# EXTREMAL ELEMENTS OF THE CONVEX CONE OF SEMI-NORMS 

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1. Introduction. Let $L$ be a real linear space and let $p$ be a real function on $L$ such that (1) $p(\lambda x)=|\lambda| p(x)$ for all $x$ in $L$ and all real $\lambda$, and $p\left(x_{1}+x_{2}\right) \leqq p\left(x_{1}\right)+p\left(x_{2}\right)$ for all $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ in $L$, i.e. is a semi-norm on $L$. Since the sum of two semi-norms, $p_{1}+p_{2}$ and the positive scalar multiplication of a semi-norm, $\lambda p, \lambda>0$ are seminorms, the set of semi-norms on $L, C$ form a convex cone. Those $p \in C$ such that if $p=p_{1}+p_{2}$ where $p_{1}$ and $p_{2} \in C$ we have $p_{1}$ and $p_{2}$ proportional to $p$ are extremal element of $C$, [1]. In this paper it is shown that $p=|f|$, where $f$ is a real linear functional of $L$ is an extremal element of $C$. For $L$, the plane it is shown that these are the only extremal elements of $C$. Since norms are semi-norms, $C$ includes this interesting class of functionals.
2. The main results. The convex cone $C$ and the convex cone $-C$, the negatives of the elements of $C$ have only the zero seminorm in common since semi-norms are nonnegative. The zero seminorm is an extremal element if one wishes to allow in the definition the vertex of a convex cone to be an extremal element. Below only the nonzero elements are considered.

The following lemma which characterizes the nature of certain semi-norms will be used in obtaining the two main theorems.

Lemma 1. If $p$ is a semi-norm on $L$ such that the co-dimension. of $N(p)=1$, then $p$ is of the form $p=|f|$ where $f$ is a linear functional on $L$.

Proof. Let $b \in L \backslash N(p)$, where $N(p)$ is the null space of $p$. Then any element $x \in L$ can be written $x=z+\lambda b$ where $z \in N(p)$ and $\lambda$ is real. Let $f(x)=\lambda p(b)$. Then clearly $f$ is a linear functional on $L$. It shall now be shown that $|f(x)|=p(x)$ for all $x \in L$. Notice that

$$
|f(x)|=|f(z+\lambda b)|=|\lambda p(b)|=|\lambda| p(b) .
$$

Thus

$$
|f(x)|=p(\lambda b)=p(z)+p(\lambda b) \geqq p(z+\lambda b)=p(x)
$$

The proof will be complete if it can be shown that the inequality
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cannot be a strict inequality for $\lambda \neq 0$.
Consider the case of the strict inequality occurring at $z^{\prime}+\lambda_{0} b$ where $\lambda_{0}>0$ and $z^{\prime} \in N(p)$. The set $U=\left\{x: p(x) \leqq \lambda_{0} p(b)\right\}$ is a convex circled set containing $N(p)$ and $\lambda_{0} b$. It follows that there exists $\gamma \geqq 1$ such that

$$
\dot{p}\left(\gamma\left(z^{\prime}+\lambda_{0} b\right)\right)=\gamma \dot{p}\left(z^{\prime}+\lambda_{0} b\right)=\lambda_{0} p(b)
$$

and hence $\gamma\left(z^{\prime}+\lambda_{0} b\right) \in U$. Take $\beta=(\gamma(1-\alpha)) / \alpha$ where $\alpha=(\gamma-1) /(2 \gamma)$. Then $0<\alpha<1$ and

$$
\alpha\left[\beta\left(-z^{\prime}\right)\right]+(1-\alpha)\left[\gamma\left(z^{\prime}+\lambda_{0} b\right)\right]=(1-\alpha) \gamma \lambda_{0} b
$$

belongs to $U$ since $-z^{\prime}$ and $\gamma\left(z^{\prime}+\lambda_{0} b\right) \in U$ and $U$ is convex. Now

$$
p\left((1-\alpha) \gamma \lambda_{0} b\right)=(1-\alpha) \gamma p\left(\lambda_{0} b\right)>\lambda_{0} p(b)
$$

since $(1-\alpha) \gamma=(1 / 2)(1+\gamma)>1$, a contradiction since $(1-\alpha) \gamma \lambda_{0} b \in U$. Thus $|f(x)|=p(x)$ for $\lambda_{0}>0$. Now for the case $\lambda_{0}<0$ it follows from the above

$$
|f(x)|=\left|f\left(z+\lambda_{0} b\right)\right|=\left|-f\left(-z-\lambda_{0} b\right)\right|=\left|f\left(-z-\lambda_{0} b\right)\right|
$$

and

$$
\left|f\left(-z-\lambda_{0} b\right)\right|=p\left(-z-\lambda_{0} b\right)=p\left(z+\lambda_{0} b\right)
$$

Thus $p(x)=|f(x)|$ for all $x \in L$.
It is now possible to prove the following theorem which shows that the absolute value of a real linear functional is an extremal element of $C$.

Theorem 1. If $f$ is a real linear functional on $L$, then $|f|$ is an extremal element of $C$.

Proof. It is easy to check that $|f|$ is subadditive and absolutely homogeneous and hence $|f| \in C$.

Suppose $|f|=p_{1}+p_{2}$ where $p_{1}$ and $p_{2} \in C$. Since $p_{1}$ and $p_{2}$ are nonnegative $0 \leqq p_{i} \leqq|f|, i=1$, 2 . Thus when $f(x)=0, p_{i}(x)=0$, $i=1,2$ and $N(f) \subset N\left(p_{i}\right), i=1,2$. Hence the co-dimension of $p_{1}$ and $p_{2}$ is less than or equal to one. If the co-dimension of $N\left(p_{1}\right)$ is zero, then clearly $p_{1}$ and $p_{2}$ are proportional to $|f|$. If the codimension of $N\left(p_{1}\right)$ is one then by Lemma 1 , there exists a real linear functional $f_{1}$ such that $p_{1}=\left|f_{1}\right|$. Since $N\left(f_{1}\right)=N\left(p_{1}\right) \supset N(f)$ it follows that $\lambda_{1} f=f_{1}$ for some real $\lambda_{1} \neq 0$. Hence $\left|\lambda_{1}\right||f|=p_{1}$. Thus $p_{1}$ (and consequently $p_{2}$ ) is proportioned to $|f|$, and hence $|f|$ is an extremal element of $C$.

The following theorem shows that for the case $L=E^{2}$, the Euclidean plane, the only extremal elements for $C$ are the seminorms given in Theorem 1.

Theorem 2. Let $L=E^{2}$, then if $p$ is an extremal element of $C$, there exists a linear functional $f$ on $L$ such that $p=|f|$.

In order to prove this theorem it will be necessary to show that for $p$ a semi-norm on $L$ and $p$ not of the form $p=|f|$ then there exists semi-norms $p_{1}$ and $p_{2}$ on $L$ such that $p=p_{1}+p_{2}$ and $p_{1}$ (and consequently $p_{2}$ ) is not proportional to $p$.

It follows from Lemma 1 that for a semi-norm $p$ on $L$ to not be of the form $|f|$, where $f$ is a linear functional on $L$ that the codimension of $N(p)$ must be greater than one. Hence for arbitrary $L$ and $p$ an extremal element of $C$ other than those of Theorem 1, then $p$ must have the co-dimension of $N(p)>1$. For $L=E^{2}$ and $p \in C$ such that the co-dimension of $N(p)>1$, then $p$ is a norm. Thus for the proof of Theorem 2 a non-proportional decomposition must be provided for all norms on $E^{2}$.

For $p$ a norm on $E^{2}=\left\{\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)\right\}$, the unit ball $U(p)=\{x: p(x) \leqq 1\}$ is a convex circled set containing the origin as a core point. There is no loss in generality in assuming that the segment $(-1,0),(1,0)$ is a diameter of $U(p)$. This will mean that $U(p)$ is contained in the closed unit disk with center at the origin. Let $b_{p}\left(x_{1}\right)=\sup \left\{x_{2}:\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)\right.$ $\in U(p)\}$, the function giving the upper boundary of $U(p)$. Then $b_{p}$ is a concave function on $[-1,1]$ and $b_{p}(+1)=0$. The lower boundary is given by $b_{p}^{\prime}\left(x_{1}\right)=-b_{p}\left(-x_{1}\right)$ since $p(-x)=p(x)$. The next lemma gives a non-proportional decomposition of norms $p$ such that the set $U(p)$ is a parallelogram.

Lemma 2. Let $p$ be a norm on $E^{2}$ such that $b_{p}\left(a_{1}\right)=b_{1}>0$ for some $a_{1},-1 \leqq a_{1} \leqq 1$ and $b\left(x_{1}\right)$ is linear on $\left[-1, a_{1}\right]$ and on $\left[a_{1}, 1\right]$, then $p$ is not an extremal element of $C$.

Proof. Let $p_{1}\left(\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)\right)=\left(1 / b_{1}\right)\left|b_{1} x_{1}-a_{1} x_{1}\right|$ and let $p_{2}\left(\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)\right)=$ $\left(1 / b_{1}\right)\left|x_{2}\right|$. Then $p_{1}$ and $p_{2} \in C$ since they are positive multiples of the absolute values of linear functionals. In order to see $f=p_{1}+p_{2}$ it is sufficient to show that $p_{1}\left(\left(x_{1}, b_{p}\left(x_{1}\right)\right)\right)+p_{2}\left(\left(x_{1}, b_{p}\left(x_{1}\right)\right)\right)=1$ for all $x_{1} \in[-1,1]$. This can be easily checked directly by substituting in the equations of the appropriate straight lines for $b_{p}$. Clearly $p_{1}$ and $p_{2}$ are not proportional to $p$.

The next lemma will give a non-proportional decomposition of a norm $p$ such that the set $U(p)$ is a six-sided polygon.

Lemma 3. Let $p$ be $a$ norm on $E^{2}$ such that $b_{p}\left(a_{i}\right)=b_{i}>0$,
$i=1,2$, where $-1<a_{1}<a_{2}<1$ and $b_{p}$ is linear on $\left[-1, a_{1}\right]$, $\left[a_{1}, a_{2}\right]$ and on $\left[a_{2}, 1\right]$, then $p$ is not an extremal element of $C$.

Proof. Let $p_{i}\left(\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)\right)=\alpha_{i}\left|a_{i} x_{2}-b_{i} x_{1}\right|, i=1,2$ and let $p_{3}\left(\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)\right)$ $=\alpha_{3}\left|x_{2}\right|$ where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \alpha_{1}=\left(b_{2} / \Delta\right)\left(b_{1}-b_{2}+\left|b_{2} a_{1}-a_{2} b_{1}\right|\right) \\
& \alpha_{2}=\left(b_{1} / \Delta\right)\left(b_{2}-b_{1}+\left|b_{2} a_{1}-a_{2} b_{1}\right|\right), \\
& \alpha_{3}=\left(\left(\left|b_{2} a_{1}-a_{2} b_{1}\right|\right) / \Delta\right)\left(b_{1}+b_{2}-\left|b_{2} a_{1}-a_{2} b_{1}\right|\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\Delta=2 b_{1} b_{2}\left|b_{2} a_{1}-a_{2} b_{1}\right|
$$

Then $p=p_{1}+p_{2}+p_{3}$ gives a non-proportional decomposition of $p$.
Although an extension of this method will not be used in the proof of Theorem 2 it is worth noting at this point that this method of decomposing $p$ can be used on any norm $p$ such that $U(p)$ is a polygon. For a polygon with $2 n+2$ sides then $b_{p}(x)$ is a concave polygonal function having vertices at $\left\{\left(a_{i}, b_{i}\right)\right\}, i=1,2, \cdots, n$ where: $b_{i}>0$ and $-1<a_{1}<a_{2}<\cdots<a_{n}<1$. In this case set.

$$
p(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i}\left|a_{i} x_{2}-b_{i} x_{1}\right|+\alpha_{n+1}\left|x_{2}\right|
$$

By substituting each of the points $\left(a_{i}, b_{i}\right), i=1,2, \cdots, n$ and $(1,0)$. in this equation we have $n+1$ linear equations in $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \cdots, \alpha_{n+1}$ since $p\left(\left(a_{i}, b_{i}\right)\right)=p((1,0))=1$ for all $i$. By solving for the $\alpha_{i}$ and nothing that they are nonnegative we get the required decomposition of $p$. Notice that $p$ is a finite sum of extremal elements of $C$.

For any norm $p$ on $E^{2}$ such that $U(p)$ is not a polygon of less than six sides, that is $p$ is a norm different from those considered in Lemmas 2 and 3 , then there exist points of $E^{2}, x^{(1)}=\left(a_{1}, b_{p}\left(a_{1}\right)\right)$, $x^{(2)}=\left(a_{2}, b_{p}\left(a_{2}\right)\right),-1 \leqq a_{1}<a_{2} \leqq 1, a_{2}-a_{1}<2$ such that $b_{p}$ is not piecewise linear on [ $a_{1}, a_{2}$ ] on three or fewer non-overlapping segments whose union is $\left[a_{1}, a_{2}\right]$. This means that $p$ restricted to the line segment $\left[x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}\right]$ is a strictly positive convex function that is not. piecewise linear on three or fewer non-overlapping segments whoseunion is $\left[x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}\right]$.

Let $C_{12}$ be the convex cone in $E^{2}$ with vertex at the origin that. is generated by $\left[x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}\right]$ and let $-C_{12}$ be the negatives of the vectors. in $C_{12}$. Let $U\left(p^{\prime}\right)$ be the closed convex hull of $U(p) \backslash\left(C_{12} \cup\left(-C_{12}\right)\right)$. Let $t_{1}$ and $t_{2}$ be the tangent half-lines to $U(p)$ at $x^{(1)}$ and $x^{(2)}$ respectively. These tangent half-lines are to be taken from the interior of $C_{12}$. Their intersection $x^{(3)}$ will be a point in $C_{12}$. Let $U\left(p^{\prime \prime}\right)$ be the closed convex circled set whose boundary $U(p) \backslash\left(C_{12} \cup\left(-C_{12}\right)\right)$ is the same as $U(p)$ and whose boundary in $C_{12}$ is $\left[x^{(1)}, x^{(3)}\right] \cup\left[x^{(3)}, x^{(2)}\right]$.

Let $p^{\prime}$ and $p^{\prime \prime}$ be the semi-norms whose unit ball is $U\left(p^{\prime}\right)$ and $U\left(p^{\prime \prime}\right)$ respectively. Since $U\left(p^{\prime}\right) \subset U(p) \subset U\left(p^{\prime \prime}\right)$ we have $p^{\prime}(x) \leqq p(x) \leqq p^{\prime \prime}(x)$ for all $x \in E^{2}$. Then if there exist semi-norms $q_{1}$ and $q_{2}$ on $E^{2}$ such that $p^{\prime}(x) \leqq q_{i}(x) \leqq p^{\prime \prime}(x), \quad i=1,2$ for all $x \in E^{2}$ and such that on $C_{12} \cup\left(-C_{12}\right)$,

$$
\alpha q_{1}(x)+(1-\alpha) q_{2}(x)=p(x)
$$

$0<\alpha<1$, $q_{1}$ (and hence $q_{2}$ ) is not equal to $p$ on $C_{12} \cup\left(-C_{12}\right)$, then $p_{1}=\alpha q_{1}$ and $p_{2}=(1-\alpha) q_{2}$ will be semi-norms on $E^{2}$ such that $p_{1}+p_{2}=p$ and $p_{i}, i=1,2$ is not proportional to $p$. Thus the problem reduces to showing the existence of these semi-norms $q_{1}$ and $q_{2}$.

Notice that it must be that $q_{1}(x)=q_{2}(x)=p(x)$ on $E^{2} \backslash$ $\left(C_{12} \cup\left(-C_{12}\right)\right)$ and hence it remains to show that the definition of $q_{1}$ and $q_{2}$ can be satisfactorily extended as required above to all of $E^{2}$. If $q_{i}, i=1,2$, restricted to the closed line segment $\left[x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}\right]$ is defined to be a convex function such that $q_{i} \neq p$ restricted to this same segment but agreeing with $p$ at $x^{(1)}$ and $x^{(2)}$ and $q_{i} \geqq p^{\prime}$ restricted to this same segment then $q_{i}$ can be extended to a seminorm on $E^{2}$. Consider the following: For $x \in C_{12}, x \neq 0$, there is a $\lambda>0$ such that $\lambda x$ belongs to $\left[x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}\right]$. Then take $q_{i}(x)=(1 / \lambda) q_{i}(\lambda x)$. For $x \in\left(-C_{12}\right)$ take $q_{i}(x)=q_{i}(-x)$ and take $q_{i}(0)=0$. Now $U\left(q_{i}\right)$ is a closed convex circled set since the central projection of a convex curve is convex. Hence $q_{i}$ is a semi-norm. Notice $U\left(p^{\prime}\right) \subset U\left(q_{i}\right) \subset U\left(p^{\prime \prime}\right)$ and thus $p^{\prime}(x) \leqq q_{i}(x) \leqq p^{\prime \prime}(x), \quad i=1,2$ and $x \in E^{2}$. Notice also that the slopes of the half-tangents to $q_{i}, i=1,2$ restricted to $\left[x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}\right]$ are finite even at the end-points. The possibility of defining $q_{i}$, $i=1,2$ on $\left[x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}\right]$ as required above is assured by the following lemma.

Lemma 4. Let $f$ be a real convex function on $[a, b]$ such that the right-hand derivative at $a, f_{+}^{\prime}(a)$ and the left-hand derivative at $b, f_{-}^{\prime}(b)$ are finite. Suppose further that $f$ is not piecewise linear on three or fewer non-overlapping segments whose union is $[a, b]$. Then there exist real convex functions $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ on $[a, b]$ that differ from $f$ on $[a, b]$, but have the same values and derivatives as $f$ at the end-points and for some $\alpha, 0<\alpha<1, \alpha f_{1}(x)=(1-\alpha) f_{2}(x)+$ $f(x)$ for all $x \in[a, b]$

Proof. Let $h(x)=f_{+}^{\prime}(a)(x-a)+f(a)$. Then $F=(1 / m)(f-h)$, where $m$ is the left-hand derivative of $f-h$ at $b$, is a nonnegative convex function on $[a, b]$ such that $F(a)=0, \quad F_{+}^{\prime}(a)=0$, and $F_{-}^{\prime \prime}(b)=1$. The right-hand derivative of $F, F_{+}^{\prime}$ is a nondecreasing right continuous function on $[a, b]$. Let $F_{+}^{\prime}$ be defined at by $F_{+}^{\prime}(b)=F_{-}^{\prime}(b)$. Since $f$ is not piecewise linear on three or fewer
non-overlapping segments whose union is $[a, b]$ then the range of $F_{+}^{\prime}$ has at least four values, that is two besides 0 and 1 . If there exist two non-decreasing right continuous functions $F_{i}, i=1,2$ on $[a, b]$ such that $F_{i}(\alpha)=0, F_{i}(b)=1, F_{i} \neq F_{+}^{\prime}$ on some subinterval of $[a, b]$,

$$
\alpha F_{1}(x)+(1-\alpha) F_{2}(x)=F_{+}^{\prime}(x),
$$

$0<\alpha<1$ on $[a, b]$, and

$$
\int_{a}^{b} F_{i}(x) d x=\int_{a}^{b} F_{+}^{\prime}(x) d x
$$

then the required functions $f_{i}$ are given by

$$
f_{i}(x)=h(x)+m \int_{a}^{x} F_{i}(t) d t,
$$

$i=1,2$.
Consider first the case of $F_{\neq}^{\prime \prime}$ having at least three discontinuities. Let $F_{+}^{\prime}$ have positive jump discontinuities of $\theta_{i}$ at $c_{i}, i=1,2,3$ where $a<c_{1}<c_{2}<c_{3}<b$. Take $\theta=(1 / 2) \min \left(\theta_{1}, \theta_{2}, \theta_{3}\right)$. Let

$$
F_{1}(x)=F_{+}^{\prime}(x)-\sigma_{1},
$$

when $e_{1} \leqq x<c_{2}$,

$$
F_{1}(x)=F_{+}^{\prime}(x)+\sigma_{2},
$$

when $c_{2} \leqq x<c_{3}$, and $F_{1}(x)=F_{+}^{\prime}(x)$ elsewhere ; and let

$$
F_{2}(x)=F_{+}^{\prime}(x)+\sigma_{1},
$$

when $c_{1} \leqq x<c_{2}$,

$$
F_{2}(x)=F_{+}^{\prime}(x)-\sigma_{2},
$$

when $c_{2} \leqq x<c_{3}$, and $F_{2}(x)=F_{+}^{\prime}(x)$ elsewhere. Take $\sigma_{i}, i=1 ; \mathbf{2}$ such that $0<\sigma_{i}<\theta, \sigma_{1}\left(c_{2}-c_{1}\right)=\sigma_{2}\left(c_{3}-c_{2}\right)$. It follows that $F_{1}$ and $F_{2}$ satisfy the above requirement for $\alpha=(1 / 2)$.

Now for the case where $F_{+}^{\prime}$ has less than three points of discontinuity it follows from the condition that $F_{+}^{\prime}$ has at least four range values that there exists a subinterval of $[a, b]$ on which $F_{+}^{\prime}$ is continuous and non-constant. If now $F_{1}$ and $F_{2}$ can be defined on $\left[a_{1}, b_{1}\right]$ as it was required that they be on $[a, b]$ then $F_{1}$ and $F_{2}$ can be extended to $[a, b]$ by taking $F_{1}(x)=F_{2}(x)=F_{+}^{\prime}(x)$ for $x \in[a, b] \backslash\left[a_{1}, b_{1}\right]$. It will follow that $F_{1}$ and $F_{2}$ obtained in this manner satisfy the above requirements. Thus it is sufficient to show the existence of $F_{1}$ and $F_{2}$ where $F_{+}^{\prime}$ is continuous on $[a, b]$.

Let us perform one further simplification. Let $\bar{\alpha}=\sup \left\{x: F_{+}^{\prime}(x)=0\right\}$ and let $\bar{b}=\inf \left\{x: F_{+}^{\prime}(x)=1\right\}$. Then $a \leqq \bar{a}<\bar{b} \leqq b$. Since $F_{1}$ and $F_{2}$ are non-decreasing, $F_{i}(a)=0$, and $F_{i}(b)=1$, and since $\alpha F_{1}+(1-\alpha) F_{2}=$ $F_{+}^{\prime}$ it follows that $F_{i}(x)=0$ on $[a, \bar{a}]$ and $F_{i}(x)=1$ on $[\bar{b}, b], \mathrm{i}=1,2$. Thus we may assume that $0<F_{+}^{\prime}(x)<1$ on the interior of the interval of definition. Take the interval $[\bar{a}, \bar{b}]$ to be $[0,1]$ since there is no loss in generality in doing so.

The problem is now reduced to the following: Given $F$ (instead of $F_{+}^{\prime}$ for simplicity) a continuous non-decreasing function on $[0,1]$ such that $F(0)=0, F(1)=1$ and $0<F(x)<1$ for $0<x<1$. Show that there exist two functions $F_{1}$ and $F_{2}$ that have the same properties as $F$ but are not $F$ (that is, they differ from $F$ at one point) and such that for some $\alpha, 0<\alpha<1, \alpha F_{1}+(1-\alpha) F_{2}=F$ and such that

$$
\int_{0}^{1} F_{i} d x=\int_{0}^{1} F d x
$$

$i=1,2$. Take $\eta_{1}, \eta_{2}, \eta_{3}$ such that $0<\eta_{1}<\eta_{2}<\eta_{3}<1$ and let $\xi_{i}$, $i=1,2,3$ be such that $F\left(\xi_{i}\right)=\eta_{i}$. Then let

$$
F_{1}(x)=\left(\eta_{2} / \eta_{1}\right) \min \left(F(x), \eta_{1}\right)
$$

when $0 \leqq x \leqq \xi_{2}$ and

$$
F_{1}(x)=\left(\left(1-\eta_{2}\right) /\left(1-\eta_{3}\right)\right)\left(\max \left(F(x), \eta_{3}\right)-\eta_{3}\right)+\eta_{2}
$$

when $\xi_{2}<x \leqq 1$. Let

$$
F_{2}(x)=\left(\eta_{2} /\left(\eta_{2}-\eta_{1}\right)\right)\left(\max \left(F(x), \eta_{1}\right)-\eta_{1}\right),
$$

when $0 \leqq x \leqq \xi_{2}$ and

$$
F_{2}(x)=\left(\left(1-\eta_{2}\right) /\left(\eta_{3}-\eta_{2}\right)\right)\left(\min \left(F(x), \eta_{3}\right)-\eta_{2}\right)+\eta_{2}
$$

when $\xi_{2}<x \leqq 1$. Now $F_{1}$ and $F_{2}$ are continuous non-decreasing on $[0,1]$ such that $F_{i}(0)=0, F_{i}(1)=1, i=1,2$ and $F_{i} \neq F$. Then

$$
\left(\eta_{1} / \eta_{2}\right) F_{1}+\left(\left(\eta_{2}-\eta_{1}\right) / \eta_{2}\right) F_{2}=F
$$

on $\left[0, \xi_{2}\right]$ and

$$
\left(\left(1-\eta_{3}\right) /\left(1-\eta_{2}\right)\right) F_{1}+\left(\left(\eta_{3}-\eta_{2}\right) /\left(1-\eta_{2}\right)\right) F_{2}=F
$$

on $\left(\xi_{2}, 1\right)$. Take $\eta_{1}=(1 / 2) \eta_{2}$ and $\eta_{3}=(1 / 2)\left(1+\eta_{2}\right)$. Then it follows that $f=(1 / 2) F_{1}+(1 / 2) F_{2}$ on $[0,1]$, with $\eta_{2}$ arbitrary. It remains only to be shown that $\eta_{2}$ can be chosen such that

$$
\int_{0}^{1} F_{i} d x=\int_{0}^{1} F d x
$$

$i=1,2$ but this is assured if there exists a $\xi_{2}, 0<\xi_{2}<1$ such that

$$
G\left(\xi_{2}\right)=\int_{0}^{\xi_{2}}\left(F_{1}-F\right) d x=\int_{\xi_{2}}^{1}\left(F-F_{1}\right) d x=H\left(\xi_{2}\right)
$$

It can easily be checked that $G(0)=H(1)=0, G$ is a not identically zero non-decreasing continuous function on $[0,1)$ and $H$ is a not identically zero non-increasing continuous function on $(0,1]$. Hence there exists $\xi_{2}, 0<\xi_{2}<1$ such that $G\left(\xi_{2}\right)=H\left(\xi_{2}\right)$.
3. Remarks. The argument in $E^{2}$ that shows that the norms in $E^{2}$ are not extremal elements of $C$ shows also that for $L$ general and $p \in C$ such that the co-dimension of $N(p)=2$, then $p$ is not an extremal element of $C$. Thus for $L$ general any extremal element of $C$ other than those mentioned in Theorem 1 must be such that the co-dimension of its null space is greater than or equal to two.

## References

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