# Sullivan Section 3.2 

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## Measures of Dispersion

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Central tendency measures tell only part of the story. Usually, we also need to know how data values "spread out" or disperse around an average. Measures of this characteristic of data are known as measures of dispersion

## Measures of Dispersion

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Measures of dispersion give an indication of how precise or how reliable an average is.

Stating an average by itself is much less useful than stating an average together with some measure of its reliability.

## The Range

The simplest measure of dispersion is the range.

Definition: The range $\mathbf{R}$ of a variable is the difference between the largest data value and the smallest:

Range $=R=$ Largest data value - Smallest data value

## The Range

## Example:

If we measured the weights of a group of people and obtained the following data,

$$
146,185,157,225,120,190,216
$$

The Range $R$ would be:
Range $=R=$ Largest data value - Smallest data value

$$
=225-120=105
$$

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Since we have two kinds of means, the population mean $\mu$ and the sample mean $\bar{x}$, we also have two kinds of deviations about the mean.

## Deviation About the Mean

For the deviation of the $i^{\text {th }}$ data value about the population mean, we compute

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in either case, the average deviation about the appropriate mean would seem to be the natural choice.

Unfortunately, there is a problem with this approach.
In both cases, the average deviation about the mean is always zero, because of the way that the means are calculated:

Deviations can be positive or negative, and the positive and negative deviations cancel each other out.

## Deviation About the Mean

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This technique used in a measure of dispersion called the variance.

As with means, we will need to define two variances: a population variance and a sample variance.

## The Population Variance

## Definition:

The population variance of a variable, denoted by the symbol $\sigma^{2}$, is the sum of the squared deviations from the population mean, taken over the entire population:

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\sigma^{2}=\frac{\left(x_{1}-\mu\right)^{2}+\left(x_{2}-\mu\right)^{2}+\cdots+\left(x_{N}-\mu\right)^{2}}{N}
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In this formula, $\mu$ is the population mean, and $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{N}$ are the $N$ observations in the population.

## The Sample Variance

## Definition:

The sample variance of a variable, denoted by the symbol $s^{2}$, is the sum of the squared deviations from the sample mean, taken over the sample:

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s^{2}=\frac{\left(x_{1}-\bar{x}\right)^{2}+\left(x_{2}-\bar{x}\right)^{2}+\cdots+\left(x_{n}-\bar{x}\right)^{2}}{n-1}
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In this formula, $\bar{x}$ is the sample mean, and $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}$ are the $n$ observations in the population.

## The Sample Variance

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It can be shown mathematically that if we use $n-1$, the sample variance will be free of bias as an estimator of the population variance.

We say that an estimator has no bias, or is unbiased, if it has no tendency to either consistently overestimate or consistently underestimate the population variance.

## The Sample Variance

If we used $n$ as the divisor in computing $s^{2}$, we would obtain a biased estimate of the population variance $\sigma^{2}\left(s^{2}\right.$ would consistently underestimate $\sigma^{2}$ ). The value $n-1$ in the sample variance is referred to as the number of degrees of freedom

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Again, the reason for this is not obvious.
This term originates from the fact that, if we have $n$ numbers and their mean, one of the numbers is superfluous.

That is, if I know the sample mean and $n-1$ of the $n$ sample values, I can always figure out what the $n^{\text {th }}$ sample value is.

Another way to say this is that, once I have $n-1$ data values and the mean, I have no freedom in the choice of the $n^{\text {th }}$ data value.

## The Standard Deviation

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The sample standard deviation, denoted by $s$, is the square root of the sample variance:

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## The Standard Deviation

The standard deviation is a measure of dispersion in the sense that, the larger the standard deviation, the more the data values are dispersed around the mean.

## The Empirical Rule

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Approximately 95 percent of the data will lie within 2 standard deviations of the population mean (that is, between $\mu-2 \sigma$ and $\mu+2 \sigma$ ).

Approximately 99.7 percent of the data will lie within 3 standard deviations of the population mean (that is, between $\mu-3 \sigma$ and $\mu+3 \sigma$ ).

## Percentiles

We defined the median $M$ of a measure for a population or a sample to be the value for which $50 \%$ of the population or sample have a lower value than $M$, and $50 \%$ have a higher value than $M$.

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We say $P_{90}$ is the $90^{\text {th }}$ percentile of a measure for a population if $90 \%$ of the individuals in the population have a value of $P_{90}$ or less.

The median $M$ is the same as the $50^{\text {th }}$ percentile, $P_{50}$.

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The $50^{\text {th }}$ percentile $P_{50}$ is called the second quartile $Q_{1}$. (and is also the median $M$ )

The $75^{\text {th }}$ percentile $P_{75}$ is called the third quartile $Q_{3}$.

## Interquartile Range

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