

Biostatistical Tests in Dental Research: A Comprehensive Overview

Alpa Gupta

*Department of Conservative Dentistry and Endodontics, Manav Rachna Dental College
Faridabaad, Haryana

Abstract- By offering reliable statistical analyses to measure oral health outcomes, evaluate the efficacy of dental treatments, and direct evidence-based decision making, biostatistical tests play a significant role in dentistry. The main biostatistical tests frequently used in dentistry research and clinical practise will be summarised in this study.

INTRODUCTION

The application of biostatistical tests is essential for deriving valuable insights from gathered data in the field of dentistry research. With the aid of these tests, researchers can examine and decipher data, spot trends, and assess the statistical significance of their findings. The goal, underlying presumptions, and proper uses of a variety of biostatistical tests frequently used in dental research will be discussed in this article.

1. Statistically descriptive:

In statistical analysis for dentistry, descriptive statistics are crucial. They give an overview of the information gathered from dental research studies, allowing researchers to better understand the nature and distribution of the variables being studied. Dental professionals may effectively convey and comprehend data, spot trends, and make defensible judgements by using descriptive statistics. Let's delve more into the use of descriptive statistics in dentistry.

Central Tendency Measures

Measures of central tendency that aid in describing a dataset's typical or central value are included in descriptive statistics. In dentistry, the following are the most typical central tendency measures:

- **Mean:** The mean denotes an object's average value. By adding up all the values and dividing by the total number of observations, it is calculated. In dentistry, mean values can provide light on variables like the typical quantity of dental cavities or the typical patient age.

- **Median:** Whether a dataset is arranged in ascending or descending order, the median is the midway value. When working with skewed or irregularly distributed data, it is especially helpful. To establish the central value of tooth wear scores within a population, for instance, the median can be used.

- **Mode:** The most prevalent value in a dataset is referred to as the mode. In dentistry, the mode can be used to pinpoint the most common dental issue, such as the most prevalent malocclusion or the most frequently seen caries-affected tooth surface.

Dispersion measures:

Measures of dispersion, which describe the distribution or variability of data points, are also a part of descriptive statistics. These measurements shed light on the distribution of dental characteristics and the level of individual heterogeneity. The following are typical dispersion measures:

- **Standard Deviation (SD):** The standard deviation shows how often results depart from the mean on average. It measures how widely apart the data points are from the mean value. The standard deviation can be used in dentistry to assess the variability of elements such as plaque index scores and gingival recession depth.

- **Range:** The range of a dataset is the distinction between the highest and lowest values. It offers a straightforward way to gauge the dissemination of data. The range can be used, for instance, to identify the variation in teeth eruption rates within a population.

- **Interquartile Range (IQR):** The IQR denotes the interval between a dataset's 25th and 75th percentiles. While being less sensitive to high values, it is helpful for determining the distribution of data. Analysis of factors like pain scores or periodontal attachment loss can be done using the IQR.

The visual representation is

Dental descriptive statistics and graphical representation frequently go hand in hand. The distribution of dental variables can be successfully visualised using graphs like histograms, box plots, and bar charts, making it simpler to understand and convey results. These graphical depictions give the data a visual overview, allowing researchers to spot trends, anomalies, and possible connections.

2. t-test for students

In dentistry, the Student's t-test is frequently used to compare the means of two groups. It enables researchers to ascertain whether the average values of a specific variable in two different populations or treatment groups differ statistically significantly from one another. In dentistry research, the t-test is useful for

examining the efficacy of therapies, evaluating the impact of risk variables, or contrasting outcomes in various patient populations. Let's explore the use and analysis of the Student's t-test in dentistry.

T-test varieties:

The t-test has several variants, each appropriate for a particular situation in dentistry research:

1. T-test for Independent Samples:

When comparing the means of two independent groups, one uses the independent samples t-test. For instance, in a study comparing the efficacy of two various dental restorative materials, researchers can analyse and compare the mean values of characteristics like bond strength or marginal adaption between the two materials using the independent samples t-test.

2. T-test for paired samples:

When examining the means of related or paired observations, the paired samples t-test, often referred to as the dependent samples t-test, is used. This test is frequently used in dentistry to compare patient outcomes before and after treatment. For instance, researchers could compare the mean values of gingival recession before and after a particular periodontal therapy using the paired samples t-test.

The t-test's premise is that:

In dental research, it's crucial to think about and confirm the underlying hypotheses before performing a t-test:

Independence: Each group's observations ought to be made independently of the others. In research when participants are randomly assigned to various groups or when observations are gathered from different communities, this assumption is frequently met.

Normality: Each group's data distribution ought to roughly follow the normal distribution. The t-test can withstand minor outliers, especially when applied to larger sample sizes. However, alternative non-parametric tests might be preferable if the data considerably vary from normality.

The variances of the two groups being compared should be homogeneous, or equal. This presumption, known as homoscedasticity, guarantees consistency in the variability among the groups. Modified t-tests that do not assume equal variances, like Welch's t-test, can be used to resolve violations of this presumption.

How to interpret the t-test outcomes:

Researchers often acquire a t-value and a matching p-value when conducting a t-test in dentistry. The p-value represents the likelihood of finding a difference between the means by chance, but the t-value shows the size and direction of the difference between the means.

The researchers can draw the conclusion that there is a statistically significant difference between the means if the p-value is less than a preset significance level (for example, 0.05), commonly indicated as. Accordingly, it is improbable that the

observed difference could have arisen from pure random variation.

However, if the p-value exceeds, researchers are unable to rule out the null hypothesis since there is insufficient data to support the conclusion that there is a significant difference in the means. Any observable difference in such circumstances is thought to fall within the category of random variation.

Important to remember: Clinical or practical importance may not necessarily follow from statistical significance. In addition to the statistical significance, researchers should carefully assess the impact magnitude and take the therapeutic importance of the observed difference into account.

3. ANOVA: Analysis of Variance

ANOVA is a potent statistical test that is frequently used in dentistry to compare the means of three or more groups. The means of several treatment groups or populations can be compared to see if there are statistically significant differences. When examining the impacts of various interventions, determining the influence of risk variables on oral health outcomes, or comparing outcomes across distinct patient populations, ANOVA is very helpful in dentistry research. Let's explore how ANOVA is used and interpreted in dentistry.

Various ANOVAs:

Single-Way ANOVA

When comparing the means of three or more independent groups, one-way ANOVA is utilised. For instance, researchers might separate participants into various groups, each of which used a different toothpaste, in a study assessing the efficacy of various toothpaste formulas on eliminating dental plaque. The mean plaque ratings for each toothpaste group can then be analysed and compared using one-way ANOVA.

Double-Way ANOVA

When examining the impact of two independent variables (factors) on a dependent variable, two-way ANOVA is used. This may be helpful in dentistry when examining the interaction of two variables, such as the impact of oral hygiene practises and smoking status on the prevalence of periodontal disease. Researchers can simultaneously analyse the main effects of each component and their interactions on the result variable using a two-way ANOVA.

ANOVA's presumptions are:

Prior to using ANOVA in dentistry research, it is important to think about and confirm the following underlying assumptions:

Independence: Each group's observations ought to be made independently of the others. In research when participants are randomly assigned to various groups or when observations are gathered from different communities, this assumption is frequently met.

Data distribution within each category should roughly follow the normal distribution. ANOVA can withstand minor deviations

from normality, especially when the sample size is higher. However, transformations or non-parametric alternatives might be taken into consideration if the data drastically stray from normality.

Homogeneity of Variances: Each group's variances should be roughly equal. This presumption, known as homoscedasticity, guarantees consistency in the variability among the groups. Adapted versions of ANOVA, such as Welch's ANOVA or Brown-Forsythe ANOVA, which don't require equal variances, can be used to address violations of this presumption.

ANOVA results interpretation:

Researchers often acquire an F-value and a matching p-value when conducting an ANOVA in dentistry. The proportion of between-group variability to within-group variability is represented by the F-value. The p-value represents the likelihood that such a mean difference was observed by accident.

Researchers may draw the conclusion that there is a statistically significant difference between the means of the groups if the p-value is less than a preset significance level (for example, 0.05), which is commonly indicated as. In other words, the means of at least one group are considerably different from each other.

Post-hoc analyses

Post-hoc tests can be used to determine which particular group's means significantly differ when the ANOVA findings are statistically significant. These tests include pairwise t-tests with suitable modifications for multiple comparisons, Bonferroni correction, Scheffé's technique, and Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) tests. Researchers can better grasp the individual group differences by using post-hoc testing.

Along with statistical significance, it's important to take effect size measurements like eta-squared (η^2) or partial eta-squared (η^2_p) into account. These measurements express the percentage of variance that can be accounted for by group differences and shed light on the usefulness of the conclusions.

4. Chi-square Analysis

In dentistry, the chi-square test is frequently used to look at the relationship between categorical data. It enables researchers to identify whether two or more category variables are significantly related or dependent on one another. When examining the association between oral health outcomes and various risk factors or determining the prevalence of dental problems among various populations, the chi-square test is very helpful in the field of dentistry. Let's examine how the chi-square test is used and interpreted in dentistry.

Chi-square test varieties:

Chi-square Independence Test:

To determine whether there is a significant correlation between two categorical variables, the chi-square test of independence is utilised. For instance, dental researchers may look at the connection between periodontal disease (present or missing) and smoking status (smoker or non-smoker). If these two variables

are associated in a statistically significant way, it can be determined using the chi-square test of independence.

Chi-square Goodness of Fit Test:

The chi-square test of goodness of fit is used to assess if categorical data actually exists and conforms to an anticipated distribution or proportion. When contrasting observed frequencies of a specific trait or condition with anticipated frequencies based on a known distribution, this test is helpful. To determine if the distribution of dental caries across various age groups corresponds to the expected distribution based on epidemiological data, researchers may, for example, apply the chi-square test of goodness of fit.

Chi-square test presumptions:

Prior to performing a chi-square test in dentistry research, it is crucial to think about and confirm the underlying hypotheses:

1. **Independence:** Each observation or piece of data must be distinct from the others. This presumption is usually true when the data is gathered from various sources or when each observation is independent of the others.
2. **Sample Size:** A adequate sample size increases the reliability of the chi-square test. Alternative tests, such as Fisher's exact test or Yates' correction for continuity, may be employed if the predicted frequencies in any cell of the contingency table are too small (usually less than 5).

Understanding the findings of the Chi-square Test

Researchers get a chi-square statistic value and a matching p-value when they run a chi-square test in dentistry. The difference between observed and expected frequencies is expressed quantitatively by the chi-square statistic.

Researchers can draw the conclusion that there is a statistically significant relationship or correlation between the categorical variables if the p-value is less than a preset significance level (for example, 0.05), which is commonly denoted as. This shows that the observed frequencies are significantly different from those predicted by the independence assumption or the given distribution.

However, if the p-value is more than, researchers are unable to rule out the null hypothesis since there is insufficient data to draw any firm conclusions about whether the variables are significantly related or associated. Any observed variations under these circumstances could be a result of random variation.

Statistical significance does not necessarily imply causation, it is vital to remember that. As a result, while interpreting the data and drawing conclusions, researchers should be cautious and take other aspects like effect size and clinical relevance into account.

5. Analogous Regression:

A common statistical analysis method in dentistry is logistic regression, which looks at the relationship between a group of independent variables and a binary or categorical dependent variable. It enables researchers to create models that forecast the

likelihood that a given event or result will occur based on a set of predictor variables. When examining risk factors for oral disorders, forecasting treatment outcomes, or examining the effects of numerous factors on oral health, logistic regression is very helpful in dentistry research. Let's examine how logistic regression is used and interpreted in dentistry.

Fundamental Ideas in Logistic Regression

By incorporating binary or categorical outcomes, logistic regression expands linear regression. It estimates the likelihood that an event or outcome will fall into one of the two categories rather than forecasting a continuous outcome. The logistic regression model calculates the chance that the event will occur and sheds light on the correlation between the predictor variables and the likelihood of the result.

Important Logistic Regression Terminology:

1. **Dependent Variable:** The binary or categorical variable being predicted or explained is the dependent variable, sometimes referred to as the outcome variable or the response variable. This can be a factor in dentistry such as the existence or absence of a particular dental ailment (such as dental caries or periodontal disease).

2. The elements or traits that are hypothesised to have an impact on the dependent variable are referred to as independent variables, predictor variables, or covariates. These in dentistry can be elements like age, gender, smoking status, oral hygiene practises, or genetic elements.

3. **Logit Function:** In logistic regression, the logit function is employed as a link function to translate a linear combination of predictor variables into the [0, 1] range. It converts the linear combination to the likelihood that the event will occur.

4. **Odds Ratio:** The main parameter evaluated in logistic regression is the odds ratio (OR). It shows how likely an event is to occur at a certain level of an independent variable in relation to a reference level. The degree and nature of the association between the independent variable and the result are revealed.

Results of Logistic Regression Interpretation:

For each independent variable, researchers who do logistic regression in dentistry receive coefficients, standard errors, p-values, and odds ratios. These findings aid in determining the importance and size of the correlation between the predictors and the likelihood of the outcome.

1. **Coefficients:** The coefficients show how each independent variable's estimated impact on the outcome's log-odds (logit) is represented. An increase in the predictor variable is linked to an increase in the log-odds when the coefficient is positive; the opposite is true when the coefficient is negative.

2. **Odds Ratios:** The odds ratio (OR), which is derived from coefficients, is a measure of the likelihood that an outcome would occur at a particular level of an independent variable relative to a reference level. A positive correlation, where the

odds of the event are higher for that level of the predictor variable, is shown by an OR larger than 1. A negative connection is indicated by an OR less than 1.

3. **P-values:** The coefficients' p-values show the statistical significance of the association between each predictor variable and the result. The variable may be statistically associated with the outcome if the p-value is less than a preset significance level, such as 0.05.

When analysing the results, it's crucial to take into account both statistical significance and practical significance. It is important to consider effect sizes, confidence intervals, and clinical applicability when assessing the significance and scope of the discovered associations.

6. Relationship Analysis

A statistical technique frequently used in dentistry to evaluate the relationship between two continuous variables is correlation analysis. It gives researchers insights into potential links between dental characteristics, oral health outcomes, and other relevant metrics and aids in determining the strength and direction of the association between variables. A quantitative evaluation of the strength of the linear relationship between variables is possible through correlation analysis. Let's see how correlation analysis is used and interpreted in dentistry.

Indicator of Pearson's Correlation:

The Pearson correlation coefficient, abbreviated as r , is the most often used correlation measurement. Between -1 and $+1$, it measures the linear connection between two variables. The covariance between the variables, divided by the sum of their standard deviations, is used to determine the correlation coefficient. The coefficient value represents the association's strength and direction:

- An increase in one measure is directly correlated with an increase in the other, according to a positive correlation ($0 < r < 1$).
- A negative correlation ($-1 < r < 0$) denotes an inverse relationship, where a rise in one measure is linked to a fall in the other.
- A correlation coefficient that is nearly zero ($r \approx 0$) indicates that the variables have no linear relationship.

Correlation coefficient interpretation:

Researchers get a correlation coefficient (r) and matching p-value when they perform correlation analysis in dentistry. The correlation's strength and direction are revealed by the correlation coefficient, while its statistical significance is shown by the p-value.

1. Strength of the Connection

The strength of the link is indicated by the correlation coefficient's absolute value, or $|r|$. The strength of the link between the variables increases as $|r|$ approaches 1. An r -value of 0.8, for example, indicates a greater association than one of 0.3.

2. The relationship's course:

The direction of the association is indicated by the sign of the correlation coefficient ($+/-$). An indication of a positive

correlation is a positive value, whereas an indication of a negative correlation is a negative value. The strength of the link increases with the value's proximity to -1 or +1.

3. Statistics' Importance

The correlation coefficient's p-value evaluates the relationship's statistical significance. If the correlation is statistically significant, which denotes that the observed link is unlikely to have arisen by chance, then the p-value must be less than a preset significance level (for example, 0.05).

It's crucial to remember that a connection does not necessarily indicate a cause. Even if there is a strong correlation, it does not necessarily follow that one variable is the root cause of the other. When reaching conclusions, additional elements and confounding variables should be taken into account.

7. Survival Evaluation

The statistical method of survival analysis, also known as time-to-event analysis or survival modelling, is frequently used in dentistry to analyse and interpret data relating to the amount of time until an event takes place. When examining outcomes like dental implant survival, tooth loss, disease development, or treatment failure over time, it is especially helpful in dentistry research. The timing of occurrences, censoring, and the length of follow-up are all taken into consideration by survival analysis, which offers insightful information about the likelihood and timing of important events. Let's examine how survival analysis is used and interpreted in dentistry.

Key Survival Analysis Concepts

1. **Survival Time:** In a survival analysis, the survival time is the amount of time that passes between a defined starting point (such as the beginning of dental treatment) and the occurrence of an event (such as the failure of a dental implant) or the conclusion of the research period. The time-to-event is another name for it.

2. **Censoring:** Censoring happens when a participant is either lost to follow-up or the event of interest has not happened for them by the study's conclusion. Right-censoring, in which the event has not yet happened at the end of the study, and interval-censoring, in which the event happens inside a predetermined window, are two types of censoring.

3. The survival function, abbreviated as $S(t)$, calculates the likelihood that a person will live through a given time (t). It is determined as the complement of the cumulative distribution function (CDF) of the survival time and shows the chance of event-free survival over time.

4. When working with censored data, the Kaplan-Meier estimator is a nonparametric technique used to estimate the survival function. With the observed event times and censoring information taken into account, it produces a stepwise approximation of the survival function over time.

5. **Hazard Function:** Given that the person has survived up until that moment, the hazard function, denoted as $h(t)$, describes the instantaneous rate at which events occur at a specific time (t). It displays the risk or likelihood of an event happening at a specific moment.

Interpreting the Findings of a Survival Analysis

1. **Survival Curves:** The estimated chance of event-free survival through time is represented by survival curves, which are produced via survival analysis. These curves show the percentage of people at each time point who have not witnessed the relevant event.

2. **Median Survival Time:** The median survival time is the point in time when half of the study's participants have encountered the relevant event. It gives a rough time estimate for when the event will really happen.

3. **Hazard Ratios (HR)** compare the risk or hazard of an event among various groups or categories. They show how likely it is for one group compared to another to experience the event. A higher risk is denoted by HR values more than 1, whilst a lower risk is denoted by HR values less than 1.

4. **Log-Rank Test:** To compare the survival curves of several groups, the log-rank test is frequently employed in survival analysis. It evaluates if there are statistically significant variations in the survival rates between the interest groups.

CONCLUSION

In dental research, biostatistical tests are essential because they enable researchers to make reliable conclusions from their data. Among the important tests employed in dentistry research are descriptive statistics, t-tests, ANOVA, chi-square tests, logistic regression, correlation analysis, and survival analysis. Researchers can improve the rigour and dependability of their findings, thereby enhancing dental knowledge and patient care, by using the right statistical tests and assuring adherence to the underlying assumptions.

REFERENCES

1. Mills EJ, Thorlund K, Ioannidis JP. Demystifying trial networks and network meta-analysis. *BMJ*. 2013;346:f2914.
2. Jansen JP, Fleurence R, Devine B, Itzler R, Barrett A, Hawkins N, et al. Interpreting indirect treatment comparisons and network meta-analysis for health-care decision making: report of the ISPOR Task Force on Indirect Treatment Comparisons Good Research Practices: part 1. *Value Health*. 2011;14:417–428.
3. Donegan S, Williamson P, D'Alessandro U, Tudur Smith C. Assessing key assumptions of network meta-analysis: a review of methods. *Res Synth Methods*. 2013;4:291–323.

4. Biondi-Zoccai G, Abbate A, Benedetto U, Palmerini T, D'Ascenzo F, Frati G. Network meta-analysis for evidence synthesis: what is it and why is it posed to dominate cardiovascular decision making? *Int J Cardiol.* 2015;182:309–314.
5. Mills EJ, Ioannidis JP, Thorlund K, Schünemann HJ, Puhan MA, Guyatt GH. How to use an article reporting a multiple treatment comparison meta-analysis. *JAMA.* 2012;308:1246–1253.
6. Cipriani A, Higgins JP, Geddes JR, Salanti G. Conceptual and technical challenges in network meta-analysis. *Ann Intern Med.* 2013;159:130–137.
7. Lu G, Ades AE. Combination of direct and indirect evidence in mixed treatment comparisons. *Stat Med.* 2004;23:3105–3124.
8. Salanti G. Indirect and mixed-treatment comparison, network, or multiple-treatments meta-analysis: many names, many benefits, many concerns for the next generation evidence synthesis tool. *Res Synth Methods.* 2012;3:80–97.
9. Caldwell DM. An overview of conducting systematic reviews with network meta-analysis. *Syst Rev.* 2014;3:109.
10. Jansen JP, Naci H. Is network meta-analysis as valid as standard pairwise meta-analysis? It all depends on the distribution of effect modifiers. *BMC Med.* 2013;11:159.