

Closed sets: UNIT = II

Definition: Let (M, d) be a metric space. Let $A \subseteq M$.

Then A is said to be closed in M if the complement of A is open in M .

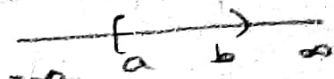
Ex 1: In \mathbb{R} with usual metric any closed interval $[a, b]$ is closed set.

Proof: $[a, b]^c = \mathbb{R} - [a, b] = (-\infty, a) \cup (b, \infty)$

Also $(-\infty, a)$ & (b, ∞) are open in \mathbb{R} .

i.e. $[a, b]^c$ is open in \mathbb{R} .

$\therefore [a, b]$ is closed in \mathbb{R} .



Ex 2: In \mathbb{R} with usual metric $[a, b)$ is neither closed nor open.

Proof: $[a, b)$ is not open in \mathbb{R} . $\therefore a$ is not an interior point of $[a, b)$.

Now, $[a, b)^c = \mathbb{R} - [a, b)$

$= (-\infty, a) \cup ~~[b, +\infty)~~ [b, +\infty)$ and this

set is not open. $\therefore b$ is not an interior point.

$\therefore [a, b)$ is not closed in \mathbb{R} .

Hence $[a, b)$ is neither open nor closed in \mathbb{R} .

Ex 3: In \mathbb{R} with usual metric $(a, b]$ is neither closed nor open.

Proof: $(a, b]$ is not open in \mathbb{R} .

$\therefore a$ is not an interior point of $(a, b]$

Now $(a, b]^c = \mathbb{R} - (a, b]$

$= (-\infty, a] \cup (b, \infty)$ & this set is

not open since a is not an interior point.

$\therefore (a, b]$ is not closed in \mathbb{R} .

Hence $(a, b]$ is neither open nor closed in \mathbb{R} .

Ex 4: Z is closed.

Proof:

$$Z^c = \bigcup_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} (n, n+1)$$

The open interval $(n, n+1)$ is open and union of open sets is open.

Z^c is open. Hence Z is closed.

Ex 5: \mathbb{Q} is not closed in \mathbb{R} .

Proof:

\mathbb{Q}^c = the set of irrationals which is not open in \mathbb{R} .

$\therefore \mathbb{Q}$ is not closed in \mathbb{R} .

Ex 6: The set of irrational number is not closed in \mathbb{R} . Q.E.D.

Ex 7: In \mathbb{R} with usual metric every singleton set is closed.

Proof:

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$\text{Then } \{a\}^c = \mathbb{R} - \{a\} = (-\infty, a) \cup (a, \infty)$$

$\therefore (-\infty, a)$ and (a, ∞) are both open sets

$(-\infty, a) \cup (a, \infty)$ is open.

$\therefore \{a\}^c$ is open in \mathbb{R} .

$\therefore \{a\}$ is closed in \mathbb{R} .

Ex 8: Every subset of a discrete metric space is ~~open~~ A^c is ~~open~~ closed.

Proof:

Let (M, d) be a discrete metric space.

Let $A \subseteq M$.

\therefore Every subset of a discrete metric space is open A^c is open.

$\therefore A$ is closed.

Definition: Let (M, d) be a metric space. Let $a \in M$. Let r be any positive real number. Then the closed ball or the closed sphere with centre a and radius r , denoted by $B_d[a, r]$ is defined by $B_d[a, r] = \{x \in M / d(a, x) \leq r\}$. when the metric d under consideration is clear we write $B[a, r]$ instead of $B_d[a, r]$.

Ex 1: In \mathbb{R} with usual metric

$$\begin{aligned} B[a, r] &= \{x \mid d(a, x) < r\} \\ &= \{x \mid |x - a| < r\} \\ &= \{x \mid -r \leq (x - a) \leq r\} \\ &= [a - r, a + r] \end{aligned}$$

Ex 2: In \mathbb{R}^2 with usual metric let $a = (a_1, a_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$
 $\Rightarrow B[a, r] = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid d((a_1, a_2), (x, y)) \leq r\}$
 $= \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid (x - a_1)^2 + (y - a_2)^2 \leq r^2\}$.

$\therefore B[a, r]$ is the set of all points which lie within and on the circumference of the circle with centre a and radius r .

Theorem 2.8: In any metric space every closed ball is a closed set.

Proof: Let (M, d) be a metric space.

Let $B[a, r]$ be a closed ball in M .

Case i): Suppose $B[a, r]^c = \emptyset$

$\therefore B[a, r]^c$ is open and hence $B[a, r]$ is

closed.

Case ii): Suppose $B[a, r]^c \neq \emptyset$

Let $x \in B[a, r]^c$

$\therefore x \notin B[a, r]$

$\therefore d(a, x) > r$

$d(a, x) - r > 0$.

Let $r_1 = d(a, x) - r$

To prove: $B(x, r_1) \subseteq B[a, r]^c$

Let $y \in B(x, r_1)$

$\Rightarrow d(x, y) < r_1 = d(a, x) - r$.

$\therefore d(a, x) > d(x, y) + r \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$

$$\text{Now, } d(a, x) \leq d(a, y) + d(y, x)$$

$$\therefore d(a, y) \geq d(a, x) - d(y, x)$$

$$> d(a, y) + r - d(y, x) \quad (\text{by } \odot)$$

$$= r$$

Thus $d(a, y) \geq r$.

$$\therefore y \notin B[a, r].$$

Hence $y \in B[a, r]^c$.

$$\therefore B(x, r_1) \subseteq B[a, r]^c.$$

$B[a, r]^c$ is open in M .

$\therefore B[a, r]$ is closed in M .

Theorem 2.9: In any metric space M , i) ϕ is closed,
ii) M is closed

Proof: Since $M^c = \phi$ is open, M is closed

Similarly $\phi^c = M$ is open, ϕ is closed.

Note: In any metric space M , ϕ and M are both open and closed.

Theorem 2.10: In any metric space arbitrary intersection of closed sets is closed.

Proof: Let (M, d) be a metric space.

Let $\{A_i / i \in I\}$ be a collection of closed sets

To prove:

$$\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \text{ is closed.}$$

we have

$$\left(\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \right)^c = \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i^c \quad (\text{by De Morgan's law})$$

since A_i is closed A_i^c is open.

$$\therefore \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i^c \text{ is open}$$

$$\therefore \left(\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \right)^c \text{ is open,}$$

$$\therefore \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \text{ is closed.}$$

Theorem 2.11: In any metric space, the union of a finite number of closed sets is closed.

Proof: Let (M, d) be a metric space

Let A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n be closed sets in M .

$$\text{By De-Morgan's law } (A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n)^c \\ = A_1^c \cap A_2^c \cap \dots \cap A_n^c.$$

\therefore each A_i is closed A_i^c is open.

Hence $A_1^c \cap A_2^c \cap \dots \cap A_n^c$ is open.

$\therefore (A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n)^c$ is open.

Hence $A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n$ is closed.

Note: The union of an infinite collection of closed sets need not be closed. For example, consider \mathbb{R} with usual metric.

Let $A_n = [\frac{1}{n}, 1]$ where $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

$$\Rightarrow \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} [\frac{1}{n}, 1] = \{1\} \cup [\frac{1}{2}, 1] \cup [\frac{1}{3}, 1] \cup \dots$$

$= (0, 1]$ which is not closed in \mathbb{R} .

$\therefore \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$ is not closed.

Theorem 2.12: Let M be a metric space and M_1 be a subspace of M . Let $F_1 \subseteq M_1$. Then F_1 is closed in M_1 iff there exists a set F which is closed in M such that $F_1 = F \cap M_1$.

Proof:

Let F_1 be closed in M_1 .

$\therefore M_1 - F_1$ is open in M_1 .

$\therefore M_1 - F_1 = A \cap M_1$, where A is open in M .

$$\text{Now, } F_1 = M_1 - (A \cap M_1)$$

$$= M_1 - A \quad \left[\because \text{Formula } A - B = A \cap B^c \right] \\ = A^c \cap M_1$$

Since A is open in M , A^c is closed in M .



Closure:

Let (M, d) be a metric space. Let $A \subseteq M$. Consider the collection of all closed sets which contain A . This collection is non empty since at least M is a member of this collection.

Definition: Let A be a subset of metric space (M, d) . The closure of A , denoted by \bar{A} is defined to be the intersection of all closed sets which contain A .

Thus $\bar{A} = \cap \{B / B \text{ is closed in } M \text{ and } A \subseteq B\}$.

Note: Since intersection of any collection of closed sets is closed \bar{A} is a closed set. Further $\bar{A} \supseteq A$. Also if B is any closed set containing A then $\bar{A} \subseteq B$. Thus \bar{A} is the smallest closed set containing A .

Theorem 2.13: A is closed iff $A = \bar{A}$

Proof:

Suppose $A = \bar{A}$

$\therefore \bar{A}$ is closed A is closed.

Conversely, suppose A is closed. \Rightarrow the smallest closed set containing A is A itself.

$\therefore A = \bar{A}$.

Note: i) $\Phi = \bar{\Phi}$ ii) $M = \bar{M}$ iii) $\bar{\bar{A}} = \bar{A}$

Ex 1: Consider \mathbb{R} with usual metric.

a) Let $A = [0, 1]$.

w. k. that A is closed set.

$$\therefore \bar{A} = A = [0, 1]$$

b) Let $A = (0, 1)$. $\Rightarrow [0, 1]$ is closed set containing $(0, 1)$.

Obviously $[0, 1]$ is the smallest closed set containing $(0, 1)$.

$$\therefore \bar{A} = [0, 1].$$

Ex 2: In a discrete metric space (M, d) any subset A of M is closed.

Soln:

Let (M, d) be a discrete metric space.

Let $A \subseteq M$.

\therefore Every subset of a discrete metric space is open. A^c is open.

$\therefore A$ is closed.

Hence $\bar{A} = A$.

Theorem 2.14: Let (M, d) be a metric space. Let

$A, B \subseteq M$.

Then i) $A \subseteq B \Rightarrow \bar{A} \subseteq \bar{B}$

ii) $\overline{A \cup B} = \bar{A} \cup \bar{B}$

iii) $\overline{A \cap B} \subseteq \bar{A} \cap \bar{B}$

Proof:

i) Let $A \subseteq B$.

Now $\bar{B} \supseteq B \supseteq A$

$\therefore \bar{B}$ is closed set containing A .

But \bar{A} is the smallest closed set containing A .

$$\therefore \bar{A} \subseteq \bar{B}$$

ii) we have $A \subseteq A \cup B$

$$\therefore \bar{A} \subseteq \overline{A \cup B} \quad (\text{by } \textcircled{1})$$

similarly $\bar{B} \subseteq \overline{A \cup B}$

$$\therefore \bar{A} \cup \bar{B} \subseteq \overline{A \cup B} \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

Now, \bar{A} is a closed set containing A and \bar{B} is a closed set containing B .

$\therefore \bar{A} \cup \bar{B}$ is a closed set containing $A \cup B$.

$\overline{A \cup B}$ is the smallest ^{closed set} containing $A \cup B$.

$$\therefore \overline{A \cup B} \subseteq \bar{A} \cup \bar{B} \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

from $\textcircled{1}$ & $\textcircled{2}$ we get

$$\overline{A \cup B} = \bar{A} \cup \bar{B}$$

iii) we have $A \cap B \subseteq \bar{A}$

$$\overline{A \cap B} \subseteq \bar{A} \quad (\text{by } i)$$

similarly $\overline{A \cap B} \subseteq \bar{B}$

$$\therefore \overline{A \cap B} \subseteq \bar{A} \cap \bar{B}$$

Note: $\overline{A \cap B}$ need not be equal to $\bar{A} \cap \bar{B}$

Ex; \mathbb{R} with usual metric,

$$A = (0, 1) \quad \& \quad B = (1, 2)$$

$$\Rightarrow A \cap B = \emptyset$$

$$\therefore \overline{A \cap B} = \bar{\emptyset}$$

$$\text{But } \bar{A} \cap \bar{B} = [0, 1] \cap [1, 2]$$

$$= \{1\}$$

$$\therefore \overline{A \cap B} \neq \bar{A} \cap \bar{B}$$

Limit Point:

Definition: Let (M, d) be a metric space. Let $A \subseteq M$. Let $x \in M$. Then x is called a limit point or a cluster point or an accumulation point of A if every open ball with centre x contains at least one point of A different from x .

$$(i.e.), B(x, r) \cap (A - \{x\}) \neq \emptyset \quad \forall r > 0.$$

The set of all limit points of A is called the derived set of A and denoted by $D(A)$.

Note: x is not a limit point of A iff there exists an open ball $B(x, r)$ such that $B(x, r) \cap (A - \{x\}) = \emptyset$.

Consider \mathbb{R} with usual metric.

a) Let $A = [0, 1)$.

Any open ball with centre 0 is of the form $(-r, r)$ which contains a point of $[0, 1)$ other than 0.

\therefore 0 is a limit point of $[0, 1)$.

Similarly, 1 is a limit point of $[0, 1)$.

2 is not a limit point of A , since

$$(2 - \frac{1}{2}, 2 + \frac{1}{2}) \cap [0, 1) = (\frac{3}{2}, \frac{5}{2}) \cap [0, 1) = \emptyset$$

all points of $[0, 1)$ are limit points of $[0, 1)$ & no other point is a limit point.

$$\text{Hence } D[0, 1) = [0, 1].$$

b) Let $A = \{1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots, \frac{1}{n}, \dots\}$.

Here 0 is a limit point of A .

Consider any open ball $(-r, r)$ with centre 0.

Choose a positive integer n such that $\frac{1}{n} < r$.

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{n} \in (-r, r)$$

$\therefore (-r, r)$ contains a point of A which is different from 0.

\therefore 0 is a limit point of A .

1 is not a limit point of A .

$$(1 - \frac{1}{4}, 1 + \frac{1}{4}) \cap (A - \{1\}) = (\frac{3}{4}, \frac{5}{4}) \cap \{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots, \frac{1}{n}, \dots\} = \emptyset$$

If any point except zero is not a limit point of A .

ex: If take a 2

$$(2 - \frac{1}{4}, 2 + \frac{1}{4}) \cap (A - \{2\}) = (\frac{7}{4}, \frac{9}{4}) \cap \{-1, \dots\} = \emptyset$$

$\therefore 2$ is not a limit point

$\therefore D(A) = \{0\}$.

c) \mathbb{Z} has no limit point.

Proof: Let x be any real number.

If x is an integer, $\Rightarrow B(x, \frac{1}{2}) = (x - \frac{1}{2}, x + \frac{1}{2})$ does not contain any integer other than x .

$\therefore x$ is not a limit point of \mathbb{Z} .

If x is not an integer, let n be the integer which is closest to x .

Choose r such that $0 < r < |x - n|$.

$\Rightarrow B(x, r) = (x - r, x + r)$ contains no integer.

$\therefore x$ is not a limit point of \mathbb{Z} .

Since x is arbitrary \mathbb{Z} has no limit point.

$$\therefore D(\mathbb{Z}) = \emptyset.$$

d) consider \mathbb{Q} .

Any real number x is a limit point of \mathbb{Q} ,

Since any interval $(x - r, x + r)$ contains infinite number of rational numbers.

$$\therefore D(\mathbb{Q}) = \mathbb{R}.$$

Ex 3: Let (M, d) be a discrete metric space:

(7.5)

Let $A \subseteq M$.

Let $x \in M$.

$$\Rightarrow B(x, \frac{1}{2}) \cap (A - \{x\}) = \{x\} \cap (A - \{x\}) = \emptyset.$$

$\therefore x$ is not a limit point of A .

Since $x \in M$ is arbitrary A has no limit point.

$$\therefore D(A) = \emptyset$$

Thus any subset of a discrete metric space has no limit point.

Ex: 4

Consider \mathbb{C} with usual metric.

$$\text{Let } A = \{z \mid |z| < 1\}$$

$$\Rightarrow D(A) = \{z \mid |z| \leq 1\}.$$

Theorem 2.15: Let (M, d) be a metric space. Let $A \subseteq M$.
Then x is a limit point of A iff each open ball with centre x contains an infinite number of points of A .

(H)

Proof:

Let x be a limit point of A .

Suppose an open ball $B(x, r)$ contains only a finite number of points of A .

$$\text{Let } B(x, r) \cap (A - \{x\}) = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}.$$

$$\text{Let } r_1 = \min \{d(x, x_i) \mid i = 1, 2, \dots, n\}.$$

since $x \neq x_i$, $d(x, x_i) > 0 \quad \forall i = 1, 2, \dots, n$

and hence $r_1 > 0$.

$$\text{Also } B(x, r_1) \cap (A - \{x\}) = \emptyset.$$

$\therefore x$ is not a limit point of A which is a contradiction.

\therefore Every open ball with centre x contains infinite number of points of A .

\therefore The converse is obvious.

Corollary: Any finite subset of a metric space has no limit point.

Proof: Let A be a finite subset of M .

Suppose A has limit point say x . Then $B(x, r)$ contains infinite number of points of A .

This is a contradiction since A is finite.

Theorem 2.16: Let M be a metric space.

$A \subseteq M$. Then $\bar{A} = \text{AUD}(A)$.

(1)

Proof:

Let $x \in \text{AUD}(A)$.

To prove: $x \in \bar{A}$.

Suppose $x \notin \bar{A}$

$\therefore x \in M - \bar{A}$ & since \bar{A} is closed $M - \bar{A}$ is open.

\therefore There exists an open ball $B(x, r) \subseteq M - \bar{A}$.

$\therefore B(x, r) \cap \bar{A} = \emptyset$

$\therefore B(x, r) \cap A = \emptyset$ ($\because A \subseteq \bar{A}$)

$x \notin \text{AUD}(A)$ which is a contradiction.

Hence proved $x \in \bar{A}$.

$\therefore \text{AUD}(A) \subseteq \bar{A} \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$

Now let $x \in \bar{A}$.

To prove: $x \in \text{AUD}(A)$.

If $x \in A$ clearly $x \in \text{AUD}(A)$

Suppose $x \notin A$.

To prove: $x \in \text{AUD}(A)$

Suppose $x \notin \text{AUD}(A)$.

\Rightarrow there exists an open ball $B(x, r)$ such that $B(x, r) \cap A = \emptyset$.

$\therefore B(x, r)^c \supseteq A$ & $B(x, r)^c$ is closed.

But \bar{A} is the smallest closed set containing A .

$\therefore \bar{A} \subseteq B(x, r)^c$.

But $x \in \bar{A}$ & $x \notin B(x, r)^c$ which is contradiction.

Hence $x \in \text{AUD}(A)$

$\therefore x \in \text{AUD}(A)$

$\therefore \bar{A} \subseteq \text{AUD}(A) \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$

from $\textcircled{1}$ & $\textcircled{2}$ we get $\bar{A} = \text{AUD}(A)$.

Corollary 1: A is closed iff A contains all its limit points.

i.e.) A is closed iff $D(A) \subseteq A$.

Proof: A is closed $\Leftrightarrow A = \bar{A}$ (since \bar{A} is closed A is closed)
 $\Leftrightarrow A = A \cup D(A)$
 $\Leftrightarrow D(A) \subseteq A$.

Corollary 2:

$x \in \bar{A} \Leftrightarrow B(x, \gamma) \cap A \neq \emptyset$ for all $\gamma > 0$.

Proof:

Let $x \in \bar{A}$, Then $x \in A \cup D(A)$.

$\therefore x \in A$ or $x \in D(A)$.

If $x \in A \Rightarrow x \in B(x, \gamma) \cap A$.

If $x \in D(A) \Rightarrow B(x, \gamma) \cap A \neq \emptyset \forall \gamma > 0$.

\therefore in both cases $B(x, \gamma) \cap A \neq \emptyset \forall \gamma > 0$.

Conversely, suppose $B(x, \gamma) \cap A \neq \emptyset \forall \gamma > 0$.

To prove: $x \in \bar{A}$.

If $x \in A$ trivially $x \in \bar{A}$.

Let $x \notin A \Rightarrow A - \{x\} = A$.

$\therefore B(x, \gamma) \cap (A - \{x\}) \neq \emptyset$

$\therefore x \in D(A)$

$\therefore x \in \bar{A}$

Corollary 3: $x \in \bar{A} \Leftrightarrow G \cap A \neq \emptyset$ for every open set G containing x .

Proof: Let $x \in \bar{A}$. Let G be an open set containing x . \Rightarrow there exists $\gamma > 0$ such that $B(x, \gamma) \subseteq G$.

Also, $\therefore x \in \bar{A}$, $B(x, \gamma) \cap A \neq \emptyset$

$\therefore G \cap A \neq \emptyset$.

Conversely, suppose $G \cap A \neq \emptyset$ for every open set G containing x .

Since $B(x, \gamma)$ is an open set containing x , we have $B(x, \gamma) \cap A \neq \emptyset \therefore x \in \bar{A}$.

Ex 1: Consider \mathbb{R} with usual metric.

a) Let $A = [0, 1)$

$$\begin{aligned}\Rightarrow \bar{A} &= A \cup D(A) \\ &= [0, 1) \cup [0, 1] \\ &= [0, 1].\end{aligned}$$

b) Let $A = \{1, \frac{1}{2}, \dots, \frac{1}{n}, \dots\}$

$$\begin{aligned}\Rightarrow \bar{A} &= A \cup D(A) \\ &= \{1, \frac{1}{2}, \dots, \frac{1}{n}, \dots\} \cup \{0\}.\end{aligned}$$

c) $\bar{Z} = Z \cup D(Z)$

$$= Z \cup \emptyset = Z.$$

$\therefore Z$ is closed.

d) $\bar{Q} = Q \cup D(Q)$

$$= Q \cup \mathbb{R}.$$

$$= \mathbb{R}.$$

$\therefore Q$ is not closed.

Ex 2: In $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ with usual metric.

$$\overline{Q \times Q} = (Q \times Q) \cup D(Q \times Q)$$

$$= (Q \times Q) \cup (\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R})$$

$$= \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}.$$

$\therefore (Q \times Q)$ is not closed.

Solved Problem:

Pbm 1: Prove that for any subset A of a metric space,
(*) $d(A) = d(\bar{A})$ where $d(A)$ is the diameter of A .

Soln:

we have $A \subseteq \bar{A}$.

$$\therefore d(A) \leq d(\bar{A}) \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

Now, let $\epsilon > 0$ be given.

To prove: $d(\bar{A}) \leq d(A) + \epsilon$.

Let $x, y \in \bar{A}$.

$$\therefore B(x, \frac{1}{2}\epsilon) \cap A \neq \emptyset$$

$$B(y, \frac{1}{2}\epsilon) \cap A \neq \emptyset$$

$$\text{Let } x_1 \in (x, \frac{1}{2}\epsilon) \cap A$$

$$x_2 \in (y, \frac{1}{2}\epsilon) \cap A$$

$$\therefore x_1 \in (x, \frac{1}{2}\epsilon) \text{ \& } x_2 \in (y, \frac{1}{2}\epsilon)$$

$$\therefore \left. \begin{array}{l} d(x, x_1) < \frac{1}{2}\epsilon \\ d(y, x_2) < \frac{1}{2}\epsilon \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

$$\text{Also } x_1 \in A \text{ \& } x_2 \in A$$

$$\Rightarrow d(x_1, x_2) \leq d(A) \rightarrow \textcircled{3}$$

Now,

$$d(x, y) \leq d(x, x_1) + d(x_1, x_2) + d(x_2, y)$$

$$< \frac{1}{2}\epsilon + d(A) + \frac{1}{2}\epsilon \quad (\text{by } \textcircled{2} \text{ \& } \textcircled{3})$$

$$= d(A) + \epsilon$$

$$\text{Thus } d(x, y) \leq d(A) + \epsilon$$

$d(A) = \text{least upper bound } \{d(x, y) \mid x, y \in \bar{A}\} \leq d(A) + \epsilon$

$$\text{i.e.) } d(\bar{A}) \leq d(A) + \epsilon$$

Since ϵ is arbitrary, we have $d(\bar{A}) \leq d(A)$

$\hookrightarrow \textcircled{4}$

By $\textcircled{1}$ & $\textcircled{4}$ we get,

$$d(A) = d(\bar{A})$$

Dense sets:

Definition: A subset A of a metric space M is said to be dense in M or everywhere dense if $\bar{A} = M$.

Definition: A metric space M is said to be separable if there exists a countable dense subset in M .