MARKOV CHAINS, R-TRIVIAL MONOIDS AND REPRESENTATION THEORY

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Dedicated to Stuart Margolis on the occasion of his sixtieth birthday

Abstract. We develop a general theory of Markov chains realizable as random walks on R-trivial monoids and provide many examples, such as Toom-Tsetlin models, an exchange walk for finite Coxeter groups, as well as examples previously studied by the authors such as nonabelian sandpile models and the promotion Markov chain on posets. Many of these examples can be viewed as random walks on quotients of free tree monoids, a new class of monoids whose combinatorics we develop.

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1. Introduction

A finite state Markov chain consists of a finite state set $\Omega$ and a transition matrix $T : \Omega \times \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$. The matrix $T$ is required to be non-negative and have column sums all equal to one (i.e., $T$ should be a column stochastic matrix).

The representation theory of finite groups is a powerful technique for analyzing Markov chains arising as random walks on finite groups or finite homogeneous spaces (coset spaces of finite groups) [Dia88, CSST08]. In this setting the transition matrix $T$ can be decomposed as a convex combination $T = \sum x_i \sigma_i$ of permutation matrices $\sigma_i$ generating a finite subgroup $G$ of the symmetric group $S_\Omega$ under composition. The representation theory of $G$ allows one to decompose $\mathbb{C}\Omega$ into a direct sum of invariant subspaces for the operators $\sigma_i$ and therefore for $T$. This has the effect of turning the transition matrix into a block diagonal matrix, and each block can be analyzed separately, using that the subspace is an irreducible representation of $G$. Furthermore, character theory can be employed to recover all irreducible constituents and their multiplicities.

Transition matrices of random walks on groups or homogeneous spaces are bistochastic, meaning they are square matrices of non-negative real numbers whose row and column sums are all equal to one. The classical Birkhoff-von Neumann theorem [Zie95, Example 0.12] states that a transition matrix $T$ is bistochastic if and only if it has a decomposition $T = \sum x_i \sigma_i$ as a convex combination of permutation matrices $\sigma_i$. In particular, the group $G = \langle \sigma_i \rangle$ is a finite permutation group. Whether this approach is practical or not depends on how nice the representation theory of $G$ is, how fine the decomposition of $\mathbb{C}\Omega$ into
irreducible representations is, and on properties of $T$ itself. For instance, if $G$ is abelian then each irreducible subrepresentation is one-dimensional and so the decomposition of $\mathbb{C}\Omega$ into irreducibles diagonalizes $T$. More generally, if all $x_i$ are constant on conjugacy classes of $G$, then Schur’s lemma implies that the decomposition of $\mathbb{C}\Omega$ into irreducibles diagonalizes $T$ and one can completely analyze the Markov chain via representation theory [Dia88,CSST08]. Another particularly nice case is when $G$ is the full symmetric group, giving, for example, connections between card-shuffling Markov chains and symmetric functions [Dia88,DS81,DS86,DR12].

A natural way to obtain a decomposition $T = \sum x_i \sigma_i$ is when the Markov chain is described by a finite automaton. More precisely, if we have a finite automaton with state set $\Omega$ and input alphabet $A$, then the transition function $\sigma : A \times \Omega \to \Omega$ (we operate on the left of the states) yields an operator $\sigma_a$ on $\Omega$ for each $a \in A$. By assigning probabilities $x_a$ to each $a \in A$, we obtain a transition operator $T = \sum_{a \in A} x_a \sigma_a$. The monoid $M = \langle \sigma_a \rangle_{a \in A}$ is precisely the transition monoid of the automaton [Pin86]. In general, the operators $\sigma_a$ are not invertible, and hence $M$ is no longer a group. The representation theory of monoids (see [CP61, Chapter 5] and [McA72,RZ91]) is much less well understood than that of groups, although there has been recent progress [Put96,Put98,GMS09,DHST11,HST13,Sal07,MS12a,MS11,Ste06,Ste08]. However, the analysis [Bir97,BHR99,BD98a] of random walks on hyperplane arrangements, and in particular the Tsetlin library, provided motivation for Brown [Bro00] to develop a successful analysis of Markov chains via the representation theory of left regular bands. This theory has been further developed and applied in [BD98b,BBD99,Bjo09,Bjo08,AD10,CG12,Sal12].

In his 1998 ICM address, Diaconis [Dia98] asked for the ultimate generalization of these semigroup techniques. In this paper, we make progress toward answering this question by generalizing Brown’s theory of Markov chains on left-regular bands [Bro00] to Markov chains on $\mathcal{R}$-trivial monoids. This vast generalization potentially finds applications in combinatorics, statistical physics and computer science. From the point of view of combinatorics, natural Markov chains on objects such as permutations (i.e., the Tsetlin library) [Hen72], hyperplane arrangements [BHR99] and linear extensions [AKS13a] are of intrinsic interest. As in the case of left regular bands, combinatorial sequences such as derangement numbers crop up as the multiplicities of eigenvalues of the transition matrices of these Markov chains and are deserving of some explanation.
Statistical physicists and computer scientists model real-life phenomena probabilistically as Markov chains and are interested in both the stationary distribution of the chain (given by the eigenvector of the transition matrix with eigenvalue 1) as well as the time to approach stationarity (which for reversible chains is controlled by the second-largest eigenvalue, or spectral gap). Recently many interesting Markov chains have emerged which fit into this theory \cite{AS10,Ayy11,AS13,AKS13a,ASST13}. In Sections 2–4 we develop the general theory of Markov chains which are random walks on $\mathbb{R}$-trivial monoids and describe how the unified approach of $\mathbb{R}$-trivial monoids gives techniques for the calculation of both these quantities.

Let us briefly explain how the representation theory of $\mathbb{R}$-trivial monoids compares to that of groups. First of all, we lose semisimplicity (or complete reducibility) of representations, which means that the transition matrix can no longer be put in a block diagonal form, but rather in a block triangular form. On the other hand, the irreducible representations are one-dimensional, which means that the transition matrix is actually put in upper triangular form. For example, this makes it easy to recover the eigenvalues, using character theory, and to determine the irreducible constituents via Möbius inversion. In fact, the eigenvalues take a particularly nice form, given as a sum of a subset of the probabilities $x_i$ \cite{Ste06,Ste08}. Note that in the group case, it is non-trivial to compute eigenvalues of random walks unless the probability measure is constant on conjugacy classes (e.g., for abelian groups). For instance, it is easier to compute the eigenvalues for the top-to-random shuffle as a left regular band walk \cite{BHR99} than as a symmetric group walk.

As this is a long paper, it seems worthwhile here to describe some of the Markov chains that we analyze in this paper, and have analyzed in others, using $\mathbb{R}$-trivial monoid techniques. The reader should also consult Brown \cite{Bro00} for numerous examples using the particular case of left regular bands. See also \cite{CG12,Bjo09,Bjo08,AD10} for further left regular band random walks.

**The Toom-Tsetlin model.** In the classical Tsetlin library Markov chain \cite{Hen72,DF95,FH96,BHR99} one has a shelf of books and one wants a self-organizing system for the books. So each time a book is removed from the shelf, it is replaced at the front of the shelf. This way, eventually the most commonly used books will be toward the front of the shelf and the least commonly used books toward the back. This was one of the first chains to be analyzed from the $\mathbb{R}$-trivial monoid point-of-view (actually from the left regular band point
of view) [BHR99, Bro00, BD98a]. Using these tools one can explicitly compute the eigenvalues (which are the probabilities of picking a book from a given subset of the books) and their multiplicities (which are derangement numbers), a bound on the mixing time and an explicit formula for the stationary distribution.

In this paper, we consider a generalization called the Toom-Tsetlin model. There are two versions, we discuss here only the first one and refer the reader to Section 6 for the second variant and details. In this model one has \( n_i \geq 1 \) copies of book \( b_i \) on the shelf. When you remove the \( j^{th} \) copy of \( b_i \) from the shelf you replace it immediately after the \( (j - 1)^{st} \) copy of \( b_i \) (where if \( j = 1 \), then you simply place the book at the front of the shelf). The Tsetlin library is the special case where you have one copy of each book. For this Markov chain we explicitly compute the eigenvalues (which again are probabilities of choosing a book from a certain subset of books) and their multiplicities (which are derangement numbers for words, or multipermutations). See Theorem 6.2.

The landslide sandpile model. The abelian sandpile model [Dha90, Dha99] has proved influential in understanding the phenomenon of self-organized criticality [BTW87]. The model can be thought of as a discrete-time Markov chain. It is defined on any directed graph, with some of the vertices denoted as sinks. At every time instant, one deposits a grain of sand on one of the vertices. If the total number at that vertex exceeds its out-degree, it topples, expunging one grain to each of its neighbours. Any grain deposited to a sink is considered to be removed from the system. The generators of the model form an abelian group, hence the name.

We study the following variant of the abelian sandpile model, called the landslide sandpile model, which is nonabelian in the sense that the generators do not commute. The model is now defined on a directed graph. We analyzed the case when the graph is a directed tree, or an arborescence, using monoid theoretic methods in [ASST13].

One has a directed rooted tree with all edges oriented toward the root. Each vertex \( v \) (hereafter called a site) has a threshold \( T_v \), which is the number of grains of sand it can hold. At any moment in time, each site contains some number of grains up to its threshold. One of two things can happen: either a new particle can enter the system at a leaf, filling the first available site along the geodesic from the leaf to the root (and if none are available, then it leaves the system); or a site can topple, moving along the geodesic to the root and filling the first available sites (possibly some grains will leave the system).
Using the techniques developed in this paper, we were able to compute the eigenvalues with multiplicities and a reasonable upper bound on the mixing time. A key ingredient was proving the \( R \)-triviality of the monoid corresponding to the landslide nonabelian directed sandpile model. In Section 7 we provide an alternate proof of this fact. For the case that the thresholds are all 1, we were able to prove that the stationary distribution is an explicitly given product measure. See [ASST13] for details.

**The exchange walk on a finite Coxeter group.** In Section 8 we examine another generalization of the Tsetlin library, this time associated to a finite Coxeter system \((W, S)\) [BB05]. The state space for the chain consists of all reduced decompositions for the longest element \(w_0\) of \(W\). The transitions, called exchange moves, are as follows. If you are in state \(s_1 \cdots s_n\), then you randomly choose a generator \(s \in S\) and move to \(ss_1 \cdots \hat{s_i} s_{i+1} \cdots s_n\) where \(\hat{s_i}\) means omit \(s_i\). The index \(i\) to remove in order to obtain a reduced decomposition of \(w_0\) is unique according to the Exchange Condition for Coxeter groups [BB05].

For example, if \(W = (\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^n\) and \(S\) is the standard basis for \(W\), then \((W, S)\) is a Coxeter system, \(w_0\) is the all-ones vector, the reduced decompositions for \(w_0\) are those words over \(S\) containing all letters and no repetitions (i.e., the permutations of \(S\)) and an exchange move is just a move-to-front. So we recover the Tsetlin library in this case.

When \(W = S_n\) is the symmetric group and \(S\) is the set of adjacent transpositions, then \((W, S)\) is a Coxeter system. The longest element \(w_0\) is \(i \mapsto n - i + 1\) (in one-line notation it is \(n, n - 1, \ldots, 1\)). A well known result of Stanley [Sta84] says that reduced decompositions of \(w_0\) are equinumerous with tableaux of staircase shape. An explicit bijection was given by Edelman and Greene [EG87]. So this chain can be viewed as a stochastic process on such tableaux.

Using the techniques of \(R\)-trivial monoids, we are able to compute the eigenvalues with multiplicities and give a simple formula for the stationary distribution for the exchange walk on a finite Coxeter group.

**Promotion chains.** In [AKS13a], the Tsetlin library Markov chain was generalized by looking at linear extensions \(\mathcal{L}\) of a finite poset \(P\) of size \(n\). The transition between two linear extensions is given by a variant of the promotion operator on posets [Sch72].

For a linear extension \(\pi = \pi_1 \cdots \pi_n \in \mathcal{L}\) in one-line notation, the generalized promotion operator \(\partial_i\) for \(1 \leq i < n\) can be defined as [Hai92, MR94, Sta09]

\[
\partial_i(\pi) = \tau_{n-1} \tau_{n-2} \cdots \tau_i(\pi),
\]
Here $\tau_i$ acts on $\pi$ by interchanging $\pi_i$ and $\pi_{i+1}$ if $\pi_i$ and $\pi_{i+1}$ are not comparable in $P$. Otherwise it acts as the identity. Define $\hat{\partial}_i(\pi) = \partial_{\pi_{i+1}}(\pi)$. Assigning probability $x_i$ to the operator $\hat{\partial}_i$ defines the promotion Markov chain on $L$. For any poset $P$, the stationary distribution of the Markov chain was given by an explicit product formula [AKS13a].

When $P$ is the antichain on $n$ vertices (that is, there are no imposed ordering relations between any of the vertices), then $L$ is the set of all linear orderings and the promotion Markov chain reduces to the Tsetlin library (where now books are moved to the end of the stack instead of the front due to a difference in conventions).

For special posets, called rooted forests, the eigenvalues and their multiplicities of the transition matrices can also be computed explicitly. Recall that a rooted forest is a poset where each vertex has at most one successor. It was shown [AKS13a] that in that case, the underlying transition monoid is $R$-trivial. The eigenvalues can then be computed using the techniques presented in this paper. In [AKS13b] the mixing time for this Markov chain was also estimated using monoid techniques.

**Structure of the paper.** Let us now describe the content of each section in more detail. Since this paper is intended for an audience of algebraists, combinatorialists and probabilists, we include in Section 2 some background about each of these areas.

In Section 3 we present general results for random walks on monoids before specializing to $R$-trivial Markov chains in Section 4. In particular, for $R$-trivial monoids, we describe combinatorially the eigenvalues by character theory, or equivalently through inclusion-exclusion on a lattice (Theorem 4.2), give a sufficient condition for diagonalizability (Theorem 4.3) generalizing the result of Brown [Bro00] (see also [BD98]), provide a formula for the stationary distribution (Theorems 4.10 and 4.12), relate the rate of convergence with some properties of the monoid (Corollary 4.15), and conclude with a bound on the mixing time (Corollary 4.22). This theory subsumes that of left regular band random walks developed in [Bro00].

When investigating examples, we discovered that the generators of the transition monoids often satisfy certain types of relations, reminiscent of the plactic relations [Lot02, Chapter 5]. In Section 5 we study the largest such monoid. The relations admit a nice Knuth–Bendix completion, and it follows that its combinatorics is governed by a certain class of trees, which motivates its name: the free tree monoid. One of the main results is that the free tree monoid is $R$-trivial (Corollary 5.2). The lattice of $R$-classes of idempotents of the free tree monoid
is the Boolean lattice and we provide a simple transversal of idempotents.

In the remaining sections, we study several examples of $R$-trivial Markov chains, applying results of Section 4, and using the free tree monoid on several occasions for concise proofs of $R$-triviality and using its representation theory in order to benefit from its simple combinatorics.

In Section 6 we consider two new generalizations of the Tsetlin library, with multiple copies of books and with storage or interlibrary loan, respectively. This model can also be regarded as a generalization of the Toom model [Too80, LNR96] to finite size as well as arbitrary particles. Theorems 6.2 and 6.7 provide the spectra of these models. In Section 7 we provide a short proof of the $R$-triviality of the landslides nonabelian directed sandpile model of [ASST13] using the free tree monoid of Section 5. Finally, in Section 8 we consider a Markov chain on the set of reduced words of the longest element of a finite Coxeter group and provide its spectrum and stationary distribution. This model is also a generalization of the Tsetlin library, which appears in the case of a finite right-angled Coxeter group.

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2. Markov Chains

Since this paper is intended for an audience of algebraists, combinatorialists and probabilists, we include some background about each of these areas.

2.1. Generalities on Markov chains. We recall here some basic notions from Markov chain theory. Details can be found in e.g. [LPW09]. Let \( \Omega \) be a finite set. A probability distribution (or simply a probability) on \( \Omega \) is a mapping \( P: \Omega \to \mathbb{R} \) such that \( P(\omega) \geq 0 \) for all \( \omega \in \Omega \) and

\[
\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} P(\omega) = 1.
\]

The probability that an element of \( \Omega \) chosen randomly according to \( P \) belongs to some subset \( A \subseteq \Omega \) is given by

\[
P(A) = \sum_{\omega \in A} P(\omega).
\]

A (finite state) Markov chain is a pair \( M = (\Omega, T) \) consisting of a (finite) state space \( \Omega \) and a (column) stochastic matrix \( T: \Omega \times \Omega \to \mathbb{R} \). Recall that \( T \) is stochastic if:

1. \( T(\alpha, \beta) \geq 0 \) for all \( \alpha, \beta \in \Omega \);
2. for all \( \beta \in \Omega \),

\[
\sum_{\alpha \in \Omega} T(\alpha, \beta) = 1.
\]

One calls \( T \) the transition matrix of the chain. The intuition is that if you are in state \( \beta \), then with probability \( T(\alpha, \beta) \) you move to state \( \alpha \).\footnote{Note that some authors prefer to denote this probability as \( T(\beta, \alpha) \).}

We can view \( T \) as an operator on \( \mathbb{R}^\Omega \) in the usual way: \( Tf(\omega) = \sum_{\beta \in \Omega} T(\omega, \beta)f(\beta) \). It is easy to see that \( T \) preserves probability distributions and so if \( \nu \) is an initial distribution, then \( T^n\nu \) is a probability distribution known as the \( n \)-th-step distribution of the Markov chain. That is, \( T^n\nu(\omega) \) is the probability of being in state \( \omega \) on the \( n \)-th-step of the chain if the chain starts with initial distribution \( \nu \).

We say that \( \pi \) is a stationary distribution for \( T \) if \( T\pi = \pi \). It is a consequence of the Perron-Frobenius theorem that each Markov chain has at least one stationary distribution. A Markov chain \( M = (\Omega, T) \) is called irreducible if, for each \( \alpha, \beta \in \Omega \), there exists \( n \geq 0 \) such that \( T^n(\alpha, \beta) > 0 \). A better way to think about this is the following. Define a digraph \( \Gamma(M) \) with vertex set \( \Omega \) and a directed edge \( \beta \to \alpha \) if \( T(\alpha, \beta) > 0 \). Then \( M \) is irreducible if and only if \( \Gamma(M) \) is strongly
connected. Irreducible Markov chains have a unique stationary distribution \( \pi \) and moreover \( \pi > 0 \) (has strictly positive entries). The Markov chain \( \mathcal{M} \) is said to be \textit{ergodic} if \( T^n > 0 \) for some \( n \geq 0 \), or equivalently for any large enough \( n \). It is well known that this is equivalent to asking that the chain be irreducible and that the greatest common divisor of the lengths of the cycles of \( \Gamma(\mathcal{M}) \) be 1 (that is, the associated digraph is \textit{primitive}). In this case, for any initial distribution \( \nu \), the sequence \( T^n \nu \) converges to the stationary distribution \( \pi \).

Strongly connected components of \( \Gamma(\mathcal{M}) \) are called \textit{communicating classes} in Markov chain theory. A communicating class is called \textit{essential} if the corresponding strong component is minimal under the ordering on strongly connected components defined by \( C \leq C' \) if there is a directed path from \( C' \) to \( C \). States which belong to essential communicating classes are said to be \textit{recurrent}; the remaining states are called \textit{transient}. It is well known and easy to see that \( \lim_{n \to \infty} T^n(\alpha, \beta) = 0 \) if \( \alpha, \beta \) do not belong to the same essential communicating class, and that if \( \pi \) is a stationary distribution of \( T \), then \( \pi(\omega) = 0 \) for each transient state \( \omega \in \Omega \) (see [LPW09, Section 1.7]).

In Markov chain theory, one usually measures the rate of convergence in terms of the total variation distance. Recall that \( \mathbb{R}^\Omega \) is a real Banach space with the \( \ell^1 \)-norm: \( \|f\|_1 = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} |f(\omega)| \). Let \( \mathcal{P}(\Omega) \) be the space of probability distributions on \( \Omega \); it is a compact subspace of the \( \ell^1 \)-unit ball. The \textit{total variation distance} between two probability distributions \( \nu, \mu \) is defined by

\[
\|\nu - \mu\|_{TV} = \max_{A \subseteq \Omega} |\nu(A) - \mu(A)|.
\]

The following equivalent expressions are extremely useful.

**Proposition 2.1** (See e.g. Proposition 4.2 and Remark 4.3 of [LPW09]). Let \( \nu, \mu \) be probabilities on \( \Omega \), and \( A = \{\omega \in \Omega \mid \nu(\omega) \geq \mu(\omega)\} \). Then,

\[
\|\nu - \mu\|_{TV} = \frac{1}{2} \|\nu - \mu\|_1 = \nu(A) - \mu(A).
\]

Let \( \mathcal{M} = (\Omega, T) \) be an ergodic Markov chain with stationary distribution \( \pi \). Let \( d(n) = \sup_{\nu \in \mathcal{P}(\Omega)} \|T^n \nu - \pi\|_{TV} \). Then if \( \varepsilon > 0 \), the \textit{mixing time} of \( \mathcal{M} \) is \( t_{\text{mix}}(\varepsilon) = \min\{n \mid d(n) \leq \varepsilon\} \) [LPW09]. Often authors choose \( \varepsilon = e^{-1} \) or \( \varepsilon = 1/4 \) to define the mixing time. We usually try to bound, for \( c > 0 \), when \( \|T^n \nu - \pi\|_{TV} \leq e^{-c} \).

2.2. \textbf{Semigroups and monoids.} We recall here some basic notions from semigroup theory. Details can be found in [CP61], [KRT68], [How95], [Alm94], [Eil76], [Pin13] or [RS09, Appendix A].
A semigroup $S$ is a set with an associative multiplication $S \times S \to S$. It is called a monoid if additionally it contains an identity element, usually denoted $1$.

An element $e$ of a semigroup $S$ is idempotent if $e^2 = e$. The set of idempotents is denoted $E(S)$. Each element $s$ of a finite semigroup has unique idempotent (positive) power, traditionally denoted $s^\omega$. In particular, every non-empty finite semigroup contains an idempotent.

A finite semigroup $S$ is said to be aperiodic if $s^\omega s = s$, for all $s \in S$. Equivalently, $S$ is aperiodic if there is a positive integer $n$ such that $s^n = s^{n+1}$ for any $s \in S$. Trivially, any subsemigroup or homomorphic image of an aperiodic semigroup is aperiodic.

An ideal of a monoid $M$ is a non-empty subset $I$ such that $MI \subseteq I$. Left ideals and right ideals are defined analogously. If $I, J$ are ideals of a monoid $M$, then $IJ \subseteq I \cap J$ and hence $I \cap J \neq \emptyset$. It follows that every finite monoid has a unique minimal ideal. Let $M$ be a finite monoid. Any ideal of $M$ is a subsemigroup and hence contains an idempotent. If $I$ is the minimal ideal of $M$ and $e \in E(I)$, then $eMe = eIe$ is a group with identity $e$. In particular, if $I$ is aperiodic, then $eMe = \{e\}$.

We now introduce two of Green’s relations [Gre51], namely $L$ and $R$. Let $M$ be a monoid. Then the principal right ideal generated by $m \in M$ is $mM$. One defines a preorder on $M$ by putting $m \leq_R m'$ if $mM \subseteq m'M$. One defines $m \mathcal{R} m'$ if $m \leq_R m'$ and $m' \leq_R m$ (i.e., $mM = m'M$). The classes for this relation are called $\mathcal{R}$-classes; they are the strongly connected of the right Cayley graph of $M$.

A monoid $M$ is $\mathcal{R}$-trivial if Green’s relation $\mathcal{R}$ is trivial, that is, if $m \mathcal{R} m'$ (i.e., $mM = m'M$) implies $m = m'$. Equivalently, the right Cayley graph is acyclic. In this case $\leq_\mathcal{R}$ is a partial order on $M$. Note that $\leq_\mathcal{R}$ is compatible with left multiplication, that is, $m \leq_\mathcal{R} m'$ implies $nm \leq_\mathcal{R} nm'$ for all $n \in M$. A finite $\mathcal{R}$-trivial monoid is necessarily aperiodic since $s^\omega \mathcal{R} s^\omega s$ in any finite monoid. The class of finite $\mathcal{R}$-trivial monoids is closed under taking finite direct products, submonoids, and homomorphic images.

Green’s relation $L$ and $\mathcal{L}$-trivial monoids are defined symmetrically on the left.

A left zero semigroup is a semigroup satisfying the identity $xy = x$. Let $L$ be the $\mathcal{L}$-class of an idempotent of an $\mathcal{R}$-trivial monoid. It is always a left zero semigroup; more generally, for any $x \in L$ and $y \in M$, one has $xy = x$ if and only if $Mx \subseteq My$. The minimal ideal of an $\mathcal{R}$-trivial monoid $M$ is a left zero semigroup and is the unique minimal left ideal of $M$.

A monoid $M$ is called a left regular band if $x^2 = x$ and $xyx = xy$ for all $x, y \in M$. Left regular bands are $\mathcal{R}$-trivial, which can be seen as...
follows. Suppose $x$ and $y$ are in the same $R$-class, that is, there exist $u, v \in M$ such that $xu = y$ and $yv = x$. But then

$$x = yv = xuv = xu = y$$

since $uv = vu$. Hence all $R$-classes are singletons. More generally, a finite monoid $M$ is $R$-trivial if and only if $(xy)^\omega x = (xy)^\omega$ for all $x, y \in M$.

2.3. Random mapping representations. A left action of a monoid on a set $\Omega$ is a mapping $M \times \Omega \to \Omega$, written $(m, \omega) \mapsto m\omega$, such that

1. $m(m'\omega) = (mm')\omega$
2. $1\omega = \omega$

for all $m, m' \in M$ and $\omega \in \Omega$. Right actions are defined symmetrically.

If $X \subseteq M$, then the Cayley digraph of the action of $X$ on $\Omega$ is the digraph $\Gamma(\Omega, X)$ with vertex set $\Omega$ and edges $\omega \to x\omega$ for $\omega \in \Omega$ and $x \in X$ (sometimes we use the Cayley digraph with labelled edges $\omega \xrightarrow{x} x\omega$).

If $X \subseteq M$, then $\langle X \rangle$ denotes the submonoid of $M$ generated by $X$, that is, the smallest submonoid of $M$ containing $X$.

Let $M$ be a (finite) monoid acting on the left of a (finite) set $\Omega$. Suppose that $P$ is a probability on $M$. Then we have an induced Markov chain $M = (\Omega, T)$ where

$$T(\alpha, \beta) = \sum_{m\beta = \alpha} P(m) = P(\{ m \in M \mid m\beta = \alpha \}).$$

We call this Markov chain the random walk of $M$ on $\Omega$ driven by $P$. The fact that $T$ is stochastic is simply the computation

$$\sum_{\alpha \in \Omega} T(\alpha, \beta) = \sum_{\alpha \in \Omega} \sum_{m \in M} P(m) \delta_{\alpha, m\beta}$$

$$= \sum_{m \in M} P(m) \sum_{\alpha \in \Omega} \delta_{\alpha, m\beta} = \sum_{m \in M} P(m) = 1.$$ 

The data consisting of the action of $M \times \Omega \to \Omega$ and the probability $P$ on $M$ is called a random mapping representation of the Markov chain $M$.

A matrix $A : \Omega \times \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ is called column monomial if each column of $A$ is a standard basis vector (i.e., contains exactly one non-zero entry, which must be a one). Note that such a column monomial matrix is stochastic. Column monomial matrices are exactly the linear operators induced by mappings $f : \Omega \to \Omega$, the corresponding column monomial
matrix \([f]\) being given by

\[
[f](\alpha, \beta) = \begin{cases} 
1 & \text{if } f(\beta) = \alpha, \\
0 & \text{else}.
\end{cases}
\]

To prove that every Markov chain has a random mapping representation we use the following well-known lemma.

**Lemma 2.2.** Every stochastic matrix is a convex combination of column monomial matrices.

**Proof.** The set \(S\) of stochastic matrices is a polytope whose vertices are the column monomial matrices (cf. the discussion after [BP79, Theorem 5.3]). As each point of a polytope is a convex combination of vertices, the lemma follows. \(\square\)

**Theorem 2.3.** Every finite state Markov chain has a random mapping representation.

This is a basic fact of probability theory [LPW09], though it is usually stated in a different language.

**Proof.** Let now \(\mathcal{M} = (\Omega, T)\) be a Markov chain and let \(\mathcal{T}_\Omega\) be the monoid of all self-maps of \(\Omega\). There is a natural left action of \(\mathcal{T}_\Omega\) on \(\Omega\). Write \(T = \sum_{f \in \mathcal{T}_\Omega} p_f [f]\), where each \(p_f \geq 0\) and \(\sum_{f \in \mathcal{T}_\Omega} p_f = 1\). If we define a probability \(P\) on \(\mathcal{T}_\Omega\) by \(P(f) = p_f\), then \(\mathcal{M}\) is the random walk of \(\mathcal{T}_\Omega\) on \(\Omega\) driven by \(P\), as desired. \(\square\)

2.4. Random mapping representations with constants. Recall that the support of a probability \(P\) is the set

\[
supp P = \{m \in M \mid P(m) > 0\}.
\]

Note that \(P^n(m) > 0\) for some \(n \geq 0\) if and only if \(m \in \langle supp P \rangle\).

Let \(\mathcal{M}\) be a random mapping representation of \(M\) on \(\Omega\). Then, \(\Gamma(\mathcal{M})\) is the Cayley digraph of the action of \(\mathcal{M}\) on \(\Omega\) with respect to the set \(X = supp P\). In particular \(\mathcal{M}\) is irreducible (that is \(\Gamma(\mathcal{M})\) is strongly connected) if and only if the action of \(\langle supp P \rangle\) is transitive on \(\Omega\) (that is, for any \(\alpha, \beta \in \Omega\), there exists \(n \in M\) with \(n\alpha = \beta\)).

The following proposition is folklore.

**Proposition 2.4.** Let \(\mathcal{M} = (\Omega, T)\) be an irreducible Markov chain with a random mapping representation \(M \times \Omega \to \Omega\) driven by a probability \(P\). Let \(N = \langle supp P \rangle\) and suppose that some \(m \in N\) acts as a constant map on \(\Omega\). Then \(N\) contains all constant maps on \(\Omega\) and the Markov chain \(\mathcal{M}\) is ergodic.
Proof. By irreducibility $N$ acts transitively on $\Omega$. If $m$ acts as a constant mapping with image $\omega$ and $m'\omega = \alpha$, then $m'm$ acts as the constant map to $\alpha$ and hence $N$ contains all constant maps on $\omega$.

Note that, if the constant map to $\beta \in \Omega$ can be represented by a product $m_1 \cdots m_k$ of $k$ elements of $\text{supp} \, P$, then for any $m \in \text{supp} \, P$ one has $m_1 \cdots m_km$ acts as the constant map to $\beta$. Thus the constant map to $\beta$ can be represented as a product of $r$ elements of $\text{supp} \, P$ for any $r \geq k$. It now follows that there exists $t \geq 0$ such that the constant map on $\Omega$ with image $\alpha$ can be represented by a product $m_\alpha$ of $t$ elements of $\text{supp} \, P$ for all $\alpha \in \Omega$. But then $T^t(\alpha, \beta) \geq P(m_\alpha) > 0$ and so $\mathcal{M}$ is ergodic. 

Note that, under any action of a monoid $M$ on a set $\Omega$, the fixed-point set of an idempotent $e$ is its image $e\Omega$.

The following result is well known to automata theorists.

**Proposition 2.5.** Let $M$ be a monoid acting transitively on a set $\Omega$ and suppose that the minimal ideal $I$ of $M$ is aperiodic. Then, for any $\omega \in \Omega$, there is an element $m \in I$ acting as a constant map to $\omega$.

Proof. It suffices by the proof of Proposition 2.4 to show that $I$ contains some element $m$ acting as constant map, since then $Mm \subseteq I$ will contain all the constant maps by transitivity. Let $e \in I$ be an idempotent. Suppose that $\alpha, \beta \in e\Omega$. By transitivity there exists $m \in M$ with $m\alpha = \beta$. As $eMe = \{e\}$ by aperiodicity of $I$, we conclude that $\beta = e\beta = em\alpha = eme\alpha = e\alpha = \alpha$. Thus $e$ acts as a constant map.

It follows that if $M \leq \mathcal{T}_\Omega$ acts transitively, then the minimal ideal $I$ of $M$ is aperiodic if and only if $I$ is the set of constant maps on $\Omega$. In this case, $I$ is a left zero semigroup and $M$ acts trivially on the right of $I$. Moreover, there is an $M$-equivariant bijection $I \to \Omega$ given by sending $e \in I$ to the unique element of $e\Omega$.

As an immediate corollary of the preceding results we obtain the following result.

**Corollary 2.6.** Suppose $\mathcal{M} = (\Omega, T)$ is an irreducible Markov chain with a random mapping representation $M \times \Omega \to \Omega$ driven by a probability $P$ where $M$ is aperiodic or, more generally, the minimal ideal of $N = \langle \text{supp} \, P \rangle$ is aperiodic. Then, all elements of $N$ act on $\Omega$ as constant maps and every constant map on $\Omega$ is obtained this way. In particular $\mathcal{M}$ is ergodic.

**Remark 2.7.** Assume that the action of $M$ is faithful as will be the case in most of our examples. Then $N$ is canonically in bijection with $\Omega$, and that bijection is an isomorphism for the action of $M$. 

3. Random walks on monoids

A number of results from this section can be viewed as special cases of results about probability measures on compact semigroups [HM11], but it seems better in our context to just prove them. Let $M$ be a finite monoid. Denote by $\ell^1(M)$ the vector space of all functions $f: M \to \mathbb{R}$ equipped with the $\ell^1$-norm $\| \cdot \|_1$. Then $\ell^1(M)$ is a finite-dimensional real Banach algebra with respect to the convolution product

$$(f \ast g)(m) = \sum_{xy=m} f(x)g(y).$$

As an algebra, we can identify $\ell^1(M)$ with the monoid algebra $\mathbb{R}M$ via $f \mapsto \sum_{m \in M} f(m)m$ and we shall do this when convenient.

A probability distribution $P$ on $M$ can be viewed as an element of $\ell^1(M)$. The probability distributions form a compact multiplicative submonoid of $\ell^1(M)$. Notice that if $X$ and $Y$ are independent $M$-valued random variables with respective distributions $\nu$ and $\mu$, then the distribution of the random variable $X \cdot Y$ is $\nu \ast \mu$.

Denote by $P^n$ the $n$th-convolution power of $P$. It is the distribution of $X_nX_{n-1}\cdots X_1$ where $X_1, \ldots, X_n$ are independent random variables distributed according to $P$.

The left random walk on $M$ driven by $P$ is the Markov chain with random mapping representation coming from the action of $M$ on itself by left multiplication and the probability $P$.

Suppose that $M$ acts on a finite set $\Omega$. We can identify $\mathbb{R}^\Omega$ with $\mathbb{R}^\Omega$. We then have a natural $\ell^1(M)$-module structure on $\mathbb{R}^\Omega$ given by having $f \in \ell^1(M)$ act on a basis element $\omega \in \Omega$ by

$$f \cdot \omega = \sum_{m \in M} f(m)m\omega.$$  

From the point of view of functions, for $f \in \ell^1(M), g \in \mathbb{R}^\Omega$ and $\omega \in \Omega$, the module structure is given by

$$(f \cdot g)(\omega) = \sum_{m \in M} \sum_{m\alpha = \omega} f(m)g(\alpha).$$

The following proposition is well known, but important.

**Proposition 3.1.** Let $M$ act on $\Omega$ and let $P$ be a probability on $M$ (viewed as an element of $\mathbb{R}M$). Then, the transition matrix $T$ of the random walk of $M$ on $\Omega$ driven by $P$ is the matrix with respect to the basis $\Omega$ of the operator on $\mathbb{R}^\Omega$ defined by $v \mapsto Pv$. It follows that, if $\nu$ is a probability on $\Omega$ (viewed as an element of $\mathbb{R}^\Omega$), then $T^n\nu = P^n\nu$. 
Proof. We have \( P\beta = \sum_{m \in M} P(m) m\beta \) and thus the coefficient of \( \alpha \) in \( P\beta \) is \( \sum_{m \beta = \alpha} P(m) = T(\alpha, \beta) \). \( \Box \)

A crucial consequence of the proposition is that any \( \ell^1(M) \)-submodule of \( \mathbb{R}\Omega \) is an invariant subspace for the transition matrix \( T \).

Recall that the minimal ideal \( I \) of a finite monoid \( M \) is the disjoint union of all the minimal left ideals of \( M \) \([CP61, KRT68]\). Let us say that a probability \( P \) on \( M \) is adapted if the submonoid generated by the support of \( P \) contains the minimal ideal. Note that a probability on a group is adapted if and only if the support generates the group, which is the usual definition in that context. In general, if the support generates the monoid, then the probability is adapted but the converse need not be true. The following result is straightforward and well known \([HM11]\), but we include it for completeness.

**Proposition 3.2.** Let \( M \) be a finite monoid with minimal ideal \( I \) and let \( P \) be an adapted probability on \( M \). Then the recurrent states of the left random walk on \( M \) driven by \( P \) are the elements of \( I \). The essential communicating classes of the chain are the minimal left ideals of \( M \). The restriction of the random walk to any minimal left ideal is irreducible. Moreover, the chain so obtained is independent of which minimal left ideal is chosen.

Proof. Because \( \langle \text{supp} \, P \rangle \) contains \( I \) and each minimal left ideal of \( M \) is a left zero semigroup, it follows that the minimal left ideals are precisely the minimal strong components of the left Cayley digraph of \( M \) with respect to the set \( \text{supp} \, P \). This explains the recurrent elements and the essential communicating classes. By Green’s lemma \([Gre51]\), any two minimal left ideals are isomorphic via right multiplication by a monoid element. This gives an isomorphism of the corresponding Markov chains. \( \Box \)

Let us assume now that \( M \) is a monoid whose minimal ideal is a left zero semigroup \( \hat{0} \), that is, \( mt = m \) for all \( m \in \hat{0} \) and \( t \in M \). Equivalently, the minimal ideal of \( M \) is the unique minimal left ideal of \( M \) and has a trivial maximal subgroup. As we have seen, this is the case for aperiodic monoids acting faithfully and transitively on the left of a finite set. It is also the case for \( \mathcal{R} \)-trivial monoids, which form the primary object of study for most of the paper.

If \( \pi \) is a probability with support contained in \( \hat{0} \) and \( P \) is any probability, then since \( \hat{0} \) is a two-sided ideal, \( \pi \ast P \) is supported on \( \hat{0} \) and
one has, for \( m \in \hat{0} \),

\[
(\pi \ast P)(m) = \sum_{xy=m} \pi(x)P(y) = \pi(m) \sum_{y \in M} P(y) = \pi(m).
\]

Thus we have proved:

**Lemma 3.3.** If \( M \) is a monoid whose minimal ideal \( \hat{0} \) is a left zero semigroup and if \( \pi \) is a probability on \( M \) with support contained in \( \hat{0} \), then \( \pi \ast P = \pi \) for any probability \( P \) on \( M \). In particular, \( \pi \) is idempotent.

We can now describe in the following theorem the stationary distribution for a random walk on a monoid whose minimal ideal is a left zero semigroup, and derive in Corollary 3.5 a bound on mixing times of Markov chains with a random mapping representation containing constant maps. Roughly speaking, the mixing time is bounded by the probability that a product of \( n \) elements does not act as a constant.

This is essentially a variation of a technique that goes under the name “coupling from the past” in the literature and can be found in [BD98a] for the case when the action of \( M \) is faithful. It is the key tool we shall use to obtain mixing times.

**Theorem 3.4.** Let \( M \) be a finite monoid whose minimal ideal \( \hat{0} \) is a left zero semigroup, and let \( P \) be an adapted probability on \( M \). Then,

1. The sequence \( P^{*n} \) converges to an idempotent probability \( \pi \) with support \( \hat{0} \) and

\[
\| P^{*n} - \pi \|_{TV} = P^{*n}(M \setminus \hat{0}).
\]

2. The random walk on \( \hat{0} \) driven by \( P \) is ergodic with \( \pi \) as stationary distribution. Moreover, for any distribution \( \nu \) on \( \hat{0} \),

\[
\| P^{*n} \ast \nu - \pi \|_{TV} \leq P^{*n}(M \setminus \hat{0}).
\]

**Proof.** Recall that, by Proposition 3.2, \( \hat{0} \) is the set of recurrent elements for the left random walk on \( M \) driven by \( P \). Therefore, for \( m \notin \hat{0} \), the sequence \( P^{*n}(m) \) converges to zero as \( n \to \infty \). Take now \( m \in \hat{0} \).

The sequence \( P^{*n}(m) \) is non-decreasing: indeed, since \( mt = m \) for all \( t \in M \),

\[
P^{*(n+1)}(m) \geq P^{*n}(m) \sum_{t \in M} P(t) = P^{*n}(m).
\]

Moreover, since \( P \) is adapted, there exists \( n > 0 \) such that \( P^{*n}(m) > 0 \). Finally, the sequence \( P^{*n}(m) \) is bounded by 1 and therefore converges to some real number \( \pi(m) \) with \( 0 < \pi(m) \leq 1 \). Altogether, using that probability distributions are closed in \( \ell^1(M) \) in conjunction with
Lemma 3.3, we obtain that $P^*n$ converges to an idempotent probability $\pi$ with support $\hat{0}$.

Observe that the set $A$ of elements of $M$ on which $P^*n$ is greater than $\pi$ is precisely $M \setminus \hat{0}$. Proposition 2.1 then implies that

$$\|P^*n - \pi\|_{TV} = P^*n(M \setminus \hat{0}) - \pi(M \setminus \hat{0}) = P^*n(M \setminus \hat{0}).$$

Let us now turn to (2). Since $P^*n \to \pi$ and multiplication in $\ell^1(M)$ is norm-continuous, $\pi$ commutes with $P$. Combining this with Lemma 3.3 gives that $P \cdot \pi = \pi \cdot P = \pi$. Therefore, $\pi$ is the unique stationary distribution for the left random walk on $\hat{0}$ driven by $P$ (uniqueness is given by the irreducibly of the walk and Proposition 3.2). The random walk is ergodic by Proposition 2.4.

To conclude, take any initial distribution $\nu$ on $\hat{0}$. Using successively Lemma 3.3 that the $\ell^1$-norm is submultiplicative, that probabilities have $\ell^1$-norm 1, and Equation (3.3) we obtain as desired:

$$\|P^*n \cdot \nu - \pi\|_{TV} = \|P^*n \cdot \nu - \pi \cdot \nu\|_{TV}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \|P^*n \cdot \nu - \pi \cdot \nu\|_1$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{2} \|P^*n - \pi\|_1 \cdot \|\nu\|_1$$

$$= \|P^*n - \pi\|_{TV} = P^*n(M \setminus \hat{0}).$$

Corollary 3.5. Let $M = (\Omega, T)$ be an irreducible Markov chain with random mapping representation $M \times \Omega \to \Omega$ driven by a probability $P$. Suppose moreover that $M$ contains an element acting as a constant on $\Omega$ (e.g., if the minimal ideal of $M$ is aperiodic) and that $P$ is adapted. Then, the following hold.

1. $M$ is ergodic.
2. Let $\mu$ be the stationary distribution for the random walk of $M$ on a minimal left ideal $L$ driven by $P$ and let $\pi$ be the stationary distribution for $M$. Then

$$\pi(\omega) = \sum_{\{x \in L | x\omega = \omega\}} \mu(x).$$

3. Let $I$ be the ideal of those elements of $M$ acting as constant maps on $\Omega$. Then, for any probability distribution $\nu$ on $\Omega$, we have

$$\|T^n \nu - \pi\|_{TV} \leq P^n(M \setminus I).$$

Proof. The first item is part of Proposition 2.4. The idea for the second item is that $M$ is a lumping of the random walk of $M$ on $L$. The set $I$ of
elements of $M$ acting as a constant map is an ideal and hence contains the minimal ideal (and consequently $L$). Let $\Psi: L \to \Omega$ be defined by $x\Omega = \{\Psi(x)\}$ for $x \in L$. It is easily checked that $\Psi(mx) = m\Psi(x)$ for all $x \in L$ and $m \in M$. It follows that $\Psi$ induces an $\ell^1(M)$-module homomorphism $\Psi: \mathbb{R} L \to \mathbb{R} \Omega$. We claim that $\pi = \Psi(\mu)$.

First note that $\Psi(\mu)$ is a probability distribution. Indeed, it is easy to check that $\Psi(\mu)(\omega) = \mu(\Psi^{-1}(\omega))$, which is the right hand side of (3.4). Next we have that $T\Psi(\mu) = P\Psi(\mu) = \Psi(P\mu) = \Psi(\mu)$ and hence $\pi = \Psi(\mu)$. This establishes the second item.

To prove the third item, observe that the action of $M$ on $\Omega$ induces a homomorphism $\varphi: M \to \mathcal{T}_\Omega$. Let $N = \varphi(M)$. Then $N$ acts faithfully on $\Omega$ and, in particular, the minimal ideal $J$ of $N$ is a left zero semigroup consisting of the constant maps on $\Omega$ (cf. Proposition 2.4). Let $Q$ be the probability on $N$ defined by $Q(n) = P(\varphi^{-1}(n))$; so $Q(A) = P(\varphi^{-1}(A))$ for any $A \subseteq N$. As a surjective monoid homomorphism maps minimal ideals onto minimal ideals, it follows that $Q$ is adapted. Observe that if $\Phi: \ell^1(M) \to \ell^1(N)$ is the homomorphism induced by $\delta_m \mapsto \delta_{\varphi(m)}$ (i.e., $(\Phi(f))(n) = \sum_{m \in \varphi^{-1}(n)} f(m)$), then $Q = \Phi(P)$. It is then easy to see that $\mathcal{M}$ is the random walk of $N$ on $\Omega$ driven by $Q$, which is isomorphic to the random walk of $N$ on $J$ driven by $Q$. Theorem 3.4 then yields as desired that, for any probability $\nu$ on $\Omega$,

$$\|T^n\nu - \pi\|_{TV} \leq Q^n(N \setminus J) = P^n(\varphi^{-1}(N \setminus J)) = P^n(M \setminus I).$$

4. Generalities on $\mathcal{R}$-trivial random walks

From now on we confine our attention to $\mathcal{R}$-trivial monoids, which form a class rich enough to contain many interesting examples, but restrictive enough to provide a workable theory. In particular, this theory subsumes the left regular band theory of Brown [Bro00].

4.1. The spectrum of the transition matrix. The spectra of random walks on minimal left ideals of a fairly general class of monoids – those with simple modules of dimension 1 – was computed in [Ste06, Ste08]. We recap here for completeness the special case of $\mathcal{R}$-trivial monoids, where no group theoretic considerations intervene.

Suppose that $M$ is a finite $\mathcal{R}$-trivial monoid. Let

$$\Upsilon(M) = \{Mm \mid m \in M\}$$

be the poset of principal left ideals of $M$ ordered by inclusion; then $M/\mathcal{L}$ is partially ordered by $\leq_{\mathcal{L}}$ and is isomorphic to $\Upsilon(M)$.

Let

$$\Lambda(M) = \{Me \mid e \in E(M)\}$$
be the subposet of idempotent-generated principal left ideals. It is well known that \( \Lambda(M) \) is a lattice and that \( Me \land Mf = M(ef)^\omega \). Moreover, the mapping \( c: M \to \Lambda(M) \) defined by \( c(m) = Mm^\omega \) is a homomorphism (details can be found, for example, in [MSar]). Sometimes \( c \) is called the content map.

Define \( d: M \to \Lambda(M) \) by \( d(m) = Me \) where \( e \) is any element of the minimal ideal of the right stabilizer of \( m \). One has that \( mt = m \) if and only if \( c(t) \geq d(m) \). Sometimes \( d \) is called the right descent map.

The mappings \( c, d \) descend to order preserving maps \( c, d: \Upsilon(M) \to \Lambda(M) \) with

\[
c(Mm) = \bigvee \{Me \in \Lambda(M) \mid Me \leq Mm\}
d(Mm) = \bigwedge \{Me \in \Lambda(M) \mid Mm \leq Me\}
\]

and so in particular \( c(Mm) \leq Mm \leq d(Mm) \) and \( c(Mm) = d(Mm) \) if and only if \( Mm \in \Lambda(M) \). Thus one has \( c = d \) if and only if \( M \) is a left regular band.

**Remark 4.1.** For the categorically minded, we observe that if \( e \in E \), then \( Me \leq Mm \) if and only if \( Me \leq c(Mm) \) and \( Mm \leq Me \) if and only if \( d(Mm) \leq Me \) and therefore \( c, d \) are right and left adjoints, respectively, of the inclusion of \( \Lambda(M) \) into \( \Upsilon(M) \).

It is well known that, if \( M \) is \( \mathcal{R} \)-trivial, then every simple \( \mathcal{R}M \)-module is one-dimensional, cf. [GMS09, AMSV09]. More precisely, there is one irreducible character \( \chi_L: M \to \mathbb{R} \) for each \( X \in \Lambda(M) \) given by

\[
\chi_X(m) = \begin{cases} 
1 & \text{if } Mm \geq X \text{ (i.e., } c(m) \geq X), \\
0 & \text{else.}
\end{cases}
\]

The following is a reformulation of a theorem of the third author from [Ste06] to a slightly more general setting. It generalizes straightforwardly to any monoid whose regular \( J \)-classes are aperiodic. For representation theorists this theorem and its proof can be summarized as follows: the multiplicities of the eigenvalues are given by the multiplicities of the isomorphism types of simple modules in the composition factors of \( \mathbb{R}\Omega \); the later can be computed by character theory, counting fixed points of appropriate elements of the monoid and inverting the character table. This last step boils down to a Möbius inversion since the character table is given by the matrix of the poset \( \Lambda(M) \).

**Theorem 4.2** (Steinberg [Ste06]). Let \( P \) be a probability on an \( \mathcal{R} \)-trivial monoid \( M \) and let \( M \) act on \( \Omega \). Let \( T \) be the transition matrix
for the random walk of $M$ on $\Omega$ driven by $P$. Fix, for each $X \in \Lambda(M)$, an idempotent $e_X$ with $X = Me_X$ and let $\mu$ be the M"obius function of $\Lambda(M)$. Then each $X \in \Lambda(M)$ contributes an eigenvalue

\[(4.1) \quad \lambda_X = \sum_{Mm \geq X} P(m) = \sum_{c(m) \geq X} P(m),\]

with (possibly null) multiplicity given by

\[m_X = \sum_{Y \leq X} |e_Y \Omega| \cdot \mu(Y, X).\]

All eigenvalues of $T$ are obtained this way.

Proof. Choose a composition series for the $R$-module $R\Omega = V_n \supseteq V_{n-1} \supseteq \cdots \supseteq V_0 = \{0\}$. Each simple $RM$-module $V_j/V_{j-1}$ is one-dimensional. As each $V_j$ is an invariant subspace for $T$ (which acts on $R\Omega$ as $P$), we see, by choosing a basis adapted to this composition series, that $T$ is similar to an upper triangular matrix of the form

\[(4.2) \quad \begin{bmatrix}
\chi_1(P) & * & \cdots & * \\
0 & \chi_2(P) & \ddots & \vdots \\
\vdots & \ddots & \ddots & * \\
0 & \cdots & 0 & \chi_{|\Omega|}(P)
\end{bmatrix},\]

where the $\chi_i$ are characters of $M$. Therefore, the eigenvalues are given by the $\chi_i(P)$. If $\chi_i$ is the character $\chi_X$ corresponding to $X \in \Lambda(M)$, then

\[\chi_i(P) = \sum_{m \in M} P(m)\chi_X(m) = \sum_{Mm \geq X} P(m) = \lambda_X.\]

To compute the multiplicity of $\lambda_X$, observe that the character $\theta$ of the module $R\Omega$ counts the number of fixed points, that is, for $m \in M$,

\[\theta(m) = |\{\omega \in \Omega \mid m\omega = \omega\}|.\]

In particular, $\theta(e_X) = |e_X \Omega|$. On the other hand, $\theta(e_X) = \sum_{i=1}^n \chi_i(e_X)$, and using that

\[\chi_Y(e_X) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } Y \leq X, \\
0 & \text{else}, \end{cases}\]

we get

\[|e_X \Omega| = \theta(e_X) = \sum_{Y \leq X} m_Y.\]

Möbius inversion then yields the desired multiplicity:

\[m_X = \sum_{Y \leq X} |e_Y \Omega| \cdot \mu(Y, X).\]
4.2. A sufficient condition for diagonalizability. Let $P$ be a probability on an $\mathcal{R}$-trivial monoid $M$. We give a sufficient condition for diagonalizability of $P$ as an operator on $\ell^1(M)$. This implies the diagonalizability of the transition matrix $T$ of any random walk of $M$ on a set $\Omega$ driven by $P$. This is because the subalgebra $\mathbb{R}[P]$ of $\ell^1(M)$ generated by $P$ will be split semisimple and thus its quotient algebra $\mathbb{R}[T]$ will also be split semisimple, which is the same thing as saying that $T$ is diagonalizable.

This generalizes Brown’s diagonalizability result [Bro00] for left regular band walks. In what follows we write $m$ for $\delta_m$ and omit the $*$ for convolution (i.e., we identify $\ell^1(M)$ with $\mathbb{R}M$).

**Theorem 4.3.** Let $P$ be a probability on an $\mathcal{R}$-trivial monoid $M$ and let $N$ be the submonoid generated by the support of $P$. Recall from Theorem 4.2 that the eigenvalues of $P$ are of the form $\lambda_X = \sum_{c(m) \geq X} P(m)$, where $X \in \Lambda(M)$.

Assume that $\lambda_{d(m)} \neq \lambda_{d(m')} \text{ whenever } m, m' \in M \text{ and } m' \neq m$. Then, $P(m)$ is diagonalizable as an operator on the left of $\ell^1(M)$ and hence the transition matrix of the random walk on the minimal ideal of $M$ driven by $P$ is diagonalizable.

**Corollary 4.4.** A random walk on a left regular band $M$ has a diagonalizable transition matrix.

**Proof.** Take $m \in M$ and $m' = mn \in mN$ such that $m' \neq m$. Then, $c(n) \geq c(m') = d(m')$ and $c(n) \leq d(m) = c(m)$. On the other hand $d(m') = c(m') \leq c(m) = d(m)$. Thus $\lambda_{d(m')} \geq \lambda_{d(m)} + P(n) > \lambda_{d(m)}$.

**Proof of theorem 4.3.** We will prove that the minimal polynomial $q$ of $P$ is square free. Note that $q$ coincides with the minimal polynomial of $P$ acting on the left and on the right: indeed, $q(P) = 0$ if and only if $0 = q(P)1 = 1q(P)$. We consider here the action of $P$ on the right of $\ell^1(M)$ to exploit the $\mathcal{R}$-triviality of $M$: $\leq_{\mathcal{R}}$ is a partial order.

**Lemma 4.5.** Let $m \in M$. Then,

$$m(P - \lambda_{d(m)}) = \sum_{c(t) \not\geq d(m)} P(t)mt,$$

with all the non-zero terms of the summand on the right hand side satisfying $mt <_{\mathcal{R}} m$. 
Proof. Recall that \(c(t) \geq d(m)\) if and only if \(mt = m\), and otherwise \(mt <_{\mathcal{R}} m\) by \(\mathcal{R}\)-triviality. Therefore,

\[
mP = \sum_{c(t) \geq d(m)} P(t)m + \sum_{c(t) \not\geq d(m)} P(t)mt
= \lambda_{d(m)}m + \sum_{c(t) \not\geq d(m)} P(t)mt.
\]

For \(m \in M\), let \(\sigma(m) = \{\lambda_{d(mn)} \mid n \in N\}\) and consider the squarefree polynomials

\[
q_m(x) = \prod_{\lambda \in \sigma(m)} (x - \lambda) \quad \text{and} \quad Q_m(x) = \frac{q_m(x)}{x - \lambda_{d(m)}}.
\]

By our hypothesis on \(P\), \(q_{m'}(x)\) divides \(Q_m(x)\) whenever \(m' <_{\mathcal{R}} m\).

**Lemma 4.6.** If \(m \in M\), then \(m \cdot q_m(P) = 0\).

Proof. The proof is by induction on the \(\mathcal{R}\)-order \(\leq_{\mathcal{R}}\). Suppose first that \(m\) is \(\leq_{\mathcal{R}}\)-minimal. Then, \(m = mn\) for all \(n \in N\), i.e., \(c(n) \geq d(m)\) for all \(n \in N\). Hence, \(\sigma(m) = \{\lambda_{d(m)}\}\), and Lemma 4.5 immediately yields \(m \cdot q_m(P) = m(P - \lambda_{d(m)}) = 0\).

In general, assume that the lemma holds for any \(m' \in M\) with \(m' <_{\mathcal{R}} m\). Since \(q_{m'}(P)\) divides \(Q_m(P)\), this implies \(m'Q_m(P) = 0\). Therefore, using Lemma 4.5

\[
m \cdot q_m(P) = m \cdot (P - \lambda_{d(m)}) \cdot Q_m(P)
= \sum_{c(n) \not\geq d(m)} P(n)mn \cdot Q_m(P) = 0. \quad \square
\]

The theorem follows by taking \(m = 1\): since \(1 \cdot q_1(P) = 0\), the minimal polynomial \(q\) of \(P\) divides \(q_1\) and is therefore squarefree. \(\square\)

Note that the above proof does not use that \(P\) is a probability. In fact, independently of the ground field, Theorem 4.3 applies to any element of the algebra of an \(\mathcal{R}\)-trivial monoid.

Let us define a probability \(P\) on \(M\) to be *generic* if, for all \(X \neq Y \in \Lambda(M)\), we have that

\[
\lambda_X = \sum_{Mm \geq X} P(m) \neq \sum_{Mm \geq Y} P(m) = \lambda_Y.
\]

Note that generic probabilities are those probabilities that do no lie on a certain finite set of hyperplanes and hence are generic in all reasonable senses of the word.
Corollary 4.7. Suppose that $M$ is an $\mathcal{R}$-trivial monoid such that $m \succ \mathcal{R} m'$ implies that $d(m) \neq d(m')$. Then, every generic probability $P$ is diagonalizable as an operator on $\ell^1(M)$ and consequently, the transition matrix of any random walk of $M$ on a set driven by a generic probability is diagonalizable.

Proof. The result is immediate from Theorem 4.3 since for a generic probability we have $d(m) \neq d(m')$ implies $\lambda_{d(m)} \neq \lambda_{d(m')}$.

4.3. A formula for the stationary distribution for $\mathcal{R}$-trivial monoids. We continue to assume that $M$ is an $\mathcal{R}$-trivial monoid with minimal ideal $\mathcal{0}$ and let $P$ be an adapted probability on $M$. Our goal is to give an explicit formula for the stationary distribution of the random walk on $\mathcal{0}$ driven by $P$. We continue to use the notation (4.1).

Let $T$ be the transition matrix for the right random walk on $M$ driven by $P$. So $T$ is a row stochastic $M \times M$-matrix with

$$T(m,t) = \sum_{m\times t} P(x).$$

Note that $T(m,m) = \lambda_{d(m)}$ and that

$$(4.3) \quad T^n(1,m) = P^\ast n(m).$$

Also observe that $T$ belongs to the incidence algebra of $(M, \succeq)$ (recall that the incidence algebra of a finite poset $\mathcal{P}$ is the algebra of all upper triangular $\mathcal{P} \times \mathcal{P}$-matrices over $\mathbb{R}$; that is, all $A : \mathcal{P} \times \mathcal{P} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $A(p,q) = 0$ if $p \not\succeq q$). In particular, $T$ is an upper triangular matrix if we order $M$ along a linear extension of $\succeq$.

We recall that if $\mathcal{P}$ is a finite poset, then the order complex of $\mathcal{P}$ is the simplicial complex whose vertex set is $\mathcal{P}$ and whose $q$-simplices are strictly decreasing chains $\sigma = \sigma_0 > \sigma_1 > \cdots > \sigma_q$ of elements of $\mathcal{P}$.

Let $\Delta(M)$ be the order complex of $(M, \preceq)$. Let $\text{St}(1)$ be the star of 1; it consists of all simplices $\sigma$ containing 1 as a vertex. If $m \in M$, let $N(m)$ be the set of all simplices in $\text{St}(1)$ with minimal vertex $m$, i.e., it consists of all strictly decreasing chains $1 = \sigma_0 > \mathcal{R} \cdots > \mathcal{R} \sigma_q = m$. A simplex $\sigma \in \text{St}(1)$ will always be written $\sigma = (\sigma_0, \sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_q)$ where $q = \dim \sigma$, $\sigma_0 = 1$ and $\sigma_i \succ \mathcal{R} \sigma_{i+1}$. Let us put

$$P(\sigma) = \prod_{i=1}^q T(\sigma_{i-1}, \sigma_i).$$

Notice that $P(\sigma)$ will be 0 unless there is a product of elements in the support of $P$ which visits precisely the $\mathcal{R}$-classes of $\sigma$. 

The complete homogeneous symmetric polynomial of degree $j$ in variables $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ is denoted $h_j(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$; it is the sum of all monomials of degree $j$.

**Proposition 4.8.** Let $m \in M$. Then,

$$P^*n(m) = \sum_{\sigma \in N(m), \dim \sigma \leq n} P(\sigma) h_{n-\dim \sigma}(\lambda_{d(\sigma_0)}, \ldots, \lambda_{d(\sigma_{\dim \sigma})}).$$

**Proof.** We have that $P^*n(m) = T^n(1, m)$. As $T^n(1, m)$ is in the incidence algebra of $(M, \geq_{\mathcal{R}})$, it follows (using $T(m, m) = \lambda_{d(m)}$) that

$$P^*n(m) = \sum_{\sigma = (\sigma_0, \sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_q) \in N(m), q \leq n} \sum_{r_0 + \cdots + r_q = n - q} \lambda_{d(\sigma_0)}^{r_0} T(\sigma_0, \sigma_1) \lambda_{d(\sigma_1)}^{r_1} \cdots T(\sigma_{q-1}, \sigma_q) \lambda_{d(\sigma_q)}^{r_q},$$

where the sum runs over all $\sigma = (\sigma_0, \sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_q) \in N(m)$ with $q \leq n$ and $r_0 + \cdots + r_q = n - q$. As desired, this gives:

$$\sum_{\sigma \in N(m), \dim \sigma \leq n} P(\sigma) h_{n-\dim \sigma}(\lambda_{d(\sigma_0)}, \lambda_{d(\sigma_1)}, \ldots, \lambda_{d(\sigma_{\dim \sigma})}). \quad \square$$

If $m \in \hat{0}$, then $c(m) = d(m) = \hat{0}$ and $\lambda_{d(m)} = 1$. Thus we have the following specialization of Proposition 4.8 for $m \in \hat{0}$.

**Corollary 4.9.** Let $m \in \hat{0}$. Then

$$P^*n(m) = \sum_{\sigma \in N(m), \dim \sigma \leq n} P(\sigma) \cdot \sum_{r \leq n-\dim \sigma} h_r(\lambda_{d(\sigma_0)}, \ldots, \lambda_{d(\sigma_{\dim \sigma-1})}).$$

We now can compute a formula for the stationary distribution.

**Theorem 4.10.** Let $P$ be an adapted probability on a finite $\mathcal{R}$-trivial monoid $M$ with minimal ideal $\hat{0}$. Then the stationary distribution $\pi$ of the random walk on $\hat{0}$ driven by $P$ is given by

$$\pi(m) = \sum_{\sigma \in N(m)} \prod_{i=1}^{\dim \sigma} T(\sigma_{i-1}, \sigma_i) = \sum_{\sigma \in N(m)} \prod_{i=1}^{\dim \sigma} 1 - \lambda_{d(\sigma_{i-1})} = \sum_{x \geq d(\sigma_{i-1})} \frac{P(x)}{\sum_{c(x) \geq d(\sigma_{i-1})} P(x)},$$

where $N(m)$ consists of all chains $1 = \sigma_0 \geq_{\mathcal{R}} \sigma_1 \geq_{\mathcal{R}} \cdots \geq_{\mathcal{R}} \sigma_q = m$. 

Proof. By Theorem 3.4 we know that \( \pi(m) = \lim_{n \to \infty} P^*(m) \). By Corollary 4.9

\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} P^*(m) = \sum_{\sigma \in \mathcal{N}(m)} P(\sigma) \cdot \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} h_r(\lambda d(\sigma_0), \ldots, \lambda d(\sigma_{\dim \sigma-1}))
\]

\[
= \sum_{\sigma \in \mathcal{N}(m)} P(\sigma) \cdot \prod_{i=0}^{\dim \sigma-1} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \lambda_j d(\sigma_i)
\]

\[
= \sum_{\sigma \in \mathcal{N}(m)} P(\sigma) \cdot \prod_{i=0}^{\dim \sigma-1} \frac{1}{1 - \lambda d(\sigma_i)}
\]

\[
= \sum_{\sigma \in \mathcal{N}(m)} \prod_{i=1}^{\dim \sigma} T(\sigma_{i-1}, \sigma_i) \frac{1}{1 - \lambda d(\sigma_{i-1})}.
\]

\[
\square
\]

Remark 4.11. The stationary distribution \( \pi \) admits the following probabilistic interpretation. It is the probability of obtaining \( m \) via the following process. You start at the identity and continue the process until you arrive at the minimal ideal \( \hat{0} \) at which point you stop. If you are at \( t \in M \), then you remove from the support of \( P \) all elements in the right stabilizer of \( t \) and then renormalize to obtain a probability \( Q_t \). Select an element \( x \) of \( S \) according to \( Q_t \) and move to \( tx \).

Equivalently, this is the usual right random walk on the monoid, except one rejects each step that does not go strictly down in the \( R \)-order.

4.4. Reduced words and product formulas. Let \( P \) be an adapted probability on an \( R \)-trivial monoid \( M \) with minimal left ideal \( \hat{0} \) and denote by \( X \) the support of \( P \). We write \([w]_M\) for the image in \( M \) of a word \( w \) in the free monoid \( X^* \). If \( w = w_1 \cdots w_n \) is in \( X^* \), let \( \sigma(w) \) be the simplex of \( \Delta(M) \) given by the set \( \sigma(w) = \{1, [w_1]_M, [w_1w_2]_M, \ldots, [w_1 \cdots w_n]_M\} \).

Note that the elements \([w_1 \cdots w_i]_M\) with \( i = 0, \ldots, n \) need not be distinct; if they are we call the word \( w \) reduced. Define the reduction \( \rho(w) \) of \( w \) to be the word obtained by removing those letters \( w_i \) with \([w_1 \cdots w_i]_M = [w_1 \cdots w_{i-1}]_M \). It is easy to see that \([\rho(w)]_M = [w]_M \) and \( \sigma(w) = \sigma(\rho(w)) \). For \( m \in M \), denote by \( \text{Red}(m) \) the set of all reduced words \( w \in X^* \) with \([w]_M = m \). The reduced words are precisely the elements of the Karnofsky–Rhodes expansion of \( M \) with respect to the set \( X \) \cite{Els99}; they were used by Brown in his proof of the diagonalizability of left regular band walks \cite{Bro00}.
It is immediate from the definition that if $\sigma$ is a simplex of $\Delta(M)$ and $R(\sigma)$ is the set of reduced words $w$ with $\sigma(w) = \sigma$, then

$$P(\sigma) = \sum_{w \in R(\sigma)} P(w_1) \cdots P(w_{|w|}).$$

In light of this, Theorem 4.10 admits the following reformulation.

**Theorem 4.12.** Let $P$ be an adapted probability on a finite $\mathcal{R}$-trivial monoid $M$ with minimal ideal $\hat{0}$. Then, the stationary distribution $\pi$ of the random walk on $\hat{0}$ driven by $P$ is given by

$$\pi(m) = \sum_{w \in \text{Red}(m)} \frac{P(w_i)}{\prod_{i=1}^{|w|} 1 - \lambda d([w_1 \cdots w_{i-1}], M)} \cdot \prod_{c(x) \geq d([w_1 \cdots w_{i-1}], M)} P(x).$$

Theorem 4.12 reduces to a product formula in the special case that each element of the monoid admits a unique reduced representative. In fact, much of the random walk theory becomes particularly simple in this case. So let $M$ be an $\mathcal{R}$-trivial monoid with generating set $X$. We say that $M$ is *Karnofsky-Rhodes with respect to $X$* if each element of $M$ can be represented by a unique reduced word over $X$. This is equivalent to saying that the right Cayley digraph of $M$ becomes a directed rooted tree after removal of loop edges. Free left regular bands are examples, and we shall encounter others in this paper. Abusing notation slightly, we write $\text{Red}(m)$ for the unique reduced word representing the element $m$. Notice that if $M$ is Karnofsky-Rhodes with respect to $X$, then $m \leq_R n$ if and only if $\text{Red}(n)$ is a prefix of $\text{Red}(m)$; in particular, if $e \in E(M)$, then $em = m$ if and only if $\text{Red}(e)$ is a prefix of $\text{Red}(m)$. The following corollary is immediate from this discussion and Theorem 4.12.

**Corollary 4.13.** Let $M$ be a finite $\mathcal{R}$-trivial monoid which is Karnofsky-Rhodes with respect to a generating set $X$. Let $P$ be a probability on $M$ with support $X$. Denote by $\hat{0}$ the minimal ideal of $M$. Let $\pi$ be the stationary distribution of the random walk on $\hat{0}$ driven by $P$. For an idempotent $e$, let $r_e$ be the number of elements of $\hat{0}$ whose reduced expression has $\text{Red}(e)$ as a prefix.

1. If $e \in E(M)$, then the multiplicity of the eigenvalue of the transition matrix corresponding to $Me$ is

$$\sum_{Mf \leq Me} r_f \mu(Mf, Me).$$
where $\mu$ is the Möbius function of $\Lambda(M)$.

(2) If $m \in \hat{0}$ with $\text{Red}(m) = w_1 \cdots w_n$, then

$$
\pi(m) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{P(w_i)}{1 - \lambda_d([w_1 \cdots w_{i-1}]_M)} = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{P(w_i)}{1 - \sum_{c(x) \geq d([w_1 \cdots w_{i-1}]_M)} P(x)}.
$$

It is not hard to see how to recover the stationary distribution for the Tsetlin library from this corollary. If $w = w_1 \cdots w_n$ is a repetition-free word over an $n$-letter alphabet and we use the free LRB as the monoid $M$, then $w$ itself is its only reduced representative.

**Remark 4.14.** One more generally obtains a product formula as long as $\sigma(w)$ is constant along the reduced words $w$ of each given element $m$.

**4.5. Rates of convergence for $\mathcal{R}$-trivial monoids.** We continue to assume that $P$ is an adapted probability on an $\mathcal{R}$-trivial monoid $M$ with minimal left ideal $\hat{0}$. In this section we give a crude upper bound on the rate of convergence to stationarity of the random walk on $\hat{0}$. Let $\nu$ be a probability on $\hat{0}$. Then, by Theorem 3.4, we know that

$$
\|P^*n\nu - \pi\|_{TV} \leq P^*n(M \setminus \hat{0}).
$$

We proceed by bounding the right hand side.

For $L$ an $\mathcal{L}$-class, let

$$
M_{\geq L} = \{ m \in M | m \geq L \}.
$$

Clearly

$$
P^*n(M_{\geq L}) = \sum_{L' \geq L} P^*n(L'),
$$

and so by Möbius inversion we have

$$
P^*n(L) = \sum_{L' \geq L} P^*n(M_{\geq L'}) \cdot \mu(L, L').
$$

where $\mu$ denotes the Möbius function for the induced order on $M/\mathcal{L}$, then

Note that, if $L' \in \Lambda(M)$, then $P^*n(M_{\geq L'}) = \lambda^n_{L'}$. One then has the following result in the left regular band case.

**Corollary 4.15.** Suppose that $M$ is a left regular band and $P$ is an adapted probability. Then,

$$
P^*n(M \setminus \hat{0}) = - \sum_{X > \hat{0}} \lambda^n_{X} \cdot \mu(\hat{0}, X).$$
In particular, if \( \nu \) is a probability on \( \hat{0} \), then

\[
\| P^n \nu - \pi \|_{TV} \leq - \sum_{X \geq \hat{0}} \lambda^n_X \cdot \mu(\hat{0}, X)
\]

where \( \pi \) is the stationary distribution.

Proof. By (4.5) and using that \( \lambda_{\hat{0}} = 1 = \mu(\hat{0}, \hat{0}) \) and \( P^n(M_{\geq x} L') = \lambda^n_{L'} \), we have that

\[
P(M \setminus \hat{0}) = 1 - P(\hat{0}) = 1 - \sum_{X \geq \hat{0}} \lambda^n_X \mu(\hat{0}, X) = - \sum_{X \geq \hat{0}} \lambda^n_X \cdot \mu(\hat{0}, X).
\]

Note that this bound immediately implies that of Brown and Diaconis [Bro00, BD98a] for left regular band walks, as well as the bound in [BHR99] for hyperplane walks.

When \( L \) does not consist of idempotents, computing \( P^n(M_{\geq x} L) \) seems to be challenging.

4.6. Absorption times and mixing times. If \( P \) is an adapted probability on an \( \mathcal{R} \)-trivial monoid \( M \), then the right random walk on \( M \) driven by \( P \) is absorbing with absorbing states the elements of the minimal ideal \( \hat{0} \). Let \( \tau \) be the random variable which is the time that the random walk is absorbed into the minimal ideal. Theorem 3.4 essentially shows that \( \tau \) is a strong stationary time [LPW09] for the random walk on \( \hat{0} \) driven by \( P \) (or more generally, by Corollary 3.5, for any ergodic random walk of \( M \) on some set). More precisely, if \( M \) acts transitively on \( \Omega \) \( P \) is an adapted measure, \( \nu \) is an initial probability on \( \Omega \) and \( \pi \) is the stationary distribution, Corollary 3.5 implies

\[
(4.6) \quad \| P^n \nu - \pi \|_{TV} = P^n(M \setminus \hat{0}) \leq \Pr\{ \tau > n \} = \Pr\{ \tau \geq n + 1 \}.
\]

As a of our computations for left regular bands, we obtain the following.

**Theorem 4.16.** Let \( M \) be a left regular band and \( P \) an adapted probability on \( M \). Let \( \tau \) be the absorption time of the right random walk on \( M \) driven by \( P \) and let \( \mu \) be the Möbius function of \( \Lambda(M) \). Then

\[
E[\tau] = - \sum_{X \geq \hat{0}} \frac{1}{1 - \lambda_X} \cdot \mu(\hat{0}, X),
\]

where \( \lambda_X = \sum_{c(m) \geq X} P(m) \).
Proof. Apply Corollary 4.15 using the standard fact about non-negative integer valued random variables (see [LPW09]) that the expected value of $\tau$ is given by

$$E[\tau] = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \Pr\{\tau > n\} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P^n(M \setminus \widehat{0}).$$

As an example, we obtain the usual formula for the expected waiting time for the coupon collector problem, as well as the non-uniform version considered in [FGT92].

**Example 4.17 (Coupon collector).** Suppose we wish to collect $k$ different types of coupons. With probability $p_i$ we draw coupon $i$. What is the expected number of draws to collect all $k$ coupons? Let $\tau$ be the number of draws to collect all $k$ coupons. Then $\tau$ is the absorption time for the random walk on the join semilattice $P(\{1,\ldots,k\})$ driven by the adapted probability $P(i) = p_i$. For $I \subseteq \{1,\ldots,k\}$, let

$$\lambda_I = \sum_{i \in I} p_i.$$ 

Then by Theorem 4.16 we retrieve the result of [FGT92]:

$$E(\tau) = \sum_{I \subseteq \{1,\ldots,k\}} (-1)^{|I|-1} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - \lambda_I}.$$ 

In particular, if $p_i = 1/k$ for all $i$, this reduces to

$$E[\tau] = k \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} (-1)^{k-j-1} \binom{k}{j} \frac{1}{k-j} = k \sum_{q=1}^{k} (-1)^{k-1} \frac{1}{q} \binom{k}{q} = k \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{1}{i} \right],$$

which is the standard computation for the coupon collector expectation. One easily obtains from this bound that

$$E[\tau] \leq k \log k + \gamma k + 1/2 + o(1),$$

where $\gamma$ is the Euler-Mascheroni constant.

As a consequence of Theorems 3.4 and 4.16, we obtain the following bound on the rate of convergence to stationarity for a random walk on an $\mathcal{R}$-trivial monoid.

**Corollary 4.18.** Let $P$ be an adapted probability on an $\mathcal{R}$-trivial monoid $M$. Let $\tau$ be the absorption time of the right random walk on $M$, let $\nu$ be an initial distribution on $\widehat{0}$ and $\pi$ the stationary distribution. Then,

$$\|P^n\nu - \pi\|_{TV} \leq \frac{1}{n+1} E[\tau].$$
In particular, if $M$ is a left regular band, then
\[ \|P^n \nu - \pi\|_{TV} \leq -\frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{X > \hat{0}} \frac{1}{1 - \lambda_X} \cdot \mu(\hat{0}, X). \]

Proof. Recall Markov’s inequality [LPW09] for a non-negative discrete random variable $\tau$:
\[ \Pr\{\tau \geq a\} \leq \frac{1}{a} E[\tau]. \]
Using Theorem 3.4 we then have
\[ \|P^n \nu - \pi\|_{TV} = P^n(M \setminus \hat{0}) = \Pr\{\tau \geq n + 1\} \leq \frac{1}{n+1} E[\tau]. \]
Theorem 4.16 gives the second statement. □

Example 4.19 (Tsetlin library). Consider the Tsetlin library with $k$ books as a random walk on the free left regular band on $\{1, \ldots, k\}$. We recall that the free left regular band on a set $A$ consists of all repetition free words over $A$. The product is concatenation followed by removing repetitions as you scan from left to right. A word belongs to the minimal ideal precisely when it contains all letters. Thus $\tau$ is the coupon collector random variable for $k$ coupons. So if $p_i$ is the probability of selecting book $i$, then
\[ \|P^n \nu - \pi\|_{TV} \leq \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{I \subseteq \{1, \ldots, k\}} (-1)^{|I|} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - \lambda_I}. \]
In particular, if the weights are uniform, we recover the usual order $k \log k$ mixing time for the top-to-random shuffle.

Example 4.20 (Promotion on a union of chains). As our next example, let $j_1, \ldots, j_k \geq 1$ and let $M$ be the quotient of the free monoid on $x_1, \ldots, x_k$ by the relations which state that if $w$ is a word with $j_i$ occurrences of $x_i$, then $wx_i = w$. It is easy to see that $M$ is a finite $R$-trivial monoid. The minimal ideal consists of those words with exactly $j_i$ occurrences of $x_i$ for each $1 \leq i \leq k$.

If we consider a probability $P$ supported on $x_1, \ldots, x_k$ with $P(x_i) = p_i$, then the random walk on $\hat{0}$ driven by $P$ admits the following description as a generalization of the Tsetlin library. On a shelf one has books $x_1, \ldots, x_k$ with $j_i$ copies of book $x_i$. One chooses a book $x_i$ with probability $p_i$ and moves the last copy of this book to the front. This is a special case of the promotion random walk on a union of chains considered in [AKS13a].

Note that the absorption time $\tau$ is the following well-studied variant of the coupon collecting problem, see [May08]. As before, one has $k$
types of coupons with different probabilities of being chosen, but now one wants to collect $j_i$ copies of coupon $i$. The expected value was given in [May08]. The result is

\[(4.8) \quad E[\tau] = \sum_{\emptyset \neq I \subseteq \{1, \ldots, k\}} (-1)^{|I|+1} \sum_{(r_i) \in \prod_{i \in I} \{0, 1, \ldots, j_i - 1\}} \frac{\sum_{i \in I} r_i \cdot \prod_{i \in I} p_i^{r_i}}{(\sum_{i \in I} p_i)^{1+\sum_{i \in I} r_i}}.\]

It is not clear how useful this formula is for direct computation. However, the case of uniform weights and an equal number of copies of each book was studied earlier by Newmann and Shepp [NS60]. A more precise result was obtained by Erdős and Rényi [ER61]. If $j_1 = \cdots = j_k = j$, then

$$E[\tau] = k \log k + (j - 1)k \log \log k + k(\gamma - \log(j - 1)! + o(k)).$$

Treating $j$ as a constant, this gives a mixing time of order $k \log k + (j - 1)k \log \log k$ for this generalized Tsetlin library with equal multiplicities and uniform weights.

Our final result of the subsection gives a formula for the expected value of the absorption time for an arbitrary $R$-trivial monoid. However, this formula might be too cumbersome from a computational viewpoint.

**Theorem 4.21.** Let $M$ be an $R$-trivial monoid and $P$ an adapted probability on $M$. Let $\tau$ be the absorption time of the right random walk on $M$ driven by $P$. Then, retaining earlier notation,

$$E[\tau] = \sum_{\sigma \in \text{St}(1) \cap \Delta(M, \hat{0})} \frac{P(\sigma)}{\prod_{i=0}^{\dim \sigma} (1 - \lambda_{d(\sigma_i)})}.$$

**Proof.** This is immediate from Proposition 4.8 and (4.7). \(\square\)

As a consequence, we obtain the following bound on mixing for random walks on $R$-trivial monoids.

**Corollary 4.22.** Let $P$ be an adapted probability on an $R$-trivial monoid $M$. Let $\nu$ be a distribution on the minimal ideal $\hat{0}$ of $M$. Let $\pi$ be the stationary distribution. Then

$$\|P^n \nu - \pi\|_{TV} \leq \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{\sigma \in \text{St}(1) \cap \Delta(M, \hat{0})} \frac{P(\sigma)}{\prod_{i=0}^{\dim \sigma} (1 - \lambda_{d(\sigma_i)})}.$$
5. The free tree monoid

Let $X$ be a finite alphabet endowed with a total order $<$. The free tree monoid on $X$ is the monoid $FT(X)$ generated by $X$ subject to the relations $x^2 = x$ for $x \in X$, as well as $yxy = yx$ whenever $x < y \in X$. We shall sometimes call quotients of $FT(X)$ (together with their distinguished ordered generating sets) tree monoids in this context. Note that if $M$ is a tree monoid with respect to an ordered generating set $X$ and $Y \subseteq X$ is considered with the induced order, then $\langle Y \rangle$ is a tree monoid with respect to the generating set $Y$.

In this section we show that $FT(X)$ is $R$-trivial (Corollary 5.2), its combinatorics is governed by trees (Proposition 5.5), and that the lattice $\Lambda(FT(X))$ is the Boolean lattice (Proposition 5.11). In Section 5.2, we present a slight generalization, which does not require the generators to be idempotent, but still yields an $R$-trivial monoid.

5.1. Properties of the free tree monoid. The defining relations of $FT(X)$ can be made into a length-reducing rewriting system in the obvious way; this rewriting system is not necessarily confluent, meaning that terms which can be rewritten in more than one way eventually yield the same result. But it turns out that the Knuth–Bendix completion terminates and the resulting system admits a nice combinatorial description.

Formally speaking, a rewriting system $R$ over an alphabet $X$ consists of a collection of rules $\ell \rightarrow r$ with $\ell, r$ words over $X$. It is called length-reducing if $|\ell| > |r|$ for each rule $\ell \rightarrow r$. If $u, v \in X^*$, then the one-step rewriting relation $u \Rightarrow_R v$ holds if there is a rule $\ell \rightarrow r$ and a factorization $u = w\ell z$ with $v = wrz$. One writes $\Rightarrow_R^*$ for the reflexive-transitive closure of $\Rightarrow_R$. The rewriting system $R$ is confluent if $v \Rightarrow_R^* w$ implies that there is a word $z$ such that $v \Rightarrow_R^* z \Rightarrow_R^* w$. If the system is length-reducing, it is enough to check that $v \Rightarrow_R^* w$ implies there is a word $z$ such that $v \Rightarrow_R^* z \Rightarrow_R^* w$. In fact, it is enough to check the case that the left hand sides of the two rules applied to obtain $v$ and $w$ from $u$ overlap.

A word $w$ is said to be reduced with respect to $R$ (or irreducible) if it contains no factor which is the left hand side of a rule, i.e., it cannot be rewritten. For a confluent, length-reducing rewriting system, each word can be rewritten to a unique reduced word and each reduced word represents a distinct element of the monoid with generating set $X$ and defining relations obtained by turning the rewriting rules $\ell \rightarrow r$ into formal equalities $\ell = r$. The Knuth–Bendix completion process is a way to take an arbitrary rewriting system and complete it to a confluent
one defining the same quotient monoid of the free monoid $X^*$ (if the process terminates). See \cite{BO93} for details.

The following proposition gives an inductive construction of the Knuth–Bendix completion of the rewriting system defining $\text{FT}(X)$.

**Proposition 5.1.** The Knuth–Bendix completion of the rewriting system $x^2 \rightarrow x$ and $yxy \rightarrow yx$ whenever $x < y$ over $X$ is given by the rewriting rules:

- $yuy \rightarrow yu$ for $y \in X$ and $u$ a reduced word (possibly empty)

  in $\text{FT}(\{ x \in X \mid x < y \})$.

See Corollary 5.3 for an explicit description of the reduced words and Remark 5.6 for their number.

**Proof.** Let $R$ be the rewriting system consisting of the rules $x^2 \rightarrow x$ and $yxy \rightarrow yx$ with $x < y$, for $x, y \in X$ and let $R'$ be the rewriting system in the statement of the proposition. Note that $R \subseteq R'$ because the empty word and alphabet symbols are reduced with respect to $R'$.

We next show that the left and right hand sides of each rule of $R'$ are equal in the monoid defined by the rewriting system $R$. Indeed, if $u = u_1 \cdots u_m$ is a word with each $u_i < y$, then a simple induction argument shows that $yu_1yu_2 \cdots yu_m \Rightarrow_R^* yu_1 \cdots u_m = yu$. Thus $yuy \stackrel{R'}{\Rightarrow} yu_1yu_2 \cdots yu_m, y \Rightarrow_R yu_1yu_2 \cdots yu_m \Rightarrow_R^* yu$ and so $yuy$ and $yu$ represent the same element of the monoid defined by $R$.

Let us take for $y$ the largest letter in $X$. Since the rewriting rules in $R$ and $R'$ do not change the letters that appear in a word, we may assume that the Knuth–Bendix completion for the alphabet $X - \{ y \}$ is as given in the proposition, i.e., that $R'$ is confluent on $X - \{ y \}$. (Note that the base cases of $|X| \leq 1$ are trivial.) We now apply a single step of the Knuth–Bendix completion after adding the relations involving $y$. The only left hand sides that may overlap are of the form:

- $yu y$ with $yvu$ with $u$ and $v$ reduced words in $\text{FT}(X \setminus \{ y \})$ (possibly empty). Suppose that $uv \Rightarrow_{R'}^* r$ with $r$ reduced. Then,

  $$yry \stackrel{R'}{\Rightarrow} yu y \Rightarrow_{R'} yu yv \Rightarrow_{R'} yuv \Rightarrow_{R'} yuv \Rightarrow_{R'}^* yr.$$  

  Since the rule $yry \rightarrow yr$ belongs to the rewriting system $R'$ over $X$, we have established confluence of $R'$.

We remark that the empty word is reduced for any totally ordered alphabet and so, in particular, $y^2 \rightarrow y$ is a rewriting rule for any $y \in X$.

Note that, since the rewriting rules in the Knuth–Bendix completion are strictly length-reducing, the two notions of a reduced word representing an element $f$ are equivalent (i.e., words of minimal length
representing \( f \) are precisely those that cannot be rewritten). In particular, each element \( f \in FT(X) \) is represented by a unique reduced word.

Given the form of the rewriting rules (all of the form \( uy = u \)), we obtain immediately the following description of the right Cayley graph.

**Corollary 5.2.** The right Cayley graph of \( FT(X) \) is the prefix tree on the reduced words of its elements, with a loop \( u \rightarrow u \) whenever \( u \) is not a reduced word (see Figure 1). In particular, \( FT(X) \) is \( \mathcal{R} \)-trivial and is Karnofsky–Rhodes with respect to \( X \).

\[ \text{Figure 1. The right Cayley graph of the free tree monoid FT(\{x < y\}).} \]

Another immediate consequence is the following description of the set of reduced words.

**Corollary 5.3.** A word \( u \) is a reduced representative of an element of \( FT(X) \) if and only if \( u \) does not contain the largest letter \( y \) of \( X \) and is reduced in \( FT(X \setminus \{y\}) \), or \( u \) has exactly one occurrence of \( y \) and the factorization \( u = vwy \) according to \( y \) gives recursively words \( v, w \) that are reduced with respect to \( FT(X \setminus \{y\}) \).

Corollary 5.3 yields a recursive map \( \phi_X \) from reduced words of elements of \( FT(X) \) to trees. Namely, let \( T_n \) be the set of ordered unlabelled trees having nodes of outdegree 0,1,2 and such that all leaves are at level 0 while the root is at level \( n \). They are counted by the sequence \( a(0) = 1 \) and \( a(n) = a(n-1)^2 + a(n-1) \) whose first terms are

\[ 1, 2, 6, 42, 1806, 3263442, 10650056950806 \]
Figure 2. The left Cayley graph of the free tree monoid \( \text{FT}(\{x < y\}) \).

(see \#A007018 of [F12]).

Take now \( u \) a reduced word. If \( X \) (and therefore \( u \)) is empty, let \( \phi_X(u) \) be the tree in \( T_0 \) consisting of a single leaf. Otherwise, let \( x \) be the largest letter of \( X \). If \( x \) appears in \( u \), write \( u := vxw \), where \( v \) and \( w \) belong to \( X \setminus \{x\} \) and define \( \phi_X(u) \) as the tree, where the root has two subtrees \( \phi_{X\setminus\{x\}}(v) \) and \( \phi_{X\setminus\{x\}}(w) \) in this order. Otherwise, define \( \phi_X(u) \) as the tree whose root has \( \phi_{X\setminus\{x\}}(u) \) as single subtree.

Example 5.4. Let \( X := \{x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4\} \). Then,

\[
\phi_X(x_3x_2x_4x_1x_2) = \begin{array}{c}
\text{4} \\
\text{3} \\
\text{2} \\
\text{1} \\
\text{0}
\end{array}
\]

where, for ease of reading, we drew as additional information the generator corresponding to each inner node of outdegree 2.

Note that the number of leaves of the tree is given by the length of the word plus one.

Proposition 5.5. The map \( \phi_X \) is a bijection between the elements of the free tree monoid \( \text{FT}(X) \) and the trees in \( T_{|X|} \).

Remark 5.6. The number of rules in the Knuth–Bendix completion for \( \text{FT}(X) \) is given by \( |X| + a(1) + \cdots + a(|X| - 1) \).
Remark 5.7. Let \( e \) be an idempotent of \( \text{FT}(X) \). Then \( e \) fixes \( u \) on the left, that is, \( eu = u \), if and only if the reduced word of \( e \) is a prefix of that of \( u \) (this is an immediate consequence of the right Cayley graph being the prefix tree on reduced words, see Corollary 5.2).

Remark 5.8. If \( Y \subseteq X \), then the submonoid of \( \text{FT}(X) \) generated by \( Y \) is clearly \( \text{FT}(Y) \) with the induced ordering because the right hand side of each rule in Proposition 5.1 has the same set of letters as the left hand side.

Proposition 5.9. Take \( X := \{x_1 < \cdots < x_n\} \) and \( t := \phi_X(u) \), where \( u \) is an element of \( \text{FT}(X) \). Then, \( i \) is a right descent for \( u \) (that is, \( ux_i = u \)) if and only if the \( i \)th inner node on the branch from the rightmost leaf to the root has outdegree 2.

Furthermore, \( i \) is a left descent for \( u \) if and only if the unique reduced word for \( u \) starts with \( i \) or, equivalently, the leftmost node of outdegree 2 in \( t \) is of height \( i \).

Proof. Looking at the completed rewriting system, we see that \( ux_i = u \) if and only if \( u \) admits a suffix of the form \( x_iv \) with \( v \) in \( \text{FT}(\{x_1 < \cdots < x_{i-1}\}) \). From the recursive definition of \( \phi_X \), this is equivalent to the desired condition on \( t \).

For left descents this is an immediate consequence of Remark 5.7. \( \square \)

For example, \( x_3x_2x_4x_1x_2 \) has 2 and 4 as right descents (see Example 5.4).

For \( u \in \text{FT}(\{x_1 < \cdots < x_n\}) \), denote by \( D_L(u) \) and \( D_R(u) \) the set of left and right descents of \( u \), respectively. For example,

\[
D_R(x_3x_2x_4x_1x_2) = \{2, 4\} \quad \text{and} \quad D_L(x_3x_2x_4x_1x_2) = \{3\}.
\]

For \( I \subseteq \{1, \ldots, n\} \), define the right descent class indexed by \( I \) as

\[
\text{FT}(X)^I := \{u \in \text{FT}(X) \mid D_R(u) = I \}.
\]

Proposition 5.10. The size of the right descent class \( \text{FT}(X)^I \) is given by \( \prod_{i \in I} a(i-1) \). In particular, the minimal ideal of \( \text{FT}(X) \) is of cardinality \( a(1) \cdots a(n-1) \).

Proof. Any tree in \( \text{FT}(X)^I \) can be constructed in a unique way by starting with a straight branch of length \( n \) and, for each \( i \in I \), grafting some subtree in \( T_{i-1} \) on the left of the \( i \)th inner node of the branch. The tree in Example 5.4 is obtained by grafting \( \phi_{\{x_1\}}(x_1) \in T_1 \) on the second inner node and \( \phi_{\{x_1 < x_2 < x_3\}}(x_3x_2) \in T_3 \) on the fourth.

Formally, we prove this by induction on \(|I|\). If \( I = \emptyset \), then \( \text{FT}(X)^I \) consists of just the empty word. Else, let \( j \in I \) be maximal and let \( I' = I \setminus \{j\} \). From the proof of Proposition 5.9, we see that \( D_R(w) = I \)
Proposition 5.12. Suppose that such models will be considered in the subsequent sections. 

The final statement, follows because the minimal ideal is the descent class $FT(X)^X$. 

**Proposition 5.11.** The lattice $\Lambda(FT(X))$ is isomorphic to the power set $P(X)$ ordered by reverse inclusion (and so the monoid operation is union). More precisely, the isomorphism sends the principal ideal $FT(X)e$ generated by an idempotent $e$ to the set of letters appearing in the reduced word representing $e$. Consequently, each subset $I := \{i_1 < \cdots < i_\ell\} \subseteq \{1, \ldots, n\}$ of $X$ contributes one element to $\Lambda(FT(X))$, namely the principal ideal generated by the idempotent $e_I := x_{i_1} \cdots x_{i_\ell}$. This corresponding $\mathcal{L}$-class is the minimal ideal of $FT(I)$ (viewed as a submonoid of $FT(X)$ via Remark 5.8) and is of cardinality $a(1) \cdots a(|I| - 1)$.

**Proof.** Since the singletons $\{x\}$ with $x \in X$ generate $P(X)$ and satisfy the relations of $FT(X)$, we have a surjective homomorphism $f : FT(X) \to P(X)$ sending $x$ to $\{x\}$. It is well known (cf. [MSar]) that any homomorphism from an $\mathcal{R}$-trivial monoid to a semilattice factors through $c$, so we have that $f$ induces a surjective homomorphism $f' : \Lambda(FT(X)) \to P(X)$. Since $c(X)$ generates $\Lambda(FT(X))$ and $P(X)$ is a free semilattice with identity on $X$, we conclude that $f'$ is an isomorphism. The remaining statements follow easily. For example, Proposition 5.10 gives the cardinality of the $\mathcal{L}$-class associated to $I$. Also $e_I$ is idempotent by a simple induction argument of $|I|$ because if $I' = I \setminus \{i_\ell\}$, $e_I = x_{i_1} e_{I'}$ and hence $e_I e_I = x_{i_1} e_{I'} x_{i_1} e_{I'} = x_{i_1} e_{I'} e_{I'} = x_{i_1} e_{I'}$ where the penultimate equality uses that the alphabet of $e_{I'}$ consists of symbols smaller than $x_{i_1}$ and the last equality uses induction.

Note that under the isomorphism of $\Lambda(FT(X))$ and $P(X)$ we have that $d(u) = D_R(u)$ for $u \in FT(X)$.

Our next result shows that $FT(X)$ satisfies the conditions of Corollary 5.7. Thus random walks of $FT(X)$ on finite sets have diagonalizable transition matrices when driven by generic probabilities. Several such models will be considered in the subsequent sections.

**Proposition 5.12.** Suppose that $u \triangleright \triangleright v$ in $FT(X)$. Then $d(u) \neq d(v)$. Consequently, the transition matrix of any random walk of $FT(X)$ on a finite set driven by a probability $P$ is diagonalizable as long as the partial sums $\sum_{x \in I} P(x)$ are distinct for distinct subsets of $X$.

**Proof.** We prove the equivalent assertion that $D_R(u) \neq D_R(v)$. Let $X = \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ with $x_1 < x_2 < \cdots < x_n$. We can identify subsets of
$X$ with bit strings of length $n$ by setting, for $I \subseteq X$, $w_I = w_1 \cdots w_n$ where $w_i = 1$ if $i \in I$ and $w_i = 0$, otherwise. We order bit strings by reverse lexicographical order (that is, by least significant bit). We claim that if $u \succ v$, then $w_{D_R(u)} < w_{D_R(v)}$. Since $\geq$ is the prefix ordering, it suffices by induction to prove the assertion when $v = ux_i$ with $x_i \in X$. The fact that $u \neq v$ implies $x_i \notin D_R(u)$; on the other hand $x_i \in D_R(v)$. We claim that if $j > i$, then $x_j \in D_R(u)$ if and only if $x_j \in D_R(v)$. It will then follow that $w_{D_R(u)} < w_{D_R(v)}$.

By the proof of Proposition 5.9 we have that if $x_j \in D_R(v)$, then $v = ax_jb$ with $a, b$ reduced and $b \in FT\{x_1, \ldots, x_{j-1}\}$. But then $b = b'x_i$ and $u = ax_jb'$ with $b' \in FT\{x_1, \ldots, x_{j-1}\}$. Thus $x_j \in D_R(u)$. Conversely, if $x_j \in D_R(u)$ then $u = ax_jb$ where $a, b$ are reduced and $b \in FT\{x_1, \ldots, x_{j-1}\}$. Then $v = ax_jbx_i$ and $bx_i \in FT\{x_1, \ldots, x_{j-1}\}$ because $i < j$. Thus $x_j \in D_R(v)$. This completes the proof of the first statement. The second statement is immediate from Corollary 4.7. □

5.2. **Generalized tree monoids.** Here we define a slight generalization of tree monoids by relaxing the idempotency condition on the generators, which still admits an analogue of Corollary 5.2.

**Definition 5.13** (Generalized tree monoid). Let $M$ be a monoid generated by elements in $X$ and let $<_X$ be a total order on $X$. Assume that for each generator $x \in X$, $x^{k+1} = x^k$ for some $k$. Furthermore, suppose that whenever $x <_X y$ for $x, y \in X$, either $x$ and $y$ commute or $y$ is idempotent and $yx = yx$. Then $M$ is a called a *generalized tree monoid*.

The following proposition, establishing the $R$-triviality of generalized tree monoids, is proved via the same idea as Proposition 5.12.

**Proposition 5.14.** Let $M$ be a generalized tree monoid. Then $M$ is $R$-trivial.

*Proof.* The proof proceeds by defining a statistic $f(m)$ on monoid elements that increases strictly, for some appropriate order, along the non-trivial edges of the right Cayley graph, which implies $R$-triviality.

Fix $x \in X$ and let $k$ be minimal such that $x^{k+1} = x^k$. For $m \in M$, define $f_x(m)$ as the largest integer $\leq k$ such that $m = m'x_{f_x(m)}$ for some $m' \in M$. Writing the elements of $X$ as $x_1 >_X \cdots >_X x_n$, associate to each element $m$ of the monoid the vector $f(m) := (f_{x_1}(m), \ldots, f_{x_n}(m))$. When all the generators are idempotent, $f(m)$ is nothing but $\text{fix}(m) := \{x \in X \mid mx = m\}$, written as a binary vector. We use lexicographic order $<_{\text{lex}}$ to compare vectors.

Take $m \in M$ and $x \in X$ such that $mx \neq m$. We want to compare $f(m)$ and $f(mx)$. Note that $f_x(m) < f_x(mx)$. Take $x <_X y$ in $X$. If
\( f_y(m) = 0 \), then trivially \( f_y(mx) \geq f_y(m) \). Hence we may assume that 
\( 1 \leq f_y(m) \). If \( x \) and \( y \) commute, then \( f_y(mx) \geq f_y(m) \). Otherwise, \( y \) is idempotent and \( yxy = xy \). Since \( y \) idempotent implies \( my = m \), it follows that \( mxy = myxy = myx = mx \) and thus \( f_y(mx) = f_y(m) \) (which is 1 since \( y \) is idempotent).

We conclude that \( f(m) <_{\text{lex}} f(mx) \), as desired. It follows that the 
right Cayley digraph of \( M \) is acyclic and hence \( M \) is \( R \)-trivial. \(\square\)

6. Toom-Tsetlin model

In statistical physics, the Ising model has been repeatedly studied from several different points of view because of its inherent simplicity and yet complex behaviour. The two-dimensional Ising model is particularly interesting because of its exact solution. The Toom model \([\text{Too80}]\) is a dynamical variant of the two-dimensional Ising model designed to study interface growth at low temperatures.

In the model, one considers Ising spins which are simultaneously updated according to the following rule: the spin at location \((i, j)\) gets updated to the majority of the spins at \((i, j), (i, j + 1)\) and \((i + 1, j)\) with probability \(1 - p - q\), to +1 with probability \(p\), and to −1 with probability \(q\). This model was considered \([\text{DLSS91a}, \text{DLSS91b}]\) in the third quadrant with the boundary condition meaning that spins of the negative \(x\)-axis are +1 and spins on the negative \(y\)-axis are −1. What ends up happening in the stationary state is that an interface is formed between the +1 and −1 spins which is a straight line anchored to the origin forming an angle depending on the noise \(p\) and \(q\) for small \(p, q\). On the interface itself, there is a nonzero density of both spins, and the dynamics of the spins on the interface is also (with some abuse of terminology) referred to as the Toom model.

A spin exchange model was proposed in \([\text{LNR96}]\) to understand the border process of the Toom model. This model was defined on the semi-infinite integer lattice whose finite analog we study here.

We generalize the model by considering it both for finite sizes as well as for an arbitrary number of particles. In the process of generalization, we find a remarkable connection to another field of probability, namely the well-studied Tsetlin library \([\text{Hen72}, \text{DF95}, \text{FH96}, \text{BHR99}]\). The Tsetlin library is a discrete-time Markov chain on permutations of books arranged in a line, where each book \(b_i\) is picked with probability \(x_i\) and placed in the front of the line. The stationary distribution of the Tsetlin library and the eigenvalues of the transition matrices are known explicitly. There are also tight bounds on the mixing time of the Markov chain.
We will consider two multi-book generalizations of the Tsetlin library. The first one, discussed in Section 6.1, with a fixed number of books of certain types, will be a Markov chain on words with fixed content. The second one, discussed in Section 6.2, has the natural interpretation of a library where multiple copies of books exist, and one can order copies of books from an outside source. This will thus be a Markov chain on words of fixed length from an alphabet.

Let $B = \{b_1, \ldots, b_m\}$ be the alphabet, or equivalently the set of books in the library. We consider words in $B$ of length $L$. Our parameters are $x_{b,k}$, for $b \in B$ and $k \in \{1, \ldots, L\}$. As is usual in the context of the Tsetlin library, states are indexed by words in the alphabet $B$ of length $L$. In both variants, we will see that all eigenvalues of the transition matrices are simple linear expressions in the parameters $x_{b,k}$.

6.1. First variant: Tsetlin library with multiple copies of books. Here we consider the model where there is a fixed number $n_i$ of books $b_i$, so that the total number of books is $\sum_{i=1}^{m} n_i = L$. The system is thus defined by a vector $\vec{n} \in \mathbb{N}^m$. The configurations can be indexed by words (or multipermutations) $\pi = (\pi_1, \ldots, \pi_L)$ of prescribed content with letters in $B$; that is, each $\pi_j = b_k$ for some $1 \leq k \leq m$ and $\sum_{j=1}^{L} 1_{\{\pi_j = b_k\}} = n_k$. There are therefore $\left(\begin{array}{c} L \\ n_1, \ldots, n_m \end{array}\right)$ configurations.

The dynamics is as follows. Suppose the current state is $\pi$. At each discrete time step, we choose with probability $x_{b,j}$ a book $b$ and an index $j$ (no greater than the number of copies of $b$) and we move the $j^{th}$ copy of $b$ to the left, past all books not equal to $b$, until it is next to the $(j-1)^{st}$ copy of $b$. If $j = 1$, we interpret this as moving $b$ to the front. Formally, if the $j^{th}$ copy of $b$ is in position $k$ of $\pi$, then the new state becomes $\pi'$ as follows:

\begin{equation}
\pi = (\pi_1, \ldots, \pi_{k-1}, b, \pi_{k+1}, \ldots, \pi_L) \mapsto \\
\pi' = \begin{cases} 
(b, \pi_1, \ldots, \pi_{k-1}, \pi_{k+1}, \ldots, \pi_L) & \text{if } j = 1, \\
(\pi_1, \ldots, \pi_{i-1}, b, b, \pi_{i+1}, \ldots, \pi_{k-1}, \pi_{k+1}, \ldots, \pi_L), & \text{if } j > 1, \pi_i = b \text{ and } b \notin \{\pi_{i+1}, \ldots, \pi_{k-1}\}.
\end{cases}
\end{equation}

We denote this map by $\partial_{b,j}$, or more precisely $\pi' = \partial_{b,j}(\pi)$.

When there is exactly one copy of each book, then this Markov chain is the classical Tsetlin library chain. When $m = 2$, this version of the Tsetlin library reduces to a finite analog of the Toom model \cite{LNR96}, where all probabilities are equal to one. The model consists of Ising spins $\pm 1$ on the integer lattice $\mathbb{Z}$, where the leftmost spin in a block of spins of type $+1$ or $-1$ hops far enough to the left so that it becomes the
rightmost spin in the next block of spins to its left. Another difference is that the model is studied in continuous time.

**Proposition 6.1.** The Markov chain on words of length $L$ of content $\vec{n}$ in the alphabet $\mathcal{B}$ defined by the operators $\{\partial_{b,j} \mid b \in \mathcal{B}, 1 \leq j \leq n_b\}$ is ergodic.

**Proof.** The graph associated to the Markov chain is primitive because of the presence of self-loops, such as the operator $\partial_{n_1,1}$ acting on $\pi$.

To prove irreducibility, we show that we can get from any configuration to a specified configuration. It will be convenient to express the target configuration $\gamma$ in block form. We canonically represent $\gamma$ as $\gamma_1 \cdots \gamma_k$, where each $\gamma_i$ is a sequence of the same $b \in \mathcal{B}$. Consecutive blocks do not consist of the same symbol.

We construct $\gamma$ by building it one block at a time from the right. For each $i$ from 1 to $k$, let $b(i) \in \mathcal{B}$ be the symbol inside the block $\gamma_i$, and $\ell(i)$ be the total number of occurrences of $b(i)$ in the prefix of $\gamma$ up to and including $\gamma_i$. We define the operator $\bar{\partial}_i$ to be the operator $\partial_{b(i),\ell(i)} \circ \cdots \circ \partial_{b(i),1}$, where we remind the reader that we are acting on the left. We then claim that the sequence of operators

$$(6.2) \quad \bar{\partial}_1 \circ \cdots \circ \bar{\partial}_k$$

acting on any configuration $\pi$ returns $\gamma$.

The idea is that we first build $b^n$ on the left hand side by the action of $\bar{\partial}_k$, where $b = b(k)$. We then build $\gamma_{k-1}$, etc, on the left. The next time there is another block of $b$s, all the $b$s except for the block $\gamma_k$ is moved to the front. This process continues until we end up with $\gamma$. The details are an exercise in induction. $\square$

The transition matrix will be denoted by $T_\vec{n}$. To describe our main result, we need to extend the notion of derangement from permutations to words. A word $\pi$ of content $\vec{n}$ is called a derangement if no letter in $\pi$ is in a position occupied by the same letter in the sequence

$$(6.3) \quad (1, \ldots, 1, 2, \ldots, 2, \ldots, m, \ldots, m).$$

For example $(3, 2, 1, 1)$ is a derangement, whereas $(2, 1, 1)$ is not since the first 1 sits in the same slot as a 1 in $(1, 1, 2)$.

Let $d_{\vec{n}}$ denote the number of derangements of words of content $\vec{n}$. Even and Gillis [EG76] first gave an explicit formula for derangements of words (or multipermutations) in terms of Laguerre polynomials $L_n(x)$,

$$(6.4) \quad d_{\vec{n}} = (-1)^L \int_0^\infty e^{-x} \prod_{j=1}^{m} L_{n_j}(x) dx,$$
and Carlitz [Car78] gave the first combinatorial proof of this result. For \(1 \leq j \leq m\) and \(I_j \subseteq [n_j] := \{1, 2, \ldots, n_j\}\), let \(x_{b_jI_j} = \sum_{s \in I_j} x_{b_j s}\).

**Theorem 6.2.** The characteristic polynomial of the transition matrix \(T_{\vec{n}}\) is given by

\[
|\lambda I - T_{\vec{n}}| = \prod_{I_j \subseteq [n_j], I_m \subseteq [m]} \left| \lambda - \sum_{j=1}^{m} x_{b_jI_j} \right|^{d_{(n_1-|I_1|, \ldots, n_m-|I_m|)}}.
\]

When \(x_{b,k} = x_b\) for \(b \in B\) and all \(k\), this simplifies to

\[
|\lambda I - T_{\vec{n}}| = \prod_{(k_1, \ldots, k_m) \subseteq (n_1, \ldots, n_m)} \left| \lambda - \sum_{i=1}^{m} k_i x_{b_i} \right|^{d_{(n_1-k_1, \ldots, n_m-k_m)} \prod_{i=1}^{m} \binom{n_i}{k_i}},
\]

where \(\leq\) is component-wise comparison.

We postpone the proof of Theorem 6.2 to Section 6.4.

**Example 6.3.** The transition matrix for \(n_1 = n_2 = 2\) in the lexicographically ordered basis is given by

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
  x_{1,1} + x_{1,2} + x_{2,1} & x_{2,2} & x_{1,2} & x_{1,2} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
  0 & x_{1,1} & 0 & x_{1,1} & 0 & 0 \\
  0 & x_{2,2} & x_{1,1} + x_{2,2} & 0 & x_{1,1} & x_{1,1} \\
  x_{2,1} & x_{2,1} & 0 & x_{1,2} + x_{2,1} & x_{1,2} & 0 \\
  0 & 0 & x_{2,1} & 0 & x_{2,1} & 0 \\
  0 & 0 & 0 & x_{2,2} & x_{2,2} & x_{1,1} + x_{1,2} + x_{2,2}
\end{pmatrix},
\]

and its eigenvalues are

\(1 = x_{1,1} + x_{1,2} + x_{2,1} + x_{2,2}, x_{1,1} + x_{2,1}, x_{1,1} + x_{2,2}, x_{1,2} + x_{2,1}, x_{1,2} + x_{2,2}, 0\).

When we set \(x_{1,1} = x_{1,2} = x_1\) and \(x_{2,1} = x_{2,2} = x_2\), we get the eigenvalues \(2x_1 + 2x_2\) with multiplicity 1 and \(x_1 + x_2\) with multiplicity 4 as expected.

**Corollary 6.4.** For the Toom model (i.e. when \(m = 2\)), Theorem 6.2 simplifies to

\[
|\lambda I - T_{(n_1,n_2)}| = \prod_{I_j \subseteq [n_1], I_2 \subseteq [n_2]} \left| \lambda - x_{b_1I_1} - x_{b_2I_2} \right|.
\]

**Proof.** For two letters the number of derangements is zero unless there are the same number of each letter, in which case the number of derangements is one. \(\square\)
The next theorem provides diagonalizability of the transition matrix for generic probabilities.

**Theorem 6.5.** The transition matrix $T_{\vec{n}}$ is diagonalizable as long as the partial sums of the $x_{b,j}$ over distinct subsets of indices are distinct.

The proof of Theorem 6.5 is postponed until Section 6.3.

### 6.2. Second variant: Tsetlin library with interlibrary loan.

We generalize the Tsetlin library with multiple copies of Section 6.1 to include storage or interlibrary loan of books. One imagines that the library can hold $L$ books, and there is the possibility of borrowing copies of books from an external source (such as storage or another library). We remark that this model also makes sense from the point of view of the Toom model where this model has the interpretation of looking at a window of $L$ sites in the one-dimensional lattice.

Our state space is now all possible words of size $L$ in the alphabet $B$ of size $m$ and the number of configurations is $m^L$. We need to define the operators in this Markov chain. With a slight abuse of terminology, we will again denote the operators by $\partial_{b,j}$ for $b \in B$, but this time, for all $j \in [L]$. As before, the operator $\partial_{b,j}$ acts with probability $x_{b,j}$. Let $n_b(\pi)$ be the number of occurrences of $b$ in the word $\pi$.

Given a word $\pi$, the operator $\partial_{b,j}$ acts as follows. If there are at least $j$ copies of the book $b$ in $\pi$, then (as before) we move the $j^{th}$ copy of $b$ to the left until it is next to the $(j - 1)^{st}$ copy (where if $j = 1$, then $b$ is moved to the front). If there are $j - 1$ copies of $b$ in $\pi$, then we insert a new copy of $b$ (from storage or another library) immediately after the $(j - 1)^{st}$ copy of $b$. Finally, if there are strictly fewer than $j - 1$ copies of $b$ in $\pi$, we do nothing. Formally, the transitions are defined by

$$\pi = (\pi_1, \ldots, \pi_L) \mapsto$$

$$\begin{cases}
(6.1), & \text{if } j \leq n_b(\pi), \\
(b, \pi_1, \ldots, \pi_{L-1}), & \text{if } n_b(\pi) = 0 \text{ and } j = 1, \\
(\pi_1, \ldots, \pi_{i-1}, b, b, \pi_{i+1}, \ldots, \pi_{L-1}), & \text{if } n_b(\pi) > 0, j = n_b(\pi) + 1, \\
\pi, & \pi_i = b \text{ and } b \notin \{\pi_{i+1}, \ldots, \pi_L\}, \\
& \text{otherwise.}
\end{cases}$$

The loan operators in (6.7) are natural extensions of the operators in (6.1) because one imagines that a book from somewhere far to the right will jump far enough left so that it becomes the rightmost book.
in the rightmost block of books of the same type. Notice that $\pi$ is fixed by the operator $\partial_{\pi L,n=1}(\pi)$.

We require $x_{b,j}$ to be positive for all $b \in B$ and $1 \leq j \leq L$.

**Proposition 6.6.** The Markov chain on words of length $L$ in the alphabet $B$ of $m$ letters defined by the operators $\{\partial_{b,j} \mid b \in B, 1 \leq j \leq L\}$ is ergodic.

**Proof.** Just as in the Markov chain of the Tsetlin library with multiple copies, the graph of the chain is primitive because of the presence of self-loops. Since the operators in the former chain are a subset of the operators here, all the self-loops there also occur here.

To show irreducibility, we again construct a series of operators that take any configuration to a prescribed one, say $\gamma$. By the proof of Proposition 6.1, it suffices to construct an operator that will take any configuration to one with the same content as $\gamma$.

Suppose $\gamma$ has content $(n_1, \ldots, n_m)$. Then the sequence of operators

$$(\partial_{1,n_1} \circ \cdots \circ \partial_{1,1}) \cdots (\partial_{m,n_m} \circ \cdots \circ \partial_{m,1})$$

takes any configuration to $b_{i_1}^{n_1} \cdots b_{i_m}^{n_m}$, which has the same content as $\gamma$. (Recall that the operators act on the left). The operator (6.2) constructed in Proposition 6.1 will then take this configuration to $\gamma$. □

We denote the transition matrix for this model by $T_{m,L}$.

**Theorem 6.7.** The characteristic polynomial of the transition matrix $T_{m,L}$ is given by

$$|\lambda I - T_{m,L}| = \left(\lambda - \sum_{j=1}^{m} x_{b_j,[L]} \prod_{I \subseteq [L]} \left(\lambda - \sum_{j=1}^{m} x_{b_j, I_j}\right)^{m_I}\right)^{m_{\vec{I}}}$$

where the multiplicity $m_{\vec{I}}$ for $\vec{I} = (I_1, \ldots, I_m)$ is given in (6.12).

The proof of Theorem 6.7 is postponed to Section 6.4. We conjecture that the multiplicities $m_{\vec{I}}$ are again given by derangement numbers of words as in (6.4).

**Conjecture 6.8.** For $\vec{I}$ with $I_i \subseteq [L]$ for all $1 \leq i \leq m$ we have

$$m_{\vec{I}} = \begin{cases} (m - 1) d_{\{i_1 \cdots i_m\}} & \text{if } \sum_{i} \max(i_i) \leq L + m - 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

where $\vec{I} = [L] \downset I$ and $\max(I)$ is the maximal element of $I \subseteq [L]$.
Example 6.9. The transition matrix for $L = 2$ and $m = 2$ in the lexicographically ordered basis is given by

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
  x_{1,1} + x_{1,2} + x_{2,2} & x_{1,2} & 0 & 0 \\
  0 & x_{1,1} + x_{2,2} & x_{1,1} & x_{1,1} \\
  x_{2,1} & x_{2,1} & x_{1,2} + x_{2,1} & 0 \\
  0 & 0 & x_{2,2} & x_{1,2} + x_{2,1} + x_{2,2}
\end{pmatrix},
\]

and its eigenvalues are

\[1 = x_{1,1} + x_{1,2} + x_{2,1} + x_{2,2}, \quad x_{1,1} + x_{2,2}, \quad x_{1,2} + x_{2,2}, \quad x_{1,2} + x_{2,1},\]

as expected by the statement of Theorem 6.7.

Again we have diagonalizability of the transition matrix for generic probabilities.

Theorem 6.10. The transition matrix $T_{m,L}$ is diagonalizable as long as the partial sums of the $x_{b,j}$ over distinct subsets of indices are distinct.

The proof of Theorem 6.10 is postponed until Section 6.3.

6.3. $R$-triviality of the Toom–Tsetlin model. Let us put $X_I = \{\partial_{b,k} | b \in B, 1 \leq k \leq L\}$ where the $\partial_{b,k}$ are the mappings of the Toom–Tsetlin model with interlibrary loan. (Here the subscript $I$ in $X_I$ stands for interlibrary loan.) Note that these operators are idempotent.

Lemma 6.11. For $x, y \in X_I$ we have

\[yx = yx\quad \text{for all } x, y \in X_I\]

unless $x = \partial_{b,i+1}$ and $y = \partial_{b,i}$ for some $b \in B$ and $1 \leq i < L$.

Proof. Note that when $y = \partial_{b,i}$ and $x = \partial_{b,j}$ with $j > i + 1$ or $j < i - 1$, then $x$ and $y$ commute. Indeed, $xy$ and $yx$ both have the effect of placing the $i^{th}$ and $j^{th}$ copies of $b$ immediately after the $(i - 1)^{st}$ and $(j - 1)^{st}$ copies of $b$, respectively (where this should be interpreted appropriately if $i$ or $j$ is 1, or if some of these copies are not on the shelf). Thus $yx = yx = yx$ since $y$ is idempotent.

Suppose now $j = i - 1$. Take $w \in B^L$. If $w$ has fewer than $i - 1$ copies of $b$, then trivially $yxy(w) = yx(w)$. Next assume that $w$ contains at least $i$ occurrences of $b$ with $i > 2$, and write it as $w = u_1 b u_2 b u_3 b u_4$, where the leftmost $b$ is the $(i - 2)^{nd}$ $b$ of $w$ and $b$ does not appear in $u_2, u_3$. Then

\[yxy(u_1 b u_2 b u_3 b u_4) = yx(u_1 b u_2 b u_3 b u_4) = y(u_1 b b u_2 b u_3 b u_4)\]

\[= u_1 b^2 u_2 u_3 u_4 = y(u_1 b^2 u_2 u_3 b u_4) = yx(u_1 b u_2 b u_3 b u_4).\]
If \( i = 2 \) and \( j = 1 \), then a very similar computation can be performed on \( w = u_1 b u_2 b u_3 \), where the leftmost \( b \) is the first \( b \) of \( w \) and \( u_2 \) does not contain any \( b \). If \( w \) contains exactly \( i - 1 \) occurrences of \( b \), then we can write \( w = u_1 b u_2 b u_3 \) where the leftmost \( b \) is the \((i - 2)^{nd} \) \( b \) of \( w \) and the same computation goes through with \( u_4 \) missing and with the last letter of \( u_3 \) missing in some of the intermediate steps.

Next assume \( x = \partial_{b,i} \) and \( y = \partial_{b',j} \) with \( b' \neq b \). We claim that \( xy = yx \) (and hence \( yxy = yx \)) unless \( i = 1 = j \). For instance, if neither \( i \) nor \( j \) is 1, then applying both operators in either order puts the \( i^{th} \) copy of \( b \) immediately after the \((i - 1)^{st} \) copy and the \( j^{th} \) copy of \( b' \) immediately after the \((j - 1)^{st} \) copy of \( b' \) while preserving the relative order of all remaining books (interpreting this properly if some of these copies do not exist). The situation is similar when exactly one of \( i, j \) is 1: one book goes to the front and the other immediately after its predecessor of the same type. Trivially, if \( i = 1 = j \) then \( yxy \) and \( yx \) both move the first copy of \( b' \) to the front and the first copy of \( b \) into the second position (interpreting this properly if one or both books are missing).

□

Note that Lemma 6.11 implies that \( M_{X_I} \) is a tree monoid.

**Theorem 6.12.** The monoid \( M_{X_I} \) generated by \( X_I \) is a tree monoid (with respect to an appropriate ordering on \( X_I \)) and hence \( \mathcal{R} \)-trivial.

**Proof.** By Lemma 6.11 we can view \( M_{X_I} \) as a tree monoid by choosing a topological sorting of the partial order \(<_{X_I} \) on \( X_I \) defined by \( \partial_{a,i} <_{X_I} \partial_{b,j} \) if \( a = b \) and \( i < j \). Corollary 5.2 then provides the \( \mathcal{R} \)-triviality of \( M_{X_I} \).

□

A picture of the right Cayley graph for the Toom–Tsetlin model with interlibrary loan for \( L = 2 \) is shown in Figure 3.

Let \( \vec{n} = (n_1, \ldots, n_m) \in \mathbb{N}^m \) with \( \sum_{i=1}^{m} n_i = L \) as in Section 6.1. Let \( Y \) be the subset of \( X_I \) consisting of those operators \( \partial_{b,i,j} \) with \( 1 \leq j \leq n_i \). If \( \Omega \subseteq \mathcal{B}^L \) is the subset of words \( \pi \) with exactly \( n_i \) copies of \( b_i \), for \( i = 1, \ldots, m \), then \( \Omega \) is invariant under \( Y \). Moreover, the action of \( \partial_{b,i,j} \) (with \( 1 \leq j \leq n_i \)) on \( \Omega \) is exactly as in (6.1). Thus if \( X_T \) is the set of mappings of the Toom–Tsetlin model with multiple copies of books from Section 6.1 and \( M_{X_T} \) is the monoid generated by these mappings, then \( M_{X_T} \) is a quotient of a submonoid \( \langle Y \rangle \) of \( M_{X_I} \) generated by \( Y \) and hence \( \mathcal{R} \)-trivial. In fact, \( Y \) inherits a total ordering from \( X_I \) satisfying the tree monoid relations. We have thus proved the following corollary.

**Corollary 6.13.** The monoid \( M_{X_T} \) generated by \( X_T \) is a tree monoid (with respect to an appropriate ordering on \( X_T \)) and hence \( \mathcal{R} \)-trivial.
Theorems 6.5 and 6.10 are now immediate consequences of Theorem 6.12, Corollary 6.13, and Proposition 5.12.

6.4. Proof of Theorems 6.2 and 6.7. Finally we turn to the proof of Theorems 6.2 and 6.7. We begin with a lemma generalizing a standard fact about usual derangements. For a vector \( \vec{n} = (n_1, \ldots, n_m) \) with non-negative integer entries we denote by

\[
\vec{n}! = \left( \sum_{i=1}^{m} n_i \right)! = \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^{m} n_i)!}{n_1! \cdots n_m!}
\]

the multinomial coefficient. When \( \vec{n} \) contains negative entries, we set \( \vec{n}! = 0 \).

Lemma 6.14. Let \( \vec{n} = (n_1, \ldots, n_m) \in \mathbb{N}^m \). We order \( m \)-tuples \( \vec{R} = (R_1, \ldots, R_m) \) of subsets \( R_i \subseteq [n_i] \) by the componentwise ordering, i.e., we write \( (R_1, \ldots, R_m) \subseteq (S_1, \ldots, S_m) \) if \( R_i \subseteq S_i \) for \( 1 \leq i \leq m \). With this notation we have:

\[
\vec{n}! = \sum_{\vec{s} \subseteq [n_1] \times \cdots \times [n_m]} d_{(n_1 - |S_1|, \ldots, n_m - |S_m|)}
\]

or equivalently,

\[
d_{(n_1, \ldots, n_m)} = \sum_{\vec{s} \subseteq [n_1] \times \cdots \times [n_m]} (-1)^{|S_1| + \cdots + |S_m|} (n_1 - |S_1|, \ldots, n_m - |S_m|)!
\]
Proof. The first equation is a simple generalization to words of the statement for permutation derangements, namely that the total number of permutations can be written as the number of permutations with a given fixed point set (and the remainder of the permutation is a derangement). That is, to each word $w$, we let $S_i$ be the subset of $[n_i]$ such that the $j$th copy of $i$ occurs in one of the positions occupied by $i$ in (6.3) if and only if $j \in S_i$.

The second equation follows from the first via M"obius inversion using that the M"obius function of a product is the product of the M"obius function and that, for the Boolean lattice, $\mu(A, B) = (-1)^{|B| - |A|}$.

Proof of Theorem 6.2. In Lemma 6.11, we showed that the generators of the Toom–Tsetlin model satisfy the relations of the free tree monoid. Since the free tree monoid is $\mathcal{R}$-trivial by Corollary 5.2, we can apply the $\mathcal{R}$-trivial monoid technology to recover eigenvalues. The advantage of doing this is that by Proposition 5.11 we already know that the lattice of idempotent-generated left ideals is the full Boolean lattice (so the M"obius inversion is easy), and we have a natural choice of idempotent representatives (decreasing products of generators).

The strategy of the proof is to show that both the multiplicities of the irreducible characters and the derangement numbers are obtained by inclusion-exclusion from the same statistic (multinomial numbers), so that they coincide.

We first compute the character (i.e., number of fixed points) of the idempotent representatives acting on the Toom–Tsetlin model with multiple copies of the books.

Consider a subset $R$ of the generators and, for $1 \leq i \leq m$, set $R_i = \{ j \in [n_i] \mid \partial_{b_{i,j}} \in R \}$. Set $r_i := |R_i|$, $\vec{R} := (R_i)_{1 \leq i \leq m}$. Note that $R$ and $\vec{R}$ completely determine each other and that $R \subseteq S$ if and only if $\vec{R} \subseteq \vec{S}$, where we write $\vec{R} \subseteq \vec{S}$ if and only if $R_i \subseteq S_i$ for $i = 1, \ldots, m$. Hence we can identify $\Sigma(FT(X_T))$ with the set of such $\vec{R}$ with the dual to this ordering.

As the idempotent associated to $R$ (or equivalently, $\vec{R}$), we take

\begin{equation}
(6.8) \quad e_{\vec{R}} := \prod_{i=1}^{m} \prod_{j \in R_i} \partial_{b_{i,j}},
\end{equation}

where the inside products are taken decreasingly along $R_i$ and the outer product is taken increasingly along $i = 1, \ldots, m$ (reading products from left to right). For example, if $m := 2$, $R_1 := \{1, 3\}$, and $R_2 := \{2, 3, 5\}$, we obtain the idempotent

\begin{equation}
(6.9) \quad e_{\vec{R}} = \partial_{1,3} \partial_{1,1} \partial_{2,5} \partial_{2,3} \partial_{2,2}.
\end{equation}
Claim: The number of fixed points of $e_{\mathcal{R}}$ is given by the multinomial coefficient
\begin{equation}
|e_{\mathcal{R}}\Omega| = (n_1 - |R_1|, \ldots, n_m - |R_m|)!
\end{equation}

Proof of Claim. First we sketch the idea of the proof. For a product of generators in this order, after some operator $\partial_{b_j}$ moves the $j^{th}$ $b$ right after the $(j - 1)^{st}$ $b$, the succeeding generators will never separate them. Hence, if \{\$j, \ldots, j + k\} \subseteq R_i$, then in the result the $(j - 1)^{th}$ to $(j + k)^{th}$ $b$s are consecutive and, if $j, \ldots, j + k$ is of maximal length, we say that those $b$s form a block. Note that there may be two consecutive blocks of $b$s. One also has to be a bit careful when $j = 1$. For the intuition assume that there is a fake $0^{th}$ $b$ at the beginning of the word, and a fake $0^{th}$ $b$ just after the first block of $b_{i-1}s$. After the application of the full idempotent, there are, besides the first $m$ starting blocks, $n_i - r_i$ blocks of $b$s for each $1 \leq i \leq m$. Thus, producing all the elements in the image set of $e_{\mathcal{R}}$ amounts to choosing among all possible ways to intertwine those blocks of $b$s; there are $(n_1 - r_1, \ldots, n_m - r_i)!$ such choices.

Let us now formalize this argument by simultaneous induction on $|R| = r_1 + \cdots + r_m$ over all possible contents $(n_1, \ldots, n_m)$. By a slight abuse we use the same notation for the operators even if we change the content. If $R = \emptyset$, then $e_{\mathcal{R}}$ is the identity and so the fixed point set is $\Theta$, whose cardinality is $\tilde{n}$! as desired.

Take now $R$ with $|R| \geq 1$, and assume that the claim holds for all subsets of cardinality strictly less than $|R|$. Take $k$ minimal such that $R_k \neq \emptyset$ and let $j$ be the largest element of $R_k$. Define $R'$ such that $R_i = R'_i$ whenever $i \neq k$ and $R'_k = R_k \setminus \{j\}$. Then $e_{\mathcal{R}} = e_{\mathcal{R}'}$. Let $\Omega'$ be the set of all words over $\mathcal{B}$ with content $(n_1, n_2, \ldots, n_{k-1}, n_k - 1, n_{k+1}, \ldots, n_m)$. Let $\pi: \Omega \to \Omega'$ denote the mapping which erases the $j^{th}$ copy of $b_k$ from a word. We claim that $\pi$ restricts to a bijection $\pi: e_{\mathcal{R}}\Omega \to e_{\mathcal{R}'}\Omega'$. This will complete the proof by applying induction to $e_{\mathcal{R}'}$ because $|R'_k| = |R_k| - 1$ and hence $(n_k - 1) - |R'_k| = n_k - |R_k|.$

First observe that if $b \neq b_k$, then $\pi\partial_{b_i} = \partial_{b_i}\pi$ because copies of $b$ can always move past copies of $b_k$. Also, if $i < j$, then $\pi\partial_{b_{k-i}} = \partial_{b_{k-i}}\pi$ because $\partial_{b_{k-i}}$ only changes the prefix of a word preceding the $j^{th}$ copy of $b_k$. Finally, $\pi\partial_{b_{k,j}} = \pi$. Thus we have $\pi e_{\mathcal{R}} = \pi e_{\mathcal{R}'} = e_{\mathcal{R}'}\pi$ and hence $\pi(e_{\mathcal{R}}(w)) = e_{\mathcal{R}'}\pi(w)$ for all $w \in \Omega$. Therefore, $\pi(e_{\mathcal{R}}\Omega) \subseteq e_{\mathcal{R}'}\Omega'$. To complete the proof it is convenient to note that $e_{\mathcal{R}}\Omega \subseteq \partial_{b_{k,j}}\Omega$.

There are two cases. Suppose first that $j > 1$. Then the fixed points of $\partial_{b_{k,j}}$ are those words where the $j^{th}$ copy of $b_k$ is immediately after the $(j - 1)^{st}$ copy of $b_k$. So define $\rho: \Omega' \to \Omega$ to be the map inserting a $b_k$ immediately after the $(j - 1)^{st}$ copy of $b_k$. Trivially,
\( \pi \rho = 1_{\Omega'} \) and if \( w \in \partial_{b_{1,j}} \Omega \), then \( \rho \pi(w) = w \). Thus to show that \( \pi: e_{R'} \rightarrow e_{R'} \Omega' \) is a bijection, it remains to show that \( \rho(e_{R'} \Omega') \subseteq e_{R'} \Omega \).

Recalling that \( \pi e_{R'} \rho = e_{R'} \pi \rho = e_{R'} \), it follows that if \( u \in e_{R'} \Omega' \), then \( \pi(e_{R'}(\rho(u))) = u = \pi(\rho(u)) \). Thus \( e_{R'}(\rho(u)) \) can differ from \( \rho(u) \) only in the position of the \( j^{th} \) copy of \( b_{k} \). But in both of these words the \( j^{th} \) copy of \( b_{k} \) is immediately after the \((j - 1)^{st} \) copy of \( b_{k} \). Thus \( \rho(u) = e_{R'}(\rho(u)) \) and so \( \rho : e_{R'} \Omega' \rightarrow e_{R'} \Omega \) is inverse to \( \pi : e_{R'} \Omega \rightarrow e_{R'} \Omega' \).

For the case \( j = 1 \), observe that the fixed point set of \( \partial_{b_{1,j}} \) consists of those words beginning with \( b_{k} \). So this time, let \( \rho : \Omega' \rightarrow \Omega \) be the mapping inserting \( b_{k} \) at the beginning of a word. Then again \( \pi \rho = 1_{\Omega'} \) and if \( w \in \partial_{b_{1,j}} \Omega \), then \( \rho \pi(w) = w \). As before, it just remains to show that \( \rho(e_{R'} \Omega') \subseteq e_{R'} \Omega \). The same argument as the previous case shows that if \( u \in e_{R'} \Omega' \), then \( \pi(e_{R'}(\rho(u))) = u = \pi(\rho(u)) \). Thus \( e_{R'}(\rho(u)) \) can differ from \( \rho(u) \) only in the position of the \( 1^{st} \) copy of \( b_{k} \). But both of these words have the \( 1^{st} \) copy of \( b_{k} \) as their first symbol. Thus \( \rho(u) = e_{R'}(\rho(u)) \), completing the proof.

Applying Theorem 4.2 and recalling the isomorphism between \( P(X_{T}) \) and \( \Lambda(FT(X_{T})) \) ordered by reverse inclusion, there is an eigenvalue \( \lambda_{R} \) corresponding to each subset \( R \subseteq X_{T} \) given by \( \lambda_{R} = \sum_{\partial b_{i,j} \in R} x_{b_{i,j}} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} x_{b_{i,R_{i}}} \). Let us continue to put \( r_{i} = |R_{i}| \). The multiplicity of this eigenvalue according to Theorem 4.2 is

\[
\begin{align*}
    m_{R} &= \sum_{R \subseteq U} (-1)^{|U| - |R|} |e_{U} \Omega| \\
    &= \sum_{R \subseteq \Omega} (-1)^{|R| - 1} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (n_{1} - |U_{1}|, \ldots, n_{m} - |U_{m}|)! \\
    &= \sum_{\mathcal{S} \subseteq ([n_{1}] \backslash \{R_{1}, \ldots, R_{m}\} \backslash \{R_{m}\})} (-1)^{| \mathcal{S} | \sum_{i=1}^{m} (n_{1} - r_{1} - |S_{1}|, \ldots, n_{m} - r_{m} - |S_{m}|)! \\
    &= d_{(n_{1} - |\mathcal{R}_{1}|, \ldots, n_{m} - |\mathcal{R}_{m}|)},
\end{align*}
\]

where the penultimate equality reindexes the sum by setting \( S_{i} = U_{i} \backslash R_{i} \) and the final equality is from Lemma 6.14.

**Proof of Theorem 6.7.** By Theorem 6.12 we know that the monoid \( M_{X_{T}} \) for the interlibrary loan Toom model is a tree monoid and \( \mathcal{R} \)-trivial. Hence as before, the lattice of idempotent-generated left ideals is the full Boolean lattice by Proposition 5.11 and we can apply Theorem 4.2. We compute the number of fixed points.
Lemma 6.15. If $\bar{R} \subset [L]^m$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{m} \min(R_i) < L + m$, the number of
fixed points of $e_{\bar{R}}$
\begin{equation}
|e_{\bar{R}}\Omega| = \sum_{\vec{n} \in I(\bar{R})} (\vec{n} - \vec{f}(\bar{R}, \vec{n}))!,
\end{equation}
where $I(\bar{R})$ consists of those $\vec{n} \in \mathbb{N}^m$ such that $\|\vec{n}\|_1 = L$, $n_i \neq 0$ if $1 \in R_i$, and there is at most one $i \in \{1, \ldots, m\}$ with $n_i + 1 \in R_i$.
Furthermore, $\vec{f}(\bar{R}, \vec{n})$ is the $m$-dimensional vector with
\[ f_i(\bar{R}, \vec{n}) = |\{r \in R_i \mid n_i \geq r - 1\}|. \]
Otherwise, $|e_{\bar{R}}\Omega| = 1$.

Proof. We proceed in a similar fashion to the proof of (6.10). When $R = \emptyset$, then as before $e_{\bar{R}}$ is the identity and $e_{\bar{R}}\Omega = \Omega$ which is of dimension $m^L$. In this case (6.11) reads
\[ m^L = \sum_{\{\vec{n} \in \mathbb{N}^m \mid \|\vec{n}\|_1 = L\}} |\vec{n}|! \]
which is true.

Note that for a fixed point the letter $b_i$ needs to be in positions 1 up to $\min(R_1) - 1$, the letter $b_2$ in positions $\min(R_1)$ to $\min(R_1) + \min(R_2) - 2$, etc.. Hence if $\sum_{i=1}^{m} (\min(R_i) - 1) \geq L$, there is certainly only one fixed point. A similar argument holds if $R_i = [L]$ for some $1 \leq i \leq m$.

Hence assume now that $|R| \geq 1$ with $\bar{R} \subset [L]^m$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{m} \min(R_i) < L + m$. As before let $k$ be minimal such that $R_k \neq \emptyset$ and let $r$ be the largest element in $R_k$. Define $\bar{R}'$ such that $R_i' = R_i$ for all $i \neq k$ and $R_k' = R_k \setminus \{r\}$, so that $e_{\bar{R}} = \partial_{b_k} e_{\bar{R}}$. We are going to decompose our space into a disjoint union
\[ \Omega = \bigcup_{\{\vec{n} \in \mathbb{N}^m \mid \|\vec{n}\|_1 = L\}} \Omega_{\vec{n}}, \]
where $\Omega_{\vec{n}} \subseteq \Omega$ is the subspace of words of content $\vec{n}$.

First note that for $r = 1$ and $n_k = 0$, we have $e_{\bar{R}}\Omega_{\vec{n}} = \emptyset$ since $\partial_{b_k,1}$ will move a book $b_k$ to the first position because $n_k = 0$. But then no element in $\Omega_{\vec{n}}$ can be a fixed point. This gives rise to the condition $n_k \neq 0$ if $1 \in R_k$ in (6.11).

Hence let us assume from now on that $n_k > 0$ whenever $r = 1$. Let us define the map
\[ \pi : \Omega_{\vec{n}} \to \Omega_{\vec{n}}', \]
where $\Omega_{\vec{n}}' = \Omega_{\vec{n}} - e_k$ if $n_k \geq r - 1$ and $\Omega_{\vec{n}}' = \Omega_{\vec{n}}$ if $n_k < r - 1$ as follows (here $e_k$ is the $k$th standard unit vector). If $n_k < r - 1$, then $\pi$ is the identity map. If $n_k \geq r$, $\pi$ erases the $r$th copy of $b_k$. If $n_k = r - 1$, then $\pi$ erases the $(r - 1)^{st}$ copy of $b_k$ (recall that we excluded the case
It is not hard to check that then \( \pi e_\vec{R} = e_\vec{R} \pi \) as before. Note that
\[
\vec{f}(\vec{R}', \vec{n}) = \vec{f}(\vec{R}, \vec{n}) \quad \text{if } n_k < r - 1
\]
and
\[
\vec{f}(\vec{R}', \vec{n} - \vec{e}_k) = \vec{f}(\vec{R}, \vec{n}) - 1 \quad \text{if } n_k \geq r - 1.
\]
Now define \( \rho: \Omega_\vec{R}^I \to \Omega_\vec{R} \) as \( \rho = \text{id} \) if \( n_k < r - 1 \). If \( n_k \geq r \), then \( \rho \) adds the letter \( b^k \) right after the \((r - 1)\)th letter \( b_k \). If \( n_k = r - 1 \), then we have that \( \rho \) is the inverse of \( \pi: e_\vec{R} \Omega_\vec{R} \to e_\vec{R} \Omega_\vec{R}' \).

As in the proof of Theorem 6.2 we are going to apply Theorem 4.2 to find the multiplicity \( m_\vec{R} \) for each eigenvalue \( \lambda_\vec{R} \). First suppose that there exists at least one index \( 1 \leq i \leq m \) such that \( R_i = [L] \). In this case
\[
m_\vec{R} = \sum_{\vec{R} \subseteq \vec{U}} (-1)^{\|\vec{U}\|_1 - \|\vec{R}\|_1} |e_\vec{U} \Omega| = \sum_{\vec{R} \subseteq \vec{U}} (-1)^{\|\vec{U}\|_1 - \|\vec{R}\|_1} 1 = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \vec{R} = [L]^m, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise}, \end{cases}
\]
as desired.

Now let \( \vec{R} \) be such that \( R_i \not\subset [L] \) for all \( 1 \leq i \leq m \). Then
\[(6.12) \quad m_\vec{R} = \sum_{\vec{R} \subseteq \vec{U}} (-1)^{\|\vec{U}\|_1 - \|\vec{R}\|_1} |e_\vec{U} \Omega| \]
with \( |e_\vec{U} \Omega| \) as in Lemma 6.15.

7. Nonabelian directed sandpile model

In this section we briefly show that the monoid associated to the landslide nonabelian sandpile model introduced in [ASST13] can be shown to be \( \mathcal{A} \)-trivial using the free tree monoid technique of Section 5. In [ASST13] this property was proved using the wreath product.

7.1. The landslide nonabelian directed sandpile model. The landslide nonabelian directed sandpile model is defined on an arborescence. An arborescence is a directed graph with a special vertex being the root such that there is exactly one directed path from any vertex to the root. Vertices without an incoming edge are called the leaves. Let \( V \) be the set of all vertices of the arborescence. We associate to
each vertex $v \in V$ a threshold $T_v$. Then the state space of the Markov chain is defined to be

$$\Omega = \{ (t_v)_{v \in V} \mid 0 \leq t_v \leq T_v \}.$$  

There are two types of operators on the state space (which are the generators of the underlying monoid), the source and topple operators. In words, for the source operators $\sigma_v$ for $v \in V$, a grain enters at $v$ and will stay in the first available vertex on its unique path from $v$ to the root. The topple operators $\tau_v$ are defined for any vertex $v \in V$, take all grains at vertex $v$ and topple them to the first available slots along the unique path from $v$ to the root. (It is possible to restrict the source operators to be only defined on leaves instead of all vertices).

Letting $s(v)$ be the unique successor of the vertex $v$ in the arborescence, we can write these operators recursively by picking one leaf $\ell$ and writing any configuration as $(t_\ell, t)$, where $t_\ell$ is the number of grains at $\ell$ and $t$ is the state on the remaining vertices. Then we have

$$\sigma_\ell(t_\ell, t) = \begin{cases} (t_\ell + 1, t) & \text{if } t_\ell < T_\ell \\ (T_\ell, \sigma_{s(\ell)}t) & \text{if } t_\ell = T_\ell \end{cases}$$

$$\sigma_v(t_\ell, t) = (t_\ell, \sigma_v t)$$

$$\tau_\ell(t_\ell, t) = (0, \sigma_{s(\ell)} t)$$

$$\tau_v(t_\ell, t) = (t_\ell, \tau_v t)$$

(7.1)

For more details, see [ASST13].

### 7.2. \(R\)-triviality of the landslide directed sandpile model

We begin with a lemma which enables us to use the generalization of the free tree monoid of Section 5.2 to prove \(R\)-triviality. Let $X_\tau$ be the set of generators of the landslide nonabelian directed sandpile model.

**Lemma 7.1.** We claim that any two operators $x$ and $y$ in $X_\tau$ commute, except when $y = \tau_u$ and $x = \tau_v$ or $x = \partial_v$ for two nodes $u$ and $v$ with $u$ on the path from the root to $v$. When $x$ and $y$ do not commute, $y$ is an idempotent, and $yxy = yx$.

**Proof.** We first check that any two operators $\partial_u$ and $\partial_v$ commute. This is obvious if $u = v$. Otherwise, let $w$ be the confluence point of the two branches holding $u$ and $v$. Without loss of generality, we may assume that $u \neq w$ and take $u_1$ the successor of $u$, which is closer to $w$. Then, applying induction and the recursion formula (7.1) (see also [ASST13, Table 1]) we obtain, depending on whether $t_v < T_v$

$$\partial_u \circ \partial_v (t_v, t) = \partial_u (t_v + 1, t) = (t_v + 1, \partial_u t) = \partial_v (t_v, \partial_u t) = \partial_v \circ \partial_u (t_v, t)$$
or \( t_v = T_v \)

\[
\partial_u \circ \partial_v(T_v, t) = \partial_u(T_v, \partial_s(v)(t)) = (T_v, \partial_u \circ \partial_s(v)(t)) = (T_v, \partial_v(T_v, \partial_u(t))) = \partial_v(\partial_u(T_v, t)).
\]

The other commutation relations are treated similarly.

In the remaining case, \( y = \tau_u \) is idempotent as desired, and the relation is checked similarly.

\[\square\]

**Theorem 7.2.** The monoid \( M = \langle \partial_v, \tau_v \mid v \in V \rangle \) of the landslide directed sandpile model is \( \mathcal{R} \)-trivial.

**Proof.** We choose the following total order on the elements of the generators in \( X_\mathcal{R} \) such that for the nodes \( u, v \) of the tree, \( \tau_v <_X \tau_u \) and \( \partial_v <_X \tau_u \) whenever \( u \) is in the path from the root to \( v \) (where \( v = u \) is allowed in the second case). Then Lemma 7.1 asserts that the hypotheses of Proposition 5.14 are satisfied. Therefore the monoid \( M \) is \( \mathcal{R} \)-trivial.

\[\square\]

**8. The exchange walk on a Coxeter group**

This section requires the reader to be familiar with basic notions from the theory of finite Coxeter groups. Standard references include \cite{AB08, BB05}.

Let \( (W, S) \) be a finite Coxeter system. Let \( R(w) \) denote the set of reduced expressions of an element \( w \) of \( W \). If \( w_0 \) is the longest element of \( W \), then \( R(w_0) \) can be viewed as the set of maximal chains in the weak order on \( W \). Let us denote words over \( S \) by Greek letters in what follows and write \( [\alpha]_M \) for the image of \( \alpha \in S^* \) in an \( S \)-generated monoid \( M \). Let \( s \in S \) and let \( \alpha = s_1 \cdots s_n \) be a reduced decomposition of \( w_0 \). Then by the exchange condition, there is a unique index \( i \) such that \( e_s(\alpha) = ss_1 \cdots \hat{s}_i \cdots s_n \) is a reduced decomposition of \( w_0 \). For example, if \( W = (\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^n \) with \( S \) the standard unit vectors, then \( w_0 \) is the all-ones vector and the reduced decompositions of \( w_0 \) are all linear orderings of \( S \) (written as words). Then \( e_s \) moves \( s \) to the front of a linear ordering of \( S \).

Consider a probability \( P \) on \( S \) and consider the following Markov chain, which we call the exchange walk on \( (W, S) \). The state set is \( R(w_0) \). Transitions are given by changing from state \( \alpha \) to state \( e_s(\alpha) \) with probability \( P(s) \). For the example above of \( (\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^n \) we recover the Tsetlin library. The main goal of this section is to use the theory of \( \mathcal{R} \)-trivial Markov chains developed in this paper to prove properties of the exchange chain on \( (W, S) \).
To state our main result of this section, we need some notation. Let $W_J = \langle J \rangle$ be the standard parabolic subgroup associated to $J \subseteq S$. Let $D_R(w) = \{ s \in S \mid \ell(ws) < \ell(w) \}$ be the set of right descents of $w \in W$. Let $w_J$ denote the longest element of $W_J$; note that $w_J$ is an involution and $w_S = w_0$. Our result is the following.

**Theorem 8.1.** Let $(W,S)$ be a finite Coxeter system and let $P$ be a probability on $S$ with support $S$. Let $T$ be the transition matrix of the exchange chain on $(W,S)$. Then the exchange chain is ergodic and the following hold.

1. The eigenvalues of $T$ are $\lambda_J = \sum_{s \in J} P(s)$, where $J \subseteq S$.

2. The multiplicity of $\lambda_J$ as an eigenvalue is given by

$$\sum_{K \supseteq J} (-1)^{|K|-|J|} \cdot |R(w_Jw_0)|.$$

3. The stationary distribution $\pi$ is given as follows: if $\alpha = s_1 \cdots s_n$ is a reduced decomposition of $w_0$, then

$$\pi(\alpha) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(s_i) \frac{1}{1 - \lambda D_R([s_1 \cdots s_{i-1}]W)}.$$

To prove Theorem 8.1 we introduce an $S$-trivial monoid $R(W,S)$, which is the Karnofsky–Rhodes expansion of the 0-Hecke monoid $H(W,S)$. First we recall that notion of the 0-Hecke monoid. Details can be found in [Car86,Nor79,DHST11,Den11,Fay05,MS12b].

The 0-Hecke monoid $H(W,S)$ is the monoid generated by $S$ and whose defining relations are the same commutation and braid relations as those of $W$, but the quadratic relation $s^2 = 1$ is replaced by $s^2 = s$ for $s \in S$. It follows from Tits’s solution to the word problem for Coxeter groups that the reduced expressions for $H(W,S)$ and $W$ are the same and that two reduced expressions are equivalent in $W$ if and only if they are equivalent in $H(W,S)$. Thus the elements of $W$ are in bijection with the elements of $H(W,S)$ via the map that sends $w \in W$ to the unique element $\pi_w$ of $H(W,S)$ that has the same reduced decompositions as $w$. Moreover, the idempotents of $H(W,S)$ are the elements $e_J = \pi_{w_J}$ with $J \subseteq S$. The monoid $H(W,S)$ is both $S$- and $T$-trivial (and hence $\mathcal{J}$-trivial). Also $\Lambda(H(W,S))$ is isomorphic to $P(S)$ (ordered by
reverse inclusion) via \( H(W, S)e_J \mapsto J \). For \( w \in W \) and \( s \in S \), one has \( s \in D_R(w) \) if and only if \( \pi_w s = \pi_w \).

We define \( R(W, S) \) here directly (the reader can refer to \[El99\] for the Karnosfky–Rhodes expansion and its properties in general). Let

\[
R = \bigcup_{w \in W} R(w).
\]

Define \( R(W, S) \) to be the monoid with generators \( S \) and relations \( \alpha s = \alpha \) whenever \( \alpha \in R \) and \( s \in D_R([\alpha]_W) \) (or equivalently, whenever \( [\alpha s]_{H(W, S)} = [\alpha]_{H(W, S)} \)). Notice that we have a natural surjective homomorphism \( \psi : R(W, S) \to H(W, S) \) because \( H(W, S) \) satisfies these relations. Consider the rewriting system \( \mathcal{R} \) with rules \( \alpha s \to \alpha \) whenever \( \alpha \) is a reduced expression for \( W \) and \( s \in S \) with \( [\alpha s]_{H(W, S)} = [\alpha]_{H(W, S)} \). This rewriting system is length-reducing and defines \( R(W, S) \). We claim that it is complete.

First note that any word \( \alpha \in S^* \) can be rewritten using \( \mathcal{R} \) to a reduced expression for \( W \) by scanning from left to right and erasing right descents as they occur (this uses that in a Coxeter group \( s \notin D_R(w) \) implies that \( \ell(ws) = \ell(w) + 1 \)). Also note that reduced words (in the Coxeter sense) cannot be rewritten since the left hand side of each rule of \( \mathcal{R} \) is not reduced for \( W \) and factors of reduced words are reduced. Next, observe that any overlap of two rules is of the form \( \alpha \beta s \gamma s' \) where \( s, s' \in S, \alpha \beta \) and \( \beta \gamma \) in \( S^* \) are reduced for \( W \) and \( [\alpha \beta s \gamma s']_{H(W, S)} = [\alpha \beta]_{H(W, S)} \) and \( [\beta s \gamma s']_{H(W, S)} = [\beta s \gamma]_{H(W, S)} \). As observed at the beginning of this paragraph, there is a word \( \rho \in S^* \) reduced for \( W \) such that \( \alpha \beta \gamma \to \rho \). Also, we have

\[
[\rho s']_{H(W, S)} = [\alpha \beta \gamma s']_{H(W, S)} = [\alpha \beta s \gamma s']_{H(W, S)} = [\alpha \beta s \gamma]_{H(W, S)} = [\alpha \beta \gamma]_{H(W, S)} = [\rho]_{H(W, S)}
\]

and so \( \rho s' \to \rho \) belongs to \( \mathcal{R} \). Therefore,

\[
\rho \mathcal{R} \to \rho s' \mathcal{R} \rightleftharpoons \alpha \beta \gamma s' \mathcal{R} \rightleftharpoons \alpha \beta s \gamma s' \mathcal{R} \to \alpha \beta s \gamma \mathcal{R} \to \alpha \beta \gamma \mathcal{R} \to \rho \mathcal{R} \rho.
\]

It follows that \( \mathcal{R} \) is confluent. We conclude that \( R \) is the set of reduced words for \( \mathcal{R} \) and so we can identify \( R(W, S) \) with \( R \) where the product is given by concatenation followed by scanning from left to right, removing descents. Moreover, since all the rewriting rules of \( \mathcal{R} \) are of the form \( \alpha s = \alpha \) with \( \alpha \) reduced, it follows the right Cayley digraph of \( R(W, S) \) is the prefix tree of \( R \) and so \( R(W, S) \) is \( A \)-trivial and Karnofsky-Rhodes. Also \( \alpha s = \alpha \) if and only if \( s \in D_R([\alpha]_W) \) for \( \alpha \in R \).

If \( s \in D_R([\alpha]_W) \), then \( s \) appears in \( \alpha \) by standard Coxeter theory and so both sides of each rule \( \alpha s \to \alpha \) of \( A \) have the same letters. Thus the
projection $S^* \to P(S)$ (where the latter is made a monoid with union) given by $s \mapsto \{s\}$ factors through $R(W,S)$. The same argument as in the proof of Proposition 5.11 shows that $\Lambda(R(W,S))$ is isomorphic to $P(S)$ ordered by reverse inclusion and, moreover, that $c(\alpha)$ is the set of letters in $\alpha$ and $d(\alpha) = D_R([\alpha]_W)$ under the identification of $\Lambda(R(W,S))$ with $P(S)$. Here $c$ and $d$ are the content and descent maps from Section 4.1. The minimal ideal of $R(W,S)$ is $R(w_0)$ and the action of $S$ on the left of it is via the operators $e_s$ described above. The proof of Theorem 8.1 is now straightforward from Corollary 4.13.

The multiplicities follow by observing that if we fix $\alpha, J \in R(w_J)$ for each $J \subseteq S$, then $\alpha, J \cdot R(w_0)$ consists of all reduced expressions of $w_0$ the form $\alpha_J \beta$ where $\beta$ is a reduced decomposition of the shortest element of the right coset $W_J w_0$, which is precisely $w_J^{-1} w_0 = w_J w_0$.

Remark 8.2. It is clear that a word in $S$ acts on $R(w_0)$ as a constant map if it represents the zero element of $H(W,S)$ (which is the longest element). So if we wish to apply the results of Section 4.6 to bound the mixing time, then we need to compute the expected absorption time for the random walk on $H(W,S)$ driven by $P$ into the longest element.

For example, if $W = (\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^n$ with the standard basis $S$, then $H(W,S)$ is the power set of $S$ under union. The random walk on $H(W,S)$ driven by $P$ is exactly the coupon collector chain.

If $W = S_n$ is the symmetric group with the adjacent transpositions as the generating set $S$, then $H(W,S)$ can be identified with the monoid generated by the bubble sort operators $t_1, \ldots, t_{n-1}$. The operator $t_i$ on permutations switches the $i, i+1$ positions if they are out of order and otherwise leaves them alone. The expected absorption time for the $H(W,S)$-walk is then the expected number of random bubble sort operations needs to sort the list $(n, n-1, \ldots, 1)$. We conjecture this should be $O(n^2 \log n)$.

In general, if $m$ is the length of the longest word of $(W,S)$, then we conjecture that the mixing time of the exchange walk or $R(w_0)$ is $O(m \log m)$.

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