

**ANOVA and the Variance Homogeneity Assumption:**

**Exploring a Better Gatekeeper**

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### Abstract

Valid use of the traditional independent samples ANOVA procedure requires that the population variances are equal. Previous research has investigated whether variance homogeneity tests, such as Levene's test, are satisfactory as gatekeepers for identifying when to use or not to use the ANOVA procedure. This research focuses on a novel homogeneity of variance test that incorporates an equivalence testing approach. Instead of testing the null hypothesis that the variances are equal against an alternate hypothesis that the variances are not equal, the equivalence-based test evaluates the null hypothesis that the difference in the variances falls outside or on the border of a predetermined interval against an alternate hypothesis that the difference in the variances falls within the predetermined interval. Thus, with the equivalence-based procedure, the alternate hypothesis is aligned with the research hypothesis (variance equality). A simulation study demonstrated that the equivalence-based test of population variance homogeneity is a better gatekeeper for the ANOVA than traditional homogeneity of variance tests.

*Keywords: equivalence testing, homogeneity of variance, ANOVA, Levene test*

## **ANOVA and the Variance Homogeneity Assumption: Exploring a Better Gatekeeper**

The independent samples analysis of variance (ANOVA)  $F$  test is widely used to test hypotheses regarding population means. For example, a researcher may want to know if the number of words recalled from a list differs depending on the nature of the lists (e.g., happy, sad, or neutral words). It is widely known that the ANOVA  $F$  test is biased when the assumptions of normality, homogeneity of variance (HOV), or independence of errors are violated (Choi, 2005; Cochran, 1947; Cribbie, Fiksenbaum, Wilcox, & Keselman, 2012; Glass, Peckham, & Sanders, 1972; Hoekstra, Kiers, & Johnson, 2012; Olsen, 2003). In this paper, we explore the HOV assumption of the ANOVA  $F$  test. More specifically, we are interested in whether tests of the HOV assumption can inform researchers regarding when it is appropriate/safe to use the traditional ANOVA  $F$  test and when it is recommended that they seek out an appropriate robust test.

To be clear, our recommendation, which will be repeated in the discussion, is that researchers always adopt tests that are robust to violations of the HOV assumption. However, previous research (Golinski & Cribbie, 2009; Erceg-Hurn & Mirosevich, 2008; Grisson, 2000; Keselman et al., 1998; Sharpe, 2013; Wilcox, 1998) indicates that researchers are resistant to making robust techniques their 'go to' method. For example, in a study by Keselman et al. (1998) examining articles in prominent education and psychology journals, 93.3% of the published articles with univariate independent samples designs used the traditional ANOVA  $F$  test. This is extremely troubling since research exploring assumption violation in independent groups ANOVA designs has found that the data rarely meet the assumptions (Micceri, 1989; Golinski & Cribbie, 2009), and as outlined above, the ANOVA  $F$  test is not robust to violations of the HOV

assumption. Golinski and Cribbie (2009) found that only 2% of researchers adopted a HOV test, while more than 40% of the largest to smallest variance ratios exceeded 2:1. As a second best solution to always using a robust test, researchers could check whether or not they have satisfied the HOV assumption of the ANOVA  $F$  test. If the assumption is satisfied, then the ANOVA  $F$  test is utilized; if not, then an appropriate robust test is adopted. In other words, the HOV test is used as a gatekeeper for the ANOVA  $F$ -test.

Previous research has found that this strategy of using a HOV test to determine when a traditional ANOVA  $F$  test is appropriate is not effective at controlling the overall Type I error rate (across the traditional ANOVA  $F$  test and robust tests) at approximately  $\alpha$  (Parra-Frutos, 2016; Rasch, Kubinger, & Moder, 2011; Zimmerman, 2004). These studies used traditional difference-based HOV tests (e.g., Levene). However, more recent research has proposed that equivalence-based HOV tests are more appropriate for testing the research hypothesis that population variances are equal (Mara & Cribbie, in press). Therefore, this paper will explore the use of HOV tests as gatekeepers for use of the traditional independent groups ANOVA  $F$  test procedure; however, this study will propose a new strategy whereby the gatekeeper is an equivalence-based HOV test, instead of a traditional difference-based HOV test. First, we summarize previous literature on traditional HOV tests and the use of traditional HOV tests as gatekeepers for deciding whether to use the ANOVA  $F$  test or a robust test. Second, we outline the equivalence-based HOV test and propose it as a gatekeeper for deciding when to use (or not use) the traditional ANOVA  $F$  test. Lastly, a simulation study is used to compare the overall Type I error rates for a test of population mean differences when a traditional difference-based HOV test is used as a gatekeeper and when an equivalence-based HOV test is used as a gatekeeper.

## Homogeneity of Variance Tests as Gatekeepers

Many different tests for HOV have been proposed, however the Levene test on deviations from the median (LM; Brown & Forsythe, 1974) often emerges as the recommended procedure over a broad range of conditions (Conover, Johnson, & Johnson, 1981; Nordstokke & Zumbo, 2010; Sharma & Kibria, 2013) and is available in many popular software packages. HOV tests have been suggested as gatekeepers for deciding when to use a robust procedure (e.g., Welch's, 1951, heteroscedastic ANOVA  $F$  test) or the traditional ANOVA (Rasche et al., 2011; Ruscio & Roche, 2012). If the HOV test is satisfied, the traditional ANOVA  $F$  test procedure can be used. If the HOV test is violated, then a robust procedure should be adopted (see Figure 1).

However, simulation studies have shown that using traditional HOV tests as preliminary tests (gatekeepers) for deciding when to use the ANOVA  $F$  test or a robust test produces unacceptable Type I error rates (Rasch et al., 2011; Zimmerman, 1996; Zimmerman, 2004). Thus, traditional HOV tests are not effective gatekeepers for deciding when it is acceptable to use, or not use, the traditional ANOVA  $F$ -test procedure.

One of the reasons for the ineffectiveness of these traditional HOV tests as gatekeepers is that the goal (research hypothesis) of traditional difference-based HOV tests does not align with the study goal. For example, when researchers use traditional HOV tests as gatekeepers for the ANOVA  $F$  test, the research hypothesis (variance equality) does not match the alternative hypothesis of the test (variance inequality). With a traditional HOV test, such as the LM, the null hypothesis is that the variances are equal,  $H_0: \sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2 = \dots = \sigma_J^2$ , where  $\sigma$  represents the population standard deviation and  $J$  is the number of groups. This test is not optimal for detecting when population variances are equal since the power for detecting equal variances decreases as

sample sizes increase, whereas, the chance of declaring the variances equal increases substantially as sample sizes decrease. Put in another way, researchers with small sample sizes are more likely to conclude that the population variances are equal than their counterparts with large sample sizes, even if the difference in the variances remained constant. Further, not rejecting the null hypothesis does not prove that the null hypothesis is true (Altman & Bland, 1995). In other words, failing to reject the null hypothesis only shows that there is insufficient evidence to detect unequal population variances (Mara & Cribbie, in press). Thus, the present study aims to explore a more effective statistical method for testing the homogeneity of variance assumption in order to derive improved gatekeepers for the ANOVA  $F$  test procedure.

### **Equivalence Testing Approach to Assessing Variance Homogeneity**

As mentioned above, traditional difference-based null hypothesis tests (e.g., Levene-based approaches) explore whether there are differences in the population parameter of interest; the null hypothesis specifies a lack of relationship, whereas the alternative hypothesis specifies the presence of a relationship. However, what is really desired is a test of the practical equivalence of population variances; in other words, any differences in the variances should be too small to be of any practical significance. Mara and Cribbie (in press) proposed the use of an equivalence-based HOV test that was derived from Wellek's (2010) one-way test of population mean equivalence and Levene's (1960) HOV test. With this test, the research hypothesis (equivalence of population variances) is aligned with the alternative hypothesis (also equivalence of population variances), not the null hypothesis. More specifically, the null hypothesis specifies that the difference in the variances falls outside of or at the bounds of an a priori determined interval based on the smallest practically significant difference, whereas, the alternative hypothesis declares that the difference among the variances of the groups falls within an interval

based on this minimally important difference. The test statistic quantifies the standardized squared Euclidian distance, and thus, the interval is one-sided. Mara and Cribbie (in press), following Wellek (2010), proposed the following hypotheses:

$$H_0: \Psi^{*2} \geq \varepsilon^2$$

$$H_1: \Psi^{*2} < \varepsilon^2$$

where  $\Psi^{*2}$  quantifies the standardized squared Euclidian distance of the population variances, and  $\varepsilon^2$  represents the minimally important practical distance for  $\Psi^{*2}$ . To provide some context regarding these hypotheses, these are equivalent to the hypotheses used for evaluating the equivalence of several independent population means (see Wellek, 2010). Since the Levene-based tests use an ANOVA on the deviations from a measure of central tendency, it is logical that an equivalence-based test following Levene's methodology would have hypotheses synchronous with a one-way independent group equivalence test. Before discussing the equivalence-based test of equal variances, the traditional difference-based Levene tests of unequal population variances will be discussed because the equivalence-based test of equal variances was derived from these traditional tests.

### **Levene Difference-based Homogeneity of Variance Tests**

***Original Levene Test.*** The original Levene (1960) test is a traditional ANOVA  $F$ -test on the absolute deviations of the sample scores from the sample mean,  $z_{ij} = |X_{ij} - M_j|, j = 1, \dots, J$ , in order to assess variance inequality across the groups, where  $X_{ij}$  is the sample raw score of the  $i$ th individual in the  $j$ th group, and  $M_j$  is the mean of the  $j$ th group.

***Levene's Median-based Test with Welch Adjustment (LWM).*** Numerous modifications of the original Levene (1960) test have been proposed. Among the modifications, the present

study explores Levene's median-based test with a Welch adjustment (LWM; Keselman, Games, & Clinch, 1979).

LWM is a traditional ANOVA  $F$ -test on the absolute deviations of the sample scores from the sample median, denoted as  $zm_{ij}$ , that tests for variance differences across the groups:

$$zm_{ij} = |X_{ij} - MDN_j|$$

where  $X_{ij}$  is the sample raw score of the  $i$ th individual in the  $j$ th group, and  $MDN_j$  is the median of the  $j$ th group. The null hypothesis of LWM,  $H_0: \sigma_1^2 = \dots = \sigma_J^2$ , is rejected if  $F' \geq F_{\alpha, J-1, df'}$ ,

where:

$$F' = \frac{\sum w_{zm_j} (\overline{zm}_j - \overline{zm}'..)^2 / J-1}{1 + \frac{2(J-2)}{J^2-1} \sum \left( \frac{1}{n_{j-1}} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{w_{zm_j}}{\sum w_{zm_j}} \right)^2},$$

$n_j$  is the size of the  $j$ th group,  $s_{zm_j}^2$  is the variance of the transformed scores for the  $j$ th group,

$w_{zm_j} = \frac{n_j}{s_{zm_j}^2}$  is the size of  $j$ th group divided by the sample variance of  $zm_{ij}$  for the  $j$ th group,

$\overline{zm}_j$  is the mean of  $zm_{ij}$  for the  $j$ th group, and  $\overline{zm}'.. = \frac{\sum w_{zm_j} \overline{zm}_j}{\sum w_{zm_j}}$  is the weighted mean of the  $\overline{zm}_j$ .

The observed  $F$ -statistic ( $F'$ ) is approximately distributed as  $F$  with  $J - 1$  numerator degrees of freedom and denominator degrees of freedom:

$$df' = \frac{J^2-1}{3 \sum \left( \frac{1}{n_{j-1}} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{w_{zm_j}}{\sum w_{zm_j}} \right)^2}.$$

The Welch adjusted test statistic and degrees of freedom help control for any differences in the variances of the deviations from the group medians.

### Equivalence-based Homogeneity of Variance Test

Several novel equivalence-based HOV tests were proposed and examined in the simulation study by Mara and Cribbie (in press). Among the proposed tests, the simulations showed that the Levene-Wellek median-based test with a Welch adjustment (LWWM) was the best-performing equivalence-based test in terms of accurate Type I error rates and the highest power for detecting equivalent variances across groups. Thus, the present study examines the performance of the LWWM as a gatekeeper for the traditional ANOVA procedure. The performance of the equivalence-based LWWM will be compared to the performance of the traditional LWM, which is the difference-based counterpart of the LWWM discussed in the previous section.

The LWWM uses transformed raw scores, which are the absolute deviations from the median ( $zm_{ij}$ ), as also used in the LWM test. The null hypothesis of the equivalence-based HOV tests,  $H_0: \Psi^{*2} \geq \varepsilon^2$ , is rejected if  $F' < F_{\alpha, J-1, df', \bar{n}\varepsilon^2}$ , where  $\bar{n}\varepsilon^2$  is the noncentrality parameter.

**Equivalence Interval.** The equivalence interval is a one-sided interval (i.e.,  $0, \varepsilon^2$ ), where  $\varepsilon^2$  specifies the smallest difference that is still practically significant. Thus, an appropriate value of  $\varepsilon^2/\varepsilon$  should be determined in the context of each research study. To facilitate an understanding of the magnitude of  $\varepsilon$ , it is equivalent to Cohen's  $d$  in the two group case, where  $d = \frac{M_1 - M_2}{sd(X_1 - X_2)}$ ,  $M_1, M_2$  are the sample means,  $sd(X_1 - X_2)$  is the standard deviation of difference between  $X_1$  and  $X_2$ , and  $X_1, X_2$  are the scores in groups 1 and 2, respectively. For instance,  $\varepsilon = \delta = .25$ . When there are more than two groups, the relationship becomes more complicated; however, the relationship between  $\varepsilon$  and Cohen's  $f$  can be expressed as  $f = \frac{\varepsilon}{\sqrt{J}}$ . For example, with  $J = 5$  groups  $f = .11$  for  $\varepsilon = .25$ . Both Cohen's  $d = .25$  and  $f = .11$  fall just above the cutoff for a 'small' effect according to Cohen (1988). On the other hand, Rusticus and Eva (2016) demonstrated that

a Cohen's  $d$  of approximately .5 is the smallest meaningful mean difference (when participants visualized relationships). Thus, we can confidently say that these values for  $d$  and  $f$  represent negligible differences in the variances.

Rejecting the null hypothesis provides evidence that the differences in the variances are small enough to be considered practically insignificant. Further, as discussed previously, the research hypothesis of the equivalence-based HOV test (detecting equal population variances) is aligned with the alternative hypothesis of the test, which is more theoretically appropriate compared to traditional difference-based HOV tests.

### **Present Study**

This study explores whether the novel equivalence-based HOV test (LWWM) can be an effective gatekeeper for the traditional independent groups ANOVA  $F$  test. More specifically, the question we are exploring is whether using the equivalence-based HOV test to decide if the traditional ANOVA  $F$  test (when the null hypothesis of the equivalence-based HOV test is rejected) or the Welch robust  $F$  test (when the null hypothesis of the equivalence-based HOV test is not rejected) should be used will provide acceptable overall Type I error control. It is important to note that by Type I error control we are referring to the overall rate of Type I errors for testing the null hypothesis that the population means are equal, where the test used in each instance will depend on the results of the HOV test. Additionally, we also expect that the traditional difference-based HOV test will not maintain the overall empirical Type I error rate at the nominal rate based on the findings of past research.

### **Method**

A simulation study was used to evaluate two strategies for deciding when to use the traditional one-way ANOVA  $F$  test and when to abandon the traditional ANOVA procedure in favour of a robust test (Welch's robust  $F$  test in this study). More specifically, we evaluated the empirical Type I error rates of the traditional ANOVA  $F$  test/Welch robust  $F$  test combination when the LWM test and LWWM tests were used as gatekeepers to decide when to adopt the ANOVA  $F$  test and when to adopt the Welch robust  $F$  test (see Figure 1). We investigated conditions where there were  $J = 2$  or  $J = 5$  independent groups. We also used average per group sample sizes of  $\bar{n} = 20, 50$  and  $200$  (total  $N = 40$  to  $400$  in the two group condition and  $N = 100$  to  $1000$  in the five group condition). In each condition, five different population variance ratios were used, and three different sample size ratios were examined. Unequal population variances were directly (positively) and inversely (negatively) paired with the unequal sample sizes (i.e., in the directly paired condition, the largest variance was paired with the largest sample size and the smallest variance was paired with the smallest sample size, and in the inversely paired condition, the largest variance was paired with the smallest sample size and the smallest variance was paired with the largest sample size). Since we are only investigating Type I errors, all population means were fixed at zero. See Table 1 for the specific conditions used in the simulations.

The nominal Type I error rate ( $\alpha$ ) was set at .05, the equivalence interval ( $\epsilon$ ) for the LWWM was set to .25 (conservative value recommended by Wellek, 2010), and all outcome variables were normally distributed. We focused on the conservative  $\epsilon = .25$  since this is more in line with the goals of our research (i.e., ensure that researchers are not accidentally steered in the direction of the non-robust test). We used Bradley's (1978) liberal limits ( $\alpha \pm .5\alpha$ ) to determine whether empirical Type I error rates are acceptably close to the nominal rate. Although there are numerous methods that could be adopted for evaluating robustness (see Serlin, 2000), we chose

Bradley's liberal limits, as opposed to more conservative bounds, since the goal is to find a generally appropriate strategy for conducting tests of mean difference when heteroscedasticity is possible (as opposed to finding a test that provides strict Type I error control). More specifically, we are looking for an approach that provides satisfactory, not necessarily perfect, Type I error rates, and many other approaches (e.g., Bradley's conservative bounds of  $\alpha \pm .1\alpha$ ) would be too strict. Bradley's liberal limits provide a compromise between overly conservative approaches and simply eye-balling the results.

Five thousand simulations were run for each of the 162 (2 group size  $\times$  3 total  $N \times 3$  sample size ratio  $\times$  9 population variance ratio) conditions, resulting in a standard error of the empirical Type I error rates of approximately .003 when the rejection rate was close to  $\alpha$ . All analyses were run using *R* (*R* Core Team, 2015).

## Results

Empirical Type I error rates for  $J = 2$  and  $J = 5$  are presented in Tables 2 and 3, respectively. Type I error rates when the sample sizes were equal never fell outside of Bradley's limits; therefore, we excluded those conditions from the tables. In other words, since all of the procedures were satisfactory when sample sizes were equal, and further that equal sample sizes are rare in empirical research, we do not discuss these results further. Additionally, the pattern of results for  $\bar{n} = 50$  were similar to that for  $\bar{n} = 200$ ; therefore, we only present the results for  $\bar{n} = 20$  and  $\bar{n} = 50$ .

### No Preliminary Test/Gatekeeper

As expected, for both  $J = 2$  and  $J = 5$ , the Type I error rates of the traditional ANOVA  $F$  test regularly fell outside of Bradley's liberal limits, whereas, the rates for the Welch robust  $F$

test never fell outside of these limits. More specifically, the rates of the ANOVA  $F$  test were regularly conservative (reaching as low as .000) when the sample sizes and variances were directly paired. On the other hand, the Type I error rates of the ANOVA  $F$  test were regularly liberal (reaching as high as .411) when the sample sizes and variances were inversely paired.

### **LWM/LWWM as a Gatekeeper**

When the traditional LWM test was used to decide when to use the ANOVA  $F$  test and when to use the Welch robust  $F$  test, the overall Type I error rates for the test of population mean differences often fell outside of Bradley's liberal limits, especially when the sample sizes and variances were inversely paired and when the overall sample size was small. For example, with small and unequal sample sizes ( $n_1 = 5$ ,  $n_2 = 35$ ) that were negatively paired with the population variances (96, 6), the empirical Type I error rates reached eight times the nominal rate (.403).

When the LWWM was used to decide when to use the ANOVA  $F$  test or Welch robust  $F$  test, the empirical Type I error rates of the test of population means never fell outside of Bradley's liberal limits. In other words, when the LWWM was used as a gatekeeper, the empirical Type I error rates of the combined ANOVA  $F$ /Welch robust  $F$  strategy were always approximately equal to the nominal  $\alpha$  level.

### **Discussion**

The independent groups ANOVA  $F$  test is widely used in behavioural science research for conducting tests of mean difference in between-subjects designs (Keselman et al., 1998). However, violations of the HOV assumption of the traditional ANOVA procedure are common

and have a pronounced effect on the Type I error rates and the power for detecting population mean differences (Cribbie et al., 2012; Golinski & Cribbie, 2009; Hoekstra, Kiers, & Johnson, 2012). Violations of the HOV assumption will cause the nominal Type I error rates to be inflated or deflated depending on the combinations of the unequal sample sizes and unequal variances. This phenomenon was demonstrated in this study and by numerous other researchers (e.g., Boneau, 1960; Glass et al., 1972).

The recommendation to exclusively use robust procedures was put forth more than a half a century ago; yet, this recommendation has been almost completely ignored. This is unfortunate because, as evidenced in this study and numerous previous studies, exclusively using a robust test (e.g., Welch's, 1951, heteroscedastic ANOVA  $F$  test) provides good control of the empirical Type I error rates. Given the unpopularity of the 'robust only' strategy, an alternative solution is the use of an HOV test as a gatekeeper for deciding when to use the traditional ANOVA  $F$ -test and when to use a robust test.

The present study compared the performance of two HOV tests as gatekeepers for the ANOVA  $F$  test: (i) a traditional difference-based HOV test by Levene (1960) and Brown-Forsythe (1974) based on the absolute value of the deviations from the median (LWM); and (ii) a recently proposed equivalence-based test also utilizing the absolute value of the deviations from the median (LWWM; Mara & Cribbie, in press). The empirical Type I error rates often fell outside of Bradley's limits when the LWM was used as a gatekeeper. On the other hand, all the empirical Type I error rates were within Bradley's limits when the LWWM was used as a gatekeeper.

One of the reasons for the excellent Type I error results when the LWWM was used as a gatekeeper is that the LWWM, as an equivalence-based procedure, has a greater probability of concluding equal variances as sample sizes increase, whereas the LWM, as a difference-based procedure, has a greater probability of concluding *unequal* variances as sample sizes increase. For example, in the sample size condition  $n = 10, 15, 20, 25, 30$  and the population variance condition  $\sigma^2 = 30, 40, 50, 60, 70$ , the LWWM concluded that the variances were equal approximately 2% of the time (therefore resulting in adoption of the robust Welch F test in 98% of the simulations), whereas, the LWM concluded that the variances were equal approximately 70% of the time (therefore resulting in adoption of the robust Welch F test in only 30% of the simulations). This clearly provides the LWWM with an advantage since it is less likely to adopt the traditional non-robust ANOVA procedure when variances are very disparate and sample sizes are small. Related to this point, it is important to highlight that we adopted, and recommend, a conservative equivalence bound (in this study  $\varepsilon = .25$ ). It is important to ensure that researchers are directed towards the robust statistic when there is uncertainty regarding the inequality of the variances.

With all simulation studies, a limitation is that the results are only applicable to the conditions investigated in this study. However, given the wide range of sample size and variance conditions adopted, we expect that the results would hold generally in one-way independent group designs. However, the present study only examined normally distributed data; therefore, inferences based on our results are limited to normally distributed outcomes. To broaden the applicability of our results, future studies should use nonnormally distributed data to examine whether the results of our study can be applied to both normally and nonnormally distributed data. The performance of this strategy; however, may depend on the use of an appropriate

normality test and a robust test that is insensitive to violations of both the normality and HOV assumptions (see Cribbie et al., 2012).

To conclude, it is important to reiterate that we recommend that researchers always adopt tests that are robust to violations of the HOV assumption in order to ensure that empirical Type I error rates are maintained at approximately nominal rate. However, numerous quantitative methods researchers have made this recommendation with very little adoption by applied researchers. Thus, we explored whether using an equivalence-based HOV test (LWWM) as a gatekeeper could be an appropriate substitute for always using a robust test. Our results indicate that adopting a robust test when the LWWM is not statistically significant and adopting the traditional ANOVA  $F$  test otherwise is an acceptable strategy for controlling overall empirical Type I error rates for a test of population mean difference. In order to facilitate adoption of the equivalence-based HOV test as a gatekeeper, a user-friendly  $R$  ( $R$  Core Team, 2015) function ??? is available in the  $R$  package ??? (omitted for blind review).

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Table 1

*Conditions used in the Simulation Study.*

$\bar{n} = 20$	$\bar{n} = 50$	$\bar{n} = 200$	$\sigma^2$
<i>J = 2</i>			
20, 20	50, 50	200, 200	50, 50
10, 30	25, 75	100, 300	40, 60 <sup>a</sup>
5, 35	15, 85	30, 350	35, 70 <sup>a</sup>
			20, 80 <sup>a</sup>
			6, 96 <sup>a</sup>
<i>J = 5</i>			
20, 20, 20, 20, 20	50, 50, 50, 50, 50	200, 200, 200, 200, 200	50, 50, 50, 50, 50
10, 15, 20, 25, 30	25, 40, 50, 60, 75	100, 150, 200, 250, 300	40, 45, 50, 55, 60 <sup>a</sup>
5, 12, 20, 28, 35	15, 35, 50, 65, 85	50, 125, 200, 275, 350	30, 40, 50, 60, 70 <sup>a</sup>
			20, 35, 50, 65, 80 <sup>a</sup>
			6, 28, 50, 70, 96 <sup>a</sup>

*Note.*  $\bar{n}$  = average sample size;  $\sigma^2$  = population variances;  $J$  = number of groups; <sup>a</sup> = this pattern of population variances was also reversed in order to create inversely paired population variances and sample sizes.

Table 2.

Type I error results with and without a gatekeeper strategy for  $J = 2$ .

	Gatekeeper				Gatekeeper				Gatekeeper				Gatekeeper			
	F	W	LW	LW	F	W	LW	LW	F	W	LW	LW	F	W	LW	LW
			M	WM			M	WM			M	WM			M	WM
$\sigma^2$	$N = (5, 35)$				$N = (10, 30)$				$N = (15, 85)$				$N = (25, 75)$			
50, 50	.045	.055	.067	.060	.050	.053	.054	.055	.055	.057	.061	.060	.041	.042	.043	.042
40, 60	<b>.023</b>	.056	.053	.057	.034	.055	.044	.055	.028	.055	.044	.056	.031	.053	.042	.053
30, 70	<b>.010</b>	.050	.043	.050	<b>.018</b>	.054	.041	.054	<b>.011</b>	.049	.045	.049	<b>.019</b>	.049	.045	.049
20, 80	<b>.003</b>	.053	.049	.053	<b>.010</b>	.050	.045	.050	<b>.002</b>	.046	.045	.046	<b>.008</b>	.055	.055	.055
6, 96	<b>.001</b>	.057	.057	.057	<b>.003</b>	.051	.051	.051	<b>.001</b>	.048	.048	.048	<b>.002</b>	.049	.049	.049
60, 40	<b>.093</b>	.061	<b>.105</b>	.068	<b>.079</b>	.055	<b>.080</b>	.057	<b>.087</b>	.045	<b>.085</b>	.051	<b>.077</b>	.053	.073	.054
70, 30	<b>.159</b>	.055	<b>.161</b>	.065	<b>.116</b>	.056	<b>.108</b>	.057	<b>.138</b>	.048	<b>.119</b>	.051	<b>.112</b>	.053	<b>.080</b>	.053
80, 20	<b>.232</b>	.054	<b>.234</b>	.063	<b>.156</b>	.053	<b>.128</b>	.054	<b>.201</b>	.048	<b>.120</b>	.048	<b>.154</b>	.052	.064	.052
96, 6	<b>.411</b>	.053	<b>.403</b>	.053	<b>.238</b>	.050	<b>.099</b>	.050	<b>.340</b>	.050	.057	.050	<b>.228</b>	.052	.052	.052

Note. F = ANOVA F test; W = Welch F test; LW = Levene Welch Median Gatekeeper with Welch Robust test; LWWM = Levene Wellek Welch Median Gatekeeper with Welch Robust test, Bold = Type I error rate fell outside of Bradley’s liberal limits (.025-.075)

Table 3

Type I error results with and without a gatekeeper strategy for  $J = 5$ .

	Gatekeeper				Gatekeeper				Gatekeeper				Gatekeeper			
	F	W	LW M	LW WM	F	W	LW M	LW WM	F	W	LW M	LW WM	F	W	LW M	LW WM
$\sigma^2$	$N = (5, 12, 20, 28, 35)$				$N = (10, 15, 20, 25, 30)$				$N = (15, 35, 50, 65, 85)$				$N = (25, 40, 50, 60, 75)$			
50, 50, 50, 50, 50	.052	.055	.064	.058	.052	.053	.054	.054	.054	.053	.057	.056	.051	.050	.052	.052
40, 45, 50, 55, 60	.037	.062	.061	.063	.044	.058	.053	.059	.038	.055	.047	.055	.036	.048	.041	.048
30, 40, 50, 60, 70	.028	.059	.056	.060	.040	.052	.052	.052	.026	.045	.042	.046	.038	.054	.052	.054
20, 35, 50, 65, 80	<b>.022</b>	.056	.055	.056	.029	.053	.052	.053	<b>.019</b>	.047	.047	.047	.030	.051	.050	.051
6, 28, 50, 70, 96	<b>.021</b>	.054	.054	.054	.029	.053	.053	.053	<b>.023</b>	.053	.053	.053	.027	.048	.048	.048
60, 55, 50, 45, 40	<b>.075</b>	.065	<b>.083</b>	.070	.065	.055	.068	.056	.072	.053	.071	.055	.067	.054	.066	.055
70, 60, 50, 40, 30	<b>.112</b>	.070	<b>.117</b>	.073	<b>.090</b>	.055	<b>.086</b>	.056	<b>.100</b>	.050	<b>.082</b>	.051	<b>.078</b>	.049	.064	.050
80, 65, 50, 35, 20	<b>.149</b>	.065	<b>.135</b>	.066	<b>.106</b>	.049	<b>.087</b>	.050	<b>.139</b>	.053	.056	.053	<b>.100</b>	.049	.050	.049
96, 70, 50, 28, 6	<b>.223</b>	.060	<b>.061</b>	.060	<b>.149</b>	.050	.050	.050	<b>.190</b>	.048	.048	.048	<b>.144</b>	.052	.052	.052

Note. F = ANOVA F test; W = Welch F test; LW = Levene Welch Median Gatekeeper with Welch Robust test; LWWM = Levene Wellek Welch Median Gatekeeper with Welch Robust test, Bold = Type I error rate fell outside of Bradley's liberal limits (.025-.075)

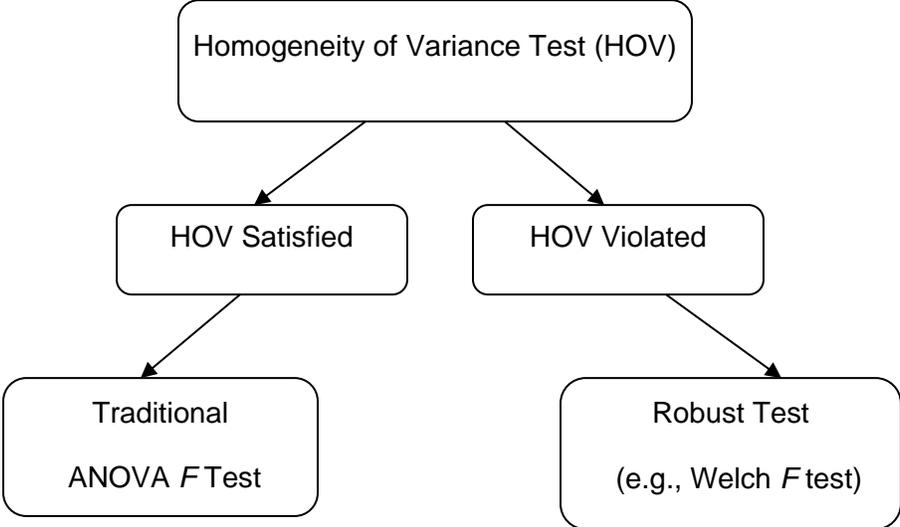


Figure 1. Homogeneity of Variance Tests as Gatekeepers