

To prove this theorem we write

$$\left. \begin{aligned} |\sum_e (i|H_1|e)(e|H_2|f)|^2 &= \sum_e (i|H_1|e)|^2 |(e|H_2|f)|^2 \\ &+ \sum_{\substack{e_1, e_2 \\ (e_1 \neq e_2)}} (i|H_1|e_1)^* (i|H_1|e_2) (e_1|H_2|f)^* (e_2|H_2|f). \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (4)$$

Now, if ρ is in diagonal form, we have according to (3)

$$S_1(i|H_1|e_1)^* (i|H_2|e_2) = 0 \quad (e_1 \neq e_2). \quad (5)$$

According to (4) and (5) we see that (1) reduces to (2) if ρ is in diagonal form for the states ψ_e , and the theorem is proved.

We now give an alternative expression for ρ by which the meaning of ρ can more easily be understood than from the definition (3) of ρ . Consider the wave function of an arbitrary intermediate state ψ_{med} , which can be expressed as

$$\psi_{\text{med}} = \sum_e c_e \psi_e \quad (6)$$

by means of the fundamental states ψ_e chosen in (1) and (2). From (6) it follows that

$$\int \psi_{\text{med}}^* \rho \psi_{\text{med}} = \sum_{e_1, e_2} c_{e_1}^* c_{e_2} (e_1 | \rho | e_2). \quad (7)$$

If we define the partial transition probabilities $P_{i, \text{med}}^p$ by

$$P_{i, \text{med}}^p = N' S_1 (i | H_1 | \text{med})|^2, \quad (8)$$

where N' is a constant factor, we obtain

$$\int \psi_{\text{med}}^* \rho \psi_{\text{med}} = N'' P_{i, \text{med}}^p, \quad (9)$$

where N'' is a normalization constant. It is easily seen that (9) can be used as a definition of ρ alternative to (3).

We want to stress that the values of $P_{i, \text{med}}^p$, when known only for the fundamental states ψ_e but not for their linear combinations, do not yet supply complete information on the transition probabilities $i \rightarrow e$. For this we must either calculate (3), or $P_{i, \text{med}}^p$ for every ψ_{med} .

To obtain the angular correlation theorem stated by Falkoff and Uhlenbeck¹ (and proved later by Lloyd² and Lippmann³) as a special case of our theorem, we remark that the z axis is an axis of rotational symmetry of ρ , if the first of two successive particles is emitted along this axis. This leads to a diagonal form for ρ if the ψ_e are eigenfunctions of the z component of the total angular momentum, so that (1) and (2) are equivalent for these ψ_e .

The proof of our theorem has features in common with the considerations of Lippmann,³ but the use of the density matrix enables us to go further. Our theorem could, namely, also be applied if no axis of rotational symmetry for ρ exists, as in the case of γ - γ angular correlation of aligned nuclei. We must then try to find states ψ_e , for which ρ is in diagonal form.

We have used the representation of the state of a system after a transition by a density matrix [as in (9)] in an earlier paper,⁴ where a partially polarized electron beam was represented by a density matrix.⁵ Before that, we used the density matrix to prove another theorem on transition probabilities.⁶

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³ B. A. Lippmann, *Phys. Rev.* **81**, 162 (1951).

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⁵ H. A. Tolhoek and S. R. de Groot, *Physica* **17**, 1 (1951).

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Intensity of Ultraviolet Radiation from Solar Flares

R. N. SEDRA

Faculty of Science, Fouad I University, Cairo, Egypt

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SOLAR flares are classified¹⁻³ according to their intensities in the increasing order of magnitudes (1, 2, 3, and 3+), where 3+ represents the most intense flare. It is well established that most solar flares are accompanied by synchronous magnetic disturbances usually called "crochets."⁴ It is natural to assume that the change in the earth's magnetic field accompanying the flare is

dependent on the intensity of the ultraviolet radiation emitted. The following calculation is based on the assumption that these crochets are intensifications of diurnal magnetic variations.

The diurnal magnetic variations have been successfully explained by the diamagnetic theory.⁵ For a magnetized long free path ion gas, the intensity of magnetization I is given by

$$I = -3nkT/2H,$$

where T is the absolute temperature, k is Boltzmann's constant, n is the ion density, and H is the magnetic field. Assuming that the solar ultraviolet flash produces an ion cloud, we may calculate its magnetic effect by replacing it by a bar magnet. The magnetic pole strength per unit area, σ , is equal to $I/4\pi$. Therefore,

$$\sigma = -3nkT/8\pi H.$$

Following the Maris and Hulburt⁶ assumption in taking the end, S , of the magnet to be 300 km thick and 1000 km wide, the magnetic strength ρ of S is given by

$$\rho = -(9nkT/8\pi H) \times 10^{15}.$$

Taking the distance of the ionized layer from the earth to be 200 km and neglecting the effect of the north pole N , the field F due to S is given by:

$$F = -(nkT/\pi H) \times 2.81.$$

Substituting $T = 1000^\circ$, $k = 1.372 \times 10^{-16}$ erg per degree Kelvin, and $H = 0.5$ gauss, one gets

$$n = -F \cdot 4 \times 10^{12}. \quad (1)$$

The relation between the rate of ion production and the intensity of incident radiation is given by⁷

$$q = \beta n' i / w,$$

where q is the number of ion pairs produced per cm³ per sec at height h , w is the energy absorbed in ionizing one molecule, β is the atomic absorption coefficient, n' is the number of molecules per cc at height h , and i is the intensity of the incident radiation at height h . Substituting $w = 14$ ev = $14 \times 1.6 \times 10^{-12}$ erg, $\beta = 3.2 \times 10^{-17}$ cm², and n' at height 200 km⁸ = 2.5×10^8 , one obtains

$$i = q \times 2.8 \times 10^{-3}. \quad (2)$$

To test the above calculations, we shall take one of the results observed by Newton. He observed, on the 3rd of July, 1941, a solar flare accompanied by a crochet which gives a change in H of -13γ . Calculating the ionic density n from Eq. (1), we find that its value is 5.2×10^8 . Also, calculating the intensity of incident radiation from Eq. (2), we find its value to be 8.09×10^2 erg cm⁻² sec⁻¹. Gledhill and Syndrei⁷ obtained an estimate of the normal solar radiation above the earth's atmosphere from ionospheric data. Their value amounts to 0.313 erg cm⁻² sec⁻¹. Comparing the result obtained from this calculation with that of Gledhill and Syndrei, we notice that our result is greater by a factor of about 2500, which is reasonable with the intense radiation emitted during the solar flare.

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⁷ Gledhill and Syndrei, *Proc. Phys. Soc. (London)* **63**, 429 (1950).

⁸ E. O. Hulburt, *Revs. Modern Phys.* **9**, 45 (1937).

The Effect of Finite Nuclear Size in Beta-Decay*

M. E. ROSE AND D. K. HOLMES

Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Oak Ridge, Tennessee

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IN the analysis of the β -spectrum of heavy radioactive nuclei it is necessary to examine the effect of the finite nuclear radius insofar as this effect appreciably influences the behavior of certain of the electronic wave functions at the nuclear radius.¹ In fact, for