Abstract In two different areas of research – in the study of space light and in the study of voting – the observed value of the quantity of interest is twice larger than what we would expect. That the observed value is larger makes perfect sense: there are phenomena that we do not take into account in our estimations. However, the fact that the observed value is exactly twice larger deserves explanation. In this paper, we show that Laplace Indeterminacy Principle leads to such an explanation.

1 General introduction

In two different areas of study – the study of space light and the study of elections – there is a similar puzzling phenomenon, that the observed value of the corresponding quantity is exactly twice larger that reasonable models predict. In this paper, we provide a possible common explanation for these two phenomena.
2 First case study: space light

What is space light. Many celestial objects emit light. This is why we see many stars and galaxies, this is why other stars and galaxies can be seen via telescopes – what we see is the light they emit.

Usually, astronomers study light from visible stars and galaxies, where we can see the corresponding object. Some galaxies are too far away to be visible individually. However, since there are many of them, they contribute to the optical background that is visible by space telescopes. This background is known as space light.

We can estimate the expected amount of space light. We have a reasonably good understanding of:

• how galaxies are distributed in space and
• what amount of light an average galaxy emits.

Based on this information, we can estimate the amount of background light.

The observed amount of space light is twice larger than expected. Interestingly, the observed amount is almost exactly twice larger than the estimate. This means that there are some additional sources of light in the Universe; see, e.g., [1].

Natural question. That there are some unexpected sources of slight is natural. However, the fact that the observed amount of light is exactly twice larger than expected deserves explanation.

What we do in this paper. In this paper, we provide a natural explanation for this empirical fact – as well as for the similar empirical fact about elections.

3 Second case study: election polls

Election polls: reminder. To get a good understanding of how people will vote, specialists ask a random sample of people how they will vote in the forthcoming elections. This process is known as election polls. The percentage of people who expect to vote for a certain candidate is used as a reasonable approximation for the percentage of people who will actually vote for this candidate.

Results of election polls are approximate. Of course, percentages based on a small sample are only an approximation to the overall percentages. A natural question is: how accurate are the polls? If, based on a poll, one candidate is several points ahead, how confident are we that this candidate will win?

How is the accuracy of election polls usually estimated? It is known, from statistics (see, e.g., [3]), that:

• if we estimate the probability of an event based on the sample of size $n$,
then the standard deviation $\sigma$ of the corresponding accuracy is equal to $\sqrt{p \cdot (1 - p) / n}$.

In particular, when we use the poll of $n = 1000$ randomly selected people to estimate the probability $p$ of a candidate’s win, then:

- for candidates with approximately equal chances, where $p \approx 0.5$,
- we get $\sigma \approx 1.7\%$.

So, with 95% confidence, this should estimate the probability with $2\sigma \approx 3.5\%$ accuracy.

**Observed standard deviation is exactly twice larger.** In practice, the largest deviation is twice larger than what we would expect; see, e.g., [4].

**Natural question.** That standard deviation is larger than expected is natural: people change their opinions, and this adds to the difference between how people answer in the poll and how they actually vote. However, the fact that the observed standard deviation is exactly twice larger than expected deserves explanation.

**What we do in this paper.** In this paper, we provide a natural explanation for this empirical fact – as well as for the similar empirical fact about space light.

### 4 Possible explanation

**Summary of what we want to explain.** In both case studies, taking unknown unknowns into account doubles the corresponding value. How can we explain that?

**Formulation of the general problem.** In both case studies:

- we know the estimated value $v$, and
- we want to estimate the actual value $a$.

The only information that we have about $a$ is that $a \geq v$.

Based on this information, how can we estimate $a$?

**Let us reformulate the problem, to make it easier to answer: idea.** In the above formulation, we have two real numbers: $v$ and $a$. To simplify the problem, let us take into account that the numerical value of each quantity depends on the selection of a measuring unit. For example, the same height of 1.7 meters takes the value 170 if we use centimeter as a measuring unit.

Let us use this idea to simplify our problem. For this purpose, let us select the unknown value $a$ as the new measuring unit for the corresponding quantity. In terms of this new unit:

- the value $a$ will take the form $A = 1$, and
- the value $v$ will have the form $V = v/a$.

Thus, the above problem is reformulated as follows:
we know that in the new unit, the actual value is 1, and
• we want to find the value $V$ that described the estimated value in terms of this
  new unit.

The only information that we have about the desired value $V$ is that $0 < V \leq 1$, i.e.,
that the value $V$ is that it is located on the interval $[0, 1]$.

**It is natural to use Laplace Indeterminacy Principle.** We have no reason to as-
sume that some of these values are more probable than others. So, it makes sense to
assume that all these values are equally probable.

This argument is known as Laplace Indeterminacy Principle; see, e.g., [2]. Based
on this argument, we conclude that the value $V$ is uniformly distributed on the inter-
val $[0, 1]$.

**From distribution to a single numerical estimate.** We have a reasonable distribu-
tion of the set of all possible values $V$. What we want, however, is a single numerical
estimate.

In general, if we want to represent this distribution by a single number, a reason-
able choice is to select the value $V_s$ for which the mean square deviation from the
actual (unknown) value $v$ is the smallest possible [3]. One can easily check that this
$V_s$ is the mean value of $V$, i.e., $V_s = 0.5$.

**This conclusion indeed explains the above phenomena.** We have $v/a = 1/2$.
Based on this relation:
• if we know $v$,
• then a reasonable estimate for $a$ is $a = 2v$.

This is exactly what we observe in the above two case studies.

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