## ELL780 ELL 457 Indian Institute of Technology Delhi

## Lecture 11 Open Sets and Closed Sets

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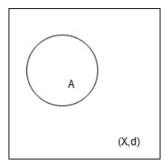
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## 1 Introduction

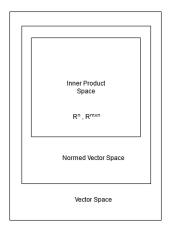
In the previous lecture we learnt about the conditions metric space, normed space and inner product space satisfy. We studied the behavior of different types of norms like  $L_1, L_2....L_{\infty}$  and also varios types of inner products. In these lecture scribes we will explore different elements of point set topology. This will help us understand and get a feeling of how sets are represented in a higher dimensional space as compared to a real line. We are going to discuss the following topics: Open Ball; Closed Ball; Interior Point; Relative Interior; Exterior Point; Boundary Points; Closure Points; Limit Points; Open Sets; Closed Sets; We need to understand these fundamental point sets before beginning study of functions.

## 2 Recap

In these lecture scribes our discussion will revolve around a metric space (X, d) where X is a vector space and d is a distance metric on X. Further we will focus on a subset of this metric space A such that  $A \subseteq X$  and A is non empty. Pictorially we can represent it as shown below:-

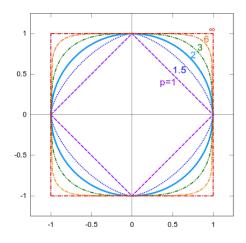


The more general type of space we talk about is vector space. If we a able to define a metric on this vector space it is called a metric space. Further if we are able to define a norm on a vector space then is called a normed vector space. Normed vector space is also a metric space as norm induces a metric. If we go even further and we are able to define an inner product on a vector space then it is called a inner product space. Inner product space is also a normed space as inner product induces a norm. If we take a set of all vector spaces, say V, normed vector spaces, say N, and inner product spaces, say I. Then from the above we can clearly deduce that  $I \subseteq N \subseteq V$  We can pictorially observe the following as shown below:-



Note: There does not exist any inner product that can lead to  $L_1$  norm.

Let us consider a Ln norm in the vector space  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Then for  $x \in \mathbb{R}^2$  the plot for  $||x||_n = 1$  is as follows:-



The region between  $L_2$  and  $L_{\infty}$  is covered by all n such that  $n \in (2, \infty)$  and the region between  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  norm is covered by n such that  $n \in (1, 2)$ . All norms such that  $n \in [1, \infty)$  are convex. For n < 1 the norm is not convex.

## 3 Open Ball

**Definition 3.1 (Open Ball)** For a metric space (X,d), Let a be a given point in metric space (X,d) and let r be a positive number. The set of all points x in metric space (X,d) such that

$$U(a,r) = U_r(a) = \{ x \in X ; d(a,x) < r \}$$

Open Ball is characterized by two things: Center(a) and Radius(r). The ball U(a,r) consists of all points whose distance from a is less than r. On a real line it is an open interval with centre at a. On a real plane it is a circular disk. In real space it is a spherical solid with centre at a and radius r.

There are balls of three different shapes:

**Example 3.1** Single-point balls:  $U[(0,0),r) = (0,0), \forall r \in (0,1]$ 

**Example 3.2** Balls that are same as in Euclidean Metric:  $U[(0,0),2]=\{\ x\in\mathbb{R}^2\ ;\ x_1^2+x_2^2<4\ \}$ 

**Example 3.3** Balls that are punctured at origin :  $U[(1/2, 1/2), 1] = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^2 ; (x_1 - 1/2)^2 + (x_2 - 1/2)^2 < 1 \}$ 

## 4 Closed Ball

**Definition 4.1** For a metric space (X,d), Let a be a given point in metric space (X,d) and let r be a positive number. The set of all points x in metric Space(X,d) such that

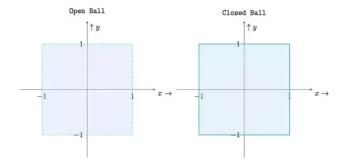
$$B(a,r) = B_r(a) = \{ x \in X ; d(a,x) \le r \}$$

Closed Ball is characterized by two things: Center(a) and Radius(r). The ball B(a,r) consists of all points whose distance from a is less than or equal to r. On a real line it is an closed interval with centre at a. On a real plane it is a circular disk. In real space it is a spherical solid with centre at a and radius r.

**Example 4.1** For the set  $(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ :  $x^2 + y^2 \le 1$  is a closed set. So the closed ball of radius r centered at a' is the set defined as:

$$B[a',r] = \{ x \in X : d(a',x) \le r \}$$

**Example 4.2** If the metric is d((x1, y1), (x2, y2)) = max(|x1 - x2|, |y1 - y2|). Then visual representation of open and closed ball in form of a plot is given below:



# 5 Sphere

**Definition 5.1** For a metric space (X,d), Let a be a given point in metric space (X,d) and let r be a positive number. The set of all points x in metric space (X,d) such that

$$S(a,r) = \{ x \in X ; d(a,x) = r \}$$

Sphere is characterized by two things: Center(a) and Radius(r). The sphere S(a,r) consists of all points whose distance from a is equal to r. On a real line it is two points with centre at a. On a real plane it is a circular ring. In real space it is a hollow sphere with centre at a and radius r.

Note: Open Ball and Closed Ball can never be empty but sphere can be empty.

**Example 5.1** Let (X,d) be a discrete metric space Discrete metric is defined as

$$d(x,y) = \begin{cases} 0 & x = y\\ 1 & otherwise \end{cases}$$
 (1)

Now we observe the following different values of radius for for open ball, closed ball and sphere:-Let a be a point such that  $a \in X$  then

 $U(a,1) = \{a\}$  (As there is only one point such that d(a,x) < 1 such that  $x \in X$  that is a itself)

$$U(a,1/2)=\{a\}\ (Similarly\ we\ can\ observe\ for\ d(x,y)<1/2)$$

$$U(a,3) = X$$
 (We can clearly see that  $d(x,y) < 3$  for all  $x \in X$ )

B(a,1)=X (We can clearly see that  $d(x,y)\leq 1$  for all  $x\in X$  by definition of the metric)

$$B(a, 1/2) = \{a\}$$

 $S(a,1) = X - \{a\}(As \ all \ points \ except \ a \ itself \ is \ at \ distance \ of \ 1 \ from \ a)$ 

 $S(a,1/2) = \phi(As\ no\ point\ exists\ such\ that\ d(a,x) = 1/2\ where\ x)$ 

Thus we can see in the above case that a sphere can be an empty set but open ball and closed ball are never empty.

$$[\operatorname{Fig}\ 1(a)] \xrightarrow{\text{a-r}} \xrightarrow{\text{a}} \xrightarrow{\text{a+r}} \qquad [\operatorname{Fig}\ 1(b)] \xrightarrow{\text{a-r}} \xrightarrow{\text{a}} \xrightarrow{\text{a+r}} \qquad \\ \xrightarrow{\text{a-r}} \xrightarrow{\text{a}} \xrightarrow{\text{a+r}} \qquad \operatorname{Fig}\ 1(c)]$$

Figure 1: Figure 1(a) represents the set U(a,r) for example 5.2. Figure 1(b) represents the set B(a,r) for example 5.2. Figure 1(c) represents the set S(a,r) for example 5.2

**Example 5.2** For a metric space  $(\mathbb{R}, d)$  where d(x, y) = |y - x|;  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  and r > 0

$$U(a,r) = \{ x \in \mathbb{R} ; |x-a| < r \} => x \in (a-r,a+r)$$
  
$$B(a,r) = \{ x \in \mathbb{R} ; |x-a| \le r \} => x \in [a-r,a+r]$$
  
$$S(a,r) = \{ x \in \mathbb{R} ; a-r,a+r \}$$

Now we have to generalize this concept of intervals to a higher dimension. For visualising this, we take the following example: For a Normed space also knows as Euclidean Space  $(\mathbb{R}^2, ||.||_2)$  Let a=(0,0) and r=1

$$U(a,1) = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^2 ; (x_1^2 + x_2^2)^{1/2} < 1 \}$$

All points in the circle belong to the Set but all points on the circle do not belong to the Set.

$$B(a,1) = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^2 ; (x_1^2 + x_2^2)^{1/2} \le 1 \}$$

All points in and on the circle belong to the Set

$$S(a,1) = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^2 ; (x_1^2 + x_2^2)^{1/2} = 1 \}$$

All points on the circle belong to the Set

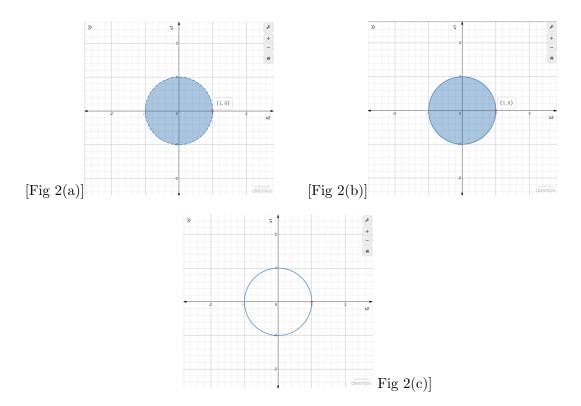


Figure 2: Figure 2(a) represents the set U(a,1) for example 5.2. Figure 2(b) represents the set B(a,1) for example 5.2. Figure 2(c) represents the set S(a,1) for example 5.2

## 6 Interior Point

**Definition 6.1** Let A be a subset of X, Let  $a \in A$ . Then a is called an interior point of A if there is an open ball with center at a, all of whose points belong to A.

Mathematically it is defined as:

$$int(A) = \{a \mid \exists r > 0 \text{ such that } U(a,r) \subseteq A\}$$

We can say that every interior point a of A can be surrounded by an ball  $B(a) \subseteq A$ . The set of all interior points of A is called the interior of A and is denoted by int(A). Any set containing a ball with center a is sometimes called a neighborhood of a.

### 6.1 Properties of Interior set

- int(A) is an open set in X
- int(int(A))=int(A)
- A is an open subset of X if and only if A = int(A)

• Let S be an open subset of X then  $S \subseteq A$  if and only if  $S \subseteq int(A)$ 

Open set is defined in section 10 to understand the above properties of open sets read the said section.

**Example 6.1** Let  $A = [0,1] = \inf(A) = (0,1)$  as for all  $x \in A$  except  $\{0,1\}$  we can make an open ball such that  $U(x,r) \subseteq A$ 

**Example 6.2** A = [0,1) = sint(A) = (0,1) here also we can observe for x = 0 no r > 0 exists such that an open ball centered at 0 satisfies  $U(0,r) \subseteq A$ 

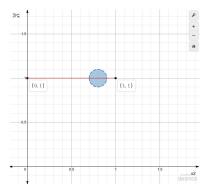
**Example 6.3** Let us consider  $\mathbb{N} => int(\mathbb{N}) = \phi$  Since  $\mathbb{N}$  is a discrete set hence for any r we can observe that  $U(x,r) \not\subseteq \mathbb{N}$ 

### 7 Relative Interior

**Definition 7.1** Let A be a subset of X. We can say that x is a relative interior point of A if  $x \in B(x,\epsilon) \cap aff(A) \subset A$ , for some  $\epsilon > 0$ . The set of all relative interior point of A is called the relative interior of A and is denoted by  $r_i(A)$ 

In optimization problems, we generally encounter sets like L which is defined below. in sets like these we can clearly see  $int(L) = \phi$ .

$$L = \{ X \in \mathbb{R} \mid x_1 = 1 \; ; 0 \le x_2 \le 1 \}$$



We quite often encounter sets like these in today's machine learning problems For this reason we define the concept of relative interior point

$$r_i(A) = \{ a \in A \mid \exists \ r > 0 \ such \ that \ U(a,r) \cap affine(A) \subseteq A \}$$

where affine(A) is the  $affine\ hull(A)$  which is defined as follows:

$$aff(X) = \{ \sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta_i x_i \mid K > 0, \ x_i \in X; \ \theta_i \in \mathbb{R}; \sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta_i = 1 \}$$

For the same set L the set of relative interior points we obtain are  $r_i(L) = (0,1)$ 

Property 1. Line Segment Property: Let A be a non-empty convex set.

If 
$$x \in r_i(A), \overline{x} \in cl(A)$$
, then  $\alpha x + (1 - \alpha)\overline{x} \in r_i(A)$ , for  $\alpha \in (0, 1]$ 

Property 2. Prolongation Lemma: Let A be a non-empty convex set. Then we have

$$x \in r_i(A) \Leftrightarrow \forall \ \overline{x} \in A, \exists \gamma > 0 \ such \ that \ x + \gamma(x - \overline{x}) \in A$$

We can also say that, x is a relative interior point iff every line segment in A having x as one of the endpoints can be prolonged beyond x without leaving A.

## 8 Exterior Point

**Definition 8.1** Let A be a subset of X, Let  $a \in A$ . Then a is called an exterior point of A if there is an open ball with center at a, all of whose points belong to X - A.

Mathematically it is defined as:

$$Ext(A) = \{ a \mid \exists \ r > 0 \ such \ that \ U(a,r) \subseteq X - A \}$$
$$Ext(A) = int(X - A)$$

We can say that every exterior point a of A can be surrounded by a ball  $B(a) \subseteq X - A$ . The set of all exterior points of A is called the exterior of A and is denoted by ext(A). Any set containing a ball with center a is sometimes called a neighborhood of a.

#### 8.1 Properties of Exterior set

- ext(A) is open subset of X that is disjoint from A
- The union of all open subsets of X that are disjoint from A is equal to ext(A)
- The largest open subset of X that is disjoint from A is equal to ext(A)
- $int(A) \subseteq ext(ext(A))$

**Example 8.1** Let us consider the set  $A = [2, 8) \in \mathbb{R}$  the exterior set of A is  $ext(A) = (-\infty, 2) \cup [8, \infty)$ 

## 9 Boundary Points

**Definition 9.1** Let A be a subset of X. A point x in X is called a boundary point of A if every ball  $B_M(x;r)$  contains at least one point of A and at least one point of X - A. The set of all boundary points of A is called the boundary of A and is denoted by  $\partial A$ .

Mathematically defined as:

$$Boundary(A) = \{ a \mid \exists \ r > 0 \ such \ that \ U(a,r) \ \bigcap \ (A) \neq \phi \ and \ U(a,r) \ \bigcap \ (X-A) \neq \phi \}$$

### 9.1 Properties of Boundary sets

- Boundary of a set is always a closed set
- The interior of the boundary of a closed set is an empty set
- $Boundary(A) = Boundary(A^C) => Boundary$  of a set is equal to the boundary of the compliment of the set
- The boundary of the interior of a set as well as boundary of closure of a set are both contained in the boundary of the set

**Example 9.1** Let us consider the set  $A = [0,1] \in \mathbb{R}$  then the interior, exterior and boundary points are as follows:-

Int(A)=(0,1) for all these points there exists an open ball s.t. r>0 that belongs to A  $Ext(A)=(-\infty,0)$   $\bigcup$   $(1,\infty)$  for all these points there exists an open ball s.t. r>0 that totally lies outside A

Boundary(A) =  $\{0,1\}$  as no matter how arbitrarily small we take r for 0 or 1 a part of any open ball s.t. r > 0 lies inside A.

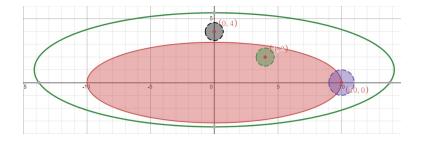


Figure 3: Let us consider the above where A is the set of points in the red ellipse and X is the set of points in the green ellipse we can clearly observe the following about the points in the figure:  $(4,2) \in int(A), (0,4) \in ext(A) \ and \ (10,0) \in Boundary(A)$ 

## 10 Open Sets

Let A be a subset of X. Then the set A is open if every point in A has a neighborhood lying in the set. An open set of radius r and center a is the set of all points x such that |x - a| < r, and is denoted  $D_r(a)$ . In one-space, the open set is an open interval. In two-space, the open set is a disk. In three-space, the open set is a ball. Mathematically defined as:

$$\forall a \in A; a \in Int(A)$$

In words, a set A is open if and only if A = int(A)

**Example 10.1** (0,1) is not an open set as  $\{1\} \in A$  but  $\{1\}$  is not an interior point of A

**Example 10.2** (a,b) is an open set as all points of A belong to int(A)

**Theorem 10.3** Let (X, d) be a metric space

- 1. If  $\{G_{\alpha}; \alpha \in \Lambda\}$  is a family of open sets in X then  $\bigcup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} G_{\alpha}$  is open
- 2. If  $G_1, G_2, G_3, ...G_n$  are open sets, then  $\bigcap_{i=1,2,...n} G_i$  is open (Finite Intersection)

#### **Proof:**

1. Let  $\{G_{\alpha}; \alpha \in \wedge\}$  be a collection of open sets and let S denote their union,  $S = \bigcup_{\alpha \in \wedge} G_{\alpha}$ . Assume  $x \in S$ . Then x must belong to at least one of the sets in  $G_{\alpha}$ , say  $x \in G_{\alpha}$ . Since  $G_{\alpha}$  is open, there exists an open ball  $U(x,r) \subseteq S$ . But  $G_{\alpha} \subseteq S$ , so  $U(x,r) \subseteq S$  and hence x is an interior point of S. Since every point of S is an interior point, S is open. Mathematically shown as:

$$G_{\alpha} \exists r > 0 \text{ such that } U(a,r) \subseteq G_{\alpha} \Longrightarrow U(a,r) \subseteq G = \bigcup_{\alpha} G_{\alpha}$$

2. Let  $S = \bigcap_{i=1,2,...n} G_i$  where each  $G_{\alpha}$  is open. Assume  $x \in S(\text{If S is empty then we don't need to prove it)}. Then <math>x \in G_{\alpha}$  for every k = 1, 2, ...m, and hence there is an open ball  $U(x, r_k) \subseteq G_{\alpha}$ . Let r be the smallest of the positive numbers  $r_1, r_2, ....r_m$ . Then  $x \in U(x, r) \subseteq S$ . That is x is an interior point, so S is open.

We can also show it mathematically for easier understanding. Below is the mathematical explanation:

 $G_1, G_2, .... G_n$  are given open sets To prove:  $\bigcap_{j=1,2,...n} G_j$  is open.

Let  $a \in \bigcap_{j=1}^{n} G = >a \in G_j \ \forall \ j=1,2,...n(all \ G_j \ are open)$ 

 $\forall$  j  $\exists$   $(r_j > 0)$  such that  $U(a, r_j) \subseteq G_j$ 

Let  $r = min(r_1, r_2, r_3, ....r_j, r_n)$ ;  $[r_j > 0 \ \forall \ 1 \le j \le n]$ 

 $r = min(r_1, r_2, ....r_n) > 0 ; [r > 0]$ 

Take U(a,r); Since  $r < r_j \ \forall \ j = 1, 2....n$ 

 $U(a,r) \subseteq U(a,r_j) \subseteq G_j \ \forall \ j=1,2...n$ 

$$U(a,r) \subseteq \bigcap_{j=1}^n G_j$$

Thus we have proved that intersection of a finite number of open sets is open.

We do not take the case of infinite intersection as it may lead to the condition below:

$$min(r_1, r_2, ... r_n) = 0$$

We can in the following case that a infinite intersection of open sets leads to a singleton which is a closed set. Hence we have a counter example

$$G_n = (-1/n, 1/n) \ \forall \ n \in \mathbb{N}$$
 are open sets  $\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} G_n = \{0\}$ 

### 11 Closure Point

**Definition 11.1** Let A be a subset of X, Let  $x \in A$ .let r be a positive number. Then x is said to be closure point of A if every open ball with radius r and center at x, and has a non empty intersection with A where  $A \subseteq X$  and  $x \in X$ . Mathematically defined as:

$$\overline{A} = Cl(A) = \{x \mid \forall \ r > 0 \ ; \ U(x,r) \ \bigcap \ A \neq \phi\}$$

The set of all closure points of A is called a closure of A  $(\overline{A} = Cl(A))$ 

The closure of A can alternatively be defined as the intersection of all closed sets containing A Every point of A is the closure point of  $A => A \subseteq \overline{A}$ 

**Example 11.1** Let us consider the set A = [2,3] then the closure set for A is  $\overline{A} = [2,3]$  as an open ball for all elements of A such that r > 0 of A have a not empty intersection with A

**Example 11.2** Let us consider the set A = (1,5] then the closure set for A is  $\overline{A} = [1,5]$  as an open ball for 2 and all elements of A such that r > 0 of A have a not empty intersection with A

**Theorem 11.3** Let A be a subset of a metric space X. Then  $X - \overline{A} = int(X - A)$  and  $X - int(A) = \overline{X - A}$ 

**Proof:** We begin by proving  $X - \overline{A} = int(X - A)$  If  $x \in X$  is not in  $\overline{A}$ , there must exist some  $B_{1/2^n}(x)$  not meeting A, for otherwise we would have some  $x_n \in B_{1/2^n}(X) \cap A$  for all n, so clearly  $x_n \to x$ , contrary to the fact that  $x \notin \overline{A}$  is not a limit of a sequence of elements of A. This shows

$$X - \overline{A} \subseteq int(X - A)$$

Conversely, if x is in the interior of X-A then some  $B_r(x)$  lies in X-A and hence is disjoint from A. It follows that no sequence in A can possibly converge to x because for  $\varepsilon = r \ge 0$  we would run into problems (i.e., there's nothing in A within a distance of less than  $\varepsilon$  from x, since  $B_{\varepsilon}(x) \subseteq X-A$ ) Applying the general equality

$$X - \overline{A} = int(X - A)$$

for arbitrary subsets A to X to the subset X - A in the role of A, we get

$$X - \overline{X - A} = int(A)$$

Taking complements of both sides within X yields

$$\overline{X - A} = X - int(A)$$

**Theorem 11.4** Let A be a subset of a metric space X. Then A is closed if and only if it contains  $\partial A$ , and in general

$$\partial A = \overline{A} \cap \overline{X - A} = \partial (X - A)$$

**Proof:** The boundary  $\partial A$  is defined as  $\overline{A} - int(A)$ . Thus,

$$\overline{A} = int(A) \ \bigcup \ \partial A \subseteq A \ \bigcup \ \partial A$$

so when  $\partial A \subseteq A$  we get  $\overline{A} \subseteq A$  and therefore that  $A = \overline{A}$ , so A is closed. Conversely, if A is closed then since  $\partial A \subseteq \overline{A}$  by definition and  $\overline{A} = A$  for closed A we get  $\partial A \subseteq A$ 

$$\partial A = \overline{A} \bigcap \overline{X - A}$$

Since the right side is unaffected by replacing A with X-A everywhere (because X-(X-A)=A, it follows that  $\partial A=\partial(X-A)$ , As for verifying that  $\partial A$  is the intersection of the closures of A and X-A, we use the definition of  $\partial A$  to rewrite this as:

$$\overline{A} - int(A) = \overline{A} \cap \overline{X - A}$$

Since  $\overline{A} - int(A) = \overline{A} \cap (X - int(A))$ , it suffices to check that

$$X - int(A) = \overline{X - A}$$

## 12 Limit Points

**Definition 12.1** Let A be a subset of X, Let  $y \in X$ . Let r be a positive number. Then x is said to be limit point of A if every open ball with radius r and center at y, has a non empty intersection with  $|A - \{y\}|$  where  $A \subseteq X$  and  $y \in X$ . Mathematically defined as:

$$L(A) = \{ y \mid \forall \ r > 0 \ ; \ U(y,r) \bigcap [A - \{y\}] \neq \phi \}$$

**Example 12.1** Let us consider A = (2,3) then L(A) = [2,3]. 2 and 3 are included as open balls around both for r > 0 have a non empty intersection with A

**Example 12.2** Let us consider  $A = \{1/n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  then we can see that  $L(A) = \{0\}$  as 0 is the only element that has infinitely many point of A around it

#### **Theorem 12.3** Let $x \in \Re$ and $A \subseteq \Re$

- 1. If x has a neighborhood which only contains finitely many members of A then x cannot be a limit point of A.
- 2. If x is a limit point of A then any neighborhood of x contains infinitely many members of A.
- 3. No finite set can have a limit point.

**Proof:** Let U be a neighborhood of x which contains only a finite number of points of A that is  $U \cap A$  is finite. Then,  $U \cap A$  is also finite. Suppose  $U \cap A \setminus \{x\} = \{y_1, y_2, ..., y_n\}$ . We show there exists  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $(x - \epsilon, x + \epsilon) \cap U$  does not contain any member of  $A/\{x\}$ . Since both  $(x - \epsilon, x + \epsilon)$  and U are neighborhood of x, so is their intersection. This will prove there is a neighborhood of x containing no element of  $A/\{x\}$  hence proving x is not a limit point of A. Let  $\epsilon = \min\{|x - y_1|, |x - y_2|, ..., |x - y_n|\}$ . Since x is not equal to  $y_i, \epsilon \geq 0$ . Then  $(x - \epsilon, x + \epsilon) \cap U$  contains no points of A other than x thus proving our claim.

Theorem 12.4 Let  $A \subseteq \Re$ 

$$\overline{A} = A | JL(A)$$

#### **Proof:**

1.  $A \cup L(A) \subseteq A$ 

We already know that  $A \subseteq \overline{A}$ . We now show that  $L(A) \subseteq \overline{A}$ . This will imply the result. Suppose that  $x \in L(A)$ . Then  $\forall \epsilon > 0, (x - \epsilon, x + \epsilon) \cap A \neq \phi$ , since  $A/\{x\} \subseteq A$ . Therefore, x is in the closure of A.

2.  $\overline{A} \subseteq A \cup L(A)$ 

Let  $x \in \overline{A}$ . We need to prove that  $x \in A \cup L(A)$ . Either  $x \in A$  or  $x \notin A$ . If  $x \in A$  then  $x \in A \cup L(A)$ . If  $x \notin A$  then x is close to A. Therefore,  $\forall \epsilon > 0$ ,  $(x - \epsilon, x + \epsilon) \cap A \neq \phi$ . Since  $x \notin A$ ,  $A = A/\{x\}$ , therefore  $(x - \epsilon, x + \epsilon) \cap A \neq \phi$ . It follows that  $x \in L(A)$  and therefore  $x \in A \cup L(A)$ . So we see that in all cases, if we assume that  $x \in \overline{A}$  then we must have  $x \in A \cup L(A)$ 

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