CONSTRAINTS ON COSMOLOGY FROM THE COSMIC MICROWAVE BACKGROUND POWER SPECTRUM OF THE 2500 deg^{-2} SPT-SZ SURVEY

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ABSTRACT

We explore extensions to the ΛCDM cosmology using measurements of the cosmic microwave background (CMB) from the recent SPT-SZ survey, along with data from WMAP7 and measurements of H0 and BAO. We check for consistency within ΛCDM between these datasets, and find some tension. The CMB alone gives weak support to physics beyond ΛCDM, due to a slight trend relative to ΛCDM of decreasing power towards smaller angular scales. While it may be due to statistical fluctuation, this trend could also be explained by several extensions. We consider running of the primordial spectral index (dn_s/dln k), as well as two extensions that modify the damping tail power (the primordial helium abundance Y_p and the effective number of neutrino species N_eff) and one that modifies the large-scale power due to the integrated Sachs-Wolf effect (the sum of neutrino masses Σ m_ν). These extensions have similar observational consequences and are partially degenerate when considered simultaneously. Of the 6 one-parameter extensions considered, we find CMB to have the largest preference for dn_s/dln k with −0.046 < dn_s/dln k < −0.003 at 95% confidence, which strengthens to a 2.7σ indication of dn_s/dln k < 0 from CMB+BAO+H0. Detectable dn_s/dln k ≠ 0 is difficult to explain in the context of single-field, slow-roll inflation models. We find N_eff = 3.62 ± 0.48 for the CMB, which tightens to N_eff = 3.71 ± 0.35 from CMB+BAO+H0. Larger values of N_eff relieve the mild tension between CMB, BAO and H0. When the Sunyaev-Zeldovich selected galaxy cluster abundances (SPTCL) data are also included, we obtain N_eff = 3.29 ± 0.31. Allowing for Σ m_ν gives a 3.0σ detection of Σ m_ν > 0 from CMB+BAO+H0+SPTCL. The median value is (0.32 ± 0.11) eV, a factor of six above the lower bound set by neutrino oscillation observations. All datasets except H0 show some preference for massive neutrinos; data combinations including H0 favor nonzero masses only if BAO data are also included. We also constrain the two-parameter extensions N_eff + Σ m_ν and N_eff + Y_p to explore constraints on additional light species and big bang nucleosynthesis respectively.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Measurements of the damping tail of the cosmic microwave background (CMB) power spectrum provide new insights into the spectrum of the primordial density fluctuations, the contents of the pre-recombination plasma, and, through the effect of gravitational lensing, the low-redshift properties of the universe. In this paper, we study the constraints that can be placed on extensions to the standard ΛCDM cosmological model by recent South Pole Telescope (SPT) CMB power spectrum measurements presented in a companion paper (Story et al. 2013, hereafter S12) and complementary lower-redshift probes. For each extension, we discuss both the cosmological constraints and the physical origin of these constraints.

As shown by S12, the SPT bandpowers lead to constraints on the six standard ΛCDM parameters that are consistent with and comparable to those from WMAP7 (Larson et al. 2011; Komatsu et al. 2011). The agreement is especially remarkable given that the smaller angular scales probed by the SPT data are sensitive to new physical effects that are unimportant on the larger angular scales probed by WMAP. The combination of SPT and WMAP7 data can be used to exploit these additional effects in order to improve constraints on the ΛCDM model and possible extensions.

Measurements of the damping tail of the CMB power spectrum are sensitive to the low-redshift universe through the gravitational lensing of the CMB as well as the angular-diameter distance to the last scattering surface. The lensing sensitivity introduces a second constraint on the late-time expansion rate that breaks the geometric degeneracy (Bond et al. 1997; Zaldarriaga et al. 1997) that exists in large-scale CMB data. Measurements of CMB lensing, like that recently reported by S12, can be used to constrain the mean curvature of the observable universe.

More importantly, the SPT data expand the angular range over which the CMB temperature power spectrum is probed, leading to improved measurements of the damping scale due to photon diffusion (Silk 1968) and the positions of acoustic peaks. Past CMB experiments have found evidence for a trend of decreasing power at high multipoles, relative to the predictions of the ΛCDM model conditioned on CMB measurements at $l \lesssim 1000$ (Hamann et al. 2010b; Dunkley et al. 2011; Keisler et al. 2011), a trend that persists with the inclusion of the full-survey SPT bandpowers. This trend may be thought of as a scale-dependent tilt in the CMB power spectrum, and we explore five one-parameter extensions to ΛCDM that effectively allow for such a scale-dependent tilt. These extensions are: allowing massive neutrinos ($\sum m_\nu$), introducing “running” of the spectral index of the primordial power spectrum ($dn_s/d\ln k$), varying the e-folding parameter ($\sum m_\nu$), and allowing the helium abundance ($Y_p$) to depart from the predictions of big bang nucleosynthesis (BBN), and allowing non-zero early dark energy ($\Omega_m$). A unifying theme in this paper will be a preference for model extensions that can accommodate a scale-dependent tilt that becomes increasingly red at higher multipoles.

The CMB damping tail measurements do not add sensitivity to the dark energy equation of state $w$, since dark energy becomes important at late times and this parameter has little effect on the lensing amplitude. Therefore, we do not present constraints on ΛCDM+$w$ in this paper, although we sometimes include $w$ when exploring the effect of parameter degeneracies on the constraints for other parameters.

We explore two 2-parameter extensions to the ΛCDM model which are physically and theoretically motivated: ΛCDM+$N_{\rm eff}+Y_p$ and ΛCDM+$N_{\rm eff}+\sum m_\nu$. The first case is an interesting consistency test of BBN. Both $Y_p$ and $N_{\rm eff}$ are primarily constrained by measurements of the damping scale, however both can be constrained simultaneously since varying $N_{\rm eff}$ has the secondary effect of inducing a phase shift in the acoustic oscillations. The second extension, ΛCDM+$N_{\rm eff}+\sum m_\nu$, is a test of the possible existence of sterile neutrinos, which have been postulated with masses in the eV range in order to explain some neutrino oscillation anomalies (e.g., Aguilar-Taylor et al. 2001; Aguilar-Arevalo et al. 2010; Mention et al. 2011).

While all of these extensions can be constrained with CMB data alone, low-redshift measurements add constraining power and provide consistency checks to the CMB data. We incorporate measurements of the Hubble constant ($H_0$), the baryon acoustic oscillation (BAO) feature of the matter power spectrum, luminosity distances from supernovae (SNe), the matter power spectrum inferred from a redshift catalog of luminous red galaxies (LRGs), and the abundance of Sunyaev-Zel’dovich (SZ)-selected clusters. We pay particular attention to the BAO and $H_0$ measurements, specifically the Anderson et al. (2012) BAO measurement at $z = 0.57$ and the Riess et al. (2011) determination of $H_0$, because they are highly precise constraints that interact in an interesting way with those from the CMB. We quantify the level of consistency between the CMB, BAO, and $H_0$ datasets in the context of the ΛCDM model, and we study which model extensions are preferred by the CMB-only and combined CMB+BAO+{$H_0$} datasets.

Throughout this work, we make a point of explaining the physical mechanisms behind the constraints we find. That is, we address questions such as, “How are the neutrino masses constrained?” and “What features in the data explain the preference for nonzero masses?” We also clarify what other extensions might explain the same features in the data.

The structure of the paper is as follows. We briefly describe the analysis methodology and data from the SPT and other experiments used in this analysis in §2. The physical origins of the CMB constraints on the ΛCDM cosmology are presented in §3. We discuss the consistency between datasets, and the evidence for extensions to the ΛCDM model in §4. We study the physical origins of the constraint on non-zero curvature in §5. We consider massive neutrinos in §6 and running of the scalar index in §7. Other single-parameter extensions — $N_{\rm eff}$, $Y_p$, and $\Omega_m$ — are discussed in §8. We consider 2-parameter extensions in §9. Finally, we conclude in §10.

2. PRELIMINARIES

Here we introduce the datasets that will be used in the cosmological parameter fitting. We also describe
Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) methods that will be used to fit cosmological parameters.

2.1. CMB Power Spectrum Measurements

In this work, we will use CMB bandpowers from WMAP and SPT, and will refer to the combined dataset as the “CMB” dataset. The WMAP data we use are the measurements of the CMB power spectrum at 2 \leq l \leq 1200 from the WMAP 7-year release (Larson et al. 2011).\textsuperscript{26} We will focus on the new SPT power spectrum results presented by S12, hereafter referred to as the SPT dataset. The SPT bandpowers represent a two-fold improvement over the best previous measurement (Keisler et al. 2011, K11) of the CMB power spectrum at l > 800. We briefly summarize the analysis of S12 and review the modeling of the contributions from extragalactic foregrounds.

The full SPT-SZ survey was completed in November 2011 and covers \textasciitilde 2500 deg\(^2\) in three frequency bands at 95, 150, and 220 GHz. The SPT bandpowers used in this work are based on the 150 GHz data from the complete survey. As in earlier SPT power spectrum analyses, the bandpowers are calculated using a pseudo-C\(_l\) method. The bandpowers cover the range 650 < l < 3000 and are sample-variance limited at l < 2900. The covariance matrix contains terms for the sample and noise variances as well as beam and calibration uncertainties. Beams are estimated through a combination of observations of planets and bright synchrotron sources in the survey fields. The bandpowers are calibrated with an accuracy of 2.6% in power by comparing the SPT and WMAP 7-year power over the multipole range l \in [650, 1000].

We model contributions from extragalactic foregrounds to the SPT bandpowers exactly as in S12. Using the notation \(D_l \equiv l(l+1)C_l/(2\pi)\) these are given by

\[
D_l^{S} = D_{3000}^{PS} \left( \frac{l}{3000} \right)^2 + D_{3000}^{CL} \left( \frac{l}{3000} \right)^{0.8} + D_{3000}^{SZ} f_l^{SZ}
\]

where \(D_{3000}^{PS}, D_{3000}^{CL},\) and \(D_{3000}^{SZ}\) are the amplitudes at \(l = 3000\) for the Poisson point source power, clustered point source power, and total SZ power spectrum respectively, and \(f_l^{SZ}\) gives the l-dependence of the SZ power spectrum as modeled in Shaw et al. (2010). We apply Gaussian priors on these amplitudes of \(D_{3000}^{PS} = 19.3 \pm 3.5 \mu K^2,\) \(D_{3000}^{CL} = 5.0 \pm 2.5 \mu K^2,\) and \(D_{3000}^{SZ} = 5.5 \pm 3.0 \mu K^2\) (Shirokoff et al. 2011). We include the SZ term in the WMAP7 likelihood calculation, but we do not include the two point source terms since the WMAP7 likelihood code already marginalizes over appropriate point source terms. We have tested that all parameter constraints are insensitive to loosening the assumed extragalactic foreground priors.

As was argued by S12, we expect galactic foregrounds to have negligible impact on the SPT bandpowers and do not include a contribution from them in the bandpower modeling. The SPT and WMAP7 bandpowers are shown in the upper panel of Figure 1 plotted with the best-fit CDM model, including the best-fit extragalactic foreground model consistent with the prior presented above. The residual between the data and this best-fit model is shown in the lower panel.

2.2. External Datasets

Low-redshift observations can substantially inform the constraints on some cosmological parameters, particularly those parameters with impact at late times such as the mean curvature of the observable universe. We include these low-redshift datasets in many of the cosmological constraints presented in this work. These datasets are described below.

2.2.1. Baryon Acoustic Oscillations

BAO measurements use the spatial correlation of galaxies to constrain the comoving size of the sound horizon at the epoch when baryons and photons decouple, \(r_s(z_{\text{drag}})\). This redshift, \(z_{\text{drag}}\), is defined by \(\tau_0(\eta(z_{\text{drag}})) = 1\), where

\[
\tau_0(\eta) \equiv \int_0^{\eta} a\sigma_T n_e d\eta/(1 + 3 \rho_b/4 \rho_s).
\]

Here \(\eta\) is conformal time with \(\eta_0\) the conformal time today, \(a\) is the scale factor, \(\rho_b\) and \(\rho_s\) are the baryon and photon densities, \(n_e\) is the number density of free electrons, and \(\sigma_T\) is the Thomson cross section. The BAO feature in the galaxy correlation function can be observed as a function of both angular and redshift separations. Thus galaxy surveys can, in principle, constrain both \(D_A(z)/r_s(z_{\text{drag}})\) and \(H(z)r_s(z_{\text{drag}})\). However, the current generation of BAO observations typically reports constraints on a hybrid quantity, \(r_s(z_{\text{drag}})/D_V(z_{\text{eff}})\) (henceforth \(r_s/D_V\)), where \(D_V(z) = D_A(z)c/\sqrt{\Omega_m}\), \(c\) is the speed of light and \(z_{\text{eff}}\) is the effective redshift for the population of galaxies in the survey.

We use measurements of \(r_s/D_V\) from the following experiments: SDSS at \(z_{\text{eff}} = 0.35\) (Padmanabhan et al. 2012), BOSS at \(z_{\text{eff}} = 0.57\) (Anderson et al. 2012), and WiggleZ at \(z_{\text{eff}} = 0.44, 0.6\), and 0.73 (Blake et al. 2011). All of these experiments report \(r_s/D_V\) (or its inverse) using the fitting formula for \(z_{\text{drag}}\) presented by Eisenstein \& Hu (1998). We numerically calculate \(r_s(z_{\text{drag}})/D_V\) with CAMB (Lewis et al. 2000). To account for the difference between \(z_{\text{drag}}\) as calculated by the fitting formula with \(z_{\text{drag}}\) as calculated by CAMB, Hamann et al. (2010a) find it necessary to rescale \(r_s\) by a factor of 154.66/150.82. Melia et al. (2012) show this constant rescaling adequately accounts for the differences in \(z_{\text{drag}}\) over the range of baryon density and matter density allowed by WMAP7. We therefore apply this rescaling to the reported \(r_s/D_V\) data for all parameter fitting.

2.2.2. The Hubble Constant

In contrast to the BAO approach to measuring cosmological distances, which starts from a known distance scale at \(z \sim 1100\), measurements of the Hubble constant are based on the classic distance ladder which is built outwards from the solar system. Riess et al. (2011) use 253 Type 1a SNe to reach out into the Hubble flow and calibrate their luminosity distances with over 600 Cepheid variable stars in the host galaxies of eight nearby

\textsuperscript{26} A few days prior to submission, the WMAP collaboration released the 9-year data (Hinshaw et al. 2012; Bennett et al. 2012). Due to time constraints and the consistency of the 9-year data with the 7-year data, we chose not to incorporate the new data into this work.
Type Ia SNe. The Cepheids are calibrated in turn with three different methods, including 13 with trigonometric parallax. Accounting for both statistical and systematic sources of uncertainty, Riess et al. (2011) conclude that $H_0 = 73.8 \pm 2.4$ km/s/Mpc.

Freedman et al. (2012) recently released a new analysis of the HST Key Project, with a Spitzer-based calibration of the Cepheid distance scale, in which they find $H_0 = 74.3 \pm 2.1$ km/s/Mpc. As we had already completed many of the Markov chains used in this work, we chose not to rerun with this slightly improved constraint. We note that the tension in the $\Lambda$CDM model between BAO and $H_0$ discussed later would mildly increase with this new data since the measured $H_0$ value increases by 0.2$\sigma$, and the uncertainty decreases by $\sim 10\%$.

2.2.3. Luminosity Distances from Supernovae

Type Ia SNe, employed as standardizable candles, remain the most precise means to extend the distance ladder to redshifts that are sensitive to cosmic acceleration. We use a sample of 427 SNe Ia assembled by Conley et al. (2011) to constrain the luminosity distance. We follow the treatment in Sullivan et al. (2010) to handle the dependence of supernovae absolute magnitude on host galaxy stellar mass. We follow the approach of Conley et al. (2011) to marginalize over systematic uncertainties related to the uncertain intrinsic properties of supernovae.

2.2.4. Matter Power Spectrum from SDSS DR7 LRG

Reid et al. (2010) use a catalog of luminous red galaxies from the seventh data release of the Sloan Digital Sky Survey (SDSS DR7) to reconstruct the dark matter halo density field at $z \lesssim 0.4$ over nearly 8,000 deg$^2$. They use the reconstructed density field to determine the matter power spectrum over the range $0.02 < k < 0.2$ hMpc$^{-1}$. We use their published likelihood code to incorporate this information in cosmological constraints. The information is primarily from the shape of the spectrum since the unknown halo masses, and therefore unknown biases, prevent the amplitude of the measured matter power spectrum from being used.

2.2.5. SPT SZ-selected Clusters

Reichardt et al. (2013) present a catalog of 224 galaxy cluster candidates selected by their SZ significance from the first 720 deg$^2$ of sky surveyed by the SPT. As in R12, we use only the 100 cluster candidates at $z > 0.3$ with a significance greater than five. The optical properties of these systems are detailed by Song et al. (2012). X-ray $Y_X$ measurements of 14 of the clusters are also used in the cosmological constraints; these measurements have been described by Andersson et al. (2011) and Benson et al. (2013). For brevity, we only include the cluster data in models showing a clear correlation between the model extension and the quantity $\sigma_8(\Omega_m/0.25)^{0.47}$. Vikhlinin et al. (2009) have shown that...
this quantity is well constrained by cluster abundance data. Given a CMB+BAO+$H_0$ prior, we find such a correlation, and thus include the cluster data, for two extensions, $\sum m_\nu$ and $N_{\text{eff}}$.

2.3. Parameter Estimation Methodology

Posterior probability distributions for the parameters are calculated using Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) methods (Christensen et al. 2001) with the publicly available CosmoMC\textsuperscript{27} package (Lewis & Bridle 2002). We have modified the code to include the foreground terms from §2.1 and the extensions to $\Lambda$CDM detailed in later sections; these modules and instructions for compiling them are available at the SPT website\textsuperscript{28}. As can be inferred from Figure [1], the WMAP\textsuperscript{7} bandpowers are noise dominated on the multipoles measured by the SPT. The correlation between the two datasets is thus negligible, and we treat the two datasets as independent in this work.

We use the high\_accuracy\_default option in CosmoMC, and by default call the January 2012 version of CAMB (Lewis et al. 2000) to calculate the CMB and matter power spectra. Unless otherwise noted (for instance in §6.2), we will report parameter constraints based on the median value of the posterior distribution with 1σ error bars defined based on the interval that includes the central 68.26% of the MCMC samples. For cases when we compare a parameter to some fiducial value (e.g. an extension parameter to its $\Lambda$CDM-consistent value), we report–unless otherwise noted–a significance in $\sigma$ based on the Gaussian z-score of the probability above (or below) the fiducial value.

We will present parameter constraints on a spatially flat, gravitationally lensed $\Lambda$CDM model along with selected one- and two-parameter extensions to this model. The properties of the standard $\Lambda$CDM model are specified by six parameters: the optical depth to reionization ($\tau$), the baryon density ($\Omega_b h^2$), the cold dark matter density ($\Omega_c h^2$), the angular scale of the sound horizon at last scattering ($\theta_s$), the scalar spectral index ($n_s$), and the amplitude of primordial scalar perturbations at wavenumber $k = 0.05$ Mpc$^{-1}$ ($\Delta_R^{20}$). Throughout this paper, we will use the notation $\omega_x = \Omega_x h^2$. Since $\Omega_x = \rho_x / \rho_c$, where $\rho_c = 3H_0^2/(8\pi G)$ is the critical density, $\omega_x$ is independent of the Hubble constant. We define the total matter density as the sum of baryons and cold dark matter, so that $\omega_m = \omega_b + \omega_c$. All densities are evaluated at the present epoch.

To speed up parameter estimation, we make use of the Boltzmann code emulator PICO (Fendt & Wandelt 2007\textsuperscript{b}). PICO works by empirically modeling the CMB and matter power spectra as sums of polynomials, with the (cosmological parameter-dependent) polynomial coefficients determined by fitting them to output from CAMB. We have trained PICO for a 10-parameter model that includes the six $\Lambda$CDM parameters as well as $Y_p$, $N_{\text{eff}}$, $\sum m_\nu$, and $dn_s/d\ln k$. We use PICO instead of CAMB when working with any subset of this model space. Evaluating the power spectrum with PICO is several orders of magnitude faster than doing so with CAMB, and is even more accurate due to its training on CAMB runs with higher numerical accuracy than the high\_accuracy\_default setting. The PICO code and results of this training are available at the PICO website.\textsuperscript{29}

3. $\Lambda$CDM Results

In this section, we consider the SPT-only and WMAP\textsuperscript{7}-only constraints on the $\Lambda$CDM model parameters. As shown by S12 and Figure [2], the parameters estimated from the two datasets are consistent. Here we focus on the physical origins of the baryon and matter density constraints derived from different angular scales probed by WMAP\textsuperscript{7} and SPT. For each case, we begin by briefly reviewing the origins of the WMAP\textsuperscript{7} constraints (see, e.g., Hu & Dodelson 2002) and then discuss the origins of the SPT constraints. As we will see in later sections, understanding these mechanisms provides a foundation from which to explore other datasets and model extensions.

The WMAP\textsuperscript{7} constraint on the matter density $\omega_m$ derives from differences in the acoustic oscillations during the radiation-dominated and matter-dominated epochs. Modes that “enter the horizon”\textsuperscript{30} during radiation domination receive a boost to their amplitude from the decay of the gravitational potential that occurs during their first compression into potential wells. In an expanding universe, the plasma would need to collapse at the free-fall (pressureless) rate to preserve the potential. The gravity of the plasma slows the collapse, leading to a decaying gravitational potential. The decay boost

\textsuperscript{27} http://cosmolologist.info/cosmomc - January 2012 version
\textsuperscript{28} http://pole.uchicago.edu/public/data/story12/
\textsuperscript{29} https://sites.google.com/a/ucdavis.edu/pico
\textsuperscript{30} The horizon expands with time: a Fourier mode enters the horizon when its wavelength equals the horizon size.
the oscillation amplitude since modes gain more energy during the compression into the initially larger potential well than they later lose during the expansion out of the much reduced potential well. Modes entering during matter domination do not see such a boost, since the potential is predominantly sourced by pressureless dark matter. The difference in the oscillation amplitudes allows us to determine the angular scale separating modes that entered the horizon during radiation domination from those that entered during radiation domination, \( \theta_{\text{eq}} \), which can be related to the redshift of matter-radiation equality, \( z_{\text{eq}} \). Because the radiation density, \( \omega_{\text{rad}} \), is completely specified in the \( \Lambda \)CDM model by the well-known temperature of the microwave background today and assumptions about neutrino production, this measurement of \( z_{\text{eq}} \) corresponds to a determination of \( \omega_m \) through the relation \( 1 + z_{\text{eq}} = \omega_m/\omega_{\text{rad}} \).

The angular scales probed by the SPT bandpowers correspond to modes that entered the horizon in the radiation-dominated era, since the transition occurs around \( \theta_{\text{eq}} = \pi/\theta_{\text{eq}} \approx 434 \). Thus the SPT bandpowers are largely insensitive to \( \omega_m \) through the mechanism described above. To confirm this, we have tested removing the largest scales (third peak, \( l < 1000 \)) from the SPT bandpowers and find only a minimal (5%) degradation of the SPT-only \( \omega_m \) constraint. The SPT data are instead sensitive to the amplitude of gravitational lensing which in turn depends on \( \omega_m \). Gravitational lensing of the CMB smooths out the peak-trough structure of the CMB power spectrum, allowing lensing to be detected in the SPT power spectrum. The magnitude of the lensing potential power spectrum increases with \( \omega_m \). To support the claim that the SPT bandpowers determine \( \omega_m \) through its effect on the amplitude of the lensing potential spectrum, we have tested removing the lensing amplitude information. We accomplish this by rescaling the lensing power spectrum, \( C_\ell^{\phi\phi} \), by a free parameter, \( A_L \), defined by:

\[
C_\ell^{\phi\phi} \rightarrow A_L C_\ell^{\phi\phi}.
\]

Marginalizing over \( A_L \) doubles the uncertainty on \( \omega_m \), degrading the constraint from \( \omega_m = 0.1286 \pm 0.0071 \) to \( \omega_m = 0.129 \pm 0.013 \). When SPT and WMAP7 data are combined, \( \omega_m \) is primarily constrained through its impact on \( \theta_{\text{eq}} \).

The WMAP7 constraint on \( \omega_b \) derives from the relative heights of the even and odd acoustic peaks. The baryon density affects the plasma’s pressure, which impacts the acoustic oscillations. Changing the pressure has opposite effects on compression into gravitational potential wells (odd peaks) versus compression onto gravitational potential hills (even peaks). The net result is that increasing \( \omega_b \) raises the odd peaks relative to the even peaks.

The SPT constraint on baryon density is primarily derived from the same even/odd peak modulation. Due to the decay of the gravitational potentials, the even/odd modulation of peak heights is suppressed on smaller scales. The dominant constraining power in the SPT data is from the height of the third acoustic peak. Increasing \( \omega_b \) at fixed \( z_{\text{eq}} \) and \( \theta_{\text{eq}} \) increases the height of the third acoustic peak relative to higher peaks. If we remove the SPT bandpowers over the third acoustic peak (dropping all bandpowers at \( l < 1000 \)), the SPT-only constraint on \( \omega_b \) degrades by nearly a factor of 2 from \( \omega_b = 0.0230 \pm 0.0011 \) to \( \omega_b = 0.0236 \pm 0.0020 \). The damping scale provides a second (weaker) lever arm to constrain the baryon density from the SPT data. Photons are imperfectly coupled to baryons in the primordial plasma, and the resulting photon diffusion damps the acoustic oscillations. This photon diffusion is described by the diffusion length \( r_d \), the root mean squared comoving distance a photon has traveled over the time in which the scale factor grows from 0 to \( a_* \) (the scale factor at decoupling). The diffusion length is given approximately by

\[
r_d^2 = \pi^2 \int_0^{z_{\text{eq}}} \frac{da}{a^2 \sigma_T n_e H} \left[ \frac{R^2 + 16}{6(1 + R^2)} \right].
\]

Here \( n_e \) is the number density of free electrons, \( \sigma_T \) is the Thompson cross-section, and \( R = 3 \rho_b / (4 \rho_r) \). The factor in square brackets is due to the directional and polarization dependence of Thompson scattering (Kaiser 1983, Zaldarriaga & Hanany 1995). The diffusion length is affected by \( \omega_b \) through the number density of free electrons, \( n_e(z) \propto X_e(z) \omega_b (1 - Y_p) \), where \( X_e(z) \) is the fraction of Hydrogen atoms that are ionized and \( Y_p \) is the primordial fraction of baryonic mass in helium.

We quantify the importance of the SPT damping scale measurement in constraining the baryon density by introducing \( Y_p \) as a free parameter. At fixed \( \omega_b \), varying \( Y_p \) only impacts the free electron density and hence the diffusion scale. When we allow \( Y_p \) to vary freely, the uncertainty on \( \omega_b \) slightly increases from 0.0011 to 0.0013. Thus, the primary sensitivity of the SPT data to the baryon density is from the measurement of the third acoustic peak rather than damping scale.

The SPT constraints on the other \( \Lambda \)CDM model parameters are based on similar physical mechanisms to the WMAP7 constraints. The angular size of the sound horizon, \( \theta_{\text{eq}} \), is constrained via the peak locations, while the primordial parameters \( n_s \) and \( \Delta^2_{R} \) are constrained through their impact on the amplitude and tilt of the CMB power spectrum. As mentioned in S12, the SPT bandpowers do not constrain \( r \); we instead apply a prior based on the WMAP7 polarization measurements.

We note that there is a trend in the CMB data for decreasing power at higher multipoles, relative to fits to the \( \Lambda \)CDM model using data from \( l \lesssim 1000 \). In the \( \Lambda \)CDM model space, this deficit manifests as the downward shift in \( n_s \) between WMAP7 and SPT seen in Figure 2. As we shall see in later sections, model extensions that can accommodate this trend are somewhat preferred by the CMB data.

4. CONSISTENCY OF CMB, BAO, AND \( H_0 \) MEASUREMENTS AND EVIDENCE FOR EXTENSIONS TO THE STANDARD COSMOLOGICAL MODEL

Combining the BAO and \( H_0 \) measurements with the CMB will have important implications for the model extensions we consider. Here we investigate the consistency of these datasets with one another. Tension between two sets of data in the context of a \( \Lambda \)CDM model can be caused by (1) statistical fluctuations in the measured values, (2) an inaccurate or incomplete accounting of the uncertainties (or biases) in one or more of the datasets, or (3) the inadequacy of the cosmological model. We discuss the consistency between datasets in §4.1.1 and discuss any evidence for extensions to the \( \Lambda \)CDM model in §4.2.
TABLE 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dataset Comparison</th>
<th>Add. dof</th>
<th>$\Delta \chi^2$</th>
<th>corrected PTE</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>(CMB) vs (+$H_0$)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(CMB) vs (+BAO)</td>
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<td>1.8</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>(CMB) vs (+BAOBOSS)</td>
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<td>0.090</td>
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<tr>
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<td>7.4</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>(CMB+BAO) vs (+$H_0$)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Top 4 rows: the relative consistency between the CMB and the individual low-redshift measurements. For each model, we calculate the $\Delta \chi^2$ between the $x^2_{\text{min}}$ for the CMB dataset and the $x^2_{\text{min}}$ for the CMB+(each low-redshift experiment). The least consistent, BAOBESS, is shown in row four, along with the probability to get a larger $\Delta \chi^2$ given four dataset combinations, specifically: (corrected PTE) $= 1 - (1 - \text{PTE})^4$.

Bottom 2 rows: the $\Delta \chi^2$ between the CMB+$H_0$ and CMB+BAO+$H_0$ datasets, and the CMB+BAO and CMB+BAO+$H_0$ combinations. For the least consistent comparison, (CMB+BAO) vs (+$H_0$), we show the probability to get a larger $\Delta \chi^2$ given two chances.

4.1. Consistency between datasets

In the context of the $\Lambda$CDM model, we quantify the consistency between two datasets, $x$ and $y$, with the use of a symmetric $\Delta \chi^2$ statistic. We calculate $\Delta \chi^2 = \chi^2_x + \chi^2_y - \chi^2_x - \chi^2_y$, where $\chi^2_x + \chi^2_y$ is the minimum value of the $\chi^2$ obtained for the joint ($x + y$) dataset in the model $M$ with a similar definition for $\chi^2_x$ and $\chi^2_y$. We use a modified simulated annealing minimizer (Goffe et al. 1994) to find the minimum $\chi^2$ point. The $\Delta \chi^2$ is proportional to a likelihood ratio statistic, and is also connected to a Bayesian evidence ratio in the case of normal probability distributions, as shown by Marshall et al. (2006). The expected distribution of $\Delta \chi^2$ is a $\chi^2$ distribution with degrees of freedom (dof) $N_{\Delta \chi^2} = N_x + y - N_x - N_y$. Here $N_x$ is the dof for dataset $x$. We then observe the expected value of $\Delta \chi^2$ with its expected distribution and find the probability to exceed (PTE) this observed value.

For example, to compare the consistency of the CMB dataset with the $H_0$ “datum,” we calculate $\chi^2_{\text{min},\text{CMB}+H_0} - \chi^2_{\text{min},\text{CMB}} - \chi^2_{\text{min},H_0} = 0.23$. Because $H_0$ has only one datapoint while the model has six free parameters, we have $N_{H_0} = 0$, $N_{\text{CMB}} = X$, and $N_{\text{CMB}+H_0} = X + 1$. Thus $\Delta \chi^2$ in this comparison should be drawn from a $\chi^2$ distribution with 1 dof, and we find a PTE of 0.63.

As we are considering the consistency between the CMB and multiple datasets, we have a set of size $N$ of these PTEs, where $N$ corresponds to the number of dataset comparisons in the test. The minimum PTE should yield the strongest evidence of possible tension. We therefore compare the observed minimum PTE to the expected distribution of the minimum of a set of $N$ uniformly distributed random variables to derive a “corrected PTE.” Specifically, the corrected PTE $\alpha$ is derived from the uncorrected PTE $\alpha_0$ by $\alpha = 1 - (1 - \alpha_0)^N$. The corrected PTE for $\Delta \chi^2$ represents a measure of tension between datasets under the assumption that the given model is correct, and the difference between datasets is due to random scatter in the measurements. A high PTE indicates the data are remarkably consistent, and low PTE indicates the presence of tension between the measurements. We note however that if the model is poor, the corrected PTE may not be a good representation of tension with the model.

In the top four rows of Table 1, we report the $\Delta \chi^2$ between the CMB and each individual low-redshift dataset in the $\Lambda$CDM model. Among the BAO datasets, the BAOWigglez dataset has a low $\Delta \chi^2$ of 1.7 (3 dof), while the BAOBOSS dataset has an unusually high $\Delta \chi^2$ of 5.1 (1 dof), driven in part by the high precision of this data point. The probability of getting a $\Delta \chi^2$ this large given 1 dof (un-corrected PTE) is 2.3%; in the case of 4 random draws (corresponding to the 3 BAO plus 1 $H_0$ datasets) from this $\Delta \chi^2$ distribution the probability of at least one being this high (corrected PTE) is 9.0%.

When the three BAO measurements are combined into a single dataset, the $\Delta \chi^2$ contributions from BAOWigglez and BAOBOSS balance out to give a more reasonable total $\Delta \chi^2$. Thus the CMB+BAO versus $H_0$ case has a lower PTE than the CMB+$H_0$ versus BAO case. The $\Delta \chi^2$ between CMB+BAO and $H_0$ is 3.5 for 1 dof, and the corresponding probability of getting a lower PTE given two random draws is 12%.

From Table 1, we see some degree of tension between the CMB and the BOSS BAO data point, and between CMB + BAO and $H_0$. Both of these tensions exist (to a lesser degree) with the WMAP7 data alone and have been noted by others (Anderson et al. 2012, Melita et al. 2012). Anderson et al. (2012) highlighted the importance of $\omega_m$ for consistency between WMAP7 and BAO measurements, noting that a 1 $\sigma$ increase in $\omega_m$ from its WMAP7-inferred value would bring them into near-perfect agreement. Instead, the SPT+WMAP7 data prefers a slight downward shift in $\omega_m$ which, together with the decreased uncertainty, leads to the increased level of tension between BAO and the CMB in the $\Lambda$CDM model. At the same time, the shift in $\omega_m$ improves agreement of the CMB data with the $H_0$ measurement.

The relationship between $\omega_m$ and the CMB, BAO, and $H_0$ measurements can be seen in Figure 3. This figure shows the parameter space $H_0$ vs. $r_s/D_H(z = 0.57)$ (the characteristic BAO parameter at the redshift reported by BOSS), which is the plane in parameter space that is constrained by the $H_0$ and BAOBOSS datasets. When combined with any of the three combinations of SPT and WMAP7 data shown in this figure, the $H_0$ data prefers lower values of $\omega_m$, while the BAO data prefers higher $\omega_m$.

We find the apparent tension significant enough in some model spaces, including $\Lambda$CDM, to suggest caution in interpretation of the results. However, in no model spaces is the significance sufficient to rule out statistical fluctuations, and we have no evidence for either systematic biases or underestimated uncertainties in the data.

4.2. Evidence for Extensions

Two natural questions are: (1) which extensions to the $\Lambda$CDM model are preferred by the data, and (2) do these extensions ease or increase the tension between the
We define a slightly different $\Delta \chi^2$ statistic to quantify how strongly the data prefer a given extension $\phi$ over the $\Lambda$CDM model: $\Delta \chi^2 = \chi^2_{\Lambda CDM} - \chi^2_{\Lambda CDM+\phi}$. A large reduction in $\chi^2_{\text{min}}$ (equivalently a large $\Delta \chi^2$) relative to the baseline $\Lambda$CDM model indicates that the extended model is a much better fit to the data. For instance, if $\Delta \chi^2 = 4$ (6.2) for a given extension with one (two) degrees of freedom, this means that the data favor this extension at 2$\sigma$. We consider models which are favored by more than 2$\sigma$ to be "preferred" by the data. However, it is worth noting that we do not consider all possible physically motivated extensions, and also that a single feature in the data may lead to an apparent preference for multiple extensions with degenerate effects. The results of this statistic for the extensions we consider in this work are presented in Table 2.

The CMB dataset shows a $>2\sigma$ preference for the extensions $\Lambda$CDM+$dn_\nu/d\ln k$ and $\Lambda$CDM+$Y_p$. The $\Delta \chi^2$ for $\Lambda$CDM+$dn_\nu/d\ln k$ and $\Lambda$CDM+$Y_p$ is 4.9 and 4.4 respectively. Allowing running or varying the helium abundance allows for an increasingly red, scale-dependent tilt, and provides a better match to the observed CMB bandpowers than does the $\Lambda$CDM model. All other single-parameter extensions are not significantly favored by the CMB data. The combined CMB+BAO+$H_0$ data show even stronger preference for these same model extensions, with $\Delta \chi^2$ for $\Lambda$CDM+$dn_\nu/d\ln k$ and $\Lambda$CDM+$Y_p$ of 7.4 and 5.3, respectively.

The CMB alone prefers neither two-parameter extension at $>2\sigma$. Although the $\Delta \chi^2 = 5.5$ for the $\Lambda$CDM+$N_{\text{eff}}+Y_p$ model is higher than that of any single parameter extension given the CMB data, this is for two, instead of one, additional dof. The $\Lambda$CDM+$N_{\text{eff}}+\sum m_\nu$ model is preferred by the CMB+BAO+$H_0$ combination, with $\Delta \chi^2 = 7.9$. As we will discuss later in this paper in § 9.2 and Figure 18, this model space also improves the consistency between the CMB, BAO, and $H_0$ datasets.

The $\Lambda$CDM+$w$ model is not significantly preferred by either the CMB or the CMB+BAO+$H_0$ combination. Additionally, we find that adding the SPT bandpowers do not significantly improve $w$ constraints. Therefore, we do not present constraints on $\Lambda$CDM+$w$ in this paper, although we sometimes include $w$ when exploring the effect of parameter degeneracies on the constraints for other parameters.

Next we explore the second question: how do these extensions affect the aforementioned tension between the CMB and low-redshift BAO ($H_0$) measurements? This question is most clearly explored in the context of Figure 3. All the panels of this figure have the same x- and y-axes as Figure 2. The BAOBOSS dataset has been singled out for two reasons. First, it is the most precise low-redshift BAO measurement; second, it has the most tension with the CMB and $H_0$ data in the $\Lambda$CDM model. Each panel of the figure shows color-coded samples from a CMB-only MCMC for a different cosmological model. The color coding reflects values of the extension parameter, thus showing how the chosen parameter moves within the CMB constraints in this parameter space.

Among the 1-parameter extensions, $\Lambda$CDM+$N_{\text{eff}}$ is most effective at reconciling the CMB, BAO, and $H_0$ datasets. A thorough discussion of the physical and observational effects of $N_{\text{eff}}$ is reserved for § 8.1; however, we briefly preview the important aspects here. The expansion of the CMB likelihood volume towards the BAOBOSS+$H_0$ constraint arises because increasing $N_{\text{eff}}$ increases the expansion rate at early times which reduces the sound horizon length $r_s$. To match the measured CMB acoustic peak locations, one must also decrease $D_A$ by increasing $H_0$. The net result, as discussed in Hon et al. (2013), is an increase in $H_0$ with minimal change to $r_s/D_A$. Thus, the contours for the $\Lambda$CDM+$N_{\text{eff}}$ case resemble those for $\Lambda$CDM except expanded horizontally in $H_0$.

The extensions which become important primarily at late-times ($\Omega_k$, $w$, and $\sum m_\nu$) have a smaller effect on $r_s$ and instead influence the late-time geometry and thus the inverse distance measures $1/D_A$ and $H_0$. As a result, these extensions stretch the CMB contours along lines with positive slope in the $H_0$-$r_s/D_A$ plane, as seen in
Fig. 4.— This figure expands Figure 3 to investigate the consistency between the CMB, BAO BOSS, and $H_0$ datasets in one-parameter extensions to $\Lambda$CDM. Each panel shows the $H_0 - \tau_s/D_V(0.57)$ plane for a different extension. The colored dots are samples drawn from the SPT+WMAP7 MCMC chain, with the color coding reflecting the value of the extension parameter, as shown in the color scales on the right. The horizontal solid and dashed lines mark the central value and 1 $\sigma$ region for the BAO BOSS measurement, while the vertical lines do the same for $H_0$. The joint 1 and 2 $\sigma$ likelihood region for BAO BOSS+$H_0$ measurements is denoted by the dark and light grey shaded contours. The blue (red) contours overlaid show the 68% and 95% confidence regions for CMB+BAO (CMB+$H_0$). Varying the effective number of neutrino species leads to the best agreement between the CMB, BAO BOSS, and $H_0$. 
the right column of Figure 4. Low-redshift datasets are especially important for constraining these extensions. In summary, the CMB data prefer the $d_{A_s}/d\ln k$ and $Y_P$ extensions to \( \Lambda \)CDM because these extensions allow for an increasingly red tilt at higher multipoles. The preference for these two extensions remains in the CMB+BAO+$H_0$ combination. Although the quality of fit improves less for the \( \Lambda \)CDM+$N_{\text{eff}}$ model, this model maximizes the consistency between the three datasets. The CMB+BAO+$H_0$ data also prefer the \( \Lambda \)CDM+$N_{\text{eff}}+\sum m_\nu$ model, although this preference is less significant (given the 1 extra dof) than that for running. The three datasets are completely consistent within this two-parameter extension.

5. CURVATURE

The SPT+WMAP7 constraint on the mean curvature of the universe has been presented by Story et al. (2013). In brief, the addition of the SPT bandpowers tightens the WMAP7 constraint by a factor of five to $\Omega_k = -0.003^{+0.014}_{-0.038}$. Here we briefly present the physical underpinnings of how the SPT bandpowers tighten the constraint on $\Omega_k - 3.0$

The constraint on curvature tightens due to the sensitivity of the SPT bandpowers to low-redshift information through gravitational lensing. SI2 used the combination of SPT and WMAP7 bandpowers to report an 8.1 $\sigma$ detection of gravitational lensing of the CMB. Without the lensing information, the CMB constraints exhibit a strong degeneracy between curvature and the dark energy density. In essence, the primary CMB anisotropy is exquisitely sensitive to the angular-diameter distance to last scattering, but this is only one number. Therefore, if there are $n$ parameters that only affect late-time geometry and structure, the CMB data will only tell us about one direction in this $n$-dimensional space. This is insufficient to distinguish between the two late-time parameters $\Omega_k$ and $\Omega_\Lambda$. Lensing adds a second late-time measurement, breaking this degeneracy.

We demonstrate the effect of including lensing on curvature constraints from the CMB in Figure 5. The axes in the figure are the two late-time quantities constrained by the CMB data: the angular-diameter distance to last scattering, $D_A$, and the angular power spectrum of the lensing potential $\phi$ evaluated at $l = 100$, $C^{\phi\phi}_{100}$. The color-coded points are drawn from an SPT + WMAP7 MCMC chain with lensing information removed by marginalization over $A_L$.\(^{31}\) We can see the impact of the geometric constraint, confining the samples to a narrow range of $D_A$ values. Also, despite removing all lensing information, we see that the $\Lambda$CDM+$\Omega_k$ model predicts a finite range of values of the lensing power.

As Figure 5 shows, varying $\Omega_k$ leads to significant variation in the $C^{\phi\phi}_{100}$ direction in the $D_A - C^{\phi\phi}_{100}$ plane. The direction of the response in this plane is an important aspect of why lensing plays a significant role in constraining $\Omega_k$, whereas it does not for $\sum m_\nu$. The effect of lensing information (i.e., requiring $A_L = 1$) is shown by the black contours. The observed lensing amplitude rules out the negative curvature tail, and as mentioned above, tighten the curvature constraint from the CMB by a factor of five.

Better constraints on curvature are possible by including low-redshift probes. For instance, CMB+BAO+$H_0$ leads to a constraint on curvature of $\Omega_k = -0.0061 \pm 0.0040$. Even with low-redshift datasets included, SPT data remains important. Without the SPT bandpowers (and lensing information therein), the uncertainty would be roughly 15% larger: $\Omega_k = -0.0019 \pm 0.0047$ for WMAP7+BAO+$H_0$.

6. MASSIVE NEUTRINOS

We now consider allowing non-zero sum of neutrino masses. As we saw in §4, the CMB data provide only a weak preference for this extension. However, once we include datasets sensitive to late times, the support for non-zero neutrino mass is fairly robust to the particular choice of the datasets and additional extensions of the \( \Lambda \)CDM model.

The range of possible neutrino masses is currently constrained from both above and below. Neutrino oscillation experiments place a lower bound on the sum of the neutrino masses of $\geq 0.058$ eV (Hamish Robertson 2009). Neutrino oscillations are insensitive to the sum of the neutrino masses above this minimum. The best laboratory upper bound on any single neutrino mass is 0.3 – 0.6 eV (90% CL) depending on the nuclear matrix elements adopted for the electron neutrino from the Kamland-Zen double beta decay experiment (Gando, et al. 2012). Therefore, the sum of the neutrino masses must lie between the limits 0.06 eV $< \sum m_\nu < 1.8$ eV.

Cosmological observations can provide significantly stronger upper limits on the sum of the neutrino masses. The strongest constraints on $\sum m_\nu$ come from combining CMB measurements with low-redshift information.

\(^{31}\) The current CMB data are insensitive to the small shape variations in $C^{\phi\phi}_{100}$ and hence marginalizing over a scaling parameter removes all significant lensing information.
In this section, we include low-redshift measurements of the BAO feature, $H_0$, the halo power spectrum derived from SDSS luminous red galaxies (LRGs) from Reid et al. (2010), and the cluster abundances from the SPT SZ-selected cluster catalog (SPTCL) described by Reichardt et al. (2013). The LRG, $H_0$, and WMAP7 data have been used previously to set an upper limit on the neutrino masses of $\sum m_\nu < 0.44 \,\text{eV}$ (95% CL) (Komatsu et al. 2011). A somewhat tighter limit of $\sum m_\nu < 0.32 \,\text{eV}$ (95% CL) has been placed using SZ-selected galaxy clusters, CMB, BAO, and $H_0$ by Benson et al. (2013). Similar limits of about 0.3 eV come from combining CMB+BAO+$H_0$ with galaxy clustering data (Thomas et al. 2010; Riemer-Sorensen et al. 2012; de Putter et al. 2012) or X-ray cluster abundance and cluster gas mass fraction measurements (Mantz et al. 2010). As we note in § 6.2, the inclusion of the new BAO data (particularly the BOSS point) increases the preference for nonzero mass.

In this section, we present updated constraints on the sum of the neutrino masses incorporating the new SPT bandpowers. We first discuss how measurements of the CMB, structure growth, and geometry constrain massive neutrinos. We then present constraints for combinations of the SPT bandpowers and other datasets. We finally consider potential degeneracies between the sum of the neutrino masses and other parameter extensions such as running of the spectral index.

### 6.1. Cosmological effects of massive neutrinos

In this subsection, we give a physical description of the effects of the massive neutrinos on cosmology. We start with the effects massive neutrinos have on the CMB. We note that with the current experimental precision, information from CMB lensing is not important to the CMB constraints on $\sum m_\nu$. We then move on to consider other effects in the low-redshift universe.

To understand neutrino mass constraints from CMB data, we must understand how the predicted CMB power spectrum changes with neutrino mass. In the standard thermal history of the universe, massless neutrinos have a temperature corresponding to $\sim 0.17 \,\text{eV}$ at the epoch of last scattering. The scale at which masses start to have an appreciable effect is set by this temperature to be $\sum m_\nu \approx 3 \times 0.17 \,\text{eV}$.\footnote{For simplicity we assume three families of neutrinos with degenerate masses.} Neutrino masses well below this value have no impact on primary CMB anisotropy. Hu & Dodelson (2002) and Ichikawa et al. (2005) study in detail the impact of higher masses on the CMB and find the dominant impact is due to the ISW effect.

In a matter-dominated universe with zero mean curvature, gravitational potentials remain constant to first order in linear perturbation theory. Adding components that do not cluster, while keeping the curvature fixed to zero, increases the expansion rate which causes the gravitational potentials to decay. As photons traverse these decaying potentials on their way toward the observer, new anisotropies are created by what is called the Integrated Sachs-Wolfe (ISW) effect. The ISW anisotropy is generated in the $\Lambda$CDM model both at early times, as photons free stream immediately after decoupling through a not-completely-matter-dominated universe (the early ISW effect) and at late times after the cosmological constant becomes important (the late ISW effect).

We illustrate how the ISW effect changes with neutrino

This table shows how extensions to the $\Lambda$CDM model change the quality of the fit to the data for the CMB and the datasets combination of CMB+BAO+$H_0$. For each dataset we report $\Delta \chi^2$ defined as the reduction in $\chi^2$ from the best-fit $\Lambda$CDM model to the best-fit $\Lambda$CDM+($m_\nu$) model. A large $\Delta \chi^2$ relative to the baseline $\Lambda$CDM model indicates that the extended model is a much better fit to the data. For instance, if $\Delta \chi^2 = 4 \,(6.2)$ for a given extension with one (two) degrees of freedom, this means that the data favor this extension at $2 \sigma$. Of the one-parameter model extensions considered here, both datasets have the strongest preference for non-zero running. Of the two-parameter model extensions considered here, the combined data prefer the $\Lambda$CDM+$m_\nu$ model most strongly.

<table>
<thead>
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<th>$\Lambda$CDM</th>
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<th>$\Lambda$CDM</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>$+N_{\text{eff}}$</td>
<td>$+Y_b$</td>
<td>$+\sum m_\nu$</td>
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<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>CMB+BAO+$H_0$</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>0.2</td>
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</table>

This figure shows the effects of massive neutrinos on the CMB power spectrum. The curves show the ratio of models with $\sum m_\nu = 0.5 \,(\text{dashed green})$ and $1.0 \,\text{eV} \,(\text{solid blue})$ respectively to the best-fit $\Lambda$CDM ($\sum m_\nu=0\,\text{eV}$) model spectrum for SPT+WMAP7. When increasing $\sum m_\nu$ we adjust $\Omega_k$ downward to keep $\delta_k$ fixed. On large scales, we see a reduction in the power added by the late-time ISW effect. On intermediate scales below the neutrino free-streaming length, we see a reduction in the power contributed by the early ISW effect. On scales smaller than the neutrino free-streaming length, the more rapid decay of gravitational potentials boosts the early ISW power. The amplitude of the early ISW effect is damped at $l \gtrsim 500$ by averaging over multiple positive and negative contributions.

\[
\sum m_\nu = 0.5 \,\text{eV} \quad \text{and} \quad \sum m_\nu = 1.0 \,\text{eV}
\]
mass in Figure 6. In this figure, we plot the ratio of $C_l$ at either $\sum m_\nu = 0.5$ or 1.0 eV relative to a fiducial $\Lambda$CDM+$\sum m_\nu$ model $C^\text{fid}_l$ with $\sum m_\nu = 0.0$. The baryon density $\omega_b$, cold dark matter density $\omega_c$, and the sound horizon scale $\theta_s$ are fixed between the three models – $\sum m_\nu$ and $\Omega_\Lambda$ vary. Three regimes are labeled in the figure: a reduction of power due to the late-time ISW effect at $l \lesssim 20$, a reduction of power due to the early ISW effect at $20 \lesssim l \lesssim 100$, and an increase in power due to the early ISW effect at $100 \lesssim l \lesssim 500$. We briefly explain these three regimes in the next paragraphs.

As $\sum m_\nu$ increases with $\omega_b + \omega_c$ fixed, the expansion rate increases at early times. Therefore, $\Omega_\Lambda$ must decrease (increasing $D_A$) to keep $\theta_s$ fixed. Without this adjustment to $\Omega_\Lambda$, $\theta_s$ would change, primarily due to the change in $D_A$. With this adjustment, we find that in the mass range of interest, $H(z)$ increases relative to the $\sum m_\nu = 0$ model at $z \gtrsim 1$ and decreases at $z \lesssim 1$. The decreased expansion rate at $z \lesssim 1$ results in less decay of the gravitational potential on very large scales, and therefore a reduction in the contribution to the power from the late-time ISW effect. The net effect is less power at $l \lesssim 20$. However, the large cosmic variance at these low multipoles makes the CMB data largely insensitive to the reduced power.

On scales shorter than the neutrino free-streaming length, the increased expansion rate just after photon decoupling enhances the decay of gravitational potentials and thus enhances the early ISW effect. On scales longer than the free-streaming length, the early ISW effect is suppressed; the clustering of neutrinos prevents the potential from decaying more rapidly and, due to the increased expansion rate, there is less time for the early ISW effect to accumulate. The dividing line in multipole space between these two regimes increases with $\sum m_\nu$. The magnitude of the ISW effect decreases with increasing $l$ as cancellations between an increasing number of positive and negative contributions washes out the signal, becoming negligible by $l \sim 500$.

The reduction of power at $l \lesssim 100$ and increase of power at $l \gtrsim 100$ shown in Figure 6 can be mimicked by an increase in $\omega_b$ and $n_s$. As a result, $\sum m_\nu$ is anti-correlated with $\omega_b$ and $n_s$. Figure 7 shows this anti-correlation between $\sum m_\nu$ and $n_s$.

Although the ISW effect is limited to angular scales covered by WMAP, SPT bandpowers contribute significantly to the neutrino mass constraints by alleviating these degeneracies between $\sum m_\nu$, $n_s$, and $\omega_b$. In particular, SPT alone prefers a lower value of $n_s$ relative to WMAP7 (see Figure 2), which causes the preferred value of $\sum m_\nu$ to increase when SPT data are combined with WMAP7. This shift in the SPT-preferred value of $n_s$ disappears with a freely varying $\theta_s$ or $dn_s/d\ln k$, thus the shift in $\sum m_\nu$ for the combination of SPT+WMAP7 disappears as well when these parameters are added. These shifts in the preferred value of $\sum m_\nu$ are seen clearly in Figure 8.

Next, we examine the other observable consequences that massive neutrinos have on the geometry and the growth of structure at late times. The decreased expansion rate at $z \lesssim 1$ directly affects the late-time geometry, and geometric observables. BAO measurements constrain the late-time expansion rate through $r_s(z_{\text{drag}})/D_V(z)$. Although increasing $\sum m_\nu$ from zero to 1.5 eV has some effect on $r_s(z_{\text{drag}})$, the dominant effect is the increase in $D_V(z)$ as $\Omega_\Lambda$ decreases. Therefore $r_s(z_{\text{drag}})/D_V(z)$ and $H_0$ respond similarly, decreasing with increasing neutrino mass as shown in Figure 9.

For $z \gtrsim 1$, the increased expansion rate suppresses growth on scales below the neutrino free-streaming length ($\sim 140$ Mpc for a 100 meV neutrino). On larger scales the neutrinos can cluster, which counters the suppression. For $z \lesssim 1$, the reduced expansion rate boosts the rate of structure growth on all scales. We hasten to point out, though, that the net effect on integrated growth to $z = 0$ on small scales is that of suppression.

In summary, the summed neutrino mass is constrained by the CMB primarily through the early ISW effect. The SPT data improve $\sum m_\nu$ constraints indirectly via an improved determination of $n_s$ and the anti-correlation of $\sum m_\nu$ with $n_s$. Adding probes of low-redshift geometry and structure growth further improve constraints on $\sum m_\nu$. We discuss these constraints in the next section.

6.2. Cosmological constraints on massive neutrinos

We now look at the cosmological constraints on neutrino mass. In order to discuss changes in the posterior probability density for $\sum m_\nu$ near the prior at zero, we will sometimes quote a different confidence interval than the rest of the paper. In Table 3 and this section, we report the estimated confidence interval $\sum m_\nu \in [x_1, x_2]$ (68% CL) such that

$$\int_{x_1}^{x_2} P(\sum m_\nu) d(\sum m_\nu) = 0.68,$$

where $P(x_1) = P(x_2)$ and $P(\sum m_\nu)$ is the normalized neutrino mass posterior probability density. When we find $P(0) > P(x_2)$, we report the confidence interval as $[0, x_2]$; this is an upper limit. We will also report the peak
of $P(\sum m_\nu)$. For cases with a non-zero 95% confidence lower limit as defined above, we will continue to report the median and 1 $\sigma$ error which is used in the rest of the paper and defined in § 2.3.

The SPT data prefer lower values of $n_s$ than those preferred by WMAP7, which translates into a preference for higher neutrino masses. For the SPT+WMAP7 data, we find the position of the peak moves to 0.93 eV with a 68% confidence interval of $[0.41, 1.34]$ eV. The 95% CL upper limit from the CMB is $\sum m_\nu < 1.60$ eV.

We now consider low-redshift probes of geometry: BAO and $H_0$. As mentioned above, these low-redshift geometric probes can strengthen inferences of neutrino mass through the impact on the expansion rate. With massive neutrinos, the CMB data is compatible with either the BAO or $H_0$ measurements (see Figures 4 and 9), though the resulting constraints on $\sum m_\nu$ are quite different. Adding BAO data to the CMB data tightens the neutrino mass constraint significantly; for the combination of CMB+BAO, we obtain a 2.4 $\sigma$ preference for nonzero neutrino masses with $\sum m_\nu = (0.49 \pm 0.20)$ eV. The 95% confidence interval is $\sum m_\nu \in [0.11, 0.88]$ eV. On the other hand, the $H_0$ dataset prefers higher values of $H_0$, corresponding to lower values of $\sum m_\nu$. The likelihood for CMB+BAO peaks near zero neutrino mass, with an upper limit of $\sum m_\nu < 0.48$ eV (95% CL). Combining all three datasets produces a neutrino mass constraint that lies between the CMB+BAO and CMB+$H_0$ constraints. For the combination of CMB+BAO+$H_0$, we find the posterior peaks at 0.33 eV with a 68% confidence interval of $\sum m_\nu \in [0.16, 0.51]$ eV. The 95% CL upper limit is $\sum m_\nu < 0.66$ eV. The constraints from these combinations are shown in Figure 10. As an aside, we note that as in the CMB-only case, the small-scale information from SPT data is a significant contributor to the suggestion of nonzero neutrino masses. Without the SPT bandpowers, the neutrino mass probability density for WMAP7+BAO+$H_0$ peaks just above zero mass with a 95% CL upper limit of $\sum m_\nu < 0.48$ eV.

We next turn to low-redshift probes of structure growth: LRGs and galaxy clusters. For the CMB+LRG dataset, we find the posterior probability peaks at 0.39 eV with a 68% confidence interval of $\sum m_\nu \in [0.17, 0.61]$ eV. The 95% confidence interval is an upper limit at $\sum m_\nu < 0.78$ eV (95% CL). Instead, adding the SPT galaxy cluster sample33 to the CMB leads the posterior probability to peak at slightly higher masses 0.55 eV with a 68% confidence interval of $\sum m_\nu \in [0.28, 0.80]$ eV. The 95% CL upper limit is $\sum m_\nu < 1.03$ eV. Both the CMB+LRG and CMB+SPT$_{CL}$ combinations show a preference for non-zero neutrino mass at just under 2 $\sigma$.

Finally, we combine the CMB, geometrical, and large-scale structure observations. Because the SDSS LRG and SDSS BAO galaxy samples overlap, we do not include the LRG dataset in this combination. In this case, we find (for CMB+BAO+$H_0$+SPT$_{CL}$):

$$\sum m_\nu = (0.32 \pm 0.11) \text{ eV},$$

33 Note that the interpretation of the measured galaxy number counts depends on the Tinker mass function (Tinker et al. 2008). Although the Tinker mass function was not originally calculated for massive neutrinos, later papers (Marulli et al. 2011; Ichiki & Takada 2012) have shown that if rescaled to the new value of $\sigma_8$, the Tinker mass function remains accurate for massive clusters ($M > 10^{14}h^{-1}M_\odot$) – which includes all SPT galaxy clusters.
This data combination gives a 3σ preference for positive neutrino masses. Without BAO, the preferred mass drops significantly while the uncertainties increase; the constraint is consistent with no mass at 68% confidence, and we end up with an upper limit of $\sum m_\nu < 0.39$ eV (95% CL). Without $H_0$, the likelihood shifts to higher masses without degrading the uncertainties, $\sum m_\nu = (0.40 \pm 0.11)$ eV.

The are several drivers behind the $\sum m_\nu$ constraint (Equation 6) derived from the dataset combination of CMB+BAO+$H_0+$SPTCL:

- **CMB:** As discussed above, the CMB data contribute to this constraint by enforcing the height of the first and second acoustic peaks (from WMAP7 data) and the slope of the damping tail (from SPT data). The latter leads to a lower $n_s$, with $\sum m_\nu$ thus increasing to compensate for the changes to the power in the WMAP7 region. The resulting posterior distribution from the CMB peaks around $\sum m_\nu \sim 1$ eV. These CMB constraints contribute $\sim 1\sigma$ to the combined $\sum m_\nu$ constraint. If we keep only the optical depth prior from WMAP7, we find a confidence interval of $\sum m_\nu \in [0.07, 0.53]$ eV (95% CL). Without the SPT bandpowers (and $n_s$ information), the confidence interval is $\sum m_\nu \in [0.03, 0.48]$ eV (95% CL). In both cases, there remains a greater than 2σ preference for nonzero masses.

- **BAO:** The BAO measurement is an important driver of the combined neutrino mass constraint. As seen in Figure 10 the BAO measurements push up the preferred value of $\sum m_\nu$ and tighten the constraints considerably relative to the other datasets. The preference for massive neutrinos is common between the three BAO datasets. To confirm the robustness of the BAO preference, we have run three MCMC chains, dropping one of the BAO datasets in each chain. When dropping the SDSS, WiggleZ, or BOSS dataset, we find, at 95% CL, $\sum m_\nu \in [0.10, 0.55]$, [0.10, 0.53], or [0.03, 0.47] eV respectively. In short, the BAO data prefer massive neutrinos, and the results are robust against dropping any single BAO observation. The largest shift of 0.6σ is introduced by dropping the BOSS measurement. However as previously noted, if all BAO measurements are removed and $H_0$ information is included, the preference for massive neutrinos disappears.

- **SPTCL:** Adding the SPTCL galaxy cluster sample reduces the neutrino mass uncertainties by a factor of 1.6 without significantly changing the median value, as can be seen by comparing the value without clusters $- \sum m_\nu = (0.34 \pm 0.18)$ eV $-$ to the value with clusters $- \sum m_\nu = (0.32 \pm 0.11)$ eV. In principle, this result depends on the accuracy of the cluster mass calibration, which was determined through an X-ray based scaling relation. To test this dependency, we have doubled the uncertainty on the normalization of the X-ray scaling relation and find little change in the distribution.

$$\sum m_\nu \in [0.01, 0.63] \text{ eV (99.7% CL).} \quad (7)$$
Fig. 10.— Left panel: This panel demonstrates how the marginalized one-dimensional posterior distribution of \( \sum m_\nu \) changes when a single external dataset is added to the CMB dataset. The CMB constraint is shown by the black solid line. The datasets added are the BAO data (blue dot-dashed line), \( H_0 \) measurement (blue dashed line), LRG sample (black dotted line), and SPT cluster data (orange solid line). Right panel: This panel demonstrates how the marginalized one-dimensional posterior distribution of \( \sum m_\nu \) changes when a single external dataset is removed from the combination of CMB+BAO+\( H_0 \)+SPT\(_{\text{CL}}\). The datasets dropped are the SPT bandpowers (orange solid line), SPT\(_{\text{CL}}\) (blue dashed line), BAO data (blue dot-dashed line), and \( H_0 \) measurement (black dotted line). The marginalized posterior for the combined CMB+BAO+\( H_0 \)+SPT\(_{\text{CL}}\) dataset is shown by the black solid line.

Fig. 11.— This figure illustrates the robustness of the preference for positive neutrino masses to other parameter extensions. The marginalized one-dimensional posteriors for \( \sum m_\nu \) are shown for two-parameter extensions to LCDM for the combined CMB+BAO+\( H_0 \)+SPT\(_{\text{CL}}\) data sets (for \( w \), SNe are used instead of \( H_0 \)). Allowing significant curvature or running can significantly reduce the preference for nonzero neutrino masses (to 1.7 and 2.4\( \sigma \) respectively). Other extensions increase the preference for positive neutrino masses.

\[
\sum m_\nu = (0.34 \pm 0.12) \text{ eV}.
\]

We conclude that the reduction in uncertainties is insensitive to the specific prior on the mass scaling relation.

As shown in Table 3, allowing for non-zero neutrino masses decreases the value of \( \sigma_8 \) inferred by the SPT bands and WMAP7 (\( \sigma_8 = 0.658 \pm 0.067 \)) from the value obtained within the LCDM model (\( \sigma_8 = 0.795 \pm 0.022 \)) by roughly 2\( \sigma \). Inferring \( \sigma_8 \) from the CMB is quite indirect, and allowing for neutrino masses introduces a large degeneracy which, when compared to LCDM, significantly enlarges the uncertainty on \( \sigma_8 \). The preference for positive neutrino mass discussed above shifts the median of \( \sigma_8 \) down. Within the LCDM + \( \sum m_\nu \) model, the constraints from adding SPT data are consistent with the constraints inferred from WMAP7 alone, \( \sigma_8 = 0.685^{+0.079}_{-0.078} \) [Komatsu et al. 2011]. This is also consistent with the low redshift probe on \( \sigma_8 \). For example, the constraint on the quantity \( \sigma_8(\Omega_m/0.25)^{0.47} \) from X-ray clusters gives \( \sigma_8(\Omega_m/0.25)^{0.47} = 0.813 \pm 0.013 \) (stat) \( \pm 0.024 \) (sys) [Vikhlinin et al. 2009], and \( \sigma_8(\Omega_m/0.25)^{0.47} = 0.785 \pm 0.050 \) from CMB within the same model - consistent at 0.5\( \sigma \).

We conclude that the preference for nonzero neutrino masses is coming from three independent sources and remains at >2\( \sigma \) significance as long as we keep cluster abundances and at least one of the two most precise BAO measurements.

6.3. Degeneracies with other extensions

A final question is to what extent the neutrino mass constraint is weakened by introducing additional free parameters to the 7-parameter LCDM+\( \sum m_\nu \) model. To address this, we show the marginalized posteriors for the sum of the neutrino masses in 8-parameter models in Figure 11. We consider several possible additions: \( Y_p \), \( N_{\text{eff}} \), \( dn_s/d\ln k \), \( \Omega_k \), or \( w \). All curves are for the combination of CMB+BAO+\( H_0 \)+SPT\(_{\text{CL}}\).

Of these five extensions, two (\( dn_s/d\ln k \) and \( \Omega_k \)) decrease the preference for positive \( \sum m_\nu \), two (\( w \) and \( N_{\text{eff}} \)) increase the preference, and one (\( Y_p \)) has minimal effect. Allowing both curvature and massive neutrinos significantly increases the uncertainties on both parameters. The peak of the neutrino mass likelihood remains nearly unchanged at 0.34 eV with the 95% confidence interval expanded to \( \sum m_\nu \in [0.0.70] \) eV. The curvature is consistent with zero. Allowing for running of the spectral index reduces the preference for nonzero neutrino masses, in this case by shifting the median down; the neutrino mass constraint with running is \( \sum m_\nu = (0.27 \pm 0.11) \) eV. On the other hand, allowing the dark energy equation of state or number of neutrino species to vary increases the preference for positive neutrino masses. The summed neutrino mass is correlated with \( N_{\text{eff}} \) (see § 9.2 and Ichikawa et al. 2005) and anti-correlated with \( w \) [Zhao et al. 2012]. Freeing either of these parameters increases the median masses, although the uncertainties also increase. For a wCDM+\( \sum m_\nu \) model, the mass constraint
is $m_p = (0.51 \pm 0.14)$ eV, 3.7$\sigma$ above zero. For a $\Lambda$CDM+$N_{\text{eff}}+\sum m_{\nu}$ cosmology, the mass constraint is $m_p = (0.51 \pm 0.15)$ eV. This last case is discussed in detail in §9.2. We find the CMB+BAO+$H_0$+SPT data $\sum m_{\nu}$ preference for neutrinos remains at greater than 95% confidence when we add additional model parameters, with the exception of the mean curvature of the universe. Fitting the posterior with a Gaussian, we find curvature reduces the preference for massive neutrinos to 1.7$\sigma$.

7. RUNNING OF THE SPECTRAL INDEX

The difference in preferred $n_s$ from SPT and WMAP7 data suggests a scale dependence in the power spectrum of the primordial fluctuations. To test this, we allow the primordial power spectrum to deviate from a pure power law by introducing a logarithmic dependence on scale $k$, a so-called “running spectral index” (Kosowsky & Turner 1995):

$$n_s(k) = n_s(k_0) + \ln(\frac{k}{k_0}).$$

(8)

Here, $k_0$ is a defined pivot point and $dn_s/d\ln k$ is the running parameter. Throughout this section, we will define this pivot point to be $k_0 = 0.025$ Mpc$^{-1}$, which projects to $l \approx 350$. This pivot point is chosen to decouple the uncertainties on $n_s$ and $dn_s/d\ln k$ in the SPT+WMAP7 data.

The running parameter $dn_s/d\ln k$ is predicted to be undetectable by most inflationary theories, and a detection of non-zero $dn_s/d\ln k$ could provide information about the inflationary potential (Kosowsky & Turner 1995), or point to models other than inflation. There have been a number of recent CMB constraints on running. Komatsu et al. (2011) obtain $-0.084 < dn_s/d\ln k < 0.020$ (95% CL) from WMAP7. Dunkley et al. (2011) find $dn_s/d\ln k = -0.034 \pm 0.018$ from WMAP7+ACT. K11 use the combination of WMAP7 data and the first 790 deg$^2$ SPT survey data to obtain $dn_s/d\ln k = -0.024 \pm 0.013$, a preference for negative spectral running at 1.8$\sigma$.

7.1. Constraints on $dn_s/d\ln k$

We now look at the constraints on $dn_s/d\ln k$ from the SPT bandpowers. As shown in the left panel of Figure 12 adding the SPT bandpowers to WMAP7 dramatically reduces the allowed likelihood volume, and leads to a preference for negative running. For SPT+WMAP7, we find:

$$dn_s/d\ln k = -0.024 \pm 0.011.$$  

(9)

The probability of negative running with the CMB data is $P(dn_s/d\ln k \leq 0) = 98.6\%$, equivalent to a 2.2$\sigma$ Gaussian preference. In the appendix, we examine the dependence of the preference for negative running on the multipole range, and beam or foreground priors. We conclude that the preference does not depend strongly on the SPT experimental beam uncertainty or foreground modeling.

Adding BAO and $H_0$ data marginally improves the constraints and shifts the median to more negative values. The combination CMB+BAO+$H_0$ constrains $dn_s/d\ln k$ to be

$$dn_s/d\ln k = -0.028 \pm 0.010.$$  

(10)

The small shift from the CMB constraint is driven almost entirely by the BAO data, which prefers smaller values of $H_0$. The probability of negative running with the CMB+BAO+$H_0$ data is $P(dn_s/d\ln k \leq 0) = 99.7\%$, equivalent to a 2.7$\sigma$ Gaussian preference.

We next consider how robust the preference for negative running is to other model extensions. Introducing tensor perturbations (by making the tensor-to-scalar ratio $r$ a free parameter) is a particularly natural extension in the context of inflationary models. However, the preference for running cannot be reduced by non-zero tensor perturbations. Tensor modes would increase the power at large scales without affecting small and intermediate scales. Adding tensor modes, therefore, increases the preference for negative running. In a $\Lambda$CDM+$r+dn_s/d\ln k$ cosmology, we obtain $dn_s/d\ln k = -0.045 \pm 0.016$ for the CMB data and $dn_s/d\ln k = -0.046 \pm 0.015$ for the CMB+BAO+$H_0$.

More generally, the preference for negative running might be reduced by any extension that also effectively allows for an increasingly red, scale-dependent tilt. We thus consider how the running constraint changes for the CMB data alone when freeing $\sum m_{\nu}$, $N_{\text{eff}}$, or $Y_p$. For $dn_s/d\ln k + \sum m_{\nu}$, we find $dn_s/d\ln k = -0.020 \pm 0.012$, similar to the $\sum m_{\nu} = 0$ eV constraint of $dn_s/d\ln k = -0.024 \pm 0.011$. For $dn_s/d\ln k + N_{\text{eff}}$, we find a shift to more negative running and larger uncertainties, $dn_s/d\ln k = -0.034 \pm 0.017$. We find the largest increase in the uncertainties for $dn_s/d\ln k + Y_p$, $dn_s/d\ln k = -0.020 \pm 0.024$. Therefore, the significance of the preference for running is most reduced by freeing $Y_p$ and, to a lesser extent, $N_{\text{eff}}$, and we plot constraints for these extensions in the right panel of Fig. 12 as well as Fig. 13.

As will be discussed in §8, the primary effect of $Y_p$ and $N_{\text{eff}}$ is on the damping scale $k$ which obviously mimics running. This degeneracy expands the uncertainty on $dn_s/d\ln k$. The shift in the ISW effect due to massive neutrinos does not mimic the scale dependence of running very well and has minimal effect. Freeing $N_{\text{eff}}$ and $Y_p$ yield different results because, as will be discussed in §9, $N_{\text{eff}}$ also changes the locations of the acoustic peaks which running and $Y_p$ do not. This reduces the degeneracy between the parameters and also explains the shift in the preferred value for running. With $dn_s/d\ln k + N_{\text{eff}}$ free, the model is free to move to lower values of $N_{\text{eff}}$ to better match the observed peak locations while compensating for the decreased damping with negative running.

Among the models considered, the preference for negative running is only removed by freeing the helium abundance. However, the inferred helium abundance is in tension with the 2$\sigma$ upper limit of the protosolar measurement that will be discussed in §8.2. Forcing $Y_p$ to be less than this 2$\sigma$ upper limit of $Y_p < 0.294$ degrades the effectiveness of $Y_p$ in removing the preference for negative running. This point is illustrated by the purple contours in the right panel of Figure 12 and the blue dot-dashed line in Figure 13. Excluding values of $Y_p$ above 0.294, the preference for running is robust against other model extensions.

7.2. Implications for Inflationary Models
We now explore the implications of the constraint on running for models of inflation. Although we expect $n_s$ to have some scale dependence, $dn_s/d\ln k$ is predicted to be undetectably small with current data in single-field, slow-roll inflation models. These models predict $dn_s/d\ln k$ to be second order in the slow roll parameters, and thus of order $(1 - n_s)^2$ unless the potential experiences significant jerk in the observable range (Chung et al. 2003; Finelli et al. 2010). A significant detection of running is a potential problem for both small and large-field inflation models. Small-field inflation models predict $\rho = 0$, thus one can interpret the $n_s - dn_s/d\ln k$ constraint shown in Figure 12 as a direct test of small-field models. The observed value of $dn_s/d\ln k$ disfavors single-field small-field inflation with negligible jerk at the $\sim 2\sigma$ level ($\sim 2.7\sigma$ for CMB+BAO+H$_0$). Large-field inflation models, which predict non-negligible $r$ (and thus more negative running), are even more disfavored.

Models with significant jerk at observable scales can allow for larger absolute values of running (Easther & Peiris 2006), however for $n_s \lesssim 1$, these models also predict a number of e-foldings $N \lesssim 30$. Here $e^N$ gives the increase in the scale factor between the time when the observable scale leaves the horizon and the end of inflation. Such small values of $N$ are incompatible with a standard cosmological history (Liddle & Leach 2003), as they imply an energy scale of inflation which is below the electroweak phase transition (Easther & Peiris 2006). We therefore treat the prediction that $dn_s/d\ln k$ is of order $(1 - n_s)^2$ as a fairly robust one for single-field slow-roll models.

Finally, we mention that the choice of a constant $dn_s/d\ln k$ as a departure from power law behavior in the primordial spectrum is not the only possible choice. It is also possible that the running is significant over only a small range of wavenumber $k$; Chime & Hoi (2006) argue that such a parametrization fits more easily into the slow-roll framework and allows inflation to continue for a longer number of e-foldings.

34 Allowing for fourth or higher derivatives can increase the number of e-foldings, as is the case with large-field chaotic models with sinusoidal modulations (Kobayashi & Takahashi 2011) or extra-dimensional natural inflation models (Feng et al. 2004).

Fig. 12.— The data prefer negative running; this preference remains when additional parameters are freed. We show the marginalized two-dimensional posteriors for $n_s$ (at $k = 0.025$ Mpc$^{-1}$) and $dn_s/d\ln k$. Left panel: the $n_s - dn_s/d\ln k$ posterior obtained by marginalizing $N_{\text{eff}}$ (red) and $Y_p$ (blue) for WMAP7+SPT data. The purple filled contours show the case with $Y_p$ marginalized with the prior $Y_p < 0.294$, the 2$\sigma$ upper limit of the solar initial helium abundance by Serenelli & Basu (2010). We show the region where $|dn_s/d\ln k| < (1 - n_s)^2$ in gray. Inflation models with slow-roll expansion that can be terminated at second order make predictions in this region.

Fig. 13.— The preference of the SPT+WMAP7 data for negative running remains as additional parameters are freed. The marginalized one-dimensional posteriors for $dn_s/d\ln k$ from the CMB in the $\Lambda$CDM+$N_{\text{eff}}$ model is shown by the black solid line. The preference for negative running is reduced when $Y_p$ is allowed to vary (blue dashed line), although this depends on extremely high helium abundances. If an upper limit based on solar abundances is set on $Y_p$, the preference for negative running is mostly restored (blue dot-dashed line). Allowing $N_{\text{eff}}$ to vary (orange solid line) increases the preference for negative running.
As we conclude this section on running, it is worth reiterating that the statistical preference for running is less than 3σ. However, the other model extensions we consider do not significantly weaken this preference for running. If the constraints from future experiments confirm this preferred value of running, it would represent an important clue about the earliest epochs of the universe.

8. CONSTRAINTS ON OTHER ONE-PARAMETER EXTENSIONS

In this section, we consider other physically motivated models that can affect the scale-dependence of the tilt of the CMB power spectrum. Specifically, we test the effect of (1) varying the effective number of neutrino species (Neff), a probe of the standard model of particle physics, and (2) an increase in the primordial fraction of baryonic mass in helium (Yp), a possible signature of non-standard BBN. These extensions can increase the predicted damping due to photon diffusion relative to ΛCDM, which preferentially decreases small-scale power. The data therefore favor these extensions. Conversely, the data will disfavor extensions that exacerbate the discrepancy between the observed and predicted small-scale power. Examples of this type of extension include the discrepancy between the observed and predicted small-scale power. Specifically, we test the ΛCDM+pH0 model, which preferentially decreases small-scale power.

The left panel of Figure 14 shows the CMB constraints on θd/θs in the ΛCDM+Neff model space. The parameter θd is well-measured by both SPT and WMAP7, and the fractional shift in preferred θd is small between the two datasets. As a result, the uncertainty in Neff is primarily due to the uncertainty in θd. In ΛCDM, θd is primarily constrained from the WMAP7 determinations of ωb and ωm − not by the damping tail measurement. Freeing Neff greatly broadens the WMAP7 constraint on θd due to a degeneracy between Neff and ωm. With Neff free, the SPT determination of θd from the damping tail becomes tighter than that from WMAP7.

Constraints on Neff are shown in the right panel of Figure 14. The dot-dashed blue curve marks the broad WMAP7 posterior; [Komatsu et al. 2011] find Neff > 2.7 (95% CL) using WMAP7 alone. As expected from the observed shift in θd/θs between WMAP7 and SPT, the SPT data prefer lower values of Neff than WMAP7. Adding the SPT data to WMAP7 markedly improves the measurement as shown by the black curve. The joint SPT+WMAP7 constraint is:

\[ N_{\text{eff}} = 3.62 \pm 0.48, \]

representing a 20% reduction in uncertainty from the constraint determined from the WMAP7+K11 bandpowers. For the CMB data, the probability that Neff > 3.046 is 89%. In Table 4, we report the constraint on Neff from the datasets discussed in this section, including constraints on other parameters of particular interest.

We now turn to the addition of the late-time BAO and H0 data. When ξm is held fixed at its well-measured value from the CMB, increasing the effective number of neutrino species results in an increased expansion rate, which decreases r*. Since θd is well constrained, this results in a decrease in the angular-diameter distance DA, and thus DV. The end result is that, for the BAO observable r*DV, the changes largely cancel. The CMB+BAO constraint is \( N_{\text{eff}} = 3.50 \pm 0.47 \). The direct H0 measurement is more sensitive to the value of Neff. However, the H0 and CMB datasets prefer similar values of H0 and the preferred value of Neff hardly moves when H0 data is added. The resulting CMB+H0 constraint is \( N_{\text{eff}} = 3.46 \pm 0.35 \). The significance of the preference for Neff > 3.046 is largely unchanged between these three cases: the CMB, CMB+BAO, and CMB+H0 prefer Neff > 3.046 at 1.2 σ, 1.0 σ, and 1.2 σ, respectively.

Though adding BAO or H0 data individually to the CMB data slightly reduces the preferred value of Neff, combining all three datasets has the opposite effect of $N_{\text{eff}}$ on the phase of the acoustic oscillations. Constraints from this phase shift are subdominant in the ΛCDM+Neff model, but become more important when $Y_p$ is also allowed to vary; we discuss this effect in that context in §9. The Neff constraint in the ΛCDM+Neff model can thus be interpreted through its effect on the $\theta_d/\theta_s$ ratio.

Here we hold $Y_p$ to the value predicted by BBN, which is a function of both Neff and $\omega_b$. These $Y_p$ predictions are implemented in CosmoMC through interpolating over a table produced using PArThEnOPE v1.00 [Pisanti et al. 2008]. We look at the effect of varying $Y_p$ independent of BBN constraints later in this section, and we consider jointly varying Neff and $Y_p$ independently in §9.

The right panel of Figure 14 shows the combined SPT+WMAP7 constraints on Neff and $Y_p$. The upper-left quadrant corresponds to the ΛCDM+Neff model, and the upper-right quadrant corresponds to ΛCDM+Yp. The data favor lower values of $Y_p$ and Neff as compared to the ΛCDM+H0 and ΛCDM+BAO models.
shifting the distribution towards slightly higher $N_{\text{eff}}$. The joint CMB+BAO+$H_0$ constraint is $N_{\text{eff}} = 3.71 \pm 0.35$, a $1.9\sigma$ preference for $N_{\text{eff}} > 3.046$. The reasons for this shift can be seen in Figure 4. Increasing $N_{\text{eff}}$ moves the CMB-predicted $H_0$ and BAO quantities towards the measured values. This ability of high $N_{\text{eff}}$ to reconcile the CMB with BAO and $H_0$ has been noted previously by, e.g., Anderson et al. (2012). The inclusion of the BAO and $H_0$ information leads to a small upward shift in the value of $N_{\text{eff}}$; a higher value of $N_{\text{eff}}$ is required to reduce the tension between these datasets than that inferred from the CMB determination of $\theta_d/\theta_s$.

Prior to the decay of the gravitational potentials, the additional radiation density from extra neutrino species deepens potential wells, thus boosting structure growth at very early times. This increases the predicted abundance of massive galaxy clusters today. We therefore combine the SPT$_{\text{CL}}$ galaxy cluster counts with CMB, BAO and $H_0$ data to obtain the tightest constraint on the number of effective neutrino species,

$$N_{\text{eff}} = 3.29 \pm 0.31.$$  \hfill (12)

This is consistent at less than 1 sigma with the standard model of 3 neutrino species.

The effective number of neutrino species is partially degenerate with other extensions to ΛCDM, in particular, $dn_\nu/d\ln k$, $Y_p$, and $\sum m_{\nu}$. Including $dn_\nu/d\ln k$ shifts the preferred value of $N_{\text{eff}}$ down by $1\sigma$ to $N_{\text{eff}} = 2.98 \pm 0.38$; the effect of including $Y_p$ is nearly identical. Including $\sum m_{\nu}$ has the opposite effect and moves the preferred value of $N_{\text{eff}}$ up by $1\sigma$ to $N_{\text{eff}} = 3.86 \pm 0.37$. The slight preference for $N_{\text{eff}} > 3$ disappears when either $dn_\nu/d\ln k$ or $Y_p$ are freed, but is strengthened when freeing $\sum m_{\nu}$.

In summary, CMB data primarily constrain $N_{\text{eff}}$ through measurements of the ratio $\theta_d/\theta_s$. Adding $H_0$ and BAO measurements tightens this constraint and leads to a modest ($1.9\sigma$) preference for more than 3 neutrino species. This preference is driven by tension between the BAO and $H_0$ datasets. The tightest constraints come from the combination of the CMB, BAO, $H_0$ and cluster abundances and are consistent with 3 neutrino species at $0.8\sigma$. The $N_{\text{eff}}$ constraints are sensitive to the addition of further model extensions.

8.2. $Y_p$

When the universe cools to $T \sim 0.1\text{MeV}$, light nuclei begin to form, a process known as big bang nucleosynthesis (BBN: Schramm & Turner 1998; Steigman 2007). The primordial fraction of baryonic mass in $^4\text{He}$ is denoted as $Y_p$. As mentioned in § 8.1, BBN makes a precise prediction for the primordial helium abundance. A useful analytic form is given by Simha & Steigman (2008), valid for $N_{\text{eff}}$ near the standard model prediction:

$$Y_p = 0.2485 + 0.0016 \left[ (273.9 \omega_b - 6) + 100(S - 1) \right],$$ \hfill (13)

where

$$S^2 = 1 + \left( 7/43 \right)(N_{\text{eff}} - 3.046).$$ \hfill (14)

The $S^2$ factor accounts for any non-standard expansion rate prior to and during BBN. We use the BBN prediction for $Y_p$ in nearly all MCMCs, unless we specifically state that $Y_p$ is free.

At fixed baryon density, increasing the helium fraction leads to increased damping. Helium has a higher binding energy and thus recombines earlier than hydrogen; each neutral helium atom effectively absorbs four free electrons at the surface of last scattering. This decreases the number of free electrons which increases the photon diffusion length, $r_d$, as seen in Equation 4. Mirroring § 8.1, this single distance measure is degenerate with the angular diameter distance to last scattering. However, since the sound horizon scale is nearly independent of $Y_p$, the
standard neutrino species and the value of $Y_p$. Historically, these results have shown substantial variations between groups that greatly exceed the experimental error. Aver et al. (2010) find the protosolar helium abundance to be $Y_p = 0.278 \pm 0.008$. This measurement relies upon well-studied gravitational and solar evolution physics to back out the protosolar abundance from current measurements of the helium fraction on the solar surface. It is difficult to imagine mechanisms by which the protosolar abundance is reduced below the primordial helium abundance. Therefore some measure of caution is warranted in interpreting cosmological constraints with the protosolar abundance.

Marginalizing over all possible trends of the estimated $Y_p$ with metallicity increases the uncertainty substantially: for example, Aver et al. (2012) find $Y_p = 0.2534 \pm 0.0083$, $0.7 \sigma$ above the BBN prediction for $Y_p$ assuming the three standard neutrino species and the value of $\omega_b$ measured by WMAP.

An upper limit to $Y_p$ can be inferred from protosolar abundance estimates resulting from helioseismology; Serenelli & Basu (2010) find the protosolar helium abundance to be $Y_\text{solar} = 0.278 \pm 0.008$. This measurement relies upon well-studied gravitational and solar evolution physics to back out the protosolar abundance from current measurements of the helium fraction on the solar surface. It is difficult to imagine mechanisms by which the protosolar abundance is reduced below the primordial helium abundance. Therefore some measure of caution is warranted in interpreting cosmological constraints with primordial helium abundances above the $2 \sigma$ upper limit of $Y_p < 0.294$ derived from these measurements.

After combining WMAP7 with ACBAR and QUaD temperature power spectra, Komatsu et al. (2011) determine $Y_p = 0.326 \pm 0.075$. Dunkley et al. (2011) obtain $Y_p = 0.313 \pm 0.044$ by combining the ACT and WMAP7

This table shows constraints on the $\Lambda$CDM+$N_{\text{eff}}$ model. In addition to $N_{\text{eff}}$, we include constraints on other parameters of particular interest for this extension. In this model space, $Y_p$ is related to $H_0^2$ and $N_{\text{eff}}$ by a BBN consistency relation.
data. Using the bandpowers from the first 790 deg$^2$ SPT survey and WMAP7 data, K11 find $Y_p = 0.296 \pm 0.030$. In this analysis, we infer $Y_p = 0.240 \pm 0.079$ with the SPT bandpowers alone. These results are shown in the right panel of Figure 15. The combined CMB data lead to:

$$Y_p = 0.300 \pm 0.025.$$  \hfill (15)

As shown in the left panel of Figure 15, the addition of the WMAP 7 data breaks a degeneracy present in the SPT data between $Y_p$ and $n_s$. The fact that the resulting $Y_p$ is higher than the BBN-consistent value reflects the fact that, in the $\Lambda$CDM model, where $Y_p$ is required to be BBN-consistent, SPT prefers a lower value of $n_s$ than does WMAP7. Since $Y_p$ has none of the late-time effects of neutrino species, adding BAO and $H_0$ data hardly change the $Y_p$ constraint. The constraint from CMB+BAO+$H_0$ is $Y_p = 0.305 \pm 0.024$. However, slightly more than half the parameter space allowed by the CMB+BAO+$H_0$ data is ruled out by the protosolar upper limit.

The constraints presented above can also be compared to the BBN predicted value of $Y_p = 0.24774 \pm 0.00014$. The $\sim 0.06\%$ uncertainty quoted here does not include the 0.2% theoretical uncertainty on $Y_p$ in the PAthENoPE code used in CAMB (Pisanti et al. 2008). The inferred $Y_p$ value for CMB+BAO+$H_0$ is $2.4\sigma$ above the BBN prediction. We explore the relationship between the damping-tail inference of $Y_p$ and the BBN prediction in more detail in §9 where we consider an expanded model with both $Y_p$ and $N_{\text{eff}}$ free. It is worth repeating that the feature of the CMB data that drives these high values of $Y_p$ – a trend of decreasing power at higher multipoles relative to $\Lambda$CDM predictions – can also be explained by other model extensions, such as $dn_s/d\ln k$ or $N_{\text{eff}}$, both discussed above.

8.3. Early dark energy

The dark energy density could be considerable in the early universe if the equation of state parameter $w$ was much larger in the past, a situation commonly referred to as early dark energy. Early dark energy models lead to much larger signatures in the CMB anisotropy than traditional dark energy models; see Reichardt et al. (2012) for a discussion of the effects of early dark energy. One reason these models are interesting is that they can be constructed with attractor solutions that reduce the necessity to fine-tune the initial conditions (Wetterich 1988, Ratra & Peebles 1988). For instance in ‘tracer’ models, the dark energy equation of state is required to be equal to the background equation of state – e.g., during radiation domination, $w = 1/3$. The advantages are that the DE density can stay much closer to the energy density of the dominant component and that the DE evolution is independent of initial conditions.

Instead of considering a specific model, we choose to constrain early dark energy in the more general tracer model parametrization by Doran & Robbers (2006). This parametrization introduces two new parameters in addition to the $\Lambda$CDM set, the dark energy equation of state at $z = 0$, $w_0$, and the dark energy density relative to the critical density at early times, $\Omega_0$, which is taken to be constant at sufficiently high redshift ($z \gtrsim 10$). The dark energy density and equation of state are then given by

$$\Omega_{\text{de}}(a) = \frac{\Omega_{\text{de}}^0 - \Omega_{\text{e}}^0}{\Omega_{\text{de}}^0 + \Omega_{\text{m}}^0 a^{-3w_0}} + \Omega_{\text{e}}(1 - a^{-3w_0})$$ \hfill (16)

$$w(a) = -\frac{1}{3} \frac{d \ln \Omega_{\text{de}}(a)}{d \ln a} + \frac{a_{\text{eq}}}{3(a + a_{\text{eq}})}$$ \hfill (17)

Here $a_{\text{eq}}$ is the scale factor at matter-radiation equality, and $\Omega_{\text{de}}^0(\Omega_{\text{m}}^0)$ is the dark energy (matter) density relative to the critical density at $z = 0$. The dark energy equation of state today is $w_0$. This parametrization assumes spatial flatness so that $\Omega_m^0 + \Omega_{\text{de}}^0 = 1$. Since we force $\Omega_{\text{de}}(a)$ to be constant at high redshift, the dark energy equation of state mimics that of the dominant component at early times, thus behaving like a tracer model. Later, during matter domination at $z < 10$, the equation of state transitions towards its current value, $w_0$, so it can account for cosmic acceleration.

To consistently describe the perturbations, we are motivated by quintessence models to treat dark energy as a perfect fluid with a sound speed, $c_s$, equal to the speed of light (see Hu 1998). This choice, together with the parametrization for the background evolution, completely specifies the behavior of dark energy. We require $w_0 \geq -1$ and thus do not entertain the possibility of “phantom crossing” (see, e.g., Fang et al. 2008). This restriction allows us to avoid pathologies in perturbation evolution and to stay in the quintessence regime.

Like all the other extensions, early dark energy changes the tilt of the CMB power spectrum between small and large scales. The addition of SPT data therefore helps to further constrain the level of early dark energy. For a detailed physical explanation of how early dark energy is constrained by the CMB data, see Reichardt et al. (2012).

The small-scale CMB temperature anisotropy power measurement from the SPT bandpowers improves the constraints on the early dark energy density over WMAP7 alone by a factor of 3.5; the 95% upper limit on $\Omega_e$ is reduced from 0.052 for WMAP7-only to 0.013 for WMAP7+SPT. This is a 38% improvement on the upper limit of $\Omega_e < 0.018$ reported for WMAP7+K11 (Reichardt et al. 2012). Adding low-redshift geometrical measurements does not help constrain early dark energy, although, these data have a dramatic effect on the quality of the constraints on the late-time dark energy density and equation of state. The upper limit is essentially unchanged at $\Omega_e < 0.014$ for WMAP7+SPT+BAO+SNe. The $\Omega_e < 0.013$ bound from WMAP+SPT is the best published constraint from the Cosmic Microwave Background.

9. TWO-PARAMETER EXTENSIONS

We will now consider two 2-parameter extensions to $\Lambda$CDM: $N_{\text{eff}}+Y_p$ and $N_{\text{eff}}+\sum m_\nu$. Of the many possible 2-parameter combinations, we limit our discussion to these two extensions because they are physically well-motivated. The first case is an interesting consistency test of BBN, while the second case is a natural space to consider for sterile neutrinos.

9.1. $N_{\text{eff}}$ and $Y_p$
Here we examine simultaneous constraints on the effective number of neutrino species and the primordial abundance of \(^4\)He: ΛCDM+\(N_{\text{eff}}+Y_p\). This two-parameter extension to ΛCDM is moderately favored by the data with a \(\Delta \chi^2 = 5.5\) (see Table 2), though it does little to ease the tension between datasets beyond the one-parameter ΛCDM+\(N_{\text{eff}}\) model.

We first discuss the physical mechanisms that lead to joint constraints on \(N_{\text{eff}}\) and \(Y_p\). As noted earlier in §8.1 and §8.2 both the number of neutrinos and helium abundance primarily impact the damping scale. However, the parameters are not fully degenerate due to several additional effects of varying \(N_{\text{eff}}\) as discussed in Hou et al. (2013). Here we highlight in particular the role of shifts in the acoustic peak locations induced by phase shifts in the acoustic oscillations (Bashinsky & Seljak 2004).

Acoustic oscillations in a constant gravitational potential will have the form \(\cos(kr_s(\eta) + \varphi)\), where \(k\) is the wavenumber and the phase \(\varphi = 0\) as a consequence of the initial conditions in inflation models. Changes in the gravitational potentials shift the phase away from zero. Unlike photons, neutrinos have a long free-streaming distance in the early plasma. They thus alter the evolution of the gravitational potential and therefore the resulting phase shifts. For modes that entered the horizon in the radiation-dominated era \((l > l_{eq} \approx 434)\), Bashinsky & Seljak (2004) find that the change to the phase shift due to neutrino free streaming is \(\Delta \varphi = 0.19 \pi \rho_\nu / (\rho_\nu + \rho_\gamma)\). Here \(\rho_\gamma\) and \(\rho_\nu\) are the energy densities of the photons and neutrinos respectively. This phase shift changes the positions of the acoustic peaks in the CMB data.

Constraints on the phase shifts are weakened by a partial degeneracy between the angular size of the sound horizon and a phase shift. This point is illustrated by Figure 16 which shows the 68% and 95% confidence intervals on \(N_{\text{eff}}\) and \(\theta_s\) from the CMB. Changing the phase shift by \(\delta \varphi\) and the sound horizon by \(\delta \theta_s\) moves the \(m^\text{th}\) acoustic peak by \(\delta l_m = (\delta \varphi - l_m \delta \theta_s) / \theta_s\). We can thus hold fixed the position of any single acoustic peak by varying \(\theta_s\) to accommodate the phase shift. The black curve in the figure is the locus of points that does exactly this, although not for a particular peak but for a particular \(l\) value. We chose \(l = 1666\) because it is approximately where the signal-to-noise is maximized in the SPT bandpowers. The major axis of the constraint ellipse falls along the black line, confirming that the calculated phase shifts explain the observed correlation between \(N_{\text{eff}}\) and \(\theta_s\). The degeneracy between \(N_{\text{eff}}\) and \(\theta_s\) is broken (the contours close) in part because the compensating value of \(\theta_s\) is \(l\)-dependent; there is no one value of \(\theta_s\) that preserves all the peak locations. Other effects play a role in the degeneracy breaking as well, including the early ISW effect and effects due to the high values of the baryon fraction that occur at low \(N_{\text{eff}}\) (Hou et al. 2013).

The \(N_{\text{eff}}-Y_p\) contours from the CMB dataset are shown in Figure 17. The contours form an ellipse, with the minor axis (the better constrained direction) oriented in the direction of varying \(\theta_s / \theta_p\). Relative to WMAP7+K11, the new SPT bandpowers have the most impact on the high \(N_{\text{eff}}\) region. This improved constraint on \(N_{\text{eff}}\) is due to improved constraints on the neutrino-induced phase shifts.

The inferred values of \(N_{\text{eff}}\) and \(Y_p\) for the CMB data are:

\[
Y_p = 0.314 \pm 0.033, \quad N_{\text{eff}} = 2.60 \pm 0.67.
\]

When the BAO and \(H_0\) observations are added, the median values of these parameters shift slightly towards
the standard model expectations, and the uncertainties tighten:

\[ Y_\nu = 0.294 \pm 0.030, \]
\[ N_{\text{eff}} = 3.32 \pm 0.45. \]

We compare these CMB-derived results with the predictions from BBN theory (see Equation 13 in Figure 17). The dashed curve in Figure 17 denotes the BBN theory predictions. The data are consistent with BBN theory, although they display a mild preference for higher-than-predicted values of \( Y_\nu \). The region above the 2\( \sigma \) upper limit from the initial solar helium abundance (Serenelli & Basu 2010) is greyed out. We also plot the Peimbert et al. (2007) and Aver et al. (2012) estimates of \( Y_\nu \) based on spectroscopic observations of low-metallicity extragalactic clouds (see §8.2) as horizontal bands. The CMB+BAO+\( H_0 \) inference for the helium abundance is consistent with the spectroscopic observations of Aver et al. (2012) at 1.3\( \sigma \).

In summary, the CMB data can constrain \( Y_\nu \) and \( N_{\text{eff}} \) simultaneously by measuring the damping scale and the location of the acoustic peaks. The combination of CMB+BAO+\( H_0 \) prefers a value of \( N_{\text{eff}} \) which is consistent with three neutrino species and a value of \( Y_\nu \) slightly above the BBN prediction.

9.2. \( N_{\text{eff}} \) and \( \sum m_\nu \)

We finally focus on a two-parameter extension, \( \Lambda \text{CDM}+\sum m_\nu+N_{\text{eff}} \), in which both the mass and number of neutrino species are free. This is a well-motivated, natural model expansion of the individual \( m_\nu \) and \( N_{\text{eff}} \) extensions discussed earlier since (1) neutrino oscillation experiments have established that neutrinos are massive (Hamish Robertson 2009) and (2) the event excess in the MiniBooNE search for \( \nu_\mu \to \nu_e \) oscillations (Aguilar-Arevalo et al. 2010) and the reactor antineutrino anomalies (Mention et al. 2011) suggest one or more massive (\( \sim \)1 eV) sterile neutrino species. We will continue to assume equal masses in all neutrino species. For treatments of (3+1) or (3+2) models in the literature, see e.g. Kopp et al. (2011) or Giunti & Laveder (2011).

Cosmological observations can rule out large areas of the \( N_{\text{eff}}-\sum m_\nu \) plane. Benson et al. (2013) investigated constraints from WMAP7, KI1, BAO, \( H_0 \), and SPT galaxy clusters, and found \( N_{\text{eff}} = 3.91 \pm 0.42 \) and \( \sum m_\nu = (0.34 \pm 0.17) \text{eV} \). A more recent study by Riemer-Sorensen et al. (2013) used WMAP7+KI1+ WiggleZ+\( H(z) \)+SNLS3 to measure \( N_{\text{eff}} = 3.58_{-0.15}^{+0.16} \) (68% CL) and \( \sum m_\nu < 0.60 \text{eV} \) (95% CL). The tightness of the constraints on \( N_{\text{eff}} \) from this study are driven by the inclusion of the \( H(z) \) inference from measuring the age-redshift relation of passively evolving galaxies out to \( z \sim 1.75 \) (Moresco et al. 2012), which depends heavily on modeling stellar evolution. The extended arm out to higher redshifts provides greater constraining power on the expansion history, placing constraints on \( N_{\text{eff}} \); conversely, this information has little impact on the neutrino mass constraint.

As discussed in §4.2 this two-parameter extension significantly improves the quality of fit to the CMB+BAO+\( H_0 \) data by \( \chi^2 = 7.9 \), equivalent to a 2.3\( \sigma \) Gaussian preference. This model also increases the consistency between the CMB, BAO, and \( H_0 \) datasets, as illustrated by Figure 18. Both panels show the \( r_s/D_V(z = 0.57)-H_0 \) plane and are identical except for the color-coding, which encodes \( N_{\text{eff}} \) in the left panel and \( \sum m_\nu \) in the right panel. Like the \( \Lambda \text{CDM}+N_{\text{eff}} \) model shown in Figure 4, this 2-parameters extension allows the contours from the three datasets to overlap comfortably.

\( N_{\text{eff}} \) and \( \sum m_\nu \) are individually constrained by separate features in the CMB as described in §6 and §8.1—the early ISW effect for \( \sum m_\nu \), the damping scale and the position of the acoustic peaks for \( N_{\text{eff}} \). We can use Figure 15 to understand phenomenologically the relative interplay between \( N_{\text{eff}} \), \( \sum m_\nu \), \( H_0 \), and the BAO features, given a CMB prior. In the left panel, \( N_{\text{eff}} \) increases as \( H_0 \) increases and \( r_s/D_V \) decreases. The detailed direction means that the \( H_0 \) measurement is much more constraining than BAO for \( N_{\text{eff}} \), similar to the constraint on individual \( N_{\text{eff}} \) discussed in §8.1. In the right panel, the BAO data are critical for the neutrino mass measurement, whereas varying \( H_0 \) at fixed \( r_s/D_V \) (horizontal lines in the figure) has almost no effect on \( \sum m_\nu \). This can also be seen by the significant tightening of the inferred mass uncertainty between the green and blue contours in Figure 19. We see in Figure 19 that there is a positive correlation between \( N_{\text{eff}} \) and \( \sum m_\nu \) when \( H_0 \) is one of the datasets. This correlation emerges because the only way to increase \( N_{\text{eff}} \) in this model space while fixing \( z_{\text{eq}}, \theta_s \) and \( H_0 \) is to increase \( \sum m_\nu \) (and decrease \( \Omega_\Lambda \)).

The CMB constraints on \( N_{\text{eff}} \) and \( \sum m_\nu \) are nearly independent as shown by the red contours of Figure 19. As would be expected for independent parameters, the quality of the constraints are nearly unchanged from the single-parameter extensions discussed earlier. The \( N_{\text{eff}} \) constraint is \( N_{\text{eff}} = 3.40 \pm 0.48 \) with massive neutrinos compared to \( N_{\text{eff}} = 3.62 \pm 0.48 \) in the earlier massless case. In both the \( \Lambda \text{CDM}+\sum m_\nu \) and \( \Lambda \text{CDM}+N_{\text{eff}}+\sum m_\nu \) models, the CMB sets an upper limit on the neutrino masses of \( \sum m_\nu < 1.6 \text{eV} \) (95% CL). This independence is broken, and the constraints significantly tightened, once low-redshift observations are added. The green contours show the results of including \( H_0 \), while the blue contours show the constraints from CMB+BAO+\( H_0 \). For the combination of CMB+BAO+\( H_0 \) we find:

\[ \sum m_\nu = (0.48 \pm 0.21) \text{eV}, \]
\[ N_{\text{eff}} = 3.89 \pm 0.37. \]

As should be expected from §6 the mass constraint can be improved by adding a tracer of structure growth. For CMB+BAO+\( H_0 +\text{SPT}_{\text{CL}} \) (the purple contours, we find the tightest constraint of:

\[ \sum m_\nu = (0.51 \pm 0.15) \text{eV}, \]
\[ N_{\text{eff}} = 3.86 \pm 0.37. \]

This is a greater than 3\( \sigma \) preference for \( \sum m_\nu > 0 \) and a 2.2\( \sigma \) preference for \( N_{\text{eff}} > 3.046 \).

10. CONCLUSIONS

The SPT bandpowers as presented in Story et al. (2013) are currently the best measurements of the CMB damping tail from the third to ninth acoustic peaks
Fig. 18.— The $H_0 - r_s/D_V$ plane for the two-parameter extension $\Lambda CDM + N_{\text{eff}} + \Sigma m_\nu$ with the color of scattered points coding the values of $N_{\text{eff}}$ (left panel) and $\Sigma m_\nu$ (right panel). The colored contours and the gray filled regions are as described in Figure 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model extension</th>
<th>Preferred by the CMB data (see 1st row of Table 2)</th>
<th>Alleviates tension when combining BAO and $H_0$ data</th>
<th>Statistical error on extension parameter reduced by combining BAO and $H_0$ data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\Sigma m_\nu$</td>
<td>Marginal $\Delta \chi^2 = 2.4$, 1 dof Figure 10</td>
<td>No figure 4</td>
<td>Yes $\sigma_{CMB+BAO+H_0}/\sigma_{CMB} = 0.37$ Figure 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$dn_s/d\ln k$</td>
<td>Yes $\Delta \chi^2 = 4.9$, 1 dof Figure 12 and 13</td>
<td>No figure 4</td>
<td>No $\sigma_{CMB+BAO+H_0}/\sigma_{CMB} = 0.91$ Figure 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N_{\text{eff}}$</td>
<td>No $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.1$, 1 dof Figure 14</td>
<td>Yes marginal $\Delta \chi^2 = 4.4$, 1 dof Figure 14</td>
<td>$\sigma_{CMB+BAO+H_0}/\sigma_{CMB} = 0.73$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N_{\text{eff}} + \Sigma m_\nu$</td>
<td>No $\Delta \chi^2 = 2.6$, 2 dof Figure 19</td>
<td>Yes figure 18</td>
<td>Yes $\sigma_{CMB+BAO+H_0}/\sigma_{CMB} = 0.43$, ($\Sigma m_\nu$) $\sigma_{CMB+BAO+H_0}/\sigma_{CMB} = 0.77$, ($N_{\text{eff}}$)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table summarizes the evidence for physics beyond the $\Lambda CDM$ model. We state our conclusions and relevant figures for each entry. The second column addresses whether the CMB alone shows a preference for the extension. The third column addresses whether the extension reduces the tension between the datasets. The $\Delta \chi^2$s in Table 2 quantify the preference and reduction in the tension. The final column shows if the extension is favored because the statistical errors are significantly reduced by adding datasets.

The SPT bandpowers greatly improve measurements of three CMB observables: the damping scale due to photon diffusion, the locations of the acoustic peaks, and the amplitude of the lensing potential. The combined CMB data show a slight, reddening, scale-dependent tilt unreproducible in the $\Lambda CDM$ model. Therefore, we find that while the SPT bandpowers are well-fit by a $\Lambda CDM$ cosmology, there are tantalizing hints for extensions to this model.

With the aid of Table 5 we now summarize our most intriguing findings. The extension that the CMB data most prefer (at 2.4 $\sigma$) is the running of the spectral index, $dn_s/d\ln k$. This extension improves the fit to the CMB data, reducing the minimum $\chi^2$ by $\Delta \chi^2 = 4.9$ from that achieved with $\Lambda CDM$. We find, for the CMB alone, $dn_s/d\ln k = -0.024 \pm 0.011$. Negative running of the spectral index reconciles the slightly redder spectral index preferred by the SPT data with the slightly bluer tilt preferred by the WMAP7 data; the same value of running is preferred by the WMAP7 data alone, although only at $\sim 1 \sigma$. The combination of CMB, BAO, and $H_0$ data prefers more negative running, $dn_s/d\ln k = -0.028 \pm 0.010$. Deviations from scale invariance of this magnitude are not expected in standard inflationary scenarios.

Increasing the primordial helium abundance increases the damping scale which has a similar impact as negative running on the CMB power spectrum. Freeing the helium abundance reduces the minimum $\chi^2$ of the combined CMB fit by $\Delta \chi^2 = 4.4$, resulting in $Y_p = 0.300 \pm 0.025$. However, this value of $Y_p$ exceeds the protosolar 95% confidence upper limit of $Y_p < 0.294$. A summary of which extensions the CMB prefer can be found in Table 5.
We also find that some extensions are more motivated than others with respect to how they reduce the mild tension between the CMB, $H_0$, and BAO datasets in the context of the ΛCDM model. The ability of various extensions to reduce this tension is shown in the third column of Table 5. Of the extensions that we consider, the effective number of neutrino species, $N_{\text{eff}}$, is the only model extension that significantly reduces the tension between the CMB, BAO, and $H_0$ datasets. It does so both on its own, and when $\sum m_\nu$ is simultaneously free. The tension is reduced because $N_{\text{eff}}$ brings the model predictions for CMB and $H_0$ into better agreement with data without much change in the prediction for the BAO observable $r_s/D_V$. Thus, this extension can bring the region of the CMB probability posterior that is more consistent with the measured $r_s/D_V$ toward simultaneous compatibility with the $H_0$ measurement. Combining the CMB with BAO and $H_0$ data, we find $N_{\text{eff}} = 3.71 \pm 0.35$. Simultaneously freeing $\sum m_\nu$ leads to further improvement in the fit as higher neutrino masses bring the CMB into better consistency with $r_s/D_V$, while increasing $N_{\text{eff}}$ leads to consistency with $H_0$.

The impact of combining low redshift measurements with CMB data is summarized for selected extensions in the last column of Table 5. We find that the CMB, CMB+BAO, and CMB+SPT$_{\text{CL}}$ all at least weakly prefer a non-zero neutrino mass (with only $H_0$ preferring zero mass). The combined CMB+BAO+$H_0$+SPT$_{\text{CL}}$ dataset constrains $\sum m_\nu = (0.31 \pm 0.11)\text{ eV}$. The preference for massive neutrinos remains at $> 2 \sigma$ as long as we keep at least one of the two most precise BAO measurements; however, it disappears if we do not include any BAO data.

We find improved constraints on two additional model extensions, early dark energy and non-zero curvature. These extensions do not address the scale-dependent tilt present in the data or lead to a reduction of the tension between the CMB and low-redshift data.

In summary, we explore six theoretically motivated extensions to the ΛCDM model, and find that the combination of the SPT data with other cosmological measurements yields a 2-3σ preference for some of these extensions.avored extensions are running of the primordial spectral index, a sum of neutrino masses of order 0.3 eV, or greater than 3 effective neutrino species. The evidence for any extension to the standard ΛCDM model is currently weak given we find a maximum preference of 3.0σ after considering a number of extensions and data sets. However, a significant detection of any of these extensions in future data sets such as Planck and high-resolution CMB polarization experiments would dramatically impact our understanding of particle physics and cosmology.

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**APPENDIX**

**IMPACT OF EXTRAGALACTIC FOREGROUNDS AND OTHER SYSTEMATIC EFFECTS**

One of the central findings of this paper is the preference in the data for lower power at small scales than would be predicted by the ΛCDM model conditioned on the WMAP7 data. In this appendix, we test the robustness of this preference to the priors on the beam, calibration and extragalactic foregrounds. For simplicity, we only consider two typical extensions: running of the spectral index and changes to Silk damping (parameterized by the helium abundance $Y_p$). We test how the marginalized constraints on $dn_s/d\ln k$ and $Y_p$ change when the following systematic tests are performed:

- Doubling the width of foreground priors,
The marginalized constraints on $dn_s/d\ln k$ and $Y_p$ for different systematic effects are listed in Table 6 and the posterior distributions are illustrated in Figure 20. The preference for negative running or more damping is robust to the systematic effects considered here. Doubling the calibration uncertainty has little impact on both parameters. Loosening the foreground priors slightly moves the $dn_s/d\ln k$ ($Y_p$) median to lower (higher) values with the uncertainty slightly broadened, which makes the preference a bit stronger. Doubling the beam uncertainties leads to stronger shifts and broadening of the constraints but the 2$\sigma$ preference is almost unchanged.

In another test, we restrict the SPT bandpowers with $l_{\text{max}} = 2200$ and $l_{\text{max}} = 1500$. Combined with WMAP7 data, we obtain $dn_s/d\ln k = -0.025 \pm 0.013$ and $dn_s/d\ln k = -0.033 \pm 0.014$, respectively. The 2$\sigma$ preference is robust within the range in which the extragalactic foregrounds are not important.

In summary, we find the preference in the data for less power at small scales to be robust to the multipole range and the foreground, beam and calibration priors.

Facilities: South Pole Telescope

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