

ratio of the cross section at the 1.66 eV minimum to the section at the principal maximum should be  $\sim 5 \times 10^{-3}$  at  $T = 1^\circ\text{K}$ , and the ratio at the 2.48 eV minimum should be  $\sim 2 \times 10^{-3}$ . These ratios are much larger on the experimental curve.

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#### THE SUN'S GRAVITATIONAL FIELD

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The discrepancies between the consequences of Einstein's equations and the measurement results of Dicke and Goldenberg [1] lead to a discussion of gravitational bending of light waves. Let  $\delta_\gamma = 1 - \beta\beta_E^{-1}$ , where  $\beta$  is the empirical angle of deflection of the ray at the edge of the sun, and  $\beta_E$  is the Einstein value (1.75"). The empirical data [2] allow us to assume that  $\delta_\gamma \sim -0.1$ . If we admit the existence of a non-metric gravitational field (independent of the curvature tensor) then, according to [3],  $\delta_\gamma = (2\omega + 4)^{-1}$ , where  $\omega$  is a universal constant. An estimate based on the perihelion rotation leads to  $\omega > 6$  and to  $0 < \delta_\gamma < 6\%$ , which certainly disagrees with experiment if  $\delta_\gamma < 0$ .

Let us consider the metric theory [4]. In the simplest case, the non-Einstein gravitation equations have the following form:

$$R_k^i - \frac{1}{2}R\delta_k^i + \zeta_n^2 \delta_k^i - \zeta_k^i + Y_k^i = \kappa_1 T_k^i, \quad (Y_k^i = \zeta R_k^i - \frac{1}{2}X\delta_k^i), \quad (1)$$

where  $T_k^i$  is the matter tensor,  $R_k^i$  is the Ricci tensor,  $R = R_n^n$ ,  $X = RF(\xi^2, R)$ ,  $\xi = dX/dR$ ,  $\xi_k^i$  are the covariant derivatives of the function  $\xi$ , and  $\ell$  and  $\kappa_1$  are universal constants ( $[\ell] = m$ ,  $[\kappa_1] = \text{cm/erg}$ ). According to the conditions for the conversions of the integral 4-momentum we have

$$R = \text{const } l^{-2} \zeta^n, \quad (\zeta \rightarrow 0), \quad (2)$$

with either  $1 \leq n < 3$  or  $n > 3$ . In a static field, the condition (2) leads to the asymptotic form  $\varphi = -Gmr^{-1}$ ,  $\xi = r_1 r^{-1}$ , ( $r \rightarrow \infty$ ), where  $r$  is the distance from the matter,  $\varphi$  the gravitational potential,  $G$  Newton's universal constant, and  $m$  the gravitational mass. The asymptotic parameters  $m$  and  $r_1$  define in general form the component  $P^0 = m_0 c^2$  of the total static 4-momentum, i.e., the inertial rest mass of the matter:

$$\frac{m_0}{m} = \frac{\kappa}{\kappa_1} \left(1 - \frac{r_1}{r_0}\right), \quad (r_0 = 2Gm c^2, \kappa = 8\pi G c^{-4}). \quad (3)$$

If  $1 \leq n < 3$ , then  $m_0 r_1 \equiv 0$ . On the other hand, if  $n > 3$ , then  $r_1 \neq 0$  and in this case  $r_1$  is determined by the parameters of the matter. Consequently, the theory admits of the

non-universality of the ratio  $m_0 m^{-1}$ . The result need not at all contradict reality, since the equality  $m_0 = m$  has been accurately verified only for laboratory masses, and there is still no known procedure for precision measurements of  $m_0$  and  $m$  for astronomical masses.

The possibility  $r_1 = 0$  contradicts experiment. The result follows from the non-relativistic limit of (1) for a static field:

$$\Delta\phi + \frac{1}{2}c^2 \Delta\zeta = 4\pi \frac{\kappa_1}{\kappa} G\rho, \quad \Delta\zeta - \frac{1}{3}R = -\frac{1}{3}\kappa_1 c^2 \rho, \quad (4)$$

where  $\Delta$  is the Laplacian and  $\rho$  the mass density. To obtain agreement with the laboratory data, taking (3) into account, we must assume  $\kappa_1 = \kappa$  when  $r_1 = 0$ . In this case, according to (4) and (2), we have in an internal field  $\Delta\phi = 4\pi G(1 + \epsilon)\rho$ , where  $\epsilon \sim (\kappa c^2 \rho)^{1/n-1} a^{-2} l^{2/n}$ , ( $1 \leq n < 3$ ),  $a$  is the dimension of the body, and the correction  $\epsilon$  should be small under ordinary conditions. To estimate this correction let us find the constant  $l$  from the parameter  $\delta$  of the anomalous rotation of the perihelion of Mercury. From (1) and from formula (1) of [5] it follows that

$$R(\rho) = -9 \frac{r_0^2}{p^4} \left( \delta - \frac{4}{3} \frac{r_1}{r_0} \right), \quad (5)$$

where  $R$  is the scalar curvature, the parameter  $r_1$  pertains to the sun's field,  $r_0 \approx 3$  km is the gravitational radius of the sun, and  $p \approx 5.5 \times 10^7$  km is the radius of Mercury's orbit; according to the measurements of [1],  $\delta \approx +0.08$ . According to (2) and (4) we have in outer space

$$R(r) = l^{-2} (l/r)^{2n/n-1}, \quad (1 < n < 3); \quad R(r) = l^{-2} (r_1/r)^n, \quad (n > 3); \quad (6)$$

at  $n = 1$  we have  $R(r) = \text{const.} \cdot r^{-1} \exp(-r/l)$ . From (5) and from the first formula of (6) we get an estimate of  $l$  for  $r_1 = 0$ , according to which  $\epsilon \sim (a_0/a)^2 10^{9/n-7}$  at a density  $\rho \approx 5 \text{ g/cm}^3$ , where  $1 \leq n < 3$  and  $a_0 \approx 6 \times 10^3$  km is the earth's radius; for a gravimetric object with dimensions  $a \sim 10$  km we get  $\epsilon \sim 40$ , which cannot be taken into consideration. The result excludes completely the possibility of  $r_1 = 0$  and consequently, according to (3), the equality  $m_0 = m$  is not an exact law of nature.

Violation of the law  $m_0 = m$  leads to observable effects. From (1) of the present paper and formula (3) of [5] it follows that when  $r_1 \neq 0$  we have  $\delta_\gamma = (r_1/r_0)_\odot$  accurate to  $\sim r_0 r_\odot^{-1} \approx 5 \times 10^{-6}$  ( $r_\odot = 7 \times 10^5$  km, the symbol  $\odot$  pertains to the sun). Consequently

$$\frac{m_0}{m}(\odot) = \frac{\kappa}{\kappa_1} (1 - \delta_\gamma), \quad (7)$$

which makes it possible to obtain the solar mass ratio from the observed parameter  $\delta_\gamma$ . The numerical value of the universal constant  $\kappa \kappa_1^{-1}$  follows from (4) and from the estimate  $l = \lambda^{n/2} \times 10^{20-4n}$  cm,  $\lambda = |\odot \delta_\gamma|$ ,  $n > 3$ , which corresponds to (5) and to the second formula of (6). According to (4), the Poisson equation is satisfied not only when

$\Delta\xi \ll R$  ( $\kappa_1 = \kappa$ ), but also when  $\Delta\xi \gg R$  ( $\kappa_1 = \frac{3}{4}\kappa$ ); in the latter case  $\Delta\varphi = 4\pi G(1 + \epsilon_1)\rho$ , and if  $\epsilon_1 \lesssim 1$ , then  $\epsilon_1 \sim R(\Delta\xi)^{-1} \sim l^{-2}(\varphi/c^2)^n$ , where  $\varphi$  is the Newton potential. At the given order of magnitude of  $l$ , the possibility  $\kappa_1 = \kappa$  is excluded (in analogy with the case  $r_1 = 0$ ), and  $\epsilon_1$  turns out to be  $\sim (a/a_0)^{2n}(\rho/5)^{n-1}\lambda^{-n}10^{-14}$  ( $\rho$  is in  $g/cm^3$ ) and leads to imperceptible (under ordinary conditions) violations of Poisson's equation. Therefore, in a real field

$$\kappa_1 = \frac{3}{4}\kappa \quad (8)$$

and according to (7) the quantity  $\delta_m = m_0 m^{-1} - 1$  for the sun has a nonrelativistic order of magnitude (provided only  $\delta_\gamma \neq +0.25$ , i.e.,  $\beta \neq 1.31''$ , which is apparently excluded with certainty). When  $\delta_\gamma = -0.1$  we have  $m_0(\odot) = 1.47m(\odot)$  and for all the probable values of  $\delta_\gamma$  we have  $m_0(\odot) > m(\odot)$ .

We see that according to the metric theory  $\delta_\gamma$  is due to the inequality of the solar masses. The nonrelativistic nature of  $\delta_m$  is due to the non-Einstein character of the internal field, which (according to the estimate of  $\epsilon_1$ ) can deviate appreciably from Poisson's equation, remaining at the same time nonrelativistic ( $|\varphi| \ll c^2$ ). Therefore the internal state of the nonrelativistic stars (as well as of the sun) should differ noticeably from the Poisson state. For planets of the solar system  $\delta_m \sim \epsilon_1 \ll 1$  (for Jupiter and Saturn  $\delta_m \sim 10^{-8}$  and  $10^{-9}$  if  $n = 4$  and  $\delta_m \sim 10^{-7}$  and  $10^{-8}$  if  $n = 5$ ).

The detailed theory will be published in JETP.

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#### NONLINEAR NEGATIVE ABSORPTION OF LIGHT IN AN INHOMOGENEOUSLY INVERTED SEMICONDUCTOR

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Certain experimental singularities of the dynamics of the emission of semiconductor lasers [1-5] give grounds for assuming that a semiconductor structure consisting of alternating sections with different positions of the Fermi quasilevels  $\mu$  (for example, a laser with isolated injection regions [6,7]) constitutes a nonlinear stable medium with negative absorption, similar to the well-known two-component media [8-10], and has the following nonlinearity mechanism.

Light acting on a semiconductor structure which is stable in the initial state causes raising of  $\mu_m$  in the absorbing section and lowering of  $\mu_n$  in the amplifying section; this is accompanied by change in the corresponding negative-absorption coefficients  $g_m$  and  $g_n$ . By virtue of the asymmetry of the frequency dependence of the absorption coefficient, these changes occur, for a specified light frequency  $\omega$ , at different rates: