

real numbers to the complex numbers, the details play out differently. Asserting the existence of a square root of -1 quickly leads to a complete characterization of complex numbers as having the form $a + bi$, where a and b are real numbers. But no such characterization is readily apparent when arguing that an infinitesimal exists.

The controversy over the legitimacy of infinitesimals, which began long before the development of calculus (see [1] for a fascinating historical account), raged long after complex numbers were generally accepted. Abraham Robinson finally resolved the issue of the existence of such a number system containing infinitesimals half a century ago, using techniques from mathematical logic.

So, how can we define a hyperreal number? To that end, we associate hyperreal numbers with (traditionally defined) sequences of real numbers. For instance, $(3, 3, 3, 3, \dots) = 3$ and $(12.4, 12.4, 12.4, 12.4, \dots) = 12.4$. But what about $(1, 2, 3, 3, 3, 3, \dots)$? Since that sequence agrees with $(3, 3, 3, 3, 3, \dots)$ on all but two coordinates, we'll consider them to be equal: $(1, 2, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, \dots) = 3$. In other words, we use not just sequences but *equivalence classes* of sequences to represent hyperreal numbers.

Although one needs to use what Henle and Kleinberg [3] call “quasi-big sets” to fully develop the equivalence classes, for our purposes it's enough to know that if two sequences differ in only finitely many coordinates, then they are in the same equivalence class and are considered equal (see [3] for details).

The equivalence relationship and the related *transfer principle* are keys to Robinson's work. The portion of the transfer principle that we need here can be described this way:

If all the coordinates (or all but finitely many, or, even more generally, a quasi-big set of coordinates) have a certain property, then the hyperreal number associated with that sequence has the property.

For instance, $(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, \dots)$ is an integer since every coordinate in the sequence is an integer. Also, $(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, \dots) > 1,000$ since all but finitely many coordinates

are greater than 1,000. But that is true of any real number, not just 1,000: $(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, \dots) > r$ for every real number r . Thus, $Z = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, \dots)$ is an infinite number, in fact, an infinite hyperreal integer.

Now consider 10^{-Z} . Since mathematical operations on these sequences take place coordinatewise,

$$\begin{aligned} 10^{-Z} &= (10^{-1}, 10^{-2}, 10^{-3}, 10^{-4}, \dots) \\ &= (.1, .01, .001, .0001, .00001, \dots). \end{aligned}$$

Then 10^{-Z} is a power of 10 since all its coordinates are. Also, $10^{-Z} < 0.000024$ since all but four coordinates are less than 0.000024. In fact, 10^{-Z} is less than any positive real number. But $10^{-Z} > 0$, since every coordinate is positive. Hence, 10^{-Z} matches our earlier description of a positive infinitesimal. And since Z is an integer, we can use our “hat” notation: $10^{-Z} = 0.\hat{0}1$ with the 1 in the Z th decimal place.

Now try the above calculations for $2Z$. We have $2Z = (2, 4, 6, 8, 10, \dots)$, which is also an infinite hyperreal integer, and thus $10^{-2Z} = 0.\hat{0}1$, with the 1 in the $2Z$ th decimal place. Notice, though, that $Z = (1, 2, 3, 4, \dots) \neq (2, 4, 6, 8, \dots) = 2Z$, even though both are infinite, since they are unequal at each coordinate; not all infinite numbers are equal. Similarly,

$$\begin{aligned} 10^{-Z} &= (.1, .01, .001, .0001, \dots) \\ &\neq (.01, .0001, .000001, \dots) = 10^{-2Z}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $10^{-Z} \neq 10^{-2Z}$, even though each has a decimal expansion that starts with infinitely many 0s. In other words, not all numbers described as $0.0000\dots 01$ with an infinite number of 0s followed by a 1 are equal. There are infinitely many different such numbers!

Repeating 9s

Now consider $1 - 10^{-Z}$. Because $10^{-Z} > 0$, the number $1 - 10^{-Z}$ is less than 1. As a decimal, $1 - 10^{-Z} = 1 - 0.\hat{0}1 = 0.\hat{9}9 < 1$, where $\hat{}$ represents $Z - 1$ digits. We therefore have a number whose decimal expansion begins with infinitely many 9s but is not equal to 1. In fact, we have infinitely many such numbers since $1 - 10^{-2Z}$, $1 - 10^{-3Z}$, and so on, also have the same property. But is that the same as saying $0.\bar{9} \neq 1$?

Using sequences of real numbers,



again where operations are coordinatewise, we have

$$1 - 10^{-Z} = (1, 1, 1, 1, \dots) - (.1, .01, .001, .0001, \dots) \\ = (.9, .99, .999, .9999, \dots).$$

But we also have $0.\bar{9} = (.9, .9, .9, .9, \dots)$. Notice that none of the coordinates of $0.\bar{9}$ and $1 - 10^{-Z}$ match! The two numbers are therefore not equal.

Why are they not equal? One of the properties of a repeating decimal is that it does not terminate. Since every coordinate of the sequence $1 - 10^{-Z} = (.9, .99, .999, .9999, \dots)$ is a terminating decimal, the hyperreal number $1 - 10^{-Z} = 0.\hat{9}9$ is a terminating decimal. The fact that it terminates after an infinite number of decimal places does not matter; it still eventually terminates!

Since $0.\bar{9} = (.9, .9, .9, .9, \dots)$ is nonterminating in every coordinate, the hyperreal version of $0.\bar{9}$ also does not terminate. In the end, it comes down to the difference between “infinitely many” and “all”; $0.\bar{9}$ means that *all* digits past the decimal point are 9s, not merely the first infinitely many (that is, the first Y digits where Y is an infinite hyperreal integer). Hence, none of the numbers of the form $0.\hat{9}9$ are the same as $0.\bar{9}$.

Another way of looking at it is to compare the decimal expansions of the two numbers. Recall how we might compare $1 - 10^{-1,000,000}$ to $0.\bar{9}$:

$$0.\bar{9} = 0.99999999\dots9999\dots \\ 1 - 10^{-1,000,000} = \underbrace{0.99999999\dots9}_{1,000,000 \text{ digits}}$$

The difference begins in the 1,000,001st digit. Likewise, the difference between $1 - 10^{-Z} = 0.\hat{9}9$ and $0.\bar{9}$ is in the $(Z + 1)$ st digit:

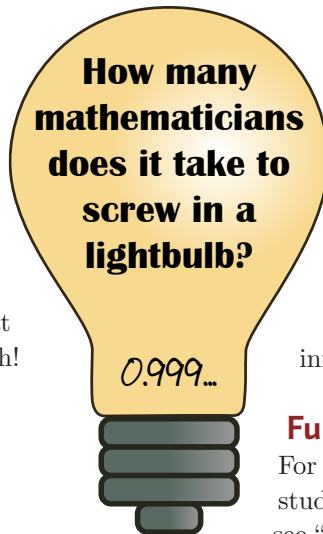
$$0.\bar{9} = 0.99999\dots9999\dots \\ 1 - 10^{-Z} = \underbrace{0.99999\dots9}_{Z \text{ digits}}$$

Since all the digits in $0.\bar{9}$ are 9, there is no room for even an infinitesimal space between it and 1. We are therefore back to $0.\bar{9} = 1$, even in the hyperreal number system. After all, if $0.\bar{9} = 1$ as a real number, then as hyperreal numbers

$$0.\bar{9} = (.9, .9, .9, .9, \dots) = (1, 1, 1, 1, \dots) = 1$$

since they are equal on every coordinate.

Perhaps some of the confusion comes from thinking of $0.\bar{9}$ as $0.999\dots$ with infinitely many 9s. As we have seen, if we only require an infinite number



of 9s in the decimal expansion of our number, then there are infinitely many such hyperreals, only one of which is equal to 1. Unfortunately for those hoping otherwise, that one number is the infamous $0.\bar{9}$.

Further Reading

For another conjecture as to why some students do not believe that $0.\bar{9} = 1$, see “Teaching Tip: Accepting That $.999\dots = 1$,” by D. W. Cohen and J. M.

Henle (*College Mathematics Journal* **40** no. 4 [2009] 258).

For an investigation of what properties an alternative number system would need in order to have $0.\bar{9} \neq 1$, read F. Richman’s article “Is $0.999\dots = 1$?” (*Mathematics Magazine* **72** no. 5 [1999] 396–400). ■

References

- [1] A. Alexander, *Infinitesimal: How a Dangerous Mathematical Theory Shaped the Modern World*, Scientific American/Farrar, Straus and Giroux, New York, 2014.
- [2] R. Ely, Nonstandard student conceptions about infinitesimals, *Journal for Research in Mathematics Education* **41** no. 2 (2010) 117–146.
- [3] J. M. Henle, E. M. Kleinberg, *Infinitesimal Calculus*, MIT Press, Cambridge, 1979.
- [4] D. Tall, S. Vinner, Concept image and concept definition in mathematics with particular reference to limits and continuity, *Educational Studies in Mathematics* **12** no. 2 (1981) 151–169.

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