# ON THE SIMULATION OF SOME PARTICULAR DISCRETE DISTRIBUTIONS 

Ion VĂDUVA, Mihăiță DRĂGAN<br>University of Bucharest, Romania (vaduva@fmi.unibuc.ro, dragan_mihaita@yahoo.com)

DOI: 10.19062/1842-9238.2018.16.2.2


#### Abstract

The paper summarizes the first several known discrete probability distributions which may describe the occurrence of a random number of events in various experiments, e.g in a reliability system, the occurrence of a random number of failures. Among these discrete distributions, the first mentioned are usual distributions such as: $\operatorname{Poisson}(X), \backslash>0 ; \operatorname{Geometric}(q), 0$ < $q<l$; $\operatorname{Pascal}(k, p), k £ N+, 0<p<1 ; \operatorname{Binomial}(n, k, p), n, k £ N+, 0<p<1$. Then, some new discrete distributions are defined in terms of positive convergent series \{an\}, $1<n<o o, a n>0$. The paper presents methods of simulating the above mentioned distributions, which are either general, like the inverse method, or based on the rejection enveloping method. As enveloping distributions, either of the said distributions - i.e., Poisson and Geometric - or other less known distributions - such as the Zipf distribution or the Yule Distribution - are used. Comments related to testing these algorithms are finally presented.


Keywords: discrete probability distributions, Zipf distribution, Yule Distribution

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Any discrete distribution, in the form $p_{n}=P(N=n), n=1,2, \ldots$ can describe the occurence of a random number of events. In reliability, some usual distributions of this type are used, basically, the following distributions [2,3,5,9], truncated on [1,oo), (i.e. $n>$ 1).
a. Geometric distribution $\operatorname{Geo}(p), \mathrm{O}<p<1$, definesd as $p_{n}=P(N=n)=q^{n}, n \mathrm{G} N^{+}$,
b. Pascal distribution $\operatorname{Pas}(p, k), 0<p<1, k \in N^{+}$, defined as
$p_{n}=P(N=n)=C_{n+k-1}^{k-1} \frac{p^{k} q^{n}}{1-p^{k}}, n \in N^{+}$,
c. $\operatorname{Poisson}(\lambda), \lambda>0$ distribution defined as
$p_{n}=P(N=n)=\frac{1}{e^{\lambda}-1} \frac{\lambda^{n}}{n!} e^{-\lambda}, n \in N^{+}$
d. Binomial distribution Binomial $(n, p), n \in N^{+}, 0<p<1$ defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
p_{\alpha}=P(N=\alpha)=\frac{1}{1-q^{n}} C_{n}^{\alpha} p^{\alpha} q^{n-\alpha}, q=1-p, \alpha \in N^{+} . \tag{1.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Methods for simulating these distributions are presented in various papers (see [1,5,9]).

Note that any convergent series of positive terms $a_{n}, n \geq 1$, could define a discrete distribution.

If

$$
\begin{equation*}
\beta=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n}, 0<\beta<\infty, \tag{1.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

then the probabilities of the discrete distributions derived from such series are
$p_{n}=\frac{a_{n}}{\beta}$.
Some other known discrete distributions, applied in different circumstances are the following.
e. The distribution of Euler [5] defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
p_{n}=\left(\frac{1}{n}-\ln \left(1+\frac{1}{n}\right)\right) \frac{1}{\beta}, n \geq 1 \tag{1.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
\beta=\gamma=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{k}-\ln n\right) \tag{1.6'}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\gamma$ is the Euler's constant $(0<\gamma<1)$ [8].
f. The distribution of Kemp defined as [4]
$p_{n}=-\frac{\alpha^{n}}{n \log 1-\alpha}, n \geq 1,0<\alpha<1$,
This distribution is also called logarithmic series distribution of the parameter $p, 0<p$ $<1$ and $p_{n}$ is in equivalent form

$$
\begin{equation*}
p_{n}=\frac{a}{n} p^{n}, n=1,2, \ldots a=-\frac{1}{\log (1-p)} . \tag{1.7'}
\end{equation*}
$$

g. The Zipf distribution $[1,5,6]$ of the parameter $a, a>1$ defined as
$p^{n}=\frac{1}{\zeta(a) n^{a}} n>0$,
where
$\zeta(a)=\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i^{a}}$
is the Riemann's function. This distribution describes the occupied memory cells in the computer when the memory is dynamically allocated.
h. The Yule (a) distribution of the parameter $a, a>1$, defined as $[1,5,6]$
$p_{n}=P(N=n)=\frac{1}{c(a)} B(n, a), n \geq 1, c(a)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} B(n, a)$,
where $B(n, a)$ is Beta function defined as
$B(n, a)=\int_{0}^{1}(1-u)^{n} u^{a} d u$,
which is connected with function $\Gamma(p)$ by the formula
$B(n, a)=\frac{\Gamma(n) \Gamma(a)}{\Gamma(n+a)}$.

The function $\Gamma(p)$ is defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Gamma(p)=\int_{0}^{\infty} u^{p-1} e^{-u} d u, p \in R^{+} \tag{1.9"'}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that for $p \in N^{+}$, the function $\Gamma(p)$ is $\Gamma(p)=(p-1)!$.

The simulation of these distributions is presented in several books and papers (see $[1,4,5,7])$ and they will be briefly described as such in a following section of this paper.

In [8] several positive convergent series $\left\{a_{n}\right\}_{n \in N^{+}}$are found which could define such discrete distributions, as

$$
P(N=n)=p_{n}=\frac{a_{n}}{\beta}, \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} p_{n}=1 .
$$

The following is a list of positive convergent series collected from [8]:

$$
\begin{align*}
& a_{n}=\frac{n}{a^{n}}, a>1, \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n}=\frac{a}{(1-a)^{2}}=\beta,  \tag{1.10}\\
& a_{n}=\frac{1}{n(n+p)}, p \in N^{+}, \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n}=\frac{1}{p} \sum_{k=1}^{p} \frac{1}{k}=\beta  \tag{1.11}\\
& a_{n}=\frac{1}{(n-1)!+n!}, \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n}=1=\beta \tag{1.12}
\end{align*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{n}=\frac{n}{(2 n+1)!}, \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n}=\frac{1}{2}=\beta \tag{1.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{n}=\frac{n}{(n+1)!}, \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n}=1=\beta \tag{1.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{n}=\frac{n!}{(n+k)!}, \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n}=\frac{1}{(k-1) k!}=\beta \tag{1.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{n}=\frac{1}{n^{2}}, \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n}}=\varsigma(2) \tag{1.16}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{n}=\frac{n^{2}}{n!}, \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n}=2+2 e=\beta \tag{1.17}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{n}=\frac{n^{3}}{n!}, \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n}=5 e=\beta \tag{1.18}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{n}=\frac{(p+1) \ldots(p+n)}{(q+1) \ldots(q+n)}, q-p>1, \beta=\frac{p+1}{q-p-1} \tag{1.19}
\end{equation*}
$$

One aim of this paper is to present methods for simulating the distributions defined by (1.10)...(1.19).

## 2. THE INVERSE METHOD

Any probability distribution can be simulated by a general method, the inverse method [1,5,6,7,9]. If $F(x)=P(X<x)$ is the cumulative distribution function (cdf) of a random variable $X$, then a sampling value of $X$ is simulated by the formula $X=F^{-1}(U)$, where $U$ is a random number, uniformly distributed over ( 0,1 ). (See $[1,6,7,9,10]$ ). This induces the following algorithm:

```
Algorithm INV
begin
generate U an uniform random number over (0,1);
take }\mp@subsup{F}{}{-1}(U)\mathrm{ , (where }\mp@subsup{F}{}{-1}\mathrm{ is the inverse of function F(x)=P(X<x));
end.
```

The method can be used if there is an easy way to calculate the inverse function $F^{-}$ ${ }^{1}(U)$. In the discrete case, where the function $F$ is a "step" function, the jumps of the function are in the points $1,2, \ldots$. Thus, the distinct values of $F(x)$ are $F(i)$ defined as

$$
F(i)=\left\{\begin{array}{c}
0, \text { if } x<0  \tag{2.1}\\
\sum_{\alpha=0}^{i} p_{\alpha}, \text { if } i \leq x<i+1, i=1,2, \ldots
\end{array}\right.
$$

To simulate a random sampling value $i$, we must calculate $F^{-1}(U)$ using $F$ in the formula (2.1) as a step function. In other words, we must search the index $i$, such as $F(i) \leq U<F(i+1)$. There are various possibilities to search $i$. One could be binary search. Here we use a simpler (but not faster!) procedure, based on dividing the interval $(0,1)$ in five intervals, namely
$(0,1)=(0,0.25) \cup[0.25,0.5) \cup[0.5,0.75) \cup[0.75,0.95) \cup[0.95, \infty)$.
The algorithm uses a table of distinct values of $F(i), 1 \leq i \leq i_{0}$, such as $F\left(I_{0}\right)=0.95$ (i.e. $F\left(I_{0}\right)$ is large enough). The values $F(i)$ are calculated as follows:

$$
F(i)=\left\{\begin{array}{c}
p_{1} \text { if } i=1  \tag{2.1’}\\
p_{1}+p_{2} \text { if } i=2 \\
, \cdots \cdots \cdots \\
p_{1}+p_{2}+\cdots+p_{k} \text { if } i=k
\end{array}\right.
$$

(The means by which $k$ can be determined is explained later; it is the $I_{0}$ index below).
Let us select the indexes $I_{1}, I_{2}, I_{3}, I_{0}$ as follows:

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{c}
F\left(I_{1}\right) \leq 0.25<F\left(I_{1}+1\right) ; \quad F\left(I_{2} \leq 0.5 \leq F\left(I_{2}+1\right) ;\right. \\
F(I 3) \leq 0.75<F\left(I_{3}+1\right) ; \quad F\left(I_{0}\right) \leq 0.95<F\left(I_{0}+1\right) . \tag{2.2}
\end{array}\right.
$$

The detailed algorithm INV is the following
Preparatory step; Calculate $\mathrm{F}(1), \ldots \mathrm{F}\left(\mathrm{I}_{0}\right)$, determine $\mathrm{I}_{1}, \mathrm{I}_{2}, \mathrm{I}_{3}, \mathrm{I}_{0}$.

1. generate $U$ Uniform on $(0,1)$.
2. if $U \leq 0.25$ then begin
$\mathrm{i}=\mathrm{I}_{1}$; while $\mathrm{U} \leq \mathrm{F}(\mathrm{i})$ do $\mathrm{i}:=\mathrm{i}-1$ end else if $\mathrm{U} \leq 0.5$ then
begin $\mathrm{i}=\mathrm{I}_{2}$; while $\mathrm{U} \leq \mathrm{F}(\mathrm{i})$ do $\mathrm{i}:=\mathrm{i}-1$ end
else if $U \leq 0.75$ then begin $\mathrm{i}=\mathrm{I}_{3}$; while $\mathrm{U} \leq \mathrm{F}(\mathrm{i})$ do $\mathrm{i}:=\mathrm{i}-1$ end
else if $U \leq F\left(I_{0}\right)$ then begin $i:=I_{0}$; while $U \leq F(i)$ do $i:=i-1$ end
else begin $\mathrm{i}:=\mathrm{I}_{0}$; while $\mathrm{U}>\mathrm{F}(\mathrm{i})$ do begin $\mathrm{i}:=\mathrm{i}+1 ; \mathrm{F}(\mathrm{i}):=\mathrm{F}(\mathrm{i})+\mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{i}}$
end; end;
deliver i .
(i.e. "i" is the generated sampling value). As $F(i), 1 \leq i \leq I_{0}$ are calculated only once and if $\mathrm{I}_{0}$ is small, then the algorithm is fast for generating a sampling value $i$. But sometimes $\mathrm{I}_{0}$ may not be small at all, and then the algorithm will be slow.

The detailed algorithm, described in steps 1. and 2. can be adapted and applied to each of the distributions (1.10-1.19).

## 3. THE ACCEPTANCE-REJECTION METHOD

There are various versions of this method (see $[1,4,5,6,7,9,10]$ ). Here, we will be using the rejection method based on enveloping the frequency function $f(n)=p_{n}$ of the distribution with another frequency function $h(n)=q_{n}$, which can be simulated. Let us assume that there is a constant $\alpha>1$ such as $\frac{f(n)}{h(n)}<\alpha, n=1,2, \ldots$.

The formal Theorem is the following: if X is a random variable with frequency function $\mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{n}}$ (to be simulated) and if Y is another random variable (which can be simulated) whose frequency function is $\mathrm{h}_{\mathrm{n}}$, and if there is a constant $\alpha, 1<\alpha<\infty$ such as
$\frac{p_{n}}{h_{n}} \leq \alpha$,
and if $U$ is an uniform $(0,1)$ random number independent of $Y$, then if
$0<U \leq \frac{p_{n}(Y)}{\alpha h_{n}(Y)}$,
the simulated value of X is $\mathrm{X}=\mathrm{Y}$.
The general simulation algorithm is:

## Algorithm REJ <br> repeat

simulate a random variate $U$ uniform $(0,1)$;
simulate $j$ a random variate with the frequency function $h(n)$;
until $\mathrm{U} \leq \frac{\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{j})}{\alpha \mathrm{h}(\mathrm{i})}$;
deliver $i=j$;
The value $i$ is the simulated sampling value of $f(n)$.
The acceptance probability of the algorithm is $p_{a}=\frac{1}{\alpha}$ and if it is large, then the algorithm is fast. The function $h$ is the enveloping function. To build up the algorithm REJ, it is important to find a good enveloping function $h$ such a way as the acceptance probability which is large.

Discussions on simulating by rejection procedure REJ any of distributions (1.10)(1.19) will be based on the following idea: the distribution $h(n)$ could be a distribution which is decreasing with $n$, such as can happen in cases of convergent series with positive terms.

This suggests that sometimes (but not always), a candidate for $h(n)$ could be the geometric distribution $\operatorname{Geom}(p), 0<p<1, q=1-p$, for which

$$
\begin{equation*}
p_{n}=p q^{n}, 0<p<1, q=1-p, n=0,1,2 \ldots \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

truncated to $n \geq 1$.Therefore, in this case, the distribution $h(n)$ has probabilities

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{n}=\frac{p}{1-q} q^{n}=q^{n}, n=1,2, \ldots \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

An enveloping candidate could be also Poisson or any other selected distribution.

First we have to specify how to simulate the truncated distribution $\operatorname{Geom}(p), n \geq 1$.
In $[1,5,9]$ two procedures to simulate this distribution are presented. Note that this distribution is related to Bernoulli triles.

A Bernoulli trile is an experiment on an event with constant probability $p$ which, when it occurs, we say that is a success and when it does not occur, we say that is a failure. The number of failures $N$ until a success occurs is a random variable having distribution $\operatorname{Geom}(p)$. Therefore, this can be simulated as:

## Algorithm COUNT FAILURES

1. Read $p, 0<p<1$; $j:=0$;

## 2. Repeat

Generate $U$ uniform $(0,1)$; if $\mathrm{U} \geq \mathrm{p}$ then $j:+j+1$
until $\mathrm{U}<\mathrm{p}$.
The value $j$ is the simulated value of $\operatorname{Geom}(p)$.
We can also use the inverse method to simulate $\operatorname{Geom}(p)$. The cdf in this case is

$$
\begin{equation*}
F(n)=P(N<n)=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} p q^{i}=p \frac{1-q^{n}}{1-q}=1-q^{n} \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The inverse method gives
$j=\left[\frac{U}{q}\right]$
where [ $t$ ] means the integer closest to real number $t$.
Since the values of $j$ must be positive, we have to reject the value of $j=0$, i.e. the algorithm is:

```
repeat
generate j from Geom(p)
until j>0.
```

The value $j$ is the simulated value of the truncated $\operatorname{Geom}(p)$.
In order to build up the algorithm REJ for all discrete distributions in the form (1.10)(1.19), it is enough, in each case, to specify the possible envelope distribution and then to determine the constant $\alpha$ in the algorithm REJ. For instance, to determine $q$ of the enveloping $\operatorname{Geom}(p)$, we find first the maximum value of $a_{n}$ and if this is $\beta=a_{m}$, then select $q$ in the form $q=\beta, \beta$ will be a normalizing number.
3.1 Simulation of the distribution defined by (1.10).

Method 1. Here is where we try to determine the geometric distribution as envelope.
The maximum of $\mathrm{a}_{\mathrm{n}}$ is determined as the maximum of the function
$f(x)_{\max }=\max \left(\frac{1}{\beta} \frac{x}{a^{x}}\right), \quad x \geq 0$.
i.e. the maximum of
$f(x)=x a^{-x}, \quad a>1$.
After some calculations, it results that the maximum point of this function is
$x_{0}=\sqrt{\frac{a}{\ln (a)}}>1, \quad \ln (a)>0$,
and hence
$\left(a_{n}\right)_{\max }=\frac{(a-1)^{2}}{a} \frac{x_{0}}{a^{x_{0}}}$,
and this gives
$q=\frac{(a-1)^{2}}{a} \frac{x_{0}}{a^{x_{0}}}$.
To determine $\alpha$, consider the ratio
$r_{n}=\frac{a_{n}}{q^{n}}, \quad$ i.e. $r(x)=\frac{f(x)}{q^{x}}$
which, in a similar manner has the same maximum point $\mathrm{x}_{0}$, and after some calculation we finally obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha=\frac{a^{x_{0}}+1}{a^{x_{0}}+1-(a-1)^{2} x_{0}}>1 . \tag{3.4’}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now, the construction of the algorithm REJ is terminated.
Method 2. An alternative method of simulating this distribution is to use the inverse method of the equivalent distribution directly:
$f(n)=\frac{b^{3}}{(b-1)^{2}} n b^{n-1}=K^{*} n b^{n-1}, \quad b=\frac{1}{a}<1, K^{*}=\frac{b^{3}}{(b-1)^{2}}$.
The cdf is therefore
$F(n)=K^{*} \sum_{i=1}^{n} i b^{i-1}=K^{*}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} b^{n}\right)^{\prime}=K^{*}\left(\frac{b^{n+1}-b}{b-1}\right)^{\prime}=K^{*} \frac{(n+1) b^{n}}{b-1}$
where the derivative ()' is calculated with respect to n . To apply the inverse method, we have to solve in n (numerically!) the equation

$$
F(n)=U, \text { i.e., } K^{*} \frac{(n+1) b^{n}}{b-1}=U
$$

where $U$ is an uniform random number over $(0,1)$. If $n_{0}$ is the solution of ( $3.4{ }^{\prime}$ ') then the simulated value is $n=\operatorname{int}\left(n_{0}\right)$.

Method 3. Let us use as enveloping distribution the Kemp distribution i.e.
$h_{n}=-\frac{1}{\log (1-p)} \frac{p^{n}}{n}, 0<p<1$.
Then the ratio $r_{n}$ becomes
$r_{n}=-\frac{(a-1)^{2} \log (1-p)}{a} \frac{n^{2}}{b^{n}}, b=a p$.
If $\mathrm{b}>4$, it is shown by induction that
$\frac{n^{2}}{b^{n}}<4$
Therefore, when p is selected such as ap $>4$ then $\alpha>1$ and the algorithm REJ is obvious. With respect to $p_{a}$, it seems that method 3 is preferable.

### 3.2 Simulation of the distribution defined by (1.11)

Method 1. Note that the sequence is
$a_{n}=\frac{1}{\beta} \frac{1}{n(n+p)}, p_{n}=\frac{a_{n}}{\beta}, \beta=\frac{1}{p} \sum_{k=1}^{p} \frac{1}{k}=\frac{1}{p} K^{*}$.
Let us choose this time as enveloping distribution a $\operatorname{Zipf}(2)$ distribution [1,5] defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
q_{n}=\frac{1}{\zeta(2) n^{2}}, \quad \zeta(a)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{2}} . \tag{3.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Consider the ratio
$r(n)=\frac{p_{n}}{q_{n}}=\frac{\zeta(2)}{\beta} \frac{n^{2}}{n(n+p)}$.

After some simple calculations we have

$$
r_{n} \leq \frac{\zeta(2)}{\sum_{k=1}^{p} \frac{1}{k}}=\alpha>1
$$

and the construction of the algorithm REJ is finished. Simulation of the Zipf distribution is found in $[1,5]$ and is presented in the last section. There is a version of this distribution [1] which is defined for $\mathrm{n}=1,2, \ldots K^{*}<\infty$ (i.e. a finite series!), referring to a finite population of size $K^{*}$. Comments on this, will me made in the last section of the paper.

Method 2. Let us take as enveloping distribution that given by (1.10). Therefore we have
$p_{n}=\frac{p}{\sum_{k=1}^{p} \frac{1}{k}} \frac{1}{n(n+p)}, h_{n}=\frac{(a-1)^{2}}{a} \frac{n}{a^{n}}$.
then the ratio is
$r_{n}=\frac{p a}{(a-1)^{2} \sum_{k=1}^{p} \frac{1}{k}} \frac{a^{n}}{n^{2}(n+p)}=\frac{p a}{(a-1)^{2} S} \frac{a^{n}}{n^{2}(n+p)}, \quad S=\sum_{k=1}^{p} \frac{1}{k}$
Note that ratio
$R_{n}=\frac{a^{n}}{n^{2}(n+p)}<\frac{a}{p+1}, a>1, p \geq 1$,
proved by induction. Therefore
$r_{n}<\alpha<\frac{p a}{(a-1)^{2} S} \frac{a}{p+1}$,
Which if $a \geq p+1$ gives $\alpha>1$, and the algorithm REJ is obvious. To decide which of these method is preferable, it is necessary to numerically compare the $p_{a}$ of the two methods.
3.3 Simulation of the distribution defined by (1.12)

Method 1. For the sequence $a_{n}$, we have
$a_{n}=p_{n}=f(n)=\frac{1}{(n-1)!(n+1)}, \beta=1$,
we select the enveloping distribution $\mathrm{h}(\mathrm{n})$ as a $\operatorname{Poisson}(1)$ i.e.

$$
\begin{equation*}
q_{n}=\frac{1}{(n-1)!}, \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} q_{n}=e, h(n)=\frac{1}{e} \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \tag{3.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

The ratio

$$
\begin{equation*}
r(n)=\frac{f(n)}{h(n)}=\frac{e(n-1)!}{(n-1)!(n+1)} \leq \frac{e}{2}=\alpha, \quad \alpha>1 . \tag{3.6'}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since elements $\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{n}), \mathrm{h}(\mathrm{n}), \alpha$ are specified, the algorithm REJ is obvious.
Method 2. If we select as enveloping distribution that given by (1.11), then we have $r_{n}=\frac{n(n+p)}{(n-1)!(n+1)} \frac{1}{\beta}$
and
$r_{n}=\frac{n^{2}(n+p)}{(n+1) n(n-1)!\beta} \leq \frac{p+1}{\beta}=\alpha, \quad \alpha=\frac{(p+1) \sum_{k=1}^{p} \frac{1}{k}}{p}>1$
therefore, the algorithm REJ is defined.
Method 3. Since $p_{n} \leq \frac{1}{2}$, we can take as envelope the $G e o(p), \mathrm{p}=\frac{1}{2}$ and
$r_{n}=\frac{2 \cdot 2^{n}}{(n-1)!(n+1)} \leq \frac{4 e}{2}=2 e^{2}>1$
and again, the required algorithm is ready. Note that method 1 is the best of the three methods, since in that case $\alpha$ is close to one.

### 3.4 Simulation of the distribution defined by (1.13)

Method 1. The sequence
$a_{n}=\frac{n}{(2 n+)!}, \beta=\frac{1}{2}$, gives $p_{n}=\frac{2 n}{(2 n+1)!}$
If we select as enveloping distribution the Poisson(1) distribution in the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{n}=\frac{1}{e} \frac{1}{(n-1)!}, n \geq 1 \text {, } \tag{3.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
r_{n}=\frac{p_{n}}{h_{n}}=\frac{2 e n(n-1)!}{(2 n+1)!} \leq \frac{2 e}{2}=\alpha=e \tag{3.7’}
\end{equation*}
$$

The algorithm REJ is obvious in this case.
Method 2. Let us take as envelope the distribution (1.12). In this case, we have

$$
r_{n}=\frac{2 n(n+1)(n-1)!}{(2 n+1)!}=\frac{2(n+1)!}{(2 n+1)!} \leq \frac{2(2 n+1)!}{(2 n+1)!}=2=\alpha
$$

and algorithm REJ is obvious. This method is better than method 1 , since $p_{a}$ is larger.

### 3.5 Simulation of the distribution derived from (1.4)

Method 1. In this case
$a_{n}=p_{n}=\frac{n}{(n+1)!}$.
We select as an enveloping distribution the Poisson(1), i.e.

$$
\begin{equation*}
q_{n}=\frac{1}{(e-1) n!} . \tag{3.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

The ratio $r_{n}$ is

$$
r_{n}=\frac{p_{n}}{q_{n}}=\frac{n(e-1)}{n+1} \leq e-1=\alpha
$$

and elements of the algorithm REJ are determined.
Method 2. Let us choose as enveloping distribution the Kemp distribution. Then the ratio becomes

$$
r_{n}=-\log (1-p) \frac{n^{2}}{(n+1)!p^{n}} \leq-\log (1-p) \frac{1}{2 p}=\alpha, 0<p<1
$$

If we choose $p$ such as $e^{2 p}>1-p$, then $\alpha>1$ and algorithm REJ is defined. With respect to $p_{a}$, method 1 is preferable.
3.6 Simulation of the distribution derived from (1.15)

In this case, note that
$a_{n}=\frac{1}{\beta} \frac{n!}{(n+k)!}, \beta=\frac{1}{(k-1) k!}, a_{n}=\frac{n!k!(k-1)}{(n+k)!}$
We choose as enveloping distribution the Yule $(\mathrm{k})$ distribution in the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{n}=\frac{B(n, k)}{c(k)}, c(k)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} B(n, k) . \tag{3.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

The ratio $r_{n}$ is
$r_{n}=\frac{n!k!(k-1)}{(n+k)!} \frac{(n+k-1)!c(k)}{(n-1)!(k-1)!}=\frac{n k(k-1) c(k)}{n+k} \leq \frac{k(k-1) c(k)}{k+1}$.
Therefore

$$
\alpha=\frac{k(k-1) c(k)}{k+1}>1
$$

All elements of the algorithm REJ are defined. The probability $p_{a}$ can be calculated numerically.
3.7 Simulation of the distribution derived from (1.16)

Method 1 (known). This is the Zipf(a) Distribution, defined in its general form as

$$
\begin{equation*}
p_{n}=\frac{1}{\zeta(a)} \frac{1}{n^{a}}, a>1, \zeta(a)=\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i^{a}}, \tag{3.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the $\zeta(\mathrm{a})$ is the $\zeta$ Riemann function. The formula (3.10) shows that $\zeta(2) \leq 2$, (See $[1,8])$. An algorithm for simulation of the random variable X as $\operatorname{Zipf}(\mathrm{a})$ is presented in [1,4]. It uses as enveloping distribution the distribution of a random variable $Y$ such as
$q_{i}=P(Y=i)=\frac{1}{(i+1)^{a}}\left[\left(1+\left(1+\frac{1}{i}\right)^{a-1}-1\right], i \in N+, i>1\right.$
For which the cdf is
$H(i)=1-\frac{1}{i^{a-1}}$,
And the inverse method gives

$$
Y=\operatorname{int}\left(U^{\frac{-1}{a-1}}\right)
$$

(where int denotes "integer part"). Note that ratio

$$
\begin{equation*}
r_{i}=\frac{p_{i}}{q_{i}}<\frac{p_{1}}{q_{1}}=\frac{2^{a-1}}{\zeta(a)\left(2^{a-1}-1\right)}=\alpha>1 . \tag{3.10’’}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore, the algorithm is
Step1: Take b $=2^{\text {a-1 }}$;
Step2: repeat
Generate $U, V$ uniforms on ( 0,1 ), independent;
Take $Y=\operatorname{int}\left(U^{-\frac{1}{a-1}}\right), T=\left(1+\frac{1}{Y}\right)^{a-1}$;
Until VY $\frac{T-1}{b-1} \leq \frac{T}{b} ;$
Deliver $X=Y$.
X is the simulated value. The probability $p_{a}$ can be easy approximated.
Method 2. Let us take as enveloping distribution, the distribution derived from (1.10) with the same a. Then we have
$r_{n}=\frac{a}{(a-1)^{2} \zeta(a)} \frac{a^{n}}{n a^{n}}<\frac{a}{(a-1)^{2} \zeta(a)}=\alpha, \alpha>1$
and the algorithm REJ is terminated. To decide which of these methods is preferable, it is necessary to compare the $p_{a}$ probabilities. The second method appears to be the best.

### 3.8 Simulation of the distribution derived from (1.17)

Method 1. The distribution is
$p_{n}=\frac{1}{\beta} \frac{n^{2}}{n!}, \beta=2+2 e=2(1+e)$.
We take as enveloping distribution the $\operatorname{Zipf}(2)$ distribution defined as
$h_{n}=\frac{1}{\zeta(2) n^{2}}, \zeta(2)=\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\bar{i}^{2}}$,
where $\varsigma(2)$ is the Riemann function of the argument 2 . Therefore
$r_{n}=\frac{\zeta(2)}{2(1+e)} \frac{n^{4}}{n!}$.
It is shown by induction that
$\frac{n^{4}}{n!} \leq 4^{2}$.
Therefore
$r_{n} \leq \frac{\zeta(2)}{(1+e)}=\alpha>1$.
The algorithm REJ is specified
Method 2. Let us take as enveloping distribution the Kemp distribution. Then, the ratio $r_{n}$ becomes
$r_{n}=-\frac{\log (1-p)}{2(1+e)} \frac{n^{3}}{n \cdot n!p^{n}} \leq-\frac{\log (1-p)}{2 p(1+e)}=\alpha$.
As parameter $p$ is free, we can choose it as follows:
$(1-p) e^{2 p(1+e)}<1$, and then $\alpha>1$.
Thus, algorithm REJ is terminated. To select the best method, the probabilities $p_{a}$ must be estimated numerically.

### 3.9 Simulation of the distribution derived from (1.18)

Method 1. The distribution is
$p_{n}=\frac{1}{5 e} \frac{n^{3}}{n!}$.
In this case we take again as enveloping distribution the $\operatorname{Zipf}(2)$ distribution, i.e.
$h_{n}=\frac{1}{\zeta(2) n^{2}}$.
The ratio $r_{n}$ in this case is $r_{n}=\frac{\zeta(2)}{5 e} \frac{n^{5}}{n!}$.
Here, again by induction, it is shown that
$\frac{n^{5}}{n!}<64$,
and finally $\alpha=\frac{\zeta(2) .64}{5 e}>1$.
The algorithm REJ is obvious.
Method 2. Let us choose as enveloping distribution the Kemp distribution $0<p<1$, i.e. $h_{n}=-\frac{1}{\log (1-p)} \frac{p^{n}}{n}$.

The ratio $r_{n}$ is
$r_{n}=-\frac{\log (1-p)}{5 e} \frac{n^{4}}{n!p^{n}} \leq-\frac{\log (1-p)}{p .5 e}=\alpha=-\frac{\log (1-p)}{\log e^{5 e p}}$.
If we choose $p$ as
$(1-p) e^{5 e p}<1$, which can be done, then $\alpha>1$, algorithm REJ is ready.

### 3.10 Simulation of the distribution derived from (1.19)

Method 1. In this case we have
$p_{n}=\frac{q-p-1}{p+1} \frac{(p+1) \ldots(p+n)}{(q+1) \ldots(q+n)}, q-p>1$.
Let us take as enveloping distribution (1.10)
$h_{n}=\frac{(a-1)^{2}}{a} \frac{n}{a^{n}}$.
Now the ratio $r_{n}=\frac{p_{n}}{h_{n}}$ is $r_{n}=\frac{(p+n)!q!}{(q+n)!p!} \frac{a}{(a-1)^{2}} \frac{a^{n}}{n}$.
Since the function $\frac{a^{x}}{x}<1$ for $x>\operatorname{int}\left(\frac{1}{\log (a)+1}\right)=k$, we have
$r_{n} \leq \frac{(p+k)!q!}{(q+k)!p!} \frac{a^{2}}{(a-1)^{2}} \frac{q-p-1}{p+1}$.
If we now choose $\alpha$ as
$\frac{(p+k)!}{(q+k)!(q-p-1)} \frac{a^{2}}{(a-1)^{2}}=\alpha$,
then the ratio becomes $r_{n} \leq \alpha, \alpha \geq 1$, and the algorithm REJ is ready.
Method 2. Let us take as enveloping distribution the distribution of Kemp of the paramtere $\beta, 0<\beta<1$, then we have
$r_{n}=\frac{(p+n)!q!}{(q+n)!p!} \frac{q-p-1}{p+q}\left[-\log (1-\beta) \frac{n}{\beta^{n}}\right]$.
Note that $\beta=e^{-\lambda}, \lambda>0$, and then
$\frac{n}{\beta^{n}}<\frac{n^{e}}{e^{-\lambda n}}<\frac{e^{n}}{e^{-\lambda n}}$.
Finally, one obtain $r_{n}<\frac{p+1}{q+1} \frac{q-p-1}{p+q}[-\log (1-\beta)] e^{1+\lambda}=\alpha>1$.
i.e. the algorithm REJ is specified. Here again the probabilities $p_{a}$ will show which method is preferable.

## 4. ADDENDA: SIMULATION OF USED DISTRIBUTIONS

The simulation of discrete distributions mentioned in the formulas (1.6)-(1.9) will be presented in the following.
4.1 Simulation of logarithmic series of the parameter $p$

This distribution is $p_{n}=-\log (1-p) \frac{p^{n}}{n}, n \geq 1,0<p<1$.
Method 1. One method for simulating this distribution consists in the fact that the random variable X having this distribution is a mixture (see [5]) of the random variable Y with the cdf
$F(y)=\frac{\log (1-\mathrm{y})}{\log (1-p)}, 0 \leq y \leq p$.
with the Geometric(y) distribution. Therefore, the algorithm is Generate a random variate $y$ by the inverse method, i.e solve the equation
$\frac{\log (1-y)}{\log (1-\alpha)}=U$;
Generate X as Geometric(y).
Deliver X.
In [5], the inverse method for simulating $X$ is presented, (i.e. the solution of (4.2')).
Method 2. Let us take as enveloping distribution the one deriving from (1.10).

Then,
$r_{n}=-\log (1-p) \frac{p^{n}}{n} \frac{a}{(a-1)^{2}} \frac{a^{n}}{n}=-\log (1-p) \frac{a}{(a-1)^{2}} \frac{(p a)^{n}}{n^{2}} \leq-\log (1-p) \frac{a}{(a-1)^{2}} p a$, if $p a<1$

In this case $r_{n} \leq-\log (1-p) \frac{a^{2} p}{(a-1)^{2}}=\alpha$,
which gives $\alpha>1$ if $1<a<2$ and the algorithm REJ is defined. It seems difficult to compare these methods, if not by means of computer tests.

### 4.2 Simulation of $\operatorname{Zipf}(a), a>1$ distribution

Method 1. In this case
$p_{n}=\frac{1}{\zeta(a) n^{a}}, n \geq 1, \zeta(a)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{a}}$,
where $\zeta(a)$ is the Riemann function. In [1,5] a rejection method which uses the enveloping distribution is presented:
$q_{n}=p(Y=n)=\frac{1}{(n+1)^{a-1}}\left[\left(1+\frac{1}{n}\right)^{a-1}-1\right], n \geq 1$.
By calculating the ratio $r_{n}=\frac{p_{n}}{q_{n}}$, it results that $r_{n}=\frac{p_{n}}{q_{n}} \leq \frac{p_{1}}{q_{1}}=\frac{2^{a-1}}{\zeta(a)\left(2^{a-1}-1\right)}=\alpha>1$. (4.5)
In [1] it is shown that
$\alpha \leq \frac{12}{\pi^{2}}$ if $a \geq 2$ and $\alpha \leq \frac{2}{\log (2)}$, if $1<a<2$.
There are some remarks to be made regarding this distribution.
(1). If $1 \leq n \leq K^{*}<\infty$, it is used to represent random events, such as number of occupied cells of a computer memory of size $K^{*}$, when memory is dynamically allocated;-
(2). For a finite $K *$ this distribution describe the random occurrence of words in a text of a given length (natural language).

Method 2, (New method). Let us select as enveloping function the $h_{n}$ as the Kemp distribution. Then
$h_{n}=-\frac{1}{\log (1-p)} \frac{p^{n}}{n}, 0<p<1$,
and hence
$r_{n}=\frac{p_{n}}{h_{n}}=-\frac{\log (1-p)}{\zeta(a)} \frac{n}{n^{a} p^{n}} \leq-\frac{\log (1-p)}{p}=\alpha$.
We can choose the parameter $p$ such as $\alpha>1$ and the algorithm REJ is obvious. A more relevant comparison between these methods could be done by means of computer tests.

### 4.3 Simulation of Euler distribution

Method 1.(Known). This distribution is
$p_{n}=\left[\frac{1}{n}-\log \left(1+\frac{1}{n}\right) \frac{1}{\gamma}\right], \gamma=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{k}-\log (n)\right)$,
where $\gamma$ is the constant of Euler. In this case, we are using a rejection method based on enveloping $p_{n}$, with the distribution of Logarithmic series of parameter p, $0_{i} p_{i} 1$. The ratio is

$$
\begin{align*}
r_{n}= & -\frac{1}{\gamma \log (1-p)}\left(\frac{1}{n}-\log \left(1+\frac{1}{n}\right) \frac{n}{p^{n}}=-\frac{1}{\gamma \log (1-p)}\right. \\
& =1-\frac{\log \left(1+\frac{1}{n}\right)^{n}}{p^{n}} \leq-\frac{1}{\log (1-p)} \frac{1-\log (2)}{p}=\alpha .
\end{align*}
$$

If we choose $p, 0<p<1$ such as
$e>2+\left(\frac{1}{1-p}\right)^{p}$
then $\alpha>1$. The elements of the algorithm REJ are defined.
Method 2.(New) Let us take as enveloping distribution the $\operatorname{Geometric}(q)$, where
$q=\max \left(\frac{1}{n}-\log \left(1+\frac{1}{n}\right)=\log \left(\frac{e}{2}\right)=q<1\right.$.
Since $=\log (2)$, we have
$r_{n} \leq \frac{\log \left(\frac{e}{2}\right)}{\log (2) \gamma\left(\log \left(\frac{e}{2}\right)\right)}=\frac{1}{\log (2) \gamma}=\alpha>1$,
and REJ is defined. Here again, the comparison of methods could be done via computer tests.

### 4.4 Simulation of Yule (a) distribution

The simulation is based on the following judgment: The Yule(a) distribution is the mixture of the Geometric ( $p$ ) distribution with
$p=e^{-\frac{Y}{a-1}}$
and $\operatorname{Exp}(1)$ distribution of $Y$. This results in the following algorithm:

1. Generate E and $\operatorname{Exp}(1)$ random variate. (i.e. Generate $U$ uniform $(0,1)$ and take $E=-\log (u)), U>0$.
2. Generate $E^{*} \mapsto E x p(1)$, independent from $E$;
3. Calculate
$\mathrm{X}=\operatorname{int}\left\{\frac{E}{\log \left(1-e^{\left.-\frac{E^{*}}{a-1}\right)}\right.}\right\}+1$.
The X variable is the required Yule(a) variable.
In [1], it is specified that the Yule distribution is a better approximation of word frequencies (in a natural language) than the Zipf distribution.

Comments. Computer tests were not performed yet. They could be performed following the hints in [10]. This could make a good exercise for an M.Sc. student. Such an exercise could be could be useful for comparing various methods of simulation for each distribution. The inverse algorithms must be first considered to assess the performance degree of these methods.

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