Can Cosmic Structure form without Dark Matter?

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One of the prime pieces of evidence for dark matter is the observation of large overdense regions in the universe. Since we know from the cosmic microwave background that the regions that contained the most baryons when the universe was $\sim 400,000$ years old were overdense by only one part in ten thousand, perturbations had to have grown since then by a factor greater than $(1+z_\ast) \approx 1180$ where $z_\ast$ is the epoch of recombination. This enhanced growth does not happen in general relativity, so dark matter is needed in the standard theory. We show here that enhanced growth can occur in alternatives to general relativity, in particular in Bekenstein's relativistic version of MOdified Newtonian Dynamics (MOND). The vector field introduced in that theory for a completely different reason plays a key role in generating the instability that produces large cosmic structures today.

Introduction. Dark Matter was introduced long ago to explain galactic rotation curves and large velocities in galaxy clusters. Over the past decade the case for dark matter has gotten stronger: galactic rotation curves still appear to diverge significantly from what is expected from observations of visible matter; gravitational lensing is able to map the mass distribution in a galaxy or cluster and this mass distribution often does not coincide with the luminous matter; and large overdense regions in the universe can be explained only if dark matter was around early on to seed structure formation when the universe was of order several hundred thousand years old. At the same time, the case that dark matter does not consist simply of protons and neutrons which do not emit light has also gotten stronger. To explain the astronomical and cosmological observations, therefore, we apparently need to introduce a new fundamental particle which has not yet been observed in accelerators.

There is one way of avoiding this conclusion: perhaps the implicit assumption that gravity is described by general relativity is incorrect. Perhaps a fundamental theory of gravity which differs from general relativity on large scales can explain the observations without recourse to new, unobserved particles. Now more than ever before, there are very good reasons to explore this idea of modifying gravity. For, the case for dark energy also hinges on the assumption that general relativity describes gravity on large scales. Dark energy is even more difficult to explain in the context of fundamental theories than is dark matter, so it seems almost natural to look at gravity as the culprit in both cases.

Perhaps the most direct piece of evidence for dark matter is from galactic rotation curves, which are much flatter than the $R^{-1/2}$ fall-off expected from observations of visible matter. Over 25 years ago, Milgrom proposed a MOdified Newtonian Dynamics (MOND), which diverges from Newtonian theory when the gravitational acceleration is less than $a_0 \sim (200 \text{km sec}^{-1})^2/(10 \text{kpc})$. Argument has raged for two decades as to whether this modification is consistent with a wide variety of observations. Part of the difficulty in assessing MOND is that it makes no claims to be a comprehensive theory of gravity, so, for example, it is impossible to test it with cosmological observations.

Recently, Bekenstein constructed a fully relativistic covariant theory which reduces to MOND in the appropriate (static) limit. In addition to the gravitational metric (a tensor field), Bekenstein’s theory contains a scalar field and a vector field; hence he called it Ten-Vector-Scalar, or TeVeS. We can now compare the predictions of TeVeS to those of general relativity. There are two features of the new theory that are particularly interesting and seem worthy of further study. First, several new constants must be introduced into the TeVeS Lagrangian and one of these is of order $a_0$, the MOND scale. This is no surprise of course since TeVeS is designed to reduce to MOND in certain limits. The interesting part is that $a_0$ is roughly the same order of magnitude as the fundamental scale introduced in quintessence or modified gravity theories designed to explain the acceleration of the universe. The motivation for TeVeS had nothing to do with the cosmic acceleration. Is it just a coincidence then that the fundamental scale needed is the one required to obtain acceleration? Or is this an indication that we are on the right track in our quest to explain away the dark sector by modifying gravity?

The second intriguing aspect of TeVeS, and the one we focus on here, was recently uncovered by Skordis and collaborators. To understand the importance of this feature, it is necessary to state an obvious hurdle that any no-dark-matter theory must overcome. This hurdle is best depicted in Figure which shows the observed power spectrum of matter in the universe in a theory without non-baryonic dark matter. This theory fails to describe observations in two ways: (i) the shape of the power spectrum is off and (ii) the amplitude is far too

\[ z_\ast \approx 1180 \]

\[ a_0 \sim (200 \text{km sec}^{-1})^2/(10 \text{kpc}) \]
small. The first failure has been exploited by many authors to prove the existence of non-baryonic dark matter \[16, 17\], the statistical significance for which now exceeds 5-sigma. The second failure is often ignored because analysts typically marginalize over the amplitude of the power spectrum on the grounds that the power spectrum of galaxies is likely to differ by an overall normalization factor (the bias) from the power spectrum of matter. But a baryon-only model fails miserably at getting anywhere near the amplitude required to generate galaxies and galaxy clusters even with an absurd amount of bias. So if we really want to do away with dark matter, we need to find a mechanism of growing perturbations faster than in standard general relativity. This is precisely what Skordis et al. \[15, 18\] seemed to have found in their treatment of perturbations around a smooth cosmological solution in TeVeS. Here we aim to move beyond the exact Lagrangian in \[13\] will almost certainly need to be altered even if the general idea turns out to be correct. Indeed, as shown in Fig. 1, even if structure grows faster than in the standard theory, the shape of the baryon-only spectrum does not match the observations. Rather, we want to understand generally how to modify gravity such that it solves not only the galactic rotation curve problem but also the cosmological structure problem.

**Cosmology in TeVeS.** Ordinary matter couples to the gravitational metric \(g_{\mu\nu}\) in the standard way in the TeVeS model. The metric which couples to matter, though, does not appear in the standard way in the Einstein-Hilbert action. Rather, it is useful to define a new tensor \(\tilde{g}_{\mu\nu}\) which is a functional of \(g_{\mu\nu}\) and a scalar field \(\phi\) and a vector field \(A_\mu\). Specifically,

\[
g_{\mu\nu} \equiv e^{-2\phi}(\tilde{g}_{\mu\nu} + A_\mu A_\nu) - e^{2\phi} A_\mu A_\nu \tag{1}
\]
defines \(\tilde{g}_{\mu\nu}\). The action of \(\tilde{g}_{\mu\nu}\) is the standard Einstein-Hilbert action. The scalar and vector fields have dynamics given, respectively, by the actions \(S_s\) and \(S_v\):

\[
S_s = -\frac{1}{16\pi G} \int d^4x (\tilde{g})^{1/2} [\mu (\tilde{g}^\mu\nu - A^\mu A_\nu) \phi_\mu \phi_\nu + V]
\]

\[
S_v = -\frac{1}{32\pi G} \int d^4x (\tilde{g})^{1/2} [K F^{\alpha\beta} F_{\alpha\beta} - 2\lambda (A^2 + 1)^2]
\]

where \(\mu\) is an additional non-dynamical scalar field, \(F^{\mu\nu} \equiv A_\mu ,_\nu - A_\nu ,_\mu\), and indices are raised and lowered with the metric \(\tilde{g}_{\mu\nu}\). The potential \(V(\mu)\) is chosen to give the correct non-relativistic MONDian limit. We will consider the form proposed by Bekenstein \[13\]:

\[
V = \frac{3\mu_0^2}{128\pi \ell_B^4} [\tilde{\mu}(4 + 2\tilde{\mu} - 4\mu + \tilde{\mu}^3) + 2\ln(\tilde{\mu} - 1)^2]
\tag{3}
\]

with \(\tilde{\mu} \equiv \mu / \mu_0\). There are three free parameters that appear in the TeVeS action: \(\mu_0\), \(\ell_B\) and \(K_B\). The parameter \(\lambda\) in the vector field action is completely fixed by variation of the action.

Armed with this action, we can solve \[13, 15\] for the evolution of the scale factor \(a\) of a homogeneous Friedman-Robertson-Walker (FRW) metric. This evolution turns out to be very similar to the standard case, with several small deviations. First, Newton’s constant gets generalized to \(G e^{-4\phi}/(1 + d\phi/d\ln(a))^2\). Second, the Friedman equation governing the evolution of \(a\) has, in addition to the standard source terms of the matter and radiation energy densities, the energy density of \(\phi\):

\[
\rho_\phi = \frac{e^{2\phi}}{16\pi G} (\mu V' + V).
\tag{4}
\]

**FIG. 2:** Evolution of homogeneous TeVeS fields. Dashed line shows logarithmic approximation for \(\phi\) valid in the regime when \(\mu\) is constant. In that regime, \(\rho_\phi\) scales as the ambient density, with the ratio equal to \((6\mu_0)^{-1}\) in the matter era. Early on, \(\rho_\phi / \rho_{\text{total}} = -\phi = 15/(4\mu)\).

The TeVeS modifications to the standard cosmology then depend on the evolution of the scalar field \(\phi\). During the radiation dominated era, \(\rho_\phi\) is much smaller than
the dominant radiation density, with the ratio growing as $a^{4/5}$. As shown in Fig. 2, once $a$ gets large enough, $\mu$ becomes constant and $\phi \approx \text{constant} + \ln(a)/2\mu_0$. The energy density in $\phi$ then scales as $a^{-3}$ exactly like matter, with the ratio fixed at $(\mu_0 \bar{\rho})^{-1}$. For a variety of reasons, large values of $\rho_0 (\sim 100 - 1000)$ are preferred, so $\rho_0$ is much smaller than the other densities at all times and the effective Newton constant differs at only the percent level from the standard one. Homogeneous expansion is there the same in TeVeS as in standard general relativity.

**Perturbations in TeVeS.** We start the perturbation expansion by writing the metric which couples to matter as

\[ g_{00}(\vec{x}, \tau) = -a^2(\tau)(1 - 2\Psi(\vec{x}, \tau)) \tag{5} \]
\[ g_{ij}(\vec{x}, \tau) = a^2(\tau)(1 + 2\Phi(\vec{x}, \tau))\delta_{ij} \tag{6} \]

where $\tau$ is conformal time; similarly we expand the density of the matter (and/or radiation) field as

\[ \rho(\vec{x}, \tau) = \bar{\rho}(\tau) (1 + \delta(\vec{x}, \tau)) . \tag{7} \]

To consider the evolution of perturbations in TeVeS, we need to perturb not only the matter and the FRW metric fields, but also the new fields: $\phi$ and $A_{\mu}$.[13][14]. The scalar perturbation can be written as

\[ \phi(\vec{x}, \tau) = \bar{\phi}(\tau) + \varphi(\vec{x}, \tau) \tag{8} \]

where $\bar{\phi}$ is the zero order field introduced above.

The vector field requires a little more thought.[21][22]. In general, perturbations to a vector field $A^\mu$ will be described by four independent functions. In this case, though, the two transverse spatial components decouple from the set of scalar perturbation equations, so we can neglect them. Further simplification follows from the fact that the vector field in TeVeS is subject to the constraint $A^\mu A_\mu \equiv \bar{g}^{\mu\nu} A_\mu A_\nu = -1$. This fixes the time component of the perturbation, so we need track only the longitudinal component of $A^\mu$. In detail, the zero order $A_\mu$ can be chosen to have only a time component. The constraint then sets that time component to $ae^{-\bar{\phi}}$ (since $\bar{g}^{00} = -a^{-2}e^{2\bar{\phi}}$), so the perturbed vector field can be written

\[ A_\mu(\vec{x}, \tau) = a(\tau)e^{-\bar{\phi}(\tau)} (\bar{A}_\mu + \alpha_\mu) \tag{9} \]

where $\bar{A}_\mu \equiv (1, 0, 0, 0)$ and

\[ \alpha_\mu \equiv (\Psi + \varphi, \bar{\alpha}) . \tag{10} \]

That is, the time component of the perturbation is constrained to be a combination of the perturbations to the metric ($\Psi$) and the scalar field ($\varphi$). Skorids et al. [15] called the longitudinal component of the perturbation $\alpha$ (with no index); specifically, $\nabla^2 \alpha \equiv \nabla \cdot \bar{\alpha}$.

The perturbations to the metric, matter, radiation, and TeVeS fields are governed by a set of coupled differential equations. Ref. [13] suggested that perturbations in the scalar field may induce enhanced growth in the matter perturbations. We have found [15] that this is not so: the scalar perturbations are small early on and then oscillate about $\Phi/\mu_0$ in the matter epoch. This is far too small a value to impact density perturbations.

Rather we find [15] that the vector perturbations are the key to enhanced growth. The equation governing vector perturbations is:

\[ \ddot{a} + b_1 \dot{a} + b_2 a = S[\Phi, \Psi] \tag{11} \]

where the source term on the right is a functional of the metric perturbations and the coefficients on the left are

\[ b_1 \equiv \frac{\dot{a}}{a} + 5\frac{\dot{\phi}}{\phi} - a_1 \]
\[ b_2 \equiv -a_1 \left( 5\frac{\dot{\phi}}{\phi} + \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right) - a_1 + e^{-4\bar{\phi}} K_B^{-1} \left[ 8\pi G(\rho + P)a^2(1 - e^{-4\bar{\phi}}) - \mu_0^2 \right] \tag{12} \]

Here $a_1$ is defined as

\[ a_1 \equiv \frac{\dot{\phi}}{\phi} \left( e^{-4\bar{\phi}} - 4 \right) + \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \left( e^{-4\bar{\phi}} - 2 \right) . \tag{13} \]

There is one limit in which analytic solutions exist for the homogeneous part of Eq. (11): when the background quantities are such that $\dot{\phi}$ and $\dot{\phi}$ vanish. This is a fairly good approximation because we know that $\phi$ has little impact on the zero order dynamics. In this limit, $b_1 \rightarrow 2\dot{a}/a$ and $b_2 \rightarrow \ddot{a}/a$. For simplicity then consider a matter dominated universe so that $b_1 = 4/\tau$ and $b_2 = 2/\tau^2$. For reasons that will become clear soon, let us write

\[ b_1 = \frac{4}{\tau}, \quad b_2 = \frac{2(1 + \epsilon)}{\tau^2} . \tag{14} \]

In the limit we are now considering, $\epsilon = 0$.

The homogeneous solutions to Eq. (11) scale as $\tau^p$ with the powers determined by solving an algebraic equation so that

\[ p_\pm = -\frac{3}{2} \pm \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{9 - 8(1 + \epsilon)} . \tag{15} \]

So when $\epsilon = 0$, the two homogeneous modes scale as $\tau^{-2}$ and $\tau^{-1}$. The particular solution will then dominate; in the matter era, the dominant source term is $-6\Psi/\tau$, so $\alpha = -\Psi/3$. The top panel of Fig. 3 shows that, when $K_B$ is not too small, $\alpha$ does indeed follow the particular solution.

However, when $K_B$ is small, the term in Eq. (12) multiplied by $K_B^{-1}$ cannot be neglected. The ratio of this term to $\dot{a}/a$ is defined as $\epsilon$. Both terms in square brackets scale the same way, but the first term is quite a bit
larger. In a matter dominated universe, \(8\pi G(\rho + P)a^2 = 3a^2H^2 \rightarrow 12/\tau^2\), so using the logarithmic solution for \(\tilde{\phi}\), we find

\[
\epsilon \approx -\frac{12 \ln (a/5 \times 10^{-5})}{\mu_0 K_B}.
\] (16)

So as long as \(K_B H_0\) is of order 100 or smaller, the coefficient of \(\alpha\) in Eq. (11), \(1 + \epsilon\), will eventually become negative, signifying enhanced growth. Note that because of the slow, logarithmic growth of \(\tilde{\phi}\), the enhanced growth will not be exponential. It will, however, be a growing mode, which deviates from the particular solution \(-\Psi \tau/3\). The top panel of Figure 3 shows that the qualitative aspects of this analytic solution do emerge in the full numerical results.

![Figure 3](image-url)

**FIG. 3:** Evolution of cosmological perturbations (unnormalized) in a TeVeS model with \(\Omega_m = 0.3\) (baryons only), \(\mu_0 = 200\) and low value \(K_B = 0.07\) (dashed) and a high value of \(K_B = 1\) (dot-dashed). Top panel shows that vector perturbations become unstable for the low value of \(K_B\). Solid curve is the particular solution \(\alpha = -\Psi \tau/3\). Second panel shows that this induces a large difference between the two Newtonian potentials. Third panel shows that this drives enhanced growth in the density perturbations as compared to standard \(\Lambda\)CDM (solid curve) if \(K_B\) is small; density perturbations in the large \(K_B\) case are smaller than in \(\Lambda\)CDM due to the absence of dark matter. In all cases the wavenumber is \(k = 0.5\)Mpc\(^{-1}\).

The growing vector field drives the two Newtonian potentials to differ from one another as seen in the middle panel of Fig. 3. Recall that in general relativity, this difference is sourced only by anisotropic stress. In TeVeS, the vector field also sources the difference \[15\]. This difference in turn drives enhanced growth in the density perturbations as shown in the bottom panel, precisely the kind of growth needed to generate large structures from the small inhomogeneities present at recombination. We have verified that this growth does not occur if vector perturbations are turned off.

How generic are these ideas of vector instabilities and their subsequent impact on the two Newtonian potentials? Several authors \[20, 21\] have pointed out that, in the context of the general Lagrangian studied in \[22\], vector instabilities exist for a wide range of coefficients. So vector instability generally seems quite plausible. Bertshinger \[23\] has pointed out that the key input from modified gravity models is the source term for the difference between the two Newtonian potentials. So it is not surprising that this difference plays an important role in TeVeS. It is possible that the enhanced growth discussed here will emerge naturally from a modified gravity model which explains the acceleration of the universe.

**Conclusions.** Motivated by observations of gravitational lensing, Sanders \[24\] was the first to introduce a vector field into the MOND framework. Bekenstein’s recent theory \[13\] elevated this field to be dynamical. We have shown here that, at least in Bekenstein’s framework, the vector field can also source enhanced growth in the cosmic density perturbations. This is by no means the last word on confronting cosmological data with MONDian theories, but it does overcome perhaps the primary cosmological hurdle faced by a baryon-only model. The enhanced growth enables the very small perturbations at recombination to grow into the large structures we see today. Among the significant problems that remain are the need to match the observed galaxy power spectrum on large scales and the well-measured series of peaks and troughs in the CMB spectrum and the apparent mismatch between mass and light in galaxy clusters \[3\].

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