

# Concepts of Biostatistics & Biological Data

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# Outline

What is Biostatistics?

Why biostatistics matters?

Key concepts

- Biological data types
- Descriptive statistics
- Probability & inference
- Sample size calculation
- Core statistical methods

# Definition of Biostatistics



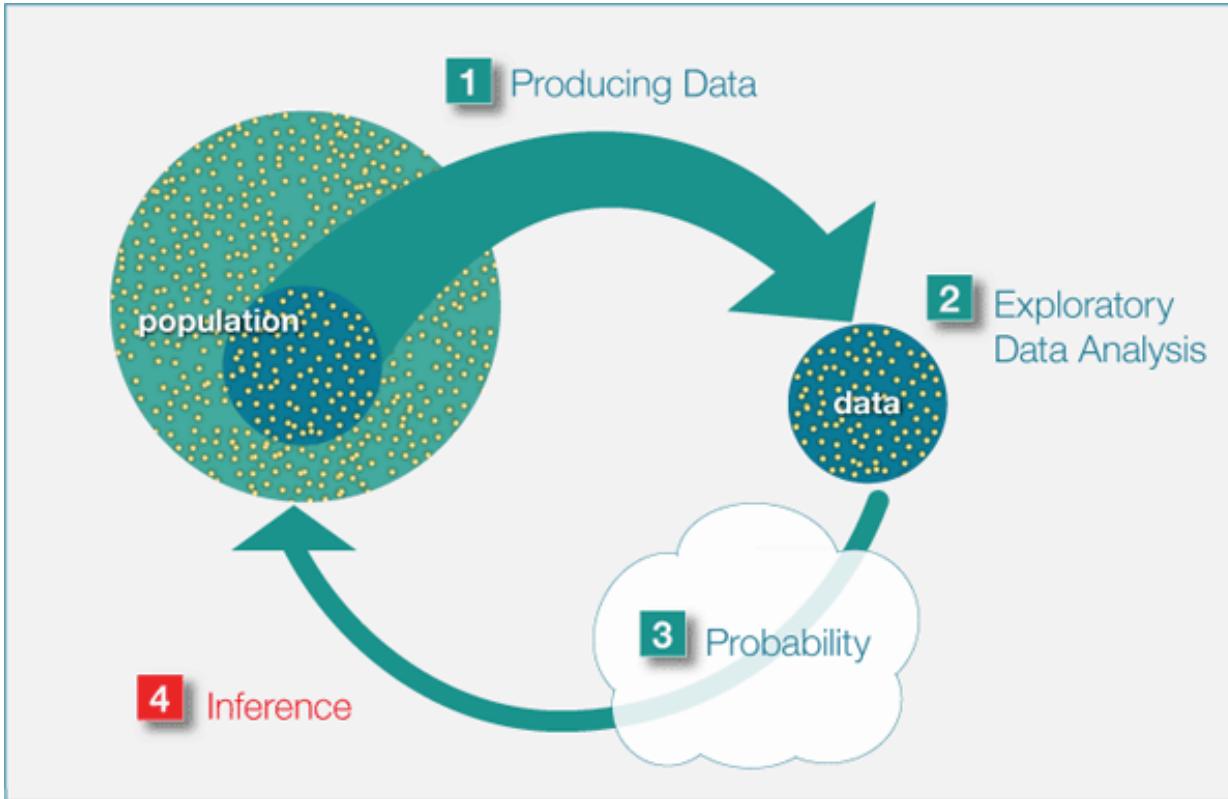
Biostatistics is a branch of applied statistics that applies statistical methods to collect and analyze data related to biology and medicine.



*--- Much more statistics than biology and medicine, however, biostatisticians must learn some biological and medical concepts also.*



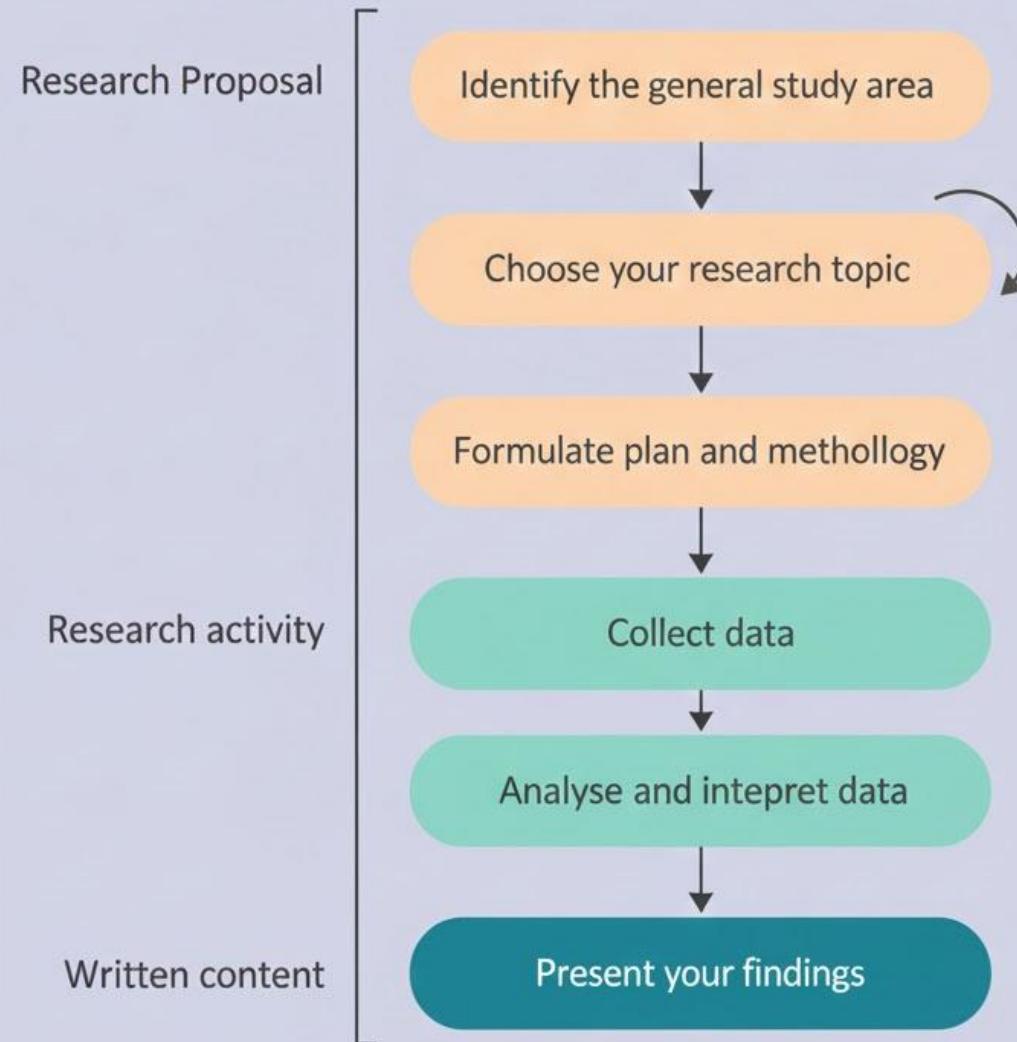
# Aim of Biostatistics



- Draw conclusions about a population based on the data obtained from a sample chosen from it.

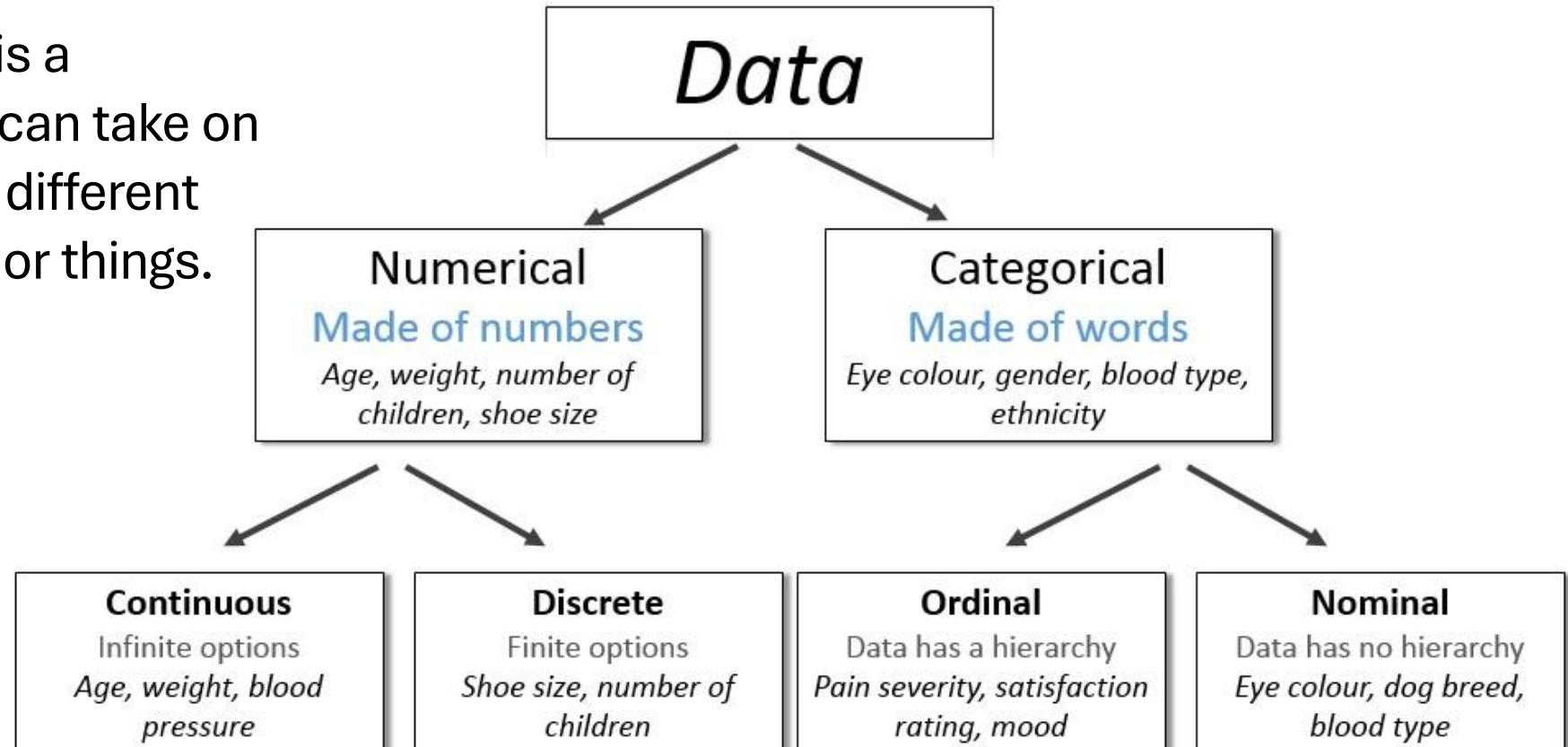
# Biostatistics in research

- A good way to learn about biostatistics and its role in the research process is to follow a research study from study design to its publication.
- **The biostatistician should be present in all steps.**

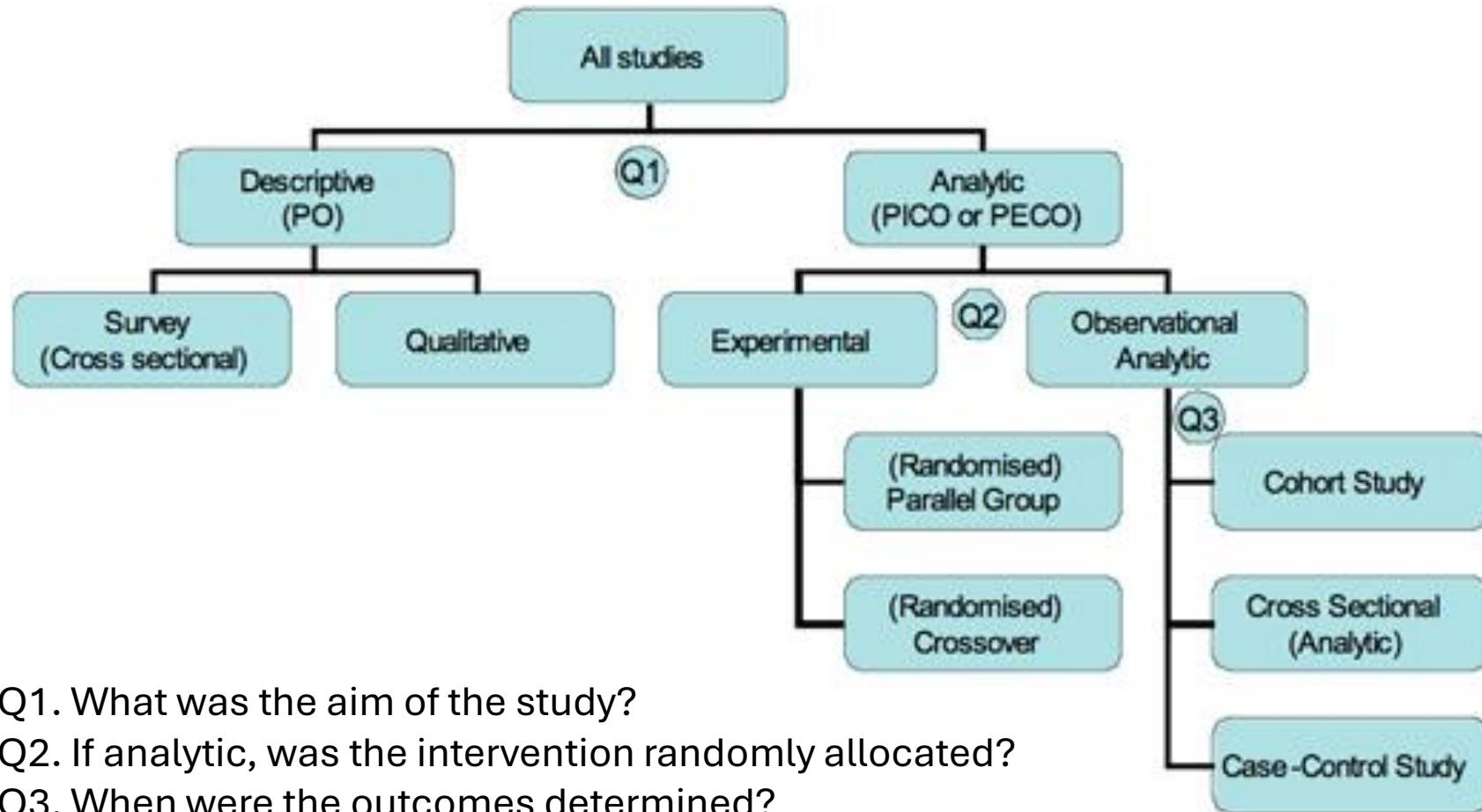


# Types of variables in biostatistics

- A random variable is a characteristic that can take on different values for different individuals, places or things.



# Data collection/Study design



<https://www.cebm.ox.ac.uk/resources/ebm-tools/study-designs>

# Biological & Health data

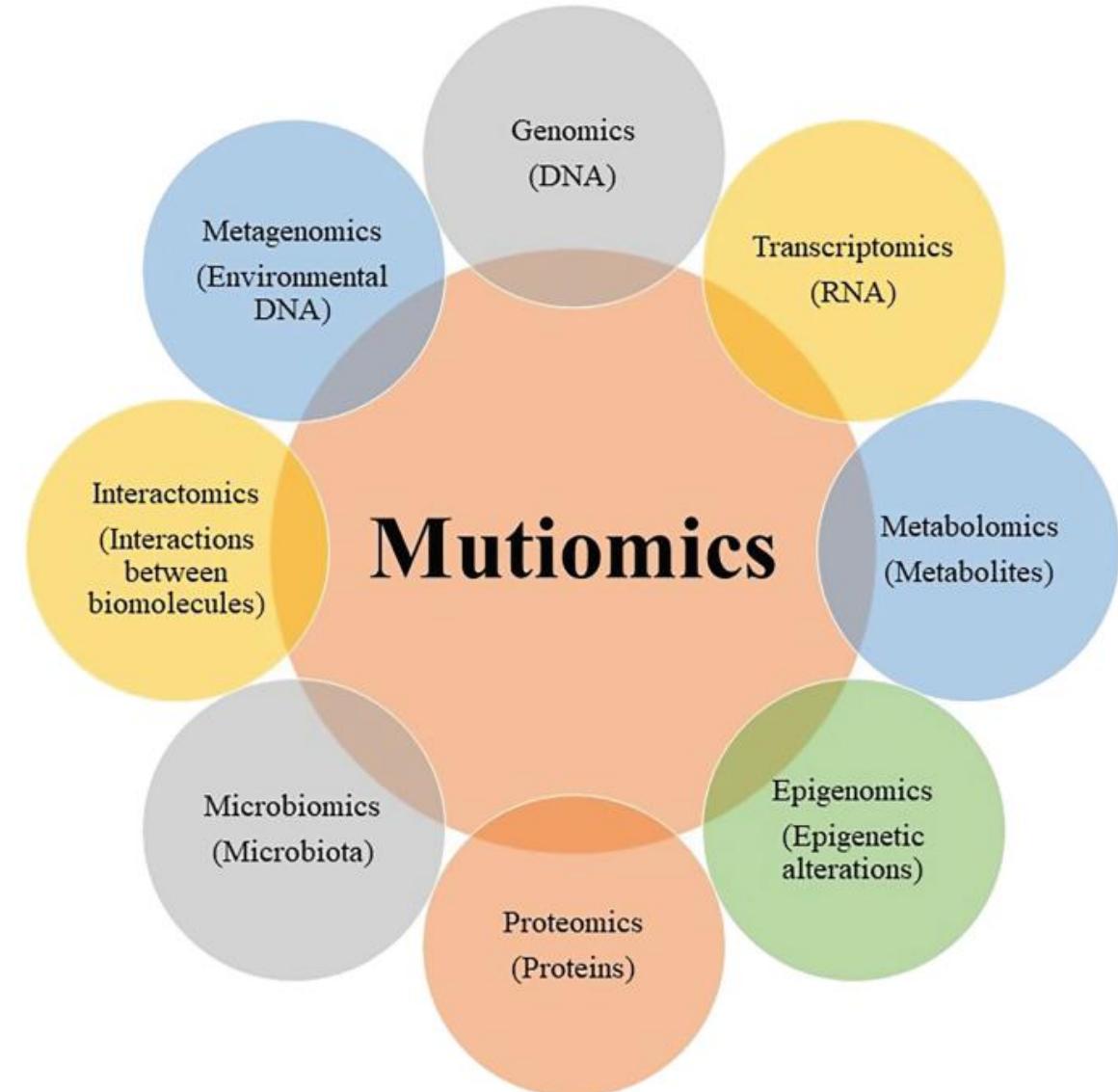
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Clinical & epidemiological data (blood pressure, BMI, disease status, incidence rates, etc)

Laboratory measurements (enzyme activity, hormone levels, cell counts, etc)

Omics data (Genomics, Transcriptomics, Metabolomics)

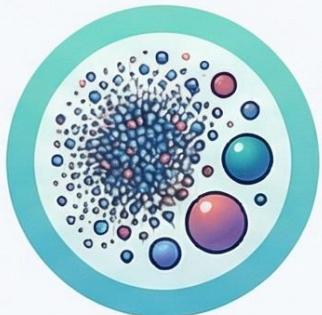
Imaging data (MRI scans, microscopy images, CT images)



## DATA-CENTRIC HURDLES

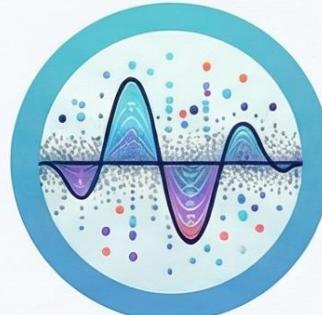
### High Dimensionality vs. Low Sample Size

Thousands of variables (genes, biomarkers) often overwhelm a small number of samples.



### Inherent Variability & Noise

Data differs across individuals and time, complicated by batch effects and measurement errors.



### Heterogeneous & Incomplete Sources

Data comes from varied sources (omics, clinical) with different formats and missing values.



## PROCESS & RESOURCE BARRIERS

### Ethical, Privacy & Access Constraints

Sensitive health information is restricted by regulations, data sharing policies, and consent.



### Lack of Standardization & Reproducibility

Inconsistent analysis pipelines and preprocessing steps make it difficult to reproduce published results.



### Intensive Computational Demands

Large datasets require high-performance computing, optimized workflows, and scalable algorithms.

# The Data Analysis Process

## 5 Main Steps



- Data preparation includes editing, coding, and data entry in forms that are appropriate for analysis.

# Data exploration

## Nominal variables

- Frequency
  - Count (How frequent values occur)
  - Relative (The % of observations with a specific value)

## Numerical variables

- Descriptive statistics
  - Mean, Mode, Median
  - Variance, Standard deviation, SE
  - Range, Percentiles

# Data exploration: Descriptive statistics

## 1. Arithmetic mean

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

## 2. Median

(1) The  $\left(\frac{n+1}{2}\right)$ th largest observation if  $n$  is odd

(2) The average of the  $\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)$ th and  $\left(\frac{n}{2}+1\right)$ th largest observations if  $n$  is even

## 3. Variance

$$s^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n}$$

## 4. Standard deviation

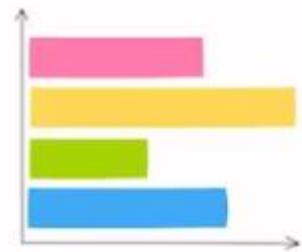
$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n-1}} = \sqrt{\text{sample variance}}$$



# Data exploration: Graphical visualizations



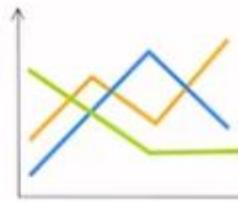
Column



Bar



Pie



Line

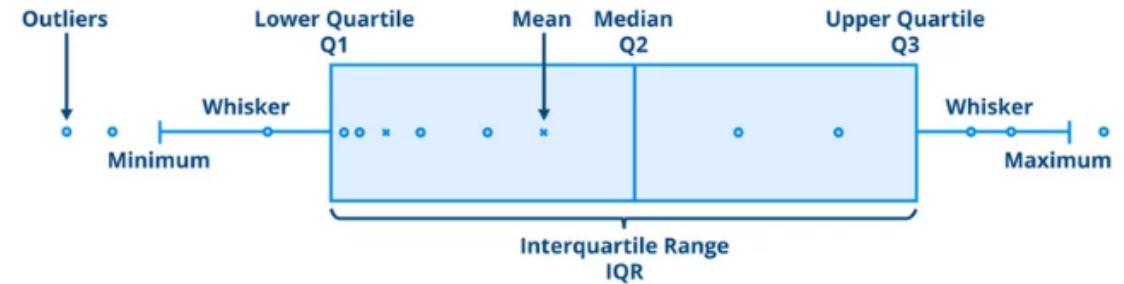


Area



Column - Line

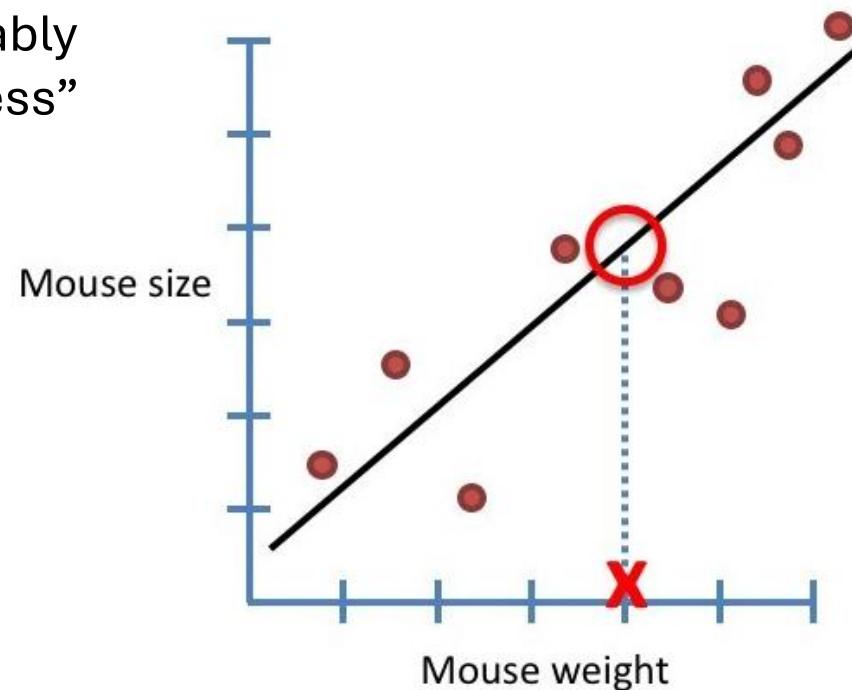
Outliers



Box plot

# Statistical modeling

- “A statistical model is usually specified as a mathematical relationship between one or more random variables and other non-random variable and represents, often in considerably idealized form, the data-generating process” (Wikipedia).
- Includes
  - T-tests
  - ANOVA
  - Linear Regression
  - Generalized linear models
  - And many more...



# Draw conclusions

A framework for critically evaluating your analysis before drawing conclusions.



## 1. Does the analysis answer the research question?

Confirm that your results directly address the original query you set out to investigate.

## 2. Are there limitations affecting the conclusions?

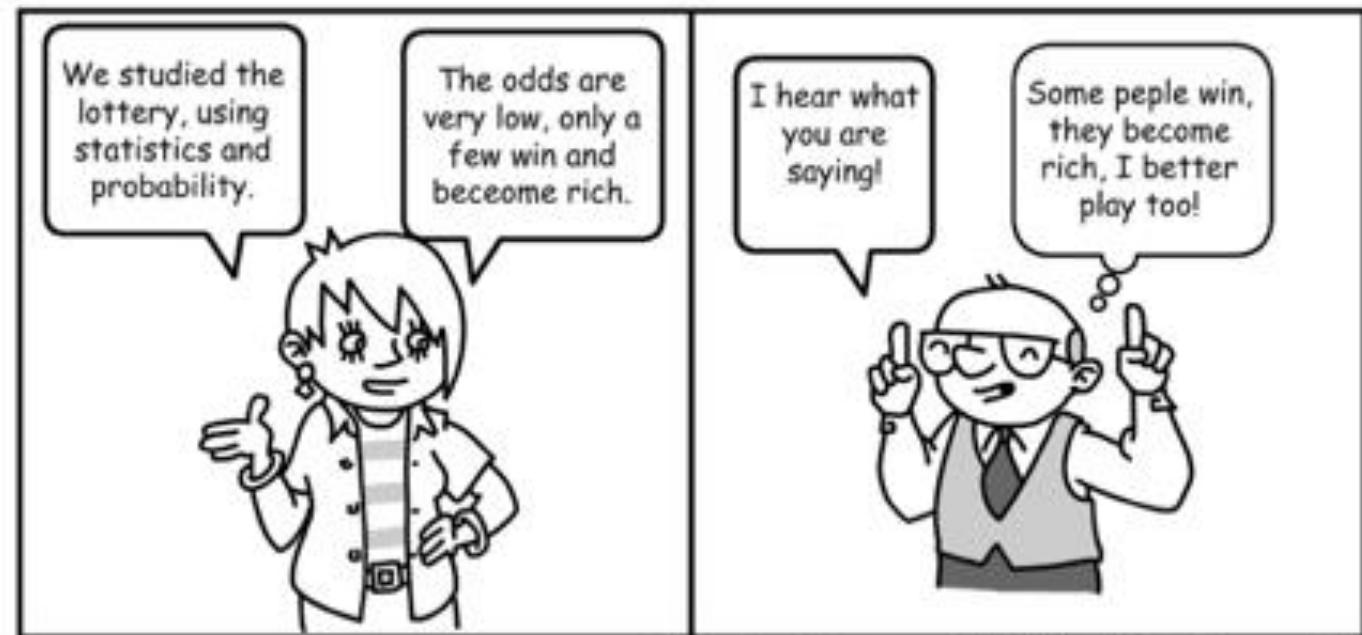
Identify any constraints or weaknesses in your analysis that might influence the results.

## 3. Is the analysis sufficient for decision-making?

Determine if the findings provide enough clear insight to support and inform future actions.

# Communicate the results

- Now it's time to communicate your findings
  - Documentation of statistics
  - Making presentations
  - Writing reports, manuscripts
- Extra skills needed at this stage
  - Writing
  - Presenting
  - Communication

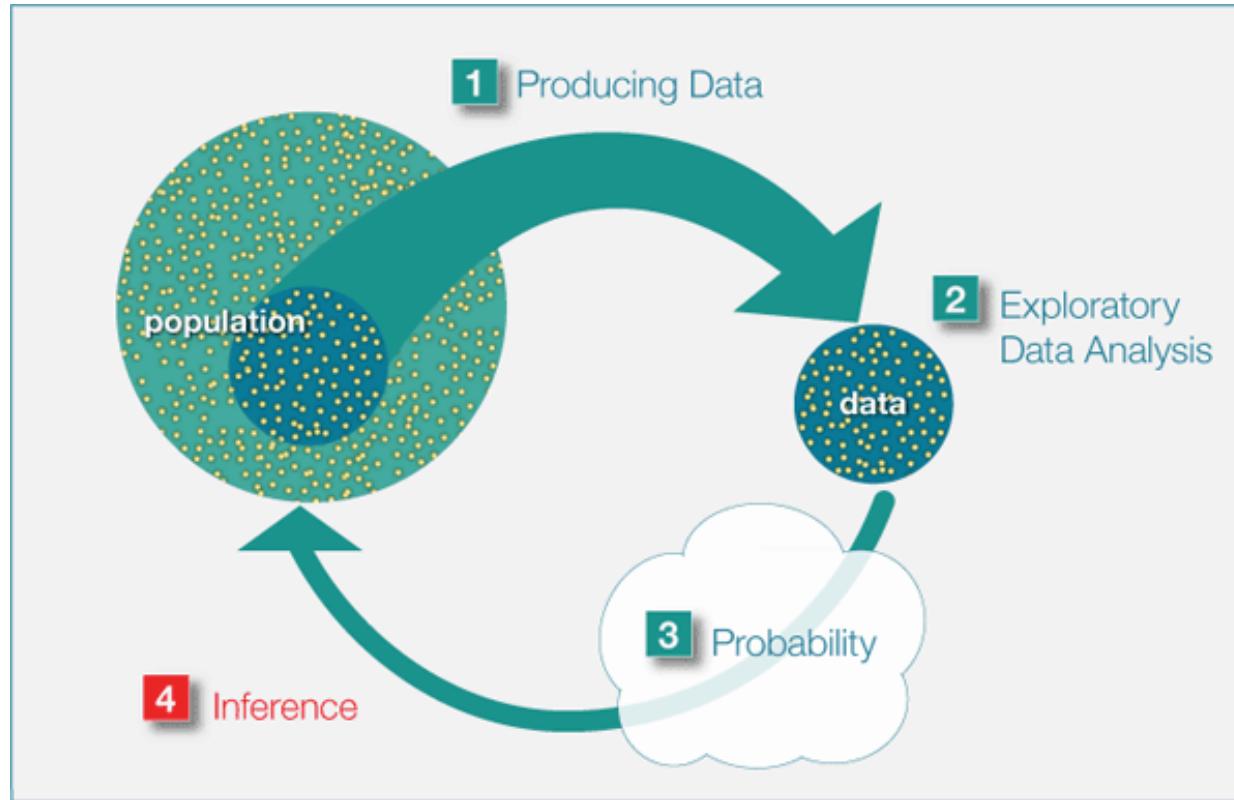


This comic strip was created at MakeBeliefsComix.com. Go there to make your own!



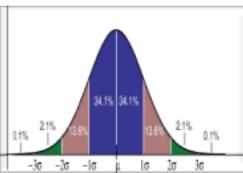
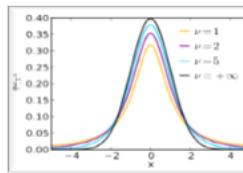
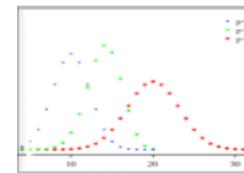
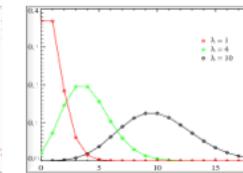
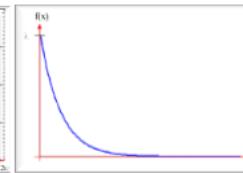
## Statistical Inference

# Aim and applications



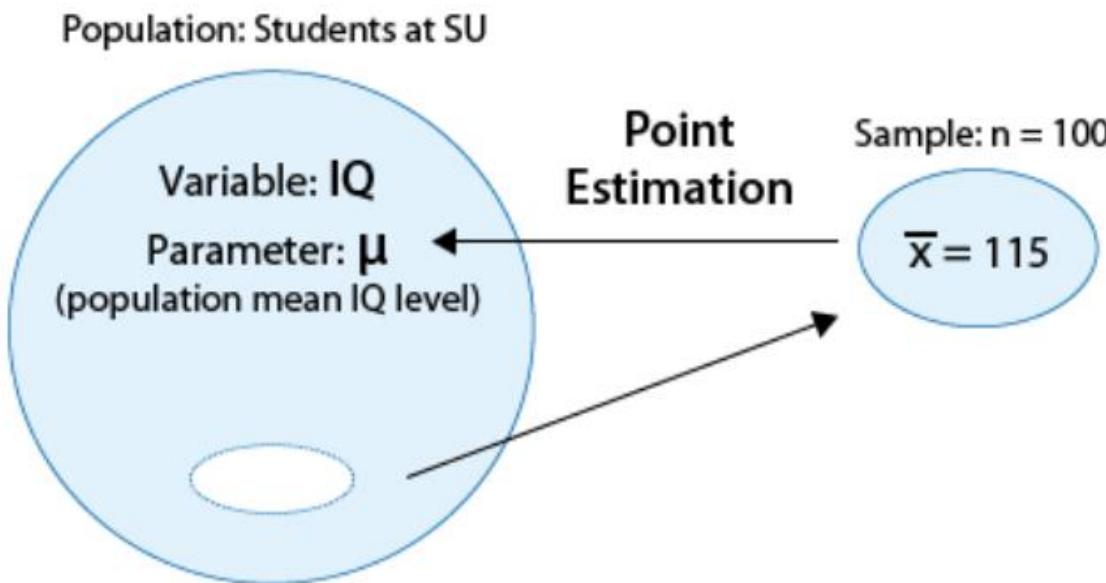
- Statistical inference: draw conclusions about a population based on the data obtained from a sample chosen from it.
  - Point Estimation
  - Interval estimation
  - Hypotheses testing

# Statistical inference is based on probability distributions

	Normal Distribution	Student's T-Distribution	Binomial Distribution	Poisson Distribution	Exponential Distribution
What does it look like?					
Defining Characteristics	Distinctive Bell Shape	Shorter, fatter than the normal distribution.	Two outcomes: Success/Failure	Various shapes, but valid only for integers on the x-axis.	Models Time Between Events
Example of When to Use It	Modeling natural phenomena (height, weight, IQ, test scores etc.)	When you have small samples or don't know the population variance ( $\sigma^2$ ).	Coin Toss Probability (Heads, Tails)	Gives probability of number of events in a fixed interval.	"How much time will go by before a major hurricane hits the Atlantic Seaboard?"
Example of DS Application	Least squares fitting or propagation of uncertainty.	Unknown $\sigma^2$ is common in real life data, you'll have to use the T instead of the normal in that case.	Anywhere where binary (yes/no, black/white, vote/don't vote) data is used.	Anywhere there is a waiting time between events.	Building continuous-time Markov chains.

- To fully understand the theory behind statistical inference you will need some concepts related to probability distributions.
  - If you haven't taken any course in statistical theory during your studies, I recommend you check this great [book](#) by Rosner (2010).

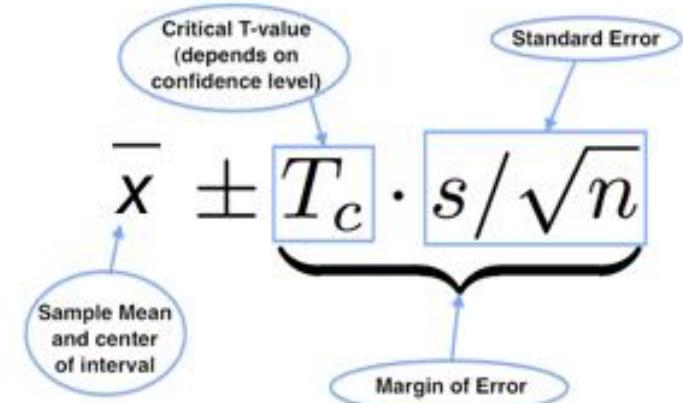
# Point Estimation



- In **point estimation**, we estimate an unknown parameter using a single number that is calculated from the sample data.
- Point estimates are totally unbiased estimates for the population parameter only if the sample is random and the study design is not flawed.

# Interval estimation

- In **interval estimation**, we estimate an unknown parameter using an interval of values that is likely to contain the true value of that parameter.
- For example: We are 95% confident that  $\mu$  for IQ in the previous sample is covered by the interval (112, 118).



# Statistical hypothesis testing

## Statistical hypothesis testing is defined as:

Assessing evidence provided by the data against the null hypothesis.

### Step 1

- ***Formulate the hypotheses:***
- $H_0$  – null and  $H_1$  - alternative

### Step 2

- Collect relevant data and summarize them.

### Step 3

- Test how likely it is to observe data we obtained, if null hypotheses is true. ***Compute test statistics***

### Step 4

- ***Compute p-value*** and make our decision.

# Hypotheses testing: Type I and II errors

- The probability of a **type I error** is the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when  $H_0$  is true. Is denoted by  $\alpha$  and is commonly referred to as the **significance level of a test**.

- The probability of a **type II error** is the probability of accepting the null hypothesis when  $H_1$  is true. Is denoted by  $\beta$  and is highly affected by the sample size.

- The power of a test is defined as  $1 - \beta$  or  $1 - \text{probability of a type II error} = P(\text{rejecting } H_0 | H_1 \text{ true})$

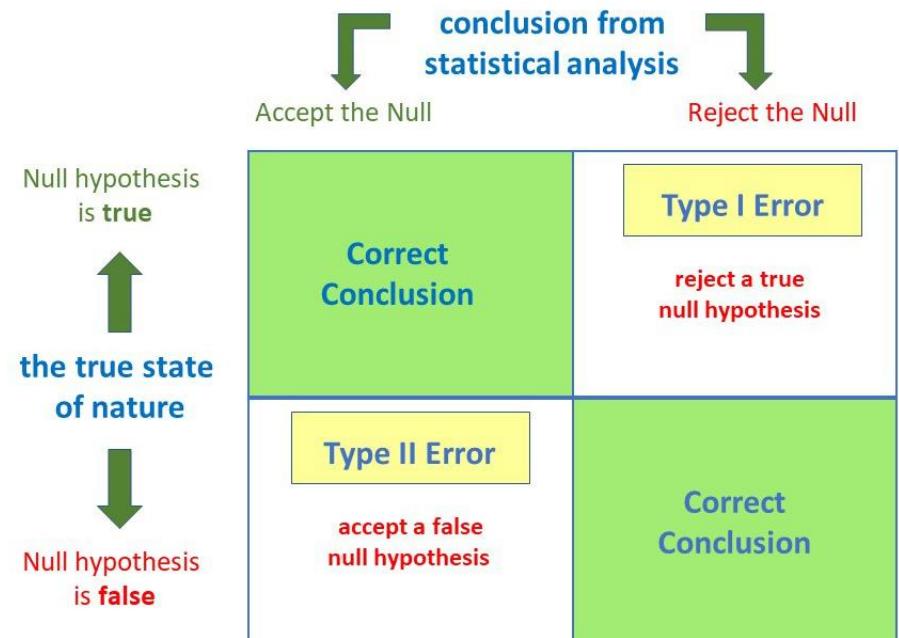
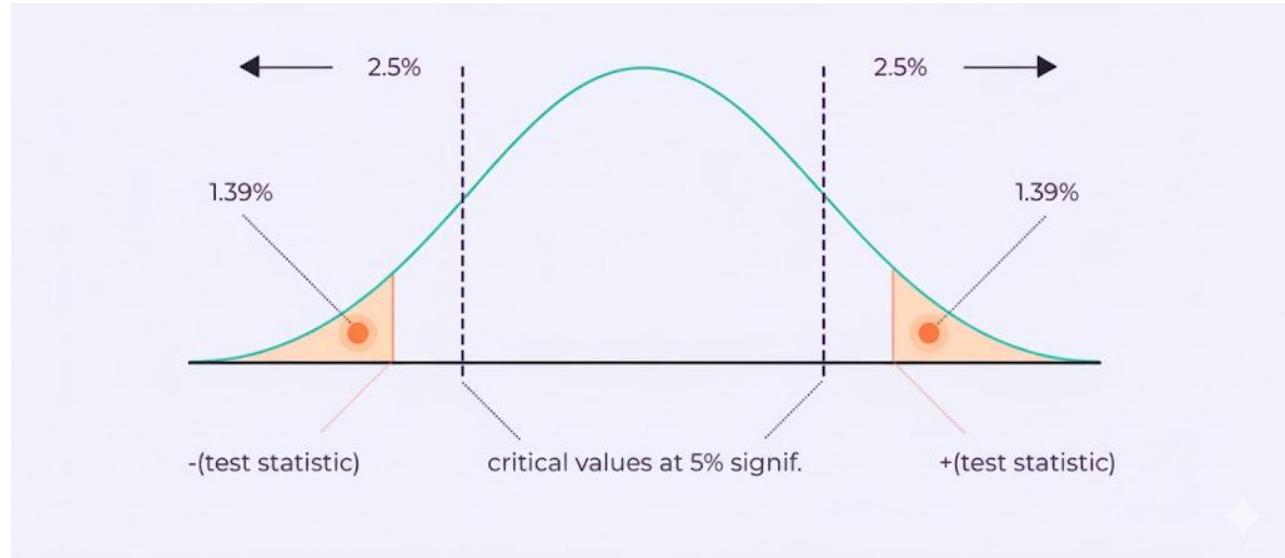


Image source: [simplypsychology.org](http://simplypsychology.org)

# P-value

- A p-value (probability value) in statistics measures the likelihood of observing your data (or more extreme data) if the null hypothesis (no real effect/difference) were true.

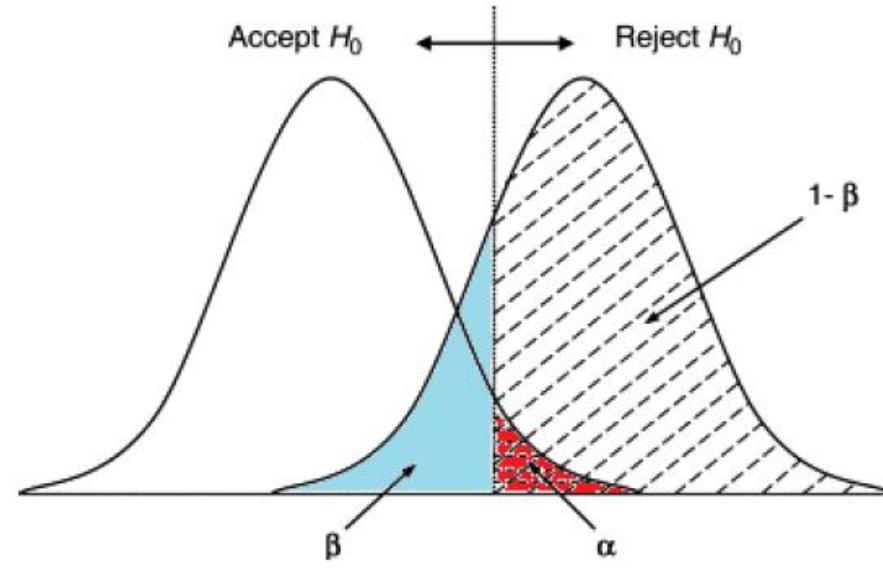


- A small p-value (e.g.,  $< 0.05$ ) suggests strong evidence against the null, implying the results aren't just random chance, while a large p-value means the data is consistent with the null hypothesis.

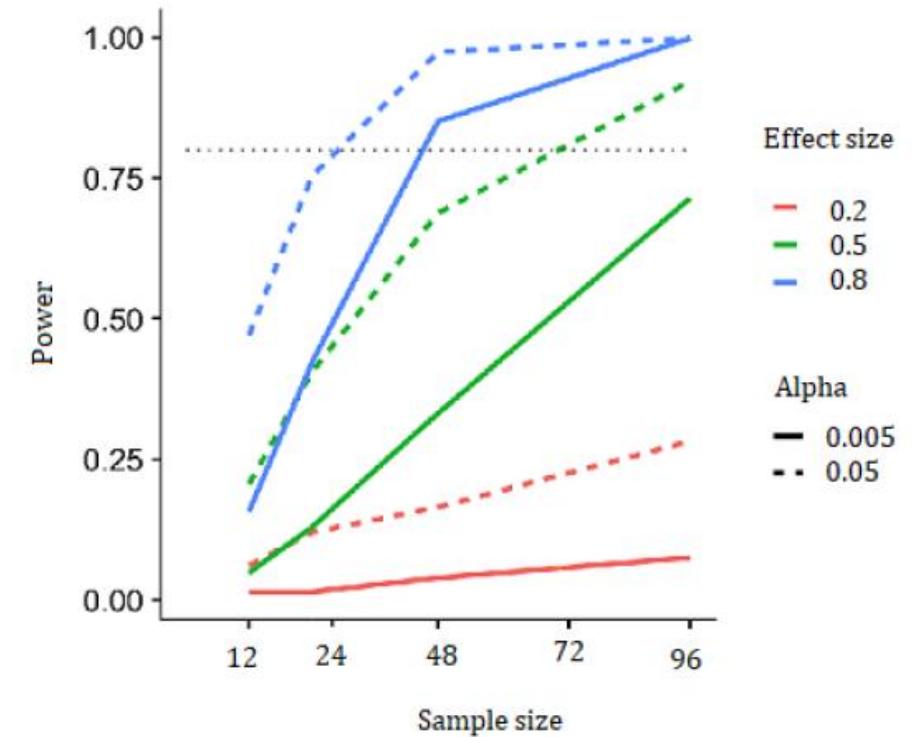
# Power and sample size calculation

How many subjects do we need?

A study with a small or large sample can be a waste of resources, and the truth will be hard to show.



$$\text{Power of the test} = 1 - \beta$$



# Power and sample size calculation

## Sample Size Calculator

[Home](#)[About](#)[Support](#)[☰ Standard tests](#)[Two-sample t-Test](#)[Paired t-Test](#)[Analysis of variance](#)[Wilcoxon Test](#)[Single proportion](#)[Chi-squared Test](#)[Fisher's exact Test](#)[McNemar's Test](#)

### Sample size for a two-sample t-test

#### Input and calculation

Mean difference Standard deviation Alpha two-sided Power [Calculate](#)

Press the Calculate button to calculate the sample size.

[Copy result statement to clipboard](#)

#### Options

Calculate

 Sample size Power (output decimal places: )

#### Specific options

 Unequal variances Calculate mean difference from group means

#### Advanced

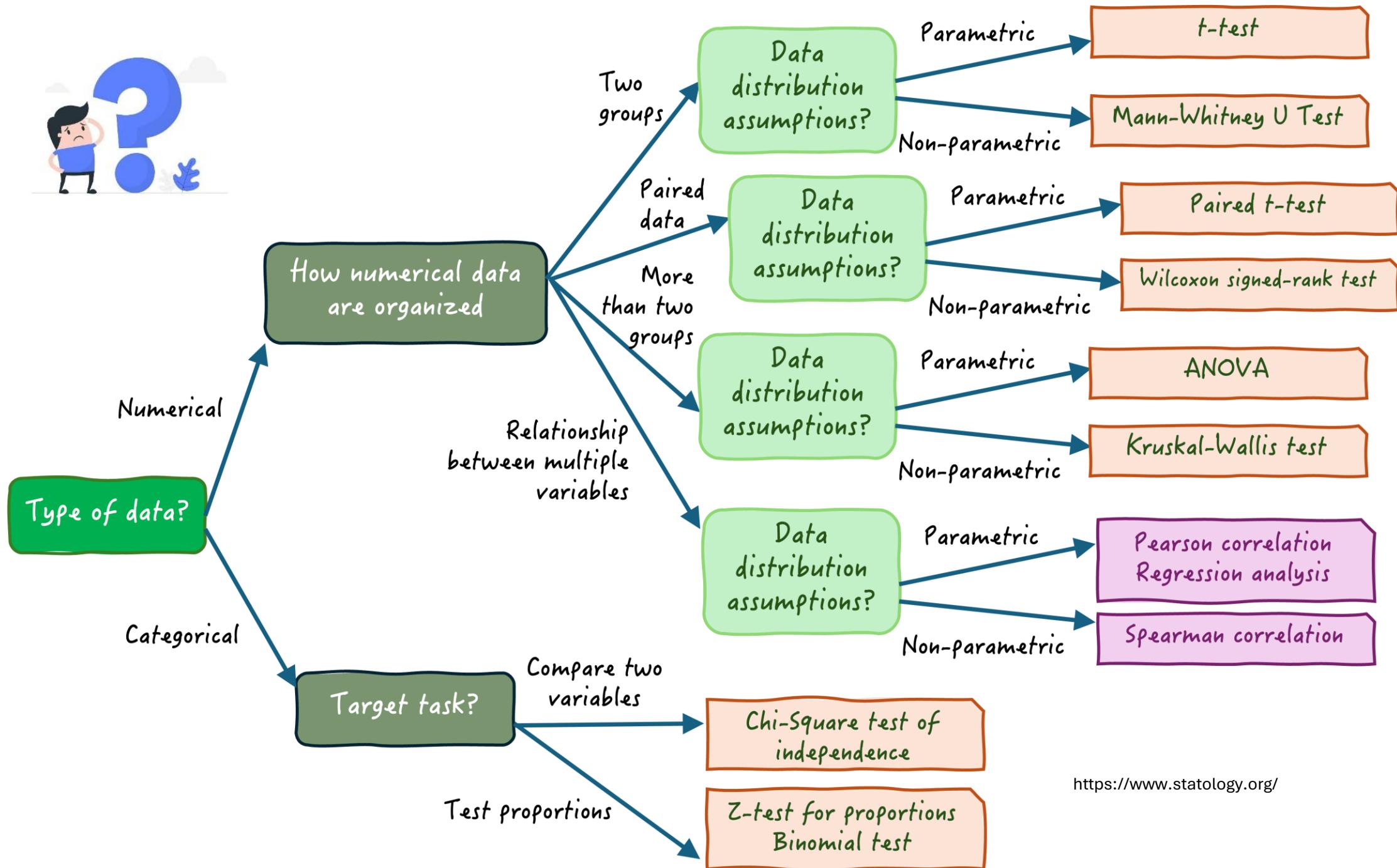
 Unequal sample sizes Account for drop-outs Bonferroni correction

# Software



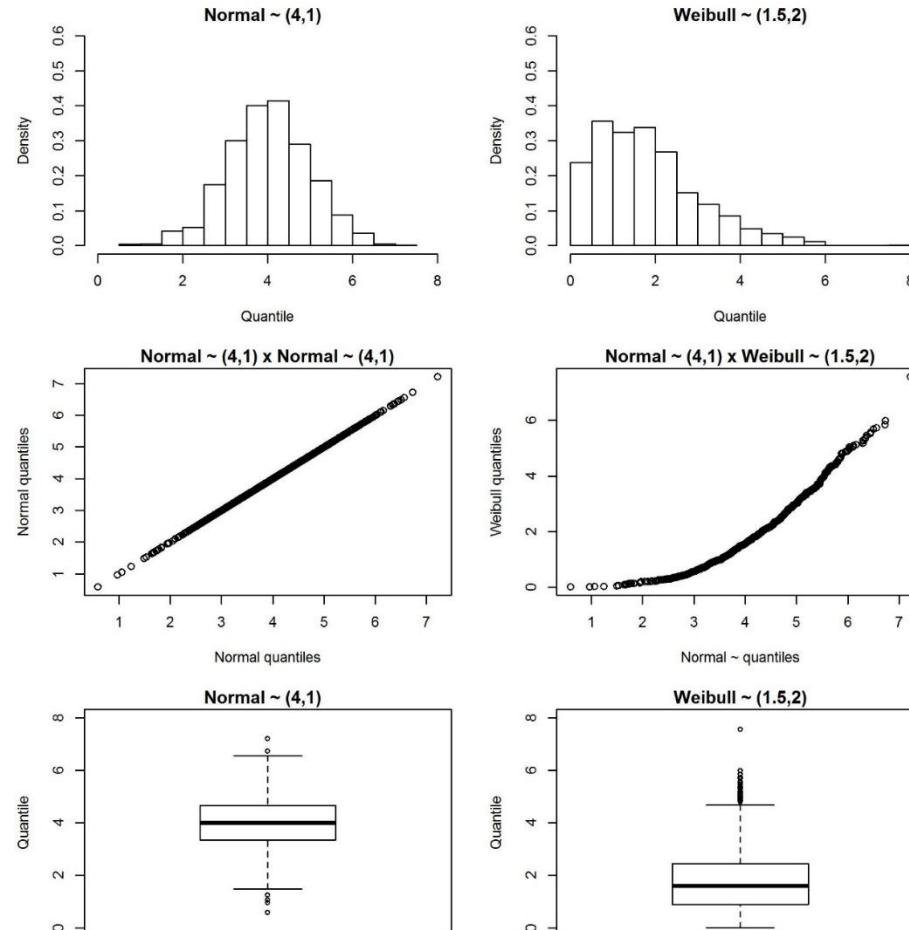
# Basic Statistical Tests

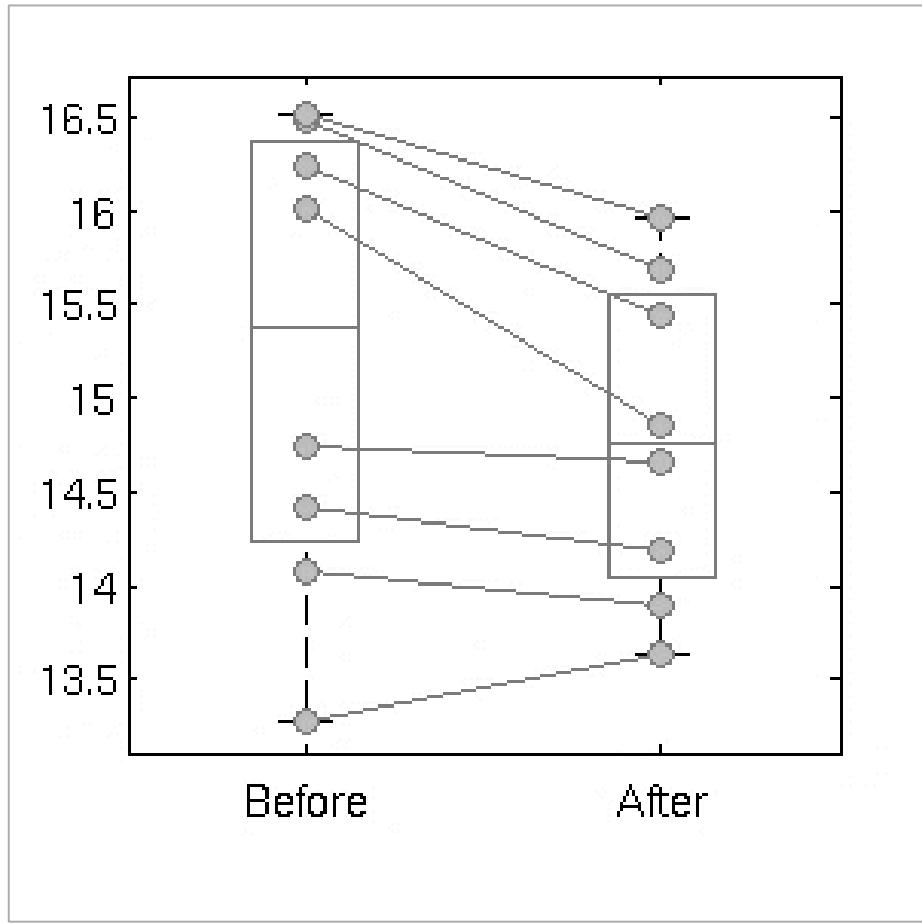
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# How to test for normality?

- Graphically
  - Histogram
  - QQ plots
  - Boxplot
- Formal tests
  - Kolmogorov Smirnov
  - Shapiro-Wilk





Two related samples



# Paired Samples t-test (Parametric)

- The paired t-test is used to test whether the mean of a dependent variable is the same in two related groups of the independent variable:

- Your dependent variable should be continuous.
- Your independent variable should consist of two categorical, related groups.
- The differences between pairs should be normally distributed

## 1. Hypotheses

$$H_0: \Delta = 0 \text{ vs. } H_1: \Delta \neq 0$$

## 2. Test statistics

$$t = \frac{\bar{d}}{s_d/\sqrt{n}}$$

- Has a  $t_{(n-1)}$  distribution

## 3. Decision

P-value < 0.05 reject  $H_0$

# Wilcoxon signed rank test (nonparametric)



## 1. Hypothesis

$H_0$ : difference between the pairs follows a symmetric distribution around zero.

$H_1$ : difference between the pairs does not follow a symmetric distribution around zero.

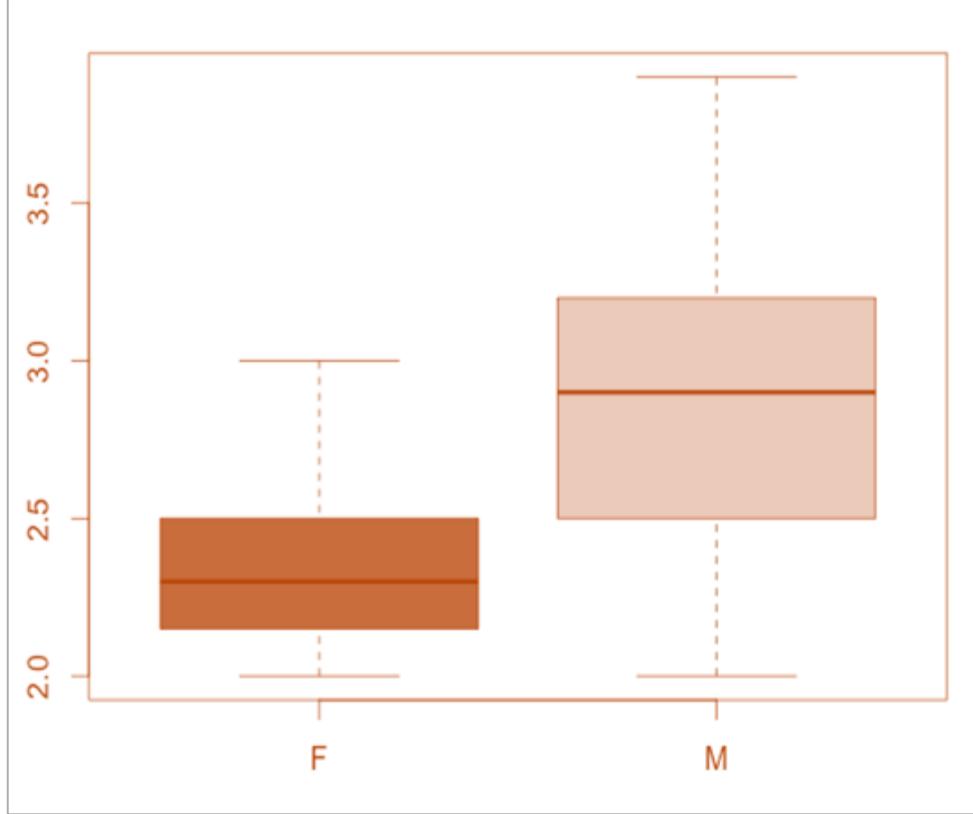
## 2. Compute the test statistics (in R)

$$W = \sum_{i=1}^{N_r} [\text{sgn}(x_{2,i} - x_{1,i}) \cdot R_i]$$

## 3. Decision based on p-value

If  $p < 0.05$  reject  $H_0$

If the difference is not symmetric around zero then there is difference between groups.



Two independent  
samples

# Independent Samples t-test (parametric)

- The independent-samples t-test compares the means between two unrelated groups on the same continuous, dependent variable.

## 1. Hypotheses

$$H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 \text{ vs. } H_1: \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$$

## 2. Test statistics

$$t = \frac{\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2}{s \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}}} \sim t_{(n_1+n_2-2)}$$

where  $s = \sqrt{[(n_1-1)s_1^2 + (n_2-1)s_2^2]/(n_1+n_2-2)}$

## ▪ Assumptions

- Your dependent variable should be measured on a continuous scale.
  - Your independent variable should consist of two categorical, independent groups (i.e., gender).
  - There should be no significant outliers.
  - Your dependent variable should be approximately normally distributed for each group of the independent variable.
  - Test the homogeneity of variances with Levene test.
3. P-value < 0.05 reject  $H_0$

# Independent Samples t-test: Unequal variances

## 1. Hypotheses

$H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$  vs.  $H_1: \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$ .

## 2. Test statistics

$$t = \frac{\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2}{\sqrt{\frac{s_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{n_2}}} \sim t_{(d')} \text{ distribution}$$

Compute the approximate degrees of freedom  $d'$ , where

$$d' = \frac{\left(\frac{s_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{n_2}\right)^2}{\left(\frac{s_1^2}{n_1}\right)^2/(n_1-1) + \left(\frac{s_2^2}{n_2}\right)^2/(n_2-1)}$$

## 3. Decision

P-value < 0.05 reject  $H_0$

- The populations means are significantly different from each other.

# Mann Whitney U test

## 1. Hypothesis

$H_0$ : the distributions of both populations are equal

$H_1$ : the distributions are not equal

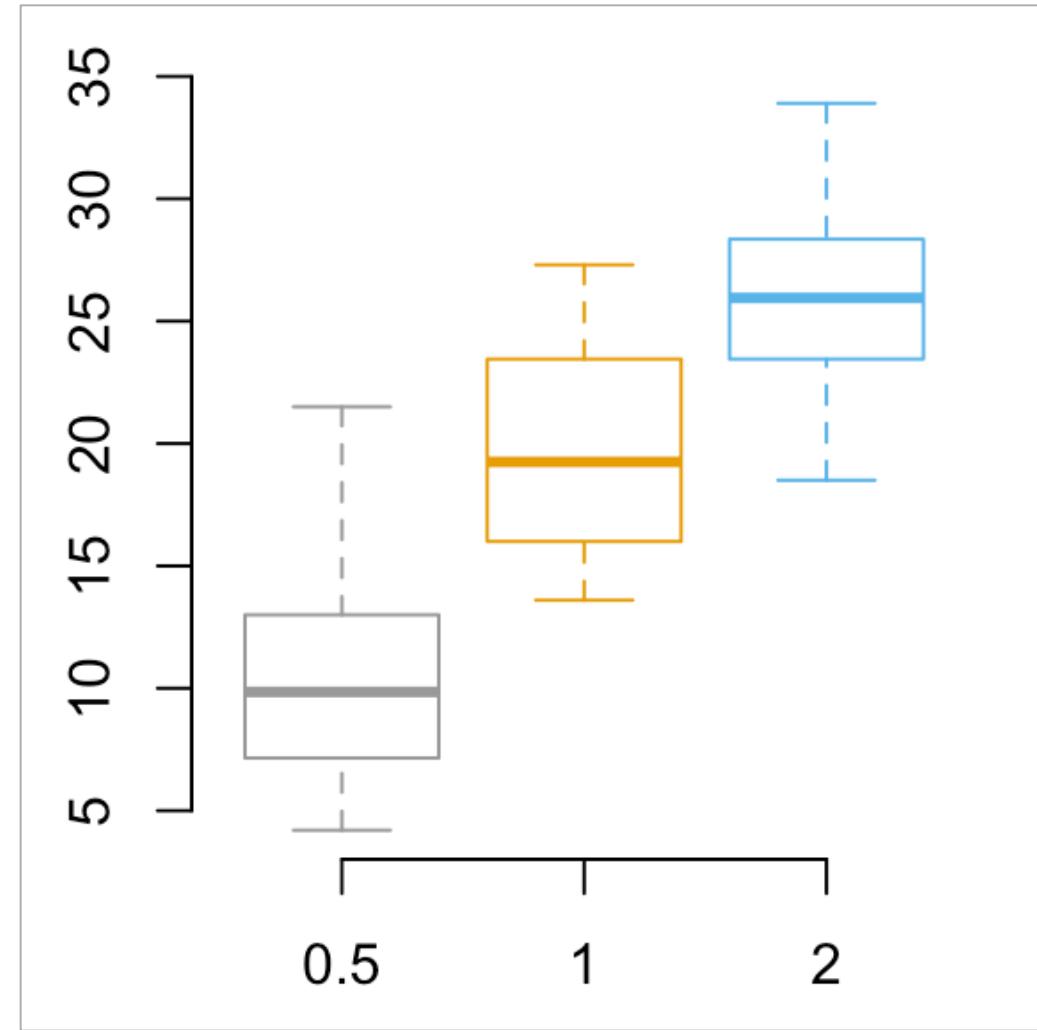
## 3. Decision based on p-value

If  $p < 0.05$  reject the null hypothesis ( $H_0$ )

## 2. Compute the test statistics (in R)

$$U = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m S(X_i, Y_j),$$

Two or more independent samples



# One-way ANOVA (parametric)

- The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used to determine whether there are any statistically significant differences between the means of two or more independent (unrelated) groups.

## ■ Assumptions

1. Your dependent variable should be measured on a continuous scale.
2. Your independent variable should consist of two or more categorical, independent groups.
3. There should be no significant outliers.
4. Your dependent variable should be approximately normally distributed for each group of the independent variable.
5. There is need to test homogeneity of variances.

# One-way ANOVA (parametric)

## 1. Hypotheses

$$H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \dots = \mu_a$$

$H_1$ : At least two means are different

## 2. Test statistics

$$F = s_b^2 / s_w^2$$

$\sim F_{(a-1; n-a)}$  distribution

## 3. Decision

- p-value > 0.05 accept  $H_0$

Means are statistically equal.

- p-value < 0.05

We can reject  $H_0$ , that all the means are equal, and can conclude that at least two of the means are significantly different. These results are displayed in an ANOVA table.

# Kruskal-Wallis test



## 1. Hypothesis

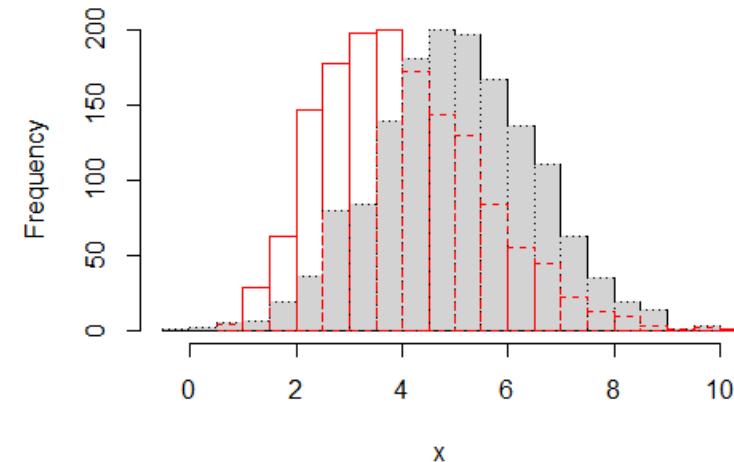
$H_0$ : the medians of all groups are equal, and

$H_1$ : at least one population median of one group is different from the population median of at least one other group.

## 2. Compute the test statistics (in R)

$$H = (N - 1) \frac{\sum_{i=1}^g n_i (\bar{r}_{i\cdot} - \bar{r})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^g \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (r_{ij} - \bar{r})^2},$$

Under the assumption of an identically shaped and scaled distribution for all groups.



## 3. Decision based on p-value

If  $p < 0.05$  reject the null hypothesis ( $H_0$ )

# Chi-square test for independence



- The chi-square test for independence, also called Pearson's chi-square test or the chi-square test of association, is used to discover if there is a relationship between two categorical variables.

## 1. Hypotheses

$H_0$ : Variables are independent

$H_1$ : Variables are related

## 2. Test statistics

$$X^2 = (O_{11} - E_{11})^2 / E_{11} + (O_{12} - E_{12})^2 / E_{12} + \dots + (O_{RC} - E_{RC})^2 / E_{RC}$$

-  $\chi^2_{(R-1)(C-1)}$  distribution

## ▪ Assumptions

- Your two variables should be measured at a nominal level (i.e., categorical data).
- Your two variables should consist of two or more categorical, independent groups.
- The expected counts should be larger than 5 in more than 75% of cases.

## 3. Decision

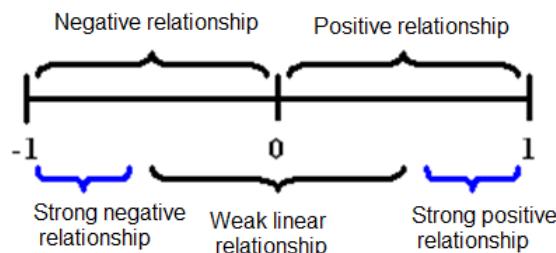
P-value < 0.05 reject  $H_0$

- Variables are related.

# Pearson Correlation

- The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (Pearson's correlation, for short) is a measure of the strength and direction of association that exists between two variables measured on at least an interval scale.

$$r = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{s_x} \right) \left( \frac{y_i - \bar{y}}{s_y} \right)$$



Cohen (1988):

$|r| < 0.3$  Weak

$0.3 \leq |r| < 0.5$  Medium

$|r| \geq 0.5$  Strong

## ▪ Assumptions

- Your two variables should be measured at the interval or ratio level (i.e., they are continuous).
- There is a linear relationship between your two variables. You can check by creating a scatterplot.
- There should be no significant outliers.
- Your variables should be approximately normally distributed

# Spearman Correlation (nonparametric)



1. When normality assumption is violated use Spearman correlation.
2. Compute the Spearman correlation coefficient and p-value in R.
3. Decision based on p-value  
If  $p < 0.05$  reject the null hypothesis ( $H_0$ )  
There is an association between variables.

$$rho = \frac{\sum(x' - m_{x'})(y'_i - m_{y'})}{\sqrt{\sum(x' - m_{x'})^2 \sum(y' - m_{y'})^2}}$$

Where  $x' = rank(x)$  and  $y' = rank(y)$ .

# R application



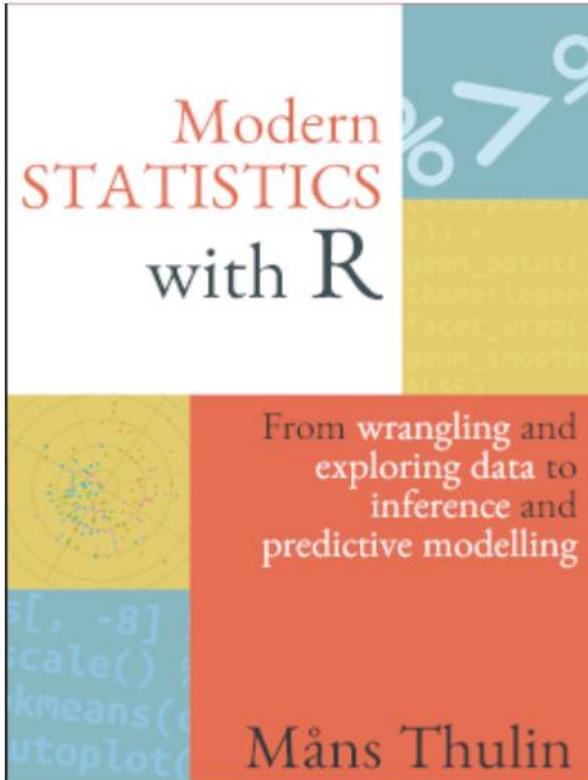
Check R Notebooks:

Parametric tests

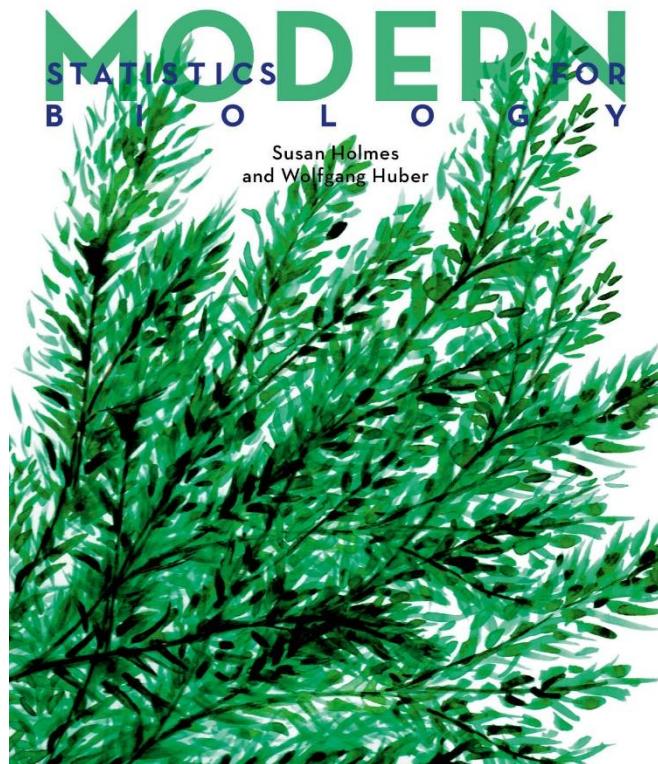
Nonparametric tests

# Recommended books

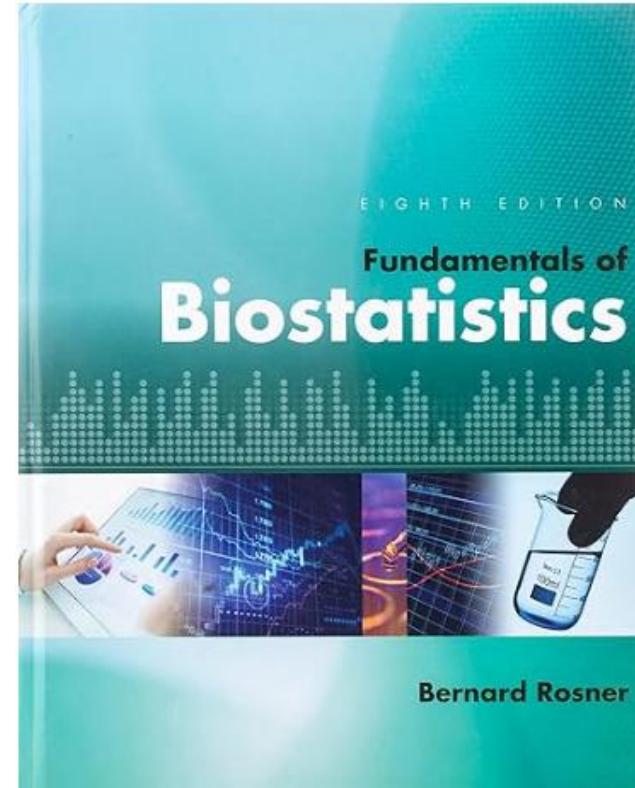
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<https://www.modernstatisticswithr.com/>



<https://web.stanford.edu/class/bios221/book/00-chap.html>



# References/Useful links

1. Rosner, Bernard. Fundamentals Of Biostatistics. Cengage Learning, 2011.
2. Pezzullo, John. Biostatistics For Dummies. Wiley, 2013.
3. Kloke, J., & McKean, J.W. (2014). Nonparametric Statistical Methods Using R (1st ed.). Chapman and Hall/CRC. <https://doi.org/10.1201/b17501>
4. <http://www.biostathandbook.com/HandbookBioStatThird.pdf>