Inflationary Features and Shifts in Cosmological Parameters from Planck 2015 Data

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We explore the relationship between features in the Planck 2015 temperature and polarization data, shifts in the cosmological parameters, and features from inflation. Residuals in the temperature data at low multipole $\ell$, which are responsible for the high $H_0 \approx 70$ km s$^{-1}$Mpc$^{-1}$ and low $\sigma_8 \Omega_{m}^{1/2}$ values from $\ell < 1000$ in power-law $\Lambda$CDM models, are better fit to inflationary features with a 1.9$\sigma$ preference for running of the running of the tilt or a stronger 99% CL local significance preference for a sharp drop in power around $k = 0.004$ Mpc$^{-1}$ in generalized slow roll and a lower $H_0 \approx 67$ km s$^{-1}$Mpc$^{-1}$. The same in-phase acoustic residuals at $\ell > 1000$ that drive the global $H_0$ constraints and appear as a lensing anomaly also favor running parameters which allow even lower $H_0$, but not once lensing reconstruction is considered. Polarization spectra are intrinsically highly sensitive to these parameter shifts, and even more so in the Planck 2015 TE data due to an outlier at $\ell \approx 165$, which disfavors the best fit $H_0 \Lambda$CDM solution by more than 2$\sigma$, and high $H_0$ value at almost 3$\sigma$. Current polarization data also slightly enhance the significance of a sharp suppression of large-scale power but leave room for large improvements in the future with cosmic variance limited $E$-mode measurements.

I. INTRODUCTION

The anisotropies of the cosmic microwave background (CMB) continue to be one of the most powerful probes we have to study physical conditions in the early universe. With the release of Planck 2015 data, we now have access to precise all-sky measurements of the polarization as well as the temperature fluctuations of the CMB. Observations from supernovae, baryon acoustic oscillations, Big Bang Nucleosynthesis, among other datasets support, in addition to the CMB, a broadly consistent cosmological model termed $\Lambda$CDM.

Nonetheless, evidence for features beyond $\Lambda$CDM in the CMB temperature data have been claimed (e.g. [1–9]), as well as disagreements between CMB predictions for local observables under $\Lambda$CDM and their measured values (e.g. the local expansion rate $H_0$ [7, 10]). The two are related because these local cosmological inferences depend on the assumptions in the $\Lambda$CDM model, in particular the form of the inflationary power spectrum. It is, thus, essential to consider the impact of one type of deviation from $\Lambda$CDM on the other. Moreover polarization data play an essential role in breaking degeneracies between the two. It is the aim of this paper to examine these relationships between features in the temperature and polarization data, shifts in cosmological parameters and inflationary features.

Previous studies have tested the consistency of Planck data at different stages in the chain of inference from the raw data to cosmological parameters (e.g. [11–13]). In particular, Ref. [13] split the temperature power spectrum into two disjoint multipole ranges, the lower being similar to the range of WMAP, and analyzed the two ranges separately. They then find a $\sim 2 - 3\sigma$ discrepancy between parameters derived from the two parts of the same dataset. The Planck collaboration [14] carried out a meticulous investigation of the cause of this tension and discovered that it was mainly due to a deficit in power at low-$\ell$ and oscillatory residuals in the multipole range $\ell \gtrsim 10^5$. More recently, Ref. [15] examined the consistency of the polarization and temperature datasets, finding no strong evidence to disfavor the $\Lambda$CDM model.

In addition, several works [5, 16–26] have explored the effects of inflationary features on CMB observables, including the central role polarization data play in confirming or rejecting such features. For instance, step-like features in the inflationary potential could cause a dip and bump in the temperature data at low $\ell$. Such models could arise from symmetry-breaking phase transitions in the early universe, among other reasons [27–30]. These features invariably violate the slow-roll approximation and, thus, require more sophisticated modeling of the resultant inflationary power spectrum.

In this paper, we adopt both the traditional running of the tilt type parameters and the generalized slow roll (GSR) formalism [23, 31–33], which allows the inclusion of extra ’spline basis’ parameters that accommodate order unity power spectrum variations from slow roll predictions. We study the shifts in cosmological parameters, such as $H_0$ and the amplitude of local structure, when these extra parameters are included and explore the aspects of the temperature and polarization data that drive them.

This paper is organized as follows. Sec. II describes the datasets and parameter inference techniques. The results of our analyses are presented in Sec. III, which focuses on the shifts in cosmological parameters, and in Sec. IV, which focuses on the implications for inflationary
features. We conclude in Sec. V.

II. DATA AND MODELS

For the analyses described in this paper, we use the publicly available Planck 2015 data, which include the power spectra of cosmic microwave background (CMB) temperature and polarization fluctuations. For the low multipole (2 \(\leq\) \(\ell\) \(\leq 29\)) range, we use the standard plik lowTEB likelihood code supplied by the Planck collaboration. For the high multipole (\(\ell\) \(\geq\) 30) range, we similarly use the Planck plik binned\(^{1}\) TT likelihood for the baseline and the TTTEEE likelihood to assess the impact of the polarization data. Note that the low-\(\ell\) polarization data are included in all analyses, even though we refer to these cases as “TT” and “TTTEEE” respectively. We also alter the \(\ell\) range of the different likelihoods to probe the impact of specific regions of the data, in the case of the TTTEEE likelihood using a custom modification of the code. In some cases, we use information from the Planck lensing power spectrum \(C_{\ell}^{\phi}\) in the multipole range 40 \(\leq\) \(\ell\) \(\leq 400\). We also include the standard foreground parameters in each analysis.\(^{2}\) These datasets and likelihoods are summarized in Tab. I.

\(^{1}\) We have separately tested that the unbinned likelihoods give statistically indistinguishable results.

\(^{2}\) Premarginalizing foregrounds assuming \(\Lambda\)CDM with plik-lite as in Ref. [14] can change inferences on the inflationary running parameters. Conversely, not using the whole range in \(\ell\) to con-

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We employ a Bayesian approach to infer parameter posterior distributions and to derive confidence limits, namely the Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) technique implemented via the publicly available CosmoMC code [34] linked to a modified version of the Boltzmann code CAMB [35]. For each combination of datasets and models, we run 4 MCMC chains until convergence, determined by the Gelman-Rubin criterion \(R - 1 < 0.01\).

For the parameters, we take in all cases the standard 4 late-time \(\Lambda\)CDM cosmological parameters: the optical depth to reionization \(\tau\), the angular scale of the sound horizon \(\theta_{\text{MC}}\), the baryon density \(\Omega_{\text{b}}h^2\) and the cold dark matter density \(\Omega_{\text{c}}h^2\). Tensions in the \(\Lambda\)CDM cosmology are mainly associated with \(\Omega_{\text{c}}h^2\), which determines the calibration of the physical scale of the sound horizon and, hence, the CMB inference of the Hubble constant \(H_0\) as well as the growth of structure and lensing observables represented by \(\sigma_8\Omega_{\text{m}}^{1/2}\). These two parameters expose tensions in the \(\Lambda\)CDM model when compared to local, non-CMB measurements. Here and throughout the paper, \(\sigma_8\) is the rms of the linear density field smoothed with a tophat at 8\(h^{-1}\) Mpc and \(\Omega_{\text{m}} = \Omega_{\text{c}} + \Omega_{\text{b}} + \Omega_{\nu}\). We assume one massive neutrino with \(m_{\nu} = 0.06\) eV and the usual \(\Lambda\)CDM. We summarize our model and parameter choices in Tab. II.

In Fig. 1 we show the parameter derivatives or responses of the TT, TE and EE power spectra around the best fit \(\Lambda\)CDM model to the TT Planck dataset given in Tab. III. Here we normalize the derivatives to \(\sigma_8\), the cosmic variance per multipole, where

\[
\sigma_{\ell} = \begin{cases} 
\sqrt{\frac{2}{2\ell + 1}} C_{\ell}^{TT}, & \text{TT}; \\
\sqrt{\frac{1}{2\ell + 1}} C_{\ell}^{TT} C_{\ell}^{EE} + (C_{\ell}^{TE})^2, & \text{TE}; \\
\sqrt{\frac{2}{2\ell + 1}} C_{\ell}^{EE}, & \text{EE}.
\end{cases}
\]

Here and below \(\sigma_{\ell}\) is fixed by the fiducial TT model when varying parameters. For TT and EE this rescaling produces fractional derivatives scaled by \(\sim \ell^{-1/2}\) at \(\ell \gg 1\), which has the benefit of removing features from parameters like normalization that simply echo the acoustic peaks in the spectrum. We have also rescaled the parameters to either the error in the parameter from the \(\Lambda\)CDM TT model, e.g. for \(\Omega_{\text{c}}h^2\) we show the parameter \(p = \Omega_{\text{c}}h^2/\sigma(\Omega_{\text{c}}h^2)\), or by a fixed number, e.g. for \(n_{\text{run}}\), \(p = 50n_{\text{run}}\) for clarity. For the cases where we scale to \(\sigma\), this has the added benefit of showing where current limits can be improved with better measurements.

Increasing \(\Omega_{\nu}h^2\) decreases the overall power in the first few acoustic peaks in TT due to the reduction of radiation driving and the early ISW effects from decaying potentials inside the sound horizon (see [36] Fig. 4). Since the former effect changes the amplitude of acoustic oscillations, it also reduces the temperature peaks, which

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TABLE I. Combinations of Planck 2015 data sets and likelihoods.\(^{a}\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dataset</th>
<th>Likelihood</th>
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<tr>
<td>TT</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>TTEE</td>
<td>binned TTTEEE + low TEB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\phi)</td>
<td>lens reconstruction 13</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

\(^{a}\) In addition, we split the binned TT and TTTEEE likelihoods multipole ranges, the latter with a modified likelihood code.

TABLE II. Models and parameterizations of the inflationary power spectrum. The parameters \(p_i\) are spline basis coefficients that generalize the tilt as defined in Appendix A. In each case, the 4 late time cosmological parameters are prepended to the parameter list.

| Model   | Parameters \(|\tau, \theta_{\text{MC}}, \Omega_{\text{b}}h^2, \Omega_{\text{c}}h^2\)| |
|---------|-------------------------------------------------|
| \(\Lambda\)CDM | \(|\{A_s, n_s\}\)                    |
| r\(\Lambda\)CDM | \(|\{A_s, n_s, n_{\text{run}}, n_{\text{run,run}}\}\) |
| SB      | \(|\{A_s, n_s, p_i\}\)                     |
| rSB     | \(|\{A_s, n_s, n_{\text{run,run}}, n_{\text{run,run,run}}\}, p_i\}|
are extrema of the oscillations, relative to troughs, which are nodes. Before the damping tail, these changes are nearly in phase with the acoustic peaks in contrast to $\theta_{MC}$, which makes out-of-phase changes that shift peak positions. Damping tends to shift the observed peak locations to larger angles, the phasing of the two drifts at high $\ell$, but we will nonetheless refer to them as “in phase” and “out of phase” oscillatory changes since our focus is on the peaks that are well measured by Planck. Note that with higher multipole information from ground based ex-
periments this effect can be distinguished from entirely in phase effects. Indeed increasing $\Omega_m h^2$ also increases the gravitational lensing, which also reduces the peaks relative to the troughs and remains entirely in phase through the damping tail. For the Planck data, the acoustic effect of $\Omega_m h^2$ is larger than the lensing effect but they both contribute [14].

The impact of $\Omega_m h^2$ on the EE spectrum is much sharper near the sound horizon ($\ell \approx 200$, first polarization trough, see Fig. 3 in Ref. [37]) since potential decay does not change it after recombination as it does temperature through the early ISW effect. This enhanced sensitivity carries over to the TE spectrum, which dominates the Planck polarization constraints at high $\ell$.

To infer the 4 late-time parameters from CMB data we must assume a parameterized form for the inflationary curvature spectrum $\Delta_\kappa^2$, and vice versa. We choose to model $\Delta_\kappa^2$ in 4 ways to highlight its impact. In all cases, $A_\ell$ is the amplitude $\Delta_\kappa^2(k_0) = A_\ell$ where $k_0 = 0.08 \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$. Fig. 1 shows that this choice places the pivot point at $\ell \approx 10^3$, which is near the best constrained scale of the Planck data. It also shows the effect of raising lensing by raising $A_\ell$ in the oscillatory response beyond the third peak.

For the slope $d\ln \Delta_\kappa^2 / d\ln k$, we consider a constant tilt $n_s - 1$ as the baseline case, which we call “ACDM”. Unlike the late-time cosmological parameters, $A_\ell$ and $n_s$ coherently change the TT spectrum across all multipoles rather than introducing localized features in $\Delta C^{TT}_\ell / \sigma_\ell$ (see Fig. 1). On the other hand, the dominant source of tension in the LCDM model comes from anomalies in the TT spectrum that are more localized. Fig. 1 shows that by allowing running and “running of the running” of the tilt:

$$\frac{d\ln \Delta_\kappa^2}{d\ln k} = n_s - 1 + n_{\text{run}} \ln \left( \frac{k}{k_0} \right) + \frac{n_{\text{run, run}}}{2} \ln^2 \left( \frac{k}{k_0} \right),$$

one can change the low-multipole part of the spectrum relative to the high-multipole part, but only if these additional parameters are of order the $n_s - 1$ itself. In standard slow roll inflation, each order of running is suppressed by an additional factor of $n_s - 1$, which should make them safely unobservable in the Planck data. We call the case where these parameters are not constrained by the slow roll hierarchy “rACDM”. In these models, $\Delta_\kappa^2$ will have a prominent but broad feature on CMB scales.

While these parameters can model large-amplitude deviations from slow roll, they cannot model rapid variations that occur on a time scale of an efold or shorter. Such rapid variations would be required to produce sharp features in multipole space in the observed power spectra. To distinguish between rapid variations that are confined to low multipoles and a smooth change in the overall amount of large to small-scale power, we employ the generalized slow-roll (GSR) approximation. Here,

$$\frac{d\ln \Delta_\kappa^2}{d\ln k} \rightarrow -G',$$

where $G'$ is a function of e-folds of the sound horizon during inflation, as detailed in Appendix A. We consider arbitrary variations $\delta G'$ around both the standard $n_s - 1$ (“SB”) and running forms (“rSB”) for scales between the horizon and the first acoustic peak. Specifically, we take a spline basis with 20 knots $p_i$ across 2 decades in scale. In Fig. 1 we show the response of the observable power spectrum to these parameters. Note that individually these parameters produce step-like features in the power spectrum and their superposition can produce fine scale features to fit the low-$\ell$ TT anomalies in the data. In Fig. 1 these steps appear tapered due to rescaling by cosmic variance errors $\sigma_\ell \propto \ell^{1/2}$. They produce sharper features in EE at a slightly higher multipole due to projection effects. Since the GSR approximation is still perturbative, we impose an integral constraint on the second order impact of the $p_i$ parameters, $\max(I_1) < 1/\sqrt{2}$ (see Eq. A7). Finally, we assume no tensors, $r = 0$ throughout.

Cosmological parameter constraints derived from the MCMC likelihood analyses are summarized in Fig. 2, and best fit models are listed in Tab. III. We use these models in the next two sections to highlight the interplay of features in the data, shifts in cosmological parameters.
III. $H_0$ AND COSMOLOGICAL PARAMETERS

Of the 4 late-time parameters, the one most dependent on the dataset and model assumptions of the previous section is the cold dark matter density $\Omega_c h^2$ (see Fig. 2), which directly controls the inferences on $H_0$ and the amount of structure today $\sigma_8 \Omega_m^{1/2}$. Raising $\Omega_c h^2$ increases the scale of the sound horizon relative to the current horizon because of the reduced effect of radiation on the former. Compensating this effect requires a lower Hubble constant to increase the distance to recombination. In $\Lambda$CDM the net effect is to keep $\Omega_m h^3$ nearly constant [38].

As discussed in Ref. [14], this sensitivity is largely driven by the Planck TT residuals from the $\Lambda$CDM best fit model in two regions: power deficits and glitches at low $\ell \lesssim 40$ and oscillatory residuals at $\ell \gtrsim 10^3$. As shown in Fig. 1, $\Omega_c h^2$ controls the overall amplitude of the acoustic peaks relative to low multipoles, and also impacts the height of the peaks relative to the troughs. Given the ability of the inflationary power spectrum to change the

![Graphs showing cosmological parameter constraints with the 4 combinations of datasets in Tab. I on the 4 models for the inflationary power spectrum in Tab. II.](image-url)
FIG. 3. Top panel: residuals in the TT data (points) and models relative to the best fit ΛCDM TT model of Tab. III (dashed line). Bottom panel: change in the likelihood $2\Delta \ln L^{TT}$ of models relative to ΛCDM TT starting from the lowest bin at $2 \leq \ell < 30$ (dotted lines) and adding each individual data point thereafter. The ΛCDM TT ($\ell < 1000$) model (red line) fits the residuals at low $\ell \lesssim 40$ and $\ell \sim 700-1000$ better due to changes in $H_0$ and other parameters, but it is a poor fit to the in-phase residuals at $\ell > 1000$. Conversely, the inflationary feature SB model (blue) fits the low-\ell residuals yielding a large $2\Delta \ln L^{TT} \sim 12$ improvement at low $\ell$, but only small changes at high $\ell$. Note that the ΛCDM TT ($\ell < 1000$) model has the same foreground parameters as the ΛCDM TT model, and the data points assume TT foregrounds are fixed to the best fit ΛCDM TT values in Ref. [9].

FIG. 4. $H_0$ from the TT full vs ($\ell < 1000$) datasets. Low-\ell residuals in Fig. 3 drive $H_0$ higher in the ΛCDM TT ($\ell < 1000$) analysis (red vs black curves). In the SB model, these residuals are fit by inflationary rather than cosmological parameter changes, so low values of $H_0$ that are favored in the full analysis (gray shaded) are also compatible in the ($\ell < 1000$, red shaded) analysis.

FIG. 5. TT residuals at $\ell > 1000$ relative to the best fit ΛCDM TT model of Tab. III (dashed line). With the running parameters, rΛCDM and rSB seek to fit the oscillatory residuals and make the peaks smoother. Adding the lens reconstruction data $\phi\phi$ largely removes this preference.

relative power and amount of smoothing of the peaks due to lensing, the interpretation of these residuals depends on the inflationary model assumptions. In addition, as shown in Ref. [9], the TE data have a surprisingly large impact on $\Omega_m h^2$ and $H_0$, favoring a low value for the latter. We further explore these issues and their relationship to inflationary features in turn.
of Tab. III. In order to produce a global fit. These fits also predict more gravitational lensing and are not favored by lensing reconstruction data (gray shaded, rACDM TT + φ).

A. Low \( \ell \lesssim 40 \) TT residuals

We begin by repeating the test discussed in Ref. [13] of comparing the inferences from the TT and TT (\( \ell < 1000 \)) datasets on \( H_0 \) in the \( Λ \)CDM model context. In Fig. 4, we show that constraints shift from \( H_0 = [67.3 \pm 0.98] \) \( \text{km s}^{-1}\text{Mpc}^{-1} \) to \( [69.7 \pm 1.8] \) \( \text{km s}^{-1}\text{Mpc}^{-1} \), as expected. In Ref. [14], this shift is largely attributed to the low-\( \ell \) residuals between the data and the best fit \( Λ \)CDM model to the full-TT data, which we display in Fig. 3. These residuals favor lower low-\( \ell \) power compared with the acoustic peaks. As seen in Fig. 3 (red curve), they can be fit better by the \( Λ \)CDM TT (\( \ell < 1000 \)) model by lowering \( Ω_c h^2 \), which increases the radiation driving to raise the peaks over lower \( \ell \)'s with adjustments of other parameters, such as \( n_s \) (see Tab. III). In addition, the out-of-phase residuals peaking between the third and fourth acoustic peaks \( \ell \approx 700 - 1100 \) drive a small change in the full range in TT, these same changes cannot fit the data, as we discuss further in the next section.

To further test this interpretation, we show the impact of generalizing the model class to SB which allows the low-\( \ell \) residuals to be fit by inflationary features instead. The maximum likelihood SB TT model of Tab. III is shown in Fig. 3 (blue curve). By design, the SB parameters do not significantly alter the acoustic peaks (see Fig. 1) leaving the high-\( \ell \) residuals and cosmological parameters nearly unchanged from \( Λ \)CDM TT. Correspondingly, in Fig. 4 we show that for the full-TT data set, \( H_0 \) constraints also remain largely unchanged, whereas for \( \ell < 1000 \) they broaden, making these lower \( H_0 \) values compatible. From Fig. 2, there is a similar broadening in the running classes of models rACDM and rSB. We return to the distinctions between these various means of fitting TT residuals at low \( \ell \) in Section IV (see also Fig. 12).

B. High \( \ell \gtrsim 1000 \) TT residuals

In the full TT dataset, the lower \( Ω_c h^2 \) and higher \( H_0 \) that is preferred by the low-\( \ell \) residuals causes even more significant in-phase high-\( \ell \) deviations from the data. Higher radiation driving beyond the 4th peak implies sharper peaks than those seen in the data (see Fig. 5). Indeed, there remains in-phase oscillatory residuals of opposite sign at high \( \ell > 1000 \) even with respect to the full \( Λ \)CDM TT maximum likelihood model. The data favor smoother peaks than those that can be achieved in the \( Λ \)CDM context, producing the so-called lensing anomaly, since additional lensing acts to smooth the peaks (see Fig. 1).

Specifically, when allowing the amplitude of lensing \( C_\ell^φ \rightarrow A_\ell C_\ell^φ \) to float independently, \( A_\ell = 1.22 \pm 0.10 \)
Alternately, if only $\ell > 1000$ data are considered in the $\Lambda$CDM context, $H_0 = [64.1 \pm 1.7] \text{ km s}^{-1}\text{Mpc}^{-1}$ as pointed out by Ref. [13]. However, given an inflationary power spectrum described by $A_s$ and $n_s$ as in $\Lambda$CDM, fitting the oscillatory residual in this way does not lead to a consistent global solution [14].

Relaxing the assumptions on the inflationary power spectrum allows for greater flexibility. In Fig. 5, we see that moving to the $r$LCDM and $r$SB classes does indeed fit the oscillatory residuals better. Correspondingly, in Fig. 6, these classes allow even lower values of $H_0 = 66.6 \pm 1.1$ and $66.2 \pm 1.2 \text{ km s}^{-1}\text{Mpc}^{-1}$ respectively, corresponding to the higher values of $\Omega_c h^2$, as shown in Fig. 2. Note also that this enhanced freedom is also associated with a higher value of $\tau$ and, hence, $A_s$. Given the suppressed curvature power spectrum on large scales, it takes a larger $\tau$ to provide the same amplitude of polarization from reionization.

In Fig. 7, we show that the combination of $A_s$ and $\Omega_c h^2$ changes in the $r$LCDM model from Tab. III also enhances the lensing power spectrum. However, lensing reconstruction data do not favor such an enhancement. In Fig. 6 we see that, correspondingly, the preference for shifting $H_0$ even lower in the $r$LCDM model mainly goes away with the $\text{TT+}\phi\phi$ dataset, where $H_0 = 67.2 \pm 1.1 \text{ km s}^{-1}\text{Mpc}^{-1}$.

C. Intermediate $\ell \sim 200$ TE residuals

Ref. [9] showed that the TE data alone constrain $H_0$ to comparable precision as the full TT data, and that it favors the low $H_0$ of the latter as opposed to the high $H_0$ of TT ($\ell < 1000$). We can attribute some of this ability to the enhanced, degeneracy breaking, sensitivity to $\Omega_c h^2$ in the TE and EE spectra around the first polarization trough at $\ell \sim 200$ (see Fig. 1). Given Planck noise, TE is more constraining than EE, and so we focus on its impact.

In Fig. 8, we show the TTEE data set inferences on $H_0$ from the full range and compare it to the $\ell < 1000$ range. Most of the extra information from polarization comes from $\ell < 1000$, as expected given Planck noise. While discarding the $\ell > 1000$ range in the TT analysis doubles the $H_0$ errors, the impact on the TTEE analysis is notably smaller: $H_0 = 68.1 \pm 0.83 \text{ km s}^{-1}\text{Mpc}^{-1}$ compared with $67.2 \pm 0.66 \text{ km s}^{-1}\text{Mpc}^{-1}$. Moreover, the TE data at $\ell < 1000$ pull $H_0$ closer to the value preferred by the TT dataset of the full rather than $\ell < 1000$ range. On the face of it, this provides independent support for low $H_0$ that does not involve the multipole ranges known to have anomalies in TT and provides some proof against instrumental systematics. However, even given the large and sharp polarization responses to $\Omega_c h^2$ in Fig. 1, the noisy TE Planck data seem unusually sensitive to $\Omega_c h^2$ and $H_0$.

To better understand the sensitivity, in Fig. 9 we show the residuals of the TE data relative to the best fit $\Lambda$CDM TT model and also compare them to the best fit $\Lambda$CDM TT ($\ell < 1000$) model. Note that neither cosmological model is optimized to fit the polarization data. Polarized and unpolarized foregrounds are jointly reoptimized in the $\Lambda$CDM and SB TT cases, whereas for $\Lambda$CDM TT ($\ell < 1000$) they are held fixed to their reoptimized $\Lambda$CDM values. The difference between the two models is relatively small compared with the measured errors. However, the data show a significant outlier in the $\ell = 165$ bin relative to both models at $\sim 2\sigma$ for the $\Lambda$CDM TT model (low $H_0$) and $\sim 3\sigma$ for the $\Lambda$CDM TT ($\ell < 1000$; high $H_0$) model. We therefore attribute the enhanced sensitivity to $H_0$ in large part to the presence of this one outlier.

To test this attribution, we also show in Fig. 9 (bottom panel) the change in the TTEE likelihood between the $\Lambda$CDM TT and $\Lambda$CDM TT ($\ell < 1000$) models as a function of the maximum $\ell$. The $\Lambda$CDM TT ($\ell < 1000$) model jumps from a better fit to a worse fit across the $\ell = 165$ bin, unlike with the TT likelihood (cf. Fig. 3). We also show the best fit SB TT model in Fig. 9. Intriguingly, even though this model is not optimized to fit the outlier, it does marginally reduce tension with the $\ell = 165$ bin. It is also interesting to note that even in the $r$LCDM where $H_0 = 66.9 \pm 0.69 \text{ km s}^{-1}\text{Mpc}^{-1}$ and rSB classes where $H_0 = 66.8 \pm 0.72 \text{ km s}^{-1}\text{Mpc}^{-1}$, the TTEE data set no longer allows the even lower $H_0$ values found from fitting the $\ell > 1000$ oscillatory TT residuals even with no lensing reconstruction data (see Fig. 2).

However, the Planck collaboration considers the TE and EE data sets as preliminary and so the anomalous sensitivity to $H_0$ in the $\Lambda$CDM context, while intriguing, should not be overinterpreted.
FIG. 9. Top panel: residuals in the TE data (points) and the same models as in Fig. 3 relative to the best fit ΛCDM TT model of Tab. III (dashed line). Bottom panel: $2\Delta \ln \mathcal{L}_{TTEE}$ of models relative to ΛCDM TT in the same form as Fig. 3. Cosmological parameters are fixed to their TT best fit values and the TT ($\ell < 1000$) model also has the same foreground parameters as the TT model including polarized foregrounds. The ΛCDM TT ($\ell < 1000$) model becomes a worse fit to the TTEE dataset when passing the outlier point at $\ell \approx 165$ (arrow), whereas the SB TT model slightly improves the fit.

FIG. 10. Amplitude of structure $\sigma_8 \Omega^{1/2}_m$. Shifts in $\Omega_s h^2$ from ΛCDM TT ($\ell < 1000$; red curve) to the full range (black curve) drive $\sigma_8 \Omega^{1/2}_m$ higher. Fitting the in-phase high-$\ell$ residuals with the enhanced freedom of the rACDM model drives it even higher (gray shaded), but in a manner inconsistent with the lensing reconstruction data (red shaded).

D. Local amplitude $\sigma_8 \Omega^{1/2}_m$

The lowering of $H_0$ and raising of $\Omega_m$ between the WMAP9 or Planck TT ($\ell < 1000$) cosmology and the Planck (full) TT cosmology causes an increase in the amount of local structure $\sigma_8 \Omega^{1/2}_m$ (see Fig. 10). This increase is in moderate tension with measurements of the local cluster abundance, depending on the mass calibration employed [9, 39], and of weak gravitational lensing [40, 41].

In Fig. 10, we show the effect of generalizing the model class to rACDM. The allowed further raising of $\Omega_s h^2$ and lowering of $H_0$ with just the TT data set shifts $\sigma_8 \Omega^{1/2}_m$ to higher values. However, once the $\phi\phi$ lensing reconstruction data are included, this preference disappears.

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Parameter</th>
<th>rACDM TT</th>
<th>rACDM TT + $\phi\phi$</th>
<th>SB TT</th>
<th>rSB TT</th>
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</tbody>
</table>

TABLE IV. Inflationary parameters of best fit models for various datasets. The running parameters are defined in Eq. 2 and $m_1$, $m_2$, $m_3$ are the first 3 principal components of the SB parameters rank ordered by increasing variance.
IV. INFLATIONARY FEATURES

The same residuals in the Planck TT data that drive shifts in $H_0$ and $\sigma_8\Omega_m^{1/2}$ provide hints that inflation may be more complex than single-field slow-roll inflation would imply. No single set of $\Lambda$CDM parameters with a power-law curvature power spectrum simultaneously gives a very good fit to the TT data at low $\ell$ and high $\ell$, as shown in Fig. 3.

Although single-field inflation allows for running of the tilt and running of the running, the slow-roll approximation predicts that each order should be successively suppressed by $O(n_s - 1)$, i.e. $n_{\text{run,run}} \lesssim 10^{-4}$. However, in the r$\Lambda$CDM analysis $n_{\text{run,run}} = 0.029 \pm 0.015$ [9], a 1.9$\sigma$ preference for a violation of slow-roll inflation (see Fig. 11). In Tab. IV, we give the best fit values for running parameters in the various model classes, and in Fig. 12 we show how well these models fit the data residuals at low $\ell$. While the r$\Lambda$CDM model does indeed lower power on large scales, it fails to fit the sharp decline in power at $\ell \sim 20 - 30$. As shown in Fig. 5, there is also a slight preference for nonzero running parameters due to their ability to accommodate cosmological parameter changes that fit the high-$\ell$ oscillatory residuals. However, this preference does not remain if the lens reconstruction data are considered.
Given the large preferred values of $n_{\text{run}, \text{run}}$, such models violate slow roll and may in their own right be considered inflationary features, so there is no theoretical motivation to model the inflationary curvature power spectrum as a truncated Taylor expansion around the pivot point as in Eq. (2). Indeed, we see in Fig. 12 that the SB parameters of the generalized tilt $\delta G'$ allow a sharper decline at $\ell \sim 20-30$, which better fits the data. On the other hand, with 20 free parameters, the SB model tends to overfit the residuals leaving highly correlated parameter errors and no single $p_i$ with more than a $\sim 1 \sigma$ deviation from the slow roll prediction of zero (see Fig. 13).

From Fig. 3, we see that the net improvement in fitting the residuals with SB at $\ell < 30$ is $2\Delta \ln L^{\text{TT}} \sim 12$. We also show that combining both SB and running parameters leads to fits that are very similar to SB at low $\ell$. Correspondingly, once the SB parameters are marginalized, the significance of the preference for finite values decreases to $n_{\text{run}, \text{run}} = 0.035 \pm 0.027$ (see Fig. 11). Its best fit value 0.041 actually increases in rSB, in part due to its ability to fit the high-$\ell$ in-phase residuals.

In order to expose the most significant linear combination of the SB $p_i$ parameters and their implications, we examine the $m_\alpha$ principal components (PCs) of its covariance matrix $C_{ij} = \langle p_i p_j \rangle$, rank ordered by increasing eigenvalue or variance, following Ref. [25], as detailed in the Appendix. For the SB TT analysis, the best constrained PCs also contain the most significant deviations from slow roll. Note that $m_2 = m_3 = 0$ is outside the 95% CL region and is in fact excluded at $\sim 99\%$ CL in Fig. 14 with $m_2 = -0.27 \pm 0.11$ and $m_3 = -0.25 \pm 0.16$. Of course one should interpret this as a local significance given the number of well measured PCs that this anomaly could have appeared in. Furthermore, using the SB TT PC basis, we can assess whether the additional polarization information in the TTEE data set supports or weakens this preference. In Fig. 14 we see that polarization enhances the significance of the deviation to $2\sigma$ in $m_3 = -0.28 \pm 0.14$ while leaving $m_2 = -0.27 \pm 0.11$ essentially unchanged at $\sim 2.5 \sigma$ and improving the bounds on $m_1$.

Retaining (or “filtering”) the SB to only the first 3 PCs (“SB 3PC TT”, see Eq. A17), we can better isolate the most significant implications for inflation and the curvature power spectrum. In Fig. 15, we show the inflationary
implications for $\delta G^r$, the analog of the tilt for models with rapid deviations from slow roll. The 3PC preference is for a $>95\%$ CL sharp suppression in $\delta G^r$ beginning at $\sim 300$ Mpc and preceded by a less significant enhancement. While the additional polarization information in TTEE does not further enhance the amplitude or significance of the suppression, it does enhance the sharpness.

Finally, in Fig. 16 we show the implications for the curvature power spectrum. Unlike the smooth deviations of the r$\Lambda$CDM TT model, the SB 3PC TT model has a sharp suppression around $k \approx 0.004$ Mpc$^{-1}$. In canonical single-field inflation, such a suppression would be associated with an abrupt transition from a faster to a slower rolling rate.

V. DISCUSSION

We have explored the interplay between features from inflation, features in the Planck 2015 data, and shifts in the cosmological parameters.

Preference for high $H_0$ values in $\Lambda$CDM from the TT data at $\ell < 1000$ is driven by low $\ell < 40$ residuals in the data, which then prefer the acoustic peaks to be raised by enhancing radiation driving through lowering $\Omega_c h^2$, and consequently raising $H_0$ to match the angular position of the peaks. However, these cosmological parameter variations do not match the residuals particularly well. If we marginalize their impact on $H_0$ by fitting, instead, to inflationary features of the generalized tilt $\delta G^r$ form in the SB analysis, then the low $H_0$ favored by the full TT data is compatible with even the $\ell < 1000$ TT data.

Correspondingly, the SB parameters show 2 principal components that jointly deviate from zero at the $\sim 99\%$ CL in local significance. These deviations in $\delta G^r$ prefer a sharp suppression of power around $k \approx 0.004$ Mpc$^{-1}$. The residuals can also be fit to a running of the tilt in the r$\Lambda$CDM model, but those fits cannot reproduce the sharpness of the suppression. Furthermore, the large running of the running favored would itself represent an inflationary feature in the power spectrum that cannot be explained in slow-roll inflation.

The same $\ell > 1000$ oscillatory TT residuals which drive $H_0$ lower and $\sigma_8 \Omega_m^{1/2}$ higher in the full TT data set prefer an even lower $H_0$ if only $\ell > 1000$ is considered [13], but this does not provide a good global fit in $\Lambda$CDM with power-law initial conditions [14]. With running parameters in the tilt, $H_0 = 66.6 \pm 1.1$ km s$^{-1}$Mpc$^{-1}$. The combination of low-$\ell$ and high-$\ell$ anomalies makes running of the preferred level at the $1.9\sigma$ level. However, on the low $\ell$ side, once the sharp feature is marginalized with SB this preference drops to the 1.3$\sigma$ level. On the high $\ell$ side, once lensing reconstruction is taken into account, preference for fitting oscillatory residuals disappears and $H_0 = 67.9 \pm 0.92$ km s$^{-1}$Mpc$^{-1}$ returns to nearly the $\Lambda$CDM value.

In polarization, the signature of changes in $H_0$ through $\Omega_c h^2$ is much sharper and somewhat larger. Polarization suffers less projection effects and lacks the early ISW that broadens the signature in temperature and its measurement at $\ell \sim 200$ is important for assuring the robustness of $H_0$ inferences from the CMB in $\Lambda$CDM.

Indeed, despite being noisier than TT, Planck TE data alone already constrain $H_0$ as well as TT [9]. They also are consistent with the low $H_0$ constraints from the full TT data, even though their impact comes from $\ell < 1000$. On the other hand, the Planck TE data are anomalously sensitive to $H_0$ due to an outlier at $\ell \sim 165$, which even more strongly disfavors the high $H_0$ of the $\ell < 1000$ TT data fit.

Polarization data are also beginning to help constraints on the inflationary features favored by the low-$\ell$ TT residuals. In Planck 2015, only the $\ell \geq 30$ HFI data was released, and so the main effect is to strengthen the confinement of the features to large scales, thus favoring a sharper feature in the joint analysis. This sharpening in turn enhances the significance of the deviations in one of the principal components to $2\sigma$ leaving the other at $2.5\sigma$. At $\ell < 30$, only LFI polarization data was released, and the impact of inflationary features is to change inferences on the optical depth $\tau$, since with smaller inflationary power a higher $\tau$ is required to produce the same polarization power. In the final Planck release, the inclusion of HFI polarization data at $\ell < 30$ should also provide insight on the low-$\ell$ TT residuals and their implications for inflationary features. It will be important then to distinguish inflationary features from reionization features beyond the simple near instantaneous reionization models used here [42]. We leave these considerations to a future work.

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Appendix A: GSR Spline Basis

The GSR approach [31] is a generalization of the slow-roll approximation that allows for features in the power spectrum of $\Delta \ln k \lesssim 1$ in a general single-field model that includes canonical [32], $P(X, \phi)$ [43], and Horndeski (Galileon) inflation [44]. In this approximation, the curvature power spectrum $\Delta_{k}^2$ is sourced by a single function $f = 2\pi z \sqrt{c_s^2 s}$, where $z$ is the Mukhanov variable in the Mukhanov-Sasaki equation, $c_s$ is the sound speed and $s$
is the sound horizon:
\[ s = \int_0^{a_{\text{end}}} \frac{da}{a} \frac{c_s}{a H}. \tag{A1} \]

Here \( a_{\text{end}} \) is the scale factor at the end of inflation and \( H \) is the Hubble parameter during inflation. For a canonical scalar field in Planck units \( \phi, z = a^2 d\phi/da \).

In the ordinary slow-roll approximation, \( \Delta_R^2 \approx f^{-2} \), whereas in GSR:
\[ \ln \Delta_R^2(k) \approx G(\ln s_a) + \int_{s_a}^{\infty} \frac{ds}{s} W(ks)G'(\ln s) \tag{A2} \]
\[ + \ln \left[ 1 + I_1^2(k) \right], \]
where
\[ G(\ln s) = -2 \ln f + \frac{2}{3} (\ln f)', \tag{A3} \]
with \( ' = d/d\ln s \) and \( s_a \) is an arbitrary epoch during inflation such that all relevant \( k \)-modes are well outside the sound horizon, \( ks_a \ll 1 \). The window functions,
\[ W(x) = -\frac{3}{2x^3} \sin(2x) - \frac{3}{x^2} \cos(2x) - \frac{3}{2x} \sin(2x), \tag{A4} \]
at leading order and
\[ X(x) = \frac{3}{x^3} (\sin x - x \cos x)^2, \tag{A5} \]
at second order through
\[ I_1(k) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \int_0^\infty \frac{ds}{s} G'(\ln s) X(ks), \tag{A6} \]
characterize the freezeout of the source function around sound horizon crossing. This form for the power spectrum remains a good approximation if the second order term [23]
\[ I_1 < \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \tag{A7} \]
and hence allows for up to order unity features in the curvature power spectrum.

The ordinary slow-roll approximation corresponds to \( G'(\ln s_s) = 1 - n_s \), and results in a power-law curvature power spectrum. In the main text, we use GSR to fit the low-\( \ell \) anomalies in the power spectrum, and so we choose to restrict our parameterization of fluctuations, \( \delta G' \), around this constant to
\[ 200 < \frac{s}{\text{Mpc}} < 20000. \tag{A8} \]

Next, we follow Ref. [23] in defining a band limit for the frequency of deviations by sampling \( p_i = \delta G'(\ln s_i) \) at a rate of 10 per decade for a total of 20 parameters. This rate is sufficient to capture the low-\( \ell \) anomalies. We then construct the smooth function using the natural spline of these points.

Specifically, we exploit the linearity of splines to define the spline basis (SB) functions \( B_i(\ln s) \) from the natural spline of the set of unit amplitude perturbations \( p_i = 1, p_{j \neq i} = 0 \). In the SB class of models we then describe the source function as:
\[ G'(\ln s) = (1 - n_s) + \sum_i p_i B_i(\ln s). \tag{A9} \]

The advantage of the GSR form in Eq. (A2) is that the integrals are linear in \( G' \) and, hence, the impact of the individual components can be precomputed separately as:
\[ W_i(k) = \int_{s_a}^\infty \frac{ds}{s} W(ks)B_i(\ln s), \tag{A10} \]
\[ X_i(k) = \int_{s_a}^\infty \frac{ds}{s} X(ks)B_i(\ln s), \]
so that the power spectrum becomes a sum over the basis
\[ \ln \Delta_R^2(k) = \ln A_s \left( \frac{k}{k_0} \right)^{n_s - 1} + \sum_i p_i [W_i(k) - W_i(k_0)] \]
\[ + \ln \left[ 1 + I_1^2(k) \right], \tag{A11} \]
where
\[ I_1(k) = \frac{\pi}{2\sqrt{2}} (1 - n_s) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_i p_i X_i(k). \tag{A12} \]
Note that we have absorbed the normalization constant \( G(\ln s_s) \) into the amplitude of the power spectrum at the scale \( k_0 \):
\[ A_s = \Delta_R^2(k_0). \tag{A13} \]

In the rSB class of models we replace the first term in Eq. (A11) with the running form defined by Eq. (2).

Since our choice of parameters oversamples \( \delta G' \) relative to what the data can constrain, individual measurements of \( p_i \) from the MCMC mainly fit noise with any true signal buried in the covariance between parameters. We therefore construct the principal components derived from an eigenvalue decomposition of the MCMC covariance matrix estimate:
\[ C_{ij} = \langle p_i p_j \rangle - \langle p_i \rangle \langle p_j \rangle \]
\[ = \sum_a S_{ia} \sigma_a^2 S_{ja}, \tag{A14} \]
where \( S_{ia} \) is an orthonormal matrix of eigenvectors. Specifically, we define the PC parameters
\[ m_a = \sum_i S_{ia} p_i, \tag{A15} \]
such that their covariance matrix satisfies:
\[ \langle m_a m_b \rangle - \langle m_a \rangle \langle m_b \rangle = \delta_{ab} \sigma_a^2. \tag{A16} \]
Given a rank ordering of the PC modes from smallest to largest variance, we can also construct a 3 PC filtered reconstruction of $\delta G'$ as in Ref. [23]:

$$\delta G'_{3PC}(\ln s_i) = \sum_{a=1}^{3} m_a S_{ia}, \quad \text{(A17)}$$

and similarly use $\delta G'_{3PC}$ to construct the 3PC filtered $\Delta_X^2$ used in the main text.