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EVALUATION OF CERTAIN PROBABILITIES  
ASSOCIATED WITH A CLASS OF MARKOV CHAINS

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20. ABSTRACT (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number)  Two formulae are derived for ratios of limiting probabilities for a class of finite homogeneous Markov chains. The class consists of chains obtained by a generalization of Bernoulli random walk with reflecting or absorbing barriers. These chains are closely related to problems of testing hypotheses with finite memory. The formulae are recursive in nature and hence much easier to use than classical methods.		

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Two formulae are derived for ratios of limiting probabilities for a class of finite homogeneous Markov chains. The class consists of chains obtained by generalization of Bernoulli random walk with reflecting or absorbing barriers. These chains are closely related to problems of testing hypotheses with finite memory. The formulae are recursive in nature and hence much easier to use than classical methods.

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## 1. Introduction.

In this report we propose a method for recursive evaluation of certain probabilities associated with two classes of finite homogeneous Markov chains. These chains are next of kin to Bernoulli random walks with reflecting and absorbing barriers. They may be roughly characterized by the following four properties:

- (1) Except for the barrier states, (one-step) transitions from each state can be made to exactly two other states.
- (2) The states are divided into two subsets,  $S_a$  and  $S_b$ , plus an initial state in the absorbing case. States<sup>a</sup> in  $S_a$  communicate with states in  $S_b$  only via a pair of states, one<sup>a</sup> in each subset.
- (3) Except for the absorbing states, the probability of transition among states in  $S_a$  and among states in  $S_b$  has only two values,  $p_a$ ,  $1 - p_a$  and  $p_b$ ,  $1 - p_b$  respectively.
- (4) If states in each of the two subsets are ordered such that the transitions with probability  $p$  are all between adjacent states in one direction then the transitions with probability  $1 - p$  are all in the opposite direction, but not necessarily to the adjacent state.

A glance at Figures 1 and 3 may help to reveal the structure of a typical member of those two classes.

We are interested in the ratio of limiting probabilities of a chain being in the subset  $S_a$  and the subset  $S_b$ . In sections 2 and 3 we present a recursive formulae for evaluating these probabilities. Subsequent examples show that the computation is considerably simpler than the classical method of solving systems of linear equations. Our method involves nothing but repeated substitution and is easy to perform and program even for a large number of states.

The need for studying these ratios arises in problems connected with finite automata with binary inputs and outputs driven by a Bernoulli sequence. These, in turn, appear in the so-called finite memory problems

(References [1] through [4]), which are currently receiving considerable attention in literature.

The reason for writing this report is twofold. First since the proofs of our formulae (Sections 4 and 5) are basically algebraic and thus rather long it is usually necessary to condense the proof when the formula is used as a lemma. Hence we wanted to have the proof documented in full detail for reference. Next, it is conceivable that Markov chains of the type studied here may be encountered in various stochastic models. Hence, the second purpose of this report is to provide an access to our results to other workers in the general area of stochastic modelling.

To this we would like to add that the two formulae can probably be generalized in several directions. For instance, inspection of the proofs indicate that the same method could still be used to establish similar formulae for a larger class of chains, namely without the property (3) above.

The part on ergodic chains (Sections 2 and 4) and the part on absorbing chains (Sections 3 and 5) can be read independently.

## 2. Ergodic Chains.

Let  $\underline{r}_a = \{r_a(2), r_a(3), \dots\}$  and  $\underline{r}_b = \{r_b(2), r_b(3), \dots\}$  be two sequences of positive integers such that  $1 \leq r_a(i) < i$ ,  $1 \leq r_b(i) < i$ ,  $i = 2, 3, \dots$ . With each such pair  $(\underline{r}_a, \underline{r}_b)$  we associate a class

$$E(\underline{r}_a, \underline{r}_b) = \{M_{n,m} : n=1, 2, \dots ; m=1, 2, \dots\}$$

of finite ergodic Markov chains. The chain  $M_{n,m}$  has  $n + m$  states which are divided into two subsets  $S_a$  and  $S_b$  with  $n$  and  $m$  states respectively.

We label the states in  $S_a$  by  $(i, a)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , and the states in  $S_b$  by  $(i, b)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, m$ . The transition probabilities are as follows:

$$P((i, a) \rightarrow (i+1, a)) = p_a, \quad i = 1, \dots, n-1,$$

$$P((n, a) \rightarrow (m, b)) = p_a,$$

$$P((i, b) \rightarrow (i+1, b)) = p_b, \quad i = 1, \dots, m-1,$$

$$P((m, b) \rightarrow (n, a)) = p_b,$$

$$P((i, a) \rightarrow (r_a(i), a)) = q_a, \quad i = 2, \dots, n,$$

$$P((1, a) \rightarrow (1, a)) = q_a,$$

$$P((i, b) \rightarrow (r_b(i), b)) = q_b, \quad i = 2, \dots, m,$$

$$P((1, b) \rightarrow (1, b)) = q_b.$$

Here  $0 < p_a < 1$ ,  $0 < p_b < 1$ ,  $q_a = 1 - p_a$ ,  $q_b = 1 - p_b$ . All other transition probabilities are zero. The transition diagram is depicted in Figure 1.

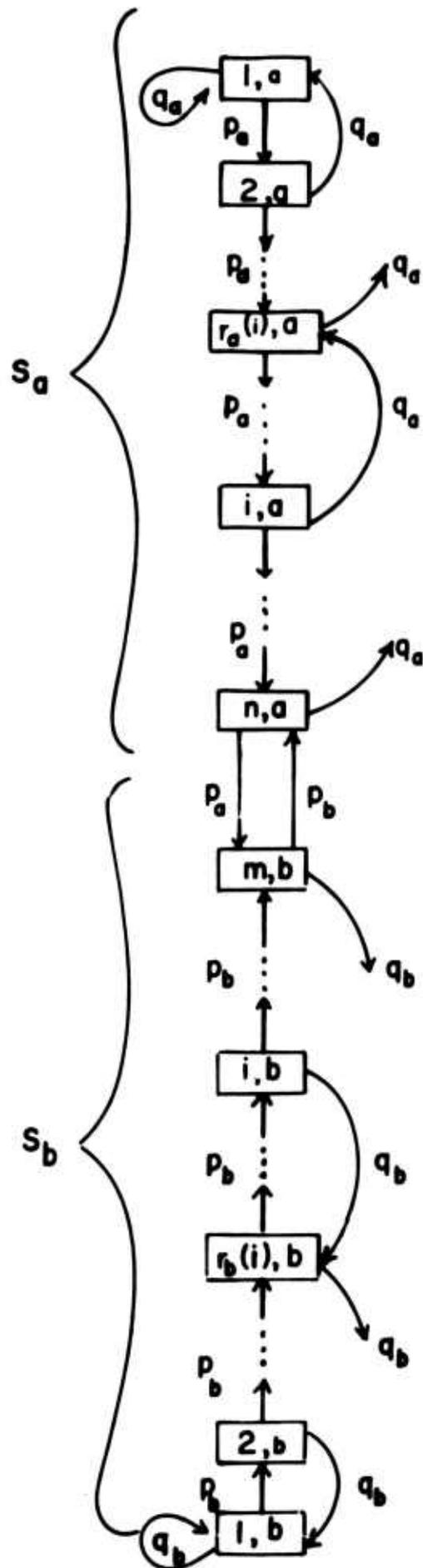


Figure 1

Proposition 1: Let  $M_{n,m} \in E(\underline{r}_a, \underline{r}_b)$ , let  $\mu(s)$ ,  $s \in S_a \cup S_b$  be its stationary distribution, let

$$\mu(S_a) = \sum_{s \in S_a} \mu(s) \quad \text{and} \quad \mu(S_b) = \sum_{s \in S_b} \mu(s)$$

be the stationary probabilities of the chain being in  $S_a$  and  $S_b$  respectively. Then

$$\frac{\mu(S_a)}{\mu(S_b)} = \frac{p_b^m}{p_a^n} \frac{A_n}{B_m}, \quad (2.1)$$

where  $A_n$  and  $B_m$  are polynomials in  $p_a$  and  $p_b$  respectively satisfying the recurrence relations

$$A_{n+1} = p_a^n + q_a \sum_{\ell=r_a(n+1)}^n A_\ell p_a^{n-\ell}, \quad A_1 = 1, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots, \quad (2.2)$$

$$B_{m+1} = p_b^m + q_b \sum_{\ell=r_b(m+1)}^m B_\ell p_b^{m-\ell}, \quad B_1 = 1, \quad m = 1, 2, \dots \quad (2.3)$$

Hence, both  $A_n$  and  $B_m$  have integral coefficients and are of degree less than  $n$  and  $m$ , respectively.

(For the proof see Section 4.)

Example 1: Let  $(\underline{r}_a, \underline{r}_b)$  be given by the following table

$i$	$r_a(i)$	$r_b(i)$
2	1	1
3	1	1
4	2	3
5	.	3
6	.	.

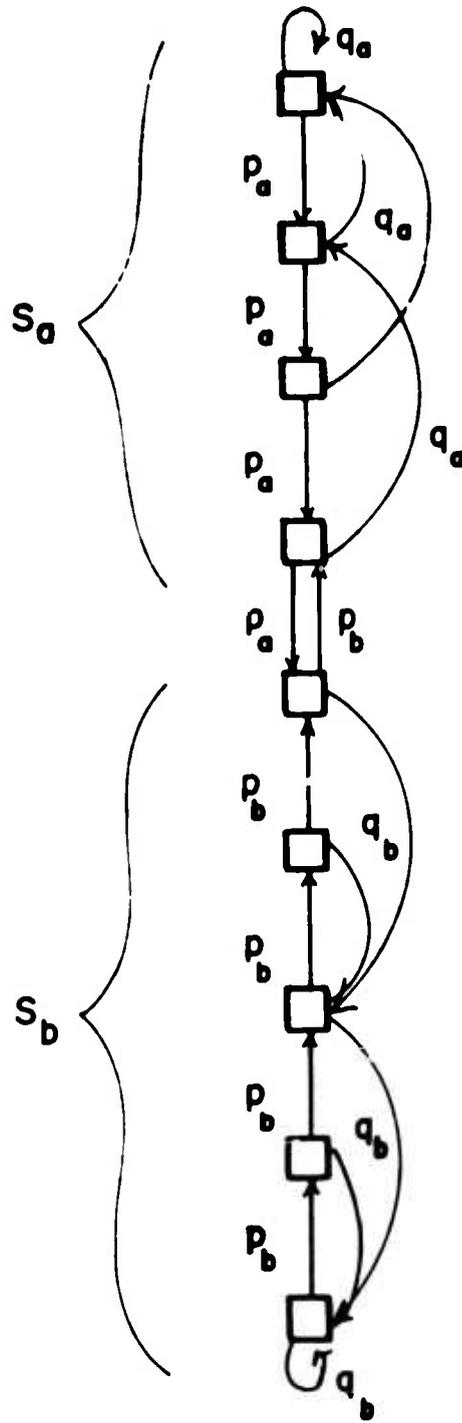


Figure 2

let  $n = 4$ ,  $m = 5$ . The transition diagram of this 9-state chain is in Figure 3.

First evaluate  $A_4$  and  $B_5$ . From (2.2) we have

$$A_4 = p_a^3 + q_a(A_2 p_a^{3-2} + A_3 p_a^{3-3}) ,$$

$$A_3 = p_a^2 + q_a A_1 p_a^{2-1} + q_a A_2 p_a^{2-2} ,$$

$$A_2 = p_a + q_a A_1 p_a^{1-1} ,$$

$$A_1 = 1 ,$$

and substituting from the bottom to the top gives

$$A_1 = 1 ,$$

$$A_2 = p_a + q_a = 1 ,$$

$$A_3 = p_a^2 + q_a p_a + q_a ,$$

$$A_4 = p_a^3 + q_a p_a + q_a p_a^2 + q_a^2 p_a + q_a^2 ,$$

or by substituting  $q_a = 1 - p_a$

$$A_4 = p_a^3 - p_a^2 + 1 .$$

Similarly from (2.3)

$$B_5 = p_b^4 + q_b(B_3 p_b^{4-3} + B_4 p_b^{4-4}) ,$$

$$B_4 = p_b^3 + q_b B_3 p_b^{3-3} ,$$

$$B_3 = p_b^2 + q_b(B_1 p_b^{2-1} + B_2 p_b^{2-2}) ,$$

$$B_2 = p_b + q_b B_1 p_b^{1-1} ,$$

$$B_1 = 1 ,$$

and again substituting

$$B_1 = 1 ,$$

$$B_2 = p_b + q_b = 1 ,$$

$$B_3 = p_b^2 + q_b p_b + q_b ,$$

$$B_4 = p_b^3 + q_b p_b^2 + q_b^2 p_b + q_b^2 ,$$

$$B_5 = p_b^4 + q_b p_b^3 + q_b^2 p_b^2 + q_b^2 p_b \\ + q_b p_b^3 + q_b^2 p_b^2 + q_b^3 p_b + q_b^3 ,$$

or substituting for  $q_b = 1 - p_b$

$$B_5 = p_b^3 - p_b + 1 .$$

Hence, from (2.1)

$$\frac{\nu(S_a)}{\nu(S_b)} = \frac{p_b^5}{p_a^4} \frac{p_a^3 - p_a^2 + 1}{p_b^3 - p_b + 1} .$$

### 3. Absorbing Chains.

Let  $\underline{r}_a = \{r_a(1), r_a(2), \dots\}$  and  $\underline{r}_b = \{r_b(1), r_b(2), \dots\}$  be two sequences of nonnegative integers such that

$$0 \leq r_a(i) < 1, \quad 0 \leq r_b(i) < 1, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots$$

With each such a pair  $(\underline{r}_a, \underline{r}_b)$  we associate a class

$$\Lambda(\underline{r}_a, \underline{r}_b) = \{M_{n,m} : n=1, 2, \dots ; m=1, 2, \dots\}$$

of finite absorbing Markov chains. The chain  $M_{n,m}$  has  $n + m + 1$  states, two of them absorbing and the rest transient. One state is always designated as an initial state while the remaining  $n + m$  states are divided into two subsets  $S_a$  and  $S_b$  with  $n$  and  $m$  states respectively, each containing one of the two absorbing states.

We label the states in  $S_a$  by  $(i, a)$   $i = 1, \dots, n$  with  $(n, a)$  absorbing, and the states in  $S_b$  by  $(i, b)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, m$  with  $(m, b)$  absorbing. The initial state is labeled  $(0, a)$  or  $(0, b)$  or just  $0$  as needed.

The transition probabilities are as follows:

$$P((i, a) \rightarrow (i+1, a)) = p_a, \quad i = 1, \dots, n-1,$$

$$P((n, a) \rightarrow (n, a)) = 1,$$

$$P((i, b) \rightarrow (i+1, b)) = p_b, \quad i = 1, \dots, m-1,$$

$$P((m, b) \rightarrow (m, b)) = 1,$$

$$P((i, a) \rightarrow (r_a(i), a)) = q_a, \quad i = 1, \dots, n-1,$$

$$P((i, b) \rightarrow (r_b(i), b)) = q_b, \quad i = 1, \dots, m-1,$$

$$P(0 \rightarrow (1,a)) = \frac{p_a}{p_a + p_b},$$

$$P(0 \rightarrow (1,b)) = \frac{p_b}{p_a + p_b}.$$

Here  $0 < p_a < 1$ ,  $0 < p_b < 1$ ,  $q_a = 1 - p_a$ ,  $q_b = 1 - p_b$ . All other transition probabilities are zero. The transition diagram is depicted in Figure 2.

**Proposition:** Let  $M_{n,m} \in A(r_a, r_b)$ , let  $\pi(a)$  and  $\pi(b)$  be the probabilities of absorption in the state  $(n,a)$  and  $(m,b)$  respectively, if the initial state is the state 0. Then

$$\frac{\pi(a)}{\pi(b)} = \frac{p_a^n}{p_b^m} \frac{B_m}{A_n}, \quad (3.1)$$

where  $A_n$  and  $B_m$  are polynomials in  $p_a$  and  $p_b$  respectively satisfying the recurrence relations

$$A_{n+1} = 1 - q_a \sum_{k=2}^n A_{r_a(k)} p_a^{k-r_a(k)}, \quad A_0 = 0, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots, \quad (3.2)$$

$$B_{m+1} = 1 - q_b \sum_{k=2}^m B_{r_b(k)} p_b^{k-r_b(k)}, \quad B_0 = 0, \quad m = 1, 2, \dots \quad (3.3)$$

Hence both  $A_n$  and  $B_m$  have integral coefficients and are of degree less than  $n$  and  $m$  respectively.

(For the proof see Section 5.)

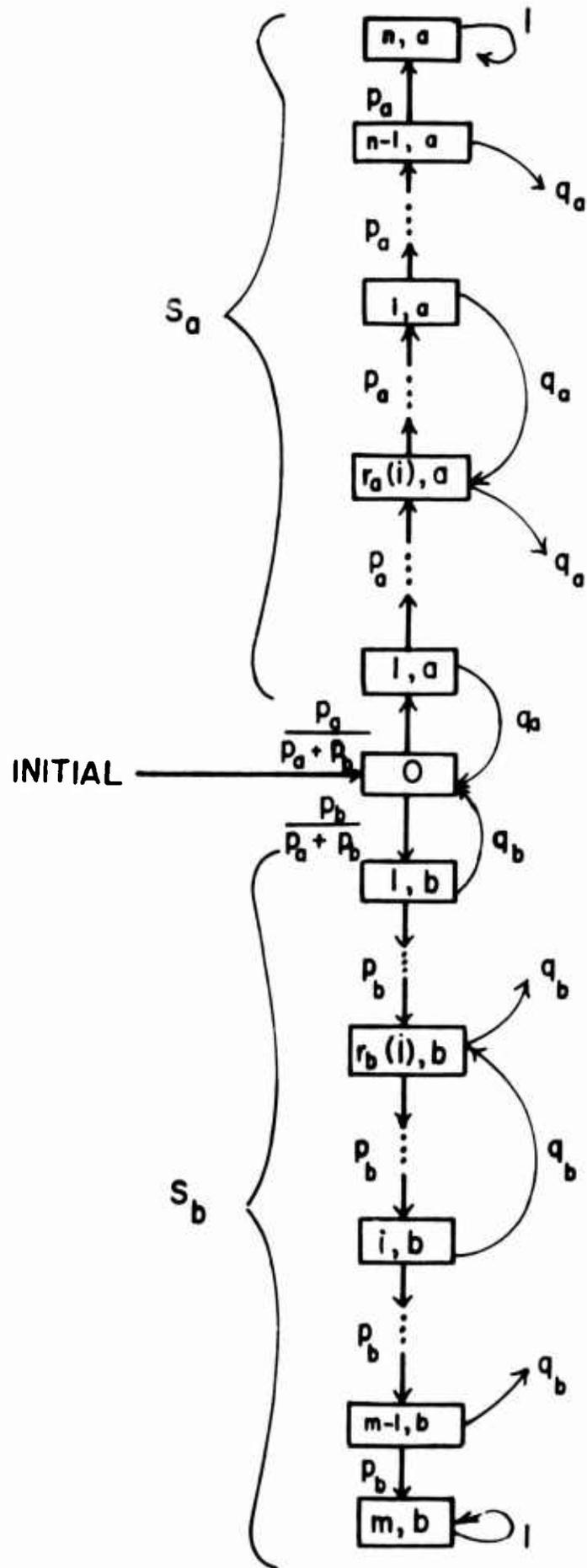


Figure 3

Example 2: Let  $(r_a, r_b)$  be given by the following table

$i$	$r_a(i)$	$r_b(i)$
1	0	0
2	1	1
3	1	1
4	2	3
5	.	3

let  $n = 4$ ,  $m = 5$ . The transition diagram of this 10-state chain is in Figure 4.

First evaluate  $A_4$  and  $B_5$ . From (3.2) we have

$$A_4 = 1 - q_a(A_1 p_a^{2-1} + A_1 p_a^{3-1}) ,$$

$$A_1 = 1 - q_a A_0 p_a^{2-0} ,$$

$$A_0 = 0 ,$$

and substituting from the bottom to the top

$$A_0 = 0 ,$$

$$A_1 = 1 ,$$

$$A_4 = 1 - q_a p_a - q_a p_a^2 ,$$

or substituting for  $q_a = 1 - p_a$

$$A_4 = p_a^3 - p_a + 1.$$

Similarly from (3.3)

$$B_5 = 1 - q_b(B_1 p_b^{2-1} + B_1 p_b^{3-1} + B_3 p_b^{4-1}) ,$$

$$B_3 = 1 - q_b B_1 p_b^{2-1} ,$$

$$B_1 = 1 ,$$

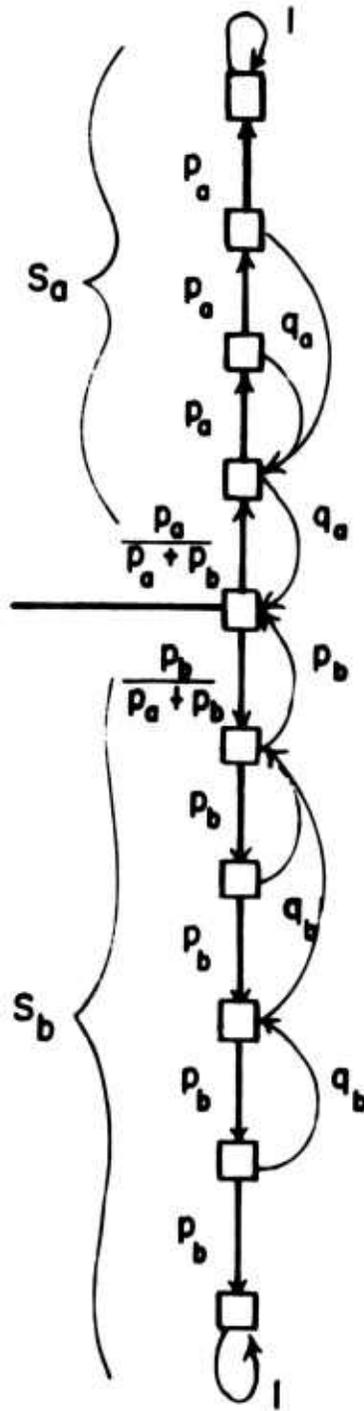


Figure 4

and again substituting

$$B_1 = 1 ,$$

$$B_3 = 1 - p_b q_b ,$$

$$B_5 = 1 - p_b q_b - p_b^2 q_b - p_b q_b + p_b^2 q_b^2 ,$$

or

$$B_5 = 2p_b^3 - p_b^2 - p_b + 1.$$

Hence, from (3.1)

$$\frac{\pi(a)}{\pi(b)} = \frac{p_a^4}{p_b^5} \frac{2p_b^3 - p_b^2 - p_b + 1}{p_a^3 - p_a + 1} .$$

4. Proof of Proposition 1.

Let  $P$  be the transition probability matrix for the chain  $M_{n,m}$ , where the first  $n$  rows and columns correspond to states  $(1,a), \dots, (n,a)$  and the following  $m$  rows and columns to states  $(m,b), \dots, (1,b)$ .

Let  $\underline{\mu} = (\mu(1,a), \dots, \mu(n,a), \mu(m,b), \dots, \mu(1,b))$  be the stationary distribution, so that

$$\underline{\mu}(I-P) = \underline{0}, \tag{4.1}$$

where  $I$  is the identity matrix. Now partition the matrix  $P$  into four submatrices

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} P_a & V_a \\ V_b & P_b \end{pmatrix},$$

where  $P_a$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix

$$P_a = \begin{array}{c} \text{Row:} \\ \begin{array}{cccc|c} q_a & p_a & & & 0 \\ q_a & 0 & p_a & & 0 \\ & & & \text{All 0's} & \cdot \\ q_a & & 0 & p_a & 0 \\ & & & & \cdot \\ & & q_a & & 0 \\ & & & 0 & p_a \\ & & & & \cdot \\ & & & & 0 \\ & & & & p_a \\ & & & & 0 \end{array} \\ \text{Column:} \end{array} \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 2 \\ \cdot \\ r_a(i) \\ \cdot \\ i \\ \cdot \\ n \end{array}$$



$$\underline{\mu}_a = (\mu(1,a), \dots, \mu(n,a)) ,$$

and

$$\underline{\mu}_b = (\mu(m,b), \dots, \mu(1,b)) .$$

Consider the matrix equation (4.2) first. Solving for  $\underline{\mu}_a$  gives

$$\underline{\mu}_a = (0, \dots, 0, \mu(m,b)p_b)(I - P_a)^{-1} ,$$

or denoting  $\alpha_{ij}$  the  $(i,j)$ <sup>th</sup> entry of the inverse  $(I - P_a)^{-1}$

$$\mu(i,a) = \mu(m,b)p_b \alpha_{n,i}, \quad j = 1, \dots, n. \quad (4.4)$$

By the well-known formula for matrix inversion

$$\alpha_{ij} = \frac{|I - P_a|_{(j,i)}}{|I - P_a|} ,$$

where  $|I - P_a|$  is the determinant of  $I - P_a$  and  $|I - P_a|_{(k,l)}$  is the  $(k,l)$ <sup>th</sup> cofactor of  $|I - P_a|$ . Hence

$$\mu(S_a) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mu(i,a) = \frac{\mu(m,b)p_b}{|I - P_a|} \sum_{i=1}^n |I - P_a|_{(i,n)}. \quad (4.5)$$

Next let  $A_n$  be the determinant of the  $n \times n$  matrix obtained from  $I - P_a$  by replacing the  $n$ <sup>th</sup> column by a column of 1's,



and substituting from (4.7)

$$| I - P_a | = p_a | I - P_a |_{(n,n)}.$$

But

$$| I - P_a |_{(n,n)} = \begin{vmatrix} p_a - p_a & & & & 0 \\ q_a & 1 - p_a & & & \\ & pq_a & 1 - p_a & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & 1 - p_a & 0 \\ & & -q_a & & & -p_a \\ & & & & & & 1 \end{vmatrix},$$

which is same as the determinant of the  $(n-1) \times (n-1)$  matrix  $I - P_a$  obtained for the chain  $M_{n-1,m} \in E(\underline{r}_a, \underline{r}_b)$ . Employing temporarily the superscript  $(n)$  for the number of states in  $S_a$  we have a recurrence relation

$$| I^{(n)} - P_a^{(n)} | = p_a | I^{(n-1)} - P_a^{(n-1)} |,$$

and since  $| I^{(1)} - P_a^{(1)} | = p_a$  we obtain

$$| I^{(n)} - P_a^{(n)} | = p_a^n.$$

Thus

$$\mu(S_a) = \frac{\Lambda}{p_a} \mu(m,b) p_b.$$

Now going back to (4.3) and repeating all the steps above we obtain a similar expression





is of order  $n - 1$ . Notice that the entries in the first column in  $D_2^{(n)}$  are  $-q$  only for row indices  $i = 3, \dots, n$  such that either  $r(i) = 1$  or  $r(i) = 2$ . Hence, calling  $I_2 = \{i = 3, \dots, n : r(i) < 3\}$ , multiplying the first row in  $D_2^{(n)}$  by  $p/q$  and adding to rows with  $i \in I_2$  this determinant becomes

$$\begin{vmatrix} p & -p & & & & & t_{32}^{(n)} \\ 0 & p & -p & & & & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & \cdot & & & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & 1 & -p & & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & & & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & & & & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & & & & \cdot \\ \cdot & & -q & & 1 & -p & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & & & & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & & & & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & & & & \cdot \\ 0 & & & & & & t_{2n}^{(n)} \end{vmatrix}$$

The entries in the last column are

$$t_{3i}^{(n)} = \begin{cases} t_{2i}^{(n)} + \frac{p}{q} t_{22}^{(n)} & \text{if } i \in I_2, \\ t_{2i}^{(n)} & \text{if } i \notin I_2. \end{cases}$$

Expanding again along the first column we have

$$D_2^{(n)} = pD_3^{(n)},$$

where

$$D_3^{(n)} = \begin{vmatrix} p & -p & & & & & t_{33}^{(n)} \\ \cdot & & & \cdot & & & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & 1 & -p & & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & & & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & & & & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & & & & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & & & & \cdot \\ \cdot & & -q & & 1 & -p & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & & & & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & & & & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & & & & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & & & & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & & & & t_{3n}^{(n)} \end{vmatrix}$$



Applying the above procedure to  $D_1^{(n+1)} = A^{(n+1)}$  we obtain a sequence

$$D_1^{(n+1)}, \dots, D_{n+1}^{(n+1)}, \quad (4.11)$$

where the determinants  $D_k^{(n+1)}$  again satisfy (4.9) with  $n$  replaced by  $n + 1$ . Arrange now the last columns of the sequences (4.8) and (4.11) into triangular arrays as follows:

$$T^{(n)} = \left\{ \begin{array}{cccc} t_{11}^{(n)} & & & \\ t_{12}^{(n)}, t_{22}^{(n)} & & & \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ t_{1n}^{(n)}, t_{2n}^{(n)} & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & t_{nn}^{(n)} \end{array} \right.$$

$$T^{(n+1)} = \left\{ \begin{array}{cccc} t_{11}^{(n+1)} & & & \\ t_{12}^{(n+1)}, t_{22}^{(n+1)} & & & \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \\ t_{1n}^{(n+1)}, t_{2n}^{(n+1)} & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & t_{nn}^{(n+1)} \\ t_{1,n+1}^{(n+1)}, t_{2,n+1}^{(n+1)} & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & t_{n,n+1}^{(n+1)}, t_{n+1,n+1}^{(n+1)} \end{array} \right.$$

Since for  $i \leq n$  by the definition of sets  $I_k^{(n)}$

$$i \in I_k^{(n)} \text{ if and only if } i \in I_k^{(n+1)}$$

the first  $n$  rows of  $T^{(n)}$  and  $T^{(n+1)}$  are identical, i.e.

$$t_{ki}^{(n)} = t_{ki}^{(n+1)}, \quad i = k, \dots, n; \quad k = 1, \dots, n. \quad (4.12)$$

Next by (4.9)

$$t_{k,n+1}^{(n+1)} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } k = 1, \dots, r(n+1), \\ 1 + \frac{q}{p} \sum_{\ell=r(n+1)}^{k-1} t_{\ell,\ell}^{(n+1)} & \text{if } k = r(n+1)+1, \dots, n+1. \end{cases}$$

In particular for  $k = n+1$  since  $r(n+1) < n+1$

$$t_{n+1,n+1}^{(n+1)} = 1 + \frac{q}{p} \sum_{\ell=r(n+1)}^n t_{\ell,\ell}^{(n+1)}. \quad (4.13)$$

But by (4.12) for  $\ell < n+1$

$$t_{\ell,\ell}^{(n+1)} = t_{\ell,\ell}^{(n)} = \dots = t_{\ell,\ell}^{(\ell)},$$

so that (4.13) becomes

$$t_{n+1,n+1}^{(n+1)} = 1 + \frac{q}{p} \sum_{\ell=p(n+1)}^n t_{\ell,\ell}^{(\ell)}.$$

Hence, by (4.10)

$$\frac{D_1^{(n+1)}}{p^n} = 1 + \frac{q}{p} \sum_{\ell=p(n+1)}^n \frac{D_1^{(\ell)}}{p^{\ell-1}}$$

or calling again  $D_1^{(n)} = A_n$  we have

$$A_{n+1} = p_a^n + q_a \sum_{\ell=r(n+1)}^n A_\ell p^{n-\ell}, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots,$$

where clearly  $A_1 = 1$ .

The recurrence relation for  $B_m$  is established in exactly the same fashion.

Noticing the obvious fact that the polynomials  $A_n$  and  $B_m$  must have integral coefficients completes the proof of Proposition 1.

5. Proof of Proposition 2.

Notice first that with 0 being the initial state any subsequent visit to this state is a recurrent event. Call this event  $E_0$ . Next call  $E_a$  the event which occurs if the chain after leaving the state 0 reaches the absorbing state  $(n,a)$  without any further visit to state 0. Similarly, define  $E_b$  for the absorbing state  $(m,b)$ . Now clearly

$$P(E_0) > 0,$$

and since the absorption in  $(n,a)$  occurs if and only if we have either

$$E_a \text{ or } R_0 E_a \text{ or } R_0 R_0 E_a \text{ etc.}$$

$$\pi(a) = \frac{P(E_a)}{1 - P(E_0)},$$

and similarly

$$\pi(b) = \frac{P(E_b)}{1 - P(E_0)},$$

so that,

$$\frac{\pi(a)}{\pi(b)} = \frac{P(E_a)}{P(E_b)}. \quad (5.1)$$

Next

$$P(E_a) = \frac{p_a}{p_a + p_b} P(E_a^1), \quad (5.2)$$

where  $E_a^1$  is the event which occurs if and only if the chain after leaving the state  $(1,a)$  reaches the absorbing state  $(n,a)$  without ever visiting the state 0.

Consider now a subchain  $M_n^a$  obtained from the chain  $M_{n,m}$  by making the state 0 an absorbing state and deleting states  $(1,b)$  though

(m,b). The transition probability matrix for this subchain is the  $(n+1) \times (n+1)$  matrix

$$P_a = \begin{array}{c} \left( \begin{array}{cccccccc} 1 & 0 & & & & & & 0 \\ q_a & 0 & p_a & & & & & \\ & q_a & 0 & p_a & & & & \\ & & q_a & 0 & p_a & & & \\ & & & q_a & 0 & p_a & & \\ & & & & q_a & 0 & p_a & \\ & & & & & q_a & 0 & p_a \\ 0 & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) \end{array}$$

All 0's

If this subchain is started at the state  $(1,a)$  then  $P(E_a^1)$  is equal to the probability of absorption in  $(n,a)$  for this subchain. Using the well-known result from the algebraic theory of Markov chain (cf. [5], Theorem 3.3.7) we have

$$P(E_a^1) = p_a \alpha_{1,n-1}, \quad (5.3)$$

where  $[\alpha_{ij}] = (I - Q_a)^{-1}$  and  $Q_a$  is the  $(n-1) \times (n-1)$  matrix of transition probabilities between transient states of  $M_n^a$ , i.e.

$$Q_a = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & p_a & & & \\ & q_a & 0 & & \\ & & 0 & p_a & \\ & & & q_a & 0 & p_a \\ & & & & 0 & p_a \\ & & & & & q_a \\ & & & & & & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{All 0's}$$

By the formula for matrix inversion

$$a_{1,n-1} = \frac{|I - Q_a|_{(n-1,1)}}{|I - Q_a|} \quad (5.4)$$

where  $|I - Q_a|$  is the determinant of  $I - Q_a$  and  $|I - Q_a|_{(n-1,1)}$  is its  $(n-1,1)$ <sup>st</sup> cofactor. Now

$$|I - Q_a|_{(n-1,1)} = (-1)^n \begin{vmatrix} -p_a & & & & \\ & 1 & -p_a & & \\ & -q_a & & 1 & -p_a \\ & & -q_a & & 1 & -p_a \\ & & & -q_a & & 1 & -p_a \end{vmatrix} \quad \text{All 0's} = p_a^{n-2}$$

and calling  $A_n = |I - Q_a|$  we obtain from (5.2), (5.3) and (5.4)

$$P(E_a) = \frac{p_a^n}{p_a + p_b} \frac{1}{A_n} \quad (5.5)$$



$$A_{n+1} = \left| \begin{array}{c|c|c} & & 0 \\ & & \cdot \\ & & \cdot \\ & & \cdot \\ & & \cdot \\ & & 0 \\ \hline & -q & -p \\ \hline & & 1 \end{array} \right|$$

Now if  $r_a(n) = 0$  then there is no  $-q$  in the last row and hence

$$A_{n+1} = A_n. \quad (5.7)$$

If  $r_a(n) > 0$  then expanding  $A_{n+1}$  along the last column gives

$$A_{n+1} = A_n + pD_n, \quad (5.8)$$

where

$$D_n = \left| \begin{array}{c|c|c} & & 0 \\ & & \cdot \\ & & \cdot \\ & & \cdot \\ & & \cdot \\ & & 0 \\ \hline & -q & -p \\ \hline & & 0 \end{array} \right|$$

is of order  $n - 1$ . Notice that the entry  $-q$  in the last row moved one step to the right. Expanding  $D_n$  again along the last column gives

$$D_n = pD_{n-1},$$

where  $D_{n-1}$  is of order  $n - 2$

$$D_{n-1} = \begin{vmatrix} & & & & 0 \\ & & & & \vdots \\ & & & & \vdots \\ & & & & \vdots \\ & & & & 0 \\ & & & & \vdots \\ & & & & -p \\ \hline & & & -q & 0 \end{vmatrix}.$$

Now repeating this the entry  $-q$  eventually (after  $n - r_a(n)$  steps) reaches the diagonal and we have

$$D_{r_a(n)+1} = \begin{vmatrix} & & & & 0 \\ & & & & \vdots \\ & & & & \vdots \\ & & & & \vdots \\ & & & & 0 \\ & & & & \vdots \\ & & & & p \\ \hline 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 & -q \end{vmatrix}.$$

and expanding this determinant along the last row yields

$$D_{r_a(n)+1} = -qA_{r_a(n)}.$$

Substituting back into (5.8) we obtain

$$A_{n+1} = A_n - qp^{n-r(n)} A_{r_a(n)}, \quad (5.9)$$

which holds for any  $n = 1, 2, \dots$  such that

$$r_a(n) > 0.$$

To include the case  $r_a(n) = 0$  define  $A_0 = 0$ . Then (5.9) reduces to (5.7). Finally, repeatedly substituting for  $A_n$  in (5.9) and using the obvious fact  $A_2 = 1$  we obtain the recurrence relation (3.2). Notice that (3.2) holds also for  $n = 1$  since  $r_a(1) = 0$  always.

The relation (3.3) for  $B_m$  is established in exactly the same fashion from  $|I - Q_b|$ .

Noticing the obvious fact that the polynomials  $A_n$  and  $B_m$  must have integral coefficients completes the proof of Proposition 2.

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