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**CENTRAL LIMIT THEOREM AND ITS APPLICATIONS IN DETERMINING SHOE SIZES
OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS**

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Abstract : The Central limit theorem is a very powerful tool in statistical inference and Mathematics in general since it has numerous applications such as in topology and many other areas. For the case of probability theory, it states that, given certain conditions, the sample mean of a sufficiently large number or iterates of independent random variables, each with a well-defined mean and well-defined variance, will be approximately normally distributed". In our research paper, we have given three different statements of our theorem (CLT) and thereafter proved it using moment generating functions and characteristic functions. We later showed vividly that the moment generating functions and the characteristic functions do exist for the normal distribution. This research paper has data regarding the shoe size and the gender of the of the university students. This paper is aimed at finding if the shoe sizes converges to a normal distribution as well as find the modal shoe size of university students and to apply the results of the two proofs of the central limit theorem to test the hypothesis if most university students put on shoe size seven. The Shoe sizes are typically treated as discretely distributed random variables, allowing the calculation of mean value and the standard deviation of the shoe sizes. The sample data which is used in this research paper belonged to different areas of Kibabii University which was divided into five strata. From two strata, a sample size of 15 respondents was drawn and from the remaining three strata, a sample of 14 students per stratum was drawn at random which totaled to a sample size of 72 respondents. By analyzing the data, using SPSS and Microsoft Excel, it was vivid that the shoe sizes are normally distributed with a well-defined mean and standard deviation. We also proved that most university students put on shoe size seven by testing our hypothesis using the p-value and the confidence interval. The modal shoe size for university students is shoe size seven i.e. 18/72 which had the highest frequency. The relevance of this research project is to help the shoe investors with the knowledge of the shoe sizes stocking as well as help the shoe manufacturers to know the shoe sizes to produce more for both men and women.

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Keywords – Central Limit Theorem, Moment generating function, Characteristics function.

33

34 **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

35 Since the Central Limit Theorem has been around for over 280 years many researchers in the field of
 36 mathematics have proved it in many different cases since it has many different versions also
 37 according to different researchers in different areas of applications such as in probability theory and
 38 other areas. Its origin can be traced to The Doctrine of Chances by Abraham de Moivre 1738 [1]. In
 39 his book, he provided techniques for solving gambling problems, and also provided a statement of the
 40 Central Limit Theorem for Bernoulli trials as well as gave a proof for $p = \frac{1}{2}$. This was a very crucial
 41 invention during those early days which motivated many other researchers years later to look at
 42 Abraham de Moivre's work and they continued to ascertain it for further cases. Many researchers
 43 had made several studies on the sums of independent random variables for many different error
 44 distribution before 1810 which had mostly led to very complicated formulas when Laplace released
 45 his first paper about the CLT. In 1812, Pierre Simon Laplace published his own book titled *Theorie*
 46 *Analytique des Probabilities*, in which he generalized the theorem for $p \neq \frac{1}{2}$. He also gave a proof,
 47 although not a arduous one, for his finding [2]. Siméon Denis Poisson later published two articles
 48 (1824 and 1829) where he discussed the CLT with an idea that all procedures in the physical world
 49 are governed by distinct mathematical laws where he was trying to provide a more reliable
 50 mathematical analysis to Laplace's theorem. He provided a more rigorous proof for a continuous
 51 variable and also discussed the validity of the central limit theorem, mainly by providing a few
 52 counterexamples but he was unable to provide a rigorous proof for his general formula because he
 53 examined the validity of it in the special case of $n=1$.

54 Towards the end of 19 century, Dirichlet and Bessel followed the tracks of Laplace and Poisson in
 55 their proofs where they introduced the "discontinuity factor" in their proofs which enabled them to
 56 prove Poisson's equation for the general case. Cauchy was one of the first mathematicians to
 57 seriously consider probability theory as "pure" mathematics. He proved the CLT by first finding an
 58 upper bound to the difference between the exact value and the approximation and then specified
 59 conditions for this bound to tend to zero. Cauchy gives his proof for independent identically
 60 distributed variables $y_1 \dots y_n$ with a symmetric density $f(y)$, finite support $[-a, a]$, variance $\sigma^2 > 0$ and a
 61 characteristic function $\psi(\theta)$. This proof finished the so called the first period of the central limit
 62 theorem (1810-1853) where the proofs presented in this period were not satisfactory in three respects
 63 namely, The theorem was not proved for distributions with infinite support, There were no explicit
 64 conditions, in terms of the moments, under which the theorem would hold, The rate of convergence
 65 for the theorem was not studied. These glitches were eventually solved by Chebyshev, Markov and
 66 Liapounov; the so-called "St. Petersburg School" between 1870 and 1910. Chebyshev's paper in 1887
 67 is generally considered the beginning of rigorous proofs for the central limit theorem. In his paper, he
 68 considered a sequence of independent random variables each described by probability densities where
 69 he used the "method of moments", that he had earlier developed which he left incomplete. Markov
 70 later simplified and completed Chebyshev's proof of the CLT. In 1898, after Chebyshev's proof,
 71 Markov stated that: "a further condition needs to be added in order to make the theorem correct". He
 72 first proposed the following condition: iii) B_n^2/n is uniformly bounded away from 0 which he later
 73 replaced by iii) $E(z_n^2)$ is bounded from 0 as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Liapounov's proof, published in 1901, is
 74 considered the first "real" rigorous proof of the CLT where he considered a sequence of random
 75 variables with mean 0 and variance 1. At around 1901-1902 the Central Limit Theorem become more
 76 generalized and a complete proof was given by Aleksandr Lyapunov [3]. In 1922 Lindeberg gave a
 77 more generalized statement of CLT which states that, "the sequence of random variables need not be
 78 identically distributed, instead the random variables only need zero means with individual variances
 79 small compared to their sum" [4]. Numerous contributions to the statement of the Central Limit
 80 Theorem and different ways to prove the theorem began to appear around 1935, when both Levy and
 81 Feller published their own independent papers regarding the Central Limit Theorem[5]. Feller's
 82 paper of 1935 gives the necessary and sufficient conditions for the CLT, but the result was somewhat
 83 restricted which made it not to be the rigorous proof of the CLT. Feller considered an infinite
 84 sequence x_i of independent random variables. In 1935, Lévy proved several things related to the
 85 central limit theorem: i) He gave necessary and sufficient conditions for the convergence of normed

86 sums of independent and identically distributed random variables to a normal distribution ii) Lévy
 87 also gave the sufficient and necessary conditions for the general case of independent summands iii)
 88 He also tried to give the necessary and sufficient conditions for dependent variables, martingales.
 89 Lévy's proofs also was not satisfactory for the martingale case and therefore it did not stand a test of
 90 rigorousness since it relied on a hypothetical lemma.

91 In 1936, Cramér proved the lemma as a theorem and the matter of both Lévy' and Feller was settled.
 92 In 1937 they returned and refined their proofs using Cramér's result and thus, CLT was proved with
 93 both necessary and sufficient conditions. The Central Limit Theorem had unlimited impact and
 94 continues to have the same in the field of mathematics because the theorem is being used in
 95 topology, and other fields in mathematics and not limited to probability theory only.

96 **1.1 Statement of the problem**

97 The Central Limit Theorem is the dominating theorem in statistical inference. It permits us to
 98 make assumptions about a population and states that a normal distribution will occur regardless of
 99 what the initial distribution looks like for a sufficiently large sample size n. This theorem is used
 100 to make sound assumptions regarding the population since it is difficult to make such assumptions
 101 when the population isn't normally distributed and the shape of the distribution is unknown. The
 102 goal of this research project is to focus on the Central Limit Theorem and its applications in
 103 statistical inference, as well as to know the importance of central limit theorem, how to prove it
 104 and how to apply the theorem in shoe sizes data of Kibabii University students.

105 **1.2 Significance of the study**

106 By analyzing the shoe size data of Kibabii University students, it will give know how to all the shoe
 107 industries on which shoe sizes they should manufacture more because they have a higher
 108 marketability. This will also help the shoes investors to know the shoe sizes they should stock more
 109 and have a higher sale and a corresponding higher profit. This will reduce the incidences of having
 110 too much dead stock and contribute positively to the economy.

111 **2. METHODOLOGY**

112 **2.1 Data**

113 This study was conducted though a closed and open-ended questionnaire where 3 questions were
 114 related to the personal data and 3 questions related to the subject study totaling to 6 questions. This
 115 researcher selected 72 Kibabii University students which formed the required sample size.
 116 The shoe size, height, body weights, gender, year of study and age data for students was collected in
 117 the following areas of Kibabii University.

118
 119
 120

AREA NUMBER	AREA NAME
1	Tuuti
2	Booster
3	Lavington

4	Butieli
5	Institution Area

121

122 2.2 Statements of the Central Limit Theorem

123 Since many researchers have done many research works on the Central Limit Theorem, they have
 124 come up with many proofs which are all accepted. Let's first state Abraham de Moivre-Laplace
 125 Theorem which states as follows.

126 **Theorem 2.2.1**[1]. Consider a sequence of Bernoulli trials with probability p of success, where $0 < p$
 127 < 1 . Let s_n denote the number of successes in the first n trials, $n \geq 1$. For any $a, b \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{1, \infty\}$ with $a < b$

128
$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(a \leq \frac{s_n - np}{\sqrt{np(1-p)}} \leq b \right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_a^b e^{-\frac{z^2}{2}} dz.$$

129 Thereafter Lyapunov gave the second statement of the Central Limit Theorem as:

130 **Theorem 2.2.2**

131 Suppose $X_n, n \geq 1$ are independent random variables with mean 0 and $\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{|X_k|^\delta}{s_n^\delta} \rightarrow 0$ for some $\delta > 2$. Then,

132 $\frac{S_n}{s_n} \xrightarrow{\text{distr}} N(0,1)$, where $S_n = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$, $s_n = \sum_{k=1}^n E(X_k^2)$, $n \geq 1$ and $\xrightarrow{\text{distr}}$ represents convergence in
 133 distribution.

134 It's essential to define what an independent and identically distributed random variable is before we
 135 give the third and final statement of the Central Limit Theorem.

136

137 **Definition 2.0.** A sequence of random variables is said to be **independent and identically distributed**
 138 if all random variables are mutually independent, and if each random variable has the same
 139 probability distribution.

140 Now, we will state our third and final statement of the central limit theorem which is the
 141 Lindeberg-Feller theorem and is the one we will use throughout our research paper. The theorem
 142 states that:

143

144 **Theorem 2.2.3.**

suppose that X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are independent and identically distributed with mean μ and variance $\sigma^2 > 0$. Then, $\frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sqrt{n\sigma^2}}$
 145 $\xrightarrow{\text{distr}} N(0,1)$, where $S_n = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$, $n \geq 1$ and
 146 $\xrightarrow{\text{distr}}$ represents convergence in distribution.

147

148 **2.3 Proofs of Central Limit Theorem**

149 Since there are many statements of the Central Limit Theorem, we have also many proves of the
 150 same. In our research paper, we are going to give only two proves of the theorem using the moment
 151 generating functions and prove using the characteristic functions later.

152

153 **2.3.1 Proof of Central Limit Theorem Using Moment Generating Functions**

154 Here are some crucial aspects of moment generating functions we need to discuss before we look at
 155 the proof of the moment generating functions. These includes some definitions, remark and the
 156 properties of the moment generating functions where we are going to start with the definitions. [8].

157 **Definition 2.3.2** The moment-generating function (MGF) of a random variable X is defined to be

$$M_X(t) = E(e^{tX}) = \begin{cases} \sum_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{tx} f(x), & \text{if } X \text{ is discrete,} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{tx} f(x) dx, & \text{if } X \text{ is continuous.} \end{cases}$$

158

159 Moments can also be found by differentiation.

160 **Theorem 2.3.3** Let X be a random variable with moment-generating function $M_X(t)$. We

161 have $\frac{d^r M_X(t)}{dt^r} \Big|_{t=0} = \mu_r'$ where $\mu_r' = E(X^r)$.

162 **Remark 2.4.4**

163 $E(X^r)$ describes the rth moment about the origin of the random variable X. We can see then that $\mu_1' = E(X)$ and $\mu_2' = E(X^2)$ which therefore allows us to write the mean and variance in terms of moments.

165 **Properties of Moment generating functions**

166 **Theorem 2.4.5** $M_{a+bX}(t) = E(e^{t(a+bX)}) = e^{at} M_X(bt)$.

167 *proof:* $M_{a+bX}(t) = E\{e^{t(a+bX)}\} = E(e^{at} \cdot E(e^{t(bX)})) = e^{at} E(e^{(bt)X}) = e^{at} M_X(bt)$.

168 **Theorem 2.4.6** Let X and Y be random variables with moment generating functions $M_X(t)$ and $M_Y(t)$ respectively. Then $M_{X+Y}(t) = M_X(t) \cdot M_Y(t)$.

169 *proof.* $M_{X+Y}(t) = E(e^{t(X+Y)}) = E(e^{tX} \cdot e^{tY}) = E(e^{tX}) \cdot E(e^{tY})$ (by independence of random variables)
 $= M_X(t) \cdot M_Y(t)$

170 **corollary 2.4.7** Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n be random variables then, $M_{X_1+X_2+\dots+X_n}(t) = M_{X_1} \cdot M_{X_2} \cdot M_{X_3} \cdot M_{X_4} \dots M_{X_n}(t)$ This proof is nearly identical to the proof of the previous theorem.

171 To prove the central limit theorem, it is necessary to know the moment generating function of the
 172 normal distribution.

173 Lemma 2.4.9 The moment generating function (MGF) of the normal random variable X with mean μ and

174 Variance δ^2 , (i.e., $X \sim N(\mu, \delta^2)$) is $M_X(t) = e^{\mu t + \frac{\delta^2 t^2}{2}}$,

175 proof; First we will find the MGF for the normal distribution with mean 0 and variance 1, i.e., $N(0,1)$.

176 If $Y \sim N(0,1)$, then;

177 $M_Y(t) = E(e^{tY})$

178
$$= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{ty} f(y) dy = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{ty} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}y^2} \right) dy = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{ty} e^{-\frac{1}{2}y^2} dy$$

179
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{(ty - \frac{1}{2}y^2)} dy = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{(\frac{1}{2}t^2 + (-\frac{1}{2}(y^2 + 2ty + t^2))} dy$$

180
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{\frac{1}{2}t^2} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(y^2 + 2ty + t^2)} dy$$

181
$$= e^{\frac{1}{2}t^2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(y+t)^2} dy$$

182 But $\frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(y+t)^2} dy$ this is the probability distribution function of the normal distribution. So;

183 $M_Y(t) = e^{\frac{1}{2}t^2}$. Now, if $X \sim N(\mu, \delta^2)$, and

184 $M_X(t) = M_{\mu + \delta Y}(t) = e^{\mu t} M_Y(\delta t) = e^{\mu t} e^{\frac{1}{2}\delta^2 t^2} = e^{\left(\mu t + \frac{\delta^2 t^2}{2}\right)}$

185 Let's write the Taylor series formula before we start our proof because it's of great significance in our
186 proof

187 Lemma 3.6 $e^x = 1 + \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots$, $-\infty < x < \infty$ (Taylor series).

188 Now let us prove a special case of where $M_X(t)$ exists in a neighborhood of 0.

189 Proof; Let $Y_i = \frac{X_i - \mu}{\delta}$ for $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ and $R_n = Y_1 + Y_2 + \dots + Y_n$

190
$$\frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sqrt{n}\delta} = \frac{Y_1 + Y_2 + \dots + Y_n}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{R_n}{\sqrt{n}}$$

191 So
$$\frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sqrt{n}\delta} = \frac{R_n}{\sqrt{n}} = Z_n$$

192

193 Since R_n is the sum of independent random variables, we see that its moment generating function is:

194
$$M_{Z_n}(t) = M_{Y_1}(t) M_{Y_2}(t) \dots M_{Y_n}(t)$$

195
$$= [M_Y(t)]^n$$

196 We now note that this is true because each Y_i is independent and identically distributed. Now,

197
$$M_{Z_n}(t) = M_{R_n}(t) = E\left(e^{\frac{R_n}{\sqrt{n}}}\right) = E\left\{e^{(R_n)\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right)}\right\} = M_{R_n}\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right) = (M_Y\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right))^n.$$

198 Taking the natural logarithm of each side,

199
$$\ln M_{Z_n}(t) = n \ln M_Y\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$$

200 But we know that:

201
$$M_Y\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right) = E\left(e^{\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}Y}\right).$$

202
$$= E\left\{1 + \frac{tY}{\sqrt{n}} + \frac{\left(\frac{t^2 Y^2}{\sqrt{n}}\right)^2}{2} + o\left(\frac{1}{n^{\frac{3}{2}}}\right)\right\}$$

203
$$= 1 + \frac{t^2 E(Y^2)}{2n} + o\left(\frac{1}{n^{\frac{3}{2}}}\right).$$

204
$$= 1 + \frac{t^2}{2n} + o\left(\frac{1}{n^{\frac{3}{2}}}\right).$$

205

206 Where $o\left(\frac{1}{n^{\frac{3}{2}}}\right)$ stands for $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{Sup} \frac{|o\left(\frac{1}{n^{\frac{3}{2}}}\right)|}{\frac{1}{n^{\frac{3}{2}}}} = 0$

207 Then $\ln M_{Z_n}(t) = n \ln\left\{1 + \frac{t^2}{2n} + o\left(\frac{1}{n^{\frac{3}{2}}}\right)\right\}$.

208
$$\ln M_{Z_n}(t) = n \left\{\frac{t^2}{2n} + o\left(\frac{1}{n^{\frac{3}{2}}}\right)\right\}$$

209
$$= \left\{\frac{t^2}{2} + o\left(\frac{1}{n^{\frac{3}{2}}}\right)\right\}$$

210
$$\ln M_{Z_n}(t) = \frac{t^2}{2} + o\left(\frac{1}{n^{\frac{3}{2}}}\right).$$

211 So we have that, $M_{Z_n}(t) \rightarrow e^{\frac{t^2}{2}}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

212 Thus, $Z_n \rightarrow N(0,1)$, i. e., $\frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sqrt{n\sigma^2}} \rightarrow N(0,1)$.

213 **2.3.2 Proof of Central Limit Theorem Using Characteristic Functions**

214 Let us now prove the Central Limit Theorem using the characteristic functions. This is because the
 215 moment generating functions do not exist for all distributions when the moments of a given
 216 distribution are not finite. In such a situation when the moments are not finite, we generally look at
 217 the characteristic functions because they exist for every given distribution. [8].

218 Definition 2.3.2.1 The Characteristic function of a continuous random variable X

219
$$C_X(t) = E(e^{itX}) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{itx} f(x) dx, \text{ where } t \text{ is a real valued function, and } i = \sqrt{-1}.$$

220 $C_X(t)$ will always exist because e^{itx} is a bounded function, i. e., $|e^{itx}| = 1 \forall t, x \in \mathbb{R}$, and so the integral exists.

221 The characteristic function also has many similar properties to moment generating functions.

222 Let us look at the characteristic function of the normal distribution before we prove the central limit
 223 theorem.

224 Lemma 2.5.2 Let $R_n, n \geq 1$ be a sequence of random variables.

225 If, $n \rightarrow \infty, C_{R_n}(t) = E(e^{itR_n}) \rightarrow e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} \forall t \in (-\infty, \infty)$, then $R_n \rightarrow N(0,1)$.

226 We can now prove the central limit theorem using characteristics functions.

227 *PROOF:* Similar to the proof using moment generating functions let $Y_i = \frac{X_i - \mu}{\sigma}$ for $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ and let $R_n = Y_1 + Y_2 + \dots + Y_n$ so,

228
$$\frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sqrt{n\sigma^2}} = \frac{R_n}{\sqrt{n}} = Z_n, \text{ where } S_n = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n.$$

229 Now we note that

230 R_n is the sum of independent random variables, so we see that the characteristic function of R_n is:

231
$$C_Y(t) = C_{Y_1}(t)C_{Y_2}(t) \dots C_{Y_n}(t)$$

232
$$= [C_Y(t)]^n$$

233 Since all Y_i 's are independent and identically distributed. Now,

234 $C_{Z_n}(t) = C_{\frac{R_n}{\sqrt{n}}}(t)$

235 $= E\{e^{\frac{iR_n t}{\sqrt{n}}}\}$

236 $= E\{e^{i(R_n)(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}})}\}$

237 $= C_{R_n}(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}})$

238 $= [C_Y(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}})]^n.$

239 Taking the natural logarithm on each side,

240 $\ln C_{Z_n}(t) = n \ln C_Y(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}).$

241 1 We can note from the previous proof with some modifications that:

242 $C_Y(t) = 1 - \frac{t^2}{2n} + O\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right).$

243 Then we have,

244 $\ln C_{Z_n}(t) = n \ln\left(1 - \frac{t^2}{2n} + O\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right)\right)$

245 Then;

246 $\ln C_{Z_n}(t) = -\frac{t^2}{2} + O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right).$

247 So, as $n \rightarrow \infty$, $\ln C_{Z_n}(t) \rightarrow -\frac{t^2}{2}$ and

248 $C_{Z_n}(t) \rightarrow e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

249 We therefore conclude that;

250 $Z_n = \frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sqrt{nb^2}} \rightarrow N(0,1), \square$

251

252

253 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

254 **Here, we discuss the results that we have found from our analysis as well as the significance of**
 255 **our research work. These results will help in devising the appropriate conclusion and the**
 256 **recommendations. Before we start our analysis, let's first say something about our theorem;**

257 Central Limit Theorem is one of the most great and worthwhile ideas in all of Statistics and there are
 258 two alternative forms of the theorem, and both describe the center, spread and shape of a certain
 259 sampling distribution. We have considered the two case in our analysis. We define the sampling
 260 distribution of a statistic as the distribution of values of that statistic when all possible samples of the
 261 same size are taken from the same population. Sampling distributions form the foundation for almost
 262 all methods in inferential statistics, and the Central Limit Theorem allows us to explicitly describe the
 263 sampling distribution for a sample mean \bar{x} . We have discussed these two cases i.e. sampling
 264 distribution for the sample means and sample sums below.

265 **3.1 Sampling distribution for the sample mean**

266 We have provided the results and the discussion of the distribution of the sample means below.

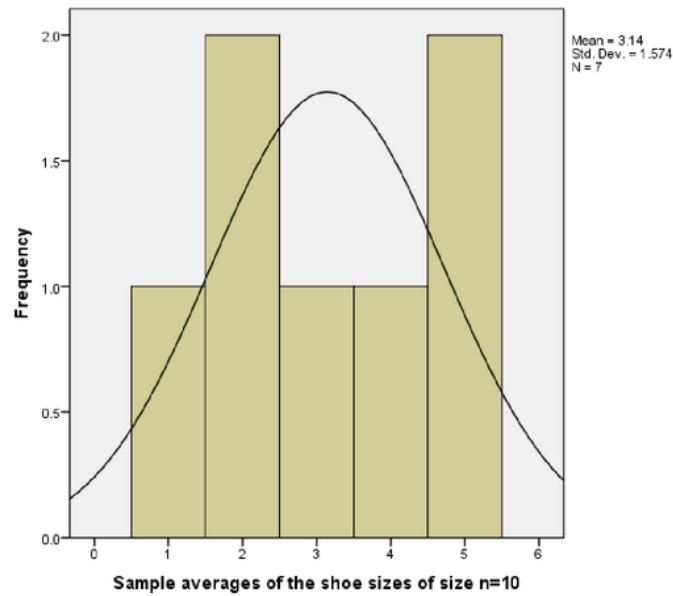
SAMPLE SUMS	SAMPLE AVERAGES	FREQUENCIES
202	6.73	1
203	6.77	2
209	6.97	3
210	7.00	4
211	7.03	3
213	7.10	2
215	7.17	1

267

268

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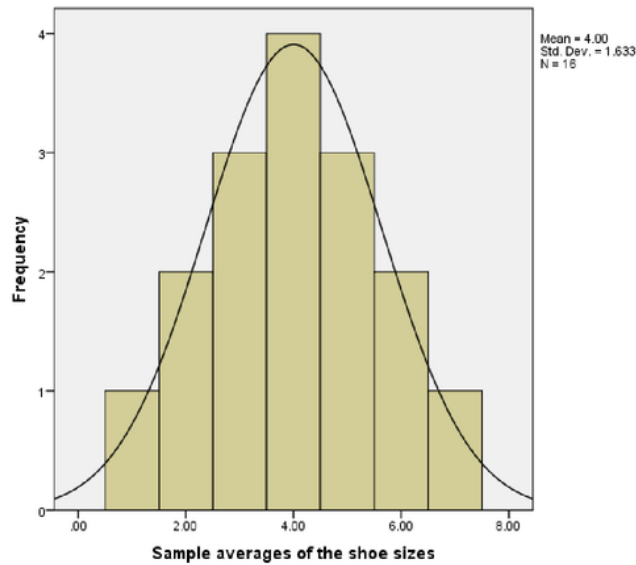
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271
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274 Fig 3.0 Sampling distribution of the mean shoe sizes of samples of size $n=10$
 275 From the above figure, we have the samples of size 10 which does not give us a pretty idea of
 276 convergence to a normal distribution. This is because the samples so drawn did not meet the condition
 277 of the central limit theorem which states that the sample size n should be sufficiently large for a
 278 normal distribution convergence. It is also vivid that most of the sample means are not even close to
 279 the population mean which should be the case for the data of the shoe sizes to converge to the normal
 280 distribution where we expect that the sample mean should be close or even equal to the population
 281 mean. The graph also does not seem to resemble a normal curve and there comes the need of a
 282 sufficiently large sample size n . This has a well-defined mean of 3.63 and standard deviation of 1.991
 283 but fails to be normally distributed simply because of a small sample sizes.

284



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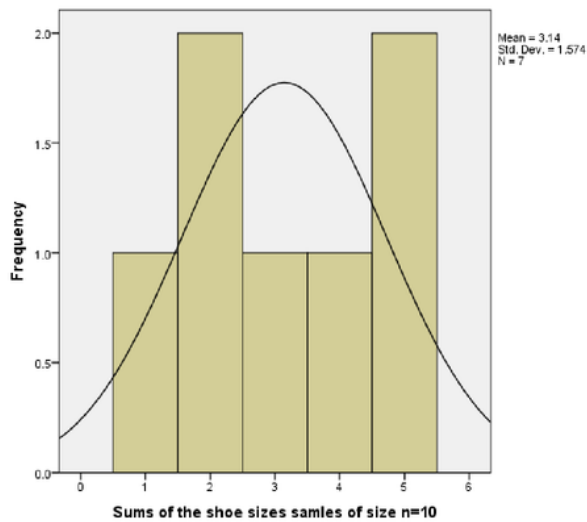
287 Fig 3.1 Sampling distribution for the mean shoe sizes of samples of size n=30
288

289 **From this figure, we can see that the sampling distribution for the sample means of shoe sizes**
 290 **converges perfectly to the normal distribution. This is because the condition of drawing a**
 291 **reasonably large sample size was observed making the distribution to be symmetrical. This also**
 292 **indicates without doubt that most of the sample means are pretty close to the population mean,**
 293 **thus making the pdf of the distribution to approach zero as we move away from the center. We**
 294 **can also ascertain that the sample mean underestimates the population mean and so we have**
 295 **positive and negative deviations from the population mean which are almost similar thus**
 296 **making our distribution to be symmetrical or bell-shaped. Moreover, the mean of this sampling**
 297 **distribution is the mean of the population from which we sampled which is shoe size seven for**
 298 **our case. So this clearly indicates that most of the university students put on shoe size 7, with**
 299 **less people putting on shoe sizes 4 and 10. This distribution also shows a well- defined mean of**
 300 **4.00 and a standard deviation of 1.663**

301 **3.2 Sampling distribution of the sample sums**

302 The results for the distribution of the sample sums is discussed below,

303



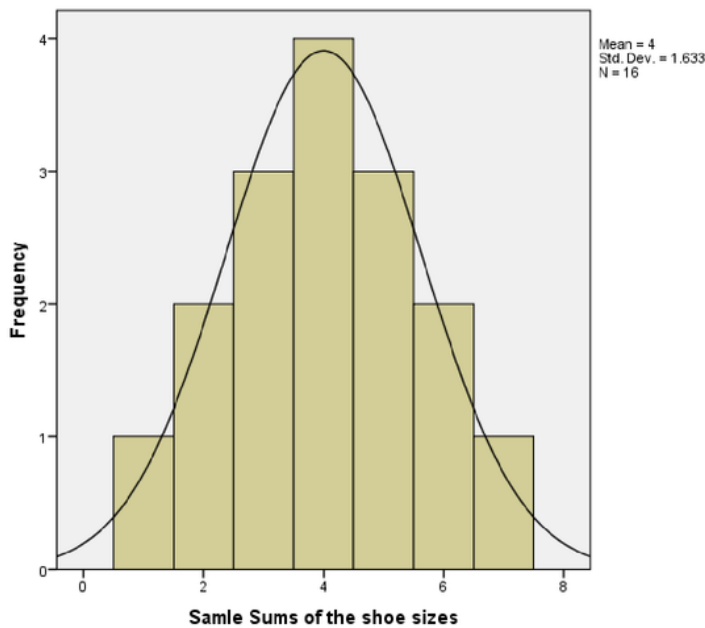
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306
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Fig 3.20 Sampling distribution for the sample sums of shoe sizes of samples of size n=10

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313

We explain this using the second version of the central limit theorem which says that if the sample averages converges to a normal distribution, also the distribution for the sample sums will also be normally distributed. So since our sample were not normally distributed, so is the distribution for the sample sums. We can see that most of the means of the distribution are not concentrated to the center of our graph and so it isn't normal and its curve is not bell-shaped. This also is caused by drawing small sample sizes since the mean and the standard deviations are well-defined.



314

315 Fig 3.21 Sampling distribution for the sample sums of shoe sizes of samples of size $n=10$

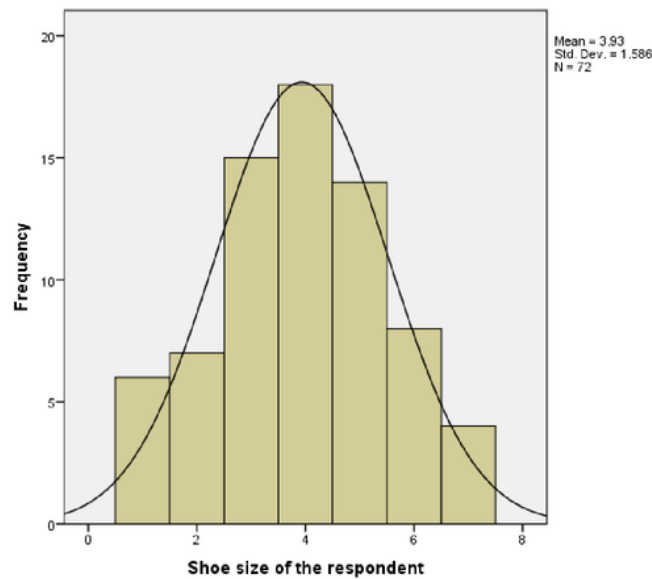
316

317 From this figure, we can see that the sampling distribution for the sample means of shoe sizes
318 converges to the normal distribution symmetrically and with a bell- shaped curve since we had drawn
319 large sample sizes necessary for any distribution or non- parametric distribution to converge to a
320 normal distribution. The symmetrical distribution means that the sample mean is pretty close to the
321 population mean, thus making the pdf of the distribution to approach zero as we move away from the
322 center. We can also ascertain that the sample mean underestimates the population mean and so we
323 have positive and negative deviations from the population mean which are almost similar thus making
324 our distribution to be symmetrical or bell-shaped as from our case above. Moreover, the mean of this
325 sampling distribution is the mean of the population from which we sampled which is shoe size seven
326 for most university students... So this clearly indicates that most of the university students put on shoe
327 size 7, with less people putting on shoe sizes 4 and 10. This distribution also shows a well- defined
328 mean of 4.00 and a standard deviation of 1.663

329

330 3.2 THE DISTRIBUTION OF SHOE SIZES OF THE RESPONDENTS

331 This histogram suggests that the shoe sizes of university students are normally distributed with a well-
332 defined expected value of 3.93 and a well-defined standard deviation of 1.586 .For this case we have
333 not used the concept of our theorem but we have just drawn a graph of the shoe sizes to see how they
334 are distributed for only 72 respondents. From our graph we can see that most of university students
335 put on shoe size 7 and a few people put on shoe size 4 and 10.This undoubtedly shows that a shoe
336 investor needs to stock more on shoe size 7 followed by 6,8and 9, 5, 4and stock less on shoe size 10.
337 So we notice that if ones happen to ask enough people about their shoe sizes, the distribution of the
338 shoe sizes is normally distributed with a bell-shaped curve.

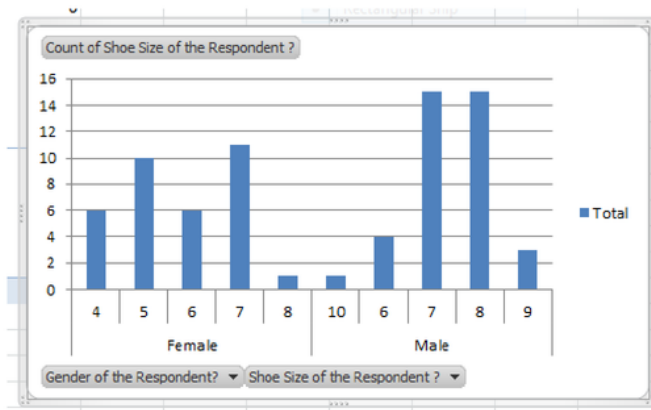


339

340 **3.3 DISTRIBUTION OF SHOE SIZES ACCORDING TO THE GENDER OF THE**
 341 **RESPONDENTS**

342 This graph compares shoe sizes and the gender of the respondents which indicates that shoe sizes
 343 differ with the gender of the respondent.

344 We see that most ladies put on small shoes i.e. shoe size 5 and 7 with the minority of ladies putting on
 345 shoe 4, 6 and 8. For the case of men, most respondents had shoe sizes 7 and 8 and a few had shoe
 346 sizes 10, 6, and 9. This apparently shows that most men put on big shoe size as compared to the case
 347 of ladies which also means that most ladies put on small shoe sizes as compared to men.



348

349 Since ¹ Central Limit Theorem has many applications in probability theory and statistical inference,
 350 we have limited our research paper on hypothesis testing using shoe size data of Kibabii University

351 students. Before we begin to compute if most people put on shoe size seven, we must first satisfy four
 352 conditions;

353 (i) *independence condition(assumption)*: This condition for our case states that, each
 354 respondent's shoe size that the researcher is going to meet is independent of the shoe size of the next
 355 respondents.

356 (ii) *random condition*: Since we have many students in Kibabii University totaling to
 357 almost 8,000, taking just 72 students to observe the data will account for our randomization condition.

358 (iii) *10% condition*: In this condition, the sample size n, should be less than 10% of the
 359 population size. For our case, our sample size n=72 which is less than 10% of the total population
 360 which is 800. Therefore $72 < 800$ and so our sample holds true the 10% condition.

361 (iv) *success/failure*: This simply state that the population size multiplied by our
 362 proportion in our hypothesis must be greater than 10. Since our proportion $p=0.5$, we can proof the
 363 condition by multiplying the two. i.e. $np = 8,000 * 0.5 = 4,000$. So the success / failure condition also
 364 holds true because $4,000 > 10$.

365 These are the two methods which are used to test the hypothesis.

366

367 1. THE CONFIDENCE INTERVAL

368

369 *the right-sided $100(1-\alpha)\%$ confidence interval for p for a large sample which is given by:*

$$370 \hat{p} - Z_{\alpha} \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}{n}} < p \leq 1$$

371 Since there are 26 respondents having shoe size 7, we gets that;

372 $\hat{p} = \frac{26}{72} = 0.36$ and $Z_{0.05} = 1.645$ and $n=72$. So by applying the above formula we get that;

$$373 0.36 - 1.645 \sqrt{\frac{0.36(1-0.36)}{72}} = 0.2669 \quad 0.2669 < p \leq 1.$$

374 Since $0.5 \in (0.2669, 1]$, we cannot reject $H_0: p = 0.5$ in favor of $H_1: p < 0.5$ at the 0.05 level of
 375 significance. This is because we have enough evidence from our data to support that most university
 376 students put on shoe size seven.

377

378 **2. THE P-VALUE**

379 Now we will use the p-value approach to test our hypothesis. We must find the z-value for testing
 380 our observed value. We use the following equation to do so;

381
$$z = \frac{\bar{p} - p_0}{\sqrt{\frac{p_0 q_0}{n}}} = \frac{0.26 - 0.5}{\sqrt{\frac{0.5 \cdot 0.5}{72}}} = -2.3759$$

```
/VARIABLES=ShoeSizeoftheRespondent
/CRITERIA=CI(.95).
```

T-Test Rectangular Snip

[DataSet1] C:\Users\admin\Desktop\new morris.sav

One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Shoe Size of the Respondent ?	72	6.68	1.372	.162

One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 7					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Shoe Size of the Respondent ?	-1.976	71	.052	-.319	-.64	.00

382

383 This corresponds to a p value of 0.52. Since $0.52 > 0.05$ we cannot reject H_0 in favor of our alternative
 384 hypothesis because we have enough evidence from our data to support that most university students
 385 put on shoe size seven. Therefore from the two cases i.e. using the p-value and the confidence
 386 interval, it's clear that most university students put on shoe size seven since we have not rejected the
 387 null hypothesis for both cases due to presence of enough evidence from our data.

388 **4.0 CONCLUSIONS**

389 It is now clear from our data that the shoe sizes of university students converge to a normal
 390 distribution using the proof of the central limit theorem by considering the moment generating
 391 functions as well as the characteristic functions. Using the shoe sizes data so collected, we were able
 392 to prove that most students put on shoe size 7 by testing our hypothesis using the p-value and the
 393 confidence interval. This is because for both cases, we have enough evidence from our data to show
 394 that most students put on shoe size seven. By finding the mode also, we found that most university
 395 students put on shoe size seven because it had the highest frequency.

396 **4.1 RECOMMENDATIONS**

397 Since most university students put on shoe size seven, we recommend shoe investors around the
 398 institutions of higher learning to be stocking more of shoe size seven because it's the shoe size with

399 majority of the students. Followed by shoe sizes 5, 6 and 8 and doing so, they will curb the big
 400 problem of so much dead stock that they face day in day out.

401 In future, it may be interesting to use my applications on other areas such as sports, finding the
 402 distribution of the change people carry in their pockets, although we must make sure that we have a
 403 sufficiently large sample size to have accurate results of a smooth convergence in normal distribution
 404 since some of the distributions are heavily skewed as well as when testing the hypothesis. Other
 405 applications of the Central Limit Theorem, as well as other properties such as convergence rates may
 406 also be interesting areas of study for the future.

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