

Analytic studies of power spectra of cosmological perturbations in loop quantum cosmology

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1 Introduction

- The Liouville Transformation
- Uniform Asymptotic Approximation(UAA) for two turning points

2 Applicaton

- Pöschl-Teller (PT) potential
- UAA solutions
- Compare Exact solution and UAA solution

3 Discussion and Summary

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The Liouville Transformation

In general, by properly choosing the variable y and $\mu_k(y)$, the second order differential equation can be written as

$$\frac{d^2 u_k(y)}{dy^2} = f(y)\mu_k(y),$$

and $f(y)$ can take the form

$$f(y) = \lambda^2 g(y) + q(y).$$

The Liouville Transformation

For the equation

$$\frac{d^2 \mu_k(y)}{dy^2} = [\lambda^2 g(y) + q(y)] \mu_k(y), \quad (1)$$

we can have the Liouville transformation with two variables $U(\zeta)$ and $\zeta(y)$ (with its inverse $y = y(\zeta)$) satisfying

$$U(\zeta) = \dot{y}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mu_k(y), \quad \dot{y} = \frac{dy}{d\zeta}.$$

The Liouville Transformation

In terms of $U(\zeta)$ and ζ , the equation (1) can be written as

$$\frac{d^2 U(\zeta)}{d\zeta^2} = [\lambda^2 \dot{y}^2 g + \psi(\zeta)] U(\zeta), \quad (2)$$

where,

$$\begin{aligned} \psi(\zeta) &\equiv \dot{y}^2 q - \dot{y}^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{d^2}{d\zeta^2} \left(\dot{y}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \right) \\ &= \dot{y}^2 q - \dot{y}^{\frac{3}{2}} \frac{d^2}{dy^2} \left(\dot{y}^{\frac{1}{2}} \right) \equiv \psi(y). \end{aligned}$$

In the equation

$$\frac{d^2U(\zeta)}{d\zeta^2} = [\lambda^2 \dot{y}^2 g + \psi(\zeta)]U(\zeta),$$

considering $\psi(\zeta) = 0$ as the first-order approximation, we can choose $\dot{y}^2 g$ such that:

- the resulting equation can be solved explicitly,
- the (first-order) approximation can be as close as possible to the exact solution.

The choice of $\dot{y}^2 g$ sensitively depends on the behavior of the function $g(y)$ and $q(y)$ near their poles and turning points (zeros), as well as the natures of these points.

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UAA for two turning points

We are focusing on the cases with two turning points. For this case, $g(y)$ can always be written as

$$g(y) = p(y)(y - y_1)(y - y_2),$$

where $p(y)$ is regular in the interval of interest.

We can divide all cases in three different classes:

- y_1 and y_2 are two real and distinct roots of $g(y) = 0$,
- $y_1 = y_2$, a double root of $g(y) = 0$,
- y_1 and y_2 are two complex roots of $g(y) = 0$, and $y_1 = y_2^*$.

There are three conditions are assumed to be satisfied when applying the UAA methods:

- When far away from any turning points:

$$\left| \frac{q(y)}{g(y)} \right| \ll 1,$$

- When near any of these two points and the two turning points are far way from each other ($|y_1 - y_2| \gg 1$):

$$\left| \frac{q(y)(y-y_i)}{g(y)} \right| \ll 1 ,$$

- When near these points and the two turning points are close to each other ($|y_1 - y_2| \approx 1$):

$$\left| \frac{q(y)(y-y_1)(y-y_2)}{g(y)} \right| \ll 1 .$$

UAA for two turning points

In particular, we choose

$$y^2 g = \zeta_0^2 - \zeta^2, \quad (3)$$

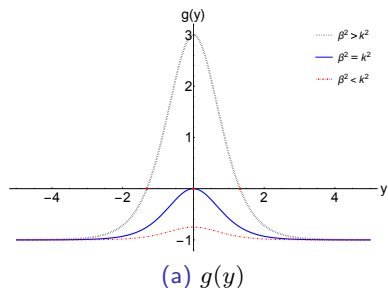
where $\zeta(y)$ is an increasing function with the choices $\zeta(y_1) = -\zeta_0, \zeta(y_2) = \zeta_0$.

And it can be shown that

$$\zeta_0^2 = \pm \frac{2}{\pi} \left| \int_{y_1}^{y_2} \sqrt{g(y)} dy \right|,$$

where "+" and "-" corresponds to the cases with two real turning points and two complex conjugate turning points respectively.

UAA for two turning points



UAA for two turning points

With the choice of (3), we find that (2) reduces to

$$\frac{d^2U}{d\zeta^2} = [\lambda^2(\zeta_0^2 - \zeta^2) + \psi(\zeta)]U.$$

In the first-order approximation, $\psi(\zeta)$ is neglectable, we can have the approximate solutions in the form of the parabolic cylinder functions $W(s, t)$:

$$U(\zeta) = \alpha_1 \left[W\left(\frac{1}{2}\lambda\zeta_0^2, \sqrt{2\lambda}\zeta\right) + \epsilon_1 \right] + \beta_1 \left[W\left(\frac{1}{2}\lambda\zeta_0^2, -\sqrt{2\lambda}\zeta\right) + \epsilon_2 \right], \quad (4)$$

UAA for two turning points

from which, we have the approximate solutions to the original equation (1):

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_k(y) = & \alpha_1 \left(\frac{\zeta^2 - \zeta_0^2}{-g(y)} \right)^{\frac{1}{4}} \left[W\left(\frac{1}{2}\lambda\zeta_0^2, \sqrt{2\lambda}\zeta\right) + \epsilon_1 \right] \\ & + \beta_1 \left(\frac{\zeta^2 - \zeta_0^2}{-g(y)} \right)^{\frac{1}{4}} \left[W\left(\frac{1}{2}\lambda\zeta_0^2, -\sqrt{2\lambda}\zeta\right) + \epsilon_2 \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

UAA for two turning points

The errors ϵ have some bounded conditions

$$\frac{|\epsilon_1|}{M(\frac{1}{2}\lambda\zeta_0^2, \sqrt{2\lambda\zeta})}, \frac{|\frac{\partial\epsilon_1}{\partial\zeta}|}{\sqrt{2}N(\frac{1}{2}\lambda\zeta_0^2, \sqrt{2\lambda\zeta})} \leq \frac{1}{\lambda E(\frac{1}{2}\lambda\zeta_0^2, \sqrt{2\lambda\zeta})} (e^{\lambda V_\zeta} - 1),$$
$$\frac{|\epsilon_2|}{M(\frac{1}{2}\lambda\zeta_0^2, \sqrt{2\lambda\zeta})}, \frac{|\frac{\partial\epsilon_2}{\partial\zeta}|}{\sqrt{2}N(\frac{1}{2}\lambda\zeta_0^2, \sqrt{2\lambda\zeta})} \leq \frac{E(\frac{1}{2}\lambda\zeta_0^2, \sqrt{2\lambda\zeta})}{\lambda} (e^{\lambda V_\zeta} - 1).$$

where V_ζ is the associated error control function for the approximate solutions,

$$V_\zeta = \int^\zeta \frac{|\psi(\zeta)|}{\sqrt{|\dot{y}^2 g|}} d\zeta.$$

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Pöschl-Teller (PT) potential

To test the analytical approximate solutions, we consider equation (1) with a Pöschl-Teller (PT) potential

$$(\lambda^2 g + q) = -\left(k^2 - \frac{\beta_0^2}{\cosh^2 y}\right),$$

where k is the comoving wavenumber and β_0 is a real and positive constant.

Pöschl-Teller (PT) potential

In this case, the equation (1) becomes

$$\frac{d^2 \mu_k(y)}{dy^2} + \left(k^2 - \frac{\beta_0^2}{\cosh^2 y}\right) \mu_k(y) = 0.$$

And with the variable transformations:

$$x = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-2y}}, \quad \mathcal{Y} = [x(1 - x)]^{\frac{ik}{2}} \mu_k,$$

we find that (1) with PT potential reads

$$x(1-x)\frac{d^2\mathcal{Y}(x)}{dx^2} + (a_3 - (a_1 + a_2 + 1)x)\frac{d\mathcal{Y}(x)}{dx} - a_1a_2\mathcal{Y}(x) = 0, \quad (6)$$

where

$$a_1 = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \sqrt{1 - 4\beta_0^2}) - ik,$$

$$a_2 = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \sqrt{1 - 4\beta_0^2}) - ik,$$

$$a_3 = 1 - ik.$$

The equation (6) is the standard hypergeometric equation, and has the general solution

$$\begin{aligned}\mu_k^{(E)}(y) = & a_1 \left(\frac{x}{1-x} \right)^{\frac{ik}{2}} \times {}_2F_1(a_1 - a_3 + 1, a_2 - a_3 + 1, 2 - a_3, x) \\ & + b_1 [x(1-x)]^{-\frac{ik}{2}} \times {}_2F_1(a_1, a_2, a_3, x).\end{aligned}$$

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UAA solutions

First, we choose the $g(y)$ and $q(y)$ as

$$g(y) = \frac{\beta^2}{\cosh^2 y} - k^2 \quad q(y) = \frac{q_0^2}{\cosh^2 y},$$

then it turns out that

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{q(y)}{g(y)} \right| &\sim q_0^2 e^{-2|y|}, \\ \left| \frac{q(y)(y - y_i)}{g(y)} \right| &\sim \frac{q_0^2}{y + y_j}, \\ \left| \frac{q(y)(y - y_1)(y - y_2)}{g(y)} \right| &\sim q_0^2. \end{aligned}$$

So as long as q_0 chosen to be small, we can use UAA method to get the approximate solution.

UAA solutions

Applying the UAA method, we can have the approximate solutions:

$$\mu_k(y) = \alpha_k \left(\frac{\zeta^2 - \zeta_0^2}{-g(y)} \right)^{\frac{1}{4}} W\left(\frac{\zeta_0^2}{2}, \sqrt{2}\zeta\right) + \beta_k \left(\frac{\zeta^2 - \zeta_0^2}{-g(y)} \right)^{\frac{1}{4}} W\left(\frac{\zeta_0^2}{2}, -\sqrt{2}\zeta\right).$$

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Compare Exact solution and UAA solution

Now we can compare the exact and approximate solutions. First we plot both solutions in the range of interest.

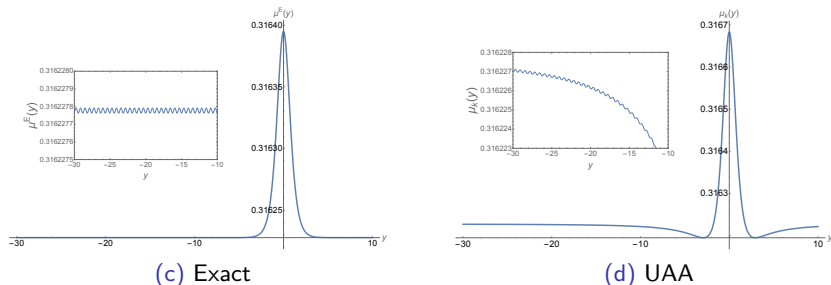
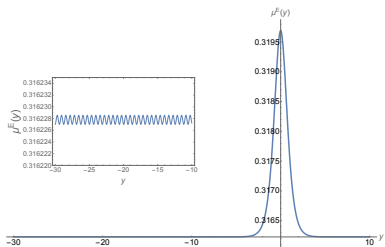
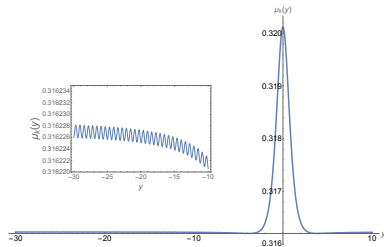


Figure 1: $k = 5.0$, $\beta = 0.1$ and $q_0^2 = 1/24$



(a) Exact



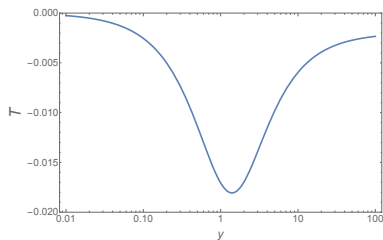
(b) UAA

Figure 2: $k = 5.0$, $\beta = 1.0$ and $q_0^2 = 1/24$

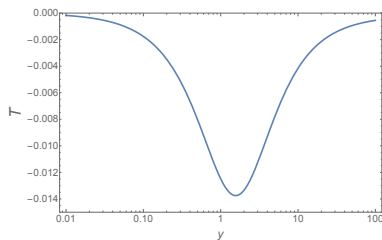
The error control function V_ζ is given by

$$V = - \int^y \left(\frac{q}{g} - \frac{5}{16} \frac{g'^2}{g^3} + \frac{1}{4} \frac{g''}{g^2} \right) \sqrt{-g} dy' + \frac{\zeta(\zeta^2 - 6\zeta_0^2)}{12\zeta_0^2(\zeta^2 - \zeta_0^2)^{3/2}},$$

and the plots are:



(a) $k \gg \beta$



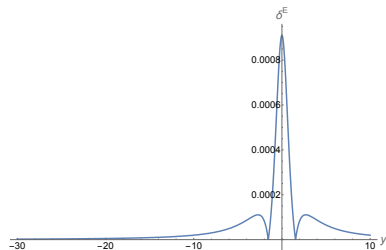
(b) $k > \beta$

Figure 3: Error control function V_ζ

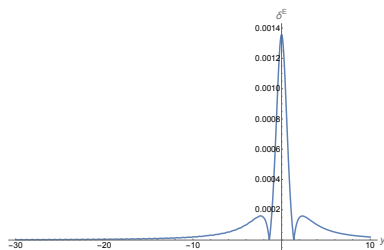
We define the relative difference δ^E between approximate solution and exact solution as

$$\delta^E = \left| \frac{|\mu_k(y)| - |\mu_k^{(E)}(y)|}{|\mu_k^{(E)}(y)|} \right|,$$

then we have,



(a) $k \gg \beta$, $\delta < 0.09\%$



(b) $k > \beta$, $\delta < 0.14\%$

Figure 4: $\delta^E(y)$

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- The UAA method also applies to the cases $k \sim \beta$ (currently working) and $k \ll \beta$ (single turning point[1]) with modifications;
- The UAA method provides a useful way to solve second-order differential equations by approximate solutions, associated with some particular bounded controlled errors, especially when the equation is hard to solve analytically;
- Applying to PT potential case indicates that UAA approximation has small enough errors ($< 0.15\%$), which is accurate enough for studying the cosmology observation data ($1 \sim 2\%$).

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Thank you!