

Quasi-Greedy Numerical Semigroups

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Abstract

Motivated by the change-making problem, we extend the notion of greediness to sets of generators of numerical semigroups, and we provide an algorithm to decide that property.

1. The change-making problem and greedy sets

In the change-making problem we are given a set of integer coin denominations $S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_t\}$, with $0 < s_1 < \dots < s_t$, and a target amount $k \in \mathbb{N}_0$, where \mathbb{N}_0 is the set of nonnegative integers. The goal is to represent k using as few coins as possible. Traditionally, an additional requirement is imposed, namely that $s_1 = 1$. In this work we explore the consequences of dropping that requirement, so that the ideas of the change-making problem can be generalized to numerical semigroups.

More formally, we are looking for a *payment vector* (a_1, \dots, a_t) , such that: 1. $a_i \in \mathbb{N}_0$ for all $i = 1, \dots, t$, 2. $\sum_{i=1}^t a_i s_i = k$, and 3. $\sum_{i=1}^t a_i$ is minimal.

The payment vector $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_t)$ that satisfies Conditions 1, 2 and 3 above is called a *minimal payment vector*, or *minimal representation* of k with respect to S , and we denote it by $\text{MINREP}_S(k)$. If \mathbf{a} is a minimal representation of k , then $\text{MINCOST}_S(k) = \sum_{i=1}^t a_i$. Note that $\text{MINREP}_S(k)$ is not necessarily unique, but $\text{MINCOST}_S(k)$ is.

A traditional approach for addressing the change-making problem is the *greedy strategy*, which proceeds by first choosing the coin of the largest pos-

sible denomination, subtracting it from the target amount as many times as possible, then doing the same with the second-largest coin, and so on.

If the set of coin denominations $S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_t\}$ is such that $1 < s_1 < \dots < s_t$, then not all integers are representable, regardless of the strategy that we choose for finding the representation. Given a representable k , we call it *greedy-representable* if there exists a payment vector $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_t)$ that is obtained by the greedy strategy mentioned above.

Definition 1. *Given a set of denominations $S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_t\}$ and a given target amount k , the greedy payment vector, or greedy representation of k with respect to S , is the payment vector $\mathbf{a} = \text{GREEDYREP}_S(k) = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_t)$ produced by the greedy strategy (if it exists), and $\text{GREEDYCOST}_S(k) = \sum_{i=1}^t a_i$.*

If k is greedy-representable, the greedy representation is not necessarily the best or the most efficient representation of k . In other words, given the greedy representation vector $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_t)$, the sum $\sum_{i=1}^t a_i$ is not necessarily minimal. However, for some specific sets S the greedy representation is indeed minimal for any greedy-representable k . Such a set S is called *greedy, orderly* or *canonical* [2]. Greedy sets were used in [2] to construct circulant network topologies with efficient routing algorithms.

2. Quasi-greedy sets and quasi-greedy numerical semigroups

If $\text{gcd}(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_t) = 1$ then S generates a numerical semigroup \mathbb{S} , and all integers $k > f(\mathbb{S})$ are representable, where $f(\mathbb{S})$ denotes the Frobenius number of \mathbb{S} . The denominations s_1, s_2, \dots, s_t are the *generators* of \mathbb{S} , and we write $\mathbb{S} = \langle S \rangle$. We also denote by G the set of gaps of \mathbb{S} . For the basic concepts and results about numerical semigroups see [3].

Even if k is representable, we cannot still guarantee that k be greedy-representable. This leads us to consider a modification of the greedy strategy for representing numbers, which we call *quasi-greedy*. The quasi-greedy algorithm behaves as the greedy algorithm whenever possible. It is described in Algorithm 1.

Algorithm 1: QUASI-GREEDY REPRESENTATION METHOD

Input : The set of denominations $S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_t\}$, with $1 < s_1 < s_2 < \dots < s_t$, $\gcd(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_t) = 1$, and an element $k \in \langle S \rangle$, $k > 0$.

Output: Quasi-greedy representation vector $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_t)$.

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1 for  $i := t$  downto 1 do
2   | Let  $q$  be the largest integer such that  $k = qs_i + r$  and  $r \in \langle S \rangle$  ;
3   |  $a_i := q$ ;
4   |  $k := r$ ;
5   | if  $k = 0$  then
6   |   | return  $\mathbf{a}$ ;
7   | end
8 end
```

Definition 2. For a given set of denominations $S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_t\}$, with $1 < s_2 < \dots < s_t$ and $\gcd(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_t) = 1$, and a given $k \in \langle S \rangle$, $k > 0$, the quasi-greedy representation of k with respect to S , denoted $\text{QGREEDYREP}_S(k)$, is the payment vector $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_t)$ produced by Algorithm 1, and $\text{QGREEDYCOST}_S(k) = \sum_{i=1}^t a_i$.

All representable numbers $k \in \langle S \rangle$, $k > 0$, have a quasi-greedy representation. Moreover, if k is greedy-representable, then the quasi-greedy representation is just the greedy representation.

Again, the quasi-greedy representation is not necessarily the best or the most efficient representation of k , i.e. given the quasi-greedy representation vector $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_t)$, the sum $\sum_{i=1}^t a_i$ is not necessarily minimal.

However, for some specific sets S the quasi-greedy representation is indeed minimal for any representable k , which leads us to the following definition:

Definition 3. Let $S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_t\}$ be a set of generators with $1 < s_1 < s_2 < \dots < s_t$ and $\gcd(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_t) = 1$, such that Algorithm 1 always produces an optimal representation for any given $k \in \langle S \rangle$. Then S will be called quasi-greedy, and the semigroup $\mathbb{S} = \langle S \rangle$ will also be called quasi-greedy.

Sets of cardinality two are quasi-greedy, but that is not necessarily the case for sets of cardinality three or greater.

3. Algorithmic identification of quasi-greedy sets

If S is not quasi-greedy, then there must exist some k s.t. $\text{MINCOST}_S(k) < \text{QGREEDYCOST}_S(k)$. Such a k is called a *counterexample*. The smallest counterexample must lie in some finite interval, the *critical range*. This is the basis for the algorithmic identification of quasi-greedy sets. Our main result is a generalization of Theorem 2.2 of [1] to numerical semigroups:

Theorem 1. *Let $S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_t\}$, with $1 < s_1 < s_2 < \dots < s_t$ and $\text{gcd}(s_1, \dots, s_t) = 1$, so that $\mathbb{S} = \langle S \rangle$ is a numerical semigroup generated by S . If there exists a counterexample $k \in \mathbb{S}$ such that $\text{MINCOST}_S(k) < \text{QGREEDYCOST}_S(k)$, then the smallest such k lies in the range*

$$s_3 + s_1 + 2 \leq k \leq f(\mathbb{S}) + s_t + s_{t-1}. \quad (1)$$

Theorem 1 is the starting point for the algorithmic identification of quasi-greedy sets and quasi-greedy numerical semigroups. The algorithm must simply look for a counterexample in the critical range, and if we cannot find one, then we can conclude that S is quasi-greedy, as well as $\mathbb{S} = \langle S \rangle$.

With the aid of Theorem 1 and the ensuing algorithm we have been able to find several quasi-greedy semigroups of embedding dimension three.

References

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