

# A Report on the Ziggurat Method

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## Abstract

This report outlines, as well as provides a mathematical proof of functionality, of a highly efficient pseudo-random number generator: The Ziggurat Method. A simple ready-to-use code has been provided by previous authors. We contribute to this with a speed test on a modern Intel processor, as well as a Python script that generates all the necessary information to implement a specific version of the algorithm.

## 1 Introduction

Pseudo-random number generators (PRNG's) are crucial in the context of simulating noise in communication channels. We present a report on an efficient method for generating pseudo-random samples from any decreasing probability distribution called the Ziggurat Method. The initial idea was developed by [1], but has been enhanced by Marsaglia, Tsang [3] and others. Specifically, we will show the latest and most efficient version presented by McFarland [4]. In the latter paper, the method shows a speedup of over 3 times compared to traditional algorithms such as Marsaglia's Polar Method [2]. We present a speed comparison in C implemented on an Intel i7-4790 clocked at 3.60 GHz. McFarland [4] provides all the necessary code to implement an *ad hoc* version of the algorithm, as well as a ready-to-use C code for a univariate Gaussian. A proof that the samples from this method are truly Gaussian is also provided.

## 2 Uniform region sampling

Prior to explaining the method, a prelude into a simple, yet important, mathematical result in probability theory is due. Most pseudorandom number generators operate on the principle that sampling a point  $x$  directly from the distribution in question, call it  $g$ , is equivalent to the following:

1. Divide the region  $A$  under  $g$  into subregions  $A_i$  such that  $\{A_i, \dots, A_N\}$  is a partition<sup>1</sup> of  $A$ .
2. Randomly select a region  $A_i$  with probability proportional to it's area,  $\mu(A_i)$ .
3. Uniformly sample a point  $p = (x, y)$  from the selected region  $A_i$ .
4. Return  $x$ , since it will have distribution  $g$ .

The validity of this method can be simply proven. Let  $I$  be a random variable with distribution  $f_I(i) = \mu(A_i)/\mu(A) = \mu(A_i)$  that represents part 2. of the method presented above. If  $P = (X, Y)$  represents the points uniformly sampled in each region, then  $f_{P|I}(p|i) = \mathbb{1}\{p \in A_i\}/\mu(A_i)$ .<sup>2</sup> We can now calculate  $f_P(p) = f_{X,Y}(x, y)$ :

$$f_P(p) = \sum_i f_{P,I}(p, i) = \sum_i f_I(i) f_{P|I}(p|i) = \sum_i \mu(A_i) \frac{\mathbb{1}\{p \in A_i\}}{\mu(A_i)} = \sum_i \mathbb{1}\{p \in A_i\}$$

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<sup>1</sup>This means that  $A = \bigcup_{i=1}^N A_i$  and  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$  for all  $i \neq j$ .

<sup>2</sup> $\mathbb{1}\{x\} = 1$  if  $x$  is true and 0 if it is false.

A specific point  $p$  can only belong to one subregion, since  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset, \forall i \neq j$ . Hence, we have that:

$$f_P(p) = \sum_i \mathbb{1}\{p \in A_i\} = \mathbb{1}\{p \in A_1\} + \mathbb{1}\{p \in A_2\} + \dots + \mathbb{1}\{p \in A_N\} = 1$$

$$f_X(x) = \int_y f_{X,Y}(x, y) dy = \int_0^{g(x)} dy = g(x)$$

The Ziggurat Method takes advantage of this result, by partitioning the region under  $g$  into subregions that are easier to sample from than  $g$  itself. A dataset generated from this method will have distribution  $g$  up to machine precision.

### 3 The Ziggurat Method

The Ziggurat method uses the result from section 2 to quickly generate pseudorandom numbers from any decreasing distribution. The density in question, we will denote it as  $g$ , is partitioned into small rectangular layers of equal area such as in figure 1.

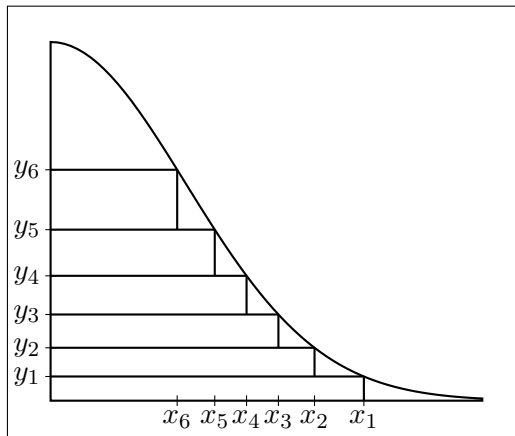


Figure 1. Bins of the Ziggurat algorithm for area size equal to  $1/8 = 0.125$  ( $N = 8$ ). Only 6 bins can be inserted under the curve ( $L_{max} = 6$ ), hence the layers occupy 0.75 of the total area.

Initially we must choose a number  $N$  of layers each with area  $1/N$ . Given that the total area the layers occupy is equal to the area under  $g$ , we can not fit all of them under the curve  $g$ . We now define  $L_{max}$  as the total number of layers that can be inserted under  $g$ . The leftover regions to the right of each layer, including the cap and tail of the distribution, now represent  $1 - L_{max}/N$  of the area under the distribution.

In the light of section 2, we may now think of this problem as region sampling under a defined distribution  $g$ , with  $L_{max}$  rectangular regions,  $R_1, \dots, R_{L_{max}}$  and one residual region  $A_R$  representing all regions that remain outside the rectangles, such that:

$$A_R = \bigcup_{i=1}^{L_{max}+1} A_i$$

where  $A_i$  are the actual leftover regions (one for each rectangular region), cap included. The method then has 2 levels, first it randomly chooses to sample either from a layer or from the residual region. If a rectangular layer is chosen, it returns a uniform sample. If the residual region is select, it then must first randomly pick a leftover region to sample from. For these regions, with the exception of the tail,

rejection sampling is applied (see Appendix 5.1) to generate a uniform sample. If the tail is chosen, we use a fallback algorithm.

For the sake of illustration, we give an example for  $N = 256$ . We will denote the borders of each rectangular layer as  $x_i$ , where the top layer (under the cap) is  $x_{L_{max}+1}$  and the one that has the tail to the right of it is  $x_1$ . The area of each rectangle will be  $1/256$ . From simulations with the code provided in section 4. we know that  $L_{max} = 253$ , so the total residual area will be  $3/256$ . We now do the following:

1. Sample an integer  $i$  uniformly between 1 and  $N = 256$ .
2. If  $i \in [1, L_{max} = 253]$ , return  $x$  uniformly from region  $[0, x_i]$ . (This represents the layers).
3. Else, sample an integer  $j \in [1, 254]$  with probability  $p(j) = \mu(A_j)/\mu(A_R)$ .
  - (a) If  $j = 1$ , return a sample  $x$  from the tail.
  - (b) Else, apply Rejection Sampling to get a uniform sample  $x$  from region  $j$ .

To implement this method we require 3 look-up tables. One for the ziggurat lengths  $x_i$  and heights  $y_i = g(x_i)$ , as well as the area of leftover regions  $A_j$ . We also need a uniform generator to output the values of  $i, j$  and  $x$ .

Since each region is selected with probability proportional to it's area, the method will generate samples  $x$  with distribution  $g$ , according to section 2.

## 4 Implementation and Speed

McFarland [4] has made available all the necessary codes to be used in C, Python and MATLAB. It can be found at [https://bitbucket.org/cdmcfarland/fast\\_prng](https://bitbucket.org/cdmcfarland/fast_prng). We have also uploaded a Python script that generates all the necessary tables ( $x_i, y_i = g(x_i)$  and  $A_j$ ) for any given bin size  $N$ : [https://github.com/dsevero/A-Report-on-the-Ziggurat-Method/blob/master/ziggurat/generate\\_tables.py](https://github.com/dsevero/A-Report-on-the-Ziggurat-Method/blob/master/ziggurat/generate_tables.py).

The header file *normal.h* that has been made available by [4], and is available at the hyperlink above, can be readily inserted into any C code. It provides a function *normal\_setup()* that must be called to initialize the pseudo-random number generator and *normal()* can be used to sample numbers from a univariate Gaussian distribution ( $\mu = 0$  and  $\sigma^2 = 1$ ). The area of the bins used to generate this specific code was  $1/256$ .

With respect to speed, the Ziggurat algorithm implemented in C for  $N = 256$ , is over 4 times faster than the tradition polar method [1], running on an Intel i7-4790 clocked at 3.60 GHz with 16 GB of RAM. Since *normal()* generates a univariate Gaussian, we compared the speed of computing  $\sigma * normal() + \mu$  (also in C) to the one of reapplying the Ziggurat algorithm to a  $\mu, \sigma$  Gaussian. No significant performance improvements were seen. McFarland [4] provides other speed comparisons in different programming languages.

## 5 Appendix

Here we present some useful results, with proofs, related to Rejection Sampling and hand-picked probability distributions. We assume that the reader is familiar with introductory level calculus and probability theory.

### 5.1 Rejection Sampling

**Theorem 1.** *Given two known distributions  $g$  and  $h$  defined over the same interval  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ . We can create a dataset distributed according to  $h$ , by sampling only from  $g$ , if the following is done:*

1. Choose a number  $k \in \mathbb{R}^+$  such that  $kg(a) \geq h(a), \forall a \in A$ .

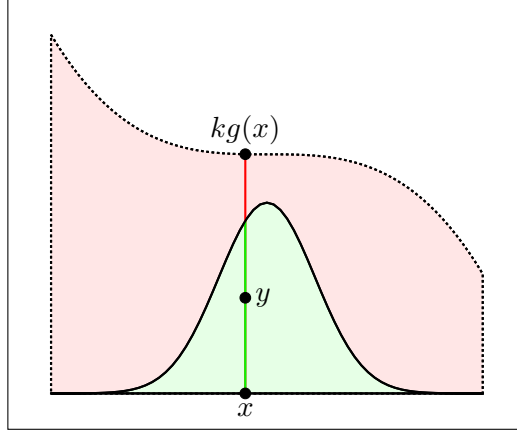


Figure 2. RSA rejection/acceptance regions. After sampling  $x$  from  $g$  (.....) if  $y$  falls under curve  $h$  (green) then it is stored, otherwise if it is above  $h$  (red) it is rejected.

2. Sample a point  $x$  from  $g$ .
3. Sample a number  $y$  from the distribution  $Uniform[0, kg(x)]$ .
4. If  $y < h(x)$  add it to the dataset, otherwise discard it.

We will call this the *Rejection Sampling Algorithm (RSA)*.

*Proof.* To show that the resulting dataset is distributed according to  $h$ , we may represent the sample points previously mentioned,  $x$  and  $y$ , by the random variables  $X \sim f_X(x) \equiv g(x)$  and  $Y$ , defined over a conditional distribution  $f_{Y|X}(y|x) = Uniform[0, kg(x)]$ , respectively. Also, define  $Z = \mathbb{1}\{Y < h(X)\}$  such that if the sample  $y$  is under the curve  $h$ , then  $Z$  takes on the value 1, otherwise 0. Now, since  $Y$  obeys a uniform distribution, we have that:

$$f_{Z|X}(z = 1|x) = \frac{h(x)}{kg(x)}$$

Consider now the pair  $(X, Z)$  where  $(X, Z = 1)$  represents the sample points  $X$  that we will keep according to the RSA. Looking at the joint distribution:

$$f_{X,Z}(x, z = 1) = f_X(x)f_{Z|X}(z = 1|x) = g(x)\frac{h(x)}{kg(x)} = \frac{1}{k}h(x)$$

we find that it distributes according to a multiple of  $h(x)$ , hence the dataset will have distribution  $h$ .  $\square$

We may now discuss some interesting observations related to the Rejection Sampling Algorithm. Consider first the probability of keeping a generated value:

$$f_Z(z = 1) = \int_A f_{X,Z}(x, z = 1)dx = \frac{1}{k} \int_A h(x)dx = \frac{1}{k}$$

Knowing this, it is interesting to define  $k = \min_{\kappa \in \mathbb{R}^+} (\kappa g(a) \geq h(a), \forall a \in A)$ , i.e. as the smallest  $k \in \mathbb{R}^+$  such that  $g$  is still above  $h$ . This way, we maximize the probability of keeping a generated value, thus minimizing computational efforts.

Let  $P = (X, Y)$  be a random variable taking on values  $p \in A \times [0, kg(x)]$ , i.e.  $P$  takes on values under curve  $g$  (union of red and green regions of figure 2). The joint distribution of  $P$  is:

$$f_P(p) = f_{X,Y}(x, y) = f_X(x)f_{Y|X}(y|x) = g(x)\frac{1}{kg(x)} = \frac{1}{k}$$

from which we conclude that the RSA is equivalent to uniformly sampling points  $(x, y)$  under  $g$  and keeping only those that also fall under  $h$ . The  $x$  coordinates of the stored points will have distribution  $h$ .

## 5.2 Piecewise sampling

Consider the following problem statement: given a distribution  $g$ , is it possible to divide  $g$  into functions  $g_1, \dots, g_N$  such that sampling from these functions (in a specific way) is equivalent to sampling from  $g$ ? Initially we will consider that  $g = \sum_{i=1}^N g_i$  and we denote each region as  $A_i \subseteq A$  as well as the area under each curve  $g_i$  as  $\pi_i$ . Also the support of  $g$  is  $A = \bigcup_{i=1}^N A_i$ .

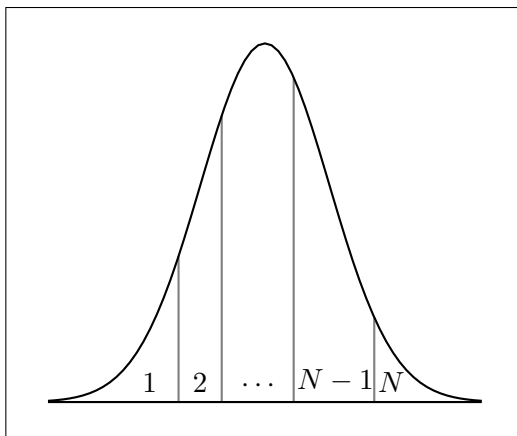


Figure 3. A general distribution  $g$  being divided into  $N$  regions, each with its corresponding function  $g_i$ , region  $A_i \subseteq A$  and area of region  $\int_{A_i} g_i(x)dx = \pi_i$ .

We propose that the following algorithm solves the problem in question:

1. Sample  $\omega$  from  $g$
2. For  $\omega \in A_i$ , sample  $x$  from  $g_i/\pi_i$ .

If the above algorithm is followed, then  $X$  will have distribution  $g$ . To prove that this is so, we define a random variable  $Z$  taking on values  $z \in \{1, \dots, N\}$  such that if  $\omega \in A_i$  then  $z = i$ . In other words,  $Z$  indicates to which region  $\omega$  belongs to. Now, we know that:

$$f_Z(z) = P[\omega \in A_z] = \int_{A_z} g(x)dx = \int_{A_z} g_z(x)dx = \pi_z$$

Also, the joint distribution of  $Z$  and  $X$  is:

$$f_{Z,X}(z, x) = f_Z(z)f_{X|Z}(x|z) = \pi_z \frac{g_z(x)}{\pi_z} = g_z(x)$$

Since  $X$  is what we are interested in, we now investigate its distribution:

$$f_X(x) = \sum_z f_{Z,X}(z, x) = \sum_{z=1}^N g_z(x) = g(x)$$

This result shows that we may sample from the decompositions  $g_1, \dots, g_N$  and still obtain a dataset with distribution  $g$ . Although this result is general, it says nothing of how it could be used to efficiently generate numbers from  $g$  since part 1. of the algorithm requires that we sample from  $g$  itself. This can be solved by considering the particular case in which the areas  $\pi_i$  all have the same value. This area can be trivially calculated in the following way: since  $g$  is a distribution we know that:

$$\int_A g(x)dx = \int_A \sum_{i=1}^N g_i(x)dx = \sum_{i=1}^N \int_{A_i} g_i(x)dx = N \int_{A_i} g_i(x)dx = 1$$

$$\int_{A_i} g_i(x)dx = \frac{1}{N}$$

Since each region now has equal area, sampling  $y$  from  $g$  and checking the region in which  $y$  has fallen into is equivalent to randomly generating an integer from the set  $\{1, \dots, N\}$  and using it as  $z$ . We can now rewrite the original algorithm as:

1. Sample  $z$  uniformly from  $\{1, \dots, N\}$ .
2. Sample  $x$  from  $Ng_z$

The formal verification of this algorithm is straightforward:

$$f_Z(z) = \frac{1}{N}$$

$$f_{X|Z}(x|z) = Ng_z(x)$$

$$f_X(x) = \sum_z f_{X,Z}(x, z) = \sum_z f_Z(z)f_{X|Z}(x|z) = \sum_z \frac{1}{N}Ng_z(x) = g(x)$$

This result is useful as long as it is easier to sample from  $g_1, \dots, g_N$  than it is from  $g$ . The Ziggurat method takes advantage of this and the fact that very efficient uniform pseudorandom number generators are available in most programming languages to create a simple algorithm to quickly generate samples from any decreasing density [3].

## References

- [1] George Marsaglia, "A convenient method for generating normal variables.", SIAM Rev. 6, 260-264, 1964.
- [2] George Marsaglia, Wai Wan Tsang, "A fast, easily implemented method for sampling from decreasing or symmetric unimodal density functions", SIAM Journ. Scient. and Statis. Computing, 5, 349-359, 1984.
- [3] George Marsaglia, Wai Wan Tsang, "The Ziggurat Method for Generating Random Variables", Journal of Statistical Software, 2000.
- [4] Christopher D. McFarland, "A modified ziggurat algorithm for generating exponentially- and normally-distributed pseudorandom numbers.", Apr. 2014.