# Multiple Comparisons 

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## Multiple Comparisons

Generally speaking, multiple comparisons involves statistical techniques for investigating the properties of multiple hypothesis tests considered as a group. We will consider two commonly encountered cases:

- multiple hypothesis tests on a list of responses or on a list of covariates;
- a group of hypotheses on a levels of a factor usually hypothesizing equality of the coefficients of several levels or more generally that a linear function of the coefficients is zero.


## Multiple Testing example

The Bottomly et al. mouse gene expression data contains gene expression by RNA-Seq for brain tissue in two strains of mice, 10 from the $\mathrm{C} 57 \mathrm{BL} / 6 \mathrm{~J}$ strain and 11 from the DBA/2J strain. Fragments from the RNA were mapped to mouse genes, resulting in counts for 11,870 genes. If we conduct tests for difference between the counts or relative counts for the two strains for each of the genes, we have potentially 11,870 tests, though this could be reduced by eliminating genes whose total count was so small that there was little information.

If we conduct 11,870 tests at the $5 \%$ level, and all of the null hypotheses are true, then the expected number of false positives is $11870 \times 0.05=593.5$, which will cause considerable trouble in interpretation. A common proposal for adjusting the p -values of tests uses the Bonferroni inequality, in which when conducting $k$ hypothesis tests at level $\alpha$, the chance of at least one false positive is less than or equal to $k \alpha$. If we conduct the hypothesis tests each at level $0.05 / k$, then the chance of any false positive is less than or equal to 0.05 .

What kind of effects could be detected with $\alpha=0.05 / 11870=4.2 \times 10^{-6}$ ? This would require (under normality with 11 in each group) that the means would be separated by 3.13 standard deviations, which would eliminate any real possibility of detecting an effect. Tests with $p=0.00001$ would not be rejected! This would be difficult for researcher to accept, and so a different approach has come to be common in these areas of investigation.

If group 1 had mean 10 and standard deviation 1 , and group 2 had mean 13.13 with standard deviation 1 , then the denominator of the two sample t-test would be $\sqrt{s_{1}^{2} / 11+s_{2}^{2} / 11} \approx \sqrt{2 / 11}=0.426$ and the expected value of the difference of the means would be 3.13 , so a typical z-score when the difference would be detected would be 7.34!

Requiring zero false positives in 11,870 test would be widely considered unreasonable. So how many false positives should we allow?

## False Discovery Rate

Instead of trying to control the false positive number, we might instead choose to control the false discovery rate (FDR), which is the fraction of tests in a group of tests that are false positives. The most commonly used such procedure is that of Benjamini and Hochberg (1995). To use this, we can run all the hypothesis tests in the usual way and construct the vector of $p$-values, then apply the R function p.adjust.

```
p.adjust(p, method = p.adjust.methods, n = length(p))
p.adjust.methods
# c("holm", "hochberg", "hommel", "bonferroni", "BH", "BY",
# "fdr", "none")
Arguments
p
numeric vector of p-values (possibly with NAs). Any other R object is coerced
    by as.numeric.
method
correction method, a character string. Can be abbreviated.
n
number of comparisons, must be at least length(p);
    only set this (to non-default) when you know what you are doing!
```

Note that declaring significant any test with FDR-adjusted p-value less than 0.05 is conceptually completely different from using the 0.05 threshold on an unadjusted p-value. It seems completely reasonable to set a higher threshold such as 0.10 .

Any time you conduct hypothesis tests, some of the "significant" ones may not be truly different, and 5 or 10 percent seems a modest penalty to wade through. The Bonferroni method tries to limit the false positives to zero, which reduces the power to a large extent.

## Multiple Comparisons

The other kind of multiple comparison adjustment occurs especially when we have a factor with multiple levels in a linear predictor. Suppose we have three disease types, "ALL", "AML-High", and "AML-Low" with estimates of the log hazard ratio of AML-High vs. ALL and of the log hazard ratio of AML-Low vs. ALL. The coefficient table has hypothesis tests for whether these each are zero, but not of the comparison of AML-High and AML-Low.

If we have a factor describing the type of burn as chemical, scald, electric, and flame, there are six distinct pairwise comparisons, and well as possibly other linear hypotheses, and if we conduct lots of tests on the three coefficients in the table, we may have false positives. Of course a test of whether all the rates are equal is obtainable by a LR test of the models with and without that factor. Note that Wald tests of any linear hypothesis can be conducted for any type of regression model for which asymptotically valid covariance matrices can be derived.

A linear hypothesis on a vector of coefficients $\beta$ of length $p$ with estimates $\hat{\beta}$ is of the form

$$
H_{0}: L^{\top} \beta=k,
$$

where $L$ is a vector of numbers of length $p$; often $L$ is a contrast meaning that the sum of the entries is zero and $k$ is also often zero. If $\hat{\beta}$ has estimated covariance matrix $\hat{V}$, then the estimated variance of $L^{\top} \hat{\beta}$ is $L^{\top} \hat{V} L$ and an approximate $z$-statistic for the hypothesis as stated is

$$
z=\frac{L^{\top} \hat{\beta}-k}{\sqrt{L^{\top} \hat{V} L}}
$$

## Comparison with a Control

```
recovery {multcomp}
Recovery time after surgery.
```

This data frame contains the following variables
blanket
blanket type, $a$ factor at four levels: b0, b1, b2, and b3.
minutes
response variable: recovery time after a surgical procedure.

Details
A company developed specialized heating blankets designed to help the body heat following a surgical procedure. Four types of blankets were tried on surgical patients with the aim of comparing the recovery time of patients.
One of the blanket was a standard blanket that had been in use already in various hospitals.

## Source

P. H. Westfall, R. D. Tobias, D. Rom, R. D. Wolfinger, Y. Hochberg (1999). Multiple Comparisons and Multiple Tests Using the SAS System. Cary, NC: SAS Institute Inc., page 66.
> library(multcomp)
> data(recovery)
> recovery.lm <- lm(minutes~blanket, data=recovery)
$>$ summary (recovery.lm)

Call:
lm(formula $=$ minutes $\sim$ blanket, data $=$ recovery)

Residuals:

| Min | 1Q Median | 3Q | Max |  |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| -6.133 | -1.800 | 0.200 | 2.200 | 4.867 |

Coefficients:
Estimate Std. Error $t$ value $\operatorname{Pr}(>|t|)$
(Intercept) $14.8000 \quad 0.579225 .552<2 e-16 * * *$
blanketb1 -2.1333 1.6038 -1.330 0.1916
blanketb2 -7.4667 $1.6038-4.6564 .07 \mathrm{e}-05$ ***
blanketb3 -1.6667 0.8848 -1.884 0.0675 .

Signif. codes: $0{ }^{\prime} * * * ’ 0.001$ '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 2.59 on 37 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.3797, Adjusted R-squared: 0.3294
F-statistic: 7.55 on 3 and 37 DF, p-value: 0.0004619

It looks like blanket b2 is better than b0, but we did conduct three hypothesis tests to obtain that finding. The F-test shows that not all the blankets are the same, so it might be reasonable to attribute that only to b2, but we can test that allowing for the multiple comparisons and the correlations between the tests using the Dunnett procedure and also obtain confidence intervals adjusted for multiple comparisons. This is based on the multivariate $t$ distribution of the coefficients and is implemented in the glht() command in the R package multcomp.
> recovery.mc <- glht(recovery.lm,linfct=mcp(blanket="Dunnett"))
$>$ summary (recovery.mc)

## Simultaneous Tests for General Linear Hypotheses

Multiple Comparisons of Means: Dunnett Contrasts

Fit: $\operatorname{lm}($ formula $=$ minutes $\sim$ blanket, data $=$ recovery)
Linear Hypotheses:
Estimate Std. Error $t$ value $\operatorname{Pr}(>|t|)$
b1 - b0 == $\begin{array}{lllll} & -2.1333 & 1.6038 & -1.330 & 0.456\end{array}$
b2 - b0 == 0 -7.4667 $1.6038-4.656<0.001$ ***
$\begin{array}{lllll}\mathrm{b} 3-\mathrm{b} 0 & == & -1.6667 & 0.8848 & -1.884\end{array} 0.182$

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
(Adjusted p values reported -- single-step method)

```
> names(recovery.mc)
```

```
[1] "model" "linfct" "rhs"
"focus"
> recovery.mc$linfct
```

|  | (Intercept) | blanketb1 | blanketb2 | blanketb3 |
| :---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| b1 - b0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| b2 - b0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| b3 - b0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |

attr (, "type")
[1] "Dunnett"
> recovery.mc\$rhs
[1] 000
> recovery.mc\$focus
[1] "blanket"

Some attributes of an object have extractor functions, including coef and vcov. All the components can be accessed as attributes of the object. The three linear hypotheses require the linear vectors $L$ and the right-hand sides $k$.

```
contrMat(n, type = c("Dunnett", "Tukey", "Sequen", "AVE",
    "Changepoint", "Williams", "Marcus",
                                "McDermott", "UmbrellaWilliams", "GrandMean"),
    base = 1)
Arguments
n a (possibly named) vector of sample sizes for each group.
type
base
type of contrast.
    an integer specifying which group is considered the baseline
    group for Dunnett contrasts.
```

This lists the types of pre-specified contrasts. Any set of linear hypotheses can also be specified just as a matrix linfct and right-hand side vector rhs. A base level can be given for Dunnett comparisons, which for general hypotheses is the focus attribute.

```
recovery.lm
Coefficients:
    Estimate Std. Error t value Pr (>|t|)
(Intercept) 14.8000 0.5792 25.552 < 2e-16 ***
blanketb1 -2.1333 1.6038 -1.330 0.1916
blanketb2 -7.4667 1.6038 -4.656 4.07e-05 ***
blanketb3 -1.6667 0.8848 -1.884 0.0675 .
recovery.mc
Linear Hypotheses:
    Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
b1 - b0 == 0 -2.1333 1.6038 -1.330 0.456
b2 - b0 == 0 -7.4667 1.6038 -4.656 <0.001 ***
b3 - b0 == 0 -1.6667 0.8848 -1.884 0.182
```

Note that the t-scores are the same, but the p-values are adjusted for multiple comparisons so that the chance that one or more is significant at level $\alpha$ in the null case is less than or equal to $\alpha$

```
> summary(recovery.mc,test = adjusted(type="bonferroni"))
```

Simultaneous Tests for General Linear Hypotheses

Multiple Comparisons of Means: Dunnett Contrasts

Fit: $\operatorname{lm}($ formula $=$ minutes $\sim$ blanket, data $=$ recovery)

Linear Hypotheses:
Estimate Std. Error $t$ value $\operatorname{Pr}(>|t|)$
b1 - b0 == 0 -2.1333 1.6038 -1.330 0.574796
b2 - b0 == $0-7.4667 \quad 1.6038-4.6560 .000122$ ***
b3 - b0 == 0 -1.6667 0.8848 -1.884 0.202439

Signif. codes: $0{ }^{\prime} * * * ’ 0.001$ '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1 (Adjusted p values reported -- bonferroni method)

Coefficients:
Estimate Std. Error $t$ value $\operatorname{Pr}(>|t|)$

| (Intercept) | 14.8000 | 0.5792 | 25.552 | $<2 \mathrm{e}-16 * * *$ | lm |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: | :--- |
| blanketb1 | -2.1333 | 1.6038 | -1.330 | 0.1916 |  |
| blanketb2 | -7.4667 | 1.6038 | -4.656 | $4.07 \mathrm{e}-05 * * *$ |  |
| blanketb3 | -1.6667 | 0.8848 | -1.884 | 0.0675 |  |

Linear Hypotheses:
Estimate Std. Error $t$ value $\operatorname{Pr}(>|t|)$
b1 - b0 == 0 -2.1333 $\quad 1.6038-1.330 \quad 0.456$
$\mathrm{b} 2-\mathrm{b} 0==0-7.4667 \quad 1.6038-4.656<0.001$ ***
$\mathrm{b} 3-\mathrm{bO}==\begin{array}{lllll}0 & -1.6667 & 0.8848 & -1.884 & 0.182\end{array}$

Linear Hypotheses:
Estimate Std. Error $t$ value $\operatorname{Pr}(>|t|)$
b1 - b0 == 0 -2.1333 $1.6038-1.3300 .574796$ Bonferroni
$\mathrm{b} 2-\mathrm{b} 0==0-7.4667 \quad 1.6038-4.656 \quad 0.000122$ ***
b3 - b0 == $0 \begin{array}{lllll} & -1.6667 & 0.8848 & -1.884 & 0.202439\end{array}$
Dunnett

Both Dunnett and Bonferroni protect the familywise error rate, but Dunnett has smaller p-values because it uses the correlations of the tests.

```
> confint(recovery.mc)
```


## Simultaneous Confidence Intervals

```
Multiple Comparisons of Means: Dunnett Contrasts
```

```
Fit: lm(formula = minutes ~ blanket, data = recovery)
Quantile \(=2.489\)
95\% family-wise confidence level
```

Linear Hypotheses:
Estimate lwr upr

$$
\text { b1 - b0 == } 0 \begin{array}{llll} 
& -2.1333 & -6.1251 & 1.8584
\end{array}
$$

$$
\text { b2 - b0 == } 0 \quad-7.4667-11.4584-3.4749
$$

$$
\text { b3 - b0 == } 0 \begin{array}{llll} 
& -1.6667 & -3.8688 & 0.5355
\end{array}
$$

There is at least a $95 \%$ chance that all the true values of the contrasts lie in their stated intervals.

```
> confint(recovery.lm)
                2.5 % 97.5 %
(Intercept) 13.626389 15.9736107
blanketb1 -5.382914 1.1162474
blanketb2 -10.716247 -4.2170859
blanketb3 -3.459387 0.1260532
```

Linear Hypotheses:
Estimate lwr upr
b1 - b0 == $0 \begin{array}{llll} & -2.1333 & -6.1251 & 1.8584\end{array}$
b2 - b0 $==0 \quad-7.4667-11.4584-3.4749$
b3 - b0 == $0 \begin{array}{llll} & -1.6667 & -3.8688 & 0.5355\end{array}$

The confidence intervals from lm are individually valid, but if we consider them to be independent the chance that at least one does not contain the true value is $1-(0.95)^{3}=0.14$. We could use Bonferroni confidence intervals at $98.3 \%$ confidence, but the Dunnett ones will be narrower because they use the correlations of the variables.

## All Pairs Comparisons

immer \{MASS\}
Yields from a Barley Field Trial
Description
The immer data frame has 30 rows and 4 columns. Five varieties of barley were grown in six locations in each of 1931 and 1932.

This data frame contains the following columns:
Loc
The location.

Var
The variety of barley ("manchuria", "svansota", "velvet", "trebi" and "peatland").
Y1
Yield in 1931.
Y2
Yield in 1932.

```
> library(MASS)
```

> data(immer)
> immer1 <- data.frame(immer,Yield = (immer\$Y1+immer\$Y2))
> summary (immer.lm)

Coefficients:
Estimate Std. Error $t$ value $\operatorname{Pr}(>|t|)$

| (Intercept) | 204.403 | 12.156 | 16.815 | $2.88 \mathrm{e}-13$ | $* * *$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| VarP | 16.300 | 12.156 | 1.341 | 0.194983 |  |
| VarS | -6.517 | 12.156 | -0.536 | 0.597810 |  |
| VarT | 47.617 | 12.156 | 3.917 | 0.000854 | $* * *$ |
| VarV | 9.583 | 12.156 | 0.788 | 0.439728 |  |
| LocD | -52.120 | 13.316 | -3.914 | 0.000860 | $* * *$ |
| LocGR | -56.680 | 13.316 | -4.256 | 0.000386 | $* * *$ |
| LocM | -7.180 | 13.316 | -0.539 | 0.595705 |  |
| LocUF | -32.020 | 13.316 | -2.405 | 0.025996 | $*$ |
| LocW | 54.280 | 13.316 | 4.076 | 0.000589 | $* * *$ |

Signif. codes: $0{ }^{\prime} * * * ’ 0.001$ '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 21.05 on 20 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.8568, Adjusted R-squared: 0.7924
F-statistic: 13.3 on 9 and 20 DF , p-value: $1.216 \mathrm{e}-06$

```
> drop1(immer.lm,test="F")
Single term deletions
Model:
Yield ~ Var + Loc
                                Df Sum of Sq RSS AIC F value Pr (>F)
<none> 8866 190.66
Var 4 10620 19486 206.29 5.9891 0.002453 **
Loc 5 42442 51308 233.33 19.1480 5.212e-07 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
> tapply(immer1$Yield,immer1$Var,mean)
188.7833 205.0833-182.2667 236.4000-198.3667
> sort(tapply(immer1$Yield,immer1$Var,mean))
    S M V P T
182.2667 188.7833 198.3667 205.0833 236.4000
```

Both variety and location are significant, but it is not clear which pairs of varieties are shown to differ.

```
    S M V T
182.2667 188.7833 198.3667 205.0833 236.4000
> immer.mc <- glht(immer.lm,linfct=mcp(Var = "Tukey"))
> summary(immer.mc)
```

Simultaneous Tests for General Linear Hypotheses

Multiple Comparisons of Means: Tukey Contrasts

Fit: $\operatorname{lm}(f$ formula $=$ Yield $\sim$ Var + Loc, data $=$ immer1)

Linear Hypotheses:
Estimate Std. Error t value $\operatorname{Pr}(>|\mathrm{t}|)$

$P-M=$| $P$ | 16.300 | 12.156 | 1.341 | 0.67008 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

$\begin{array}{llllll}\mathrm{S} & -\mathrm{M}==0 & -6.517 & 12.156 & -0.536 & 0.98242\end{array}$
$\begin{array}{lllll}T & M & == & 47.617 & 12.156\end{array} \quad 3.917 \quad 0.00675$ **
$\begin{array}{llllll}\mathrm{V}-\mathrm{M}== & 9.583 & 12.156 & 0.788 & 0.93102\end{array}$
$\mathrm{S}-\mathrm{P}==0 \quad-22.817 \quad 12.156 \quad-1.877 \quad 0.36064$
$\begin{array}{llllll}T-P & == & 31.317 & 12.156 & 2.576 & 0.11336\end{array}$
$\begin{array}{llllll}\mathrm{V}-\mathrm{P}==0 & -6.717 & 12.156 & -0.553 & 0.98035\end{array}$
$\mathrm{T}-\mathrm{S}==0 \quad 54.133 \quad 12.156 \quad 4.453 \quad 0.00201$ **
$\begin{array}{llllll}V-S & == & 16.100 & 12.156 & 1.324 & 0.67981\end{array}$
$\mathrm{V}-\mathrm{T}==0-38.033 \quad 12.156-3.129 \quad 0.03773$ *

```
> confint(immer.mc)
```

Simultaneous Confidence Intervals

Multiple Comparisons of Means: Tukey Contrasts

Fit: lm(formula = Yield $\sim$ Var + Loc, data $=$ immer1)

Quantile $=2.9932$
$95 \%$ family-wise confidence level

Linear Hypotheses:

|  | Estimate |  | lwr | upr |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| $\mathrm{P}-\mathrm{M}==$ | 0 | 16.3000 | -20.0850 | 52.6850 |
| $\mathrm{~S}-\mathrm{M}==$ | 0 | -6.5167 | -42.9016 | 29.8683 |
| $\mathrm{~T}-\mathrm{M}==$ | 0 | 47.6167 | 11.2317 | 84.0016 |
| $\mathrm{~V}-\mathrm{M}==$ | 0 | 9.5833 | -26.8016 | 45.9683 |
| $\mathrm{~S}-\mathrm{P}==$ | 0 | -22.8167 | -59.2016 | 13.5683 |
| $\mathrm{~T}-\mathrm{P}==$ | 0 | 31.3167 | -5.0683 | 67.7016 |
| $\mathrm{~V}-\mathrm{P}==$ | 0 | -6.7167 | -43.1016 | 29.6683 |
| $\mathrm{~T}-\mathrm{S}==$ | 0 | 54.1333 | 17.7484 | 90.5183 |
| $\mathrm{~V}-\mathrm{S}==$ | 0 | 16.1000 | -20.2850 | 52.4850 |
| $\mathrm{~V}-\mathrm{T}==$ | 0 | -38.0333 | -74.4183 | -1.6484 |

The confidence intervals and tests that result from uncorrected 1 m and other regression models are often called Least Significant Difference $=L S D$ tests and intervals. When there are many levels of a factor, this can result in false positives. One possible intermediate choice is to use the LSD tests and intervals, but only if the anova test for the factor is significant. This method is sometimes called the Protected LSD. This protects against the case where all the levels have equal effect, but not against partial equalities. However, for some applications this may be enough.

## Another Example

```
> summary(burn1$BurnType)
Chemical Scald Electric Flame
    9 18 11 116
> summary(coxph(burn1.surv ~}\mp@subsup{}{}{~}\mathrm{ Treatment+BurnType,data=burn1))
\begin{tabular}{lccccc} 
& \multicolumn{2}{c}{ coef } & \(\exp (c o e f)\) & se(coef) & \multicolumn{2}{c}{ z \(\operatorname{Pr}(>|z|)\)} \\
TreatmentCleansing & -0.5958 & 0.5511 & 0.2968 & -2.008 & \(0.0447 *\) \\
BurnTypeScald & 1.1328 & 3.1044 & 1.0828 & 1.046 & 0.2955 \\
BurnTypeElectric & 2.2660 & 9.6407 & 1.0837 & 2.091 & \(0.0365 *\) \\
BurnTypeFlame & 0.9888 & 2.6879 & 1.0160 & 0.973 & 0.3305
\end{tabular}
> drop1(coxph(burn1.surv~Treatment+BurnType,data=burn1),test="Chisq")
    Df AIC LRT Pr(>Chi)
<none> 435.03
Treatment 1 437.14 4.1021 0.04283 *
BurnType 3 436.84 7.8095 0.05012 .
```

```
> summary(burn1$BurnType)
```

| Chemical | Scald Electric | Flame |  |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 9 | 18 | 11 | 116 |

> burntype.mc <- glht(coxph(burn1.surv~Treatment+BurnType, data=burn1),
linfct=mcp(BurnType="Tukey"))
> summary (burntype.mc)

## Simultaneous Tests for General Linear Hypotheses

Multiple Comparisons of Means: Tukey Contrasts

Fit: coxph(formula = burn1.surv ~ Treatment + BurnType, data = burn1)
Linear Hypotheses:

|  | Estimate | Std. Error z value $\operatorname{Pr}(>\|z\|)$ |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Scald - Chemical == 0 | 1.1328 | 1.0828 | 1.046 | 0.7013 |
| Electric - Chemical == 0 | 2.2660 | 1.0837 | 2.091 | 0.1406 |
| Flame - Chemical == 0 | 0.9888 | 1.0160 | 0.973 | 0.7460 |
| Electric - Scald == 0 | 1.1332 | 0.5902 | 1.920 | 0.1999 |
| Flame - Scald == 0 | -0.1441 | 0.4456 | -0.323 | 0.9870 |
| Flame - Electric == 0 | -1.2772 | 0.4521 | -2.825 | $0.0212 *$ |

```
> confint(burntype.mc)
```

Simultaneous Confidence Intervals

Multiple Comparisons of Means: Tukey Contrasts

Fit: coxph(formula = burn1.surv ~ Treatment + BurnType, data = burn1)

Quantile $=2.5176$
$95 \%$ family-wise confidence level

Linear Hypotheses:

|  | Estimate | lwr | upr |
| :--- | ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Scald - Chemical == 0 | 1.1328 | -1.5931 | 3.8587 |
| Electric - Chemical == | 2.2660 | -0.4622 | 4.9942 |
| Flame - Chemical == 0 | 0.9888 | -1.5691 | 3.5466 |
| Electric - Scald == 0 | 1.1332 | -0.3527 | 2.6190 |
| Flame - Scald == 0 | -0.1441 | -1.2658 | 0.9777 |
| Flame - Electric == 0 | -1.2772 | -2.4153 | -0.1391 |

## Scheffé Tests and Intervals

In the last example, allowing for the fact that six tests were conducted, one of them was still significant and yet the anova test for the type factor was not (quite). One reason might be that the LR test and the Wald test are only asymptotically equivalent. But another is that the hypothesis that a factor has no effect means that any linear combination of levels has no associated effect because the effect associated with any factor level is zero. Tests and intervals can be based on this idea, that we need to be protected from false positives in any (linear) test suggested by the results of an analysis.

Suppose we have a factor with $r$ levels and an effect $\mu_{i}$ associated with each level. This could be coefficients in a regression in which the coefficient for level $i$ is already a comparison between level $i$ and level 1. The assertion that the factor has no effect in either case is the hypothesis that $\mu_{1}=\mu_{2}=\cdots=\mu_{r}$. In the coefficient case, $\mu_{1}=0$ so then all the values of $\mu_{i}=0$, but in any case, if we have a contrast $L$, then $L^{\top} M=0$, where $M$ is the vector $\left(\mu_{1}, \mu_{2}, \ldots, \mu_{r}\right)$. We have the (infinite) collection of contrasts and we want a test/interval such that when the total null hypothesis on the factor is true, then the chance that any test will be significant is less than or equal to $\alpha$.

The method uses the estimated value of the contrast and the standard error, but instead using the t-statistic, one uses instead $\hat{C} \pm s_{\hat{C}} \sqrt{(r-1) F_{\alpha ; r-1 ; d f}}$, where $d f$ is the residual degrees of freedom. So with six types of barley in an experiment with 30 data points, the multipier is $\sqrt{5 F_{.05,5,20}}=3.68$ instead of $t_{20}=2.086$. Generally, this level of protection is achieved at too high a cost. If differences are the inferential target, the Tukey HSD is better (with multiplier 2.518).

