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# THE POSTAGE STAMP PROBLEM AND ARITHMETIC IN BASE $r$ 

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Abstract. Let $h, k$ be fixed positive integers, and let $A$ be any set of positive integers. Let $h A:=\left\{a_{1}+a_{2}+\ldots+a_{r}: a_{i} \in A, r \leqslant h\right\}$ denote the set of all integers representable as a sum of no more than $h$ elements of $A$, and let $n(h, A)$ denote the largest integer $n$ such that $\{1,2, \ldots, n\} \subseteq h A$. Let $n(h, k):=\max _{A}: n(h, A)$, where the maximum is taken over all sets $A$ with $k$ elements. We determine $n(h, A)$ when the elements of $A$ are in geometric progression. In particular, this results in the evaluation of $n(h, 2)$ and yields surprisingly sharp lower bounds for $n(h, k)$, particularly for $k=3$.

Keywords: $h$-basis, extremal $h$-basis, geometric progression
MSC 2010: 11B13

The Postage Stamp Problem derives its name from the situation when we require the largest integer $n=n(h, k)$ such that all stamp values from 1 to $n$ may be made up from a collection of $k$ integer-valued stamp denominations with the restriction that there are no more than $h$ stamps, repetitions being allowed. The problem of determining $n(h, k)$ is apparently due to Rohrbach [3], and has been studied often ever since. A large and extensive bibliography can be found in a paper of Alter and Barnett [1].

Let $h, k$ be fixed positive integers, and let $A$ be any set of positive integers. Let $h A:=\left\{a_{1}+a_{2}+\ldots+a_{r}: a_{i} \in A, r \leqslant h\right\}$ denote the set of all integers representable as a sum of no more than $h$ elements of $A$, and let $n(h, A)$ denote the largest integer $n$ such that $\{1,2, \ldots, n\} \subseteq h A$. Observe that in order for this to happen, it is necessary that $a_{1}=1$. Thus, $n(h, k):=\max _{A} n(h, A)$, where the maximum is taken over all sets $A$ with $k$ elements. Any set $A$ with $k$ elements for which $n(h, A)=n(h, k)$ is called an extremal $h$-basis for $\{1,2, \ldots, n(h, k)\}$, and it is natural to ask for all such extremal $h$-bases for a given $k$.

It is easy to see that $n(1, k)=k$ with unique extremal basis $\{1,2, \ldots, k\}$ and that $n(h, 1)=h$ with unique extremal basis $\{1\}$. The result $n(h, 2)=\left\lfloor\frac{1}{4}\left(h^{2}+6 h+1\right)\right\rfloor$ with unique extremal basis $\left\{1, \frac{1}{2}(h+3)\right\}$ for odd $h$ and $\left\{1, \frac{1}{2}(h+2)\right\}$ and $\left\{1, \frac{1}{2}(h+4)\right\}$ for even $h$ has been rediscovered several times, for instance by Stöhr in [5, 6] and by Stanton, Bate and Mullin in [4]. No other closed-form formula is known for any other pair $(h, k)$ where one of $h, k$ is fixed.

The purpose of this note is to determine $n(h, A)$ when the elements of $A$ are in geometric progression. In particular, this easily gives the value of $n(h, 2)$. The study of this case naturally leads to the representation of positive integers in a fixed basis $r>1$. Suppose $h, k, r$ are fixed positive integers, and let $A=\left\{1, r, r^{2}, \ldots, r^{k-1}\right\}$ be a $k$-term geometric progression. Since each positive integer $n$ can are uniquely expressed in the form

$$
n=d_{0}+d_{1} r+d_{2} r^{2} \ldots+d_{k-1} r^{k-1}
$$

where $0 \leqslant d_{i} \leqslant r-1$ for each $i, 0 \leqslant i \leqslant k-1$, it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
n \in h A \text { if and only if } d_{0}+d_{1}+\ldots+d_{k-1} \leqslant h \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The determination of $n(h, A)$ in this case, and subsequently of $n(h, 2)$, is an easy consequence of (1).

Theorem. Let $h, k, r$ be positive integers. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& n\left(h,\left\{1, r, r^{2}, \ldots, r^{k-1}\right\}\right) \\
& \quad= \begin{cases}h & \text { if } h \leqslant r-2 ; \\
r^{i}(t+1)+\left(r^{i}-2\right) & \text { if } h=i(r-1)+t, 1 \leqslant i \leqslant k-2, \\
& 0 \leqslant t \leqslant r-2 \\
r^{k-1}(t+1)+\left(r^{k-1}-2\right) & \text { if } h=(k-1)(r-1)+t, t \geqslant 0\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. We write $A=\left\{1, r, r^{2}, \ldots, r^{k-1}\right\}$. The case $h \leqslant r-2$ is easily dealt with. Henceforth, we assume $h \geqslant r-1$ and write $h=i(r-1)+t$ with $i \geqslant 1$ and $0 \leqslant t \leqslant r-2$.

We first show that $N=r^{i}(t+1)+\left(r^{i}-1\right)=r^{i}(t+2)-1 \notin h A$. Observe that $N<r^{i+1}$, and in base $r$ it equals $d_{i} d_{i-1} \ldots d_{0}$, where $d_{i}=t+1$ and $d_{j}=r-1$ for $0 \leqslant j \leqslant i-1$, since $N-r^{i}(t+1)=r^{i}-1=(r-1)\left(r^{i-1}+r^{i-2}+\ldots+r+1\right)$. By (1), $N \notin h A$ since $d_{0}+d_{1}+\ldots+d_{k-1}=i(r-1)+(t+1)=h+1$.

It remains to show that every positive integer less than or equal to $r^{i}(t+1)+$ $\left(r^{i}-2\right)=r^{i}(t+2)-2$ is an element of $h A$. We employ the notation $\left(a_{k}, a_{k-1}, \ldots\right.$,
$\left.a_{1}, a_{0}\right)_{r}$ to denote the number $a_{k} r^{k}+a_{k-1} r^{k-1}+\ldots+a_{1} r+a_{0}$. Since the base $r$ representation of $N$ is $(t+1, r-1, r-1, \ldots, r-1)_{r}(i$ occurrences of $r-1)$, each positive integer less than $N$ must be in $h A$ by (1) since at least one digit in base $r$ representation of such an integer must be less than the corresponding one for $N$ and none can be greater. This completes the proof.

Corollary 1 is a special case of the theorem, which we single out in order to prove the result stated in Corollary 2, due to Stöhr in [5]. Our proof of the result in Corollary 2 is therefore a consequence of a more general result, whereas Stöhr proved his result directly.

Corollary 1. For $h \geqslant 1$,

$$
n(h,\{1, r\})= \begin{cases}h & \text { if } h \leqslant r-2 \\ r(h-r+3)-2 & \text { if } h \geqslant r-1\end{cases}
$$

Corollary 2 (Stöhr, [5]). For $h \geqslant 1$,

$$
n(h, 2)=\left\lfloor\frac{h^{2}+6 h+1}{4}\right\rfloor .
$$

Moreover, the only extremal basis is $\left\{1, \frac{1}{2}(h+3)\right\}$ if $h$ is odd, and $\left\{1, \frac{1}{2}(h+2)\right\}$ and $\left\{1, \frac{1}{2}(h+4)\right\}$ if $h$ is even.

Proof. From Corollary 1,

$$
n(h, 2)=\max _{2 \leqslant r \leqslant h+2} r(h-r+3)-2=\left\lfloor\frac{(h+3)^{2}}{4}\right\rfloor-2=\left\lfloor\frac{h^{2}+6 h+1}{4}\right\rfloor .
$$

Since the maximum product of two positive real numbers $x$ and $y$ with a fixed sum $x+y=c$ is attained at $x=y$, the maximum in the displayed equation above is achieved at $r=\frac{1}{2}(h+3)$. Thus, there is only one extremal basis if $h$ is odd and two such bases if $h$ is even.

We close this paper with a remark on the lower bound on $n(h, k)$ provided by the theorem when $k \geqslant 3$. By the theorem, substituting $t=(k-1)(r-1)-h$, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
n(h, k) \geqslant \max _{r} r^{k-1}(h-(k-1)(r-1)+2)-2 . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

If we now maximize $f(r):=r^{k-1}(h-(k-1)(r-1)+2)$ in the interval $[2, \infty)$, a simple computation shows that it attains its maximum at $r=(h+k+1) / k$. Further
computation shows that $f(h, k)$ at $r=(h+k+1) / k$ equals $(h+k+1)^{k} / k^{k}$. Note that this is the best possible when $k=2$, as seen in Corollary 2, but gives a lower bound in the general case

$$
\begin{equation*}
n(h, k) \geqslant\left(\frac{h+k+1}{k}\right)^{k} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is surprisingly close to the best known lower bounds for $n(h, k)$ for $k \geqslant 3$, obtained by Hofmeister [2]. For instance, for $k=3$, (3) gives the lower bound

$$
n(h, 3) \geqslant \frac{1}{27}(h+4)^{3}=\frac{1}{27} h^{3}+\frac{4}{9} h^{2}+\frac{16}{9} h+\frac{64}{27}
$$

against the lower bound

$$
n(h, 3) \geqslant \frac{4}{81} h^{3}+\frac{2}{3} h^{2}+\frac{66}{27} h
$$

obtained in [2].
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