

Stronger arithmetic equivalence

Andrew V. Sutherland

Massachusetts Institute of Technology

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The Dedekind zeta function of a number field

Definition

Let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ be a number field. The **Dedekind zeta function** of K is defined by

$$\zeta_K(s) := \sum_{n \geq 1} a_n n^{-s} := \sum_I N(I)^{-s} = \prod_{\mathfrak{p}} (1 - N(\mathfrak{p})^{-s})^{-1},$$

Each of the following is uniquely determined by the others:

- the Dedekind zeta function $\zeta_K(s)$;
- the integer coefficients $a_p, a_{p^2}, \dots, a_{p^d}$ for all primes p , where $d = [K : \mathbb{Q}]$;
- the number of primes of K of degree r above p , for all p and $1 \leq r \leq d$.
- the cycle type of the permutation of Frob_p acting on $\{\sigma(\alpha) : \sigma \in G_K\}$ for all p .

One can replace “all” with “all but finitely many” throughout.

Arithmetic equivalence

Definition

Number fields K_1 and K_2 are **arithmetically equivalent** if $\zeta_{K_1}(s) = \zeta_{K_2}(s)$.
The fields $K_1 \sim K_2$ must have the same degree and Galois closure L .

Let $G := \text{Gal}(L/\mathbb{Q})$, $H_1 := \text{Gal}(L/K_1)$, and $H_2 := \text{Gal}(L/K_2)$.

Definition

A **Gassmann triple** (G, H_1, H_2) is a triple of finite groups $H_1, H_2 \leq G$ for which we have $\#(H_1 \cap C) = \#(H_2 \cap C)$ for every G -conjugacy class C of elements of G . We then say that $H_1 \sim H_2$ are **Gassmann equivalent** (as subgroups of G).

Theorem (Gassmann 1926)

$K_1 \sim K_2$ if and only if $H_1 \sim H_2$.

Note that K_1 and K_2 are isomorphic if and only if H_1 and H_2 are conjugate.

Some examples of Gassmann triples

Example

Let $G = \mathrm{GL}_2(\mathbb{F}_3)$, let $H_1 = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} * & * \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \in G \right\}$, and let $H_2 = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & * \\ 0 & * \end{pmatrix} \in G \right\}$.
Then (G, H_1, H_2) is a non-trivial Gassmann triple (de Smit 2004).

Let E/\mathbb{Q} be an elliptic curve with mod-3 Galois image G , and let $L = \mathbb{Q}(E[3])$.
Then $\mathrm{Gal}(L/\mathbb{Q}) \simeq G$, and $K_1 := L^{H_1}$ and $K_2 = L^{H_2}$ are non-conjugate arithmetically equivalent number fields of degree 8 (one can achieve 7 using $H_1, H_2 \leq \mathrm{SL}_3(\mathbb{F}_2)$).

Lemma

Finite groups H_1 and H_2 occur as elements of a Gassmann triple (G, H_1, H_2) if and only if they have the same order statistics.

It follows that Gassmann equivalence does not imply isomorphism: consider $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^3$ and $H_3(\mathbb{F}_p) := \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & * & * \\ 0 & 1 & * \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$ for any prime $p \geq 3$, or $\langle 16, 3 \rangle$ and $\langle 16, 10 \rangle$, for example.

Gassmann triples in other contexts

Gassmann triples (G, H_1, H_2) arise in many contexts that involve potentially non-isomorphic objects with the same “zeta function”:

- If $\pi: M \rightarrow M_0$ is a normal finite Riemannian covering with deck group G , then M/H_1 , and M/H_2 are isospectral (Sunada 1985).
- If Γ is a finite graph with $G = \text{Aut}(\Gamma)$ then Γ/H_1 and Γ/H_2 are isospectral (Halbeisen–Hungerbühler 1995).
- If X/k is a smooth projective curve with $G = \text{Aut}(X)$, then X/H_1 and X/H_2 have isogenous Jacobians (Prasad–Rajan 2003).
- If $G = \text{GL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})$, then the modular curves X_{H_1} and X_{H_2} parameterizing elliptic curves with “level H_i -structure” have the same L -function.
- If $\pi: X \rightarrow Y$ is a Galois étale cover of k -varieties then X/H_1 and X/H_2 have isomorphic Chow motives (Arapura–Katz–McReynolds–Solapurkar 2019).

Unlike the number field case, non-trivial Gassmann triples may yield isomorphic objects, and zeta function equality does not always force Gassmann equivalence.

How strong is arithmetic equivalence?

Theorem (Perlis 1977)

Arithmetically equivalent number fields K_1 and K_2 have the same degree, discriminant, signature, roots of unity, normal closure, and normal core.

The analytic class number formula

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow 1^+} (s-1)\zeta_{K_i}(s) = \frac{2^{r_1}(2\pi)^{r_2} h_{K_i} R_{K_i}}{\#\mu_{K_i} |D_{K_i}|^{1/2}}$$

implies $h_{K_1} R_{K_1} = h_{K_2} R_{K_2}$, but the class numbers h_{K_i} and regulators R_{K_i} may differ.

There is a bijection of the places of K_1 and K_2 that preserves residue fields, but it may not be possible for this bijection to also preserve ramification indices.

In particular, the adèle rings \mathbb{A}_{K_1} and \mathbb{A}_{K_2} need not be isomorphic.

Local isomorphism

Definition

Two number fields are **locally isomorphic** if there is a bijection of places in which corresponding completions are isomorphic (this forces arithmetic equivalence).

Proposition (Iwasawa 1953)


Number fields K_1, K_2 are locally isomorphic if and only if they have isomorphic rings of adèles $\mathbb{A}_{K_1} \simeq \mathbb{A}_{K_2}$ (as topological rings and as $\mathbb{A}_{\mathbb{Q}}$ -algebras).

Proposition (Linowitz–McReynolds–Miller 2017)

Locally isomorphic number fields have isomorphic Brauer groups.

Locally isomorphic number fields may have distinct class numbers, as happens with $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[8]{-33})$ and $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[8]{-33 \cdot 16})$, with class numbers 256 and 128 (de Smit–Perlis, 1994).

Plan for the talk

- Define three stronger notions of Gassmann equivalence (\mathbb{Q}):
 - local integral equivalence (\mathbb{Z}_p)
 - integral equivalence (\mathbb{Z})
 - solvable equivalence ()
- Investigate their consequences beyond arithmetic equivalence ($\zeta_{K_1} = \zeta_{K_2}$):
 - class group isomorphism ($\text{cl}_{K_1} \simeq \text{cl}_{K_2}$)
 - local isomorphism ($\mathbb{A}_{K_1} \simeq \mathbb{A}_{K_2}$)
 - Galois group isomorphism ($\text{Gal}(L/K_1) \simeq \text{Gal}(L/K_2)$)
- Construct explicit examples and counterexamples

Gassmann equivalence (\mathbb{Q})

Definition

Let $[H \backslash G]$ be the transitive (right) G -set consisting of (right) cosets of H .

Let $\chi_H: G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ be the permutation character $g \mapsto \#[H \backslash G]^g$ (the character of 1_H^G).

Define $\chi_H(K) := \#[H \backslash G]^K$ for $K \leq G$ (note $\chi_H(K) \neq 0 \Leftrightarrow K \leq_G H$).

Proposition

For all $H_1, H_2 \leq G$ the following are equivalent:

- $\#(H_1 \cap C) = \#(H_2 \cap C)$ for all $C \in \text{conj}(G)$;
- *there is a G -conjugacy preserving bijection $H_1 \longleftrightarrow H_2$;*
- $\chi_{H_1}(K) = \chi_{H_2}(K)$ for all cyclic $K \leq G$;
- *the G -sets $[H_1 \backslash G]$ and $[H_2 \backslash G]$ are isomorphic as K -sets for all cyclic $K \leq G$;*
- $\mathbb{Q}[H_1 \backslash G] \simeq \mathbb{Q}[H_2 \backslash G]$ as $\mathbb{Q}[G]$ -modules.

One can replace “all $K \leq G$ ” with “all $K \leq H_1$ and all $K \leq H_2$ ”.

Local integral equivalence (\mathbb{Z}_p)

Definition

$H_1, H_2 \leq G$ are **locally integrally equivalent** if $\mathbb{Z}_p[H_1 \setminus G] \simeq \mathbb{Z}_p[H_2 \setminus G]$ for all primes p .

Proposition

Call a group *p-cyclic* if its quotient by its *p-core* (largest normal *p*-subgroup) is cyclic. For all $H_1, H_2 \leq G$ the following are equivalent:

- there is a G -conjugacy class preserving bijection of *p*-cyclic $K \leq H_1, H_2$;
- $\chi_{H_1}(K) = \chi_{H_2}(K)$ for all *p*-cyclic $K \leq G$ (or all $K \leq H_1, H_2$);
- $\mathbb{F}_p[H_1 \setminus G] \simeq \mathbb{F}_p[H_2 \setminus G]$ as $\mathbb{F}_p[G]$ -modules;
- $\mathbb{Z}_p[H_1 \setminus G] \simeq \mathbb{Z}_p[H_2 \setminus G]$ as $\mathbb{Z}_p[G]$ -modules.

Theorem (Perlis 1978)

Locally integrally equivalent number fields have isomorphic class groups.

Integral equivalence (\mathbb{Z})

Definition

$H_1, H_2 \leq G$ are **integrally equivalent** if $\mathbb{Z}[H_1 \backslash G] \simeq \mathbb{Z}[H_2 \backslash G]$.

Let $H_1, H_2 \leq G$ have index n , let $\rho_1, \rho_2: G \rightarrow S_n$ be the representations corresponding to the permutation modules $\mathbb{Z}[H_1 \backslash G], \mathbb{Z}[H_2 \backslash G]$.

Fix an ordering of $[H_1 \backslash G]$ and $[H_2 \backslash G]$. We may represent elements of $\text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}[G]}(\mathbb{Z}[H_1 \backslash G], \mathbb{Z}[H_2 \backslash G])$ by matrices $M \in \mathbb{Z}^{n \times n}$ that satisfy

$$M_{ij} = M_{\rho_1(g)(i), \rho_2(g)(j)} \quad \text{for all } g \in G.$$

(\mathbb{Q}) rational equivalence: $\exists M \det(M) \neq 0$

(\mathbb{Z}_p) local integral equivalence: $\exists M_i \gcd(\det(M_1), \dots, \det(M_r)) = 1$

(\mathbb{Z}) integral equivalence: $\exists M \det(M) = \pm 1$

What we know about integral equivalence

Theorem (Prasad 2017)

Let $\pi: X \rightarrow Y$ be a Galois cover of nice curves over k with Galois group G . If $H_1, H_2 \leq G$ are integrally equivalent then $\text{Jac}(X/H_1) \simeq \text{Jac}(X/H_2)$.

Remark: Infinite families of non-isomorphic curves of low genus with isomorphic Jacobians were previously known (Howe 2005).

Essentially only one non-trivial example of integral equivalence is known:
 $G = \text{PSL}_2(\mathbb{F}_{29})$ with $H_1, H_2 \simeq A_5$ subgroups of index 203 (Scott 1992).

Scott proved this by writing down $M \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}[G]}(\mathbb{Z}[H_1 \backslash G], \mathbb{Z}[H_2 \backslash G]) \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^{203 \times 203}$ with $\det M = 1$ (most of the entries in M are zero, the nonzero entries are ± 1).

Similar triples exist for all primes $p \equiv \pm 29 \pmod{120} \dots$

\dots but for $p = 149$ we need $M \in \mathbb{Z}^{27565 \times 27565}$ (and none of the simplest M work).

What we don't know about integral equivalence

Two questions naturally arise from Prasad's result.

Question 1: Must integrally equivalent $H_1, H_2 \leq G$ be isomorphic?

We show that locally integrally equivalent $H_1, H_2 \leq G$ need not be, in general, but rationally equivalent subgroups of $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{F}_p)$ are isomorphic (S 2016), so this necessarily holds for Scott's example.

Question 2: Must integrally equivalent number fields be locally isomorphic?

We show that locally integrally equivalent number fields need not be, in general, but locally integrally equivalent subgroups of $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{F}_p)$ force local isomorphism, so this necessarily holds for Scott's example.

Remark: $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{F}_p)$ can be realized as a Galois group over \mathbb{Q} (Zywina 2015); this was previously known for infinitely many values of p including 29 (Shih 1974).

Solvable equivalence (✍)

Definition

$H_1, H_2 \leq G$ are **solvably equivalent** if $\chi_{H_1}(K) = \chi_{H_2}(K)$ for all solvable $K \leq G$.

Solvable equivalence implies local integral equivalence (hence isomorphic class groups), and also guarantees that corresponding number fields are locally isomorphic.

Proposition

Number fields K_1, K_2 corresponding to solvably equivalent $H_1, H_2 \leq G$ are arithmetically equivalent, locally isomorphic, and have isomorphic class groups.

In particular, there is a bijection of the places of K_1 and K_2 that preserves residue fields and ramification indices, and yields isomorphic completions.

Remark: Solvable equivalence is stronger than necessary.

Results

Proposition

There are infinitely many non-isomorphic pairs of degree-32 number fields arising from locally (but not globally) integrally equivalent $H_1, H_2 \leq G$ (and none of degree < 32).

Proposition

There are infinitely many non-isomorphic pairs of degree-96 number fields arising from solvably (but not integrally) equivalent $H_1, H_2 \leq G$ (and none of degree < 48).

Proposition

For all primes $p \equiv \pm 29 \pmod{120}$ the group $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{F}_p)$ contains a pair of non-conjugate solvably equivalent subgroups $H_1, H_2 \simeq A_5$.

$H_1, H_2 \simeq A_5 \leq \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{F}_p)$ are integrally equivalent for $p = 29$; this is open for $p > 29$.

A minimal example of local integral equivalence

An exhaustive search of the 11,759,892 groups of order less than 1024 finds 74 that contain non-conjugate locally integrally equivalent subgroups with trivial normal core. The smallest two have GAP ids $\langle 384, 18050 \rangle$ and $\langle 384, 18046 \rangle$, isomorphic to transitive permutation groups [32T9403](#) and [32T9408](#). Both are 2-extensions of $D_4 \times S_4$.

Example

The polynomials

$$\begin{aligned} &x^{32} + 12x^{28} + 72x^{24} + 120x^{20} - 234x^{16} + 108x^{12} + 396x^8 - 432x^4 + 81, \\ &x^{32} - 12x^{28} + 72x^{24} - 120x^{20} - 234x^{16} - 108x^{12} + 396x^8 + 432x^4 + 81 \end{aligned}$$

have the same splitting field, with Galois group $G = 32T9403$.

They define non-isomorphic number fields K_1, K_2 that are the fixed fields of locally integrally equivalent subgroups $H_1, H_2 \leq G$ that are both isomorphic to D_6 .

A minimal example of local integral equivalence

We can view each $M \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}[G]}(\mathbb{Z}[H_1 \backslash G], \mathbb{Z}[H_2 \backslash G])$ as a 32×32 matrix with entries $a, b, c, \dots, h \in \mathbb{Z}$, corresponding to the decomposition of G into double cosets $H_1 g H_2$. A (non-trivial) calculation finds that

$$\begin{aligned} \det M = & - (2(b - c)^2 + 3(e - f)^2)^8 \\ & \cdot (2(a - d) + (e + f - 2g))^6 \\ & \cdot (2(a + b + c + d) - (e + f + 2g + 4h))^3 \\ & \cdot (2(a - b - c + d) - (e + f + 2g - 4h))^3 \\ & \cdot (2(a - d) - 3(e + f - 2g))^2 \\ & \cdot (2(a + b + c + d) + 3(e + f + 2g + 4h)) \\ & \cdot (2(a - b - c + d) + 3(e + f + 2g - 4h)). \end{aligned}$$

One can choose $a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h \in \mathbb{Z}$ so that $\det M = 2^{32}$, and so that $\det M = 3^{12}$. H_1 and H_2 are not integrally equivalent because no $a, \dots, h \in \mathbb{Z}$ make $\det M = \pm 1$.

This negatively answers Question 2.10 in ([Guralnick–Weiss 1993](#)).

$M :=$

h	h	e	h	h	g	h	e	h	b	a	h	f	h	h	g	g	h	g	d	c	c	a	g	h	f	b	d	e	f	g	h	
h	h	g	h	h	e	h	g	h	c	d	h	g	h	h	e	f	h	e	d	b	b	a	f	h	g	c	a	g	g	f	h	
g	f	h	c	g	h	e	a	b	h	g	e	h	c	g	h	h	b	a	e	h	h	f	h	f	d	h	g	h	h	d	g	
h	a	f	h	h	b	h	e	h	g	h	d	e	h	a	g	g	h	g	h	e	f	h	b	h	f	g	h	c	c	g	d	
h	h	f	h	h	g	f	h	c	h	e	h	h	h	e	g	g	a	c	c	d	g	g	h	e	b	a	f	e	g	h		
e	g	d	h	b	f	h	g	d	c	h	e	g	h	b	e	h	h	h	e	h	h	g	h	g	a	h	f	h	h	d	f	
h	d	g	h	h	c	h	g	h	e	h	a	g	h	a	e	f	h	f	h	g	g	h	c	h	g	f	h	b	b	e	d	
h	h	g	h	h	f	h	g	h	c	a	h	g	h	h	f	e	h	f	a	b	b	d	e	h	g	c	d	g	g	e	h	
e	g	h	g	f	h	g	h	f	a	c	g	h	g	f	h	h	e	h	b	a	d	b	h	g	h	d	c	h	h	h	e	
d	h	b	h	a	f	d	g	h	e	h	h	b	h	h	c	c	h	e	h	g	g	h	e	a	g	f	h	g	g	f	h	
g	c	h	e	g	a	f	h	g	h	g	c	h	f	b	h	h	g	h	e	h	h	f	d	e	h	h	g	a	d	h	b	
d	h	c	h	a	g	a	f	h	g	h	h	c	h	h	b	b	h	g	h	e	f	h	g	d	e	g	h	e	f	g	h	
g	e	h	c	g	h	f	d	b	h	g	f	h	c	g	h	h	b	d	f	h	h	e	h	e	h	e	a	h	g	c	g	a
h	d	e	h	h	b	h	f	h	g	h	a	f	h	d	g	h	h	g	h	f	e	h	b	h	e	g	h	c	g	a	g	
g	e	h	e	g	h	e	h	g	a	b	f	h	f	g	h	h	g	h	c	d	a	c	h	f	h	d	b	h	h	g	g	
a	h	c	h	d	g	d	e	h	g	h	h	c	h	h	b	b	h	g	h	f	e	h	g	a	f	g	h	f	e	g	h	
e	b	h	g	f	d	g	h	e	h	f	b	h	g	c	h	h	f	h	g	h	h	g	a	g	h	h	e	a	d	h	c	
a	h	b	h	d	e	a	g	h	f	h	h	b	h	h	c	c	h	f	h	g	g	h	f	d	g	e	h	g	g	e	h	
f	g	h	b	e	h	g	a	c	h	f	g	h	b	f	h	h	c	d	g	h	h	g	h	g	d	h	e	h	h	a	e	
h	a	g	h	h	c	h	g	h	f	h	d	g	h	d	f	e	h	e	h	g	g	h	c	h	g	e	h	b	b	f	a	
h	h	e	a	h	g	h	c	a	g	h	h	f	d	h	g	g	d	b	h	e	f	h	g	h	b	c	g	h	f	e	b	h
c	g	d	g	c	h	b	h	e	h	e	g	a	g	f	a	d	f	h	g	h	h	g	h	b	h	h	f	h	h	e	h	
h	h	d	h	e	h	b	a	e	h	h	g	a	h	f	e	d	c	h	g	g	h	f	h	b	f	h	g	g	c	h	g	
b	f	d	e	b	h	c	h	g	h	g	e	a	f	g	d	a	g	h	f	h	h	e	h	c	h	h	g	h	h	h	g	
h	h	f	d	h	g	h	c	d	g	h	h	e	a	h	g	g	a	b	h	f	e	h	g	h	c	g	h	e	f	b	h	
f	g	h	g	e	h	g	h	e	d	c	g	h	g	e	h	h	f	h	b	d	a	b	h	g	h	a	c	h	h	h	f	
g	c	h	f	g	d	e	h	g	h	g	c	h	e	b	h	h	g	h	f	h	h	e	a	f	h	h	g	d	a	h	b	
f	b	h	g	e	a	g	h	f	h	e	b	h	g	c	h	h	e	h	g	h	h	g	d	g	h	h	f	d	a	h	c	
b	e	a	f	b	h	c	h	g	h	g	f	d	e	g	a	d	g	h	e	h	h	f	h	c	h	h	g	h	h	h	g	
c	g	a	g	c	h	b	h	f	h	f	g	d	g	e	d	e	h	h	g	h	h	g	h	b	h	h	e	h	h	h	f	
h	h	g	a	h	f	h	b	d	f	h	h	g	d	h	e	f	a	c	h	g	g	h	e	h	b	e	h	g	g	c	h	
g	f	h	f	g	h	f	h	g	d	b	e	h	e	g	h	h	g	h	c	a	d	c	h	e	h	a	b	h	h	h	g	

Locally integrally equivalent subgroups need not be isomorphic

Example

Let G be the symmetric group S_{21} and consider the following pair of subgroups:

$$H_1 := \langle (4, 5)(6, 15, 7, 14)(8, 17, 9, 16)(10, 19, 11, 18)(12, 21, 13, 20), \\ (1, 2)(3, 5)(6, 20, 8, 18)(7, 21, 9, 19)(10, 14, 12, 16)(11, 15, 13, 17) \rangle,$$

$$H_2 := \langle (4, 5)(6, 16, 8, 14)(7, 17, 9, 15)(10, 20, 12, 18)(11, 21, 13, 19), \\ (1, 2)(3, 5)(6, 20, 8, 18)(7, 21, 9, 19)(10, 17, 12, 15)(11, 16, 13, 14) \rangle.$$

Then $\mathbb{Z}_p[H_1 \setminus G] \simeq \mathbb{Z}_p[H_2 \setminus G]$ for every prime p but $H_1 \not\cong H_2$.

Indeed, the GAP identifiers of H_1 and H_2 are $\langle 48, 12 \rangle$ and $\langle 48, 13 \rangle$.

This example negatively answers Question 2.11 in ([Guralnick–Weiss 1993](#)).

It is the first of many examples that can be obtained by comparing \mathcal{P} -statistics, where \mathcal{P} is the set of finite groups that are p -cyclic for some prime p .

Local integral equivalence does not imply local isomorphism

Example

The group $G := A_4 \times S_5$ contains locally integrally equivalent $H_1, H_2 \simeq D_6$. Let L be the compositum of the splitting fields of the A_4 and S_5 polynomials $x^4 - 6x^2 - 8x + 60$ and $x^5 + 5x^3 + 10x - 2$, and let $K_1 := L^{H_1}$ and $K_2 := L^{H_2}$. Above the ramified prime 2 we have

$$\begin{aligned} 2\mathcal{O}_{K_1} &= \mathfrak{p}_1\mathfrak{p}_2\mathfrak{p}_3\mathfrak{p}_4\mathfrak{p}_5^6\mathfrak{p}_6^6\mathfrak{p}_7^6\mathfrak{p}_8^6\mathfrak{p}_9^6\mathfrak{p}_{10}^6\mathfrak{p}_{11}^6\mathfrak{p}_{12}^6\mathfrak{p}_{13}^2\mathfrak{p}_{14}^2\mathfrak{p}_{15}^3\mathfrak{p}_{16}^3\mathfrak{p}_{17}^6\mathfrak{p}_{18}^6\mathfrak{p}_{19}^6\mathfrak{p}_{20}^6, \\ 2\mathcal{O}_{K_2} &= \mathfrak{q}_1^2\mathfrak{q}_2^2\mathfrak{q}_3^2\mathfrak{q}_4^2\mathfrak{q}_5^3\mathfrak{q}_6^3\mathfrak{q}_7^3\mathfrak{q}_8^3\mathfrak{q}_9^6\mathfrak{q}_{10}^6\mathfrak{q}_{11}^6\mathfrak{q}_{12}^6\mathfrak{q}_{13}\mathfrak{q}_{14}\mathfrak{q}_{15}^6\mathfrak{q}_{16}^6\mathfrak{q}_{17}^6\mathfrak{q}_{18}^6\mathfrak{q}_{19}^6\mathfrak{q}_{20}^6, \end{aligned}$$

which shows that $K_1 \otimes_{\mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{Q}_2 \not\cong K_2 \otimes_{\mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{Q}_2$.

This example also shows that the sums of the ramification indices can differ even when the products do not, complementing the example in (Mantilla-Soler 2019).

An example of solvable equivalence

The group $G = 16T1654$ of order 5760 contains non-conjugate $H_1, H_2 \simeq A_5$ of index 96 such that every proper subgroup of H_1 is a proper subgroup of H_2 .

It is the Galois group of an extension of $\mathbb{Q}[T]$, so Hilbert irreducibility gives infinitely many examples of corresponding number fields, including the splitting field of

$$x^{16} - 2x^{15} + 3x^{14} - 16x^{13} + 18x^{12} - 10x^{10} + 40x^9 - 39x^8 + 54x^7 + 23x^6 + 16x^5 - 140x^4 - 188x^3 - 28x^2 + 104x - 4.$$

Each $M \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}[G]}(\mathbb{Z}[H_1 \setminus G], \mathbb{Z}[H_2 \setminus G])$ has entries $a, b, c, d, e \in \mathbb{Z}$ with

$$\det M = -(5a + 6b + 10c + 15d + 60e)(a - 6b - 10c + 3d + 12e)^5 \\ (3a + 2b - 2c - 7d + 4e)^{15}(3a - 2b + 2c + d - 4e)^{30}(a + 2b - 2c + 3d - 4e)^{45}$$

No $a, b, c, d, e \in \mathbb{Z}$ yield $\det M = \pm 1$, so H_1 and H_2 are not integrally equivalent.

This example partially addresses Remark 4.3a in (Scott 1992) by providing a rank-5 example of locally isomorphic permutation modules that are not globally isomorphic (Scott proves a lower bound of 4 and an upper bound of 8 on the minimal rank).

Summary

subgroups $H_1, H_2 \leq G$

- (\mathbb{Q}) rational equivalence
- (\mathbb{Z}_p) local integral equivalence
- (\mathbb{Z}) integral equivalence
- ($\color{green}{\surd}$) solvable equivalence

number fields $K_1, K_2 \leq L$

- (ζ_K) arithmetic equivalence
- (cl_K) class group isomorphism
- (\mathbb{A}_K) local isomorphism
- (\simeq) $\text{Gal}(L/K)$ -isomorphism

($\color{green}{\surd}$) \Rightarrow (ζ_K)	(\mathbb{Z}) \Rightarrow (ζ_K)	(\mathbb{Z}_p) \Rightarrow (ζ_K)	(\mathbb{Q}) \Rightarrow (ζ_K)
($\color{green}{\surd}$) \Rightarrow (cl_K)	(\mathbb{Z}) \Rightarrow (cl_K)	(\mathbb{Z}_p) \Rightarrow (cl_K)	(\mathbb{Q}) $\not\Rightarrow$ (cl_K)
($\color{green}{\surd}$) \Rightarrow (\mathbb{A}_K)	(\mathbb{Z}) ? (\mathbb{A}_K)	(\mathbb{Z}_p) $\not\Rightarrow$ (\mathbb{A}_K)	(\mathbb{Q}) $\not\Rightarrow$ (\mathbb{A}_K)
($\color{green}{\surd}$) ? (\simeq)	(\mathbb{Z}) ? (\simeq)	(\mathbb{Z}_p) $\not\Rightarrow$ (\simeq)	(\mathbb{Q}) $\not\Rightarrow$ (\simeq)

