# UNIT DISTANCE PRESERVING MAPPINGS OF THE PLANE INTO ITSELF 

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#### Abstract

. Consider a norm-derived metric of the plane. Let $f$ map the plane into itself in such a way that any two points with distance 1 from each other are mapped on two points with the same property. If the norm is the Euclidean one, $f$ is an isometry ([1]). I prove that $f$ is an isometry if only the unit circle (i.e. the set of points with distance 1 from the origin) is not a parallelogram.


## General considerations

Points $P$ in the plane will usually be denoted and treated as complex numbers. Mostly, it will not be necessary to distinguish between the point $P$ and the vector $\overrightarrow{O P}$ from the origin to the point.

For instance, $\|z\|$ stands for the norm of the vector connecting the origin with the point $z$.

The metric of the plane is determined by the unit circle $S$, i.e. the set of points $z$ with $\|z\|=1$. Accordingly, we shall denote such a plane by $\mathbb{C}(S)$.

The set of points $Q$ with $\|\overrightarrow{P Q}\|=1$ will be denoted $S(P)$.
Our goal in the present paper is to investigate distance 1 preserving mappings of a plane $\mathbb{C}(S)$ into itself.

We shall need some properties of unit circles.
The unit circle $S$ is the boundary of the open unit disk $U$, the set of points with norm less than one.

The open unit disk $U$ is convex, bounded, and symmetric with respect to the origin, which belongs to $U$.

On the other hand, any subset of the plane with these properties is the open unit disk for some norm. To see this, we first note that if $P \in U \backslash\{0\}$, we can define the positive real number $t_{m}$ as $\sup \{t \in \mathbb{R} \mid t P \in U\}$. Then $t_{m} P \in S$. But there can be only one positive real number $t$ with $t P \in S$. In fact, assume that $t^{\prime}$ were another such number. Because of the convexity of $U$ we must then have $t^{\prime}>t_{m}$. Let now $N$ be a neighbourhood of $O$ contained in $U$. Evidently, we can find a point $Q \in U$ so close to $t^{\prime} P$ that the convex hull of $N \cup\{Q\}$ contains $t_{m} P$, and we have a contradiction. Thus, we can define $\|P\|=1 / t_{m}$. Similarly, for $P$ outside $U$ we

[^0]can find exactly one positive number $t$ such that $t P \in S$, and we define $\|P\|=1 / t$. The function $\|\cdot\|$ is easily seen to be a norm with $S$ as unit circle.

The remarks above are just applications of the theory of Minkowski functionals (see for instance [2, page 24]).

Now, some auxiliary results,
Lemma 1. Let $P_{1}, P_{2}$ and $P_{3}$ be three collinear points, all belonging to $S$. Then their convex hull, an interval I, also belongs to $S$.
Proof.
We can assume that $I=\left[P_{1}, P_{3}\right]$, and that $P_{2}$ is an interior point of $I$. Let $P_{4} \in I$ be a point belonging to $U$. As above we can define a real number $t_{m}>1$ such that $P_{4}^{\prime}=t_{m} P_{4} \in S$. Next choose a real number $t \in(0,1)$ close to 1 such that the triangle with vertices $t P_{1}, t P_{3}$, and $t P_{4}^{\prime}$, all belonging to $U$, contains $P_{2}$ in its interior, a contradiction.

We have seen that for each angle $\theta$ we can define exactly one positive real number $r(\theta)$ such that $r(\theta) e^{i \theta} \in S$.

For each $\theta$ there is a line $L_{P}$ (in general not unique) through $P=r(\theta) e^{i \theta}$ such that $L_{P}$ does not contain any points of $U$. In fact, assume that there were no such line. So consider the lines $L(\phi)=\left\{P+t e^{i \phi} \mid t \in \mathbb{R}\right\}$. There is no point in $L(\theta) \cap U$ with a positive value of $t$, but there is in $L(\theta+\pi) \cap U$. And so we can define $\phi_{m}$ as the supremum of the angles $\phi \in(\theta, \theta+\pi)$ such that the positive half of $L(\phi)$ has no point in common with $U$. According to assumption the negative part has, and for $\phi$ slightly less than $\phi_{m}$ both parts of $L(\phi)$ have points in common with $U$, contradicting Lemma 1.

Actually, because $U$ is bounded, and because a certain neighbourhood of the origin belongs to $U$, there is a positive number $\epsilon$ such that for any $P$ the angle between $L_{P}$ and $[O, P]$ is greater than $\epsilon$.

Let $P=r(\theta) e^{i \theta}$. Let $Q=r\left(\theta^{\prime}\right) e^{i \theta^{\prime}}$, where the variable $\theta^{\prime}$ tends towards $\theta$, for definiteness increasing. When $\theta^{\prime}$ is sufficiently close to $\theta$, the point $Q$ will lie between the lines $\left\{P+t e^{i(\theta-\pi+\epsilon)} \mid t \in \mathbb{R}\right\}$ and $\left\{P+t e^{i(\theta-\epsilon)} \mid t \in \mathbb{R}\right\}$. Thus $Q$ approaches $P, r(\theta)$ is continuous, and $S$ is a Jordan curve.
Remark. When, in the following, without further explanation, two Jordan curves $J_{1}$ and $J_{2}$ are stated to intersect, the reasoning behind is always that one can find one point of $J_{2}$, say, inside $J_{1}$, and another point of $J_{2}$ outside $J_{1}$.

On notation. When discussing positions of points along a curve we shall often use inequalities like $\arg \theta_{1}<\arg \theta_{2}$. This will be taken to mean that we can find values of the arguments such that $\arg \theta_{1}<\arg \theta_{2}<\arg \theta_{1}+\pi$.

Orient $L_{P}$ in the usual way, i.e. the positive half of $L_{P}$ is the one intersected by the line through $O$ and $Q$ when $\arg Q$ is slightly greater than $\arg P$. Consider $L_{Q}$ for such a point, and assume that $L_{Q} \neq L_{P}$. Then the point $R=L_{Q} \cap L_{P}$ cannot lie on the negative part of $L_{P}$. We may have $R=P$, in which case $Q$ must be on the same (the left) side of $L_{P}$ as $O$ is, and the angle from $L_{P}$ to $L_{Q}$ is positive. Otherwise $R$ belongs to the positive part of $L_{P}$, and $P$ is situated to the same side of $L_{Q}$ as $O$. Again the angle from $L_{P}$ to $L_{Q}$ must be positive.

Note that this result does not (in case of non-uniqueness) depend on which lines $L_{P}$ and $L_{Q}$ are chosen.

There is a similar result concerning angles between chords:
Lemma 2. Let $z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{3}$ be points on $S$ with

$$
\arg z_{1}<\arg z_{2}<\arg z_{3} \leq \arg z_{1}+\pi .
$$

Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\arg \left(z_{2}-z_{1}\right) \leq \arg \left(z_{3}-z_{1}\right) \leq \arg \left(z_{3}-z_{2}\right) . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof.
If a point in $\left(z_{1}, z_{3}\right)$ belongs to $S$, the whole interval $\left[z_{1}, z_{3}\right]$ is contained in $S$, and we have equality in (1) (because of the restriction $\arg z_{3} \leq \arg z_{1}+\pi$ the point $z_{2}$ belongs to $\left.\left(z_{1}, z_{3}\right)\right)$. Otherwise, $\left(z_{1}, z_{3}\right) \subset U$, and $z_{2}$ and $O$ are on opposite sides of $\left[z_{1}, z_{3}\right]$. We can orient the coordinate axes such that $\arg \left(z_{3}-z_{1}\right)=0$. Then $\Im z_{2}<\Im z_{3}=\Im z_{1}<0$, from which follows strict inequality in (1).

In the following, the notions distance and length will always be those induced by the norm for which $S$ is the unit circle.

Lemma 3. Let $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ be two points with distance at most equal to 2. Then the set $M=S\left(P_{1}\right) \cap S\left(P_{2}\right)$ is symmetric with respect to the midpoint of the interval [ $\left.P_{1}, P_{2}\right]$. There are now the following possibilities:
(1) $M$ consists of two points with sum $P_{1}+P_{2}$;
(2) $M$ consists of a single interval. In this case $\left\|\overrightarrow{P_{1} P_{2}}\right\|=2$;
(3) $M$ consists of two intervals parallel to an edge of the unit circle and parallel to $\overrightarrow{P_{1} P_{2}}$. The length of each interval is equal to the length of the edge minus $\left\|\overrightarrow{P_{1} P_{2}}\right\|$. Every point in one of the intervals has distance 2 from every point in the other interval.

## Proof.

To see that $M$ is symmetric with respect to the midpoint of the interval $\left[P_{1}, P_{2}\right]$, do a simple calculation: If $Q \in M$, also $P_{1}+\left(P_{2}-Q\right)=P_{2}+\left(P_{1}-Q\right) \in M$, and the midpoint of the interval $\left[Q, P_{1}+P_{2}-Q\right]$ is $\left(P_{1}+P_{2}\right) / 2$.

It suffices to consider the case where $M$ consists of more than two points.
Assume first that $\left(P_{1}+P_{2}\right) / 2 \in M$. From Lemma 1 it follows that if $Q \in M$, the whole interval $\left[Q, P_{1}+P_{2}-Q\right]$ belongs to $M$. But a halfline from $P_{1}$ just missing $\left(P_{1}+P_{2}\right) / 2$ can intersect $M$ in only one point. And so $M$ consists of a single interval through $\left(P_{1}+P_{2}\right) / 2$.

Otherwise $\left\|\overrightarrow{P_{1} P_{2}}\right\|<2$, and no point of the straight line $L$ through $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ belongs to $M$. Imagine $L$ as horizontal.

We can assume the existence of two points $Q_{1}$ and $Q_{2}$ belonging to $M$ and situated above $L$.

Now $S\left(P_{2}\right)$ contains, in addition to the points $Q_{j}$ also the points

$$
R_{j}=P_{2}+\left(Q_{j}-P_{1}\right)=Q_{j}+\left(P_{2}-P_{1}\right) \quad(j=1,2),
$$

obtainable by translating $Q_{j}$ by the vector $\overrightarrow{P_{1} P_{2}}$.
Let, for $j=1,2, L_{j}$ be the line through $Q_{j}$ and $R_{j}$.

Assume that the two parallel lines $L_{1}$ and $L_{2}$ do not coincide. For definiteness, let $L_{1}$ separate $L_{2}$ and $L$.
$S\left(P_{2}\right)$ is symmetric with respect to $P_{2}$ and therefore also contains the points $Q_{j}^{\prime}=2 P_{2}-Q_{j}$ and $R_{j}^{\prime}=2 P_{2}-R_{j}$.

Consider the parallelogram with vertices $Q_{2}, R_{2}, Q_{2}^{\prime}$, and $R_{2}^{\prime}$. The interior of this parallogram must belong to $U\left(P_{2}\right)$ and therefore cannot contain points of $S\left(P_{2}\right)$ like $Q_{1}$ and $R_{1}$. But then these two points must belong to the boundary of the parallelogram, i.e. we must have $Q_{1} \in\left[Q_{2}, R_{2}^{\prime}\right]$. Now, $R_{2}^{\prime}=2 P_{2}-\left(Q_{2}+P_{2}-P_{1}\right)=$ $P_{1}+P_{2}-Q_{2}$, and so, according to Lemma 1 , we have the first case, contrary to assumption.

That $L_{1}$ and $L_{2}$ coincide, means that the intervals $\left[P_{1}, P_{2}\right]$ and $\left[Q_{1}, Q_{2}\right.$ ] are parallel to the same edge of $S\left(P_{2}\right)$. Actually, this edge contains each interval [ $Q_{j}, R_{j}$ ], and so its length must equal the sum of the lengths of $\left[P_{1}, P_{2}\right.$ ] and the maximal interval $\left[Q_{1}, Q_{2}\right]$.

We introduce a coordinatesystem with $x$-axis along the line through $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$, and origin at $\left(P_{1}+P_{2}\right) / 2$. Let the component of $M$ situated above the x-axis stretch from $x=b$ to $x=c$. The component below the $x$-axis will then have $x$ values between $-c$ and $-b$. To find the distance between a point in the first interval (at $x=d_{1}$, say) and a point in the second interval at $x=d_{2}$, we find a line through the origin parallel to the line connecting these two points. This line will obvously intersect the first interval at $x=\left(d_{1}-d_{2}\right) / 2 \in[b, c]$, i.e. at a point of $M$, and so have length 1 . This means that the sought distance must be 2, q.e.d.

A trivial but useful consequence of Lemma 3 is
Lemma 4. If an $S$-edge has length 2 , the unit circle is a parallelogram.
Proof.
Let $[A, B]$ be the edge of length 2 . Then also $[-B,-A]$ belongs to $S$ and has length 2. The two points $A$ and $-B$ both have distance 2 from both points $B$ and $-A$. Thus, according to Lemma $3, A$ and $-B$ have distance 2 from any point in $[B,-A]$, and this interval belongs to $S$. The same is true for $[A,-B]$, and the lemma is proved.
Lemma 5. The distance between a fixed point $z \in S$ and a variable point $z^{\prime} \in S$ does not decrease when $\arg z^{\prime}$ increases from $\arg z$ to $\pi+\arg z$.
Proof.
Let $z_{1}$ and $z_{2}$ be points on $S$ with

$$
\arg z<\arg z_{1}<\arg z_{2} \leq \arg z+\pi
$$

but with

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\|z_{2}-z\right\|<\left\|z_{1}-z\right\| . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $j \in\{1,2\}$. Then

$$
\arg \left(\frac{z_{j}-z}{z}\right)=\arg \left(\frac{z_{j}}{z}-1\right) \in(0, \pi]
$$

and also

$$
\arg \left(\frac{z_{j}-z}{z_{j}}\right)=\arg \left(1-\frac{z}{z_{j}}\right) \geq 0
$$

Thus,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\arg z_{j} \leq \arg \left(z_{j}-z\right) \leq \arg z+\pi \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now compare the triangle with corners $z, z_{1}, z_{2}$ with the triangle with corners

$$
O, \frac{z_{1}-z}{\left\|z_{1}-z\right\|}, \frac{z_{2}-z}{\left\|z_{2}-z\right\|}
$$

If we had equality in (2), these two triangles would be similar, and the two $S$-chords $\left[z_{1}, z_{2}\right],\left[\frac{z_{1}-z}{\left\|z_{1}-z\right\|}, \frac{z_{2}-z}{\left\|z_{2}-z\right\|}\right]$ would be parallel. As it is, the angle from the first chord to the second one is negative. But Lemma 2 together with (3) shows this to be false. Thus (2) cannot be satisfied, q.e.d.
Lemma 6. A closed curve $S^{\prime}$ (whose interior contains $U$ properly) exists, such that for each point $R \in S^{\prime}$ there are two points $P$ and $Q$ in $S \cap S(R)$, such that the distance $\|\overrightarrow{P Q}\|$ equals 1 .
Proof. We first consider a point $z$ tracing the unit circle in the positive direction, i.e. $\arg z$ increases from 0 to $2 \pi$. In distance 1 from $z$ we find a point $z^{\prime} \in S$ with $\arg z<\arg z^{\prime}<\arg z+\pi$. The problem is that sometimes $z^{\prime}$ is not uniquely determined. And it may also happen that several values of $z$ give the same value of $z^{\prime}$.

To handle this situation I find it convenient to regard $\left(\arg z, \arg z^{\prime}\right)$ as a point on a torus $T^{2}$ ( $T$ is the unit circle in Euclidean geometry). We shall show that the set of points $\left\{\left(\arg z, \arg z^{\prime}\right) \mid\left\|z-z^{\prime}\right\|=1\right\}$ can be parametrized as a curve on $T^{2}$.

We choose $t=\arg z+\arg z^{\prime}$.
Note that the set $E=\left\{z \in S \mid z^{\prime}\right.$ is not unique $\}$ is finite. In fact, according to Lemma 3 the line from $O$ to a point $z \in E$ must be parallel to an edge of $S$, such that each point of a non-empty subinterval of this edge has distance 1 from $z$. It also follows from Lemma 3 that the length of the edge is greater than 1 . The curve $S$ is easily shown to be rectifiable (with length at most 8), and thus the number of such edges is finite (in Lemma 9 below it is shown that this number is at most four), and so is the cardinality of $E$.

Similarly, the set $E^{\prime}=\left\{z^{\prime} \in S \mid z\right.$ is not unique $\}$ is finite. It also follows from the above that, regarded as sets of points, the two sets $E$ and $E^{\prime}$ are equal.

Let $z \in E$. When $z^{\prime}$, with $\arg z^{\prime}$ increasing, runs through the subinterval in which $\left\|z-z^{\prime}\right\|=1$, the function $\Phi(t)=\left(\arg z, \arg z^{\prime}\right)$ is trivially defined and continuous in the corresponding interval of $t$-values, which is traced in the direction of increasing $t$.

Similarly, when $z^{\prime} \in E^{\prime}$. Here $z$ runs through an interval with $\arg z$ increasing.
Let us now consider pairs $\left(z, z^{\prime}\right)$ with $z \notin E$ and $z^{\prime} \notin E^{\prime}$. Since $z \notin E$, $z^{\prime}$ is uniquely determined. We can also show that in the neighbourhood of such points $z$, the angle $\arg z^{\prime}$ is a strictly increasing function of $\arg z$. Otherwise we could find two points $z_{1}$ and $z_{2}$ with $\arg z_{1}<\arg z_{2}$ and $\arg z_{2}^{\prime} \leq \arg z_{1}^{\prime}$. But then, according to Lemma 5,

$$
1=\left\|z_{2}-z_{2}^{\prime}\right\| \leq\left\|z_{2}-z_{1}^{\prime}\right\|<\left\|z_{1}-z_{1}^{\prime}\right\|=1
$$

where the strict inequality is due to $z_{1}^{\prime} \notin E^{\prime}$.
Assume that $z_{n} \rightarrow z_{0}$ through $S \backslash E$, for definiteness with $\arg z_{n}$ decreasing. Then the sequence $\arg z_{n}^{\prime}$ is also decreasing, and, if $z_{0} \notin E$, for all $n$ we have
$\arg z_{n}^{\prime} \geq \arg z_{0}^{\prime}$. But if $z_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow w \neq z_{0}^{\prime}$, we would, because of the continuity of the norm function have $\left\|z_{0}-w\right\|=1$, a contradiction. If $z_{0} \in E$, the point $w$ must be the point on $S$ with distance 1 from $z$ and $\arg z_{0}<\arg w<\arg z+\pi$ whose argument is maximal. Similarly, the point $w$ obtained as limit for a sequence $z_{n}^{\prime}$ corresponding to a sequence $z_{n}$ approaching a point $z_{0} \in E$ counter-clockwise has minimal value of its argument.

We conclude that in a neighbourhood of a point $z \notin E$ the $\operatorname{angle} \arg z^{\prime}$ is a continuous and non-decreasing function of $\arg z$. Thus $t$ is here a continuous and strictly increasing function of $\arg z$. The inverse function is then also continuous, so that the function pair $\left(\arg z, \arg z^{\prime}\right)$, which, as we have seen earlier, is continuous for $t$-values interior to the intervals corresponding to $z \in E$ and $z^{\prime} \in E^{\prime}$, is continuous everywhere. Since, as we have seen, $z$ is a continuous function of $\arg z$ (and $z^{\prime}$ of $\arg z^{\prime}$ ) both $z$ and $z^{\prime}$ become continuous functions of $t$ and describe the unit circle when $t$ runs through an interval $[0,4 \pi)$. The point $z+z^{\prime}$ describes a closed curve $S^{\prime}$, which obviously satisfies our requirements (the proof that the interior of $S^{\prime}$ contains $U$ properly is postponed to the next section).

Lemma 7. If we can find four points $P_{j} \quad(j=1,2,3,4)$ such that the distance between any two points among them is equal to 1 , the unit circle is a parallelogram.

Proof.
Assume first that $S\left(P_{1}\right) \cap S\left(P_{2}\right)=\left\{P_{3}, P_{4}\right\}$. Then, according to Lemma 3, we have $P_{3}+P_{4}=P_{1}+P_{2}$. If, at the same time, we had $M=S\left(P_{1}\right) \cap S\left(P_{3}\right)=\left\{P_{2}, P_{4}\right\}$, we would also have $P_{3}+P_{1}=P_{2}+P_{4}$, implying $P_{4}=P_{1}$, which is incompatible with $\left\|P_{1}-P_{4}\right\|=1$. Thus $M$ must contain more than two points, and so, according to Lemma 3, consist of two intervals parallel to $\left[P_{1}, P_{3}\right]$. But $P_{2}$ and $P_{4}$ must then belong to the same component of $M$, as otherwise, again according to Lemma 3, their distance would be 2 . The $S$-edge to which $\left[P_{1}, P_{3}\right]$ and $\left[P_{2}, P_{4}\right]$ are parallel, must have maximal length 2 . And so, according to Lemma $4, S$ is a parallelogram.

It follows from our assumption that $P_{3}$ and $P_{4}$ are on opposite sides of the line through $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$. Since the four points apparently are vertices of a parallelogram $\Pi,\left[P_{1}, P_{2}\right]$ and $\left[P_{3}, P_{4}\right]$ must be diagonals, and $\left[P_{1}, P_{4}\right]$ and $\left[P_{3}, P_{2}\right]$ are parallel.

If we did not have $S\left(P_{1}\right) \cap S\left(P_{2}\right)=\left\{P_{3}, P_{4}\right\}$, rôles would be interchanged, and we would find that $\left[P_{1}, P_{2}\right.$ ] and $\left[P_{3}, P_{4}\right]$ were sides of a parallelogram. Again there would be an $S$-edge of maximal length, and $S$ would be a parallelogram.

Lemma 8. It is possible to construct a hexagon with all vertices on the unit circle and with all sides of length 1 . One vertex may be specified arbitrarily.

Only if the unit circle is a parallelogram, is it possible to inscribe in it polygons with three, four, five, seven or eight sides, all of length 1.

Proof.
The hexagon construction is illustrated in Figure 1.


Figure 1
Here the point $O$ is the centre of a unit circle $S$ in the given norm, and $P_{1}$ is an arbitrary point on $S$. The point $P_{4} \in S$ is its opposite point, and $P_{2} \in S$ is chosen as a point having distance 1 from $P_{1}$. The point $P_{3} \in S$ is the point found by going from $O$ in a direction parallel to $\overrightarrow{P_{1} P_{2}}$. Then $\overrightarrow{P_{3} P_{2}}$ becomes parallel to $\overrightarrow{O P_{1}}$ (and so also to $\overrightarrow{P_{4} O}$ ) and is easily seen to have length 1 . Finally, $\overrightarrow{P_{4} P_{3}}$ becomes parallel to $\overrightarrow{O P_{2}}$ and has length equal to 1 . Let $P_{5}$ and $P_{6}$ be the points on $S$ opposite to $P_{2}$ and $P_{3}$, respectively. Then the hexagon $P_{1} P_{2} P_{3} P_{4} P_{5} P_{6} P_{1}$ is the one we were looking for.

According to Lemma 3 each vertex is uniquely determined by the previous one, and the hexagon is the only possible inscribed polygon with all sides of length 1 (in the following just called an inscribed polygon), unless $S$ has an edge of length greater than one.

We use Figure 1 for the further analysis of inscribed polygons.
The procedure used in the construction of Figure 1 can be formalized in the following way:

For $j \geq 2$ we put

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{j+1}=P_{j}-P_{j-1} . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

For $j \geq 3$ we substitute in (4) the expression obtained from (4) by replacing $j$ by $j-1$. This gives $P_{j+1}=-P_{j-2}$. With $j$ understood modulo 6 this shows that (4) is, in fact, valid for all $j$.

In the following we shall discuss unit circles $S$ containing at least one edge (and so, because of the symmetry with respect to the origin, at least 2 edges) of length greater than 1.

Then $P_{j+1}$ is not, as in (4), uniquely determined from $P_{j}$ and $P_{j-1}$, but may, for $j \geq 2$, be replaced by

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{j+1}^{\prime}=P_{j+1}+t_{j+1} P_{j}^{\prime}, \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where (4) has been changed to

$$
P_{j+1}=P_{j}^{\prime}-P_{j-1}^{\prime},
$$

and we have put $P_{j}^{\prime}=P_{j}$ for $j=1,2$.
In (5), the real number $t_{j+1}$ cannot be chosen arbitrarily.

We first note that (5) can be applied with $t_{j+1} \neq 0$ only when the intersection $S \cap S\left(P_{j}^{\prime}\right)$ contains the interval $\left[P_{j+1}, P_{j+1}^{\prime}\right]$. Thus $S$ must have an edge $E_{j+1}$ containing the interval $\left[P_{j+1}-P_{j}^{\prime}, P_{j+1}+t_{j+1} P_{j}^{\prime}\right]$ for $t_{j+1}>0$, and the interval [ $\left.P_{j+1}-P_{j}^{\prime}+t_{j+1} P_{j}^{\prime}, P_{j+1}\right]$ for $t_{j+1}<0$. Both intervals have length $1+\left|t_{j+1}\right|$, so that we must have $\left|t_{j+1}\right| \leq 1$ with equality only if $S$ is a parallelogram. Note that $P_{j+1}-P_{j}^{\prime}=-P_{j-1}^{\prime}$, so that $-P_{j-1}^{\prime} \in E_{j+1}$, and $P_{j-1}^{\prime} \in-E_{j+1}$, where $-E_{j+1} \subset S$ is the interval symmetric to $E_{j+1}$ with respect to the origin. If $t_{j+1}>0, E_{j+1}$ contains $P_{j+1}$ and $P_{j+2}$ as interior points. If $t_{j+1}<0, E_{j+1}$ contains $P_{j+1}^{\prime}$ and $-P_{j-1}^{\prime}$ as interior points.

Next we show that if, for some $j \geq 3$, we have $t_{j}>0$, then we cannot have $t_{j+1} \neq 0$. In fact, $E_{j}$ contains $P_{j+1}$ as an interior point, and so $P_{j+1}$ cannot simultaneously belong to another $S$-edge.

But assume that, for some $j \geq 3$, we have $t_{j}<0$ and $t_{j+1}>0$. Then $E_{j}$ contains the interval $\left[P_{j+1}, P_{j}\right]$, and the general point in this interval can be written $P_{j}^{\prime}-u P_{j-1}^{\prime}$, where $\left.t_{j} \leq u \leq 1\right]$. We find the point of intersection between this interval and the line through $O$ and $P_{j+1}^{\prime}$ :

$$
P_{j}^{\prime}-u P_{j-1}^{\prime}=k\left(P_{j}^{\prime}-P_{j-1}^{\prime}+t_{j+1} P_{j}^{\prime}\right) .
$$

We find $k=u=1 /\left(1+t_{j+1}\right)<1$. Thus $S$ separates $O$ and $P_{j+1}^{\prime}$, an impossibility. And so $t_{j+1}>0$ implies $t_{j}=0$, q.e.d.

We see that if, for some $j \geq 3$, we have $t_{j+1}>0$, we must have $t_{j}=t_{j+2}=0$.
In the following, we shall always assume that the vertices of the inscribed polygon are indexed in such a way that for all $j$ we have $\arg P_{j}^{\prime}<\arg P_{j+1}^{\prime}$.

The point $P_{3}$ may have distance 1 from $P_{1}$. This is possible iff $S$ is a parallelogram (Lemma 7). We then have an inscribed triangle.

Next we examine the possibility of inscribed quadrangles and pentagons. Here the average increase $\arg P_{j+1}^{\prime}-\arg P_{j}^{\prime}$ is larger than obtained by the construction in Figure 1. In particular, we can choose indexes such that $P_{3}^{\prime} \neq P_{3}$. Now use (5) for $j=2$, divided by $P_{3}$. Since $\Im\left(P_{2} / P_{3}\right)<0$, we must choose $t_{3}<0$ to make $\Im\left(P_{3}^{\prime} / P_{3}\right)>0$ and thus $\arg P_{3}^{\prime}>\arg P_{3}$. Then, according to the above, $t_{4} \leq 0$. We have

$$
P_{3}^{\prime} / P_{1}=\left(1+t_{3}\right)\left(P_{2} / P_{1}\right)-1,
$$

and so $\arg P_{1}<\arg P_{3}^{\prime} \leq \arg P_{1}+\pi$ with equality only if $t_{3}=-1$,

$$
P_{4}^{\prime} / P_{3}^{\prime}=1+t_{4}-P_{2} / P_{3}^{\prime}
$$

showing that $\arg P_{3}^{\prime}<\arg P_{4}^{\prime}$.
We conclude that if $t_{3}>-1$ the line $L$ through $O$ and $P_{3}^{\prime}$ separates $P_{1}$ from $P_{4}^{\prime}$. However, the interval $\left[O, P_{3}^{\prime}\right]$ belongs to $S\left(P_{4}^{\prime}\right)$, and $P_{4}^{\prime}$ has distance greater than 1 to $P_{1}$, unless $t_{3}=-1$, which makes $P_{3}^{\prime}=-P_{1}$ and necessitates that $S$ is a parallelogram. Then the line through $O$ and $P_{2}$ separates $P_{4}^{\prime}$ from $P_{1}$ unless $t_{4}=-1$, making $P_{4}^{\prime}=-P_{2}$. Actually, $E_{3}$ contains the interval $\left[P_{3},-P_{1}-P_{2}\right.$ ], and so $S\left(P_{1}\right)$ contains $\left[P_{2},-P_{2}\right]$ and thus $P_{4}^{\prime}$.

With respect to inscribed pentagons, we continue the reasoning above, but we are now looking for a point $P_{5}^{\prime}$ in the intersection $S \cap S\left(P_{4}^{\prime}\right) \cap S\left(P_{1}\right)$.

First consider the possibility $t_{4}=0$, i.e. $P_{4}^{\prime}=P_{4}$. We have $P_{4} \in E_{3}$ and $P_{1} \in-E_{3}$, and their distance is 2. This is Case 2 of Lemma 3. The intersection
$S\left(P_{4}\right) \cap S\left(P_{1}\right)$ is an interval $I$ containing $O$ and with centre at the point $\left(P_{1}+P_{4}\right) / 2$, which must belong to the line through $O$ and $P_{2}$. Thus the only candidate for $P_{5}^{\prime}$ is $P_{5}=-P_{2}$, which makes the whole interval [ $-P_{2}, P_{2}$ ] a part of $S\left(P_{1}\right)$. So $S$ is a parallelogram, and the construction works for all $t_{3} \in[-1,0]$.

The only remaining possibility is $t_{4}<0$. Now $\left[P_{4}, P_{4}^{\prime}\right]$ is part of $\left[P_{5}, P_{4}\right] \subset E_{4}$, which is parallel to $\left[O, P_{3}^{\prime}\right]$ and contains $-P_{2}$. The $S$-edge $-E_{4}$ goes through $P_{2}$ and intersects the $S$-edge $-E_{3}$ through $P_{1}$ at $-P_{4}$. The usual calculation confirms that the interval $\left[P_{1}, P_{2}\right]$ intersects the interval $I=\left[O,-P_{4}^{\prime}\right]$ at an interior point of $I$ unless $t_{4}=-1$ and $P_{4}^{\prime}=-P_{2}$. For the moment disregarding this last possibility, we see that the distance from $P_{4}^{\prime}$ to $P_{1}$ is less than 2 , and so we do not have Case 2 of Lemma 3. We are not interested in Case 2 either, since we want a point $P_{5}^{\prime} \in S$. Thus the only possibility is that $S\left(P_{4}^{\prime}\right) \cap S\left(P_{1}\right)$ consists of the two points $O$ and $P_{4}^{\prime}+P_{1}$, the latter point being the only candidate for $P_{5}^{\prime}$. When $t_{4}$ decreases from 0 to -1 the point $P_{4}^{\prime}+P_{1}$ moves linearly from $t_{3} P_{2}$, which is clearly inside $S$, to the point $-P_{3}$, which must be $P_{5}^{\prime}$. But this presupposes $t_{4}=-1$, so that $S$ is a parallelogram, just as in the case $P_{4}^{\prime}=-P_{2}$ above.

Note that if $S$ is a parallelogram, all inscribed pentagons have three consecutive vertices as $S$-edge midpoints.

Finally consider inscribed polygons with more than six vertices. Here the average increase $\arg P_{j+1}^{\prime}-\arg P_{j}^{\prime}$ is smaller than obtained by the construction in Figure 1. In particular, we can choose indexes such that $\arg P_{3}^{\prime}<\arg P_{3}$, i.e. have $t_{3}>0$. Then, according to the above, $t_{4}=0, P_{4}=P_{3}^{\prime}-P_{2}, P_{5}=P_{4}-P_{3}^{\prime}=-P_{2}$, so that not very much has been gained. We may, however, choose $t_{5} \neq 0$.

But start with $t_{5}=0$ (no extra $S$-edges in addition to the old ones $\pm E_{3}$, where $E_{3}$ contains $\left[-P_{1}, P_{3}^{\prime}\right]$ ). We have $P_{6}=P_{5}-P_{4}=-P_{3}^{\prime}$. Whatever value $t_{6}$ has, the point $P_{6}^{\prime}=P_{6}+t_{6} P_{5}$ belongs to the straight line $L$ through $-P_{3}$ and $P_{1}$. But $L$ contains the $S$-edge $-E_{3}$ to which $P_{6}^{\prime}$ must belong. The point $P_{7}$ with $\arg P_{6}^{\prime}<\arg P_{7}<\arg P_{1}$ must belong to $-E_{3}$ also, and so $P_{6}^{\prime}$ must have distance 2 from $P_{1}$, i.e. $P_{6}^{\prime}=P_{1}-2 P_{2}$. Since $P_{6}^{\prime}=-P_{3}^{\prime}-t_{6} P_{2}=P_{1}-\left(1+t_{3}+t_{6}\right) P_{2}$, we must have $t_{3}+t_{6}=1$. And since we have an $S$-edge of length 2 , according to Lemma 4 the unit circle must be a parallelogram.

Next consider the possibility $t_{5}<0$. This means that $S$ has an edge $E_{5}$ containing $\left[P_{6}, P_{5}\right]$ and having $-P_{3}^{\prime}$ as an interior point. But $-P_{3}^{\prime}$ should also belong to the $S$-edge $-E_{3}$, which is impossible.

So we are left with the possibility $t_{5}>0$. Now $t_{6}=0$, and $P_{6}=P_{5}^{\prime}-P_{4}$ is an interior point on the $S$-edge $E_{5}$ containing the interval [ $-P_{3}^{\prime}, P_{5}^{\prime}$ ]. The arc on $S$ from $P_{6}$ to $P_{1}$ is contained in the union of the $S$-edges $E_{5}$ and $-E_{3}$. The unit circle $S\left(P_{5}^{\prime}\right)$ contains the interval $\left[O, P_{4}\right.$ ], the continuation of which intersects the $S$-edge $-E_{3}=\left[-P_{3}^{\prime}, P_{1}\right]$ in the interior point $-P_{4}$. Thus $S\left(P_{6}\right)$ contains the interval [ $-P_{4}, O$ ], and $P_{6}$ and $P_{1}$ are on opposite sides of the line containing this interval. And so $\left\|P_{6}-P_{1}\right\|>1$.

An upper bound for $\left\|P_{6}-P_{1}\right\|$ is found as the length of the arc on $S$ from $P_{6}$ to $P_{1}$, i.e. $1+t_{3}+t_{5}$. Three more edges in the inscribed polygon requires $t_{3}=t_{5}=1$, i.e. $S$ must be a parallelogram. Then $P_{3}^{\prime}=2 P_{2}-P_{1}$, while $P_{4}=P_{2}-P_{1}=P_{3}$, $P_{5}^{\prime}=P_{3}^{\prime}-2 P_{2}=-P_{1}, P_{6}=-P_{2}$, and $P_{7}=P_{1}-P_{2}=-P_{3}$. If we form $P_{7}-P_{6}$, we get $P_{1}$ again, and we have a heptagon. But with $t_{7}=1$ we obtain $P_{7}^{\prime}=-P_{2}-P_{3}=$ $-P_{3}^{\prime}$ and $P_{8}=-P_{3}$, an octagon. Actually, the octagon is just the unit circle, but with the edge midpoints promoted to vertices.

In general, if we are satisfied with a heptagon, we must have the vertex $P_{7}^{\prime}=$
$P_{1}-P_{2}$ and $\left\|P_{6}-P_{7}^{\prime}\right\|=1$. But

$$
\begin{aligned}
P_{6}=P_{5}^{\prime}-P_{4}=P_{5}+\left(t_{5}-1\right) P_{4} & =-P_{2}+\left(t_{5}-1\right)\left(P_{3}+\left(t_{3}-1\right) P_{2}\right) \\
& =\left(\left(-1+\left(t_{5}-1\right) t_{3}\right) P_{2}+\left(1-t_{5}\right) P_{1},\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
P_{7}^{\prime}-P_{6}=t_{5} P_{1}+\left(1-t_{5}\right) t_{3} P_{2}=N\left(\frac{t_{5}}{N} P_{1}+\frac{\left(1-t_{5}\right) t_{3}}{N} P_{2}\right)
$$

where

$$
N=t_{5}+\left(1-t_{5}\right) t_{3}=1-\left(1-t_{5}\right)\left(1-t_{3}\right) .
$$

Thus $P_{7}^{\prime}-P_{6}$ equals $N$ times a point on the chord $\left[P_{1}, P_{2}\right]$. If the distance between $P_{7}^{\prime}$ and $P_{6}$ has to be 1 , we must have $1 \leq N$, which can only be true if one of $t_{3}, t_{5}$ is equal to one. Furthermore, the chord [ $P_{1}, P_{2}$ ] must actually be part of $S$. The two conditions can be realized. Each heptagon has two of the vertices being consecutive vertices of the parallelogram $S$, three of the vertices midpoints of the $S$-edges adjoining the two $S$-vertices mentioned, and the remaining two vertices of the heptagon being points with distance 1 chosen on the fourth $S$-edge.

Lemma 9. A unit circle can have at most four edges of length greater than 1.
Proof.
Assume that we have a unit circle $S$ with six edges of length greater than 1. Try by alteration of $S$ to increase the smallest edge-length.

Let the edges be $\left[P_{j}, Q_{j}\right](j=1,2, \ldots, 6)$, where, for all $j, \arg P_{j}<\arg Q_{j} \leq$ $\arg P_{j+1}, P_{j+3}=-P_{j}, Q_{j+3}=-Q_{j}$, and $j$ is understood modulo 6 .

We wish to simplify the unit circle while not decreasing the lengths of the six edges mentioned. Here we must remember that the unit of length in a particular direction is found by drawing a halfline $L$ in this direction from the origin. Let $P$ be the point of intersection $L \cap S$. Then $\overrightarrow{O P}$ is the unit vector in the given direction.

We shall at each step replace $S$ by a new unit circle $S^{\prime}$, such that the edges of length greater than 1 are obtained by translation of the similar edges of $S$, and such that the points of $S^{\prime}$ are inside or on $S$. In this way the edges are not changed, but the unit vectors are either unchanged or shorter than in $S$. This means that the lengths of the six edges are not decreased when $S$ is replaced by $S^{\prime}$.

At each step we get rid of two "gaps" (arcs from $Q_{j}$ to $P_{j+1}$ for some value of $j$ ) in $S$. In fact, the arc from $-P_{j+1}$ (in the counter-clockwise direction) to $Q_{j}$ is moved by the vector $\frac{1}{2} \overrightarrow{Q_{j} P_{j+1}}$, while the arc from $P_{j+1}$ to $-Q_{j}$ is moved by $-\frac{1}{2} \overrightarrow{Q_{j} P_{j+1}}$. The new unit circle $S^{\prime}$ is strictly inside the old one $S$, except possibly at the points $\pm \frac{1}{2}\left(Q_{j}+P_{j+1}\right)$, which are common to $S$ and $S^{\prime}$, if $S$ is linear from $Q_{j}$ to $P_{j+1}$. The new unit circle is easily seen to satisfy the requirements (convexity of $U^{\prime}$, symmetry with respect to the origin, because two points with sum zero are mapped onto two points with sum zero).

After three such steps we end up with a unit circle which is a hexagon, and it suffices to derive a contradiction for unit circles of this type.

We denote the vertices in $S$ by $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{6}$, taken in counter-clockwise order. Choose the coordinate axes such that $\arg P_{1}=0$. Assume that $\Im\left(P_{2}\right) \geq \Im\left(P_{3}\right)$. Let the unit vectors in the directions $\overrightarrow{P_{3} P_{2}}, \overrightarrow{P_{1} P_{2}}$, and $\overrightarrow{P_{4} P_{3}}$ be $\overrightarrow{O Q_{32}}, \overrightarrow{O Q_{12}}$, and $\overrightarrow{O Q_{43}}$, respectively.

We have

$$
\overrightarrow{O Q_{43}}=\overrightarrow{P_{4} P_{3}} /\left\|\overrightarrow{P_{4} P_{3}}\right\|,
$$

and so $\Im\left(Q_{43}\right)<\Im\left(P_{3}\right)$. This means that $Q_{43}$ must belong to the open $S$-edge $\left(P_{1}, P_{2}\right)$. It also follows that $\arg Q_{32}>0$, so that $Q_{32} \in\left(P_{1}, P_{2}\right)$. Since $\left\|\overrightarrow{P_{3} P_{2}}\right\|>1$, the point $P_{2}-Q_{32}$ must belong to $\left(P_{3}, P_{2}\right)$. As $Q_{32}$ belongs to $\left(P_{1}, P_{2}\right)$ and has distance 1 from $P_{2}$, we must have $P_{2}-Q_{32}=Q_{12}$.

Consider the line $L$ through $O$ parallel to ( $P_{1}, P_{2}$ ). It intersects $S$ in the points $\pm Q_{12}$. As we have just seen, $Q_{12}$ belongs to ( $P_{3}, P_{2}$ ).

The vector $\overrightarrow{O Q_{43}}$ is a unit vector in the direction $\overrightarrow{P_{6} P_{1}}$, and since the length of the latter vector is greater than 1 , we must have $P_{1}-Q_{43} \in\left(P_{6}, P_{1}\right)$. But, as we have seen, $Q_{43} \in\left(P_{1}, P_{2}\right)$, and so $P_{1}-Q_{43}=-Q_{12}$. This means that $-Q_{12} \in\left(P_{6}, P_{1}\right)$, while, as shown above, $Q_{12} \in\left(P_{3}, P_{2}\right)$, which would make $-Q_{12} \in\left(P_{5}, P_{6}\right)$. This contradiction establishes the lemma.

## Properties of unit distance preserving maps

In the following we shall consider only norms for which the unit circle is not a parallelogram. When it is natural to emphasize this, we shall write " $S \neq \mathrm{par}$ ".

Let $f$ map a normed plane $\mathbb{C}(S)$ into itself in such a way that any two points with distance 1 from each other are mapped on two points with the same property.

The set of vertices of a triangle whose sides all have length 1 will be called a unit triangle. We note that a unit triangle is mapped by $f$ on a unit triangle.

Next we use the curve $S^{\prime}$ of Lemma 6 in the following way: Assume that a point $P$ has distance 1 from a point $z+z^{\prime} \in S^{\prime}$, where, as usual, $z$ and $z^{\prime}$ are points of $S$ with $\left\|z-z^{\prime}\right\|=1$. If we had $f(P)=f(O)$, this point would have distance 1 from each member of the unit triangle $\left\{f(z), f\left(z^{\prime}\right), f\left(z+z^{\prime}\right)\right\}$, contradicting Lemma 7 .

A consequence is
Lemma 10. A mapping $f$ preserving distance 1 cannot map two points whose distance belongs to the interval $(0,2]$, onto one point.

Proof. Again we let $z$ and $z^{\prime}$ be points of $S$ with $\left\|z-z^{\prime}\right\|=1$. Then

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left\|z+z^{\prime}\right\| \leq\|z\|+\left\|z^{\prime}\right\|=2 \\
& \left\|z+z^{\prime}\right\| \geq 2\|z\|-\left\|\left(z-z^{\prime}\right)\right\|=1 . \tag{6}
\end{align*}
$$

A point in $S^{\prime}$ cannot also belong to $S$, since the point $O$ would then have distance 1 from each point in a unit triangle (even if $S$ were a parallelogram, we could not have $S=S^{\prime}$ : if $z$ and $z^{\prime}$ belong to the same $S$-edge, we have $\left\|z+z^{\prime}\right\|=2$. This concludes the proof of Lemma 6). Thus we have,

$$
\begin{equation*}
R \in S^{\prime} \Longrightarrow 1<\|\overrightarrow{O R}\| \leq 2 \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

To prove that $f$ cannot map two points whose distance belongs to the interval $[1,2]$, onto one point, it suffices to consider points $P$ whose distance from $O$ belongs to the half open interval $(1,2]$.

Then a point $Q_{1}$ defined by $\overrightarrow{O Q_{1}}=(1+1 /\|\overrightarrow{O P}\|) \overrightarrow{O P}$ belongs to $S(P)$ and lies outside $S^{\prime}$, while the point $Q_{2} \in S(P)$, defined by $\overrightarrow{O Q_{2}}=(1-1 /\|\overrightarrow{O P}\|) \overrightarrow{O P}$, has a distance from $O$ which belongs to the half open interval ( 0,1 ], and so $Q_{2}$ is inside $S^{\prime}$. Thus $S(P)$ intersects $S^{\prime}$ and $f(P) \neq f(O)$.

We are left with the more difficult case where $f$ is assumed to map two points whose distance belongs to the interval $(0,1)$ onto one point.

So we shall assume that $0<\left\|z-z^{\prime}\right\|<1$, and that $f(z)=f\left(z^{\prime}\right)$. This implies that $f\left(S(z) \cup S\left(z^{\prime}\right)\right) \subset S(f(z))$. We shall show that this is impossible.

For some $m \in \mathbb{N}$ we shall construct a sequence $z_{0}, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{6 m+1}$ in $S(z) \cup S\left(z^{\prime}\right)$ with $\left\|z_{j-1}-z_{j}\right\|=1$ for $j=1,2, \ldots, 6 m+1$, and $z_{6 m+1}=z_{0}$. But we shall have $f\left(z_{6 m+1}\right) \neq f\left(z_{0}\right)$, a contradiction.

We shall need some facts concerning $M=S(z) \cap S\left(z^{\prime}\right)$. We know from Lemma 3 that $M$ is symmetric with respect to the point $\left(z+z^{\prime}\right) / 2$ and has two components. Each component is a closed interval. Take first the case where this interval reduces to a point, so that $M=\left\{\zeta_{1}, \zeta_{2}\right\}$. We have $\zeta_{1}+\zeta_{2}=z+z^{\prime}$, and thus

$$
\begin{align*}
2\left(z-\zeta_{1}\right) & =\left(z-z^{\prime}\right)+\left(\zeta_{2}-\zeta_{1}\right) \\
2 & \leq\left\|z-z^{\prime}\right\|+\left\|\zeta_{2}-\zeta_{1}\right\|  \tag{8}\\
1 & <\left\|\zeta_{2}-\zeta_{1}\right\| .
\end{align*}
$$

When the components of $M$ are intervals of non-zero length, the distance from any point in one component to any point in the other component is 2 .

We now choose a particular point $\zeta_{1} \in M$, namely that point where a further continuation in the positive direction along $S(z)$ would lead into $U\left(z^{\prime}\right)$.

Notation: For simplicity, when talking about points on a unit circle $S(z)$, we shall say that a point $z_{1}$ is to the left of another point $z_{2}$, if $\arg z_{1}<\arg z_{2}$, in other words, if $z_{2}$ follows $z_{1}$ when we move in the counter-clockwise direction along $S(z)$.

Our first strategy: Choose $z_{0}$ on the arc $A$ of points of $S(z)$ with distance less than 1 from and to the left of $\zeta_{1}$. Each of the following points is chosen with distance 1 from the previous point and always proceeding in the counter-clockwise direction. The point $z_{1}$ is chosen on $S\left(z^{\prime}\right) \backslash S(z)$ (according to (8) this is always possible), and the following points again on $S(z)$, until we for some $j$ have $z_{j} \in A$. Then $z_{j+1}$ is chosen on $S\left(z^{\prime}\right) \backslash S(z)$ and so on. We shall try to find values of $m$ and of $z_{0}$ with $z_{6 m+1}=z_{0}$. We shall show below that this may not always be possible, but then a modified strategy will work.

The sequence $\Psi=\left(z_{j}\right)$, chosen as indicated above, satisfies the following condition:

For $j=1,2, \ldots, 6 m$ we have $1 \leq\left\|z_{j-1}-z_{j+1}\right\| \leq 2$, which ensures that $f\left(z_{j-1}\right) \neq$ $f\left(z_{j+1}\right)$.

The condition is clearly fulfilled if the three points all belong to $S(z)$. But it is true also if $z_{j}$ belongs to $S\left(z^{\prime}\right)$. Let, for definiteness, $j=1$, and assume that $\left\|z_{0}-z_{2}\right\|<1$.

Now $z^{\prime}$ belongs to the arc from $z_{2}$ to $z_{0}$ on $S\left(z_{1}\right)$ inside $S(z)$, while $\zeta_{1}$ belongs to the arc from $z_{0}$ to $z_{2}$ on $S(z)$, but also to the arc from $z_{1}$ through $\zeta_{1}$ on $S\left(z^{\prime}\right)$. This arc intersects with the above mentioned arc on $S\left(z_{1}\right)$ from $z_{2}$ to $z_{0}$ in a point $w$. Then, according to Lemma $5,1=\left\|z^{\prime}-w\right\| \leq\left\|z_{2}-z_{0}\right\|<1$, a contradiction.

In spite of this simplification, the sequence $\Phi=\left(P_{j}\right)$, where $\forall j: P_{j}=f\left(z_{j}\right)$, of points on $S(f(z))$ can be rather irregular. In fact, we must take into account the possibility that the sequence contains turning points where, for instance, for some $j$ we have not only $\arg P_{j}>\arg P_{j-1}$, but also $\arg P_{j}>\arg P_{j+1}$ (we have here, for notational convenience, chosen $f(z)$ as the origin of the image plane). Thus even if our goal is to show that $P_{0} \neq P_{6 m+1}$, matters become less complicated if
we decide to show the more general statement that we cannot have $P_{0}=P_{2 p+1}$ for any positive integer $p$.

According to Lemma 8 the equality $P_{0}=P_{2 p+1}$ is impossible for $P=1,2,3$, if $\Phi$ does not contain turning points. To tackle the general situation, we use Lemma 9 , from which one can infer that if there are more than two possibilities for $P_{j+1}$ when $P_{j}$ is given, then $P_{j}$ must belong to an exceptional set $E$ consisting of at most four points, which we shall call $\pm R_{1}$ and $\pm R_{2}$, and then the interval $\left[O, P_{j}\right]$ is parallel to an $S$-edge of length greater than 1 . If we have chosen $p$ minimal with the property that the equality $P_{0}=P_{2 p+1}$ is possible, then clearly a turning point in $\Phi$ must belong to $E$.

For $p$ minimal (which we shall assume in the following) we discuss various cases:
First, assume that neither $P_{0}, P_{1}$, or $P_{2}$ belong to $E$. Since $S \cap S\left(P_{1}\right)$ has only two members, and one of them is $P_{0}$, according to Case 1 of Lemma 3 we have $P_{1}=P_{0}+P_{2}$. Similarly, $P_{3}=P_{2}-P_{1}=-P_{0} \notin E$. In other words, the rest of the sequence $\Phi$ can be found by using the formula (4) for all $j \geq 2$. Clearly, $\Phi$ is cyclic with period 6 , and we cannot have $P_{0}=P_{2 p+1}$.

Next, assume that there is a $j \geq 1$ with $P_{j} \in E$, but that $E$ has only two members ( $E=\left\{ \pm R_{1}\right\}$, say). Then we have a choice between $P_{j+1}=P_{j-1}+t_{j+1} P_{j}$ and $P_{j+1}=P_{j}-P_{j-1}+t_{j+1} P_{j}$. In the first case $t_{j+1}$ must be non-zero, and in both cases $1+\left|t_{j+1}\right|$ may at most equal the length of the $S$-edge to which $\left[O, P_{j}\right]$ is parallel, in particular $\left|t_{j+1}\right|<1$. In any case, $P_{j+1} / P_{j}$ cannot be real, and so $P_{j+1} \notin E$. Thus we must have $P_{j+2}=P_{j+1}-P_{j}$, which cannot belong to $E$ either, so that $P_{j+3}=P_{j+2}-P_{j+1}=-P_{j}$, which again belongs to $E$.

But then $P_{j+3 n}=(-1)^{n} P_{j}$ for all integers $n$ (also negative) with $j+3 n \geq 0$. And, according to the above, $P_{j+3 n+1}$ equals either $P_{j+3 n-1}+t_{j+3 n+1} P_{j+3 n}$ or $P_{j+3 n}-P_{j+3 n-1}+t_{j+3 n+1} P_{j+3 n}$, while $P_{j+3 n+2}=P_{j+3 n+1}-P_{j+3 n}$.

It also follows that a ratio of the form $P_{j+3 n_{1}+k} / P_{j+3 n_{2}}$, where $k=1$ or 2 , cannot be equal to 1 (it is not even real).

It suffices then, to establish the contradiction, to consider equality of two points $P_{j+6 n_{1}+k_{1}}$ and $P_{j+6 n_{2}+k_{2}}$, where $\left\{k_{1}, k_{2}\right\} \in\{\{1,4\},\{2,5\},\{1,2\},\{4,5\}\}$. In all these cases the point $P=P_{j+6 n_{1}+k_{1}}=P_{j+6 n_{2}+k_{2}}$ must have distance 1 from both points $\pm R_{1}$. But if, for instance, $P_{j+6 n+1}$ has distance 1 from $P_{j+6 n+3}$, the existence of the four points $O, P_{j+6 n+1}, P_{j+6 n+2}$, and $P_{j+6 n+3}$ contradicts Lemma 7, since, according to assumption, $S \neq$ par. A similar argument can be applied to the other cases.

The general situation when $E=\left\{ \pm R_{1}, \pm R_{2}\right\}$, is considerably more complicated.
We first note, however, that if we have three consecutive points not in $E$, then no member of $\Phi$ is contained in $E$. This follows from (4), which can also be read $P_{j-1}=P_{j}-P_{j+1}$, since $\left\{P_{j}, P_{j+1}, P_{j+2}\right\} \cap E=\emptyset$ then is seen to imply $P_{j-1}=-P_{j+2} \notin E$.

In the following we shall assume that $\Phi$ contains members of $E$.
The following observations may be of interest:
Let, for some $j, P_{j}$ and $P_{j+1}$ be outside $E$. Then, as above, two applications of (4) give $P_{j-1}=-P_{j+2}$, where now the two points $P_{j-1}$ and $P_{j+2}$ both belong to E.

For no $j$ can we have $P_{j+1} \in\left\{P_{j},-P_{j}\right\}$. This is due to the fact that $\left\|P_{j}-P_{j+1}\right\|=$ 1, since, for instance, $P_{j}+P_{j+1}=0$ would imply

$$
1=\left\|P_{j}-P_{j+1}\right\|=\left\|-2 P_{j+1}\right\|=2
$$

which, as an equality in the real number field, is untrue.
For no $j$ can we have $P_{j+2} \in\left\{P_{j},-P_{j}\right\}$. First, the equality $P_{j}=P_{j+2}$ contradicts the minimality of $p$. Secondly, the equality $P_{j}=-P_{j+2}$ would imply that the point $P_{j+1}$ should have distance 1 from the three collinear points $O$ and $\pm P_{j}$, which, according to Lemmata 1 and 4, would be incompatible with our assumption that $S \neq$ par.

More generally, for any integers $j$ and $n$ with $0 \leq j<j+2 n \leq 2 p$, we cannot have $P_{j+2 n}=P_{j}$, since this would contradict the minimality of $p$.

For no $j$ can we have $P_{j}=P_{j+3}$, since then the four points $O, P_{j}, P_{j+1}$, and $P_{j+2}$ would be the vertices of a complete unit distance graph, contradicting Lemma 7.

It follows from the above that $p \geq 2$. It is also clear that if $P_{j} \in E$ (let, for definiteness, $P_{j} \in\left\{ \pm R_{1}\right\}$ ), and $P_{j+1} \in E$ also, we must have $P_{j+1} \in\left\{ \pm R_{2}\right\}$, while then $P_{j+2}$ cannot belong to $E$ at all. Thus we can have at most two consecutive points belonging to $E$.

Another standard argument we shall use in the following, is that we cannot have

$$
\left\|P_{j}-P_{k}\right\|=\left\|P_{j}+P_{k}\right\|=1
$$

for any points $P_{j}, P_{k}$ on $S$. In fact, $P_{j}$ would then have distance 1 from each of the three collinear points $O, \pm P_{k}$, which would contradict Lemma 4 , since $S \neq$ par.

Assume that we have $P_{0}=P_{5}$.
If neither of $P_{2}, P_{3}$ were members of $E$, we would have $P_{4}=-P_{1}$. Then

$$
\left\|P_{0}-P_{1}\right\|=\left\|P_{0}+P_{1}\right\|=1
$$

an impossibility.
Assume now that both $P_{2}$ and $P_{3}$ are members of $E$. Then none of the other points are. And so we have $P_{0}=P_{1}+P_{4}$, and $P_{2}=-P_{4}$, which is impossible.

Let $P_{2} \in E$, and $P_{3} \notin E$. If $P_{4} \notin E$, we have $P_{0}=P_{5}=-P_{2}$, impossible. Otherwise $P_{4} \in E \backslash\left\{ \pm P_{2}\right\}$. Since, as we have seen, $P_{4} \neq-P_{1}$, none of the other points belongs to $E$. Then, by an argument similar to that above, $P_{2}=-P_{4}$, a contradiction.

The situation where $P_{3} \in E$, and $P_{2} \notin E$ is handled by a procedure symmetrical to that above.

This concludes the proof that $p \geq 3$.
It will be necessary to check also the cases $p=3$ and $p=4$, which is done below. That this also suffices, is seen from the following argument:

As we know, there can be a "gap" of at most two ordinary points between two exceptional points, and we cannot have two such gaps after another, since this gives a cycle of six points which can be eliminated. Thus the longest index-distance $D$ possible between two exceptional points, of which one is a repetition of the other, is $3+2+3+2=10$. Let $p \geq 5$, and let $P_{j}=P_{j+D}$ for some $j$. Then the original cycle with $2 p+1$ elements is the union of an even and an odd cycle. We can then discard the even cycle, which would contradict the minimality of $p$.

Before we embark on the detailed investigation of the two mentioned values of $p$, we mention a simple observation: we noted above that we could not have two consecutive gaps of non-exceptional points of length 2. But we cannot have two consecutive gaps of length 1 either. Assume to the contrary, that $P_{0}, P_{2}$, and $P_{4}$
belong to $E$, while $P_{1}$ and $P_{3}$ do not. Then we can put $P_{0}=R_{1}$ and $P_{2}=R_{2}$. We cannot have $P_{4}=R_{1}$, since this would give a cycle of length 4 contradicting the minimality of $p$. If we had $P_{4}=-R_{1}$, we would have $P_{1}=R_{1}+R_{2}$ and $P_{3}=R_{2}-R_{1}$, and we would get our usual contradiction in norm.

Now assume that we have a cycle of length 7 or 9 .
First, let the maximal gap be 1 (it is clear that it cannot be 0 ). We may then put $P_{0}=R_{1}$ and $P_{2}=R_{2}$. As we just showed, we cannot have $P_{3} \notin E$.

But if $P_{3} \in E$, we must have $P_{3}=-R_{1}$. Then $P_{4} \notin E$, and $P_{5} \in E$. And so $P_{5}=-R_{2}$. We cannot have $P_{6}=P_{0}$, and so $P_{6}$ cannot belong to $E$. But this is again the excluded possibility.

If the maximal gap is 2 , we again let $P_{0}=R_{1}$, while now both points $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ are outside $E$. Then $P_{3}=-R_{1}$, and we must consider two cases:

In the first case, $P_{4} \in E$. We put $P_{4}=R_{2}$. Then $P_{5}$ and $P_{6}$ are not in $E$, and $P_{7}=-R_{2}$ (excluding $P_{0}=P_{7}$ ). If $p=4$, i.e. $P_{9}=P_{0}=R_{1}$, we cannot have $P_{8} \in E$, and so $P_{8}=R_{1}-R_{2}$. But $P_{4}-P_{3}=R_{1}+R_{2}$, and we have incompatible norms.

In the second case, $P_{4} \notin E$. But $P_{5}$ must belong to $E$, and we may put $P_{5}=R_{2}$. To avoid a cycle of 6 , we cannot have $P_{6}$ in $E$. As we have seen, we cannot have $P_{7}$ in $E$ either, and so $P_{8}=-R_{2}$ (again excluding $p=3$ ). But now $P_{9}-P_{8}=R_{1}+R_{2}$, while $P_{4}=R_{2}-R_{1}$, again an impossibility.

The sequence $\Phi$ having been taken care of, we look at the sequence $\Psi=\left(z_{j}\right)$. The important thing is here that when $z_{0}$ runs through the arc $A$, we want, for a fixed vakue of $m$, the endpoint $z_{6 m+1}$ to run through a similar (connected) arc. The only difficulty is here the values of $z_{j}$ for which $z_{j+1}$ is not uniquely determined. We must then keep $z_{j}$ fixed while $z_{j+1}$ runs through the possible values. It follows from earlier results that then each succeeding $z_{k}$ (fixed $k$ ) traces a (continuous) curve.

We must give a more detailed prescription for the elements of $\Psi$. Note that the $\operatorname{arc} A$ is outside $U\left(z^{\prime}\right)$. For a given $z_{0} \in A$ we let $z_{1}$ be the point of $S\left(z^{\prime}\right)$ where $S\left(z_{0}\right)$ enters the disk $D\left(z^{\prime}\right)$. Since $S(z)$ from $\zeta_{1}$ onwards has an arc inside $S\left(z^{\prime}\right)$, and since the distance between the two components of $M$ is greater than 1 , the continuation of $S\left(z_{0}\right)$ beyond $z_{1}$ enters $S(z)$ later, at a point $z_{1}^{\prime}$.

We define the points $z_{2}=z+z_{1}-z_{0}$ and $z_{2}^{\prime}=z+z_{1}^{\prime}-z_{0}$. Both points belong to $S(z)$, and

$$
\arg \left(z_{2}-z\right)=\arg \left(z_{1}-z_{0}\right)<\arg \left(z_{1}^{\prime}-z_{0}\right)=\arg \left(z_{2}^{\prime}-z\right) .
$$

Thus, the journey $z_{0}, z_{1}, z_{2}$ is really a detour compared to $z_{0}, z_{1}^{\prime}, z_{2}^{\prime}$. This means that

$$
\arg \left(z_{6}-z\right)<\arg \left(z_{0}-z\right) .
$$

Obviously, by choosing $z_{0}$ sufficiently close to the left endpoint of $A$, we can obtain $z_{6}$ as close to $z_{0}$ as we wish. However, this is not at all what we want. We would rather that by suitable choice of $z_{0}$ we could have

$$
\arg \left(z_{7}-z\right)=\arg \left(z_{0}-z\right)
$$

as this would solve our problem with $m=1$.
But if this is not possible, then any choice of $z_{0} \in A$ yields

$$
\arg \left(z_{7}-z\right)>\arg \left(z_{0}-z\right),
$$

and either $z_{6}$ or $z_{7}$ belongs to $A$.
Let us now start with an arbitrary point $z_{0} \in A$. The points $z_{6 m} \quad(m=0,1, \ldots)$ define a monotonically decreasing sequence $\left(\arg \left(z_{6 m}-z\right)\right)$. If, for some $m$, we have $\left\|z_{6 m}-z_{0}\right\| \geq 1$, we may, by modification of $z_{0}$, obtain $z_{6 m+1}=z_{0}$.

However, there is the possibility that the sequence $\left(z_{6 m}\right)$ gets stuck at the left endpoint $a_{\text {min }}$ of $A$, and we must modify the arc $A$. The new arc is called $A^{\prime}$. It is obtained by moving $A$ somewhat in the positive direction along $S(z)$. In particular, the distance between the endpoints of $A^{\prime}$ is 1 . We must still have the distance between the right endpoint of $A^{\prime}$ and the other component of $M$ (the one that $\zeta_{1}$ does not belong to) greater than 1 . Otherwise everything works as before, except that the sequence $\left(z_{6 m}\right)$ cannot now converge towards a point in the closure of $A$, and it is possible to obtain $z_{6 m+1}=z_{0}$. In fact, if the original arc $A$ does not work, for every $z_{0} \in A$ we shall have

$$
\arg \left(a_{\min }-z\right)<\arg \left(z_{6 m}-z\right)<\arg \left(z_{0}-z\right)
$$

for all $m \in \mathbb{N}$, and $\lim _{m \rightarrow \infty} z_{6 m}=a_{m i n}$. We then define the point $a_{m i d} \in A$ as the point obtained as $z_{6}$ if $z_{0}=\zeta_{1}$. When $z_{6 m}$ traces the arc $A \backslash A^{\prime}, z_{6 m+1}$ traces the arc $A^{\prime} \backslash A$, and $z_{6 m+7}$ runs through an arc $B$ from $a_{\text {mid }}$ to a point $b_{\text {mid }}$ to its right. If we choose the point $z_{0}$ in the interior of $B$, for a certain sufficiently large $m$ we shall have $z_{6 m+7}$ to the left of $z_{0}$. Keeping $m$ constant, we let $z_{0}$ move to the left. Then also $z_{6 m}$ moves to the left, but does not get close to $a_{\text {min }}$. Thus $z_{6 m+7}$ does not approach $a_{\text {mid }}$ and so must equal $z_{0}$ at some point, q.e.d.

To simplify, origins are, in the following, chosen such that $f(0)=0$. However, for arbitrary $z_{0} \in \mathbb{C}$ we may consider the function $g(z)=f\left(z_{0}+z\right)-f\left(z_{0}\right)$. We have $g(0)=0$, and $g$ also preserves distance 1 . And so, any result arrived at for $f$ is valid for $g$. Thus we obtain the "long form" of the result, containing the extra parameter $z_{0}$.

We also have
Lemma 11. Let $z$ and $z^{\prime}$ be arbitrary points. Let the mapping $f$ preserve distance 1. Then $\left\|f(z)-f\left(z^{\prime}\right)\right\| \leq \max \left\{-\left[-\left\|z-z^{\prime}\right\|\right], 2\right\}$. If, in addition, $z$ has the property that there are arbitrary large positive numbers $N$ such that $f(N z)=N f(z)$, then $\|f(z)\| \leq\|z\|$.
Proof.
If $\left\|z-z^{\prime}\right\| \leq 2$, we can choose a point $z^{\prime \prime} \in S(z) \cap S\left(z^{\prime}\right)$. Then

$$
\left\|f(z)-f\left(z^{\prime}\right)\right\| \leq\left\|f(z)-f\left(z^{\prime \prime}\right)\right\|+\left\|f\left(z^{\prime \prime}\right)-f\left(z^{\prime}\right)\right\|=2 .
$$

Otherwise we can define the number $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n+1<\left\|z^{\prime}-z\right\| \leq n+2$ (in fact, $n=-\left[2-\left\|z^{\prime}-z\right\|\right]$ ), and the points $z^{(j)}=z+j\left(z^{\prime}-z\right) /\left\|z^{\prime}-z\right\|$ for $j=0,1, \ldots, n$. So $\left\|z^{\prime}-z^{(n)}\right\|=\left\|z^{\prime}-z\right\|-n \in(1,2]$. Then, according to the above, $\left\|f\left(z^{\prime}\right)-f\left(z^{(n)}\right)\right\| \leq 2$, and as $\left\|f(z)-f\left(z^{(n)}\right)\right\| \leq \sum_{j=1}^{n} \| f\left(z^{(j)}-f\left(z^{(j-1)}\right) \|=n\right.$, we have indeed $\left\|f(z)-f\left(z^{\prime}\right)\right\| \leq \max \left\{-\left[-\left\|z-z^{\prime}\right\|\right], 2\right\}$.

Dividing the inequality $\|f(N z)\| \leq\|N z\|+2$ by $N$, and letting $N$ tend towards infinity, we see that the second part of the lemma follows.

Let the unit circle $S$ contain the segments $[a, b]$ and $[-b,-a]$.
For simplicity, the unit circle in the image plane is also denoted $S$. We have $f(S) \subset S$, and, according to Lemma 10, the restriction to $S$ of $f$ is injective.

The following remark will be useful in the following:
Because of the local injectivity of $f$, the image of a non-empty interval $I$ has cardinality $c$, in particular contains more than two points, which may permit us to use Lemma 3 when considering mappings of intervals into intersections of unit circles.

We have $[a, b]=S \cap S(a+b)$, and so

$$
\begin{equation*}
f([a, b]) \subset S \cap S(f(a+b)) . \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus an $S$-edge $[a, b]$ is mapped into either an $S$-edge ( $[c, d]$, say) or the union of two $S$-edges $([c, d]$ and $[-d,-c])$. This is still a statement about the local properties of the mapping $f$. To go beyond this we can use the long form of (9), which can be written

$$
\begin{equation*}
f\left(\left[z_{0}+a, z_{0}+b\right]\right) \subset S\left(f\left(z_{0}\right)\right) \cap S\left(f\left(a+b+z_{0}\right)\right) . \tag{9'}
\end{equation*}
$$

We are particularly interested in putting $z_{0}=t(b-a)$, with real $t$, which would enable us to say something about the mapping by $f$ of the line through $O$ and $b-a$. If $|t|$ is small, the intervals $[a, b]$ and $\left[z_{0}+a, z_{0}+b\right]$ overlap, and so do their images. Then at least one edge of $S\left(f\left(z_{0}\right)\right)$ (namely either [ $\left.f\left(z_{0}\right)+c, f\left(z_{0}\right)+d\right]$ or $\left.\left[f\left(z_{0}\right)-d, f\left(z_{0}\right)-c\right]\right)$ overlaps with $[c, d]$, which implies that $f\left(z_{0}\right)$ belongs to either the line $L$ through $O$ parallel to $[c, d]$ or to one of the two lines parallel to $L$ in distance 2 from this line. But this is in fact true for any $z_{0}$ of the form $t(b-a)$ with real $t$. We first see by induction that such a point must have an image belonging to a line parallel to $L$ in a distance from $L$ which is an even integer. Next we consider the particular case $z_{0}=e$, where $e=(b-a) /(\|b-a\|)$. Here $e \in S$, and so $f(e)$ must belong to $L$. The point $f(2 e)$ has distance 1 from $f(e)$, is different from $O$, and belongs to $L$. But then we must have $f(2 e)=2 f(e)$. By induction we see that all points $f(n e)$ with $n$ integral belong to $L$, and that we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(n e)=n f(e) \text { for } n \in \mathbb{Z} \tag{e}
\end{equation*}
$$

Any point $t(b-a)$ with $t$ real has distance less than 1 from some point ne with $n$ integral. According to Lemma 11 its image has distance at most 2 from the point $f(n e)$ and so from the line $L$, which is what we wanted to prove.

In the following we shall meet vectors $w$ satisfying a condition $\left(10_{w}\right)$, which is just $\left(10_{e}\right)$ with $e$ replaced by $w$. Let us consider such a vector $w$. First we shall show that if $w$ can be shown to satisfy

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(-w)=-f(w), \tag{w}
\end{equation*}
$$

then $\left(10_{w}\right)$ follows.
Actually, the long form of $\left(11_{w}\right)$ can be written

$$
\begin{equation*}
f\left(z_{0}+w\right)+f\left(z_{0}-w\right)=2 f\left(z_{0}\right) . \tag{w}
\end{equation*}
$$

Put $z_{0}=(n \pm 1) w$ here to prove $\left(10_{w}\right)$ for $|n| \geq 2$ by induction.
Next, we consider the long form of $\left(10_{w}\right)$, which is

$$
\begin{equation*}
f\left(z_{0}+n w\right)-f\left(z_{0}\right)=n\left(f\left(z_{0}+w\right)-f\left(z_{0}\right)\right) \text { for } n \in \mathbb{Z} . \tag{w}
\end{equation*}
$$

Replace here $z_{0}$ with $z_{0}^{\prime}$ and take the difference between the new equation and $\left(10_{w}^{\prime}\right)$ :
(12w)

$$
\begin{aligned}
f\left(z_{0}^{\prime}+n w\right) & -f\left(z_{0}+n w\right) \\
& =f\left(z_{0}^{\prime}\right)-f\left(z_{0}\right)+n\left(\left(f\left(z_{0}^{\prime}+w\right)-f\left(z_{0}^{\prime}\right)\right)-\left(f\left(z_{0}+w\right)-f\left(z_{0}\right)\right)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

According to Lemma 11 the norm of the lhs of $\left(12_{w}\right)$ is at most $\max \left\{\left\|z_{0}-z_{0}^{\prime}\right\|+\right.$ $1,2\}$, which is independent of $n$. Thus, taking norms in $\left.\left(12_{w}\right)\right)$ and dividing by $n$ gives in the limit $n \rightarrow \infty$ that

$$
\begin{equation*}
f\left(z_{0}^{\prime}+w\right)-f\left(z_{0}^{\prime}\right)=f\left(z_{0}+w\right)-f\left(z_{0}\right) \tag{w}
\end{equation*}
$$

i.e. $f\left(z_{0}+w\right)-f\left(z_{0}\right)$ is independent of $z_{0}$ and so equals $f(w)$. More generally,

$$
\begin{equation*}
f\left(z_{0}+n w\right)=f\left(z_{0}\right)+n f(w) \text { for } n \in \mathbb{Z} \tag{w}
\end{equation*}
$$

We now consider a special point $z_{1}$, characterized by the equations

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\|z_{1}\right\|=\left\|z_{1}+e\right\|=1 \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

Actually any point in the intersection $M=S \cap S(-e)$ can be taken for $z_{1}$. However, only in the case where $\|b-a\|>1$ does $M$ consist of more than two points. If $z_{1}$ satisfies (15) then also $z_{1}^{\prime}=-z_{1}-e$ does. Using (14e) with $n=1$, the image of $z_{1}$ satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\|f\left(z_{1}\right)\right\|=\left\|f\left(z_{1}\right)+f(e)\right\|=1 \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus $f(M)$ belongs to a set $N=S \cap S(-f(e))$. In particular, because of the local injectivity of $f$, we must have $\|d-c\|>1$, if $\|b-a\|>1$.

If $\|d-c\| \leq 1$ (implying $\|b-a\| \leq 1$ ), and if $f\left(z_{1}\right)$ is a solution of $(16),-f\left(z_{1}\right)-$ $f(e)$ is the other one. But then injectivity implies that

$$
\begin{equation*}
f\left(-z_{1}-e\right)=-f\left(z_{1}\right)-f(e) \text { i.e. } f\left(-z_{1}\right)=-f\left(z_{1}\right) \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

and so $\left(14_{z_{1}}\right)$ is satisfied.
A similar analysis can be carried through for all $S$-edges. One of the implications of the results above is that the direction of the pair of $S$-edges into which the edge $[a, b]$ is mapped, is determined by $\pm f(e)$. Taken together with the injectivity of the restriction of $f$ to $S$, this means that the edge $[-b,-a]$ is mapped into the same pair of edges $\pm[c, d]$ as $[a, b]$, while any other edge-pair is mapped into a different edgepair. Actually (see $\left(14_{e}\right)$ ), any line parallel to $[a, b]$ is mapped into a line parallel to $[c, d]$. We can say that $f$ induces an injection of the set of pairs of $S$-edges into the set of pairs of $S$-edges. We also saw that the set of pairs of $S$-edges longer than 1 were mapped into the similar set of edge-pairs.

We shall say that a point $z$ on $S$ is of type 1 if it has the properties of points $z_{1}$ and $z_{1}+e$ above, i.e. if there is a point $z^{\prime} \in S$ such that $\left\|z-z^{\prime}\right\|=1$, with $z-z^{\prime}$ parallel to an $S$-edge which is mapped into a pair of $S$-edges of length equal to or less than 1 . The point $z$ will then satisfy the equation $\left(14_{z}\right)$.

A point $z \in S$ will be said to be of type 2 if it has the properties of points $z_{1}$ and $z_{1}+e$ above, but if the corresponding $S$-edge has length greater than 1. Here both $z$ an $z^{\prime}$ belong to the $S$-edge.

The remaining points on $z \in S$ will be said to be of type 3 . Let $z^{\prime} \in S$ be a point with distance 1 from such a point $z$. Put $z^{\prime \prime}=z-z^{\prime}$. Then $\left\|z^{\prime \prime}\right\|=\left\|z^{\prime \prime}-z\right\|=1$, and $z^{\prime \prime} \neq z^{\prime}$. Furthermore, $\left\|-z^{\prime}\right\|=\left\|z^{\prime \prime}-\left(-z^{\prime}\right)\right\|=1$, and we see that the hexagon with vertices $z^{\prime}, z, z^{\prime \prime},-z^{\prime},-z$, and $-z^{\prime \prime}$ is inscribed in $S$ and has all sidelengths equal to 1 . Now consider the images of these points. We have $\|f(z)\|=\left\|f\left(z^{\prime}\right)\right\|=$ $\left\|f\left(z^{\prime}\right)-f(z)\right\|=1$. Since we have required that the image plane should have the same metric (in fact the same $S$ ) as the original plane, the injection of the (finite!) set of $S$-edges of length greater than 1 into the similar set of $S$-edges is in fact a bijection. Thus, if, for instance, the vector $f\left(z^{\prime}\right)$ were parallel to a long $S$-edge $[c, d]$, it would be equal to the image of one of the two unit vectors $\pm e$ parallel to the corresponding long $S$-edge $[a, b]$. Because of the injectivity of $f$ on $S$, this would give $z^{\prime}= \pm e$, and so $z-z^{\prime \prime}$ should be parallel to a long $S$-edge, contrary to the definition of type 3 points. Thus the image of the mentioned regular inscribed hexagon is again a regular inscribed hexagon, and we have $f(-z)=-f(z)$, so that $\left(14_{z}\right)$ is valid also for points $z$ of type 3.

Since all $S$-edges have length less than 2 (otherwise $S$ would be a parallelogram), there is, on each $S$-edge $[a, b]$ of length greater than 1, an interval $I$ of non-zero length containing the midpoint $(a+b) / 2$, such that each point in $I$ is of type 1 or 3 . We shall use this later.

We have
Theorem 1. We can find a linear transformation $\phi$ such that $\phi(f(z))=z$ for all points $z \in S$.

Proof.
The set of points whose type is 1 or 3 , has cardinality $c$. Choose two of them ( $w_{1}$ and $w_{2}$ ) as basis over the reals. Let $z$ be an arbitrary point of type 1 or 3 . We then have an expansion

$$
\begin{equation*}
z=a_{1} w_{1}+a_{2} w_{2} \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

with real numbers $a_{1}$ and $a_{2}$.
If these numbers are rational, (18) can be rewritten as

$$
\begin{equation*}
d z=n_{1} w_{1}+n_{2} w_{2} \tag{18'}
\end{equation*}
$$

with integers $d, n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$. Using $\left(14_{w}\right)$ with $w=z, w_{1}$, or $w_{2}$, we find that

$$
\begin{equation*}
d f(z)=n_{1} f\left(w_{1}\right)+n_{2} f\left(w_{2}\right), \tag{18"}
\end{equation*}
$$

so that in this case the linear relation (18) is inherited by the images.
But this is, as we shall see, true in general. Starting from (18) we use a well known argument which runs as follows:

We define the function $g$ from $\mathbb{N}$ into $[0,1]^{2}$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(q)=\left(q a_{1}-\left[q a_{1}\right], q a_{2}-\left[q a_{2}\right]\right) . \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

Dividing $[0,1]^{2}$ into $N^{2}$ subsquares of the form $[(p-1) / N, p / N] \times[(k-1) / N, k / N]$ we see that we can choose a subsquare such that it contains two points $g\left(q_{1}\right)$ and $g\left(q_{2}\right)$ with $1 \leq q_{1}<q_{2} \leq N^{2}+1$. Thus

$$
\left\|\left(q_{1}-q_{2}\right) z-\left(\left[q_{1} a_{1}\right]-\left[q_{2} a_{1}\right]\right) w_{1}-\left(\left[q_{1} a_{2}\right]-\left[q_{2} a_{2}\right]\right) w_{2}\right\| \leq(1 / N)\left(\left\|w_{1}\right\|+\left\|w_{2}\right\|\right)
$$

This means that we can find a sequence of triples $\left(m_{N}, n_{N}, p_{N}\right)$ of integers, such that the sequence $t_{N}=m_{N} w_{1}+n_{N} w_{2}+p_{N} z$ tends towards zero. The same is, according to the second part of Lemma 11, true for the sequence of numbers $f\left(t_{N}\right)$, and even faster for the sequence $f\left(t_{N}\right) / p_{N}$, which, in the limit $N \rightarrow \infty$, proves our point.

Thus if the linear mapping $\phi$ is chosen such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi(f(w))=w \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

for the two basis points, this equation is valid also for the rest of the points.
Consider now a point $z$ of type 2 . Let it belong to an interval $[a, b]$ of length greater than 1 , and let $I=(b-e, a+e)$ be the interval, contained in $[a, b]$, of points of type 1 or 3 . Here $e=(b-a) /\|b-a\|$. The length of $I$ is $2-\|b-a\|$.

Let $z \in[a, b] \backslash I$.
Define the positive integer

$$
n=[\|z-(a+b) / 2\| /(2-\|b-a\|)]+1 .
$$

It is then possible to find two points $d_{1}$ and $d_{2}$ in $I$ such that

$$
\left\|d_{2}-d_{1}\right\|=\|z-(a+b) / 2\| / n
$$

and such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
z=(a+b) / 2+n\left(d_{2}-d_{1}\right) . \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using the relevant equations $\left(14_{w}\right)$ and (21) we see that $\left(11_{z}\right)$ and thus $\left(14_{z}\right)$ is true. We can then repeat the argument above for points of type 2 . We conclude that (20) is satisfied for all $z \in S$.

Finally we have
Theorem 2. The Beckman-Quarles Theorem is valid for any normed plane, except when the set of points with norm equal to one is a parallelogram.
Proof. Any point in the plane is a sum of points belonging to $S$ (see, for instance, the proof of Lemma 11). Thus, with the notation of Theorem 1, the mapping $\phi \circ f$ is simply the identity, q.e.d.

## Concluding remarks

When I, during a visit at Université de Montréal in 1974, discussed the construction of Figure 1 with Hwang, he said that he thought he had seen it before. I think that he was right, and that most of the lemmata proved in the present paper are probably what is commonly called "folklore". Nevertheless, I think it is a good thing to have proper proofs published (I have later seen that many of these simple truths have been published by Chilakamarri (see [3])). However my main theorem is, as far as I know, not "well known" and not earlier published.

This paper was slightly modified on 16 July 2014.

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