L2 Sets and mathematical proofs

1ma406/1ma901 Linear algebra

Jonas Nordqvist

Wason selection task

As we've seen earlier for two propositions A and B we have

$$A \implies B \equiv \neg B \implies \neg A.$$

Wason selection task

As we've seen earlier for two propositions A and B we have

$$A \implies B \equiv \neg B \implies \neg A.$$

Below you see a famous problem called the Wason selection task. The exact formulation in this slide is taken from Wikipedia.

You are shown a set of four cards placed on a table, each of which has a number on one side and a colored patch on the other side. The visible faces of the cards show 3, 8, red and brown. Which card(s) must you turn over in order to test the truth of the proposition that if a card shows an even number on one face, then its opposite face is red?



Reading mathematics

- Skim
- Identify what is important
- Ask questions
- Careful reading
- Stop periodically to review
- Read statements first proofs later

Direct proof. A direct proof of a conditional statement $p \implies q$ is constructed when the first step is the assumption that p is true; subsequent steps are are constructed using rules of inference, with the final step showing that q must also be true.

Direct proof. A direct proof of a conditional statement $p \implies q$ is constructed when the first step is the assumption that p is true; subsequent steps are are constructed using rules of inference, with the final step showing that q must also be true.

Example: Give a direct proof of the theorem 'If n is an odd integer, then n^2 is odd'.

Direct proof. A direct proof of a conditional statement $p \implies q$ is constructed when the first step is the assumption that p is true; subsequent steps are are constructed using rules of inference, with the final step showing that q must also be true.

Example: Give a direct proof of the theorem 'If n is an odd integer, then n^2 is odd'.

Proof by contraposition. Proofs by contraposition make use of the fact that the conditional statement $p \implies q$ is equivalent to its contrapositive, $\neg q \implies \neg p$.

Direct proof. A direct proof of a conditional statement $p \implies q$ is constructed when the first step is the assumption that p is true; subsequent steps are are constructed using rules of inference, with the final step showing that q must also be true.

Example: Give a direct proof of the theorem 'If n is an odd integer, then n^2 is odd'.

Proof by contraposition. Proofs by contraposition make use of the fact that the conditional statement $p \implies q$ is equivalent to its contrapositive, $\neg q \implies \neg p$.

Example: Give a proof by contraposition of the theorem 'If n is an integer and 3n + 2 is odd, then n is odd'.

Direct proof. A direct proof of a conditional statement $p \implies q$ is constructed when the first step is the assumption that p is true; subsequent steps are are constructed using rules of inference, with the final step showing that q must also be true.

Example: Give a direct proof of the theorem 'If n is an odd integer, then n^2 is odd'.

Proof by contraposition. Proofs by contraposition make use of the fact that the conditional statement $p \implies q$ is equivalent to its contrapositive, $\neg q \implies \neg p$.

Example: Give a proof by contraposition of the theorem 'If n is an integer and 3n + 2 is odd, then n is odd'.

Proof by contradiction. Because the statement $r \land \neg r$ is a contradiction whenever r is proposition, we can prove that p is true if we can show that $\neg p \implies r \land \neg r$ is true for some proposition r.

Direct proof. A direct proof of a conditional statement $p \implies q$ is constructed when the first step is the assumption that p is true; subsequent steps are are constructed using rules of inference, with the final step showing that q must also be true.

Example: Give a direct proof of the theorem 'If n is an odd integer, then n^2 is odd'.

Proof by contraposition. Proofs by contraposition make use of the fact that the conditional statement $p \implies q$ is equivalent to its contrapositive, $\neg q \implies \neg p$.

Example: Give a proof by contraposition of the theorem 'If n is an integer and 3n + 2 is odd, then n is odd'.

Proof by contradiction. Because the statement $r \land \neg r$ is a contradiction whenever r is proposition, we can prove that p is true if we can show that $\neg p \implies r \land \neg r$ is true for some proposition r.

Example: Give a proof by contradiction of the theorem 'If n is an integer and 3n + 2 is odd, then n is odd'.

Direct proof. A direct proof of a conditional statement $p \implies q$ is constructed when the first step is the assumption that p is true; subsequent steps are are constructed using rules of inference, with the final step showing that q must also be true.

Example: Give a direct proof of the theorem 'If n is an odd integer, then n^2 is odd'.

Proof by contraposition. Proofs by contraposition make use of the fact that the conditional statement $p \implies q$ is equivalent to its contrapositive, $\neg q \implies \neg p$.

Example: Give a proof by contraposition of the theorem 'If n is an integer and 3n + 2 is odd, then n is odd'.

Proof by contradiction. Because the statement $r \land \neg r$ is a contradiction whenever r is proposition, we can prove that p is true if we can show that $\neg p \implies r \land \neg r$ is true for some proposition r.

Example: Give a proof by contradiction of the theorem 'If n is an integer and 3n + 2 is odd, then n is odd'.

Proof by cases. A proof by cases must cover all possible cases that arise in a theorem.

Direct proof. A direct proof of a conditional statement $p \implies q$ is constructed when the first step is the assumption that p is true; subsequent steps are are constructed using rules of inference, with the final step showing that q must also be true.

Example: Give a direct proof of the theorem 'If n is an odd integer, then n^2 is odd'.

Proof by contraposition. Proofs by contraposition make use of the fact that the conditional statement $p \implies q$ is equivalent to its contrapositive, $\neg q \implies \neg p$.

Example: Give a proof by contraposition of the theorem 'If n is an integer and 3n + 2 is odd, then n is odd'.

Proof by contradiction. Because the statement $r \land \neg r$ is a contradiction whenever r is proposition, we can prove that p is true if we can show that $\neg p \implies r \land \neg r$ is true for some proposition r.

Example: Give a proof by contradiction of the theorem 'If n is an integer and 3n + 2 is odd, then n is odd'.

Proof by cases. A proof by cases must cover all possible cases that arise in a theorem.

Example: Give a proof by cases of the theorem 'If n is an integer, then $n^2 \ge n'$.

Direct proof. A direct proof of a conditional statement $p \implies q$ is constructed when the first step is the assumption that p is true; subsequent steps are are constructed using rules of inference, with the final step showing that q must also be true.

Example: Give a direct proof of the theorem 'If n is an odd integer, then n^2 is odd'.

Proof by contraposition. Proofs by contraposition make use of the fact that the conditional statement $p \implies q$ is equivalent to its contrapositive, $\neg q \implies \neg p$.

Example: Give a proof by contraposition of the theorem 'If n is an integer and 3n + 2 is odd, then n is odd'.

Proof by contradiction. Because the statement $r \land \neg r$ is a contradiction whenever r is proposition, we can prove that p is true if we can show that $\neg p \implies r \land \neg r$ is true for some proposition r.

Example: Give a proof by contradiction of the theorem 'If n is an integer and 3n + 2 is odd, then n is odd'.

Proof by cases. A proof by cases must cover all possible cases that arise in a theorem.

Example: Give a proof by cases of the theorem 'If n is an integer, then $n^2 \ge n'$.

Proof by induction. Left to a course in discrete mathematics.

Direct proofs

- i) In the direct method, to show $A \implies B$ we assume A and proceed to show B.
- ii) This is often done in smaller steps where each conclusion is direct, for instance

$$A \Longrightarrow A_1, A_1 \Longrightarrow A_2, \ldots A_{k-1} \Longrightarrow A_k, A_k \Longrightarrow B.$$

If and only if proofs

- i) State what you will be proving, e.g. $A \iff B$
- ii) State the assumption A and prove that this implies B, i.e. $A \Longrightarrow B$.
- iii) State the assumption B and prove that this implies A, i.e. $B \implies A$.

Case proofs

- i) State that you will make a proof by cases.
- ii) Conclude what cases you will use, e.g. Case 1, ..., Case n
- iii) Conclude the proof for Case 1
- iv) Conclude the proof for Case 2
- ...) ...
- n + ii) Conclude the proof for Case n

Contradiction proofs

- State that you are assuming the statement is false. Seasoned mathematicians will recognize that the proof will be by contradiction.
- ii) Write out what the statement being false means using negation.
- iii) Work out what this would imply until you find a contradiction.
- iv) Announce that a contradiction has been found.

Contraposition proofs

- i) State that you will make a proof by contraposition of the statement, e.g. we want to prove that $\neg B \implies \neg A$.
- ii) Use any of the previous mentioned techniques to prove the implication.

Give a direct proof of the following proposition:

Theorem

If n is odd, then n^2 is odd.

Give a direct proof of the following proposition:

Theorem

If n is odd, then n^2 is odd.

Give a proof by contraposition of the following propositions:

Theorem

If n^2 is even, then n is even.

Theorem

If $x^2 - 6x + 5$ is even then x is odd.

Give a direct proof of the following proposition:

Theorem

If n is odd, then n^2 is odd.

Give a proof by contraposition of the following propositions:

Theorem

If n^2 is even, then n is even.

Theorem

If $x^2 - 6x + 5$ is even then x is odd.

Give a proof by contradiction of the following proposition:

Theorem

Suppose a, b be integers. If $a + b \ge 19$, then $a \ge 10$ or $b \ge 10$.

Give a direct proof of the following proposition:

Theorem

If n is odd, then n^2 is odd.

Give a proof by contraposition of the following propositions:

Theorem

If n^2 is even, then n is even.

Theorem

If $x^2 - 6x + 5$ is even then x is odd.

Give a proof by contradiction of the following proposition:

Theorem

Suppose a, b be integers. If $a + b \ge 19$, then $a \ge 10$ or $b \ge 10$.

Give a proof by cases of the following proposition:

Theorem

Let n be an integer. Then $n^3 - n$ is a multiple of 3.

Definition

A set is an <u>unordered</u> collection of objects, called *elements* or *members* of the set. A set is said to *contain* its elements. We write $a \in A$ to denote that a is an element of the set A. The notation $a \notin A$ denotes that A is not an element of the set A.

Definition

A set is an <u>unordered</u> collection of objects, called *elements* or *members* of the set. A set is said to *contain* its elements. We write $a \in A$ to denote that a is an element of the set A. The notation $a \notin A$ denotes that A is not an element of the set A.

Let $\ensuremath{\mathbb{N}}$ denote the set of positive integers.

Let A be the set of all positive integers less than or equal to 10.

Definition

A set is an <u>unordered</u> collection of objects, called *elements* or *members* of the set. A set is said to *contain* its elements. We write $a \in A$ to denote that a is an element of the set A. The notation $a \notin A$ denotes that A is not an element of the set A.

Let $\ensuremath{\mathbb{N}}$ denote the set of positive integers.

Let A be the set of all positive integers less than or equal to 10.

Roster notation

$$A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$$
 or
$$A = \{1, 2, \dots, 10\}$$

Definition

A set is an <u>unordered</u> collection of objects, called *elements* or *members* of the set. A set is said to *contain* its elements. We write $a \in A$ to denote that a is an element of the set A. The notation $a \notin A$ denotes that A is not an element of the set A.

Let $\mathbb N$ denote the set of positive integers.

Let A be the set of all positive integers less than or equal to 10.

Roster notation

$$A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$$
 or
$$A = \{1, 2, \dots, 10\}$$

Set builder notation

$$A = \{x \in \mathbb{N} | x \le 10\}$$

Definition

A set is an <u>unordered</u> collection of objects, called *elements* or *members* of the set. A set is said to *contain* its elements. We write $a \in A$ to denote that a is an element of the set A. The notation $a \notin A$ denotes that A is not an element of the set A.

Let $\mathbb N$ denote the set of positive integers.

Let A be the set of all positive integers less than or equal to 10.

Roster notation

$$A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$$
 or
$$A = \{1, 2, \dots, 10\}$$

Set builder notation

$$A = \{x \in \mathbb{N} | x \le 10\}$$

The set builder notation reads 'A is the set of all $x \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $x \leq 10$.'

Facts: $5 \in A$ and $11 \notin A$

These are also sets $\{\text{red}, \text{blue}\}, \{1, 2, \text{rain}, \pi\}, \{1, 2, \{2, 3\}, 3, \{3\}\}.$

However, we are primarily interested in number sets.

Important sets

Notation	set	elements
Ø	empty set	the set that contains no elements
\mathbb{Z}	integers	$\{\ldots, -2, 1-, 0, 1, 2, \ldots\}$
\mathbb{Z}^+	non-negative integers	$\{0,1,2,3\dots\}$
\mathbb{N}	natural numbers	$\{1,2,3\dots\}$
\mathbb{Q}	rational numbers	$\{rac{p}{a} p\in\mathbb{Z},q\in\mathbb{Z}, ext{ and } q eq 0\}$
\mathbb{R}	real numbers	'decimal numbers' like $1, -\pi, 0.33, e, \sqrt{2}$
$\mathbb{R}_{>0}$	positive real numbers	$\{x \in \mathbb{R} x > 0\}$
C	complex numbers	$\{a+ib a,b\in\mathbb{R} ext{ and } i=\sqrt{-1}\}$

Important sets

Notation	set	elements
Ø	empty set	the set that contains no elements
\mathbb{Z}	integers	$\{\ldots, -2, 1-, 0, 1, 2, \ldots\}$
\mathbb{Z}^+	non-negative integers	$\{0,1,2,3\dots\}$
\mathbb{N}	natural numbers	$\{1,2,3\dots\}$
\mathbb{Q}	rational numbers	$\{rac{p}{q} p\in\mathbb{Z},q\in\mathbb{Z}, ext{ and } q eq 0\}$
\mathbb{R}	real numbers	'decimal numbers' like $1, -\pi, 0.33, e, \sqrt{2}$
$\mathbb{R}_{>0}$	positive real numbers	$\{x \in \mathbb{R} x > 0\}$
	complex numbers	$\{a+ib a,b\in\mathbb{R} \text{ and } i=\sqrt{-1}\}$

Note that some books reverse the definitions of \mathbb{Z}^+ and $\mathbb{N}.$

Important sets

Notation	set	elements
Ø	empty set	the set that contains no elements
\mathbb{Z}	integers	$\{\ldots, -2, 1-, 0, 1, 2, \ldots\}$
\mathbb{Z}^+	non-negative integers	$\{0, 1, 2, 3 \dots\}$
\mathbb{N}	natural numbers	$\{1, 2, 3 \dots\}$
\mathbb{Q}	rational numbers	$\{rac{p}{a} p\in\mathbb{Z},q\in\mathbb{Z}, ext{ and }q eq 0\}$
\mathbb{R}	real numbers	'decimal numbers' like $1, -\pi, 0.33, e, \sqrt{2}$
$\mathbb{R}_{>0}$	positive real numbers	$\{x \in \mathbb{R} x > 0\}$
	complex numbers	$\{a+ib a,b\in\mathbb{R} ext{ and } i=\sqrt{-1}\}$

Note that some books reverse the definitions of \mathbb{Z}^+ and \mathbb{N} .

Intervals on the real line. When a and b are real numbers such that a < b we write

$$[a,b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} | a \le x \le b\}$$
 the **closed interval** from a to b
$$[a,b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} | a \le x < b\}$$
 half open interval
$$(a,b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} | a < x \le b\}$$
 half open interval
$$(a,b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} | a < x < b\}$$
 the **open interval** from a to b

The set C[a, b] of all continuous real valued functions on the closed interval [a, b].

Comparing Sets – Subsets

Definition (Subset and set equality)

 A set A is said to be a subset of a set B, denoted A ⊆ B, if every element appearing in A also appears in B. That is,

$$x \in A \subseteq B \iff x \in A \implies x \in B.$$

For example, $\mathbb{Z}\subseteq\mathbb{Q}$

Comparing Sets – Subsets

Definition (Subset and set equality)

 A set A is said to be a subset of a set B, denoted A ⊆ B, if every element appearing in A also appears in B. That is,

$$x \in A \subseteq B \iff x \in A \implies x \in B.$$

For example, $\mathbb{Z}\subseteq\mathbb{Q}$

 A set A is said to be a equal to a set B, denoted A = B, if every element appearing in A also appears in B, and the converse. That is,

$$x \in A = B \iff A \subseteq B \text{ AND } B \subseteq A.$$

For example, $\{1,2,3\} = \{2,1,3\}.$

Comparing Sets – Subsets

Definition (Subset and set equality)

 A set A is said to be a subset of a set B, denoted A ⊆ B, if every element appearing in A also appears in B. That is,

$$x \in A \subseteq B \iff x \in A \implies x \in B.$$

For example, $\mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}$

 A set A is said to be a equal to a set B, denoted A = B, if every element appearing in A also appears in B, and the converse. That is,

$$x \in A = B \iff A \subseteq B \text{ AND } B \subseteq A.$$

For example, $\{1, 2, 3\} = \{2, 1, 3\}$.

• A set A is said to be a **proper subset** of a set B, denoted $A \subset B$, if every element appearing in A also appears in B but $A \neq B$. That is,

$$x \in A \subset B \iff (x \in A \implies x \in B) \text{ AND } (A \neq B).$$

For example, $\mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Q}$

Cardinality

Let A be a set. If A contains exactly n distinct elements where n is a nonnegative integer, we say that A is a **finite set** and that n is the **cardinality** of A, denoted |A|. That is |A| = n.

Cardinality

Let A be a set. If A contains exactly n distinct elements where n is a nonnegative integer, we say that A is a **finite set** and that n is the **cardinality** of A, denoted |A|. That is |A| = n.

Power sets

Given a set A, the **power set** of A is the set of all subsets of A, denoted by $\mathcal{P}(A)$. So

$$B \in \mathcal{P}(A) \iff B \subseteq A.$$

Example:

Cardinality

Let A be a set. If A contains exactly n distinct elements where n is a nonnegative integer, we say that A is a *finite set* and that n is the *cardinality* of A, denoted |A|. That is |A| = n.

Power sets

Given a set A, the **power set** of A is the set of all subsets of A, denoted by $\mathcal{P}(A)$. So

$$B \in \mathcal{P}(A) \iff B \subseteq A.$$

Example: If $X=\{1,2\}$, then the elements of $\mathcal{P}(X)$ are \emptyset , $\{1\}$, $\{2\}$, and $\{1,2\}$. That is

$$\mathcal{P}(X) = \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{1, 2\}\}.$$

Cardinality

Let A be a set. If A contains exactly n distinct elements where n is a nonnegative integer, we say that A is a *finite set* and that n is the *cardinality* of A, denoted |A|. That is |A| = n.

Power sets

Given a set A, the **power set** of A is the set of all subsets of A, denoted by $\mathcal{P}(A)$. So

$$B \in \mathcal{P}(A) \iff B \subseteq A.$$

Example: If $X = \{1, 2\}$, then the elements of $\mathcal{P}(X)$ are \emptyset , $\{1\}$, $\{2\}$, and $\{1, 2\}$. That is

$$\mathcal{P}(X) = \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{1, 2\}\}.$$

Proposition

Let A be a finite set of cardinality n. Then the cardinality of its power set $|\mathcal{P}(A)| = 2^n$.

Ordered n-tuples

A **ordered** n-**tuple** (a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n) is the ordered collection that has a_1 as its first element, a_2 as its second element, \ldots , and a_n as its nth element. We say that two ordered n-tuples (a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n) and (b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n) are equal if and only if $a_i = b_i$ for every $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$.

Ordered *n*-tuples

A **ordered** n-**tuple** (a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n) is the ordered collection that has a_1 as its first element, a_2 as its second element, \ldots , and a_n as its nth element. We say that two ordered n-tuples (a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n) and (b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n) are equal if and only if $a_i = b_i$ for every $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$.

Cartesian product of two sets

Let A and B be two sets. The *Cartesian product* of A and B, denoted by $A \times B$, is the set of all ordered pairs (a, b), where $a \in A$ and $b \in B$. That is

$$A\times B=\{(a,b)|a\in A\wedge b\in B\}.$$

Ordered n-tuples

A **ordered** n-**tuple** (a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n) is the ordered collection that has a_1 as its first element, a_2 as its second element, a_3 and a_n as its nth element. We say that two ordered n-tuples (a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n) and (b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n) are equal if and only if $a_i = b_i$ for every $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$.

Cartesian product of two sets

Let A and B be two sets. The **Cartesian product** of A and B, denoted by $A \times B$, is the set of all ordered pairs (a, b), where $a \in A$ and $b \in B$. That is

$$A \times B = \{(a, b) | a \in A \land b \in B\}.$$

Example 1: $S = \{1, 2\}$ and $T = \{a, b, c\}$. Then

$$S \times T = \{(1, a), (1, b), (1, c), (2, a), (2, b), (2, c)\}$$

The Cartesian coordinate plane \mathbb{R}^2 and in \mathbb{R}^3

Let $\mathbb R$ be the set of real numbers and put $\mathbb R^2:=\mathbb R\times\mathbb R.$ That is

$$\mathbb{R}^2 := \{(a,b)|a \in \mathbb{R} \land b \in \mathbb{R}\}.$$

Further, we have $\mathbb{R}^3 = \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$, i.e.

$$\mathbb{R}^3 := \{(a, b, c) | a \in \mathbb{R} \land b \in \mathbb{R} \land c \in \mathbb{R}\}.$$

Sets of the form \mathbb{R}^n for some positive integer n is the corner stone in our course in Linear algebra.

Combining Sets – Set Operations

There are several basic ways to combine sets. For example, put

$$X:=\{1,2,3\};\ Y:=\{2,3,4\}.$$

Combining Sets - Set Operations

There are several basic ways to combine sets. For example, put

$$X := \{1, 2, 3\}; Y := \{2, 3, 4\}.$$

 The *union* of sets A and B, denoted A ∪ B, includes exactly the elements appearing in A or B or both. That is,

$$x \in A \cup B \iff x \in A \text{ OR } x \in B.$$

So,
$$X \cup Y = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$$

Combining Sets – Set Operations

There are several basic ways to combine sets. For example, put

$$X := \{1, 2, 3\}; Y := \{2, 3, 4\}.$$

 The *union* of sets A and B, denoted A ∪ B, includes exactly the elements appearing in A or B or both. That is,

$$x \in A \cup B \iff x \in A \text{ OR } x \in B.$$

So,
$$X \cup Y = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$$

 The intersection of A and B, denoted A∩B, consists of all elements that appear in both A and B. That is,

$$x \in A \cap B \iff x \in A \text{ AND } x \in B.$$

So,
$$X \cap Y = \{2, 3\}$$

Combining Sets - Set Operations

There are several basic ways to combine sets. For example, put

$$X := \{1, 2, 3\}; Y := \{2, 3, 4\}.$$

 The *union* of sets A and B, denoted A ∪ B, includes exactly the elements appearing in A or B or both. That is,

$$x \in A \cup B \iff x \in A \text{ OR } x \in B.$$

So,
$$X \cup Y = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$$

 The intersection of A and B, denoted A∩B, consists of all elements that appear in both A and B. That is,

$$x \in A \cap B \iff x \in A \text{ AND } x \in B.$$

So,
$$X \cap Y = \{2, 3\}$$

The set difference of A and B, denoted A - B, consists of all elements that are
in A, but not in B. That is,

$$x \in A - B \iff x \in A \text{ AND } x \notin B.$$

So,
$$X - Y = \{1\}.$$

Combining Sets – Set Operations

There are several basic ways to combine sets. For example, put

$$X := \{1, 2, 3\}; \ Y := \{2, 3, 4\}.$$

 The *union* of sets A and B, denoted A ∪ B, includes exactly the elements appearing in A or B or both. That is,

$$x \in A \cup B \iff x \in A \text{ OR } x \in B.$$

So,
$$X \cup Y = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$$

 The intersection of A and B, denoted A∩B, consists of all elements that appear in both A and B. That is,

$$x \in A \cap B \iff x \in A \text{ AND } x \in B.$$

So,
$$X \cap Y = \{2, 3\}$$

 The set difference of A and B, denoted A - B, consists of all elements that are in A, but not in B. That is,

$$x \in A - B \iff x \in A \text{ AND } x \notin B.$$

So,
$$X - Y = \{1\}.$$

• Given a set A and some universal set U such that $A \subseteq U$, the **complement** of A in U, denoted A^c , consists of all elements in U - A. That is,

$$A^c := U - A$$
.

So, $X^c = \{4, 5\}$ is the complement of X in $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$.

Venn diagram