1. Introduction

The chip-firing game is a well-studied subject in combinatorics with deep connections to other areas of mathematics, including algebraic geometry. In [1], Baker and Norine demonstrated an analogy between the chip-firing game and linear equivalence of divisors on a Riemann surface. In the same paper, they proved a graph-theoretic analogue of the Riemann-Roch theorem from algebraic geometry. In fact, beyond these analogies, there is a fundamental connection between graph theory and algebraic geometry.

For example, let \( X_t \) be a family of smooth curves over \( \mathbb{C} \), parametrized by \( t \), that becomes a singular curve when \( t = 0 \) (this is an instance of a “degeneration” of curves). We can associate a graph to \( X_0 \), and divisors on \( X_0 \) descend to chip-firing states on that graph, with chip-firing moves on the graph corresponding to linear equivalence of divisors on \( X_0 \). Thus, one can address questions in algebraic geometry by studying the chip-firing game.

Furthermore, one can generalize this sort of reasoning to higher-dimensional objects. In his preprint [7], Cartwright introduced the notion of a weak tropical complex in order to generalize the concepts of divisors and the Picard group on graphs from [1]. A weak tropical complex \( \Gamma \) is a \( \Delta \)-complex equipped with algebraic data that allows \( \Gamma \) to be viewed as the dual complex of a particular kind of degeneration over a discrete valuation ring.

Within the context of weak tropical complexes, the analogue of the chip-firing game is the theory of divisors. A divisor on a weak tropical complex is a formal linear combination of codimension-1 polyhedral subsets (which we can think of as a higher-dimensional “chip configuration”), and two divisors are linearly equivalent if they differ by a “tropical principal divisor” (which we can think of as encoding a chip-firing move). One important invariant in this theory is the tropical Picard group, which consists of a certain set of tropical divisors up to linear equivalence.

Every finite graph has a unique tropical complex structure. In this tropical complex structure, divisors correspond to states in a certain form of the chip-firing game on that graph. If \( G \) and \( H \) are graphs, and \( \Gamma \) is a triangulation of their product obtained by adding in a diagonal of each resulting square, then \( \Gamma \) has a weak tropical complex structure that is compatible with the tropical complex structures on \( G \) and \( H \). Motivated by analogous results in algebraic geometry (e.g., [10, Theorem 1.7]), Cartwright conjectured that the Picard groups of \( \Gamma, G \), and \( H \) were closely related.

**Theorem 1.1** (Main Theorem). Let \( \text{Pic}(\Gamma) \) be the tropical Picard group of \( \Gamma \), and \( \text{Pic}(G) \) and \( \text{Pic}(H) \) be the tropical Picard groups of \( G \) and \( H \). Then, there is a map \( \gamma : \text{Pic}(G) \times \text{Pic}(H) \to \text{Pic}(\Gamma) \) that is always injective and is surjective if at least one of \( G \) or \( H \) is a tree.

As we shall see, the proof of this theorem is independent of the choices made in constructing \( \Gamma \), although the cokernel of the map \( \gamma \) may vary as the triangulation changes.

In this paper, we prove a seemingly weaker form of the conjecture where we restrict our attention to “ridge divisors” — divisors that are formal linear combinations of ridges of \( \Gamma \). Due to computations in sheaf cohomology (see [6, Section 3]), the ridge divisor form of the conjecture implies the more general form.
Throughout the rest of the paper we will only consider ridge divisors, so we will omit the word “ridge” and simply use the term “divisor”.

The structure of this paper is as follows: in Section 2, we provide preliminary definitions and notation; in Section 3 we prove some technical results about divisors on the product of graphs; and in Section 4 we prove the main theorem of the paper. Finally, we make the following conjecture:

**Conjecture 1.2.** \( \text{Pic}(\Gamma) \cong \text{Pic}(G) \times \text{Pic}(H) \times \mathbb{Z}^{g(G)g(H)} \).

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### 2. Preliminaries

If \( \Gamma \) is a pure \( n \)-dimensional \( \Delta \)-complex (in the sense of [9]), we write \( \Gamma_k \) for the \( k \)-skeleton of \( \Gamma \). Faces of \( \Gamma \) of dimension \( n \) are called **facets**, and faces of dimension \( n-1 \) are called **ridges**. We write \( V(\Gamma) \) and \( E(\Gamma) \) for the sets of vertices and edges of \( \Gamma \), respectively.

The following definition is due to Cartwright [7, Definition 2.1].

**Definition 2.1.** An \( n \)-dimensional weak tropical complex is a pure connected \( n \)-dimensional \( \Delta \)-complex \( \Gamma \), along with a function \( \alpha : \Gamma_{n-1} \times V(\Gamma) \to \mathbb{Z} \) such that for every ridge \( r \),

\[
\sum_{v \in r} \alpha(r,v) = \text{deg}(r),
\]

where \( \text{deg}(r) \) is the number of \( n \)-faces of \( \Gamma \) containing \( r \), and where \( \alpha(r,v) = 0 \) if \( v \notin r \).

#### 2.1. Divisors on Tropical Complexes.

For the rest of this section, let \( (\Gamma, \alpha) \) be a weak tropical complex. A **divisor** on \( \Gamma \) is a formal \( \mathbb{Z} \)-linear combination of the ridges of \( \Gamma \). If \( C \) is a divisor on \( \Gamma \) and \( r \) is a ridge, we write \( C(r) \) for the coefficient of \( r \) in \( C \).

A **piecewise linear** (PL) function on \( \Gamma \) is a continuous piecewise linear function \( \phi \) that restricts to a linear function with integer slope on each simplex in \( \Gamma \). We can associate to each PL function \( \phi \) a divisor \( \text{Div}(\phi) \) as follows:

\[
(1) \quad \text{Div}(\phi) = \sum_{\text{ridges } r} \left( \sum_{\text{facets } f \supseteq r} \phi(f \setminus r) - \sum_{v \in r} \alpha(r,v)\phi(v) \right) [r].
\]

**Definition 2.2.** A tropical principal divisor is a divisor that can be written as \( \text{Div}(\phi) \) for some PL function \( \phi \). We define \( \text{Prin}(\Gamma) \) to be the group of principal divisors on \( \Gamma \).

For any vertex \( v \in \Gamma \), we define \( \phi_v \) to be the unique PL function that is 1 on \( v \) and 0 on all other vertices of \( \Gamma \). We note that \( \text{Prin}(\Gamma) \) is generated by \( \{ \text{Div}(\phi_v) \mid v \in V(\Gamma) \} \), since our PL functions are uniquely specified by their values on \( V(\Gamma) \).
We are interested in divisors that are “locally principal”, which we make precise in the following sense:

**Definition 2.3.** A tropical Cartier divisor is a formal $\mathbb{Z}$-linear combination $D$ of ridges of $\Gamma$ such that for every $v \in V(\Gamma)$, there exists a PL function $\phi$ such that $D$ and $\text{Div}(\phi)$ agree on all ridges containing $v$. We let $\text{Cart}(\Gamma)$ be the group of Cartier divisors on $\Gamma$.

**Definition 2.4.** A tropical $\mathbb{Q}$-Cartier divisor is a divisor $D$ such that $mD$ is Cartier for some $m \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$. We let $\mathbb{Q}\text{Cart}(\Gamma)$ be the group of $\mathbb{Q}$-Cartier divisors on $\Gamma$.

Note that $\text{Prin}(\Gamma) \subseteq \text{Cart}(\Gamma) \subseteq \mathbb{Q}\text{Cart}(\Gamma)$.

**Definition 2.5.** The tropical Picard group $\text{Pic}(\Gamma)$ of $\Gamma$ is the quotient $\text{Cart}(\Gamma)/\text{Prin}(\Gamma)$. If two divisors differ by a principal divisor, they are said to be linearly equivalent. Thus, $\text{Pic}(\Gamma)$ is the group of linear equivalence classes of Cartier divisors.

Since we are working in dimensions 1 and 2, we make the following definition (see [6, p. 7]):

**Definition 2.6.** The tropical divisor class group $\text{Cl}(\Gamma)$ of $\Gamma$ is the quotient $\mathbb{Q}\text{Cart}(\Gamma)/\text{Prin}(\Gamma)$.

**Note.** As alluded to in the introduction, the definitions in this section (including that of a piecewise linear function on a weak tropical complex) are more restrictive than those in [7]. In [7], the divisors above are called ridge divisors, and the group of Cartier ridge divisors modulo principal ridge divisors is denoted $\text{Pic}_{\text{ridge}}(\Gamma)$. Since we are only dealing with ridge divisors in this paper, we omit the word “ridge”.

**Example 2.7.** Consider the following two-dimensional complex $\Gamma$, with vertex set $\{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4\}$ and edge set $\{e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4, e_5\}$.

We put a weak tropical complex structure $\alpha$ on $\Gamma$, which we write in the form of a matrix $A$ whose $(i,j)$th entry is $\alpha(e_i, v_j)$:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$  

We recall that any PL function $\phi$ is uniquely specified by its values on the vertices of $\Gamma$. Thus, Equation (1) tells us that we can write the homomorphism $\text{Div} : \mathbb{Z}^V(\Gamma) \to \mathbb{Z}^E(\Gamma)$ as the following matrix $D$:

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}.$$  

The group $\text{Prin}(\Gamma)$ consists of the column-span of the matrix $D$. The divisor $C = [e_1] + 2[e_2] + 3[e_4] + [e_5]$ is Cartier but non-principal, since it is not in the column span of $D$. Finally, Theorem 3.1 implies that in this case all divisors are $\mathbb{Q}$-Cartier.
2.2. Divisors on Graphs.

Of particular interest is the case of one-dimensional (weak) tropical complexes, i.e., graphs.

Let $G$ be a loopless connected graph, possibly with multiple edges between a given pair of vertices, with vertex set $V(G)$ and edge set $E(G)$. Restricting Definition 2.1 to dimension 1, a 1-dimensional weak tropical complex structure on $G$ is a function $\alpha : V(G) \times V(G) \to \mathbb{Z}$ such that for all $v, w \in V(G)$,

$$\alpha(v, w) = \begin{cases} \deg(v), & v = w \\ 0, & v \neq w. \end{cases}$$

Thus, we see that $G$ admits exactly one tropical complex structure. Furthermore, if we take the PL function $\phi_v$ as in Section 2.1, we see that

$$\text{Div}(\phi_v) = \left( \sum_{w \in V(G)} \text{adj}(v, w) [w] \right) - \deg(v) [v],$$

where $\text{adj}(v, w)$ is the number of edges between $v$ and $w$. Since $\{\phi_v \mid v \in V(G)\}$ spans the module of PL functions on $G$, we can express the map $\text{Div}$ as a $|V(G)| \times |V(G)|$ matrix $L(G)$, with

$$L(G)_{v, w} = \begin{cases} -\deg(v), & v = w \\ \text{adj}(v, w), & v \neq w. \end{cases}$$

This matrix is exactly the Laplacian matrix of $G$.

A Cartier divisor on $G$ is a divisor $C$ such that, for all $v \in V(G)$, there is some principal divisor $D_v$ with $D_v(v) = C(v)$. This condition is always true, so every divisor on $G$ is Cartier.

Since $\text{Prin}(G)$ is exactly the column-span of $L(G)$, we see that $\text{Pic}(G) \cong \text{coker}(L(G))$. Therefore, by the Matrix-Tree Theorem, $\text{Pic}(G) \cong \mathbb{Z} \oplus K(G)$, where $K(G)$ is a finite group called the critical group of $G$.

Remark 2.8. Divisors on a graph are equivalent to positions in a certain formulation of the well-known chip-firing game on the graph $G$ [1, Lemma 4.3]. In this case, principal divisors are precisely those positions that can be reached from the configuration where all vertices have no chips [1, Lemma 4.3].

3. Balancing Conditions

For the rest of this paper, we assume without loss of generality that all graphs are connected. Given a pair of graphs $G$ and $H$, the product $G \times H$ is a cubical complex — a cell complex whose 0-cells come from pairs of vertices, whose 1-cells come from vertex-edge pairs, and whose 2-cells are squares arising from pairs of edges. For much of this paper, we will consider triangulations $\Gamma$ of $G \times H$, obtained subdividing each square into two triangles. We call the edges of the form (edge of $G) \times$ (vertex of $H$) horizontal edges, edges of the form (vertex of $G) \times$ (edge of $H$) vertical edges, and new edges added in this triangulation diagonal edges. We define $\text{Diag}(\Gamma)$ to be the set of diagonal edges of $\Gamma$. If $\sigma$ is a square or a triangle, we define $\text{diag}(\sigma)$ to be the unique diagonal edge contained in $\sigma$.

In the preceding figure, $E_1 \times b$ is a horizontal edge, $0 \times E_2$ is a vertical edge, and $R$ is a diagonal edge.
We define a natural weak tropical complex structure on a triangulation \( \Gamma \) of \( G \times H \) as follows (this construction is due to Cartwright \cite{Cartwright}; see also \cite{HMT} Example 6.2). Let \( v \in V(\Gamma) \) and \( e \in E(\Gamma) \), and write \( F(\Gamma) \) for the set of 2-dimensional faces of \( \Gamma \). Then,

\[
\alpha(e, v) = \begin{cases}
1, & v \in e, \text{ and } e \in \text{Diag}(\Gamma) \\
[\{ \sigma \in F(\Gamma) : e \in \sigma, v \notin \text{Diag}(\sigma) \}], & v \in e \text{ and } e \notin \text{Diag}(\Gamma) \\
0, & v \notin e
\end{cases}
\]

The main result of this section is the following criterion for a divisor on \( \Gamma \) to be \( \mathbb{Q} \)-Cartier. For any graph \( G \) and any vertex \( a \) of \( G \), define \( N_G(a) \) to be the set of neighbors of \( a \). Note that this is a special form of the balancing condition mentioned in \cite{MT}, Section 5], but we prove it here for completeness.

**Theorem 3.1** ("Balancing Conditions"). Let \( G \) and \( H \) be graphs, and \( \Gamma \) a triangulation of \( G \times H \). A formal sum of ridges \( D \) of \( \Gamma \) is \( \mathbb{Q} \)-Cartier if and only if it satisfies the following conditions for all \( v = (a, b) \in V(G \times H) \). First, for all \( x \in N_G(a) \),

\[
\Xi^D_{ab}(x) := \sum_{c \in V(H) \atop (xc, ab) \in E(\Gamma)} D(xc, ab)
\]

is independent of the choice of \( x \).

Second, for all \( y \in N_H(b) \),

\[
\Upsilon^D_{ab}(y) := \sum_{c \in V(G) \atop (cy, ab) \in E(\Gamma)} D(cy, ab)
\]

is independent of the choice of \( y \).

**Proof.** We recall that a tropical Cartier divisor \( D \) is precisely one that is locally a principal divisor at every vertex \( v \) in \( G \times H \). By "locally" we mean that there is some principal divisor that agrees with the restriction of \( D \) on the graph star \( E_\Gamma(v) \) of \( v \) — the union of the collection of edges containing \( v \).

So, suppose we have a Cartier divisor \( D \) on \( \Gamma \). Fix an ordering \( v_1, \ldots, v_n \) of \( V(\Gamma) \) and an ordering \( e_1, \ldots, e_m \) of \( E(\Gamma) \). The set of principal divisors on \( \Gamma \) is precisely the column span of the \((m \times n)\) matrix \( M \) whose entries \( i, j \) are given by:

\[
M_{ij} = \begin{cases}
\alpha(e_i, v_j), & v_j \in e_i \\
-1, & e_i \in \text{link}_\Gamma(v_j) \\
0, & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

The matrix \( M \) is the negation of the matrix of the map \( \text{Div} \) in Equation (1). The negation does not affect the column span, and is more convenient for the purposes of this proof.

Let \( M_{v_k} \) be the submatrix of \( M \) consisting of the rows of \( M \) labeled by edges in \( E_\Gamma(v_k) \). A divisor is locally principal at \( v_k \) if its restriction to \( E_\Gamma(v_k) \) is in the column span of \( M_{v_k} \).

**Part 1:** Show that \( \mathbb{Q} \)-Cartier divisors satisfy the conditions of Theorem 3.1.

Fix a vertex \( v = ab \in \Gamma \), with \( a \in G \) and \( b \in H \). It suffices show that every column of \( M_v \) satisfies the conditions of Theorem 3.1 since a divisor \( D \) is balanced if and only if its integer multiples are. Let \( w \) be a vertex in \( \Gamma \). The column of \( M_v \) labeled by \( w \) can be viewed as a divisor \( D \) on \( \Gamma \).

**Case 1:** \( w = v \). Every entry of \( D \) is of the form \( \alpha(e, v) \), where \( v \in e \). Every edge containing \( ab \) is of the form \((ab, xc)\). If \( b = c \), \((ab, xc)\) is a horizontal edge; if \( x = a \), it is a vertical edge; and if \( a \neq x \) and \( c \neq b \), it is a diagonal edge.
Let \( x \in N_G(a) \). In this case, \( D(ab, xc) = \alpha((ab, xc), ab) \), so in particular \( \alpha((ab, xc), ab) = 1 \) when \( b \neq c \). We write
\[
\sum_{c \in V(H); \ (ab, xc) \in E(\Gamma)} D(ab, xc) = D(ab, xb) + \sum_{c \in V(H); \ (ab, xc) \in E(\Gamma)} D(ab, xc)
\]
\[
= \alpha((ab, xb), ab) + |\{(ab, xc) \in E(\Gamma) \mid c \neq b\}|.
\]
Now, \( \alpha((ab, xb), ab) = \#\{\sigma \in \Gamma^{(1)} : (ab, xb) \in \sigma, ab \notin \text{diag}(\sigma)\} \). We note that every triangle containing the edge \((ab, xb)\) is either of the form \(\{ab, xb, xc\}\) or of the form \(\{ab, xb, ac\}\), with \(c \in N_H(b)\). Triangles of the former type must include the diagonal edge \((ab, xc)\), while triangles of the latter type contain the diagonal edge \((ac, xb)\). In other words, \(\alpha((ab, xb), ab)\) counts the number of triangles containing \((ab, xb)\) of the latter type, while every triangle of the former type containing \((ab, xb)\) gives rise to a diagonal edge containing \(ab\). Thus,
\[
\alpha((ab, xb), ab) = |N_H(b)| - |\{(ab, xc) \in E(\Gamma) \mid c \neq b\}|,
\]
so we see that
\[
\sum_{c \in V(H); \ (ab, xc) \in E(\Gamma)} D(ab, xc) = |N_H(b)| - |\{(ab, xc) \in E(\Gamma) \mid c \neq b\}| + |\{(ab, xc) \in E(\Gamma) \mid c \neq b\}|
\]
\[
= |N_H(b)|.
\]
The choice of \( x \) was arbitrary, so \( \Xi_{ab}^D(x) \) is independent of \( x \).

**Case 2:** \( w = a'b' \). In this case, the edge \((ab, a'b')\) is a diagonal edge. Thus, we can compute \( D \) explicitly:
\[
D(ab, xy) = \begin{cases} 
-1, & \{ab, xy, a'b'\} \in \Gamma \\
1, & xy = a'b' \\
0, & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]
Fix \( x \in N_G(a) \). If \( x = a' \), then
\[
\Xi_{ab}^D(a') = \sum_{c \in V(H); \ (ab, a'c) \in E(\Gamma)} D(ab, a'c) = D(ab, a'b) + D(ab, a'b') + \sum_{c \in N_H(b) \setminus \{b'\}} D(ab, xc).
\]
Since \((ab, a'b')\) is a diagonal edge in \( \Gamma \), the horizontal edge \((ab, a'b)\) must be in \( \Gamma \) as well. This means that the triangle \(\{ab, a'b', a'b'\}\) is in \( \Gamma \). Thus, \(D(ab, a'b) = -1\). By definition, \(D(ab, a'b') = 1\). Finally, we note that for \( c \in N_H(b) \setminus \{b'\} \), \(D(ab, a'c) = 0\), since if \( c \neq b \) and \( c \neq b' \), we cannot have a triangle of the form \(\{ab, a'c, a'b'\}\). Thus, \(\Xi_{ab}^D(a') = 0\).

If \( x \neq a' \), then \(D(ab, a'b)\) never appears in \( \Xi_{ab}^D(x) \). Moreover, \(a, x, a'\) are all distinct, so \(\{ab, xc, a'b\}\) can never be a triangle in \( \Gamma \). Thus, \(\Xi_{ab}^D(x) = 0\).

**Case 3:** \( w = ab' \). In this case the edge \((ab, ab')\) is a vertical edge. Thus,
\[
D(ab, xc) = \begin{cases} 
-1, & \{ab, xc, ab'\} \in \Gamma \\
|\{a' \mid \{ab, ab', a'b'\} \in \Gamma\}|, & xc = ab' \\
0, & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]
By assumption, we choose \( x \in N_g(a) \), so \( x \neq a \). Thus the middle case can never occur in \( \Xi_{ab}^D(x) \). Furthermore, for all \( c \in N_H(b) \setminus \{b'\} \), \(D(ab, xc) = 0\) — in this case, \((ab, xc)\) always falls into the third case of \( D(ab, xc) \).

Now, for any fixed \( x \), there are only two triangles of the form \(\{ab, ab', xc\}\) that can exist in \( \Gamma \). These two triangles are \(\{ab, ab', xb\}\), and \(\{ab, ab', xb'\}\). However, \(\{ab, ab', xb, xb'\}\) is a square in \(G \times H\). Since \( \Gamma \) is a
fixed triangulation of \( G \times H \), \( \Gamma \) contains exactly one of the edges \((ab, xb')\) and \((ab', xb)\). Thus, exactly one of \(D(ab, xb)\) and \(D(ab, xb')\) is zero, and the other is \(-1\). Thus, \(\Xi^{D}_{ab}(x) = -1\) for any choice of \(x \in N_{G}(a)\).

**Case 4:** \(w = a'b\). In this case,

\[
D(ab, xc) = \begin{cases} 
-1, & \{ab, a'b, xc\} \in \Gamma \\
|\{b' \mid \{ab, a'b, a'b'\} \in \Gamma\}|, & xc = a'b \\
0, & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

We note that if \(x \neq a'\), then neither of the first two cases occurs in \(\Xi^{D}_{ab}(x)\). Since \(x \neq a'\), \(\{ab, a'b, xc\}\) can never be a triangle, and neither will \(D(ab, a'b)\) appear in our summation. Thus, \(\Xi^{D}_{ab}(x) = 0\).

If \(x = a'\), then \(D(ab, a'b) = |\{b' \mid \{ab, a'b, a'b'\} \in \Gamma\}|\), and

\[
\sum_{c \in N_{H}(b): (ab, a'c) \in E(\Gamma)} D(ab, a'c) = -1 \cdot |\{c \mid \{ab, a'b, a'c\} \in \Gamma\}|.
\]

Thus,

\[
\sum_{c \in V(H): (ab, a'c) \in E(\Gamma)} D(ab, a'c) = D(ab, a'b) + \sum_{c \in N_{H}(b): (ab, a'c) \in E(\Gamma)} D(ab, a'c) = 0,
\]

so \(\Xi^{D}_{ab}(x)\) is again independent of \(x\).

We note that for all of the cases above, analogous arguments would hold for \(\Upsilon^{D}_{ab}(y)\).

**Part 2:** Show that for any \((a, b) \in V(G \times H)\), the equations

\[
\{\Xi^{D}_{ab}(x) = \Xi^{D}_{ab}(x') : x, x' \in N_{G}(a)\} \cup \{\Upsilon^{D}_{ab}(y) = \Upsilon^{D}_{ab}(y') : y, y' \in N_{H}(b)\},
\]

which we call balancing conditions, span the left kernel of \(M_{v}\) over \(\mathbb{Q}\) (i.e., they generate all \(\mathbb{Q}\)-linear relations on its rows).

We claim that there are at least \(\deg(a) + \deg(b) - 2\) linearly independent balancing conditions. Suppose that \(\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}\}\) is the set of neighbors in \(G\) of \(a\) and \(\{w_{1}, \ldots, w_{m}\}\) is the set of neighbors of \(b\) in \(H\). Then

\[
\sum_{c \in V(H)} D(v_{1}, c, ab) = \sum_{c \in V(H)} D(v_{2}, c, ab) \quad \sum_{c \in V(G)} D(cw_{1}, ab) = \sum_{c \in V(G)} D(cw_{2}, ab)
\]

\[
\sum_{c \in V(H)} D(v_{1}, c, ab) = \sum_{c \in V(H)} D(v_{3}, c, ab) \quad \sum_{c \in V(G)} D(cw_{1}, ab) = \sum_{c \in V(G)} D(cw_{3}, ab)
\]

\[
\vdots
\]

\[
\sum_{c \in V(H)} D(v_{1}, c, ab) = \sum_{c \in V(H)} D(v_{n}, c, ab) \quad \sum_{c \in V(G)} D(cw_{1}, ab) = \sum_{c \in V(G)} D(cw_{m}, ab)
\]

is a collection of \(\deg(a) + \deg(b) - 2\) linearly independent linear relations among the values of \(D\) on the edges of \(\Gamma\) — observe that for \(i > 1\), the term \(D(v_{i}, c, ab)\) occurs only in the \((i - 1)\)st equation in the left-hand column, and for \(j > 1\), the term \(D(cw_{j}, ab)\) occurs only in the \((j - 1)\)st equation in the right hand column.

Recall that the rows of \(M_{v}\) are indexed by the edges of the graph star \(E_{\Gamma}(v)\) of \(v\). Thus,

\[
\text{rank}(M_{v}) \leq |E_{\Gamma}(v)| - (\deg(a) + \deg(b) - 2) = |E_{\Gamma}(v) \cap \text{Diag}(\Gamma)| =: \delta(v).
\]

We will construct a submatrix of \(M_{v}\) with \(\delta(v)\) rows, and show that some \(\delta(v) \times \delta(v)\) minor of this submatrix does not vanish. This will show that \(\text{rank}(M_{v}) \geq \delta(v)\).
Case 1: $v$ is contained in at least one diagonal edge. Let $\{E, E_1, \ldots, E_m\}$ be the set of diagonal edges containing $v$, and let $U$ and $H$ be the vertical and horizontal edges of the square that contains $E$. Since $E$ contains $v$, $U$ and $H$ must contain $v$ as well. Let $S_v$ be the submatrix of $M_v$ consisting of the rows labeled by $\{E, U, H, E_1, \ldots, E_m\}$, in that order. Let $d, u, h, d_1, \ldots, d_m$ be the neighbors of $v$ contained in the edges $\{E, U, H, E_1, \ldots, E_m\}$, respectively, and then define $R_v$ to be the submatrix of $S_v$ consisting of the columns of $S_v$ labeled by $\{d, u, h, d_1, \ldots, d_m\}$, in that order.

We see that $R_v$ is a $\delta(v) \times \delta(v)$ square matrix, with the following block form:

$$R_v = \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ B^T & I \end{pmatrix}$$

Let $x$ be a vertex and $Q$ be an edge. Then,

$$R_v(Q, x) = \begin{cases} \alpha(Q, x), & x \in Q \\ -1, & Q \in \text{link}_r(x) \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

so block $A$ has the form

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & \alpha(U, U) & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & \alpha(H, h) \end{pmatrix}.$$ 

On the other hand, $I$ is an identity matrix. $E_i$ and $E_j$ share no common triangles when $i \neq j$ (so $E_i$ is never in link($d_j$) or vice-versa), and $\alpha(d_i, E_i) = 1$ for all $i$ by definition of $\alpha$ for diagonal edges.

Since $E$ is the only diagonal edge that shares a square with both $U$ and $H$, we see that $B$ has the following form:

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} d & \cdots & E_k & E_{k+1} & \cdots & E_{k+\ell} & \cdots & E_m \\ u & \cdots & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ h & 0 & \cdots & 0 & -1 & \cdots & -1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

where $\{E_1, \ldots, E_k\}$ are the diagonal edges containing $v$ that are in link($u$) and $\{E_{k+1}, \ldots, E_{k+\ell}\}$ are the diagonal edges containing $v$ that are in link($h$).

Now,

$$R_v = \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ B^T & I \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} I & B \\ 0 & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A - BB^T & 0 \\ B^T & I \end{pmatrix},$$

so

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ B^T & I \end{pmatrix} = \det(A - BB^T).$$

We see

$$BB^T = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & k & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \ell \end{pmatrix},$$

where $k = \#\{i : E_i \in \text{link}(u)\}$, and $\ell = \#\{i : E_i \in \text{link}(h)\}$. Thus,

$$A - BB^T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & \alpha(U, U) - k & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & \alpha(H, h) - \ell \end{pmatrix},$$

$$8.$$
so det($A - BB^T$) = $(\alpha(U, u) - k)(\alpha(H, h) - \ell) - (\alpha(U, u) - k) - (\alpha(H, h) - \ell)$. By definition,
\[
\alpha(U, u) = |\{\sigma \in F(\Gamma) : U \in \sigma, u \notin \text{diag}(\sigma)\}|
\]
i.e. the number of triangles of the form shown below.

```
  z
 u----v
    H
```

The set of such triangles is in bijection with $\{e \in \text{Diag}(\Gamma) : v \in e, e \in \text{link}(u)\}$. On the other hand, $k = |\{Q \in E(\Gamma) \cap \text{Diag}(\Gamma) : Q \in \text{link}(u), Q \neq E\} |$. Thus, $\alpha(U, u) = k + 1$, so $\alpha(U, u) - k = 1$. By an analogous argument, $\alpha(H, h) - \ell = 1$. Thus, det($R_v$) = $-1 \neq 0$.

Case 2: $v$ is not contained in any diagonal edges. In this case, $\delta(v) = 2$, so we need to find some nonvanishing $2 \times 2$ minor of $M_v$. Let $U$ be a vertical edge containing $v$, and let $H$ be a horizontal edge containing $v$. We write $U = vu$ and $H = vh$, and we let $R_v$ be the $2 \times 2$ submatrix of $M_v$ whose columns are indexed by $v$ and $h$ respectively, and whose rows are indexed by $U$ and $H$, respectively. Then,
\[
R_v = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha(U, v) & 1 \\ \alpha(H, v) & \alpha(H, h) \end{pmatrix}
\]
Now, $\alpha(H, h) = 0$, because by assumption, $v$ is not contained in any diagonal edge, so every triangle $\sigma$ containing $H$ must be of the form:

```
  v
 /\H
 / \\
 /  \\
/   \\
/    \\
/     \\
/      \\
```

where $h \in \text{diag}(\sigma)$. On the other hand, $\alpha(H, v) > 0$, since $\alpha(H, v) + \alpha(H, h) = \deg(H) > 0$ (recall that $\deg(H)$ is the number of facets containing $H$). Thus, det($R_v$) = $\alpha(U, v) \cdot 0 - (-1)(\deg(H)) = \deg(H)$. So $\text{rank}M_v \geq 2$, as desired.

The characterization of $\mathbb{Q}$-Cartier divisors given by balancing conditions is useful both as a technical tool (as will be demonstrated in later proofs), and as a means of making tropical $\mathbb{Q}$-Cartier divisors more understandable. We have already seen that the principal divisors on a weak tropical complex are the vectors in the column span of an easily-constructed matrix, and the balancing conditions allow us to construct a matrix whose kernel consists of the $\mathbb{Q}$-Cartier divisors.

**Example 3.2.** Let $G = H = P_2$, the path with two edges. The Laplacian $L(G)$ of $G$ is
\[
\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix},
\]
which has rank 2, so $\text{Coker}(L(G))$ is given by $\mathbb{Z}^3 / \text{span}([-1, 1, 0], [0, 1, -1]) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. Thus, $\text{Pic}(G) \cong \text{Pic}(H) \cong \mathbb{Z}$.

```
   0 1 2 3
G----H
```

The triangulation $\Gamma$ of $G \times H$ is shown below, with edges labeled by the letters $a$ through $p$:
A linear combination $D$ of edges must satisfy the following equations in order to be a $\mathbb{Q}$-Cartier divisor on $\Gamma$:

\[
\begin{align*}
D(a) &= D(b) + D(f) \\
D(h) + D(d) &= D(i) + D(m) \\
D(o) + D(k) &= D(p) \\
D(e) &= D(j) + D(k) \\
D(d) + D(e) &= D(l) + D(m) \\
D(f) + D(g) &= D(n)
\end{align*}
\]

We rearrange all of these equations so that one side is equal to 0, and hence can express a vertex $P$ with columns indexed by vertices of $\Gamma$ and rows indexed by edges of $\Gamma$, with the column corresponding to $PL$ a

We can also express the principal divisors on $\Gamma$ in terms of a matrix: the ridges of $\Gamma$ are the edges of $\Gamma$, and rows are the characteristic vectors of the equations above.

Thus, the divisor class group of $\Gamma$ can be viewed as $\ker(C)/\text{Im}(P)$. Using a computer algebra system (in this instance, Sage [11]), we see that $\text{Cl}(\Gamma) \cong \mathbb{Z}^2$. Note that $\text{Pic}(G) \times \text{Pic}(H) \cong \text{Pic}(\Gamma) \cong \mathbb{Z}^2$, by the main theorem of this paper (1.1) since $G$ and $H$ are both trees. In fact, Proposition 4.3 implies that $\text{Cl}(\Gamma)$ and $\text{Pic}(\Gamma)$ coincide in this case.

**Remark 3.3.** The balancing conditions from this section have a similar structure to the definition of a harmonic morphism (see [2] Section 2). Briefly, if $G$ and $H$ are graphs, a morphism

\[\phi : (V(G) \sqcup E(G)) \to (V(H) \sqcup E(H))\]

(for convenience, we write $\phi : G \to H$) is a set map such that

1. $\phi(V(G)) \subseteq V(H)$
2. If $x \in V(G)$, $e \in E(G)$ with $x \in e$, either $\phi(x) = \phi(e)$, or $\phi(e) \in E(H)$ and $\phi(x) \in \phi(e)$.

A morphism $\phi : G \to H$ is harmonic if, for all $x \in V(G)$ and $y \in V(H)$ such that $\phi(x) = y$, the quantity

\[|\{e \in E(G) \mid x \in e, \phi(e) = e'\}|\]

is independent of the choice of edge $e'$ containing $y$.

Now, let $G$ and $H$ be simple graphs, let $\Gamma$ be a triangulation of $G \times H$ as in this section, and let $S$ be the 1-skeleton of $\Gamma$ (i.e. the graph consisting of the vertices of $\Gamma$ and the edges of $\Gamma$). We observe that there is only one graph morphism from $S$ to $G$ that acts as projection onto the first coordinate when restricted to the vertex set $V(S) = V(G) \times V(H)$.

Indeed, suppose that $v \in V(G)$, $w \in V(H)$, and that $\phi_G$ is a graph morphism from $S$ to $G$ with $\phi_G(v, w) = v$. If $e \in E(S)$ is a vertical edge of $\Gamma$ containing $(v, w)$, then $\phi_G(e) = \phi(v, w) = v$, since the other endpoint of $e$ is also mapped to $v$ under $\phi$ (and by assumption $G$ contains no loops). If $e \in E(S)$ is a horizontal or diagonal edge of $\Gamma$ that contains $(v, w)$, then the other endpoint of $e$ is mapped by $\phi_G$ to some neighbor $v'$.
of \( v \), so \( e \) must be mapped to the edge \( vv' \in E(G) \). Similarly, there is a unique graph morphism \( \phi_H \) from \( S \) to \( H \) that restricts to projection onto the second coordinate on the vertex set of \( S \).

The morphisms \( \phi_G \) and \( \phi_H \) are not harmonic in general. However, the balancing conditions for a \( \mathbb{Q} \)-Cartier divisor \( D \) on \( \Gamma \) are equivalent to saying that for any vertex \( v \in V(G) \) and \( w \in V(H) \), the sums

\[
\sum_{\{r \in E(S) \mid (v,w) \in r, \phi_G(r) = e\}} D(r)
\]

and

\[
\sum_{\{r \in E(S) \mid (v,w) \in r, \phi_H(r) = f\}} D(r)
\]

are independent of the choice of \( e \in E(G) \) with \( v \in E \) and the choice of \( f \in E(H) \) with \( w \in f \). Thus, we see that the divisor

\[
C = \sum_{r \in E(\Gamma)} [r]
\]

is \( \mathbb{Q} \)-Cartier if and only if the maps \( \phi_G \) and \( \phi_H \) are harmonic.

### 4. Cartwright's Conjecture

Let \( G \) and \( H \) be graphs, and \( \Gamma \) a triangulation of \( G \times H \). Cartwright defined a map \( \beta : \text{Div}(G) \times \text{Div}(H) \to \text{Div}(\Gamma) \) as follows. Let \( C \) be a divisor on \( G \) and \( D \) be a divisor on \( H \). Then,

\[
C = \sum_{v \in V(G)} C(v)[v]
\]

and

\[
D = \sum_{w \in V(H)} D(w)[w],
\]

so we define

\[
\beta(C, D) := \sum_{v \in V(G), r \in E(H)} C(v)[(v, r)] + \sum_{e \in E(G), w \in V(H)} D(w)[(e, w)],
\]

where \( (v, r) \) and \( (e, w) \) are edges in \( \Gamma \). We observe that \( \beta \) is injective.

**Proposition 4.1.** The map \( \beta \) sends principal divisors to principal divisors.

**Proof.** The principal divisors on a graph are the vectors in the column span of the Laplacian matrix of that graph. For \( w \in V(G) \), let \( L_w \) be the column of the Laplacian of \( G \) corresponding to \( w \), and for \( v \in V(H) \), let \( L_v \) be the column of the Laplacian of \( H \) corresponding to \( v \). It is clear that \( \beta \) is linear on \( \mathbb{Z}(V(G) \sqcup V(H)) \), so in order to show that \( \beta(\text{Prin}(G) \times \text{Prin}(H)) \subseteq \text{Prin}(\Gamma) \), it suffices to show that \( \{\beta(0, L_v) \mid v \in V(H)\} \) and \( \{\beta(L_w, 0) \mid w \in V(G)\} \) are sets of principal divisors in \( \Gamma \).

Fix some vertex \( v \in H \). By the definition of \( \beta \), we know that

\[
\beta(0, L_v) = \sum_{e \in E(G)} \text{deg}(v)[(e, v)] - \sum_{v' \in N_H(v)} \sum_{e \in E(G)} \text{adj}(v, v')[e, v'],
\]

where \( \text{adj}(v, v') \) is the number of edges between \( v \) and \( v' \) in \( H \).

We claim that

\[
\beta(0, L_v) = \sum_{w \in V(G)} P(w, v),
\]

where

\[
P(w, v) = \sum_{e \in E(G)} \text{deg}(v)[e, v].
\]
where \( P(w, v) = \text{Div}(\phi_{wv}) \), and \( \phi_{wv} \) is the PL function that is 1 at vertex \( wv \) and 0 at all other vertices. We know that

\[
\sum_{w \in V(G)} P(w, v) = \sum_{w \in V(G)} \left( \sum_{r \in \text{link}_G(wv)} -[r] + \sum_{r \in \text{Diag}(\Gamma)} [r] + \sum_{r \notin \text{Diag}(\Gamma)} \alpha(r, wv)[r] \right).
\]

For every \( r \in E(\Gamma) \) we will show that the coefficient of \([r]\) in \( \beta(0, L_v) \) is equal to the coefficient of \([r]\) in the right-hand side of (4). We treat the cases of diagonal, vertical, and horizontal edges separately.

**Case 1:** \( r \in \text{Diag}(\Gamma) \). We know that the coefficient in \( \beta(0, L_v) \) of \([r]\) is 0. On the other hand, in \( P(w, v) \), \([r]\) can only occur in terms \( A \) or \( B \). There is exactly one square containing \( r \) (since \( r \) is a diagonal edge), and it has two possible forms:

Thus, we get a contribution of \(-[r]\) either from \( P(w_1, v) \) (in the second case), or from \( P(w_2, v) \) (in the first case), and a contribution of \([r]\) from the other, so the coefficient of \([r]\) on the right-hand side of (4) is 0.

**Case 2:** \( r \) is a vertical edge of \( \Gamma \). We observe that \( \beta(0, L_v)(r) = 0 \). For any fixed \( w \) in \( V(G) \), \([r]\) can only occur in terms \( A \) or \( C \) in Equation (4).

Consider a square in \( \Gamma \) containing \( r \). Again, it has exactly two possible forms:

The left square, \( S \), contributes 0 to the coefficient of \([r]\), because \( w_1v \) is on \( \text{diag}(S) \), so \( S \) not counted in \( \alpha(r, w_1v) \), and \( r \notin \text{link}(w_2v) \). The right square, \( T \), contributes 1 to \( \alpha(r, w_1v) \) in sum \( C \) of \( P(w_1, v) \) since \( w_1v \) is not on the diagonal of \( T \), but it contributes \(-1\) to \( \alpha(r, w_2v) \) in sum \( A \) of \( P(w_2, v) \), since \( r \in \text{link}_G(w_2v) \).

Thus, the coefficient of \([r]\) in \( \sum_{w \in V(G)} P(w, v) \) is 0.

**Case 3:** \( r \) is a horizontal edge of \( \Gamma \).

**Case 3a:** \( wv \notin r, r \notin \text{link}_G(wv) \) for any \( w \in V(G) \). The coefficient of \([r]\) in equation (4) must be 0. Furthermore, the coefficient of \([r]\) in \( \beta(0, L_v) \) is also 0, by definition.

**Case 3b:** \( wv \notin r, r \in \text{link}_G(wv) \) for some \( w \in V(G) \). We can write \( r = (e, v') \) for \( e \in E(G), v' \in N_H(v) \).

Each square containing \( r \) can have one of two forms:
For each $w \in V(G)$ such that $r \in \text{link}_{1}(wv)$, the term $[r]$ only appears in sum $A$ of $P(w, v)$. For every edge in $H$ connecting $v$ and $v'$, there is a square of the form $\{w_1v, w_2v, w_1v', w_2v'\}$, which contributes $-1$ to the coefficient of $[r] - r$ in exactly one of $\text{link}_1(wv)$ or $\text{link}_1(wv')$. Thus, the coefficient of $[r]$ in the right-hand side of equation (4) is $-\text{adj}(v, v')$, as we desired.

Case 3c: $w_1v \in r$ for some $w_1 \in V(G)$. Each square in $\Gamma$ containing $r$ has one of the following two forms:

In equation (4), $v$ is fixed, so $[r]$ can appear only in $P(w_1, v)$ and $P(w_2, v)$. Furthermore, $[r]$ appears only in sum $C$. Each square $S$ containing $r$ contributes 1 to exactly one of $\alpha(r, w_1v)$ or $\alpha(r, w_2v)$ — the diagonal edge of $S$ contains exactly one of $(w_1, v)$ and $(w_2, v)$. Thus, the coefficient of $[r]$ in Equation (4) is equal to the number of squares in $\Gamma$ containing $r$.

A square in $\Gamma$ always has the form $e \times f$, where $e \in E(G)$, $f \in E(H)$. Thus, every square in $\Gamma$ containing $r$ has the form $(w_1, w_2) \times f$, where $f \in E(H)$ is some edge containing $v$. The number of such edges $f$ is equal to $\text{deg}(v)$, so the number of squares containing $r$ is equal to $\text{deg}(v)$. This means that the coefficient of $[r]$ in equation (4) is $\text{deg}(v)$, as desired.

Finally, it is clear that if we switch the roles of $G$ and $H$, the same argument gives us that $\beta(L_w, 0)$ is a principal divisor on $\Gamma$.

Proposition 4.2. If $C$ is a divisor on $G$ and $D$ is a divisor on $H$, then $L := \beta(C, D)$ is a Cartier divisor on $\Gamma$.

Proof. Fix a vertex $(v, w)$ of $\Gamma$. We wish to show that there is some principal divisor $P$ on $\Gamma$ that agrees with $L$ on all of the edges of $\Gamma$ containing $(v, w)$. By the definition of $\beta$, we know that for all $e \in E(G)$, $L(e, w) := D(w)$ and that for all $f \in E(H)$, $L(v, f) := C(v)$. We also know that $L \equiv 0$ on all of the diagonal edges containing $(v, w)$.

Now, since every divisor on a graph is Cartier, there exist principal divisors $P_1$ on $G$ and $P_2$ on $H$ such that $P_1(v) = C(v)$ and $P_2(w) = D(w)$. Clearly, $P := \beta(P_1, P_2)$ is a divisor on $\Gamma$ that agrees with $L$ on all of the edges of $\Gamma$ containing $(v, w)$. We have already showed that $\beta : \text{Prin}(G) \times \text{Prin}(H) \to \text{Prin}(\Gamma)$, so we are done.

Since every divisor on a graph is a Cartier divisor, we see that $\beta : \text{Cart}(G) \times \text{Cart}(H) \to \text{Cart}(\Gamma)$.

Proposition 4.3. The image of $\beta$ is $\{P \in \text{Cart}(\Gamma) \mid P(e) = 0 \ \forall e \in \text{Diag}(\Gamma)\}$.

Proof. The $\subseteq$ direction is the result of the previous proposition. For the $\supseteq$ direction, let $P$ be a Cartier divisor on $\Gamma$ that assigns the value 0 to every diagonal edge and let $(a, b)$ be a vertex in $\Gamma$. Equation (2a) says $\Xi_{ab}^{P}(x) = D(xb, ab)$ is independent of the choice of $x \in N_G(a)$. This tells us that $P$ is constant on $\text{star}_G(a) \times \{b\}$. If $a' \in V(G)$, the same argument says that $P$ is constant on $\text{star}_G(a') \times \{b\}$. Since $G$ is connected, this implies that $P$ is constant on $G \times \{b\}$. We call this quantity $\text{Horiz}(b)$.

A similar argument using $\Upsilon_{ab}^{P}$ shows that $P$ is constant on $(a) \times H$. We call this quantity $\text{Vert}(a)$. We write

$$C = \sum_{a \in V(G)} \text{Vert}(a)[a]$$

13
and

\[ D = \sum_{b \in V(H)} \text{Horiz}(b)[b], \]

and it is then clear that \( \beta(C, D) = P \).

We now come to the main theorem.

**Theorem 1.1.** The map \( \gamma : \text{Pic}(G) \times \text{Pic}(H) \to \text{Pic}(\Gamma) \) induced by \( \beta \) is injective, and is surjective if either of \( G \) or \( H \) is a tree.

This was conjectured by Cartwright at the AIM workshop “Generalizations of chip-firing and the critical group” [10], and was motivated by analogous results in algebraic geometry — if \( X_1 \) and \( X_2 \) are varieties, \( \text{Pic}(X_1) \times \text{Pic}(X_2) \to \text{Pic}(X_1 \times X_2) \), and \( \text{Pic}(X_1 \times P^1) = \text{Pic}(X_1) \) (see, for instance, [10] Theorem 1.7).

**Proposition 4.4.** The map \( \gamma \) is always injective.

**Proof.** We let \( \text{ePrin}(\Gamma) \) be the abelian subgroup of \( \text{Prin}(\Gamma) \) consisting of principal divisors that are 0 on all diagonal edges. We claim that \( \text{ePrin}(\Gamma) \) is the image of \( \text{Prin}(\Gamma) \) under \( \beta \). We know that \( \beta \) is injective, so \( \text{rank}(\beta(\text{Prin}(\Gamma) \times \text{Prin}(H))) = |V(G)| + |V(H)| - 2 \).

On the other hand, if \( C \) is a principal divisor, we can write \( C = \text{Div}(\phi) \) for some PL function \( \phi \). Consider a square \( S = \{a, b, c, d\} \) as pictured below, with \( \text{diag}(S) = r \). By equation (1), \( C(r) = \phi(a) + \phi(c) - \phi(b) - \phi(d) \).

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
& c & \\
\downarrow & & \\
a & & b \\
& & d \\
\end{array}
\]

If \( C \in \text{ePrin}(\Gamma) \), we have \( \phi(a) + \phi(c) = \phi(b) + \phi(d) \). Recall that every PL function \( \phi \) can be viewed as a vector in \( \mathbb{Z}^{V(\Gamma)} \). Let \( W \) be the vector space of PL functions on \( \Gamma \) that map to divisors in \( \text{ePrin}(\Gamma) \) under \( \text{Div} \). Then, if \( \phi \in W \), we see that every square in \( \Gamma \) gives rise to a linear constraint on the entries in the vector \( \phi \). We observe that \( \ker(\text{Div}) \subseteq W \).

We claim that the codimension of \( W \) is at least \( (|V(G)| - 1)(|V(H)| - 1) \). To see this, let \( T_1 \) be a spanning tree in \( G \), and \( T_2 \) be a spanning tree of \( H \). Then \( T_1 \times T_2 \) gives rise to a subcomplex of \( \Gamma \) with \( (|V(G)| - 1)(|V(H)| - 1) \) squares (since \( T_1 \) has \( |V(G)| - 1 \) edges and \( T_2 \) has \( |V(H)| - 1 \) edges). Fix a root \( v_1 \) of \( T_1 \), and take some linear extension of the partial order on the vertices of \( T_1 \) arising from this choice of root. Fix a similar linear order on the vertices of \( T_2 \). Now, these linear orders give rise to a lexicographic ordering on the squares in \( T_1 \times T_2 \), with the property that the \( i \)th square \( S_i \) includes a vertex that is not in \( S_1 \cup \cdots \cup S_{i-1} \). This means that the relation arising from each square is linearly independent of all prior relations. Thus, \( \text{codim}(W) \geq (|V(G)| - 1)(|V(H)| - 1) \).

We know that \( \dim(\text{ePrin}(\Gamma)) = \dim(W) - \dim(\ker(\text{Div})) \). We also know that \( \text{codim}(W) = |V(\Gamma)| - \dim(W) \), so \( \dim(W) = |V(\Gamma)| - \text{codim}(W) \). Thus,

\[
\dim(\text{ePrin}(\Gamma)) = |V(\Gamma)| - \text{codim}(W) - \dim(\ker(\text{Div})) \leq |V(G)||V(H)| - (|V(G)| - 1)(|V(H)| - 1) - \text{dim}(\ker(\text{Div})) \]

Furthermore, we know that the all 1’s vector is in \( \ker(\text{Div}) \), so \( \dim(\ker(\text{Div})) \geq 1 \). Thus, we can write

\[
\dim(\text{ePrin}(\Gamma)) \leq |V(G)||V(H)| - (|V(G)| - 1)(|V(H)| - 1) - 1 \leq |V(G)| + |V(H)| - 2.
\]
If \( a : \text{Prin}(G) \times \text{Prin}(H) \to \text{Prin}(\Gamma) \) is the restriction of \( \beta \) to \( \text{Prin}(G) \times \text{Prin}(H) \), we see that \( \text{rank}(e \text{Prin}(\Gamma)) = \text{rank}(\text{im}(a)) \) (as free abelian groups).

We claim that \( \text{im}(a) \) is actually equal to \( e \text{Prin}(\Gamma) \), i.e., that \( \text{coker}(a) \) is torsion-free. Let \( D \in e \text{Prin}(\Gamma) \) with \( kD \in \text{im}(a) \) for some \( k \in \mathbb{N} \). Then \( kD = a(B, C) \), where \( B, C \) are in \( \text{Prin}(G) \) and \( \text{Prin}(H) \), respectively. However, by the definition of \( a \), we know that the value of \( kD \) on every (nondiagonal) edge of \( \Gamma \) is either the value of \( B \) on some vertex of \( G \) or from the value of \( C \) on some vertex of \( H \). Thus, \( \frac{B}{e} \) and \( \frac{C}{e} \) are integer-valued, and since \( B \) and \( C \) are in \( \text{Prin}(G) \) and \( \text{Prin}(H) \), respectively, so are \( \frac{B}{e} \) and \( \frac{C}{e} \). Thus, \( a\left(\frac{B}{e}, \frac{C}{e}\right) = D \), so \( a(\text{Prin}(G) \times \text{Prin}(H)) = e \text{Prin}(\Gamma) \).

Let \( \gamma : \text{Pic}(G) \times \text{Pic}(H) \to \text{Pic}(\Gamma) \) be the map induced by \( \beta \). We apply the Snake Lemma to the commutative diagram

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
0 & \longrightarrow & \text{Prin}(G) \times \text{Prin}(H) \longrightarrow \text{Cart}(G) \times \text{Cart}(H) \longrightarrow \text{Pic}(G) \times \text{Pic}(H) \longrightarrow 0 \\
& \downarrow a & \downarrow \beta & \downarrow \gamma \\
0 & \longrightarrow & \text{Prin}(\Gamma) \longrightarrow \text{Cart}(\Gamma) \longrightarrow \text{Pic}(\Gamma) \longrightarrow 0
\end{array}
\]

and we obtain an exact sequence

\[
0 \longrightarrow \ker(\gamma) \longrightarrow \text{coker}(a) \longrightarrow i^* \text{coker}(\beta) \longrightarrow \text{coker}(\gamma),
\]

where \( i_* \) is the map induced by the inclusion \( \text{Prin}(\Gamma) \hookrightarrow \text{Cart}(\Gamma) \). We will show that \( i_* \) is injective, which will imply by exactness that \( \ker(\gamma) = 0 \).

Let \( [A], [B] \in \text{coker}(a) \), and suppose that \( i_*([A]) = i_*([B]) \). Then, \( i(A) - i(B) \in \text{im}(\beta) \), so \( A - B \) is a Cartier divisor that is 0 on all diagonal edges of \( \Gamma \) by Proposition 4.3. In fact, \( A - B \) is a principal divisor, so \( A - B \in e \text{Prin}(\Gamma) = \text{im}(a) \).

\[\square\]

**Proposition 4.5.** The map \( \gamma : \text{Pic}(G) \times \text{Pic}(H) \to \text{Pic}(\Gamma) \) is surjective if at least one of \( G \) or \( H \) is a tree.

**Proof.** First, we consider the case \( H = K_2 \), the complete graph on two vertices. Again, \( \Gamma \) is a triangulation of \( G \times K_2 \). We let \( w_1 \) and \( w_2 \) be the vertices of \( K_2 \). Now, the diagonal edges of \( \Gamma \) are in one-to-one correspondence with the edges of \( G \): every square in \( G \times K_2 \) is of the form \( r \times w_1w_2 \), for \( r \in E(G) \), and each square contains exactly one diagonal edge. We define an orientation on \( G \) as follows. For each square, orient each edge of \( G \times \{w_2\} \) so that it points toward the vertex containing the diagonal edge:

![Diagram]

Note, if \( e \) is the diagonal edge of a square \( S \) in \( G \times K_2 \), we let \( \tilde{e} \) be the edge in \( S \cap (G \times \{w_2\}) \).

We now consider the coboundary matrix \( M \) of \( G \). This is a matrix whose rows are indexed by edges of \( G \), and whose columns are indexed by vertices of \( G \), with

\[
M(e, v) = \begin{cases} 
1, & v \in e, \text{ arrow pointing toward } v \\
-1, & v \in e, \text{ arrow pointing away from } v \\
0, & v \notin e
\end{cases}
\]
Let \( P(\Gamma) \) be the matrix whose columns span the principal divisors of \( \Gamma \). We let \( M' \) be the submatrix of \( P(\Gamma) \) whose rows correspond to the diagonal edges of \( \Gamma \), and whose columns correspond to the vertices of \( G \times \{ w_2 \} \).

We claim that \( M = M' \). First, we observe that \( M' \) and \( M \) have the same size — the columns of \( M' \) are labeled by the vertices in \( G \times \{ w_2 \} \), and the rows of \( M' \) are labeled by the diagonal edges of \( \Gamma \) (which we know to be in bijection with the edges of \( G \)). Furthermore, suppose that \((v, w_2)\) is a vertex in \( G \times \{ w_2 \} \), and that \( vw_2 \) has a diagonal edge \( d \) in its link. Then, \( M'(d, vw_2) = -\alpha(d, vw_2) = -1 \). When we look at the corresponding square, we see that the edge \( e \) in \( G \) corresponding to \( d \) is oriented away from \( v \), so \( M(e, v) = -1 \).

Similarly, suppose that \( vw_2 \) is contained in a diagonal edge \( d \) in \( \Gamma \). Then \( M'(d, vw_2) = -\alpha(d, vw_2) = 1 \), and when we look at the corresponding square, we see that the edge \( e \) in \( G \) is oriented toward \( v \), so \( M(e, v) = 1 \). By the same argument, when \( d \) is the diagonal edge in \( \Gamma \) corresponding to an edge \( e \) in \( G \), \( M(e, v) = 0 \iff M'(d, vw_2) = 0 \).

By \([3 \text{ p. 31}]\), we know that \( M \) is totally unimodular, so the cokernel of \( M \) is torsion-free. We also know from \([8 \text{ p. 168}]\) that the rank of \( M \) is \(|V(G)| - 1 \). We observe that \( M \) is the transpose of the oriented incidence matrix of \( G \), and so by \([8 \text{ Corollary 14.2.3}]\), the following relations span the left kernel of \( M \).

\[
\begin{align*}
\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} O(v_i, v_{i+1})M_{v_i, v_j} &= 0 \quad \text{(with the index } i \text{ considered modulo } k), \\
O(v_i, v_{i+1}) &= \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } (v_i, v_{i+1}) \text{ is oriented toward } v_{i+1} \\ -1, & \text{if } (v_i, v_{i+1}) \text{ is oriented toward } v_i \end{cases}
\end{align*}
\]

Let \( D \) be a Cartier divisor on \( \Gamma \). Then, for every vertex \( v_i w_2 \) in \( G \times \{ w_2 \} \), the horizontal balancing condition at \( v_i w_2 \) is:

\[
D(v_i w_2, v_{i-1} w_1) + D(v_{i-1} w_2, v_i w_2) = D(v_i w_2, v_{i+1} w_1) + D(v_{i+1} w_2, v_i w_2),
\]

where we adopt the convention that \( D(e) = 0 \) if \( e \notin E(\Gamma) \).

Therefore, the Cartier divisor \( D \) satisfies:

\[
\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \left(D(v_i w_2, v_{i-1} w_1) + D(v_{i-1} w_2, v_i w_2)\right) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \left(D(v_i w_2, v_{i+1} w_1) + D(v_{i+1} w_2, v_i w_2)\right).
\]

We observe that \( D(v_{i+1} w_2, v_i w_2) \) occurs exactly twice in this sum. Once on the right-hand side in the \( i \)th summand, and once on the left-hand side in the \((i + 1)\)st summand. Thus, we can cancel all such terms, and rewrite the equation to obtain:

\[
\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} D(v_i w_2, v_{i-1} w_1) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} D(v_i w_2, v_{i+1} w_1).
\]

We observe that each diagonal edge \( e = (v_i w_2, v_{i-1} w_1) \) (i.e., those on the left-hand side of equation \([6]\)) gives rise to an orientation of the edge \( \tilde{e} = (v_{i-1} w_2, v_i w_2) \) that points towards \( v_i w_2 \), and a diagonal edge \( e = (v_i w_2, v_{i+1} w_1) \) (i.e., one on the right-hand side of equation \([6]\)) gives rise to an orientation of the edge \( \tilde{e} = (v_{i+1} w_2, v_i w_2) \) that points away from \( v_i w_2 \). This means that the values of \( D \) on the diagonal edges of \( G \times K_2 \) must satisfy the linear relations on the rows of \( M \) (when viewed as the coboundary matrix of a graph), so the diagonal part of \( D \) must be in the \( \mathbb{R} \)-span of \( M \) and hence in the \( \mathbb{Z} \)-span of \( M \), by the total unimodularity of \( M \).

Thus, every Cartier divisor \( D \) on \( \Gamma \) is linearly equivalent to a divisor \( D' \) that is 0 on all diagonal edges. Since the columns of \( M' \) are indexed by vertices of the form \( vw_2, v \in V(G) \), we can write

\[
D' = D - \sum_{v \in V(G)} k_v \text{Div}(\phi_{vw_2}), \quad k_v \in \mathbb{Z},
\]
as desired.

Now, let us assume that \( G \) is a graph and \( H \) is a tree. Fix a root \( r \) of \( H \), and, for every vertex \( w \in H \), let \( H_w \) be the subtree rooted at \( w \). This choice of root in \( H \) induces a partial order on \( H \) so that every non-root vertex of \( H \) has a unique parent. For the purposes of this part of the proof, if \( \Gamma' \) is a subcomplex of \( G \times H \), we let \( \Gamma(\Gamma') := \Gamma|_{\Gamma'} \).

We claim that for every Cartier divisor \( D \) on \( \Gamma \), and every subtree \( H' \) of \( H \) that is rooted at \( r \), we can find a Cartier divisor \( D' \) that is linearly equivalent to \( D \) and that vanishes on \( \text{Diag}(\Gamma(G \times H')) \). We prove this by induction on \( |E(H')| \).

If \( |E(H')| = 0 \), the statement is trivial. If \( |E(H')| = 1 \), we are done by the first part of the proof.

Now, suppose that \( |E(H')| = n \), and let \( w \) be a leaf in \( H' \), with \( \ell \) the unique edge containing it. Then, \( H'' := H' \setminus \{\ell\} \) is a tree with \( n - 1 \) edges, so by induction there is a Cartier divisor \( D_\ell \) that is linearly equivalent to \( D \) and that vanishes on \( \text{Diag}(\Gamma(G \times H'')) \). By the first part of the proof, there is a Cartier divisor

\[
D' = D_\ell + \sum_{i=1}^{n} k_i \text{Div}(\phi_{v_i,w}),
\]

that vanishes on \( \text{Diag}(\Gamma(G \times \{\ell\})) \). We note that \( \text{Div}(\phi_{v_i,w}) \) vanishes on \( \text{Diag}(G \times H'') \) for all \( i \), so

\[
D|_{\text{Diag}(\Gamma(G \times H''))} = D'|_{\text{Diag}(\Gamma(G \times H''))}.
\]

Thus, \( D' \) is a Cartier divisor that is linearly equivalent to \( D \) and that vanishes on \( \text{Diag}(\Gamma(G \times H')) \). This concludes the induction.

Our induction has shown that every Cartier divisor on \( \Gamma \) is linearly equivalent to one that is zero on all diagonal edges of \( \Gamma \). By Proposition 4.3, every Cartier divisor that is 0 on all diagonal edges of \( \Gamma \) is in the image of \( \beta \). So, let \([D] \in \text{Pic}(\Gamma)\) be a linear equivalence class of Cartier divisors. Then, \([D] = [D']\), for some \( D' \) that vanishes on all diagonal edges of \( \Gamma \). We know that \( D' = \beta(A,B) \), where \( A \) and \( B \) are Cartier divisors on \( G \) and \( H \) respectively, so \( \gamma([A],[B]) = [D'] = [D] \). \( \square \)

Based on numerical evidence obtained using Sage [11], we conjecture a slightly stronger result. Let \( g(G) \) be the topological genus of \( G \), i.e. the number of edges of \( G \) in the complement of a spanning tree. Then:

**Conjecture 1.2.** \( \text{Pic}(\Gamma) \cong \text{Pic}(G) \times \text{Pic}(H) \times \mathbb{Z}^{g(G)g(H)} \).

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