

## Twitter Thread by P. Geerkens †



**P. Geerkens** †

[@pgeerkens](#)



**One might say that physicists study the symmetry of nature, while mathematicians study the nature of symmetry.**

1/

[@GWOMaths](#) Observing symmetry in nature, such as noting the similarity between the symmetries of a snowflake and a hexagon, is readily comprehensible. What does it mean then to study "the nature of symmetry"?

2/

[@GWOMaths](#) Mathematicians define a "group",  $G$ , as a set of elements  $\{a, b, c, \dots\}$  with a binary operation  $\cdot$  and a distinguished element  $e$  (the identity of  $G$ ) satisfying these specific properties:

3/

[@GWOMaths](#) For all  $a, b, c$  in  $G$

- 1) Closure:  $a \cdot b$  is in  $G$ .
- 2) Associativity:  $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$
- 3) Identity:  $e \cdot a = a \cdot e = a$ .
- 4) Inverse: There exists an element  $a^*$  such that  $a^* \cdot a = a \cdot a^* = e$ .

4/

[@GWOMaths](#) Just as functions on the integers, rationals, or reals are defined as mappings, mathematicians define a \*group morphism\*  $\mu$  as a mapping from one group to another that preserves the group structure:

5/

[@GWOMaths](#) For groups  $G = [\{a, b, c, \dots\}, \cdot, e]$  and  $H = [\{\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \dots\}, \cdot, \epsilon]$

then  $\mu: G \rightarrow H$  is a "group morphism" if for all elements of  $G$ :

$\mu(a \cdot b) = \mu(a) \cdot \mu(b)$ . Note that for all  $a$ :

$\mu(a) \cdot \epsilon = \mu(a) = \mu(a \cdot e) = \mu(a) \cdot \mu(e)$

and hence  $\mu(e) = \epsilon$ ; Similarly it can be shown that

$$\mu(a^*) = \mu(a)^*.$$

[@GWOMaths](#) Thus the definition of such a \*group morphism\* preserves the group structure. When such a \*morphism\* is both \*onto\* (ie every element of H is mapped to by one or more elements of G) and \*one-to-one\* (only one element of G maps to each element in H) it is termed an \*isomorphism\*.

[@GWOMaths](#) For mathematical purposes, when there exists an \*isomorphism\* between two groups  $G = [\{a,b,c, \dots\}, \blacksquare, e]$  and  $H = [\{\alpha,\beta,\gamma, \dots\}, \blacksquare, \varepsilon]$  then G and H are termed \*isomorphic\*, or \*the same up to isomorphism\*.

[@GWOMaths](#) Now all the finite groups can be classified in terms of various internal structures, first collecting those which are \*the same up to isomorphism\* and then collecting families with similar internal structure.

[@GWOMaths](#) When all the families of groups - Cyclic, Alternating, and assorted Lie Group Types - have been defined, there are remaining 26 groups that don't fit anywhere: the \*sporadic groups\*.

[@GWOMaths](#) Of these 26 \*sporadic groups\*, two stand out from the others in terms of their size:

- the \*Baby Monster\*, \*B\*, of size

$$2^{11} \cdot 3^{13} \cdot 5^3 \cdot 7^2 \cdot 11 \cdot 13 \cdot 17 \cdot 19 \cdot 23 \cdot 31 \cdot 47; \text{ and}$$

[@GWOMaths](#) - the \*(Fischer–Griess) Monster\*, \*M\*, of size

$$2^{46} \cdot 3^{20} \cdot 5^9 \cdot 7^8 \cdot 11^2 \cdot 13^3 \cdot 17 \cdot 19 \cdot 23 \cdot 29 \cdot 31 \cdot 41 \cdot 47 \cdot 59 \cdot 71.$$

Counting up the number of distinct primes in that last number gives us 15.

[@GWOMaths](#) Therefore today's answer is that:

The number of distinct prime factors  
in the size, n, of the \*Monster Group\* M  
is

15.

[@GWOMaths](#) [@threadreaderapp](#) unroll