

# A New Approximation to the Normal Distribution Quantile Function

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## Abstract

We present a new approximation to the normal distribution quantile function. It has a similar form to the approximation of Beasley and Springer [3], providing a maximum absolute error of less than  $2.5 \cdot 10^{-5}$ . This is less accurate than [3], but still sufficient for many applications. However it is faster than [3]. This is its primary benefit, which can be crucial to many applications, including in financial markets.

## 1 Introduction

The use of the inverse of the CDF for a probability distribution, also known as the quantile function, is widespread in statistical modelling (see, for example, [5, 7]).

During recent work, the need arose for a fast and reasonably accurate approximation to the normal distribution quantile function,  $N^{-1}(x)$ . Accuracy similar to the approximation in Equation 26.2.23 of [1] was sufficient (max absolute error less than  $4.5 \cdot 10^{-4}$ ). But speed was crucial.

The approximation of Beasley and Springer [3], along with related approximations such as Acklam's [2], provides improvements in terms of both accuracy and speed.

Both the Acklam and the Beasley-Springer approximations are based on the same ideas:

- (1) consider narrow tails separately from a wide central area
- (2) use a rational function of  $x$  to approximate  $N^{-1}(x)$  in this wide central area (avoiding expensive operations like log and sqrt)
- (3) take advantage of the fact that  $N^{-1}(x - 1/2)$  is an odd function.

The second and third ideas suggest that for the central region, we consider rational approximations of the form

$$(x - 1/2)F((x - 1/2)^2),$$

where  $F$  is a rational function. The approximations of Acklam, Beasley-Springer, and others for the central region are of this form.

The Beasley-Springer approximation for the central region is sometimes called a (3, 4) scheme, since the numerator of  $F$  is cubic in  $(x - 1/2)^2$  and the denominator of  $F$  is of degree 4 in  $(x - 1/2)^2$ . Similarly, the Acklam approximation is called a (5, 5) scheme.

## 2 New Approximations

For increased speed, here we consider a (2, 2) scheme for the central region and a (3, 2) scheme for the tails.

We chose the boundaries between the central region and the tails to be at 0.0465 and 0.9535, since with the above schemes and boundaries the maximum absolute error in both regions was nearly the same and both slightly less than  $2.5 \cdot 10^{-5}$ .

### 2.1 Central Region

#### 2.1.1 $0.0465 \leq p \leq 0.9535$

Put  $q = p - 0.5$  and let  $r = q^2$ . For  $0.0465 \leq p \leq 0.9535$ , define

$$f_{central}(p) = q \frac{a_2 r^2 + a_1 r + a_0}{r^2 + b_1 r + b_0} = q \left( a_2 + \frac{a'_1 r + a'_0}{r^2 + b_1 r + b_0} \right)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} a_0 &= 0.389422403767615, \\ a_1 &= -1.699385796345221, \\ a_2 &= 1.246899760652504, \\ a'_0 &= 0.195740115269792, \\ a'_1 &= -0.652871358365296, \\ b_0 &= 0.155331081623168, \\ b_1 &= -0.839293158122257. \end{aligned}$$

The benefit of the second expression is that we save one multiplication by using it. Similarly, normalising the denominator so that the leading coefficient is 1, rather than the constant coefficient as some authors do, also saves another multiplication.

There are 12 points of maximum error (also known as *alternating points*) in the interval  $[0.0465, 0.9535]$ :

$(p, err_{abs})$	$(p, err_{abs})$
$(0.046500, 2.494327 \cdot 10^{-5})$	$(0.592289, 2.494326 \cdot 10^{-5})$
$(0.054264, 2.494331 \cdot 10^{-5})$	$(0.752182, 2.494327 \cdot 10^{-5})$
$(0.081621, 2.494328 \cdot 10^{-5})$	$(0.859308, 2.494323 \cdot 10^{-5})$
$(0.140694, 2.494323 \cdot 10^{-5})$	$(0.918381, 2.494328 \cdot 10^{-5})$
$(0.247820, 2.494327 \cdot 10^{-5})$	$(0.945738, 2.494331 \cdot 10^{-5})$
$(0.407712, 2.494326 \cdot 10^{-5})$	$(0.945350, 2.494327 \cdot 10^{-5})$

From the theorems of Chebyshev and de la Vallée Poussin (see [4, Section 5.5]), it follows that  $f_{central}(p)$  is essentially the best possible rational approximation of (2, 2) scheme.

For comparison, the maximum absolute error of the “central” approximation in [3] is under  $1.85 \cdot 10^{-9}$ .

This approximation was found using the minimax function within the numapprox package of Maple:

```
Digits:=60:with(numapprox):
uBnd:=0.4535^2:
minimax(x->inverseCDFCentralRatApprox(x),0..uBnd,[2,2],x->sqrt(x));
```

where

`inverseCDFCentralRatApprox(x)` is the function  $N^{-1}(\sqrt{x} + 1/2)/\sqrt{x}$ ,

`uBnd` is the range we want the approximation over,

`[2, 2]` specifies that we want the degree of both the numerator and the denominator to be 2, and

$\sqrt{x}$  is the weight function we use, since we want to get the best approximation to  $N^{-1}(\sqrt{x} + 1/2)$  rather than  $N^{-1}(\sqrt{x} + 1/2)/\sqrt{x}$ .

We tried other values of `uBnd` near 0.4535, but the smallest maximum absolute error was found with this particular value.

### 2.1.2 $0.025 \leq p \leq 0.975$

The use of an even wider central region may be preferred, as this can provide further performance gains by reducing the expensive log and sqrt operations required for the tails.

We give one such example here (found as above using Maple, but with `uBnd=0.475`).

Put  $q = p - 0.5$  and let  $r = q^2$ . For  $0.025 \leq p \leq 0.975$ , define

$$f_{central}(p) = q \left( a_2 + \frac{a_1 r + a_0}{r^2 + b_1 r + b_0} \right)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} a_0 &= 0.151015505647689, \\ a_1 &= -.5303572634357367, \\ a_2 &= 1.365020122861334, \\ b_0 &= 0.132089632343748, \\ b_1 &= -.7607324991323768. \end{aligned}$$

The maximum absolute error for this approximation is less than  $1.16 \cdot 10^{-4}$  which occurs near  $p = 0.9692$ . While this error is much larger than the error in the previous section, it is still well smaller than the maximum error for the Abramowitz-Stegun approximation ( $4.5 \cdot 10^{-4}$ ).

## 2.2 Tails

### 2.2.1 $e^{-37^2/2} < p < 0.0465$

For  $5.3 \dots \cdot 10^{-298} = e^{-37^2/2} < p < 0.0465$ , put  $r = \sqrt{\log(1/p^2)}$  and define

$$f_{tail}(p) = \frac{c_3 r^3 + c_2 r^2 + c_1 r + c_0}{r^2 + d_1 r + d_0} = c_3 r + c'_2 + \frac{c'_1 r + c'_0}{r^2 + d_1 r + d_0}.$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} c_0 &= 16.896201479841517652, \\ c_1 &= -2.793522347562718412, \\ c_2 &= -8.731478129786263127, \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
c_3 &= -1.000182518730158122, \\
c'_0 &= 16.682320830719986527, \\
c'_1 &= 4.120411523939115059, \\
c'_2 &= 0.029814187308200211, \\
d_0 &= 7.173787663925508066, \\
d_1 &= 8.759693508958633869.
\end{aligned}$$

As with the “central” approximation, this approximation was also found using the minimax function within the numapprox package of Maple:

```

Digits:=60:with(numapprox):
v:=0.0465:
uBnd:=0.4535^2:
minimax(y->inverseCDF(exp(-y*y/2)), sqrt(log(1/v^2))..37, [3,2]);

```

Note that since we are approximating  $N^{-1}(x)$  itself here, we do not include a weight function in the arguments of the minimax function and so the default weight function 1 is used.

The maximum absolute error in this case is less than  $2.458 \cdot 10^{-5}$ .

### 2.2.2 $0.9535 < p < 1 - e^{-37^2/2}$

Due to the symmetry of  $N^{-1}(p)$  about  $p = 1/2$ , we approximate  $N^{-1}(p)$  by  $-f_{tail}(1 - p)$  (note that here  $r = \sqrt{\log(1/(1 - p)^2)}$ ).

## 3 Abramowitz and Stegun Approximations

Having found the above new approximations, we turned our attention to the approximations in Equations 26.2.22 and 26.2.23 of [1]. As those authors note, these approximations are from [6]. In particular, Sheets 67 and 68 on pages 191–192 of [6].

If we restrict our attention to ranges like  $e^{-37^2/2} < p < 1 - e^{-37^2/2}$  (this includes almost the entire IEEE-754 range of representable real numbers), then we can improve on the approximations of Abramowitz and Stegun.

For example, in this range, we can replace Equation 26.2.23 of [1] with

$$x_p = t - \frac{c_2 t^2 + c_1 t + c_0}{d_3 t^3 + d_2 t^2 + d_1 t + 1} + \epsilon(p),$$

where  $|\epsilon(p)| < 8 \cdot 10^{-5}$  and

$$\begin{aligned}c_0 &= 2.653962002601684482, \\c_1 &= 1.561533700212080345, \\c_2 &= 0.061146735765196993, \\d_1 &= 1.904875182836498708, \\d_2 &= 0.454055536444233510, \\d_3 &= 0.009547745327068945.\end{aligned}$$

This is over five times more accurate than the approximation in [1]. However, as one increases the range even closer to 0 and 1, the max absolute increases until we obtain Equation 26.2.23 of [1]. The near-best possible nature of Equation 26.2.23 is illustrated by the graph in Sheet 68 of [6] showing that Chebyshev's theorem nearly holds for this approximation.

Note also that this approximation shows the justification for the use of  $\sqrt{\log(1/p^2)}$  in these tail approximations. As  $p \rightarrow 0$ ,  $N^{-1}(p)$  approaches  $-\sqrt{\log(1/p^2)}$  plus a quantity that approaches 0 as  $p$  does.

## 4 Performance

Using Java (JDK 1.6.0\_17), we coded the following approximations in order to compare their performance.

- the Abramowitz-Stegun approximation (AS in the table below)
- the Beasley-Springer approximation (BS in the table below)
- the approximation from Section 2 using the central region approximation in Section 2.1.1 (Rat22A in the table below)
- the approximation from Section 2 using the central region approximation in Section 2.1.2 (Rat22B in the table below).

In each case, we calculated the approximation 200,000 times for each  $p$  from 0.001 to 0.999 with 0.001 as our step size. These calculations were done on a Dell Inspiron 1525, running Windows Vista and using an Intel Core 2 Duo T5800 2.00 GHz CPU. The times in milliseconds for each approximation are given in the table below.

method	time(ms)
AS	25,210
BS	10,212
Rat22A	8052
Rat22B	6649

As one would expect, the new approximations given here are faster than the currently known ones. The comparison between Rat22A and Rat22B is also interesting, as it shows the impact of the calculation of the log and sqrt operations. Although these operations only need to be performed for a small subset of all values of  $p$ , reducing the number of these operations by just under 50% reduced the CPU time required by nearly 20%.

## References

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