TORSION OF DIGRAPHS AND PATH COMPLEXES

ALEXANDER GRIGOR’YAN, YONG LIN, AND SHING-TUNG YAU

ABSTRACT. We define the notions of Reidemeister torsion and analytic torsion for directed graphs by means of the path homology theory introduced by the authors in [3, 4, 5, 7]. We prove the identity of the two notions of torsions as well as obtain formulas for torsions of Cartesian products and joins of digraphs.

Contents

1. Introduction 1
2. Path complexes and path homology 2
  2.1. Path complex 2
  2.2. Digraphs 3
  2.3. Path homology 4
3. Finite chain complexes 4
  3.1. Hodge Laplacian 5
  3.2. R-torsion 6
  3.3. Examples 9
  3.4. Analytic torsion 14
4. Cartesian product of path complexes 17
  4.1. Product of paths 17
  4.2. Product of path complexes and digraphs 18
  4.3. Operators \( \partial^* \) and \( \Delta \) on products 19
  4.4. Torsion of products 20
5. Join of path complexes 27
  5.1. Augmented chain complex 27
  5.2. Join of path complexes and digraphs 28
  5.3. Operators \( \partial^* \) and \( \Delta \) on joins 29
  5.4. Torsion of joins 30
References 34

1. Introduction

Let \( M \) be a compact oriented Riemannian manifold. Assume that \( M \) is triangulated by a simplicial complex \( K \). Let \( \rho \) be an acyclic representation of \( \pi_1(K) \) by orthogonal matrices, i.e., the twisted cohomology group \( H^p(K; \rho) \) is trivial for all \( p \). The Reidemeister torsion \( \tau_{\rho}(M) \) is defined from the cochain complex of \( K \) by taking a alternating product of determinants [10, 11]. It is a manifold invariant and is used to distinguish homotopy equivalent spaces [2].

To describe the Reidemeister torsion in analytic terms, Ray and Singer [9] defined an analytic torsion \( T_\rho(M) \) for any compact oriented manifold \( M \) and orthogonal representation \( \rho \) of the fundamental group \( \pi_1(M) \). Their definition used the spectrum of the Hodge Laplacian on twisted forms. When \( \rho \) is acyclic and orthogonal, Cheeger [1] and Müller [12] proved that

Date: December 2020.
AG is supported by the SFB1283 of the German Research Council. YL is supported by the National Science Foundation of China (Grant No. 12071245 and 11761131002).
\[ \tau_\rho(M) = T_\rho(M) \]. When \( \rho \) is orthogonal but not acyclic, one still can define the analytic torsion \( T_\rho(M) \) [8].

In this paper we introduce the notions of Reidemeister and analytic torsions on finite digraphs by means of the path homology theory of Grigoryan, Lin, Muranov and Yau [3], [4], [5], [7]. Namely, we use the homology basis to construct a preferred basis of the path complex on a digraph \( G \), which leads to the definition of the Reidemeister torsion \( \tau(G) \). Next, we define the Hodge Laplace operator \( \Delta_p \) acting on \( p \)-paths and use the positive eigenvalues of \( \Delta_p \) in order to define the analytic torsion \( T(G) \). Although the homology groups can be nontrivial in our case, we still can prove that \( \tau(G) = T(G) \) (Theorem 3.14) by using an extension of the argument of [9, Proposition 1.7].

Given two finite digraphs \( X \) and \( Y \), we obtain formulas for the torsions of their Cartesian product \( X \square Y \) and join \( X \ast Y \) (Theorems 4.8 and 5.7). Our proofs rely essentially on the Künneth formulas for chain complexes of \( X \square Y \) and \( X \ast Y \) proved in [6] and [7]. The approach to the proof is borrowed from [9, Thm. 2.5] but our setting is more complicated in the following sense. The notion of torsion depends on the choice of an inner product in the chain spaces, and the cases of the Cartesian product and join require usage of different inner products. Besides, the case of join requires usage of an augmented chain complex. For that reason, the final formulas for \( \tau(X \square Y) \) and \( \tau(X \ast Y) \) stated in Corollaries 4.15 and 5.8 are more complicated than one could expect.

In Section 2 we revise the path homology theory. In Section 3 we introduce the notions of the Hodge Laplacian on an arbitrary finite-dimensional chain complex, prove the Hodge decomposition, define the notions of \( R \)-torsion and analytic torsion, and prove their identity (Theorem 3.14).

In Section 4 we revise the notion of the Cartesian product of digraphs, the Künneth formula for the Cartesian product, and use it to prove the formula for the torsion of \( X \square Y \) (Theorem 4.8 and Corollaries 4.12, 4.15). In Section 5 we fulfil a similar program for the join of digraphs (Theorem 5.7 and Corollaries 5.8, 5.9).

We give numerous examples of application of our results by computing torsions of various digraphs including simplices, cubes, spheres, cycles, prism, etc.

2. Path complexes and path homology

Let us briefly revise the definition of path complex and path homology introduced by Grigoryan, Lin, Muranov and Yau in [7] (see also [3]).

2.1. Path complex. Let \( V \) be a finite set. For any \( p \geq 0 \), an elementary \( p \)-path is any (ordered) sequence \( i_0, \ldots, i_p \) of \( p + 1 \) vertices of \( V \) that will be denoted simply by \( i_0 \ldots i_p \) or by \( e_{i_0 \ldots i_p} \). The number \( p \) is called the length of the path \( i_0 \ldots i_p \).

Formal \( \mathbb{R} \)-linear combinations of \( e_{i_0 \ldots i_p} \) are called \( p \)-paths. Denote by \( \Lambda_p = \Lambda_p(V) \) the linear space of all \( p \)-paths; that is, the elements of \( \Lambda_p \) are

\[ v = \sum_{i_0 \ldots i_p} v^{i_0 \ldots i_p} e_{i_0 \ldots i_p}, \quad \text{where} \quad v^{i_0 \ldots i_p} \in \mathbb{R}. \]

Definition 2.1. For any \( p \geq 0 \), define the boundary operator \( \partial : \Lambda_{p+1} \rightarrow \Lambda_p \) by

\[ (\partial v)^{i_0 \ldots i_p} = \sum_{k=0}^{p+1} (-1)^q v^{i_0 \ldots i_q k i_{q+1} \ldots i_p}, \quad \text{(2.1)} \]

where the index \( k \) is inserted so that it is preceded by \( q \) indices \( i_0 \ldots i_{q-1} \). Set also \( \Lambda_{-1} = \{0\} \) and define the operator \( \partial : \Lambda_0 \rightarrow \Lambda_{-1} \) by setting \( \partial v = 0 \) for all \( v \in \Lambda_0 \).

It follows from (2.1) that

\[ \partial e_{j_0 \ldots j_{p+1}} = \sum_{q=0}^{p+1} (-1)^q e_{j_0 \ldots j_q \ldots j_{p+1}}, \quad \text{(2.2)} \]
where $\hat{\cdot}$ means omission of the index.

It is easy to show that $\partial^2 = 0$ for any $v \in \Lambda_p$ ([7, Lemma 2.1]). Hence, the family of linear spaces $\{\Lambda_p\}$ with the boundary operator $\partial$ determine a chain complex that will be denoted by $\Lambda(V)$.

**Definition 2.2.** An elementary $p$-path $e_{i_0 \ldots i_p}$ on a set $V$ is called regular if $i_k \neq i_{k+1}$ for all $k = 0, \ldots, p - 1$, and irregular otherwise.

Let $I_p$ be the subspace of $\Lambda_p$ that is spanned by all irregular $e_{i_0 \ldots i_p}$. It is easy to verify that $\partial I_p \subseteq I_{p-1}$ (cf. [7]). Hence, the boundary operator $\partial$ is well-defined on the quotient space $R_p := \Lambda_p/I_p$:

$$\partial : R_p \to R_{p-1}$$

for all $p \geq 0$. Clearly, $R_p$ is linearly isomorphic to the space of all regular $p$-paths:

$$R_p \cong \text{span} \left\{ e_{i_0 \ldots i_p} : i_0 \ldots i_p \text{ is regular} \right\} . \quad (2.3)$$

For simplicity of notation, we will identify $R_p$ with the space of all regular $p$-paths. With this identification, the formula (2.1) for the operator $\partial : R_{p+1} \to R_p$ is true only for regular paths $i_0 \ldots i_p$ whereas $(\partial e_{i_0 \ldots i_p}) = 0$ if $i_0 \ldots i_p$ is irregular. The identity (2.2) remains true if we replace by 0 each irregular path on the right hand side.

Denote by $R(V)$ the chain complex $\{R_p\}$ with the boundary operator $\partial$.

**Definition 2.3.** A path complex over a set $V$ is a non-empty collection $P$ of regular elementary paths on $V$ with the following property:

$$\text{if } e_{i_0 \ldots i_n} \in P \text{ then } e_{i_0 \ldots i_{n-1}} \in P \text{ and } e_{i_1 \ldots i_n} \in P. \quad (2.4)$$

When a path complex $P$ is fixed, all the paths from $P$ are called allowed, whereas the elementary paths that are not in $P$ are called non-allowed. Condition (2.4) means that if we remove the first or the last element of an allowed $n$-path then the resulting $(n-1)$-path is also allowed.

The set of all $n$-paths from $P$ is denoted by $P_n$. The set $P_{n-1}$ consists of a single empty path $e$. The elements of $P_0$ (that is, allowed 0-paths) are called the vertices of $P$. Clearly, $P_0$ is a subset of $V$. By the property (2.4), if $i_0 \ldots i_n \in P$ then all $i_k$ are vertices of $P$. Hence, we can (and will) remove from the set $V$ all non-vertices so that $V = P_0$.

There are two natural families/examples of path complexes. Any abstract finite simplicial complex $S$ is a collection of subsets of a finite vertex set $V$ that satisfies the following property:

$$\text{if } \sigma \in S \text{ then any subset of } \sigma \text{ is also in } S. \quad$$

Let us enumerate the elements of $V$ by distinct reals and identify any subset $s$ of $V$ with the elementary path that consists of the elements of $s$ put in the (strictly) increasing order. Denote by $P(S)$ this collections of elementary paths on $V$ that uniquely determines $S$. The defining property of a simplex can be restated the following:

$$\text{if } v \in P(S) \text{ then any subsequence of } v \text{ is also in } P(S). \quad (2.5)$$

Consequently, the family $P(S)$ satisfies the property (2.4) so that $P(S)$ is a path complex. The allowed $n$-paths in $P(S)$ are exactly the $n$-simplexes.

**2.2. Digraphs.** Another natural family of path complexes comes from digraphs.

**Definition 2.4.** A digraph $G = (V, E)$ is a couple, where $V$ is a set, whose elements are called the vertices, and $E$ is a subset of $\{V \times V \setminus \text{diag}\}$ that consists of ordered pairs of vertices called (directed) edges or arrows. The fact that a pair $(x, y)$ is an arrow will be denoted by $x \to y$.

An elementary $n$-path $i_0 \ldots i_n$ on the vertex set $V$ of a digraph is called allowed if $i_{k-1} \to i_k$ for any $k = 1, \ldots, n$. Denote by $P_n = P_n(G)$ the set of all allowed $n$-paths. In particular, we have $P_0 = V$ and $P_1 = E$. Clearly, the collection $P = \bigcup_n P_n$ of all allowed paths satisfies the

condition (2.4) so that \( P \) is a path complex. This path complex is naturally associated with the digraph \( G \) and will be denoted by \( P(G) \).

### 2.3. Path homology

Let us return to an arbitrary path complex \( P \) over \( V \). Denote by \( A_p(P) \) the subspace of \( R^p(V) \) spanned by the allowed elementary \( p \)-paths, that is,

\[
A_p = \text{span} \{ e_{i_0, \ldots, i_p} : i_0 \ldots i_p \in E_p \}.
\]

The elements of \( A_p \) are called *allowed* \( p \)-paths.

Note that the spaces \( A_p \) of allowed paths are in general not invariant for \( \partial \). Consider the following subspace of \( A_p \)

\[
\Omega_p \equiv \Omega_p(P) := \{ v \in A_p : \partial v \in A_{p-1} \}.
\]

The spaces \( \Omega_p \) are \( \partial \)-invariant. Indeed, \( v \in \Omega_p \) implies \( \partial v \in A_{p-1} \) and \( \partial(\partial v) = 0 \in A_{p-2} \), whence \( \partial v \in \Omega_{p-1} \). The elements of \( \Omega_p \) are called \( \partial \)-invariant \( p \)-paths.

Hence, we obtain a chain complex \( \Omega = \Omega(P) : \)

\[
0 \leftarrow \Omega_0 \xrightarrow{\partial} \Omega_1 \xrightarrow{\partial} \cdots \xrightarrow{\partial} \Omega_{p-1} \xrightarrow{\partial} \Omega_p \xrightarrow{\partial} \cdots
\]

(2.8)

By construction we have \( \Omega_0 = A_0 \) and \( \Omega_1 = A_1 \), while in general \( \Omega_p \subset A_p \).

Set

\[
Z_p = \ker \partial|_{\Omega_p} \quad \text{and} \quad B_p = \partial \Omega_{p+1}.
\]

**Definition 2.5.** Define for all \( p \geq 0 \) the *path homology groups* \( H_p(P) \) of the path complex \( P \) by

\[
H_p(P) := H_p(\Omega(P)) = Z_p/B_p.
\]

(2.9)

Let us note that the spaces \( H_p(P) \) (as well as the spaces \( \Omega_p(P) \)) can be computed directly by definition using simple tools of linear algebra, in particular, those implemented in modern computational software. On the other hand, some theoretical tools for computation of homology groups, like homotopy theory and Künneth formulas, were developed in [4], [6], [7].

In particular, for any digraph \( G \) define its path homology groups by

\[
H_p(G) = H_p(P(G)).
\]

In what follows we are going to deal with only finite chain complexes:

\[
0 \leftarrow \Omega_0 \xrightarrow{\partial} \Omega_1 \xrightarrow{\partial} \cdots \xrightarrow{\partial} \Omega_{p-1} \xrightarrow{\partial} \Omega_p \xrightarrow{\partial} \cdots \xrightarrow{\partial} \Omega_N \leftarrow 0
\]

(2.10)

where \( N \in \mathbb{N} \). Clearly, any chain complex (2.8) can be truncated to the form (2.10).

For path complexes and digraphs this means that we restrict the length of allowed paths to \( N \). There is a large family of digraphs where the chain complex \( \Omega \) is finite naturally because \( \Omega_N = \{0\} \) for some \( N \) (and, hence, \( \Omega_n = \{0\} \) for all \( n \geq N \)). All examples of digraphs that are considered in this paper have naturally finite chain complex \( \Omega \).

If this is not the case then we can choose \( N \) arbitrarily and truncate the chain complex \( \Omega \) to (2.10). The number \( N \) will be referred to as the dimension of the chain complex (2.10) or that of the underlying path complex.

Some examples of chain complexes \( \Omega \) and homology groups of digraphs will be given in Section 3.3.

### 3. Finite chain complexes

Let us fix a finite chain complex \( \Omega \) (2.10) of finite dimensional linear spaces \( \Omega_p \). We are interested in chain complexes that are coming from path complexes as described above, but in this section we revise rather well known facts about general chain complexes \( \Omega \).
Let us choose arbitrarily an inner product \( \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle \) in each linear space \( \Omega_p \). In the case when \( \Omega \) comes from a path complex, an inner product in \( \Omega_p \) can be taken from the ambient space \( \mathcal{R}_p \). In this paper we use two different inner products in \( \mathcal{R}_p \). Let \( u, v \in \mathcal{R}_p \) and 
\[
    u = \sum_i u^i e_i \quad \text{and} \quad v = \sum_i v^i e_i
\]
where \( i = i_0 \ldots i_p \). The first (standard) inner product is 
\[
    \langle u, v \rangle = \sum_i u^i v^i \tag{3.1}
\]
and the second (normalized) inner product is 
\[
    \langle u, v \rangle = \frac{1}{p!} \sum_i u^i v^i \tag{3.2}
\]
These inner products will be used in examples and in Section 4, but in general we do not impose any restriction on the choice of inner products in the spaces \( \Omega_p \).

3.1. Hodge Laplacian. Denote by \( \partial_p \) the operator \( \partial : \Omega_p \rightarrow \Omega_{p-1} \). Assuming that the inner product structure in \( \Omega \) is chosen, consider the operator \( \partial^*_p : \Omega_{p-1} \rightarrow \Omega_p \) that is the adjoint operator of \( \partial_p \) with respect to the inner products in \( \Omega_p \) and \( \Omega_{p-1} \).

**Definition 3.1.** Define the Hodge-Laplace operator \( \Delta_p : \Omega_p \rightarrow \Omega_p \) by 
\[
    \Delta_p u = \partial^*_p \partial_p u + \partial_{p+1} \partial^*_{p+1} u. \tag{3.3}
\]
We will use a shorter notation 
\[
    \Delta_p u = \partial^* \partial u + \partial \partial^* u
\]
since it is clear from this expression in which spaces \( \Omega_p \) act the operators \( \partial \) and \( \partial^* \).

An element \( u \in \Omega_p \) is called harmonic if \( \Delta_p u = 0 \).

**Lemma 3.2.** An element \( u \in \Omega_p \) is harmonic if and only if \( \partial u = 0 \) and \( \partial^* u = 0 \).

**Proof.** If \( \partial u = 0 \) and \( \partial^* u = 0 \) then by (3.3) we have \( \Delta_p u = 0 \). Conversely, if \( \Delta_p u = 0 \) then we obtain
\[
    0 = \langle \Delta_p u, u \rangle = \langle \partial^* \partial u, u \rangle + \langle \partial \partial^* u, u \rangle = \langle \partial u, \partial u \rangle + \langle \partial^* u, \partial^* u \rangle,
\]
whence \( \| \partial u \| = \| \partial^* u \| = 0 \). \( \Box \)

Denote by \( \mathcal{H}_p \) the set of all harmonic elements in \( \Omega_p \) so that \( \mathcal{H}_p \) is a subspace of \( \Omega_p \).

**Lemma 3.3.** (Hodge decomposition) The space \( \Omega_p \) is an orthogonal sum of three subspaces as follows:
\[
    \Omega_p = \partial \Omega_{p+1} \bigoplus \partial^* \Omega_{p-1} \bigoplus \mathcal{H}_p. \tag{3.4}
\]

**Proof.** If \( u \in \partial \Omega_{p+1} \) and \( v \in \partial^* \Omega_{p-1} \) then \( u = \partial u' \) and \( v = \partial^* v' \), and we have 
\[
    \langle u, v \rangle = \langle \partial u', \partial^* v' \rangle = \langle \partial^2 u', v' \rangle = 0
\]
so that the subspaces \( \partial \Omega_{p+1} \) and \( \partial^* \Omega_{p-1} \) are orthogonal. Denote by \( K \) the orthogonal complement of \( \partial \Omega_{p+1} \bigoplus \partial^* \Omega_{p-1} \) in \( \Omega_p \). Then we have 
\[
    u \in K \iff \langle u, v \rangle = 0 \quad \text{for all} \quad v \in \partial \Omega_{p+1} \quad \text{and} \quad v \in \partial^* \Omega_{p-1}
\]
that is,
\[
    u \in K \quad \iff \quad \langle u, \partial v' \rangle = 0 \quad \forall v' \in \Omega_{p+1} \quad \text{and} \quad \langle u, \partial^* v \rangle \quad \forall v \in \Omega_{p-1}
    \iff \quad \langle \partial^* u, v' \rangle = 0 \quad \forall v' \in \Omega_{p+1} \quad \text{and} \quad \langle \partial u, v \rangle \quad \forall v \in \Omega_{p-1}
    \iff \quad \partial^* u = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \partial u = 0
    \iff \quad u \in \mathcal{H}_p.
\]
Hence, \( K = \mathcal{H}_p \) which finishes the proof. \( \Box \)
In the case independent. Clearly, the union (Definition 3.6).

Remark 3.5. It follows from this argument that \( H_p \cong Z_p \) in \( Z_p \) and that a harmonic form \( u \in H_p \) that corresponds to a homology class \( \omega \in H_p \), minimizes the norm \( \|\cdot\| \) among all elements of \( \omega \).

3.2. \textbf{R-torsion.} Let \( \Omega \) be a finite chain complex of finite dimensional linear spaces over \( \mathbb{R} \):

\[
0 \buildrel \partial \over \to \Omega_0 \buildrel \partial \over \to \Omega_1 \buildrel \partial \over \to \ldots \buildrel \partial \over \to \Omega_p \buildrel \partial \over \to \ldots \buildrel \partial \over \to \Omega_{N-1} \buildrel \partial \over \to \Omega_p \buildrel \partial \over \to 0.
\]

Denote \( B_p = \partial \Omega_{p+1} \), \( Z_p = \ker \partial|_{\Omega_p} \) and \( H_p = Z_p/B_p \).

In any \( \Omega_p \) choose a basis \( \omega_p \) and a basis \( h_p \) in \( H_p \). For each element of \( h_p \) choose its representative in \( Z_p \) and denote the resulting independent set by \( \tilde{h}_p \).

Let \( b_p \) be any basis in \( B_p \). For each element \( w \in \partial^{-1}w \subset \Omega_p \) so that \( \partial v = w \). Let \( \tilde{b}_p \) be the collection of chosen elements \( v \) so that

\[
b_{p-1} = \partial \tilde{b}_p.
\]

Note that always \( \tilde{b}_0 = \emptyset \). Since \( b_{p-1} \) is linearly independent, the set \( \tilde{b}_p \) is also linearly independent. Clearly, the union \( (b_p, \tilde{h}_p) \) is a basis in \( Z_p \). Since the subspaces \( Z_p \) and \( \text{span}(\tilde{b}_p) \) of \( \Omega_p \) have a trivial intersection \( \{0\} \), by the rank-nullity theorem we conclude that the direct sum of these subspaces is \( \Omega_p \). Hence, the union \( (b_p, \tilde{h}_p, \tilde{b}_p) \) of the thee sequences is a basis in \( \Omega_p \).

If \( U \) and \( W \) are two bases in an \( n \)-dimensional linear space, then denote by \( (U/W) \) the transformation matrix from \( W \) to \( U \) and set

\[
[U/W] = |\det (U/W)|.
\]

In the case \( n = 0 \) set \( [U/W] = 1 \).

Denote \( \omega \) the collection \( \{\omega_p\} \) of the bases in \( \Omega_p \) and similarly let \( h = \{h_p\} \) be the collection of the bases in \( H_p \).

Definition 3.6. The \textit{R-torsion} \( \tau(\Omega, \omega, h) \) of the chain complex \( \Omega \) with the preferred bases \( \omega \) and \( h \) is a positive real number defined by

\[
\log \tau(\Omega, \omega, h) = \sum_{p=0}^{N} (-1)^p \log[b_p, \tilde{h}_p, \tilde{b}_p / \omega_p].
\]

We justify this definition in the following statement.

Lemma 3.7. \( \text{(a)} \) The value of \( \tau(\Omega, \omega, h) \) does not depend on the choice of the bases \( b_p \), the representatives in \( \tilde{b}_p \) and the representatives in \( \tilde{h}_p \) (which justifies the notation \( \tau(\Omega, \omega, h) \)).
(b) If \( \omega' \) and \( h' \) are other collections of bases in \( \Omega \) and \( H \) respectively, then

\[
\log \tau (\Omega, \omega', h') = \log \tau (\Omega, \omega, h) + \sum_{p=0}^{N} (-1)^p \left( \log [\omega_p/\omega_p'] + \log [h'_p/h_p] \right). \tag{3.9}
\]

The relation \([U/W] = 1\) for bases \( U \) and \( W \) is an equivalence relation, and each equivalence class determines a volume form in the underlying linear space. We see from (3.9) that \( \tau (\Omega, \omega, h) \) depends only on the volume forms determined by \( \omega \) and \( h \) in the spaces \( \Omega_p \) and \( H_p \), respectively.

**Proof of Lemma 3.7.** (a) Let \( b'_p \) be another basis in \( B_p \) with the corresponding set \( \tilde{b}'_p \), and \( \tilde{h}'_p \) be another set of representatives of \( h_p \). Let us first verify that

\[
[b'_p, \tilde{b}'_p / b_p, \tilde{h}_p, \tilde{b}_p] = [b'_p/h_p][\tilde{h}'_{p-1}/h_{p-1}]. \tag{3.10}
\]

Let \( \tilde{h}_p = \{u_1, u_2, \ldots \} \) and \( \tilde{h}'_p = \{u'_1, u'_2, \ldots \} \). Since \( u'_i \) and \( u_i \) represent the same homology class, we have

\[
u'_i = u_i + b_i \quad \text{for some } b_i \in B_p. \tag{3.11}
\]

Let \( \tilde{b}_p = \{v_1, v_2, \ldots \} \) and \( \tilde{b}'_p = \{v'_1, v'_2, \ldots \} \) so that

\[
b_{p-1} = \partial \tilde{b}_p = \{\partial v_1, \partial v_2, \ldots \} \quad \text{and} \quad b'_{p-1} = \partial \tilde{b}'_p = \{\partial v'_1, \partial v'_2, \ldots \}.
\]

Since \( b_{p-1} \) and \( b'_{p-1} \) are bases in the same subspace \( B_{p-1} \), the transformation matrix \( (c_{ij}) = (b'_{p-1}/b_{p-1}) \) is well defined so that

\[
\partial v'_i = \sum_j c_{ij} \partial v_j.
\]

It follows that

\[
v'_i = z_i + \sum_j c_{ij} v_j \quad \text{for some } z_i \in Z_p. \tag{3.12}
\]

Since \( Z_p = \text{span} (b_p, h_p) \), we obtain from (3.11) and (3.12) that

\[
(b'_p, \tilde{h}'_p, \tilde{b}'_p / b_p, \tilde{h}_p, \tilde{b}_p) = \begin{pmatrix}
(b'_p/b_p) & \vdots & \\
0 & \text{id} & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & (b'_{p-1}/b_{p-1})
\end{pmatrix}
\]

where the dots \( \vdots \) denote the terms coming from \( b_i \) and \( z_i \). Since this matrix is upper block-diagonal, we obtain (3.10).

Consequently, we have

\[
[b'_p, \tilde{h}'_p, \tilde{b}'_p / \omega_p] = [b'_p, \tilde{h}'_p, \tilde{b}'_p / b_p, \tilde{h}_p, \tilde{b}_p][b_p, \tilde{h}_p, \tilde{b}_p / \omega_p]
\]

\[
= [b'_p/b_p][b'_{p-1}/b_{p-1}][b_p, \tilde{h}_p, \tilde{b}_p / \omega_p].
\]

Computing the sum in (3.8) we obtain

\[
\sum_{p=0}^{N} (-1)^p \log [b'_p, \tilde{h}'_p, \tilde{b}'_p / \omega_p] = \sum_{p=0}^{N} (-1)^p \log [b_p, \tilde{h}_p, \tilde{b}_p / \omega_p]
\]

\[
+ \sum_{p=0}^{N} (-1)^p \log [b'_p/b_p] + \sum_{p=0}^{N} (-1)^p \log [b'_{p-1}/b_{p-1}]. \tag{3.13}
\]

It remains to observe that the expression in (3.13) vanishes because it is equal to

\[
\sum_{p=0}^{N} (-1)^p \log [b'_p/b_p] + \sum_{q=0}^{N-1} (-1)^{q+1} \log [b'_q/b_q] = (-1)^N \log [b'_N/b_N] = 0.
\]
(b) Let \( h_p = \{ \eta_1, \eta_2, \ldots \} \) and \( h'_p = \{ \eta'_1, \eta'_2, \ldots \} \) so that
\[
\eta'_i = \sum_j c_{ij} \eta_j
\]
where \((c_{ij}) = (h'_p/h_p)\). For the representatives \( u_i \in \tilde{h}_p \) of \( \eta_i \) and \( u'_i \in \tilde{h}'_p \) of \( \eta'_i \) in \( Z_p \) we have then
\[
u'_i = \sum_j c_{ij} u_{ij} + b_i \quad \text{for some } b_i \in B_p.
\]
It follows that
\[
(b_p, \tilde{h}'_p, \tilde{h}_p / b_p, \tilde{h}_p, \tilde{b}_p) = \begin{pmatrix}
id & \vdots & 0 \\
0 & (h'_p/h_p) & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \text{id}
\end{pmatrix}
\]
where the dots \( \vdots \) denote the terms coming from \( b_i \). Hence, we obtain
\[
[b_p, \tilde{h}'_p, \tilde{h}_p / \omega'_p] = [b_p, \tilde{h}'_p, \tilde{h}_p / b_p, \tilde{h}_p, \tilde{b}_p] [b_p, \tilde{h}_p, \tilde{b}_p / \omega_p] \left[ \omega_p / \omega'_p \right] = [h'_p/h_p] [b_p, \tilde{h}_p, \tilde{b}_p / \omega_p] \left[ \omega_p / \omega'_p \right],
\]
whence (3.9) follows. \( \Box \)

Let us fix an inner product in each space \( \Omega_p \) and denote by \( \iota \) the inner product structure in \( \Omega \), that is, the collection of all inner products for \( p = 0, \ldots, N \). Then we have the induced inner product in the subspaces \( B_p, Z_p \) and \( \mathcal{H}_p \). Using the isomorphism \( H_p \cong \mathcal{H}_p \) we transfer the inner product to \( H_p \). Hence, in this case we have a canonical choice of volume forms \( \omega \) in \( \Omega \) and \( h \) in \( H \) as we prefer orthonormal bases \( \omega_p \) in \( \Omega_p \) and \( h_p \) in \( H_p \). In fact, we can identify \( h_p \) with an orthonormal basis in \( \mathcal{H}_p \) and set \( \tilde{h}_p = h_p \). With this choice of \( \omega \) and \( h \), we define the R-torsion of \((\Omega, \iota)\) by
\[
\tau(\Omega, \iota) = \tau(\Omega, \omega, h).
\]
By (3.9) the right hand side does not depend on the choice of orthonormal bases \( \omega \) and \( h \).

**Corollary 3.8.** Let \( \iota \) and \( \iota' \) be two inner product structures in \( \Omega \). Assume that there are positive reals \( c_p, p = 0, \ldots, N \), such that, for all \( u, v \in \Omega_p \),
\[
\iota'(u, v) = c_{\iota \iota'}(u, v).
\]
Then
\[
\tau(\Omega, \iota') = \tau(\Omega, \iota) \prod_{p=0}^N \frac{1}{c_p} \left( -1 \right)^p (\dim \Omega_p - \dim H_p).
\]
(3.14)

In particular, if all \( c_p = c \) are equal, then we obtain
\[
\tau(\Omega, \iota') = \tau(\Omega, \iota)
\]
because
\[
\sum_{p=0}^N (-1)^p \dim \Omega_p = \sum_{p=0}^N (-1)^p \dim H_p = \chi(\Omega),
\]
where \( \chi(\Omega) \) is the Euler characteristic of \( \Omega \).

**Proof.** Since the notion of orthogonality is the same for \( \iota \) and \( \iota' \), the space \( \mathcal{H}_p \) is also the same. If \( \omega_p \) and \( h_p \) are \( \iota \)-orthonormal bases in \( \Omega_p \) and \( \mathcal{H}_p \), respectively, then \( \omega'_p = \frac{1}{\sqrt{c_p}} \omega_p \) and \( h'_p = \frac{1}{\sqrt{c_p}} h_p \) are \( \iota' \)-orthonormal bases. Since
\[
[\omega_p/\omega'_p] = c_p^{\dim \Omega_p/2} \quad \text{and} \quad [h'_p/h_p] = c_p^{-\dim H_p/2},
\]
and
we obtain from (3.9)

$$\log \tau(\Omega, \iota') = \log \tau(\Omega, \iota) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{p=0}^{N} (-1)^p (\dim \Omega_p - \dim H_p) \log c_p,$$

whence (3.14) follows.

Let \( \Omega \) be a chain complex that comes from a path complex \( P \). Then the inner product in \( \Omega_p \) can be taken from the ambient space \( R_p \). The so obtained \( R \)-torsion \( \tau(\Omega(P), \iota) \) will also be denoted by \( \tau(P, \iota) \).

Let \( \iota \) be the standard inner product (3.1) in \( R_p \) and \( \iota' \) be the normalized inner product (3.2) in \( R_p \). We set

\[
\tau(P) = \tau(P, \iota), \quad \tau'(P) = \tau(P, \iota').
\]

In this case \( c_p = \frac{1}{p!} \) and we obtain from (3.14)

\[
\tau'(P) = \tau(P) \prod_{p=0}^{N} (p!)^{\frac{1}{2}(-1)^{p+1}(\dim \Omega_p - \dim H_p)}. \tag{3.15}
\]

Denoting

\[
r_p = \dim \Omega_p - \dim H_p
\]

and observing that

\[
\sum_{p=0}^{N} (-1)^p r_p = 0
\]

and

\[
\sum_{p=2}^{N} (-1)^{p+1} r_p \log (p!) = \sum_{p=2}^{N} (-1)^{p+1} r_p \sum_{k=2}^{p} \log k = \sum_{k=2}^{N} \log k \sum_{p=k}^{N} (-1)^{p+1} r_p = \sum_{k=2}^{N} \log k \sum_{p=0}^{k-1} (-1)^p r_p = \sum_{k=2}^{N} \log k^{r_0-r_1+\ldots+(-1)^{k-1}r_{k-1}},
\]

we obtain from (3.15)

\[
\tau'(P) = \tau(P) \left(2^{r_0-r_1} \cdot 3^{r_0-r_1+r_2} \cdot 4^{r_0-r_1+r_2-r_3} \cdot \ldots \right)^{1/2}. \tag{3.16}
\]

3.3. Examples. Let us give some examples of computation of \( R \)-torsion by definition.

Example 3.9. Consider a line digraph \( G = (V, E) \) that consists of \( m \) vertices \( V = \{0, 1, \ldots, m-1\} \) and \( m-1 \) arrows having the form either \( i \to i+1 \) or \( i+1 \to i \), for \( i = 0, \ldots, m-2 \). An example of a line digraph is shown in Fig. 1.

![Figure 1. A line digraph with \( m = 5 \)](image-url)
Denote
\[ e_{(i+1)i} = \begin{cases} e_{(i+1)i} & \text{if } i \to i+1 \\ e_{(i+1)i} & \text{if } i+1 \to i \end{cases} \] (3.17)
so that \( e_{(i+1)i} \in \Omega_1 \), and set
\[ \sigma_i = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } i \to i+1 \\ -1, & \text{if } i+1 \to i \end{cases} \] (3.18)
so that
\[ \partial e_{(i+1)i} = \sigma_i (e_{i+1} - e_i). \]
Choose the following \( \iota \)-orthonormal bases in \( \Omega_0 \) and \( \Omega_1 \):
\[ \omega_0 = \{ e_i : i = 0, \ldots, m-1 \} \]
and
\[ \omega_1 = \{ e_{(i+1)i} : i = 0, \ldots, m-2 \}. \]
Clearly, \( \Omega_p = \{ 0 \} \) for \( p \geq 2 \). In particular, we have \( \chi (G) = 1 \). Since \( \dim H_0 = 1 \) (as for any connected graph) and \( \dim H_p = 0 \) for \( p \geq 2 \), it follows that \( \dim H_1 = 0 \).
Since \( B_1 = \partial \Omega_2 = \{ 0 \} \), it follows that also \( Z_1 = \{ 0 \} \). We have \( Z_0 = \Omega_0 \) and, hence, \( \dim B_0 = m - 1 \). Choose in \( B_0 = \partial \Omega_1 \) the basis
\[ b_0 = \{ \sigma_i (e_{i+1} - e_i), \ i = 0, \ldots, m-2 \} \]
and set, respectively,
\[ \tilde{b}_1 = \{ e_{(i+1)i}, \ i = 0, \ldots, m-2 \}. \]
The orthogonal complement of \( B_0 \) in \( Z_0 \) is one-dimensional:
\[ \mathcal{H}_0 = \text{span} \{ e_0 + \ldots + e_{m-1} \}, \]
so that
\[ h_0 = \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} (e_0 + \ldots + e_{m-1}) \right\}. \]
We see that
\[
[b_0, h_0, \tilde{b}_0 / \omega_0] = |\text{det}| \begin{pmatrix}
-\sigma_0 & 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} \\
\sigma_0 & -\sigma_1 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} \\
\vdots & \ddots & \ddots \\
\sigma_1 & \ddots & \ddots \\
\vdots & \ddots & \ddots \\
0 & \ddots & \ddots \\
0 & \ddots & -\sigma_{m-2} \\
0 & \sigma_{m-2} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}}
\end{pmatrix} = \sqrt{m}, (3.19)
\]
because expanding the determinant in the last column, we obtain that is equal to
\[ (-1)^{m+1} m \sigma_0 \ldots \sigma_{m-2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} \]
Since \( \langle b_1, h_1, \tilde{b}_1 \rangle = \omega_1 \), it follows that
\[ \tau (G) = \prod_{p=0}^{1} [b_p, h_p, \tilde{b}_p / \omega_p](-1)^p = \sqrt{m}. \]
For the normalized inner product \( \iota' \) we have the same value \( \tau' (G) = \sqrt{m} \) since \( \Omega_p = \{ 0 \} \) for all \( p \geq 2 \).
Example 3.10. Consider a digraph $G = (V, E)$ with the vertex set $V = \{0, 1, 2\}$ and with the edge set $E = \{01, 12, 02\}$ (Fig. 2). This digraph is called a triangle.

We have
\[
\Omega_0 = \text{span} \{e_0, e_1, e_2\}, \quad \Omega_1 = \text{span} \{e_{01}, e_{12}, e_{02}\}, \quad \Omega_2 = \{e_{012}\}
\]
and $\Omega_p = \{0\}$ otherwise. Hence,
\[
B_0 = \partial \Omega_1 = \text{span} \{e_1 - e_0, e_2 - e_1\}, \quad B_1 = \partial \Omega_2 = \text{span} \{e_{01} - e_{02} + e_{12}\}
\]
and $B_p = \{0\}$ otherwise. Next, we have
\[
Z_0 = \text{span} \{e_0, e_1, e_2\}, \quad Z_1 = \text{span} \{e_{01} - e_{02} + e_{12}\}
\]
and $Z_p = \{0\}$ otherwise. It follows that $\dim H_0 = 1$ and $\dim H_p = 0$ otherwise.

We choose the following $\iota$-orthonormal bases in $\Omega_p$:
\[
\omega_0 = \{e_0, e_1, e_2\}, \quad \omega_1 = \{e_{01}, e_{12}, e_{02}\}, \quad \omega_2 = \{e_{012}\}.
\]
Choose also
\[
b_0 = \{e_1 - e_0, e_2 - e_1\}, \quad \tilde{b}_1 = \{e_{01}, e_{12}\}
\]
\[
b_1 = \{e_{01} - e_{02} + e_{12}\}, \quad \tilde{b}_2 = \{e_{012}\}.
\]
The orthogonal complement of $B_0$ in $Z_0$ is
\[
\mathcal{H}_0 = \text{span} \{e_0 + e_1 + e_2\},
\]
so that
\[
h_0 = \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} (e_0 + e_1 + e_2) \right\}.
\]
We see that
\[
(b_p, h_p, \tilde{b}_p) = \begin{cases}
\{e_1 - e_0, e_2 - e_1, \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} (e_0 + e_1 + e_2)\}, & p = 0 \\
\{e_{01} - e_{02} + e_{12}, e_{01}, e_{12}\}, & p = 1 \\
\{e_{012}\}, & p = 2.
\end{cases}
\]
It follows that
\[
[b_0, h_0, \tilde{b}_0 / \omega_0] = |\text{det}| \begin{pmatrix}
-1 & 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\
1 & -1 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\
0 & 1 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}
\end{pmatrix} = \sqrt{3},
\]
\[
[b_1, h_1, \tilde{b}_1 / \omega_1] = |\text{det}| \begin{pmatrix}
1 & 1 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 1 \\
-1 & 0 & 0
\end{pmatrix} = 1
\]
and
\[
[b_2, h_2, \tilde{b}_2 / \omega_2] = |\text{det}| \begin{pmatrix}
1 & 1 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 1 \\
-1 & 0 & 0
\end{pmatrix} = 1.
\]
Hence, we obtain
\[
\tau (G) = \prod_{p=0}^2 |b_p, h_p, \tilde{b}_p / \omega_p| (-1)^p = \sqrt{3}.
\]
For the normalized inner product \( \iota \) we obtain from (3.14)
\[
\tau'(G) = \tau(G) \prod_{p=0}^{2} (p!)^{\frac{1}{2}(-1)^{p+1}(\dim \Omega_p - \dim H_p)} = \sqrt{3}^{2 - \frac{1}{2}} = \sqrt{3}/2.
\]

**Example 3.11.** Consider a digraph \( G = (V, E) \) with the set of vertices \( V = \{0, 1, 2, 3\} \) and the set of edges \( E = \{01, 02, 13, 23\} \) (Fig. 3). This digraph is called a *square*.

![Figure 3. A square digraph](image)

We have
\[
\Omega_0 = \text{span} \{e_0, e_1, e_2, e_3\}, \quad \Omega_1 = \text{span} \{e_{01}, e_{02}, e_{13}\}, \quad \Omega_2 = \text{span} \{e_{013} - e_{023}\}
\]
and \( \Omega_p = \{0\} \) otherwise. Hence,
\[
B_0 = \partial \Omega_1 = \text{span} \{e_1 - e_0, e_2 - e_0, e_3 - e_1\}
\]
\[
B_1 = \partial \Omega_2 = \text{span} \{e_{01} + e_{13} - e_{02} - e_{23}\}
\]
and \( B_p = \{0\} \) otherwise. Next we have
\[
Z_0 = \text{span} \{e_0, e_1, e_2, e_3\}, \quad Z_1 = \text{span} \{e_{01} + e_{13} - e_{02} - e_{23}\}
\]
and \( Z_p = \{0\} \) otherwise. Consequently, \( \dim H_0 = 1 \) and \( \dim H_0 = 0 \) for \( p \geq 1 \).

We choose the following \( \iota \)-orthonormal bases in \( \Omega_p \):
\[
\omega_0 = \{e_0, e_1, e_2, e_3\}, \quad \omega_1 = \{e_{01}, e_{02}, e_{13}, e_{23}\}, \quad \omega_2 = \{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(e_{013} - e_{023})\}.
\]
Choose also
\[
b_0 = \{e_1 - e_0, e_2 - e_0, e_3 - e_1\}, \quad \tilde{b}_1 = \{e_{01}, e_{02}, e_{13}\}
\]
\[
b_1 = \{e_{01} - e_{02} + e_{13} - e_{23}\}, \quad \tilde{b}_2 = \{e_{013} - e_{023}\}.
\]
The orthogonal complement of \( B_0 \) in \( Z_0 \) is
\[
\mathcal{H}_0 = \text{span} \{e_0 + e_1 + e_2 + e_3\}
\]
and we take
\[
h_0 = \left\{\frac{1}{2} (e_0 + e_1 + e_2 + e_3)\right\}.
\]
It follows that
\[
(b_p, h_p, \tilde{b}_p) = \begin{cases} 
\{e_1 - e_0, e_2 - e_0, e_3 - e_1, \frac{1}{2} (e_0 + e_1 + e_2 + e_3)\}, & p = 0 \\
\{e_{01} - e_{02} + e_{13} - e_{23}, e_{01}, e_{02}, e_{13}\}, & p = 1 \\
\{e_{013} - e_{023}\}, & p = 2.
\end{cases}
\]
Hence,
\[
[b_0, h_0, \tilde{b}_0 / \omega_0] = |\det| \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 1 & 0 & -1 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix} = 2.
\]
\[ [b_1, h_1, \tilde{b}_1 / \omega_1] = |\text{det}| \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = 1 \]

\[ [b_2, h_2, \tilde{b}_2 / \omega_2] = |\text{det}| (\sqrt{2}) = \sqrt{2}, \]

and we obtain
\[ \tau (G) = \prod_{p=0}^{2} [b_p, h_p, \tilde{b}_p / \omega_p]^{(-1)^p} = 2\sqrt{2}. \]

For the normalized inner product \( \iota' \) we obtain from (3.14)
\[ \tau' (G) = \tau (G) \prod_{p=0}^{2} (pl)^{\frac{1}{2} (-1)^p + (\dim \Omega_p - \dim H_p)} = 2\sqrt{2} - \frac{1}{2} = 2. \]

Note that the triangle and square digraphs have the same homology groups and are even homotopy equivalent (see [4]) but their torsions are different. Moreover, the torsion is not preserved by covering mappings between digraphs, which are surjective mappings that preserve arrows. For example, consider a mapping \( \Phi : X \to Y \) of a square \( X \) on Fig. 3 onto a line digraph \( Y = \{0 \to 1 \to 2\} \) such that \( \Phi (0) = 0, \Phi (1) = \Phi (2) = 1 \) and \( \Phi (3) = 2 \), which is obviously covering but \( \tau (X) = 2\sqrt{2} \) while \( \tau (Y) = \sqrt{3} \).

**Example 3.12.** We say that a digraph \( G = (V, E) \) is cyclic if it is connected (as an undirected graph), every vertex has the degree 2, and there are no double arrows. For example, the triangle from Example 3.10 and the square from Example 3.11 are cyclic.

Here we assume that \( G \) is neither triangle nor square. Some examples of such digraphs are shown on Fig. 4.

![Figure 4. Three cyclic digraphs with 3, 4 and 6 vertices](image)

Note that a triangular digraph on Fig. 4 is not a triangle in the sense of Example 3.10 because of different orientation of the arrows, and the quadrilateral digraph here is not a square for the same reason.

For a cyclic digraph that is neither triangle nor square, it is known that \( \Omega_p (G) = \{0\} \) and \( H_p (G) = \{0\} \) for all \( p \geq 2 \), whereas
\[ \dim H_0 (G) = \dim H_1 (G) = 1 \]

and, hence, \( \chi (G) = 0 \) (see [3, Sect. 4.5]). Assume that \( G \) has \( m \) vertices 0, 1, ..., \( m - 1 \) that we identify with residues mod \( m \). The numeration of vertices can be chosen so that all arrows have the form either \( i \to i + 1 \) or \( i + 1 \to i \), for \( i = 0, \ldots, m - 1 \).

Let us use notations \( \overline{e}_{i(i+1)} \) from (3.17) and \( \sigma_i \) from (3.18) so that \( \overline{e}_{i(i+1)} \in \Omega_1 \) and
\[ \partial \overline{e}_{i(i+1)} = \sigma_i (e_{i+1} - e_i). \]

Choose the following \( \iota \) orthonormal bases in \( \Omega_0 \) and \( \Omega_1 \):
\[ \omega_0 = \{e_i : i = 0, \ldots, m - 1\} \]
and
\[ \omega_1 = \{ \tau_{i(i+1)} : i = 0, \ldots, m-1 \} . \]

Observe that \( Z_0 = \Omega_0 \) and
\[ Z_1 = \ker \partial|_{\Omega_1} = \text{span} \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sigma_i \tau_{i(i+1)} \right\} \]
because
\[ \partial \left( \sum_{i} \alpha_i \tau_{i(i+1)} \right) = \sum_{i} \alpha_i (\tau_{i+1} - \tau_i) = \sum_{i} (\alpha_{i-1} \tau_{i-1} - \alpha_i \tau_i) e_i, \]
which vanishes if \( \alpha_i \) is proportional to \( 1/\sigma_i = \sigma_i \).

Then \( B_0 = \partial \Omega_1 \) has dimension \( m - 1 \) and we choose
\[ b_0 = \{ \tau_i (\tau_{i+1} - \tau_i) \}, \quad i = 0, \ldots, m-2 \]
and, respectively,
\[ \tilde{b}_1 = \{ \tau_{i(i+1)} \}, \quad i = 0, \ldots, m-2 \} . \]
The orthogonal complement of \( B_0 \) in \( Z_0 = \Omega_0 \) is
\[ \mathcal{H}_0 = \text{span} \{ e_0 + \ldots + e_{m-1} \}, \]
so that
\[ h_0 = \{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} (e_0 + \ldots + e_{m-1}) \} . \]

Hence, as in (3.19), we obtain
\[ [b_0, h_0, \tilde{b}_0 / \omega_0] = \sqrt{m}. \]

Next, we have \( B_1 = \partial \Omega_2 = \{0\} \) hence \( b_1 = \emptyset, \mathcal{H}_1 = Z_1 \) and
\[ h_1 = \{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sigma_i \tau_{i(i+1)} \}. \]

We see that
\[ [b_1, h_1, \tilde{b}_1 / \omega_1] = |\text{det}|
\[ \begin{pmatrix}
\frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} \sigma_0 & 1 & 0 \\
\frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} \sigma_1 & 1 & \ddots \\
& \ddots & \ddots \\
\frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} \sigma_{m-1} & 0 & 1 \\
\end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}}. \]

It follows that
\[ \tau (G) = \prod_{p=0}^{1} [b_p, h_p, \tilde{b}_p / \omega_p]^{(-1)^p} = m \]
and also \( \tau' (G) = m. \)

3.4. Analytic torsion. Let \( \Omega \) be a chain complex as above and \( \iota \) be an inner product structure on \( \Omega \). It is easy to check from (3.3) that \( \Delta_p \) is a self-adjoint non-negative definite operator on \( \Omega_p \). Hence, its eigenvalues are non-negative reals, denote them by \( \{ \lambda_i \}_{i=1}^{\dim \Omega_p} \).

The zeta function \( \zeta_p (s) \) of \( \Delta_p \) is defined by
\[ \zeta_p (s) = \sum_{\lambda_i > 0} \frac{1}{\lambda_i^s}, \]
Definition 3.13. The analytic torsion \( T(\Omega, \iota) \) of the chain complex \( \Omega \) with an inner product structure \( \iota \) is defined by

\[
\log T(\Omega, \iota) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{p=0}^{N} (-1)^p p \zeta_p'(0).
\] (3.20)

The next theorem is one of the main results of this paper.

Theorem 3.14. We have

\[
\tau(\Omega, \iota) = T(\Omega, \iota).
\]

This theorem was proved in [9, Proposition 1.7] for a special case when the homology groups \( H_p \) are trivial. We use a modification of the argument of [9] that works with arbitrary homology groups.

Proof. Observe that

\[
\zeta_p'(s) = -\sum_{\lambda_i > 0} (\log \lambda_i) \lambda_i^{-s},
\]

whence

\[
\zeta_p'(0) = -\sum_{\lambda_i > 0} (\log \lambda_i) = -\log D_p,
\] (3.21)

where

\[
D_p := \prod_{\lambda_i > 0} \lambda_i
\]
is the determinant of \( \Delta_p \) restricted on the direct sum of the eigenspaces with positive eigenvalues. In the view of (3.20) and (3.21), it suffices to prove that

\[
\log \tau(\Omega, \iota) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{p=0}^{N} (-1)^p p \log D_p.
\] (3.22)

As before, we use notations \( B_p = \text{im} \partial_{p+1} = \partial \Omega_{p+1} \) and \( Z_p = \ker \partial_p \) so that \( H_p = Z_p / B_p \). Since any element of \( u \in B_p \) has the form \( u = \partial v \) for some \( v \in \Omega_{p+1} \), we have

\[
\Delta_p u = \partial^* \partial v + \partial \partial^* u = \partial (\partial^* u) \in B_p.
\] (3.23)

Hence, \( B_p \) is an invariant subspace of \( \Delta_p \). Therefore, there exists an orthonormal basis \( b_p = \{ b_i^p \} \) of \( B_p \) that consists of the eigenvectors of \( \Delta_p \):

\[
\Delta_p b_i^p = \beta_i^p b_i^p,
\]

where \( \beta_i^p \) are the corresponding eigenvalues. Since by (3.4) \( B_p \) is orthogonal to \( \mathcal{H}_p \) and all the eigenvectors of \( \Delta_p \) with eigenvalue 0 belong to \( \mathcal{H}_p \), we have \( \beta_i^p > 0 \).

By (3.23) we have \( \Delta_p b_i^p = \partial \partial^* b_i^p \), whence

\[
\partial \partial^* b_i^p = \beta_i^p b_i^p.
\] (3.24)

Set

\[
\tilde{b}_p^i := \frac{1}{\beta_i^p} \partial \partial^* b_i^p - 1 \in \Omega_p.
\]

We have by (3.24)

\[
\tilde{\partial} b_p^i = \frac{1}{\beta_i^p} \partial \partial^* b_i^p - 1 = \frac{1}{\beta_i^p} \beta_i^p b_i^p - 1 = b_i^p - 1
\]

so that the sequences \( \tilde{b}_p = \{ \tilde{b}_p^i \} \) and \( b_{p-1} = \{ b_{p-1}^i \} \) satisfy the identity (3.7) and, hence, can be used in the definition of R-torsion. Since also

\[
\partial^* \tilde{b}_p^i = \frac{1}{\beta_i^p} \partial^* \partial^* b_i^p - 1 = 0,
\]

we obtain
\[
\Delta_p \widetilde{b}_p^i = \partial^* \partial \widetilde{b}_p^i + \partial \partial^* \widetilde{b}_p^i = \partial^* b_{p-1}^i + 0 = \beta_{p-1}^i \widetilde{b}_p^i.
\]

Hence, \( \widetilde{b}_p^i \) are the eigenvectors of \( \Delta_p \) with eigenvalues \( \beta_{p-1}^i \). Moreover, the sequence \( \{ \widetilde{b}_p^i \} \) is orthogonal because by (3.24) for \( i \neq j \)

\[
\langle \widetilde{b}_p^i, \widetilde{b}_p^j \rangle = \frac{1}{\beta_{p-1}^i \beta_{p-1}^j} \langle \partial^* b_{p-1}^i, \partial^* b_{p-1}^j \rangle
= \frac{1}{\beta_{p-1}^i \beta_{p-1}^j} \langle \partial \partial^* b_{p-1}^i, b_{p-1}^j \rangle
= \frac{1}{\beta_{p-1}^j} \langle b_{p-1}^i, b_{p-1}^j \rangle
= 0.
\]

In the case \( i = j \) we obtain similarly

\[
\| \widetilde{b}_p^i \|^2 = \frac{1}{\beta_{p-1}^i} \langle b_{p-1}^i, b_{p-1}^i \rangle = \frac{1}{\beta_{p-1}^i}.
\]

Note also that the vectors \( b_p^i \) and \( \widetilde{b}_p^j \) are necessarily orthogonal since

\[
\langle b_p^i, \widetilde{b}_p^j \rangle = \frac{1}{\beta_{p-1}^i \beta_{p-1}^j} \langle b_{p-1}^i, \partial^* b_{p-1}^j \rangle = \frac{1}{\beta_{p-1}^j} \langle \partial b_{p-1}^i, b_{p-1}^j \rangle = 0.
\]

Let \( h_p = \{ h_p^i \} \) be an orthonormal basis of \( \mathcal{H}_p \). Then the following sequence

\[
\omega_p = b_p \cup \{ \sqrt{\beta_{p-1}^i} \} \cup h_p
\]

consists of the eigenvectors of \( \Delta_p \) and is orthonormal. By construction, this sequence is a basis in \( \Omega_p \) (see Section 3.2). It follows that all the positive eigenvalues of \( \Delta_p \) are

\[
\{ \beta_{p-1}^i \} \cup \{ \beta_p^i \},
\]

whence

\[
D_p = \prod_i \beta_{p-1}^i \prod_i \beta_p^i.
\]

Setting

\[
L_k := \log \prod_i \beta_k^i
\]

we obtain

\[
\log D_p = L_{p-1} + L_p.
\]

Using that \( L_N = 0 \), we obtain

\[
L_{p-1} = (L_{p-1} + L_p) - (L_p + L_{p+1}) + ... = \sum_{q=p}^{N} (-1)^{q-p} (L_{q-1} + L_q) = \sum_{q=p}^{N} (-1)^{q-p} \log D_q.
\]  

(3.26)

It follows from (3.25) that

\[
[b_p, \widetilde{b}_p, h_p / \omega_p] = \prod_i (\beta_{p-1}^i)^{-1/2} = (L_{p-1})^{-1/2}
\]

Using the definition of \( \tau(\Omega, \iota) \) and (3.26), we obtain

\[
\log \tau(\Omega, \iota) = \sum_{p=0}^{N} (-1)^p \log[b_p, \widetilde{b}_p, h_p / \omega_p]
\]
\[
\phi = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{p=1}^{N} (-1)^p L_{p-1} \\
= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{p=1}^{N} (-1)^p \sum_{q=p}^{N} (-1)^{q-p} \log D_q \\
= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{q=1}^{N} \sum_{p=1}^{q} (-1)^q \log D_q \\
= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{q=1}^{N} (-1)^q q \log D_q,
\]
which finishes the proof of (3.22).

4. Cartesian product of path complexes

4.1. Product of paths. Given two finite sets \(X, Y\), consider their Cartesian product \(Z = X \times Y\). Let \(z = z_0z_1...z_r\) be a regular elementary \(r\)-path on \(Z\), where \(z_k = (x_k, y_k)\) with \(x_k \in X\) and \(y_k \in Y\).

**Definition 4.1.** We say that the path \(z\) is step-like if, for any \(k = 1, ..., r\), either \(x_{k-1} = x_k\) or \(y_{k-1} = y_k\). In fact, exactly one of these conditions holds as \(z\) is regular.

Any step-like path \(z\) on \(Z\) determines by projection regular elementary paths \(x\) on \(X\) and \(y\) on \(Y\). More precisely, \(x\) is obtained from \(z\) by taking the sequence of all \(X\)-components of the vertices of \(z\) and then by collapsing in it any subsequence of repeated vertices to one vertex. The same rule applies to \(y\). By construction, the projections \(x\) and \(y\) are regular elementary paths on \(X\) and \(Y\), respectively. If the projections of \(z = z_0...z_r\) are \(x = x_0...x_p\) and \(y = y_0...y_q\) then \(p + q = r\) (cf. Fig. 5(left)).

**Figure 5.** Left: a step-like path \(z\) and its projections \(x\) and \(y\). Right: a staircase \(S(z)\) and its elevation \(L(z)\) (here \(L(z) = 30\)).

Every vertex \(z_k = (x_i, y_j)\) of a step-like path \(z\) can be represented as a point \((i, j)\) of \(\mathbb{Z}^2\) so that the whole path \(z\) is represented by a staircase \(S(z)\) in \(\mathbb{Z}^2\) connecting the points \((0, 0)\) and \((p, q)\).

**Definition 4.2.** Define the elevation \(L(z)\) of the path \(z\) as the number of cells in \(\mathbb{Z}^2\) below the staircase \(S(z)\) (the shaded area on Fig. 5(right)).

For given elementary regular \(p\)-path \(x\) on \(X\) and \(q\)-path \(y\) on \(Y\), denote by \(\Pi_{x,y}\) the set of all step-like paths \(z\) on \(Z\) whose projections on \(X\) and \(Y\) are \(x\) and \(y\), respectively.
Definition 4.3. For regular elementary paths $e_x$ on $X$ and $e_y$ on $Y$ define their cross product $e_x \times e_y$ as a path on $Z$ as follows:

$$e_x \times e_y = \sum_{z \in \Pi_{x,y}} (-1)^{b(z)} e_z.$$  

(4.1)

Then extend by linearly the definition of $u \times v$ to all regular paths $u$ on $X$ and $v$ on $Y$.

Clearly, if $u \in \mathcal{R}_p(X)$ and $v \in \mathcal{R}_q(Y)$ then $u \times v \in \mathcal{R}_{p+q}(Z)$. Moreover, the cross product satisfies the product rule with respect to the boundary operator $\partial$:

$$\partial (u \times v) = (\partial u) \times v + (-1)^p u \times (\partial v)$$  

(4.2)

(see [4, Prop. 6.3]).

4.2. Product of path complexes and digraphs.

Definition 4.4. Given two finite sets $X$ and $Y$ with path complexes $P(X)$ and $P(Y)$ over $X$ and $Y$, respectively, define a path complex $P(Z)$ over the set $Z = X \times Y$ as follows: the elements of $P(Z)$ are step-like paths on $Z$ whose projections on $X$ and $Y$ belong to $P(X)$ and $P(Y)$, respectively. The path complex $P(Z)$ is called the Cartesian product of the path complexes $P(X)$ and $P(Y)$ and is denoted by $P(X) \square P(Y)$.

In short: a path $z$ on $Z$ is allowed if it is step-like and if its projections on $X$ and $Y$ are allowed. In particular, if $x$ and $y$ are elementary allowed paths on $X$ and $Y$, respectively, then all the paths $z \in \Pi_{x,y}$ are allowed on $Z$.

Definition 4.5. Let $X$ and $Y$ be digraphs. The Cartesian product $Z = X \square Y$ of the digraphs $X$ and $Y$ is defined as a digraph with the vertices $(x, y)$ where $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$, and arrows $(x, y) \rightarrow (x', y')$ where either $x \rightarrow x'$ and $y = y'$ or $x = x'$ and $y \rightarrow y'$.

For example, if $a \rightarrow a'$ is an arrow in $X$ and $b \rightarrow b'$ is an arrow in $Y$ then they induce the following arrows in $Z$:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
(a, b') \\
\uparrow
\end{array} \rightarrow \begin{array}{c}
(a', b') \\
\uparrow
\end{array}
\]

Let $P(X)$ and $P(Y)$ be the path complexes in $X$ and $Y$, respectively, coming from the digraph structures. It is easy to see that

$$P(X \square Y) = P(X) \square P(Y),$$

that is, the Cartesian product of the path complexes is compatible with the Cartesian product of digraphs. The reader who is interested only in digraphs can always think of $X$ and $Y$ as digraphs and of $Z$ as their Cartesian product.

For a general path complex $P(V)$ over a set $V$ we use the short notations

$$A_p(P(V)) \equiv A_p(V) \text{ and } \Omega_p(P(V)) \equiv \Omega_p(V).$$

It follows from (4.1)

$$u \in A_p(X) \text{ and } v \in A_q(Y) \Rightarrow u \times v \in A_{p+q}(Z).$$

Moreover, (4.2) implies that

$$u \in \Omega_p(X) \text{ and } v \in \Omega_q(Y) \Rightarrow u \times v \in \Omega_{p+q}(Z)$$

(see [4, Prop. 6.5], [6, Prop. 4.6]). Furthermore, the following Künneth formula is true: for any $r \geq 0$,

$$\Omega_r(Z) = \bigoplus_{\{p,q \geq 0, p+q=r\}} \Omega_p(X) \otimes \Omega_q(Y),$$

(4.3)

where $\otimes$ denotes the tensor product of linear spaces, and $u \otimes v$ for $u \in \Omega_p(X)$ and $v \in \Omega_q(Y)$ is identified with the element $u \times v$ of $\Omega_r(Z)$ (see [4, Thm. 6.6] and [7, Thm 6.6]).
4.3. **Operators \( \partial^* \) and \( \Delta \) on products.** For the standard inner product \( \iota \) defined by (3.1) on each of the space \( \mathcal{R}(X) \), \( \mathcal{R}(Y) \) and \( \mathcal{R}(Z) \) the following identity is known: if \( u \in \mathcal{A}_p(X) \), \( v \in \mathcal{A}_q(Y) \), \( \varphi \in \mathcal{A}_p'(X) \) and \( \psi \in \mathcal{A}_q'(Y) \), then
\[
\langle u \times v, \varphi \times \psi \rangle = \frac{1}{p!} \frac{1}{q!} \langle u, \varphi \rangle \langle v, \psi \rangle.
\]
(see [6, Lemma 4.13]). This identity includes also the case when two paths in the inner product have different length - in this case their inner product is zero by definition. Hence, we have
\[
\frac{1}{(p+q)!} \langle u \times v, \varphi \times \psi \rangle = \frac{1}{p!} \langle u, \varphi \rangle \langle v, \psi \rangle.
\]
In the case \( p' = p \) and \( q' = q \) we pass to the normalized inner product \( \iota' \) given by (3.2) and obtain
\[
\langle u \times v, \varphi \times \psi \rangle_{\iota'} = \langle u, \varphi \rangle_{\iota'} \langle v, \psi \rangle_{\iota'}.
\]
This identity is true also if \( p' \neq p \) or \( q' \neq q \) as in these cases the both sides vanish.

In the rest of this section we use the normalized inner product
\[
\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{\iota'} = \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{\iota}
\]
unless otherwise specified. In particular, we define the adjoint operator \( \partial^* \) and the Hodge Laplacian with respect to the normalized inner product and refer to them as **normalized.**

**Lemma 4.6.** Let \( u \in \Omega_p(X) \) and \( v \in \Omega_q(Y) \). Then for the normalized adjoint operator we have
\[
\partial^* (u \times v) = \partial^* u \times v + (-1)^p u \times (\partial^* v).
\]

**Proof.** By definition, we have, for any \( w \in \Omega_{p+q+1}(Z) \)
\[
\langle \partial^* (u \times v), w \rangle = \langle u \times v, \partial w \rangle.
\]
Any \( w \in \Omega_s(Z) \) admits a representation
\[
w = \sum_k \varphi_k \times \psi_k
\]
where the sum is finite and
\[
\varphi_k \in \Omega_{p_k}(X) \quad \text{and} \quad \psi_k \in \Omega_{q_k}(Y)
\]
with \( p_k + q_k = p + q + 1 \) (see [4, Thm. 6.12], [6, Theorem 5.1]).

Then we have
\[
\langle \partial^* (u \times v), w \rangle = \langle u \times v, \sum \partial (\varphi_k \times \psi_k) \rangle
\]
\[
= \langle u \times v, \sum (\partial \varphi_k \times \psi_k + (-1)^{p_k} \varphi_k \times \partial \psi_k) \rangle
\]
\[
= \sum \langle u \times v, \partial \varphi_k \times \psi_k \rangle + (-1)^{p_k} \langle u \times v, \varphi_k \times \partial \psi_k \rangle
\]
\[
= \sum \langle u, \partial \varphi_k \rangle \langle v, \psi_k \rangle + (-1)^{p_k} \langle u, \varphi_k \rangle \langle v, \partial \psi_k \rangle
\]
\[
= \sum \langle \partial^* u, \varphi_k \rangle \langle v, \psi_k \rangle + (-1)^{p_k} \langle u, \varphi_k \rangle \langle \partial^* v, \psi_k \rangle.
\]
Note that if \( p_k \neq p \) then
\[
\langle u, \varphi_k \rangle = 0.
\]
Hence, we can replace \( p_k \) everywhere by \( p \) and obtain
\[
\langle \partial^* (u \times v), w \rangle = \sum \langle \partial^* u, \varphi_k \rangle \langle v, \psi_k \rangle + (-1)^p \langle u, \varphi_k \rangle \langle \partial^* v, \psi_k \rangle
\]
\[
= \sum \langle \partial^* u \times v, \varphi_k \times \psi_k \rangle + (-1)^p \langle u \times \partial^* v, \varphi_k \times \psi_k \rangle
\]
\[
= (\partial^* u \times v + (-1)^p u \times \partial^* v, \sum \varphi_k \times \psi_k)
\]
\[
= (\partial^* u \times v + (-1)^p u \times \partial^* v, w).
\]
the normalized inner product structure on $P$. As before, let $T$ and $\tau$ be the standard inner product structure on $P$ given by (3.1) and (3.15) and (3.16).

**Lemma 4.7.** For the normalized Hodge Laplacian we have

$$\Delta (u \times v) = (\Delta u) \times v + u \times \Delta v. \quad (4.6)$$

**Proof.** Let $u \in \Omega_p(X)$ and $v \in \Omega_q(X)$. Then we have

$$\partial \partial^* (u \times v) = \partial (\partial^* u \times v + (-1)^p u \times \partial^* v) = \partial (\partial^* u \times v) + (-1)^p \partial (u \times \partial^* v) = \partial \partial^* u \times v + (-1)^p \partial^* u \times \partial v + (-1)^p \partial u \times \partial^* v + u \times \partial^* v$$

and

$$\partial^* \partial (u \times v) = \partial^* (\partial u \times v + (-1)^p u \times \partial v) = \partial^* (\partial u \times v) + (-1)^p \partial^* (u \times \partial v) = \partial^* \partial u \times v + (-1)^{p-1} \partial^* u \times \partial^* v + (-1)^p \partial^* u \times \partial v + u \times \partial^* v.$$

Adding up the two identities and noticing that the terms $\partial^* u \times \partial v$ and $\partial u \times \partial^* v$ cancel out, we obtain

$$\Delta (u \times v) = (\Delta u) \times v + u \times (\Delta v).$$

**4.4. Torsion of products.** Let $P(V)$ be a path complex on a set $V$ with the maximal length $N$. As before, let $\iota$ be the standard inner product structure on $P(V)$ given by (3.1) and $\iota'$ be the normalized inner product structure on $P(V)$ given by (3.2). Consider the corresponding standard and normalized torsions:

$$T(V) = T(\Omega(V), \iota) \quad \text{and} \quad T'(V) = T(\Omega(V), \iota').$$

In the same way we will use notation $\tau(V)$ and $\tau'(V)$ for R-torsions with respect to $\iota$ and $\iota'$, respectively. Since $T(V) = \tau(V)$ and $T'(V) = \tau'(V)$, the relation between $T(V)$ and $T'(V)$ is given by (3.15) and (3.16).

Although the main object of interest for us is the standard torsion $T(V)$, in this section we make an essential use of $T'(V)$ as it behaves better with respect to the Cartesian product.

We need also the Euler characteristic of $\Omega(V)$:

$$\chi(V) = \chi(\Omega(V)) = \sum_{p=0}^{N} (-1)^p \dim \Omega_p(V) = \sum_{p=0}^{N} (-1)^p \dim H_p(V).$$

The next theorem is our main result about torsion on the product of path complexes.

**Theorem 4.8.** If $P(Z) = P(X) \square P(Z)$ then

$$\log T'(Z) = \chi(Y) \log T'(X) + \chi(X) \log T'(Y). \quad (4.7)$$

Before the proof of Theorem 4.8, we need to do some preparations. In the next lemmas we work with an arbitrary chain complex $\Omega$ with some inner product structure $\iota$. Let $\lambda$ be an eigenvalue of the Hodge Laplacian $\Delta_p$ on some chain complex $\Omega$. Consider the eigenspace of $\lambda$ and its subspaces:

$$E_p(\lambda) = \{ \varphi \in \Omega_p : \Delta_p \varphi = \lambda \varphi \},$$
\[ E'_p(\lambda) = \{ \varphi \in E_p(\lambda) : \partial \varphi = 0 \}, \]
\[ E''_p(\lambda) = \{ \varphi \in E_p(\lambda) : \partial^* \varphi = 0 \}. \]

In the case \( \lambda = 0 \) these three spaces are identical by Lemma 3.2. In the case \( \lambda \neq 0 \) the situation is different.

**Lemma 4.9.** Assume that \( \lambda \neq 0 \). Then we have
\[
E'_p(\lambda) = \{ \varphi \in \Omega_p : \partial \varphi = \lambda \varphi \} \tag{4.8}
\]
and
\[
E''_p(\lambda) = \{ \varphi \in \Omega_p : \partial^* \varphi = \lambda \varphi \} \tag{4.9}
\]

**Proof.** Let us first prove (4.8). If \( \varphi \in E'_p(\lambda) \) then
\[ \lambda \varphi = \Delta \varphi = \partial \varphi + \partial^* \varphi = \partial \partial^* \varphi. \]

Conversely, if \( \partial \partial^* \varphi = \lambda \varphi \) then
\[ \partial \varphi = \frac{1}{\lambda} \partial (\partial \partial^* \varphi) = 0 \]
and, hence, \( \Delta \varphi = \partial \partial^* \varphi = \lambda \varphi \) so that \( \varphi \in E'_p(\lambda) \). In the same way one proves (4.9).

In order to verify (4.10), observe first that the space \( E'_p(\lambda) \) and \( E''_p(\lambda) \) are orthogonal because for any \( \varphi \in E'_p(\lambda) \) and \( \psi \in E''_p(\lambda) \) we have
\[ \langle \varphi, \psi \rangle = \frac{1}{\lambda^2} (\partial \partial^* \varphi, \partial \partial^* \psi) = 0. \]

For any \( \varphi \in E_p(\lambda) \) we have
\[ (\partial \partial^*)^2 \varphi = \partial \partial^* (\partial \partial^* \varphi + \partial^* \Delta \varphi) = \partial \partial^* \Delta \varphi = \lambda \partial \partial^* \varphi, \]
which implies by (4.8) that \( \partial \partial^* \varphi \in E'_p(\lambda) \). Similarly, we have \( \partial^* \partial \varphi \in E''_p(\lambda) \). Finally, for any \( \varphi \in E_p(\lambda) \) we have
\[ \varphi = \frac{1}{\lambda} \lambda \varphi = \frac{1}{\lambda} \partial \partial^* \varphi + \frac{1}{\lambda} \partial^* \partial \varphi, \]
whence (4.10) follows. \( \square \)

**Lemma 4.10.** The operator \( \lambda^{-1/2} \partial \) is an isometry of \( E''_p(\lambda) \) onto \( E'_{p-1}(\lambda) \) with the inverse \( \lambda^{-1/2} \partial^* \).

**Proof.** Let \( \varphi \in E''_p(\lambda) \) so that \( \partial \varphi = 0 \) and \( \partial^* \varphi = \lambda \varphi \). For \( \psi = \partial \varphi \) we have
\[ \partial \partial^* \psi = \partial \partial^* \varphi = \lambda \partial \varphi = \lambda \psi \]
whence \( \psi \in E'_{p-1}(\lambda) \). Hence, \( \partial \) maps \( E''_p(\lambda) \) into \( E'_{p-1}(\lambda) \). Let us verify that \( \lambda^{-1/2} \partial \) is an isometry. For \( \varphi \in E''_p(\lambda) \) and \( \psi = \lambda^{-1/2} \partial \varphi \) we have
\[ \langle \psi, \varphi \rangle = \frac{1}{\lambda} (\partial \varphi, \partial \varphi) = \frac{1}{\lambda} (\partial^* \partial \varphi, \varphi) = \langle \varphi, \varphi \rangle. \]

It remains to show that the mapping \( \lambda^{-1/2} \partial \) is onto and has the inverse \( \lambda^{-1/2} \partial^* \). For any \( \psi \in E''_{p-1}(\lambda) \) we have \( \partial^* (\partial \psi) = 0 \) and
\[ \Delta_p(\partial^* \psi) = (\partial^* \partial + \partial \partial^*) \partial^* \psi = \partial^* \partial^* \partial \psi = \partial^* (\partial \psi) = \lambda \partial^* \psi, \]
which implies \( \partial^* \psi \in E''_p(\lambda) \). Since by (4.8) \( \partial \partial^* \psi = \lambda \psi \), we obtain
\[ \lambda^{-1/2} \partial(\lambda^{-1/2} \partial^* \psi) = \frac{1}{\lambda} \partial \partial^* \psi = \psi. \]

and we conclude that \( \lambda^{-1/2} \partial \) and \( \lambda^{-1/2} \partial^* \) are mutually inverse. \( \square \)
Let \( n_p(\lambda), n'_p(\lambda), n''_p(\lambda) \) be the dimensions of spaces \( E_p(\lambda), E'_p(\lambda), E''_p(\lambda) \), respectively. It follows from Lemmas 4.9 and 4.10 that

\[
\begin{align*}
n'_{p-1}(\lambda) &= n'_p(\lambda), \\
n_p(\lambda) &= n'_p(\lambda) + n''_p(\lambda).
\end{align*}
\]

As it follows from the definition of the Euler characteristic \( \chi(\Omega) \) and \( H_p \cong H_p \), we have

\[
\chi(\Omega) = \sum_{p=0}^{N} (-1)^p n_p(0).
\]

**Lemma 4.11.** If \( \lambda > 0 \) then

\[
\sum_{p=0}^{N} (-1)^p n_p(\lambda) = 0.
\]

**Proof.** We have

\[
\begin{align*}
\sum_{p=0}^{N} (-1)^p n_p(\lambda) &= \sum_{p=0}^{N} (-1)^p n'_p(\lambda) + \sum_{p=0}^{N} (-1)^p n''_p(\lambda) \\
&= \sum_{p=0}^{N} (-1)^p n'_p(\lambda) + \sum_{p=1}^{N} (-1)^p n'_{p-1}(\lambda) + n''_0(\lambda) \\
&= (-1)^N n'_N(\lambda) + n''_0(\lambda) \\
&= 0.
\end{align*}
\]

Here \( n'_N(\lambda) = 0 \) because for every vector \( \varphi \in E'_N(\lambda) \) we have \( \partial^* \varphi = 0 \) and, hence,

\[
\varphi = \frac{1}{\lambda} \partial \partial^* \varphi = 0,
\]

and \( n''_0(\lambda) = 0 \) because for any \( \varphi \in E''_0(\lambda) \) we have \( \partial \varphi = 0 \) and, hence,

\[
\varphi = \frac{1}{\lambda} \partial^* \partial \varphi = 0.
\]

\( \square \)

Now we can prove Theorem 4.8. The idea of proof is borrowed from [9, Thm. 2.5].

**Proof of Theorem 4.8.** The zeta function \( \zeta_{p,X}(s) \) of \( \Delta_p \) on \( X \) can be represented in the form

\[
\zeta_{p,X}(s) = \sum_{\lambda > 0} \lambda^{-s} n_p(\lambda, X),
\]

where the sum is taken over all distinct positive eigenvalues \( \lambda \) of \( \Delta_p \) and \( n_p(\lambda, X) \) is the multiplicity of \( \lambda \). Similar formulas hold for \( \zeta_{q,Y}(s) \) and \( \zeta_{r,Z}(s) \).

Let \( u \in \Omega_p(X) \) be an eigenvector of \( \Delta_p \) with eigenvalue \( \lambda \) and \( v \in \Omega_q(Y) \) be an eigenvector of \( \Delta_q \) with eigenvalue \( \mu \). It follows from (4.6) that \( u \times v \in \Omega_{p+q}(Z) \) is an eigenvector of \( \Delta_{p+q} \) with eigenvalue \( \lambda + \mu \). If \( \{u_i\} \) is an orthonormal basis in \( \Omega_p(X) \) consisting of the eigenvectors of \( \Delta_p \) and \( \{v_j\} \) is an orthonormal basis in \( \Omega_q(Y) \) consisting of the eigenvectors of \( \Delta_q \) then the sequence \( \{u_i \times v_j\} \) is orthonormal by (4.4) and, hence, forms a basis in \( \Omega_p(X) \otimes \Omega_q(Y) \).

Let us fix \( r \geq 0 \) and recall that by the K"unneth formula (4.3) \( \Omega_r(Z) \) is a direct sum of the spaces \( \Omega_p(X) \otimes \Omega_q(Y) \) over all pairs \( p, q \geq 0 \) with \( p + q = r \). Hence, collecting all the bases in \( \Omega_p(X) \otimes \Omega_q(Y) \) of the form \( \{u_i \times v_j\} \) we obtain an orthonormal basis in \( \Omega_r(Z) \). This basis consists of the eigenvectors of \( \Delta_r \) in \( \Omega_r(Z) \). Hence, all the eigenvalues of \( \Delta_r \) in \( \Omega_r(Z) \) have the form \( \lambda + \mu \) where \( \lambda \) is an eigenvalue of \( \Delta_p \) in \( \Omega_p(X) \), \( \mu \) an eigenvalue of \( \Delta_q \) in \( \Omega_q(Y) \), and the multiplicity of \( \lambda + \mu \) is \( n_p(\lambda, X) n_q(\mu, Y) \).
Hence, we obtain

\[ \zeta_{r,Z}(s) = \sum_{\lambda+\mu>0} \sum_{p+q=r} (\lambda + \mu)^{-s} n_p(\lambda, X) n_q(\mu, Y). \]  

(4.11)

It follows that

\[ \sum_{r \geq 0} (-1)^r \zeta_{r,Z}(s) = \sum_{\lambda+\mu>0} (\lambda + \mu)^{-s} \left( \sum_{p \geq 0} (-1)^p p n_p(\lambda, X) \right) \left( \sum_{q \geq 0} (-1)^q n_q(\mu, Y) \right) \]  

(4.12)

\[ + \sum_{\lambda+\mu>0} (\lambda + \mu)^{-s} \left( \sum_{p \geq 0} (-1)^p n_p(\lambda, X) \right) \left( \sum_{q \geq 0} (-1)^q n_q(\mu, Y) \right). \]  

(4.13)

By Lemma 4.11, if \( \lambda > 0 \) then

\[ \sum_{p \geq 0} (-1)^p n_p(\lambda, X) = 0, \]

and if \( \mu > 0 \) then

\[ \sum_{q \geq 0} (-1)^q n_q(\mu, Y) = 0. \]

Hence, in (4.12)-(4.13) all the terms with \( \lambda > 0 \) and \( \mu > 0 \) vanish, and we obtain

\[ \sum_{r \geq 0} (-1)^r \zeta_{r,Z}(s) = \sum_{\lambda>0,\mu=0} \lambda^{-s} \left( \sum_{p \geq 0} (-1)^p p n_p(\lambda, X) \right) \left( \sum_{q \geq 0} (-1)^q n_q(0, Y) \right) \]

\[ + \sum_{\mu>0,\lambda=0} \mu^{-s} \left( \sum_{p \geq 0} (-1)^p n_p(0, X) \right) \left( \sum_{q \geq 0} (-1)^q n_q(\mu, Y) \right) \]

\[ = \chi(Y) \sum_{p \geq 0} (-1)^p p \zeta_{p,X}(s) + \chi(X) \sum_{q \geq 0} (-1)^q q \zeta_{q,Y}(s). \]

Taking derivative of the both sides at \( s = 0 \) and using the definition of analytic torsion, we obtain

\[ \log T'(Z) = \chi(Y) \log T'(X) + \chi(X) \log T'(Y). \]  

(4.14)

The Künneth formula (4.3) implies that

\[ \chi(Z) = \chi(X) \chi(Y), \]

which will be used in the next statement.

For any \( n \geq 2 \) define on the set \( X^{\Box n} = X \times \ldots \times X \) the following path complex

\[ P(X^{\Box n}) = P(X) \Box \ldots \Box P(X) = P(X)^{\Box n}. \]

**Corollary 4.12.** We have

\[ \log T'(X^{\Box n}) = n \chi(X)^{n-1} \log T'(X). \]  

(4.15)
Proof. Denote \( \log T' (X^\Box n) = x_n \) and \( \chi (X) = a \). Then \( \chi (X^n) = a^n \), and we have by (4.14)
\[
x_{n+1} = ax_n + a^n x_1.
\]
For \( n = 1 \) (4.15) is trivial. Assuming the induction hypothesis \( x_n = na^{n-1} x_1 \), we obtain
\[
x_{n+1} = na^n x_1 + a^n x_1 = (n+1) a^n x_1,
\]
which finishes the proof by induction.

Example 4.13. Let \( G \) be a cyclic digraph with \( m \) vertices from Example 3.12. For \( n \geq 2 \) the product \( G^\Box n \) can be regarded as an analogue of a torus. Since \( \chi (G) = 0 \), we obtain from (4.15) that, for any \( n \geq 2 \),
\[
T' (G^\Box n) = 1.
\]
Recall for comparison that \( T' (G) = T (G) = m \).

Before we can compute \( T(G^\Box n) \), let us verify that
\[
\dim \Omega_p (G^\Box n) = \binom{n}{p} m^n. \quad (4.16)
\]
Indeed, for \( n = 1 \) this is true because
\[
\dim \Omega_0 (G) = \dim \Omega_1 (G) = m.
\]
Assuming that (4.16) is true for some \( n \), we obtain by the K"unneth formula (4.3)
\[
\dim \Omega_r (G^\Box (n+1)) = \sum_{p+q=r} \dim \Omega_p (G^\Box n) \dim \Omega_q (G)
\]
\[
= m \dim \Omega_r (G^\Box n) + m \dim \Omega_{r-1} (G^\Box n)
\]
\[
= m \binom{n}{r} m^n + m \binom{n}{r-1} m^n
\]
\[
= m^{n+1} \binom{n+1}{r}.
\]
In the same way, using that
\[
\dim H_0 (G) = \dim H_1 (G) = 1,
\]
we obtain that
\[
\dim H_p (G^\Box n) = \binom{n}{p}.
\]
Hence, by (3.15) we obtain
\[
T(G^\Box n) = T' (G^\Box n) \prod_{p=0}^{n} (p!)^{\frac{1}{2}} (-1)^p (\dim \Omega_p - \dim H_p)
\]
\[
= \prod_{p=2}^{n} (p!)^{\frac{1}{2}} (-1)^p \binom{n}{p} (m^n - 1).
\]
In particular, we have \( T(G^\Box 2) = 2^{\frac{1}{2}} (m^2 - 1) \).

Example 4.14. For the interval \( I = 0 \rightarrow 1 \) we have by Example 3.9 \( T' (I) = \sqrt{2} \) and \( \chi (I) = 1 \). Consider the \( n \)-dimensional digraph cube \( I^\Box n \). In the case \( n = 2 \) it coincides with the square from Example 3.11, in the case \( n = 3 \) this digraph is shown on Fig. 6.
By (4.15) we obtain
\[ \log T'(I^{\square n}) = n \log \sqrt{2} \]
whence
\[ T'(I^{\square n}) = 2^{n/2}. \]

Let us compute the torsion \( T(I^{\square n}) \) of the cube with respect to the standard inner product \( \iota \). For that let us first verify that
\[ \dim \Omega_p(I^{\square n}) = 2^{n-p} \binom{n}{p}, \quad (4.17) \]
We have
\[ \dim \Omega_0(I) = 2, \quad \dim \Omega_1(I) = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \dim \Omega_p(I) = 0 \quad \text{for} \quad p \geq 2 \]
so that (4.17) holds for \( n = 1 \). For the inductive step from \( n \) to \( n+1 \), observe that \( I^{\square (n+1)} = I^{\square n} \square I \). By the Künneth formula (4.3) we have
\[ \dim \Omega_r(I^{\square (n+1)}) = \sum_{p+q=r} \dim \Omega_p(I^{\square n}) \dim \Omega_q(I) \]
\[ = 2 \dim \Omega_r(I^{\square n}) + \dim \Omega_{r-1}(I^{\square n}) \]
\[ = 2^{n+1-r} \binom{n}{p} + 2^{n-r+1} \binom{n}{r-1} \]
\[ = 2^{n+1-r} \binom{n+1}{r}, \]
which finishes the proof of (4.17). In the same way one obtains that \( \dim H_0(I^{\square n}) = 1 \) and \( \dim H_p(I^{\square n}) = 0 \) for all \( p \geq 1 \). Hence, by (3.15) we obtain
\[ T(I^{\square n}) = T'(I^{\square n}) \prod_{p=0}^{n} (p!)^{\frac{1}{2}} (-1)^p (\dim \Omega_p - \dim H_p) \]
\[ = 2^{n/2} \prod_{p=2}^{n} (p!)^{\frac{1}{2}} (-1)^p 2^{n-p} \binom{n}{p}. \]
For example, we have
\[ T(I^{\square 2}) = 2\sqrt{2}, \quad T(I^{\square 3}) = \frac{16}{3} \sqrt{3}, \quad T(I^{\square 4}) = \frac{2048}{81} \sqrt{6}, \]
etc.

**Corollary 4.15.** If \( P(Z) = P(X) \square P(Z) \) then
\[ \log T(Z) = \chi(Y) \log T(X) + \chi(X) \log T(Y) \]
\[ + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{p,q \geq 1} (-1)^{p+q} \log \binom{p+q}{p} \left( \dim \Omega_p(X) \dim \Omega_q(Y) - \dim H_p(X) \dim H_q(Y) \right). \quad (4.18) \]
Proof. We use the R-torsions $\tau$ and $\tau'$ defined with respect to the inner products $\iota$ and $\iota'$, respectively. By Theorems 3.14 and 4.8 we have
\[
\log \tau'(Z) = \chi(Y) \log \tau'(X) + \chi(X) \log \tau'(Y).
\]
(4.19)

By (3.15) we have
\[
\log \tau'(X) = \log \tau(X) - \frac{1}{2} \sum_p (-1)^p \dim \Omega_p(X) \log (p!) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_p (-1)^p \dim H_p(X) \log (p!),
\]
where summation is taken over all $p \geq 0$. Similar identities hold for $Y$ and $Z$. Substituting into (4.19), we obtain
\[
\log \tau(Z) - \chi(Y) \log \tau(X) - \chi(X) \log \tau(Y) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_r (-1)^r \dim \Omega_r(Z) \log (r!) - \frac{1}{2} \sum_r (-1)^r \dim H_r(Z) \log (r!)
\]
\[
-\frac{1}{2} \chi(Y) \sum_p (-1)^p \dim \Omega_p(X) \log (p!) + \frac{1}{2} \chi(Y) \sum_p (-1)^p \dim H_p(X) \log (p!)
\]
\[
-\frac{1}{2} \chi(X) \sum_q (-1)^q \dim \Omega_q(Y) \log (q!) + \frac{1}{2} \chi(X) \sum_q (-1)^q \dim H_q(Y) \log (q!)
\]
(4.20)

Denote for simplicity
\[
x_p = \dim \Omega_p(X), \quad y_q = \dim \Omega_q(Y), \quad z_r = \dim \Omega_r(Z).
\]

By the Künneth formula we have
\[
z_r = \sum_{p+q=r} x_p y_q.
\]

It follows that
\[
\sum_r (-1)^r z_r \log (r!) - \chi(Y) \sum_p (-1)^p x_p \log (p!) - \chi(X) \sum_q (-1)^q y_p \log (q!)
\]
\[
= \sum_r (-1)^r \sum_{p+q=r} x_p y_q \log (r!) - \sum_q (-1)^q y_q \sum_p (-1)^p x_p \log (p!) - \sum_p (-1)^p x_p \sum_{q \geq 0} (-1)^q y_p \log (q!)
\]
\[
= \sum_{p,q} (-1)^{p+q} x_p y_q \log ((p+q)!) - \sum_{p,q} (-1)^{p+q} x_p y_q \log (p!) - \sum_{p,q} (-1)^{p+q} x_p y_q \log (q!)
\]
\[
= \sum_{p,q} (-1)^{p+q} x_p y_q \log \binom{p+q}{p}.
\]

Note that the summation here can be restricted to $p, q \geq 1$ since otherwise $\log \binom{p+q}{p} = 0$. A similar formula takes place for $\dim H_p$ instead of $\dim \Omega_p$. Substituting into (4.20) we obtain (4.18).

Example 4.16. Let us compute the torsions of the digraph $Z = I \square Y$ where $I$ is the interval from Example 4.14 and $Y$ is the triangle from Example 3.10 (see Fig. 7).
By Examples 3.9 and 3.10, we have $\chi(I) = \chi(Y) = 1$ and
\[ T'(I) = \sqrt{2}, \quad T'(Y) = \sqrt{3/2}. \]
Hence, we obtain by (4.7)
\[ T'(Z) = T'(I)^{\chi(Y)} T'(Y)^{\chi(I)} = \sqrt{2} \sqrt{3/2} = \sqrt{3}. \]
Since $H_p(I)$ and $H_p(Y)$ are non-trivial only for $p = 0$, we obtain by (4.18)
\[
\log T(Z) = \chi(Y) \log T(I) + \chi(I) \log T(Y) \\
+ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{p=1}^{1} \sum_{q=1}^{2} (-1)^{p+q} \log \left( \binom{p+q}{p} \right) \dim \Omega_p(I) \dim \Omega_q(Y) \\
= \log \sqrt{2} + \log \sqrt{3} + \frac{1}{2} \log \left( \frac{2}{1} \right) \cdot 1 \cdot 3 - \frac{1}{2} \log \left( \frac{3}{1} \right) \cdot 1 \cdot 1 \\
= \log \left( \sqrt{2} \sqrt{3^2/2^3} \right) = \log 4,
\]
so that
\[ T(Z) = 4. \]

5. Join of path complexes

5.1. Augmented chain complex. Let $P$ be a path complex over a set $V$ as in Section 2.1. In that section we have constructed a chain complex $R = \{ R_p \}_{p \geq 0}$ with the boundary operator $\partial$, and the space $R_{-1}$ was defined as $\{ 0 \}$. In this section we change the definition of $R_{-1}$ as follows. For any elementary $0$-paths $e_i$ redefine $\partial$ by
\[
\partial e = e
\]
where $e$ is an empty path that by definition has the length $-1$. Set $R_{-1} = \text{span}_R \{ e \} \cong R$ and consider the augmented chain complex $\tilde{R} = \{ R_p \}_{p \geq -1}$ where the operator $\partial$ still satisfies $\partial^2 = 0$. Consequently, we obtain also the augmented chain complex $\tilde{\Omega} = \{ \Omega_p \}_{p \geq -1}$ of $\partial$-invariant paths, where $\Omega_p$ with $p \geq 0$ is as before and $\Omega_{-1} = R_{-1}$, as well as the reduced homology groups $\tilde{H}_p \{ p \geq -1 \}$ where $\tilde{H}_{-1} = \{ 0 \}$, $\tilde{H}_p = H_p$ for $p \geq 1$ and $H_0 \cong \tilde{H}_0 \oplus R$. The reduced Euler characteristic is
\[ \tilde{\chi}(P) = \sum_{p \geq -1} (-1)^p \dim \Omega_p = \sum_{p \geq -1} (-1)^p \dim \tilde{H}_p = \chi(P) - 1. \quad (5.1) \]

Denote by $\langle,\rangle$ the standard inner product in $R_p$ defined by (3.1) in the case $p \geq 0$ and by $\langle e, e \rangle = 1$ for $p = -1$. If $u \in R_p$ and $v \in R_q$ with $p \neq q$ then set $\langle u, v \rangle = 0$. As before, we denote by $\iota$ the standard inner product structure in $\tilde{R}$. 

\[ \text{Figure 7. A prism digraph } I \square Y \]
5.2. Join of path complexes and digraphs. Let $V$ be a finite set.

**Definition 5.1.** For any paths $u \in \mathcal{R}_p(V)$ and $v \in \mathcal{R}_q(V)$ with $p, q \geq -1$ define their join $u \cdot v \in \mathcal{R}_{p+q+1}(V)$ as follows: first set

$$e_{i_0\ldots i_p} \cdot e_{j_0\ldots j_q} = e_{i_0\ldots i_p j_0\ldots j_q}$$

and then extend this definition by linearity.

In particular, we have $e_{i_0\ldots i_p} \cdot e = e_{i_0\ldots i_p}$. The following product formula holds for the chain complex $\mathcal{R}(V)$:

$$\partial(u \cdot v) = (\partial u) \cdot v + (\partial v) \cdot u + (-1)^{p+1} u \cdot (\partial v).$$

(5.2)

(see [7, Lemma 2.2] and [6, Lemma 2.4]).

Let $X, Y$ be two finite disjoint sets, set $Z = X \sqcup Y$. Then all paths on $X$ and $Y$ can be considered as paths on $Z$. It follows easily from definition of $u \cdot v$ that

$$u \in \mathcal{R}_p(X) \text{ and } v \in \mathcal{R}_q(Y) \Rightarrow u \cdot v \in \mathcal{R}_{p+q+1}(Z).$$

Also, for the standard inner product $(, \cdot )$ given by (3.1), we have

$$\langle u \cdot v, \varphi \cdot \psi \rangle = \langle u, \varphi \rangle \langle v, \psi \rangle,$$

(5.3)

for all $u \in \mathcal{R}_p(X)$, $v \in \mathcal{R}_q(Y)$, $\varphi \in \mathcal{R}_p(X)$ and $\psi \in \mathcal{R}_q(X)$ (see also [6, Lemma 3.10]).

Let us extend the property (2.4) of the definition of a path complex $P$ also to $n$-paths with $n = 0$, that is, we allow in (2.4) also $n = 0$. Then necessarily the empty path $e$ belongs to $P$.

**Definition 5.2.** Let $P(X)$ and $P(Y)$ be two path complexes over finite disjoint sets $X$ and $Y$, respectively. Define the chain complex $P(Z)$ over the set $Z = X \sqcup Y$ as follows: $P(Z)$ consists of all the paths of the form $u \cdot v$ where $u \in P(X)$ and $v \in P(Y)$. The path complex $P(Z)$ is called the join of $P(X), P(Y)$ and is denoted by $P(Z) = P(X) \ast P(Y)$.

Clearly, $P(X)$ and $P(Y)$ are subsets of $P(Z)$.

**Definition 5.3.** If $X$ and $Y$ are digraphs then define their join as a digraph $Z = X \ast Y$ where the set of vertices is $X \cup Y$ and the set of arrows consists of all arrows of $X$, all arrows of $Y$ as well as of all arrows of the form $x \rightarrow y$ where $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$.

It is easy to see that

$$P(X \ast Y) = P(X) \ast P(Y)$$

so that the operation of join of digraphs is compatible with join of path complexes (cf. [7]).

It is clear from the definition of $P(Z)$ that

$$u \in A_p(X) \text{ and } v \in A_q(Y) \Rightarrow u \cdot v \in A_{p+q+1}(Z).$$

It follows from (5.2) that, for all $p, q \geq -1,

$$u \in \Omega_p(X) \text{ and } v \in \Omega_q(Y) \Rightarrow u \cdot v \in \Omega_{p+q+1}(Z)$$

(see [7, Prop 5.4]). Furthermore, the following version of the Künneth formula is true for join: for any $r \geq -1$

$$\Omega_r(Z) = \bigoplus_{\{p,q \geq -1; p+q+1=r\}} \Omega_p(X) \otimes \Omega_q(Y)$$

(5.4)

where $u \otimes v$ for $u \in \Omega_p(X)$ and $v \in \Omega_q(Y)$ is identified with the element $u \cdot v$ of $\Omega_{r}(Z)$ (see [7, Thm 5.5]).

As a consequence of (5.4) we obtain that

$$\bar{\chi}(Z) = -\bar{\chi}(X) \bar{\chi}(Y),$$

(5.5)

where the minus comes from the additional 1 in $r = p + q + 1$. 

5.3. **Operators $\partial^*$ and $\Delta$ on joins.** We always assume in what follows that all the spaces $\mathcal{R}_p$ under consideration are endowed with the standard inner product (3.1), in particular, (5.3) is satisfied.

**Lemma 5.4.** Let $u \in \Omega_p (X)$ and $v \in \Omega_q (Y)$. Then

\[ \partial^* (u \cdot v) = (\partial^* u) \cdot v + (-1)^{p+1} u \cdot (\partial^* v). \]  

(5.6)

**Proof.** By definition, we have, for any $w \in \Omega_{p+q+2} (Z)$

\[ \langle \partial^* (u \cdot v) , w \rangle = \langle u \cdot v , \partial w \rangle \]

Any $w \in \Omega_1 (Z)$ admits a representation

\[ w = \sum_k \varphi_k \cdot \psi_k \]

where the sum is finite and

\[ \varphi_k \in \Omega_{p_k} (X) \quad \text{and} \quad \psi_k \in \Omega_{q_k} (Y) \]

with $p_k + q_k + 1 = p + q + 2$ (see [6, Thm 5.1] and [7, Thm 5.15]). Then we have using (5.3)

\[
\langle \partial^* (u \cdot v) , w \rangle = \langle u \cdot v , \sum \partial (\varphi_k \cdot \psi_k) \rangle \\
= \langle u \cdot v , \sum (\partial \varphi_k \cdot \psi_k + (-1)^{p_k+1} \varphi_k \cdot \partial \psi_k) \rangle \\
= \sum \langle u \cdot v , \partial \varphi_k \cdot \psi_k \rangle + (-1)^{p_k+1} \langle u \cdot \varphi_k , \psi_k \partial \psi_k \rangle \\
= \sum \langle u , \partial \varphi_k \rangle \langle \psi_k , \psi_k \rangle + (-1)^{p_k+1} \langle u , \varphi_k \rangle \langle \psi_k , \partial \psi_k \rangle \\
= \sum \langle \varphi_k , \psi_k \rangle \langle \psi_k , \psi_k \rangle + (-1)^{p_k+1} \langle u , \varphi_k \rangle \langle \partial^* \psi_k , \psi_k \rangle.
\]

Note that if $p_k \neq p$ then $\langle u , \varphi_k \rangle = 0$. Hence, we can replace $p_k$ everywhere by $p$ and obtain

\[
\langle \partial^* (u \cdot v) , w \rangle = \sum \langle \partial^* u , \varphi_k \rangle \langle \psi_k , \psi_k \rangle + (-1)^{p+1} \langle u , \varphi_k \rangle \langle \partial^* v , \psi_k \rangle \\
= \sum \langle \partial^* u , \varphi_k \cdot \psi_k \rangle + (-1)^{p+1} \langle u , \varphi_k \rangle \langle \psi_k , \partial \psi_k \rangle \\
= \langle \partial^* u \cdot v + (-1)^{p+1} u \cdot \partial^* v , \sum \varphi_k \cdot \psi_k \rangle \\
= \langle \partial^* u \cdot v + (-1)^{p+1} u \cdot \partial^* v , w \rangle,
\]

whence (5.6) follows. \hfill \Box

For the Hodge Laplacian

\[ \Delta u = \partial \partial^* u + \partial^* \partial u \]

we have then the following identity.

**Lemma 5.5.** For all $u \in \Omega_p (X)$ and $v \in \Omega_q (X)$ we have

\[ \Delta (u \cdot v) = (\Delta u) \cdot v + u \cdot \Delta v. \]  

(5.7)

**Proof.** Indeed, by (5.6) we have

\[
\partial \partial^* (u \cdot v) = \partial (\partial^* u \cdot v + (-1)^{p+1} u \cdot \partial^* v) \\
= \partial (\partial^* u \cdot v) + (-1)^{p+1} \partial (u \cdot \partial^* v) \\
= \partial^* \partial u \cdot v + (-1)^{p+2} \partial^* u \cdot \partial v \\
+ (-1)^{p+1} \left( \partial u \cdot \partial^* v + (-1)^{p+1} u \cdot \partial \partial^* v \right) \\
= \partial^* \partial u \cdot v + (-1)^p \partial^* u \cdot \partial v + (-1)^{p+1} \partial u \cdot \partial^* v + u \cdot \partial \partial^* v
\]
and by (5.2)
\[ \partial^* \partial (u \cdot v) = \partial^* \left( \partial u \cdot v + (-1)^{p+1} u \cdot \partial v \right) = \partial^* (\partial u \cdot v) + (-1)^p \partial u \cdot \partial^* v + (-1)^p \partial^* u \cdot \partial v + u \cdot \partial^* v. \]

Adding up the two identities, we see that the terms \( \partial^* u \cdot \partial v \) and \( \partial u \cdot \partial^* v \) cancel out, and we obtain (5.7). \( \square \)

5.4. **Torsion of joins.** Let \( P \) be a path complex over a set \( V \) with the standard inner product structure \( \iota \) given by (3.1). By means of the augmented chain complex \( \tilde{\Omega}(P) \), let us define the reduced analytic torsion \( \tilde{T}(P) \) by
\[ \log \tilde{T}(P, \iota) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{p=-1}^{N} (-1)^p \zeta_p'(0). \]
In the previous sections we used the standard analytic torsion \( T(P) \) given by
\[ \log T(P, \iota) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{p=0}^{N} (-1)^p \zeta_p'(0) \]
The relation between \( T(P) \) and \( \tilde{T}(P) \) is given by the following formula.

**Lemma 5.6.** We have
\[ T(P) = \sqrt{|V|} \tilde{T}(P). \] (5.8)

**Proof.** The zeta function \( \zeta_p(s) \) is determined by the operator \( \Delta_p \) that is the same for the chain complexes \( \Omega \) and \( \tilde{\Omega} \) for all \( p \geq 1 \). For \( p = 0 \) the operators \( \Delta_p \) are different for these two complexes, but the value \( p = 0 \) does not give any contribution to the analytic torsions. Hence, the difference is determined by \( p = -1 \), that is,
\[ \log \tilde{T}(P) = \log T(P) + \frac{1}{2} \zeta_{-1}'(0). \] (5.9)
For \( e \in \Omega_{-1} \) we have \( \partial e = 0 \) and
\[ \partial^* e = \sum_{i \in V} e_i, \]
because for any \( i \)
\[ \langle \partial^* e, e_i \rangle = \langle e, \partial e_i \rangle = \langle e, e \rangle = 1. \]
Hence,
\[ \Delta e = \partial \partial^* e + \partial^* \partial e = \partial \sum_{i \in V} e_i = |V| e. \]
Therefore, \( \zeta_{-1}(s) = |V|^{-s} \) and \( \zeta_{-1}'(0) = -\log |V| \). Substituting into (5.9) we obtain
\[ \log \tilde{T}(P) = \log T(P) - \frac{1}{2} \log |V|, \] (5.10)
which is equivalent to (5.8). \( \square \)

The next theorem is our main result about torsion on joins.

**Theorem 5.7.** For the join path complex \( P(Z) = P(X) * P(Y) \) we have
\[ \log \tilde{T}(Z) = -\tilde{\chi}(Y) \log \tilde{T}(X) - \tilde{\chi}(X) \log \tilde{T}(Y) \] (5.11)
where \( \tilde{\chi} \) is the reduced Euler characteristic.
Proof of Theorem 5.7. The proof is similar to that of Theorem 4.8. Let $E_p(\lambda)$ be the eigenspace of $\Delta_p$ with the eigenvalue $\lambda$, and set

$$n_p(\lambda) = \dim E_p(\lambda).$$

Lemmas 4.9 and 4.10 go unchanged also for the augmented chain complex $\tilde{\Omega} = \{\Omega_p\}_{p \geq -1}$. The same argument as in the proof of Lemma 4.11 gives for any $\lambda > 0$ that

$$\sum_{p=-1}^{N} (-1)^{p}n_p(\lambda) = 0,$$  \hspace{1cm} (5.12)

because $n''_{-1}(\lambda) = 0$: indeed, for any $\varphi \in E''_{-1}(\lambda)$ we have $\partial \varphi = 0$ and, hence, $\varphi = \frac{1}{\lambda} \partial^{*} \partial \varphi = 0$.

Arguing as in the proof of Theorem 4.8 and using the K"unneth formula (5.4) we obtain in place of (4.11) the following identity:

$$\zeta_{r,Z}(s) = \sum_{\lambda + \mu > 0} \sum_{p+q+1 = r} (\lambda + \mu)^{-s}n_p(\lambda, X)n_q(\mu, Y)$$

for any $r \geq -1$. It follows that

$$\sum_{r \geq -1} (-1)^{r}r\zeta_{r,Z}(s)$$

$$= \sum_{\lambda + \mu > 0} (\lambda + \mu)^{-s} \sum_{p \geq -1} \sum_{q \geq -1} (-1)^{p+q+1}(p + q + 1)n_p(\lambda, X)n_q(\mu, Y)$$

$$= -\sum_{\lambda + \mu > 0} (\lambda + \mu)^{-s} \left( \sum_{p \geq -1} (-1)^{p}p n_p(\lambda, X) \right) \left( \sum_{q \geq -1} (-1)^{q}n_q(\mu, Y) \right)$$

$$-\sum_{\lambda + \mu > 0} (\lambda + \mu)^{-s} \left( \sum_{p \geq -1} (-1)^{p}n_p(\lambda, X) \right) \left( \sum_{q \geq -1} (-1)^{q}q n_q(\mu, Y) \right)$$

$$-\sum_{\lambda + \mu > 0} (\lambda + \mu)^{-s} \sum_{p \geq -1} \sum_{q \geq -1} (-1)^{p+q}n_p(\lambda, X)n_q(\mu, Y).$$

(5.13) \hspace{1cm} (5.14) \hspace{1cm} (5.15)

By (5.12), if $\lambda > 0$ then

$$\sum_{p \geq -1} (-1)^{p}n_p(\lambda, X) = 0$$

and if $\mu > 0$ then

$$\sum_{q \geq -1} (-1)^{q}n_q(\mu, Y) = 0.$$

Hence, the double sum in (5.15) is equal to zero, while in (5.13)-(5.14) all the terms with $\lambda > 0$ and $\mu > 0$ vanish. We obtain

$$\sum_{r \geq -1} (-1)^{r}r\zeta_{r,Z}(s) = -\sum_{\lambda > 0, \mu = 0} \lambda^{-s} \left( \sum_{p \geq -1} (-1)^{p}p n_p(\lambda, X) \right) \left( \sum_{q \geq -1} (-1)^{q}n_q(0, Y) \right)$$

$$-\sum_{\mu > 0, \lambda = 0} \mu^{-s} \left( \sum_{p \geq -1} (-1)^{p}n_p(0, X) \right) \left( \sum_{q \geq -1} (-1)^{q}q n_q(\mu, Y) \right)$$

$$= -\bar{\chi}(Y) \sum_{p \geq -1} (-1)^{p}p \zeta_{p,X}(s) - \bar{\chi}(X) \sum_{q \geq -1} (-1)^{q}q \zeta_{q,Y}(s).$$

Taking derivative of the both sides at $s = 0$ and using the definition of analytic torsion, we obtain (5.11). \hfill \Box

For the standard analytic torsion $T$ we obtain the following.
Corollary 5.8. We have
\[
\log T(Z) = -\bar{\chi}(Y) \log T(X) - \bar{\chi}(X) \log T(Y) + \frac{1}{2} \log |Z| + \frac{\bar{\chi}(Y)}{2} \log |X| + \frac{\bar{\chi}(X)}{2} \log |Y|.
\] (5.16)

Proof. Using (5.8) and (5.1), we obtain
\[
\log T(Z) = \frac{1}{2} \log |Z| + \log \tilde{T}(Z)
\]
\[
= \frac{1}{2} \log |Z| - \left( \bar{\chi}(Y) \log \tilde{T}(X) + \bar{\chi}(X) \log \tilde{T}(Y) \right)
\]
\[
= \frac{1}{2} \log |Z| - \bar{\chi}(Y) \left( \log T(X) - \frac{1}{2} \log |X| \right) - \bar{\chi}(X) \left( \log T(Y) - \frac{1}{2} \log |Y| \right)
\]
\[
= \frac{1}{2} \log |Z| + \bar{\chi}(Y) \frac{1}{2} \log |X| + \bar{\chi}(X) \frac{1}{2} \log |Y|
\]
\[
- \bar{\chi}(Y) \log T(X) - \bar{\chi}(X) \log T(Y).
\]
\[
\Box
\]

For any \( n \geq 2 \) define on the set \( X^{*n} = \bigcup_{n \text{ times}} X \) the following path complex
\[
P(X^{*n}) = \underbrace{P(X) \ast \ldots \ast P(X)}_{n \text{ times}} = P(X)^{*n}.
\]

Corollary 5.9. We have
\[
\log \tilde{T}(X^{*n}) = n (-\bar{\chi}(X))^{n-1} \log \tilde{T}(X)
\] (5.17)
and
\[
\log T(X^{*n}) = n (1 - \chi(X))^{n-1} \log T(X) - \frac{1}{2} n (1 - \chi(X))^{n-1} \log |X| + \frac{1}{2} \log (n |X|).
\] (5.18)

Proof. Denote \( \log \tilde{T}(X^{*n}) = x_n \) and \( -\bar{\chi}(X) = a \). Then \( -\bar{\chi}(X^{*n}) = a^n \), and we have by (5.11)
\[
x_{n+1} = ax_n + a^n x_1.
\]

By induction we obtain \( x_n = na^{n-1}x_1 \), which proves (5.17).

Using (5.8) (or (5.10)) and (5.1), we obtain from (5.17)
\[
\log T(X^{*n}) = \log \tilde{T}(X^{*n}) + \frac{1}{2} \log |X^{*n}|
\]
\[
= n (1 - \chi(X))^{n-1} \left( \log T(X) - \frac{1}{2} \log |X| \right) + \frac{1}{2} \log (n |X|)
\]
\[
= n (1 - \chi(X))^{n-1} \log T(X) - \frac{1}{2} n (1 - \chi(X))^{n-1} \log |X| + \frac{1}{2} \log (n |X|),
\]
which proves (5.18). \( \Box \)

For example, if \( \chi(X) = 0 \) then (5.18) yields
\[
\log T(X^{*n}) = n \log T(X) - \frac{n-1}{2} \log |X| + \frac{1}{2} \log n,
\] (5.19)
if \( \chi(X) = 1 \) then (5.18) yields
\[
T(X^{*n}) = \sqrt{n |X|},
\] (5.20)
and if \( \chi(X) = 2 \) then
\[
\log T(X^{*n}) = n (-1)^{n-1} \log T(X) + \frac{1 + n (-1)^n}{2} \log |X| + \frac{1}{2} \log n.
\] (5.21)
Example 5.10. Let \( O = \{ \bullet \} \) be a trivial digraph of one vertex. It is easy to see that \( \chi(O) = 1 \). The join \( O \star O = O^*2 \) is the interval \( I \) from Example 3.9, the join \( O \star I = O^*3 \) is the triangle from Example 3.10. More generally, \( O^*n \) can be regarded as an \((n-1)\)-dimensional digraph simplex (see Fig. 8).

![Figure 8. Simplex \( O^*4 = I^*2 \)](image)

From (5.20) we obtain that

\[
T(O^*n) = \sqrt{n}.
\]

For example, \( T(O^*3) = \sqrt{3} \) as we have seen in Example 3.10.

Example 5.11. Consider the digraph \( D = \{ \bullet, \bullet \} \) consisting of two disjoint vertices. The join \( D \star 2 \) is a quadrilateral, and \( D \star 3 \) is an octahedron (see Fig. 9). The digraph \( D^*n \) can be regarded as a digraph analogue of an \((n-1)\)-dimensional sphere.

![Figure 9. The octahedron \( D^*3 \) is shown in two ways. The green subgraph is \( D^*2 \)](image)

We have \( \chi(D) = 2 \) and \( \tau(D) = T(D) = 1 \). By (5.21) we obtain that

\[
\log T((D^*n)) = \frac{1 + n (-1)^n}{2} \log 2 + \frac{1}{2} \log n,
\]

that is

\[
T(D^*n) = \sqrt{n}2^{\frac{1 + n (-1)^n}{2}}.
\]

For example,

\[
T(D^*2) = \sqrt{2}2^{\frac{1}{2}} = 4
\]

and

\[
T(D^*3) = \sqrt{3}2^{-1} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}.
\]

Example 5.12. Let \( G \) be a cyclic digraph from Example 3.12 with \( m \) vertices. Since \( \chi(G) = 0 \) and \( T(G) = m \), we obtain by (5.19)

\[
\log T(G^*n) = n \log m - \frac{n - 1}{2} \log m + \frac{1}{2} \log n
\]

and

\[
T(G^*n) = \sqrt{nm} \frac{n+1}{2}.
\]
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS. We would like to thank Wang Chong for the computation of torsions of digraphs in some Examples.

REFERENCES


ALEXANDER GRIGOR’YAN, DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS, UNIVERSITY OF BIELEFELD, 33501 BIELEFELD, GERMANY
E-mail address: grigor@math.uni-bielefeld.de

YONG LIN, YAU MATHEMATICAL SCIENCES CENTER, TSINGHUA UNIVERSITY, BEIJING, 100084, CHINA.
E-mail address: yonglin@tsinghua.edu.cn

SHING-TUNG YAU, DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS, HARVARD UNIVERSITY, CAMBRIDGE, MASSACHUSETTS, USA.
E-mail address: yau@math.harvard.edu