The arithmetic complexity of tensor contractions

Florent Capelli  
ENS Lyon  
Lyon, France  
florent.capelli@ens-lyon.fr

Arnaud Durand  
IMJ UMR 7586 - Logique  
Université Paris Diderot  
F-75205 Paris, France  
durand@logique.jussieu.fr

Stefan Mengel*  
Institute of Mathematics  
University of Paderborn  
D-33098 Paderborn, Germany  
smengel@mail.uni-paderborn.de

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We investigate the algebraic complexity of tensor calculus. We consider a generalization of iterated matrix product to tensors and show that the resulting formulas exactly capture \( \text{VP} \), the class of polynomial families efficiently computable by arithmetic circuits. This gives a natural and robust characterization of this complexity class that despite its naturalness is not very well understood so far.

1. Introduction

The question of which polynomials can be computed by polynomial size arithmetic circuits is one of the central questions of algebraic complexity. It was first brought up explicitly by Valiant [10] who formulated a complexity theory in this setting with its own complexity classes and notions of completeness. Efficient computation in Valiant’s

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model is formalized by the complexity class \( \text{VP} \) which consists of families of polynomials that can be computed by arithmetic circuits of polynomial size. Despite recent efforts relating \( \text{VP} \) to logically defined classes of polynomial families \([5, 3]\), this class is not very well understood. This is reflected in the low number of helpful alternative characterizations and the conspicuous absence of any known natural complete problem.

Consequently, most progress in arithmetic circuit complexity has not been achieved by considering arithmetic circuits directly, but instead by considering the somewhat more restricted model of arithmetic branching programs (see e.g. \([6, 10, 9, 4]\)). Arithmetic branching programs are widely conjectured to have expressivity strictly between that of arithmetic formulas and circuits, but have so far been better to handle with known proof techniques. One of the nice properties of branching programs that has often played a crucial role is that they can equivalently be seen as computing a specified entry of the iterated product of a polynomial number of matrices.

We extend this view on branching programs by going from matrices to higher dimensional tensors. Consequently, we also go from matrix product to the generalized notion of contraction of tensors. It turns out that generalizing iterated matrix product to iterated tensor contractions does increase the expressive power of the model and that the resulting tensor formulas capture exactly \( \text{VP} \). This characterization of \( \text{VP} \) turns out to be fairly robust in the sense that one can add different restrictions on the dimensions of the tensors without changing the expressive power of the model at all.

This is not the first time that the complexity of tensor calculus is studied. Damm, Holzer and McKenzie\([2]\) have characterized different boolean complexity classes by formulas having matrices as inputs and using addition, matrix product and tensor product as operations. Malod \([5]\) adapted these formulas to the arithmetic circuit setting and showed characterizations for most arithmetic circuit classes. One difference between these results and those in our paper is that in \([2]\) and \([5]\) tensors are always encoded as matrices, i.e. the tensor product is expressed as the Kronecker product of two matrices. Another difference is that both the characterization of \( \text{VP} \) obtained in \([5]\) and the similar characterization of \( \text{LOGCFL} \) (the Boolean analogon of \( \text{VP} \)) from \([2]\) require an additional restriction, called \emph{tameness} on the size of matrices computed at each gate of the formula. This restriction permits to control the growth of the intermediate objects in the computation but may seem not very natural. In this present work, working directly with tensors instead of a matrix representation makes such a unnecessary and a more direct connection between \( \text{VP} \) and tensor calculus is established.

The paper is organized in three parts: We first give the definitions and properties of the objects we will deal with necessary to understand the remainder of the paper. In the second part we prove the lower bound of our characterization, i.e. we show our tensor formulas can efficiently simulate arithmetic circuits. In the third part we prove the corresponding upper bound: We first study a very restrictive class of tensor formulas and show that polynomials computed by them can also be computed by arithmetic circuits. Then we extend this result in several steps to general tensor formulas of polynomial size.
2. Preliminaries

In the following, $\mathbb{K}$ is a field and bold letters denote tuples when there is no ambiguity on their length.

2.1. Arithmetic circuits

We will use the well known model of arithmetic circuits to measure the complexity of polynomials. In this section we give some definitions and well known properties of arithmetic circuits. For more background see e.g. [1, 6].

An arithmetic circuit is a directed acyclic graph with vertices of indegree 0 or 2 called gates. The gates of indegree 0 are called the inputs and are labeled with elements of $\mathbb{K}$ or variables. The gates of indegree 2, called computation gates, are labeled with operations of the field ($+$ and $\times$). The polynomial computed by a gate is defined inductively. The polynomial computed by an input gate is the one corresponding to its label. The polynomial computed by a computation gate is the sum or the product of the polynomials computed by its children. We assume that there exists a distinguished gate called the output. The polynomial computed by an arithmetic circuit is the one computed by its output gate. The size of a circuit $C$, denoted by $|C|$, is the number of vertices of its underlying DAG.

An arithmetic circuit $C$ is said to be skew if for each $\times$-gate at least one of its children is an input of the circuit. A circuit is said to be multiplicatively disjoint if for each $\times$-gate, its two input subcircuits are disjoint.

A family $(f_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ of polynomials is in VP if there exists a family of multiplicatively disjoint circuits $(C_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and a polynomial $P$ such that for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $C_n$ computes $f_n$ and $|C_n| \leq P(n)$. The family $(f_n)$ is in VP$_{ws}$ if the $C_n$ are skew.

Remark 1. Originally, VP was defined as families of polynomials that can be computed by polynomial size circuits and have polynomially bounded degree. As shown in [6], the definition given here is equivalent to the original one. We prefer this one here because the semantic condition on the degree is harder to deal with than multiplicatively disjointness which is more syntactic.

In the following, we will simulate arithmetic circuits by formulas computing tensors. We use the notion of parse trees of a circuit. For a multiplicatively disjoint circuit $C$, we define its parse trees inductively. A parse tree $T$ of $C$ is a subgraph of $C$ constructed as follows:

- Add the output of $C$ to $T$
- For every gate $v$ added to $T$ do the following:
  - If $v$ is a $+$-gate, add exactly one of its children to $T$.
  - If $v$ is a $\times$-gate, add both of its children to $T$.

As $C$ is multiplicatively disjoint, a parse tree of $C$ is a tree. The monomial $m(T)$ computed by a parse tree $T$ is the product of the labels of its leaves. The polynomial computed by $C$ is the sum of the monomials of all parse trees of $C$. 

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2.2. Tensors

In this paper, we interpret tensors as multidimensional arrays. Their algebraic nature is not studied here. A good introduction to multilinear algebra and tensors can be found in [2].

Let \( n_1, \ldots, n_k \) be \( k \) positive integers. A \( k \)-dimensional tensor \( T \) of order \( (n_1, \ldots, n_k) \) is a mapping \( T : [n_1] \times \cdots \times [n_k] \to \mathbb{R} \). For \( i_1 \in [n_1], \ldots, i_k \in [n_k] \), we denote by \( T[i_1, \ldots, i_k] \) the value of the mapping on the point \((i_1, \ldots, i_k)\). We call these values \textit{entries} of \( T \). We denote by \( D(T) \) the \textit{domain} of \( T \). Obviously \( D(T) = [n_1] \times \cdots \times [n_k] \).

The \textit{size} of a tensor \( T \), denote by \( \|T\| \), is the number of entries, i.e. \( \|T\| = \prod_{i=1}^{k} n_i \), where \( T \) is of order \( (n_1, \ldots, n_k) \). The maximal order of \( T \), denote by \( \text{maxorder}(T) \) is \( \max_{i \in [k]} n_i \). In the following, we also call tensors of dimension 2 matrices and tensors of dimension 1 vectors.

\textbf{Definition 2} (Contraction). Let \( T \) be a \( k \)-dimensional tensor of order \( (n_1, \ldots, n_k) \) and \( G \) an \( l \)-dimensional tensor of order \( (m_1, \ldots, m_l) \) with \( k, l \geq 1 \). If \( n_k = m_1 \), we denote by \( T * G \) the contraction of \( T \) and \( G \) on the dimensions \( k \) and \( 1 \) which is a tensor of order \( (n_1, \ldots, n_{k-1}, m_2, \ldots, m_l) \) defined as \( (T * G)[e_1, e_2] = \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} T[i_1, i]G[i, e_2] \) for all \( e_1 \in [n_1] \times \cdots \times [n_{k-1}] \) and \( e_2 \in [m_2] \times \cdots \times [m_l] \).

\textbf{Remark 3.} Obviously, contraction is a direct generalization of the matrix product. Indeed, if both \( T \) and \( G \) are matrices, then \( T * G \) is the ordinary matrix product.

\textbf{Proposition 4.} Let \( T, G, H \) be tensors with \( \text{dim}(G) \geq 2 \) such that \( T \ast (G \ast H) \) and \( (T \ast G) \ast H \) are both well defined. Then

\[ T \ast (G \ast H) = (T \ast G) \ast H. \]

\textbf{Proof.} By direct consequence of the associativity of the ordinary matrix product. For a tensor \( T \) of dimension \( k \geq 2 \) and order \( (n_1, \ldots, n_k) \), and a tuple \( e \) of length \( k-2 \) we define the \( n_1 \times n_k \) matrix \( T_e := (T[i, e, j])_{i \in [n_1], j \in [n_k]} \). Then by associativity of matrix product:

\[ \forall e_1, e_2, e_3 : T_{e_1} \ast (G_{e_2} \ast H_{e_3}) = (T_{e_1} \ast G_{e_2}) \ast H_{e_3}. \]

Hence, the claim follows when \( \text{dim}(T) \geq 2 \) and \( \text{dim}(H) \geq 2 \). For \( \text{dim}(T) = 1 \) or \( \text{dim}(H) = 1 \) the argument is similar.

\textbf{Observation 5.} If \( G \) is a vector, then the equality of Proposition 4 may not be true anymore. For example

\[ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \ast \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \neq \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \ast \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \]

\textbf{Definition 6.} A \{\ast\}-formula \( F \) is a labeled, ordered, rooted binary tree whose the leaves, called the inputs, are labeled by tensors whose entries are elements of \( \mathbb{K} \) or variables and the other nodes are labeled by \ast. The \textit{tensor} \( T_v \) computed by a node \( v \) is defined inductively:

- If \( v \) is a leaf then \( T_v := \text{label}(v) \).
• If \( v \) is labeled by \( * \) and has left child \( v_1 \) and right child \( v_2 \) then \( T_v := F_{v_1} \ast F_{v_2} \).

A \( \{*\} \)-formula computes the tensor computed by its root.

As the entries of the input tensors are constants of \( \mathbb{K} \) or variables, each entry of a tensor computed by a gate is a polynomial of \( \mathbb{K}[X_1, \ldots, X_n] \). This is why it makes sense to compare the computational power of \( \{*\} \)-formulas and arithmetic circuits defined in the last section. Moreover, of all the polynomial computed in the output of an \( \{*\} \)-formula we will mostly only be interested in one single polynomial. Thus we assume that the output tensor has only one single entry, i.e. the tensor is indeed a scalar. Observe that this form can always be achieved by contracting with vectors. We say that the scalar polynomial computed by a \( \{*\} \)-formula is the polynomial computed by it.

**Definition 7.** The size of a \( \{*\} \)-formula \( F \), denoted by \( |F| \), is the number of \( * \)-gates plus the size of the inputs, i.e. \( |F| := |\{v \mid \text{label}(v) = *\}| + \sum_{T \text{ input of } F} \|T\| \). The dimension of \( F \), denoted by \( \text{dim}(F) \), is the dimension of the tensor computed by \( F \). The maximal dimension of \( F \), denoted by \( \text{maxdim}(F) \), is the maximal dimension of the tensors computed at the gates of \( F \), i.e. \( \text{maxdim}(F) := \max_{v \text{ gate in } F} \text{dim}(T_v) \). The input dimension of \( F \) is \( \max_{v \text{ input of } F} \text{dim}(T_v) \).

We will often mix the notations for tensors and for tensor formulas. For example, if \( F \) is a tensor formula computing the tensor \( T \), we will speak of the order of \( F \) instead of \( T \) and write \( F[e] \) instead of \( T[e] \). Moreover, given two different formulas \( F \) and \( F' \), we will write \( F \simeq F' \) if they compute the same tensor.

**3. From arithmetic circuits to \( \{*\} \)-formulas**

We describe how a family of polynomials in \( \text{VP} \) can be simulated by a family of \( \{*\} \)-formulas of polynomial size and maximal dimension 3. Our proof is inspired by a proof from [8] where it is shown that polynomials in \( \text{VP} \) can be represented by bounded treewidth CSPs.

**Theorem 8.** Let \( (f_n) \in \text{VP} \). There exists a family of \( \{*\} \)-formulas \( (F_n) \) of maximal dimension 3 and polynomial size such that \( F_n \) computes \( f_n \) for all \( n \).

We use the following observation from [8] which can be proved by combining results from Malod and Portier [6] and Valiant et al. [11].

**Proposition 9.** Let \( f \) be computed by an arithmetic circuit \( C \) of size \( s \). Then there is an arithmetic circuit \( C' \) of size \( s^{O(1)} \) that also computes \( f \) such that all parse trees of \( C' \) are isomorphic to a common tree \( T \).

Theorem 8 follows directly from Proposition 9 and the following lemma:

**Lemma 10.** Let \( C \) be an arithmetic circuit computing the polynomial \( f \) whose parse trees are all isomorphic to a common parse tree \( T \). Then there exists a \( \{*\} \)-formula \( F \) of maximal dimension 3 and of size \( 9|C|^3|T| \) that computes \( f \).
Proof. We construct a tensor formula along the tree $T$ which contains the sum of all monomials of $f_n$ in its entries. We denote by $V(T)$ (resp. $V(C)$) the vertices of $T$ (resp. $C$). For $s \in V(T)$, we call $T_s$ the subtree of $T$ rooted in $s$. We define a partial parse tree rooted in $s$ to be a function $p : V(T_s) \to V(C)$ respecting the following conditions for all $t \in V(T_s)$:

1. If $t$ is a leaf, then $p(t)$ is an input of $C$.
2. If $t$ has one child $t_1$, $p(t)$ is a $+$-gate and $p(t_1)$ is a child of $p(t)$ in $C$.
3. If $t$ has two children $t_1$ and $t_2$, then
   a) $p(t)$ is a $\times$-gate,
   b) $p(t_1)$ is the left child of $p(t)$, and
   c) $p(t_2)$ is the right child of $p(t)$.

We call these conditions the parse tree conditions. It is easy to see that when $s$ is the root of $T$ (and thus $T_s = T$) and $p : V(T) \to V(C)$, then $p(V(T))$ is the vertex set of a parse tree of $C$ if and only if $p$ is a partial parse tree rooted in $s$.

If $p$ is a partial parse tree rooted in $s \in V(T)$, we define the monomial $m(p)$ computed by $p$ by

$$m(p) := \prod_{t \in \text{leaf}(T_s)} \text{label}(p(t)).$$

Observe that this is well defined as $p$ respects, in particular, the first parse tree condition and thus $p(t)$ for $t \in \text{leaf}(T_s)$ is always an input of $C$. If $p$ does not respect the parse tree conditions, we set $m(p) = 0$. With this notation we have 

$$f = \sum_{p : V(T) \to V(C)} m(p).$$

We index the vertices of $C : V(C) = \{v_1, \ldots, v_r\}$ with $r = |C|$. We denote by $E$ the tensor of dimension 1 and order $(r)$ such that for all $i \leq r$, $E[i] = 1$ and by $\delta_{i,j}$ the dirac function which equals 1 if $i = j$ and 0 otherwise. We construct by induction along the structure of $T$ a $\{\ast\}$-formula $F_s$ for each $s \in T$. The formula $F_s$ has dimension 2, order $(r, r)$, size at most $9r^3|T_s|$ and maximal dimension 3. Furthermore, for all $i, j \leq r$:

$$F_s[i,j] = \delta_{i,j} \sum_{p : V(T_s) \to V(C), p(s) = v_i} m(p).$$

Observing $f = E * F_s * E$ when $s$ is the root of $T$ completes the proof. We now describe the inductive construction of $F_s$. Several cases occur:

$s$ is a leaf: In this case $T_s$ consists only of the leaf $s$. The partial parse trees of $T_s$ are functions $p : \{s\} \to V(C)$ and $m(p) = \text{label}(p(s))$ if $p(s)$ is a input of $C$ and $m(p) = 0$ otherwise. Then $F_s$ consists of a $r \times r$ input matrix $I$ such that for all $i, j \leq r$,

$$I[i, j] = \begin{cases} 
\delta_{i,j}\text{label}(v_j) & \text{if } v_j \text{ is an input} \\
0 & \text{otherwise.}
\end{cases}$$
Obviously, \( F_s \) is of size \( r \leq 9r^3 \), of maximal dimension 2 and
\[
I[i, j] = \delta_{i, j} \sum_{p : p(s) = v_i} m(p)
\].

**s has one child \( s_1 \):** We start with an observation on functions \( p : V(T_s) \to V(C) \). Let \( p_1 \) be the restriction of \( p \) on \( V(T_{s_1}) \). If \( p \) is a partial parse tree, then \( p_1 \) is one, too, because it fulfills the parse tree conditions for all \( t \in V(T_{s_1}) \subseteq V(T_s) \). Moreover, \( m(p) = m(p_1) \) because the leaves in \( p \) and in \( p_1 \) are the same. In addition, if \( p \) is not a partial parse tree then

- either \( p \) violates a parse tree condition for \( t \in T_{s_1} \). In that case, \( p_1 \) is not a partial parse tree and then \( m(p) = m(p_1) = 0 \),
- or \( p(s) \) is not a +-gate, or
- or \( p(s) \) is a +-gate but \( p(s_1) \) is not a child of \( p(s) \).

We encode these conditions in a tensor of dimension 3 and order \((r, r, r)\) defined as
\[
M[i, j, k] := \begin{cases} 
\delta_{j, k} & \text{if } v_j \text{ is +-gate and } v_i \text{ is a child of } v_j \\
0 & \text{otherwise.}
\end{cases}
\]
Let \( F_s \) be the formula
\[
F_s := E \ast (F_{s_1} \ast M)
\]
of maximal dimension 3, dimension 2 and order \((r, r)\), \( r^3 + 2 + \|E\| \leq 9r^3 |T_s| \) and
\[
F_s[i, j, k] = \sum_{i=1}^{r} (\sum_{p=1}^{r} F_{s_1}[i, p]M[p, j, k])
= \delta_{j, k} \sum_{i=1}^{r} (\sum_{p_1 : p_1(s_1) = v_i} m(p_1)M[i, j, j]).
\]
Let \( p \) be a function \( p : V(T_s) \to V(C) \) such that \( p(s_1) = v_i \) and \( p(s) = v_j \). Let \( p_1 \) be its restriction on \( V(T_{s_1}) \). We have \( m(p) = m(p_1)M[i, j, j] \), because

- if \( p \) is a partial parse tree then \( M[i, j, j] = 1 \) and thus \( m(p_1)M[i, j, j] = m(p_1) = m(p) \),
- if \( v_j \) is not a +-gate then \( m(p) = 0 \) and also \( m(p_1)M[i, j, j] = 0 \) because \( M[i, j, j] = 0 \),
- if \( p_1(s_1) = v_i \) is not a child of \( v_j = p(s) \) then \( m(p) = 0 \). Since \( M[i, j, j] = 0 \), we have \( m(p) = 0 = m(p_1)M[i, j, j] \).
Thus we have in each case

\[ F_s[j,k] = \delta_{j,k} \sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{p_1 \in V(T_{s_1}) \to V(C)} \sum_{v_i} m(p_1) M[i,j,k] = \delta_{j,k} \sum_{p \in V(T_{s_1}) \to V(C)} m(p) \]

which completes the proof of this case.

**s has two children, s₁ (left child) and s₂ (right child):** As above, we encode the parse tree conditions in tensors of dimension 3 and contract them correctly to compute the desired result. This time there are two different tensors: one encoding the parse tree conditions in tensors of dimension 3 and contract them correctly to compute the desired result. This time there are two different tensors: one encoding the condition 3.b and one for 3.c. Let \( M_L \) and \( M_R \) be the two following \((r, r, r)\) tensors:

\[
M_L[i,j,k] = \begin{cases} 
\delta_{j,k} & \text{if } v_j \text{ is a } \times\text{-gate and } v_i \text{ is the left child of } v_j \\
0 & \text{otherwise},
\end{cases}
\]

\[
M_R[i,j,k] = \begin{cases} 
\delta_{j,k} & \text{if } v_j \text{ is a } \times\text{-gate and } v_i \text{ is the right child of } v_j \\
0 & \text{otherwise}.
\end{cases}
\]

Let \( F_s \) be the formula of maximal dimension 3, dimension 2 and order \((r, r)\) defined as

\[ F_s = (E \ast (F_{s_1} \ast M_L)) \ast (E \ast (F_{s_2} \ast M_R)). \]

We have \( |F_s| = |F_{s_1}| + \|M_L\| + \|M_R\| + |F_{s_2}| + 5 + 2\|E\| \leq 9r^3|T_s| \). In addition:

\[
F_s[i,j] = \sum_{k=1}^{r} \left( \left( \sum_{a=1}^{r} F_{s_1}[a,a] M_L[a,i,k] \right) \times \left( \sum_{b=1}^{r} F_{s_2}[b,b] M_R[b,i,j] \right) \right)
\]

\[
= \delta_{i,j} \sum_{a,b=1}^{r} F_{s_1}[a,a] M_L[a,i,i] F_{s_2}[b,b] M_R[b,i,i]
\]

\[
= \delta_{i,j} \sum_{a,b=1}^{r} \sum_{p_1 \in V(T_{s_1}) \to V(C)} \sum_{p_2 \in V(T_{s_2}) \to V(C)} m(p_1)m(p_2) M_L[a,i,i] M_R[b,i,i]
\]

Similarly to before consider \( p : V(T_s) \to V(C) \) such that \( p(s) = v_a \), \( p(s_1) = v_a \) and \( p(s_2) = v_b \). We denote by \( p_1 \) the restriction of \( p \) on \( V(T_{s_1}) \) and by \( p_2 \) its restriction on \( V(T_{s_2}) \). We will show

\[ m(p) = M_L[a,i,i] M_R[b,i,i] m(p_1)m(p_2) \]

by studying the possible cases:

- If \( p \) is a partial parse tree then \( p_1 \) and \( p_2 \) are, too. Moreover, since \( s \) has two children, \( p(s) = v_a \) is necessarily a \( \times\)-gate, \( v_a \) its left child and \( v_b \) its right child. It follows that \( M_L[a,i,i] = M_R[b,i,i] = 1 \) and

\[ m(p) = \prod_{l \in \text{leaf}(T_{s_1})} \text{label}(l) \prod_{l \in \text{leaf}(T_{s_1})} \text{label}(l) \prod_{l \in \text{leaf}(T_{s_2})} \text{label}(l) = m(p_1)m(p_2). \]
• If \( p \) is not a partial parse tree then three cases can occur: If \( p_1 \) (resp. \( p_2 \)) is not a partial parse tree, then \( m(p_1) = 0 \) (resp. \( m(p_2) = 0 \)). If \( v_i \) is not a \( \times \)-gate, then \( M_L[a, i, i] = 0 \). Finally, if \( v_n \) (resp. \( v_0 \)) is not the left (resp. right) child of \( v_i \), then \( M_L[a, i, i] = 0 \) (resp. \( M_R[b, i, i] = 0 \)). In all those cases, \( M_L[a, i, i]M_R[b, i, i]m(p_1)m(p_2) = 0 = m(p) \).

This completes the proof. \( \square \)

4. From \( \{\ast\}\)-formulas to arithmetic circuits

In this section we will show that the polynomials computed by polynomial size \( \{\ast\}\)-formulas can also be computed by polynomial size arithmetic circuits. We start by first proving this for formulas with bounded maximal dimension. Then we extend this result by showing that any \( \{\ast\}\)-formula can be transformed into an equivalent one with bounded maximal dimension without increasing the size.

4.1. Formulas with bounded maximal dimension

Proposition 11. Let \( F \) be a \( \{\ast\}\)-formula of maximal dimension \( k \), dimension \( l \leq k \) and order \( (n_1, \ldots, n_l) \). Let \( n := \max_{v \in V_ \mathrm{input}} \max_{(v, F)} \mathrm{order}(T) \). Then there exists a multiplicatively disjoint circuit \( C \) of size at most \( 2n^{k+1}|F| \) such that for all \( e \in D(F) \) there exists a gate \( v_e \) in \( C \) computing \( F[e] \).

Proof. If \( F \) is an input, let \( C \) be the circuit having \( \prod_{i=1}^{l} n_i \) inputs, each one labeled with an entry of \( F \). The size of \( C \) is \( \prod_{i=1}^{l} n_i \leq n^k \).

If \( F = G \ast H \), by induction we have circuits \( C_G \) and \( C_H \) with the desired properties for \( G \) and \( H \). The dimension of \( F \) is less than \( k \) and for \( e \in D(F) \), \( F[e] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} G[e_1, i]H[i, e_2] \) with \( m \leq n \).

Each \( G[e_1, i] \) and \( H[i, e_2] \) is computed by a gate of \( C_G \) and \( C_H \), respectively, so we can compute \( F[e] \) by adding at most \( 2n \) gates (\( m \times \)-gates and \( m - 1 \) \( + \)-gates). As there are at most \( n^k \) entries in \( F \), we can compute all of them with a circuit \( C \) by adding at most \( 2n^k \times n^k \) gates to \( C_H \cup C_G \).

The circuit \( C \) is multiplicatively disjoint since each \( \times \)-gate receives one of its input from \( C_G \) and the other one from \( C_H \). Also \( |C| = |C_G| + |C_H| + 2n^{k+1} \leq 2n^{k+1}|F| \). \( \square \)

Corollary 12. Let \( (F_n) \) be a family of \( \{\ast\}\)-formulas of polynomial size and of maximal dimension \( k \) computing a family \( (f_n) \) of polynomials. Then \( (f_n) \) is in \( \text{VP} \).

4.2. Unbounded maximal dimension

Since the size of the circuit constructed in the previous section is exponential in \( k := \maxdim(F) \), we cannot apply the results from there directly if \( k \) is not bounded by a constant. Somewhat surprisingly we will see in this section that one does not gain any expressivity by letting intermediate dimensions of formulas grow arbitrarily. Thus bounding \( \maxdim(F) \) is not a restriction of the computational power of \( \{\ast\}\)-formulas.
Definition 13. A \{\ast\}\text{-formula } E \text{ of dimension } k \text{ and input dimension } p \text{ is said to be tame if } \maxdim(E) \leq \max(k, p).

Definition 14. A \{\ast\}\text{-formula } F \text{ is said to be totally tame if each subformula of } F \text{ is tame.}

Let us remark again that also in [2] and [5] there is a notion of tameness that prevents intermediate results from growing too much during the computation. It turns out that in those papers tameness plays a crucial role: Tame formulas can be evaluated efficiently while general formulas are hard to evaluate in the respective models. We will see that in our setting tameness is not a restriction at all. Indeed, any \{\ast\}\text{-formula can be turned into an equivalent totally tame formula without any increase of its size.}

Thus totally tame and general formulas have the same expressive power in our setting.

We start with the following lemma:

Lemma 15. Let \( F \) be a totally tame formula with \( \dim(F) = k \) and input dimension \( p \). For all totally tame formulas \( E \) of dimension 1 and input dimension at most \( p \), there exist totally tame formulas \( G_r \) and \( G_l \) of size \( |F \ast E| = |E \ast F| = |F| + |E| + 1 \) such that \( G_r \simeq F \ast E \) and \( G_l \simeq E \ast F \).

Proof. We only show the construction of \( G_r \); the construction of \( G_l \) is completely analogous. We proceed by induction on \( F \).

If \( F \) is an input, then \( \maxdim(F) = \dim(F) = p \). Let \( E \) be any totally tame formula of dimension 1 and input dimension at most \( p \). We set \( G_r := F \ast E \). Clearly, \( k = \dim(G_r) = p - 1 \). Furthermore, \( \maxdim(G_r) = \max(p - 1, \maxdim(F), \maxdim(E)) \leq p \) because \( E \) has input dimension at most \( p \) and is totally tame. Thus \( G_r \) is totally tame.

Let now \( F = F_1 \ast F_2 \). Let \( k_1 := \dim(F_1) \) and \( k_2 := \dim(F_2) \). Let \( E \) be a totally tame formula of dimension 1 and input dimension at most \( p \).

- If \( \dim(F_2) = 1 \), we claim that \( G_r = F \ast E \) is totally tame. Indeed, since \( \dim(F_2) = 1 \), we have \( \dim(F) = k_1 - 1 \). But \( F \) is by assumption tame, so \( k_1 = \dim(F_1) \leq \max(k_1 - 1, p) \). Hence \( k_1 \leq p \) and \( \dim(F) \leq p \). Thus all intermediate results of \( G_r \) have dimension at most \( p \), so \( G_r \) is tame. But then it is also totally tame, because its subformulas are totally tame by assumption.

- If \( \dim(F_2) = 2 \), we have \( p \geq 2 \) obviously and \( \dim(F) = \dim(F_1) \). \( F_2 \) is a subformula of \( F \), so it is totally tame, too. Furthermore, \( F_2 \ast E \) is of dimension 1 and it is also totally tame since \( 2 \leq p \). Moreover, by Proposition 4 we have \( F \ast E \simeq F_1 \ast (F_2 \ast E) \). Applying the induction hypothesis on \( F_1 \) and \( (F_2 \ast E) \) gives the desired \( G_r \).

- If \( \dim(F_2) > 2 \), by Proposition 4 we have \( F \ast E \simeq F_1 \ast (F_2 \ast E) \). We first apply the induction hypothesis on \( F_2 \) and \( E \) to construct a totally tame formula \( G' \) computing \( F_2 \ast E \). Finally \( G_r := F_1 \ast G' \) is totally tame since \( F_1 \) and \( G' \) are totally tame and \( F \) is of dimension \( k = k_1 + k_2 - 2 \geq \max(k_1, k_2 - 1) \).
We now prove the main proposition of this section:

**Proposition 16.** For every \{\ast\}-formula \(F\) there exists a totally tame \{\ast\}-formula \(F'\) such that \(F' \cong F\) and \(|F| = |F'|\).

**Proof.** Proof by induction on \(F\).

If \(F\) is an input then it is trivially totally tame as the dimension of \(F\) is equal to the input dimension of \(F\). So we set \(F' := F\).

If \(F = F_1 \ast F_2\) then several cases can occur depending on the dimension of \(F_1\) and \(F_2\). We denote by \(k, k_1, k_2\) the dimensions of \(F, F_1\) and \(F_2\) respectively. We recall that

\[ k = k_1 + k_2 - 2. \]

- If both \(k_1\) and \(k_2\) are different from 1. Then \(F' = F_1' \ast F_2'\) is totally tame since \(k \geq \max(k_1, k_2)\).

- If \(k_1 = 1\) or \(k_2 = 1\), we use Lemma 15 on \(F_1'\) and \(F_2'\) to construct \(F'\) of size \(|F|\), totally tame, computing \(F_1 \ast F_2\).

Combining Proposition 16 and Corollary 12 we get the following theorem:

**Theorem 17.** Let \((F_n)\) be a family of \{\ast\}-formulas of polynomial size and input dimension \(p\) (independent of \(n\)) computing a family of polynomials \((f_n)\). Then \((f_n)\) is in \(VP\).

**Proof.** Applying Proposition 16 on \((F_n)\) gives a family \((F_n')\) computing \((f_n)\) such that \((F_n')\) is tame. Then the maximal dimension of \(F_n'\) is \(p\) (because \(F_n\) is scalar, thus of dimension 1) and applying Corollary 12 proves the claim.

### 4.3. Unbounded input dimension

While we got rid of the restriction on the maximum dimension of \{\ast\}-formulas in the last section, we still have a bound on the dimension of the inputs in Theorem 17. In this section we will show that this bound is not necessary to have containment of the computed polynomials in \(VP\). We will show that inputs having “big” dimension can be computed by polynomial size \{\ast\}-formulas of input dimension 3. We can then use this to eliminate inputs of dimension more than 3 in \{\ast\}-formulas. Applying Theorem 17 we conclude that the only restriction on \{\ast\}-formulas that we need to ensure containment in \(VP\) is the polynomial size bound.

**Proposition 18.** Let \(T\) be a \(r\)-dimensional tensor of order \((n_1, \ldots, n_r)\). Let \(L := \|T\| = \prod_{i=1}^r n_i\) be the number of entries in \(T\). Then there is a \{\ast\}-formula \(F\) of size \(r + 1 + L^3 + 2L\) and input dimension 3 computing \(T\).
Proof (sketch). Choose an arbitrary bijection $B : [L] \to [n_1] \times \ldots \times [n_r]$. Let furthermore $B_i : [L] \to [n_i]$ for $i \leq r$ be the projection of $B$ onto the $i$-th coordinate. We define the 3-dimensional tensors $T_i$ of order $(L, n_i, L)$ by

$$T_i[m, k, n] = \begin{cases} T[B(m)] & \text{if } m = n \text{ and } B_i(m) = k \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

and, for $2 \leq i \leq r$,

$$T_i[m, k, n] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } m = n \text{ and } B_i(m) = k \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

By induction one can show that for the tensor $P = T_1 \ast \ldots \ast T_r$ we have that

$$P[m, k_1, \ldots, k_r, n] = \begin{cases} T[k_1, \ldots, k_r] & \text{if } m = n \text{ and } B(m) = (k_1, \ldots, k_r) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Hence $T = E \ast P \ast E$ where $E$ is a vector of order $L$ filled with 1. The complete proof is given in the appendix.

The following theorem is a direct consequence of Proposition 18 and Theorem 17.

**Theorem 19.** Let $(F_n)$ be a family of $\{\ast\}$-formulas of polynomial size computing a family of polynomials $(f_n)$. Then $f_n$ is in VP.

5. The power of contracting with vectors

In this section we will make a finer examination of where exactly the additional power originates when going from iterated matrix product of $\mathbb{B}$ to tensor contractions. We will see that this additional expressivity crucially depends on the possibility of contracting tensors on more than two of their dimensions. We will show that when we prevent this possibility by disallowing contractions with vectors – which are used in the proof of Theorem 8 to “collapse” dimensions not needed anymore so that we can access other dimensions to contract on – the expressivity of $\{\ast\}$-formulas drops to that of iterated matrix product.

Observe that we cannot assume that $\{\ast\}$-formulas compute scalars in this setting, because we cannot decrease the dimension of the tensors computed by a formula. Also we cannot compute all entries of the output at the same time efficiently, because those might be exponentially many ones. But we will see in the following Propositions that we can compute each individual entry of the output more efficiently than in the general setting where contraction with tensors is allowed.

**Proposition 20.** Let $F$ be a $\{\ast\}$-formula of order $(n_1, \ldots, n_k)$ whose inputs are all of dimension at least 2. Then for all $e \in D(F)$ there exists a skew arithmetic circuit $C$ of size at most $2n^3|F|$ where $n := \max_T: T \text{ input of } F(\maxorder(T))$ computing $F[e]$.
Proof. By Proposition 4 we can write \( F \) as \( A_1 \ast (A_2 \ast (A_3 \ast \ldots \ast A_n)) \). The proof then follows easily by induction: We do the same construction as in Theorem 12 but this time we only have \( n^2 \) entries and at each \( \ast \)-gate, one side is an input, resulting in a skew circuit.

The case of Proposition 20 exactly corresponds to the characterization of \( VP_{ws} \) by Malod and Portier [6] by \( n \) products of matrices of size \( n \times n \). Thus Proposition 20 naturally generalizes this result and the real new power seen in Theorem 8 must come from the use of vectors in the products. As we have seen in the proof of Proposition 20 it is crucial that vectors are the only case which breaks the associativity of Proposition 4. So what looked like a not very important edge case in Observation 5 plays a surprisingly important role for the expressivity of \( \{ \ast \} \)-formulas.

6. The \( \ast_{i,j} \) operators

Our characterization of \( VP \) by \( \{ \ast \} \)-formulas contracts on dimension only in a very specific way in the contraction of two tensors: We always only contract on the last dimension of one tensor and the first dimension of the other one. It is thus very natural to ask if this is a restriction of the computational power of the formulas. In this section we will see that it is indeed not. If we allow free choice of the dimensions to contract on during a contraction this does not make the resulting polynomials harder to compute. To formalize this we give the following definition of a contraction \( \ast_{i,j} \).

**Definition 21.** Let \( T \) be a \( k \)-dimensional tensor of order \((n_1, \ldots, n_k)\) and \( G \) a \( l \)-dimensional tensor of order \((m_1, \ldots, m_l)\) with \( k, l \geq 1 \). When \( n_i = m_j \) for \( i \leq k \) and \( j \leq l \), we denote by \( T \ast_{i,j} G \) the contraction of \( T \) and \( G \) on the dimensions \( i \) and \( j \) the \((k+l-2)\)-dimensional tensor of order \((n_1, \ldots, n_{i-1}, n_{i+1}, \ldots, n_k, m_1, \ldots, m_{j-1}, m_{j+1}, \ldots, m_l)\) defined as

\[
(T \ast_{i,j} G)[e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4] = \sum_{r=1}^{n_i} T[e_1, r, e_2] G[e_3, r, e_4]
\]

for all \( e_1 \in [n_1] \times \ldots \times [n_{i-1}] \), \( e_2 \in [n_{i+1}] \times \ldots \times [n_k] \), \( e_3 \in [m_1] \times \ldots \times [m_{j-1}] \) and \( e_4 \in [m_{j+1}] \times \ldots \times [m_l] \).

\( \{ \ast_{i,j} \} \)-formulas are defined in complete analogy to \( \{ \ast \} \)-formulas.

It turns out that \( \{ \ast_{i,j} \} \)-formulas cannot compute more than \( \{ \ast \} \)-formulas, so the free choice of the dimensions to meld on does not change much.

**Theorem 22.** Let \( (F_n) \) be a family of \( \{ \ast_{i,j} \} \)-formulas of polynomial size computing a family of polynomials \( (f_n) \). Then \( (f_n) \) is in \( VP \).

The proof of Theorem 22 follows a similar approach as that of Theorem 19 and is thus given in the appendix for lack of space. Let us sketch some key steps here: If we bound the maximal dimension of \( \{ \ast_{i,j} \} \)-formulas by a constant \( k \), it is easy to see that the proof of Theorem 12 can be adapted to \( \{ \ast_{i,j} \} \)-formulas in a straightforward way. The main complication is then turning general \( \{ \ast_{i,j} \} \)-formulas into totally tame ones. \( \ast_{i,j} \)
is not associative anymore, and this makes a straightforward translation of the proof of Proposition 16 tricky. These problems can be solved by the observation that the crucial steps in the process of making a formula tame are those where a \{∗_{i,j}\}-formula is multiplied by a tensor of dimension 1. But for such contractions we can give explicit formulas for different cases that may occur, so again every \{∗_{i,j}\}-formula has an equivalent tame \{∗_{i,j}\}-formula. Combining this with Proposition 18 completes the proof.

7. Conclusion

We have shown that one can get a robust characterization of VP by formulas with tensors as input and tensor contraction as the only operation. This generalizes the known characterization of VP_{ws} by iterated matrix product by Malod and Portier [6]. In some aspects the situation in our setting is more subtle, though. We remarked that vectors and in general breaking associativity plays a crucial role if we want to characterize VP. Also, unlike for iterated matrix product we have to make a choice if we take \ast_{i,j} or \ast as our basic operation. It is easy to check that that using the equivalent to \ast_{i,j} for matrix product would merely be transposing the matrix, so it clearly does not change the expressivity of the model. But fortunately also in our setting, the choice of \ast_{i,j} or \ast does not influence the complexity of the computed polynomials.

Unfortunately, unlike for iterated matrix product our characterization seemingly does not directly lead to a characterization of VP by something similar to branching programs. We still think that such a characterization is highly desirable, because the branching program characterization of VP_{ws} has been the source of important insights in arithmetic circuit complexity. Thus we believe that a similar characterization of VP might lead to a better understanding of VP, a class that is arguably not very well understood, yet.

Let us quickly discuss several extensions to the results in this paper that we had to leave out for lack of space: First, analyzing the proofs of Section 4 a little more carefully one can see that our results remain true if one does not measure the size of a tensor as the number of its entries but as the number of its nonzero entries. This makes it possible to allow inputs of large dimension and large order.

Also, it seems plausible and straightforward to generalize our results to arbitrary semi-rings in the style of Damm, Holzer and McKenzie [2]. Choosing different semi-rings one would then probably get characterizations of classes like LOGCFL and its counting, mod-counting and gap-versions. The main new consideration would be the treatment of uniformity in these settings which appears to be possible with a more refined analysis of our proofs.

Finally, for tensors there are other natural operations to perform on them like addition or tensor product. It is natural to ask, if adding such operations does change the complexity of the resulting polynomials. While it is straightforward to see that adding only tensor product as an operation does not increase the expressivity of \{\ast\}-formulas, we could so far not answer the corresponding question for addition. Therefore, we
leave this as an open question.

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A. Proof of proposition 18

Choose an arbitrary bijection \( B : [L] \rightarrow [n_1] \times \ldots \times [n_r] \). Let furthermore \( B_i : [L] \rightarrow [n_i] \) for \( i \leq r \) be the projection of \( B \) onto the \( i \)-th coordinate.

We define the 3-dimensional tensors \( T_i \) of order \((L, n_i, L)\) by

\[
T_i[m, k, n] = \begin{cases} 
T[B(m)] & \text{if } m = n \text{ and } B_i(m) = k \\
0 & \text{otherwise.}
\end{cases}
\]

for \( i > 1 \).

We prove by induction that for the tensor \( P_j := T_1 \ast \ldots \ast T_j \), \( j \leq r \), we have that \( P_j[m, k_1, \ldots, k_j, n] = T[k_1, \ldots, k_r] \) if \( m = n \) and \( B(m) = (k_1, \ldots, k_j) \) and \( P_j[m, k_1, \ldots, k_j, n] = 0 \) otherwise.

For \( j = 1 \) is obvious by definition of \( T_1 \). So assume that it is true for \( j - 1 \) then

\[
P_j[m, k_1, \ldots, k_j, n] = \sum_{p=1}^L P_{j-1}[m, k_1, \ldots, k_{j-1}, p]T_j[p, k_j, n] = P_{j-1}[m, k_1, \ldots, k_{j-1}, m]T_j[m, k_j, n] = \begin{cases} 
T[B(m)] & \text{if } m = n \text{ and } B_i(m) = k_i \text{ for } i \leq j - 1 \\
0 & \text{otherwise.}
\end{cases}
\]

This concludes the induction.

Thus we have \( P_r[m, k_1, \ldots, k_r, n] = T[k_1, \ldots, k_r] \) if \( B(m) = (k_1, \ldots, k_r) \) and \( m = n \).

We now sum over all \( n, m \in [L] \) by \( F = E \ast P_r \ast E \) where \( E \) is a vector of size \( L \) containing only 1s. The resulting \( \ast \)-formula is of size \( r + 1 + L^3 + 2L \) because each \( T_i \) is of size \( L^2 n_i \leq L^3 \) and \( E \) is of size \( L \) and we use \( r + 1 \ast \)-gates.

B. Proof of Theorem 22

The proof of Theorem 22 follows a similar approach as that of Theorem 19. Let us first observe that an analogous version of Theorem 12 with \( \ast_{i,j} \) instead of \( \ast \) can be proved easily. Also Proposition 18 applies directly for \( \ast_{i,j} \).

Thus the only thing left to prove is that every \( \{\ast_{i,j}\} \)-formula can be turned into a totally tame one. \( \ast_{i,j} \) is not associative which makes a straightforward translation of the proof of Proposition 16 tricky. Still it is possible observing that for the crucial case of contraction by a vector, it is possible to prove identities that we can use where we applied associativity before.
Proposition 23. Let $F_1$ and $F_2$ be two tensors of dimension $k_1$ and $k_2$, respectively. Let $E$ be a tensor of dimension 1. Then

$$(F_1 *_{i,j} F_2) *_{k,1} E = \begin{cases} F_1 *_{i,j} (F_2 *_{k-k_1+1,1} E) & \text{if } k_1 + j - 1 \leq k \\ F_1 *_{i,j-1} (F_2 *_{k-k_1+1,1} E) & \text{if } k_1 \leq k \leq k_1 + j - 2 \\ (F_1 *_{k,1} E) *_{i,j} F_2 & \text{if } i \leq k < k_1 \\ (F_1 *_{k,1} E) *_{i-1,j} F_2 & \text{if } 1 \leq k < i \end{cases}$$

Proof. The proof follows from simple calculation. We denote by $(n_1, \ldots, n_{k_1})$ and $(m_1, \ldots, m_{k_2})$ the orders of $F_1$ and $F_2$, respectively. Let $F$ be the product $F = F_1 *_{i,j} F_2$. We have

$$F[e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4] = \sum_{r=1}^{n_1} F_1[e_1, r, e_2] F_2[e_3, r, e_4]$$

where $e_i$ is a tuple of length $i-1$, $e_2$ of length $k_1 - i$, $e_3$ of length $j - 1$ and $e_4$ a tuple of length $k_2 - j$.

If $k_1 + j - 1 \leq k$, then

$$(F * E)[e_1, e_2, e_3, f, f'] = \sum_{p=1}^{m} F[e_1, e_2, e_3, f, p, f'] E[p]$$

$$= \sum_{p=1}^{m} \sum_{r=1}^{n_1} (F_1[e_1, r, e_2] F_2[e_3, r, f, f'] E[p])$$

$$= \sum_{r=1}^{n_1} \sum_{p=1}^{m} F_1[e_1, r, e_2] (F_2[e_3, r, f, p, f'] E[p])$$

$$= F_1 *_{i,j} (F_2 *_{k-k_1+1,1} E)$$

where $f, f'$ are the suitable subtuples of $e_4$. The other cases can be checked in the same way. The only difference is the position of $f$ and $f'$.

Using these identities, we prove the following lemma.

Lemma 24. Let $F$ be a totally tame $\{*_{i,j}\}$-formula of dimension $k$ and input dimension $p$. For all totally tame formula $E$ of dimension 1 and for all $i \leq k$, there exists a totally tame $\{*_{i,j}\}$-formula $G$ of size $|F *_{i,1} E|$ such that $G \simeq F *_{i,1} E$.

Proof. The proof is done by induction on $F$.

If $F$ is an input, let $E$ be any totally tame formula of dimension 1 and $i \leq k$. Let $G = F *_{i,1} E$. Then $G$ is obviously totally tame since $F$ and $E$ are totally tame and $G$ is of dimension $p - 1$ so all the intermediate tensors are of dimension at most $p$.

If $F = F_1 *_{i,j} F_2$, then several cases can occur. Let $E$ be any totally tame formula of dimension 1 and $l \leq k$. We denote by $k_1$ and $k_2$ the dimensions of $F_1$ and $F_2$ respectively. We want to compute $F *_{i,1} E$. We proceed differently depending on $l$.

If $k_1 \leq l$, then we know, using the identities from Proposition 23, that either $F *_{i,1} E \simeq F_1 *_{i,j} (F_2 *_{l-k_1+1,1} E)$ or $F *_{i,1} E \simeq F_1 *_{i,j-1} (F_2 *_{l-k_1+1,1} E)$. So in both cases, there exists $j'$ such that $F *_{i,1} E \simeq F_1 *_{i,j'} (F_2 *_{l-k_1+1,1} E)$. Depending on the dimension of $F_2$, we again consider different cases.
We denote by $k, k$.

Again, we analyse depending on the dimension of $k$.

This completes the case $k_1 \leq l$.

We proceed similarly for the case $l < k_1$ using the other identities from Proposition 23. In this case we have that there exists $i'$ such that $F \star_{i,1} E \cong (F_1 \star_{i,1} E) \star_{i',j} F_2$.

Again, we analyse depending on the dimension of $F_1$.

We now prove that $\{\star_{i,j}\}$-formulas can always be turned into equivalent totally tame $\{\star_{i,j}\}$-formulas.

**Proposition 25.** Let $F$ be an $\{\star_{i,j}\}$-formula. Then there exists a totally tame $\{\star_{i,j}\}$-formula $F'$ such that $F' \cong F$ and $|F| = |F'|$.

**Proof.** The proof is done by straightforward induction on $F$.

If $F$ is an input then it is trivially totally tame as the dimension of $F$ is equal to the input dimension of $F$. We simply set $F' := F$.

If $F = F_1 \star_{i,j} F_2$ then two cases can occur depending on the dimension of $F_1$ and $F_2$.

We denote by $k, k_1, k_2$ the dimensions of $F, F_1$ and $F_2$, respectively. We recall that $k = k_1 + k_2 - 2$.

- If both $k_1$ and $k_2$ are greater than 1, then $F' = F_1' \star_{i,j} F_2'$ is totally tame since $k \geq \max(k_1, k_2)$.

- If $k_2 = 1$ or $k_1 = 1$, we use Lemma 24 on $F_1'$ and $F_2'$ to construct $F'$ of size $|F|$, totally tame, computing $F_1 * F_2$. 


This completes the proof of Theorem 22.