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## Best Constants in Inequalities Related to Opial's Inequality\*

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In recent years there have been a number of generalizations of Opial's inequality which, in its original form, states that if y is an absolutely continuous function with y(a) = 0, and  $y' \in L^2(a, b)$ , where a and b are finite, then

$$\int_{a}^{b} |yy'| \, dx \leqslant \frac{1}{2} \, (b-a)^2 \int_{a}^{b} |y'|^2 \, dx, \tag{1}$$

with equality only if y(x) = c(x - a). (See [1] for an extensive bibliography.)

In this paper we wish to point out that the application of some well-known results in operator theory allows one to treat many of these inequalities in a unified way and is particularly appropriate in cases where best constants are desired. The method is restricted to situations in which the right hand side of the inequality involves a Hilbert space norm, and so does not include all types of generalizations of (1).

To begin with, let (a, b) be a finite or infinite interval of real numbers and  $\sigma$  be a measurable function on (a, b) which is positive a.e. We shall denote by  $L_{\sigma}^2$  the Hilbert space with inner product given by

$$(f,g) = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) \overline{g(x)} \sigma(x) \, dx.$$
<sup>(2)</sup>

Let k(x, t) be measurable and nonnegative on  $[a, b] \times [a, b]$  and suppose that the operator K is defined by

$$Kf(\mathbf{x}) = \int_{a}^{b} k(\mathbf{x}, t) f(t) \,\sigma(t) \,dt, \qquad (3)$$

and is a bounded operator from  $L_{\sigma}^2$  into itself. We call k the kernel of K.

The following result is a generalization of (1) which we shall use to obtain more concrete results.

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THEOREM 1. Let K be defined as in (3), and let  $G = (K + K^*)/2$  be the operator with kernel g(x, t) = [k(x, t) + k(t, x)]/2. Let  $\rho$  denote the norm of G as an operator in  $L_{\sigma}^2$ . Then, for all  $f \in L_{\sigma}^2$ ,

$$\int_{a}^{b} |Kf(x)| \cdot |f(x)| \sigma(x) \, dx \leqslant \rho \int_{a}^{b} |f(x)|^2 \sigma(x) \, dx, \tag{4}$$

and  $\rho$  is the best possible constant.

If G is a compact operator then  $\rho$  is an eigenvalue of G, with a corresponding non-negative eigenfunction, and equality holds in (4) if and only if f is an eigenfunction corresponding to  $\pm \rho$ . If f is an eigenfunction corresponding to  $\pm \rho$ , then |f| is an eigenfunction corresponding to  $\rho$ .

Finally, if G is compact and g(x, t) is positive a.e., then  $\rho$  is a simple eigenvalue, and  $-\rho$  is not an eigenvalue for G.

**PROOF.** Since k is nonnegative,  $|Kf| \leq K |f|$ , so that

$$\sup\{(|Kf|, |f|): ||f|| \leq 1\} = \sup\{(Kf, f): f \ge 0, ||f|| \leq 1\}.$$
 (5)

and,  $(Kf, f) = (f, K^*f) = (K^*f, f)$  if  $f \ge 0$ , so that (Kf, f) = (Gf, f) for  $f \ge 0$ . Hence

$$\sup\{(|Kf|, |f|) : ||f|| \leq 1\} = \sup\{(Gf, f) : f \geq 0, ||f|| \leq 1\}$$
$$= \sup\{|(Gf, f)| : ||f|| \leq 1\}.$$
(6)

The last relation follows from  $g(x, t) \ge 0$  a.e.

However,  $G = G^*$  so it is well known that

$$\rho = || G || = \sup\{| (Gf, f) | : || f || \leq 1\}.$$
(7)

(See [2], p. 230, for example.)

Now, if G is compact  $\rho$  or  $-\rho$  is an eigenvalue for G (see [2], p. 232) and equality holds in (7) only for corresponding eigenfunctions. If  $Gf = \pm \rho f$  with ||f|| = 1, then

$$\rho = |(Gf, f)| \leq (G|f|, |f|) \leq ||G|| = \rho, \qquad (8)$$

so that  $G |f| = \rho |f|$ , since equality holds in (7) for |f|. This shows that  $\rho$  is an eigenvalue for G, with a nonnegative eigenfunction.

In case g(x, t) > 0 a.e.,  $\rho$  is simple, for if not there are linearly independent functions  $f_1$ ,  $f_2$  with  $Gf_1 = \rho f_1$ ,  $Gf_2 = \rho f_2$ , and it is easily seen that we can choose  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  so that  $f = \alpha f_1 + \beta f_2$  is not of constant sign a.e. Since g(x, t) > 0 a.e., this means that |Gf| < G |f|. But then f and |f| cannot both satisfy  $Gf = \rho f$ ,  $G |f| = \rho |f|$  which is a contradiction. Similarly, if g(x, t) > 0 a.e., then  $-\rho$  is not an eigenvalue for G. For, if it were, let  $Gf = -\rho f$ . Then  $G|f| = \rho |f|$ . We show first that f must be of constant sign. Otherwise  $|-\rho f| = |Gf| < G |f| = \rho |f|$  which is a contradiction. But if sgn f is the constant  $\alpha$ , then

$$Gf = G(\alpha | f |) = \alpha G | f | = \alpha \rho | f | = \rho f,$$

a contradiction.

REMARKS 1. The condition that g(x, t) > 0 a.e. is stronger than necessary to insure the simplicity of  $\rho$ , and that  $-\rho$  is not an eigenvalue; a weaker condition is the following:

Let  $S_x = \{t : g(x, t) > 0\}$ , and suppose there is a set *E* of measure zero so that for  $x, y \notin E, S_x \cap S_y$  is a set of positive measure. Then  $\rho$  is simple and  $-\rho$  is not an eigenvalue.

For example, if (a, b) is finite and  $m(S_x) > (b - a)/2$  for almost every x, then the above condition is satisfied.

2. The existence of a nonnegative eigenfunction corresponding to  $\rho = ||G||$  could have been obtained in a less elementary way by the Krein-Rutman theory of positive operators [3].

The inequality to be discussed in Theorem 2 was proved by Willet in [4], without obtaining the best constant.

THEOREM 2. Let  $y \in C^{n-1}[a, b]$ , with  $y^{(n-1)}$  absolutely continuous, and  $y^{(k)}(a) = 0$  for k = 0, 1, ..., n - 1. Then, there is a constant  $c_n$  such that

$$\int_{a}^{b} |yy^{(n)}| dx \leq c_{n}(b-a)^{n} \int_{a}^{b} |y^{(n)}|^{2} dx.$$
(9)

For n odd (= 2m + 1), the best constant  $c_n$  is  $\lambda_0/2^n(n-1)!$ , where  $\lambda_0$  is the largest positive eigenvalue of the following  $(m + 1) \times (m + 1)$  positive matrix  $A = (a_{ij})$ :

$$a_{ij} = \binom{2m}{2i} (2m - 2j + 2i + 1)^{-1}$$
  $(i, j = 0, 1, ..., m).$  (10)

If  $(u_0, ..., u_m)^t = u$  is the positive vector (unique up to scalar multiples) with  $Au = \lambda_0 u$ , then equality holds in (9) only if  $y^{(n)}$  is a multiple of  $f_n$ , where

$$f_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^m u_j \left(\frac{2x-a-b}{b-a}\right)^{2m-2j}.$$
 (11)

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For n even (= 2m), the best constant  $c_n$  is  $(\alpha_0^n 2^n (n-1)!)^{-1}$ , where  $\alpha_0$  is the smallest positive solution of the equation det  $B(\alpha) = 0$ , and  $B(\alpha) = (b_{ij}(\alpha))$  is the  $m \times m$  matrix given by

$$b_{ij}(\alpha) = \omega^{2ij} \alpha^{2i} \sum_{k=0}^{2m-2i-1} (-1)^k \frac{g_j^{(k)}(1)}{k} \qquad (i, j = 0, 1, ..., m-1).$$
(12)

In (12),  $g_i(x) = \cosh(\omega^i \alpha x)$ , and  $\omega = \exp(2\pi i/n)$   $(i = \sqrt{-1})$ .

If  $(v_0, ..., v_{m-1})^t = v$  is the vector (unique up to scalar multiples) with  $B(\alpha_0) v = 0$ , then equality holds in (9) only if  $y^{(n)}$  is a multiple of  $f_n$ , where

$$f_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} v_j g_i \left( \frac{2x-a-b}{b-a} \right).$$
(13)

**PROOF.** Let  $\sigma(x) \equiv 1$ , and let  $f = y^{(n)} \in L^2$ . Define k(x, t) by

$$k(x, t) = \begin{cases} (x-t)^{n-1}/(n-1)!, & a \leq t \leq x \leq b \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
(14)

Then y = Kf, so Theorem 1 shows that if  $\rho = ||G|| = ||(K + K^*)/2||$ , then

$$\int_{a}^{b} |yy^{(n)}| dx \leq \rho \int_{a}^{b} |y^{(n)}|^{2} dx.$$
 (15)

G is a Hilbert-Schmidt operator, and hence compact ([2], p. 147) and g(x, t) is positive except when x = t, so by Theorem 1,  $\rho$  is a simple eigenvalue of G with a nonnegative eigenfunction.

By a linear change of variable, we may assume that a = -1, b = 1, and we have  $\rho = c(b - a)^n 2^{-n}$ , where c is the norm of the following operator:

$$Tf(x) = \frac{1}{2(n-1)!} \left\{ \int_{-1}^{x} (x-t)^{n-1} f(t) \, dt + \int_{x}^{1} (t-x)^{n-1} f(t) \, dt \right\}.$$
 (16)

We note first that if  $f \ge 0$  is an eigenfunction of T for c, then f is even. For, let Rf(x) = f(-x). Then TRf(x) = RTf(x), as a change of variables shows. Thus, if Tf = cf, then TRf = RTf = cRf. But c is a simple eigenvalue so  $Rf = \ell f$  for some constant  $\ell$ ; and  $\ell = 1$  since ||Rf|| = ||f|| and  $Rf \ge 0$ . Thus f(x) = f(-x).

For n = 2m + 1, T is of finite rank and Tf is a polynomial of degree at most n - 1 for any  $f \in L^2$ . Thus, if Tf = cf,

$$f(x) = u_0 x^{2m} + u_1 x^{2m-2} + \dots + u_m .$$
<sup>(17)</sup>

Now let  $c = \lambda_0/2(n-1)!$ , apply T to (17), and equate coefficients of  $x^{2m-2i}$  to obtain

$$\lambda_0 u_i = \sum_{j=0}^m a_{ij} u_j, \qquad i = 0, 1, ..., m,$$
(18)

where  $a_{ij}$  is given by (10).

This shows that  $\lambda_0$  must be a positive eigenvalue of A, and since any eigenvector of A leads to an eigenfunction for T,  $\lambda_0$  must be the largest such eigenvalue. The statement about the case of equality is now clear using Theorem 1.

Now let n = 2m. The expression for Tf shows that, for any  $f \in L^2$ , Tf is differentiable. Thus, if f satisfies,

$$Tf(x) = cf(x), \tag{19}$$

then, by induction  $f \in C^{\infty}(-1, 1)$ . Differentiating (19) *n* times gives

$$cf^{(n)}(x) = f(x).$$
 (20)

Thus, if  $\alpha = c^{-1/n}$  and  $\omega = \exp(2\pi i/n)$ , the eigenfunction f must have the form

$$f(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} v_j \cosh(\alpha \omega^j x) = \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} v_j g_j(x),$$
(21)

for certain constants  $v_j$ . (Here we use f(x) = f(-x).)

Furthermore, differentiating (19) k times and setting x = 0, we have

$$cf^{(k)}(0) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{(n-k-1)!} \int_0^1 t^{n-k-1} f(t) \, dt, & k \text{ even} \\ 0, & k \text{ odd.} \end{cases}$$
(22)

Conversely, any function satisfying (20) and (22) can be shown to satisfy (19). Now, if we substitute (21) into (22) with k = 2i, and use the following formula (obtained by integration by parts)

$$g_{j}^{(2i)}(0) - \frac{\alpha^{n}}{(n-2i-1)!} \int_{0}^{1} t^{n-2i-1} g_{j}(t) dt = \omega^{2ij} \alpha^{2i} \sum_{k=0}^{n-2i-1} \frac{g_{j}^{(k)}(1)}{k!} (-1)^{k}$$
$$= b_{ij}(\alpha), \qquad (23)$$

we have

$$\sum_{j=0}^{m-1} b_{ij}(\alpha) \, v_j = 0. \tag{24}$$

Thus, for nontrivial solutions  $(v_0, ..., v_{m-1})$ , we must have det  $B(\alpha) = 0$ .

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Because of the equivalence of the problems (19) and (20)-(22), positive solutions of det  $B(\alpha) = 0$  do exist and the smallest such solution  $\alpha_0$  leads to the largest eigenvalue of T. The case of equality is easily handled.

REMARKS 3. Willet gave the inequality (9) showing that  $c_n \leq \frac{1}{2}$  in [4]. In [5], Das improved the estimate to

$$c_n \leqslant \frac{(n/2n-1)^{1/2}}{2n!}$$
 (25)

but by analysis of various applications of Schwarz inequality used in his proof, proved that the inequality is strict except when n = 1. The constant given by Das can be seen to be the Hilbert-Schmidt norm of G which always dominates the true norm ([2], p. 150).

Using Theorem 2, for n = 2, the equation det  $B(\alpha) = 0$  reduces to

$$\alpha \sinh \alpha = \cosh \alpha, \qquad (26)$$

with the approximate solution  $\alpha_0 = 1.1997$ . This leads to

$$c_2 = \frac{1}{4\alpha_0^2} = .1737. \tag{27}$$

(The estimate (25) gives  $c_2 < .2041$ .) For (a, b) = (-1, 1), the corresponding eigenfunction for G is

$$f_2(x) = \cosh \alpha_0 x. \tag{28}$$

For n = 3, the matrix A of Theorem 2 is  $2 \times 2$  and its eigenvalues are  $5 \pm 3\sqrt{5}/15$ , so  $\lambda_0 = 5 + 3\sqrt{5}/15$ , and

$$c_3 = \frac{5+3\sqrt{5}}{240} = .04878. \tag{29}$$

(The estimate (25) gives  $c_3 < .06455$ .) For (a, b) = (-1, 1) the corresponding eigenfunction is

$$f_3(x) = 5x^2 + \sqrt{5}.$$
 (30)

Although Theorem 2 specifies the best constants in (9) exactly, it does not give much indication as to their order of magnitude. The next results gives an improved estimate for  $c_n$  and shows that it is asymptotically exact.

THEOREM 3. Let  $c_n$  be the best constant in inequality (9). Then  $c_n = b_n/2n!$ , where

$$\frac{1}{2} < b_n \le \left(\frac{n}{4n-2} + \binom{2n}{n}^{-1}\right)^{1/2},\tag{31}$$

so  $b_n \to \frac{1}{2}$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

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**PROOF.** From the proof of Theorem 2,  $c_n = b_n/2n!$ , where  $b_n$  is the norm of the following operator  $T_n$  in  $L^2(-1, 1)$ .

$$T_n f(x) = \frac{n}{2^n} \int_{-1}^1 |x - t|^{n-1} f(t) dt.$$
 (32)

Also, the norm is an eigenvalue corresponding to an *even* eigenfunction, and if f is even we have

$$T_n f(x) = \frac{n}{2^{n+1}} \int_{-1}^1 \left( |x - t|^{n-1} + |x + t|^{n-1} \right) f(t) \, dt = U_n f(x). \tag{33}$$

Hence,  $b_n \leq ||| U_n |||$ , where  $||| U_n |||$  denotes the Hilbert-Schmidt norm of  $U_n$ . That is,

$$b_{n} \leq \frac{n}{2^{n+1}} \left\{ 2 \int_{-1}^{1} dx \int_{-1}^{1} \left( |x - t|^{2n-2} + |x^{2} - t^{2}|^{n-1} \right) dt \right\}^{1/2}, \quad (34)$$

which gives the estimate (31). The value of the first integral in (34) is  $2^{2n}/n(2n-1)$ . The second integral is computed as follows:

$$\int_{0}^{1} dt \int_{0}^{1} |x^{2} - t^{2}|^{n-1} dx = 2 \int_{0}^{1} dt \int_{0}^{t} (t^{2} - x^{2})^{n-1} dx$$
$$= 2 \int_{0}^{1} dt \int_{0}^{1} t^{2n-1} (1 - v^{2})^{n-1} dv \quad (\text{setting } x = tv)$$
$$= \frac{1}{n} \int_{0}^{1/2} z^{2n-1} u^{n-1} (1 - u)^{n-1} du$$
$$(\text{setting } v = 1 - 2u)$$

$$=2^{2n-2}\frac{B(n, n)}{n}.$$
 (35)

Hence, from (34),

$$b_{n} \leq \{n^2 2^{-2n-1} [2^{2n} n^{-1} (2n-1)^{-1} + 2^{2n} B(n,n) n^{-1}]\}^{1/2}$$

which is the upper bound in (31).

To show that  $b_n > \frac{1}{2}$ , note that for any  $f \in L^2(-1, 1)$ ,  $(T_n f, f)/(f, f) \le b_n$ . Choose  $f(x) = (1 + x)^{n-1} + (1 - x)^{n-1}$ , and we have

$$(f,f) = 2 \int_{-1}^{1} (1+x)^{2n-2} + 4 \int_{0}^{1} (1-x^{2})^{n-1} dx$$
$$= 2^{2n} [(2n-1)^{-1} + B(n,n)], \qquad (36)$$

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by a calculation similar to (35). And,

$$(Tf,f) = n2^{-n} \int_{-1}^{1} \left[ (1+x)^{n-1} + (1-x)^{n-1} \right] dx \int_{-1}^{1} |x-t|^{n-1} \\ \times \left[ (1+t)^{n-1} + (1-t)^{n-1} \right] dt \\> n2^{-n} \left\{ 2 \int_{0}^{1} dx \int_{0}^{1} \left[ (x+t)^{n-1} + |x-t|^{n-1} \right] (1+x)^{n-1} (1+t)^{n-1} dt \\ + 4 \int_{0}^{1} dx \int_{0}^{x} (x+t)^{n-1} (1+x)^{n-1} (1-t)^{n-1} dt \right\}.$$
(37)

In the first integral, we use  $(1 + x)(1 + t) \ge 2(x + t)$ , and in the second,  $(1 + x)(1 - t) \ge 2(x - t)$  to obtain

$$(Tf,f) > n2^{-n} \left\{ 2^n \int_0^1 dx \int_0^1 \left[ (x+t)^{2n-2} + |x^2 - t^2|^{n-1} \right] dt + 2^{n+1} \int_0^1 dx \int_0^x (x^2 - t^2)^{n-1} dt \right\}$$
$$= n2^{-n} \{ 2^{3n-1}n^{-1}(2n-1)^{-1} + 2^{3n-1}B(n,n) n^{-1} \} = \frac{(f,f)}{2}.$$
(38)

Thus,  $b_n > \frac{1}{2}$ . Also, the right member of (31) decreases to  $\frac{1}{2}$  as  $n \to \infty$ , so  $b_n \to \frac{1}{2}$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

REMARKS 4. Theorem 3 shows that the estimate (25) is of the correct order of magnitude but is asymptotically in error by a factor of  $\sqrt{2}$ .

REMARKS 5. For *n* odd, the best constants  $c_n$  can be approximated arbitrarily closely by using any of the standard methods for computing the dominant eigenvalue of a positive matrix. For example, the power method may be used, (see [6], p. 187). Starting with an arbitrary positive vector *u*, the sequence  $A^n u/|A^n u|$  converges to the eigenvector corresponding to the dominant eigenvalue. Here  $|A^n u|$  is conveniently the  $\ell'$ -norm of  $A^n u$ .

The following table gives some values for  $b_n = 2n! c_n$ , computed in this way, in comparison with the upper bounds (31) and (25)

n	$b_n$	(31)	(25)
1	1.000000	1.000000	1.000000
3	.585410	.591608	.774597
5	.529633	.530798	.745356
7	.518742	.519155	.733799
9	.514290	.514516	.727607
11	.511622	.511768	.723747
13	.509800	.509902	.721110
15	.508472	.508548	.719195

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## FURTHER EXAMPLES

As another example of the use of Theorem 1, we show how it can be applied to inequalities of the following type

$$\int_a^b |y'(x) y(x)^p| w(x) dx \leqslant c \int_a^b |y'(x)|^{p+1} \sigma(x) dx.$$
(39)

In [1], Wong and the author showed that, with some differentiability assumptions on the non-negative functions w and  $\sigma$ , one could obtain best possible constants in (39) as eigenvalues of boundary value problems for certain differential equations. This required certain *ad hoc* assumptions as to the existence of solutions to these problems.

The case p = 1 fits into our framework. More generally, let us consider inequalities of the form

$$\int_{a}^{b} |y^{(n)}(x) y(x)| w(x) dx \leq c \int_{a}^{b} |y^{(n)}(x)|^{2} \sigma(x) dx, \qquad (40)$$

where  $y^{(k)}(a) = 0$  (k = 0, 1, ..., n - 1),  $\sigma$  is positive a.e., and w is non-negative a.e. Let  $f = y^{(n)}$ , and define k(x, t) by

$$k(x,t) = \begin{cases} w(x) \ (x-t)^{n-1} / o(x) \ o(t) \ (n-1)!, & a \leqslant t \leqslant x \leqslant b \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
(41)

Then  $Kf(x) = w(x) y(x)/\sigma(x)$ , and Theorem 1 shows that the best constant in (40) is the norm of  $G = (K + K^*)/2$  as an operator in  $L_{\sigma}^2$ .

If G is compact, our results improve. The simplest way to insure this would be to make K a Hilbert-Schmidt operator, which requires that

$$\int_a^b \frac{w(x)^2}{\sigma(x)} dx \int_a^\infty \frac{(x-t)^{2n-2}}{\sigma(t)} dt < \infty.$$
(42)

For example, if  $\sigma(x) \ge \gamma > 0$  on [a, b], and  $w \in L^2[a, b]$ , then (42) holds. When G is compact, we need to solve the following eigenvalue problem:

$$\rho 2(n-1)! \sigma(x) f(x) = w(x) \int_{a}^{x} (x-t)^{n-1} f(t) dt + \int_{x}^{b} w(t) (x-t)^{n-1} f(t) dt.$$
(43)

With appropriate differentiability assumptions on  $\sigma$  and w, this can be reduced to a boundary value problem for a linear differential equation. For n = 1,

assume  $\sigma$ ,  $w \in C^{1}[a, b]$ , and let  $\mu = (2\rho)^{-1}$ . Then, differentiating (43) once, and defining  $u(x) = \int_{a}^{x} f(x) dt$ , one has

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\sigma(x) u(x)) = \mu w'(x) u(x), \qquad (44)$$

with boundary conditions obtained by setting x = b in (35). That is

$$\sigma(b) u'(b) = \mu w(b) u(b), \quad u(a) = 0.$$
 (45)

This is precisely the equation presented in [1], but here we do not need to assume the existence of a solution with u'(x) > 0 in [a, b]. This assumption is replaced by the assumption that K be compact in  $L_{\sigma}^2$ , or more concretely by  $\sigma(x) \ge \gamma > 0$  in [a, b].

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