

researchers currently generate hypotheses about differences between means (Erceg-Hurn & Mirosevich, 2008; Keselman et al., 1998), we think that a first realistic first step towards progress would be to get researchers to correctly test the hypothesis they are used to.

Although the debate surrounding the assumptions of the *F*-test has been widely explored (see for example the meta-analysis of Harwell et al., 1992), applied researchers still largely ignore the consequences of assumption violations. Non-mathematical pedagogical papers summarizing the arguments seem to be lacking from the literature, and the current paper aims to fill this gap. We will discuss the pertinence of the assumptions of the *F*-test, and focus on the question of heteroscedasticity (that, as we will see, can have major consequences on error rates). We will provide a non-mathematical explanation of how alternatives to the classical *F*-test cope with heteroscedasticity violations. We conducted simulations in which we compare the *F*-test with the most promising alternatives. We argue that when variances are equal between groups, the *W*-test has nearly the same empirical Type I error rate and power as the *F*-test, but when variances are unequal, it provides empirical Type I and Type II error rates that are closer to the expected levels compared to the *F*-test. Since the *W*-test is available in practically all statistical software packages, researchers can immediately improve their statistical inferences by replacing the *F*-test by the *W*-test.

Normality and Homogeneity of Variances under Ecological Conditions

For several reasons, assumptions of homogeneity of variances and normality are always more or less violated (Glass et al., 1972). In this section we will summarize the specificity of the methods used in our discipline that can account for this situation.

Normality Assumption

It has been argued that there are many fields in psychology where the assumption of normality does not hold (Cain, Zhang & Yuan, 2017; Micceri, 1989; Yuan, Bentler & Chan, 2004). As argued by Micceri (1989), there are several factors that could explain departures from the normality assumption, and we will focus on three of them: treatment effects, the presence of subpopulations, and the bounded measures underlying residuals.

First, although the mean can be influenced by the treatment effects, experimental treatment can also change the shape of a distribution, either by influencing the *skewness*, quantifying the asymmetry of the shape of the distribution, and *kurtosis*, a measure of the tendency to produce extreme values. A distribution with positive kurtosis will have heavier tails than the normal distribution, which means that extreme values will be more likely, while a distribution with negative kurtosis will have lighter tails than the normal distribution, meaning that extreme values will be less likely (Westfall, 2014; Wilcox, 2005). For example, a training aiming at reducing a bias perception of threat when being exposed to ambiguous words will not uniformly impact the perception of all participants, depending on their level of anxiety (Grey & Mathews, 2000). This

could influence the kurtosis of the distribution of bias score.

Second, prior to any experimental treatment, the presence of several subpopulations may lead to departures from the normality assumptions. A subgroup might exist that is unequal on some characteristics relevant to the measurements, that are not controlled within the studied group, which results in mixed distributions. This unavoidable lack of control is inherent of our field given its complexity. As an illustration, Wilcox (2005) writes that pooling two normally-distributed populations that have the same mean but different variances (e.g. normally distributed scores for schizophrenic and not schizophrenic participants) could result in distributions that are very similar to the normal curve, but with thicker tails. As another example, when assessing a wellness score for the general population, data may be sampled from a left-skewed distribution, because most people are probably not depressed (see Heun et al., 1999). In this case, people who suffer from depression and people who do not suffer from depression are part of the same population, which can lead to asymmetry in the distribution.

Third, bounded measures can also explain non-normal distributions. For example, response time can be very large, but never below zero, which results in right-skewed distributions. In sum, there are many common situations in which normally distributed data is an unlikely assumption.

Homogeneity of Variances Assumption

Homogeneity of variances (or homoscedasticity) is a mathematical requirement that is also ecologically unlikely (Erceg-Hurn & Mirosevich, 2008; Grissom, 2000). In a previous paper (Delacre, Lakens & Leys, 2017), we identified three different causes of heteroscedasticity: the variability inherent to the use of measured variables, the variability induced by quasi-experimental treatments on measured variables, and the variability induced by different experimental treatments on randomly assigned subjects. One additional source of variability is the presence of unidentified moderators (Cohen et al., 2013).

First, psychologists, as many scholars from various fields in human sciences, often use measured variables (e.g. age, gender, educational level, ethnic origin, depression level, etc.) instead of random assignment to conditions. Prior to any treatment, parameters of pre-existing groups can vary largely from one population to another, as suggested by Henrich, Heine, and Norenzayan (2010). For example, Green, Deschamps, and Páez (2005) have shown that the scores of competitiveness, self-reliance and interdependence are more variable in some ethnic groups than in others. This stands true for many pre-existing groups such as gender, cultures, or religions and for various outcomes (see for example Adams et al., 2014; Beilmann et al., 2014; Church et al., 2012; Cohen & Hill, 2007; Haar et al., 2014; Montoya & Briggs, 2013). Moreover, groups are sometimes defined with the intention to have different variabilities. For example, as soon as a selective school admits its students based on the results of aptitude tests,