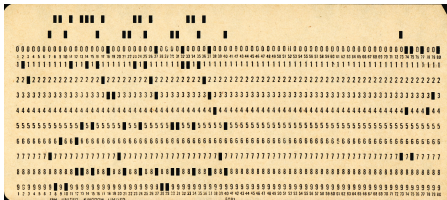


# Introduction to Error Detection and Error Correction

Setevn .J Mzlwre

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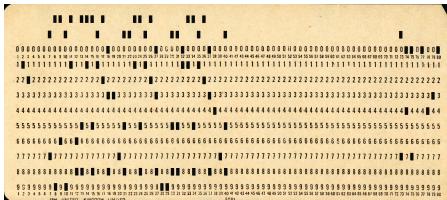
Gzoanga Univrseity, Setpmebre 52, 2025

# Introduction to Error Detection and Error Correction

Steven J. Miller

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<http://www.williams.edu/Mathematics/sjmilller>



Gonzaga University, September 25, 2025

## Introduction

## Goals

- Use math from classes (number theory, group theory).
- Discuss challenges in real world applications.
- Creating research questions.

## Wason 4 Card Test

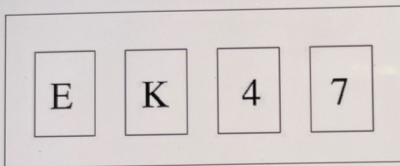


Figure 2.3. *The Wason 4-card task.* Which card(s) must you turn over to verify the rule that if a card shows a vowel on one face, then it has an even number on the other?



Figures-for-The-Righteous-Mind.pdf

Save...



## Cryptography Basics

Enough to send 0's and 1's:

- ◇  $A = 00000$ ,  $B = 00001$ ,  $C = 00010$ , ...  
 $Z = 11010$ ,  $0 = 11011$ ,  $1 = 11100$ , ....

Two major issues:

- ◇ Transmit message so only desired recipient can read.
- ◇ Ensure correct message received.

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If receive wrong bit in RSA, message completely different.

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Message:  $M = 195632041$ , send  $M^e \bmod N$  or  
 $X = 121209473$ .

Decrypt:  $X^d \bmod N$  or 195632041.

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Imagine receive  $\tilde{X} = 1212094\mathbf{8}3$ .

Message 195632041

Decrypts  $\mathbf{1}21141\mathbf{0}28$ , only two digits are the same!

## Outline

Will concentrate on Error Detection and Correction.

- How do you detect an error?
- How do you fix an error?

## Check Digit

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If easy to read again, just need to detect error.

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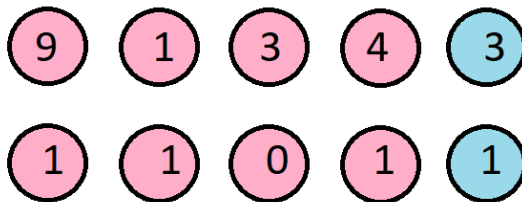
Think scanner at a supermarket....



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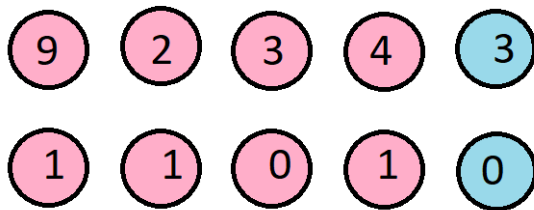


Last digit makes sum  $0 \bmod 10$  (or  $0 \bmod 2$ ).

## Check Digit

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## Next Steps

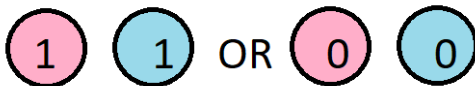
More involved methods detecting more: The Verhoeff algorithm catches single digit errors and flipping adjacent digits: [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Verhoeff\\_algorithm](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Verhoeff_algorithm).

Want to detect where the error is:

## Next Steps

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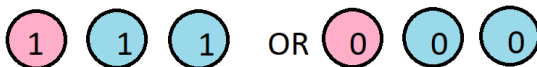
Want to detect where the error is: Tell me twice!



## Majority Rules

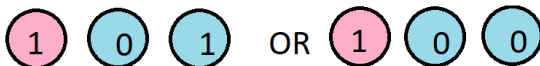
## Tell Me Three Times

Tell Me Three Times detects and *probably* corrects (need probability of an error small).



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## Tell Me Three Times

Crucially uses binary outcome: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RerJWv5vwxc> and  
[https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vWCGs27\\_xPI](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vWCGs27_xPI).

What is the problem with this method?



## Tell Me Three Times

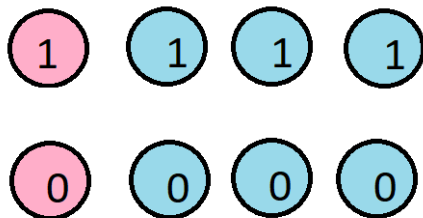
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What is the problem with this method?

**Only one-third is information, if two errors is wrong!**

What else can we do? Is it better? With respect to what metric?

## Tell Me $n$ Times

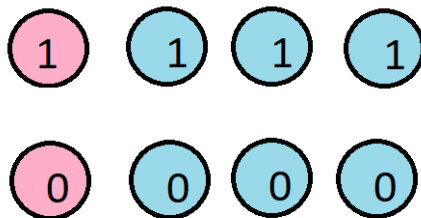


Tell Me Four Times: only 25% of message is data  
(general case just  $1/n$ ).

Want to correct errors but still send a lot of information.

What's a success?

## Tell Me $n$ Times



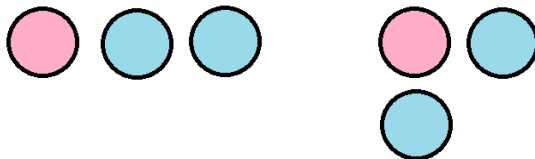
Tell Me Four Times: only 25% of message is data  
(general case just  $1/n$ ).

Want to correct errors but still send a lot of information.

What's a success? **Greater than 50% is data.**

## Tell Me Three Times (revisited)

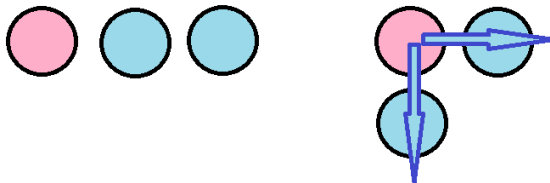
Let's revisit Tell Me Three Times:



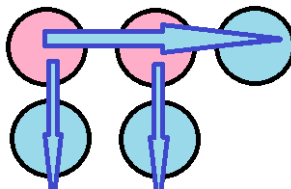
How should we do two data points?  
How many check digits do you expect?

## Tell Me Three Times (revisited)

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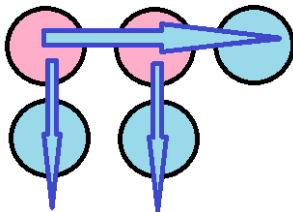


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## Two of Five

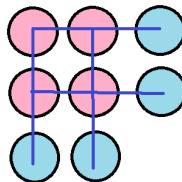
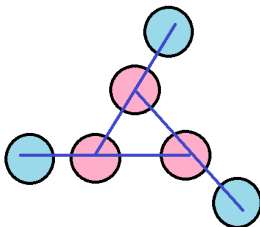
This is better: 2 of 5 or 40% of message is data!



Unfortunately still below 50%.

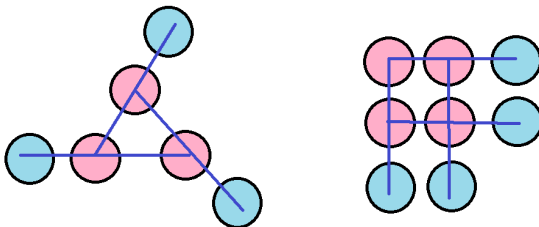
How many data points should we try next: 3, 4, 5, ...?  
Suggestions?

## Three and Four Bits of Data



Which is better?

## Three and Four Bits of Data



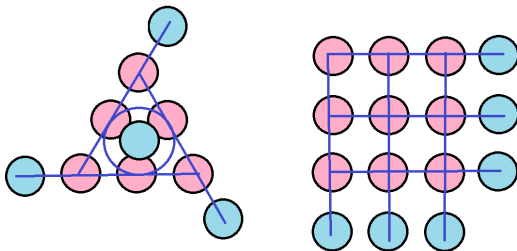
**Which is better?** Both 50% but fewer needed with triangle.

**What should we do next:** 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, ...?



## Triangle and Square Numbers

$$T_n = n(n+1)/2 \text{ and } S_n = n^2.$$

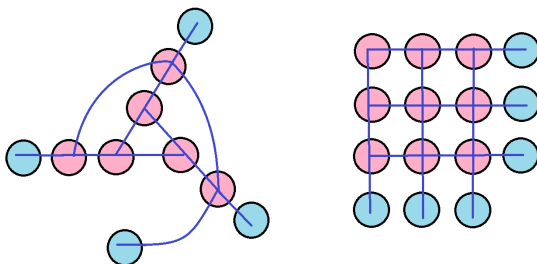


Both give 60% of the message is data. Can we continue?

Data on exactly two lines, check bits on one.

## Triangle and Square Numbers

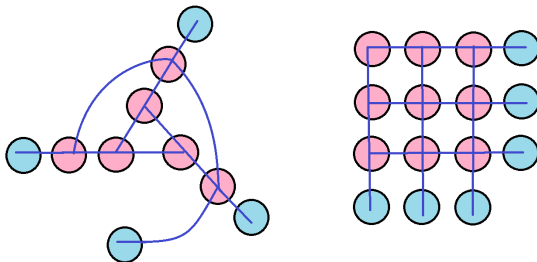
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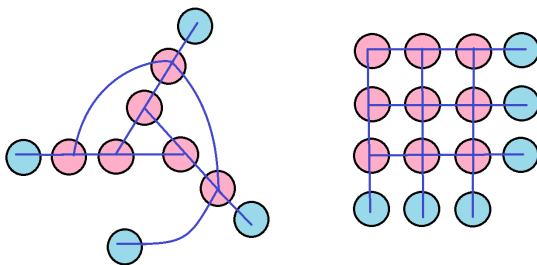
## Triangle and Square Systems



Triangle:  $T_n = n(n+1)/2$  data,  $n+1$  check, so  $(n+2)(n+1)/2$  bits total and  $n/(n+2)$  information.

Square:  $S_n = n^2$  data,  $2n$  check, so  $n^2 + 2n$  bits total and  $n/(n+2)$  information.

## Triangle and Square Systems

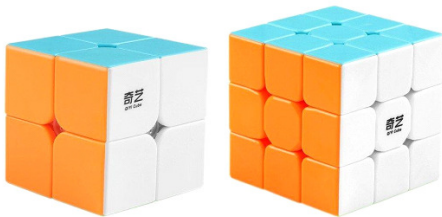


Can get as high a percentage information as desire, at a cost of longer string (and thus more likely to have two errors).

## Generalizations

What is a better geometry to use?

## Generalizations



$2 \times 2 \times 2$ : 8 data points, 6 check bits (for planes): info is  $8/14 \approx 57\%$ .

$3 \times 3 \times 3$ : 27 data points, 9 check bits (for planes): info is  $27/36 = 75\%$ .

For  $6 \times 6$  data square info is  $36/48 = 75\%$ , for  $T_7$  is  $28/36 \approx 77.78\%$ .

## Generalizations



$4 \times 4 \times 4$ : 64 data points, 12 check bits: info is  $64/76 \approx 84.21\%$ .

For  $9 \times 9$  data square info is  $81/99 \approx 81.82\%$ .

For  $T_{11}$  triangle: 66 data points, info is  $66/79 \approx 83.54\%$ .

## Generalizations



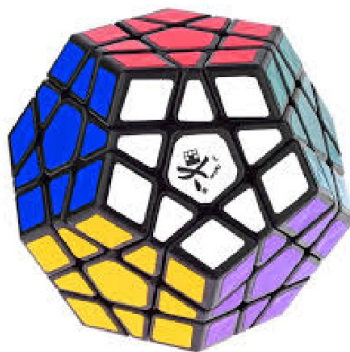
$n \times n \times n$ :  $n^3$  data points,  $3n$  check bits: info is  $n^2/(n^2 + 3)$ .

Better percentage is information for large  $n$ ; how should we generalize?



## Generalizations

What is a better geometry to use?



## Other Approaches

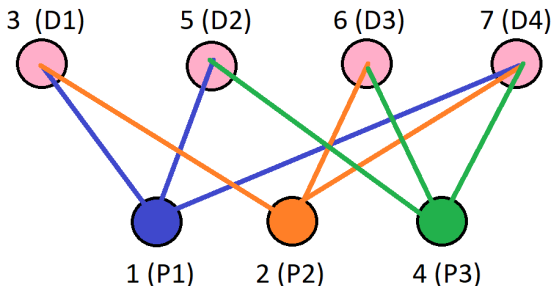
**Hamming Codes:** Can send a message with 7 bits, 4 are data, and can correct one error:

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hamming\\_code](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hamming_code).

**Extended binary Golay code:** Can send a message with 24 bits, 12 are data, can correct any 3-bit errors and can detect some other errors: [https:](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Binary_Golay_code)

[//en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Binary\\_Golay\\_code](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Binary_Golay_code).

# Manhamming



- If no errors, all correct.
- If only one color error, is P1, P2 or P3.
- If just blue and orange is D1.
- If just blue and green is D2.
- If just orange and green is D3
- If all wrong is D4.

## Comparison

Say want to transmit around  $2^{12} = 4096$  bits of data.

Can do a square and cube; the Hamming code will do  $2^{12} - 1 = 4095$ .

- Square: 4096 out of 4224 data: 96.9697%.
- Cube: 4096 out of 4144 data: 98.8417%.
- Hamming: 4083 out of 4095 data: 99.707%.

All converge to 100%, difference narrows as size increases.

## Challenge Problems

Even if these are known, value in trying to solve yourself.

- For a given  $n$ , what is the fewest number of check digits one needs to successfully transmit  $n$  data digits and be able to correct up to one error?
- Now assume there can be up to two errors....
- Now assume there can be up to  $k$  errors....

Happy to chat: [sjm1@williams.edu](mailto:sjm1@williams.edu).

## Interleaving

Say transmit

0111101001010101010101010101010101010101011110...

but a localized burst of noise, receive

0111**0**1**1**101010101010101010101010101010101011110...

## Interleaving

Transmit every fourth:

- 01000000001  $\mapsto$  0000000001
- 10111111111  $\mapsto$  1111111111
- 11000000001  $\mapsto$  1100000001
- 10111111110  $\mapsto$  1111111110

## Steganography



## Can you see the cat in the tree?



## Transmitting Images

### How to transmit an image?

- Have an  $L \times W$  grid with  $LW$  pixels.
- Each pixel a triple, maybe (Red, Green, Blue).
- Often each value in  $\{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, 2^n - 1\}$ .
- $n = 8$  gives 256 choices for each, or 16,777,216 possibilities.

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Steganography: Concealing a message in another message: [https:](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Steganography)

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Take one of the colors, say **red**, a number from 0 to 255.

Write in binary:  $r_7 2^7 + r_6 2^6 + \dots + r_1 2 + r_0$ .

If change just the last or last two digits, very minor change to image.

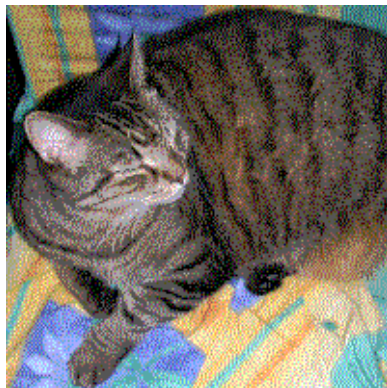
Can hide an image in another.

If just do last, can hide a black and white image easily....

## Can you see the cat in the tree?



## Can you see the cat in the tree?



## Bonus: 0's, 1's and Cookie Monster



## Pre-requisites: Combinatorics Review

- $n!$ : number of ways to order  $n$  people, order matters.
- $\frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} = nCk = \binom{n}{k}$ : number of ways to choose  $k$  from  $n$ , order doesn't matter.
- Stirling's Formula:  $n! \approx n^n e^{-n} \sqrt{2\pi n}$ .



## Previous Results

**Fibonacci Numbers:**  $F_{n+1} = F_n + F_{n-1}$ ;

First few: 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, ....

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**Example:**  $51 = ?$

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**Example:**  $51 = 34 + 17 = F_8 + 17$ .

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**Example:**  $51 = 34 + 13 + 3 + 1 = F_8 + F_6 + F_3 + 1$ .

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**Example:**  $51 = 34 + 13 + 3 + 1 = F_8 + F_6 + F_3 + F_1$ .

**Example:**  $83 = 55 + 21 + 5 + 2 = F_9 + F_7 + F_4 + F_2$ .

**Observe:** 51 miles  $\approx$  82.1 kilometers.

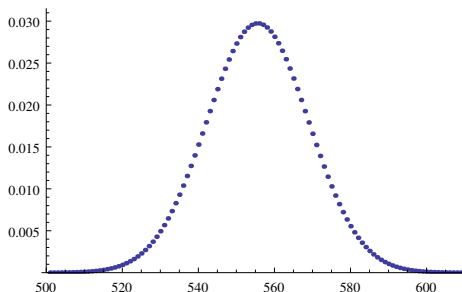
**Observe:** Write 51 as  $101001010_{\text{Fib}}$ .



## Old Results

### Central Limit Type Theorem

As  $n \rightarrow \infty$  distribution of number of summands in Zeckendorf decomposition for  $m \in [F_n, F_{n+1})$  is Gaussian (normal).



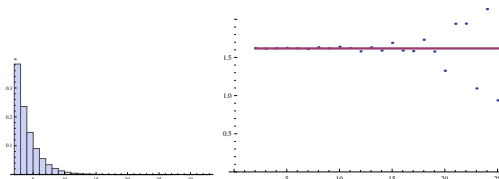
**Figure:** Number of summands in  $[F_{2010}, F_{2011})$ ;  $F_{2010} \approx 10^{420}$ .

## New Results: Bulk Gaps: $m \in [F_n, F_{n+1})$ and $\phi = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$

$$m = \sum_{j=1}^{k(m)=n} F_{i_j}, \quad \nu_{m;n}(x) = \frac{1}{k(m)-1} \sum_{j=2}^{k(m)} \delta(x - (i_j - i_{j-1})).$$

### Theorem (Zeckendorf Gap Distribution)

*Gap measures  $\nu_{m;n}$  converge almost surely to average gap measure where  $P(k) = 1/\phi^k$  for  $k \geq 2$ .*



**Figure:** Distribution of gaps in  $[F_{1000}, F_{1001})$ :  $F_{2010} \approx 10^{208}$

## New Results: Longest Gap

### Theorem (Longest Gap)

*As  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , the probability that  $m \in [F_n, F_{n+1})$  has longest gap less than or equal to  $f(n)$  converges to*

$$\text{Prob}(L_n(m) \leq f(n)) \approx e^{-e^{\log n - f(n) / \log \phi}}.$$

**Immediate Corollary:** If  $f(n)$  grows **slower** or **faster** than  $\log n / \log \phi$ , then  $\text{Prob}(L_n(m) \leq f(n))$  goes to **0** or **1**, respectively.

## Preliminaries: The Cookie Problem

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The number of ways of dividing  $C$  identical cookies among  $P$  distinct people is  $\binom{C+P-1}{P-1}$ .

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The number of solutions to  $x_1 + \cdots + x_P = C$  with  $x_i \geq 0$  is  $\binom{C+P-1}{P-1}$ .

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Let  $p_{n,k} = \# \{N \in [F_n, F_{n+1}): \text{the Zeckendorf decomposition of } N \text{ has exactly } k \text{ summands}\}$ .

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Cookie counting  $\Rightarrow p_{n,k} = \binom{n-2k+1+k-1}{k-1} = \binom{n-k}{k-1}$ .

Thank You! [sjm1@williams.edu](mailto:sjm1@williams.edu)

***Thank you!***



## Appendix: Gaussian Behavior

## Generalizing Lekkerkerker: Erdos-Kac type result

### Theorem (KKMW 2010)

As  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , the distribution of the number of summands in Zeckendorf's Theorem is a Gaussian.

**Sketch of proof:** Use Stirling's formula,

$$n! \approx n^n e^{-n} \sqrt{2\pi n}$$

to approximate binomial coefficients, after a few pages of algebra find the probabilities are approximately Gaussian.



## (Sketch of the) Proof of Gaussianity

The probability density for the number of Fibonacci numbers that add up to an integer in  $[F_n, F_{n+1})$  is  $f_n(k) = \binom{n-1-k}{k} / F_{n-1}$ . Consider the density for the  $n+1$  case. Then we have, by Stirling

$$\begin{aligned} f_{n+1}(k) &= \binom{n-k}{k} \frac{1}{F_n} \\ &= \frac{(n-k)!}{(n-2k)!k!} \frac{1}{F_n} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{(n-k)^{n-k+\frac{1}{2}}}{k^{(k+\frac{1}{2})(n-2k+\frac{1}{2})}} \frac{1}{F_n} \end{aligned}$$

plus a lower order correction term.

Also we can write  $F_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \phi^{n+1} = \frac{\phi}{\sqrt{5}} \phi^n$  for large  $n$ , where  $\phi$  is the golden ratio (we are using relabeled Fibonacci numbers where  $1 = F_1$  occurs once to help dealing with uniqueness and  $F_2 = 2$ ). We can now split the terms that exponentially depend on  $n$ .

$$f_{n+1}(k) = \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \sqrt{\frac{(n-k)}{k(n-2k)}} \frac{\sqrt{5}}{\phi} \right) \left( \phi^{-n} \frac{(n-k)^{n-k}}{k^k (n-2k)^{n-2k}} \right).$$

Define

$$N_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \sqrt{\frac{(n-k)}{k(n-2k)}} \frac{\sqrt{5}}{\phi}, \quad S_n = \phi^{-n} \frac{(n-k)^{n-k}}{k^k (n-2k)^{n-2k}}.$$

Thus, write the density function as

$$f_{n+1}(k) = N_n S_n$$

where  $N_n$  is the first term that is of order  $n^{-1/2}$  and  $S_n$  is the second term with exponential dependence on  $n$ .

## (Sketch of the) Proof of Gaussianity

Model the distribution as centered around the mean by the change of variable  $k = \mu + x\sigma$  where  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  are the mean and the standard deviation, and depend on  $n$ . The discrete weights of  $f_n(k)$  will become continuous. This requires us to use the change of variable formula to compensate for the change of scales:

$$f_n(k)dk = f_n(\mu + \sigma x)\sigma dx.$$

Using the change of variable, we can write  $N_n$  as

$$\begin{aligned} N_n &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \sqrt{\frac{n-k}{k(n-2k)}} \frac{\phi}{\sqrt{5}} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi n}} \sqrt{\frac{1-k/n}{(k/n)(1-2k/n)}} \frac{\sqrt{5}}{\phi} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi n}} \sqrt{\frac{1-(\mu+\sigma x)/n}{((\mu+\sigma x)/n)(1-2(\mu+\sigma x)/n)}} \frac{\sqrt{5}}{\phi} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi n}} \sqrt{\frac{1-C-y}{(C+y)(1-2C-2y)}} \frac{\sqrt{5}}{\phi} \end{aligned}$$

where  $C = \mu/n \approx 1/(\phi+2)$  (note that  $\phi^2 = \phi+1$ ) and  $y = \sigma x/n$ . But for large  $n$ , the  $y$  term vanishes since  $\sigma \sim \sqrt{n}$  and thus  $y \sim n^{-1/2}$ . Thus

$$N_n \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi n}} \sqrt{\frac{1-C}{C(1-2C)}} \frac{\sqrt{5}}{\phi} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi n}} \sqrt{\frac{(\phi+1)(\phi+2)}{\phi}} \frac{\sqrt{5}}{\phi} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi n}} \sqrt{\frac{5(\phi+2)}{\phi}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}}$$

since  $\sigma^2 = n \frac{\phi}{5(\phi+2)}$ .

## (Sketch of the) Proof of Gaussianity

For the second term  $S_n$ , take the logarithm and once again change variables by  $k = \mu + x\sigma$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \log(S_n) &= \log \left( \phi^{-n} \frac{(n-k)^{(n-k)}}{k^k (n-2k)^{(n-2k)}} \right) \\
 &= -n \log(\phi) + (n-k) \log(n-k) - (k) \log(k) \\
 &\quad - (n-2k) \log(n-2k) \\
 &= -n \log(\phi) + (n - (\mu + x\sigma)) \log(n - (\mu + x\sigma)) \\
 &\quad - (\mu + x\sigma) \log(\mu + x\sigma) \\
 &\quad - (n - 2(\mu + x\sigma)) \log(n - 2(\mu + x\sigma)) \\
 &= -n \log(\phi) \\
 &\quad + (n - (\mu + x\sigma)) \left( \log(n - \mu) + \log \left( 1 - \frac{x\sigma}{n - \mu} \right) \right) \\
 &\quad - (\mu + x\sigma) \left( \log(\mu) + \log \left( 1 + \frac{x\sigma}{\mu} \right) \right) \\
 &\quad - (n - 2(\mu + x\sigma)) \left( \log(n - 2\mu) + \log \left( 1 - \frac{x\sigma}{n - 2\mu} \right) \right) \\
 &= -n \log(\phi) \\
 &\quad + (n - (\mu + x\sigma)) \left( \log \left( \frac{n}{\mu} - 1 \right) + \log \left( 1 - \frac{x\sigma}{n - \mu} \right) \right) \\
 &\quad - (\mu + x\sigma) \log \left( 1 + \frac{x\sigma}{\mu} \right) \\
 &\quad - (n - 2(\mu + x\sigma)) \left( \log \left( \frac{n}{\mu} - 2 \right) + \log \left( 1 - \frac{x\sigma}{n - 2\mu} \right) \right).
 \end{aligned}$$

## (Sketch of the) Proof of Gaussianity

Note that, since  $n/\mu = \phi + 2$  for large  $n$ , the constant terms vanish. We have  $\log(S_n)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= -n \log(\phi) + (n-k) \log\left(\frac{n}{\mu} - 1\right) - (n-2k) \log\left(\frac{n}{\mu} - 2\right) + (n-(\mu+x\sigma)) \log\left(1 - \frac{x\sigma}{n-\mu}\right) \\
 &\quad - (\mu+x\sigma) \log\left(1 + \frac{x\sigma}{\mu}\right) - (n-2(\mu+x\sigma)) \log\left(1 - \frac{x\sigma}{n-2\mu}\right) \\
 &= -n \log(\phi) + (n-k) \log(\phi+1) - (n-2k) \log(\phi) + (n-(\mu+x\sigma)) \log\left(1 - \frac{x\sigma}{n-\mu}\right) \\
 &\quad - (\mu+x\sigma) \log\left(1 + \frac{x\sigma}{\mu}\right) - (n-2(\mu+x\sigma)) \log\left(1 - \frac{x\sigma}{n-2\mu}\right) \\
 &= n(-\log(\phi) + \log(\phi^2) - \log(\phi)) + k(\log(\phi^2) + 2\log(\phi)) + (n-(\mu+x\sigma)) \log\left(1 - \frac{x\sigma}{n-\mu}\right) \\
 &\quad - (\mu+x\sigma) \log\left(1 + \frac{x\sigma}{\mu}\right) - (n-2(\mu+x\sigma)) \log\left(1 - 2\frac{x\sigma}{n-2\mu}\right) \\
 &= (n-(\mu+x\sigma)) \log\left(1 - \frac{x\sigma}{n-\mu}\right) - (\mu+x\sigma) \log\left(1 + \frac{x\sigma}{\mu}\right) \\
 &\quad - (n-2(\mu+x\sigma)) \log\left(1 - 2\frac{x\sigma}{n-2\mu}\right).
 \end{aligned}$$

## (Sketch of the) Proof of Gaussianity

Finally, we expand the logarithms and collect powers of  $x\sigma/n$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
 \log(S_n) &= (n - (\mu + x\sigma)) \left( -\frac{x\sigma}{n - \mu} - \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{x\sigma}{n - \mu} \right)^2 + \dots \right) \\
 &\quad - (\mu + x\sigma) \left( \frac{x\sigma}{\mu} - \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{x\sigma}{\mu} \right)^2 + \dots \right) \\
 &\quad - (n - 2(\mu + x\sigma)) \left( -2\frac{x\sigma}{n - 2\mu} - \frac{1}{2} \left( 2\frac{x\sigma}{n - 2\mu} \right)^2 + \dots \right) \\
 &= (n - (\mu + x\sigma)) \left( -\frac{x\sigma}{n \frac{(\phi+1)}{(\phi+2)}} - \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{x\sigma}{n \frac{(\phi+1)}{(\phi+2)}} \right)^2 + \dots \right) \\
 &\quad - (\mu + x\sigma) \left( \frac{x\sigma}{\frac{n}{\phi+2}} - \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{x\sigma}{\frac{n}{\phi+2}} \right)^2 + \dots \right) \\
 &\quad - (n - 2(\mu + x\sigma)) \left( -\frac{2x\sigma}{n \frac{\phi}{\phi+2}} - \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{2x\sigma}{n \frac{\phi}{\phi+2}} \right)^2 + \dots \right) \\
 &= \frac{x\sigma}{n} n \left( -\left(1 - \frac{1}{\phi+2}\right) \frac{(\phi+2)}{(\phi+1)} - 1 + 2\left(1 - \frac{2}{\phi+2}\right) \frac{\phi+2}{\phi} \right) \\
 &\quad - \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{x\sigma}{n} \right)^2 n \left( -2\frac{\phi+2}{\phi+1} + \frac{\phi+2}{\phi+1} + 2(\phi+2) - (\phi+2) + 4\frac{\phi+2}{\phi} \right) \\
 &\quad + O\left(n(x\sigma/n)^3\right)
 \end{aligned}$$

## (Sketch of the) Proof of Gaussianity

$$\begin{aligned}
 \log(S_n) &= \frac{x\sigma}{n} n \left( -\frac{\phi+1}{\phi+2} \frac{\phi+2}{\phi+1} - 1 + 2 \frac{\phi}{\phi+2} \frac{\phi+2}{\phi} \right) \\
 &\quad - \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{x\sigma}{n} \right)^2 n(\phi+2) \left( -\frac{1}{\phi+1} + 1 + \frac{4}{\phi} \right) \\
 &\quad + O \left( n \left( \frac{x\sigma}{n} \right)^3 \right) \\
 &= -\frac{1}{2} \frac{(x\sigma)^2}{n} (\phi+2) \left( \frac{3\phi+4}{\phi(\phi+1)} + 1 \right) + O \left( n \left( \frac{x\sigma}{n} \right)^3 \right) \\
 &= -\frac{1}{2} \frac{(x\sigma)^2}{n} (\phi+2) \left( \frac{3\phi+4+2\phi+1}{\phi(\phi+1)} \right) + O \left( n \left( \frac{x\sigma}{n} \right)^3 \right) \\
 &= -\frac{1}{2} x^2 \sigma^2 \left( \frac{5(\phi+2)}{\phi n} \right) + O \left( n(x\sigma/n)^3 \right).
 \end{aligned}$$

## (Sketch of the) Proof of Gaussianity

But recall that

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{\phi n}{5(\phi + 2)}.$$

Also, since  $\sigma \sim n^{-1/2}$ ,  $n \left( \frac{x\sigma}{n} \right)^3 \sim n^{-1/2}$ . So for large  $n$ , the  $O \left( n \left( \frac{x\sigma}{n} \right)^3 \right)$  term vanishes. Thus we are left with

$$\begin{aligned} \log S_n &= -\frac{1}{2}x^2 \\ S_n &= e^{-\frac{1}{2}x^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, as  $n$  gets large, the density converges to the normal distribution:

$$\begin{aligned} f_n(k)dk &= N_n S_n dk \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}x^2} \sigma dx \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}x^2} dx. \end{aligned}$$

