MOND AND COSMOLOGY

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Abstract. I review various ideas on MOND cosmology and structure formation beginning with non-relativistic models in analogy with Newtonian cosmology. I discuss relativistic MOND cosmology in the context of Bekenstein’s theory and propose an alternative biscalar effective theory of MOND in which the acceleration parameter, $a_0$, is identified with the cosmic time derivative of a matter coupling scalar field and cosmic CDM appears as scalar field oscillations of the auxiliary “coupling strength” field.

1 General Remarks

In modified Newtonian dynamics it is postulated that the true gravitational acceleration, $g$, is related to the usual Newtonian acceleration, $g_N$, as

$$g \mu(|g|/a_0) = g_N$$

where $a_0$ is a fixed parameter with units of acceleration and $\mu(x)$ is a function interpolating between the MOND regime ($\mu(x) = x$) and the Newtonian regime ($\mu(x) = 1$) (Milgrom 1983). This algorithm is arguably more successful in explaining aspects of galaxy phenomenology than is dark matter in the context of the CDM paradigm (Sanders & McGaugh 2002).

But MOND, as a theory, is clearly incomplete; it makes no prediction about cosmology or structure formation. The fact that $a_0 \approx cH_0$ is suggestive of a cosmological connection, but the structure of that cosmology is not evident. It might be expected that a hypothesis positing such a radical departure from Newtonian dynamics (and hence General Relativity) on the scale of galaxies would result in a highly unconventional cosmology and that this would be inconsistent with the phenomenological successes of the standard Big Bang model– primarily the nucleosynthesis of the light elements in their observed abundances (Steigman 2003) and the overall absence of spectral or spatial distortions in the Cosmic Microwave Background.

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DOI: (will be inserted later)
Background radiation (Smoot et al. 1992). Indeed, it would seem safe to assume that these phenomenological foundations of the Big Bang are so firm, that this model for the pre-recombination Universe should be taken as a requirement on any alternative theory; i.e., an alternative theory should not lead to a radically different cosmological scenario for the early Universe.

Now we all know that MOND was suggested as an alternative to dark matter. But if MOND is, in some sense, “true” this does not mean that dark matter is non-existent. Indeed, there is compelling astronomical evidence for the existence of a cosmic component of pressure-less dark matter (CDM), with an abundance in excess of any possible baryonic component. This is essentially the same evidence as that supporting the “Concordance Model” (ΛCDM) for the Universe:

1) The overall amplitude of the first two peaks in the angular power spectrum of the CMB anisotropies is, given an independent determination of the optical depth to the last scattering surface, consistent with the presence, at recombination, of dark matter potential wells (Page et al. 2003); the implied present density of CDM would be about $\Omega_{CDM} \approx 0.25$.

2) The re-brightening of SNIa at $z \geq 1$ (relative to an empty coasting Universe), implies matter domination over vacuum energy at this relatively recent epoch, again at the level of $\Omega_{CDM} \approx 0.25$ (Tonry et al 2003).

Although the evidence may have been overstated (McGaugh 2004), these two facts imply that any MOND cosmology should reproduce or simulate the global effects of cosmic CDM on early structure formation and the expansion history of the Universe. But it would be inconsistent with MOND if dark matter made a dominant contribution to the present mass budget of bound gravitational systems—galaxies and groups of galaxies. I will return to this point later, but I first review specific ideas on MOND cosmology.

2 Primitive (non-relativistic) MOND cosmology: Modified dynamics of fluctuations

Is MOND consistent with FRW world models in the context of the Cosmological Principle? Does MOND promote the formation of the observed range of structure starting from near homogeneity at decoupling in a Universe without CDM? One might hope to provide answers to these fundamental questions by considering the evolution of a uniform sphere in the context of MOND (Felten 1984, Sanders 1998). We know that the Newtonian evolution of a homogeneous sphere expanding against its own gravity provides a non-relativistic derivation of the Friedmann equations for the time dependence of the cosmic scale factor. So, does the MONDian evolution of such an object lead to similar insights into the structure of a MOND cosmology? To assert that it does requires two assumptions:

1. The external Universe does not affect the dynamics of a small spherical piece of the Universe; i.e., there exists an equivalent to the Birkhoff theorem for the relativistic theory underlying MOND (this is probably not true).

2. The MOND acceleration parameter, $a_0$, is constant with cosmic time (also a questionable proposition).
The well-known Newtonian equation for the evolution of the radius \( r \) of the sphere is

\[
\ddot{r} = -\frac{4\pi G r}{3}(\rho + 3p).
\]  

The fact that acceleration is proportional to radius means that there exists a critical radius, \( r_c = \sqrt{GM/a_0} \), beyond which the acceleration exceeds \( a_0 \), so we might expect that on larger scales the evolution is described by the usual Friedmann equations. In Friedmann models the critical radius increases as the dimensionless scale factor: \( r_c \propto a(t)^m \) where \( m=4 \) in a radiation dominated Universe and \( m=3 \) in a matter dominated Universe. Thus, in a MONDian universe we would seem to have the possibility of Friedmann expansion on the scale of the horizon, but MOND expansion and re-collapse on smaller scales. That is, as soon as the deceleration of a given co-moving region falls below \( a_0 \), the dynamical equation becomes

\[
\ddot{r} = -\left[\frac{4\pi G a_0 r}{3}(\rho + 3p)\right]^{1/2}.
\]  

which leads to the eventual re-collapse of any finite size region, with larger co-moving regions re-collapsing later.

In such a cosmology the evolution of the early Universe would be as it is in the standard Big Bang (\( r_c \) would be very much smaller than the relevant Jeans scale). Moreover, in the present Universe, where this no longer the case, inhomogeneity on large scale (\( \approx 10^{16} M_\odot \)) would seem inevitable. However, there are clear problems in principle with this cosmology. It is difficult to reconcile Friedmann expansion in a large volume with MOND re-collapse about every point within that volume. If re-collapse occurs only about selected points, what determines the location of those seeds for re-collapse. The problem is that density fluctuations play no role in this scenario for structure formation; we might expect that in a proper MOND cosmology structure would develop from the field of small density fluctuations as in the standard model of gravitational collapse.

To connect structure formation with density fluctuations one must supplement the above assumptions with an additional ansatz: the MOND algorithm (eq. 1) should only be applied to the peculiar accelerations that develop about fluctuations and not to the overall Hubble flow. This means that the zeroth order Hubble flow remains intact; there is no MOND in a homogeneous Universe. Such a scenario would seem to be more consistent with the suggested relativistic theories in which MOND phenomenology results from a scalar field gradient that dominates the usual gravity force in the limit of low field gradients (Sanders 1997, Bekenstein 2004). Having said this, the deceleration of the Hubble flow over a particular scale may enter as an external field– the so-called “external field effect” in which the internal dynamics of a subsystem is influenced by the presence of a background acceleration field (Milgrom 1983).

These properties have been realized in a non-relativistic two-field theory of modified dynamics (Sanders 2001) which is similar to the Bekenstein-Milgrom Lagrangian-based theory (Bekenstein & Milgrom 1984). The two fields supposedly represent usual gravity and an anomalous MOND force assumed to act only
upon over- or under-dense regions. Following the same procedure as in Newtonian cosmology, I find that the growth equation for small density fluctuations is non-linear even in the regime where the density fluctuations are small (this is because MOND is non-linear). Moreover, as we see in Fig. 1, the growth is dramatically rapid where the background acceleration vanishes; i.e., when the vacuum energy density as described by a cosmological constant becomes comparable to the matter energy density.

![Fig. 1](image)

*Fig. 1.* The amplitude of density fluctuations ($\Delta = \delta \rho / \rho$) on various co-moving scales (Mpc) as a function of scale factor compared to the Newtonian growth in a low-density baryonic Universe (Sanders 2001). The growth rate is particularly large where the cosmological term begins to dominate the expansion.

This effect adds a new aspect to the anthropic argument originally given by Milgrom (1989): we are observing the Universe at an epoch where the cosmological term has recently become dominant because it as at this epoch where structure can form rapidly.

Nusser (2002) and Knebe & Gibson (2004) have carried out cosmic N-body simulations where the MOND formula is applied to the peculiar accelerations. Here there is no external field effect of the background Hubble flow (indeed, it is unclear how such an effect might be realized in N-body simulations). Nusser finds that, with the value of $a_0$ determined from galaxy rotation curves ($\approx 10^{-8}$ cm/s$^2$), structure grows very rapidly—the present amplitude of density fluctuations would
be much larger than observed ($\sigma_8 > 3$). If, however, $a_0$ is smaller by about a factor of 10, then the resulting rate of growth is consistent with standard (CDM) theory and the topology of the resulting structure is very similar to that seen in CDM simulations and actually observed in large galaxy redshift surveys – essentially one of filaments and walls surrounding large voids.

Basically the rapid growth of structure in these simulations is due to the absence of the external field effect: the assumption that the deceleration of the Hubble flow over a finite size region enters as a background acceleration field tames this exponential growth. Without such an effect, some other mechanism, such as a lower value of $a_0$, must be invoked – that is, the assumption that $a_0$ is constant over the history of the Universe must be relaxed. This illustrates the essential limitations of developing a MOND cosmology in the absence of a relativistic theory. Any one of the assumptions upon which such a cosmology is based may be wrong, and this would obviate the results. Non-relativistic MOND cosmology, while useful in getting a broad picture of how a MOND universe may appear and how various assumptions affect the results, has clearly reached its limits.

3 Relativistic MOND cosmology

A consistent relativistic theory of MOND, such as TeVeS (Bekenstein 2004), permits derivation of cosmological models and consideration of structure formation without additional assumptions. In TeVeS, the Friedmann equation is standard, apart from an effectively variable constant of gravity and additional source terms resulting from the energy density of the scalar and vector fields. But in TeVeS as it now stands, the proposed form of its free function presents a problem in interpolating between a homogeneous evolving universe and quasi-static mass concentrations.

The scalar field Lagrangian of TeVeS has the form

$$L_s = \frac{1}{2} q^2 \phi,\alpha \phi,\alpha + 2V(q)$$ (4)

where $\phi$ is the matter-coupling field and $q$ is a non-dynamical (or at least not explicitly dynamical) auxiliary field which determines the strength of that coupling. The free function, $V(q)$, can be viewed as a potential of this non-dynamical field. Now, because of the algebraic relation between $q$ and $\phi,\alpha \phi,\alpha$ (i.e., $q \phi,\alpha \phi,\alpha = V'(q)$), this is really an quadratic Lagrangian theory in disguise as discussed by Bekenstein. That is to say, the scalar field Lagrangian can be written

$$L_s = \frac{1}{2} F(\phi,\alpha \phi,\alpha l^2)$$ (5)

where $l$ is a length scale. Here, the MOND interpolating function is given by $\mu = dF(X)/dX$. If one is to obtain MOND phenomenology in the limit of low $|\nabla \phi|$, then $V(q)$ must be chosen such that $F(X) \rightarrow X^{3/2}$ in the limit of small $X$ as originally discussed by Bekenstein & Milgrom (1984). However, this obviously
cannot be continued into the cosmological regime where \( X < 0 \) (with the sign convention adapted here). This was an early problem for the cosmological extension of AQUAL and it persists for TeVeS (see Sanders 1986).

Bekenstein chooses to solve this problem by taking \( V(q) \) such that \( F(X) \) has two discontinuous branches— one for cosmology \( (X < 0) \), and one for quasi-static mass concentrations \( (X > 0) \). Bekenstein emphasises that this choice is tentative and not fundamental to the theory. This is fortunate because we see an immediate problem here with respect to the growth of fluctuations in an evolving Universe. How do we deal with the discontinuity between the cosmological regime and the quasi-static regime? It would seem impossible to follow the evolution of structure, at least to the non-linear level.

None-the-less it does seem possible to consider the linear development of large scale structure in the context of TeVeS with this somewhat awkward free function. Skordis et al. (2005) have derived homogeneous Friedmann-like models and note that the models exhibit the tracking behaviour characterising some scalar field theories of quintessence: the relative density in the \( \phi \) field attains attractor solutions in the radiation, matter and \( \Lambda \) eras. They then consider the evolution of linear perturbations for a range of the parameters of the theory and find reasonable agreement with both the angular power spectrum of the CMB fluctuations (out to the second peak) and with the observed power spectrum of galaxy density fluctuations, provided that neutrinos are included at a level of \( \Omega_\nu = 0.17 \) near the upper limit permitted by experimental constraints on the electron neutrino mass. A critical aspect is the amplitude of the third peak in the CMB anisotropy power-spectrum: dark matter fluctuations seem to be required to make this peak as large as observed in earlier CMB experiments (see also McGaugh 2004).

These calculations demonstrate the power of a relativistic theory like TeVeS, in confronting this range of observed cosmic phenomena with a theory producing MOND in the quasi-static regime. However, the present arbitrariness of the free function means that the results must still be considered as tentative.

4 A cosmological effective theory of MOND

One short-coming of TeVeS in its present form is that the MOND acceleration parameter \( a_0 \) does not appear to arise in a natural way but must be inserted by hand. The near numerical coincidence of \( a_0 \) with \( cH_0 \) remains unexplained. This coincidence suggests that the correct theory of MOND may be one in which this characteristic phenomenology arises only in a cosmological background. That is to say, MOND should be described by an effective theory which reflects the influence of cosmology on local particle dynamics, as originally supposed by Milgrom (1983, 2002). Scalar-tensor theory offers this possibility (Dicke 1962). Moreover, in any theory of stronger attraction in the limit of weak gradients that also provides the observed degree of gravitational lensing, the scalar field must affect particle motion jointly with the Einstein metric and an additional vector field (Bekenstein & Sanders 1994, Sanders 1997). The components of the vector are not invariant under a Lorentz transformation so the theory will inevitably single out the
cosmological frame as special.

One possibility for such an effective theory is to explicitly include dynamics for the auxiliary field $q$ in TeVeS; i.e., write a kinetic term $q_\alpha q^\alpha$ into the scalar Lagrangian eq. 4. The theory then becomes a biscalter preferred frame generalisation of “phase coupling gravitation” (PCG), an earlier covariant theory also proposed by Bekenstein (1988) as a basis for MOND. Although PCG, in original form, contains pathologies, it is attractive in the sense that it permits sensible cosmologies where the fields at large distances from mass concentrations naturally approach their cosmological values (Sanders 1989). In the biscalter theory, as in PCG, one field $\phi$ couples to matter and the second field $q$ determines the strength of that coupling. It is then possible to write down a theory in which the MOND phenomenology arises in an evolving Universe where $a_0$ is identified with $c \dot{\phi}$ (Sanders 2005). Here $a_0$ evolves with cosmic time in the sense that it was smaller in the past (a factor of 10 smaller at $z=10$).

Fig. 2. Oscillations that develop in the “coupling strength field” $q$ as it seeks the minimum in the potential well. These can constitute CDM with a large de Broglie wavelength (Sanders 2004)

The cosmology is standard, but oscillations of the $q$ field inevitably develop as the field settles to the potential minimum (see Fig. 2). If the bare potential is quadratic ($V(q) = \frac{1}{2} A q^2 + B$), these oscillations comprise cold dark matter, but, depending upon the parameters of the theory, the de Broglie wavelength of these
bosons may be so large that the dark matter does not cluster on the scale of galaxies. So beginning with a theory involving two scalar fields, the matter coupling field provides MOND phenomenology in the cosmological background, but oscillations in coupling-strength field provide cosmological dark matter; an effective theory of MOND produces cosmological CDM for free.

The overall picture is that cosmology is described by a preferred frame theory with a long range force mediated by a scalar field coupled to a dynamical vector as well as the gravitational metric. The fact that the scalar coupling to matter becomes very weak in the region of high field gradients protects the solar system from observable preferred frame effects; i.e., the theory becomes effectively identical to General Relativity in this limit. The outskirts of galaxies would be the transition region between preferred frame cosmology and a GR dominated local dynamics. This transition would be observable as an acceleration-dependent deviation from Newtonian dynamics—MOND.

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