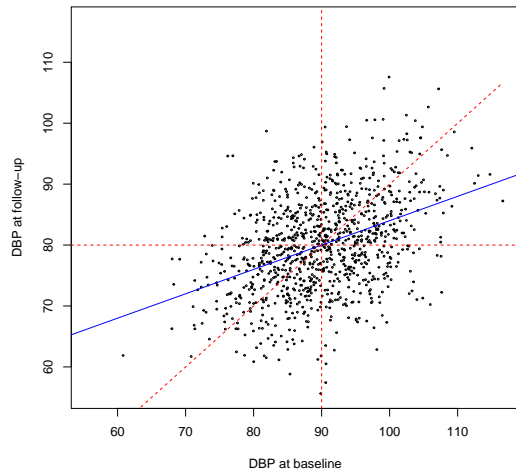
Including a true change of -10 and $\rho=.8$

```
DBP.RTM(n = n, r = 0.8, TrueChange = -10, show.plot = TRUE)
```



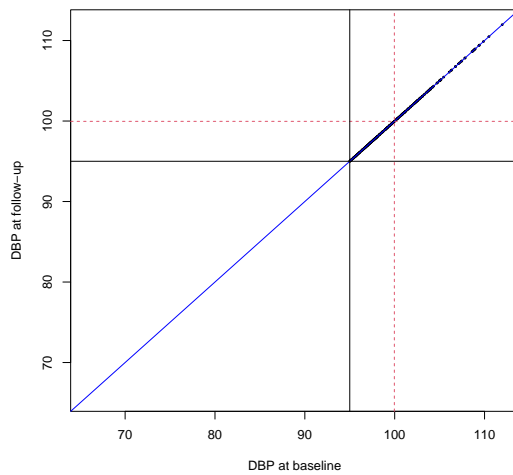
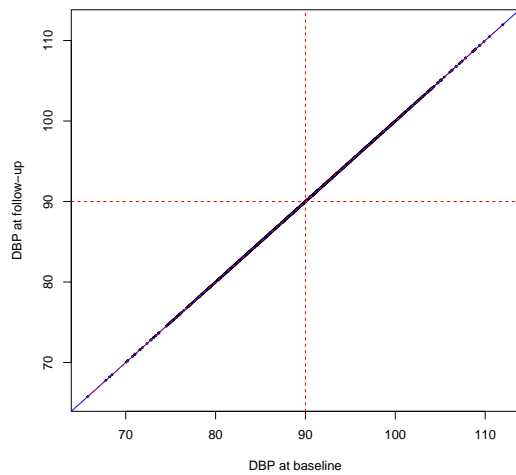
Including a true change of -10 and $\rho=.4$

```
DBP.RTM(r = 0.4, TrueChange = -10, show.plot = TRUE)
```



$\rho=1$ (Perfect reliability)

```
DBP.RTM(r = 1, TrueChange = 0, show.plot = TRUE)
```



A. Maths

Definition for bivariate normal distribution If (X, Y) follows a bivariate normal distribution, then $E(Y | X)$ is a linear function of X . The correlation ρ between X and Y determines:

$$\boxed{\frac{E(Y | X) - E(Y)}{\sigma_Y} = \rho \frac{X - E(X)}{\sigma_X}}, \quad (4)$$

where $E(X)$ and $E(Y)$ are the expected values of X and Y , respectively, and σ_X and σ_Y are the standard deviations of X and Y , respectively.

The conditional expected value of Y , given that X is t standard deviations above its mean (and that includes the case where it is below its mean, when $t < 0$), is ρt standard deviations above the mean of Y .

Since $|\rho| \leq 1$, Y is no farther from the mean than X is, as measured in the number of standard deviations. Hence, if $0 \leq \rho < 1$, then (X, Y) shows regression toward the mean, that is, $Z_{Y|X} = \rho Z_x$, leading to $Z_{Y|X} - Z_X = (\rho - 1)Z_x$. The amount of RTM is

$$\boxed{|z_{Y|X} - z_x| = (1 - \rho)z_x}. \quad (5)$$

The estimated fraction of RTM is given by $1 - \rho$, the fraction of variance that is due to within-subject variability. This quantity represents *unreliability*.

Attenuation Spearman 1904: *The proof and measurement of association between two things.*

- *Reduced reliability* of X and Y will always *attenuate* the *observed correlation*
- attenuation

$$r_{X,Y} = r_{X_T,Y_T} \times \sqrt{r_{XX'} \times r_{YY'}} \quad (6)$$

- dis-attenuation:

$$r_{X_T,Y_T} = \frac{r_{X,Y}}{\sqrt{r_{XX'} \times r_{YY'}}} \quad (7)$$

- The *maximal possible observable correlation* between X and Y is the square root of the product of their reliability

