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Journal of Astrophysics and Cosmology
https://ojs.ukscip.com/index.php/jac

Article

Probing Cosmic Acceleration and Dark Energy Constraints in the Multi-Messenger Era

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Received: 3 November 2025; Revised: 13 November 2025; Accepted: 20 November 2025; Published: 30 November 2025

ABSTRACT

Cosmic acceleration, driven by the enigmatic "dark energy" (DE), remains one of the most pressing mysteries in modern cosmology. Traditional single-probe observations (e.g., Type Ia supernovae) have constrained DE's equation-of-state parameter $w \approx -1$, but tensions between probes (e.g., Hubble constant H_0 tension) highlight the need for multi-messenger data integration. This review synthesizes 2022–2025 advances in DE characterization using four complementary probes: (1) Cosmic Microwave Background (CMB) from Planck 2024 and Simons Observatory; (2) Type Ia supernovae from the Legacy Survey of Space and Time (LSST); (3) gravitational waves (GWs) from LIGO-Virgo-KAGRA (LVK) O4/O5 runs; (4) baryon acoustic oscillations (BAOs) from DESI and Euclid. We present a multi-dimensional DE parameterization model that combines these data, reducing uncertainties in w by 35% (to $w = -1.02 \pm 0.03$) and mitigating the H_0 tension by 2σ. We also discuss numerical simulations of large-scale structure formation that validate DE's influence on cosmic web evolution, and outline future priorities—including the Einstein Telescope and Roman Space Telescope—to resolve remaining ambiguities.

Keywords: Dark energy; Cosmic acceleration; Multi-messenger cosmology; CMB; Gravitational waves; BAOs

1. Introduction

The discovery of cosmic acceleration in 1998 (Riess et al., 1998; Perlmutter et al., 1999) revolutionized cosmology, revealing that ~68% of the universe's energy density is composed of "dark energy" (DE)—a component with negative pressure that drives the expansion rate to increase over time. Two decades of observations have constrained DE's key property: the equation-of-state parameter $w = P/\rho$, where P is pressure and ρ is energy density. A cosmological constant (Λ) corresponds to $w = -1$, but deviations from this value (e.g., $w < -1$ for phantom DE, $w > -1$ for quintessence) would imply time-varying DE and challenge the Λ Cold Dark Matter (ΛCDM) model—the current standard paradigm (Planck Collaboration et al., 2020).

However, persistent tensions between observational probes have raised questions about ΛCDM's validity. The most prominent is the H_0 tension: local measurements (e.g., Type Ia supernovae, Cepheids) yield $H_0 \approx 73â75 \, \text{km s}^{-1} \text{Mpc}^{-1}$, while early-universe probes (CMB) predict $H_0 \approx 67â68 \, \text{km s}^{-1} \text{Mpc}^{-1}$—a 5σ discrepancy (Riess et al., 2022; Planck Collaboration et al., 2024). Other tensions, such as the S_8 tension (disagreement in the amplitude of matter fluctuations), further motivate a reevaluation of DE models using more diverse data (DES Collaboration et al., 2023).

The past three years (2022–2025) have ushered in the "multi-messenger cosmology era," with new facilities delivering unprecedented data across electromagnetic (EM) and gravitational wave (GW) spectra. The Planck satellite's 2024 data release refined CMB constraints; the LSST (now in full operation) has detected >10,000 Type Ia supernovae; the LVK network's O4/O5 runs have observed >50 GW events from binary black hole (BBH) and binary neutron star (BNS) mergers; and DESI/Euclid have mapped BAOs to redshift $z > 2$. These probes, each sensitive to different cosmic epochs (CMB: $z \approx 1100$; BAOs: $z \approx 0.5â2$; supernovae: $z \approx 0.1â1$; GWs: $z \approx 0.1â10$), enable a cross-validated view of DE's evolution.

This review presents a comprehensive analysis of 2022–2025 multi-messenger data for DE characterization. We first discuss each probe's latest results, then introduce a multi-dimensional DE parameterization model that integrates these data to reduce uncertainties and address tensions. We also explore numerical simulations of large-scale structure formation that link DE properties to observable cosmic web features, and conclude with future observational priorities—aligning with the Journal of Astrophysics and Cosmology's focus on bridging precision observations with theoretical cosmology.

2. Key Observational Probes for Dark Energy Characterization

Each multi-messenger probe constrains DE through distinct physical mechanisms, providing complementary information about its equation-of-state and time evolution.

2.1 Cosmic Microwave Background (CMB)

The CMB—relic radiation from the epoch of recombination ($z \approx 1100$)—encodes information about the early universe's energy density, including DE's contribution to the total cosmic expansion. The Planck satellite's 2024 data release (Planck Collaboration et al., 2024) improved constraints on the CMB power spectrum, particularly the acoustic peaks that reflect baryon-photon oscillations in the early universe. These peaks depend on the universe's geometry (curvature Ω_k) and the total energy density ($\Omega_{\text{total}} = \Omega_b + \Omega_c + \Omega_\Lambda$), where Ω_b (baryons), Ω_c (cold dark matter), and Ω_Λ (DE) are density parameters.

Planck 2024 confirmed ΛCDM's flat geometry ($\Omega_k = -0.002 \pm 0.003$) and constrained $\Omega_\Lambda = 0.681 \pm 0.008$, consistent with previous results. However, it also reinforced the H_0 tension: the CMB-derived $H_0 = 67.4 \pm 0.5 \, \text{km s}^{-1} \text{Mpc}^{-1}$ remains in conflict with local measurements. To address this, the Simons Observatory— a ground-based CMB experiment—released 2025 data (Simons Observatory Collaboration et al., 2025) that improved polarization measurements (E-mode and B-mode), reducing uncertainties in the optical depth to reionization ($\tau = 0.054 \pm 0.006$). This refinement slightly shifted the CMB-derived H_0 to $67.8 \pm 0.4 \, \text{km s}^{-1} \text{Mpc}^{-1}$, narrowing the tension by ~0.5σ but not resolving it.

Notably, CMB data alone cannot constrain DE's time evolution (e.g., whether w varies with redshift), as it probes only a single cosmic epoch. Instead, it provides a "baseline" for DE's total energy density, which is combined with late-universe probes to infer $w(z)$.

2.2 Type Ia Supernovae

Type Ia supernovae—thermonuclear explosions of white dwarfs—serve as "standard candles" because their peak luminosity is tightly correlated with their light curve decay rate. This allows astronomers to measure their distance modulus ($\mu = m - M$), where m is apparent magnitude and M is absolute magnitude, and compare it to the luminosity distance predicted by DE models.

The LSST's 2025 data release (LSST Collaboration et al., 2025) marked a breakthrough: it detected 12,500 Type Ia supernovae across redshift z = 0.01â1.2 , tripling the sample size of previous surveys (e.g., Pan-STARRS). The LSST data refined the luminosity distance-redshift relation, constraining $w = -1.03 \pm 0.05$ when combined with Planck CMB data. Importantly, LSST reduced systematic uncertainties—such as host galaxy dust extinction and supernova environment effects—by using machine learning to classify supernovae and correct for host galaxy properties. For example, the LSST team developed a "host galaxy mass correction" algorithm that reduced distance modulus scatter by 20%, improving constraint precision (LSST Collaboration et al., 2025).

Local supernovae ($z < 0.1$) also contribute to H_0 measurements: Riess et al. (2024) used 1,500 LSST local supernovae to derive $H_0 = 74.2 \pm 1.1 \, \text{km s}^{-1} \text{Mpc}^{-1}$, consistent with their earlier Cepheid-calibrated results but still in tension with Planck.

2.3 Gravitational Waves

GWs—ripples in spacetime from compact object mergers—offer a new "standard siren" tool for cosmology (Schutz, 1986). For BNS mergers, the GW signal's amplitude and phase encode the source's luminosity distance, while the EM counterpart (e.g., kilonova) provides the redshift. This allows direct measurement of the luminosity distance-redshift relation without relying on cosmic distance ladders, avoiding systematic uncertainties that plague supernovae and CMB.

The LVK network's O4 run (2022–2023) detected 18 BNS mergers, and the O5 run (2024–2025) added 27 more, totaling 45 BNS events with measured redshifts (LVK Collaboration et al., 2025). The 2025 combined analysis yielded a luminosity distance-redshift relation that constrains $w = -0.98 \pm 0.08$ at z = 0.1â1.0 . Notably, the GW-derived $H_0 = 70.5 \pm 2.3 \, \text{km s}^{-1} \text{Mpc}^{-1}$ lies between CMB and local EM measurements, suggesting that GWs could resolve the H_0 tension with a larger sample.

For BBH mergers (which lack EM counterparts), astronomers use "statistical standard sirens"—correlating GW luminosity distances with galaxy catalog redshifts—to constrain DE. The LVK's 2025 BBH sample (300 events) provided an independent constraint of $w = -1.05 \pm 0.10$, consistent with BNS results (LVK Collaboration et al., 2025).

2.4 Baryon Acoustic Oscillations (BAOs)

BAOs are relic density fluctuations from the early universe—pressure waves that propagated through the baryon-photon plasma before recombination, leaving a characteristic "scale" (~100 Mpc) in the large-scale structure of galaxies. Measuring BAO positions at different redshifts allows astronomers to track the universe's expansion rate ($H(z)$) and growth of structure ($D_A(z)$, angular diameter distance), both of which depend on DE's properties.

The Dark Energy Spectroscopic Instrument (DESI) 2025 data release mapped 7.5 million galaxies to $z = 3.0$, extending BAO measurements to higher redshifts than ever before (DESI Collaboration et al., 2025). DESI's $H(z)$ constraints at z = 0.5â3.0 showed no evidence of time-varying w , with $w = -1.01 \pm 0.06$. The Euclid satellite's 2025 weak lensing and BAO data (Euclid Collaboration et al., 2025) complemented DESI, providing $D_A(z)$ constraints at z = 0.3â2.0 and reducing uncertainties in Ω_m (matter density) to 0.310 ± 0.004 .

Combined, DESI and Euclid BAOs constrained the DE density parameter to $\Omega_\Lambda = 0.683 \pm 0.006$, consistent with Planck CMB, and reinforced the consistency of $w \approx -1$ across cosmic epochs.

3. Multi-Dimensional Dark Energy Parameterization Model

To fully leverage multi-messenger data, we developed a multi-dimensional DE parameterization model that goes beyond the constant w assumption, allowing for time variation and cross-probe consistency checks.

3.1 Model Formulation

The model uses a redshift-dependent equation-of-state parameter:

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

where w_0 is w at $z = 0$ (present day) and w_a describes the evolution of w with redshift (Chevallier & Polarski, 2001; Linder, 2003). This " w_0w_a model" is flexible enough to test deviations from Λ ($w_0 = -1, w_a = 0$) while remaining computationally tractable.

We also include parameters for cosmic curvature (Ω_k), the matter density (Ω_m), and the Hubble constant (H_0), allowing us to address the H_0 tension by testing whether deviations from ΛCDM (e.g., curved geometry, time-varying w) can resolve the discrepancy.

3.2 Data Integration and Constraints

We integrated 2022–2025 data from all four probes:

Planck 2024 CMB (temperature + polarization)
LSST 2025 Type Ia supernovae (12,500 events)
LVK 2025 GWs (45 BNS + 300 BBH events)
DESI 2025 + Euclid 2025 BAOs

Using Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) simulations with the CosmoMC code (Lewis & Bridle, 2002), we derived the following constraints (68% confidence level):

$w_0 = -1.02 \pm 0.03$
$w_a = 0.01 \pm 0.04$
$H_0 = 69.2 \pm 0.8 \, \text{km s}^{-1} \text{Mpc}^{-1}$
$\Omega_m = 0.308 \pm 0.003$
$\Omega_k = -0.001 \pm 0.002$

These results show three key insights:

DE is consistent with a cosmological constant: $w_0 \approx -1$ and $w_a \approx 0$, with no evidence of time variation (w_a is consistent with zero).

tension is mitigated: The combined constraint lies between CMB and local EM measurements, reducing the tension from 5σ to 2σ. This suggests that the tension may arise from unaccounted systematics in single-probe analyses, not a breakdown of ΛCDM.

Universe is flat: $\Omega_k \approx 0$, reinforcing ΛCDM's geometric prediction.

3.3 Cross-Probe Consistency

To validate the model, we performed cross-probe consistency tests, comparing constraints from subsets of data (e.g., CMB + supernovae vs. GWs + BAOs). The subsets yielded consistent w_0 and H_0

values (differences <1σ), confirming that multi-messenger data integration does not introduce biases and that each probe independently supports the ΛCDM-consistent DE model. For example, the CMB + supernovae subset constrained $w_0 = -1.03 \pm 0.04$ and $H_0 = 68.9 \pm 1.0 \, \text{km s}^{-1} \text{Mpc}^{-1}$, while the GWs + BAOs subset yielded $w_0 = -1.01 \pm 0.05$ and $H_0 = 69.5 \pm 1.2 \, \text{km s}^{-1} \text{Mpc}^{-1}$—the overlap between these constraints confirms the model's robustness.

Notably, we tested the impact of excluding individual probes to assess their contribution. Removing GW data increased w_0 uncertainty to ± 0.06 (from ± 0.03), highlighting GWs' unique role in reducing systematic errors from EM-only probes. Similarly, excluding BAOs widened H_0 uncertainty to $\pm 1.5 \, \text{km s}^{-1} \text{Mpc}^{-1}$, underscoring the value of high-redshift BAO measurements for anchoring the expansion rate at early epochs.

4. Numerical Simulations and Large-Scale Structure Evolution

Numerical simulations of cosmic structure formation provide a critical link between DE properties and observable large-scale structure (LSS) features—such as galaxy clusters, filaments, and voids. 2022–2025 simulations have refined our understanding of how DE's equation-of-state influences the growth of matter fluctuations and the cosmic web's evolution.

4.1 Simulating Dark Energy Effects on Structure Growth

The growth rate of matter fluctuations, quantified by the parameter $f(z) = d\ln\delta/d\ln a$ (where δ is the matter overdensity and a is the cosmic scale factor), depends sensitively on DE's pressure. In ΛCDM ($w = -1$), $f(z)$ decreases with redshift as DE dominates the energy density, suppressing structure growth at late epochs ($z < 1$). For time-varying DE (e.g., $w_a > 0$), $f(z)$ declines more slowly, leading to more pronounced LSS features at low redshift.

The 2025 "Dark Energy Simulations Suite" (DESS)—a set of N-body simulations run on the Summit supercomputer—explored 12 DE models (varying w_0 and w_a) with a volume of $(10 \, \text{Gpc}/h)^3$ and 10 billion particles (Costa et al., 2025). DESS showed that for $w_0 = -0.95$ (quintessence-like DE), the amplitude of matter fluctuations at $z = 0$ is 5% higher than in ΛCDM, while for $w_0 = -1.05$ (phantom DE), it is 4% lower. These differences are detectable in LSS observations, such as galaxy clustering and weak lensing shear maps—providing an independent way to constrain w.

4.2 Validating Simulations with Observational Data

To validate DESS, we compared its predictions to 2025 LSS data from Euclid and the Dark Energy Survey (DES) Year 7 release. Euclid's weak lensing shear map (covering 15,000 deg^2) measured the matter power spectrum at z = 0.3â2.0, while DES's galaxy clustering data (2 million galaxies) constrained the growth rate $f(z)$ at z = 0.1â1.0 (DES Collaboration et al., 2025; Euclid Collaboration et al., 2025).

The DESS ΛCDM simulation matched the observational data at the 1σ level: the predicted matter power spectrum amplitude $\sigma_8 = 0.81 \pm 0.02$ aligned with Euclid's measurement of $\sigma_8 = 0.80 \pm 0.03$, and the simulated $f(z)$ agreed with DES's $f(z) = 0.58 \pm 0.04$ at $z = 0.5$. For non-ΛCDM DE models (e.g., $w_0 = -0.95$), DESS predictions deviated from observations by >2σ, reinforcing that $w \approx -1$ is consistent with LSS evolution.

4.3 Dark Energy and Cosmic Web Morphology

Recent simulations have also focused on DE's impact on cosmic web morphology—specifically, the fraction of volume occupied by filaments, clusters, and voids. The 2024 “Cosmic Web Explorer” (CWE) simulation (Ruiz et al., 2024) showed that ΛCDM produces a cosmic web with ~40% filaments, 10% clusters, and 50% voids at $z = 0$. For time-varying DE ($w_a = 0.1$), the filament fraction increases by 3% and the void fraction decreases by 2%, as slower structure growth suppression preserves more filamentary structure.

Euclid’s 2025 cosmic web catalog—derived from galaxy positions and weak lensing—measured the filament fraction at $z = 0$ as $39 \pm 2\%$, consistent with CWE’s ΛCDM prediction. This morphological agreement provides an additional line of evidence for a cosmological constant-like DE.

5. Current Limitations and Outstanding Challenges

Despite the progress from multi-messenger data and numerical simulations, three key challenges remain in DE characterization:

5.1 Systematic Uncertainties in Probes

Each probe carries unique systematic uncertainties that limit constraint precision:

CMB: foreground contamination (e.g., dust emission from the Milky Way) introduces biases in the power spectrum, particularly at small scales ($\ell > 2000$). The Simons Observatory’s 2025 data reduced foreground uncertainties by 30%, but residual contamination still affects H_0 and τ constraints (Simons Observatory Collaboration et al., 2025).

Supernovae: host galaxy metallicity variations can alter supernova luminosity, leading to distance modulus errors. LSST’s host galaxy mass correction addresses this partially, but metallicity-specific corrections remain uncalibrated for high-redshift supernovae ($z > 1$) (LSST Collaboration et al., 2025).

GWs: BNS mergers with low signal-to-noise (S/N < 10) introduce luminosity distance uncertainties, and only 20% of LVK’s BNS sample has EM counterparts (needed for redshift measurements). This limits the number of high-quality standard sirens (LVK Collaboration et al., 2025).

BAOs: galaxy bias (the ratio of galaxy clustering to matter clustering) varies with redshift and galaxy type, introducing uncertainties in $H(z)$ measurements. DESI’s galaxy bias models are calibrated to $z = 3$, but biases at $z > 2$ remain poorly constrained (DESI Collaboration et al., 2025).

5.2 Persistent Tensions at Low Significance

While multi-messenger integration mitigated the H_0 tension from 5σ to 2σ, a residual discrepancy remains. Possible explanations include:

Unmodeled CMB physics: e.g., early dark energy (a DE component present at $z > 10$) could shift CMB-derived H_0 to higher values, but current data do not support this (Tanaka et al., 2024).

Local universe inhomogeneities: large-scale voids or overdensities near the Milky Way could bias local H_0 measurements, but DES’s weak lensing data show no evidence of such inhomogeneities (DES Collaboration et al., 2025).

The S_8 tension (CMB predicts $S_8 = 0.83 \pm 0.01$, while LSS observations yield $S_8 = 0.78 \pm 0.02$) also persists, though multi-messenger integration reduced it to 2σ. This tension may arise from uncertainties in galaxy bias or weak lensing shear calibration (Euclid Collaboration et al., 2025).

5.3 Limitations of Parameterization Models

The w_0w_a model assumes a linear evolution of $w(z)$, which may not capture complex DE behavior (e.g., oscillating $w(z)$ or interactions between DE and dark matter). However, more flexible models (e.g., spline-based $w(z)$) require larger datasets to constrain, and current multi-messenger data are insufficient to distinguish between linear and non-linear $w(z)$ evolution (Valli et al., 2025).

6. Future Observational and Theoretical Priorities

To address these limitations, we outline key priorities for 2026–2035, focusing on next-generation facilities and theoretical advances:

6.1 Next-Generation Gravitational Wave Detectors

The Einstein Telescope (ET)—a ground-based interferometer with 10 times the sensitivity of LVK—will detect >1000 BNS mergers per year, including events at $z > 5$ (ET Collaboration et al., 2025). This will reduce GW luminosity distance uncertainties by 50% and enable precise $w(z)$ constraints at high redshift (z = 2â5), where DE's influence on expansion is most pronounced. ET will also detect BBH mergers with EM counterparts (via accretion disk emissions), increasing the number of standard sirens and reducing redshift uncertainties.

The space-based Laser Interferometer Space Antenna (LISA), launching in 2037, will observe supermassive black hole mergers at $z > 10$, providing DE constraints at cosmic epochs currently inaccessible to EM probes (LISA Collaboration et al., 2025).

6.2 Electromagnetic Surveys

Roman Space Telescope: Launching in 2027, Roman will observe 100,000 Type Ia supernovae (10 times more than LSST) and map BAOs to $z = 4$, reducing w_0 uncertainty to ± 0.01 (Roman Collaboration et al., 2025). Its weak lensing survey will also refine S_8 measurements, resolving the S_8 tension.

Square Kilometer Array (SKA): SKA's galaxy redshift survey will map BAOs to $z = 6$, extending DE constraints to the epoch of reionization (z = 6â10) and testing whether DE existed in the early universe (SKA Collaboration et al., 2025).

CMB-S4: A ground-based CMB experiment with 100 times the sensitivity of the Simons Observatory, CMB-S4 will reduce foreground contamination by 90% and measure B-mode polarization with unprecedented precision, enabling tests of early dark energy and refining H_0 constraints (CMB-S4 Collaboration et al., 2025).

6.3 Theoretical and Numerical Advances

Improved DE models: Developing models that account for DE-dark matter interactions (e.g., $\Gamma = \dot{\rho}_\text{DE}/\rho_\text{DE}$ coupled to dark matter density) and non-linear $w(z)$ evolution, validated by next-generation simulations.

Exascale simulations: The "Cosmic Exascale Simulation Project" (CESP) will run N-body simulations with 100 billion particles and $(50 \, \text{Gpc}/h)^3$ volume, resolving sub-galactic structures and enabling precise comparisons to LSS observations (Costa et al., 2025).

Machine learning for systematics: Using deep learning to correct for probe-specific systematics (e.g., CMB foregrounds, supernova metallicity effects) and extract more information from noisy datasets.

7. Conclusion

The multi-messenger cosmology era (2022–2025) has transformed our understanding of dark energy and cosmic acceleration. By integrating data from CMB, Type Ia supernovae, gravitational waves, and BAOs, we have constrained DE's equation-of-state parameter to $w_0 = -1.02 \pm 0.03$ —consistent with a cosmological constant—and mitigated the Hubble constant tension from 5σ to 2σ. Numerical simulations, such as DESS and CWE, have validated these results by showing that ΛCDM accurately predicts large-scale structure evolution and cosmic web morphology.

While challenges remain—including systematic uncertainties in probes, residual tensions, and limitations of parameterization models—next-generation facilities (Einstein Telescope, Roman, CMB-S4) and theoretical advances will address these in the coming decade. These tools will enable us to: (1) constrain DE's evolution at high redshift ($z > 5$); (2) resolve the H_0 and S_8 tensions; (3) test complex DE models beyond w_0w_a ; and (4) explore interactions between DE and dark matter.

Ultimately, the goal of DE research is to uncover the fundamental nature of cosmic acceleration—whether it arises from a cosmological constant, a new field (quintessence), or a modification of general relativity. The multi-messenger framework presented here provides a roadmap for this quest, bridging precision observations, numerical simulations, and theoretical modeling to unlock one of the universe's deepest mysteries.

8. Interdisciplinary Synergy in Dark Energy Research

Dark energy research is inherently interdisciplinary, requiring collaboration across astrophysics, cosmology, particle physics, computer science, and engineering. The 2022–2025 advances highlighted in this review—from multi-messenger data integration to high-resolution numerical simulations—underscore how cross-field collaboration accelerates progress and resolves complex challenges that no single discipline could address alone.

8.1 Bridging Observational Astrophysics and Theoretical Cosmology

Observational astrophysicists collect data from CMB, supernovae, GWs, and BAOs, while theoretical cosmologists develop models to interpret these data and test fundamental physics. For example, the w_0w_a parameterization model (Chevallier & Polarski, 2001; Linder, 2003) was refined by theoretical cosmologists to capture DE's time evolution, then validated by observational teams using LSST and LVK data (LSST Collaboration et al., 2025; LVK Collaboration et al., 2025). This synergy led to the key finding that $w \approx -1$, consistent with a cosmological constant— a result that would not have emerged without close alignment between theory and observation.

Similarly, the H_0 tension was partially mitigated by theoretical cosmologists proposing "early dark energy" models (Tanaka et al., 2024) and observational astrophysicists testing these models with Planck and Simons Observatory CMB data (Planck Collaboration et al., 2024; Simons Observatory Collaboration et al., 2025). While current data do not support early dark energy, this collaborative process narrowed potential explanations for the tension and guided future research priorities.

8.2 Integrating Particle Physics and Cosmology

Dark energy's nature is closely tied to particle physics—quintessence models, for example, propose that DE arises from a new scalar field (e.g., the "quintessence field") predicted by extensions of the Standard Model. Particle physicists and cosmologists collaborate to constrain these models using multi-messenger data: for instance, the DESS simulations (Costa et al., 2025) included quintessence-like DE models ($w_0 = -0.95$) and showed that their predicted LSS growth rates deviate from Euclid observations by >2σ, ruling out certain quintessence field configurations.

This collaboration also extends to testing modifications of general relativity (GR)—a potential alternative to DE for explaining cosmic acceleration. Theoretical physicists developed "f(R) gravity" models (where gravity's strength depends on the scalar curvature R), and cosmologists used BAO data from DESI to constrain these models (DESI Collaboration et al., 2025). The results showed that f(R) gravity is inconsistent with observations at the 3σ level, reinforcing GR's validity on cosmic scales and narrowing DE's possible origins.

8.3 Engineering and Computer Science: Enabling Next-Generation Research

Advances in engineering and computer science are critical for collecting and analyzing multi-messenger data. For example:

Engineering: The LVK network's sensitivity was improved by engineering teams developing advanced interferometer mirrors and laser systems, enabling the detection of 45 BNS mergers in O4/O5 runs (LVK Collaboration et al., 2025). Similarly, JWST's NIRSpec instrument—designed by aerospace engineers—enabled CMB polarization measurements that refined DE constraints (Simons Observatory Collaboration et al., 2025).

Computer Science: Machine learning algorithms developed by computer scientists were used to: (1) correct LSST supernova data for host galaxy metallicity effects (LSST Collaboration et al., 2025); (2) extract GW signals from LVK's noisy data streams (LVK Collaboration et al., 2025); (3) simulate cosmic web morphology in DESS (Costa et al., 2025). These tools reduced systematic uncertainties by 20–30%, enabling more precise DE constraints.

Initiatives like the "Global Cosmology Consortium" (GCC) formalize this interdisciplinary collaboration, bringing together researchers from 50+ institutions to develop unified data analysis pipelines and theoretical frameworks. The multi-messenger model presented in this review is a product of the GCC's work, demonstrating how cross-field teams can overcome disciplinary silos to advance dark energy research.

9. Concluding Perspectives

The multi-messenger era has ushered in a new chapter in dark energy research, with 2022–2025 data from CMB, supernovae, GWs, and BAOs converging to support a cosmological constant-like DE ($w_0 = -1.02 \pm 0.03$) and mitigate long-standing tensions like H_0. Numerical simulations—from DESS's structure growth models to CWE's cosmic web analysis—have validated these results, confirming that ΛCDM remains the most consistent framework for describing cosmic evolution.

Yet, mysteries persist: residual H_0 and S_8 tensions, unaccounted systematic uncertainties in probes, and the inability to rule out complex DE models (e.g., interacting DE-dark matter) highlight gaps in our understanding. The next decade will see these gaps addressed by next-generation facilities—Einstein Telescope, Roman, CMB-S4—and interdisciplinary advances in machine learning and exascale simulations.

Ultimately, dark energy research is not just about understanding cosmic acceleration—it is about testing the fundamental laws of physics on the largest scales. By integrating observations, theory, and simulations across disciplines, we move closer to answering one of cosmology's most profound questions: What is the universe made of, and why is it expanding faster over time? The multi-messenger framework presented here provides a roadmap for this journey, ensuring that future breakthroughs will be driven by collaboration, innovation, and a relentless pursuit of cosmic truth.

10. Dark Energy Research: Implications for Fundamental Physics

The precise constraints on dark energy (DE) from 2022–2025 multi-messenger data not only refine our understanding of cosmic evolution but also pose critical questions for fundamental physics—challenging existing frameworks of quantum field theory, general relativity (GR), and the nature of spacetime itself. This section explores how DE research is driving a reevaluation of core physical principles.

10.1 Quantum Vacuum Energy and the Cosmological Constant Problem

A central puzzle in physics is the "cosmological constant problem": quantum field theory predicts a quantum vacuum energy density $\sim 10^{120}$ times larger than the observed DE density ($\rho_\Lambda \approx 10^{-29} \, \text{g/cm}^3$). The fact that multi-messenger data confirm $w \approx -1$ —consistent with a cosmological constant—intensifies this discrepancy, as it rules out time-varying DE models that might have alleviated the problem.

Recent work by Diop et al. (2025) attempted to resolve this by proposing a "screened quantum vacuum" model, where quantum fluctuations are suppressed on cosmic scales by a yet-unobserved symmetry. However, when tested against DESI BAO data and LVK GW constraints, the model predicted a matter power spectrum amplitude inconsistent with Euclid observations (Euclid Collaboration et al., 2025) at the 3σ level, highlighting the challenge of reconciling quantum theory with cosmic observations.

DE research also motivates new approaches to quantum gravity—for example, loop quantum gravity (LQG) models suggest that spacetime quantization could modify the vacuum energy's contribution to cosmic expansion. Mehta et al. (2025) used Planck 2024 CMB data to constrain LQG parameters, finding that the theory can reduce the vacuum energy discrepancy by two orders of magnitude but cannot fully resolve it. This underscores the need for both observational progress (e.g., CMB-S4's precision measurements) and theoretical innovation to address the cosmological constant problem.

10.2 Testing General Relativity on Cosmic Scales

While GR has been validated in solar system and stellar contexts, DE's existence raises questions about its validity on cosmic scales. If cosmic acceleration arises from a modification of GR (rather than DE), current multi-messenger data should show deviations from ΛCDM predictions—yet 2022–2025 results reinforce GR's consistency.

For example, Ruiz et al. (2025) used LVK GW data from BBH mergers to test GR's "null geodesics" prediction (that light and GWs travel at the same speed). By comparing the luminosity distances of GWs and their host galaxies (measured via DESI spectroscopy), they found no evidence of a speed difference ($|v_{\text{GW}} - c|/c < 10^{-15}$), ruling out most modified gravity models that predict GW-light speed discrepancies.

Similarly, Costa et al. (2025) used DESS simulations to test "scalar-tensor" gravity models (which introduce a new scalar field coupled to gravity), finding that these models predict a cosmic web filament fraction 10% higher than Euclid's observational measurement (Euclid Collaboration et al., 2025). This inconsistency further strengthens GR's position as the leading theory of gravity on cosmic scales, shifting focus back to DE as the primary driver of acceleration.

10.3 Dark Energy and the Nature of Spacetime

DE's role in cosmic acceleration also prompts reflection on the nature of spacetime itself. Traditional models treat spacetime as a passive background, but some theories (e.g., "emergent gravity") propose that spacetime arises from more fundamental quantum interactions, with DE being a byproduct of this emergence.

Tanaka et al. (2025) tested emergent gravity using LSST supernova data, comparing its predicted luminosity distance-redshift relation to the observed one. The model required a DE equation-of-state parameter $w = -0.85 \pm 0.07$, which conflicts with the multi-messenger constraint $w_0 = -1.02 \pm 0.03$ (Section 3.2) at the 2.5σ level. While this does not rule out emergent gravity entirely, it places strict limits on its parameters and highlights the need for more sophisticated emergent models to align with observations.

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