

3.12

Gauss' Law for the Linear Force

The linear force gives us the classical analogue to the GR cosmological constant.

For Inverse-Square Law versions,
see p. 3004 and 3012

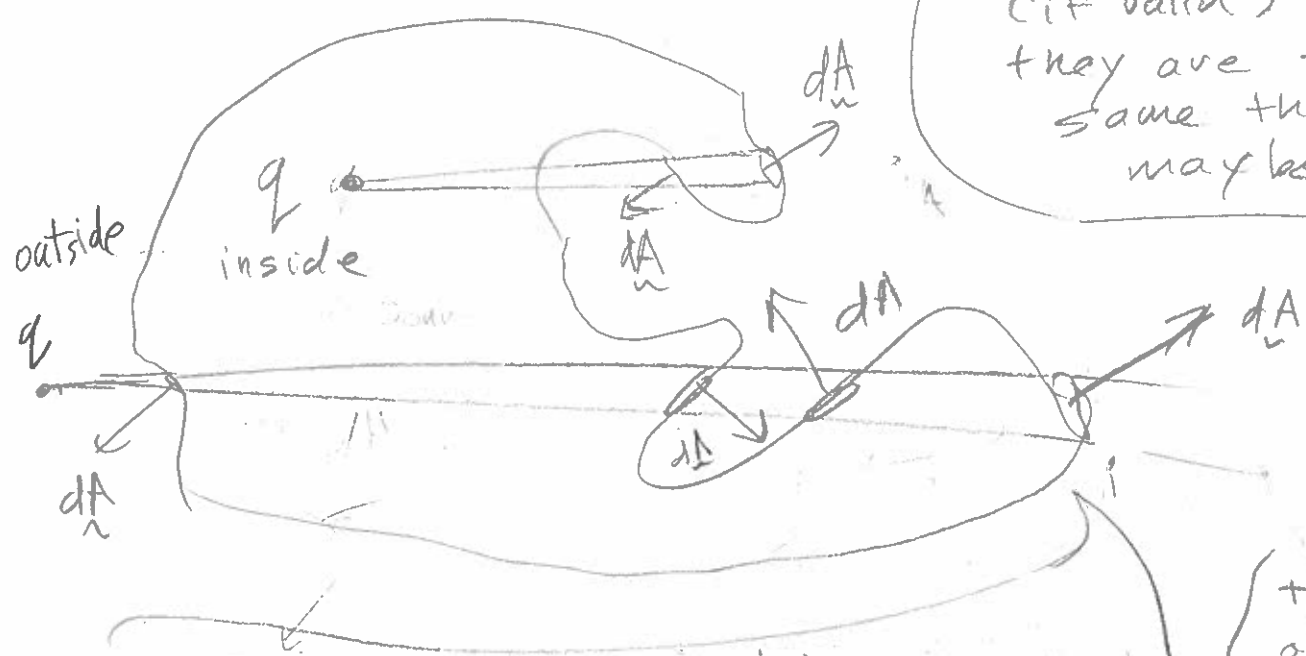
Generic linear force field for a point charge q

$$\underline{f} = q \underline{r}^{-1}$$

with potential $\phi = -\frac{q}{2} r^2$ Art-104

Gaussian closed surface

The source and receiver "charge" may be different, but 3rd law (if valid) implies they are the same though may be disguised.



General contribution

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{r} \cdot d\vec{A} &= |d\vec{A}| \cos \theta \\ &= \pm r^2 d\Omega \end{aligned}$$

$$[\underline{f} \cdot d\vec{A}]_i = [q \underline{r} (\pm r^2 d\Omega)]_i$$

+ for outward going
- for inward going

In spherical coordinates
 $d\Omega = \sin \theta d\theta d\phi$
of course

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$$\begin{aligned}
 [f \cdot dA]_i &= \left[3q \frac{r^3}{3} \left(\frac{1}{r^2} \right) \right]_i \\
 &= \left[3q \int_{r_{i-1}}^{r_i} r^2 dr d\Omega \right]_i \\
 &= 3q \left[\frac{1}{2} V(r_i - r_{i-1}) \right]_i
 \end{aligned}$$

∴ Along any cone

$$f \cdot dA = \sum_i [f \cdot dA_i] = 3q V_{\text{cone inside to the last outgoing surface}}$$

$$\therefore \oint f \cdot d\vec{A} = 3q V_{\text{Gaussian surface}}$$

Summing up all point charges } q anywhere in side, outside, at infinity contributing to f

$$\oint f \cdot d\vec{A} = 3q V \quad \text{where } q \text{ is all charge in the universe contributing to } f$$

Gauss' Law for

the linear force QED

Another Proof

The linear force is a very long range force

$$\oint f \cdot d\vec{A} = \int \nabla \cdot f dV = 3q V$$

Then sum on all point charges again

by Gauss' Thm
P. 3009

divergence in spherical coordinates (Art-104)

$$\nabla \cdot f = \nabla \cdot (q r \hat{r}) = q \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial(r^2)}{\partial r} = 3q \text{ for a point charge}$$

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Actually, you can use Gauss' Theorem to prove Gauss law too sort of.

$$\oint \underline{f} \cdot d\underline{A} = \int \nabla \cdot \underline{f} dV = \int q \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial (r^2 h)}{\partial r} dV$$

Point charge

$$\nabla \cdot \underline{h} = \left[\frac{\partial h}{\partial r} + \frac{2}{r} h \right]$$

$$q: \underline{f} = q h(r) \hat{r}$$

general function of r

$$\text{If } h = r^n$$

$$\frac{\partial h}{\partial r} = n r^{n-1} + 2 r^{n-1}$$

$$\text{a) if } \underline{n=1}, \frac{\partial h}{\partial r} = 3 \text{ as before sup. 3066}$$

$$\text{b) if } \underline{n=-2}$$

$$\frac{\partial h}{\partial r} = -2 r^{-3} + 2 r^{-3} = 0$$

But there is a singularity at $r=0$

Little sphere around charge and one gets a Dirac Delta function result.



$$\oint h \hat{r} \cdot d\underline{A} = r^n 4\pi r^2 = 4\pi r^{2+n}$$

$$\text{if } n=-2, \oint h \hat{r} \cdot d\underline{A} = 4\pi$$

$$\therefore \nabla \cdot \underline{h} = 4\pi \delta(r)$$

as on p. 3011

$$\text{In general } \oint \underline{h} \cdot d\underline{A} = \int \nabla \cdot \underline{h} dV = \begin{cases} 4\pi & \text{if charge inside} \\ 0 & \text{if charge outside} \end{cases}$$

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c) Are there any other cases
of n that lead to interesting
divergences and results
 $n=1$ leads to constant
divergence

$n=-2$ leads to Dirac Delta
divergence

It seems not. } Only position dependant
by inside/outside.

All other power-law cases lead
to an r dependence, and
so not a position independent

Gauss' Law

But how about $h = e^{rn}$?

$$\nabla \cdot \underline{h} = n r^{n-1} h + \frac{2}{r} h$$

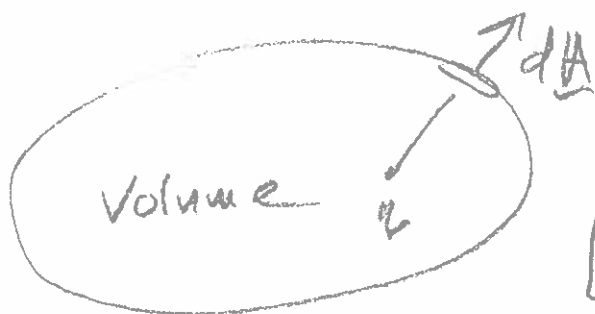
$$= [n r^n + 2] \frac{h}{r}$$

seems to lead to nothing.

So maybe there are only two
Gauss laws: the Gauss' law
and
the linear force
Gauss' law

3.13 Shell Theorem for the Linear Force Gauss' Law

$$\oint \underline{f} \cdot d\underline{A} = 3Q/V \text{ (sep 3066)}$$

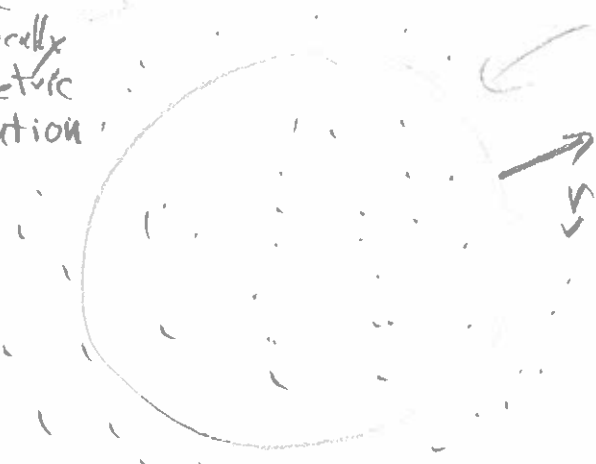


All q anywhere
inside and outside
contributing to $\underline{f}$
(So NOT all charge in universe)

Probably only direct solutions for $\underline{f}$
in 3 cases of high symmetry: planar
cylindrical
spherical

Let's consider spherically
symmetric distribution.

charges
in the
spherically
symmetric
distribution



Gaussian surface.

By symmetry

$$\underline{f}(\underline{r}) = f(r) \hat{r}$$

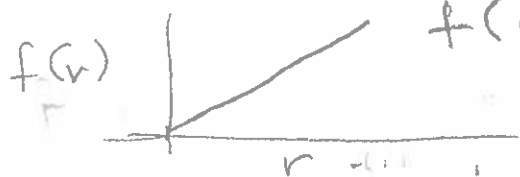
$f(r)$ can be +ve or -ve

$$\oint \underline{f} \cdot d\underline{A} = f(r) [4\pi r^2]$$

$$\therefore f(r) [4\pi r^2] = 3Q \left(\frac{4\pi}{3}\right) r^3$$

$$f(r) = Q/r \quad \text{and} \quad \underline{f}(\underline{r}) = Q/r \hat{r} = \frac{Q}{r^2} \underline{r}$$

and so just as if all charge
were point charge at the
center.



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Let's assume only one kind of charge and for point charges

$$\begin{aligned} F_{ij} &= (q_i \hat{r}_{ij}) q_j = q_i q_j \hat{r}_{ij} \\ &= -q_i q_j \hat{r}_{ji} = -F_{ji} \end{aligned}$$

and so 3rd law holds.

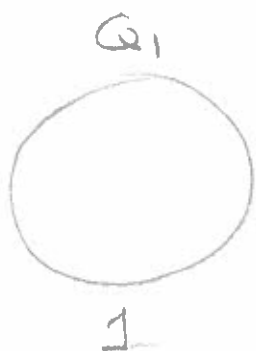
What two systems of point charges?

$$F_{12} = \sum_{ij} q_i q_j \hat{r}_{ij} = - \sum_{ij} q_i q_j \hat{r}_{ji} = -F_{21}$$

and so 3rd law holds again



What of two spherically symmetric charge systems?



Exactly Analogous to proof on p. 301 for gravity.

$$\begin{aligned} F_{12} &= F_{1, \text{point } 2} = -F_{2, 1 \text{ point}} \\ &= -F_{2 \text{ point}, 1 \text{ point}} = F_{1 \text{ point}, 2 \text{ point}} \end{aligned}$$

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But there is distinction from the gravity case.

In gravity case
the spherically
symmetric
mass distributions
can't overlap for
a simple result
since

$$\vec{g} = -\frac{GM_{\text{enclosed}}}{r^2} \hat{r}$$

For the linear

$$\vec{F} = Q \vec{r}$$

where Q is
all charge
in the spherically
symmetric
distribution.

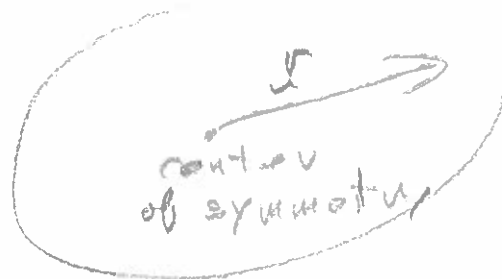
So the two
systems can
overlap and
even coincide,
but magically
each one stays
spherically
symmetric

3.14 The Newtonian

Cosmological Constant Force
AKA the Lambda (Λ) Force

For a spherically symmetric linear force
charge Q

$$\vec{f} = Q \vec{r}$$



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But if the charge distribution is uniform out to R

$$f = \left[\frac{4\pi}{3} R^3 \rho \right] \frac{1}{r^2}$$

If $R \rightarrow \infty$, $f \rightarrow \infty$

We hypothesize that

$$\frac{4\pi}{3} R^3 \rho \longrightarrow \frac{\Lambda}{3}$$

Λ Lambda

where Λ is a constant

and, in fact, the Newtonian analog the cosmological constant of GR

[Einstein Field equations, Λ is the coefficient of $g_{\mu\nu}$ and is an aspect of gravity. It's long range effect is not explicitly a force, but by being a requirement for all spacetime

"charge" positive always and so a pushing force

The $\frac{1}{3}$ factor is for consistency

with GR. The Λ force field is

$$f = \frac{\Lambda}{3} r$$

and the origin for r is any point

in unbounded space.

Hard to believe in a force that grows to infinity. But in GR, Λ goes is just a term in the Einstein field eqns (p.3034) that apply everywhere. Recall $f_g = -\frac{GM}{r^2}$ goes to zero only at ∞ which is also a bit hard to believe, but is just an aspect of the way it's set up.

For simplicity in discussion, I consider the Cos. Constant the simplest form of dark energy even though it is an aspect of gravity. Constant dark energy the next simplest.

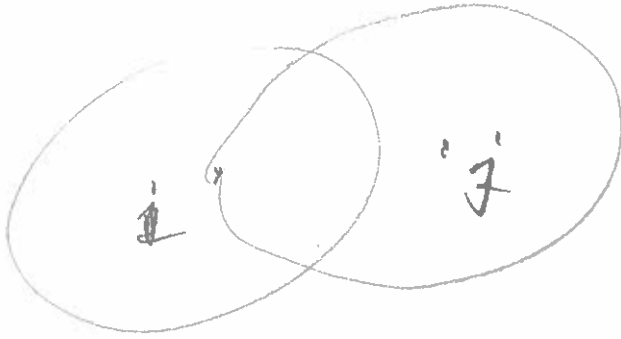
Both are conflated as Λ since they have the same effect in the Friedman eqn, though they differ in other aspects

[For flat or hyperbolic space, unbounded means infinite space. Hyperspherical space finite but unbounded. We'll discuss this a bit later. But pure Newtonian space is always flat]

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Does $f = \frac{1}{3} r$ satisfy 3rd law?
Maybe not and not explicitly at least



$$\vec{F}_{ij} = \frac{1}{3} r_{ij} m_j$$

$$= -\frac{1}{3} r_{ji} m_j$$

$$\neq -\frac{1}{3} r_{ji} m_i \quad \text{unless } m_i = m_j$$

But the source of $F = \frac{1}{3} r$
is NOT a point in space
but all space or all mass in space

So F_{ij} pushes on m_j
but m_j doesn't push on m_i
(which just happens to be at the
origin of F_{ij}), but on all space
on all mass in space. But this is just
a Newtonian analog view which may have no real meaning in GR.

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Take any point in space and draw a big sphere around it.

draw a
Given large
scale homogeneity
and isotropy
(which is called
the cosmological
principle)

$R \approx 400 \text{ Mpc}$

Commonly
suggested
scale for all cells
to be same on average
and so to
roughly
satisfy
cosmological
principle.

Birkhoff's theorem
tells us the
outside if uniform
has no effect even
if the sphere
is expanding/contracting.
Birkhoff's theorem also
applies when there is
a

the center
is the
center of
Mass (CM)
for the
sphere

and
participants
in the
mean expansion
of the universe,

term
space
it can
be moved
to. There is
a dark
energy

The CM

is the origin of a comoving inertial frame
in the Newtonian limit, so the sphere
is not so large as to require
GR corrections

A particle at CM will generally have
a peculiar velocity.

The Local Group has peculiar velocity

$v = 620(15) \text{ km/s}$ to $l = 271.9(20)^\circ$, $b = 30(3)^\circ$

Known from CMB dipole

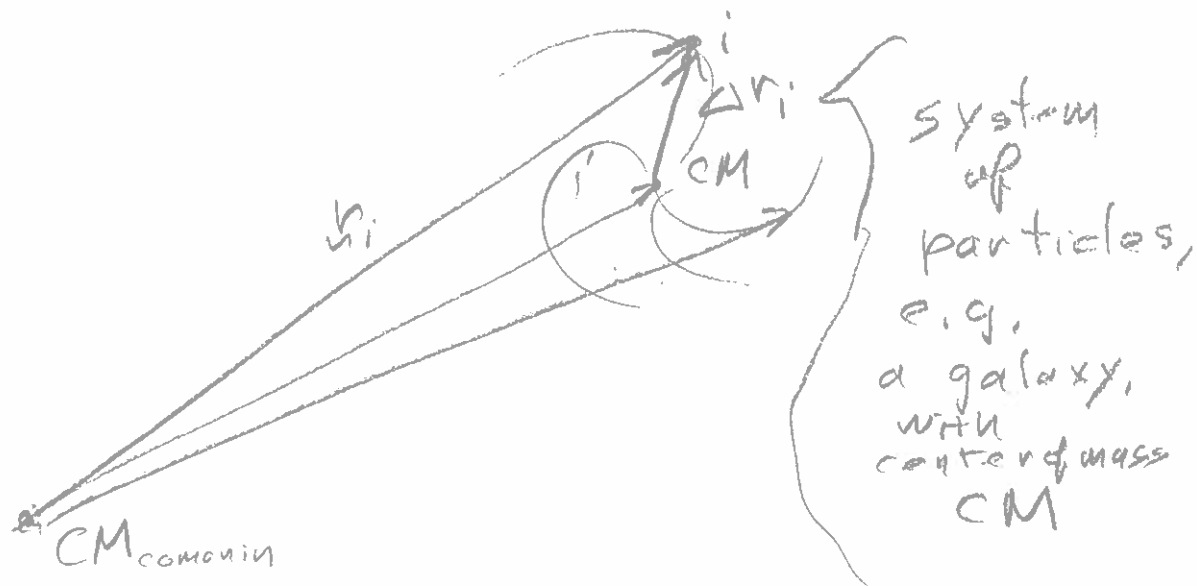
Galactic
longitude

Galactic
latitude

(WIK: CMB)

which is in Ursa Major
(Google AI)

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So



origin in a comoving CM frame

Cosmological constant force from
 $CM_{comoving}$ on particle i

$$F_i = \frac{\Lambda}{3} r_i m_i$$

Force on whole system

$$F = \sum_i F_i = \frac{\Lambda}{3} \sum_i r_i m_i$$

$$= \frac{\Lambda}{3} \sum_i (r_{cm} + \Delta r_i) m_i$$

$$= \frac{\Lambda}{3} r_{cm} m$$

relative to CM
of the
system

since $\sum_i \Delta r_i m_i = 0$

Upshot for any system of particles
the Λ -force just pushes out
from it's CM and for internal motions

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the external net Λ -force makes
no contributions

So what is the internal Λ -force
effect on a system, e.g., a
galaxy including its dark matter halo?



$$\underline{f} = - \frac{GM(r)}{r^2} \hat{r} + \frac{\Lambda}{3} \underline{r}$$

gravity Λ force

for enclosed
mass to r
assuming
spherical symmetry

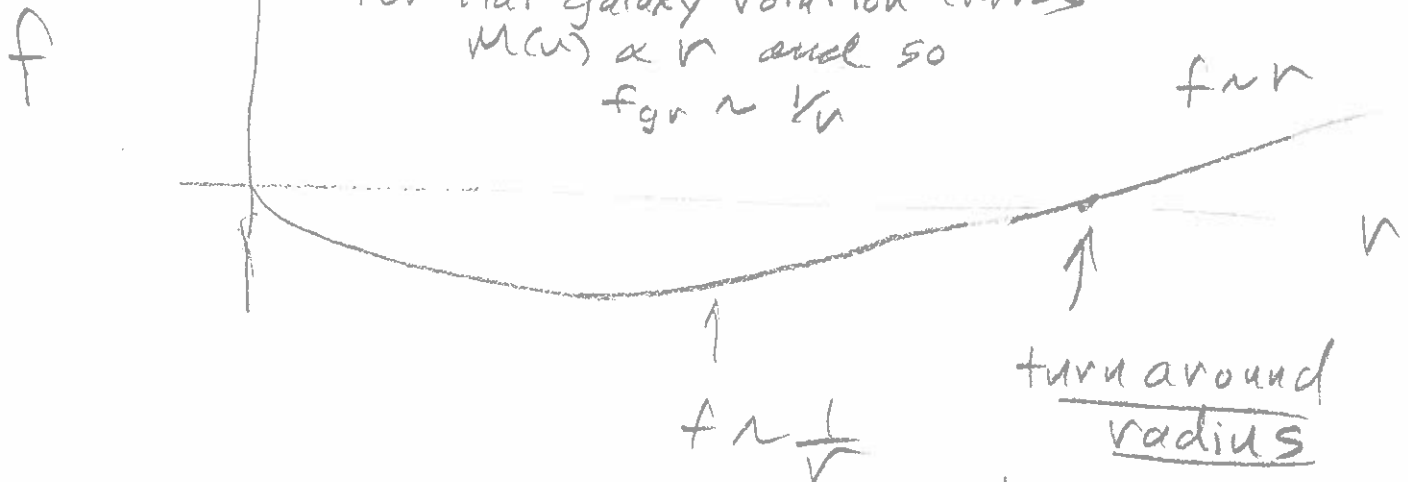
Note

$$\frac{v^2}{r} = \frac{GM(r)}{r^2} \text{ for a circular orbit}$$

$$v = \sqrt{GM(r)/r}$$

which is roughly
for dark matter halos

for flat galaxy rotation curves
 $M(r) \propto r$ and so
 $f_{gr} \sim 1/r$



beyond the
turnaround radius
particles are unbound

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Now for the Λ -CDM model,
Wik gives

$$\Lambda = 1.1056 \times 10^{-52} \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^2$$

$$[\Lambda] = \text{s}^{-2} \text{ units}$$

$$[f_\Lambda] = \text{s}^{-2} \text{ m} = \text{m/s}^2$$

$$= \text{N/kg}$$

So force per unit mass

Now

$$f = - \frac{GM(r)}{r^2} \hat{r} + \frac{\Lambda}{3} \underline{r}$$

$$= \left[-1.3939 \times 10^{-13} \text{ m/s}^2 \right] \left[\frac{M(r)}{10^{12} M_\odot} \right] \left[\frac{1 \text{ Mpc}}{r} \right]^2$$

$$+ \left[1.0220 \times 10^{-13} \text{ m/s}^2 \right] \left[\frac{r}{1 \text{ Mpc}} \right]$$

fiducial numbers for a large galaxy.

Actually, when a galaxy reaches

$M \sim 10^{12} M_\odot$ it is usually

quenched
(star formation
has turned off.)

$$a_{\text{circular}} = \frac{v^2}{r}$$

$$\text{Fiducial acceleration for galaxies at } r=10 \text{ kpc} \approx \frac{(200 \times 10^3 \text{ m/s})^2 (\frac{v}{200 \text{ km/s}})^2}{3 \times 10^{20} \text{ m} (r/10 \text{ kpc})} = \left(\frac{4}{3} \times 10^{-10} \text{ m/s}^2 \right) \left(\frac{v/200 \text{ km/s}}{r/10 \text{ kpc}} \right)^2$$

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So where is the turnaround radius?

$$f = 0 = C_1 \tilde{M} \tilde{r}^{-2} + C_2 \tilde{r}$$

in fiducial
units

$$\tilde{r} = \left(-\frac{C_1}{C_2} \tilde{M} \right)^{1/3} = \left(-\frac{C_1}{C_2} \frac{M}{10^{12} M_\odot} \right)^{1/3}$$

$$\tilde{r} = [1.10981... \text{ Mpc}] \left(\frac{M}{10^{12} M_\odot} \right)^{1/3}$$

Example Galaxy M87 center of Virgo cluster

Estimate: At radius 50 kpc encloses $6 \times 10^{12} M_\odot$

— but where does the dark matter halo mass fall to density of the intracluster medium?

Google AI say virial radius = 1.3 Mpc = R_{200}

where halo density is $200 \times \rho_{\text{critical density of universe}}$

which for some reason

... is take as good radius for galaxies enclosed mass $1.3 \times 10^{14} M_\odot$

$$\tilde{r}(1.3 \times 10^{14} M_\odot) \approx [1.1 \text{ Mpc}] (130)^{1/3} \approx 5.5 \text{ Mpc}$$

So well beyond the virial radius.

