# MS-A0503 First course in probability and statistics

## 4B Confidence intervals

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## Example. Coffee machine

**Background:** A coffee machine seems to serve random amounts. **Question:** How much does it serve on average? **Study:** 25 cups of coffee were taken and their volumes measured.

 $\begin{array}{l} \text{Data} = \text{observed volumes (centiliters):} \\ \vec{x} = (10.17, 11.23, 9.59, 8.94, 10.14, 9.66, 10.22, 9.59, 11.11, 9.94, 9.76, 9.92, 10.43, \\ 10.05, 9.19, 10, 10.38, 10.02, 10.37, 9.93, 9.97, 10.24, 10.50, 9.38, 9.98) \end{array}$ 

Average of these volumes  $m(\vec{x}) = 10.0284$ . (This we know exactly – assuming no measurement error.)

**Question:** Can we claim that the "true" average  $\mu$  is near 10.0284? How near? How strongly can we claim this?

"True" average means the mean of that distribution from which the coffee volumes are drawn, randomly, whenever making a cup.

Why? Because the "true" average helps us understand what happens generally or <u>in the future</u>.

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#### Data source and stochastic model

Confidence interval for  $\mu$  (in normal model)

Confidence interval for  $\mu$  (general model)

Confidence interval for *p* (in binary model)

## Data and stochastic model

#### Data set

From a data source, we have <u>observed</u> values  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ . These we know. We want to infer where they came from.

#### Stochastic model

The <u>possible</u> values of data (that we might obtain when the data source generates *n* units) are modelled as random variables  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$ , which are independent, and each  $X_i$  has the <u>same</u> probability distribution f(x).

Even if we do not know the distribution f(x), we think it "is" there and generates the data.

## Modelling a "real" data source by a stochastic model

A stochastic model is a <u>mathematical simplification</u> of how the data source "really" works.

- The model may have parameters. If you fix their values, you get a probability distribution, such as Bin(10, 0.5). Some of the parameters may be known and some unknown.
- A good model is reasonably <u>accurate</u> in telling what values can be generated, and with what probabilities.
- But a good model is also <u>simple</u> enough so that it is possible to calculate with it.
- Typically, we assume we can obtain <u>many</u> numbers from the data source, and that they are <u>independent</u>. (If not, we need a more complicated model.)

## Examples – Observe mathematical similarity

#### Example (Coffee machine)

We assume that whenever the machine fills a cup, the volume is a random variable from an unknown distribution whose mean is  $\mu$ . The distribution is meant to model the results of the physical process in the coffee machine (determined by machine design, settings, and random details that we cannot predict exactly).

#### Example (Sampling from a population)

There are *n* Finns, and exactly *k* of them (proportion p = k/n) support building more nuclear power plants. For practical reasons we pick a <u>random</u> Finn. Then his/her support for nuclear power is modeled by an indicator variable  $X_1 \sim \text{Ber}(p)$ . The parameter *p* is a constant, but we do not know its value. We may also pick more of these random Finns  $X_2, X_3, \ldots$  Lowercase and uppercase (one convention)

Data set  $\vec{\mathbf{x}} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ 

- Contains the values that we observed/measured
- To obtain them, we need no stochastic modelling!
- Eg.  $(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (10.17, 11.23, 9.59)$ , from measuring the first 3 coffee servings.

Stochastic model  $\vec{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$ 

- Contains random variables, following the distribution (stochastic model) by which we try to predict what the data source can generate
- To obtain this, we need no measurement data!
- Eg.  $(X_1, X_2, X_3)$ , three independent normally distributed random variables, with mean 10 and standard deviation 5

## Statistics of data sets and stochastic models

Recall the "descriptive" statistics from lecture 3B. A statistic is a function  $g : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ . fi: tunnusluku (Idea: "a rule that converts *n* observations into one number")

Example (Some well-known statistics)

- Average  $m(\vec{x}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$
- Variance  $\operatorname{var}(\vec{x}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i m(\vec{x}))^2$
- Standard deviation  $sd(\vec{x}) = \sqrt{var(\vec{x})}$

If you apply such function to the random vector  $\vec{X} = (X_1, \ldots, X_n)$ , then you have a random number  $g(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$ . This is a transformation of a random variable (recall some lectures back).

If the  $X_i$  follow a stochastic model, then the laws of probability give you the distribution of  $g(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$ .

#### Average from a stochastic model

If data are coming from a stochastic model  $\vec{X} = (X_1, \ldots, X_n)$  (note the randomness), such that each  $X_i$  has mean  $\mu$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$ , then ...

... the average  $m(\vec{X})$  is a random variable such that

$$\mathbb{E}[m(\vec{X})] = \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}X_{i}\right] = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\mathbb{E}[X_{i}] = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\mu = \mu$$
$$SD[m(\vec{X})] = SD\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}X_{i}\right] = \frac{1}{n}SD\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n}X_{i}\right] = \frac{1}{n}\sigma\sqrt{n} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}.$$

It seems that perhaps  $m(\vec{X})$  is a good way to estimate  $\mu$ .

## Error of an estimate, and its distribution

Stochastic model:  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  independent random numbers with mean  $\mu$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$ .

Suppose that we are using  $m(\vec{X})$  as an estimator for  $\mu$ . What is the error of the estimate? How is it distributed?

We already know  $\mathbb{E}[m(\vec{X})] = \mu$  and  $SD[m(\vec{X})] = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ .

Then by linearity, the error  $m(\vec{X}) - \mu$  has mean zero and standard deviation as above.

Let us go one step further. Divide the error by its standard deviation, to get standardized error

$$rac{m(ec{X})-\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}.$$

By linearity, this quantity has mean=0 and standard deviation = 1.

Why is this useful? We might be able to calculate <u>probabilities</u> for the (standardized) error being small or large.

#### What about estimating other parameters than $\mu$ ?

From data, one can calculate several different statistics (by different functions).

For example, if each data point  $X_i$  comes from some distribution f, then what is ...

- the distribution of  $\max\{X_1, \ldots, X_n\}$  ?
- the distribution of  $sd\{X_1,\ldots,X_n\}$  ?

If we want to estimate the "true" standard deviation  $SD(X_i)$  by the observed statistic  $sd(\vec{x})$ , we need to understand how the statistic is distributed  $\rightarrow$  We need more tools from stochastics (e.g. MS-C1620).

But on this lecture we concentrate in one statistic (sample average), used to estimate one parameter (true mean).

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Data source and stochastic model

#### Confidence interval for $\mu$ (in normal model)

Confidence interval for  $\mu$  (general model)

Confidence interval for *p* (in binary model)

The coffee machine is meant to serve 10.0 cl in each cup, on average. We measured the coffee volumes in 25 cups.

Observed volumes (cl):  $\vec{x} = (10.17, 11.23, 9.59, 8.94, 10.14, 9.66, 10.22, 9.59, 11.11, 9.94, 9.76, 9.92, 10.43, 10.05, 9.19, 10, 10.38, 10.02, 10.37, 9.93, 9.97, 10.24, 10.5, 9.38, 9.98)$ 

Observed average is  $m(\vec{x}) = 10.03$ . Let us try to calculate an interval that (hopefully) contains the true  $\mu$ .

#### Point estimates and interval estimates

Let the unknown parameter be  $\theta$ .

A point estimate for  $\theta$  is some <u>number</u>  $\hat{\theta}$  that is hopefully <u>near</u> the correct value:  $\hat{\theta} \approx \theta$ .

An interval estimate for  $\theta$  is some interval [a, b] that hopefully contains the correct value:  $[a, b] \ni \theta$ .

"Hopefully" and "near" must be defined somehow mathematically (there are different possibilities for this).

- On this lecture, we work with confidence intervals
- Next week another kind: Bayesian credible intervals Both are interval estimates.

# Point estimate for $\mu$ (normal model with known $\sigma$ )

 $\vec{x} = (10.17, 11.23, 9.59, 8.94, 10.14, 9.66, 10.22, 9.59, 11.11, 9.94, 9.76, 9.92, 10.43, 10.05, 9.19, 10, 10.38, 10.02, 10.37, 9.93, 9.97, 10.24, 10.5, 9.38, 9.98)$ 

Stochastic model:  $X_1, \ldots, X_{25}$  independent and normally distributed with mean  $\mu$  and known standard deviation  $\sigma = 0.5$ 

Task: Estimate the parameter  $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ 

Likelihood function

$$f(x_1,...,x_n | \mu, \sigma) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x_i-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

 $\implies$  The maximum-likelihood estimate for  $\mu$  is

$$m(\vec{x}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = 10.03$$

This is a point estimate, but how accurate?

## Averages from normal model

Normal model:  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  independent, normally distributed with mean  $\mu$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$ 

By linearity of expectation, we know: The "standardized" error

$$\frac{m(\vec{X}) - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}$$

has mean 0 and standard deviation 1.

Furthermore, because

- sum of independent normally dist. numbers is also normal, and
- shifted and scaled normal distribution is also normal,

the standardized error follows the standard normal distribution N(0, 1).

## Confidence interval for $\mu$ (normal model, known $\sigma$ )

 $\vec{x} = (10.17, 11.23, 9.59, 8.94, 10.14, 9.66, 10.22, 9.59, 11.11, 9.94, 9.76, 9.92, 10.43, 10.05, 9.19, 10, 10.38, 10.02, 10.37, 9.93, 9.97, 10.24, 10.5, 9.38, 9.98)$ 

Stochastic model:  $X_1, \ldots, X_{25}$  independent and normal with mean  $\mu$  and standard deviation  $\sigma = 0.5$ 

$$\mathbb{P}(|m(\vec{X})-\mu|\leq 0.2) = \mathbb{P}\left(\left|\frac{m(\vec{X})-\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\right|\leq \frac{0.2}{0.5/\sqrt{25}}\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(|Z|\leq 2\right) \approx 95\%.$$

Thus, we have relatively high probability (95%) that

$$\mu \in [m(\vec{X}) - 0.2, m(\vec{X}) + 0.2]$$

From the observed data  $\vec{x}$  we can calculate, for  $\mu$ ,

- a point estimate  $m(\vec{x}) = 10.03$
- a confidence interval  $m(\vec{x}) \pm 0.2 = [9.83, 10.23]$

Can we now say that [9.83, 10.23] contains  $\mu$  with probability 95%? Not quite. . .

#### Meaning of the confidence interval

 $\vec{x} = (10.17, 11.23, 9.59, 8.94, 10.14, 9.66, 10.22, 9.59, 11.11, 9.94, 9.76, 9.92, 10.43, 10.05, 9.19, 10, 10.38, 10.02, 10.37, 9.93, 9.97, 10.24, 10.5, 9.38, 9.98)$ 

The interval

$$m(\vec{x}) \pm 0.2 = [9.83, 10.23]$$

is the confidence interval for  $\mu,$  at confidence level 95%

From the stochastic model  $\vec{X}$ , we can get different actual data values; from different data, we will compute different confidence intervals.

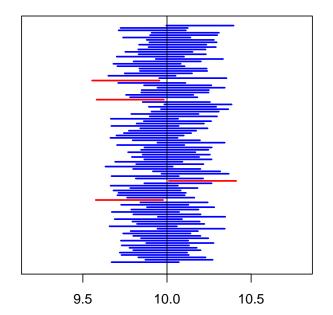
We have 95% probability for the event that our confidence interval will contain the  $\mu:$ 

$$\mathbb{P}(\mu \in [m(\vec{X}) - 0.2, m(\vec{X}) + 0.2]) = 95\%.$$

If you calculate  $\underline{many}$  confidence intervals from data that come from such data sources, then you know that

- 95% of your confidence intervals will contain the unknown  $\mu$  (but you do not know which ones)
- 5% of your confidence intervals will not contain the unknown  $\mu$  (again you do not know which ones)

Confidence intervals, normal model ( $\mu = 10, \sigma = 0.5$ )



## Confidence interval at 99% confidence (normal model)

Normal model:  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  independent and normal, with unknown mean  $\mu$  and known std.dev.  $\sigma$ 

To determine the confidence interval:

- 1. Calculate  $m(\vec{x}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$
- 2. Find a number z > 0, such that  $\mathbb{P}(|Z| \le z) = 1 2\Phi(-z) = 0.99$  $\implies z = -\Phi^{-1}(\frac{1-0.99}{2}) \approx 2.58$
- 3. Let the confidence interval for  $\mu$  be  $m(\vec{x}) \pm z \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$

Let's check we really now have 99% confidence. For a random vector  $\vec{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$  from the data source,

$$\mathbb{P}\Big(|m(\vec{X})-\mu| \le z\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\Big) = \mathbb{P}\left(\left|\frac{m(\vec{X})-\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\right| \le z\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(|Z| \le z\right) = 99\%$$

## Confidence intervals for $\mu$ in normal model: Summary

Normal model:  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  independent and normal with unknown mean  $\mu$  and known std.dev.  $\sigma$ 

Maximum likelihood estimate for  $\mu$  is  $m(\vec{x})$  Confidence interval is  $m(\vec{x}) \pm z \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ 

- 95% confidence level, when  $z = -\Phi^{-1}(rac{1-0.95}{2}) pprox 1.96$
- 99% confidence level, when  $z = -\Phi^{-1}(rac{1-0.99}{2}) pprox 2.58$

Example. If n = 25,  $\sigma = 0.5$ , then intervals are:  $m(\vec{x}) \pm z \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} = m(\vec{x}) \pm 0.196$  (95% level)  $m(\vec{x}) \pm z \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} = m(\vec{x}) \pm 0.258$  (99% level)

Some practical problems:

- What if we do not know  $\sigma$  in advance?
- What if the data source it not a normal distribution?

## CI for mean, normal model with unknown $\sigma$

Normal model:  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  independent and normally distributed, with unknown mean  $\mu$  and unknown mean  $\sigma$ 

Let the confidence interval be  $m(\vec{x}) \pm z \frac{\operatorname{sd}(\vec{x})}{\sqrt{n}}$ , where  $\operatorname{sd}(\vec{x})$  is the standard deviation of the sample.

Now for the random vector  $\vec{X} = (X_1, \ldots, X_n)$  from the model,

$$\mathbb{P}\Big(|m(\vec{X}) - \mu| \le z \frac{\mathsf{sd}(\vec{x})}{\sqrt{n}}\Big) = \mathbb{P}\left(\left|\frac{m(\vec{X}) - \mu}{\mathsf{sd}(\vec{X})/\sqrt{n}}\right| \le z\right) = ?$$

Trouble:  $\frac{m(\vec{X})-\mu}{sd(\vec{X})/\sqrt{n}}$  does <u>not</u> follow a normal distribution Solution:

- If large data (n big), it is approximately normal
- If small data, instead of sd( $\vec{x}$ ), use sample std.dev. sd<sub>s</sub>( $\vec{x}$ ) and take  $z = -F_{t,n-1}^{-1}(\frac{1-0.99}{2})$  from the t distribution (this is the true distribution)

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#### Estimating the mean of a general stochastic model

General model:  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  independent with unknown mean  $\mu$ , from some distribution (e.g. uniform, exponential)

For  $\mu$  we can use point estimate  $m(\vec{x})$ . It may not be maximum-likelihood, but it is unbiased. (Recall Ex. 4B)

By the CLT,  $m(\vec{X})$  is approximately normal, so: Determining an approximate confidence interval for  $\mu$ :

1. From the data, calculate mean  $m(\vec{x})$  and standard deviation sd $(\vec{x})$ 

2. Determine number 
$$z > 0$$
, such that  
 $\mathbb{P}(|Z| \le z) = 1 - 2\Phi(-z) = 0.99$   
 $\implies z = -\Phi^{-1}(\frac{1-0.99}{2}) \approx 2.58$ 

3. Let the confidence interval be  $m(\vec{x}) \pm z \frac{\operatorname{sd}(\vec{x})}{\sqrt{n}}$ 

For large data sets (*n* big) we have  $sd(\vec{X}) \approx \sigma$ , and

$$\mathbb{P}\Big(|m(\vec{X})-\mu| \leq z \frac{\operatorname{sd}(\vec{X})}{\sqrt{n}}\Big) \approx \mathbb{P}\left(\left|\frac{m(\vec{X})-\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\right| \leq z\right) \approx \mathbb{P}\left(|Z| \leq z\right) = 99\%.$$

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Confidence interval for p (in binary model)

#### Binary model for a data source

Binary model for a data source:  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  independent and  $\{0, 1\}$ -valued random variables with unknown mean p

The one parameter p determines fully the distribution of  $X_i$ :

$$\mathbb{E}(X_i) ~=~ 0 \cdot \mathbb{P}(X_i=0) + 1 \cdot \mathbb{P}(X_i=1) ~=~ \mathbb{P}(X_i=1),$$

so  $X_i$  has distribution

$$f_p(k) = \begin{cases} 1-p, & k=0, \\ p, & k=1, \\ 0, & muuten. \end{cases}$$

This is also called the Bernoulli distribution with parameter p, and denoted Ber(p), or Bin(1, p).

## Example: Opinion poll

From the U.S. voting population, a random sample of n = 2000 persons were asked whether they are going to vote for Trump (0=No, 1=Yes).

The random variable  $\vec{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_{2000})$  roughly follows the binary model, with parameter p, where

$$p = \mathbb{E}(X_i) = \mathbb{P}(X_i = 1)$$

is the (unknown) proportion of Trump-voters in the population.

Task: Determine a point estimate and a 95% confidence interval for the proportion p.

From last lecture: The relative frequency of ones in the dataset,  $\hat{p} = \hat{p}(\vec{x})$ , is a maximum-likelihood estimate for p.

## Confidence interval for binary model

Binary model for a data source:  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  independent and  $\{0, 1\}$ -valued random variables with unknown mean p

Because  $p = \mathbb{E}(X_i)$ , we are in fact estimating the mean, so let us apply the general method to our special case.

1. From data, calculate mean  $m(\vec{x})$  and standard deviation  $sd(\vec{x})$ 

2. Determine number 
$$z > 0$$
, such that  
 $\mathbb{P}(|Z| \le z) = 1 - 2\Phi(-z) = 0.95$   
 $\implies z = -\Phi^{-1}(\frac{1-0.95}{2}) \approx 1.96$ 

3. Let the confidence interval be  $m(\vec{x}) \pm z \frac{\operatorname{sd}(\vec{x})}{\sqrt{n}}$ 

On the next slide we will simplify the formula even further.

#### Confidence interval for binary model

The confidence interval for the parameter p is

$$m(\vec{x}) \pm z \frac{\operatorname{sd}(\vec{x})}{\sqrt{n}}$$

But observe that, for a dataset of zeros and ones only,

Mean 
$$m(\vec{x}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = \frac{\#\{i : x_i = 1\}}{n} = \hat{p}$$
  
Variance  $\operatorname{var}(\vec{x}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \hat{p})^2 = \dots = \hat{p}(1 - \hat{p})$   
Standard deviation  $\operatorname{sd}(\vec{x}) = \sqrt{\operatorname{var}(\vec{x})} = \sqrt{\hat{p}(1 - \hat{p})}$ 

Thus the confidence interval is simply

$$\hat{p} \pm z \frac{\sqrt{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}}{\sqrt{n}}$$

where  $\hat{p}$  is the relative frequency of ones in the sample.

Confidence interval for binary model — Summary

Binary model:  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  independent and  $\{0, 1\}$ -valued random variables with unknown mean p

To find the (approximate) confidence interval for p (when n big):

1. From the data, compute the relative frequency of ones  $\hat{\rho} = \hat{\rho}(\vec{x})$ 

2. Find a number 
$$z > 0$$
, such that  

$$\mathbb{P}(|Z| \le z) = 1 - 2\Phi(-z) = 0.95$$

$$\implies z = -\Phi^{-1}(\frac{1-0.95}{2}) \approx 1.96$$

3. Let the confidence interval be  $\hat{p} \pm z \frac{\sqrt{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}}{\sqrt{n}}$ 

## Variant: "Conservative" confidence intervals

Binary model for a data source:  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  independent and  $\{0, 1\}$ -valued random variables with unknown mean p

Sometimes we want to decide the length of the confidence interval <u>before</u> we have the data. Or we want to apply the same interval to several different estimates (e.g. different parties).

For "conservative" confidence intervals, replace  $\sqrt{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}$  with

$$\max_{\hat{\rho} \in [0,1]} \sqrt{\hat{\rho}(1-\hat{\rho})} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}\left(1-\frac{1}{2}\right)} = 0.5.$$

To find a conservative confidence interval for p,

- 1. From data, find relative frequency of ones  $\hat{p}$
- 2. Find a number z > 0, such that  $\mathbb{P}(|Z| \le z) = 1 2\Phi(-z) = 0.95$  $\implies z = -\Phi^{-1}(\frac{1-0.95}{2}) \approx 1.96$

3. Let the confidence interval be  $\hat{p} \pm z \frac{0.5}{\sqrt{n}}$ 

#### Conservative confidence intervals

Binary model:  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  independent and  $\{0,1\}\text{-valued}$  numbers with unknown mean p

The (approximate) conservative confidence interva for p is

$$\hat{p} \pm z \frac{0.5}{\sqrt{n}}.$$

- 95% confidence, when  $z = -\Phi^{-1}(\frac{1-0.95}{2}) \approx 1.96$
- 99% confidence, when  $z = -\Phi^{-1}(\frac{1-0.99}{2}) \approx 2.58$

# Margin of error in opinion polls

Opinion polls commonly report margin of error (MOE), for example MOE=1.5%. This usually refers to half-length of the confidence interval.

**Example.** Point estimate  $\hat{p} = 12.0\%$ , margin of error 1.5%. This means confidence interval is [12.0-1.5, 12.0+1.5] = [10.5, 13.5].

Some points to consider ...

- Confidence level not always reported (most often 95%).
- The margin of error measures only the sampling error, caused by the random sampling. There may be other sources of error.
- Sometimes hard to remember what is the probability involved
- To calculate the length of a conservative, approximate CI at 95% confidence,  $\hat{p}(\vec{x}) \pm 1.96 \times \frac{0.5}{\sqrt{n}}$ , all we need to know is *n*:

•  $n = 1000 \implies \text{MOE} \approx 3\% \implies \text{interval is } \hat{p}(\vec{x}) \pm 3\%$ 

- $n = 2000 \implies \text{MOE} \approx 2\% \implies \text{interval is } \hat{p}(\vec{x}) \pm 2\%$
- $n = 9000 \implies \text{MOE} \approx 1\% \implies \text{interval is } \hat{p}(\vec{x}) \pm 1\%$

# Margin of error — What it tells

Remember that MOE measures <u>only</u> the "sampling error", caused by the fact that we did not ask everyone, but only a random sample of the population.

There may be other sources of "error" between what we observe and what we want to know, e.g.  $\ldots$ 

- we did the sampling wrong (not uniform from population) (1936 US presidential election: George Gallup's 50 000 uniform sample vs. Literary Digest's 2-million nonuniform)
- we measured what they say but we are trying to understand how they would vote now
- we measured the situation <u>now</u> but we are trying to know how they <u>will</u> vote 2 months later (population is changing)

The MOE of the sampling process says nothing about the probability such other "errors".

Next lecture is about Bayesian inference...