Dark Energy Survey Year 1 Results: Calibration of Cluster Mis-centering in the redMaPPer Catalogs


Key words: galaxy clusters: general

1 INTRODUCTION

The abundance of galaxy clusters is a sensitive probe of cosmological models (see reviews and the referenced literature in Allen et al. 2011; Weinberg et al. 2013). Cluster cosmology studies from the latest optical imaging surveys such as the Dark Energy Survey (the DES Collaboration 2018) will deliver significant improvement in precision over previous studies based on the Sloan Digital Sky Survey (SDSS, Rozo et al. 2010) and require (McClintock et al. 2019) accurate understanding of various systematic effects such as the orientation of clusters (Noh & Cohn 2012; Dietrich et al. 2014), correlated structures and their projection effect (Erickson et al. 2011; Costanzi et al. 2019), mass profile modeling uncertainties (McClintock et al. 2019), and the contamination of cluster member galaxies in the lensing measurements (Varga et al. 2018).
2 DES Collaboration

One such important systematic effect is the mis-identification of cluster centers (Johnston et al. 2007a,b; Melchior et al. 2017; Simet et al. 2017; McClintock et al. 2019; the DES Collaboration 2018). Cluster observables, e.g., gravitational shear profiles, must be compared to models in order to derive constraints on parameters, and the models are based on some definition of cluster center, described theoretically or on the basis of the matter density field in N-body simulations. Cluster lensing studies based on data from DES (McClintock et al. 2019) require accurate knowledge of cluster mis-centering fraction and offset distribution in order to forward model masses using analytic halo profiles.

Optical cluster finders often attempt to identify a central galaxy as the center (Koester et al. 2007; Hao et al. 2010; Rykoff et al. 2014; Oguri et al. 2018). These central galaxies are typically quenched of star formation activities and may appear to be the brightest galaxy in a cluster (see studies in Skibba et al. 2011; Hoshino et al. 2015; Lauer et al. 2014). The identification of cluster central galaxies may seem straightforward given their dominant appearances, but mis-identifications or offsets relative to any other theoretical definition of center is inevitable. Because massive halos experience growth through mergers, cluster central galaxies can be displaced from the local gravitational potential minimum (e.g., Martel et al. 2014). A related effect is when a second galaxy within the halo is chosen as the center by the cluster finding algorithm. For a color-based scheme focused on the reddest galaxies, this may happen if the central galaxy of the host halo has experienced recent star formation (e.g., McDonald et al. 2012; Donahue et al. 2015) or if a merging event brings in two nearly identical central galaxies of the progenitor halos, as in the case of the Coma cluster (e.g., Vikhlinin et al. 2001). Another cause of mis-centering is when galaxies lying outside the primary host halo, but aligned in projection, are chosen as the central galaxy by the cluster finding algorithm.

The centering performance of optical cluster finding algorithms has been characterized with various methods. Cluster hot gas is an excellent tracer of the cluster potential as the dominant baryonic mass component. Cluster X-ray or thermal Sunyaev-Zel’dovich (tSZ) observation centers, identified as the centroids or the peaks of the surface brightness, are often used to calibrate the optically selected centers (see examples of X-ray studies in Lin & Mohr 2004; Stott et al. 2012; Mahdavi et al. 2013; Rozo & Rykoff 2014; Lauer et al. 2014; Rykoff et al. 2016; Zhang et al. 2016 and examples of tSZ studies in Song et al. 2012; Saro et al. 2015). Other than calibration to centers identified in multi-wavelength observations, cluster centering has been characterized through comparing cluster radial profiles (lensing or galaxy number count) to those of a cluster sample with well-known centers from X-ray or optical data (Hikage et al. 2018; Luo et al. 2018) and through examining the velocity and separation distribution of cluster satellite galaxies (Skibba et al. 2011).

In this paper, we characterize the centering performance of the redMaPPer cluster finding algorithm – a method for identifying galaxy clusters from optical imaging data. The redMaPPer algorithm excels in producing a complete and efficient cluster sample with an accurate richness mass proxy and precise redshift estimations, as characterized with multi-wavelength and spectroscopic data (Rykoff et al. 2012; Rozo & Rykoff 2014; Rozo et al. 2015a,b; Saro et al. 2015; Murata et al. 2018). Cluster catalogs constructed from SDSS (Rykoff et al. 2014) and DES data (Rykoff et al. 2016) are used to derive cosmological constraints in Costanzi et al. (2018); the DES Collaboration (2018). In terms of the cluster center identification, redMaPPer is not exempt from occasional mis-identification of the central galaxy.

The centering distribution of the redMaPPer algorithm has been studied using almost all of the aforementioned methods (Rozo & Rykoff 2014; Saro et al. 2015; Rykoff et al. 2016; Hikage et al. 2018). In this paper, we model the cluster centering distribution with 211 high signal-to-noise X-ray cluster detections associated with the redMaPPer SDSS DR8 and DES Year 1 samples from the Chandra public archives, and the model constraints are then validated with X-ray cluster detections from the XMM public archives. We focus on the modeling aspects of redMaPPer centering performance in this paper, while the X-ray data processing procedures are presented in Hollowood et al. (2018) and Giles et al. in prep. The data set and methods we employ allow us to analyze the redMaPPer centering performance with the highest precision to date. We also develop a model to characterize how mis-centering affects redMaPPer richness estimation and discuss the impact of cluster mis-centering on cluster cosmology analyses. It is the first time that this effect has been quantified.

This paper is a companion paper to the DES and SDSS cluster weak lensing and cosmology studies presented in McClintock et al. (2019), Costanzi et al. (2018) and the DES Collaboration (2018). It uses similar data products to Farahi et al. (2019). Throughout this paper, we assume a Flat ΛCDM cosmology with $h = 0.7$ and $Ω_m = 0.3$.

2 DATA

2.1 The redMaPPer Catalogs

The redMapper algorithm examines galaxy color, spatial overdensity and galaxy luminosity distribution to identify possible galaxy clusters. Cluster centers are placed on a central galaxy candidate according to the color, luminosity and galaxy over-density computed around the galaxy. Up to five central galaxy candidates are recorded for each cluster with probabilities assigned to them. The cluster center is chosen to be the most probable one. The redMaPPer algorithm also estimates a richness as a mass proxy, $λ$, which is a probabilistic count of red sequence galaxies within an aperture centered on the central galaxy candidate. Detailed presentation of this algorithm can be found in Rykoff et al. (2014, 2016).

The redMaPPer samples studied in this paper have been derived from both SDSS (Rykoff et al. 2014, 2016) and DES (Rykoff et al. 2016; McClintock et al. 2019) data. We use the redMaPPer SDSS 6.3.1 sample (Costanzi et al. 2018) derived from SDSS DR8 (Aihara et al. 2011) photometric data and the redMaPPer DES-Y1-6.4.17 volume-limited catalog which is based on the DES Y1 gold catalog (Drlica-Wagner et al. 2018), with cluster richnesses ≥ 20. For the SDSS redMaPPer sample, we consider clusters in the redshift range of 0.1 to 0.35 which are nearly volume-limited. For the DES redMaPPer sample, we select clusters between redshifts 0.2 and 0.7.

2.2 Comparison of Centers in redMaPPer Catalogs

In this paper, we treat the DES and SDSS redMaPPer catalogs as two independent samples and characterize their centering performances separately. We examine the offset distribution between redMaPPer centers of the overlapping clusters in the DES and SDSS samples, to estimate an upper limit of the well-centered cluster fraction.
We match between the DES and SDSS redMaPPer samples to identify the overlapping clusters in the redshift range of 0.2 to 0.35. For a pair of DES and SDSS clusters to be considered a match, their redshift difference, $|\Delta z|$, must be less than 0.05 to account for the scatter in photometric redshifts and possible blending effects. The redMaPPer centers must be within $1 R_{14}$ ($R_{14} = (\lambda / 100)^{0.1} h^{-1}$ Mpc), which is $\sim 1$ Mpc for $\lambda$ of 20. The radius aperture is chosen because redMaPPer does not consider the clusters to be the same if their centering offset is larger than $R_{14}$. The richness estimations derived from SDSS and DES data have an average relation of $\Delta R_{sdss} = (0.88 \pm 0.03) \times \lambda_{sdss} + (3.28 \pm 1.20)$. We look for matches to $\lambda > 20$ DES clusters in the SDSS redMaPPer sample by lowering the SDSS redMaPPer $\lambda$ threshold to 5 to account for the $\lambda$ difference and scatter between DES and SDSS.

There are 150 DES clusters with $\lambda > 20$ and 38,786 SDSS clusters with $\lambda > 5$ in the overlap region of both catalogs after applying redshift, position, and mask cuts. Of these 150 DES clusters, 148 have SDSS matches given the criteria listed above. 15 of these 148 clusters have at least two matches and the most likely SDSS match was chosen by inspection of redshift, position, and richness. As the purpose of this matching process is to verify the centering consistency in SDSS/DES, we further remove 3 clusters in the total sample (148) because of our poor confidence in the match: the SDSS matching candidates have large richness differences with their respective DES clusters. This further reduces our matching sample size to 145.

We search for X-ray observations and determine X-ray peaks as the fiducial centers and rely on these to estimate the redMaPPer mis-centering fraction and offsets. Some previous studies have used the X-ray and tSZ centroids within different aperture sizes that closely resemble the centroids of the cluster gravitational potential to calibrate the cluster centering distribution (Stott et al. 2012; Song et al. 2012; Saro et al. 2015; Zhang et al. 2016), while others use X-ray emission peaks that closely resemble the peaks of the cluster matter distribution (Lin & Mohr 2004; Mahdavi et al. 2013; Lauer et al. 2014). In DES and SDSS cluster weak lensing and cosmology studies (McClintock et al. 2019; Costanzi et al. 2018; the DES Collaboration 2018), the aim is to quantify redMaPPer’s accuracy in identifying the galaxy near the center of a cluster’s host dark matter halo, or the galaxy that corresponds to the density peak of the dark matter halo (Tinker et al. 2008). To this end, we employ the X-ray peak position as a proxy for the host halo center, and measure the distribution of the projected offsets between X-ray peaks and redMaPPer central galaxies.

We search for X-ray observations and determine X-ray peaks in archival Chandra data for redMaPPer clusters in both SDSS and DES Y1 of richness above 20. RedMaPPer clusters falling within an archival Chandra observation are analyzed with a custom pipeline MATCHa, described in Hollowood et al. (2018). A summary of the X-ray analysis follows.

For each of the redMaPPer clusters with archival Chandra ob-

\[ \geq 0.23/2 = 0.115. \] As we do not have sufficient information (i.e., enough X-ray observations) in the DES/SDSS samples to analyze which has a greater rate of well-centering, we decide to independently analyze the SDSS and DES redMaPPer samples in this paper.

We further examine the richness distribution of the offsets by dividing the clusters into two richness ranges. We do not notice a significant richness trend – 34 out of 41 clusters at richness above 40 are consistently centered VS 77 out of 101 at richness below 40.

2.3 Chandra X-ray Data and Center Measurement

While the comparison of centering between different redMaPPer catalogs above gives an indication of the minimum level of mis-centering, we use X-ray data to calibrate the absolute value of the well-centered cluster fraction, and the offset distribution of mis-centering clusters in each of the redMaPPer samples.

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Figure 3. The $R_{\lambda}$ ($R_{\lambda} = (\lambda/100)^{0.2} h^{-1}$ Mpc) scaled offset distribution between the redMaPPer centers and the X-ray emission peaks for the redMaPPer SDSS and DES samples from the Chandra archival observations, with the inset zooming on the mis-centered component, starting at $r_{\text{offset}}/R_{\lambda} = 0.05$. The distribution can be fitted with two components – a concentrated component that represents the well centered redMaPPer clusters, and an extended component that represents the mis-centered redMaPPer clusters. The best fit SDSS offset model is shown as the solid lines (black: well-centered model, red: mis-centered model), with the shaded regions representing the uncertainties.

For the clusters with X-ray detections, MATCHa additionally determines the position of the X-ray peak starting from the reduced, exposure-corrected, and point source subtracted images. Images are smoothed with a Gaussian with $\sigma = 50$ kpc width, and the peak is defined to be the brightest pixel in this smoothed image. All peaks are then visually examined. In a small number of cases relic point source emission or the removal of a point source near the cluster peak are found to bias the peak determination. The peak position is adjusted after accounting for the point source emission. In addition, two failure modes are flagged and removed from the sample. First, for the centering analysis we remove clusters falling on or near a chip edge in the X-ray observation such that the position of the X-ray peak could not be reliably determined. Second, in a few cases the identified X-ray cluster is clearly not the redMaPPer cluster (e.g. a bright foreground or background cluster in the same observation), and these clusters are likewise removed (see Hollowood et al. 2018 for further detail). Moreover, there are some special redMaPPer miscentering cases, denoted as mis-percolations in Hollowood et al. (2018), because these cases are related to a “percolation” procedure of redMaPPer. In these cases there is a spatially close pair of clusters with similar redshifts, and the one with a less luminous X-ray detection is assigned with a greater richness. Hollowood et al. (2018) manually associates the richer redMaPPer candidate with the more luminous X-ray detection and removes the less rich system from the X-ray samples.

Finally, to improve the accuracy of X-ray peak location, among all the clusters identified in Hollowood et al. 2018, we further impose a signal-to-noise cut removing clusters with a signal-to-noise ratio less than 6.5 within a 500 kpc aperture. In the end, 144 redMaPPer SDSS clusters are identified with X-ray peak centers in the Chandra archival data.

The compilation of the DES redMaPPer Chandra sample follows a similar process to the SDSS redMaPPer sample, with the exception that the X-ray peaks of the DES sample are initially identified around the redMaPPer centers within 500 kpc due to pipeline re-factoring. The peak identifications are visually examined and adjusted if needed. Overall, 67 DES redMaPPer clusters are identified with Chandra observations of signal-to-noise ratio higher than 6.5.
The photometric and astrometric uncertainties of galaxy positions are characterized by a Gamma distribution with a characteristic offset (the $\tau$ parameter) around 0.18 $R_\Delta$.

In Figure 2, we show the redshift and richness distributions of the SDSS and DES redMaPPer Chandra samples. Figure 3 shows the scaled offset distributions between the X-ray peaks and the redMaPPer centers. The tail of the offset distribution indicates a population of mis-centered clusters. Examples of the mis-centered clusters can be found in Hollowood et al. (2018).

3 THE X-RAY REDMAPPER OFFSET

3.1 Model

In this paper, we use the X-ray peaks as the cluster fiducial center, and model the offsets between X-ray peaks and redMaPPer centers to characterize the redMaPPer centering distribution.

When redMaPPer misidentifies the galaxy at the cluster center, an offset between X-ray peaks and the redMaPPer centers is expected. On the other hand, when the redMaPPer centers are correct, the X-ray peaks may still be offset from them because of the different dynamics and relaxation timescales of gas and galaxies (e.g., see studies about cluster state and X-ray galaxy offsets in Mantz et al. 2015; Kim et al. 2017; Roberts et al. 2018), as well as observational uncertainties in identifying the X-ray peaks but these offsets tend to be small, i.e., less than tens of kpc. Therefore, we expect the well and mis-centered redMaPPer clusters to have different offset distributions to the X-ray peaks, and we model the redMaPPer and X-ray offset as a mixture of well-centered and mis-centered components, written as:

$$P(x|\rho, \sigma, \tau) = \rho \times P_{\text{cent}}(x|\sigma) + (1 - \rho) \times P_{\text{miscen}}(x|\tau),$$

$$P_{\text{cent}}(x|\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{x}{\sigma}\right),$$

$$P_{\text{miscen}}(x|\tau) = \frac{1}{\tau} \exp\left(-\frac{x}{\tau}\right).$$

(1)

In the above model, the peaked exponential distribution characterized by the parameter $\sigma$, $P_{\text{cent}}(x|\sigma)$, describes the X-ray offset distribution of the correctly centered clusters. The second component, $P_{\text{miscen}}(x|\tau)$, a Gamma distribution of shape parameter 2 and characterized by a scale parameter $\tau$, describes the offset of the mis-centered clusters. This distribution has a heavy tail and the choice of this distribution is inspired by the Chandra SDSS sample having an extended offset distribution. The fraction of well-centered clusters is characterized by a Gamma distribution with a characteristic redMaPPer X-ray offset denoted by $\lambda$. Therefore, the Bayesian posterior relationships of $\rho$, $\sigma$ and $\tau$ is written as

$$P(\rho, \sigma, \tau|x) \propto P(x|\rho, \sigma, \tau) P(\rho, \sigma, \tau),$$

(3)

where $P(\rho, \sigma, \tau)$ is the prior distribution of $\rho$, $\sigma$ and $\tau$ listed in Table 1, which is chosen to be flat and independent parameters. We sample the posterior distribution of $\rho$, $\sigma$ and $\tau$ using a Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMCc ) method.

3.2 Model Constraints

The aforementioned X-ray redMaPPer offset model is constrained separately for the Chandra SDSS and DES redMaPPer samples. Table 1 lists and Figure 4 shows the posterior constraints of the model parameters including the correctly-centered fraction $\rho$, and the mis-centered characteristic offset $\tau$, as well as the characteristic redMaPPer X-ray offset, $\sigma$. The SDSS sample yields higher precision because of the larger sample sizes. The fraction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prior</th>
<th>$\rho$</th>
<th>$\sigma$</th>
<th>$\tau$</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chandra SDSS Posterior</td>
<td>$0.678^{+0.015}_{-0.031}$</td>
<td>$0.0156^{+0.0026}_{-0.0032}$</td>
<td>$0.179^{+0.021}_{-0.021}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chandra DES Posterior</td>
<td>$0.835^{+0.112}_{-0.073}$</td>
<td>$0.0443^{+0.0231}_{-0.0094}$</td>
<td>$0.166^{+0.111}_{-0.041}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The photometric and astrometric uncertainties of galaxy positions are negligible in DES compared to X-ray Drlica-Wagner et al. 2018*
of well-centered clusters $\rho$ and the mis-centering offset $\tau$ for the mis-centered clusters are mildly different from the DES redMaPer sample which displays a hint of having a higher fraction of well-centered clusters at a 1.5$\sigma$ significance level. For the well-centered clusters, the characteristic redMaPer X-ray offset, $\sigma$, of the DES sample is larger than the respective parameter of the SDSS sample, reflecting the limited angular resolution of X-ray peak identification and the higher redshift range of the DES sample (and therefore lower physical separation resolution of the DES X-ray peak identification).

The redMaPer algorithm computes a centering probability, $P_{\text{cen}}$, as an indicator of whether or not the selected central galaxy is the right choice. We do not find the values of $P_{\text{cen}}$ to accurately reflect the centering statistics of the redMaPer sample. Specifically, we study the dependence of the centering performance by separately constraining the centering model of the redMaPer SDSS sample in two $P_{\text{cen}}$ ranges, $\geq 0.9$ and $< 0.9$ respectively. Clusters of $P_{\text{cen}} \geq 0.9$ have centering fraction of $0.76 \pm 0.05$ while clusters of $P_{\text{cen}} < 0.9$ have a notably lower centering fraction of $0.49 \pm 0.09$. Although a larger $P_{\text{cen}}$ value does indicate a better centering performance, it does not reflect the real centering fractions at the face values.

We have tested the dependence of the centering parameters through constraining the model with the SDSS sample in different ranges of richnesses, X-ray temperatures or luminosities, and for serendipitous vs targeted observations. We do not find significant differences in the centering parameter constraints. A larger set of X-ray observations would be needed to reveal any trends.

Interpretation of the results from this centering offset characterization depends on the adopted models. Different functional forms of the mis-centering offset – a Rayleigh distribution for the mis-centered component, and a Gaussian distribution for the well-centered clusters – have been attempted in previous studies (Saro et al. 2015; Rykoff et al. 2016; Hikage et al. 2018). We have tested alternative models (listed in Table 2) for the mis-centering and centering distributions with the Chandra SDSS sample. As the common parameter shared across different models, the well-centered cluster fraction, $\rho$, is consistently constrained to be in the range of 64% to 70% for SDSS.

We use the Bayesian deviance information criterion (DIC, Gelman et al. 2003) to compare the fitness of the models listed in Table 2. We compute the Bayesian DIC values (DIC, Gelman et al. 2003) by sampling the posterior constraints of the alternative and nominal models presented in the paper. DIC is computed as

$$\text{DIC} = -2\log(p(x|\theta)) + 2\log(p(x|\hat{\theta})).$$

$\log(p(x|\theta))$ is the probability of the observed offsets averaged over the posterior mis-centering model, and $\log(p(x|\hat{\theta}))$ is the probability of the observed offsets given the best-fitting mis-centering model. Lower DIC values indicate better fitting of the model, and a DIC difference larger than 2 is considered significant. This DIC comparison strongly favors the nominal model described in this section.

Notably, when adopting a Rayleigh distribution for the mis-centered component, our SDSS posterior values on the well-centered cluster fraction, $\rho$, and the mis-centered characteristic offset, $\tau$, is highly consistent with the previous study in Hikage et al. (2018) which adopts a similar model and is based on a similar SDSS redMaPer catalog. The posterior precision of the parameters has improved significantly in our analysis.

3.3 Model Validation

We check the model goodness-of-fit with a posterior prediction test. Specifically, we compare the fractions of clusters in an offset range from the data to the predictions from the constrained models. The procedures are as follows.

(i) From the measurements of $x = r_{\text{offset}}/R_k$, record the number of clusters with offsets larger than a comparison value $x_0$.

(ii) Take one set of model parameters, $\rho$, $\sigma$, and $\tau$ from the MCMC posterior constraints, denoted as $\rho_i$, $\sigma_i$, and $\tau_i$. Randomly draw a set of centering offsets, $\{x_i\}$, from the offset model (Equation 1) with the above set of posterior model parameters. The number of random draws should match the size of the X-ray redMaPer sample being tested.

(iii) With the above set of centering offsets sampling, $\{x_i\}$, record the number of offsets larger than a comparison value $x_0$, $N(x_i > x_0)$.

(iv) Repeat the process for each set of $\rho$, $\sigma$, and $\tau$ values from the MCMC posterior chain and acquire the distribution of $N$.

(v) Compare the number from data to this posterior prediction. We expect a two-sided $P$-value, defined as the minimum of the fractions of the posterior predictions above and below the data, to be larger than 0.025.

We use the above process to evaluate the goodness of the model at offsets larger than 0.1, 0.5 and 1 $R_k$. Figure 5 shows the posterior predictive distribution of these offset ranges. For both the SDSS and DES redMaPer samples, the prediction from the model and its respective model constraints well match the measurements from the data in these small, medium and large offset ranges, with the two-sided $P$-values being 0.35, 0.37 and 0.18 for SDSS and 0.11, 0.25 and 0.17 for DES.

Figure 5. Posterior predictive check of the centering offset model. We show the predictions on the fraction of clusters in different offset ranges ($x > 0.1$, $x > 0.5$ and $x > 1.0$) from the offset model sampling the posterior constraints (histograms). These predictions agree with the measurements from data (solid squares) for both the SDSS and DES models and data.

4 MIS-CENTERING IMPACT ON RICHNESS SCALING RELATION

When a cluster is mis-centered, the redMaPer richness estimation may become biased, and the bias depends on the mis-centering offset. In this section, we use the redMaPer catalog itself to constrain a model that describes the bias of $\lambda$ upon a mis-centering offset.
Table 2. Alternative offset models and constraints derived with the Chandra SDSS redMaPPer sample, and DIC comparisons to the nominal model in this paper.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Constraints</th>
<th>DIC - DIC-nominal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gaussian</td>
<td>( P(\hat{y}, \sigma, \tau) = \rho P_{\text{cent}} + (1 - \rho) P_{\text{miscent}} )</td>
<td>( \rho = 0.64^{+0.05}<em>{-0.03} ) ( \sigma = 0.0177^{+0.0025}</em>{-0.0020} ) ( \tau = 1.061^{+0.021}_{-0.016} )</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rayleigh</td>
<td>( P(\hat{y}, \sigma, \tau) = \rho P_{\text{cent}} + (1 - \rho) P_{\text{miscent}} )</td>
<td>( \rho = 0.70^{+0.05}<em>{-0.04} ) ( \sigma = 0.0185^{+0.0025}</em>{-0.0023} ) ( \tau = 0.323^{+0.029}_{-0.024} )</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Parameter constraints for the lambda offset VS centering offset model as in \( \hat{y}(x) = \exp(-x^2/\sigma^2) \) and \( \sigma_r(x) = a \times \arctan(bx) \).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SDSS a</th>
<th>SDSS b</th>
<th>SDSS a</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prior</td>
<td>(0, 10)</td>
<td>(0, 10)</td>
<td>(0, 10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posterior</td>
<td>1.64±0.02</td>
<td>1.76±0.07</td>
<td>0.241±0.008</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th>DES b</th>
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<tr>
<td>Prior</td>
<td>(0, 10)</td>
<td>(0, 10)</td>
<td>(0, 10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posterior</td>
<td>1.66±0.06</td>
<td>1.43±0.22</td>
<td>0.26±0.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As mentioned in Section 3, the redMaPPer algorithm selects the five most probable central galaxies and stores the \( \lambda \) estimations computed at each of the centers. The default redMaPPer center is chosen as the one with the highest centering probability. We make use of this information to construct a richness shift VS offset model.

Assuming that there existed a redMaPPer catalog with the most probable centers always being the correct ones, the \( \lambda \) estimations computed at the other four centers will be affected by the mis-centering effect. The \( \lambda \) bias between the real center and each of the four remaining center candidates, and the positional offsets between them, can be used to constrain a \( \lambda \) vs. centering offset model.

We use the lambda offsets between the 2nd and the 1st (redMaPPer default center) most likely centers, and the distance offset between them, to model the richness VS centering offset (Section 4.1). The model is further validated with X-ray data (Section 4.2).

### 4.1 Model and Model Constraints

We quantify the fractional shift of \( \lambda, \lambda_{\text{miscentered}}/\lambda_{\text{true}} \) due to miscentering. This shift is quantified as being dependent on the scaled mis-centering offset in terms of \( r_1 \). Upon trial of different analytical forms, we model the probabilistic distribution of \( y \) as a Gaussian distribution:

\[
y \sim N(\bar{y}(x), \sigma_r(x)),
\]

with the mean and the dispersion, \( \bar{y}(x) \) and \( \sigma_y(x) \), both depending on \( x \). The mean is positive, decreases with larger offsets starting from 1, and asymptotically reaches 0 for large offsets (Figure 6). The dispersion is positive, increases with larger offsets starting from 0, and asymptotically reaches a constant for large offsets (Figure 6). Specifically, we choose \( \bar{y}(x) = \exp(-x^2/\sigma^2) \) with \( a \) being a model parameter. \( \sigma_r(x) \) is chosen as \( \sigma_r(x) = a \times \arctan(bx) \) and \( a \) and \( b \) are model parameters.

The process of evaluating the above model goes as follows:

1. We compute the separation between the 1st and the 2nd most probable centers, \( r_{\text{sep}} \), assuming the cluster photometric redshift from the redMaPPer algorithm for both of the galaxies. We scale \( r_{\text{sep}} \) as \( r_{\text{sep}}/\lambda_1 \) to become quantity \( x \).
Figure 6. The richness VS offset distributions and models. The cluster richness tends to be biased lower by mis-centering (a, e), and the mean of the bias can be characterized by a Gaussian function (b, f). The biases have large dispersions (c, g), which can be further characterized by an arctan function (c, g). Posterior predictive checks show that the models are tightly constrained from the data and fit the data well (d, h).
Figure 7. Parameter constraints for the lambda offset VS centering offset model. See Section 4.2 for details.

(ii) We compute the relative \( \lambda \) offset between the 1st and the 2nd most probable centers as \( y = \lambda_{\text{2nd}}/\lambda_{\text{1st}} \).

(iii) We repeat the above process for each cluster \( i \) in the redMaPPer catalog, acquiring a measurement data set \( \{x_i, y_i\} \). This data set is shown in Figure 6.

(iv) With the above measurement data set, we constrain the model parameters of \( y \) with the following likelihood: \( L = \sum_{i, x_i < 0.1} \left( \frac{1}{\sigma(x_i)^2} \right)^{-\alpha} \). The likelihood is sampled with a MCMC algorithm.

(v) Note that only the data points with \( x_i > 0.1 \) are used in the fitting process. This helps eliminate over-fitting at small \( x \), and improves the fitting results at large \( x \).

The same measurements and modeling processes are performed for the SDSS and DES redMaPPer catalogs separately. Figure 6 shows the data points as well as the best fitted models in the first two columns. For comparison, the red lines/points are the data running averages and running dispersions in the \( x \) bins (bin widths indicated by the \( x \) error bars in the second column). The MCMC posterior constraints are shown in Figure 7 and listed in Table 3. \( \alpha \) does not appear to be covariant with \( a \) or \( b \), but \( a \) and \( b \) appear to be highly covariant.

Overall, the impact of mis-centering on cluster richness is mild with a low scatter at small mis-centering offset, but grows with a larger offset, reaching a bias ratio \( \lambda_{\text{miscentered}}/\lambda_{\text{true}} \) of 0.5 at \( r_{\text{sep}}/R_4 \sim 1.40 \).

### 4.2 Model Validation with X-ray Centers

As a test of the richness offset model, we make use of the Chandra-redMaPPer samples (Section 2.3) and compare the X-ray peak redMaPPer centered \( \lambda \) to the prediction from the model.

We rerun the redMaPPer \( \lambda \) algorithm with the X-ray peaks as the cluster centers. The procedures are equivalent to the original \( \lambda \) estimation with the exception of a "percolation" process (Rykoff 2014), which re-evaluates \( \lambda \) upon masking neighboring redMaPPer clusters. The \( \lambda \) estimations on X-ray peaks do not go through the "percolation" process as the run does not consider redMaPPer clusters not present in the X-ray sample. In this test, to ensure that the "percolation" process is negligible, we remove clusters whose \( \lambda \) changed by 10% in the initial redMaPPer percolation process.

We calculate the \( \lambda \) offsets VS the distance offsets between the X-ray peaks and redMaPPer centers. The \( \lambda \) offsets are calculated as \( y_2 = \lambda_{\text{RM}}/\lambda_{\text{Xray}} \), and the corresponding X-ray and redMaPPer mis-centering offsets as \( x_2 = r_{\text{sep}}/r_4 \), where \( r_4 \) is evaluated with the X-ray centered \( \lambda \). Clusters of centering offsets \( x_2 \) less than 0.1 are considered well-centered (a similar cut is applied when deriving the model in Section 4.1) and do not enter the test. In Figure 8, we show the derived \( \lambda \) and centering offsets from the X-ray observations. The constrained models in Section 4.1 appear to be qualitatively consistent with these offsets.

To quantify the fitness of the model from the previous section, we compute the following \( \chi^2 \) discrepancy given model parameters and observations:

\[
\chi^2(a, a, b) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( \frac{y_{2i} - \bar{y}(x_{2i})}{\sigma(y_{2i})} \right)^2.
\]

As described in the previous section, \( \alpha \) is the parameter of the \( \bar{y}(x) \) function, and \( a \) and \( b \) are the parameters of the \( \sigma_y(x) \) function. If the model quantitatively describes cluster mis-centering correctly, and the values of \( \alpha \), \( a \), and \( b \) are accurate, \( \chi^2(a, a, b) \) will appear to be drawn from a chisquared distribution, \( \chi^2(n) \), with the degree of freedom, \( n \), matching the number of \( \{y_i, x_i\} \) observations. This chisquared distribution is known as the posterior predictive density for the \( \chi^2 \) discrepancy.

We perform Bayesian posterior predictive assessment on the fitness of the model following the process in Gelman et al. (1996); Meng (1994). The process includes calculating a posterior predictive \( p \)-value (PPP value) which is the classical \( p \)-value averaged over the posterior model parameter distribution. With the posterior distribution of \( a \), \( a \), and \( b \) sampled with the Monte Carlo Markov Chain (MCMC) method, the procedure goes as follows:

(i) Take one set of \( a \), \( a \), and \( b \) from the MCMC posterior constraints, denoted as \( a_j, a_j, b_j \).

(ii) Calculate the \( \chi^2 \) discrepancy for \( a_j, a_j, b_j \), denoted as \( \chi_j^2 \).

(iii) Repeat the process for each set of \( a \), \( a \), and \( b \) values from the MCMC posterior chain.

(iv) For each \( \chi_j^2 \), randomly draw a value, \( q_j \), from a standard \( \chi^2(n) \) distribution. For the posterior set of \( \chi_j^2 \), record the fraction of \( \chi_j^2 \geq q_j \) as \( Pb_1 \), and the frequency of \( \chi_j^2 \leq q_j \) as \( Pb_2 \). We use a two sided \( p \)-value definition, that \( Pb = \min(Pb_1, Pb_2) \) as the PPP value.

We compute the posterior \( \chi^2 \) discrepancy given X-ray \( \{y_i, x_i\} \) observations shown in Figure 8. The posterior \( \chi^2 \) discrepancy values are expected to occupy a highly-probable interval of a chi-squared distribution \( \chi^2(n) \) (posterior predictive density), with the degree of freedom \( n \) matching the number of \( \{y_i, x_i\} \) observations from X-ray peak centers. This appears to be the case for both the SDSS and DES X-ray redMaPPer sample. The Bayesian posterior predictive \( P \) values (PPP values) are 0.18 and 0.50 respectively for the SDSS and DES X-ray redMaPPer samples. Both of the PPP

---

3 Two from each of the SDSS and DES Y1 samples.
values are above a 0.025 model rejection threshold, indicating consistency between the constrained models and the offsets derived with X-ray peak centers.

We also compute the posterior \( \chi^2 \) discrepancy for the original \( \{y_i, x_i\} \) observations that are used to constrain the model. The distributions of \( \{\chi^2_i\} \) are shown as the gray shaded histogram in Figure 6, along with the probability density of a chi-squared distribution, \( \chi^2(n) \), for comparison. The distribution of \( \{\chi^2_i\} \) is in good accordance with the expected \( \chi^2(n) \) distribution, for both the SDSS and DES redMaPPer samples, indicating the goodness of the fit and tightness of the model parameter constraints. The PPP values for the SDSS and DES samples are 0.50 and 0.49 respectively, matching the expectation of a well-posited model.

Note that when deriving the model, the available redMaPPer catalogs already have imperfect center selections. According to the previous section, the majority (~70%) of the clusters in the redMaPPer catalog are correctly selected. We have attempted to select clusters with a higher centering probability (using the redMaPPer \( P_{\text{cen}} \) quantity), but the samples selected on \( P_{\text{cen}} \) display a hint of performing slightly worse in the validation test with X-ray data. Because of a concern that this \( P_{\text{cen}} \) selection may have biased the cluster sample, and that the selection still cannot ensure a 100% well centered subsample, we do not apply the selection in this paper and emphasize on our derived model passing the validation test with X-ray data. In the future, it would be desirable to quantify the richness offset model with X-ray centered richness when larger X-ray redMaPPer clusters become available.

5 IMPPLICATIONS FOR DES CLUSTER COSMOLOGY

5.1 Mis-Centering Model in DES Cluster Weak Lensing Analysis

In DES stacked cluster lensing studies, the cluster lensing signals are fitted to an analytic model to determine cluster mass and concentration. To summarize, McClintock et al. (2019) adopts the following method to correct for mis-centering:

\[
\Sigma(r|M, c) = \rho \Sigma_{\text{cen}}(r|M, c) + (1 - \rho) \Sigma_{\text{miscent}}(r|M, c) \tag{7}
\]

In the above equations, \( \Sigma(r|M, c) \) is the cluster mass profile model with mass \( M \) and concentration \( c \). \( \Sigma_{\text{cen}}(r|M, c) \) denotes the mass profile model for well-centered clusters, while \( \Sigma_{\text{miscent}}(r|M, c) \) is the mass profile model for mis-centered clusters. The mis-centered profile is averaged over the angle, \( \theta \), and magnitude, \( R \), of the radial vector to the correct center,

\[
\Sigma_{\text{miscent}}(r|M, c) = \Sigma_{\text{cen}}(r + R|M, c),
\]

\[
\Sigma_{\text{miscent}}(r|M, c) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int \text{d}R R \mathcal{P}_{\text{miscent}}(R) \tag{8}
\]

The distribution for the magnitude of the radial offset \( R \), is \( \mathcal{P}_{\text{miscent}}(R) \), which is described by a parameter \( \tau \). The model does not account for the offset between central galaxies and X-ray peaks because halos are assumed to be centered on a massive dark matter substructure hosting a central galaxy. Based on the analyses carried out in this study and a companion SDSS redMaPPer centering study of a complete sample with Swift observations in von der Linden et al. (2018), McClintock et al. (2019) adopted the prior
profile model combines a NFW profile and a two-halo model of following the recipe in McClintock et al. (2019), the fiducial mass deviate from the truth if the mis-centering model is inaccurate. To do so, we create a values of the mis-centering parameters. We determine the sensitivity of the mass calibration to variations in cluster lensing studies. A fiducial mass profile is created using the prescription in McClintock et al. 2018 with a fiducial set of mis-centering parameters. Through comparing to the fiducial mass profile, the best fit mass and concentrations are estimated for different assumed values of the mis-centering model parameters, \( \rho \) and \( \tau \). We find that the mass estimation is robust under inaccurate assumptions of \( \rho \), but susceptible to inaccuracy in \( \tau \). The concentration parameter, on the contrary, is more susceptible to the inaccuracy of \( \rho \) than \( \tau \). The vertical lines indicate parameter ranges comparable to those in McClintock et al. 2018.

\[
\rho = 0.75 \pm 0.08 \quad \text{and} \quad \tau = 0.17 \pm 0.04.
\]

These values are consistent with the Chandra DES constraints presented in Section 3, but also encompass the results of the SDSS samples presented in this paper and in von der Linden et al. (2018).

5.2 Sensitivity of Cluster Mass Estimation to the Mis-centering Model

We determine the sensitivity of the mass calibration to variations in the values of the mis-centering parameters. To do so, we create a fiducial mass profile and analyze how much the measured masses deviate from the truth if the mis-centering model is inaccurate. Following the recipe in McClintock et al. (2019), the fiducial mass profile model combines a NFW profile and a two-halo model of \( M_{200}\text{m} = 10^{14} M_{\odot} \), concentration of 5 and \( R_j = 1 \) Mpc. We compute the mis-centered lensing signal by adopting fiducial values \( \rho = 0.68 \) and \( \tau = 0.15 \). We fit this synthetic weak lensing data with a minimum \( \chi^2 \) method assuming a range of values for both \( \rho \) and \( \tau \), and measure the bias of the best fit mass and concentration as a function of these two parameters. The fitting process is restricted to the 0.2 to 30 Mpc radius range as in the DES Y1 weak lensing study (McClintock et al. 2019) and the profile measurement uncertainty is assumed to be due to shape noise only, and therefore scales with radius as \( r^{-1} \).

Figure 9 shows the best fit mass and concentration parameters as a function of \( \rho \) and \( \tau \). We find that the best-fit mass is insensitive to the assumed \( \rho \) value, whereas the recovered concentration is biased. Allowing the concentration parameter to vary effectively decouples the recovered mass from \( \rho \). By contrast, variations in \( \tau \) have a non-negligible impact on the best-fit mass. Uncertainties in \( \tau \) at a level of \( \pm 0.04 \), comparable to the constraint in this paper, results in a mass uncertainty of \( \pm 0.015 \) dex.

These results are in qualitative agreement with the results of McClintock et al. (2019), though computed with two important methodological differences. Specifically: 1) McClintock et al. (2019) has considered more systematic effects other than mis-centering, including using a semi-analytic covariance matrix (Gruen et al. 2015), and accounting for boost-factor corrections (Varga et al. 2018). These changes will affect the relative weighting of radial inner to outer scales, thereby impacting the sensitivity of the mass posteriors to the mis-centering parameters. 2) When constraining the richness-mass scaling relation parameters, McClintock et al. (2019) treats the mis-centering parameters for each richness and redshift bin as independent, which reduces the relative importance of mis-centering in their analysis. Together, these differences reduce the sensitivity of the scaling relation amplitude from the 0.015 dex we estimated here to 0.78%, as quoted in McClintock et al. (2019). Nevertheless, it is clear from Figure 10 in McClintock et al. (2019) that the mass posterior in a single bin is largely insensitive to \( \rho \), but is degenerate with \( \tau \), as illustrated in our toy model analysis above.

These conclusions, however, rely on the assumption that the cluster mass profile is not correlated with the cluster mis-centering effect in optical data. Future cluster lensing analysis may wish to further investigate this assumption, e.g., through examining the cluster mass distribution in X-ray selected clusters (Das et al., private communications).

5.3 Cluster Abundance

The \( \lambda \) offset caused by cluster mis-centering introduces bias and scatter into the lambda-mass scaling relation. We study the scatter increase with a test based on a N-body dark matter simulation (Habib et al. 2016). Richnesses are prescribed to each of the simulation dark matter halos following the richness-mass relation in Saro et al. (2015), with a richness scatter, \( \sigma_{\ln(M/\text{M}_\odot)} \), of 25%. We perturb the assigned richnesses with the Chandra SDSS offset model presented in Section 3 and the richness bias model presented in this section, and find the richness scatter, \( \sigma_{\ln(M)} \) to increase by 2%. The bias and scatter manifest themselves in the number count of clusters selected by \( \lambda \), which is an important input to cluster abundance cosmology. Mis-centering tends to lower the richness estimation and the numbers of clusters above a richness threshold selected by the mis-centered richnesses were lower than those selected by richnesses without mis-centering. The average mass of the clusters selected by the mis-centered richnesses tend to be higher. Testing with simulations shows that the numbers of clusters selected by the mis-centered richnesses is lower by ~2%, and the average cluster masses increase by ~0.5%. Costanzi et al. (2018) estimates these shift to have negligible effects for SDSS and DES Y1 cluster cosmology constraints since they are are significantly smaller than the remaining systematic uncertainties of cluster abundance and mass estimations. Nevertheless, Costanzi et al. (2018); the DES Collaboration (2018) corrected the data vectors with the factors listed above to account for the mis-centering effect. Future
cluster cosmology analysis in the coming years of DES and LSST may wish to explicitly incorporate the mis-centering richness relations as the mis-centering effect on cluster abundance becomes more substantial compared to the statistical uncertainty.

6 CENTERING STUDY WITH XMM DATA

During the preparation of this paper, an additional sample of redMaPPer clusters (SDSS and DES) with archival X-ray observations from the XMM-Newton space telescope became available. As the centering analyses in this paper are optimized for Chandra observations, especially the centering offset model for well-centered clusters is optimized for Chandra PSFs, we do not attempt to combine the XMM and Chandra observations in the modeling processes. Rather, we use the XMM defined X-ray centers to explore the robustness of the fits presented in Section 3. The sample selection and the XMM data analysis methods are described in Section 6.1 and Section 6.2 describes the centering comparison results from XMM.

6.1 X-ray Data Processing

The redMaPPer–XMM joint samples (SDSS and DES) were constructed as follows. First, the redMaPPer centroids were compared to the aim points of observations in the XMM public archive\(^5\). redMaPPer clusters with centroids falling outside 13″ of an aim point were excluded from the samples. Second, the mean and median XMM exposure time was determined within a 10″ radius of the redMaPPer centroid. For this we used exposure maps produced by the XMM Cluster Survey (XCS, Lloyd-Davies et al. 2011). Any redMaPPer clusters with mean exposure times of < 3 ks, and/or median exposure times of < 1.5 ks, were excluded from the samples. We note that the median filter was necessary because some clusters straddle both active and inactive regions of the field of view (FOV), e.g. those lying close to the FOV edge. If a given cluster was observed multiple times by XMM, only the observation with the longest exposure time, at the redMaPPer centroid, was used in subsequent analyses. Third, the remaining redMaPPer cluster centroids were compared to the list of extended sources detected using the XCS Automated Pipeline Algorithm (XAPA). Any redMaPPer clusters lying further than 2 h\(^{-1}\) Mpc (assuming the redMaPPer redshift) of such a source were excluded from the samples. At this stage, the SDSS and DES redMaPPer–XCS samples comprised of 356 and 282 clusters respectively. The X-ray peaks for the clusters in the redMaPPer–XMM joint samples were then determined using a method that closely follows that used for the Chandra analyses, as described in Section 2.3. An initial peak location was found in the respective merged (PN, MOS1, MOS2) XMM image, after smoothing with a σ = 50 h\(^{-1}\) kpc Gaussian (assuming the redMaPPer redshift). As with the Chandra analysis, other sources (i.e. those assumed not to be associated with the redMaPPer cluster) are masked out before the smoothing takes place. For this, we use the XAPA source catalogue of point-like sources. If there are multiple XAPA extended sources within the image, then only the one closest to the redMaPPer centroid is left unmasked. The peak location is then the brightest pixel in the masked, smoothed image, within a radius 1.5×R\(_{\text{d}}\) of the RM position.

\(^5\) The archive match used in this analysis was carried out on August 2018.

The initial peak selection was occasionally erroneous. For example when there was a very bright point source in the XMM FOV. Such sources “bleed” into the surrounding region of the detector, meaning that the default point source mask size was not large enough remove them completely. Such cases were easily identified by eye using SDSS (or DES) and XMM “postage stamp” images. Most of these cases could be corrected by adjusting the size of the point source mask, and then re-running the peak finding script. However, for some, the point source “bleeding” was so pronounced that the respective cluster had to be removed from the redMaPPer–XMM joint sample. Another reason for the initial peak being erroneous was the mis-percolation issue described in Section 2.3. The mis-percolation cases were also identified using eye-ball checks. For these it was necessary to adjust the extended source mask, so that the closest source was now masked, but the second closest was not.

Once the second run of peak finding has been completed (and the new peak positions have been confirmed by eye), the remaining clusters were eye-balled again. At this stage, more redMaPPer clusters were removed from the sample: i) those where the XAPA extended source is clearly not associated with the redMaPPer cluster (i.e. it is a foreground background cluster in projection), and ii) those where the redMaPPer central galaxy falls in an XMM chip gap. After the various cuts described above, the SDSS–XCS and DES–XCS samples contained 248 and 109 sources respectively.

We further apply off axis angle and SNR cuts to the XMM samples. The SNR was determined in the same way as for the Chandra sample i.e. within 500″\(^{-1}\) kpc, using 0.5 – 2.0 keV XMM images. For the XMM–SDSS sample, we require the detections S/N to be > 6.5, and the redMaPPer centers to be within 8.5 arcmin of the aim point (or 6.5 arcmin away from the FOV edge assuming a 15 arcmin FOV radius). For the XMM–DES sample, we again require the detections S/N to be > 6.5, but allow the redMaPPer centers to be up to 10.5 arcmin of the aim point. The FOV cuts ensure that the corresponding redMaPPer centers are more than 500 kpc away from the FOV edge at z = 0.1 for the SDSS sample, or at z = 0.2 for the DES sample. The S/N cuts were imposed to match the 6.5 S/N cuts in the Chandra analysis. With these FOV and S/N cuts, the final SDSS and DES XMM samples contain 163 and 66 clusters respectively. Figure 10 shows their richness and mass distributions.

Further details of the redMaPPer–XMM joint sample development, the peak measurements, the signal to noise estimation and the individual mis-percolation cases can be found in Giles et al. (in prep).

\begin{figure}[h]  
\centering  
\includegraphics[width=0.8\textwidth]{figure10.png}  
\caption{Redshift and richness distributions of the SDSS (black) and DES (blue) redMaPPer clusters matched to archival XMM observations.}  
\end{figure}
6.2 The XMM-Chandra and XMM-redMaPPer Offsets

A subsample of the redMaPPer clusters, 54 in the SDSS sample, and 25 in the DES sample, are analyzed by both the XMM and Chandra analyses. With these overlapping cases, we compare the XMM peak measurements to those from Chandra. Figure 11 shows the offset distribution between XMM and Chandra peak identifications for the same redMaPPer clusters. The XMM and Chandra peak identifications are highly consistent: their separations are within 0.05 $R_\lambda$ for 53/54 of the overlapping SDSS clusters, and 20/25 of the overlapping DES clusters. The separations have a wider distribution for the DES redMaPPer sample reflecting its higher redshift range, and hence higher X-ray peak identification uncertainties in terms of physical distances.

Given the consistency between XMM and Chandra X-ray peak identifications, we constrain the redMaPPer centering offset model proposed in Section 3 with the XMM peaks. Figure 12 and 13 respectively show the offset distributions between the XMM peaks and the redMaPPer centers for the SDSS and DES samples, with comparisons to their corresponding Chandra offset distributions. Figure 14, 15 and Table 4 show the model parameter constraints from these XMM samples. The $\sigma$ parameter in our redMaPPer centering offset model (Equation 1) represents the X-ray peak offset to cluster central galaxy for well-centered clusters, which is further smeared by X-ray peak identification uncertainty and X-ray telescope PSFs. Since $\sigma$ is in the unit of physical distance, the
the accuracy of these mis-centering offsets than the mis-centering fraction.

With the upcoming DES Year 3 and Year 5 data, we expect the redMaPPer centering constraints to continue improving with ~2 times larger overlapping samples between DES and archival X-ray observations, which may permit us to quantify the dependence of the centering parameters on cluster properties, such as cluster richness, redshift, X-ray temperature and luminosity. The current improvement has already lowered the cluster weak lensing mass modeling uncertainties due to mis-centering, to the extent of being in-substantial comparing to the other modeling systematic effects. Since mis-centering is often assumed to be uncorrelated with cluster mass distributions in weak lensing analyses, with the anticipated level of improvement, one may wish to investigate the correlations of mis-centering with other cluster lensing systematic effects, such as cluster mass modeling uncertainties, cluster orientation, triaxiality and projection (McClintock et al. 2019).

The cluster richness estimates tend to be biased lower by mis-centering. In this paper, we propose a richness bias model to describe the effect, which is validated by X-ray centered richness measurements. The richness bias is offset dependent, low for clusters with small mis-centering offset, but larger than 50% for severely mis-centered clusters. Cluster cosmology studies based on full depth DES data or LSST data should explicitly account for this effect to avoid biased cosmological parameter inferences.

Code used in this analysis is available from https://github.com/yyzhang/center_modeling_y1.

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