

On the information contained in representations

David Waszek

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Barwise and
Etchemendy's
program

I. A clarification:
What is the
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III. The problem
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Barwise and Etchemendy (1991): “Valid deductive inference is often described as the extraction or making explicit of information that is only implicit in information already obtained. . . . **But of course language is just one of the many forms in which information can be couched.** Visual images, whether in the form of geometrical diagrams, maps, graphs, or visual scenes of real-world situations, are other forms.”

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My question: To what extent can B&E's **informational view** of representations account for mathematical practice, including discovery?

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I. What is the information in a representation?

A clarification of the work of B&E and their students

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- ▶ To define the **models** of the diagrams, that is, their "semantic content" in a more usual sense of the expression

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- ▶ To define the **models** of the diagrams, that is, their "semantic content" in a more usual sense of the expression (these models are then used to define logical consequence between diagrams, or between diagrams and sentences);

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The sets used for these two purposes may not coincide.

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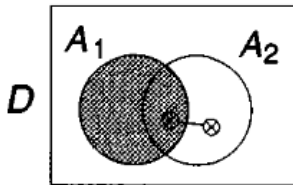
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Information content, first use: defining models

Example: Venn diagrams in Shin (1994)



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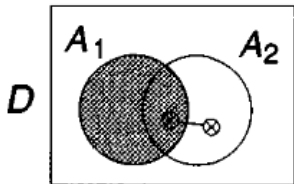
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Information content, first use: defining models

Example: Venn diagrams in Shin (1994)



Representing facts of D :

Region A_1 is shaded
Region A_2 has X s

A set assignment satisfies D if
the corr. **represented facts** hold:

The set corr. to A_1 is empty
The set corr. to A_2 is nonempty

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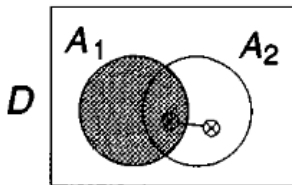
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Information content, second use: inference by observation

Example: Venn diagrams in Hammer (1994)



Based on Shin's work, Hammer (1994) made a **heterogeneous** system for Venn diagrams.

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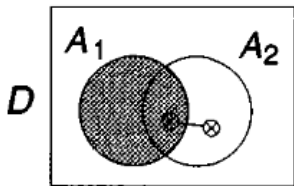
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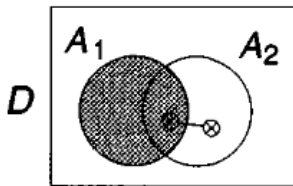
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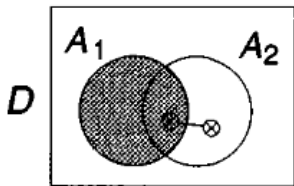
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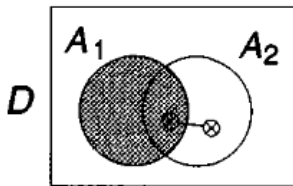
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(In this example, basically the same “content” is used to define the semantics and to set up Observe rules.)

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II. The problem of patterns

A problem: Typically, we see more in diagrams than the information they are supposed to contain according to these systems.

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“Conjunctive” patterns (1)

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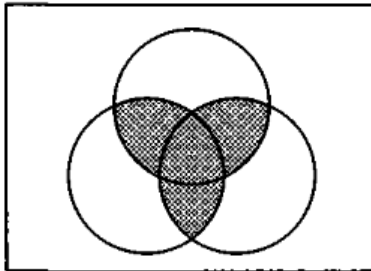
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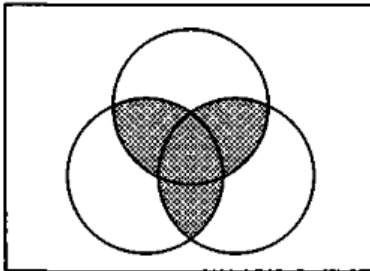
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“Conjunctive” patterns (1)



The sets are pairwise disjoint.

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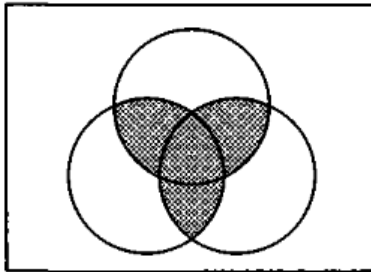
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“Conjunctive” patterns (1)



The sets are pairwise disjoint. They play symmetric roles.

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“Conjunctive” patterns (2)

This is the group table of Klein’s four-group:

	1	a	b	c
1	1	a	b	c
a	a	1	c	b
b	b	c	1	a
c	c	b	a	1

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The group is commutative.

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Ulam's diagonals

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$$\begin{array}{c} 3 \\ | \\ 1-2 \end{array}$$

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$$\begin{array}{r} 4-3 \\ | \\ 1-2 \end{array}$$

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37—36—35—34—33—32—31
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38 17—16—15—14—13 30
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39 18 5— 4— 3 12 29
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40 19 6 1— 2 11 28
 |
41 20 7— 8— 9—10 27
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42 21—22—23—24—25—26
 |
43—44—45—46—47—48—49...
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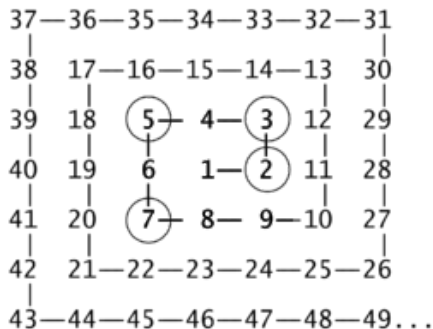
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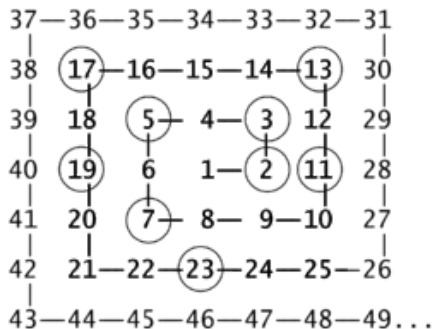
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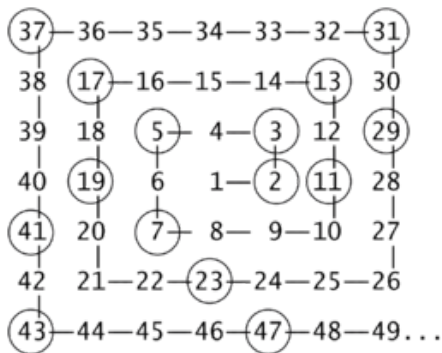
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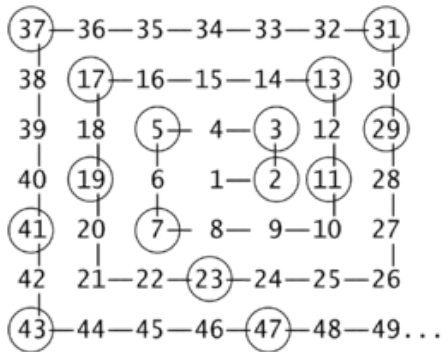
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Is this a fluke?

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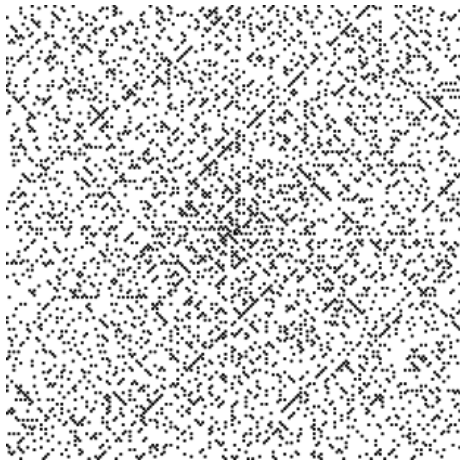
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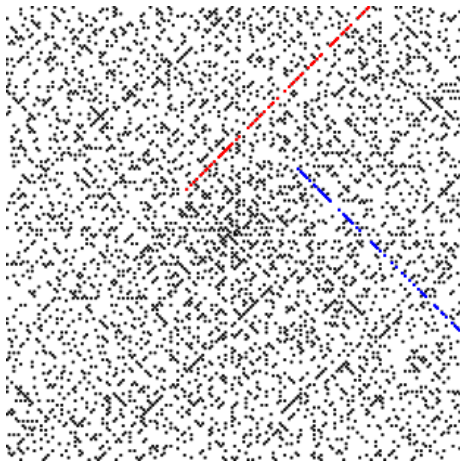
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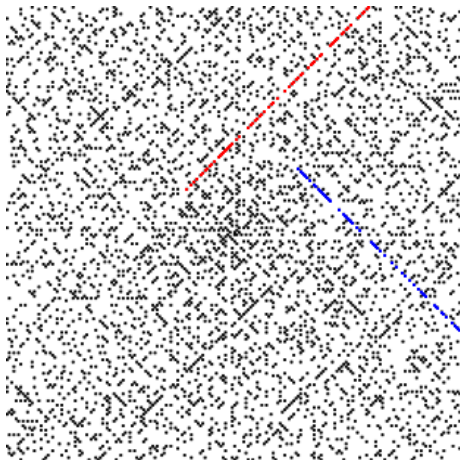
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These diagonals correspond to values of $4n^2 + bn + c$ for some b, c . It appears that some of these sets contain an unusual concentration of primes.

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More complex patterns (1)

There are also patterns that are *prima facie* not reducible to a conjunction of more basic information. One can think, for instance, of symmetries in geometrical diagrams: it seems difficult to me to reduce these symmetries to the sentences that replace the diagrams in Avigad, Dean, and Mumma (2009).

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More complex patterns (2)

Rolle's lemma and the mean value theorem

Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ be a differentiable function.
Rolle's lemma: if $f(a) = f(b)$,
then there exists $c \in [a, b]$
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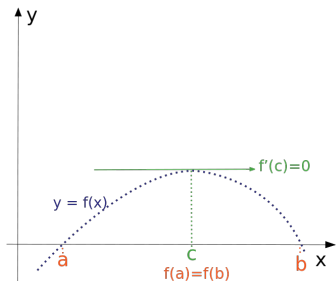
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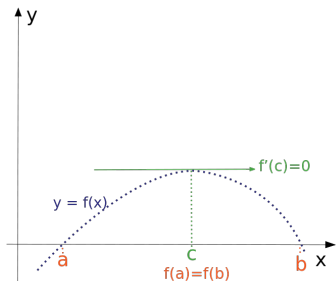
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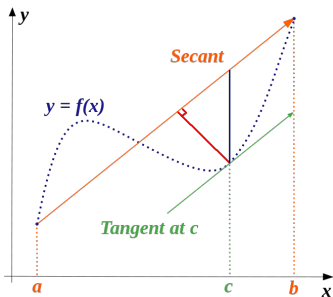
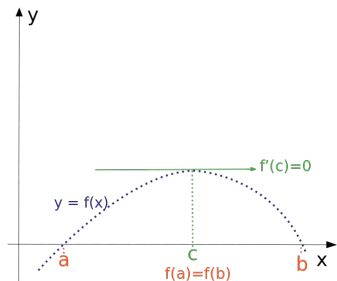
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Barwise & Etchemendy never discuss algebraic formulas. They presumably assumed that (atomic) formulas would unproblematically correspond to a single piece of explicit information.

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▶ $2ab + 4a = c$.

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- ▶ $2ab + 4a = c$. We see a repetition of the a which allows us to write $a(2b + 4) = c$.

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- ▶ We look at polynomials to determine their degree.

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- ▶ $2ab + 4a = c$. We see a repetition of the a which allows us to write $a(2b + 4) = c$.
- ▶ We look at polynomials to determine their degree.
- ▶ $d = xy + yz + xz$.

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- ▶ $2ab + 4a = c$. We see a repetition of the a which allows us to write $a(2b + 4) = c$.
- ▶ We look at polynomials to determine their degree.
- ▶ $d = xy + yz + xz$. We can notice that there is a permutation symmetry between x, y and z .

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Patterns in formulas (2)

Leibniz and the analogy of powers and differences

A real-life example from the historical case study I originally meant to present: Leibniz notices a vague analogy between

$$\int \overline{z^e d^m n} = z^e d^{m-1} n - e z^{e-1} d^{m-2} n dz \\ + e(e-1) z^{e-2} d^{m-3} \overline{ndz}^2 \\ - e(e-1)(e-2) z^{e-3} d^{m-4} \overline{ndz}^3 \text{ etc.}$$

and

$$(A+B)^z = A^z + \frac{z}{1} A^{z-1} B^1 + \frac{z(z-1)}{1.2} A^{z-2} B^2 \\ + \frac{z(z-1)(z-2)}{1.2.3} A^{z-3} B^3 \text{ etc.}$$

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So: capturing explicitly what one can see in a representation is difficult.

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So: capturing explicitly what one can see in a representation is difficult. If we replace our diagram by a fixed set of sentences, we will lose something.

To understand how we use diagrams (as well as formulas), we have to keep the diagram or formula in its original form and take into account the **perceptual abilities** (in particular, the **recognition of symmetries and invariances**) that we bring to bear on it.

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To understand how we use diagrams (as well as formulas), we have to keep the diagram or formula in its original form and take into account the **perceptual abilities** (in particular, the **recognition of symmetries and invariances**) that we bring to bear on it.

Moreover: These examples also show how we engage in **meta-representational** reasoning: when we try to understand what a given pattern might mean, we reason about the link between the representation and what we take it to be about.

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III. The problem of non-representational uses of formulas or diagrams

So: some of the patterns we see may be difficult to capture formally.

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III. The problem of non-representational uses of formulas or diagrams

So: some of the patterns we see may be difficult to capture formally. But clearly, we understand what these patterns should mean: they are parasitic on the semantics of the representation.

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In contexts of mathematical discovery, this is not always the case.

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III. The problem of non-representational uses of formulas or diagrams

So: some of the patterns we see may be difficult to capture formally. But clearly, we understand what these patterns should mean: they are parasitic on the semantics of the representation.

In contexts of mathematical discovery, this is not always the case. We may need to experiment with formulas or diagrams with no clear semantics. We may only be able *a posteriori* to provide such a semantics – and perhaps only a partial one.

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Bernoulli's strange symbolic manipulations (1)

Finally, here is the historical case I originally intended to cover today.

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$$\blacktriangleright d^2y \times d^3y = d^5y, \sqrt[3]{d^6y} = d^2y, (d^3y)^2 = d^6y;$$

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- ▶ Also $\frac{y}{y} = \frac{d^0y}{d^0y} = d^0y = y$;
- ▶ $d^{-m} = \int^m$.

On the information contained in representations

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Non-representational uses of formulas and diagrams

Bernoulli's strange symbolic manipulations (1)

Finally, here is the historical case I originally intended to cover today. Inspired by Leibniz's analogy, Johann Bernoulli tries to treat differential symbols like algebraic quantities, using rules like:

- ▶ $d^2y \times d^3y = d^5y$, $\sqrt[3]{d^6y} = d^2y$, $(d^3y)^2 = d^6y$;
- ▶ $d^0y = y$ and $\frac{d^2y}{d^2y} = d^0y = y$;
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Bernoulli astutely uses these rules to compute integrals, and gets **correct results**.

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Bernoulli astutely uses these rules to compute integrals, and gets **correct results**. In fact, his methods are only valid in very limited cases, and accounting for that requires a fair amount of **reformulation and reinterpretation**.

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It is only *a posteriori* that we can see these formulas as
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