

Problem Set Week 6 Solutions

ETHZ Math Olympiad Club

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1 Problem (unknown)

We consider a game where two indistinguishable envelopes are presented to a player:

- One envelope contains an amount $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$.
- The other envelope contains 2α .

The game proceeds as follows:

1. The player randomly selects one envelope (with equal probability).
2. The player observes the content x of the selected envelope (without knowing α).
3. The player must decide whether to:
 - Keep the current envelope, or
 - Switch to the other envelope (this decision is irrevocable).

Although the game is played once, the player's objective is still to maximize their *expected gain*. Assuming access to *randomness*, how can they do better than always keeping the first envelope?

Answer:

As outlined in the problem, we consider a probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, where Ω consists of two possible configurations of envelopes: $\Omega = \{(\alpha, 2\alpha), (2\alpha, \alpha)\}$. Since Ω has only two elements, the only choice for the sigma-algebra (other than the trivial one) is its power set, $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{P}(\Omega)$. The player selects an envelope at random with equal probability, implying that the probability measure \mathbb{P} follows Laplace's model. Thus, for any $A \in \mathcal{F}$:

$$\mathbb{P}(A) := \frac{|A|}{|\Omega|} = \frac{|A|}{2}.$$

In this framework, the "naive" strategies—always keeping the selected envelope or always switching—can be analyzed by computing the expected value of the first coordinate projection $\pi_1 : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ (or equivalently, the second coordinate π_2). These functions are obviously measurable and positive, and we compute:

$$\mathbb{E}(\pi_i) = \alpha \mathbb{P}_{\pi_i}(\{\alpha\}) + 2\alpha \mathbb{P}_{\pi_i}(\{2\alpha\}) = \alpha \frac{1}{2} + 2\alpha \frac{1}{2} = \frac{3}{2}\alpha.$$

However, since we assume access to randomness, we can improve upon these deterministic strategies by incorporating some randomization. The key observation is that while the player

does not know α , i.e., they know only "partially" Ω (having access to Ω only through π_1 ; opening one of the envelopes only gives them a value x and the other one may be $2x$ or $\frac{x}{2}$). They still know that one value is strictly greater than the other, i.e., $\alpha < 2\alpha$.

To exploit this without knowing Ω , the player, after having selected one envelope and having seen its content, introduces some randomization. Say, they will generate¹ a number between $[0, 1]$ and *make a decision* with this number. Formally, we introduce an auxiliary probability space $(\Sigma, \mathcal{A}, \mu)$ and let $U : \Sigma \rightarrow [0, 1]$ be a uniform random variable, i.e., $U \sim \text{Unif}([0, 1])$ ², that is, for any $a, b \in [0, 1]$ with $a \leq b$ and any non-empty interval $I \subset [0, 1]$ with $\inf I = a$ and $\sup I = b$ then $\mu_U(I) = b - a$. Adjoining this new probability space to the preceding one, we obtain a product space (which is a probability space):

$$(\Omega \times \Sigma, \mathcal{F} \otimes \mathcal{A}, \mathbb{P} \otimes \mu).$$

Choosing a $(w, \xi) \in \Omega \times \Sigma$, and looking at $\pi_1(w)$, we must now make a decision about switching or not with a deterministic choice involving the pair $(\pi_1(w), U(\xi))$. That is, we have a measurable function $f : \mathbb{R}_{>0} \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ that takes $(\pi_1(w), U(\xi))$ and if $f((\pi_1(w), U(\xi))) = 0$, we keep, i.e., we take $\pi_1(w)$, and if $f((\pi_1(w), U(\xi)))$ is 1, we switch, i.e., we take $\pi_2(w)$. Formally, the gain with respect to this choice of f is $G_f : \Omega \times \Sigma \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ where:

$$G_f((w, \xi)) = \pi_1(w) \cdot \mathbb{1}_{\{0\}}(f((\pi_1(w), U(\xi)))) + \pi_2(w) \cdot \mathbb{1}_{\{1\}}(f((\pi_1(w), U(\xi)))) ,$$

which is measurable as long as f is measurable. Then, with probability $\frac{1}{2}$, the first envelope has amount α , and we decide to keep it with a probability $\mu_{f(\alpha, U)}(\{0\})$ and we switch with probability $\mu_{f(\alpha, U)}(\{1\})$. With probability $\frac{1}{2}$, the first envelope has amount 2α , and we decide to keep it with probability $\mu_{f(2\alpha, U)}(\{0\})$ and we switch with probability $\mu_{f(2\alpha, U)}(\{1\})$. The expected gain in this new probability space is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}(G_f) = & \alpha \left(\mathbb{P}_{\pi_1}(\{\alpha\}) \mu_{f(\alpha, U)}(\{0\}) + \mathbb{P}_{\pi_1}(\{2\alpha\}) \mu_{f(2\alpha, U)}(\{1\}) \right) \\ & + \\ & 2\alpha \left(\mathbb{P}_{\pi_1}(\{2\alpha\}) \mu_{f(2\alpha, U)}(\{0\}) + \mathbb{P}_{\pi_1}(\{\alpha\}) \mu_{f(\alpha, U)}(\{1\}) \right) \\ = & \frac{1}{2} \alpha \left(\mu_{f(\alpha, U)}(\{0\}) + \mu_{f(2\alpha, U)}(\{1\}) \right) + \alpha \left(\mu_{f(2\alpha, U)}(\{0\}) + \mu_{f(\alpha, U)}(\{1\}) \right). \end{aligned}$$

This formulation may appear abstract, and the machinery might seem overdeveloped, but the goal is to introduce the object naturally and provide a philosophical motivation for what follows.

We observe an asymmetry in this linear combination of α and 2α , which suggests an opportunity to exploit it in order to increase the expected gain beyond $\frac{3}{2}\alpha$. A natural way to introduce randomness into our decision-making process (that is, a natural choice of f) is by defining a threshold: if $U(\xi)$ is below a certain threshold, we keep the first envelope; otherwise, we switch. However, since we have access to the amount in the first envelope, we can dynamically adjust this threshold to take advantage of the inequality $\alpha < 2\alpha$ and the

¹Practically, this could involve sampling from a physical source (e.g., thermal noise) or a deterministic pseudorandom number generator (PRNG) seeded by an unpredictable value (e.g., system clock nanoseconds); see [Hardware random number generator](#) for more information.

²We can construct $(\Sigma, \mathcal{A}, \mu)$ as $([0, 1], \mathcal{B}([0, 1]), \lambda|_{\mathcal{B}([0, 1])})$, where $\mathcal{B}([0, 1])$ is the Borel sigma-algebra and λ is the Lebesgue measure on \mathbb{R} . U can then be defined as the identity function, i.e., $U(x) = x$ for $x \in [0, 1]$ and it is obviously a random variable with the uniform law on $[0, 1]$.

asymmetry in the expected gain formula.

To formalize this idea, we introduce a measurable function $g : \mathbb{R}_{>0} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ and define a decision function $f_g : \mathbb{R}_{>0} \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ by

$$f_g(x, y) = \mathbb{1}_{[0, g(x)]}(y),$$

which means we keep the first envelope if the generated number $U(\xi)$ satisfies $U(\xi) \leq g(\pi_1(\omega))$, and we switch otherwise.

For this specific choice of f_g , the probabilities of keeping and switching the envelope are as follows: with probability $\frac{1}{2}$ the first envelope has amount α , and we keep it if the randomly generated number in $[0, 1]$ is below $g(\alpha)$ that is we keep it with probability:

$$\mu_{f_g(\alpha, U)}(\{0\}) = \mu(\{\xi \in \Sigma \mid U(\xi) \in [0, g(\alpha)]\}) = g(\alpha)$$

and we switch with probability:

$$\mu_{f_g(\alpha, U)}(\{1\}) = \mu(\{\xi \in \Sigma \mid U(\xi) \in]g(\alpha), 1]\}) = 1 - g(\alpha).$$

Similarly, with probability $\frac{1}{2}$ the first envelope has amount 2α , and we keep it with probability:

$$\mu_{f_g(2\alpha, U)}(\{0\}) = \mu(\{\xi \in \Sigma \mid U(\xi) \in [0, g(2\alpha)]\}) = g(2\alpha)$$

and we switch with probability:

$$\mu_{f_g(2\alpha, U)}(\{1\}) = \mu(\{\xi \in \Sigma \mid U(\xi) \in]g(2\alpha), 1]\}) = 1 - g(2\alpha).$$

Thus, the expected gain under this strategy is:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}(G_{f_g}) &= \frac{1}{2}\alpha \left(\mu_{f_g(\alpha, U)}(\{0\}) + \mu_{f_g(2\alpha, U)}(\{1\}) \right) + \alpha \left(\mu_{f_g(2\alpha, U)}(\{0\}) + \mu_{f_g(\alpha, U)}(\{1\}) \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}\alpha (g(\alpha) + 1 - g(2\alpha)) + \alpha (g(2\alpha) + 1 - g(\alpha)) \\ &= \frac{3}{2}\alpha + \frac{\alpha}{2} (g(2\alpha) - g(\alpha)). \end{aligned}$$

To ensure $\mathbb{E}(G_{f_g}) > \frac{3}{2}\alpha$, it suffices to choose a measurable function g satisfying $g(2\alpha) > g(\alpha)$. Since the player does not know the exact value of α but knows that $\alpha < 2\alpha$, they can select any increasing (and hence measurable) function $g : \mathbb{R}_{>0} \rightarrow [0, 1]$. Examples of such functions include:

$$g(x) = \frac{x}{x+1} = 1 - \frac{1}{x+1}, \quad g(x) = 1 - e^{-x}.$$

With these choices, we obtain $g(2\alpha) > g(\alpha)$, effectively improving the expected gain over the naive strategy by:

$$\frac{\alpha}{2} (g(2\alpha) - g(\alpha)).$$

For the above examples of g , this improvement is given by:

$$\frac{\alpha}{2} \left(\frac{1}{1+\alpha} - \frac{1}{1+2\alpha} \right), \quad \frac{\alpha}{2} (e^{-\alpha} - e^{-2\alpha}) \text{ respectively.}$$

Ideally, one would aim to find an increasing function

$$g \in \mathcal{G} := \{g' \mid g' : \mathbb{R}_{>0} \rightarrow [0, 1] \text{ increasing}\}$$

that maximizes $\inf \{g(2x) - g(x) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}\}$ however:

$$\sup \{\inf \{g'(2x) - g'(x) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}\} \mid g' \in \mathcal{G}\} = 0$$

because if we assume for contradiction that there exists $c > 0$ and $g' \in \mathcal{G}$ such that

$$g'(2x) - g'(x) \geq c \quad \text{for all } x > 0.$$

Then by simply iterating this inequality we obtain by induction on \mathbb{N} :

$$g'(2^n x) - g'(x) \geq nc \quad \text{for all } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Since g' is bounded above by 1 and bounded below by 0, this implies $nc < 1$ for every n , which is impossible since c is not an **infinitesimal element** w.r.t to 1. However if we had more information on α (say some lower or/and upper bound) we may tune hyperparameter $t, c \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ by doing first order optimization on for examples:

Power-Law Functions:

$$g(x) = \frac{x^t}{x^t + c}.$$

For a given t , larger c makes it easier to switch for bigger and bigger x emphasizing to keep on only the very big x , smaller c makes it harder to switch for less and less big x emphasizing to keep most of the x . A fast transition occurs to the constant 1 when $c \rightarrow 0$. For a given c , larger t makes it harder to switch for less and less big x emphasizing to keep most of the x , smaller t makes it easier to switch for less and less big x emphasizing to keep only the very big x . A fast transitions to the constant $\frac{1}{c}$ occurs when $t \rightarrow 0$.

Logarithmic Functions:

$$g(x) = \frac{\ln(1 + x^t)}{\ln(1 + x^t) + c}.$$

This is exactly the same as above but things are more evenly spread out and smoother.

Exponential Functions:

$$g(x) = 1 - e^{-tx}.$$

Larger t makes it very difficult to switch for all x emphasizing to change only on the very small x , smaller t makes it easier to switch emphasizing only the very big x .

Remark. We can generalize the contents of the envelopes to be α and $k\alpha$ for any real number $k > 1$ and the previous analysis applies *mutatis mutandis*, where:

- The naive strategy yields an expected gain of $\frac{k+1}{2}\alpha$.
- The improved strategy, using any increasing function $g: \mathbb{R}_{>0} \rightarrow [0, 1]$, gives an expected gain of:

$$\frac{k+1}{2}\alpha + \frac{k-1}{2}\alpha(g(k\alpha) - g(\alpha)).$$

This setting is equivalent to considering α and $k\alpha$ where $0 < k \neq 1$ since we can simply swap the roles of the envelopes:

- If $k > 1$, the situation remains unchanged.
- If $0 < k < 1$, we reparameterize by setting $\alpha \leftarrow k\alpha$ and $k \leftarrow \frac{1}{k}$, reducing to the previous case.

In general, this framework is equivalent to considering any two distinct positive amounts α and β with $\alpha < \beta$, since we can express $\beta = k\alpha$ where $k = \frac{\beta}{\alpha} > 1$.

2 Problem A-3 (IMC 2018)

Determine all rational numbers a for which the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & a & 1 & 0 \\ -a & -a & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & a & a \\ 0 & -1 & -a & -a \end{bmatrix}$$

is the square of a matrix with all rational entries.

Answer:

We will show that the only such number is $a = 0$.

Let A be as given above, and suppose that $A = B^2$ for some matrix B with rational entries. It is easy to compute the characteristic polynomial of A , which is

$$p_A(X) = \det(A - XI) = (X^2 + 1)^2.$$

By the Cayley-Hamilton theorem, we have $p_A(B^2) = p_A(A) = 0$. Since $p_A(X^2) \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ annihilates B , there must be a non-zero minimal polynomial $\mu_B(X) \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ of B . We may assume $\mu_B(X)$ is monic. The minimal polynomial is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}[X]$ and divide all polynomials with rational coefficient that vanish at B ; in particular, $\mu_B(X)$ must be a divisor of the polynomial $p_A(X^2) = (X^4 + 1)^2$. So $\mu_B(X)$ must be a divisor of the polynomial $X^4 + 1$. However $X^4 + 1$ is the 8-th cyclotomic polynomial since:

$$\Phi_8(X) = \Phi_{2^3}(X) = \Phi_2(X^{2^{3-1}}) = X^4 + 1,$$

and therefore is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}[X]$. Hence $\mu_B(X) = X^4 + 1$. Therefore,

$$A^2 + I = \mu_B(B) = 0.$$

Since we have

$$A^2 + I = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 2a & 2a \\ 0 & 0 & -2a & -2a \\ -2a & -2a & 0 & 0 \\ 2a & 2a & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

the equation $A^2 + I = 0$ forces $a = 0$.

In case $a = 0$, we have

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^2,$$

hence $a = 0$ satisfies the condition.

3 Problem A-4 (IMC 2005)

Let $n \geq 1$. Find all polynomials

$$P(X) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i X^i = a_n X^n + a_{n-1} X^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 X + a_0 \quad (a_n \neq 0)$$

satisfying the following two conditions:

1. $\{a_i \mid i \in \llbracket 0, n \rrbracket\} = \llbracket 0, n \rrbracket$ and
2. all roots of $P(X)$ are rational numbers.

Answer:

Let $n \geq 1$. If $n = 1$, then trivially the only such polynomial is X . Else, $n \geq 2$, and let $P(X)$ be a polynomial satisfying the conditions. Note that $P(X)$ does not have any positive root because $P(x) > 0$ for every $x > 0$. Thus, we can represent the roots as $-\alpha_i$ for $i = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$, where $\{\alpha_i \mid i \in n\} \subset \mathbb{Q}_+$.

If $a_0 \neq 0$, then the roots are strictly positive $\{\alpha_i \mid i \in n\} \subset \mathbb{Q}_{>0}$, and condition 1 gives that there exists some $k \in \mathbb{N}$ with $1 \leq k \leq n-1$ such that $a_k = 0$. Using Vieta's formulas for this coefficient a_k , we obtain:

$$\sum_{\substack{S \subset n \\ |S|=n-k}} \left(\prod_{i \in S} \alpha_i \right) = \frac{a_k}{a_n} = 0,$$

which is impossible since the left-hand side is strictly positive (as $k < n$). Therefore, $a_0 = 0$, and one of the roots of $P(X)$, say (without loss of generality) α_{n-1} , must be zero.

Consider the polynomial

$$Q(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i X^{i-1} = a_n X^{n-1} + a_{n-1} X^{n-2} + \cdots + a_1.$$

One has $P(X) = XQ(X)$, so it has the zeros $-\alpha_i$ for $0 \leq i \leq n-2$. Again, using Vieta's formulas for the coefficients $\frac{a_1}{a_n}$, $\frac{a_2}{a_n}$ and $\frac{a_{n-1}}{a_n}$ (recall $n \geq 2$), we get:

$$\prod_{0 \leq i < n-1} \alpha_i = \frac{a_1}{a_n}, \quad \sum_{0 \leq i < n-1} \left(\prod_{\substack{0 \leq j < n-1 \\ j \neq i}} \alpha_j \right) = \frac{a_2}{a_n}, \quad \sum_{0 \leq i < n-1} \alpha_i = \frac{a_{n-1}}{a_n}.$$

Dividing the second equation by the first, we obtain

$$\frac{\sum_{0 \leq i < n-1} \left(\prod_{\substack{0 \leq j < n-1 \\ j \neq i}} \alpha_j \right)}{\prod_{0 \leq i < n-1} \alpha_i} = \sum_{0 \leq i < n-1} \frac{1}{\alpha_i} = \frac{a_2}{a_1}.$$

Applying the AM-HM inequality (which is a corollary of the very useful **Generalized Mean Inequality**):

$$\frac{a_{n-1}}{(n-1)a_n} = \frac{\sum_{0 \leq i < n-1} \alpha_i}{n-1} \geq \frac{n-1}{\sum_{0 \leq i < n-1} \frac{1}{\alpha_i}} = \frac{(n-1)a_1}{a_2}.$$

Rearranging, we find

$$\frac{a_2 a_{n-1}}{a_1 a_n} \geq (n-1)^2,$$

and since the ratio is trivially strictly bounded above by $\frac{n^2}{2}$, we have:

$$\frac{n^2}{2} > \frac{a_2 a_{n-1}}{a_1 a_n} \geq (n-1)^2 \implies n^2 + 2 < 4n,$$

which holds only for integers $n \leq 3$. Thus, the only possible polynomials $P(X)$ satisfying the given conditions are X , and otherwise they have degree 2 or 3, a constant term 0, and negative roots.

These polynomials can then be explicitly found by brute force (finitely many possibilities) and they form exactly the set:

$$\left\{ X, \quad X^2 + 2X, \quad 2X^2 + X, \quad X^3 + 3X^2 + 2X, \quad 2X^3 + 3X^2 + X \right\}.$$

4 Problem A-6 (IMC 2005)

Let $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Given a group G , denote by $G(m)$ the subgroup generated by the m -th powers of elements of G :

$$G(m) := \langle \{g^m \mid g \in G\} \rangle \leq G.$$

If $G(m)$ and $G(n)$ are commutative, prove that $G(\gcd(m, n))$ is also commutative. Here, $\gcd(m, n)$ denotes the greatest common divisor of m and n .

Answer:

If $m = 0$ or $n = 0$, this is trivial. Suppose now $|m|, |n| \geq 1$.

Recall that if H is a group and $H' \subset H$ is a subset, then the subgroup of H generated by H' is the smallest subgroup of H containing H' , that is, $\langle H' \rangle = \bigcap_{H' \subset F \leq H} F$. It is easy to see that:

$$\langle H' \rangle = \left\{ \prod_{i \in k} g_i^{\epsilon_i} \mid \exists k \in \mathbb{N} \exists g \in (H')^k \exists \epsilon \in \{-1, 1\}^k \right\}, \quad (1)$$

where the product is taken in the order of the integer $k = \{i \in \mathbb{N} \mid i < k\}$ and the empty product is e_H .

Write $d = \gcd(m, n)$. Notice that:

$$G(d) = \langle G(m) \cup G(n) \rangle.$$

Indeed, this follows from the monotonicity of $\langle _ \rangle$ and the fact that every subgroup is a fixed point of $\langle _ \rangle$. If $z \in \{g^d \mid g \in G\}$, then $z = g^d$ for some $g \in G$. By Bézout's lemma, there exist two integers $l, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $lm + rn = d$, and we have:

$$z = g^d = g^{lm+rn} = \left((g^m)^{\text{sign}(l)} \right)^{|l|} \left((g^n)^{\text{sign}(r)} \right)^{|r|}.$$

Because $g^m \in G(m)$ and $g^n \in G(n)$, we have $z \in \langle G(m) \cup G(n) \rangle$. Since z was arbitrary, we get $\{g^d \mid g \in G\} \subset \langle G(m) \cup G(n) \rangle$, and thus:

$$G(d) = \langle \{g^d \mid g \in G\} \rangle \subset \langle G(m) \cup G(n) \rangle.$$

Similarly, let $z \in \{g^m \mid g \in G\}$. Then $z = g^m$ for some $g \in G$, and thus:

$$z = \left(g^d \right)^{\frac{m}{d}} \in G(d),$$

since $g^d \in G(d)$. As z was arbitrary, we conclude $\{g^m \mid g \in G\} \subset G(d)$. Thus, $G(m) \subset G(d)$. In the exact same manner, $G(n) \subset G(d)$, and therefore:

$$\langle G(m) \cup G(n) \rangle \subset G(d).$$

We also have:

$$\langle G(m) \cup G(n) \rangle = \langle \{g^m \mid g \in G\} \cup \{h^n \mid h \in G\} \rangle^3.$$

³If H is a group, I a set, and $\{H_i \mid i \in I\}$ are subgroups of H each generated by $\{S_i \mid i \in I\} \subset \mathcal{P}(H)$ respectively ($\forall i \in I, H_i = \langle S_i \rangle$), then $\langle \bigcup_{i \in I} H_i \rangle = \langle \bigcup_{i \in I} S_i \rangle$. Indeed, we clearly have $\bigcup_{i \in I} S_i \subset \bigcup_{i \in I} H_i$ (since $S_i \subset \langle S_i \rangle$) and thus $\langle \bigcup_{i \in I} S_i \rangle \subset \langle \bigcup_{i \in I} H_i \rangle$. If we take an element $z \in \bigcup_{i \in I} H_i$, then there exists $j \in I$ with $z \in H_j = \langle S_j \rangle \subset \langle \bigcup_{i \in I} S_i \rangle$, and so we have $\bigcup_{i \in I} H_i \subset \langle \bigcup_{i \in I} S_i \rangle$, which means that we have the other inclusion $\langle \bigcup_{i \in I} H_i \rangle \subset \langle \bigcup_{i \in I} S_i \rangle$.

It is also clear regarding equation (1) that if $S \subset G$ is constituted of elements that commute with one another, then $\langle S \rangle$ is a commutative subgroup (this follows from the fact that if $a, b \in S$ commute, then any two elements in $\{a^{-1}, b^{-1}, a, b\}$ commute). The converse of this statement is trivial. Therefore, by the two equalities above, showing commutativity of $G(d)$ is equivalent to showing commutativity of any two elements in $\{g^m \mid g \in G\} \cup \{h^n \mid h \in G\}$. Because we know that any two elements in $\{g^m \mid g \in G\}$ or $\{h^n \mid h \in G\}$ commute (since $G(m)$ and $G(n)$ are commutative), we only need to show that any element in $\{g^m \mid g \in G\}$ commutes with any other element in $\{h^n \mid h \in G\}$. So, without further ado, let any two generators a^m and b^n ($a, b \in G$). Showing commutativity of these two elements is equivalent to showing neutrality of their commutator:

$$z := [a^m, b^n] = a^{-m}b^{-n}a^mb^n.$$

Then the relations

$$z = (a^{-m}ba^m)^{-n}b^n = a^{-m}(b^{-n}ab^n)^m$$

show that $z \in G(m) \cap G(n)$. But then z is in the center of $G(d)$. Indeed to show $z \in Z(G(d))$, we let $x \in G(d) = \langle \{g^m \mid g \in G\} \cup \{h^n \mid h \in G\} \rangle$, then there exists a natural number k and a sequence of length $2k$ of element of the group $\mathbf{g} \in G^{2k}$ with:

$$x = g_0^m g_1^n \cdots g_{2k-2}^m g_{2k-1}^n,$$

and as $z \in G(m) \cap G(n)$, z commutes with any element in $\{g^m \mid g \in G\} \cup \{h^n \mid h \in G\}$ so we have by induction $zx = xz$. Now, from the relation $a^mb^n = b^na^mz$, it easily follows by induction that for any integer $l \geq 0$, we have:

$$a^{ml}b^{nl} = b^{nl}a^{ml}z^{l^2}.$$

Indeed, for $l = 0$, we have:

$$a^{ml}b^{nl} = a^0b^0 = e_G = b^0a^0z^0 = b^{nl}a^{ml}z^{l^2},$$

and for $l = 1$, we have:

$$a^{ml}b^{nl} = a^mb^n = b^na^mz = b^{nl}a^{ml}z^{l^2},$$

where we used the above relation. Suppose this holds for $l \geq 1$. We show this holds for $l + 1$. We have:

$$a^{m(l+1)}b^{n(l+1)} = a^m(a^{ml}b^{nl})b^n = a^mb^{nl}a^{ml}z^{l^2}b^n = a^mb^{nl}a^{ml}b^n z^{l^2},$$

where we use in the second equality the induction hypothesis and in the third the fact that z is in the center and hence z^{l^2} as well. Now:

$$a^mb^{nl} = b^na^mz b^{n(l-1)} = b^n(a^mb^{n(l-1)})z = b^n(a^mb^{n(l-1)})z^{l-1 \text{ times}} = b^{nl}a^mz^l,$$

where we do an induction on l by iteratively using the known relation and the fact that z is in the center. Thus:

$$a^{m(l+1)}b^{n(l+1)} = a^mb^{nl}a^{ml}b^n z^{l^2} = b^{nl}a^{m(l+1)}b^n z^{l^2+l},$$

where we used the two last results and the fact that z^l is in the center. Similarly:

$$a^{m(l+1)}b^n = (a^{ml}b^n)a^mz = a^{ml}b^n a^m z^{l \text{ times}} = b^n a^{m(l+1)}z^{l+1},$$

where we do an induction on $l + 1$ by iteratively using the known relation and the fact that z is in the center. Thus:

$$a^{m(l+1)}b^{n(l+1)} = b^{nl}a^{m(l+1)}b^n z^{l^2+l} = b^{n(l+1)}a^{m(l+1)}z^{l^2+2l+1} = b^{n(l+1)}a^{m(l+1)}z^{(l+1)^2},$$

where we used the two last results and $l^2 + 2l + 1 = (l + 1)^2$. This concludes the induction and proves the statement.

In particular, for any integer $l \geq 0$, we have:

$$z^{l^2} = a^{-ml} b^{-nl} a^{ml} b^{nl} = [a^{ml}, b^{nl}].$$

Setting the two integers $k := \frac{m}{d}$ and $k' := \frac{n}{d}$, since $nk = mk'$, we obtain that $a^{mk} = (a^k)^m$ and $b^{nk} = (b^{k'})^m$ i.e. $a^{mk}, b^{nk} \in G(m)$, and thus they commute by hypothesis, which means:

$$z^{k^2} = [a^{mk}, b^{nk}] = e_G.$$

Similarly, $a^{mk'} = (a^k)^n$ and $b^{nk'} = (b^{k'})^n$ i.e. $a^{mk'}, b^{nk'} \in G(n)$, and thus they commute by hypothesis, which means:

$$z^{k'^2} = [a^{mk'}, b^{nk'}] = e_G.$$

So $z^{(\frac{m}{d})^2} = e_G = z^{(\frac{n}{d})^2}$. Clearly, $\gcd(k, k') = 1$, and thus $\gcd(k^2, k'^2) = 1$, so by Bézout's lemma, there exist two integers $s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $sk^2 + tk'^2 = 1$. Hence:

$$e_G = (e_G)^s (e_G)^t = \left(z^{k^2}\right)^s \left(z^{k'^2}\right)^t = z^{sk^2 + tk'^2} = z^1 = [a^m, b^n].$$

Since $a, b \in G$ were arbitrary, we conclude that $G(d)$ is commutative, as required.