# STRONG STATIONARY DUALITY FOR MÖBIUS MONOTONE MARKOV CHAINS: EXAMPLES* 

## BY

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#### Abstract

We construct strong stationary dual chains for nonsymmetric random walks on square lattice, for random walks on hypercube and for some Ising models on the circle. The strong stationary dual chains are all sharp and have the same state space as original chains. We use Möbius monotonicity of these chains with respect to some natural orderings of the corresponding state spaces. This method provides an alternative way to study mixing times for studied models.


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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Consider an ergodic Markov chain $\mathbf{X}=\left(X_{n}\right)_{n \geqslant 0}$ on a discrete (finite or countable) state space $\mathbb{E}$ with transition matrix $\mathbf{P}$ and initial distribution $\nu$. One way of studying the speed of convergence of $\mathbf{X}$ to its stationary distribution $\pi$ is to find (and bound its tail) so-called Strong Stationary Time (SST), i.e., such a stopping time $T$ ( $T$ implicitly depends on $\nu$ ) that is independent of $X_{T}$, and $X_{T}$ has distribution $\pi$. SSTs were introduced by Aldous and Diaconis [2], [3], who also gave examples of SSTs and their applications. Many examples can also be found in Diaconis [4]. First examples of SSTs were created by ad hoc methods. A general approach was invented by Diaconis and Fill [5] who introduced dual processes. They showed that for $\mathbf{X}$ there always exists a so-called Strong Stationary Dual (SSD) absorbing chain $\mathbf{X}^{*}$ such that its time to absorption $T^{*}$ is equal, in distribution, to an SST $T$ for $\mathbf{X}$. Their proof is an existence type argument which does not show how to construct a dual chain in general. They showed one tractable case

[^0](see [5], Theorem 4.6), where the state space is linearly ordered. Under the condition of stochastic monotonicity (related to the linear order) of the corresponding time-reversed chain (and some assumptions on the initial distribution) they gave a recipe for constructing a dual chain on the same state space. A special, and important, case is a stochastically monotone birth-and-death chain for which the dual chain is an absorbing birth-and-death chain.

Strong stationary dual chains have a variety of applications. Diaconis and Fill [6] gave an extension of this theory to countable state spaces. Fill [12] gave a stochastic proof of a well-known theorem (usually attributed to Keilson) which states that the first passage time from 0 to $M$ of a stochastically monotone birth-and-death process on $\{0, \ldots, M\}$ is equal, in distribution, to a sum of geometric random variables related to the spectral values of $\mathbf{X}$. Similar results for continuous time birth-and-death processes were obtained by Diaconis and Miclo [ [ ] ]. Diaconis and Saloff-Coste [ 8$]$ studied cut-off phenomena for birth-and-death chains by using SSD theory. Different dualities in Markov chains are utilized in a variety of contexts, see, e.g., Huillet and Martinez [16].

All the above-mentioned examples (although very interesting) somehow rely on Theorem 4.6 of [5] which involves linearly ordered state spaces. That is why most of the known examples are related to birth-and-death chains. The main underlying assumption is (classical) stochastic monotonicity of the time-reversed chain. Although this monotonicity is defined also for partially ordered state spaces, it is not sufficient for an analogous construction of an SSD chain as in Diaconis and Fill [5]. Lorek and Szekli [19] gave a recipe for constructing dual chains on partially ordered state spaces with a special feature that the duals have the same state space as original chains. The assumption of the classical stochastic monotonicity was replaced by the assumption of Möbius monotonicity. This extension (to partially ordered state spaces) opens a new way of finding SSD chains defined for not linearly ordered state spaces. The purpose of this paper is to get a new SSD insight into some classical examples of finite state Markov chains. In Section [] we recall needed definitions and facts about Möbius monotone chains. In Section B] we present strong stationary duals for non-symmetric random walk on a square lattice, for a random walk on the hypercube, and some Ising models on the circle. For the latter one we give duals for specific cases, and conjecture the general case.

In Section 4 we give proofs of the main results. We believe that the presented method should be applicable in many other examples and can be used to find bounds on the speed of convergence to stationarity, and to study cut-off phenomena.

## 2. MÖBIUS MONOTONICITY AND DUALITY

In this section we recall needed results on SSD and Möbius monotone chains. For a more complete material on duality see Diaconis and Fill [5], and for results on Möbius monotone chains, see Lorek and Szekli [19].
2.1. Strong stationary duality. For an ergodic Markov chain $\mathbf{X}=\left(X_{n}\right)_{n \geqslant 0}$ with the transition matrix $\mathbf{P}$ and initial distribution $\nu$, we are interested in bounding a distance between $\nu \mathbf{P}^{k}$ (a distribution of a chain at step $k$ ) and its stationary distribution $\pi$. An often used distance is the total variation distance $d_{T V}\left(\nu \mathbf{P}^{k}, \pi\right)=$ $\max _{A \subset E}\left|\nu \mathbf{P}^{k}(A)-\pi(A)\right|$. Another useful distance is the separation distance $s$ defined as follows: $s\left(\nu \mathbf{P}^{k}, \pi\right)=\max _{\mathbf{e} \in \mathbb{E}}\left(1-\nu \mathbf{P}^{k}(\mathbf{e}) / \pi(\mathbf{e})\right)$. For random times $T$ which are SSTs, Aldous and Diaconis [3] show that $d_{T V}\left(\nu \mathbf{P}^{k}, \pi\right) \leqslant s\left(\nu \mathbf{P}^{k}, \pi\right)$ $\leqslant P(T>n)$.

Let $\mathbf{X}^{*}$ be a Markov chain with transition matrix $\mathbf{P}^{*}$, initial distribution $\nu^{*}$ and a state space $\mathbb{E}^{*}$, with an absorbing state $\mathbf{e}_{a}^{*}$. Let $\Lambda \equiv \Lambda\left(\mathbf{e}^{*}, \mathbf{e}\right), \mathbf{e}^{*} \in \mathbb{E}^{*}, \mathbf{e} \in \mathbb{E}$, be a stochastic kernel (called a link) such that $\Lambda\left(\mathbf{e}_{a}^{*}, \cdot\right)=\pi(\cdot) . \mathbf{X}^{*}$ is a Strong Stationary Dual (SSD) chain for $\mathbf{X}$ if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\nu=\nu^{*} \Lambda \quad \text { and } \quad \Lambda \mathbf{P}=\mathbf{P}^{*} \Lambda \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Diaconis and Fill [5] proved that the absorption time $T^{*}$ of $\mathbf{X}^{*}$ is an SST for $\mathbf{X}$. Thus, the problem of finding SST for $\mathbf{X}$ translates into the problem of studying the absorption time of $\mathbf{X}^{*}$.

Definition 2.1. A Strong Stationary Dual chain $\mathbf{X}^{*}$ is called sharp if $s\left(\nu \mathbf{P}^{n}, \pi\right)=P\left(T^{*}>n\right)$.

REMARK 2.1. The relation (2.ل1) implies that, for finite $\mathbb{E}$ and $\mathbb{E}^{*}, \mathbf{P}$ and $\mathbf{P}^{*}$ have the same set of eigenvalues.

It turns out that in some examples we can easily identify the eigenvalues of $\mathbf{P}^{*}$, and thus, by the above remark, we will also obtain the eigenvalues of $\mathbf{P}$ which are usually not easy to obtain directly.
2.2. Duality for Möbius monotone chains. In this section we recall how to construct an SSD chain for finite partially ordered state spaces. We shall consider a finite state space $\mathbb{E}=\left\{\mathbf{e}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{e}_{M}\right\}$ with a partial ordering $\preceq$. From the very beginning we shall choose an enumeration of $\mathbb{E}$ such that $\mathbf{e}_{i} \preceq \mathbf{e}_{j}$ implies $i<j$ (which is always possible). We call such an enumeration consistent with $\preceq$. With this enumeration the partial ordering can be represented by an upper-triangular, zero-one valued matrix $\mathbf{C}$. The inversion $\mathbf{C}^{-1}$ represents (in the incidence algebra) the so-called Möbius function, usually denoted by $\mu$, see Rota [23]. The Möbius function allows for the following calculus: it is possible to recover $f$ from the relation $\bar{F}(\mathbf{e})=\sum_{\mathbf{e}: \mathbf{e} \succeq \mathbf{e}_{i}} f(\mathbf{e})$, namely $f\left(\mathbf{e}_{i}\right)=\sum_{\mathbf{e}: \mathbf{e} \succeq \mathbf{e}_{i}} \mu\left(\mathbf{e}_{i}, \mathbf{e}\right) \bar{F}(\mathbf{e})$.

Definition 2.2. Let $\mathbf{P}$ be a transition matrix with enumeration of states consistent with $\mathbf{C}$. We say that $\mathbf{P}$ (or, alternatively, $\mathbf{X}$ ) is $\downarrow$-Möbius monotone ( $\uparrow$-Möbius monotone) if $\mathbf{C}^{-1} \mathbf{P C} \geqslant 0\left(\left(\mathbf{C}^{T}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{P} \mathbf{C}^{T} \geqslant 0\right)$ (each entry is nonnegative).

We say that $\mathbf{f}: \mathbb{E} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{M}$ is $\downarrow$-Möbius monotone ( $\uparrow$-Möbius monotone) if $\mathbf{f}\left(\mathbf{C}^{T}\right)^{-1} \geqslant 0\left(\mathbf{f} \mathbf{C}^{-1} \geqslant 0\right)$. In terms of the transition probabilities, we have

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\downarrow \text {-Möbius monotonicity : } & \forall\left(\mathbf{e}_{i}, \mathbf{e}_{j} \in \mathbb{E}\right) & \sum_{\mathbf{e}: \mathbf{e} \succeq \mathbf{e}_{i}} \mu\left(\mathbf{e}_{i}, \mathbf{e}\right) \mathbf{P}\left(\mathbf{e},\left\{\mathbf{e}_{j}\right\}^{\downarrow}\right) \geqslant 0, \\
\uparrow \text {-Möbius monotonicity : } & \forall\left(\mathbf{e}_{i}, \mathbf{e}_{j} \in \mathbb{E}\right) & \sum_{\mathbf{e}: \mathbf{e} \preceq \mathbf{e}_{j}} \mathbf{P}\left(\mathbf{e},\left\{\mathbf{e}_{i}\right\}^{\uparrow}\right) \mu\left(\mathbf{e}, \mathbf{e}_{j}\right) \geqslant 0,
\end{array}
$$

where $\left\{\mathbf{e}_{j}\right\}^{\downarrow}=\left\{\mathbf{e}: \mathbf{e} \preceq \mathbf{e}_{j}\right\},\left\{\mathbf{e}_{j}\right\}^{\uparrow}=\left\{\mathbf{e}: \mathbf{e} \succeq \mathbf{e}_{j}\right\}$, and

$$
\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{e}, A)=\sum_{\mathbf{e}^{\prime} \in A} \mathbf{P}\left(\mathbf{e}, \mathbf{e}^{\prime}\right)
$$

We recall the SSD result of Lorek and Szekli [19] ( $\overleftarrow{\mathbf{X}}$ denotes the timereversed process).

Theorem 2.1 (Lorek and Szekli [19]). Let $\mathbf{X}$ be an ergodic Markov chain on a finite state space $\mathbb{E}=\left\{\mathbf{e}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{e}_{M}\right\}$, which is partially ordered with $\preceq$ and has a unique maximal state $\mathbf{e}_{M}$. For the stationary distribution $\pi$ and an initial distribution $\nu$ we assume that
(i) $g(\mathbf{e})=\nu(\mathbf{e}) / \pi(\mathbf{e})$ is $\downarrow$-Möbius monotone,
(ii) $\overleftarrow{\mathbf{X}}$ is $\downarrow$-Möbius monotone.

Then there exists a Strong Stationary Dual chain $\mathbf{X}^{*}$ on $\mathbb{E}^{*}=\mathbb{E}$ with link being a truncated stationary distribution $\Lambda\left(\mathbf{e}_{j}, \mathbf{e}_{i}\right)=1_{\left\{\mathbf{e}_{i} \preceq \mathbf{e}_{j}\right\}} \pi\left(\mathbf{e}_{i}\right) / H\left(\mathbf{e}_{j}\right)$, where $H\left(\mathbf{e}_{j}\right)=\sum_{\mathbf{e}: \mathbf{e} \preceq \mathbf{e}_{j}} \pi(\mathbf{e})$. The initial distribution and transitions of $\mathbf{X}^{*}$ are given, respectively, by

$$
\begin{align*}
\nu^{*}\left(\mathbf{e}_{i}\right) & =H\left(\mathbf{e}_{i}\right) \sum_{\mathbf{e}: \mathbf{e} \succeq \mathbf{e}_{i}} \mu\left(\mathbf{e}_{i}, \mathbf{e}\right) g(\mathbf{e}), \\
\mathbf{P}^{*}\left(\mathbf{e}_{i}, \mathbf{e}_{j}\right) & =\frac{H\left(\mathbf{e}_{j}\right)}{H\left(\mathbf{e}_{i}\right)} \sum_{\mathbf{e}: \mathbf{e} \succeq \mathbf{e}_{j}} \mu\left(\mathbf{e}_{j}, \mathbf{e}\right) \overleftarrow{\mathbf{P}}\left(\mathbf{e},\left\{\mathbf{e}_{i}\right\}^{\downarrow}\right) \tag{2.2}
\end{align*}
$$

REMARK 2.2. Following Remark 2.39 of Diaconis and Fill [5] and the terminology used there, the Strong Stationary Dual $\mathbf{X}^{*}$ in Theorem 2.] is sharp, and the corresponding strong stationary time is the time to stationarity, i.e., $s\left(\nu \mathbf{P}^{n}, \pi\right)=$ $P(T>n)$. The reason for this is that $\Lambda\left(\mathbf{e}^{*}, \mathbf{e}_{M}\right)=0$ for all $\mathbf{e}^{*} \neq \mathbf{e}_{M} \in \mathbb{E}^{*}$.

REMARK 2.3. Theorem [.] is stated for $\downarrow$-Möbius monotonicity, but it can be similarly stated for ${ }^{\uparrow}$-Möbius monotonicity (see Corollary 3.1 in [19]). The other formulation is potentially useful, because a chain can be, e.g., $\downarrow$-Möbius monotone but not ${ }^{\uparrow}$-Möbius monotone.

REMARK 2.4. The assumption on the initial distribution is not very restrictive, for example, if $\mathbf{e}_{1}$ is a unique minimal state and $\nu=\delta_{\mathbf{e}_{1}}(\cdot)$, then the assumption is fulfilled, and also $\nu^{*}=\delta_{\mathbf{e}_{1}}(\cdot)$. For simplicity of presentation, in all subsequent examples the initial distribution will be the single atom at the minimal element (this assumption may be relaxed).

In order to find and use the above constructed SSD chains one has to find an appropriate ordering (with respect to which the chain is Möbius monotone). It is worth mentioning that for a linearly ordered state space ${ }^{\uparrow}$-Möbius monotonicity is equivalent to the usual stochastic monotonicity; in general partially ordered spaces this is not the case. It turns out that for partially ordered spaces some natural orderings work. A non-symmetric random walk on the unit cube is an example presented in [IT]. In the next section we shall give new examples.

## 3. MÖBIUS MONOTONE MARKOV CHAINS: EXAMPLES

3.1. Random walk on weighted directed graph. Consider a random walk on a directed weighted graph $G=(V, E)$ with vertices $V=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\}$, edges $E=\left\{(i, j)\right.$ : edge from $v_{i}$ to $\left.v_{j}\right\}$ and with a weighting function $w: E \rightarrow[0, \infty)$. Denote by $w_{i, j}$ the nonnegative weight of the directed edge from node $v_{i}$ to $v_{j}$. If there is no edge between these nodes, i.e., $(i, j) \notin E$, then $w_{i, j}=0$. We allow $w_{i, i}$ to be non-zero.

Let $\mathcal{N}(i)=\{j:(i, j) \in E\}$ be a set of neighbours of node $v_{i}$. Random walk may be viewed as a process of sequential vertex visiting. We assume that weights are normalized, i.e., for all $i \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$ we have $w_{i, i}+\sum_{r \in \mathcal{N}(i)} w_{i, r}=1$. The probability of a single step from node $i$ to $j$ is then given by $P(i, j)=w_{i, j}$.

In this section we consider the following example: Let $V=\{0,1, \ldots, N\}^{2}$ with edges

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right),\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)\right) \in E \Longleftrightarrow\left|x_{1}-x_{2}\right|+\left|y_{1}-y_{2}\right|=1 \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $x_{1}, x_{2}, y_{1}, y_{2} \in\{0, \ldots, N\}$. Thus, for each node there are at most four edges in four directions: up, down, left, right plus a possible self-loop. The weighting function depends only on the direction in the following way: for $\left(\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right),\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)\right) \in$ $E$ and nonnegative parameters $\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \mu_{1}, \mu_{2}$ such that $\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{2}+\mu_{1}+\mu_{2} \leqslant 1$,

$$
w_{\left(\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right),\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)\right)}= \begin{cases}\lambda_{1} & \text { if } x_{2}=x_{1}+1, y_{2}=y_{1}  \tag{3.2}\\ \mu_{1} & \text { if } x_{2}=x_{1}-1, y_{2}=y_{1} \\ \lambda_{2} & \text { if } x_{2}=x_{1}, y_{2}=y_{1}+1 \\ \mu_{2} & \text { if } x_{2}=x_{1}, y_{2}=y_{1}-1 \\ 1-\sum_{(x, y) \in \mathcal{N}\left(\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)\right)} w_{\left(\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right),(x, y)\right)} & \text { if } x_{2}=x_{1}, y_{2}=y_{1}\end{cases}
$$

We associate weights directly with one-step probabilities:

$$
\mathbf{P}\left(\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right),\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)\right)=w_{\left(\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right),\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)\right)}
$$

Roughly speaking, we consider a random walk on square lattice $\{0, \ldots, N\}^{2}$, at each step we can move (if feasible): right with probability $\lambda_{1}$, left with probability
$\mu_{1}$, up with probability $\lambda_{2}$ and down with probability $\mu_{2}$. With remnant probability we stay at a given vertex. For convenience, we let $\rho_{1}:=\lambda_{1} / \mu_{1}$ and $\rho_{2}:=\lambda_{2} / \mu_{2}$. Denote by $\mathbf{P}$ the transition matrix of a corresponding Markov chain $\mathbf{X}$. The chain is time-reversible (i.e. $\overleftarrow{\mathbf{P}}=\mathbf{P}$ ) and has (time-reversibility equations can easily be checked) the stationary distribution on $V$ defined as

$$
\pi((x, y))=C^{-1} \rho_{1}^{x} \rho_{2}^{y}
$$

for $(x, y) \in V=\{0, \ldots, N\}^{2}$, where the normalizing constant $C$ for $\rho_{1} \neq 1$ and $\rho_{2} \neq 1$ is given by

$$
C=\frac{1-\rho_{1}^{N+1}}{1-\rho_{1}} \cdot \frac{1-\rho_{2}^{N+1}}{1-\rho_{2}}
$$

and for other cases $C$ can be obtained by obvious modifications.
We shall use the coordinatewise partial ordering: $\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right) \preceq\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right) \Longleftrightarrow$ $x_{1} \leqslant x_{2}$ and $y_{1} \leqslant y_{2}$. Then we have the unique minimal element $\mathbf{e}_{1}=(0,0)$ and the maximal one $\mathbf{e}_{M}=(N, N)$, where $M=(N+1)^{2}$. It turns out that $\mathbf{X}$ is Möbius monotone for any set of parameters $\lambda_{1}, \mu_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \mu_{2}>0$ such that $\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{2}+$ $\mu_{1}+\mu_{2} \leqslant 1$, and applying Theorem [2.] we have:

Theorem 3.1. Let $\mathbf{X}$ be a random walk on directed weighted graph with $G=(V, E)$, with $V=\{0, \ldots, N\}^{2}$ and $E$ given in (3.1), weights given in (3.2) and with positive parameters $\lambda_{1} \neq \mu_{1}, \lambda_{2} \neq \mu_{2}$ such that $\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{2}+\mu_{1}+\mu_{2} \leqslant 1$. Assume that $\mathbf{X}$ starts at $\mathbf{e}_{1}=(0,0)$. Then there exists a sharp SSD chain $\mathbf{X}^{*}$ which is an absorbing Markov chain (with $\mathbf{e}_{M}=(N, N)$ being the single absorbing state) on the state space $\mathbb{E}^{*}=\mathbb{E}=\{0, \ldots, N\}^{2}$, starting at $\mathbf{e}_{1}=(0,0)$, with the following transition probabilities (for $x, x^{\prime}, y, y^{\prime} \in\{0, \ldots, N\}$ ):

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{P}^{*}\left((x, y),\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right)\right)= \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{cases}\frac{1-\rho_{1}^{x+2}}{1-\rho_{1}^{x+1}} \cdot \mu_{1} & \text { if } x^{\prime}=x+1, y^{\prime}=y, \\ \frac{1-\rho_{2}^{y+2}}{1-\rho_{2}^{y+1}} \cdot \mu_{2} & \text { if } y^{\prime}=y+1, x^{\prime}=x, \\ \frac{1-\rho_{2}^{y}}{1-\rho_{2}^{y+1}} \cdot \lambda_{2} & \text { if } x^{\prime}=x, y^{\prime}=y-1, y \neq N, \\ \frac{1-\rho_{1}^{x}}{1-\rho_{1}^{x+1}} \cdot \lambda_{1} & \text { if } y^{\prime}=y, x^{\prime}=x-1, x \neq N, \\ 1-\left(\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{2}+\mu_{1}+\mu_{2}\right) & \text { if } x^{\prime}=x, y^{\prime}=y,(x, y) \in\{0, \ldots, N-1\}^{2}, \\ 1-\left(\lambda_{2}+\mu_{2}\right) & \text { if } x^{\prime}=x=N, y^{\prime}=y, y \in\{0, \ldots, N-1\}, \\ 1-\left(\lambda_{1}+\mu_{1}\right) & \text { if } x^{\prime}=x, y^{\prime}=y=N, x \in\{0, \ldots, N-1\}, \\ 1 & \text { if } x^{\prime}=x=y=y^{\prime}=N\end{cases}
$$

Thus, the $\operatorname{SSD}$ chain $\mathbf{X}^{*}$ is again a chain on $\mathbb{E}$, with feasible moves in the same directions as $\mathbf{X}$ except for movements on the upper borders of this square lattice. Once the chain hits the border $(\cdot, N)$ (or $(N, \cdot)$ ), it can only move left or right (up or down) until it hits the absorbing state $(N, N)$. Note that probability of changing the $i$-th coordinate, $i=1,2$, is independent of the value of the ( $3-i$ )-th coordinate. The chain $\mathbf{X}^{*}$, for a suitable selection of the parameters, can have a drift towards the absorbing state. Note that the case $\rho_{1}=1$ and/or $\rho_{2}=1$ can be obtained by obvious modifications in computing $H(x, y)$ (see the proof in Section (4.1).

One can study the time to absorption $T^{*}$ in the following way: it is the time of hitting a border $(\cdot, N)$ or $(N, \cdot)$ plus the time for the one-dimensional birth-and-death chain with birth probability $\lambda_{1}$ and death probability $\mu_{1}$ (or $\lambda_{2}$ and $\mu_{2}$ respectively) to reach the state $N$ (worst cases scenarios can be used).
3.2. Random change of a single coordinate on a cube. Let us consider a discrete time Markov chain $\mathbf{X}$ with state space $\mathbb{E}=\{0, \ldots, k\}^{n}$ which evolves in the following way: it stays with probability $1 / 2$ or (with probability $1 / 2$ ) for one coordinate chosen uniformly, it changes uniformly its value to any other different value. In terms of the transition probabilities, for $\mathbf{e}=(\mathbf{e}(1), \ldots, \mathbf{e}(n)) \in \mathbb{E}$, $\mathbf{e}(i) \in\{0, \ldots, k\}$, we set

$$
\mathbf{P}\left(\mathbf{e}, \mathbf{e}^{\prime}\right)= \begin{cases}1 / 2 & \text { if } \mathbf{e}=\mathbf{e}^{\prime},  \tag{3.4}\\ 1 /(2 n k) & \text { if, for some } i, \mathbf{e}(i) \neq \mathbf{e}^{\prime}(i) \text { and } \mathbf{e}(j)=\mathbf{e}^{\prime}(j), j \neq i, \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Since $\mathbf{P}$ is symmetric, the corresponding stationary distribution is uniform, i.e.,

$$
\pi(\mathbf{e})=\frac{1}{(k+1)^{n}}, \quad \mathbf{e} \in \mathbb{E}
$$

The motivation for this example comes from DNA sequence alignment. Given $n$ sequences of length $k+1$ the task is to find points of references in each one such that, starting reading sequence $i$ from its reference point $r(i)$ we have the biggest agreement in all sequences. Since the state space is huge (of size $(k+1)^{n}$ ), Monte Carlo methods are often used. One constructs a chain such that its stationary distribution assigns higher mass to states with high agreements. The chain given in (3.4) is a simplified version of such a chain.

The chain $\mathbf{X}$ can be seen as an extension of the standard lazy random walk on the unit cube (obtained for $k=1$ ). Using the coordinatewise ordering $\preceq$ on $\mathbb{E}$, it turns out that $\mathbf{X}$ (which is reversible) is Möbius monotone. For this ordering, the state $\mathbf{e}_{1}=(0, \ldots, 0)$ is the minimal state and $\mathbf{e}_{M}=(k, \ldots, k)$ is the maximal state (with $M=(k+1)^{n}$ ), where we use an enumeration of $\mathbb{E}$ consistent with $\preceq$. Applying Theorem [.].] we obtain

Theorem 3.2. Consider the above-described chain $\mathbf{X}$ on the state space $\mathbb{E}=$ $\{0, \ldots, k\}^{n}$, with transition probabilities given in (3.4). Assume that $\mathbf{X}$ starts at $\mathbf{e}_{1}$. Then there exists a sharp SSD chain $\mathbf{X}^{*}$ on the state space $\mathbb{E}^{*}=\mathbb{E}$, with the state $\mathbf{e}_{M}$ being the absorbing one, starting with probability one at $\mathbf{e}_{1}$, and having transition probabilities, for all $A \subseteq\{1, \ldots, n\}, j \notin A$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{P}^{*}\left(\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}, \mathbf{e}_{A \cup\{j\}}^{(k)}\right) & =\frac{k+1}{2 n k} \\
\mathbf{P}^{*}\left(\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}, \mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}\right) & =\frac{n(k-1)+|A|(k+1)}{2 n k}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}=(\mathbf{e}(1), \ldots, \mathbf{e}(n))$ with $\mathbf{e}(i)=k$ if $i \in A$ and $\mathbf{e}(i)=0$ if $i \notin A$, and all other transitions have probability zero.

Note that an SSD chain $\mathbf{X}^{*}$ jumps, with probability one, only to greater or equal states in the ordering $\preceq$, thus its eigenvalues are the entries on the diagonal of the matrix $\mathbf{P}^{*}$ written using an enumeration of the states consistent with this ordering. The states which can be traversed by $\mathbf{X}^{*}$ are of the form $\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}$, which means that $\mathbf{X}^{*}$ can be identified with a random walk on the unit cube $\{0, k\}^{n}$. Again, by Remark [2.1], the eigenvalues of $\mathbf{P}$ are the same as diagonal entries of $\mathbf{P}^{*}$, i.e.,

$$
\frac{n(k-1)+i(k+1)}{2 n k}, \quad i=0,1, \ldots, n .
$$

As in the Ising model example, we can consider the time to absorption of the onedimensional projection $Z_{t}^{*}:=S\left(X_{t}^{*}\right)$, where $S(\mathbf{e})=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{1}_{\{\mathbf{e}(i)=k\}}$. If $Z_{0}^{*}=0$, then the time to absorption $T^{*}$ of $Z_{t}^{*}$ is the same as for $X_{t}^{*}$, and is distributed as the sum of independent variables $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} Y_{i}$, where $Y_{i}$ has geometric distribution with the success parameter $p_{i}=(n-i)(k+1) /(2 n k)$. For the expected absorption time we have

$$
E T^{*}=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{p_{i}}=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{n-i} \frac{2 n k}{k+1}=\frac{2 n k}{k+1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i} \leqslant \frac{2 k}{k+1}(n+1) \log n .
$$

For the variance of $T^{*}$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Var} T^{*}=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{1-p_{i}}{p_{i}^{2}}=\frac{2 n k}{(k+1)^{2}} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{n k-n+k i+i}{(n-i)^{2}} \\
= & \frac{2 n k}{(k+1)^{2}}\left[n k \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{(n-i)^{2}}+k \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{i}{(n-i)^{2}}-\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i}\right] \stackrel{(*)}{\leqslant}\left(\frac{2 n k}{k+1}\right)^{2} \frac{\pi^{2}}{6},
\end{aligned}
$$

where in ${ }^{(*)}$ we used the following inequalities:

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{(n-i)^{2}} \leqslant \frac{\pi^{2}}{6}, \quad \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{i}{(n-i)^{2}} \leqslant n \frac{\pi^{2}}{6}
$$

By Remark 2.2 and Chebyshev's inequality, we see that after $m=\frac{2 k}{k+1}(n+1) \log n$ $+c \frac{2 k}{k+1} \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{6}} n, c \geqslant 0$, steps we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
s\left(\nu \mathbf{P}^{m}, \pi\right)=P(T>m) & \leqslant P(T-E T \leqslant c \sqrt{\operatorname{Var} T}) \\
& \leqslant P(|T-E T| \leqslant c \sqrt{\operatorname{Var} T}) \leqslant \frac{1}{c^{2}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

3.3. Ising model on a circle. Let $G=(V, E)$ be a finite graph. Elements of the state space $\mathbb{E}=\{-1,1\}^{V}$ are called configurations, and for $\mathbf{e} \in \mathbb{E}$ the value $\mathbf{e}(v)$ is called the spin at vertex $v$. For a given configuration $\mathbf{e}$ its energy is defined as

$$
\mathcal{H}(\mathbf{e})=-\sum_{\{x, y\} \in E} \mathbf{e}(x) \cdot \mathbf{e}(y)
$$

where the sum is over all edges of the graph. For $\beta \geqslant 0$, the Ising model on the graph $G$ with parameter $\beta$ is the probability measure on $\mathbb{E}$ given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\pi(\mathbf{e})=\frac{e^{-\beta \mathcal{H}(\mathbf{e})}}{Z_{\beta}} \tag{3.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $Z_{\beta}=\sum_{\mathbf{e} \in \mathbb{E}} e^{-\beta \mathcal{H}(\mathbf{e})}$ is a normalizing constant. The parameter $\beta$ has a physical interpretation as the inverse of the temperature of the configuration. Note that for $\beta=0$ (equivalent to infinite temperature) every spin configuration is equally likely, i.e., it is the same as setting spin at each vertex to -1 or +1 with probability $1 / 2$ independently. In general, $\beta$ represents the influence of energy $\mathcal{H}$ on $\pi$.

This model has focused a lot of attention in the context of speed of convergence to equilibrium of particle systems. Propp and Wilson [22] introduced Coupling From The Past algorithm and used it to show how to draw an exact sample from (3.5) in the case of square lattice. Recently Ding and Peres [110] showed that for Ising models on any graph it takes at least $(1 / 4+o(1)) n \log n$ steps for the Glauber dynamics to mix, where $n$ is the corresponding number of vertices. In Ding and Peres [[I] a simple proof for the bound $n \log n / 2$ was presented.

We shall consider the Ising model on a circle. We will present the dual chain for a case of 2 and 3 vertices and a conjecture on a general number of vertices. We set $V=\{0, \ldots, N-1\}$ and $E=\{(i,(i+1) \bmod N): i=0, \ldots, N-1\}$. The stationary distribution (3.5) in this case can be rewritten as

$$
\pi(\mathbf{e})=\frac{1}{Z_{\beta}} \exp \left(\beta \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \mathbf{e}(i) \mathbf{e}(i+1)\right)
$$

where we always mean vertex number modulo $N$. The following is a classical Gibbs sampler for this model, a Markov chain with stationary distribution (3.5):

- Given a configuration e at step $n$, i.e., $X_{n}=\mathbf{e}$, choose a vertex $v \in V$ with probability $1 / N$.
- Take $U_{n+1}$, a random variable with the uniform distribution $U(0,1)$, independent of $U_{i}, i \leqslant n$. Update the spin at vertex $v$ in the following way:

$$
X_{n+1}(i)= \begin{cases}+1 & \text { if } U_{n+1}<\frac{e^{2 \beta\left(k_{+}(v, \mathbf{e})-k_{-}(v, \mathbf{e})\right)}}{e^{2 \beta\left(k_{+}(v, \mathbf{e})-k_{-}(v, \mathbf{e})\right)}+1} \\ -1 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

where $k_{+}(v, \mathbf{e})$ is the number of neighbours of vertex $v$, in configuration $\mathbf{e}$, with spin values +1 , and $k_{-}(v, \mathbf{e})$ is the number of neighbours of vertex $v$, in configuration $\mathbf{e}$, with spin values -1 .

The chain $\mathbf{X}$ constructed in this way is reversible. Moreover, $\mathbf{X}$ can be viewed as a random walk on $N$-dimensional cube, where the probability of changing a coordinate (corresponding to some vertex $v$ ) depends on the values of the neighbouring (with respect to the underlying graph $G$ ) coordinates.

We consider the coordinatewise ordering, i.e., $\mathbf{e} \preceq \mathbf{e}^{\prime}$ if $\mathbf{e}(v) \leqslant \mathbf{e}^{\prime}(v)$ for every vertex $v \in V$. Let $M:=2^{|V|}=2^{N}$. Denote by $\mathbf{e}_{1}$ the state with all spins equal to -1 (minimal state), and by $\mathbf{e}_{M}$ the state with all spins equal to +1 (maximal state). We identify $\mathbb{E}=\{-1,1\}^{V}$ with the enumerated set $\left\{\mathbf{e}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{e}_{M}\right\}$, where the enumeration is consistent with $\preceq$. For specific cases $N=2$ and $N=3$ we can directly calculate the dual chain in the matrix form from equation (2.1]) with link given in Theorem 2.1., namely

$$
\mathbf{P}^{*}=\Lambda \mathbf{P} \Lambda^{-1}
$$

If the resulting $\mathbf{P}^{*}$ is not a stochastic matrix, then it means that $X$ is not ${ }^{\downarrow}$-Möbius monotone (which will not be the case).
3.3.1. Two vertices case. Let us order the states as follows: $\mathbf{e}_{1}=(-1,-1)$, $\mathbf{e}_{2}=(+1,-1), \mathbf{e}_{3}=(-1,+1), \mathbf{e}_{4}=(+1,+1)$. By using this enumeration, matrices $\mathbf{P}$ and $\mathbf{C}$ are the following:

$$
\mathbf{P}=\left(\begin{array}{llll}
\frac{1}{e^{-2 \beta}+1} & \frac{1}{2} \frac{e^{-2 \beta}}{e^{-2 \beta}+1} & \frac{1}{2} \frac{e^{-2 \beta}}{e^{-2 \beta}+1} & 0 \\
\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{e^{-2 \beta}+1} & \frac{1}{e^{2 \beta}+1} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \frac{e^{2 \beta}}{e^{2 \beta}+1} \\
\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{e^{-2 \beta}+1} & 0 & \frac{1}{e^{2 \beta}+1} & \frac{1}{2} \frac{e^{2 \beta}}{e^{2 \beta}+1} \\
0 & \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{e^{2 \beta}+1} & \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{e^{2 \beta}+1} & \frac{e^{2 \beta}}{e^{2 \beta}+1}
\end{array}\right), \quad \mathbf{C}=\left(\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right) .
$$

From Theorem [.] we obtain the following dual chain:

$$
\mathbf{P}^{*}=\left(\begin{array}{llll}
0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\
0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \frac{e^{2 \beta}-1}{e^{2 \beta}+1} & \frac{1}{e^{2 \beta}+1} \\
0 & \frac{1}{2} \frac{e^{2 \beta}-1}{e^{2 \beta}+1} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{e^{2 \beta}+1} \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

The chain started at the state $(-1,-1)$ goes with equal probability in the first step to $(+1,-1)$ or $(-1,+1)$. Then it either is absorbed in the next step with probability $\frac{1}{e^{2 \beta}+1}$ or not, with remnant probability $\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{2} \frac{e^{2 \beta}-1}{e^{2 \beta}+1}=\frac{e^{2 \beta}}{e^{2 \beta}+1}$. The time to absorption in this case is of the following form: $T^{*}=X_{0}+X_{1}, X_{0} \sim G e o(1)$ (i.e., $X_{0} \equiv 1$ ), $X_{1} \sim \operatorname{Geo}\left(1 /\left(e^{2 \beta}+1\right)\right)$, i.e.,

$$
P\left(T^{*}=k\right)=\left(\frac{e^{2 \beta}}{e^{2 \beta}+1}\right)^{k-2}\left(\frac{1}{e^{2 \beta}+1}\right), \quad k=2,3, \ldots
$$

In particular, $E T^{*}=2+e^{2 \beta}$ and after $k=1+\frac{1}{2 \beta-\ln (2 \beta+1)} \ln (\varepsilon)$ steps we have

$$
s\left(\delta_{\mathbf{e}_{1}} \mathbf{P}^{k}, \pi\right)=P\left(T^{*}>k\right)=\varepsilon
$$

We can depict the chain and its dual on a graph as follows:


Original chain $\mathbf{P}$


Dual chain $\mathbf{P}^{*}$
3.3.2. Three vertices case. Consider a simple case of three vertices all being each other's neighbour, say, labelled $v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{3}$. Let us enumerate the states as follows: $\mathbf{e}_{1}=(-1,-1,-1), \mathbf{e}_{2}=(+1,-1,-1), \mathbf{e}_{3}=(-1,+1,-1), \mathbf{e}_{4}=$ $(-1,-1,+1), \mathbf{e}_{5}=(+1,+1,-1), \mathbf{e}_{6}=(+1,-1,+1), \mathbf{e}_{7}=(-1,+1,+1), \mathbf{e}_{8}=$ $(+1,+1,+1)$. To shorten the notation, let us put: $p=\frac{e^{4 \beta}}{1+e^{4 \beta}}$ and $q=\frac{e^{-4 \beta}}{1+e^{-4 \beta}}$. The
transition matrix is the following:

$$
\mathbf{P}=\left(\begin{array}{llllllll}
1-q & \frac{1}{3} q & \frac{1}{3} q & \frac{1}{3} q & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\frac{1}{3}-\frac{1}{3} q & \frac{1}{3}+\frac{1}{3} q & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{6} & \frac{1}{6} & 0 & 0 \\
\frac{1}{3}-\frac{1}{3} q & 0 & \frac{1}{3}+\frac{1}{3} q & 0 & \frac{1}{6} & 0 & \frac{1}{6} & 0 \\
\frac{1}{3}-\frac{1}{3} q & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{3}+\frac{1}{3} q & 0 & \frac{1}{6} & \frac{1}{6} & 0 \\
0 & \frac{1}{6} & \frac{1}{6} & 0 & \frac{2}{3}-\frac{1}{3} p & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{3} p \\
0 & \frac{1}{6} & 0 & \frac{1}{6} & 0 & \frac{2}{3}-\frac{1}{3} p & 0 & \frac{1}{3} p \\
0 & 0 & \frac{1}{6} & \frac{1}{6} & 0 & 0 & \frac{2}{3}-\frac{1}{3} p & \frac{1}{3} p \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{3}-\frac{1}{3} p & \frac{1}{3}-\frac{1}{3} p & \frac{1}{3}-\frac{1}{3} p & p
\end{array}\right) .
$$

The stationary distribution in this case is of the form

$$
\begin{aligned}
\pi((-1,-1,-1)) & =\pi((+1,+1,+1))=1 / Z \\
\pi(\mathbf{e}) & =e^{-4 \beta} / Z \quad \text { for } \mathbf{e} \notin\{(-1,-1,-1),(+1,+1,+1)\}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $Z$ is a normalizing constant equal to $2+6 e^{-4 \beta}$. In this case, the function $H$ is as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H((+1,-1,-1))=H((-1,+1,-1))=H((-1,-1,+1))=\frac{1+e^{-4 \beta}}{2\left(1+3 e^{-4 \beta}\right)} \\
& H((+1,+1,-1))=H((+1,-1,+1))=H((-1,+1,+1))=\frac{1}{2} \\
& H((-1,-1,-1))=\frac{1}{2\left(1+3 e^{-4 \beta}\right)}, \quad H((+1,+1,+1))=1
\end{aligned}
$$

We obtain the following dual chain:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbf{P}^{*}= \\
& \left(\begin{array}{llllllll}
0 & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{6} \frac{1-e^{-4 \beta}}{1+e^{-4 \beta}} & \frac{1}{6} \frac{1-e^{-4 \beta}}{1+e^{-4 \beta}} & \frac{1}{6} \frac{1+3 e^{-4 \beta}}{1+e^{-4 \beta}} & \frac{1}{6} \frac{1+3 e^{-4 \beta}}{1+e^{-4 \beta}} & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \frac{1}{6} \frac{1-e^{-4 \beta}}{1+e^{-4 \beta}} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{6} \frac{1-e^{-4 \beta}}{1+e^{-4 \beta}} & \frac{1}{6} \frac{1+3 e^{-4 \beta}}{1+e^{-4 \beta}} & 0 & \frac{1}{6} \frac{1+3 e^{-4 \beta}}{1+e^{-4 \beta}} & 0 \\
0 & \frac{1}{6} \frac{1-e^{-4 \beta}}{1+e^{-4 \beta}} & \frac{1}{6} \frac{1-e^{-4 \beta}}{1+e^{-4 \beta}} & \frac{1}{3} & 0 & \frac{1}{6} \frac{1+3 e^{-4 \beta}}{1+e^{-4 \beta}} & \frac{1}{6} \frac{1+3 e^{-4 \beta}}{1+e^{-4 \beta}} & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{6} \frac{1-e^{-4 \beta}}{1+e^{-4 \beta}} & \frac{1}{6} \frac{1-e^{-4 \beta}}{1+e^{-4 \beta}} & \frac{2}{3\left(1+e^{4 \beta}\right)} \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{6} \frac{1-e^{-4 \beta}}{1+e^{-4 \beta}} & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{6} \frac{1-e^{-4 \beta}}{1+e^{-4 \beta}} & \frac{2}{3\left(1+e^{4 \beta}\right)} \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{6} \frac{1-e^{-4 \beta}}{1+e^{-4 \beta}} & \frac{1}{6} \frac{1-e^{-4 \beta}}{1+e^{-4 \beta}} & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{2}{3\left(1+e^{4 \beta}\right)} \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that, when the chain is on level 1, i.e. in states $(+1,-1,-1),(-1,+1,-1)$ or $(-1,-1,+1)$, then it either gets to some state on level 2 with probability $\frac{2}{6} \frac{1+3 e^{-4 \beta}}{1+e^{-4 \beta}}$ or stays somewhere on level 1 with remnant probability. Similarly, when the dual is on level 2 it can get to the absorbing state $(+1,+1,+1)$ with probability $\frac{2}{3\left(1+e^{4 \beta}\right)}$ or stays at the level with remnant probability. Thus, the time to absorption is of the form

$$
T^{*}=X_{0}+X_{1}+X_{2}
$$

where

$$
X_{0} \sim G e o(1), \quad X_{1} \sim G e o\left(\frac{1+3 e^{-4 \beta}}{3\left(1+e^{-4 \beta}\right)}\right), \quad X_{2} \sim G e o\left(\frac{2}{3\left(1+e^{4 \beta}\right)}\right)
$$

The dual for this case can be depicted as follows:

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
a & =\frac{1}{6}\left(1-e^{-4 \beta}\right) /\left(1+e^{-4 \beta}\right) \\
b & =\frac{1}{6}\left(1+3 e^{-4 \beta}\right) /\left(1+e^{-4 \beta}\right) \\
c & =2 /\left(3+3 e^{4 \beta}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Self-loops (strictly positive at each vertex except $(-1,-1,-1)$ ) are not depicted.
3.3.3. General $N$ vertices case. Here we will present a conjecture for the case of any number of vertices $N$. First, we conjecture that the chain for this Ising model is always ${ }^{\downarrow}$-Möbius monotone for an arbitrary graph $G$ with respect to coordinatewise ordering. Second, for $G$ being a circle (what is under consideration throughout a section), the structure of a dual is "nice" in a sense we are about to describe. The details for this case will appear in a subsequent paper.

Let us recall that we consider $G=(V, E)$, where $V=\{0, \ldots, N-1\}$ and $E=\{(i,(i+1) \bmod N): i=0, \ldots, N-1\}$. We identify a vertex $v$ with a number $v$ and keep general-graph notation. For example, $(v, w) \in E$ actually means that $w=v \pm 1$. For notational convenience, let $\mathbf{e}_{v \leftrightarrow w}$ denote a configuration $\mathbf{e}$ with swapped spins at $v$ and $w$. Recall also that within coordinatewise ordering, the state with all spins equal to -1 (denoted by $\mathbf{e}_{1}$ ) is a minimal state, and the state with all spins equal to +1 (denoted by $\mathbf{e}_{M}$, where $M=2^{N}$ ) is a maximal state.

Conjecture 1. Consider the Gibbs sampler $\mathbf{X}$ for the Ising model on an arbitrary graph $G=(V, E)$. Assume that $\mathbf{X}$ starts with the configuration $\mathbf{e}_{1}$. Then there exists a sharp SSD chain $\mathbf{X}^{*}=\left(X_{n}^{*}\right)_{n \geqslant 0}$ on the state space $\mathbb{E}^{*}=\mathbb{E}$, with the state $\mathbf{e}_{M}$ being the absorbing one, starting with probability one at $\mathbf{e}_{1}$, and having the following transition probabilities for $\mathbf{e}, \mathbf{e}^{\prime} \in\left\{\mathbf{e}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{e}_{M}\right\}$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{P}^{*}\left(\mathbf{e}, \mathbf{e}^{\prime}\right)= \tag{3.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $s_{v}=(0, \ldots, 0,2,0, \ldots, 0)$ (2 for the coordinate corresponding to vertex $v$ ), $S(\mathbf{e})=\sum_{v \in V} \mathbf{1}_{\{\mathbf{e}(v)=1\}}$ (called a level), and $H(\mathbf{e})=\sum_{\mathbf{e}^{\prime} \preceq \mathbf{e}} \pi(\mathbf{e})$.

The conjectured dual chain, being at some state $\mathbf{e}_{1}$ (thus on level $S\left(\mathbf{e}_{1}\right)$ ),

- can stay at the same state;
- cannot go to any state with lower level;
- can go to higher levels only to states of the form $\mathbf{e}+s_{j}$ (i.e., only one level higher, to a comparable state);
- can move "across" the level only by swapping spins at some vertices $v$ and $w$ which are neighbours, i.e., $(v, w) \in E$.

The special cases $N=2$ and $N=3$ were particularly "nice". For $N=2$ the transitions from $\mathbf{e}$ to $\mathbf{e}^{\prime}=\mathbf{e}_{v \leftrightarrow w}$ are all zero. For $N=3$ the transitions to another state on the same level or to a higher level do not depend on the particular state,
but only on the current level. This is mainly due to the fact that "neighbours of $v$ " actually means "all other vertices of $v$ ". It implies that the time to absorption in these cases was distributed as the sum of geometric random variables. For $N \geqslant 4$, the probabilities depend on a particular state. However, the dual has a nice blockmatrix form:

$$
\mathbf{P}^{*}=\left(\begin{array}{cccccccc}
\mathbf{P}_{0,0}^{*} & \mathbf{P}_{0,1}^{*} & 0 & \ldots & & & & 0 \\
0 & \mathbf{P}_{1,1}^{*} & \mathbf{P}_{1,2}^{*} & 0 & \ldots & & & 0 \\
0 & & \ddots & & 0 & \ldots & & 0 \\
0 & \ldots & & \mathbf{P}_{i, i}^{*} & \mathbf{P}_{i, i+1}^{*} & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
0 & & & & \ddots & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
0 & \ldots & & & & & \mathbf{P}_{N-1, N-1}^{*} & \mathbf{P}_{N-1, N}^{*} \\
0 & & & & \cdots & & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right),
$$

where $\mathbf{P}^{*}(i, i)$ is a square matrix corresponding to all states with level $i$ of size $\binom{N}{i} \times\binom{ N}{i}$, and $\mathbf{P}^{*}(i, i+1)$ is a matrix of size $\binom{N}{i} \times\binom{ N}{i+1}, i=0, \ldots, N-1$.

Remark 3.1. The time to absorption for such block-matrices can be further studied again via some dualities. Roughly speaking, for a given absorbing chain $\mathbf{P}^{*}$ there is a method for finding another "dual" absorbing chain $\hat{\mathbf{P}}$ which has the same time to absorption. The method is due to Fill and Lyzinski [14].

### 3.4. Further examples and developments.

3.4.1. Simple symmetric random walk on a circle. Let $\mathbb{Z}_{d}$ be the set of integers modulo $d$, regarded as $d$ labelled $1,2, \ldots, d$ points arranged anticlockwise around a circle with one at the bottom, say. Suppose we start at one, that is, $\nu=\delta_{1}$, and with probability $1 / 3$ the random walk $\mathbf{X}$ moves one step in either direction along the circle or remains. The stationary distribution for this Markov chain is the uniform distribution $\pi_{u}$ on $\mathbb{E}=\mathbb{Z}_{d}$. Diaconis and Fill [5] showed, for $d=2^{a}$, an SST $T$ such that

$$
d_{T V}\left(\nu \mathbf{P}^{n}, \pi_{u}\right) \leqslant P(T>n) \leqslant \frac{3}{16} d^{2} / n,
$$

and pointed out some extensions of this model. The point of this example was that an SST was found by identifying sets of states increasing in size and times at which the process is uniform on each set. This transformed the original problem of studying convergence to stationarity into a different problem of analysing first passage times. It might be interesting to know that there is an alternative way of finding an SSD chain for this walk by using Möbius monotonicity. It is possible if we order linearly the state space by a zigzag ordering on the circle. For example, for $d=2^{3}$, the ordering is $1<2<8<3<7<4<6<5$, with 5 being the maximal state, or, for $d=2^{4}$, the ordering is $1<2<16<3<15<4<14<5<13<6<$ $12<7<11<8<10<9$, with 9 being the maximal state. It turns out that with this ordering $\mathbf{X}$ is Möbius monotone. The corresponding dual is a Markov chain
with one-step transitions only on one side of the circle, that is, for example, in the case $d=16$ moving as a birth-death chain on $1,16,15,14,13,12,11,10,9$, with the maximal state 9 being the absorbing state. That means that the original problem of studying convergence to stationarity for a symmetric random walk on a circle can be transformed into a different problem of analysing passage time for a birth-and-death process on a linearly ordered segment from the minimal to maximal state, which is a more standard one. Möbius monotonicity here is a delicate property, because changing the probability of remaining in a state from $1 / 3$ to a smaller value destroys this monotonicity, however, changing the probability to remain from $1 / 3$ to a greater value does not influence the property of Möbius monotonicity. Also making the walk not symmetric destroys this kind of monotonicity.

## 4. PROOFS

4.1. Proof of Theorem 3.1. We start with a detailed expression for the transition probabilities of $\mathbf{X}$ :

$$
\mathbf{P}\left((x, y),\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right)\right)= \begin{cases}\lambda_{1} & \text { if } x^{\prime}=x+1 \leqslant N, y^{\prime}=y, \\ \lambda_{2} & \text { if } x^{\prime}=x, y^{\prime}=y+1 \leqslant N, \\ \mu_{1} & \text { if } x^{\prime}=x-1 \geqslant 0, y^{\prime}=y, \\ \mu_{2} & \text { if } y^{\prime}=y-1 \geqslant 0, x^{\prime}=x, \\ 1-\left(\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{2}+\mu_{1}+\mu_{2}\right) & \text { if } x^{\prime}=x>0, y^{\prime}=y>0, \\ 1-\left(\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{2}+\mu_{1}\right) & \text { if } x^{\prime}=x>0, y^{\prime}=y=0, \\ 1-\left(\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{2}+\mu_{2}\right) & \text { if } x^{\prime}=x=0, y^{\prime}=y>0, \\ 1-\left(\mu_{1}+\mu_{2}\right) & \text { if } x^{\prime}=x=y=y^{\prime}=N, \\ 1-\left(\mu_{1}+\mu_{2}+\lambda_{1}\right) & \text { if } x^{\prime}=x>0, y^{\prime}=y=N, \\ 1-\left(\mu_{1}+\mu_{2}+\lambda_{2}\right) & \text { if } x^{\prime}=x=N, y^{\prime}=y>0, \\ 1-\left(\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{2}\right) & \text { if } x^{\prime}=x=y=y^{\prime}=0, \\ 1-\left(\lambda_{1}+\mu_{2}\right) & \text { if } x^{\prime}=x=N, y=y^{\prime}=0, \\ 1-\left(\lambda_{2}+\mu_{1}\right) & \text { if } x^{\prime}=x=0, y=y^{\prime}=N .\end{cases}
$$

In a standard way we can check that $\mathbf{X}$ is reversible, and the stationary distribution is given by

$$
\pi((x, y))=C^{-1} \rho_{1}^{x} \rho_{2}^{y}
$$

where $C$ is the normalizing constant, and $\rho_{i}=\lambda_{i} / \mu_{i}, i=1,2$. For the coordinatewise ordering

$$
(x, y) \preceq\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right) \Longleftrightarrow x \leqslant x^{\prime} \text { and } y \leqslant y^{\prime}
$$

with the minimal state $\mathbf{e}_{1}=(0,0)$ and the maximal state $\mathbf{e}_{M}=(N, N)(M=$ $(N+1)^{2}$ ), directly from Proposition 5 in [23] we find the corresponding Möbius function:

$$
\mu\left((x, y),\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right)\right)=\left\{\begin{aligned}
1 & \text { if } x^{\prime}=x, y^{\prime}=y \\
-1 & \text { if } x^{\prime}=x+1, y^{\prime}=y \\
-1 & \text { if } x^{\prime}=x, y^{\prime}=y+1 \\
1 & \text { if } x^{\prime}=x+1, y^{\prime}=y+1 \\
0 & \text { otherwise }
\end{aligned}\right.
$$

For

$$
\begin{aligned}
H(x, y) & =C^{-1} \sum_{x^{\prime} \leqslant x} \rho_{1}^{x^{\prime}} \sum_{y^{\prime} \leqslant y} \rho_{2}^{y^{\prime}} \\
& =C^{-1}\left(1-\rho_{1}\right)^{-1}\left(1-\rho_{2}\right)^{-1}\left(1-\rho_{1}^{x+1}\right)\left(1-\rho_{2}^{y+1}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

we shall compute

$$
\begin{align*}
& \mathbf{P}^{*}\left((x, y),\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)\right)=  \tag{4.1}\\
& =\frac{H\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)}{H(x, y)} \sum_{\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right) \succeq\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)} \mu\left(\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right),\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right)\right) \overleftarrow{\mathbf{P}}\left(\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right),\{(x, y)\}^{\downarrow}\right)
\end{align*}
$$

Set

$$
S:=\sum_{\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right) \succeq\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)} \mu\left(\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right),\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right)\right) \overleftarrow{\mathbf{P}}\left(\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right),\{(x, y)\}^{\downarrow}\right)
$$

Note that in order to prove that $\overleftarrow{\mathbf{X}}$ is $\downarrow$-Möbius monotone it is enough to show that $S \geqslant 0$. Since $\mathbf{X}$ is reversible, we take $\mathbf{P}$ instead of $\overleftarrow{\mathbf{P}}$ in the above formula. We shall consider all possible transitions, case by case.

- (inside lattice, up $x$ direction)
$x_{2}=x+1, y_{2}=y$,

$$
S=\sum_{\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right) \succeq(x+1, y)} \mu\left((x+1, y),\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right)\right) \mathbf{P}\left(\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right),\{(x, y)\}^{\downarrow}\right)
$$

where $\mu$ will be non-zero only in the following cases:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\mu((x+1, y),(x+1, y))=1, & \mu((x+1, y),(x+1, y+1))=-1 \\
\mu((x+1, y),(x+2, y))=-1, & \mu((x+1, y),(x+2, y+1))=1
\end{array}
$$

Combining these cases with the values of $\mathbf{P}\left(\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right),\{(x, y)\}^{\downarrow}\right)$ we get
$S=\mu((x+1, y),(x+1, y)) \mathbf{P}\left((x+1, y),\{(x, y)\}^{\downarrow}\right)-1 \cdot 0-1 \cdot 0+1 \cdot 0=\mu_{1}$.

- (inside lattice, up $y$ direction)
$x_{2}=x, y_{2}=y+1$.
Proceeding as above, we get
$S=\mu((x, y+1),(x, y+1)) \mathbf{P}\left((x, y+1),\{(x, y)\}^{\downarrow}\right)-1 \cdot 0-1 \cdot 0+1 \cdot 0=\mu_{2}$.
- (inside lattice, down $x$ direction)
$x_{2}=x-1 \geqslant 0, y_{2}=y$.
Using the formula for $S$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
S= & \mu((x-1, y),(x-1, y)) \mathbf{P}\left((x-1, y),\{(x, y)\}^{\downarrow}\right) \\
& +\mu((x-1, y),(x, y)) \mathbf{P}\left((x, y),\{(x, y)\}^{\downarrow}\right) \\
& +\mu((x-1, y),(x-1, y+1)) \mathbf{P}\left((x-1, y+1),\{(x, y)\}^{\downarrow}\right) \\
& +\mu((x-1, y),(x, y+1)) \mathbf{P}\left((x, y+1),\{(x, y)\}^{\downarrow}\right) \\
= & 1 \cdot\left(1-\lambda_{2}\right)-1 \cdot\left(1-\lambda_{2}-\lambda_{1}\right)-1 \cdot \mu_{2}+1 \cdot \mu_{2}=\lambda_{1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

- (inside lattice, down $y$ direction)

$$
x_{2}=x, y_{2}=y-1 \geqslant 0,
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
S= & \mu((x, y-1),(x, y-1)) \mathbf{P}\left((x, y-1),\{(x, y)\}^{\downarrow}\right) \\
& +\mu((x, y-1),(x, y)) \mathbf{P}\left((x, y),\{(x, y)\}^{\downarrow}\right) \\
& +\mu((x, y-1),(x+1, y-1)) \mathbf{P}\left((x+1, y-1),\{(x, y)\}^{\downarrow}\right) \\
& +\mu((x, y-1),(x+1, y)) \mathbf{P}\left((x+1, y),\{(x, y)\}^{\downarrow}\right) \\
= & 1 \cdot\left(1-\lambda_{1}\right)-1 \cdot\left(1-\lambda_{2}-\lambda_{1}\right)-1 \cdot \mu_{1}+1 \cdot \mu_{1}=\lambda_{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

- (inside lattice, down on both axes)

$$
\begin{aligned}
x_{2}=x-1 & \geqslant 0, y_{2}=y-1 \geqslant 0, \\
S= & \mu((x-1, y-1),(x-1, y-1)) \mathbf{P}\left((x-1, y-1),\{(x, y)\}^{\downarrow}\right) \\
& +\mu((x-1, y-1),(x-1, y)) \mathbf{P}\left((x-1, y),\{(x, y)\}^{\downarrow}\right) \\
& +\mu((x-1, y-1),(x, y-1)) \mathbf{P}\left((x, y-1),\{(x, y)\}^{\downarrow}\right) \\
& +\mu((x-1, y-1),(x, y)) \mathbf{P}\left((x, y),\{(x, y)\}^{\downarrow}\right) \\
= & 1 \cdot 1-1 \cdot\left(1-\lambda_{2}\right)-\left(1-\lambda_{1}\right)+1-\left(\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{2}\right)=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

In a similar way it is possible to check that inside the lattice the only one remaining movement with positive probability is the feedback movement:

- (feedback inside lattice) $x_{2}=x>0, y_{2}=y>0$,

$$
\mathbf{P}^{*}((x, y),(x, y))=1-\lambda_{1}-\lambda_{2}-\mu_{1}-\mu_{2}=\mathbf{P}((x, y),(x, y))
$$

- (upper border, up $x$ direction)
$x_{2}=x+1 \leqslant N, y_{2}=y=N$,

$$
S=\mu((x+1, N),(x+1, N)) \mathbf{P}\left((x+1, N),\{(x, N)\}^{\downarrow}\right)=\mu_{1}
$$

- (upper border, down $y$ direction)
$x_{2}=x<N, y=N, y_{2}=N-1$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
S= & \mu((x, N-1),(x, N-1)) \mathbf{P}\left((x, N-1),\{(x, N)\}^{\downarrow}\right) \\
& +\mu((x, N-1),(x, N)) \mathbf{P}\left((x, y),\{(x, N)\}^{\downarrow}\right) \\
& +\mu((x, N-1),(x+1, N-1)) \mathbf{P}\left((x+1, N-1),\{(x, N)\}^{\downarrow}\right) \\
& +\mu((x, N-1),(x+1, N)) \mathbf{P}\left((x+1, N),\{(x, N)\}^{\downarrow}\right) \\
= & 1 \cdot\left(1-\lambda_{1}\right)-1 \cdot\left(1-\lambda_{1}\right)-1 \cdot \mu_{1}+1 \cdot \mu_{1}=0
\end{aligned}
$$

- (upper-right corner, down $y$ direction)
$x_{2}=x=N, y=N, y_{2}=N-1$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
S= & \mu((N, N-1),(N, N-1)) \mathbf{P}\left((N, N-1),\{(N, N)\}^{\downarrow}\right) \\
& +\mu((N, N-1),(N, N)) \mathbf{P}\left((N, N),\{(N, N)\}^{\downarrow}\right)=1-1=0
\end{aligned}
$$

- (upper border, down $x$ direction)
$N-1>x_{2}=x-1 \geqslant 0, y_{2}=y=N$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
S= & \mu((x-1, N),(x-1, N)) \mathbf{P}\left((x-1, N),\{(x, N)\}^{\downarrow}\right) \\
& +\mu((x-1, N),(x, N)) \mathbf{P}\left((x, N),\{(x, N)\}^{\downarrow}\right)=1 \cdot 1-1 \cdot\left(1-\lambda_{1}\right)=\lambda_{1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

- (lower border, up $x$ direction)

$$
\begin{aligned}
N-1>x_{2} & =x+1 \leqslant N, y_{2}=y=0 \\
S & =\mu((x+1,0),(x+1,0)) \mathbf{P}\left((x+1,0),\{(x, 0)\}^{\downarrow}\right)=\mu_{1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

- (lower border, down $x$ direction)
$x_{2}=x-1 \geqslant 0, y_{2}=y=0$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
S= & \mu((x-1,0),(x-1,0)) \mathbf{P}\left((x-1,0),\{(x, 0)\}^{\downarrow}\right) \\
& +\mu((x-1,0),(x, 0)) \mathbf{P}\left((x, 0),\{(x, 0)\}^{\downarrow}\right) \\
& +\mu((x-1,0),(x-1,1)) \mathbf{P}\left((x-1,1),\{(x, 0)\}^{\downarrow}\right) \\
& +\mu((x-1,0),(x, 1)) \mathbf{P}\left((x, 1),\{(x, 0)\}^{\downarrow}\right) \\
= & 1 \cdot\left(1-\lambda_{2}\right)-1 \cdot\left(1-\lambda_{1}-\lambda_{2}\right)-1 \cdot \mu_{2}+\mu_{2}=\lambda_{1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

- (lower border, up $y$ direction)
$x_{2}=x \geqslant 0, y_{2}=1, y=0$,

$$
S=\mu((x, 1),(x, 1)) \mathbf{P}\left((x, 1),\{(x, 0)\}^{\downarrow}\right)=\mu_{2}
$$

In a similar way we get:

- (right border, up $y$ direction)
$x_{2}=x=N, y_{2}=y+1 \leqslant N, \quad S=\mu_{2}$.
- (right border, down $y$ direction)
$x_{2}=x=N, N-1>y_{2}=y-1 \geqslant 0, \quad S=\lambda_{2}$.
- (right border, down $x$ direction)
$x_{2}=N-1, x=N, y_{2}=y, \quad S=0$.
- (left border, up $y$ direction)
$x_{2}=x=0, y_{2}=y+1 \leqslant N, \quad S=\mu_{2}$.
- (left border, up $x$ direction)
$x=0, x_{2}=1, y_{2}=y, \quad S=\mu_{1}$.
- (left border, down $y$ direction)
$x_{2}=x=0, N-1>y_{2}=y-1 \geqslant 0, \quad S=\lambda_{2}$.
- (absorbing state)
$x_{2}=x=N, y_{2}=y=N, \quad S=1$.
- (feedback movements)
for all $(x, y) \in\{0, \ldots, N-1\}^{2}, \quad S=1-\left(\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{2}+\mu_{1}+\mu_{2}\right)$;
for $x=N$ and $y \in\{0, \ldots, N-1\}, S=1-\left(\lambda_{2}+\mu_{2}\right)$;
for $y=N$ and $x \in\{0, \ldots, N-1\}, \quad S=1-\left(\lambda_{1}+\mu_{1}\right)$.
Now by (4.ل1) and using values of $H(x, y)$, we obtain $\mathbf{P}^{*}$ given in (3.3).
4.2. Proof of Theorem 3.2. Consider the coordinatewise ordering
$\mathbf{e}=(\mathbf{e}(1), \ldots, \mathbf{e}(n)) \preceq\left(\mathbf{e}^{\prime}(1), \ldots, \mathbf{e}^{\prime}(n)\right)=\mathbf{e}^{\prime} \quad$ iff $\quad \mathbf{e}(i) \leqslant \mathbf{e}^{\prime}(i), i=1, \ldots, n$.
Again, for this ordering with minimal element $\mathbf{e}_{1}=(0, \ldots, 0)$ and maximal element $\mathbf{e}_{M}=(k, \ldots, k)$ (with $M=(k+1)^{n}$ ), directly from Proposition 5 in Rota [23] we find the corresponding Möbius function

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mu\left((\mathbf{e}(1), \ldots, \mathbf{e}(n)),\left(\mathbf{e}(1)+d_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{e}(n)+d_{n}\right)\right) \\
& \quad= \begin{cases}(-1)^{\sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{i}}, & d_{i} \in\{0,1\}, \mathbf{e}(i)+d_{i} \leqslant k, i=1, \ldots, n \\
0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

For $H(\mathbf{e})=\sum_{\mathbf{e}^{\prime} \preceq \mathbf{e}} \pi\left(\mathbf{e}^{\prime}\right)=\left|\left\{\mathbf{e}^{\prime}: \mathbf{e}^{\prime} \leqslant \mathbf{e}\right\}\right| \cdot 1 /(k+1)^{n}$, we shall compute directly transitions of the dual chain (2.2) from Theorem 2.1. Note that in order to prove that $\overleftarrow{\mathbf{X}}$ is $\downarrow$-Möbius monotone, it is enough to show that all summands in (2.2) are nonnegative. We take $\mathbf{P}$ instead of $\overleftarrow{\mathbf{P}}$ since this chain is reversible.

For convenience, we shall consider states of the form

$$
\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}=\left(\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}(1), \ldots, \mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}(n)\right), \quad A \subseteq\{1, \ldots, n\}
$$

with $\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}(i)=k$ if $i \in A$, and 0 otherwise. Note that there are $(k+1)^{|A|}$ states less than or equal (with respect to $\preceq$ ) to $\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}$, and we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{H\left(\mathbf{e}_{A \cup\{j\}}^{(k)}\right)}{H\left(\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}\right)}=\frac{(k+1)^{|A \cup\{j\}|}}{(k+1)^{|A|}}=k+1 \quad \text { for } j \notin A \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let us calculate transitions of the dual chain from the state $\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}$. We shall use $s_{i}=(0, \ldots, 0,1,0, \ldots, 0)$ with 1 at position $i$. For the probability of staying at this state we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbf{P}^{*}\left(\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}, \mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}\right)=1 \cdot \sum_{\mathbf{e} \succeq \mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}} \mu\left(\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}, \mathbf{e}\right) \mathbf{P}\left(\mathbf{e},\left\{\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}\right\}^{\downarrow}\right) \\
&= \mu\left(\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}, \mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}\right) \mathbf{P}\left(\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)},\left\{\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}\right\}^{\downarrow}\right)+\sum_{i \in A^{c}} \mu\left(\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}, \mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}+s_{i}\right) \mathbf{P}\left(\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}+s_{i},\left\{\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}\right\}^{\downarrow}\right) \\
&= 1 \cdot\left(\frac{1}{2}+\sum_{i \in A} k \cdot \frac{1}{2 n k}\right)-\sum_{i \in A^{c}} \frac{1}{2 n k} \\
&= \frac{1}{2}+\frac{k|A|}{2 n k}-\frac{n-|A|}{2 n k}=\frac{n(k-1)+|A|(k+1)}{2 n k} \\
& \text { since } \mathbf{P}\left(\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}+s_{i},\left\{\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}\right\}^{\downarrow}\right)=\mathbf{P}\left(\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}+s_{i}, \mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now, for the probability of transition from $\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}$ to $\mathbf{e}_{A \cup\{j\}}^{(k)}, j \notin A$, we obtain

$$
\mathbf{P}^{*}\left(\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}, \mathbf{e}_{A \cup\{j\}}^{(k)}\right)=\frac{H\left(\mathbf{e}_{A \cup\{j\}}^{(k)}\right)}{H\left(\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}\right)} \sum_{\mathbf{e} \succeq \mathbf{e}_{A \cup\{j\}}^{(k)}} \mu\left(\mathbf{e}_{A \cup\{j\}}^{(k)}, \mathbf{e}\right) \mathbf{P}\left(\mathbf{e},\left\{\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}\right\}^{\downarrow}\right) .
$$

The only state $\mathbf{e}$ for which $\mathbf{P}\left(\mathbf{e},\left\{\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}\right\}^{\downarrow}\right)>0$ is $\mathbf{e}=\mathbf{e}_{A \cup\{j\}}^{(k)}$, thus (using (4.2)) we have

$$
\mathbf{P}^{*}\left(\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}, \mathbf{e}_{A \cup\{j\}}^{(k)}\right)=(k+1) \mu\left(\mathbf{e}_{A \cup\{j\}}^{(k)}, \mathbf{e}_{A \cup\{j\}}^{(k)}\right) \mathbf{P}\left(\mathbf{e}_{A \cup\{j\}}^{(k)},\left\{\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}\right\}^{\downarrow}\right)=\frac{k+1}{2 n k} .
$$

This completes our argument since all other transitions have probability zero, which is clear from the following summation:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{P}^{*}\left(\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}, \mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}\right)+ & \sum_{j \in A^{c}} \mathbf{P}^{*}\left(\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}, \mathbf{e}_{A \cup\{j\}}^{(k)}\right) \\
& =\frac{n(k-1)+|A|(k+1)}{2 n k}+(n-|A|) \cdot \frac{k+1}{2 n k} \\
& =\frac{n(k-1)+n(k+1)+|A|(k+1)-|A|(k+1)}{2 n k}=1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that the dual chain starts at the minimal state which is also of the form $\mathbf{e}_{A}^{(k)}$, namely with $A=\emptyset$.

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