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Regression assumptions in clinical psychology research practice - A systematic review of common misconceptions

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Misconceptions about the assumptions behind the standard linear regression model are widespread and dangerous. These lead to using linear regression when inappropriate, and to employing alternative procedures with less statistical power when unnecessary. Our systematic literature review investigated employment and reporting of assumption checks in twelve clinical psychology journals. The selected journals were representative based on impact factor. Findings indicate that normality of the variables themselves, rather than of the residuals, was wrongfully held for a necessary assumption in 4% of papers that use regression. Furthermore, 92% of all papers using linear regression were unclear about their assumption checks, violating APA-recommendations. This paper appeals for a heightened awareness for and increased transparency in the reporting of statistical assumption checking.
Regression Assumptions in Clinical Psychology Research Practice – A systematic review of common misconceptions

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Abstract

Misconceptions about the assumptions behind the standard linear regression model are widespread and dangerous. These lead to using linear regression when inappropriate, and to employing alternative procedures with less statistical power when unnecessary. Our systematic literature review investigated employment and reporting of assumption checks in twelve clinical psychology journals. The selected journals were representative based on impact factor. Findings indicate that normality of the variables themselves, rather than of the residuals, was wrongfully held for a necessary assumption in 4% of papers that use regression. Furthermore, 92% of all papers using linear regression were unclear about their assumption checks, violating APA-recommendations. This paper appeals for a heightened awareness for and increased transparency in the reporting of statistical assumption checking.

Keywords: Linear Regression, Statistical Assumptions, Literature Review, Misconceptions about Normality
One of the most frequently employed models to express the influence of several predictors on a continuous outcome variable is the linear regression model:

\[ Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \ldots + \beta_p X_{ip} + \epsilon_i. \]

This equation predicts the value of a case \( Y_i \) with values \( X_{ij} \) on the independent variables \( X_j \) \((j = 1, \ldots, p)\). The standard regression model takes \( X_j \) to be fixed, i.e. measured without error. The various \( \beta_j \) slopes are a measure of association between the respective independent variable \( X_j \) and the dependent variable \( Y \). The residual, the error term for the given \( Y_i \), is denoted by \( \epsilon_i \) and is supposed to be unrelated to the values of \( X_p \). Here, \( \beta_0 \) denotes the intercept, the expected \( Y \) value when all predictors are equal to zero. The model includes \( p \) predictor variables. In case \( p = 1 \), the model is called simple linear regression model.

The linear regression model is based on four assumptions. These postulate the properties that the variables should have in the population. The regression model only provides proper inference if the assumptions hold true (although the model is robust to mild violations of these assumptions).

Many statistical textbooks (for instance, Miles & Shevlin, 2001; Cohen, Cohen, West & Aiken, 2003; Lomax & Hahs-Vaughn, 2012; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013) provide more background on these assumptions as well as advice on what to do when these assumptions are violated.

Below, the four assumptions will shortly be discussed. For each assumption, Figure 1 displays what the scatterplot without violation of this assumption, and with mild or severe violation of this assumption can look like.

**Linearity.** The relationship between every independent variable \( X_i \) and the population mean of the dependent variable \( Y \), denoted by \( \mu_Y \), is assumed to be **linear** when the other variables are held constant. This assumption is illustrated in the top row of Figure 1. Furthermore, the relations
between the various $X_i$ and $\mu_Y$ are additive: thus, the relation of $X_i$ with $\mu_Y$ is the same, regardless of the value of $X_j$ ($j \neq i$). This relates to the issue of multicollinearity; a good model is expected to have as little overlap between predictors as possible. However, multicollinearity is not a model assumption but merely a necessity for a model to be parsimonious.

**Normality.** All subpopulations defined by the values of the predictor variables are assumed to be normally distributed around their mean, which implies that all residuals are normally distributed around zero. Even though the linear regression model is quite robust to violations of this assumption (and the central limit theorem implies that for large samples this assumption is automatically, at least, approximately met) it is important to notice that the theoretical model of regression is constructed based on this assumption. Note that, unlike the linearity assumption, it is difficult to judge on basis of a scatterplot whether the assumption is violated, as can be seen in the second row of Figure 2. Alternative methods, such as QQ-plots are better suited for this.

**Homoscedasticity.** All subpopulations are expected to have an equal variance, which can then be denoted by a single symbol, e.g. $\sigma^2$. This assumption is also called the homoscedasticity assumption. Thus, the second and third regression assumptions combined specify that the residuals $(\epsilon_i)$ of the model should follow a normal distribution with a mean of zero and a (fixed) standard deviation $\sigma$. Heteroscedasticity often manifests itself through a larger spread of measurements around the regression line at one side of the scatterplot than at the other, as is illustrated in the third row of Figure 1.

**Independence.** All residuals should be independent of one another and all residuals should be independent of the observations. This implies that the observations should be independent of one another. This assumption is not directly based on the distribution of the data but on the study design and it requires the sampling method to be truly random (see, for instance, Cohen, Cohen, West and Aiken, 2003). Figure 1 (bottom row) displays violations of the independence assumption: there
seems to be some pattern in the model residuals. As with the normality assumption, inspection of a
scatterplot is not the best way to check for independence. A residual plot, or inspection of the
autocorrelation of the residuals, is a better approach.

There are many misconceptions about the regression model, most of which concern the
second and the third assumption. Most commonly, researchers assume that \( X_i \) or both \( X_i \) and \( Y \),
should be normally distributed. Osborne and Waters (2002) illustrate how widespread this
misconception really is: this paper is a peer-reviewed article attempting to educate about regression
assumptions, yet it wrongly lists normality of the variables themselves as an assumption of linear
regression instead of normality of residuals (cf. Williams, Grajales & Kurkiewics, 2013). The paper
has been viewed online over 360,000 times.

Not assuming a normal distribution for \( X_i \) may seem counterintuitive at first, however the
indulgence of this assumption becomes more evident with an illustrative example. Take the standard
Student’s \( t \)-test which assesses if two distributions are statistically different from one another: for
instance the \( t \)-test that compares the efficacy of a specific treatment compared to a placebo
treatment. The population distributions in both conditions are assumed to be normally distributed
with equal variances. This \( t \)-test can also be expressed as a regression model where the independent
variable \( X \) dummy codes the group membership, so i.e. if a participant is in the control \( (X = 0) \) or in
the treatment condition \( (X = 1) \). This regression model and the \( t \)-test are mathematically equivalent
and will thus lead to identical inference. Variable \( X \) will only attain two values, 0 and 1, as it is only
used as label for group membership. The dependent variable \( Y \) will attain many different values:
following a normal distribution for the treatment group and a (possibly other) normal distribution for
the control group. This resulting ‘condition membership’ distribution is nothing close to normal,
however no assumption of the general linear model is violated because the subpopulations of \( Y \) for
each of the \( X \) values follow a normal distribution with equal variances, as is visualised in Figure 2.
This example demonstrates that the assumptions of the $t$-test (standard normal distribution of the populations around the group mean and equal variances) coincide with the second regression assumption.

Although normality of the predictor variables is not a requirement of the model, it can be helpful for a range of reasons. It can enhance prediction through the enhancement of linearity between the independent variable and the dependent variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013) and it reduces the problems corresponding to influential points (Miles & Shevlin, 2001). Most importantly, normality of variables is helpful when the predictor variables cannot be measured without error. In case of measurement error, parameter estimates can be biased (cf. Williams, Grajales & Kurkiewics, 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). When the predictor variables are normally distributed, however, the estimates will remain unbiased. As it is rarely the case in clinical practice that predictor variables are (all) measured without error, it is thus good practice to check for univariate and multivariate normality of observed scores. This, however, does not imply that one may neglect to check for normality of the residuals as well.

As a consequence of the second regression assumption, $Y_i$ is actually normally distributed around $\mu_Y$, the true population mean. This becomes clear when remembering that the error of the regression estimation is normally distributed around mean zero and that $Y_i$ is equal to $\mu_Y + \epsilon_i$, that is, individual observations are the sum of the mean and a deviation from this mean. However, it is wrong to test the normality of the distribution of the dependent variable $Y$ because this would imply that all $\mu_Y$ values are the same which is, generally, not the case. (This situation occurs only when all regression slopes are zero and, thus, all predictor variables are linearly unrelated to $Y$.)

Misconceptions like the ones outlined above can have severe effects on the ability to draw inferences from a data-analysis. First of all, the checking of wrong assumptions will most likely lead to the neglect of correct assumption checking. If the researcher will decide on a regression analysis
without having tested the correct assumptions it is possible that some requirements of linear
regression were not met. In that case p-values and confidence intervals will be biased. However, in
any case the neglect of correct assumption checking will always leave the reader or reviewer unable
to trust the results because there is no way of knowing whether the model assumptions could have
been met. Of course, the severity of this problem of non-transparency persists even when the
researcher ensured the validity of all necessary assumptions and merely missed to report those
findings. Not only does such non-transparency in data analysis lead to confusion in researchers that
are potentially interested in replicating or comparing the results, it also weakens the informational
value of the research findings that are being interpreted.

A second problem that is caused by misconceptions about model assumptions occurs when a
researcher decides against a linear regression analysis because of the violation of faulty assumptions
that were unnecessary to be met in the first place. The difficulty of abandoning linear regression
analysis for a non-parametric procedure is the fact that the ordinary least squares method of linear
regression is a more powerful procedure than any of its non-parametric counterparts. Hence,
wrongfully deciding against the employment of linear regression in a data-analysis will lead to a
decrease in power. Especially because the regression model is quite robust to violations of the
normality and homoscedasticity assumptions, one should only decide against the use of linear
regression for valid reasons. Thus, the understanding of the correct regression assumptions is crucial
because it prevents the abandonment of the linear regression technique in cases in which it would be
unjustified. Furthermore, the checking of assumptions has another advantage: it might help the
researcher to think about conceptually alternative models. For instance, heteroscedasticity in the
data could be a sign of interaction of the dependent variable with an independent variable not (yet)
included in the model.
Misconceptions about frequently employed statistical tools, like the $p$-value, are not rare, even amongst researchers (cf. Bakker and Wicherts, 2011; Hoekstra, Morey, Rouder and Wagenmakers, 2014). Our paper aims to shed light onto potential misconceptions researchers and reviewers might hold about the linear regression model. Therefore, the documentary practices of psychological research papers with the linear regression model and its assumptions were investigated by means of a literature review. In this review, we investigate the proportion of papers where misconceptions around the assumptions of the statistical regression model occurred and which type of misconceptions occurred most often. This will provide important information, as the first step in solving flawed methodology in research is finding out where the flaws are and how predominant they are.

Although the consequences of incorrectly dealing with assumptions can be severe, the APA manual (American Psychological Association, 2010) barely provides guidelines on this. It does recommend being specific about “information concerning problems with statistical assumptions and/or data distributions that could affect the validity of findings” (p. 248) as part of the Journal Article Reporting Standards, but this is not obligatory. The APA Task Force on Statistical Inference (Wilkinson and Task Force on Statistical Inference, 1999) is more explicit in their recommendations: “You should take efforts to assure that the underlying assumptions required for the analysis are reasonable given the data. Examine the residuals carefully.” (p. 598).

In this manuscript we present the findings of our literature review. We investigate how statistical assumptions were covered in various journals of clinical psychology and what types of misconceptions and mistakes are occurring most often. In the discussion section, possible explanations for the reported findings will be offered. The paper will conclude with several proposals of how potential shortcomings in the current practices with linear regression analysis could be overcome.
Method

Journals. The literature review restricted itself to articles that were published in clinical psychology journals in the year 2013. We employed the Scientific Journal Rankings (SJR) as reported by the SCIImago Journal and Country Rank of the year 2013 (SCIImago, 2014) to divide all clinical psychology journals into four quartiles (Q1 – Q4), where Q1 contains the 25% of journals with the highest journal rank, etcetera. From every quartile the three highest ranked journals were selected to be included in the review. Hence, we obtained a balanced selection from all clinical psychology journals, as listed in Table 1. All articles published in the selected journals in 2013 were included, including those that had already been published earlier as well. Letters, journal corrigenda, editorial board articles and book reviews were not included in the review. Basically, articles that were by design not containing a method section were not included in our lists of articles, also not in the section ‘No Model of Interest’. The focus of this review purely lies on published scientific articles.

Every article was retrieved directly from the official website of its respective journal (except for Q1.3 which was directly retrieved from its official database “PsycARTICLES”). All articles were in German (Q3.1), Spanish (part of Q3.3) or in English (all other). German articles were also included in the review; Spanish articles were excluded because of the authors’ lack of proficiency in this language. Figure 3 displays the Prisma workflow of the analysis. The conduction of our review adhered to the common meta-regression guidelines (Moher, Liberati, Tetzlaff, Altman, The PRISMA Group, 2009).

Procedure. It was evaluated whether papers adhered to the spirit of the guidelines of the American Psychological Association (APA) which recommend a researcher to careful examination of the data with regard to the underlying model assumptions whenever conducting statistical analysis (APA, 2010; Wilkinson et al., 1999). Papers were skimmed for the following criteria: if they had used
linear regression, how they tested the regression assumptions or what kind of assumptions they indicated as being necessary, if they had transformed data on basis of correct or incorrect assumptions and if a paper had considered an ordinary least squares regression model but employed a different model on basis of either correct or incorrect assumptions. This resulted into a classification scheme of 12 different rubrics which are displayed in Table 2. This scheme is mutually exclusive and exhaustive; all studied papers are classified into exactly one rubric.

Whenever an article in our selection reported the results of a regression analysis of another paper or reviewed several linear regression articles, it was evaluated whether the paper reviewing all the previous regression analysis had made it a criterion of inclusion whether the assumptions have been met in the original articles. If a review article did not check or mention the assumptions of the papers that published the original analysis, the article was classified as ‘Use of linear regression but no indication if any or which assumptions were tested’. However, these sorts of papers constitute less than one percent of our selected articles. It should be noted that this only applies to papers which reported the data values of a linear regression or analysed regression results from other studies. A paper was not included if it only mentioned the direction of the outcomes of another paper’s regression model or stated that a relationship had been established by previous research findings.

Because the focus of this paper lies on the assumptions of linear regression, only linear regression model assumptions were examined in the literature review. Consequently, papers that analysed data by means of other types of regression, such as latent factor models, logistic regression, and proportional hazards models (Cox regression), were not inspected for assumption checking. As long as a paper used a non-linear regression model without mentioning that linear regression was alternatively considered for data analysis it was classified as ‘No Model of Interest’. 
Results

The results of the systematic literature review are displayed in Tables 3, 4 and 5 which display the number of occurrences of different classifications for the selected journals. In the online supplementary material we indicate for all of the 893 individual papers studied into which category they fall.

Table 3 shows the findings for all journals with the 12 different classification rubrics summarized into seven different columns. The three columns entitled ‘Dealing with assumptions’ list the number of different types of regression papers in a specific journal and shows the proportional amount of this type in relation to the complete number of regression articles in that journal. The two columns for ‘No regression’ list the number of papers which did not use a linear regression model and included in their method sections to have considered a linear regression analysis but decided against it on the basis of checking either correct or incorrect assumptions.

Table 4 specifies the details behind the articles which are listed in Table 3 under the column titled ‘wrong’. This table classifies the corresponding 10 papers into Rubrics 8 – 12 of Table 2. It may be noted that 4% of all articles that used linear regression checked normal distributions of some variables instead of normal distribution of residuals.

Table 5 specifies the details behind the column ‘unclear’ in Table 2; i.e. classifies the 159 corresponding papers into Rubrics 5 to 7 of Table 2. Of all papers that employed regression, 92% did not mention anything at all about the assumptions of the linear regression model that were tested or were thought to be fulfilled.
Discussion

In our analysis, we studied 893 papers, representative for the work published in the field of clinical psychology, and classified the 172 papers (19.4%) which considered linear regression into three categories: those that dealt with the assumptions correctly, those that dealt with assumptions incorrectly, and those that did not specify how they dealt with assumptions.

Merely a disappointing 2% of these papers were both transparent and correct in their dealing with statistical assumptions. Furthermore, in no less than 6% of papers, transparency was given but the dealing with assumptions was plain wrong; with the type of mistakes made being the type that is warned for in statistics textbooks aimed at undergraduate students in psychology. Hoekstra, Kiers & Johnson (2012) might provide some insight into why researchers did not check assumptions. They list unfamiliarity with either the fact that the model rests on the assumption, or with how to check the assumption as the top two reasons. As explained, incorrect dealing with the assumptions, could lead to severe problems regarding the validity and power of the results. We hope that this manuscript creates new awareness of this issue with editors of clinical psychology journals and that this will assists in bringing down the number of publications with flawed statistical analyses.

A tremendous amount of papers that employed regression, 92% of those studied, were not clear on how they dealt with assumptions. It is not possible (not for us, nor for the reader) to judge from the text whether the analysis was performed correctly. Given that, in the group of transparent papers, the number of papers with fundamental mistakes in dealing with assumptions far outnumber the number of papers without mistakes, it is very reasonable to fear that a considerable proportion of those 92% is also dealing with assumptions incorrectly.

We believe that most contemporary problems in the handling of regression methods could be counteracted by a more thorough coverage of the statistical assumption checks that were performed
in order to determine the validity of the linear regression model. At the very least, transparency regarding how assumptions are approached, in line with the recommendations by Wilkinson et al. (1999), is essential.

With transparency, the critical reader can distinguish correct approaches from incorrect ones, even if the author(s), editor(s) and referees fail to spot the flaws. These statistical checks can be given in the paper itself, but could also be provided in online supplementary material. Our aspiration for an increased transparency in statistical assumption checks is in line with recent developments in psychology such as open methods (obligatory in e.g. the APA-journal Archives of Scientific Psychology) and open data (either published as online supplementary material with a paper, or through special journals like Journal of Open Psychology Data), which also encourage transparency. Enforcing, or at least strongly encouraging, transparency can even have beneficial effects to the level of publications in the respective journal (Wicherts, Bakker and Molenaar, 2011). Even if publishing the data does not have a direct beneficial effect on the quality of work, it will be useful as it provides the sceptical reader with the required information to perform the assumption checks and thus check the credibility of the published work.

Another suggestion to improve the worrisome findings reported in this paper is to encourage authors to include a statistician or methodologist in the study more often. For statisticians, it is daily practice to correctly check assumptions (as well as dealing with all other challenges of data analysis). It is our belief that many of the mistakes reported in this study could have been avoided if a statistician would have participated in the data analysis.

It is difficult to establish whether high ranking journals deal with assumptions more adequately than lower ranking journals. Even though the results in Table 5 indicate that higher ranked journals were more likely to test at least a few assumptions compared to lower ranked journals; the results do mainly show that there is great variability between journals regarding the
number of papers with applied regression models they publish: two journals published no papers in 2013 that employed linear regression, and five journals published six or less of these papers. Because two of the three inspected Q1 journals are review journals they predominantly employed meta-regression and only rarely linear regression, it should be pointed out that of the 15 papers that used meta-regressions in our Q1.2 eleven tested at least some of the required assumptions (that is 73% of meta-regression papers were checked correctly for statistical assumptions). We believe that for these papers the percentage is much better than the overall percentage of 2% for applied regression papers, because meta-analyses are usually carried out by a team of authors including at least one statistician or psychometrician.

We have limited our literature review to papers employing linear regression models, in order to keep the study feasible. We suspect that similar findings would arise when studying other classes of statistical models. Furthermore, we have also limited the review to papers published in the field of clinical psychology, however we suspect that similar problems occur – albeit possibly in different proportions – in all areas of applied psychological research. Thus, our suggestions with respect to increased transparency and better evaluation of the employed methodology are valid for a wider range of papers than those studied here.

To summarise, in order to prevent the observed problems that were outlined above we suggest a more transparent methodological reporting. Research should cover which assumption checks were carried out. Furthermore, it should be mentioned if alternative statistical models have been considered and why they were not employed, if so. This will be a necessity for future research articles in order to be able to detect and prevent errors related to the widespread misconceptions but also to remove doubt from articles with an actual immaculate data analysis.
Additional information

A detailed breakdown of the systematic review, as well as a completed PRISMA checklist are provided as online supplementary material. The search strategy has been carried out by Anja Ernst. Independently, Casper Albers checked and classified 10% of the manuscripts. No mismatch between both sets of classifications occurred.
References


3 Wicherts, J. M., Bakker, M. & Molenaar, D. (2011). Willingness to share research data is related to the strength of the evidence and the quality of reporting of statistical results. PLOS One, 6(11), doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0026828


Table 1: Selection of Clinical Psychology Journals. The first column gives the ranking of the journal, the first number denoting the quartile in which the journal falls, the second number the rank of the journal within that quartile.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Label</th>
<th>Journal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q1.1</td>
<td>Annual Review of Clinical Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q1.2</td>
<td>Clinical Psychology Review</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q1.3</td>
<td>Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2.1</td>
<td>International Psychogeriatrics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2.2</td>
<td>Journal of Attention Disorders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2.3</td>
<td>American Journal of Drug and Alcohol Abuse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3.1</td>
<td>Zeitschrift fur Klinische Psychologie und Psychotherapie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3.2</td>
<td>Journal of Obsessive-Compulsive and Related Disorders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3.3</td>
<td>International Journal of Psychology and Psychological Therapy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4.1</td>
<td>Internet Journal of Mental Health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4.2</td>
<td>Indian Journal of Psychological Medicine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4.3</td>
<td>Behaviour Change</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Classification of the reviewed regression papers. Rubrics 3 and 5 – 12 represent papers with imperfect handling of regression assumptions: in rubrics 5 – 7 it is unclear from whether assumptions are correctly dealt with; in rubrics 8 – 12 the dealing with assumptions was incorrect.
### Table 3: Proportion of various types of papers in our selected journals. Categorisations are mutually exclusive and exhaustive. Journals are referred by the labels assigned in Table 1. “Col.” refers to the columns in Table 2 that are included in the rubrics. The online supplementary material indicates which papers belong to each of the numbers in this table.

* Papers in Spanish excluded

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Journal</th>
<th>Number of papers (col. 1–12)</th>
<th>Number of papers with regression (col. 4–12)</th>
<th>Dealing with assumptions</th>
<th>No regression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Correctly (col. 4)</td>
<td>Unclear (col. 5–7)</td>
<td>Wrong (col. 8–12)</td>
<td>Correct (violation of true assumption) (col. 2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q1.1</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q1.2</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>6 (7%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q1.3</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>26 (28%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2.1</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>44 (19%)</td>
<td>3 (7%)</td>
<td>39 (89%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2.2</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>52 (26%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>49 (94%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2.3</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>14 (26%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3.1</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>5 (22%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3.2</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>21 (55%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16 (71%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3.3*</td>
<td>10*</td>
<td>2 (20%)*</td>
<td>0*</td>
<td>2 (100%)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4.1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1 (50%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4.2</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4.3</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2 (10%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>893</strong></td>
<td><strong>172 (19%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>3 (2%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>159 (92%)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Journal</th>
<th>Articles with flawed linear regression model</th>
<th>Tested normality of X but not of residuals</th>
<th>Tested normality of Y but not of residuals</th>
<th>Assuming normally distributed variables but did not indicate if X or Y or both</th>
<th>Tested normality of X and of Y but not of residuals</th>
<th>Other misconceptions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q2.1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2.2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2 (67%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1 (33%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3.2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4 (80%)</td>
<td>1 (20%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>10</strong></td>
<td><strong>6 (60%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>1 (10%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>0</strong></td>
<td><strong>0</strong></td>
<td><strong>3 (30%)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4: Breakdown of the types of mistakes that were observed. Only Journals with flawed models are listed. Categorizations are mutually exclusive and exhaustive. Journals are referred by the labels assigned in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Journal</th>
<th>Papers in which handling of regression assumption was unclear</th>
<th>Unclear if the 'normality assumption' was tested on the residuals or on $X$ or $Y$</th>
<th>Did not test all but some correct assumptions</th>
<th>no indication if any or which assumptions were tested</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q1.2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2 (33%)</td>
<td>4 (67%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q1.3</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2.1</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>4 (10%)</td>
<td>5 (13%)</td>
<td>30 (77%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2.2</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>1 (2%)</td>
<td>2 (4%)</td>
<td>46 (94%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2.3</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1 (7%)</td>
<td>13 (93%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3.1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3.2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3.3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4.1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4.3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>159</strong></td>
<td><strong>5 (3%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>10 (6%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>144 (91%)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Breakdown of the different types of 'Unclear' classifications. Only Journals with unclear models are listed. Categorizations are mutually exclusive and exhaustive. Journals are referred by the labels assigned in Table 1.
Figure 1. Visualisation of violations of the assumptions. From left to right, the columns indicate no violation (hence, the four figures in column 1 are the same), mild violation and severe violation of the assumptions listed in the rows. (As the scale of measurement is irrelevant for the visualisation, axis labels are omitted. The independent variable is plotted against the horizontal axis, the dependent variable against the vertical axis.)
Figure 2: Simulated example of a t-test based on $n = 40$ observations per group and no violations of the assumptions. The main panel shows a scatterplot of $(X, Y)$-scores. The histograms in the top and side panels clearly indicate non-normality for $X$ and $Y$. However, within both subpopulations of $Y$, the distribution is normal (blue curves).
Figure 3: PRISMA flow diagram of included records

1. Literature search of all papers published in 2013 in Q1.1 – Q4.3
   - 910 papers identified

2. Screening 910 papers for duplicates
   - 0 duplicates removed

3. 910 papers assessed for eligibility
   - 17 papers excluded
   - Papers were written in Spanish

4. 893 papers included in the systematic review