

# Cosmological Radiative Transfer

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## Outline:

- Introduction: on the importance of radiative transfer on cosmological scales
- Two Important cases I: reionization
- Two Important cases II: Ultra Violet Background Radiation
- Numerical Radiative Transfer Methods
  - moment-based methods
  - ray-tracing
  - Monte-Carlo approach
  - Hybrid: TRAPHIC

- almost all the data we collect in order to study the universe is through detecting electro-magnetic radiation (for now - but high energy particles, therefore we need to know what is the relation between what we see (radiation we receive) and what is causing it (original radiation emitted) from sources)

- radiation changes the physical state of baryons (energy exchange). To study the energy exchange between matter and light we need radiative transfer calculations

and many more!

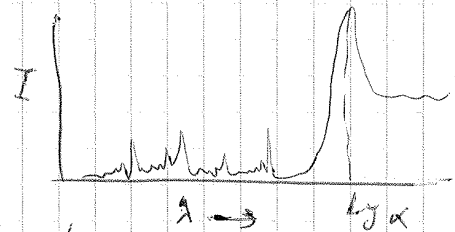
# Hydrogen Reionization

~ 0.4 Myr after the Big Bang, gas was cold enough that hydrogen atoms formed

several observational evidences indicate that the IGM (Inter-Galactic Medium) was highly ionized by  $z \sim 6$

e.g.

\* Gunn-Peterson trough

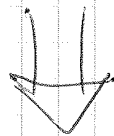


\* Thomson scattering optical depth

$$\tau_{\text{es}} = \int n_e(z) \sigma_T (c dt/dz) dz$$

$\downarrow$   $6.65 \times 10^{-25} \text{ cm}^2$  Thomson scattering cross-section

- Note that  $\tau_{\text{es}}$  is only a measure of the total probability of scattering and does not constrain the history of reionization independently!



Something (first stars, galaxies, BH's, etc.) should have caused the universe to become / remain highly ionized at  $z \lesssim 6$ .

## Outstanding questions about reionization

- the beginning of it
- the end of it
- how exactly it happened
- main sources of ionizing photons

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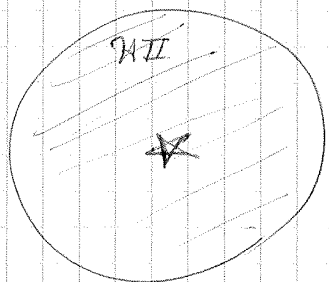
Observations are hard to obtain and even harder to interpret (e.g., 21 cm) and therefore highly model-dependent



Theoretical understanding of plausible scenarios is essential.

Although there is not much to do analytically, it is useful to see a few simple examples to see the limited power of analytic arguments for this complex problem, and also to develop some intuition about the key players in radiative transfer

# Cosmological Strömgren problem



Steady state solution  $\equiv$  ionization balances recombination

$\Rightarrow$  # recombination = # ionization

$\Rightarrow$  total recombination rate = ionization rate  
 source  $\downarrow$  photon production rate  $\dot{Q}$

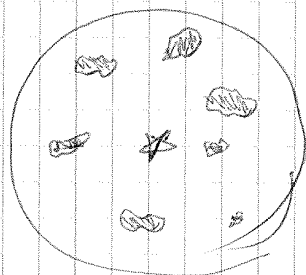
$\alpha_B \times n_e \times n_p \times V \rightarrow$  ~~proper~~ proper volume

case B recombination: ionizing photons from recombination are absorbed on-the-spot

$\alpha_B = 2.6 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$  at  $T = 10^4 \text{ K}$

H II region  $\Rightarrow n_e \approx n_p = n_H$

$\alpha_B n_H^2 V = \dot{Q} = \frac{dN_H}{dt}$



$\Rightarrow \langle n_H^2 \rangle \neq \langle n_H \rangle^2 \rightarrow$  clumpy universe!

$\Rightarrow \frac{\langle n_H^2 \rangle}{\langle n_H \rangle^2} \equiv C \rightarrow$  clumping factor

$$\Rightarrow \alpha_B \bar{n}_H^2 C V = \frac{dN_r}{dt}$$

$$\Rightarrow \bar{n}_H^0 \frac{dV_{\text{comoving}}}{dt} = \frac{dN_r}{dt} - \alpha_B \frac{C}{a^3} \bar{n}_H^0 V_{\text{comoving}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dV}{dt} = \frac{1}{\bar{n}_H^0} \frac{dN_r}{dt} - \alpha_B \frac{C}{a^3} \bar{n}_H^0 V$$

$$\Rightarrow V(t) = \int_{t_i}^t \frac{1}{\bar{n}_H^0} \frac{dN_r}{dt'} e^{F(t',t)} dt'$$

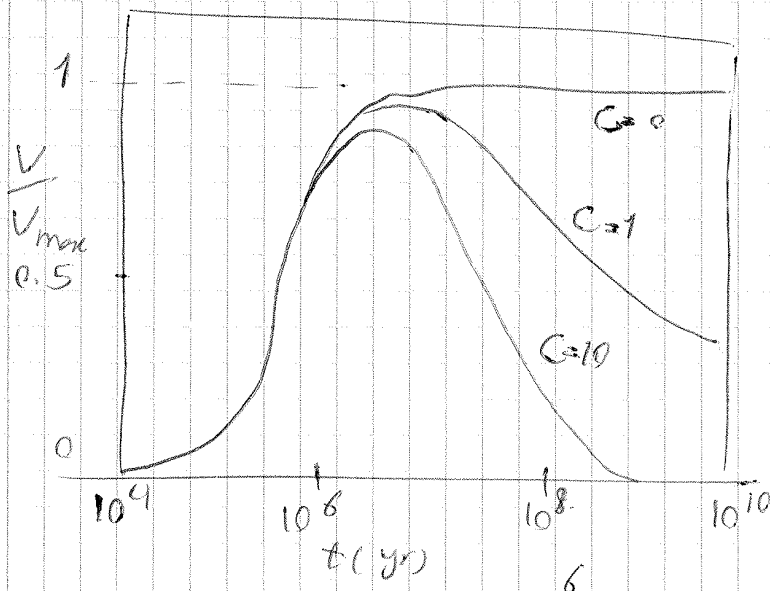
$$F(t',t) = -\alpha_B \bar{n}_H^0 \int_{t'}^t \frac{C(t'')}{a^3(t'')} dt''$$

assuming the source turns on at  $t = t_i$

$F(t',t)$  can be further simplified if we assume  $C$  is constant and we have  $H(t) \approx 2/3t$

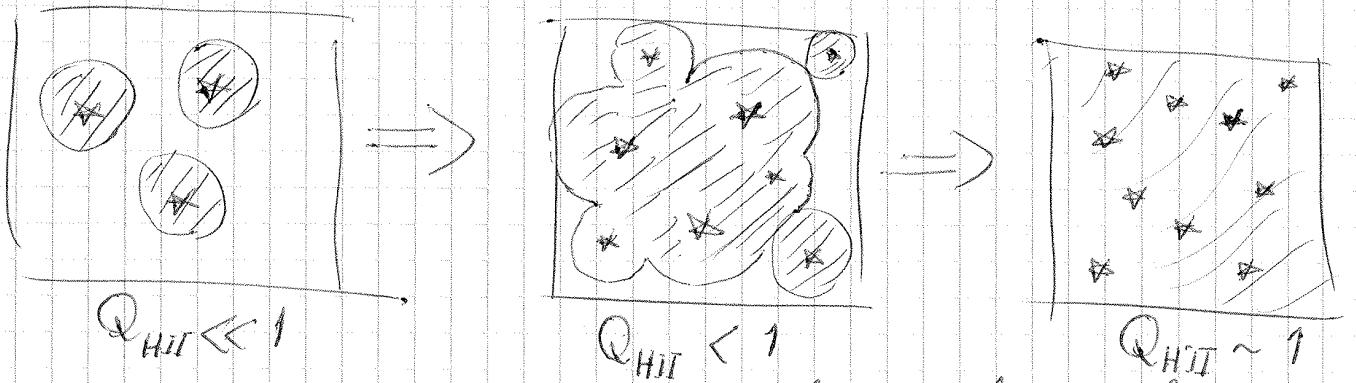
$$F(t',t) = -\frac{2}{3} \frac{\alpha_B \bar{n}_H^0}{\sqrt{\Omega_m} H_0} C [f(t') - f(t)]$$

where  $f(t) = a(t)^{-\frac{3}{2}} \xrightarrow[\Omega_m + \Omega_\Lambda = 1]{\Lambda \text{ CBM}} f(t) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{a^3} + \frac{1 - \Omega_m}{\Omega_m}}$



see:  
Shapiro & Giroux 87  
Barkana & Loeb 01

reionization starts from individual HII regions around first sources of ionization and as those HII regions grow and overlap, it approaches its final stages:



$Q_{HII}$ : the volume filling factor of ionized Hydrogen

The simplest reionization formalism:

$$\frac{dQ_{HII}}{dt} = \frac{\dot{n}_\gamma}{\bar{n}_H} - \frac{Q_{HII}}{\bar{t}_{rec}}$$

$$\bar{t}_{rec} = \frac{1}{\text{recombination rate per atom}} = \frac{1}{\alpha_B \bar{n}_H C (1+z)^3}$$

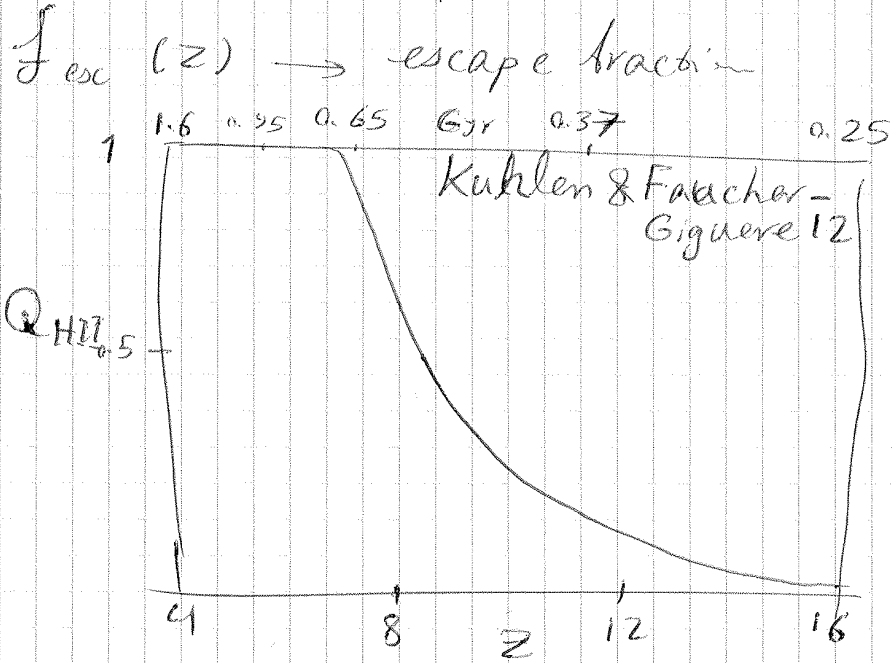
$$\approx \text{Gyr} \left(\frac{C_{HII}}{3}\right)^{-1} \left(\frac{T}{2 \times 10^4 K}\right)^{0.7} (1+z)^{-3}$$

$\dot{n}_\gamma \rightarrow$  emissivity (photons per sec per  $cm^3$ )

one way to estimate this is from galaxy luminosity bunch

$$\dot{n}_\gamma = \int_{M_{\text{dim}}}^{\infty} dM_{\text{UV}} \Phi(M_{\text{UV}}) \chi_{\text{ion}}(M_{\text{UV}}) f_{\text{esc}}$$

UV magnitude
UVLF
ionizing luminosity



$\dot{n}_\gamma \sim 10^{50} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ cMpc}^{-3}$  in  $z: [6-2]$   
 to be consistent with Thomson scattering optical depth

10 Myr time scale

also it can be defined as the ionizing efficiency, number of ionizing photons per atom:

$$\xi = 30 \left( \frac{N_\gamma}{4000} \right) \left( \frac{f_{\text{esc}}}{0.15} \right) \left( \frac{f_\star}{0.05} \right) \left( \frac{f_b}{1} \right)$$

# of ionizing photons per stellar baryon (from SPS models)

fraction of galactic baryon in stars

fraction of baryons in galaxies



Simple arguments like what was shown so far are useful to estimate the impact of different underlying parameters e.g.,  $\tau_{\text{esc}}$  on ~~observable outcomes~~ observable outcomes like the CMB Thomson optical depth. However, having too many uncertain assumptions and parameters is a serious limitation. Also they do not provide much information about the geometry of reionization etc. Therefore we have to resort to cosmological radiative transfer simulations.

Problems for the simple approach:

A) Recombination:

— Case A vs. Case B recombination

accurate treatment requires RT calculation  
i.e., optical depth calculation  
recombination radiation (Raicevic 14)

— clumping factor:

using simulations to calibrate  $\Rightarrow C \sim 30$  (Mellema 06)

problem: photoheating  $\Rightarrow C \sim 3$  (Pawlik 09)

the main issue here is that the structure of the absorbing gas is not independent from the ionizing radiation field!

B) neglecting additional absorption within HII regions:

Lyman limit systems ( $N_{\text{HII}} \gtrsim 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ ) (optically thick to the ionizing radiation)

they can change substantially the morphology of reionization by imposing a limit to the size of isolated HII regions

(e.g. Furlanetto & Oh 05, Alvarez & Abel 12)

LLSs are relatively well studied at  $z \lesssim 5$  but their properties are not fully constrained at higher redshifts during reionization the nature and abundance of LLSs could change significantly

To study them, high resolution, radiative transfer simulations is required.

⑤ ionization efficiency (neglecting other sources:  $X_{\text{ray}}$ )

$$\xi = N_{\text{y}} f_{\text{esc}} f_{\text{X}} f_{\text{b}}$$

$N_{\text{y}}$  → uncertain due  
 $f_{\text{X}}$  → metallicity  
 $f_{\text{b}}$  → dependence stellar population synthesis

only empirical relations based on local observation

unknown! → dependent on halo mass  
 feedback  
 reionization

$f_{\text{esc}}$  is hard to constrain both observationally and theoretically (simulations)

sensitive to almost all aspects of baryonic physics

detailed calculation requires extremely high resolution which is only foreseeable for small galaxies at high redshifts

$$\dot{n}_{\text{y}} = \int_{M_{\text{lim}}}^{\infty} dM_{\text{UV}} \Phi(M_{\text{UV}}) \gamma_{\text{ion}}(M_{\text{UV}}) f_{\text{esc}}$$

faint end problem + observational uncertainty

SED properties + dust correction etc.

Simulations can tackle some of the challenges  
but still hard to do

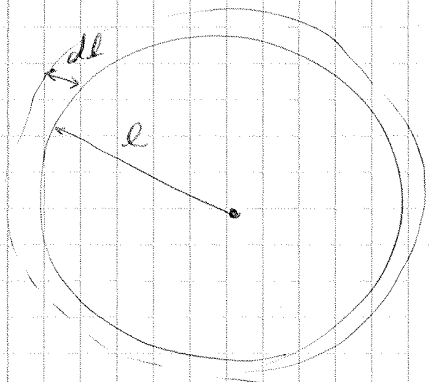
- should be coupled to RT (expensive)
- large scales should be resolved (100 Mpc)
- high resolution is required ( $\sim 10^5 M_{\odot}$ )

# Uniform Ultra Violet (ionizing) Background Radiation (UVB)

After the reionization of the Universe (Hydrogen) the GM becomes highly transparent to hydrogen ionizing photons, which allows ionizing photons to travel easily to large cosmological distances.

as a result, at any given point in the Universe large number of sources are visible and they can contribute to the intensity of ionizing radiation.

A uniform distribution of sources <sup>then</sup> naturally results in a uniform radiation field.



$u_\nu$ : energy per  $\text{cm}^3$  per frequency

$u = \frac{4\pi}{c} J_\nu \rightarrow$  mean intensity

lets assume single frequency

$$dU = \frac{4\pi r^2 u dr}{r^2}$$

assuming no absorption

$$\Rightarrow U = 4\pi u r \Big|_0^{L_{\max}}$$

Olbers' paradox: the sky is dark at night

$\Rightarrow L_{\max}$  should be finite  $\neq$

eternal static infinite universe

in the presence of absorption:

$$dU = \frac{4\pi \ell^2 d\ell u}{\ell^2} e^{-\frac{\ell}{\lambda}}$$

$\lambda$ : mean-free-path i.e. the distance at which the intensity of radiation drops to  $e^{-1}$  of its original value

$$\Rightarrow U = 4\pi u \lambda e^{-\frac{\ell}{\lambda}} \Big|_{L_{\text{min}}}^0$$

$$L_{\text{min}} \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow \boxed{U = 4\pi u \lambda}$$

$\Rightarrow$  if one knows the average emissivity of the universe as a function of time and frequency, and also knows the mean-free-path as a function of time and frequency, then it is possible to calculate the average intensity of radiation as a function of time and frequency

This is the main idea behind UVB models such as Raadu & Madan

The main equation for calculating the background radiation intensity:

$$J_{\nu_0}(z_0) = \frac{c}{4\pi r} \int_{z_0}^{\infty} \frac{dt}{dz} dz \frac{(1+z_0)^3}{(1+z)^3} e_{\nu}(z) e^{-\bar{\tau}}$$

$$\nu = \nu_0 (1+z) / (1+z_0)$$

$$\frac{dt}{dz} = \frac{1}{H(1+z)}$$

$\bar{\tau}$  is the effective absorption optical depth of the IGM

$e_{\nu}$  is the proper volume emissivity

Continuum absorption:

$$\bar{\tau}_c(\nu_0, z_0, z) = \int_{z_0}^z dz' \int_0^{\infty} dN_{\text{HI}} f(N_{\text{HI}}, z') (1 - e^{-\tau_c})$$

where  $\tau_c$  is

$$\tau_c(\nu') = N_{\text{HI}} \sigma_{\text{HI}}(\nu') + N_{\text{HeI}} \sigma_{\text{HeI}}(\nu') + N_{\text{HeII}} \sigma_{\text{HeII}}(\nu')$$

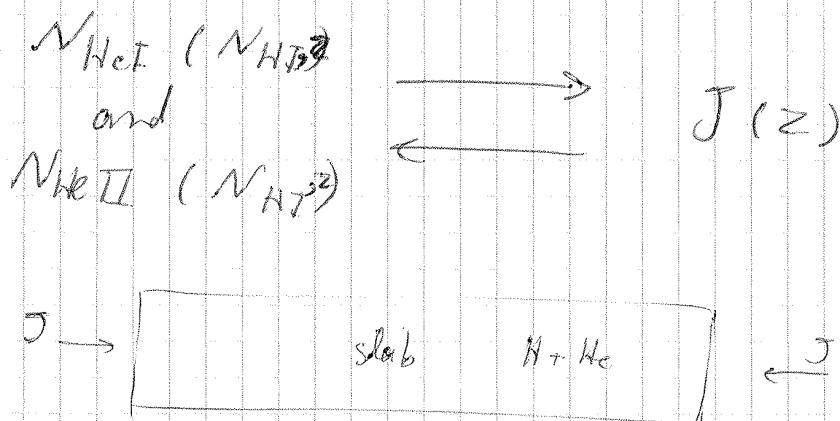
~~with~~ with  $\nu' = \nu_0 (1+z') / (1+z_0)$

and  $f(N_{\text{HI}}, z')$  is the distribution of absorbers in redshift and column density

$f(N_{\text{HI}}, z)$  can be constrained based on observations of HI in absorption by counting the incidence rate of absorbers along the lines of sight of background quasars

However, radiative transfer calculation is needed to calculate  $N_{\text{HeI}}$  and  $N_{\text{HeII}}$  for a given  $N_{\text{HI}}$ .

Note that this is an iterative procedure



+  
 resonant (line) absorption and recombination emission  
~~Lyman series~~ Lyman series cascades

$J(z, \nu)$  but we still need to know  
 the emissivity!



The main sources of radiation are galaxies and quasars.

- Star-forming galaxies:

Luminosity function of galaxies

$\Phi(L, z) \rightarrow$

$\uparrow$

SED from stellar population synthesis  
 $\uparrow$   
dust reddening

$\Downarrow$

average star-formation history of the Universe + dust

together with SPS models gives the effective photon production rate (emissivity) and dust reddening at different epochs

dust extinction below 1 Ryd and  $f_{esc}$  above 1 Ryd

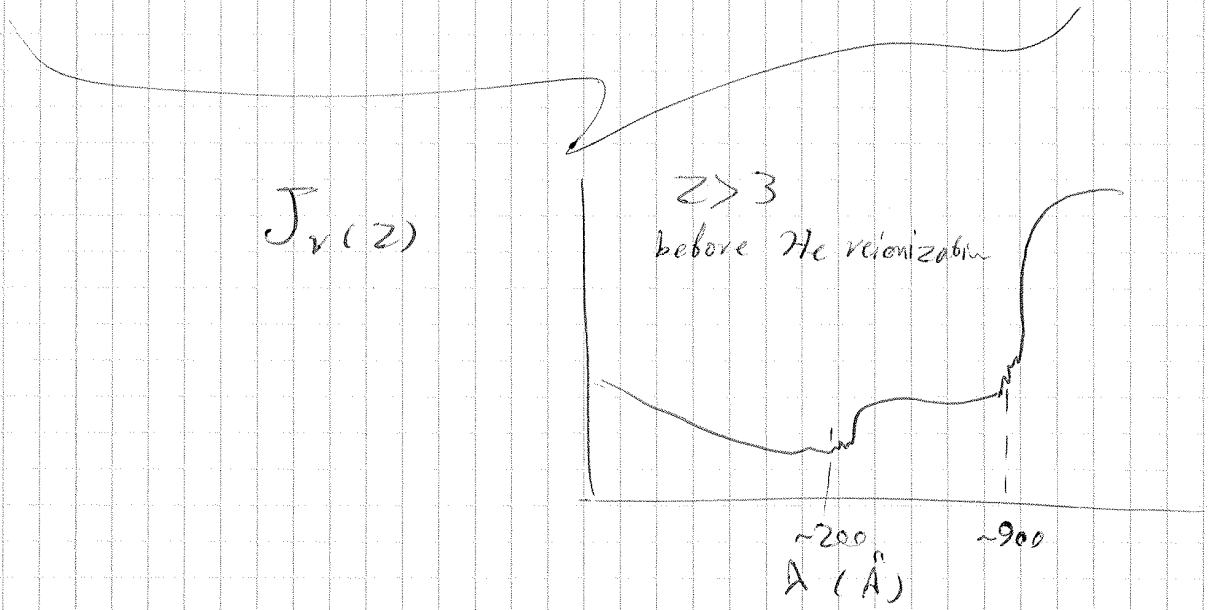
e.g.,  $\langle f_{esc} \rangle = 1.8 \times 10^{-4} (1+z)^{3.4}$

Haardt & Madau 12

- AGN emissivity:

QSO luminosity function

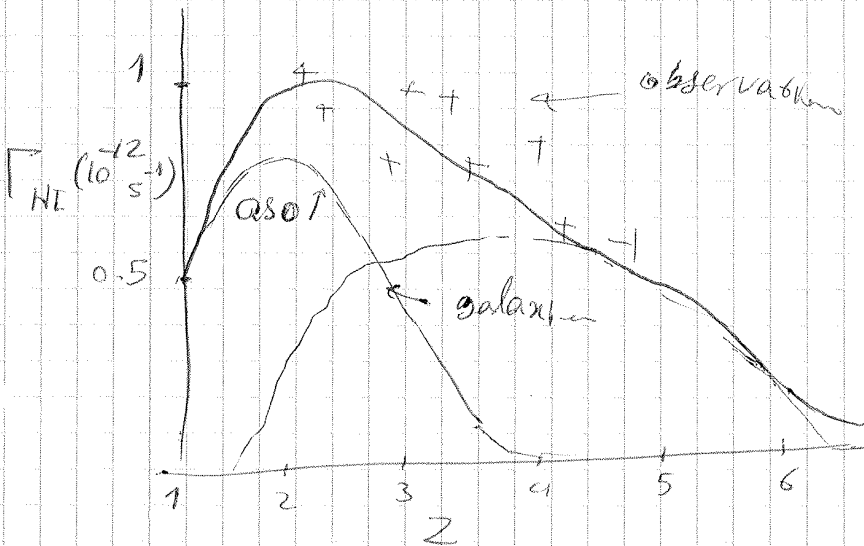
some empirical assumptions about their SED



a useful quantity to measure (also for comparison with) observation

Photoionization Rate

$$\Gamma_{\text{HI}} = \int d\nu \frac{4\pi J_\nu}{h\nu}$$



$\sigma_{\text{HI}}(\nu)$

Hydrogen absorpt cross sect

Observational constraints on the UVB are consistent with the simple models and imply

$$\Gamma_{\text{HI}} \sim 10^{-12} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ at a wide range of redshifts}$$

⇒ IGM which contains most of the mass in the universe is highly ionized

also, this ionizing background radiation heats up the gas or slows down its cooling. Due to the importance of those processes in the evolution of gas and galaxy formation, cosmological simulations usually adopt the UVB based on simple models. However there are two major problems:

- self-shielding at high densities is usually ignored
- spatial and temporal variations are neglected

fully investigating the impact of those issues on ionization state of gas requires radiative transfer simulations.

in the following we investigate them a bit more.

Self-shielding starts when the column-density of gas is high enough to increase the optical depth significantly

e.g.,  $\tau = N_{\text{HI}} \bar{\sigma}_{\text{HI}} \geq 1$

⇒ the column density at which self-shielding becomes important is

$$N_{\text{HI, S-SH}} \sim \frac{1}{\bar{\sigma}_{\text{HI}}}$$

effective  $\bar{\sigma}_{\text{HI}}$  depends on the shape of the ionizing background (radiation hardness) for Lyman limit radiation ( $\lambda = 912 \text{ \AA}$ )

$$\sigma_{912} = 6.3 \times 10^{-18} \text{ cm}^2$$

$$\Rightarrow N_{\text{H, SSH}} \sim 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ (LLSs)}$$

it is also possible to estimate size and density of systems for which self-shielding become important:

assuming close to hydrostatic equilibrium

⇒ the scale length is similar to the Jeans scale

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_J = \underbrace{C_s}_{\text{sound speed}} \times \underbrace{\left( \frac{1}{\rho \sigma G} \right)^{1/2}}_{\text{gravitational time scale for collapse}} = 0.5 \text{ kpc } n_{\text{H}}^{-1/2} T_4^{1/2} \left( \frac{f_{\text{g}}}{0.16} \right)^{1/2}$$

shage 2001

sound speed

gravitational time scale for collapse

moreover if we assume a highly ionized gas in equilibrium with UVB ionization:

$$\frac{n_{\text{HI}}}{n_{\text{H}}} \approx 0.5 n_{\text{H}} T_4^{-0.76} \Gamma_{12}^{-1} \quad (\text{Schaye 2001})$$

⇒  $N_{\text{HI}}$  for systems with Jeans length and in ionization equilibrium would be:

$$N_{\text{HI}} = \lambda_{\text{J}} \times n_{\text{HI}} \Rightarrow n_{\text{HI}} = \frac{N_{\text{HI}}}{\lambda_{\text{J}}}$$

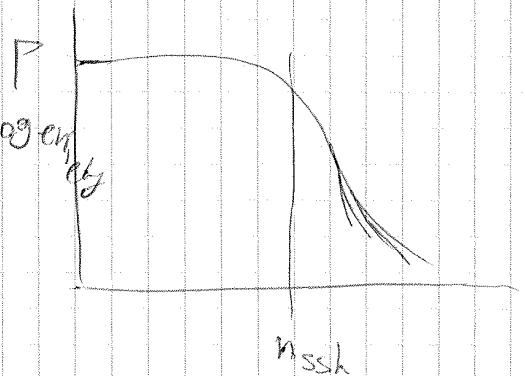
using those equations we can calculate the density which corresponds to the self shielding column density:

$$n_{\text{H,ssh}} \sim 3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ cm}^{-3} \left( \frac{\sigma_{\text{HI}}}{6.3 \times 10^{-18} \text{ cm}^2} \right)^{-\frac{2}{3}} \Gamma_{12}^{\frac{2}{3}}$$

Although this result is in good agreement with RT cosmological simulations, in practice the transition between optically thin and highly neutral gas happens more smoothly:

- RT effects (shadowing, inhomogeneity of absorbers) - -

- recombination radiation



## Inhomogeneity of the UVB

Depending on the strength of the ionizing source, there is a region around it where the intensity of the local radiation is more important than the UVB

- for QSOs this is called the proximity effect and could be at the order of ~~1-10 Mpc~~  $\sim 1-10$  Mpc

(this is actually a signature that could be used to put constraints of the amplitude of the UVB at different redshifts)

- for star-forming galaxies this "proximity effect" could be affecting <sup>scales</sup> up to  $\sim 10-100$  Kpc

Also, due to time-dependent ~~to~~ quasar and star-burst activities in galaxies, the radiation field within proximity zones is varying with time.

That could change the cooling/heating of gas and interpretation of observed metal line absorption

(see eg., Oppenheimer & Schay 2013)

Note that the impact of local radiation in star-forming galaxies works against the self-shielding and a simple argument may suggest that these two effects cancel out each other (at least at low redshifts)

Starting from Kennicutt-Schmidt star-formation law we have (Rahmati et al. 2013b)

$$\dot{\Sigma}_* \approx 1.5 \times 10^{-4} M_{\odot} \text{ yr}^{-1} \text{ kpc}^{-2} \left( \frac{\Sigma_{\text{gas}}}{1 M_{\odot} \text{ pc}^{-2}} \right)^{1.4}$$

and we know from stellar population synthesis models that for a constant star-forming region the rate of hydrogen ionizing photons production rate is

$$\dot{Q}_\gamma \sim 2 \times 10^{53} \text{ s}^{-1} \left( \frac{\text{SFR}}{1 M_{\odot} \text{ yr}^{-1}} \right)$$

(within a time-scale of 10-20 Myr)

$$\Gamma_{\text{H}} = \frac{\dot{\Sigma}_\gamma}{N_{\text{H}}} = \frac{\dot{Q}_\gamma \times \dot{\Sigma}_*}{N_{\text{H}}} \rightarrow \text{assuming negligible escape fraction}$$

and

$$N_{\text{H}} \approx 9.4 \times 10^{19} \text{ cm}^{-2} \left( \frac{\Sigma_{\text{gas}}}{1 M_{\odot} \text{ pc}^{-2}} \right) \left( \frac{X}{0.75} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \Gamma_{\text{H}} \sim 8.5 \times 10^{-14} \text{ s}^{-1} \left( \frac{N_{\text{H}}}{10^{21} \text{ cm}^{-2}} \right)^{0.4} \quad (\text{Rahmati et al. 13b})$$

$\Gamma_{\text{UVB}}$  for  $z \lesssim 1$  is  $\sim 10^{-13} \text{ s}^{-1}$  which is similar to  $\Gamma_{\text{H}}$  calculated above and does not scale strongly with  $N_{\text{H}}$

Using the Jeans - scale argument again we can even calculate the average stellar photoionization rate as a function of gas density.

$$N_H \sim 2.8 \times 10^{21} \text{ cm}^{-2} \left( \frac{n_H}{1 \text{ cm}^{-3}} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} T_4^{\frac{1}{2}} \left( \frac{f_{\text{th}}}{f_{\text{th}}} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

where  $P_{\text{th}} = f_{\text{th}} P_{\text{tot}}$  → the fraction of thermal pressure in the gas

$$\Rightarrow \Gamma_{\text{H}} \sim \left( 1.3 \times 10^{-13} \text{ s}^{-1} \right) \left( \frac{n}{1 \text{ cm}^{-3}} \right)^{0.2} \left( \frac{f_{\text{th}}}{f_{\text{th}}} \right)^{0.2} T_4^{0.2}$$

This may suggest that models that assume the UVB is constant independent of density (i.e., ignoring the self-shielding effects) are not completely wrong!

But note that this argument works only to get the average photoionization rate on Kpc scales and ignores huge variations due to ~~to~~ inhomogeneous distribution of stars inside galaxies

Bottom line: simple UVB models only give a good answer on large scales and far from any strong ionizing source but most actions are happening inside and close to sources

⇒ Actual RT calculation is needed



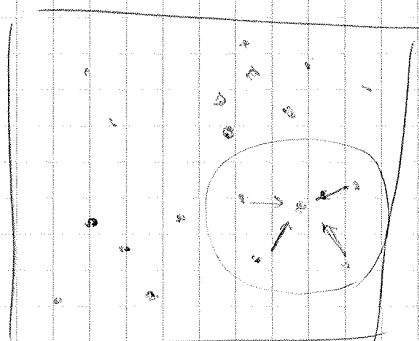
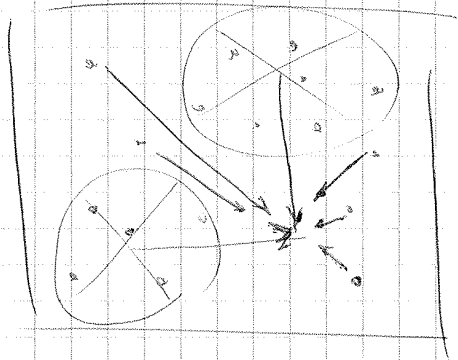
# Numerical Radiative Transfer

Although many physical processes that regulate the formation and evolution of galaxies and the LGM are very sensitive to radiation, RT is usually omitted from calculations/simulations.

The main reason for this is high dimensionality of the RT governing equation which makes it hard to simplify and also very expensive to calculate numerically.

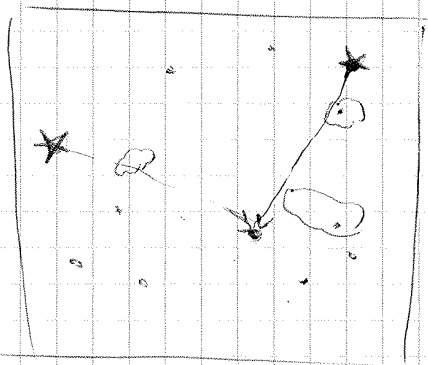
Why RT is expensive?

to answer this question, we can compare RT calculation with gravity and hydro calculation.



Gravity: only depends on distances and masses. One can reduce the number of calculation by assuming far away objects can be represented by single objects.

Hydrodynamics: only properties of nearby resolution elements are important (i.e. short characteristic forces).



for radiation field calculation one needs to know the distribution of sources.

In the absence of absorption radiation field calculations would have been like gravity. However, due to absorption, one not only needs to know where the sources are, but also what is happening to the light coming from those sources! (i.e., grouping far away sources does not work)

On top of that, radiation is multifrequency and therefore very expensive (absorption is frequency dependent)

On top of that, we have scattering, re-radiation, redshifting (both cosmological and due to velocity differences) etc.

# Cosmological Radiative Transfer Equation in the expanding universe (Gnedin & Ostriker) 1997

Define  $F(t, x^i, p^k)$  to be the photon distribution function in comoving coordinates,  $x^i$  and comoving momentum

$$p^k = a \frac{h\nu}{c} n^k$$

where  $a(t)$  is the scale factor,  $h$  is the Planck constant and  $n^k$  is the unit vector in the direction of photon propagation.

$$\Rightarrow N_\gamma = \int F(t, x^i, p^k) d^3x d^3p$$

is the total number of photons in the universe. In the absence of absorption and emission  $N_\gamma$  is constant.

Using the phase space continuity equation we have:

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} (\dot{x}^i F) + \frac{\partial}{\partial p^k} (\dot{p}^k F) = \text{Source} - \text{Sink}$$

lets use specific intensity instead of photon distribution function.  $\int_\nu d\nu d\Omega dA dt$  is the energy of photons with frequencies between  $\nu$  and  $\nu + d\nu$  passing through the area  $dA$  in the time interval  $dt$  in the solid angle  $d\Omega$  around  $n^k$ . We also know  $a^3 d^3x = c dt dA$  and  $d^3p = p^2 dp d\Omega$  which gives:

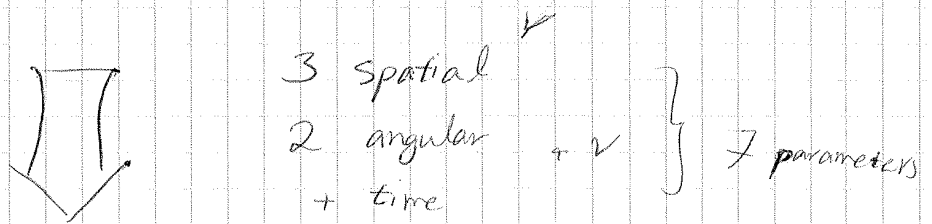
$$J_\nu = h\nu F \frac{d^3x d^3p}{d\nu d\Omega dA dt} = \frac{h^4 \nu^3}{c^2} F$$

after doing the algebra we get

$$\frac{dJ_r}{dt} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} (x^i J_r) - \mathcal{H}(r) \frac{\partial J_r}{\partial r} - 3 J_r =$$

$$\underbrace{-k_r J_r}_{\text{sink term}} + \underbrace{S_r}_{\text{source term}}$$

Even if we constrain ourselves in a single frequency, solving this equation with 6 independent variables is computationally too expensive!



Simplifying assumptions are needed to make the numerical solutions tractable

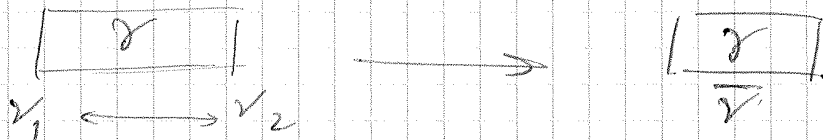
Some of the main methods are

- moment-based methods
- ray-tracing methods
- ~~Monte-carlo~~ techniques
- hybrid methods: TRAPHIC

Replacing multi-frequency nature of radiation with Gray approximation

Motivation: Numerical calculation of large number of frequencies in RT is very expensive and in some cases not necessary!

Main idea: replacing a range of frequencies with a ~~one~~ single intermediate frequency:



recall the photoionization rate:

$$\Gamma = \int_{\nu_1}^{\nu_2} 4\pi \frac{J_\nu}{h\nu} \alpha d\nu$$

$$\equiv \frac{c}{h} \int_{\nu_1}^{\nu_2} \frac{J_\nu}{\nu} \alpha d\nu$$

frequency independent average cross-section

$$\Rightarrow \left( \bar{\alpha} \equiv \frac{\int_{\nu_1}^{\nu_2} \frac{J_\nu \alpha}{\nu} d\nu}{\int_{\nu_1}^{\nu_2} \frac{J_\nu}{\nu} d\nu} \right)$$

Problem: different frequencies have different mean-free paths which is not captured by a single frequency approximation. This gives too sharp I-fronts and wrong heating in the self-shielded region

## Moment-based Methods

e.g., OTVET (Gnedin & Abel 01)

Aubert & Teyssier 08, Petkova & Springel 09

Finlator et al. 09, Krumholz et al. 07, Rosdahl et al. 13  
etc. ...

Main idea: reducing the dimension of general RT equation by eliminating the two angular dimensions of the RT equation and treating the radiation field as a fluid.

Advantages: — it is fast

— differential equations that should be solved are similar to other hydro equations and therefore similar numerical techniques can be used.

Disadvantages: — the directionality of radiation is largely lost and radiation propagates diffusively!

This is not a big issue when the optical depth is high but becomes a problem in optically thin regimes (e.g., it does not capture shadows accurately)

— Courant stability condition: radiation should not propagate through more than one volume element in each time step  $\Rightarrow$  one needs to use reduced speed of light (fine for optically thick regimes but wrong for optically thin regimes)

One example: OTVET (Gnedin & Abel 01)  
 Optically Thin Variable Eddington Tensor:

the specific intensity,  $J_\nu$ , in the expanding universe is given by:

$$\frac{\partial J_\nu}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \left( x^i J_\nu \right) - \mathcal{H} \left( \nu \frac{\partial J_\nu}{\partial \nu} - 3 J_\nu \right) = -\kappa_\nu J_\nu + S_\nu$$

$x^i = c \frac{n^i}{a}$

$\kappa_\nu J_\nu$  extinction,  $S_\nu$  source  
 $n^i$  is the unit vector showing photo propagation direction

we define the mean specific intensity:

$$\bar{J}_\nu(t) \equiv \langle J_\nu(t, \vec{x}, \vec{n}) \rangle \quad \text{where } \langle \rangle \text{ is averaging over position and direction}$$

$$\langle J_\nu(\vec{x}, \vec{n}) \rangle = \lim_{V \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{cV} \int_V d^3x \int d\Omega J_\nu(\vec{x}, \vec{n})$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial \bar{J}_\nu}{\partial t} - \mathcal{H} \left( \nu \frac{\partial \bar{J}_\nu}{\partial \nu} - 3 \bar{J}_\nu \right) = -\bar{\kappa}_\nu \bar{J}_\nu + \bar{S}_\nu$$

where  $\bar{S}_\nu \equiv \langle S_\nu \rangle$  and  $\bar{\kappa}_\nu \equiv \frac{\langle \kappa_\nu J_\nu \rangle}{\bar{J}_\nu}$

then we can define relative specific intensity,  $f_\nu(t, \vec{x}, \vec{n})$ , which is the difference between the local value of the specific intensity and the mean:

$$J_\nu \equiv f_\nu \bar{J}_\nu \Rightarrow \langle f_\nu \rangle = 1$$

then one can assume that the universe does not expand substantially over the time photons need to travel the scale of interest, and  $\frac{v}{c} \ll 1$   
 (ie.,  $\frac{\partial}{\partial r} = 0$  and  $\frac{v}{c} = 0$ )

and write: (see: Gnedin & Abel 01)

$$\frac{a}{c} \frac{\partial f_\nu}{\partial t} + n^i \frac{\partial f_\nu}{\partial x^i} = -\hat{K}_\nu f_\nu + \psi_\nu$$

where  $K_\nu \equiv \frac{a}{c} k_\nu$ ,  $\hat{K}_\nu \equiv K_\nu - \bar{K}_\nu + \frac{S_\nu}{J_\nu} \frac{a}{c}$

and  $\psi_\nu \equiv \frac{a}{c} \frac{S_\nu}{J_\nu}$

Then we define the moments of the transfer equation:

radiation energy density:  $E_\nu(t, \vec{x}) \equiv \frac{1}{4\pi} \int d\Omega f_\nu(t, \vec{x}, \vec{n})$

flux  $F_\nu^i$ :  $F_\nu^i(t, \vec{x}) \equiv \frac{1}{4\pi} \int d\Omega n^i f_\nu(t, \vec{x}, \vec{n})$

and the Eddington tensor  $h_\nu^{ij}$

$$E_\nu(t, \vec{x}) h_\nu^{ij}(t, \vec{x}) \equiv \frac{1}{4\pi} \int d\Omega n^i n^j f_\nu(t, \vec{x}, \vec{n})$$

then one can show the following equations hold:

$$\frac{a}{c} \frac{\partial E_\nu}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial F_\nu^i}{\partial x^i} = -\hat{K}_\nu E_\nu + \psi_\nu \rightarrow \text{conservation of the number of photons}$$

and

$$\frac{a}{c} \frac{\partial F_\nu^j}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} E_\nu h_\nu^{ij} = -\hat{K}_\nu F_\nu^j \rightarrow \text{flux conservation}$$

one needs to close those two PDEs with specifying the Eddington tensor,  $h_\nu^{ij}$



The choice of the Eddington tensor

Eddington tensor gives the distribution of sources as seen by observers at different locations

$$h_{\nu}^{ij} = \frac{P_{\nu}^{ij}}{4\pi P_{\nu}^{ij}}$$

$$\text{where } P_{\nu}^{ij} = \int d^3x_1 \rho_{*}(\vec{x}_1) e^{-\tau_{\nu}(\vec{x}, \vec{x}_1)} \frac{(x^i - x_1^i)(x^j - x_1^j)}{(|\vec{x} - \vec{x}_1|)^4}$$

where  $\tau_{\nu}(\vec{x}, \vec{x}_1)$  is the optical depth between points  $\vec{x}$  and  $\vec{x}_1$ .  $\rho_{*}$  is the mass density of sources

assuming negligible absorption on large scales simplifies this equation significantly (i.e., optically thin limit)

$$\Rightarrow P_{\nu}^{ij} = \int d^3x_1 \rho_{*}(\vec{x}_1) \frac{(x^i - x_1^i)(x^j - x_1^j)}{(|\vec{x} - \vec{x}_1|)^4}$$

for alternative choices see Aubert & Teyssier 10

~~Wang et al. 10~~

Jiang, Store & Davis 12

also see Flux-limited Diffusion  
(optically thick = diffusion along  
the direction of decreasing energy) etc.

e.g., Krumholz et al 07, Reynolds et al. 09

# Ray tracing RT (usually on grid)

e.g., Abel & Wandelt 02, Razoumov & Scott 99  
Mellema et al. 06, Wise & Abel 17

Main idea: Connecting all resolution elements and every source in the simulation with rays and calculating how much radiation can be absorbed / transmitted

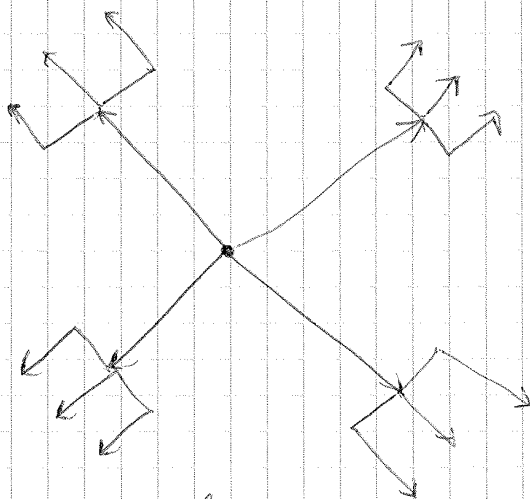
Advantages: The most natural way of doing RT which is very similar to how photons propagate in reality

In the limit of infinite number of rays, it provides exact solution!

Disadvantages: It is very expensive where multiple sources exist  $\sim N_{\text{sources}} \times N_{\text{cells}}$

however there are different tricks to reduce the computational costs  $\Rightarrow$  using a grid, finite number of rays

problem: finite number of rays = low angular resolution and missing cells far from sources



Solution: ray splitting

## Monte Carlo RT (usually on grid)

e.g. Ciardi et al. 01, Maselli et al. 03  
Cantalupo & Porciani 11, Jonsson 06

Main idea: Similar to ray tracing but by propagating photon packets that are sampling appropriate probability distribution functions (angular distributions, SED, etc.)

Advantages: almost the same as ray tracing  
+ it can tackle scattering easily

disadvantage: ~ ~ + could be a bit noisy

# TRANSPORT of Photons In Cones (SPH)

TRAPHIC: Pawlik & Schay 08, 11 (and 2012)

Main idea: a fusion of ray-tracing and Monte-Carlo RT for SPH which has a computational time independent from number of sources.

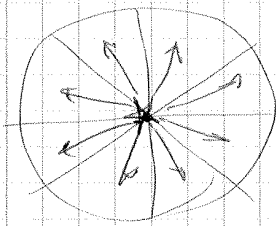
- Advantages:
- it uses the full resolution available through SPH simulation (hence adaptive)
  - it preserves the directionality of radiation field (unlike moment-based methods)
  - it does not scale with the number of sources (unlike ray-tracing and Monte-Carlo)
  - photon transport with the speed of light (unlike moment based methods)

disadvantages:

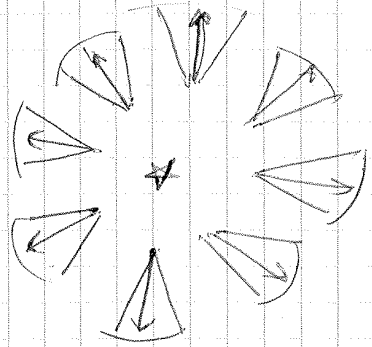
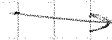
- could be a bit noisy (sampling noise)

How it works:

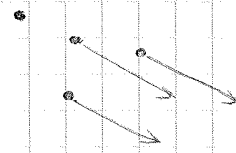
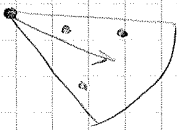
- emission from source in cones
- transmission to neighbors within cones
- photon packets with close enough propagation direction are merged into one photon packet with an intermediate direction



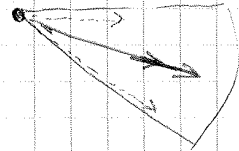
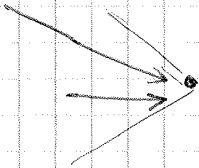
emission



propagation



merging



and photons are absorbed as they travel  
note: discretizing the emission ~~direction~~ into finite  
number of cones introduces sampling issues

⇒ emission directions are randomly rotated in  
each time step (or less frequently)