

Lec 19:

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Free Streaming Length and Constraints on Dark Matter:

After dark matter particles completely decouple from the plasma they move freely. These particles have at the time of decoupling a velocity distribution that is given by thermal value. However, they move randomly as their velocities do not have the same phase.

Between the time of decoupling and the radiation-matter equality free streaming is the dominant effect. Note that the universe is not exactly homogeneous and there are tiny density fluctuations that eventually act as seeds for structure formation. As we will see later on, the inhomogeneities^{of dark matter} undergo growth because of gravitational clumping only after matter dominance. Moreover, inhomogeneities of baryons can only grow after the

recombination.

However, the growth of fluctuation after the matter radiation equality depends on the amplitude of fluctuations at that time.

Random motion of dark matter particles between the decoupling time (t_{dec}) and the time of matter radiation equality (t_{eq})

dampens inhomogeneities in this interval. As mentioned this is

due to particles having velocities with random phases, and is similar to spreading of a concentration of smoke because

of diffusion. The wash out of fluctuations as a result of free streaming is called Landau damping (or collisionless

damping). It affects all fluctuations whose comoving wavelength is smaller than or comparable to the comoving distance travelled during the free streaming.

We expect the effect to be more important in the case that dark matter particles are in the relativistic

regime at the time of decoupling. The reason being that they have a larger velocity in this case, and hence travel a larger distance. We therefore focus on this case and calculate the free streaming length, denoted by λ_{FS} .

We have:

$$\lambda_{FS} \approx \int_{t_{dec}}^{t_{NR}} \frac{dt}{a(t)} + \int_{t_{NR}}^{t_{EQ}} \frac{a_{NR}}{a^2(t)} dt$$

The first integral represents the comoving distance (not the scale factor "a" in the denominator) travelled between decoupling and the time the particle goes into the non-relativistic regime. Within this period one can use the approximation that the physical velocity is ~ 1 (in natural units). The second integral is the comoving distance

travelled in the non-relativistic regime. The physical velocity is redshifted a^{-1} in this regime, hence a^2 in the denominator of the integrand.

After using the fact that the universe is in a radiation-dominated phase for $t < t_{\text{EQ}}$, where $a(t) \propto t^{\frac{1}{2}}$, we find:

$$\lambda_{\text{FS}} \simeq \frac{2t_{\text{NR}}}{a_{\text{NR}}} + \frac{t_{\text{NR}}}{a_{\text{NR}}} \ln\left(\frac{t_{\text{EQ}}}{t_{\text{NR}}}\right)$$

At t_{dec} we have $t_{\text{dec}} \propto T_{\text{dec}}^{-2}$, while at t_{NR} we have

$t_{\text{NR}} \propto T_{\text{NR}}^{-2}$. Here T_{dec} and T_{NR} denote the plasma temperature at t_{dec} and t_{NR} respectively.

Temperature of the dark matter particle X , denoted by T_X , is in general different from the plasma temperature exactly because of its decoupling from the plasma. At t_{NR} we have $T_X \simeq \frac{m_X}{3}$ (factor of 3 is because of the fact that average kinetic energy of a relativistic particle

at temperature T is $3T$). We can therefore find:

$$t_{NR} \approx 1.2 \times 10^7 \left(\frac{1 \text{ keV}}{m_X} \right)^2 \left(\frac{T_X}{T} \right)^2 \text{ sec}$$

$$a_{NR} \approx 7.1 \times 10^{-7} \left(\frac{1 \text{ keV}}{m_X} \right) \left(\frac{T_X}{T} \right)$$

Note that $\frac{T_X}{T}$ is a constant, and hence we can use the value anytime after the decoupling of X from the plasma.

Also, we find:

$$\left(\frac{t_{NR}}{t_{EQ}} \right)^{-1/2} \approx \left[\left(\frac{m_X}{1.0 \text{ eV}} \right) \left(\frac{T}{T_X} \right) \right]^2$$

Recall that $t_{EQ} \approx 100,000 \text{ yr}$ and $T_{EQ} \approx 1.5 \text{ eV}$.

Putting everything together, we reach at:

$$\lambda_{FS} \approx 0.2 \text{ Mpc} \left(\frac{1 \text{ keV}}{m_X} \right) \left(\frac{T_X}{T} \right) \left[\ln \left(\frac{t_{EQ}}{t_{NR}} \right) + 2 \right] \quad (*)$$

We see that the smaller m_X is, the larger λ_{FS} will be. This can be understood intuitively: a lighter particle will be in the relativistic regime for a longer time, and hence travels a longer distance.

Clearly, free streaming affects inhomogeneities with a smaller wavelength more. The smallest ^{cosmological} structures that we see today, galaxies, could not have formed if free streaming had erased fluctuation with a comoving wavelength around the comoving size of galaxies.

Now, let us use this to constrain the mass of light neutrinos as dark matter. As we saw before, $\frac{T_{\nu}}{T} = \left(\frac{4}{11}\right)^{\frac{1}{3}}$ in this case.

We therefore find:

$$\lambda_{FS}^{\nu} \sim 20 \text{ Mpc} \left(\frac{30 \text{ eV}}{m_{\nu}} \right)$$

Requiring that $\lambda_{FS}^{\nu} \ll 0.5 \text{ Mpc}$, the neutrino mass is

constrained to be $m_{\nu} \gg 1 \text{ keV}$. However, neutrinos this

massive exceed the Cowsik-McClelland bound badly and

cannot be dark matter candidates because their contribution

to the energy density of the universe at the present time

is several times that of dark matter.

This, irrespective of experimental bounds on m_ν , rules out light neutrinos as the dominant component of dark matter.

Looking at the expression in (a) shows that non-erasure of inhomogeneities due to free streaming sets a lower bound on m_χ . Therefore a light dark matter candidate

cannot be arbitrarily light. In other words it cannot be "hot" (ultra relativistic). Rather it should be "warm" (relativistic) to be a viable candidate.

Currently, observations from CMB and large scale structure prefer "cold" dark matter (^{non-}relativistic at the time of decoupling) as the dominant component. A "warm" component, however, is still viable and may cure

some of the problems of cold dark matter at small scales.