School of Universe Sciences Department of Physics and Astronomy Master's degree in Astrophysics and Cosmology

# Probing modified Gravitational Wave propagation using Standard Sirens with future observational data

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### Abstract

Gravitational waves (GWs) are writing a new chapter in cosmology as novel and independent probes to measure the expansion history and test the foundations of gravitational physics. In particular, GWs directly provide the luminosity distance to their source, bypassing the uncertainties of traditional distance ladders. However, this distance may differ from the electromagnetic one, due to modified GW propagation predicted by various modified gravity (MG) theories.

This thesis explores the potential of future GW observations to constrain modified GW propagation and potential biases on  $H_0$ . We use CHIMERA, a pipeline for joint inference of cosmological and astrophysical population parameters that we extended to include MG effects with the  $(\Xi_0, n)$ , parametrization. We generate GW catalogs assuming MG cosmologies and simulate their observation with the configuration of the future LIGO Virgo KAGRA observing run (O5). After exploring potential systematics in one-dimensional posteriors, we run full Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) analyses including a galaxy catalog with spectroscopic redshift measurements, and derive constraints on both cosmological and MG parameters.

We find a significant correlation between  $H_0$  and  $\Xi_0$  due to their relationship with luminosity distance at fixed z. By fixing  $H_0$  to the fiducial value, we recover  $\Xi_0$  with an uncertainty of 3%. On the other hand, if  $\Xi_0$  is fixed,  $H_0$  is constrained at 1% in a GR universe ( $\Xi_0 = 1$ ), 1.2%, and 2% in different MG universe with  $\Xi_0 = 1.8$  and 0.6, respectively. In a full MCMC analysis, when both  $H_0$  and  $\Xi_0$  vary, their inherent degeneracy leads to weaker constraints, finding 2.3%, 6% and 7% for  $H_0$  while 10% 17% and 20% for  $\Xi_0$ , respectively for the different cosmologies. This work provides a first assessment of the constraints that can be achieved on those parameters with future GW data, paving the way to properly model them to derive unbiased and precise determinations of cosmological parameters.

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### Chapter 1

# Introduction

The Lambda Cold Dark Matter ( $\Lambda$ CDM) model currently stands as the landmark of our understanding of the Universe. It postulates that ordinary baryonic matter comprises only a small fraction of the total content of the Universe, while the energy budget is dominated by cold dark matter (CDM) and dark energy (DE) (Peebles and Ratra 2003, Dodelson and Schmidt 2020). Despite the success of the  $\Lambda$ CDM model in explaining various cosmic phenomena such as large-scale structure formation and the dynamics of galaxies, it relies on two components, DM and DE, which remain enigmatic. Dark matter, which interacts only through gravity, is essential to explain the mass content of the Universe. Dark energy, often associated with the cosmological constant ( $\Lambda$ ), is thought to be responsible for the accelerated expansion of the Universe. However, neither dark matter nor dark energy has been directly detected, and their nature remains one of the greatest mysteries (Abdalla et al. 2022). Since the first groundbreaking discovery of the accelerated expansion of the universe observed through Type Ia supernovae (Riess, Filippenko, et al. 1998, Perlmutter et al. 1999), many observations have provided more precise constraints to the  $\Lambda$ CDM model using multiple probes.

However, emerging observational data are pointing out potential limitations. Among them, the Hubble constant  $(H_0)$  tension is one of the most debated. This parameter, which defines the present rate of cosmic expansion, has been measured with high precision using two distinct probes: one based on the cosmic microwave background (CMB) under the assumption of the  $\Lambda$ CDM model, and another based on measurements of nearby Type Ia supernovae (Riess, Casertano, et al. 2019). Intriguingly, the values obtained by these methods show discrepancies well beyond their error margins, suggesting possible new physics beyond  $\Lambda$ CDM.

In 2015, the groundbreaking detection of gravitational waves (GWs) has opened

up a new avenue to address these questions (B. Abbott et al. 2016). Since then, the interferometers of the LIGO-Virgo-KAGRA (LVK) collaborations have observed more than 90 events (R. Abbott et al. 2023) produced by mergers of Binary Black Holes (BBH), Binary Neutron Stars (BNS), or Neutron Star-Black Holes (NSBH), with BBH comprising the majority ( $\sim 90\%$ ) of the detections. To assess the performance of these detectors and track the number of detected and expected GWs, both from past and future advancements of the LVK configuration, the observations have been structured into successive observing runs. The completed O1-O3 runs established the foundation for GW astronomy and cosmology (B. P. Abbott 2023, Cahillane and Mansell 2022). The improved sensitivity of ongoing O4 run, extending through 2024 and partially in 2025, will reveal more well-localized events, such as BBHs and NSBHs systems. Looking ahead to the upcoming O5 run (Kiendrebeogo et al. 2023, B. P. Abbott et al. 2020) featuring enhanced detector sensitivity allowing the detection of a broader range of sources.

From the cosmological perspective, gravitational waves produced by compact binary mergers can be used as "standard sirens". Their signal, calibrated by General Relativity (GR), provides a direct measurement of the luminosity distance to the source without relying on intermediate calibrators. By complementing this measurement with the source redshift z, it is possible to constrain cosmological parameters through the distance-redshift relation. Unfortunately, the measurement of z is hindered by an intrinsic degeneracy with binary masses, i.e. more massive systems at larger z produce the same signal as lower mass systems at lower z. For this reason, various approaches have been proposed to obtain external information on z and enable cosmological analyses.

When the electromagnetic (EM) counterpart of a GW event is detected and its host galaxy identified, the redshift can be directly measured (Holz and Hughes 2005; Schutz 1986). These events are known as "bright sirens". The binary neutron star (BNS) merger event GW170817 B. P. Abbott 2017a is the first and only known example so far, leading to a measurement of  $H_0 = 70.0^{+12.0}_{-8.0} \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$ . However, EM counterparts are rare, as they typically require mergers involving at least one neutron star.

When the counterpart is either too faint to be detected or absent, the information on z can still be statistically inferred from the distribution of potential hosts within the GW localization volume (Del Pozzo 2012; M. Fishbach et al. 2019; Schutz 1986). Combining the redshift of each potential host with the  $d_L$  measured with GWs, provides separate constraints to the cosmological parameters. In this way, by stacking together the information from multiple events, the true cosmology will statistically prevail. This is known as the "dark sirens" method and becomes more effective as the GW localization volumes

become smaller, up to the limit when only a single galaxy is present, resembling the situation of bright sirens. The latest analysis by the LVK collaboration using the 47 dark sirens events with SNR > 11 from the GWTC-3 catalog yields  $H_0 = 67^{+13}_{-12} \text{ km/s/Mpc}$ (excluding GW170817, B. P. Abbott 2023).

Alternatively, the degeneracy between mass and redshift can be broken by modeling intrinsic astrophysical properties as the source-frame mass distribution (Chernoff and Finn 1993; S. R. Taylor and Jonathan R. Gair 2012). This is known as the "spectral sirens" method and is more effective when the source-frame mass distribution contains features such as breaks, peaks, or changes in slope that act as standard properties.

In addition to cosmological constraints, GWs and standard sirens have emerged as powerful tools for testing GR (Yunes, Yagi, and Pretorius 2016, B. Abbott et al. 2016, B. P. Abbott 2017a, Goldstein et al. 2017, Savchenko et al. 2017).

Investigations of GR can be studied by comparing the GW waveform predicted by GR with the observed one.

Recently, new modified gravity (MG) theories have been developed (Belgacem et al. 2018a, Dvali, Gabadadze, and Porrati 2000) and some of them predict a friction term that modifies the GW propagation (Deffayet and Menou 2007, Brandenburg et al. 2021). For example, the observation of GW170817 constrained the propagation velocity of GWs to an impressive limit of  $\frac{|c_{gw}-c|}{c} < \mathcal{O}(10^{-15})$  (B. P. Abbott 2016, B. P. Abbott 2017a,Goldstein et al. 2017, Savchenko et al. 2017). Beyond velocity constraints, several MG theories parameterize the source distance, that differ from the EM one due to the modified GW propagation, using two parameters,  $\Xi_0$  and n (Mancarella, Genoud-Prachex, and Michele Maggiore 2022). Standard sirens method can be thus used to infer MG paramaters along with cosmological ones.

In this context, innovative methods have been developed to combine galaxy catalog and the spectral sirens methods, allowing for joint parameter inference integrating all these approaches. Tools like CHIMERA (Borghi et al. 2024), icarogw (Simone Mastrogiovanni et al. 2023), and gwcosmo (Gray et al. 2023) have implemented these techniques, offering a powerful framework for exploring the constraining power of future observing runs.

These methods and pipelines have played a key role in obtaining first results, particularly in constraining modified GW propagation. By correlating galaxy catalog methods with the GWTC-3 catalog, results show that these parameterizations are currently consistent with GR (Mancarella, Finke, et al. 2022). However, as detectors improve, it's crucial to forecast their ability to refine these constraints. To achieve this, mock GW catalogs are simulated. While Leyde et al. 2022 applied the spectral siren method to forecast constraints on MG parameters, this thesis uses galaxy catalog information to predict for the first time constraints on MG propagation using the combined galaxy catalog and spectral siren method.

For this study, we modify the CHIMERA Pipeline, which implements the Bayesian hierarchical likelihood to jointly infer cosmological and astrophysical parameters using standard sirens, to include modified GW propagation. In particular, a new module MG\_FLRW, was developed and integrated into the CHIMERA pipeline. This module incorporates modified GW propagation effects into the computation of luminosity distance of GWs  $(d_L^{GW})$ , enabling analyses of MG scenarios. Additionally, changes in the luminosity distance required adjustments in likelihood calculations, this was applied to the integration grid, which is constructed adaptively in CHIMERA and required modifications to accommodate a new parametrization of luminosity distance. To evaluate the potential of O5, one of the main features of this work is simulating mock GW catalogs. Currently, there are no comprehensive catalogs that incorporate information on GW events under modified GW propagation scenarios, so two new catalogs of this kind will be generated and investigated using existing tools (GWFAST Iacovelli et al. 2022a). Two new mock GW event catalogs are simulated considering different MG regimes, compatible with current constraints (Leyde et al. 2022). The CHIMERA code is then used to forecast the constraining capabilities of the dark siren method and an LVK network in the O5 configuration on cosmological and MG parameters considering both GR and modifications to the GW propagation. Through a one-dimensional posterior analysis, we demonstrate that the correct value of  $\Xi_0$  can be recovered by fixing  $H_0$  and other relevant parameters to the fiducial values of the cosmological model. We also find that when an incorrect cosmology is assumed, a bias in  $\Xi_0$  is observed. Extending this analysis through a full Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) approach, it becomes possible to sample the posterior and constrain both  $\Xi_0$  and  $H_0$  jointly, allowing for a comprehensive inference of cosmological parameters (including modified GW propagation) and astrophysical parameters.

This analysis is crucial in assessing whether future observational runs will be capable of measuring  $\Xi_0$ , ultimately aiming to provide precise constraints on  $H_0$  in both GR and modified GW propagation scenarios.

The Thesis is structured as follows

• Chapter 2 introduces the theoretical background, focusing on the standard cosmological model, the standard siren method, and modified GW propagation. The chapter concludes with an overview of the statistical framework necessary to understand the workflow of the standard sirens analysis implemented in CHIMERA that is extended in this Thesis.

- Chapter 3 describes the methodology, outlining how modified GW propagation parameters are included in the pipeline. Then a comprehensive description of the generation of mock GW catalogs with modified GW propagation effects is provided. Furthermore, the GW catalogs simulated for this Thesis are analyzed and discussed.
- Chapter 4 presents the results, separated into two statistical analysis methodologies: the one-dimensional posteriors method and the MCMC method. The findings will then be explored, highlighting the constraints derived for three distinct catalog analyses: one in a GR scenario and two with modified GW propagation. Particular emphasis is placed on the biases that may impact the measurement of  $H_0$  and the precision on  $\Xi_0$  that can be reached in about one year of the LVK O5 observational run.

### Chapter 2

# Cosmological background

This chapter presents an overview of the cosmological model and its main equations and parameters (Section 2.1). Then, it presents the fundamentals of gravitational wave (GW) theory (Section 2.2), the methodologies that allow constraining cosmology using GWs as "standard sirens" (Section 2.3), and an overview of modified GW propagation theories as well as a possible parametrization (Section 2.4). In the end, Section 2.5 introduces the statistical framework and pipeline used in this work to provide future constraints on modified GW propagation.

#### 2.1 The main cosmological model

The  $\Lambda$ CDM (Lambda Cold Dark Matter) model is the prevailing cosmological framework describing the evolution of the universe (Dodelson and Schmidt 2020). It introduces a universe dominated by dark energy ( $\Lambda$ ) and cold dark matter (CDM), along with ordinary baryonic matter. At its core, the model relies on the principles of GR to describe the gravitational interaction that shapes the evolution of the universe. Its geometry is described by the Friedmann-Lemaitre-Robertson-Walker (FLRW) metric, given in polar coordinates by:

$$ds^{2} = -c^{2}dt^{2} + a(t)^{2} \left(\frac{dr^{2}}{1 - kr^{2}} + r^{2}(d\theta^{2} + \sin^{2}\theta d\phi^{2})\right), \qquad (2.1)$$

where a(t) denotes the scale factor, k represents the curvature parameter (indicating the spatial geometry as flat (k = 0), positively curved (k > 0), or negatively curved (k < 0)). This is obtained only under assumptions that the universe is homogeneous and isotropic

(Weinberg 1976). The FLRW metric tensor components are given by:

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & a(t)^2 \frac{1}{1-kr^2} & 0 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & a(t)^2 r^2 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 0 & a(t)^2 r^2 \sin^2 \theta \end{pmatrix}.$$
 (2.2)

#### 2.1.1 Distances in cosmology

In cosmology, because of the scale factor, it is not possible to measure the distance in a canonical way (Coles and Lucchin 2003), so new descriptions are used to quantify the spatial separation between objects. The key distance measures include:

**Proper Distance**  $(d_{pr})$ : It represents the distance between two points in the universe at a given time, accounting for the time expansion of the universe. It is defined as:

$$d_{pr} = a(t) \int \frac{dr}{\sqrt{1 - kr^2}},\tag{2.3}$$

where  $\int \frac{dr}{\sqrt{1-kr^2}}$  is called curvature function  $f_k(r)$  which for a flat universe becomes  $f_0(k) = r$ .

So the  $d_{pr}$  becomes :

$$d_{pr}(t) = a(t)r \tag{2.4}$$

Differentiating this equation, by imposing that there is no proper motion of the observed point, it is possible to obtain the Hubble-Lemaitre law:

$$v(t) = \frac{a(t)}{a(t)} d_{pr}(t)$$
(2.5)

defining the famous Hubble parameter H(t) and its present-day value at  $t = t_0$  (time of the expansion history of the universe today), called Hubble constant  $H_0$ :

$$H(t) = \frac{a(t)}{a(t)} \qquad H_0 = \frac{a(t_0)}{a(t_0)}$$
(2.6)

Given this information, it is possible to define a new quantity called redshift z, that quantifies the expansion of the universe, as the fractional change in the wavelength of light observed from distant objects compared to the wavelength emitted:

$$1 + z = \frac{\lambda_{\text{obs}}}{\lambda_{\text{em}}}.$$
(2.7)

It serves as a crucial observational tool in cosmology, allowing us to probe the universe's history. It is related to the expansion factor a(t) as follows:

$$a(t) = \frac{1}{1+z}$$
(2.8)

**Comoving Distance**  $(d_c)$ : The comoving distance represents the spatial separation between two points that are not moving relative to the expansion of the Universe. It is defined as:

$$d_{c} = c \int_{t}^{t_{0}} \frac{dt'}{a(t')}$$
(2.9)

or by exploiting the relation between a(t) and z:

$$d_c = c \int_0^z \frac{dz'}{H(t')}$$
(2.10)

And for a massless particle with  $ds^2 = 0$  the comoving distance simplifies as  $d_c = d_{pr}/a(t)$ These quantities cannot be measured directly in cosmology because they depend on time through the expansion factor. To solve this problem several astronomical quantities can be introduced:

Angular Distance  $(d_A)$ : The distance obtained by measuring the angular size of the object  $\Delta \theta$  and relating to the actual size L:

$$d_A = \frac{L}{\Delta\theta} : \tag{2.11}$$

In the comoving frame the size becomes  $\frac{L}{a}$  and  $\Delta \theta = L \frac{1}{d_c}$ , so that by exploiting equation 2.9 the angular distance becomes

$$d_A = \frac{1}{1+z} d_c : (2.12)$$

Luminosity Distance  $(d_L)$ : It is a measure of distance to an astronomical object based on the observed flux it emits. It is defined by considering the intrinsic luminosity L of a bright source and the flux F observed from it, and relates them through the following formula:

$$F = \frac{L}{4\pi d_L^2}.\tag{2.13}$$

In an expanding universe, a photon emitted at some time in the past will undergo a redshift due to the expansion of the universe, which causes it to lose energy proportional to the scale factor a. Consequently, the observed flux decreases by an additional factor

of a because of the time dilation, for which the arrival rate of photons at the observer's location is decreased by the aforementioned factor, since time appears to pass more slowly for events at high redshift from our perspective. This effect leads to a modification of the flux, decreasing it by a factor  $a^2$  or  $(1 + z)^2$ , while for these reasons, the luminosity distance can be expressed in terms of the comoving distance  $d_c$  as follows:

$$d_L = (1+z)d_c. (2.14)$$

where z is the redshift, and (1 + z) accounts for both the photon energy loss and the arrival rate reduction. The cosmological luminosity distance-redshift relation in complete form is expressed as:

$$d_L = c(1+z)\frac{1}{H_0} \int_0^z \frac{dz'}{E(z')},$$
(2.15)

where c is the speed of light,  $H_0$  is the Hubble constant, and E(z) describes the redshiftdependent expansion rate of the universe.

#### 2.1.2 Components of the Universe

The Universe consists of several components, each with distinct properties characterized by the **Equation of State (EoS) parameter**:  $w = \frac{P}{\rho}$ , which defines the relation between pressure and energy density for each component. From the adiabatic condition,

$$d(a^3 \rho c^2) = -P da^3, \tag{2.16}$$

we obtain the density evolution as:

$$\rho_i(z) = \rho_{i,0}(1+z)^{3(1+w_i)}.$$
(2.17)

where  $w_i$  is the EoS parameter for each component, which are:

• **Baryonic Matter**: Non-relativistic matter with  $w_b = 0$ , evolving as

$$\rho_{\rm b}(z) = \rho_{\rm b,0}(1+z)^3.$$
(2.18)

• Cold Dark Matter (CDM): Non-interacting, pressureless matter ( $w_{cdm} = 0$ ), evolving as

$$\rho_{\rm CDM}(z) = \rho_{\rm CDM,0} (1+z)^3. \tag{2.19}$$

• Dark Energy: Drives accelerated expansion, with  $w_{\Lambda} = -1$ . Its density remains constant:

$$\rho_{\Lambda}(z) = \rho_{\Lambda,0}.\tag{2.20}$$

Although for dynamical models,  $w_{DE}(z)$  may vary, e.g., by the CPL parameterization:

$$w(z) = w_0 + w_a \frac{z}{1+z}.$$
(2.21)

• Radiation: Relativistic particles with  $w_{\rm rad} = \frac{1}{3}$ , evolving as

$$\rho_{\rm rad}(z) = \rho_{\rm rad0}(1+z)^4.$$
(2.22)

It is possible to define the **adimensional density parameter** ( $\Omega$ ), which expresses each component's contribution to the **critical density**  $\rho_{\text{crit}}$ , needed for a flat universe:

$$\rho_{\rm crit} = \frac{3H_0^2}{8\pi G}.$$
 (2.23)

where G is the gravitational constant. The adimensional density parameter is defined as  $\Omega_i = \frac{\rho_i}{\rho_{\text{crit}}}$ , and the sum over all components gives  $\Omega_{\text{tot}} = 1$ , implying flatness.

#### 2.1.3 Einstein field equations

It is understood that the Universe is expanding, so an evolutionary description of its dynamics and knowledge of its components are needed.

This is all well described by the Einstein field equations, that considering a cosmological constant  $\Lambda_{\mu\nu}$  are:

$$G_{\mu\nu} + \Lambda g_{\mu\nu} = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T_{\mu\nu}, \qquad (2.24)$$

where  $G_{\mu\nu}$  is the Einstein tensor describing the curvature of spacetime, G is Newton's gravitational constant, c is the speed of light in vacuum, and  $T_{\mu\nu}$  is the stress-energy tensor, representing the distribution and flow of energy and momentum. The Einstein tensor can be expressed in terms of the Ricci tensor  $(R_{\mu\nu})$  and the Ricci scalar (R) as:

$$G_{\mu\nu} = R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}g_{\mu\nu}R$$
 (2.25)

where  $g_{\mu\nu}$  is the metric tensor. In the perfect fluid approximation the time-time components of the stress-energy tensor  $T^{\mu\nu}$  is the energy density of the source,  $\rho c^2$ , while the spatial-spatial components represent the source pressure P. By exploiting the equation 2.25 it is possible to derive the Friedmann equations in the most general case with components just mentioned before:

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}(t)}{a(t)}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3}\rho - \frac{k}{a^2} + \frac{\Lambda}{3}c^2$$
(2.26)

$$\frac{\ddot{a}(t)}{a(t)} = -\frac{4\pi G}{3}(\rho + 3P) + \frac{\Lambda}{3}c^2$$
(2.27)

In this thesis, we will consider a flat universe assuming k = 0 and  $\Lambda = 0$ , to describe the theoretical aspects of GWs.

Then, by combining these equations with the adimensional density parameter, it is possible to write the Hubble parameter in this very interesting way:

$$H(z) = H_0 \left[ \Omega_r (1+z)^4 + \Omega_m (1+z)^3 + \Omega_\Lambda \right]^{1/2}$$
(2.28)

#### 2.2 Gravitational wave theory

Gravitational waves (GW) are distortions in the space-time continuum. These waves are a fundamental prediction of Einstein's theory of GR, representing a solution to the linearized Einstein field equations.

The field equations of GR dictate how matter and energy bend spacetime, which in turn leads to the formation of GWs.

In the linearized approximation of GR, the field equations are simplified by expanding around the flat Minkowski spacetime. This involves perturbing the flat metric by a weak field  $h_{\mu\nu}$ , assuming  $h_{\mu\nu}$  much less than 1. By writing out the full expressions for the linearized Ricci tensor and scalar and choosing the correct Lorentz gauge, the wave equation is derived (M. Maggiore 2008):

$$\Box h_{\mu\nu} = -16\pi G T_{\mu\nu}, \quad \partial_{\nu} h^{\mu\nu} = 0, \qquad (2.29)$$

where  $\Box = \partial_{\mu}\partial^{\mu}$  is the d'Alembertian operator.

To solve these equations, the compact source approximation is typically used, which assumes the gravitational wave source is located near the observer. The point where the field is measured is at a distance r = ||x||, which is much larger than the size of the source. For an isolated system, the GW solution is:

$$h_{ij}(ct,x) = -\frac{2G}{c^6} \frac{1}{r} \left[ \frac{d^2 I_{ij}(ct')}{dt'^2} \right]_{ct'=ct-r},$$
(2.30)

where i, j denote spatial components, and  $I_{ij}(ct)$  is the quadrupole moment tensor of the source. It is important to highlight that the only way to generate GWs the quadrupole term needs to change with time. So any a-symmetrical system that has this term different from zero can generate GWs, the most simple ones are the compact coalescing binary systems (CBCs). Note that  $h_{ij}$  is small due to the  $\frac{1}{c^6}$  factor. In vacuum ( $\Box h_{\mu\nu} = 0$ ), the solution reads as:

$$h_{\mu\nu}(ct,x) = \int A_{\mu\nu}(k)e^{ik_{\rho}x^{\rho}}\frac{d^{3}k}{(2\pi)^{3}},$$
(2.31)

representing a superposition of plane-wave solutions with  $A_{\mu\nu}$  as a 4 × 4 matrix defining the wave amplitude. The physical solutions for propagating gravitational waves require taking the real part of  $h_{\mu\nu}$ . The wavevector  $k = (\omega_c, \mathbf{k}) = (\omega_c, k_1, k_2, k_3)$  must satisfy  $|\mathbf{k}| = 0$ , indicating that both the phase and group velocities of gravitational waves equal c.

#### 2.2.1 Transverse-Traceless gauge and GW propagation

To analyze the propagation of GWs, we consider a vacuum environment. The solution to equation 2.29 in vacuum is 2.31.

Beyond the Lorentz gauge, an additional gauge transformation can be used (Hobson, Efstathiou, and Lasenby 2006):  $h'_{\mu\nu} = h_{\mu\nu} - \partial_{\mu}\xi_{\nu} - \partial_{\nu}\xi_{\mu}$ , where  $\xi^{\mu}$  satisfies the wave condition  $\Box \xi^{\mu} = 0$ . Incorporating this new gauge condition with the Lorentz gauge and considering the symmetry of the amplitude matrix, the independent components of a GW are reduced to two, representing the two possible GW polarizations. This gauge is also known as the transverse-traceless gauge (TT gauge). For a GW propagating along the  $x^3$  or z direction, applying these considerations, the solution in the TT gauge is:

$$A_{\mu\nu}^{TT} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & h_{+} & h_{\times} & 0 \\ 0 & h_{\times} & -h_{+} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$
(2.32)

$$A_{\mu\nu}^{TT} = h_{+}e_{\mu\nu}^{+} + h_{\times}e_{\mu\nu}^{\times}, \qquad (2.33)$$

with:

$$e_{\mu\nu}^{+} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \qquad e_{\mu\nu}^{\times} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
(2.34)

with  $h_+$  and  $h_{\times}$  called plus and cross polarizations. As the name of the gauge suggests, the trace is zero and the non-transverse components vanish.

#### 2.2.2 Generation of gravitational waves

The generation of gravitational waves is derived directly from equation 2.30. Assuming the compact-source approximation and a slow-moving particle regime, the quadrupole moment tensor of the matter density distribution is:

$$I_{ij} = c^2 \int \rho(ct, \mathbf{x}) x_i x_j \, d^3 x. \tag{2.35}$$

For a binary system with two objects in circular orbit, the two polarization signals measured by an observer behave as:

$$h_{+} = \frac{4}{r} \left(\frac{GMc}{c^{2}}\right)^{\frac{5}{3}} \left(\frac{\pi f_{GW}}{c}\right)^{2} \frac{1 + \cos^{2}(i)}{2} \cos(2\pi f_{GW}t), \qquad (2.36)$$

$$h_{\times} = \frac{4}{r} \left(\frac{GMc}{c^2}\right)^{\frac{3}{3}} \left(\frac{\pi f_{GW}}{c}\right)^2 \cos(i) \sin(2\pi f_{GW}t), \qquad (2.37)$$

where *i* is the inclination angle between the observer's line-of-sight and the orbital plane's normal;  $f_{GW}$  is the GW frequency which is twice the binary system's frequency,  $M_c$  is the chirp mass, defined as  $\mu^{3/5} m_{\text{tot}}^{2/5}$  with  $\mu$  and  $m_{\text{tot}}$  being the reduced and total masses of the system.

Considering also that the energy loss due to GW emission happens through the quasicircular orbit approximation, meaning that the separation and angular frequency of the system do not vary with time, and introducing the quantity:

$$\Phi(t) = 2\pi \int_{t_0}^t f_{GW}(t) \, dt, \qquad (2.38)$$

the equations 2.36 and 2.37 become:

$$h_{+} = \frac{4}{r} \left(\frac{GM_{c}}{c^{2}}\right)^{\frac{5}{3}} \left(\frac{\pi f_{GW}(t)}{c}\right)^{\frac{2}{3}} \frac{1 + \cos^{2}(i)}{2} \cos(\Phi(t)),$$
(2.39)

$$h_{\times} = \frac{4}{r} \left(\frac{GM_c}{c^2}\right)^{\frac{5}{3}} \left(\frac{\pi f_{GW}(t)}{c}\right)^{\frac{2}{3}} \cos(i)\sin(\Phi(t)).$$
(2.40)

To observe the characteristic shape of a GW from an inspiraling binary, we use the time to coalescence  $\tau = t_{\text{coal}} - t$ . Rewriting equations 2.39 and 2.40 with  $\tau$ , we see both frequency and amplitude increase as  $t_{\text{coal}}$  approaches.

To include GWs from a compact binary system at cosmological distance, Eqs. 2.39 and 2.40 need to be adjusted accounting for universe's expansion. The distance r is replaced with  $a(t_0)r$  and the frequency is adjusted for redshift  $(f_{obs}^{GW} = \frac{f_{om}^{GW}}{1+z})$ . Despite the potential coupling of  $h_+$  and  $h_{\times}$  due to the expanding universe, they remain distinct. With these adjustments, the expressions for GWs in a  $\Lambda$ CDM universe are:

$$h_{+} = \frac{4}{d_{L}} \left(\frac{G\mathcal{M}_{c}}{c^{2}}\right)^{\frac{5}{3}} \left(\frac{\pi f_{\rm obs}^{GW}(t)}{c}\right)^{\frac{2}{3}} \frac{1 + \cos^{2}(i)}{2} \cos(\Phi(t)),$$

$$h_{\times} = \frac{4}{d_{L}} \left(\frac{G\mathcal{M}_{c}}{c^{2}}\right)^{\frac{5}{3}} \left(\frac{\pi f_{\rm obs}^{GW}(t)}{c}\right)^{\frac{2}{3}} \cos(i) \sin(\Phi(t)),$$
(2.41)

With  $\mathcal{M}_c = M_c(1+z)$  the redshifted chirp mass. Which is also given by:

$$\mathcal{M}_c = (1+z) \frac{(m_1 m_2)^{\frac{2}{5}}}{(m_1 + m_2)^{\frac{1}{5}}},$$
(2.42)

where  $m_1$  and  $m_2$  are the component masses in the source frame.

The overlap of GW polarizations in Eq. 2.41, combined with the antenna receptor gain of the interferometer, produces the GW strain observed for a detected event. Crucially, by analyzing both the amplitude and frequency evolution of the GW signal, the luminosity distance can be determined directly, without the need for distance calibrators. All quantities in Eq. 2.41, except for the redshift, are directly measurable by the interferometer.

However, if the redshift of the emitting system can be measured independently, the redshift degeneracy described in Eq. 2.42 can be resolved. This, in turn, enables the extraction of cosmological information via Eq.2.15. Note that the amplitude is also dependent on different quantities: position, inclination, and polarization with respect to the detector, which is a big part of doing cosmology with GWs. This peculiar property of directly measuring the luminosity distance, with previous knowledge of redshift, is the main reason for using GWs as standard sirens.

#### 2.3 Standard siren cosmology

Merger of black holes and neutron stars provides a robust framework to use GWs as cosmological probes (Holz and Hughes 2005 and Dalal et al. 2006). These astrophysical events generate GW signals that inherently encode the luminosity distance  $d_L$  to the binary systems as seen in Eq.2.41, which allows to obtain information on the components of the universe through Eqs.2.15 and 2.28. However, the GW signal alone is insufficient to infer the redshift due to the degeneracy between the source-frame mass and redshift within the GW waveform as seen in Eq.2.42. This degeneracy needs to be broken to allow the use of GWs for cosmology. There are three primary methodologies to break this degeneracy, referred to as standard sirens, and divided into the following:

- Bright Sirens are GWs that can be associated with an electromagnetic counter-part signal to retrieve redshift measurements (B. P. Abbott 2016)
- Dark Sirens have no counter-part, so they rely on a galaxy catalog to identify a possible galaxy host and obtain redshift (MacLeod and Hogan 2008, Oguri 2016, Mukherjee and Wandelt 2018, Vijaykumar et al. 2023, Bera et al. 2020, Mukherjee, Wandelt, et al. 2021)
- Spectral Sirens are a sub-category of Dark Sirens, with an empty galaxy catalog using features in the source masses population to directly extract the redshift. (Ezquiaga and Holz 2022)

Bright Sirens are the best method to assign redshift with low uncertainty, in fact, Multimessenger observations, such as neutron star mergers with electromagnetic counterparts, offer the most straightforward redshift measurements (Dalal et al. 2006; Holz and Hughes 2005), revealing amazing results just with a single event detected. However, this method is statistically inconsistent since multiple detections are needed to have good constraints on cosmological quantities. Because of the rarity of these types of events dark sirens and spectral sirens have been used. Statistical methods as proposed by Schutz 1986 and developed in a Bayesian context by Del Pozzo 2012, allow for redshift estimation by crosscorrelating GW localization volumes with galaxy distributions (Chen, Maya Fishbach, and Holz 2018). In the absence of counterparts or comprehensive galaxy catalogs, known features in the source population such as gaps or peaks, will be affected by redshift. This can be used to directly extract z from the CBC populations; one example is the lower edge of the pair-instability mass gap, which can provide redshift information directly from knowledge on the whole population(Will M. Farr et al. 2019; S. R. Taylor and Jonathan R. Gair 2012). This approach is the spectral siren method, which seeks to estimate the redshift of GW sources based on the relationship between source-frame masses and detector-frame masses, that fitting the population distribution of sourceframe masses, allows to place constraints on cosmology. Similar to the mass method, the potential redshift information of GW events can also be derived from the CBC merger rate as a function of redshift. A noteworthy piece of information is that these two final methods, dark and spectral sirens are related. The dark siren method is essentially an extension of the spectral sirens, which can be considered a method that cross-correlates GW detections with an empty catalog. For this reason, it makes sense to merge these two methods and use them in a single joint analysis employing them both, describing it as a single unified framework called dark sirens. By incorporating prior knowledge about the population into a comprehensive joint analysis of GW sources (S. Mastrogiovanni et al. 2021, Moresco et al. 2022) it is possible to obtain information about the entire population rather than focusing solely on individual cases. These methods however are not free of problems or biases; first of all the galaxy catalog method crucially relies on the theoretical assumptions regarding the population model for the GW sources. This includes aspects such as the source-frame mass, redshift, and spin distribution (S. Mastrogiovanni et al. 2021; Finke et al. 2021; B. P. Abbott 2023). Incorrect population modeling must be carefully taken care of, to avoid biases in the estimation of any parameter. Secondly, the detectors' limits on the localization of a GW event must be considered. Without electromagnetic counterparts, GW events are often poorly localized, making unique host galaxy identification difficult (B. P. Abbott 2018). Since these methods exploit the derivation of localization volumes, which usually encompasses  $\mathcal{O}(10^4 - 10^5)$  possible host galaxies, the limiting horizon of detectors reduces the accuracy on parameters. Hence this dark siren technique would provide significantly less information, even having exhaustive galaxy catalogs with accurately measured redshifts. Finally, an assumption must be made to address the completeness of the galaxy catalog. Failing to consider these would lead to a biased measurement when analyzing a population. The dark siren approach involves using galaxy catalogs to statistically determine a host galaxy, and thus a redshift, for the GW event. Incompleteness of these catalogs especially at high redshifts, renders them unable to provide relevant information on the source redshift, so accounting for these selection effects, is essential for robust cosmological constraints (Chen, Maya Fishbach, and Holz 2018; Mandel, Will M Farr, and Jonathan R Gair 2019; Mortlock et al. 2019). For certain cosmological observables, like bright sirens, GWs complement electromagnetic observations. This is particularly relevant for the Hubble parameter  $H_0$ , where GWs can provide measurements with different systematic uncertainties, potentially helping to address the discrepancy between earlyuniverse (Aghanim et al. 2020) and late-universe (Wong et al. 2019) measurements of  $H_0$ . The first standard siren measurement of the Hubble constant was derived from the binary neutron star detection GW170817, which provided a luminosity distance and identified a unique host galaxy, NGC4993 (L. S. C. Abbott B. P. et al. 2017). This event enabled a measurement of the Hubble constant of  $H_0 = 70^{+13}_{-7} \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$  (B. P. Abbott 2019). All subsequent analyses, because of the rarity of these events, have utilized galaxy catalogs and spectral sirens to derive statistical Hubble constant measurements for events without electromagnetic counterparts (M. Fishbach et al. 2019; Palmese et al. 2020). These have focused on nearby sources, typically within  $d_L < 400$  Mpc, thus examining the local distance-redshift relation via the Hubble constant  $H_0$ . However, advances in gravitational wave detectors, such as LIGO and Virgo, have extended this observational range to  $d_L \approx 5$  Gpc, with future enhancements expected to surpass 10 Gpc (Moresco et al. 2022). This extended range facilitates measurements of the expansion history up to  $z \approx 1$ , offering not only insights into the Hubble constant but also potential deviations in GW propagation predicted by various cosmological theories and Modified Gravity (MG) theories.

#### 2.4 Modified gravity and GWs

Since gravitational waves are predicted as space-time perturbations propagating in a GR scenario, they can be employed to test deviation from GR. One test that has been performed is testing the propagation velocity of GWs, though observations of GW170817 have put strong limits on it at a level of  $\frac{|c_{gw}-c|}{c} < \mathcal{O}(10^{-15})$  (B. P. Abbott 2016, B. P. Abbott 2017a, Goldstein et al. 2017, Savchenko et al. 2017). Even though this constrain has been put there are other ways to test alterations of GR; in particular in recent years, it has been recognized that all modified gravity models that adhere to the constraint defined before on the propagation speed, still predict a different evolution of the amplitude of GWs during their propagation over cosmological distances (Mancarella, Genoud-Prachex, and Michele Maggiore 2022). Moreover it has been found that deviations from GR can be also studied through tensor perturbation theory of a FLRW metric and these can be found only investigating GWs (Brandenburg et al. 2021). These studies consider a modified GW propagation which is the starting point of this thesis work. For this reason, is important to describe a mathematical framework that can predict these alterations. Generally, on cosmological scales, it is beneficial to differentiate between a homogeneous background described by FLRW metric and the scalar, vector, and tensor (SVT) perturbations superimposed on it. The SVT decomposition is a mathematical framework used to analyze perturbations in cosmological models (Amarasinghe et al. 2022). Starting from this SVT framework it is possible to study deviations from GR. So it is still necessary to study these perturbations through their amplitude. In general, in GR this is determined by the equation for tensor perturbations over the FLRW background, which takes the form:

$$\tilde{h}_{A}'' + 2\mathcal{H}\tilde{h}_{A}' + c^{2}k^{2}\tilde{h}_{A} = 0, \qquad (2.43)$$

where  $\tilde{h}_A$  is the gravitational wave amplitude for the two polarizations in Fourier space. The prime denotes the derivative with respect to conformal time  $\eta$  and  $\mathcal{H} = \frac{a'}{a}$ . In current cosmic epoch,  $\frac{a''}{a} \sim \frac{1}{\eta^2}$  and  $\eta$  is very large so the term  $\frac{a''}{a}$  can be neglected compared to  $k^2$ . This approximation holds with great accuracy for GW observed by ground- or space-based interferometers. The amplitude of the GW turns to be proportional to the luminosity distance  $\tilde{h}_A(\eta, k) \propto \frac{1}{d_L(z)}$ . Different MG theories predict that GW propagates differently than the GR case and a modified version of Eq.2.43 must be considered. With modification of the term  $2\mathcal{H}$  the Eq.2.43 becomes (Saltas et al. 2014):

$$\tilde{h}_{A}'' + 2\mathcal{H}[1 - \delta(\eta)]\tilde{h}_{A}' + k^{2}\tilde{h}_{A} = 0.$$
(2.44)

This holds for some time-dependent function  $\delta(\eta)$  that represents the deviation from GR. In this case, introducing  $\tilde{\chi}_A(\eta, k)$  as

$$\tilde{h}_A(\eta, k) = \frac{1}{\tilde{a}(\eta)} \tilde{\chi}_A(\eta, k), \qquad (2.45)$$

where

$$\frac{\tilde{a}'}{\tilde{a}} = H[1 - \delta(\eta)], \qquad (2.46)$$

yields to

$$\tilde{\chi}''_A + (k^2 - \frac{\tilde{a}''}{\tilde{a}})\tilde{\chi}_A = 0.$$
(2.47)

Once again, inside the horizon, the term  $\frac{\tilde{a}''}{\tilde{a}}$  is completely negligible, so GWs propagate at the speed of light. However, across cosmological distances,  $\tilde{h}_A$  now decreases as  $\frac{1}{\tilde{a}}$ rather than  $\frac{1}{a}$ . Therefore, in such a modified gravity model, a distinction between the electromagnetic luminosity distance  $d_L^{\text{EM}}(z)$  and the GW luminosity distance  $d_L^{GW}(z)$ needs to be done (Belgacem et al. 2018b). The GW amplitude of a measured CBC at redshift z will now be proportional to  $\frac{1}{d_L^{GW}(z)}$ , where

$$d_L^{GW}(z) = \frac{a(z)}{\tilde{a}(z)} d_L^{EM}(z) = \frac{1}{(1+z)\tilde{a}(z)} d_L^{EM}(z).$$
(2.48)

For this reason, while in GR the signal from a merging binary allows for the extraction of the luminosity distance of the source, in the context of modified gravity it provides a measure of a different quantity,  $d_L^{\text{GW}}(z)$ , known as the "GW luminosity distance" (Belgacem et al. 2018b).

In this context, the standard luminosity distance, referred to as the 'electromagnetic luminosity distance' and denoted as  $d_L(z)$ , is related to  $d_L^{\text{GW}}(z)$  as follows:

$$d_L^{GW}(z) = d_L(z) \exp\left(-\int_0^z \frac{dz'}{1+z'} \delta(z')\right),$$
(2.49)

where  $\delta(z) \equiv \delta[\eta(z)]$ . It is understood that a change in the coefficient of the  $k^2$  term in Eq. 2.43 gives a friction term to the GWs propagation and changes the luminosity distance. Assuming that all these MG theories leave the evolution of the cosmic background unchanged, Friedmann's equations still describe the expansion of the universe with  $H_0$  and  $\Omega_m$  as parameters for a flat  $\Lambda$ CDM model. In these MG theories, both the coefficient of the  $k^2$  term and that of the  $2\mathcal{H}$  term can differ (Belgacem et al. 2018a). This variation has been predicted in several explicit models. For instance, in the Dvali Gabadadze Porrati (DGP) model (Dvali, Gabadadze, and Porrati 2000), gravity leaks into extra dimensions on cosmological scales, affecting the  $\frac{1}{d_L(z)}$  behavior of a gravitational signal (Deffayet and Menou 2007). A similar effect has been found in Einstein-Aether models, scalar-tensor theories of the Horndeski class, and even in models affected by a time-dependent Planck mass in terms of dark energy content. They are called  $c_M$ -parametrization (Saltas et al. 2014, Lombriser and A. Taylor 2016) in which the parameter  $c_M$  (which vanishes in GR) affects the luminosity distance. These are different ways to influence the friction term that affects  $d_L^{GW}$  but in the context of this thesis the Eq.2.49 will be parametrized with simplest MG parametrization accordingly to the introduction of two quantities that will affect the GW propagation,  $\Xi_0$  and n (Leyde et al. 2022), defining the following term:

$$\Xi(z) = \Xi_0 + \frac{1 - \Xi_0}{(1 + z)^n}.$$
(2.50)

The luminosity distance formula can thus be written as:

$$d_L^{GW} = d_L \Xi(z) \tag{2.51}$$

By combining this with redshift data, it becomes possible to simultaneously measure the Universe's expansion history and test GR on cosmological scales.

#### 2.5 The statistical framework

As explained in the previous sections, the introduction of dark sirens cosmology allows us to derive cosmological information with the combination of GWs and galaxy catalogs; this needs a theoretical introduction on the statistical techniques to be used. The statistical background is achieved by employing a hierarchical Bayesian inference approach, which enables the simultaneous estimation of parameters and model selection (Adams, Cornish, and Littenberg 2012; Thrane and Talbot 2019). Generically, given  $\{d_{GW}\}$  the measured data and  $\lambda$  the model's parameter, a definitive and unique value for these  $\lambda$  cannot be obtained; instead, the posterior distribution of  $\lambda$  can be obtained from Bayes theorem as:

$$p(\lambda|\{d_{GW}\}) = \frac{\mathcal{L}(\{d_{GW}\}|\lambda)\pi(\lambda)}{p(\{d_{GW}\})},$$
(2.52)

where  $\pi(\lambda)$  encodes the prior information on  $\lambda$  which is supposedly already known,  $\mathcal{L}(\{d_{GW}\}|\lambda)$  is the likelihood function quantifying how well a particular set of model parameters explain the observed data, playing as central role in statistical inference and in parameter estimation. While  $p(\{d_{GW}\})$  is called evidence and is the likelihood marginalized over all parameters.

More specifically, according to CHIMERA's description the general problem for this work, involves a population of events described by a set of event-level parameters  $\theta$ , from which we aim to determine a set of hyper-parameters  $\lambda$  that characterize the source population. In GW cosmology, the event-level parameters are  $\theta = \{d_L, \hat{\Omega}, m_1, m_2\}$ , where  $d_L$  is the luminosity distance of the source,  $\hat{\Omega}$  is the sky localization (RA,Dec), and  $m_1, m_2$  are the binary masses. Instead, the population level parameter describing the distributions of  $\theta$ , are divided into three sets: cosmological parameters  $\lambda_c$ ; mass function parameters  $\lambda_m$ , and rate parameters  $\lambda_z$ . These specifically correspond to:

- $\lambda_c = \{H_0, \Omega_{0,m}, w_0, w_a, \Xi_0, n\}$  (cosmological parameters),
- $\lambda_m = \{\alpha, \beta, \delta_m, m_{\text{low}}, m_{\text{high}}, \mu_g, \sigma_g, \lambda_g\}$  (mass parameters),
- $\lambda_z = \{\gamma, \kappa, z_p\}$  (rate parameters).

#### 2.5.1 The CHIMERA code

The core of statistical analysis with CHIMERA involves constructing and evaluating the likelihood function from multiple events. Assuming a set of  $N_{\rm ev}$  independent GW events  $d_{\rm GW} = \{d_{\rm GW}^i\}$  from which we can measure the luminosity distance, the total likelihood

is proportional to the product of the individual event likelihoods multiplied by the population function:

$$\mathcal{L}(d_{\rm GW}|\lambda) = p(d_{\rm GW}|\lambda) \propto \frac{1}{\xi(\lambda)} \prod_{i=1}^{N_{\rm ev}} \int p(d_{\rm GW}^i|\theta_i, \lambda_c) p_{\rm pop}(\theta_i|\lambda) d\theta_i, \qquad (2.53)$$

The first term is  $\xi(\lambda)$ , which accounts for selection bias; current interferometers are sensitive only to specific ranges of GW signal frequencies, and this bias must be considered when inferring population distributions. In any dataset of GW events, detectability is considered deterministic, meaning that an event is detectable if the data exceeds a certain threshold  $r_{\rm thr}$ . In this context, the threshold is the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) of the event. Therefore,  $p_{\rm det}$  is essentially the likelihood distribution of observed SNRs, expressed as:

$$p_{\rm det}(\theta_i, \lambda_c) = \int_{\rm SNR}(d_{\rm GW}) > r_{\rm thr}} p(d_{\rm GW}|\theta_i, \lambda_c) dd_{\rm GW}.$$
 (2.54)

A GW event has an intrinsic SNR due to the properties of the emitting system, such as the signal amplitude, which strongly depends on the compact objects' masses, inclination, and sky localization. Additionally, stochastic fluctuations in the interferometers may alter the intrinsic SNR, making it different from the observed one.

Then the term  $p(d_{\text{GW}}^i|\theta_i, \lambda_c)$  is the single-event likelihood, which can be expressed following Bayes' theorem as:

$$p(d_{\rm GW}^{i}|\theta_{i},\lambda_{c}) \propto \frac{p(\theta_{i}|d_{\rm GW}^{i},\lambda_{c})}{\pi(\theta_{i})}$$
(2.55)

Here,  $p(\theta_i | d_{\text{GW}}^i, \lambda_c)$  is obtained from  $p(\theta_i^{\text{det}} | d_{\text{GW}}^i, \lambda_c)$ , the posterior distribution of the event-level parameters in detector-frame, and  $\pi(\theta_i)$  is the prior probability. Returning now to Eq.2.53, note that the single-event probability depends on the cosmological hyperparameters, as the data contain information on the detector frame parameters  $\theta_{\text{det}}$ , so they necessitate of a conversion to the source frame. The luminosity distance  $d_L$  and the detector frame masses  $m_1^{\text{det}}, m_2^{\text{det}}$  are related to the source frame masses by  $m_1^{\text{det}} = m_1(1+z)$  and  $m_2^{\text{det}} = m_2(1+z)$ . The population function  $p_{\text{pop}}$  can be further decomposed as the product of two distributions:

$$p_{\text{pop}} = p(m_1, m_2 | \lambda_m) p(z, \hat{\Omega} | \lambda_z, \lambda_c), \qquad (2.56)$$

assuming that  $p(m_1, m_2 | \lambda_m)$  does not evolve in redshift. This distribution represents the masses  $m_1$  and  $m_2$  given a well-defined mass function of the sources. The other term

can be expressed as:

$$p(z, \hat{\Omega}|\lambda_z, \lambda_c) \propto p_{\text{gal}}(z, \hat{\Omega}|\lambda_c) p_{\text{rate}}(z|\lambda_z),$$
 (2.57)

where  $p_{\text{gal}}(z, \Omega | \lambda_c)$  is the distribution of potential hosts that may include corrections for completeness effects, expressed as:

$$p_{\text{gal}}(z,\hat{\Omega}|\lambda_c) = f_R p_{\text{cat}}(z,\hat{\Omega}|\lambda_c) + (1 - f_R) p_{\text{miss}}(z,\hat{\Omega}|\lambda_c), \qquad (2.58)$$

with  $p_{\text{cat}}$  being the probability distribution from galaxy catalogs and  $p_{\text{miss}}$  accounting for the completeness of these catalogs as explained by Jonathan R. Gair et al. 2023 and Borghi et al. 2024. The quantity  $f_R$  is defined as:

$$f_R = \frac{\int P_{\rm comp}(z,\hat{\Omega}) \, \mathrm{d}V_c}{V_c(\lambda_c)} \tag{2.59}$$

Here  $P_{\text{comp}}(z, \hat{\Omega})$  is the completeness fraction of the catalog given sky localization and redshift range, and  $V_c(\lambda_c)$  the comoving volume. The probability  $p_{\text{rate}}(z|\lambda_z)$  represents the probability of a galaxy hosting a GW event at redshift z, given by:

$$p_{\text{rate}}(z|\lambda_z) \propto \frac{\psi(z,\lambda_z)}{1+z},$$
(2.60)

where the denominator accounts for the conversion between source and detector frames, and  $\psi(z, \lambda_z)$  describes the merger rate evolution of compact objects with redshift (Madau and Dickinson 2014).

Combining all components from all the previous equations, the full likelihood is described as:

$$\mathcal{L}(d_{\rm GW}|\lambda) \propto \frac{1}{\xi(\lambda)} \prod_{i=1}^{N_{\rm ev}} \int dz d\hat{\Omega} \mathcal{K}_{\rm GW,i}(z, \hat{\Omega}|\lambda_c, \lambda_m) p_{\rm gal}(z, \hat{\Omega}|\lambda_c) \frac{\psi(z, \lambda_z)}{1+z},$$
(2.61)

This equation is a specific implementation for CHIMERA that relies on this  $\mathcal{K}_{GW}$ :

$$\mathcal{K}_{\rm GW,i}(z,\hat{\Omega}|\lambda_c,\lambda_m) \equiv \int dm_1 dm_2 \frac{p(z,m_1,m_2,\hat{\Omega}|d^i_{GW},\lambda_c)}{\pi(d_L)\pi(m_{1,det})\pi(m_{2,det})} \frac{p(m_1,m_2|\lambda_m)}{\frac{dd_L}{dz}(z;\lambda_c)(1+z)^2}$$
(2.62)

This quantity is the marginalization of the event posterior over  $m_1$  and  $m_2$ , containing information on the localization volume (RA, Dec, z) of the GW and computed for each set of  $\lambda_m$  and  $\lambda_c$ . The terms  $(1+z)^2$  and  $\frac{dd_L}{dz}(z;\lambda_c) = \frac{d_L}{1+z} + \frac{c(1+z)}{H(z,\lambda_c)}$  are the Jacobian factors arising from the conversion from detector frame to source frame. In general, the prior probabilities for the astrophysical population are assumed to be flat for  $m_1$ and  $m_2$ ,  $\pi(m_{1,2}) = 1$ , whereas for luminosity distance it is imposed to be  $\pi(d_L) \propto d_L^2$ . Additionally, it is essential to understand the bias factor  $\xi(\lambda)$ , as it is crucial for obtaining a proper posterior distribution since some events are more likely to be observed than others due to intrinsic properties or instrument limitations. Ignoring this bias would result in incorrect uncertainty assessments and posterior distributions.

The selection effect is incorporated by introducing a detection probability  $p_{det}$ , such that the selection function is expressed as (Mandel, Will M Farr, and Jonathan R Gair 2019):

$$\xi(\lambda) = \int p_{\text{det}}(\theta_i, \lambda_c) p(m_1, m_2 | \lambda_m) p_{\text{gal}}(z, \hat{\Omega} | \lambda_c) \frac{\psi(z; \lambda_z)}{1+z} d\theta_i.$$
(2.63)

The final integral in Eq. 2.61 is computed in CHIMERA using adaptive redshift grids. These grids are constructed based on the GW data and span the range of redshifts covered by the allowed cosmologies. For well-localized events, the grid becomes relatively small, which improves computational efficiency. These implementations and features will be explored in the next chapter with an overview of the effects of MG on the CHIMERA pipeline as the introductory work of this thesis.

## Chapter 3

# Developing methods and catalogs for modified GW propagation

This chapter presents the methods and data developed in this thesis to study cosmological constraints on modified GW propagation. Section 3.1 describes the implementation of modified GW propagation functions in CHIMERA, including adequate measurements taken to avoid potential biases in the inference. The developed modules are used to provide a preliminary study of the modified propagation effects on GW observations, which will be then extended in Section 3.1.1. The motivation for this is related to the link between hyper-parameters and luminosity distance, this quantity changes in a modified propagation scenario and at the same time contains cosmological information depending so from  $\lambda_c$ . These preliminary studies are done to better understand which parameters have a deeper impact, in order to decide which one will be fixed in the cosmological model in future analyses. Section 3.2 instead describes the generation of mock events catalog. Starting from a parent galaxy catalog, the methodology to generate realistic GW catalogs will be given to simulate population of GW emitters, considering specific mass population distribution and merger rate. Moreover in Section 3.2.3 will be presented the techniques used in this work to simulate GW detections highlighting the importance of simulating how future detectors will be able to localize gravitational wave signals. Concluding the chapter in Section 3.3 with a significant emphasis on generating a catalog under both GR and modified GR scenarios with resulting study of their properties.

# 3.1 Implementation of modified GW propagation in CHIMERA

This section focuses on explaining how the CHIMERA code calculates the luminosity distance for gravitational waves and the corresponding likelihood, providing insight into the impact of modified gravitational wave propagation on these quantities. To extend the code to deal with these effects, some changes were needed. The first difference is related to the computation of luminosity distance, which is changed according to the concept of "friction" in the GW propagation as seen in Chapter 2. Following Eq.2.51 this modification affects both  $d_L^{GW}$  and its derivative  $\frac{d}{dz} d_L^{GW}$ , which I implemented in a new CHIMERA module named MG\_FLRW. These modifications enter at different steps during the code execution. At the beginning of the pipeline, the code loads:

- A data set containing the posteriors of observed GW events defined as GW catalog. This data-set encompasses the distribution samples related to the detected parameters for the specific GW event in detector-frame.
- A catalog of potential host galaxies each characterized by z, RA, Dec values.

The reason why the data-set are in detector-frame is that these are observables measured by the interferometers obtained in a detector-frame, which is different from the source-frame through the redshift-mass degeneracy relation. In practice, CHIMERA crosscorrelates the GW catalog with the galaxy catalog to compute Eq.2.61. A thorough discussion of each term is essential to understand how CHIMERA computes each term and how the impact of modified GW propagation parameters influences the full likelihood computation. The likelihood is obtained through different quantities:

- $p_{GW}(\theta|\theta_{det})$  the probability function related to the detector-frame parameters. This quantity contains all the information of the GW events, also its localization.
- $p_{gal}(z)$  which is the distribution of all the potential hosts pre-computed from the galaxy catalog, as a function of redshift, dividing in pixels the GW localization area and summing the contribution of every galaxy probability in the pixels.
- $\xi(\lambda)$  the selection bias.

For each GW event in the catalog, a  $p_{GW}$  is given, containing various distribution samples related to the detected parameters. Among these distribution samples the  $d_L^{GW}$  distribution is present, which is converted to a  $z_{sample}$  distribution. To each  $z_{sample}$  depending on the mass population distribution a weight is associated, in order to marginalize  $p_{GW}$ over the correct mass-population parameters. This results in:  $\mathcal{K}_{GW}(z, \Omega | \lambda_c, \lambda_m)$  which is the final distribution of the GW event for a specific set of cosmological and astrophysical parameter. Additionally this quantity has to be converted from a detector-frame to source-frame distribution through mass-redshift degeneracy relation in order to correctly compute the integration. Note that both the re-weight and frame-shift are done on the numerator of the likelihood because the denominator does not need it. This denominator is the selection bias 2.63, this term is computed through a Monte Carlo integral (Tiwari 2018, Will M. Farr et al. 2019) using only detector-frame quantities since it is related to the detectability of a GW event  $(p_{det} = p_{det}(\theta_{det}))$ . This allows to compute this function only once. To do it, CHIMERA takes a set of simulated injections' events and multiplies the detector-frame distribution by the mass distribution and merging rate, summing at the end over all the detected injections. Considering all these quantities and conversions the final posterior is computed and can be used to infer population hyper-parameters  $\lambda$ . All the quantities described above are multiplied and integrated on an adaptive redshift grid called  $z_{qrid}$ . This grid which depends on all the possible combinations of hyperparameters is fundamental to correctly integrate the likelihood. This is needed because during the step of re-weighting the likelihood numerator is shifted and reshaped, so if the grid is not wide enough the integration is wrongly computed.

The  $z_{grid}$  mentioned beforehand is significantly influenced by modified GW propagation parameters and needs to be investigated. From  $d_L^{min}$  and  $d_L^{max}$  of each GW event, considering the hyper-parameter priors presented in table 3.2 it is possible to generate the  $z_{grid}$ . This allows to find appropriate limit values  $(z_{\min}, z_{\max})$  which encompass the  $\mathcal{K}_{GW}$  range considering the additional parameters  $(\Xi_0, n)$ . The  $d_L^{GW}$  formula in 2.51 can be written as:

$$1 + z = \frac{1}{c} \frac{d_L^{GW} H_0}{\Xi(z) \int_0^z \frac{dz}{E(z)}}$$
(3.1)

Studying this relation, it is clear that to estimate  $z_{max}$  it is necessary to maximize  $\frac{H_0}{\int_0^z \frac{dz}{E(z)}}$  and minimize  $\Xi(z)$ , while for for  $z_{min}$  it is the opposite. Therefore, we have:

$$z_{max} \iff (d_L^{GW})^{max}, (H_0)^{max}, (\Xi(z))^{min}, \left(\int_0^z \frac{dz}{E(z)}\right)^{min}$$
(3.2)

$$z_{min} \iff (d_L^{GW})^{min}, (H_0)^{min}, \left(\Xi(z)\right)^{max}, \left(\int_0^z \frac{dz}{E(z)}\right)^{max}$$
(3.3)

In this thesis work, the relations 3.2, 3.3 were implemented in the MG\_FLRW module. This implementation in CHIMERA pipeline was of great importance, allowing us to compute the final hyper-likelihood (as in Eq.2.61) also in a MG scenario. As it will be seen in the next section, this function is primarily influenced by the  $\Xi_0$  prior assumed, which has a huge effect on the  $z_{grid}$ .

#### 3.1.1 Effects of modified GW propagation on the luminosity distance

Now that the numerical computation of likelihood was introduced, the effects of  $\Xi_0$  and n can be explored. It is of great importance to investigate how luminosity distance and final hyper-likelihood are influenced by modified GW propagation parameters. Figures 3.1, 3.2a, and 3.2b show the dependence of  $d_L^{GW}$  on various cosmological parameters (namely  $\Omega_{m,0}, H_0, w_0, w_a$ ) and on modified GW propagation parameters  $(\Xi_0, n)$ . These figures indicate that the significant quantities affecting the values of  $d_L^{GW}$  at identical redshifts are  $\Xi_0$  and  $H_0$ . More quantitatively, if the redshift is fixed at z = 1, a 10% increase in  $H_0$  generates a ~ 10% decrease in  $d_L^{GW}$ , whereas a 10% increase in  $\Xi_0$  leads to a 5% increase in the luminosity distance. This clearly shows a correlation between  $H_0$  and  $\Xi_0$  since they have opposite effect on luminosity distance Additionally, a 10% increase in  $\Omega_{0,m}$  causes a 1.8% decrease, while the parameter n, which only affects  $d_L^{GW}$ when  $\Xi_0 \neq 1$ , shows that for n = 1.5, the relative increase is just 1%. Furthermore, the gradient variation observed in figure 3.2b emerges from the form of  $\Xi(z)$  (see Eq.2.50) and its relationship with n varies depending on whether  $\Xi_0$  is less than or greater than 1. Nevertheless, n's influence on luminosity distance is not as impacting as the other two parameters, especially at low redshift, and it will be clear that this will have an influence on determining a constraint on this particular parameter since the analyzed events are below z < 1.3 as it will be seen in Section 3.3. With the exception of  $H_0$  and  $\Xi_0$ , the remaining parameters exhibited minimal impact on  $d_L^{GW}$  and therefore will be fixed.

It is possible now to explore the effects of the additional parameters on the  $z_{grid}$  in a modified GW propagation scenario as explained in the previous section. To validate this approach, figures 3.3 and 3.4 are chosen as an illustrative case. They have been used as a preliminary test to visually understand how to derive the  $z_{grid}$  integration grid needed for the likelihood computation. These figures represent a three-dimensional space computing the extension of the redshift grid for different combination of parameters,  $(H_0$ vs.  $\Omega_{0,m})$  and  $(\Xi_0 \text{ vs } n)$ . These highlight the maximum values at which the  $z_{grid}$  extends

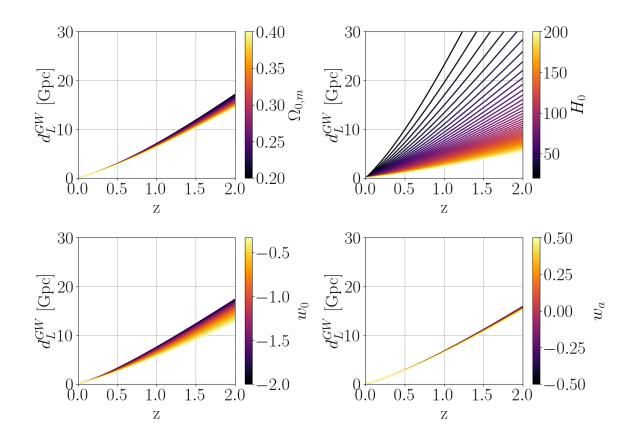
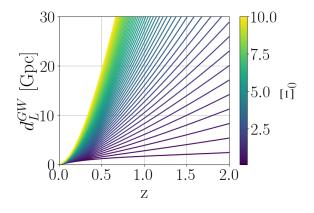
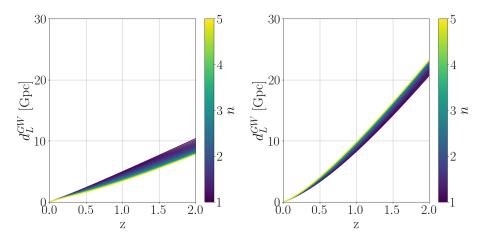


Figure 3.1:  $d_L^{GW}$  as function of z with color-bar on varying  $H_0$ ,  $\Omega_{0,m}$ ,  $w_0$ ,  $w_a$ . Upper left corner: Variation of luminosity distance from matter's critical density showing mild effects on it. Upper right corner: Variation with cosmic expansion revealing huge effects on luminosity distance Lower side: Minor influence of  $w_0$  and  $w_a$  parameters over luminosity distance



(a)  $d_L^{GW}$  as function of z with color-bar varying on  $\Xi_0$ . This parameter has huge effects on luminosity distance, showing also showing also a change in the derivative of the function revealed by change of concavity passing from  $\Xi_0 < 1$  to  $\Xi_0 > 1$ 



(b)  $d_L^{GW}$  as function of z with varying n to highlight the effect of convexity change. Left: Luminosity distance calculated fixing  $\Xi_0 = 0.5$  showing lower increase rate of  $d_L^{GW}$  function. Right: Luminosity distance fixing  $\Xi_0 = 1.5$  resulting in higher increase rate of the  $d_L^{GW}$  function.

supporting what said in Eqs.3.2 and 3.3. The chosen  $d_L^{GW}$  are typical values of luminosity distance for GW events and from the results, it emerges that the parameters with the larger impact are  $H_0$  and  $\Xi_0$ . Firstly, a generic trend is found when the parameters pairs are fixed, in fact the redshift grid is dilated for higher values of luminosity distance since z is directly proportional to  $d_L^{GW}$ , as expected from Eq.3.1, when the cosmological parameters are fixed. Secondly at fixed luminosity distance the redshift extension is determined by the cosmological parameters in a way that the maximum redshift value is achieved with maximum  $H_0$  and minimum  $\Xi_0$ , while the minimum redshift corresponds to the minimum  $H_0$  and maximum  $\Xi_0$  proving the relations 3.2 and 3.3. Nevertheless, one must interpret these results with caution, as the impact of  $\Omega_{0,m}$  amplifies at greater distances, but since the events in the catalogs are not significantly far away, this effect has not been explored. This feature might be interesting to analyze in future analyses to investigate its effect on events at greater distances. Moreover, because of the predominant influence of  $H_0$  and  $\Xi_0$ , this analysis supports the decision to work fixing  $\Omega_{0,m} = 0.25$ ,  $w_0 = -1$  and  $w_a = 0$  since they have a subdominant effect; for this reason, they will not be considered anymore in the following analysis.

## 3.1.2 Effects of modified GW propagation on the likelihood

In Section 3.1, the quantities on which likelihood is built upon are processed and defined with a deeper focus on the  $\mathcal{K}_{GW}$  representing the  $p_{GW}$  marginalized over the masspopulation distribution integrated over the pre-computed  $z_{grid}$ . Moreover in Section 3.1.1 the predominant parameters modifying the integration grid are discussed. In the context of these modification, this section will focus on the effect that these predominant parameters have on the  $p_{GW}$  illustrating Figs. 3.5 and 3.6 as an example. Fig. 3.5, collects the different  $p_{GW}$  as function of redshift with respect to the cosmological parameters. The left figure focuses on the effect of  $H_0$  alone, while the right figure on the effects  $\Xi_0$ . This last one shows how  $\Xi_0$  strongly influences the integration grid by extending redshift to a  $z_{max} \sim 6$  compared to the  $z \sim 0.8$  of the left figure. In Fig 3.6 instead, the importance of re-weighting is depicted for the two cases, with and without considering the effects of  $\Xi_0$  as in Fig.3.5. The pictures are generated by choosing the same event, to validate that the integration of the  $p_{GW}$  is performed in the same redshift ranges. Focusing on the right-side, the green histogram represents the  $p_{GW}$  as function of redshift before weighting on the population parameters and shift to the source frame. It is possible to see that if these features are not considered, the localization would happen at around  $z \sim 3$ . If instead they are considered, the shape and position of the  $p_{GW}$  are

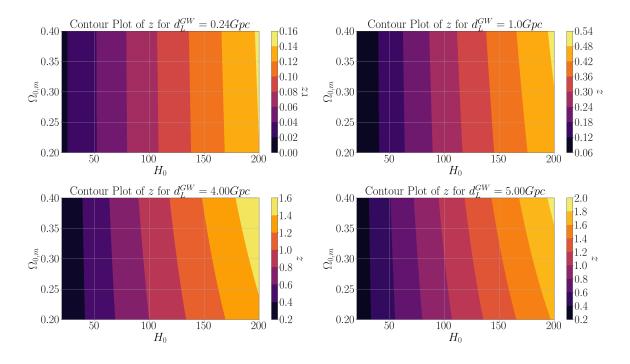


Figure 3.3: Three dimensional space depicting, the redshift obtained for different combination of  $\Omega_{0,m}$  and  $H_0$ , all the quadrants are at different fixed luminosity distances. These show that redshift is mainly affected by  $H_0$ , which means that at fixed  $d_L^{GW}$  the redshift extension changes proportionally to  $H_0$ . Recovering the maximum redshift for high values of  $H_0$ , the opposite for low values of  $H_0$ . However, with an overall small dependency on  $\Omega_{0,m}$  which is amplified at higher redshifts

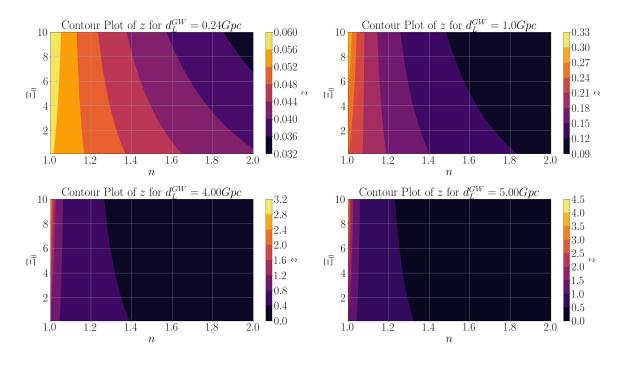


Figure 3.4: Three dimensional space depicting, the redshift obtained for different combination of  $\Xi_0$  and n, at different fixed  $d_L^{GW}$ . These show that the major driving modifications of  $z_{grid}$  are from  $\Xi_0$ . To better visualize the results a zoom for n in range [1,2] was taken. The redshift extends for lower  $\Xi_0$  values. While the minimum z is revealed for greater  $\Xi_0$ .

changed as depicted in blue, showing a z localization 0.5. Finally, in red is presented a smoothed version of the histogram which is the effective  $\mathcal{K}_{GW}$  used by CHIMERA to compute the final likelihood.

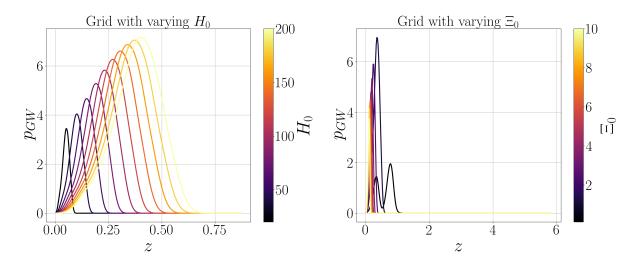
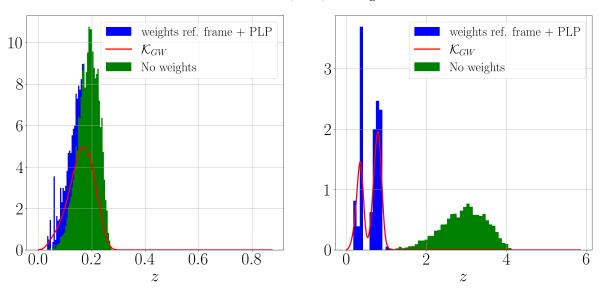


Figure 3.5: Different  $p_{GW}$  as function of redshift for different parameters  $H_0$  and  $\Xi_0$  revealed through a color-map. Left: Revealing the effects of  $H_0$  fixing all the other parameters, its major influence is a shift at bigger redshifts on the  $p_{GW}$  with an additional increase of its normalization. Right: Showing the effects of  $\Xi_0$  explicitly extending the redshift range with an enlarging that is stronger than  $H_0$  effect, of pushing the posterior towards lower values of redshift.

As seen by the previous figures, the  $p_{GW}$  is strongly influenced by the cosmological parameters. To broadly visualize this, Figure 3.7 is generated by fixing all the astrophysical parameters as in Tab. 3.1 and considering a variation of  $\lambda_c$  in the ranges given by Tab.3.2. These are all the probabilities of the GW events, fixing two parameters and leaving either  $H_0$  or  $\Xi_0$  free with its influence shown with a color-bar, finally highlighting in green the  $p_{GW}$  for  $H_0 = 70$ . The first two rows show the effect of varying  $H_0$  fixing different combinations of  $\Xi_0$  and n, the interesting result is that for low values of both fixed quantities, the  $p_{GW}$  moves toward higher z because of the direct proportionality between  $H_0$  and z (see Eq.3.1). Although as the fixed  $\Xi_0$  increases the effect is dumped, forcing the  $p_{GW}$  toward the left. In the other two rows, the effect of varying  $\Xi_0$  are investigated at fixed  $H_0$  and n. The results are the opposite as varying  $H_0$ , stating that because of a negative correlation with redshift, high  $\Xi_0$  results in a  $p_{GW}$  placed at lower redshift values. Moreover features like broadening and bi-modality appear as  $H_0$  increases, but



Sampling of the Kernel Function  $(\mathcal{K}_{GW})$  from  $d_L^{GW}$  on the redshift grid

Figure 3.6: Histograms showing how the computation of the  $\mathcal{K}_{GW}$  happens and the clear importance of weights. In green is the depicted the  $p_{GW}$  for the same event in both pictures before the aforementioned weighting on the population parameters and shift to source frame. In blue what happens afterwards those considerations. In red the final  $\mathcal{K}_{GW}$  used for likelihood computation. This shows that the localization of the GW event is wrongly placed at higher redshifts if the re-weight is not considered. Left: The distributions without considering  $\Xi_0$ 's effects are visualized, revealing the magnitude of influence on the redshift grid by only considering  $H_0$ . Right: The distribution also considers  $\Xi_0$  effects. Clearly stating a predominant influence from  $\Xi_0$  extending the redshift grid up to  $z_{max} \sim 6$ 

this effect is again dumped by a large value of  $\Xi_0$ . Finally it is clear that the effect of n on shifting the posterior result very mild as previously said in Section 3.1.1 even at the highest allowed value of n = 5. Consequently to this analysis, n will be fixed to a single value consistent with the prior range, since it does not have notable effects in the posterior computation.

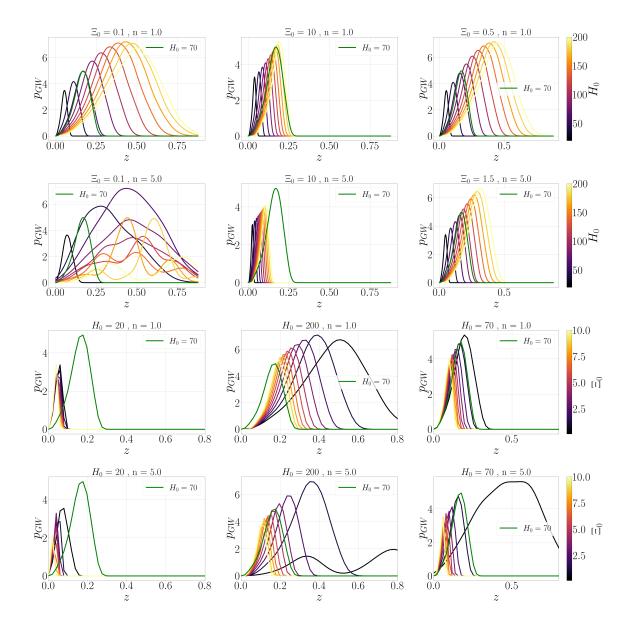


Figure 3.7: The figure represents the  $p_{GW}$  as function of z with either  $H_0$  or  $\Xi_0$  free and consequent fixed combination of parameters. First two rows: Effect of changing  $H_0$ fixing different combinations of  $\Xi_0$  and n. Revealing the positive correlation between  $H_0$  with z, pushing  $p_{GW}$  to higher values of the z range. Second two rows: Effect of variations on  $\Xi_0$  fixing  $H_0$  and n revealing instead the negative correspondence between  $\Xi_0$  and z with consequent shift of the  $p_{GW}$  to lower values.

## **3.2** Mock catalogs generation

The previous sections have described all the effects of the cosmological parameters on the localization of a GW to allow the correct computation of likelihood from the CHIMERA code. The likelihood computation is the core quantity for parameter inference which is nowadays done jointly with cosmological and astrophysical parameters for improved statistical accuracy. This feature, also implemented in CHIMERA, has been reached only recently for a better statistical representation of the results. Although this is better performed with higher accuracy with a larger number of events and stronger Signal-to-Noise ratio (SNR). For these reasons the constraints on parameters like  $\Xi_0$  have been obtained with very large error-bars with relative error of the order of  $\sim 20\%$  of the constraint value (Mancarella, Finke, et al. 2022). Current and future GW analysis fortunately have increased the sensitivity of the LIGO-Virgo-KAGRA detector network from which are expected a large number of events at higher SNR, this will be able to improve the constraints on  $\Xi_0$ . For these reason it is interesting to forecast the detectability of modified GW propagation parameters using a future O5 observing run sensitivity. In order to do that mock GW observations are needed to describe said constraints. The generation of a mock GW event needs a specific workflow based on the following features:

- A mock parent galaxy catalog containing raw information about galaxies like skyposition referred to (RA, Dec), associated redshift, masses, Star Formation Rate (SFR) and other main quantities related to millions of galaxies.
- An associated GW event catalog encompassing a series of GW events at a high SNR value, for accurate localization. Each event related to a posterior which contains the probability of detecting GWs in a localization volume (RA, Dec, z).
- A code like CHIMERA for cross-correlating the galaxy catalog and the GW catalog.

This following section so, explores in details these features, additionally describing the workflow needed to generate and simulate these catalogs. The whole generation starts from a mock parent galaxy catalog associated to the GW events. This galaxy catalog initially contains millions of galaxies spanning a wide range of galaxy properties which is usually sub-sampled to contain a final catalog with plausible hosts of GW events. This is done through a mass cut  $(M_{gal} > 10^{10} M_{\odot})$  and reshaped through re-weighting with a modeled merging rate of compact binaries so that the distribution of galaxies is transformed to one presenting possible GW emitters. The reason of this cut comes from the idea that more BBHs are expected in more massive galaxies as done by Borghi et al.

2024. This catalog obviously does not have yet the GW properties, so after selecting hosts, it is important to associate these to parameters related to gravitational waves, extracted from an assumed fiducial population distribution. From this, detections can now be simulated. They are generated with GWFAST (Iacovelli et al. 2022a), a code that uses event-like parameters and additional information on theoretical GW wave-forms to derive GW detections. This particular code simulates them through the computation of the Fisher Information Matrix (FIM). After this step the final mock GW catalog is generated, resulting in distributions called  $p_{GW}$  that will be cross-correlated to the parent galaxy catalog by CHIMERA to finally calculate the likelihood and perform joint inference for both cosmological and astrophysical parameters, deducting their constraints. In the following two sub-sections the parent and the GW events catalogs' properties will be described with a more extensive focus on explaining in depth how they can be generated and then employed for statistical analysis with CHIMERA.

## 3.2.1 The parent galaxy catalog

The parent catalog used for this work is based on the MICE Grand Challenge-light-cone galaxy simulation, covering one octant of the full sky and including galaxies with observed magnitudes in i-band i < 24 up to redshift z < 1.4. MICE has been generated assuming a  $\Lambda$ CDM cosmology with  $H_0 = 70 \ km/s/Mpc$ ,  $\Omega_{m,0} = 0.25$ , and  $\Omega_{\Lambda,0} = 0.75$ . The MICE galaxy catalog is then subsampled as explained above, to match the number density of galaxies with masses  $M_{gal} > 10^{10.5} M_{\odot}$ . This cut, also assumed in previous standard sirens studies (e.g., B. P. Abbott 2023; Borghi et al. 2024; M. Fishbach et al. 2019; S. Mastrogiovanni et al. 2021), is based on the idea that the compact binary merger rate is traced by stellar mass, i.e. more massive galaxies have higher probability of forming these systems, as also shown in synthetic population studies (e.g., Artale et al. 2020). With these prescriptions, the parent sample includes 1.6 millions massive galaxies.

Each galaxy is assigned a corresponding redshift uncertainty  $\sigma_z$ , to represent two typical regimes of current and future galaxy surveys: the photometric uncertainty obtained through future small areas surveys (e.g., Euclid Desprez et al. 2020, Schirmer et al. 2022) which can go to a depth of magnitude in H-band of 24, with an expected uncertainty of  $\sigma_z/(1+z) \leq 0.05$  and spectroscopic uncertainty (e.g., Dark Energy Spectroscopic Instrument DESI Collaboration et al. 2016) planning to observe ~ 14000deg<sup>2</sup> in a redshift range [0.4; 2.1]. So the two errors regimes that will be considered are:

$$\sigma_z = \begin{cases} 0.001(1+z) & \text{referred to as } "z_{\text{spec}}" \\ 0.05(1+z) & \text{referred to as } "z_{\text{phot}}" \end{cases}$$
(3.4)

## 3.2.2 The GW catalog

The GW events catalog is derived from the parent galaxy catalog under the assumption of GW population models with hyper-parameters  $\lambda_c, \lambda_m, \lambda_z$ 

Because  $\Omega_{0,m}$  does not have strong effects on luminosity distance it will be fixed to the fiducial value used for generating the parent galaxy catalog so  $\Omega_{0,m} = 0.25$ . The source frame merger rate is parametrized (Madau and Dickinson 2014) by :

$$\psi(z;\lambda_z) = \frac{(1+z)^{\gamma}}{\left(1+\frac{1+z}{1+z_p}\right)^{\gamma+\kappa}}$$
(3.5)

assuming the following set of fiducial values:  $\gamma = 2.7$ ,  $\kappa = 2$  and  $z_p = 3$ , consistent with galaxy's star formation rate density parameters (R. Abbott et al. 2023). This rate will be used to re-weight the distributions of the parent catalog multiplying it with the detector-frame merger rate which is  $\psi(z; \lambda_z)(1 + z)$ . This is fundamental to create a realistic GW detections catalog, since if it was not multiplied by that 1 + z term it would result in biased detections.

The mass distribution is another important factor, used to describe the population probability  $p_{pop}$  (see Eq.2.56), for the terms that captures information about the mass distribution of compact objects:  $p(m_1, m_2 \mid \lambda_m)$ . Since this work is focused on analysis with dark sirens the best model for this distribution is the one found for BBHs. Initially it was thought to be a simple power law but recently this distribution was parametrized (B. P. Abbott 2023) as a Power Law + Gaussian Peak (PLP). This parametrization represents an extension of a truncated mass function, incorporating a Gaussian peak feature to account for the observed clustering of binary black hole (BBH) events with primary mass  $m_1$  around  $\approx 35M_{\odot}$ . This accumulation of events may arise due to the mass gap associated with pair-instability supernovae, which is expected to occur at slightly higher masses, just beyond this peak (Talbot and Thrane 2018).

The distribution of  $m_1$  takes the form of :

$$p(m_1 \mid \lambda_p, \alpha, \delta_m, m_{low}, m_{high}, \mu_g, \sigma_g) = \left[ (1 - \lambda_p) P(m_1 \mid -\alpha, m_{high}) + \lambda_p G(m_1 \mid \mu_g, \sigma_g) \right] S(m_1 \mid m_{low}, \delta_m)$$

$$(3.6)$$

where P is a normalized truncated power-law distribution G is a Gaussian distribution with mean  $\mu_g$  and standard deviation  $\sigma_g$ , and S is the smoothing function  $S(m \mid m_{low}, \delta_m)$ , which is a function that smoothly tapers to zero when m approaches  $m_{low}$  or  $m_{high}$  over a scale defined by  $\delta_m$  (B. P. Abbott 2017b). While the distribution for the secondary mass  $m_2$  is:

$$p(m_2 \mid \beta, m_{low}, m_1) \propto \begin{cases} m_2^\beta S(m_2 \mid m_{low}, \delta_m) & \text{if } m_{low} < m_2 < m_1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
(3.7)

The fiducial values for the hyperparameters  $\lambda_m$  for the Power Law + Peak (PLP) model are shown in table 3.1 as well as the fiducial for  $\lambda_c$  and  $\lambda_z$ . In Fig.3.8 are presented both example of mass distribution and rate that will be used in the GW event catalog generation.

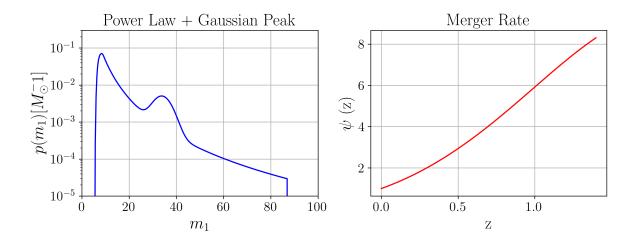


Figure 3.8: Left: Modeled PLP distribution of mass in range [0, 100], Right: Merger rate as function of redshift in range [0, 1.4]

## 3.2.3 Simulating GW detections

This subsection aims to present an overall description of how to simulate detections for the final GW event catalog. The catalog described before in the previous section is not enough to describe accurately a mock GW catalog, because it lacks of simulated GW detections. The whole point is to simulate how and if these events can be observed by a network of detectors. An interferometer detects a signal called h, which was already introduced in Chapter 2, called strain, representing a signal over frequency. It is depicted as a waveform from which astrophysicists can obtain information on a lot of parameters (like  $m_1, m_2$ , RA, Dec,  $\iota, \chi_1, \chi_2$ ), representing how and where this event happened. For a mock catalog this part is what is related to the simulation of detections, which accounts for errors on measurements deriving from the sensitivities of detectors. To have realistic data, the code needs to simulate errors from detectors, which are going to propagate over all the hyper-parameters. It needs combining initial event-like parameter's distribution, galaxies information and a simulated strain from a general mock wave-form, to obtain the errors on the detections parameters. These are represented as  $\theta_{det} \pm \Delta \theta_{det}$  and are parameter with related uncertainty. The waveform of the events generated from CBSs systems are characterized by these detector-frame parameters:

$$\theta_{\text{det}} = \{ \mathcal{M}_c, \eta, \chi_{1,z}, \chi_{2,z}, d_L, \theta, \varphi, \iota, \psi, t_c, \Phi_c \},$$
(3.8)

where  $\mathcal{M}_c$  is the detector-frame chirp mass,  $\eta$  is the symmetric mass ratio,  $\chi_{1,z}$  and  $\chi_{2,z}$  are the dimensionless spin parameters along the direction of the orbital angular momentum,  $d_L$  is the luminosity distance,  $\theta = \pi/2$ -Dec and  $\varphi = \text{RA}$  are the sky position angles,  $\iota$  refers to the inclination angle of the binary's orbital angular momentum with respect to the line of sight,  $\psi$  is the polarization angle,  $t_c$  is the coalescence time, and  $\Phi_c$  is the phase at coalescence. Now, assuming the initial population distribution and rates described in Section 3.2.2, for quasi circular non precessing BBH systems, the distribution of the detector-frame parameters are generated using the pipeline GWFAST (Iacovelli et al. 2022a, Iacovelli et al. 2022b). This pipeline generates the FIM that defines the correlations among all these detector-frame parameters. For each event the distributions with the same covariance of the FIM are drawn by sampling the parameters space with a Monte Carlo Markov Chain (MCMC) with 5000 samples. This can be performed by GWFAST taking in input a series of specific settings:

- The subsampled galaxies file: MICEv2.
- A wave-form model: IMRPhenomHM.
- A Signal-over-Noise treshold: 20.
- Range of frequency:  $[10; \infty]$ Hz.

The choices of a waveform and the SNR threshold are crucial to generate a realistic mock catalog computing correct detectability of the GW. Considering a theoretical wave-form coming from BBHs merger, in this case the IMRPhenomHM, gravitational wave signals are generated in the given frequency domain for merging BBHs including the inspiral, merger and ringdown parts for the dominant mode of the signal (Husa et al. 2016, Khan et al. 2016). This is employed to derive the errors in a simulated detected signal through the sensitivity of the LVK detectors. The final strain is then computed, by integrating the GW signal in the ranges given by the input frequencies and correlating it with the responses of the detectors.

As detectors, for this thesis work, the O5 run is considered with a future LVK configuration. The network includes the following detectors with their maximum recoverable distance ranges for BBHs (30  $M_{\odot}$  + 30  $M_{\odot}$ ) and burst ranges assuming an emitted energy GW at 140*Hz* from  $E_{\rm GW} = 10^2 M c^2$  (B. P. Abbott et al. 2020). The network considered is:

- aLIGO: Advanced Ligo including an instrument in India that will join in 2025 corrisponding to a distance of 2500 Mpc with burst range to 210 Mpc
- adV: Advanced Virgo corresponding to distance in range between 1300-2500 Mpc with burst up to 100-155 Mpc
- Kagra: corresponding to a distance range of 1200 Mpc and more, and with burst range of 95 Mpc and more

Accounting for their sensitivities and considering their noise budget (in Fig.3.9) assuming a 100% duty cycle.

Among all the detections only a sub-sample of these will be considered: 100 events with SNR> 25, to select the 100 best events for each configuration with 1 year of observation. The reason for this choice resides in the fact that the GW posterior probabilities are approximated with the FIM approximation so that they are assumed as multi-variate Gaussian distributions and this is valid only for high SNR events (Iacovelli et al. 2022a). This will allow to simulate the GW detections associating to each detection a set of distributions with  $\theta_{det}$  and relative errors used then to calculate the likelihood. Additionally for a complete GWs catalog generation it is important to pre-compute the so called injections, they are sets of GW detections for O5-like events which are also generated using GWFAST, applying the same selection criteria described above. These injections are employed to calculate the selection bias in a pre-defined range of redshift which can also be represented as the maximum localization volumes that the detectors can achieve extending up to the detector horizon given the SNR thresholds. This means

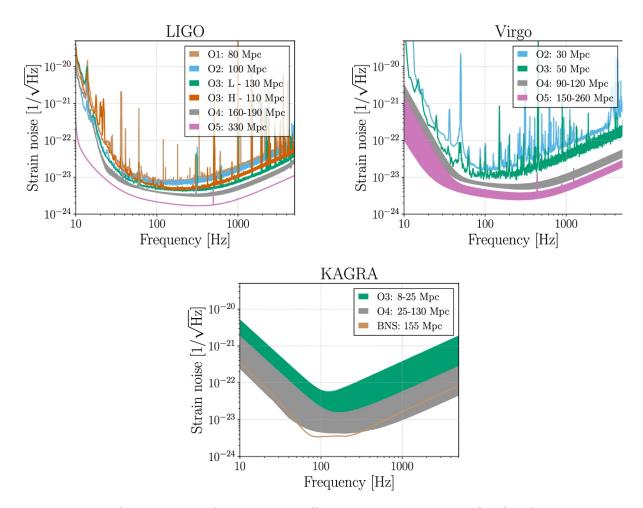


Figure 3.9: Strain noise for all the different observing runs O1-O5 for the three LVK detectors. The image was taken from B. P. Abbott et al. 2020 link: https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s41114-020-00026-9/figures/1

that the selection bias is pre-computed in a specific range of redshift containing also the 100 events employed in the analysis, otherwise the bias will be wrongly computed giving biased results. The injection set consists of  $N_{\rm inj} = 4 \times 10^7$  events, resulting in approximately in  $10^6$  detected events, used to estimate the selection bias.

## 3.3 Properties of the catalogs

After describing how the event catalog can be generated and how the feature of the parent galaxy catalogs is employed to be be cross-correlated by CHIMERA, this section aims to

	$H_0$	$\Xi_0$	n	$\lambda_p$	$\alpha$	β	$\delta_m$	$m_{\rm low}$	$m_{\rm high}$	$\mu_g$	$\sigma_g$	$\gamma$	$\kappa$	$z_p$
GR	70.0	1.0	0.0	0.039	3.4	1.1	4.8	5.1	87.0	34.0	3.6	2.7	3.0	2.0
MG <sub>1</sub>	70.0	1.8	1.91	0.039	3.4	1.1	4.8	5.1	87.0	34.0	3.6	2.7	3.0	2.0
$MG_2$	70.0	0.6	1.91	0.039	3.4	1.1	4.8	5.1	87.0	34.0	3.6	2.7	3.0	2.0

Table 3.1: List of initialized parameters for the catalogs building

describe the main mock event catalogs analyzed in this work with an overview over its properties and use. The motivation for generating new catalogs comes from the necessity of exploring the constraining power of O5 future runs in deviating models from GR. The work done by Mancarella, Finke, et al. 2022 shows promising results in the possibility of constraining deviations from MG theories. Additionally, Leyde et al. 2022, forecasting the O5 configuration constraining power for modified GW propagation with spectral sirens, highlights the fact that the constraining errors on all the hyper-parameters will be influenced by the cosmological model itself, which means from the initialized values of  $\Xi_0$  and n with which the GW detections are generated. Therefore, considering these works we generate two new catalogs in a modified GW propagation scenarios with specific combinations of  $\Xi_0$  and n in order to derive the O5 configuration constraining power, in particular MG frameworks, which will be done for the first time, using a combined galaxy catalog and spectral siren method. The choices for the parameters are taken accordingly to the priors ranges presented in Tab. 3.2 and chosen from the observational constrain with dark sirens found of  $\Xi_0 = 1.2^{+0.7}_{-0.7}$  (Mancarella, Finke, et al. 2022).  $\Xi_0$  is initialized to the limit values of the constrain, while n resulting statistically unconstrained was fixed to n = 1.91 which is the values that Leyde et al. 2022 uses.

For this work the following catalogs will be considered:

- GR: ACDM catalog with  $\Xi_0 = 1$  and n = 0 borrowed from the work of Borghi et al. 2024 generated for basic analysis to reveal the constraints for O5 runs in a GR scenario.
- MG<sub>1.8</sub>: Modified GW propagation catalog initialized with  $\Xi_0 = 1.8$  and n = 1.91 generated for this work to understand the constraints for O5 runs from modified GW propagation scenario with  $\Xi_0 > 1$  to be compared with the results of Mancarella, Finke, et al. 2022 and Leyde et al. 2022.
- $MG_{0.6}$ : Modified GW propagation catalog initialized with  $\Xi_0 = 0.6$  and n = 1.91 generated for this work to reveal for the first time the constraints for O5 runs from

modified GW propagation scenario with  $\Xi_0 < 1$ .

Before using these catalogs for any analysis they needed to undergo a small process of revision. Since GWFAST generates simulated distributions for parameters which might contain outliers or problematic distributions these catalogs go through a series of conditions checks:

- Presence of un-physical events  $(d_L^{GW} > 0)$
- Presence of too low number of sampling for the events  $(N_{samples} \ge 5000)$

The total number of detectable source were, in the GR case  $\approx$  7000, while  $\approx$  3000 in both the MG cases. This was all selected in the same range of redshift for all the catalogs as shown in Fig.3.10 to perform correctly the analyses and not overestimate the selection bias. The number of detections though was not as expected. Because of deviations from GR, the signal that arrives from fixed redshift results at a higher or lower distance, respectively to the  $MG_{1.8}$  and  $MG_{0.6}$  catalogs, meaning that in the first case they will be less detectable than GR scenario, while in the second case they would be more detectable. Looking at the luminosity distance distributions in Fig.3.10 the change of  $\Xi_0$  generates a variation of the ranges of  $d_L^{GW}$  because of its cosmology dependency easily deducted from the Eq.2.50. If  $\Xi_0 > 1$  the luminosity distance for that scenario would be higher, meaning that, for the same redshift range the detectability would be lower showing less detections. The opposite for  $\Xi_0 < 1$ . This was also expected and recognized in Leyde et al. 2022. This happened for  $MG_{1.8}$  but not for  $MG_{0.6}$ . One reason for this might be that the computational time was different from the GR case. Although, this result must be explored in the future with an extensive simulation of GW detections in modified GW propagation so that the expected results can be matched from what is simulated. Fortunately, this will not affect our analyses because the number of considered events will be much lower than the total number of detections. To support this, the detections' SNR are also shown in Fig.3.10. It is possible to observe that the majority of the events are with SNRs much lower than 25, but since the high-SNR approximation is needed, the final event catalog will encompass only 100 detections with SNR > 25. Moreover, it is important to note that the final GW catalogs will contain every event-like parameter initial distribution samples which are related to the modeled population distributions, for this reason all the samples will be the same for all three catalogs except luminosity distance, which depends on cosmology. For simplicity, only the redshift one has been depicted here in Fig.3.10. The reason why redshift is fixed, comes from two necessities; firstly in order to allow the high-SNR approximation to hold and secondly because the same injections are used for all three catalogs, and if the redshift changed then we would expect biased results.

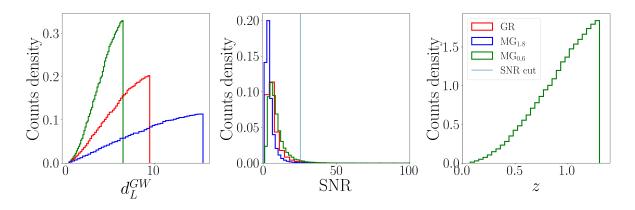


Figure 3.10: Sampled distribution of multiple GW observables for all the considered catalogs. Left: Distribution of luminosity distance which is influenced by the chosen  $\lambda_c$ . Center: SNR distribution of all the events with a vertical line representing the limit at which the GW catalog is subsampled (SNR > 25). Right: Redshift distribution fixed for every catalog. The counts were normalized over the total number of data points and the width of each bin.

In Fig 3.11 are presented the localization and  $d_L^{GW}$  uncertainties for the new catalogs, on a redshift color-map, and the highlighted sub-sampled 100 events that will be used in the statistical analysis with CHIMERA. Fig.3.12 instead is similar but with a different colormap on SNR. These two figure combined show the effects of modified GW propagation on the detection of GWs. Comparing left and right, higher  $\Xi_0$  reveals lower reachable redshift so lower  $d_L^{GW}$ , which means that these sources are the ones that most likely are going to be detected. While lower  $\Xi_0$  shows the opposite. Through this section, the analysis of the catalogs' properties has been explored to support the choices for the modified GW propagation values with which the catalog has been generated. After defining all the generation processes and revealing features of the GW catalog, in the next chapter, their statistical analyses will be described, to reveal how these deviations of GR will have huge consequences on the constraints of the parameters. Table 3.2: Priors and definition of all the parameters used in the analysis,  $\mathcal{U}$  represent a label for a uniform prior, which means that the prior is considered uniform, so it is the same value of probability, for the entirety of the range. These priors are considered constant in redshift.

Parameter	Definition	Prior
$H_0$	Hubble constant	$\mathcal{U}(20.0, 200.0)$
Ξ0	Modified gravity parameter controlling high-z limit of distance ratio in Eq. (2.7)	$\mathcal{U}(0.10, 10.0)$
n	Modified gravity parameter controlling steepness of distance ratio in Eq. $(2.7)$	U(1.00, 5.00)
$\lambda_p$	Fraction of the model in the Gaussian component	$\mathcal{U}(0.01, 0.99)$
α	The power of the power law component in the primary mass distribution	$\mathcal{U}(1.50, 12.0)$
β	The power of the power law component in the mass ratio distribution	$\mathcal{U}(-4.0, 12.0)$
$\delta m$	Range of mass tapering at the lower end of the mass distribution	$\mathcal{U}(0.01, 10.0)$
$m_{\rm low}  [{\rm M}_\odot]$	The minimum mass of the mass distribution	$\mathcal{U}(0.01, 50.0)$
$m_{\rm high}  [{ m M}_{\odot}]$	The maximum mass of the mass distribution	$\mathcal{U}(50.0, 200.0)$
$\mu_g$	Mean of the Gaussian component in the primary mass distribution	$\mathcal{U}(2.00, 50.0)$
$\sigma_g$	Width of the Gaussian component in the primary mass distribution	$\mathcal{U}(0.40, 10.0)$
$\gamma$	The power of the power law distribution of the rate evolution before redshift $z_p$	$\mathcal{U}(0.00, 12.0)$
κ	The power of the power law distribution of the rate evolution after redshift $z_p$	$\mathcal{U}(0.0, 6.0)$
$\zeta_p$	The redshift turning point between two power law distributions	U(0.0, 4.0)

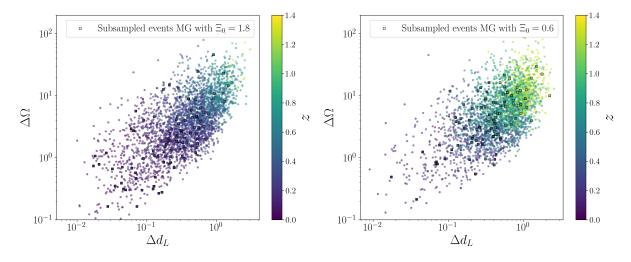


Figure 3.11: Figure showing the errors on localization and luminosity distance for the two new catalogs catalogs, on a redshift color-map, highlighting the 100 events chosen from the total number of detected source. Left: The MG scenario with  $\Xi_0 = 1.8$  showing that the majority of detected events' redshifts are lower than 1, supporting the results for which these detections will have a lower value of  $d_L^{GW}$ . Right: MG scenario with  $\Xi_0 = 0.6$  the majority of the events has a redshift around 1 and more, saying that the  $d_L^{GW}$  result higher

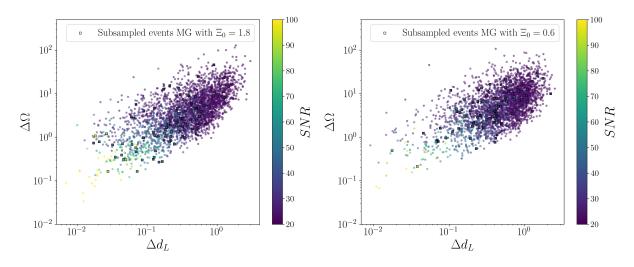


Figure 3.12: Figures showing the errors on localization and luminosity distance for the two catalogs, on an SNR color-map, Left: MG scenario with  $\Xi_0 = 1.8$ . Right: MG scenario with  $\Xi_0 = 0.6$ 

## Chapter 4

# Forecasts on modified GW propagation constraints

This chapter presents the constraints on modified GW propagation expected from the fifth LVK observing run (O5). The analysis builds upon the catalogs generated in Chapter 3.2, each including 100 BBH events with SNR > 25 to represent about one year of observations. For the first time, these constraints are obtained through a joint cosmological and astrophysical dark siren analysis, combining information from GW detections and a catalog of potential host galaxies. This is done using CHIMERA (Borghi et al. 2024) extended with MG propagation functions (see Chapter 3.1)

The analyses are carried out in two stages. Initially, we compute one-dimensional posteriors for all hyperparameters by fixing all parameters except one. A more comprehensive analysis is then done by exploring the full likelihood in a 14-dimensional parameter space using an MCMC approach. These will be used to investigate the forecasts of determining cosmological parameters and the degeneracies among these, done to derive the constraining power of the future LVK observing runs in different scenarios with modified GW propagation.

## 4.1 Analysis in one-dimensional parameter space

This section presents preliminary results in one-dimensional parameter space, i.e. for individual hyper-parameters fixing the remaining ones to their fiducial values. This provides a first assessment of O5 capabilities, as well as a first benchmark to identify potential biases in both catalog generation and likelihood implementation. This is generally carried out by cross-correlating gravitational wave data with galaxy catalogs, which can include spectroscopic or photometric information on redshift uncertainty, or alternatively the spectral siren method can be used. As explained in Section 3.2, the setup for these three cases is diversified by the uncertainty on the redshift, which means that a galaxy is localized differently so that the resulting probability of hosting one specific event will be influenced by the redshift's uncertainty. The errors are: spectroscopic  $\sigma_{spec} = 0.001$ , photometric  $\sigma_{phot} = 0.05$ . This will affect the analysis seen in the next sections, carrying out the first parameter constraint with a GW catalog that considers modified GR scenarios and then modified GW propagation scenarios.

#### Cosmological parameters in GR

We start by considering one-dimensional posteriors of the MG parameter  $\Xi_0$  and the Hubble constant  $H_0$ . The analysis is carried out by adopting the modified GW model functions presented in Section 2.4 and the GW catalog with GR propagation. To be more sensitive to potential biases, the GW data is cross-correlated with the spectroscopic galaxy catalog (see Section 3.3). The upper panels of Figure 4.1 show the results for  $H_0$  and  $\Xi_0$  when assuming the fiducial cosmological model used to generate the catalog. The upper-left figure shows the posterior for  $H_0$ , with  $\Xi_0 = 1$  fixed at its fiducial values in GR, when this happens, no bias on  $H_0$  is observed since the posterior peaks at its fiducial value, standing as validation of correctly implementing Eq.2.49 inside module MG\_FLRW allowing to recover the true  $H_0$  when  $\Xi_0 = 1$ . The uncertainty found fixing the rest of the parameters is  $\sim 1\%$  this is comparable with the uncertainty found by Borghi et al. 2024 carefully noting that they found this constraint with an MCMC approach. In parallel, the upper-right figure shows the posterior for  $\Xi_0$  at fixed  $H_0 = 70$ , both with the rest of the parameters set to their fiducial values (as seen in 3.1). The same happens for  $\Xi_0$ , by fixing the rest of the parameters to the fiducials, the final posterior centers the fiducial value belonging to GR. The value found for  $\Xi_0$  in this one-dimensional posterior approach is  $0.98^{+0.12}_{-0.8}$  with a relative error of ~ 10%. This is obtained in the best case scenario, assuming correct knowledge on the other parameters related to the GW population with 1 year of O5 observations for 100 GW events with SNR > 25. It is interesting so to compare these findings with the ones of an MCMC approach which are more statistically accurate. These could be later compared to the results found by Leyde et al. 2022, they used the spectral sirens approach simulating detections in an O5 scenario detecting 400 simulated events for an SNR cut > 11.

Figure 4.1 (lower panels) shows instead the  $H_0$  posteriors when fixing  $\Xi_0$  incorrectly

at 0.5 (lower left) and 1.5 (upper left). The choices for the different values of  $\Xi_0$  here were completely arbitrary and do not rely on any prior assumptions. In this case, the wrong assumption on  $\Xi_0$  are considered, showing a bias on the retrieved  $H_0$  of ~ 9% for both. This is the first proof of what is revealed in Section 3.1, showing a positive correlation between  $H_0$  and  $\Xi_0$ . In fact from Eq.2.49, fixing redshift,  $\Xi_0 > 1$  means that the GW's luminosity distance results less than the electromagnetic one 2.48, forcing the cosmological model to compensate for this discrepancy with an increase in  $H_0$ . The opposite happens for  $\Xi_0 < 1$ .

#### Full population parameters in GR

This subsection aims to verify the impact of wrongly assuming a modified GW model on every parameter considering both astrophysical and cosmological parameter not discussed in the previous subsection. Figure 4.2 presents the GR catalog results for all the population parameters considered in this work (for their definition see table 3.1).

It has been produced setting the same catalog setup and depicting a posterior by fixing  $\Xi_0$  in three different versions, the correct GR case with  $\Xi_0 = 1$  and modified GW propagation case wrongly assuming  $\Xi_0 > 1$  and  $\Xi_0 < 1$ . First of all, as expected, if  $\Xi_0 \neq 1$  it imposes a bias on the posterior, with some ulterior modification in its shape for some of them. For  $H_0$  the bias presented here is equal to Fig.4.1. However for the rest of the parameters the posterior will shift differently according to their positive or negative correlation with  $\Xi_0$ . Most of them are positively correlated except  $\alpha$  and  $m_{low}$ that suffer the opposite shift being negatively correlated to  $\Xi_0$ . Meanwhile, parameters like  $\kappa$  and  $z_p$  are still unconstrained. Parallel to the known effect resulting from the wrong cosmological model, it appears that even considering the correct value for  $\Xi_0$ using a spectroscopic redshift catalog, the astrophysical parameters' posteriors, do not center all the fiducials. The reason why, resides in the generation of the initial samples. Which are randomly chosen among all detections and so a little inaccuracy is expected. The only crucial factor is that these posteriors reside at least at  $1\sigma$  from the fiducial.

#### Cosmological parameters in modified GW propagation

The explored results in the previous section have revealed the possibility to constraint  $\Xi_0$  and  $H_0$  in a GR scenario with one-dimensional posteriors. Following the same setup: the spectroscopic galaxy catalog is cross-correlated with the GW catalogs introduced in Section 3.2.3, MG<sub>1.8</sub> and MG<sub>0.6</sub>, producing the one-dimensional posterior, for both  $\Xi_0$  and

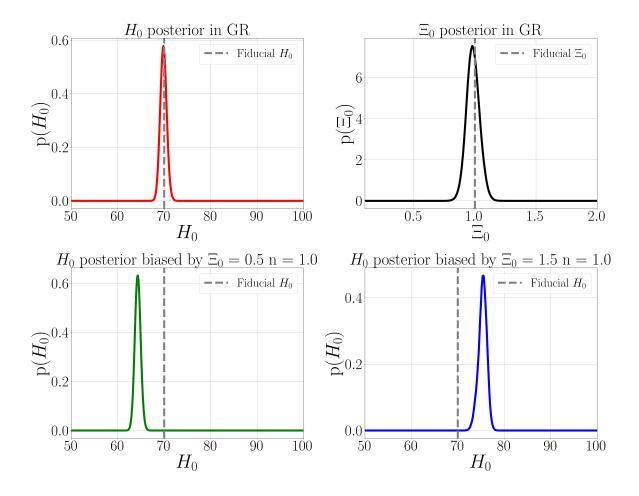


Figure 4.1: One dimensional posteriors on cosmological parameters for the GR catalog. Upper panels: Constraints on  $H_0$  and  $\Xi_0$  when assuming the correct cosmology. In this case, we recover unbiased values. Lower panels: Constraints on  $H_0$  assuming wrong values for  $\Xi_0$ . A significant bias on  $H_0$  is observed due to the positive correlation between  $H_0$  and  $\Xi_0$ .

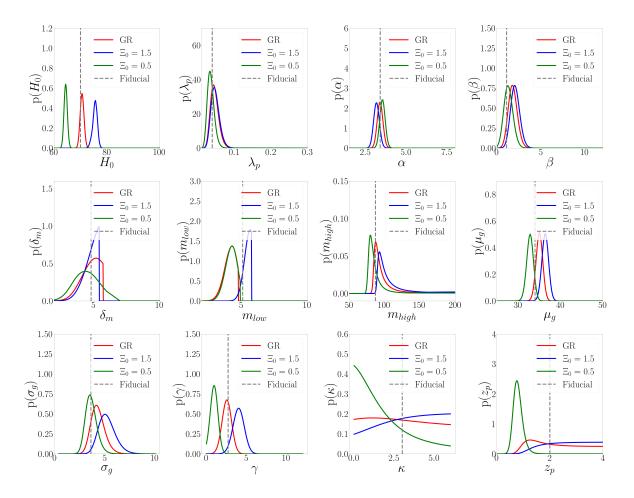


Figure 4.2: Multiple parameters posteriors obtained by considering spectroscopic error on galaxy redshifts' and calculated with three different values of  $\Xi_0$ , in red GR ( $\Xi_0 = 1$ ), while in blue and green  $\Xi_0$  is changed respectively to a 1.5 and 0.5. These two cases result in biased posteriors in all the parameters, again because of wrongly giving  $\Xi_0$ values different from the fiducials of GR case.

 $H_0$ , fixing the parameters accordingly to the respective fiducials as defined in Tab.3.1. They are employed in order to test if considering modified GW propagation scenarios the cosmological parameters can be constrained. Fig.4.3 reveals  $H_0$  and  $\Xi_0$  posteriors for the different GW catalogs, showing that these parameters can be recovered by fixing the rest of the parameters to the correct simulated model. In the top row,  $H_0$  and  $\Xi_0$  values are recovered for a modified GW propagation model MG<sub>1.8</sub> assuming correct fiducial values. This proves that also for MG<sub>1.8</sub> model the values of  $H_0$  and  $\Xi_0$  can be constraint, finding  $H_0 = 70$  with a relative error of ~ 3% while  $\Xi_0 = 1.77$  with relative error of ~ 10%. This can be compared once more with the findings of Leyde et al. 2022, who provided forecasts for O5 using the spectral siren method with an MCMC approach, reporting a relative error of approximately ~ 20%. It is important to note, however, that the methodologies differ, as our analysis generates one-dimensional posteriors and incorporates a comprehensive galaxy catalog with spectroscopic redshifts. Despite these differences, the approaches are complementary and yield comparable results.

In the bottom row, the results for the  $MG_{0.6}$  model are presented. Here,  $H_0$  and  $\Xi_0$  can also be constrained, providing new predictions for their uncertainties within this specific modified GW scenario. By fixing all other parameters to their fiducial values, we obtain  $H_0 = 70$  with an uncertainty of approximately ~ 4%, while the relative error on  $\Xi_0$  is around ~ 10%. These results indicate that the constraints on  $H_0$  are triple compared to the GR model scenario, while  $\Xi_0$  has similar uncertainties. This highly suggests performing a full MCMC analysis approach, where the currently fixed parameters are allowed to vary, to explore more  $H_0$  and  $\Xi_0$  degeneracy and respective uncertainties.

#### Full population parameters in modified GW propagation

The second part of the one-dimensional analysis involves generating one-dimensional posteriors for all parameters, considering the new GW catalogs  $MG_{1.8}$  and  $MG_{0.6}$  introduced as in Sec.3.2.3. These analyses will be conducted using three distinct methods: dark sirens with redshift measurements from two galaxy catalogs, one incorporating spectroscopic uncertainties and the other photometric uncertainties, and the spectral sirens method for scenarios with empty galaxy catalog. Until now, with the exception of the work on spectral sirens by Leyde et al. 2022, the impact of modified GW propagation has not been extensively explored, especially in scenarios involving a full galaxy catalog with both spectroscopic and photometric redshifts. For this reason, results involving modified GW propagation with galaxy catalogs in an O5 scenario are both innovative and significant to explore. In Figs. 4.4 and 4.5 the posteriors on all parameters are shown. The

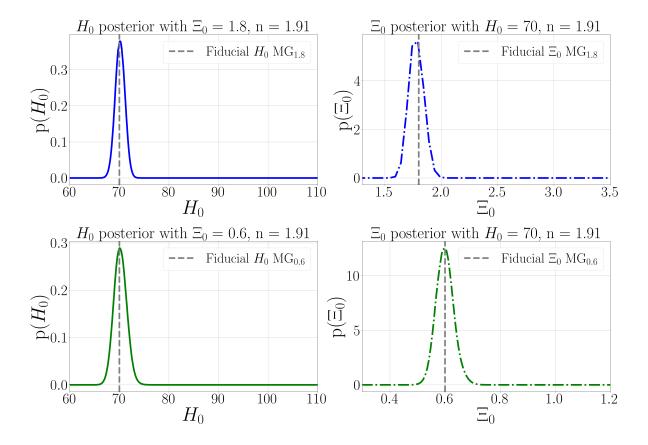


Figure 4.3: One dimensional posteriors on cosmological parameters for the  $MG_{1.8}$  and  $MG_{0.6}$  catalogs. Upper panels: Constraints on  $H_0$  and  $\Xi_0$  for the simulated  $MG_{1.8}$  model, obtained by fixing  $\Xi_0 = 1.8$  to constrain  $H_0$  and fixing  $H_0 = 70$  to retrieve  $\Xi_0$ . Lower panels: Similar constraints for the  $MG_{0.6}$  model, with  $H_0$  constrained by fixing  $\Xi_0 = 0.6$  and  $\Xi_0$  retrieved by fixing  $H_0 = 70$ . In both cases, the correct values are recovered without bias, offering a preliminary indication of the potential to constrain  $H_0$  and  $\Xi_0$  in modified GW propagation models. Final MCMC runs will further refine these results.

first figure depicts the ones for  $\Xi_0 = 1.8$  and n = 1.91, while the second for  $\Xi_0 = 0.6$  and n = 1.91. Both show that the spectroscopic case is the best one, with posteriors centered on the fiducial value (carefully noting that in this modified scenatio the fiducial for  $\Xi_0$  and n are different than GR's, as defined in Tab. 3.1). It is clear that the cosmological parameter's posteriors for the three different galaxy catalogs are centering the fiducial, with just a small deviation close to  $1\sigma$ . This shows that no bias is found in any of the three cases and reports that the spectroscopic galaxy catalog has the lowest errors on the parameters.

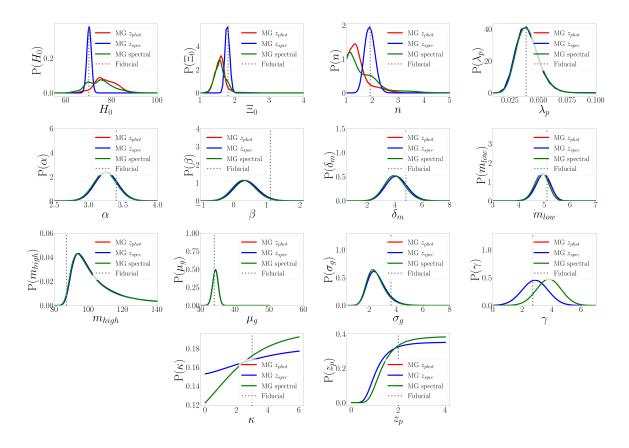


Figure 4.4: Multiple parameters for GW catalog with  $\Xi_0 = 1.8$  and n = 1.91 with different sensitivities. In blue posteriors for  $z_{spec}$  uncertainty. In red posteriors with  $z_{phot}$  uncertainty. In green posteriors in the spectral sirens case.

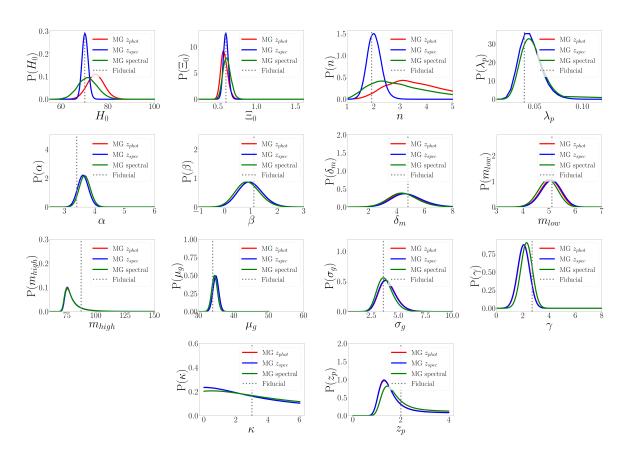


Figure 4.5: Multiple parameters for GW catalog with  $\Xi_0 = 0.6$  and n = 1.91 with different sensitivities. In blue posteriors for  $z_{spec}$  uncertainty. In red posteriors with  $z_{phot}$  uncertainty. In green posteriors in the spectral sirens case.

## 4.2 MCMC analysis

The previous section provided a preliminary study aimed at two objectives. First, to demonstrate that posterior distributions are significantly biased if the fixed hyperparameters differ from those used for generating the GW catalog. Second, to identify the optimal redshift uncertainty case to use. The one-dimensional posteriors are computed by fixing all the other parameters to the fiducial values except one which is left free. They represent optimal tools for visualizing biases and interpreting constraints on individual parameters, although locking specific values loses information by breaking the degeneracy among the parameters simplifying the interpretation of the results. They can still show some correlation, for example  $\Xi_0$  biases  $H_0$  and this propagates to other quantities, however it loses information on the correlation among other parameters. This leads to the motivation for this section. As shown in Tab.3.2, there is considerable uncertainty in the prior knowledge of all parameters, so to explore correlations and degeneracy it is logical to adopt a method that allows for all parameters to vary freely when computing the likelihood. While a brute-force approach is possible, it is computationally expensive. Instead, for this work the employment of MCMC sampling method is done.

To achieve this, MCMC sampling was performed on the OPH-DIFA cluster at the University of Bologna. The sampling in a 14-dimensional parameter space is performed to estimate the expected values of each hyper-parameter in both GR and modified GW propagation scenarios ( $MG_{1.8}$  and  $MG_{0.6}$ ) for future O5 runs. The MCMC chains were computed using the python package emcee Foreman-Mackey et al. 2013, an efficient sampler compatible with the CHIMERA code and considering the initial settings for the hyper-likelihood consistently with those used for the one-dimensional case, with the fiducial values in Tab.3.1 and priors in Tab3.2. The MCMC has specific initializing settings which have to be described in order to understand the work-flow to obtain the final constraints:

- Walkers: Individual points that explore the parameter space to construct the posterior distribution moving through the space according to the rules of the MCMC algorithm. The collective movement of all walkers approximate the probability distribution. The number of walkers was set to 52 determined by the following criterion: N<sub>walkers</sub> ∈ [2 × N<sub>param</sub>, 10 × N<sub>param</sub>], which ensures adequate sampling of the parameter space. Here, N<sub>walkers</sub> = 4 × N<sub>param</sub> was chosen.
- Burn-in phase: During this initial phase, the walkers explore the parameter space randomly and usually away from the stationary distribution. Only after this burn-

in phase the walkers start to sample accurately the final posterior. So the points in the burn-in phase need to be removed. For this study the burn-in was relatively short, typically requiring around 200 points to be discarded but a conservative limit of 1000 points was used to exclude any outliers.

• Convergence: In this work, convergence was assessed using the auto-correlation time test, which measures how efficiently the chain "forgets" its previous states. Ensuring that the sampling process is effective. All results presented in this thesis are based on MCMCs that meet the convergence criteria.

## 4.2.1 Results for GR catalog

This section aims to finalize the constrained value in a joint analysis of GR catalog and galaxy catalog with both spectroscopic and photometric uncertainty. This is to prove that the methods and results are scientifically accurate, showing no biases and retrieving accurate forecasts for O5. This motivates the next part of this work for which the same analysis can be performed for different catalogs taking in consideration a modified GW propagation. Table 4.1 shows for each catalog, the parameters constraints resulting from all the MCMCs considering the median as central value and as errors the 16th and 84th-percentiles. The motivation is for statistical reasons. For Gaussian distributions, the mean and median yield similar results. However, GW analyses often involve non-Gaussian distributions, making the median a better choice for two reasons:

- If an initial flat distribution with some asymmetry is given, the median provides a more accurate estimate of the peak value, as it reflects the central value of the prior
- If bi-modal distributions are given, the mean may lie in a low-probability region between peaks, leading to misleading results.

Using the median and percentiles allows for robust parameter estimation, even for parameters that are poorly constrained. This is especially relevant for n,  $\kappa$ , and  $z_p$ . The first result is depicted in figure 4.6 done with the GW events catalog in GR case. What was expected matched the results, clearly there is a lower accuracy in constraining the parameters in the photometric case compared to the spectroscopic one. For  $H_0$  the constrain in the  $z_{spec}$  case is  $H_0 = 67.7^{+2.3}_{-2.18}$  while for  $z_{phot}$  the accuracy deteriorates to  $H_0 = 81.3^{+24.2}_{-14.7}$ . The reason for this comes from fact that considering higher uncertainty on redshift, the probability of galaxy hosting the event are worse, so less informative

catalog results in worsened constraints. Regarding the value of  $\Xi_0$  in the  $z_{spec}$  case  $\Xi_0 = 0.905^{+0.094}_{-0.092}$ , while for  $z_{phot} \Xi_0 = 1.20^{+0.67}_{-0.37}$  which is in agreement with GR for both redshift cases, being at  $1\sigma$  from the fiducial. The next image Fig.4.8, shows very intriguing results, it contains two contour plots considering the same catalogs in GR case (borrowed from Borghi et al. 2024). Although one is generated by fixing the values of  $\Xi_0 = 1$  and n = 0, the other loosens this condition. These results were done to describe what happens to the uncertainties on the constraints when fixing some parameters and so investigating what occurs on the contours when the degeneracies are broken.

It clearly demonstrates that leaving  $\Xi_0$  free to vary during the likelihood sampling worsens the constraints on  $H_0$  making its constraints wider. This happens because during the MCMC when  $\Xi_0$  is free, the likelihood value obtained for different  $H_0, \Xi_0$ pairs results the same. This is a clear statement of the degeneracy between the two parameters. However by fixing  $\Xi_0 = 1$  the degeneracy is completely broken and the constraint will result narrower. Resulting in  $H_0 = 70.5^{+0.74}_{-0.73}$  with a constraining error of ~ 1% in the fixed case.

Another peculiar characteristic present in both figures 4.6 and 4.8 is a small shift of the constrained value for  $\Xi_0$ . To better investigate the nature of this, a new MCMC is run by fixing  $H_0$  to the fiducial value. Results are in Fig.4.7. The constrained value in this scenario is  $\Xi_0 = 0.97 \pm 0.03$ , which is just on the limits of  $1\sigma$  from the fiducial  $\Xi_0$ . This is not due to bias because of wrongly fixing  $H_0$  to 70 but it is related to the initial distribution generated when the GW catalog was built; it is probably of statistical nature. This work is simulating the best 100 dark sirens for 1 year of observation but it might be a too low number of events, so some small deviation from a precise value of  $\Xi_0 = 1$  are expected, additionally since they are selected from a bigger population, the cut might take events that prefer a slightly smaller  $\Xi_0$ . This means that if the final goal was to test modified GW propagation, it is clear that LVK collaboration detectors need more than 100 events with SNR>25 and better observation on the cosmic expansion in order to accurately constrain  $\Xi_0$ . In this work only the 100 best events are chosen for the analysis, although more events with smaller SNR are expected, in Section 3.3 the number of events just with an 20 < SNR < 25 in a GR scenario are revealed to be  $\sim 8000$  which means that a lot can be constrained with those and strong constraints are expected from future O5 runs.

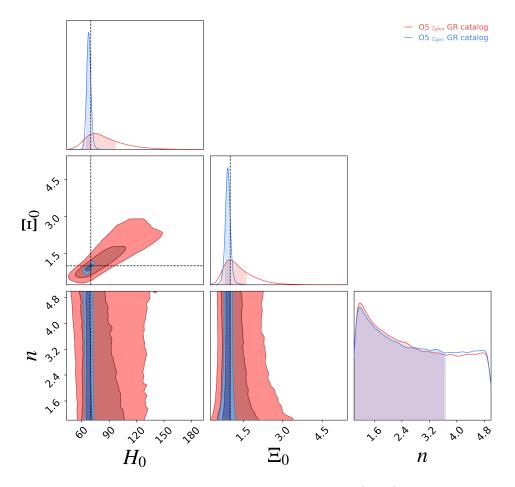


Figure 4.6: Contours plot for the  $\lambda_c$ , both in spectroscopic (blue) and photometric (red) cases.

L at atticted	$z_{spec}$ GR	$z_{spec}$ GR $\Xi_0 = 1$ fixed	$z_{phot}  \mathrm{GR}$	$z_{phot}$ GR $H_0 = 70$ fixed	$z_{spec}$ GR $H_0 = 70$ fixed	zspec NUU1.8	$z_{spec}$ MG1.8 $=_0$ fixed	_	$z_{spec} M G_{0.6} \mid z_{spec} M G_{0.6} \equiv_0 \text{fixed}$
$H_0$	$67.7^{+2.28}_{-2.18}$	$70.50^{+0.74}_{-0.73}$	$81.32\substack{+24.17\\-14.66}$	70	70	$72.26^{+4.14}_{-5.00}$	$70.18_{-0.88}^{+0.88}$	$67.62^{+4.87}_{-4.58}$	$70.18^{+1.42}_{-1.42}$
0 [1]	$0.905\substack{+0.094\\-0.092}$	1	$1.20\substack{+0.67\\-0.37}$	$0.92^{+0.13}_{-0.12}$	$0.97^{+0.03}_{-0.03}$	$1.78\substack{+0.25\\-0.39}$	1.80	$0.60\substack{+0.13\\-0.13}$	0.60
u	$2.74\substack{+1.53\\-1.30}$	0	$2.67\substack{+1.59 \\ -1.25}$	$2.67^{+1.54}_{-1.24}$	$2.39^{+1.62}_{-1.38}$	$2.63^{+1.53}_{-1.28}$	1.91	$2.53^{+1.49}_{-0.50}$	1.91
$\lambda_{peak}$	$0.066\substack{+0.037\\-0.028}$	$0.066^{+0.036}_{-0.028}$	$0.074\substack{+0.038\\-0.030}$	$0.069^{+0.037}_{-0.029}$	$0.065_{-0.027}^{+0.037}$	$0.068\substack{+0.031\\-0.027}$	$0.068_{-0.029}^{+0.031}$	$0.072\substack{+0.041\\-0.033}$	$0.075_{-0.043}^{+0.042}$
σ	$3.25_{-0.26}^{+0.27}$	$3.25_{-0.27}^{+0.27}$	$3.24_{-0.26}^{+0.27}$	$3.24_{-0.26}^{+0.27}$	$3.25_{-0.26}^{+0.27}$	$3.11\substack{+0.24\\-0.26}$	$3.11_{-0.25}^{+0.25}$	$3.53_{-0.36}^{+0.36}$	$3.51_{-0.37}^{+0.37}$
β	$1.92\substack{+0.56\\-0.52}$	$1.91\substack{+0.55\\-0.52}$	$1.91\substack{+0.57\\-0.52}$	$1.92\substack{+0.55\\-0.51}$	$1.92^{+0.56}_{-0.44}$	$0.24\substack{+0.42\\-0.40}$	$0.24_{-0.39}^{+0.41}$	$1.18\substack{+0.49\\-0.51}$	$1.15\substack{+0.50\\-0.50}$
$\delta_m$	$2.7^{+2.1}_{-2.2}$	$3.17^{+2.21}_{-1.81}$	$2.33^{+2.04}_{-1.46}$	$2.84^{+2.34}_{-1.77}$	$3.20^{+2.17}_{-1.66}$	$1.94\substack{+2.40\\-1.55}$	$1.97^{+2.43}_{-1.54}$	$2.33^{+2.83}_{-1.99}$	$2.20^{+2.73}_{-1.73}$
$m_{low}$	$5.65_{-1.00}^{+0.77}$	$5.64_{-0.96}^{+0.72}$	$5.89\substack{+0.66\\-0.91}$	$5.75_{-1.00}^{+0.74}$	$5.61_{-0.86}^{+0.74}$	$5.97^{+0.58}_{-0.42}$	$5.93_{-0.41}^{+0.59}$	$6.25_{-0.30}^{+0.72}$	$6.32_{-0.33}^{+0.66}$
$m_{high}$	$93.34\substack{+34.15\\-7.32}$	$93.84_{-7.11}^{+32.27}$	$94.06\substack{+28.80\\-8.05}$	$93.06^{+32.56}_{-8.11}$	$93.45_{-8.98}^{+31.02}$	$97.47\substack{+17.86\\-18.14}$	$97.47^{+17.95}_{-17.93}$	$85.77\substack{+64.81\\-10.81}$	$85.42^{+65.66}_{-10.66}$
$\mu_{mass}$	$34.64^{+0.95}_{-1.00}$	$34.77^{+0.93}_{-1.00}$	$34.47\substack{+1.21\\-1.26}$	$34.37^{+1.18}_{-1.24}$	$34.70^{+1.00}_{-1.07}$	$34.62^{+0.69}_{-0.32}$	$34.57^{+0.64}_{-0.35}$	$34.80^{+0.53}_{-0.20}$	$34.87_{-0.06}^{+0.53}$
$\sigma_{mass}$	$4.10\substack{+0.82\\-0.67}$	$4.16_{-0.68}^{+0.82}$	$4.16\substack{+0.85\\-0.70}$	$4.08^{+0.82}_{-0.66}$	$4.15_{-0.63}^{+0.81}$	$2.44_{-0.22}^{+0.78}$	$2.44_{-0.21}^{+0.79}$	$4.19^{+1.65}_{-0.35}$	$4.13_{-0.45}^{+1.55}$
7	$1.97\substack{+2.46\\-1.11}$	$2.28^{+2.49}_{-1.15}$	$2.97\substack{+3.12\\-1.70}$	$2.06^{+2.50}_{-1.15}$	$2.25_{-1.39}^{+2.60}$	$2.69^{\pm 1.47}_{-0.53}$	$2.76^{+1.32}_{-0.68}$	$2.05^{\pm 1.21}_{-0.79}$	$2.00^{+1.22}_{-0.78}$
ĸ	$2.63\substack{+2.26\\-1.86}$	$2.75_{-1.96}^{+2.18}$	$2.70\substack{+2.19\\-1.90}$	$2.60^{+2.24}_{-1.85}$	$2.65_{-1.79}^{+2.24}$	$2.88\substack{+2.13\\-1.87}$	$2.83^{+2.14}_{-1.86}$	$2.60^{+2.29}_{-1.73}$	$2.57^{+2.21}_{-1.99}$
$z_p$	$1.31\substack{+1.74\\-0.86}$	$1.23^{+1.76}_{-0.75}$	$1.14\substack{+1.80\\-0.65}$	$1.31\substack{+1.73\\-0.86}$	$1.19_{-0.80}^{+1.77}$	$2.37^{+1.12}_{-0.88}$	$2.37^{+1.12}_{-0.88}$	$2.05^{+1.33}_{-0.67}$	$1.95^{\pm 1.37}_{-0.63}$

els. The parameter constraints are given	
Table 4.1: Table with all the parameters constrained for the different models.	as the median values with the 16th and 84th percentiles.

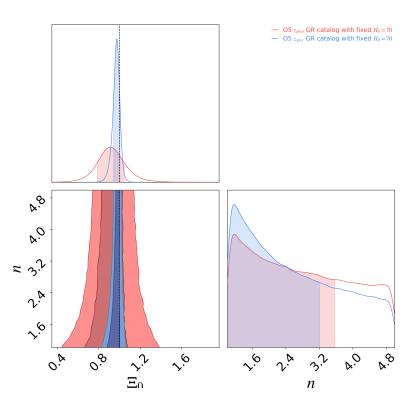


Figure 4.7: Contours of parameters fixing  $H_0$  to 70, both in spectroscopic (blue) and photometric (red) cases.

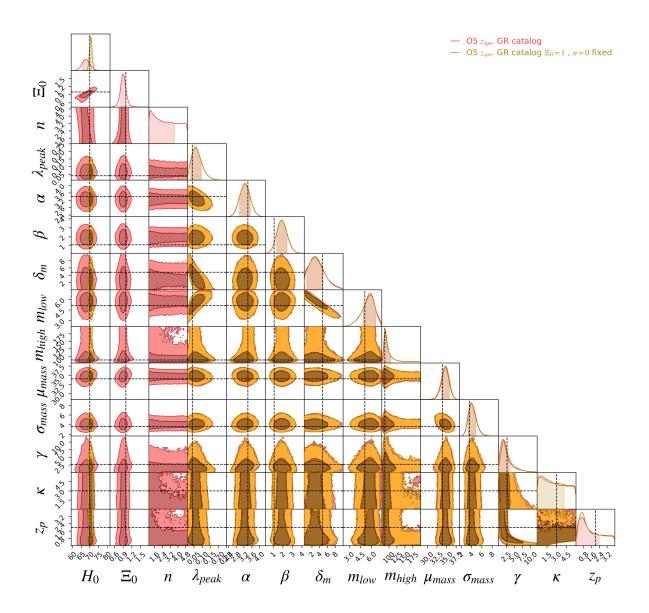


Figure 4.8: Contours of parameters in the case of spectroscopic redshift showing the comparison of two cases,  $\Lambda$ CDM with no initialized  $\Xi_0$  and n and modified GW propagation case.

#### 4.2.2 Results for MG catalogs

This section focuses on the new generated catalogs built as described in Chapter 3, with the settings found in 3.1, initialized with  $\Xi_0 = 1.8$ , 0.6 and n = 1.91. The choice of the galaxy catalog uncertainty was made after the preemptive analyses described above, so spectroscopic redshift was chosen. These catalogs will be analyzed as the previous GR catalog with a major focus on the changes in the parameter constraints for these two new cases. Lastly, by considering all these modifications, the final alteration of the uncertainty levels will be shown, to conclusively define the constraining power of O5 for these two types of cosmological scenarios. To analyze these scenarios, two MCMCs were obtained by considering all 14 parameters, and then by fixing  $\Xi_0$  and n to values corresponding to the correct catalog to avoid biases. This is generated with the final purpose to reveal the differences of constraining  $H_0$  with and without prior accurate constraints on the modified GW propagation. The respective errors for all parameters are reported in the last four columns of Table 4.1 for these scenarios. However, this discussion will specifically focus on  $\Xi_0$  and  $H_0$ . In Figs.4.9 and 4.10 the contour plot for  $MG_{1.8}$  and  $MG_{0.6}$  catalogs are depicted. The first observation is that again, as in the GR case, both the figures and the contours with and without fixing  $\Xi_0$  are well centered on the fiducial of  $H_0 = 70$ . However, the constraints found here are a little weaker than the GR case. Indeed the uncertainty on  $H_0$  increases for the free  $\Xi_0$  case finding  $H_0 = 72.3^{+4.14}_{-5.2}$  for MG<sub>1.8</sub> and  $H_0 = 67.6^{+4.87}_{4.58}$  for MG<sub>0.6</sub>. Instead, by fixing the MG parameters and breaking the degeneracy between  $H_0$  and  $\Xi_0$ , the cosmic expansion rate results in  $H_0 = 70.2^{+0.88}_{-0.88}$  for MG<sub>1.8</sub> and  $H_0 = 70.2^{+1.42}_{1.42}$  for MG<sub>0.6</sub>. This indicates that the measurement becomes less uncertain when the degeneracy is broken, although the resulting constraints found, say that in a universe that intrinsically has  $\Xi_0 > 1$  (as in  $MG_{1.8}$ , will measure  $H_0$  more accurately than a universe with  $\Xi_0 < 1$  (as in  $MG_{0.6}$ ). However, both constraints remain weaker in comparison with GR. Regarding  $\Xi_0$ , the constraints in these cases are  $\Xi_0 = 1.78^{+0.39}_{-0.31}$  for MG<sub>1.8</sub> and  $\Xi_0 = 0.6^{+0.13}_{-0.13}$  for MG<sub>0.6</sub>, which, compared to the GR case given in the previous section, provide an interesting outcome. The error on constraining  $\Xi_0$  is indeed the worst for a catalog with  $\Xi_0 > 1$ , slightly better for a catalog with  $\Xi_0 < 1$ , and the best in the GR case. For n it seems that in these modified GW scenarios a small peak at low values of the prior has appeared but it is still too flat for constraints.

After discussing the final contour plots for new scenarios for modified GW propagation ( $MG_{1.8}, MG_{0.6}$ ), it was clear that their overall uncertainty on  $H_0$  and  $\Xi_0$  was worsened concerning the GR case. Therefore final results of this work are revealed in Fig.4.11

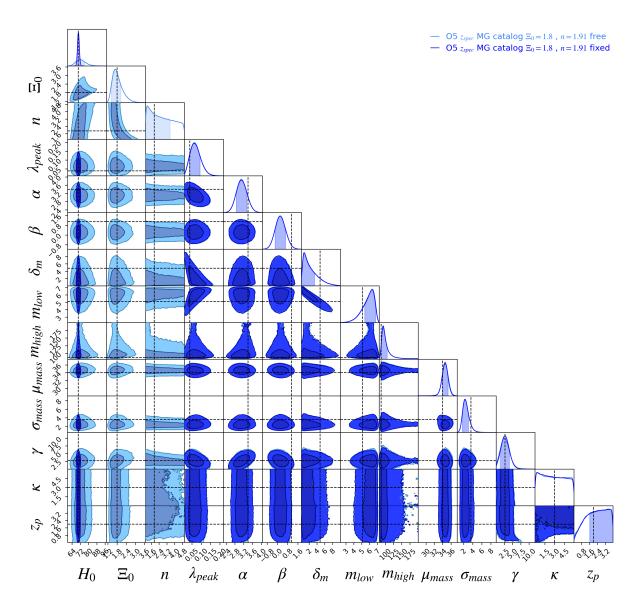


Figure 4.9: Double contours for catalog initialized with  $\Xi_0 = 1.8$  and n = 1.91, in light blue the chain that ran with all parameters free, while in dark blue with fixed MG parameters

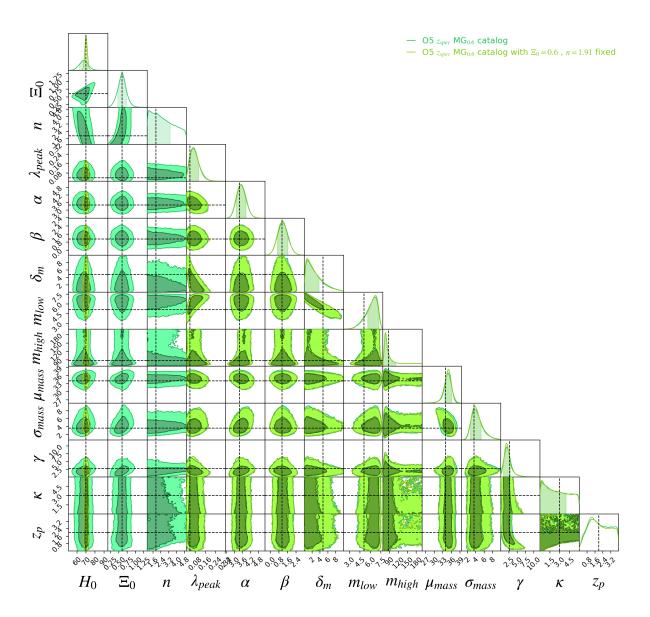


Figure 4.10: Double contours for catalog initialized with  $\Xi_0 = 0.6$  and n = 1.91, in dark green the chain that ran with all parameters free, while in lime green the chain with fixed MG parameters

to visualize the variation of relative errors on  $H_0$  either locking or freeing  $\Xi_0$ , obtained through the 16th-percentile and 84th-percentile of  $H_0$  and dividing it by the median of  $H_0$ . Additionally Figs.4.12,4.13 are shown to compare standard and relative errors on  $\Xi_0$ and  $H_0$ . Quantitatively, these figures' results can be summarized as follows. The errors for  $H_0$  are:

- In GR scenario  $H_0$  results as ~ 1% when fixing  $\Xi_0 = 1$  in line with the findings of Borghi et al. 2024 for a fixed GR Universe. Meanwhile if left free the relative error for  $H_0$  is ~ 2.3%.
- In  $MG_{1.8}$  scenario the uncertainty is ~ 1.2%, when fixing  $\Xi_0 = 1.8$  as the fiducial for the simulated catalog, and ~ 6% when everything is left free.
- In  $MG_{0.6}$  scenario the uncertainty is ~ 2%, when fixing  $\Xi_0 = 0.6$  to the fiducial for the simulated catalog and ~ 7% when everything is left free.

The results for  $\Xi_0$  are:

- In GR,  $\Xi_0 = 0.91$  with relative error of  $\sim 10\%$ .
- In MG<sub>1.8</sub>,  $\Xi_0 = 1.78$  with relative error of  $\sim 17\%$ .
- In  $MG_{0.6}$ ,  $\Xi_0 = 0.6$  with relative error of  $\sim 20\%$ .

The first natural statement that comes through is that the constraint for  $H_0 = 70$  is found with an uncertainty that is lower when  $\Xi_0$  is locked, which means that if  $\Xi_0$  will be measured with percentage level accuracy, the uncertainty on  $H_0$  will decrease. Moreover, in the left side of Figs.4.13 and 4.12 an opposite trend on the standard error is found in the two modified GW propagation scenarios. For MG<sub>1.8</sub> the error on  $\Xi_0$  is higher while for MG<sub>0.6</sub> the error is lower; it is also true that  $H_0$  in MG<sub>1.8</sub> has slightly wider errors than in MG<sub>0.6</sub>: this again results from the correlation and impact that these quantities have on the luminosity distance. In fact, as previously said,  $d_L^{GW}$  is positively correlated with  $\Xi_0$ (since a higher value of  $\Xi_0$  increases luminosity distance) and negatively correlated with  $H_0$  (since a higher value of  $H_0$  decreases luminosity distance). Their uncertainties then will be influenced by their mutual degeneracies, and these differences are well explained by their correlation with luminosity distance.

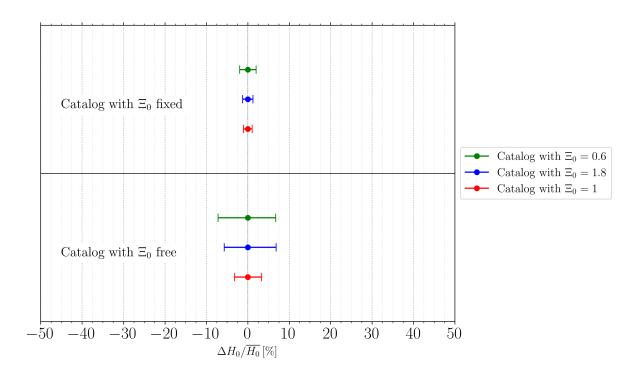


Figure 4.11: Here the percentage errors on possible  $H_0$  measurement from an O5 run with dark sirens with a  $z_{spec}$  uncertainty, are presented. In red the GR case is displayed, while blue and green are the two different modified GW propagation cases.

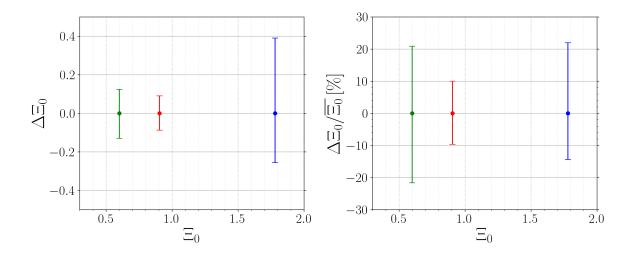


Figure 4.12: Error-bars for  $\Xi_0$  vs.  $\Xi_0$  for all three catalogs leaving  $\Xi_0$  free with a spectroscopic redshift galaxy catalog. Left: Error values from 16th-percentile and 84th-percentile for  $\Xi_0$  vs.  $\Xi_0$  free for each GW catalog. Right: % Errors of  $\Xi_0$  vs.  $\Xi_0$ .

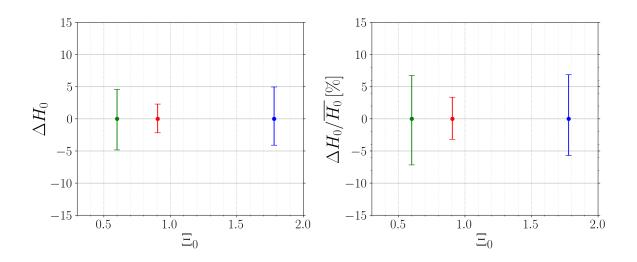


Figure 4.13: Error-bars for  $H_0$  vs.  $\Xi_0$  for all three catalogs leaving  $\Xi_0$  free with a spectroscopic redshift galaxy catalog. Left: Error values from 16th-percentile and 84th-percentile for  $H_0$  vs.  $\Xi_0$  free for each GW catalog. Right: % Errors of  $H_0$  vs.  $\Xi_0$ .

#### 4.3 Beyond a spectroscopic galaxy catalog

In the thesis the main scientific mission was to recover the constraining power for future O5 runs in order to understand how future detectors with their expected capabilities and sensitivities are able to constraint  $\Xi_0$  and  $H_0$  in a GR scenario and extend it to other types of universes in which the propagation of GWs is modified. Given the results and what was analyzed, there are some interesting open questions to explore in the future. Throughout this work,  $\Omega_{0,m}$  was kept fixed, as it has only a mild impact on  $d_L^{GW}$  at lower redshifts. However, at higher redshifts, it is expected to exert a stronger influence, making it an intriguing parameter to investigate. As a cosmological parameter,  $\Omega_{0,m}$  could easily be left free, potentially revealing correlations and degeneracies with other parameters. This presents an opportunity for future work to explore whether this parameter, despite its limited effect on modified GW propagation, can still be constrained within these altered GR scenarios. Moreover, during the workflow, certain challenges arose in analyzing O5 prospects using spectral sirens. While spectral sirens are a valuable tool for analysis, their results did not align with those obtained using spectroscopic and photometric redshift error methods. Multiple attempts were made to identify the root of the issue; although the problem remains unresolved, it will be further investigated in the future. Details of these attempts are provided in Appendix A.

# Chapter 5

## Conclusions

The ACDM model, which describes a Universe dominated by cold dark matter and dark energy (Peebles and Ratra 2003, Dodelson and Schmidt 2020) has been remarkably successful in explaining a wide range of phenomena, from the cosmic microwave background to galaxy clustering. However, its reliance on two enigmatic components, dark energy and dark matter, leaves important questions unanswered, particularly as neither has been directly detected (Sahni 2004). These open points, alongside issues such as the Hubble tension, suggest that ACDM might not provide the complete picture. In recent years, gravitational waves have emerged as powerful tools for cosmology (B. P. Abbott 2017a). Since their first detection in 2015 (B. P. Abbott 2016), GWs have not only opened a new observational window but have also been recognized as "standard sirens", powerful distance indicators (Holz and Hughes 2005 Chen, Maya Fishbach, and Holz 2018) that do not rely on any distance ladder calibration. Analogous to electromagnetic "standard candles", standard sirens measure the luminosity distance directly from the GW signal, offering an independent way to probe the Universe's expansion. This is possible only by breaking the degeneracy between mass and redshift which imposes a dependency on the redshifts of the observable quantities obtained by GWs that needs to be resolved.

To overcome this issue, multiple approaches have been proposed to inform the GW posterior with information about the redshift of the potential hosts, ranging from direct detection of the electromagnetic counterpart ("bright sirens") to statistically obtaining the redshift information from a galaxy catalog ("dark sirens") to taking advantage of information in the distribution of astrophysical parameters of the merging population ("spectral sirens").

However, due to the limited number of detected GW events, the current constraints that can be obtained on cosmology are weak. So far, the LIGO-Virgo-KAGRA (LVK)

network have detected only  $\sim 100$  BBH events up to the last publicly available Observing run (O3, R. Abbott et al. 2023), and the current observing run is currently ongoing (O4, B. P. Abbott et al. 2020). The next observing run (O5, B. P. Abbott et al. 2020, Kiendrebeogo et al. 2023) is expected to improve in terms of sensitivity, range of distances probed, and number of detected events, and it is therefore important to assess the science cases enabled by this new data.

In parallel to cosmological constraints, gravitational waves and standard sirens have been useful to provide a new avenue also to test General Relativity (GR) (Yunes, Yagi, and Pretorius 2016, B. Abbott et al. 2016, B. P. Abbott 2017a, Goldstein et al. 2017, Savchenko et al. 2017). Many Modified Gravity theories (Belgacem et al. 2018a, Dvali, Gabadadze, and Porrati 2000) predict deviations in the propagation of GWs with respect to the one of electromagnetic radiation. These deviations, encoded in parameters like  $\Xi_0$  and n (Mancarella, Finke, et al. 2022) in the parametrization used in this Thesis, offer a new way to test physics beyond GR. The results obtained so far tested these parameters only assuming a fixed cosmology ( $H_0$ ), and no test was performed using dark sirens in a scenario with a joint inference of astrophysical, cosmological, and modified gravity parameters  $\Xi_0$  and n. Only recently, new codes have been developed to perform this joint analysis (CHIMERA Borghi et al. 2024, icarogw Simone Mastrogiovanni et al. 2023, gwcosmo Gray et al. 2023), but so far they are not including the MG parameters in their analysis.

In this Thesis work, we aim to carry out a full analysis of MG parameters, integrating in a self-consistent way their parametrization in the analysis code, and providing forecasts on their detectability with future GW observations. To this end, the work focuses on understanding how parameters that model modified GW propagation affect the GW luminosity distance  $(d_L^{GW})$  by simulating realistic GW catalogs including these modified GW propagation scenarios; the capabilities of improved detectors on constraining deviation from GR were evaluated and their potential systematics on cosmological measurements like  $H_0$  were tested. In the following, I present the methods and data used for this study and the main results obtained.

#### Extending the analysis to account for modified GW propagation

To perform these analyses, the required components are a simulated galaxy catalog, its corresponding GW events catalog, and the CHIMERA code. To adapt those to the science case of a MG scenario, both the code and the GW catalogs needed to be further developed. The main problem was that CHIMERA did not initially include modules to handle modified GW propagation, and for this Thesis a new module was developed and validated (MG\_FLRW) in the CHIMERA pipeline. This module incorporates MG effects into the computation of  $d_L^{GW}$  as in Eq.2.49 and its derivative, enabling the analysis of GW propagation under modified GW propagation scenarios. Modifying the luminosity distance required also redefining the methods used to calculate the likelihood. A new adaptive redshift grid is introduced, based on the new definitions.

These updates allowed us to study the impact of the new parameters on the luminosity distance, and to explore the dependencies and relation with other cosmological parameters. Considering a redshift z = 1, it was found that, while a 10% increase in  $H_0$ results in a ~ 10% decrease in  $d_L^{GW}$ , a 10% increase in  $\Xi_0$  leads to a 5% increase in the luminosity distance, showing the clear and direct anticorrelation among these parameters. On the other hand, the impact of other parameters is significantly less relevant, and as an example a 10% increase in  $\Omega_{0,m}$  causes a modest 1.8% variation, while the parameter n, which only affects  $d_L^{GW}$  when  $\Xi_0 \neq 1$ , shows that for n = 1.5 the relative increase is just 1%. These results demonstrate a mutual degeneracy between  $\Xi_0$  and  $H_0$ , suggesting how future measurements of  $H_0$  could be crucially influenced by variations in  $\Xi_0$ .

#### Simulating GW Event Catalogs in MG scenarios

Simulating GW catalogs represented the backbone of this analysis. Nowadays there are no accurate mock catalogs that reveal information on galaxy hosts and related GW events in a modified GW propagation scenario, but to simulate these GW mock catalogs, it is necessary to introduce modifications in existing codes.

Two new realistic GW simulated catalogs were generated for an O5 LVK detectors network using GWFAST (Iacovelli et al. 2022a), a code that uses Fisher matrices to generate simulated posteriors of GW events. These new catalogs are created within two extreme scenarios with  $\Xi_0 = 1.8$ , n = 1.91 (MG<sub>1.8</sub>) and  $\Xi_0 = 0.6$ , n = 1.91 (MG<sub>0.6</sub>). These values have been chosen to be compliant with recent measurements on GWTC-3 events, that obtained  $\Xi_0 = 1.2 \pm 0.7$  and n = 1.91 (Leyde et al. 2022). These are chosen to study two different regimes  $\Xi_0 > 1$  which expects a lower number of detected GWs and  $\Xi_0 < 1$ which expects the opposite. These were compared to a GR scenario mock event catalog borrowed from Borghi et al. 2024.

To create these catalogs, GWFAST also needed to be modified in order to allow to include modified GW luminosity distance.

### Forecasts on the detectability of MG propagation parameters with future data

Applying all the aforementioned tools, it is possible to derive the constraining power for future GW observations even in modified GW propagation.

Two different analyses are performed. Firstly, a brute-force sampling of the posterior is done on single parameters considering all the other fixed, in order to validate all the previous steps and have a first assessment of the results. No bias was found when the cosmological and astrophysical parameters were fixed to their fiducial values, yielding an  $H_0$  constraint of 70 km/s/Mpc with a relative error of 1% and a constraint on  $\Xi_0 \sim 1$ with a relative uncertainty of ~ 10%. These findings suggest that future O5 observations could achieve  $H_0$  constraints with  $\leq 1\%$  accuracy, offering new insights into the Hubble tension. Additionally,  $\Xi_0$  was constrained for the first time using dark sirens, achieving an improved uncertainty of ~ 10%, compared to the 16% uncertainty found with current real O3 data by Leyde et al. 2022 using the spectral sirens approach. However, when  $\Xi_0$ is incorrectly fixed to a value different from the fiducial one, the  $H_0$  measured is biased, with a 9% offset with respect to the correct one when  $\Xi_0$  is 50% higher or lower than the fiducial value of 1.

Next, we extended our analysis by performing a full MCMC sampling of the posterior for all the scenarios available. The main results can be summarized as follows:

- Using a GW catalog within a GR model, we investigated how varying redshift accuracies in galaxy catalogs affect parameter constraints. Specifically, when the MG parameters are also included in the analysis, the accuracy on H<sub>0</sub> worsens from < 1% to ~ 3% with a spectroscopic catalog and ranges from ~ 9% to 24% with a photometric catalog. These results are significant as both H<sub>0</sub> and Ξ<sub>0</sub> impact the luminosity distance, meaning that constraining one parameter helps break their mutual degeneracy. By fixing H<sub>0</sub> = 70 km/s/Mpc, an improved constraint on Ξ<sub>0</sub> is obtained. For a spectroscopic redshift catalog, Ξ<sub>0</sub> is constrained to ~ 0.97 with an uncertainty of ~ 3%, while for a photometric redshift catalog, Ξ<sub>0</sub> was constrained to 0.92 with an uncertainty of ~ 14%.
- In the GR case, it was found that  $H_0$  can be retrieved unbiased with slightly worse accuracy due to the degeneracy between  $H_0$  and  $\Xi_0$ .
- We then explored the constraints that can be obtained within MG scenarios, focusing the analysis on the results that can be obtained with a spectroscopic catalog

(which was providing the best detections). Once again, no bias in  $\Xi_0$  or  $H_0$  was confirmed in these perturbed cosmological models, allowing for reliable constraints even in universes that incorporate modified GW propagation. In these cases, for the MG<sub>1.8</sub> universe,  $\Xi_0$  was constrained to 1.78 with a relative error of 17%, while for the MG<sub>0.6</sub> universe,  $\Xi_0$  was constrained to 0.6 with an uncertainty of 20%. These results were obtained while allowing all the parameters to vary freely.

• Finally, the impact of different cosmologies on the precision of  $H_0$  constraints was analyzed. For the MG<sub>1.8</sub> universe, the uncertainty on  $H_0$  was ~ 6%, while for MG<sub>0.6</sub>,  $H_0$  was constrained with an uncertainty of ~ 7%, both obtained while allowing  $\Xi_0$ to vary freely. These findings show that the accuracy in scenarios with modified GW propagation is reduced compared to a GR universe. However, an exciting result emerged: if the type of universe were known specifically, i.e. if the value of  $\Xi_0$  was precisely known and fixed, the uncertainties on  $H_0$  would improve to ~ 1.2% for MG<sub>1.8</sub> and ~ 2% for MG<sub>0.6</sub>. This highlights that while future O5 runs may see a deterioration in  $H_0$  accuracy when  $\Xi_0 \neq 1$ , a constraint of  $\Xi_0$  would still enable  $H_0$  to be determined with exceptional precision in both universes, and also the modified GW propagation parameters could be determined with higher accuracy with respect to current ones.

In conclusion, this Thesis demonstrated the potential of gravitational waves for testing Modified Gravity theories forecasting on future observing runs to refine our understanding of the cosmological model. Extending the CHIMERA pipeline, simulating future GW catalogs, and analyzing future detectors' observations lays the groundwork for future investigations into deviations from GR. As detector sensitivities continue to improve, the insights gained here will play a crucial role in revealing news about understanding the Universe's expansion rate in altered GR scenarios and finally exploring the nature of diverse gravitational wave propagation.

### 5.1 Future Prospects

The Thesis work has described a framework in which the joint analysis for both cosmological and astrophysical parameters inference is possible through the CHIMERA pipeline, although it has not touched on some specific details that might be interesting to investigate. The future prospects will encompass a series of analyses that will consider the same framework as this Thesis, cross-correlating the same galaxy catalog and the mock GW event catalogs modified GW propagation scenarios, focusing on the following matters:

- The possibility of using spectral sirens to retrieve information on  $\Xi_0$  and n.
- The effects of unlocking  $\Omega_{0,m}$  as a cosmological parameter on forecasting the constraining power for LVK.

The first point has been partially explored during this Thesis work although revealing a series of issues in the computation of the posteriors that have compromised the employment of spectral sirens methods for modified GW propagation catalogs. By not fixing  $\Xi_0$  and n a huge bias on  $H_0$  is found, biasing  $H_0$  to 20.5. After investigating the possible obstacles, the issue was pinpointed as a problem during the catalog generation that needs to be looked into further.

The second prospect comes in light of the fact that the quantity  $\Omega_{0,m}$  was fixed to 0.25 (the value assumed by the mock galaxy catalog) because of its mild influence on luminosity distance. However, from the analysis, its effects seemed to increase for higher redshifts; for this reason, it would be interesting to perform a joint cosmological and astrophysical parameter inference freeing  $\Omega_{0,m}$  to recover degeneracies with the other parameters and constrain its value in a modified GW propagation scenario.

## Appendix A

## The spectral siren problem

Spectral sirens are a specific case of dark sirens when the catalog is considered empty, which means that the respective co-moving volume in which the GW event is detected, does not have galaxies in it. Spectral sirens are an interesting tool to study cosmology, the redshift derivation as explained in the previous sections happens with specific relations, like the merging rate and the mass population distribution of binaries, so it is in need of some assumptions and modeling from prior knowledge on galaxies evolution. For these reasons there were not big expectation for improved constrain of the cosmological parameters with O5, however, it would have to be in agreement with the past measurements done with spectral sirens in past O3-O4 runs. As seen in Borghi et al. 2024, spectral sirens in a ACDM model, depicted worse results than dark sirens but still in  $1\sigma$  from the fiducial, which for this work was not the case. From the MCMC in figure A.1, the green contours are the posteriors computed with spectral sirens catalog and as it can be seen, the walkers favoured points with  $H_0$  value of ~ 20.5 which is much less than what expected. Beside that, also  $\Xi_0$  and all the astrophysical parameters are distant from the fiducial value, symptom of degeneration of the parameters through the cosmology dependency. A first hypothesis for these issues would be that the GW injections used for the selection bias were not covering the correct redshift range, biasing the results. Injections have to cover the entirety of the redshift-mass distribution space, because when CHIMERA weights on the populations, if the event is outside, the code biases the value of the posterior.

One possibility considered was whether a significant number of events in the entire catalog fall outside the redshift range of injections,  $z \sim [0, 1.3]$ . However, comparisons revealed that only a few events fall outside this range, ruling out this as the cause of the large bias. This conclusion is further supported by the fact that, if selection bias were

not accounted for, Fig.A.2, which shows the same analysis with  $H_0$  fixed at 70, would also exhibit a bias. However, no such bias was observed in that case.

After ruling out selection bias as the issue, the likelihood function was analyzed with a focus on the primary parameters  $H_0$ ,  $\Xi_0$ , and n. Figure A.3 was created by zooming in on Figure A.1 for these parameters and applying a color map to the logarithm of the likelihood to filter out the values with the lowest probabilities.

The figure clearly shows that the walkers are directed toward the likelihood maxima. As detailed in Tab.A.1, the difference in probability between  $H_0 = 20.5$  and  $H_0 \sim 70$  is minimal, although  $H_0 = 20.5$  corresponds to a higher probability. Consequently, the walkers cluster around these values. This demonstrates that the issue is not related to CHIMERA itself, as the likelihood is being computed correctly.

The underlying cause may be intrinsic to the catalog used, whose generation characteristics are either unknown or not yet fully understood. Therefore, a potential avenue for future work is to investigate this issue further, aiming to understand why spectral sirens constrained by modified GW propagation exhibit such a strong bias.

$Log_{prob}$	$H_0$	$\Xi_0$	n	$\lambda_p$	$\alpha$	$\beta$	$\delta_m$	$m_{low}$	$m_{high}$	$\mu_m$	$\sigma_m$	$\gamma$	$\kappa$	$\zeta_p$
-9870.3	22.3	3.03	4.87	0.06	3.21	1.91	3.46	6.46	135.9	43.6	7.74	11.4	3.16	2.76
-9876.4	20.9	3.15	3.68	0.03	2.89	1.33	7.05	4.7	134.9	43.8	7.84	11.2	2.31	3.16
-9900	24.6	2.39	3.11	0.04	3.47	2.45	2.24	6.57	141.4	43.4	5.74	9.73	0.74	2.3
-9932.9	70	1	0	0.039	3.4	1.1	4.8	5.1	87	34	3.6	2.7	3	2

Table A.1: Table of the log-likelihood and values of all the parameters in the spectral sirens case

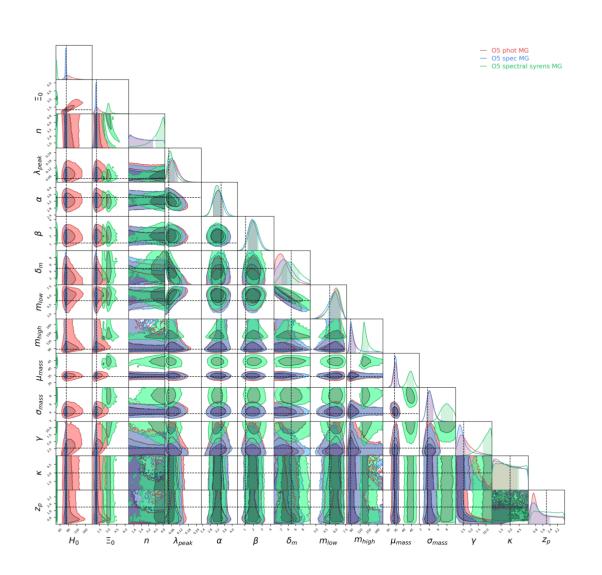


Figure A.1: MCMC contours in three different cases. Red: photometric galaxy catalog, Blue: Spectroscopic galaxy catalog Green: Spectral Sirens. The spectral sirens case shows a huge problem in the parameter estimation with  $H_0 \sim 20.5$ .

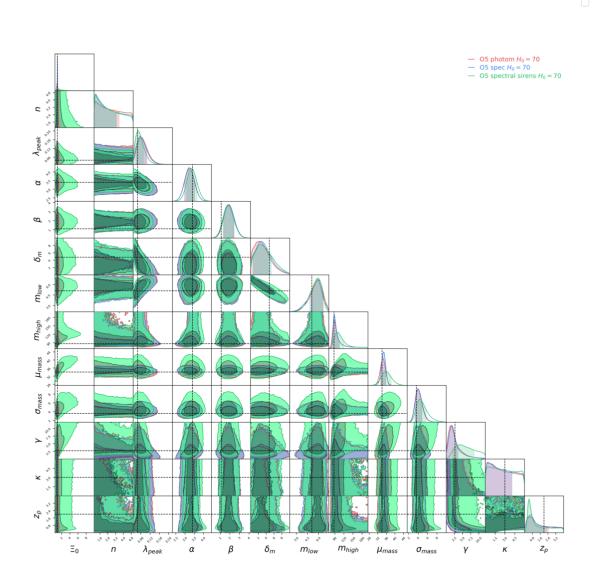


Figure A.2: Contour plot obtained reducing the  $H_0$  prior to [50, 90]

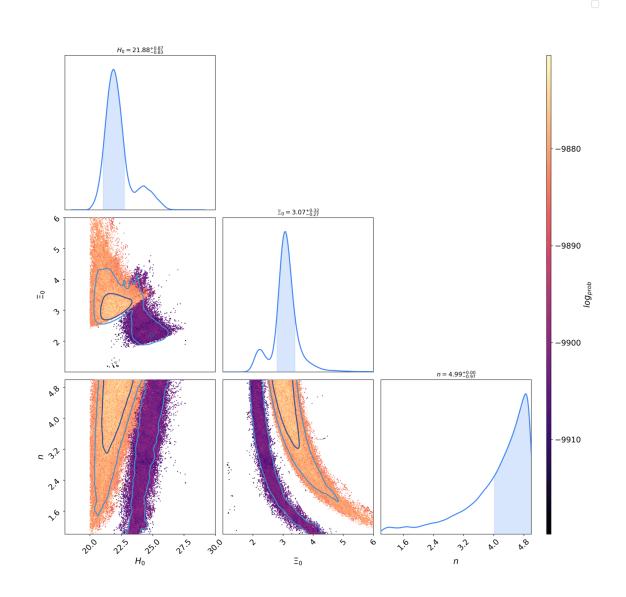


Figure A.3: Contours of parameters in the case of spectroscopic redshift fixing  $H_0$  to 70 and varying all the other parameters

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