Higher Order Log-Concavity in Euler's Difference Table

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Abstract. For $0 \le k \le n$, let e_n^k be the entries in Euler's difference table and let $d_n^k = e_n^k/k!$. Dumont and Randrianarivony showed e_n^k equals the number of permutations on [n] whose fixed points are contained in $\{1, 2, \ldots, k\}$. Rakotondrajao found a combinatorial interpretation of the number d_n^k in terms of k-fixed-points-permutations of [n]. We show that for any $n \ge 1$, the sequence $\{d_n^k\}_{0\le k\le n}$ is both 2-log-concave and reverse ultra log-concave.

Keywords: log-concavity, 2-log-concavity, reverse ultra log-concavity, Euler's difference table

Classification: 05A20; 05A10

1 Introduction

Euler's difference table $(e_n^k)_{0 \le k \le n}$ is defined by $e_n^n = n!$ and

$$e_n^{k-1} = e_n^k - e_{n-1}^{k-1}, (1.1)$$

for $1 \leq k \leq n$. Dumont and Randrianarivony [5] showed that e_n^k equals the number of permutations on [n] whose fixed points are contained in $\{1, 2, \ldots, k\}$. Clarke, Han and Zeng [4] gave a combinatorial interpretation of a *q*-analogue of Euler's difference table. This combinatorial interpretation was further extended by Faliharimalala and Zeng [7, 8] to the wreath product $C_{\ell} \wr S_n$ of the cyclic group and the symmetric group.

It is easily seen from the recurrence relation (1.1) that k! divides e_n^k . Thus the number $d_n^k = e_n^k/k!$ is always an integer. Rakotondrajao [13] has shown that d_n^k equals the number of k-fixed-points-permutations of [n], where a permutation $\pi \in \mathfrak{S}_n$ is called a k-fixed-points-permutation if there are no fixed points in the last n - k positions and the first k elements are in different cycles. Based on this combinatorial explanation, Rakotondrajao [14] has found bijective proofs for the following recurrence relations

$$d_n^k = (n-1)d_{n-1}^k + (n-k-1)d_{n-2}^k,$$
(1.2)

and

$$d_n^k = nd_{n-1}^k - d_{n-2}^{k-1}, (1.3)$$

where $0 \le k \le n-1$ and $d_n^n = 1$.

Recently, Eriksen, Freij and Wästlund [6] generalized the above recurrence relations to λ -colored permutations. By equating the right hand sides of (1.2) and (1.3), and changing the index from n-1 to n, we obtain the following relation for $1 \leq k \leq n-1$,

$$d_n^k = d_{n-1}^{k-1} + (n-k)d_{n-1}^k.$$
(1.4)

Applying the above relations (1.2) (1.3) and (1.4), we shall prove that for any $n \ge 1$, the sequence $\{d_n^k\}_{0\le k\le n}$ is 2-log-concave and reverse ultra log-concave.

2 The 2-log-concavity

In this section, we show that the sequence $\{d_n^k\}_{0 \le k \le n}$ is 2-log-concave for any $n \ge 1$. Recall that a sequence $\{a_k\}_{k\ge 0}$ of real numbers is said to be log-concave if $a_k^2 \ge a_{k+1}a_{k-1}$ for all $k\ge 1$; see Stanley [15] and Brenti [2]. From the recurrence relation (1.4), it is easy to prove by induction that the sequence $\{d_n^k\}_{0\le k\le n}$ is log-concave.

Theorem 2.1 The sequence $\{d_n^k\}_{0 \le k \le n}$ is log-concave.

The notion of high order log-concavity was introduced by Moll [12]; see also, [9]. Given a sequence $\{a_k\}_{k\geq 0}$, define the operator \mathfrak{L} as $\mathfrak{L}\{a_k\} = \{b_k\}$, where

$$b_k = a_k^2 - a_{k-1}a_{k+1}.$$

The log-concavity of $\{a_k\}$ becomes non-negativity of $\mathfrak{L}\{a_k\}$. If the sequence $\mathfrak{L}\{a_k\}$ is not only nonnegative but also log-concave, then we say that $\{a_k\}$ is 2-log-concave. In general, we say that $\{a_k\}$ is *l*-log-concave if $\mathfrak{L}^l\{a_k\}$ is nonnegative, and that $\{a_k\}$ is infinite logconcave if $\mathfrak{L}^l\{a_k\}$ is nonnegative for any $l \ge 1$. From numerical evidence, we conjecture that the sequence $\{d_n^k\}_{0 \le k \le n}$ is infinitely log-concave.

Recently, Brändén [1] has proved that if a polynomial has only real and nonpositive zeros, then its coefficients form an infinite log-concave sequence. However, this is not the case for the polynomials $\sum d_n^k x^k$, since not all polynomials $\sum d_n^k x^k$ have only real zeros, for example, when n = 2, the polynomial $x^2 + x + 1$ does not have any real root. Nevertheless, we shall show that the sequence $\{d_n^k\}$ is 2-log-concave in support of the general conjecture.

Theorem 2.2 The sequence $\{d_n^k\}_{0 \le k \le n}$ is 2-log-concave. In other words, for $n \ge 4$ and $2 \le k \le n-2$, we have

$$\left((d_n^k)^2 - d_n^{k-1} d_n^{k+1} \right)^2 - \left((d_n^{k-1})^2 - d_n^{k-2} d_n^k \right) \left((d_n^{k+1})^2 - d_n^k d_n^{k+2} \right) \ge 0.$$
(2.1)

The idea to prove Theorem 2.2 can be outlined as follows.

- 1. As the first step, we reformulate the left hand side of inequality (2.1) as a cubic function f in $\frac{d_{n+1}^k}{d_n^k}$ by applying the recurrence relations (1.2), (1.3), (1.4) and a recurrence relation presented in Lemma 2.3.
- 2. We show that Theorem 2.2 follows from the assertion that $f \ge 0$ in the interval

$$I = \left[n + \frac{n-k}{n}, n + \frac{n-k}{n} + \frac{n-k}{n^2}\right],$$

since it can be verified that for $n \ge 4$ and $2 \le k \le n-2$,

$$n + \frac{n-k}{n} \le \frac{d_{n+1}^k}{d_n^k} \le n + \frac{n-k}{n} + \frac{n-k}{n^2}.$$
 (2.2)

3. In order to prove f > 0, we consider f as a continuous function in x. It can be shown that f'(x) < 0 for $x \in I$ and

$$f\left(n + \frac{n-k}{n} + \frac{n-k}{n^2}\right) \ge 0$$

Hence we deduce that $f \ge 0$ in the interval *I*. This proves Theorem 2.2.

Lemma 2.3 For $1 \le k \le n$, we have

$$d_n^{k-1} = (k+1)(n-k)d_n^{k+1} - (n-2k+1)d_n^k.$$
(2.3)

Proof. First, from (1.1) it is easy to establish the following recurrence relation for $1 \le k \le n$,

$$d_n^{k-1} = k d_n^k - d_{n-1}^{k-1}.$$
(2.4)

For $1 \leq k \leq n$, we find

$$\begin{aligned} d_n^k &= (k+1)d_n^{k+1} - d_{n-1}^k \\ &= (k+1)d_n^{k+1} - \left(\frac{1}{n-k}d_n^k - \frac{1}{n-k}d_{n-1}^{k-1}\right) \quad \text{(by (1.4))} \\ &= (k+1)d_n^{k+1} - \frac{1}{n-k}d_n^k + \frac{1}{n-k}\left(kd_n^k - d_n^{k-1}\right) \quad \text{(by (2.4))} \\ &= (k+1)d_n^{k+1} + \frac{k-1}{n-k}d_n^k - \frac{1}{n-k}d_n^{k-1}. \end{aligned}$$

Consequently,

$$d_n^{k-1} = (k+1)(n-k)d_n^{k+1} - (n-2k+1)d_n^k,$$

as desired.

To prove (2.2), we need a lower bound on d_{n+1}^k/d_n^k .

Lemma 2.4 For $n \ge 1$ and $1 \le k \le n-1$, we have

$$\frac{d_{n+1}^k}{d_n^k} \ge n + \frac{n-k}{n}.$$
(2.5)

Proof. First we consider the case $1 \le k \le n-2$. We proceed by induction on n. It is clear that (2.5) holds for n = 1 and n = 2. We now assume that (2.5) holds for n - 2, that is,

$$\frac{d_{n-1}^k}{d_{n-2}^k} \ge n - 2 + \frac{n - k - 2}{n - 2}.$$
(2.6)

By recurrence (1.2), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d_{n+1}^k}{d_n^k} &= \frac{nd_n^k + (n-k)d_{n-1}^k}{d_n^k} \\ &= n + (n-k)\frac{d_{n-1}^k}{d_n^k} \\ &= n + (n-k)\frac{d_{n-1}^k}{(n-1)d_{n-1}^k + (n-k-1)d_{n-2}^k}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus (2.5) can be recast as

$$(n-1) + (n-k-1)\frac{d_{n-2}^k}{d_{n-1}^k} \le n.$$

So it suffices to check that

$$\frac{d_{n-1}^k}{d_{n-2}^k} \ge n-k-1.$$

Since $n \ge 3$, by the induction hypothesis, we have

$$\frac{d_{n-1}^k}{d_{n-2}^k} \ge n-2 + \frac{n-2-k}{n-2}$$
$$= n-1 - \frac{k}{n-2}$$
$$\ge n-k-1.$$

as required.

We now turn to the case k = n - 1. By (1.3), we get

$$d_n^{n-1} = (n-1)d_{n-1}^{n-1}.$$

By definition, we have $d_{n-1}^{n-1} = 1$. Moreover, it is easy to see that $d_n^{n-1} = n - 1$. Hence, by (1.4), we have

$$\frac{d_{n+1}^{n-1}}{d_n^{n-1}} = \frac{nd_n^{n-1} + d_{n-1}^{n-1}}{d_n^{n-1}} = n + \frac{1}{n-1} > n + \frac{1}{n}.$$

This completes this proof.

Next we give an upper bound on d_{n+1}^k/d_n^k .

Lemma 2.5 For $n \ge 4$ and $2 \le k \le n-2$, we have

$$\frac{d_{n+1}^k}{d_n^k} \le n + \frac{n-k}{n} + \frac{n-k}{n^2}.$$
(2.7)

Proof. From (1.2) it follows that

$$\frac{d_{n+1}^k}{d_n^k} = n + (n-k)\frac{d_{n-1}^k}{d_n^k}$$
$$= n + (n-k)\frac{d_{n-1}^k}{(n-1)d_{n-1}^k + (n-k-1)d_{n-2}^k}.$$

Thus (2.7) can be rewritten as

$$(n-1) + (n-k-1)\frac{d_{n-2}^k}{d_{n-1}^k} \ge \frac{n^2}{n+1}$$

that is,

$$\frac{d_{n-1}^k}{d_{n-2}^k} \le (n+1)(n-k-1).$$
(2.8)

By recurrence (1.3) for $2 \le k \le n-2$, we see that

$$\frac{d_{n-1}^k}{d_{n-2}^k} \le n-1,$$

which implies (2.8). This completes the proof.

We are now ready to give the proof of Theorem 2.2.

Proof of Theorem 2.2 . It is easy to check that the theorem holds for n = 4, 5, 6. So we may assume that $n \ge 7$.

We claim that the left hand side of (2.1) can be expressed as a cubic function
$$f$$
 in $\frac{d_{n+1}^k}{d_n^k}$. By the recurrences (1.2), (1.3), (1.4) and (2.3), we can derive the following relations,
 $d_n^{k-2} = (n-k+1)(n-k+3)d_n^k - (n-2k+3)d_{n+1}^k$,
 $d_n^{k-1} = d_{n+1}^k - (n-k+1)d_n^k$,
 $d_n^{k+1} = \frac{1}{(k+1)(n-k)} \left(d_{n+1}^k - kd_n^k \right)$,
 $d_n^{k+2} = \frac{1}{(k+1)(k+2)(n-k-1)(n-k)} \left((n-2k-1)d_{n+1}^k + (n+k^2)d_n^k \right)$.

It follows that (2.1) can be rewritten as

$$A \cdot \left(C_3(n,k) \left(d_{n+1}^k \right)^3 + C_2(n,k) \left(d_{n+1}^k \right)^2 \left(d_n^k \right) + C_1(n,k) \left(d_{n+1}^k \right) \left(d_n^k \right)^2 + C_0(n,k) \left(d_n^k \right)^3 \right) \ge 0,$$

where

$$A = \frac{d_n^k}{(k+1)^2(n-k)^2(k+2)(n-k-1)},$$

$$C_3(n,k) = -n^2 - 5n + 6k + 6,$$

$$C_2(n,k) = n^3 + n^2k + 5n^2 + 3nk - 10k^2 + n - 16k - 6,$$

$$C_1(n,k) = n^2 - 2n + 14k + 14k^2 + n^3 + 10nk^2 - 10n^2k - n^3k - 3nk,$$

$$C_0(n,k) = -4n^2 - 12k^2 - 12k^3 + 10nk + 18nk^2 - 9n^2k + n^2k^2 - n^3k.$$

Since d_n^k are positive, it suffices to show that

$$C_3(n,k)\left(\frac{d_{n+1}^k}{d_n^k}\right)^3 + C_2(n,k)\left(\frac{d_{n+1}^k}{d_n^k}\right)^2 + C_1(n,k)\left(\frac{d_{n+1}^k}{d_n^k}\right) + C_0(n,k) \ge 0.$$
(2.9)

We now consider the function

$$f(x) = C_3(n,k)x^3 + C_2(n,k)x^2 + C_1(n,k)x + C_0(n,k),$$

with

$$f'(x) = 3C_3(n,k)x^2 + 2C_2(n,k)x + C_1(n,k).$$
(2.10)

We aim to show that f'(x) < 0, for $2 \le k \le n - 1$ and $x \in I$.

It can be shown that f'(-1) < 0, f'(k) > 0, f'(n) > 0 and $C_3(n,k) < 0$. The proofs will be given later. Using the facts f'(-1) < 0, f'(k) > 0 and f'(n) > 0, we deduce that f'(x) has a zero in the interval [-1, k] and a zero in the interval [k, n]. This implies that f'(x) has no zeros in the interval I since f'(x) is a quadratic function. Since f'(n) > 0 and $C_3(n,k) < 0$, we see that f'(x) < 0 in the interval *I*. In other words, f(x) is strictly decreasing in the interval *I*.

It will be also shown that

$$f\left(n + \frac{n-k}{n} + \frac{n-k}{n^2}\right) > 0.$$

$$(2.11)$$

Combining with the fact that f(x) is strictly decreasing in I, we obtain that f(x) > 0 in I, as desired.

We now finish the proofs of the above claims. First, we show that f'(-1) < 0. Clearly, we have

$$f'(-1) = -(k+1)(n^3 + 12n^2 - 10nk + 19n - 34k - 30).$$

For $n \ge 7$ and $2 \le k \le n-2$, we find

$$n^{3} + 12n^{2} - 10nk + 19n - 34k - 30$$

$$\geq n^{3} + 12n(k+2) + 19n - 30 - 10nk - 34k$$

$$\geq (n^{3} - 30) + 2nk + (43n - 34k) > 0.$$

This implies that f'(-1) < 0.

Next we shall verify that f'(k) > 0 and f'(n) > 0. For x = k, we have

 $f'(k) = (k+1)(n-k)(n^2 + n + 2k - 2).$

Since n > k and k > 1, we see that f'(k) > 0.

For x = n, we have

$$f'(n) = -(n-k)(n^3 + 4n^2 - 10nk + 14k - 21n + 14).$$
(2.12)

To prove f'(n) < 0, it suffices to show that for $2 \le k \le n-2$,

$$n^3 + 4n^2 - 10nk + 14k - 21n + 14 > 0.$$

We consider two cases. For $2 \le k \le n-3$, we have

$$n^{3} + 4n^{2} - 10nk + 14k - 21n + 14 = n\left((n-3)^{2} + 10(n-k-3)\right) + 14k + 14 > 0,$$

On the other hand, for k = n - 2, we have

$$n^{3} + 4n^{2} - 10nk + 14k - 21n + 14 = n(n-3)^{2} + 4n - 14 > 0.$$

Thus f'(n) < 0 holds for $2 \le k \le n - 2$.

To prove f'(x) > 0, we need to verify that $C_3(n,k) < 0$. Since $n \ge k+2$, it is easily seen that

$$C_3(n,k) = -(n^2 + 5n - 6k - 6)$$

$$\leq -((k+2)^2 + 5(k+2) - 6k - 6)$$

$$\leq -(k^2 + 3k + 8) < 0.$$

Till now, we have proved the facts f'(-1) < 0, f'(k) > 0, f'(n) > 0 and $C_3(n, k) < 0$. Finally, we finish the proof of (2.11). It is easily checked that

$$f\left(n + \frac{n-k}{n} + \frac{n-k}{n^2}\right) = \frac{h(k)(n-k)^2}{n^6},$$

where

$$\begin{split} h(k) &= (-10n^4 - 26n^3 - 28n^2 - 18n - 6)k^2 + (-n^6 + 20n^5 + 27n^4 + 19n^3 - 7n - 6)k \\ &+ (n^7 - 10n^6 - 4n^5 - 4n^4 + 9n^3 + 7n^2 + 6n). \end{split}$$

We continue to show that $h(k) \ge 0$ for $n \ge 7$ and $2 \le k \le n-2$. We now consider h(x) as a continuous function in x, that is,

$$h(x) = (-10n^4 - 26n^3 - 28n^2 - 18n - 6)x^2 + (-n^6 + 20n^5 + 27n^4 + 19n^3 - 7n - 6)x + (n^7 - 10n^6 - 4n^5 - 4n^4 + 9n^3 + 7n^2 + 6n).$$

Since the leading coefficient of h(x) is negative, we only need to prove that h(2) > 0 and h(n-1) > 0. For $n \ge 7$, we have

$$h(n-1) = n(n^5 - 3n^4 + 2n^3 + 2n^2 + 2n + 1)$$

= $n(n^3(n-1)(n-2) + 2n^2 + 2n + 1) > 0,$

and

$$h(2) = n^{7} - 12n^{6} + 36n^{5} + 10n^{4} - 57n^{3} - 105n^{2} - 80n - 36$$

= $n^{5}(n-5)(n-7) + n^{4}(n-6) + 16n^{3}(n-7) + 55n^{2}(n-7)$
+ $80n(n-1) + 200n^{2} - 36 > 0.$

Thus we reach the conclusion that h(k) > 0 for $n \ge 7$ and $2 \le k \le n-2$. This completes the proof.

3 The reverse ultra log-concavity

In this section, we show that for any $n \ge 1$, the sequence $\{d_n^k\}_{0\le k\le n}$ is reverse ultra log-concave. Recall that a sequence $\{a_k\}_{0\le k\le n}$ is called ultra log-concave if $\{a_k/\binom{n}{k}\}$ is log-concave. This condition can be restated as

$$k(n-k)a_k^2 - (n-k+1)(k+1)a_{k-1}a_{k+1} \ge 0.$$
(3.1)

It is well known that if a polynomial has only real zeros, then its coefficients form an ultra log-concave sequence. If a sequence $\{a_k\}_{0 \le k \le n}$ is ultra log-concave, then the sequence $\{k!a_k\}_{0 \le k \le n}$ is log-concave, see Liggett [11].

In comparison with ultra log-concavity, a sequence is said to be reverse ultra logconcave if it satisfies the reverse relation of (3.1), that is,

$$k(n-k)a_k^2 - (n-k+1)(k+1)a_{k-1}a_{k+1} \le 0.$$
(3.2)

Chen and Gu [3] have shown the Boros-Moll polynomials are reverse ultra log-concave. The following theorem states that the sequence $\{d_n^k\}_{0 \le k \le n}$ is reverse ultra log-concave.

Theorem 3.1 For $n \ge 1$ and $1 \le k \le n - 1$, we have

$$\frac{d_n^{k-1}}{\binom{n}{k-1}} \cdot \frac{d_n^{k+1}}{\binom{n}{k+1}} \ge \left(\frac{d_n^k}{\binom{n}{k}}\right)^2,$$

or equivalently,

$$(n-k+1)(k+1)d_n^{k-1}d_n^{k+1} \ge k(n-k)\left(d_n^k\right)^2.$$
(3.3)

Proof. According to the recurrence relations (1.4) and (2.3), we find that (3.3) can be reformulated as

$$(n-k+1)\left(\frac{d_{n+1}^k}{d_n^k}\right)^2 - (n-k+1)(n+1)\left(\frac{d_{n+1}^k}{d_n^k}\right) + k(2n-2k+1) \ge 0.$$
(3.4)

The discriminant of the quadratic polynomial in d_{n+1}^k/d_n^k on the left hand side of (3.4) equals

$$\Delta = \left((n-k+1)(n+1) \right)^2 - 4k(n-k+1)(2n-2k+1).$$

We aim to show that $\Delta > 0$ for $1 \le k \le n-1$. We can rewrite Δ as follows

$$\Delta = (n-k+1)[(n-k-1)((n+1)^2 - 8k) + 2((n+1)^2 - 6k)].$$

Since $(n+1)^2 - 6k \ge (n+1)^2 - 8k = (n-3)^2 \ge 0$, it follows that $\Delta > 0$ for $1 \le k \le n-1$, as desired.

Therefore, the above quadratic function has two distinct real zeros. If we can prove that for $1 \leq k \leq n-1$, d_{n+1}^k/d_n^k is larger than the large zero, then (3.4) holds since n-k+1 > 0. Thus we still have to show that

$$\frac{d_{n+1}^k}{d_n^k} > \frac{(n-k+1)(n+1) + \sqrt{\Delta}}{2(n-k+1)} = \frac{n+1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{\Delta}}{2(n-k+1)}$$
(3.5)

In view of (2.5), we see that (3.5) can be deduced from the following inequality

$$n + \frac{n-k}{n} \ge \frac{n+1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{\Delta}}{2(n-k+1)},$$

which is equivalent to

$$(n-k+1)(n^2+n-2k) \ge n\sqrt{\Delta}.$$

Evidently,

$$\left((n-k+1)(n^2+n-2k) \right)^2 - n^2 \Delta$$

= 4k(n-k+1)(n-k)(n^2-n+k-1),

which is nonnegative for $1 \le k \le n-1$. This completes the proof.

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