

The growth of correlations in the matter power spectrum

A. Meiksin¹ and Martin White²

¹*Institute for Astronomy, University of Edinburgh, Blackford Hill, Edinburgh EH9 3HJ*

²*Departments of Physics and Astronomy, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Urbana, IL 61801-3080, USA*

Accepted 1999 May 14. Received 1999 April 16; in original form 1998 December 8

ABSTRACT

We find statistically significant correlations in the cosmological matter power spectrum over the full range of observable scales. While the correlations between individual modes are weak, the band-averaged power spectrum shows strong non-trivial correlations. The correlations are significant when the modes in either one or both bands are in the non-linear regime, and approach 100 per cent for pairs of bands in which all the modes are non-linear. The correlations are weaker, but not absent, when computed in redshift space. As estimates of the power spectrum from galaxy surveys require band-averaging, the correlations must be taken into account when comparing a measured power spectrum with theoretical models.

Key words: cosmology: theory – large-scale structure of Universe.

1 INTRODUCTION

In our current paradigm for cosmological structure formation, initially small, primordial density perturbations grow through gravitational instability to form the large-scale structures that we see in the distribution of galaxies today. The most popular assumption is that the primordial fluctuations were distributed according to a homogeneous Gaussian random process. Under this assumption, all of the statistical information is encoded in the power spectrum. The assumption of initially Gaussian modes is a prediction of the simplest models of inflation, and has received some limited observational support through measurements of the CMB (Kogut et al. 1996; Heavens 1998) and large-scale structure (Bouchet et al. 1993; Feldman, Kaiser & Peacock 1994; Gaztañaga 1994; Nusser, Dekel & Yahil 1994; Colley 1997). However, it is known that as the perturbations grow and become non-linear, the modes become coupled. In this paper, we study this process quantitatively using N -body simulations.

As it is the lowest order non-vanishing statistical description of the density or galaxy field, the power spectrum has been at the focus of much recent attention. Many galaxy surveys have attempted to determine the nature of the power spectrum in two and three dimensions, and two massive surveys, the Anglo-Australian Two Degree Field (2dF)¹ and the Sloan Digital Sky Survey (SDSS)² are moving the subject toward high-precision measurements. Several methods for performing detailed comparisons between a measured power spectrum from a galaxy survey and a theoretical power spectrum have been devised (see Tegmark et al. 1998 for a review). Critical to assessing the accuracy of the measurements is an evaluation of the statistical properties of the power spectrum. To date, most estimates of the precision to which

the power spectrum may be measured have assumed that the Fourier components of the density fluctuations are still distributed as a Gaussian random process. In that case the standard deviation of the power spectrum is determined by the value of the power spectrum. We expect this assumption to be valid at early times and on sufficiently large scales for models with Gaussian initial conditions. The question of how large is ‘sufficiently large’ requires a detailed calculation.

We show here that non-linear clustering gives rise to significant correlations in the band-averaged power spectrum at different scales in the regime of observational interest. The correlations increase with increasing (spatial) frequency, reaching levels near 100 per cent when the perturbations are non-linear. Moreover, the correlations require the modes in only a single band to be non-linear: we find significant correlations between high and low frequencies even if the modes in the low-frequency band are still in the linear regime. A consequence of the mode coupling is an increase in the dispersion of the power spectrum, suggesting that estimates of the accuracy to which the power spectrum may be measured should be revisited.

The outline of the paper is as follows. In Section 2 we discuss the expectations for correlations in the power spectrum between modes. In Section 3 we describe our numerical experiments, while in Section 4 we discuss the statistical properties of the correlations. We finish in Section 5 with some comments on the impact of our results for future surveys designed to measure the matter power spectrum.

2 CORRELATIONS IN THE POWER SPECTRUM

The density contrast is defined by $\delta(\mathbf{r}) = [\rho(\mathbf{r}) - \bar{\rho}]/\bar{\rho}$, where $\rho(\mathbf{r})$ is the matter density at position \mathbf{r} , and $\bar{\rho}$ is the mean density. We consider a large spatial volume V and impose periodic boundary

¹<http://meteor.anu.edu.au/~colless/2dF>

²<http://www.astro.princeton.edu/BBOOK>

conditions, thus \mathbf{r} is continuous but its Fourier conjugate \mathbf{k} is quantized. One can take the continuum limit by replacing $V^{-1}\sum_{\mathbf{k}}$ with $\int d^3k/(2\pi)^3$. Our Fourier transform convention has

$$\delta_{\mathbf{k}} = V^{-1} \int d^3r \delta(\mathbf{r}) \exp[i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{r}], \quad (1)$$

and

$$\delta(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{V}{(2\pi)^3} \int d^3k \delta_{\mathbf{k}} \exp[-i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{r}], \quad (2)$$

both dimensionless. We define the power spectrum as $P(k) = V\langle|\delta_{\mathbf{k}}|^2\rangle - 1/\bar{n}$, where the angled brackets $\langle\cdots\rangle$ denote an ensemble (and Poisson) average, and the shot-noise term $1/\bar{n}$ has been subtracted. Here, \bar{n} is the mean number density of objects used to measure the power spectrum. The power spectrum is related to the 2-pt spatial correlation function $\xi(r)$ by

$$P(k) = \int d^3r \xi(r) \exp[i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{r}]. \quad (3)$$

We denote our (unbiased) estimate of the power spectrum at \mathbf{k} , which we obtain from the simulations, as

$$\hat{P}(\mathbf{k}) \equiv V|\delta_{\mathbf{k}}|^2 - 1/\bar{n}. \quad (4)$$

Typically we reduce the scatter in this quantity by averaging over a thin shell in \mathbf{k} -space with $|\mathbf{k}| \simeq k$.

The covariance between two random variables x and y is defined as $\text{cov}[x, y] = \langle xy \rangle - \langle x \rangle \langle y \rangle$. The variance is $\text{var}(x) = \text{cov}[x, x]$. The correlation between x and y is defined as $\rho(x, y) = \text{cov}[x, y]/[\text{var}(x)\text{var}(y)]^{1/2}$. The covariance of our power-spectrum estimator, $\hat{P}(\mathbf{k})$, depends on the two-point (2-pt) function (power spectrum), the three-point function (bi-spectrum) and the four-point function (tri-spectrum). We obtain, to leading order in $(\bar{n}V)^{-1}$ as $\bar{n}V \rightarrow \infty$ (Peebles 1980, section 36),

$$\begin{aligned} \text{cov}[\hat{P}(\mathbf{k}), \hat{P}(\mathbf{k}')] &= [P(k) + \bar{n}^{-1}]^2 (\delta_{\mathbf{k}, \mathbf{k}'} + \delta_{\mathbf{k}, -\mathbf{k}'}) \\ &\quad + T(\mathbf{k}, -\mathbf{k}, \mathbf{k}', -\mathbf{k}')/V, \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

with $\delta_{\mathbf{k}, \mathbf{k}'} = 1$ for $\mathbf{k} = \mathbf{k}'$, and 0 otherwise, and where we have written the tri-spectrum as T . The tri-spectrum is defined as the Fourier transform of the four-point function η according to

$$\begin{aligned} T(\mathbf{k}_1, \mathbf{k}_2, \mathbf{k}_3, \mathbf{k}_4) &= \frac{1}{V} \int d^3x_1 d^3x_2 d^3x_3 d^3x_4 \eta(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_3, \mathbf{x}_4) \\ &\quad \times \exp[i\mathbf{k}_1\cdot\mathbf{x}_1 + i\mathbf{k}_2\cdot\mathbf{x}_2 + i\mathbf{k}_3\cdot\mathbf{x}_3 + i\mathbf{k}_4\cdot\mathbf{x}_4]. \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

The first term in equation (5) is the usual result for Gaussian fluctuations, namely $\text{var}[x^2] = 2\langle x^2 \rangle^2$ for a real variable x . Because $\delta_{\mathbf{k}}$ is complex with uncorrelated real and imaginary parts, $P = 2\langle[\text{Re}(\delta_{\mathbf{k}})]^2\rangle = 2\langle[\text{Im}(\delta_{\mathbf{k}})]^2\rangle$, and the Gaussian contribution to the error in P becomes equivalent to the total power spectrum: the sum of the signal and the noise. Only the tri-spectrum contributes to the off-diagonal ($k \neq k'$) elements of the covariance.

The terms subdominant in $\bar{n}V$, all shot-noise terms, are also straightforward to derive. There is a constant term $(V\bar{n}^3)^{-1}$, contributions from the 2-pt function

$$\frac{1}{\bar{n}^2 V} [P(|\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{k}'|) + P(|\mathbf{k} - \mathbf{k}'|) + 2P(k) + 2P(k')] \quad (7)$$

and the 3-pt function

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{\bar{n}V} &[B(\mathbf{k}, -\mathbf{k}, \mathbf{0}) + B(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{k}', -\mathbf{k}') + B(\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{k}', -\mathbf{k}, -\mathbf{k}') \\ &\quad + B(\mathbf{k} - \mathbf{k}', -\mathbf{k}, \mathbf{k}') + B(\mathbf{k}, \mathbf{k}' - \mathbf{k}, -\mathbf{k}') \\ &\quad + B(\mathbf{k}, -\mathbf{k} - \mathbf{k}', \mathbf{k}')], \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

where the bi-spectrum is defined as the Fourier transform of the 3-pt function ζ :

$$\begin{aligned} B(\mathbf{k}_1, \mathbf{k}_2, \mathbf{k}_3) &= \frac{1}{V} \int d^3x_1 d^3x_2 d^3x_3 \zeta(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_3) \\ &\quad \times \exp[i\mathbf{k}_1\cdot\mathbf{x}_1 + i\mathbf{k}_2\cdot\mathbf{x}_2 + i\mathbf{k}_3\cdot\mathbf{x}_3]. \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

Finally, we consider the result for band-averaged estimates of $P(k)$. Denote by \hat{P}_i our estimator $\hat{P}(\mathbf{k})$ averaged over a set of N_i $\mathbf{k}_{i,\alpha}$ with $|\mathbf{k}_{i,\alpha}| \simeq k_i$ for $\alpha = 1$ to N_i . Straightforwardly,

$$\text{cov}[\hat{P}_i, \hat{P}_j] = \frac{1}{N_i N_j} \sum_{\alpha=1}^{N_i} \sum_{\beta=1}^{N_j} \text{cov}[\hat{P}(\mathbf{k}_{i,\alpha}), \hat{P}(\mathbf{k}_{j,\beta})]. \quad (10)$$

Even when the bands i and j are disjoint, we shall see that the band-averaging introduces non-trivial *correlations* in the power spectrum. These correlations are given by the tri-spectrum averaged over the configurations in the shell. In principle, one could apply different weights to the modes in the band, but we have not pursued this line of enquiry. It is traditional to merely average over the directions in a k shell, and this is what we have chosen to do in the simulations.

3 THE GROWTH OF CORRELATIONS

Gravitational perturbation theory (PT) has given some insight into the growth of clustering beyond the linear regime, and in particular the effect of clustering on the evolution of the power spectrum, the bi-spectrum, and the tri-spectrum (Peebles 1980; Juszkiewicz 1981; Vishniac 1983; Fry 1984). Perturbation theory shows that the variance in the power spectrum will grow for modes that are still well in the linear regime. In addition, PT shows that the non-linear growth of density fluctuations will give rise to a tri-spectrum (Fry 1984). The form the tri-spectrum takes in PT involves multiples of the first-order power spectrum and no powers of V . While this is shown explicitly by Fry to the lowest non-vanishing order in the tri-spectrum, it is straightforward to extend the result to all orders. Consequently, the contribution of the tri-spectrum to the power-spectrum covariance between any off-diagonal pair of k modes is of order $1/V$ in PT, and so vanishes in the large volume limit according to equation (3). Fan & Bardeen (1995) have argued that the power covariance matrix should remain diagonal even in the non-linear regime.

Nonetheless, as we describe below, *correlations* in the *band-averaged* power spectrum may remain even in the limit $V \rightarrow \infty$. This is a consequence of the decrease in the variance of the power spectrum with the increased number of modes in the band. As the number of modes in a band is proportional to V , the $1/V$ suppression of the covariance between modes cancels in the expression for the correlation ρ , leading to a finite value even as $V \rightarrow \infty$. We investigate the development of the correlations in the non-linear regime using N -body simulations.

We remark that for a *finite*-volume survey, we would expect the presence of both covariances and correlations between individual

Table 1. Power-spectrum correlation matrix for the $200 h^{-1}$ Mpc simulation. The last row shows $\sigma = [\Delta^2(k)]^{1/2}$.

k ($h \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$)	0.031	0.044	0.058	0.074	0.093	0.110	0.138	0.169	0.206	0.254	0.313	0.385
0.031	1.000	-0.017	0.023	0.024	0.042	0.154	0.176	0.188	0.224	0.264	0.265	0.270
0.044	-0.017	1.000	0.001	0.024	0.056	0.076	0.118	0.180	0.165	0.228	0.234	0.227
0.058	0.023	0.001	1.000	0.041	0.027	0.086	0.149	0.138	0.177	0.206	0.202	0.205
0.074	0.024	0.024	0.041	1.000	0.079	0.094	0.202	0.229	0.322	0.343	0.374	0.391
0.093	0.042	0.056	0.027	0.079	1.000	0.028	0.085	0.177	0.193	0.261	0.259	0.262
0.110	0.154	0.076	0.086	0.094	0.028	1.000	0.205	0.251	0.314	0.355	0.397	0.374
0.138	0.176	0.118	0.149	0.202	0.085	0.205	1.000	0.281	0.396	0.488	0.506	0.508
0.169	0.188	0.180	0.138	0.229	0.177	0.251	0.281	1.000	0.484	0.606	0.618	0.633
0.206	0.224	0.165	0.177	0.322	0.193	0.314	0.396	0.484	1.000	0.654	0.720	0.733
0.254	0.264	0.228	0.206	0.343	0.261	0.355	0.488	0.606	0.654	1.000	0.816	0.835
0.313	0.265	0.234	0.202	0.374	0.259	0.397	0.506	0.618	0.720	0.816	1.000	0.902
0.385	0.270	0.227	0.205	0.391	0.262	0.374	0.508	0.633	0.733	0.835	0.902	1.000
σ	0.17	0.25	0.33	0.44	0.55	0.62	0.76	0.91	1.07	1.29	1.55	1.87

modes, according to equation (5) and the associated shot-noise terms.

Using a particle-mesh (PM) code, described in detail in Meiksin, White & Peacock (1999), we have performed a series of several thousand realizations of the evolution of clustering in a Λ CDM universe. The parameters chosen are $\Omega_0 = 0.4$, $\Omega_\Lambda = 0.6$, $h = 0.65$, $\Omega_B h^2 = 0.03$ and $n = 1.030$, where n is the primordial spectral index. The power spectrum is *COBE*-normalized using the method of Bunn & White (1997). The slight tilt has been chosen to reproduce the abundance of rich clusters of galaxies today (White, Efstathiou & Frenk 1993); specifically, the *rms* mass fluctuation in an $8 h^{-1}$ Mpc sphere is $\sigma_8 \approx 0.92$. The non-linear scale, where the variance becomes unity, is $k_{\text{nl}} = 0.19 h \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$. Tests involving the higher order moments indicate that the code should accurately reproduce the bi- and tri-spectrum on the scales of interest (White 1998).

All the simulations were run with a 128^3 force grid and either 128^3 or 256^3 particles to isolate the effects of shot noise. Two box sizes were used, 200 and $400 h^{-1}$ Mpc, to test for finite-volume effects. For each box size, $N \sim 10^3$ realizations with different Gaussian initial conditions were evolved from $1 + z = 20$ to the present. For the 256^3 simulations, $N \sim 10^2$ realizations were performed. We verified that starting the simulations at $1 + z = 30$ did not alter our results. For each realization the power spectrum was calculated in 20 bins, logarithmically spaced in k from the fundamental mode to the Nyquist frequency of the force grid, as described in Meiksin et al. (1999). The ensemble averages of the previous section were approximated by an average over the N realizations. Convergence of the correlations was typically obtained with several hundred realizations.

The resulting correlations in the real-space power spectrum at $z = 0$ for several selected frequency bands from the $200 h^{-1}$ Mpc simulations are shown in Table 1. For each entry we may assess the likelihood of no correlation using the Spearman rank order correlation coefficient r_s (Siegel & Castellan 1985). The probabilities are < 0.001 for pairs of bands with both central frequencies exceeding $0.14 h \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$. An estimate of the probability for *all* the correlations is provided by the Kendall concordance statistic W (Siegel & Castellan 1985), which is linearly related to the average of the r_s values for all the band pairs.³ For the 12 frequency bands shown in Table 1, we obtain $W = 0.33$, with a vanishingly small

³ The relation between W and the average coefficient \bar{r}_s for N_b bands is $W = (1 - N_b^{-1})\bar{r}_s + N_b^{-1}$. The correlation coefficient r_s between two quantities is the product-moment coefficient computed by replacing the values of the quantities by their ranks.

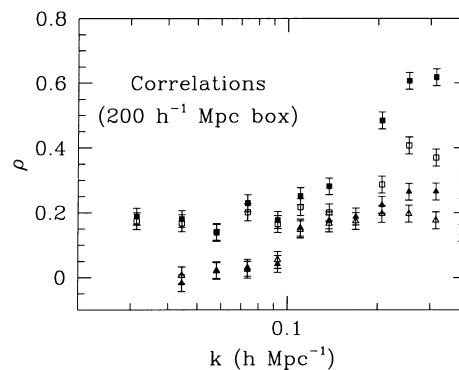


Figure 1. The correlations in power between a band centred at k and bands centred at $k = 0.031 h \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$ (triangles) and $k = 0.17 h \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$ (squares). The correlations are shown both in real space (filled) and redshift space (open). The correlations become significant when the modes in one of the bands enter the non-linear regime. Redshift-space distortions reduce the correlations on small scales.

probability for obtaining a value so large assuming no correlations. Indeed, it is only for correlations for which both bands are confined to frequencies $k \leq 0.093 h \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$ that the collective probability for non-correlation is found to exceed 0.001.

We also compute the correlations in redshift space by including the peculiar velocities of the particles. The correlations are weaker ($W = 0.26$ for the 12 bands), but are still highly significant. We expect that the correlations are weaker in redshift space both because of the reduced power on small scales in redshift space and because the peculiar velocities introduce extra randomness, which destroys the correlations.

In Fig. 1, the correlations are shown between each band centred at k and the bands centred at $k = 0.031$ or $0.17 h \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$. The error bars indicate one standard deviation calculated from $\sigma_\rho = N^{-1/2}$, assuming the modes are drawn from a Gaussian distribution.⁴ In the last row of Table 1, we show the density fluctuations on each scale k , as defined by $\sigma = [\Delta^2(k)]^{1/2}$, where $\Delta^2(k) = k^3 P(k)/(2\pi^2)$. While the correlations between pairs of low-frequency bands, both well in the linear regime ($k < k_{\text{nl}}$), are consistent with zero, the power-spectrum correlation between low-frequency bands and

⁴ The error is independent of the number of modes entering the band averages. The errors will be reduced in the presence of correlations. The error bars shown demonstrate the significance of the correlations, but do not strictly show the error in the calculated correlation strength when the correlations are non-vanishing.

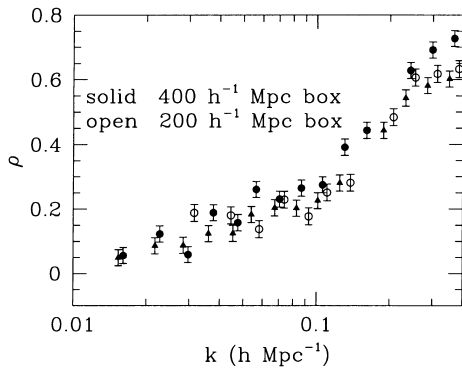


Figure 2. The correlations in real-space power between the bands centred at k and $k = 0.17 h \text{Mpc}^{-1}$ (open circles) in the $200 h^{-1} \text{Mpc}$ simulation. Also shown are the correlations for the $k = 0.16 h \text{Mpc}^{-1}$ band (filled triangles) and the $k = 0.19 h \text{Mpc}^{-1}$ band (filled circles) in the $400 h^{-1} \text{Mpc}$ simulation. The filled points are slightly offset in frequency for clarity. No significant reduction in the correlations is found in the larger box compared with the smaller one, suggesting that the correlations are not a finite-volume effect.

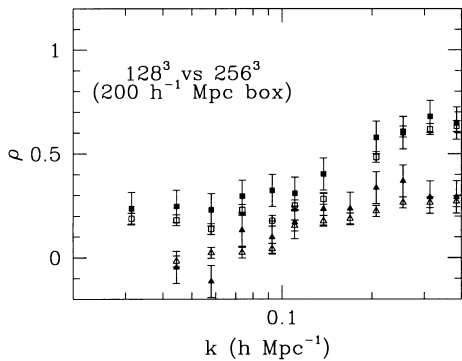


Figure 3. The correlations in power between the band centred at k and the bands centred at $k = 0.031 h \text{Mpc}^{-1}$ (triangles) and $k = 0.17 h \text{Mpc}^{-1}$ (squares). The correlations are shown for the $200 h^{-1} \text{Mpc}$ box simulations for 128^3 (open) or 256^3 (filled) particles.

high-frequency bands rapidly rises as the frequency of the latter increases. The correlations involving the higher frequency bands are significantly reduced in redshift space.

In Fig. 2, we show that no significant difference is found between the 200 and $400 h^{-1} \text{Mpc}$ box simulations, suggesting that the correlations have converged and are not caused by the finite volume of the simulations. Similarly, we show in Fig. 3 that the correlations do not decrease as the number of particles increases, demonstrating that the correlations are not dominated by shot-noise contributions.

As an additional test, we performed a similar set of $\sim 10^3$ runs using the Zel'dovich approximation with the same box sizes and particle numbers as for the PM code. With the Zel'dovich calculations we could displace the particles from random positions within the simulation volume, from a regular grid or from random positions near grid zones. This allowed us to test that our initial conditions did not contribute spuriously to the correlations. We found (see Fig. 4) that the correlations appeared much more strongly in the PM runs than the Zel'dovich runs, suggesting that they are induced by gravitational instability, as shown in Fig. 5, and are not an artefact of our numerical technique. We note, however, that evolving the particles in the Zel'dovich approximation, even when the particles were initially placed completely at

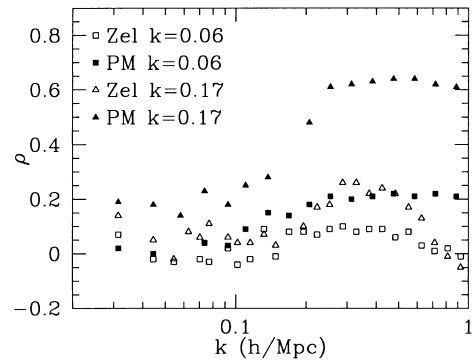


Figure 4. The correlations in power between the band centred at k and the bands centred at $k = 0.06 h \text{Mpc}^{-1}$ (squares) and $k = 0.17 h \text{Mpc}^{-1}$ (triangles) computed using either the Zel'dovich approximation (open) or the PM code (filled). While the scatter at low k is large because of the small number of modes present, the PM correlations are stronger than the Zel'dovich correlations.

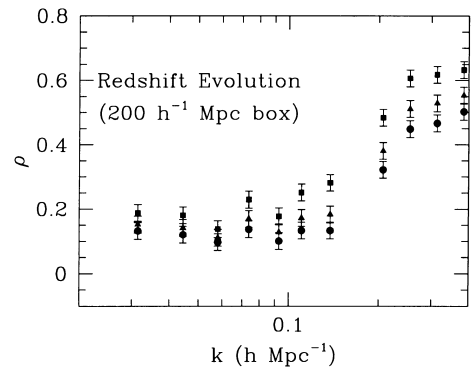


Figure 5. The correlations in real-space power between the bands centred at k and $k = 0.17 h \text{Mpc}^{-1}$. The correlations are shown for three different redshifts: $z = 0.5$ (circles), $z = 0.3$ (triangles) and $z = 0$ (squares). The correlations grow with time.

random within the simulation box, again resulted in statistically significant correlations.

We have also tested the random number generation by using two separate generators for 512 Zel'dovich runs each, one based on a multiplicative congruential generator (Press et al. 1992), and the other based on a lagged Fibonacci generator (Bertschinger 1995); the periods of both of these should be ample for our purposes. The results were statistically indistinguishable.

4 THE STATISTICAL PROPERTIES OF THE CORRELATIONS

To trace the origin of the correlations, we create two new bands with only 32 modes each for the $200 h^{-1} \text{Mpc}$ box simulation. One band is centred at $k = 0.47 h \text{Mpc}^{-1}$ and the other at $k = 0.71 h \text{Mpc}^{-1}$. We have first verified that the density fluctuations δ_k themselves are uncorrelated, as they must be by homogeneity. We find $W = 0.008$, with a probability of non-correlation of $p = 0.44$. For the two band-averaged $P(k)$ the correlation is $\rho = 0.23$, with a probability $p = 6.3 \times 10^{-9}$ that the two are uncorrelated. For the full set of $(64 \times 63)/2$ $P(k)$ correlations, we find $W = 0.025$, with a probability $p = 2.3 \times 10^{-22}$, demonstrating the clear presence of highly significant correlations among the individual $P(k)$. However, we find that none of the values in the

32×32 interband correlation matrix for the individual $P(k)$ estimates is as great as the correlation value $\rho = 0.23$ found between the band-averaged power spectra above. Indeed, the average correlation value in the matrix is 0.0099, and the standard deviation 0.037. We conclude that *the strong correlations among the band-averaged power spectra are built up in the band-averaging procedure itself from the much weaker individual mode correlations.*

We are able to understand the origin of the correlations by considering a thin shell of width Δk centred at k_i . Neglecting the shot-noise terms, the variance in the band-averaged power $P_i(k)$ is $\text{var}[P_i(k)] = 2P_i(k)^2/N_k + \bar{T}/V$, where \bar{T} denotes an average over the configurations in the k shell, and $N_k = V(2\pi)^{-3}4\pi k^2\Delta k$ is the number of modes in the shell. When the contribution of the tri-spectrum to the variance is negligible, we find that the correlation in the band-averaged power is given by $\rho[P_i(k), P_j(k')] \sim [\bar{T}/P_i(k)P_j(k')]/kk'\Delta k$, and V has explicitly cancelled. Here \bar{T} denotes the tri-spectrum averaged over all the configurations between both k shells. For logarithmically spaced frequencies this becomes $\rho \sim [\bar{T}/P_i(k)P_j(k')]/(kk')^{3/2}\Delta \log k$.

To make further progress, let us assume the hierarchical clustering ansatz. The form of the reduced four-point function η is then $\eta(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_3, \mathbf{x}_4) = R_a[\xi(x_{12})\xi(x_{23})\xi(x_{34}) + \text{cyc. (12 terms)}] + R_b[\xi(x_{12})\xi(x_{13})\xi(x_{14}) + \text{cyc. (4 terms)}]$, where $x_{ij} = |\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j|$ and R_a and R_b are constants of order 1 (Peebles 1980; Fry 1984). Using equation (6), we obtain for the contribution to the off-diagonal power-spectrum covariance

$$V^{-1}T(\mathbf{k}, -\mathbf{k}, \mathbf{k}', -\mathbf{k}') = \frac{R_a}{V} [P(|\mathbf{k} - \mathbf{k}'|) + P(|\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{k}'|)] \times [P(k) + P(k')]^2 + \frac{R_b}{V} P(k)P(k')[P(k) + P(k')]. \quad (11)$$

We find then that the power correlations for individual modes of frequencies k and k' will be of the order of $[P(k) + P(k')]/V \sim 10^{-3} - 10^{-2}$ for a $200 h^{-1} \text{Mpc}$ box. After band-averaging, and for $P(k') \gg P(k)$, the correlations become $\rho \sim P_j(k')kk'\Delta k$ for linearly spaced k shells, and $\rho \sim \Delta_j^2(k')(k/k')^{3/2}\Delta \log k$ for logarithmic spacing. Thus for logarithmically spaced shells, at a fixed k' the correlations will increase with k like $k^{3/2}$. When $\Delta_i^2(k) \sim (\Delta \log k)^{-1}$, the tri-spectrum term will dominate the variance of P_i and the correlations will flatten to $\rho \sim [\Delta_i^2(k)]^{-1/2}\Delta_j^2(k')(k/k')^{3/2}(\Delta \log k)^{1/2}$. This is just the behaviour displayed in Fig. 1. Motivated by the hierarchical ansatz form, we find that the correlations for $k \gg k'$ and $P(k') \gg P(k)$ are well approximated by

$$\rho \approx (\bar{R}_a + \bar{R}_b) \left(\frac{k}{k'}\right)^{3/2} \frac{\Delta^2(k')\Delta \log k}{1 + \bar{R}_b[\Delta^2(k)\Delta \log k]^{1/2}}, \quad (12)$$

where $\bar{R}_a = (34/21)^2$ and $\bar{R}_b = 682/189$ are angle-averaged coefficients derived in perturbation theory (Fry 1984). We find that a direct computation using equation (11) with \bar{R}_a and \bar{R}_b agrees less well with the simulations, overestimating the correlations by as much as a factor of 2. It is unclear why the direct computation fails, but it improves toward the higher k shells, which may indicate that using the angle-averaged coefficients is an inadequate approximation for the bins with fewer modes. As performing the full set of integrals in perturbation theory for all the modes in the k shells is extremely cumbersome, we will not pursue the hierarchical ansatz any further, but note that it may be worth greater consideration.

A consequence of the correlations is a reduction in the number

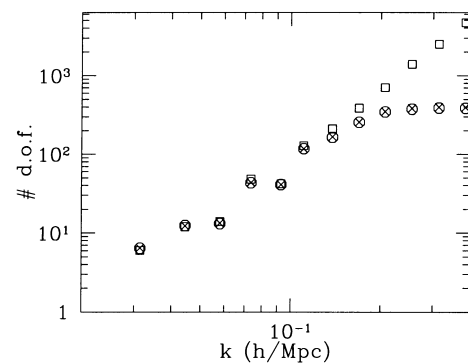


Figure 6. The number of degrees of freedom expected in each frequency band based on counting modes in the simulation box (squares) versus the equivalent number n_{dof} found in the simulations (circles). Also shown are maximum-likelihood estimates of n_{dof} given by fitting the power spectra to a χ^2 distribution (crosses). Correlations between modes reduce the effective number of degrees of freedom at high frequencies, and so increase the dispersion in the band-averaged power-spectrum estimates over the expectation for uncorrelated modes.

of degrees of freedom describing the variance of the power spectrum. While the distribution of *band-averaged* power is still χ^2 , the modes are no longer independent and the ‘effective number’ of degrees of freedom will be fewer than the number of modes in the band. We may define the ‘effective number’ of degrees of freedom n_{dof} by

$$n_{\text{dof}} = \frac{2\langle \hat{P} \rangle^2}{\text{var}(\hat{P})}. \quad (13)$$

As the density fluctuation δ_k for each mode consists of independent real and imaginary parts, when the modes are Gaussian-distributed each mode will contribute two degrees of freedom to the average. The band-averaged power spectrum will then be distributed like χ^2 with n_{dof} degrees of freedom. Correlations between modes will reduce n_{dof} below the number expected from mode counting. This is a strong effect at high frequencies, as shown in Fig. 6. Motivated by the hierarchical ansatz, we find that the reduction factor is approximately described by $1 + 2\bar{R}_b\Delta^2(k)\Delta \log k$. While n_{dof} agrees with the number of degrees of freedom expected for Gaussian-distributed modes in the linear to quasi-linear regimes ($k < 0.1 h \text{Mpc}^{-1}$), on scales for which the fluctuations are non-linear n_{dof} falls substantially short. The errors in the power spectrum in the non-linear regime will correspondingly greatly exceed estimates based on the assumption of Gaussian statistics.

In spite of the presence of strong correlations, the distribution of band-averaged power spectra is still reasonably well-described by a χ^2 distribution. We show the maximum-likelihood estimates for the numbers of degrees of freedom in Fig. 6, found by assuming that the power spectra in a given band are distributed like χ^2 . Formally, the KS test rejects the χ^2 distribution with 90–99.7 per cent confidence at frequencies in the range $0.25 < k < 2 h \text{Mpc}^{-1}$. (We have not examined higher frequencies.) The distribution of the redshift-space estimated power spectra, however, is found to be very close to χ^2 at all frequencies.

5 CONCLUSIONS

Estimates of the matter power spectrum from galaxy surveys have generally assumed the power in separate modes to be uncorrelated. The gravitational growth of the modes, however, will give

rise to a tri-spectrum which will induce correlations in the band-averaged power spectrum. In a set of numerical experiments, we find that significant correlations in power develop when at least one of the modes is non-linear, and approach 100 per cent when the modes in both bands are non-linear. Although the power-spectrum correlations are weaker in redshift space, they are still statistically significant.

In addition to redshift-space distortions, the measured galaxy power spectrum will also depend on the bias between the galaxy count fluctuations and the underlying matter fluctuations. We have not computed the correlations in power allowing for bias. Although this is straightforward within any given bias scheme, which scheme, if any, the true galaxy distribution follows is unclear at this time. More direct measurements of the dark matter fluctuations may be obtained through galaxy velocity flows (Dekel 1994; Strauss & Willick 1995) or lensing (Blandford et al. 1991; Miralda-Escude 1991; Kaiser 1992; Bernardeau, van Waebeke & Mellier 1997; Kaiser 1998; Seljak 1998; Jain, Seljak & White 1998). Our results are not directly applicable to these measures, as they involve projections (integrals) of the matter power spectrum. However, we expect that measurement errors will again exceed those estimated assuming Gaussian-distributed density fluctuations as a result of correlations in the matter power spectrum.

The presence of power-spectrum correlations restricts the range of applicability of many techniques for fitting models to the measured power spectra (e.g. Tegmark et al. 1998) to very large scales. In particular, it may no longer be assumed that the k -space density fluctuations δ_k are distributed as a Gaussian random process: the tri-spectrum must explicitly be taken into account if *any* of the modes fitted are in the non-linear regime. This constraint may be particularly severe if the window function of the survey is broad, mixing modes across a wide range of scales, and/or the survey is not very deep. Correlations will affect the model-fitting based on all completed galaxy surveys, and may only be circumvented with wide-angle deep surveys like the Sloan Digital Sky Survey and the 2dF survey now underway. For a catalogue with the depth of the SDSS Northern Polar Cap redshift survey, the minimum frequency spacing for uncorrelated bins is $\Delta k \approx 0.015 h \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$ (Meiksin et al. 1999). On a scale of $k = 0.19 h \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$, the scale of non-linearity for the model investigated here, the expected correlation with the power at $k' = 0.1 h \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$ will be of the order of $\rho \approx 0.15$. Fitting a given model to measurements of the power spectrum in the non-linear regime will require computing the correlations for the model. Provided there is a sufficient number of modes per band, the Central Limit Theorem guarantees that the band-averaged power-spectrum estimates will be distributed as a multivariate Gaussian random process, simplifying the fitting process. Designing an efficient fitting

procedure in the presence of correlations is a topic worthy of future investigation.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors thank S. Colombi, J. Fry and A. Heavens for helpful discussions. They note that Scoccimarro, Zaldarriaga & Hui (1999) independently recognized the existence of power-spectrum correlations. MW was supported by the NSF.

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