Structure

and movement

Four equal sides four right angles: one square.

a1:

Displaced horizontally by the length of one side. To infinity on the left.
To infinity on the right.

a2:

The equal areas are distinguished by different shades. A finite group of elements, with terminal limits in black and white.

a3:

The number of elements is determined by the gradations between the extremes. If the gradations are large, the number of elements is small; at least two: black and white. If the gradations are small, the number will be large; perhaps a thousand, perhaps the eye can distinguish even more; probably less. There are no theoretical limitations: one shade is darker than the last even if the gradations are fine, and vice versa. Ideally the gradations between successive shades are equal. Then the series forms a natural order.

In this case:
a series of 16 equal elements
with 15 equal gradations.
Again, the number of elements is unimportant.
Only the order, the system of reference, is important.

If it forms a whole, self-contained in principle, we define it as a structure.

Movement: disturbing the natural order. Upsetting the equilibrium of the series; or giving it a new equilibrium (which can only be more complex than the original structure). Introducing movement: starting activity; creating tensions. Changing the positions of the elements means giving their relationships new weight, giving the whole a new appearance.

This implies: using the same elements
To create as many different effects as possible.
From a single structure,
deriving many different constellations.

Put simply: giving form to the material. Using visual elements as the composer uses the scale. For example:

a 4: Interchange two of the 16 elements. Namely 8 and 9. The sequence is broken. But order is maintained, and symmetry preserved It has only become more complex, let us say more differentiated.











a 5: The one-dimensional series contains many possible constellations (factorial 16) but few principles of order.

One of these is Arp's "Law of Chance." Random rearrangement without detectable equilibrium causes all of the elements to change their position.



a 6: Like a 5: each element changes its position, but not its order.
The sequence is preserved, but reversed:

a left-right problem as meaningless geometrically as it is optically. (But it may be significant psychologically.)



a 7: A cyclic permutation of the series. Le. the right taken away and added to the left: in this case exactly half.



The extremes of black and white meet; they provide maximum contrast. The ends are the two intermediate greys.



a 8: The series arranged to sort of leap back and forth. White placed in the middle, And each of the next darkest shades



placed alternately to its left and right: giving a dark end on each side. In figures:...6-4-2-1-3-5-7...

















a 9: The series with the elements interspersed. I.e. the lighter and darker halves Are regularly interposed. The intervals between successive shades are greater, But increase evenly; In numbers: 1–9–2–10–3–11–4...













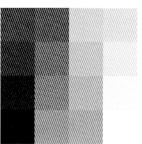


a 10: The next example is like a 9.
The darker half has been rotated 90 degrees.
Thus two operations are used for a single grouping: interposition and rotation.

The shade gradations contain Both the greatest and the least contrasts; The former left, the latter right, In numbers: 1–16–2–15–3–14–4–13... One step further removed from the original arrangement of the material: (see above) increasing the scope for conscious design.

Instead of retaining the elements in their original one-dimensional row, group them in a two-dimensional field. There is no longer a self-contained order. But more surprises:

b 1: The line series folded upon itself like a hinge becomes a two-dimensional grouping but with its one-dimensional origin still discernible.

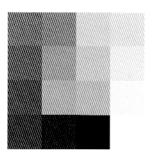


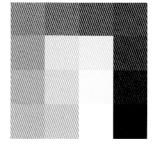
The relationships between the elements are multiplied.
As well as a one-dimensional left-to-right proximity we now have top-to-bottom and diagonal proximities producing two-dimensional interrelationships. While each element in the line series has two neighbours (and each end element only one), on the field it will have eight if it is in the centre, five if it is on the edge and three if it is in the corner.

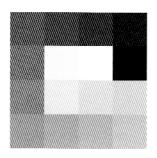
The hinge can be defined under general aspects: as a line coiled down on a field of 4x4 units.
Following the rule: the line must pass through each of the 16 positions;

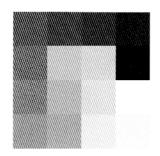
may not be broken, or intersect itself.

This principle can be utilised to produce a finite number of variations. b 2 to b 5: a selection:

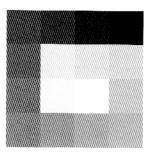




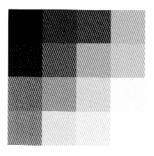




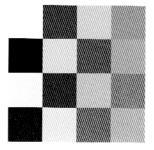
b 6: Special case of the coil: a right-angled spiral.



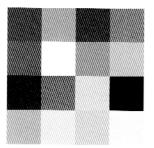
b 8: The hinge folded diagonally.



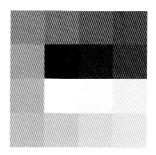
b 10: The arrangement takes on a more characteristic appearance once the order of the line series is abandoned. The elements interspersed in two dimensions.



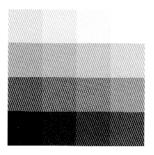
b 12: A random arrangement. Here: a grouping obtained by shuffling numbers.



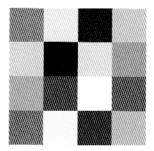
b 7: A double spiral.



b 9: The series divided into four equal sections, the sections placed side by side.The sequence is interrupted.



b11: A "magic square".
(A puzzle familiar from the schoolroom:
each horizontal, vertical and diagonal
column of four elements always adds up to 34.
If the four shades in each column are "added together"
their sum is always the same shade of grey.)

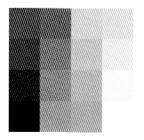


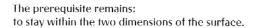
Sixteen different elements grouped in a field. The field for this defined (4x4, though others would be possible):
Strangely, therer are no more possibilities than there are possibilities of grouping the elements in a line series.
The formula is constant: factorial 16, (nevertheless, 20,922,400,000,000 variants).
Programming a problem means planning in stages (with feedback, of course). The first stage is the material in its original sequence.
(With colours, for example, it is the colour solid.)
From stage to stage experience is accumulated, and each stage provides material for the next.

Four identical groups added together: one group composed of groups.
Or: a structure composed of structures,

In the first place groups are formed from groups by symmetrical replication.

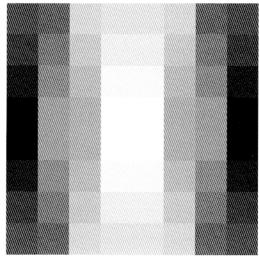
Group b1 is

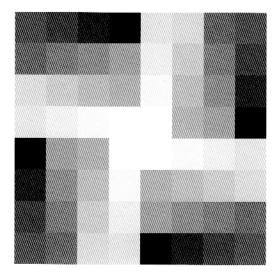




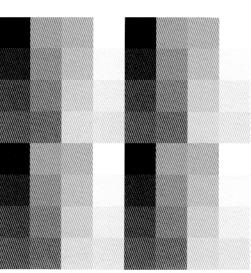
The space dimension is not taken into account.
But even if it is not intentionally included
it is incorporated automatically;
its presence is virtual, not actual,
but perceived nevertheless;
it is not possible to visualise all the shades
as lying in the same plane.
But it is left to the beholder to choose
which are in the "foreground", which in the "background".

c1: reflected





c2: rotated



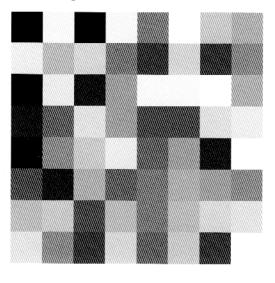
c 3: displaced.

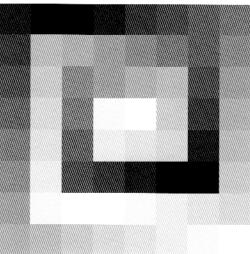
Limiting the number of replications to four is of little importance when the group is displaced. In the cases of rotation and reflection new, complex units are generated:
Beyond mere addition, a whole is formed, which is greater than the sum of its parts.

In the second place groups are formed from groups through integration on the larger field. That means: in examples c 1-3 the 16-element group b 1 is replicated as a whole 4 times; and by an operation of symmetry the 4 are combined to form a new whole. The new field measures 8x8 units.

Instead of taking this field as a result
It may be used as a starting point.
Instead of placing 4 groups of 16 elements
next to each other in intact groups,
the groups may be broken up and the 64 elements
distributed over the entire field at will.

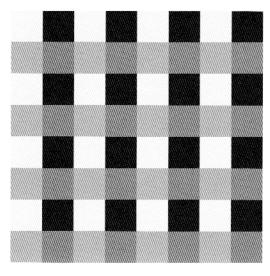
c4: following the law of chance.

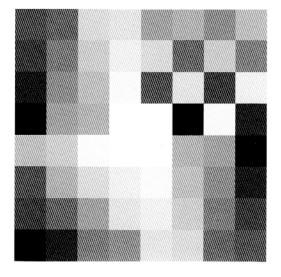




c 6: as alternately reversed series, i.e. from white to black to white again in turn and arranged as a spiral on the larger field.

c 5: Arranged in groups with the same elements and interposed.





c 7: Grouped by an arbitrary act, that is, neither following a definite rule nor by means of deliberate randomness. Composed, that is to say, "by feeling".

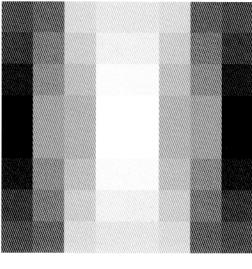
Examples c 1 to c 7 are not self-contained,
This even less the case for the replicated groupings than for the simple, two-dimensional ones.
They demonstrate possibilities in principle.
The possibilities are as uncountable as their number is finite.
But here, too, general views can be obtained.

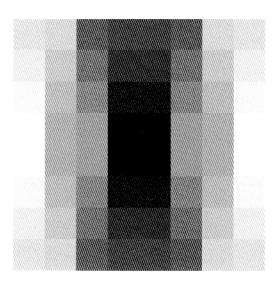
Following the practice of the surveyor, the network of data points may be refined. The lower orders of possible groupings may be systematically placed between the higher orders.

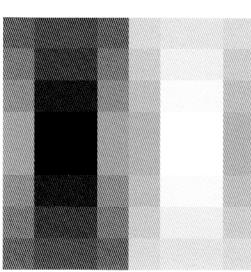
Each grouping may be changed by a permutation that may be more or less regular.

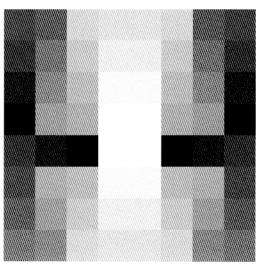
The reflected grouping c1 is seen as a "negative" if in

c 8: the order of the elements is reversed.







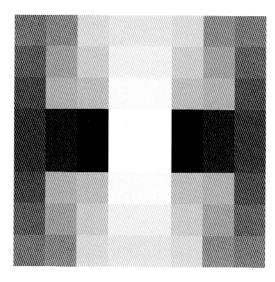


c 9: two vertical rows of c 1 taken from the right and added to the left.

c10: again, the basis is c 1:
the white centre has been displaced
one element downwards.
Corresponding to this spark
All of the other elements change position.
The original symmetrical arrangement
has lost its horizontal axis;
the vertical axis is preserved.

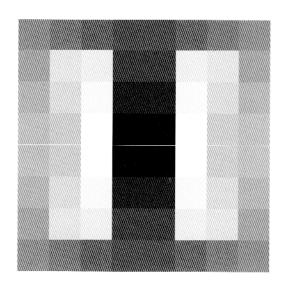
It is also interesting to examine the results of the same operation carried out with other groups. The line series of elements randomly coiled in the 16-element groups are reflected twice and thus provided with an optimum degree of order, i.e. the maximum degree of symmetrical relationships.

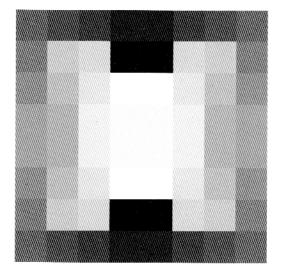
c11: b2 reflected.



c13: b4 reflected.

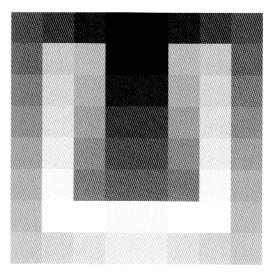
c12: b3 reflected.



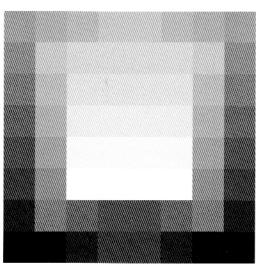


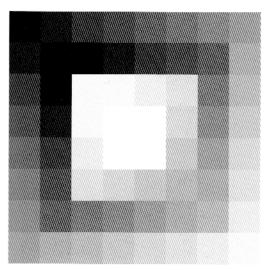
c14: b5 reflected.

c 15: all elements are divided into two halves; coiled at will in one (vertical) half and reflected in the other.



c16: c15 permutated.





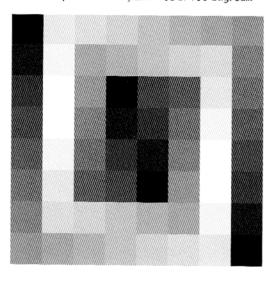
c17: reflection along a diagonal.

c 18: reflected spirals.

Examples c 15 to c 18 are combinations of two different operations: coiling and reflecting.

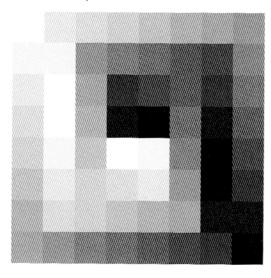
The following examples are of coiling, or more precisely: of spiralling combined with rotation, with the spirals ending up within each other rather than adjacent to each other: thus we have a third operation, interpenetration plaing a role.

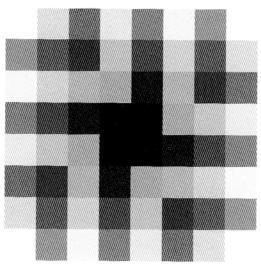
c 19: two spirals mutually inverted at 180 degrees.



c 21: four spirals interpenetrating at 90 degrees.

c 20: as c 19, with the sequence of the elements in the second spiral reversed.





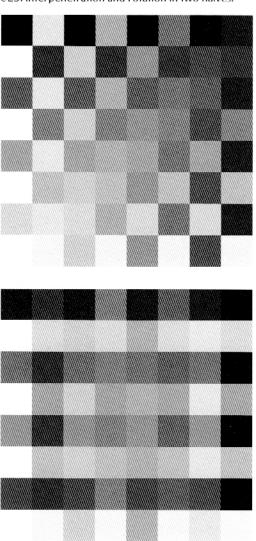
c 22: as c 21, but using the line series a 10. The figure appears transparent in the middle. The interpenetration of a 10 is potentiated.

Characteristic for groups of repeated elements: to the relationships between the different elements are added relationships between like elements.

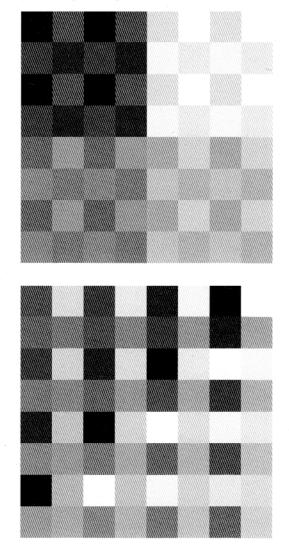
These relationships may not only be taken as automatic results, but used as the basis of new groupings. The total of 64 elements is composed of 16 groups of 4 identical elements each. The operations consist in interposing them.

Because of their arrangement and the impression they give of spatial transparency let us call this type of grouping: interpenetration. (see c 22)

c 23: interpenetration and rotation in two halves.



c 24: interpenetration and rotation proceeding from a grey center.



c 25: as c 24, in a permutated order, i.e. proceeding from a black-white centre.

c 26: interpenetration of groups in graded zones.

Each constellation is a combination of free choice and predestined result; of chance and order.

Each order is a special case among all the possible groupings, determined by the coincidence of criteria, as numerous and as self-contained as possible.

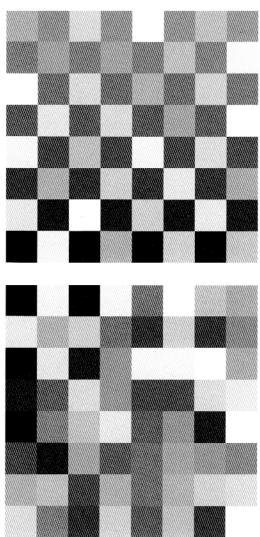
The more complex its principle,

c 27: chessboard interpenetration.

c 29: as c 28, with the darker half also in a chance distribution. No element is in its original position any longer; but the two halves are. This is the criterion of order, and its effect is preserved. Chance is a different matter.

It may be harnessed in any number of ways: with dice, lots, a roulette wheel; by using the telephone directory, the 100-year calendar; or with the help of a blind person, or the whims of a monkey – the results will always be different, but they will nonetheless be scarcely distinguishable. We may perceive 1000 different kinds of order, but the differences between ten chance arrangements can be identified only with difficulty.

c 28: the lighter half has been deprived of order, and distributed according to chance.



 $c\,4$: This final criterion has also been abandoned; all the elements are mixed at random.

The interpenetration c 27 contains a particularly high degree of order. This order is now reduced successively, i.e. in the proportion in which the chance component becomes more important.