

First measurement of the Hubble constant from a dark standard siren using the Dark Energy Survey galaxies and the LIGO/Virgo binary–black–hole merger GW170814

- M. SOARES-SANTOS,¹ A. PALMESE,² W. HARTLEY,³ J. ANNIS,² J. GARCIA-BELLIDO,⁴ O. LAHAV,³ Z. DOCTOR,^{5,6} H. LIN,² M. FISHBACH,⁶ M. E. S. PEREIRA,¹ A. GARCIA,¹ K. HERNER,² R. KESSLER,^{7,6} H. V. PEIRIS,³ M. SAKO,⁸ S. ALLAM,² D. BROUT,⁸ A. CARNERO ROSELL,^{9,10} C. CONSELICE,¹¹ J. DEROSE,^{12,13} J. DEVICENTE,⁹ H. T. DIEHL,² M. S. S. GILL,¹⁴ J. GSCHWEND,^{10,15} I. SEVILLA-NOARBE,⁹ D. L. TUCKER,² R. WECHSLER,^{16,17,14} E. BERGER,¹⁸ P. S. COWPERTHWAITE,^{19,20} B. D. METZGER,²¹ P. K. G. WILLIAMS,^{18,22} T. M. C. ABBOTT,²³ F. B. ABDALLA,³ S. AVILA,²⁴ K. BECHTOL,^{25,26} E. BERTIN,^{27,28} D. BROOKS,³ E. BUCKLEY-GEER,² D. L. BURKE,^{17,14} M. CARRASCO KIND,^{29,30} J. CARRETERO,³¹ F. J. CASTANDER,^{32,33} M. CROCCE,^{34,33} C. E. CUNHA,¹⁷ C. B. D’ANDREA,⁸ L. N. DA COSTA,^{10,15} C. DAVIS,¹⁷ S. DESAI,³⁵ P. DOEL,³ A. DRILICA-WAGNER,^{2,36} T. F. EIFLER,^{37,38} A. E. EVRARD,^{39,40} B. FLAUGHER,² P. FOSALBA,^{32,33} J. FRIEMAN,^{2,6} E. GAZTANAGA,^{32,33} D. W. GERDES,^{39,40} D. GRUEN,^{17,14} R. A. GRUENDL,^{29,30} G. GUTIERREZ,² D. L. HOLLOWOOD,⁴¹ B. HOYLE,^{42,43} D. J. JAMES,⁴⁴ T. JELTEMA,⁴¹ K. KUEHN,⁴⁵ N. KUROPATKIN,² T. S. LI,^{2,6} M. LIMA,^{46,10} M. A. G. MAIA,^{10,15} J. L. MARSHALL,⁴⁷ F. MENANTEAU,^{29,30} R. MIQUEL,^{48,31} E. NEILSEN,² R. L. C. OGANDO,^{10,15} A. A. PLAZAS,^{38,49} A. K. ROMER,⁵⁰ A. ROODMAN,^{17,14} E. SANCHEZ,⁹ V. SCARPINE,² R. SCHINDLER,¹⁴ M. SCHUBNELL,⁴⁰ S. SERRANO,^{32,33} M. SMITH,⁵¹ R. C. SMITH,²³ F. SOBREIRA,^{52,10} E. SUCHYTA,⁵³ M. E. C. SWANSON,³⁰ G. TARLE,⁴⁰ R. C. THOMAS,⁵⁴ A. R. WALKER,²³ W. WESTER,² AND J. ZUNTZ⁵⁵
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 I. MAGAÑA HERNANDEZ,⁷⁸ F. MAGAÑA-SANDOVAL,⁹⁵ L. MAGAÑA ZERTUCHE,¹³⁷ R. M. MAGEE,¹³⁹ E. MAJORANA,⁸⁴
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 M. MANTOVANI,⁹⁴ F. MARCHESONI,^{103, 93} F. MARION,⁸⁵ S. MÁRKA,¹⁵⁰ Z. MÁRKA,¹⁵⁰ C. MARKAKIS,^{65, 72} A. S. MARKOSYAN,¹⁰²
 A. MARKOWITZ,⁵⁶ E. MAROS,⁵⁶ A. MARQUINA,¹⁵⁴ S. MARSAT,⁸⁸ F. MARTELLI,^{125, 126} I. W. MARTIN,⁹⁷ R. M. MARTIN,⁸⁷
 D. V. MARTYNOV,⁶⁶ K. MASON,⁶⁷ E. MASSERA,¹⁶⁰ A. MASSEROT,⁸⁵ T. J. MASSINGER,⁵⁶ M. MASSO-REID,⁹⁷
 S. MASTROGIOVANNI,^{165, 84} A. MATAS,^{96, 88} F. MATICHARD,^{56, 67} L. MATONE,¹⁵⁰ N. MAVALVALA,⁶⁷ N. MAZUMDER,¹²²
 J. J. McCANN,¹¹⁶ R. McCARTHY,⁹⁸ D. E. MCCLELLAND,⁷⁶ S. MCCORMICK,⁶² L. McCULLER,⁶⁷ S. C. McGuire,²⁰⁷ J. McIVER,⁵⁶
 D. J. McMANUS,⁷⁶ T. MCRAE,⁷⁶ S. T. MCWILLIAMS,⁹¹ D. MEACHER,¹³⁹ G. D. MEADORS,⁶¹ M. MEHMET,^{63, 64} A. K. MEHTA,⁷¹
 J. MEIDAM,⁸⁹ A. MELATOS,¹⁴⁹ G. MENDELL,⁹⁸ R. A. MERCER,⁷⁸ L. MERENI,⁷⁷ E. L. MERILH,⁹⁸ M. MERZOUGUI,¹¹⁸ S. MESHKOV,⁵⁶
 C. MESSENGER,⁹⁷ C. MESSICK,¹³⁹ R. METZDORFF,¹²⁴ P. M. MEYERS,¹⁴⁹ H. MIAO,⁶⁶ C. MICHEL,⁷⁷ H. MIDDLETON,¹⁴⁹
 E. E. MIKHAILOV,²⁰⁸ L. MILANO,^{132, 60} A. L. MILLER,¹⁰¹ A. MILLER,^{165, 84} M. MILLHOUSE,¹⁰⁶ J. C. MILLS,¹²¹
 M. C. MILOVICH-GOFF,¹⁶³ O. MINAZZOLI,^{118, 209} Y. MINENKOV,⁸³ A. MISHKIN,¹⁰¹ C. MISHRA,²¹⁰ T. MISTRY,¹⁶⁰ S. MITRA,⁵⁸
 V. P. MITROFANOV,¹¹⁵ G. MITSELMAKER,¹⁰¹ R. MITTELMAN,⁶⁷ G. MO,¹⁴⁵ D. MOFFA,¹⁶⁷ K. MOGUSHI,¹³⁷ S. R. P. MOHAPATRA,⁶⁷
 M. MONTANI,^{125, 126} C. J. MOORE,⁶⁵ D. MORARU,⁹⁸ G. MORENO,⁹⁸ S. MORISAKI,¹³⁴ B. MOURS,⁸⁵ C. M. MOW-LOWRY,⁶⁶
 ARUNAVA MUKHERJEE,^{63, 64} D. MUKHERJEE,⁷⁸ S. MUKHERJEE,¹⁵⁶ N. MUKUND,⁵⁸ A. MULLAVEY,⁶² J. MUNCH,¹⁰⁸ E. A. MUÑIZ,⁹⁵
 M. MURATORE,⁸⁶ P. G. MURRAY,⁹⁷ I. NARDECCHIA,^{82, 83} L. NATICCHIONI,^{165, 84} R. K. NAYAK,²¹¹ J. NEILSON,¹⁶³ G. NELEMANS,^{117, 89}
 T. J. N. NELSON,⁶² M. NERY,^{63, 64} A. NEUNZERT,¹⁷⁸ K. Y. NG,⁶⁷ S. NG,¹⁰⁸ P. NGUYEN,¹²³ D. NICHOLS,^{180, 89} S. NISSANKE,^{180, 89}
 F. NOCERA,⁹⁴ C. NORTH,¹²¹ L. K. NUTTALL,²⁰⁶ M. OBERGALINGER,⁷⁵ J. OBERLING,⁹⁸ B. D. O'BRIEN,¹⁰¹ G. D. O'DEA,¹⁶³
 G. H. OGIN,²¹² J. J. OH,¹⁹⁰ S. H. OH,¹⁹⁰ F. OHME,^{63, 64} H. OHTA,¹³⁴ M. A. OKADA,⁶⁸ M. OLIVER,¹⁵¹ P. OPPERMANN,^{63, 64}
 RICHARD J. ORAM,⁶² B. O'REILLY,⁶² R. G. ORMISTON,⁹⁶ L. F. ORTEGA,¹⁰¹ R. O'SHAUGHNESSY,¹¹¹ S. OSSOKINE,⁸⁸
 D. J. OTTAWAY,¹⁰⁸ H. OVERMIER,⁶² B. J. OWEN,¹³⁶ A. E. PACE,¹³⁹ G. PAGANO,^{73, 74} M. A. PAGE,¹¹⁶ A. PAI,¹⁷⁴ S. A. PAI,¹¹⁴
 J. R. PALAMOS,¹²³ O. PALASHOV,¹⁸⁷ C. PALOMBA,⁸⁴ A. PAL-SINGH,¹⁹² HUANG-WEI PAN,¹⁴⁰ B. PANG,⁹⁹ P. T. H. PANG,¹⁴²

C. PANKOW,¹¹² F. PANNARALE,^{165, 84} B. C. PANT,¹¹⁴ F. PAOLETTI,⁷⁴ A. PAOLI,⁹⁴ A. PARIDA,⁵⁸ W. PARKER,^{62, 207} D. PASCUCCI,⁹⁷ A. PASQUALETTI,⁹⁴ R. PASSAQUIETI,^{73, 74} D. PASSUELLO,⁷⁴ M. PATIL,¹⁹⁶ B. PATRICELLI,^{73, 74} B. L. PEARLSTONE,⁹⁷ C. PEDERSEN,¹²¹ M. PEDRAZA,⁵⁶ R. PEDURAND,^{77, 213} A. PELE,⁶² S. PENN,²¹⁴ C. J. PEREZ,⁹⁸ A. PERRECA,^{164, 147} H. P. PFEIFFER,^{88, 170} M. PHELPS,^{63, 64} K. S. PHUKON,⁵⁸ O. J. PICCINNI,^{165, 84} M. PICHOT,¹¹⁸ F. PIERGIOVANNI,^{125, 126} G. PILLANT,⁹⁴ L. PINARD,⁷⁷ M. PIRELLO,⁹⁸ M. PITKIN,⁹⁷ R. POGGIANI,^{73, 74} D. Y. T. PONG,¹⁴² S. PONRATHNAM,⁵⁸ P. POPOLIZIO,⁹⁴ E. K. PORTER,⁸¹ J. POWELL,²⁰⁵ A. K. PRAJAPATI,¹⁵⁹ J. PRASAD,⁵⁸ K. PRASAI,¹⁰² R. PRASANNA,¹⁸² G. PRATTEN,¹⁵¹ T. PRESTEGARD,⁷⁸ S. PRIVITERA,⁸⁸ G. A. PRODI,^{164, 147} L. G. PROKHOROV,¹¹⁵ O. PUNCKEN,^{63, 64} M. PUNTURO,⁹³ P. PUPPO,⁸⁴ M. PÜRRER,⁸⁸ H. QI,⁷⁸ V. QUETSCHKE,¹⁵⁶ P. J. QUINONEZ,⁸⁶ E. A. QUINTERO,⁵⁶ R. QUITZOW-JAMES,¹²³ H. RADKINS,⁹⁸ N. RADULESCU,¹¹⁸ P. RAFFAI,¹⁵⁸ S. RAJA,¹¹⁴ C. RAJAN,¹¹⁴ B. RAJBHANDARI,¹³⁶ M. RAKHMANOV,¹⁵⁶ K. E. RAMIREZ,¹⁵⁶ A. RAMOS-BUADES,¹⁵¹ JAVED RANA,⁵⁸ K. RAO,¹¹² P. RAPAGNANI,^{165, 84} V. RAYMOND,¹²¹ M. RAZZANO,^{73, 74} J. READ,⁸⁰ T. REGIMBAU,⁸⁵ L. REI,¹¹³ S. REID,⁷⁹ D. H. REITZE,^{56, 101} W. REN,⁷² F. RICCI,^{165, 84} C. J. RICHARDSON,⁸⁶ J. W. RICHARDSON,⁵⁶ P. M. RICKER,⁷² K. RILES,¹⁷⁸ M. RIZZO,¹¹² N. A. ROBERTSON,^{56, 97} R. ROBIE,⁹⁷ A. ROCCHI,⁸³ L. ROLLAND,⁸⁵ J. G. ROLLINS,⁵⁶ V. J. ROMA,¹²³ M. ROMANELLI,¹²⁰ R. ROMANO,^{59, 60} C. L. ROMEL,⁹⁸ J. H. ROMIE,⁶² K. ROSE,¹⁶⁷ D. ROSIŃSKA,^{215, 107} S. G. ROSOFSKY,⁷² M. P. ROSS,²¹⁶ S. ROWAN,⁹⁷ A. RÜDIGER,^{63, 64, 14} P. RUGGI,⁹⁴ G. RUTINS,²¹⁷ K. RYAN,⁹⁸ S. SACHDEV,⁵⁶ T. SADECKI,⁹⁸ M. SAKELLARIADOU,¹⁸⁴ L. SALCONI,⁹⁴ M. SALEEM,¹⁹⁴ A. SAMAJDAR,⁸⁹ L. SAMMUT,⁶¹ E. J. SANCHEZ,⁵⁶ L. E. SANCHEZ,⁵⁶ N. SANCHIS-GUAL,⁷⁵ V. SANDBERG,⁹⁸ J. R. SANDERS,⁹⁵ K. A. SANTIAGO,⁸⁷ N. SARIN,⁶¹ B. SASSOLAS,^{77, 121} P. R. SAULSON,⁹⁵ O. SAUTER,¹⁷⁸ R. L. SAVAGE,⁹⁸ P. SCHALE,¹²³ M. SCHEEL,⁹⁹ J. SCHEUER,¹¹² P. SCHMIDT,¹¹⁷ R. SCHNABEL,¹⁹² R. M. S. SCHOFIELD,¹²³ A. SCHÖNBECK,¹⁹² E. SCHREIBER,^{63, 64} B. W. SCHULTE,^{63, 64} B. F. SCHUTZ,¹²¹ S. G. SCHWALBE,⁸⁶ J. SCOTT,⁹⁷ S. M. SCOTT,⁷⁶ E. SEIDEL,⁷² D. SELLERS,⁶² A. S. SENGUPTA,²¹⁸ N. SENNETT,⁸⁸ D. SENTENAC,⁹⁴ V. SEQUINO,^{82, 83, 69} A. SERGEEV,¹⁸⁷ D. A. SHADDOCK,⁷⁶ T. SHAFFER,⁹⁸ M. S. SHAHRIAR,¹¹² M. B. SHANER,¹⁶³ L. SHAO,⁸⁸ P. SHARMA,¹¹⁴ P. SHAWHAN,¹²⁹ H. SHEN,⁷² R. SHINK,¹²⁰ D. H. SHOEMAKER,⁶⁷ D. M. SHOEMAKER,¹³⁰ S. SHYAMSUNDAR,¹¹⁴ K. SIELLEZ,¹³⁰ M. SIENIAWSKA,¹⁰⁷ D. SIGG,⁹⁸ A. D. SILVA,⁶⁸ L. P. SINGER,¹³³ N. SINGH,¹²⁷ A. SINGHAL,^{69, 84} A. M. SINTES,¹⁵¹ S. SITMUKHAMBETOV,¹⁵⁶ V. SKLIRIS,¹²¹ B. J. J. SLAGMOLEN,⁷⁶ T. J. SLAVEN-BLAIR,¹¹⁶ J. R. SMITH,⁸⁰ R. J. E. SMITH,⁶¹ S. SOMALA,²²⁰ E. J. SON,¹⁹⁰ B. SORAZU,⁹⁷ F. SORRENTINO,¹¹³ T. SOURADEEP,⁵⁸ E. SOWELL,¹³⁶ A. P. SPENCER,⁹⁷ A. K. SRIVASTAVA,¹⁵⁹ V. SRIVASTAVA,⁹⁵ K. STAATS,¹¹² C. STACHIE,¹¹⁸ M. STANDKE,^{63, 64} D. A. STEER,⁸¹ M. STEINKE,^{63, 64} J. STEINLECHNER,^{192, 97} S. STEINLECHNER,¹⁹² D. STEINMEYER,^{63, 64} S. P. STEVENSON,²⁰⁵ D. STOCKS,¹⁰² R. STONE,¹⁵⁶ D. J. STOPS,⁶⁶ K. A. STRAIN,⁹⁷ G. STRATTA,^{125, 126} S. E. STRINGIN,¹¹⁵ A. STRUNK,⁹⁸ R. STURANI,²²¹ A. L. STUVER,²²² V. SUDHIR,⁶⁷ T. Z. SUMMERSCALES,²²³ L. SUN,⁵⁶ S. SUNIL,¹⁵⁹ A. SUR,^{89, 107} J. SURESH,⁵⁸ P. J. SUTTON,¹²¹ B. L. SWINKELS,⁸⁹ M. J. SZCZEPANICKI,⁸⁶ M. TACCA,⁸⁹ S. C. TAIT,⁹⁷ C. TALBOT,⁶¹ D. TALUKDER,¹²³ D. B. TANNER,¹⁰¹ M. TÁPAI,¹⁷⁵ A. TARACCHINI,⁸⁸ J. D. TASSON,¹⁴⁵ R. TAYLOR,⁵⁶ F. THIES,^{63, 64} M. THOMAS,⁶² P. THOMAS,⁹⁸ S. R. THONDAPU,¹¹⁴ K. A. THORNE,⁶² E. THRANE,⁶¹ SHUBHANSHU TIWARI,^{164, 147} SRSHTI TIWARI,¹⁷⁶ V. TIWARI,¹²¹ K. TOLAND,⁹⁷ M. TONELLI,^{73, 74} Z. TORNASI,⁹⁷ A. TORRES-FORNÉ,²²⁴ C. I. TORRIE,⁵⁶ D. TÖYRÄ,⁶⁶ F. TRAVASSO,^{94, 93} G. TRAYLOR,⁶² M. C. TRINGALI,¹²⁷ A. TROVATO,⁸¹ L. TROZZO,^{225, 74} R. TRUDEAU,⁵⁶ K. W. TSANG,⁸⁹ M. TSE,⁶⁷ R. TSO,⁹⁹ L. TSUKADA,¹³⁴ D. TSUNA,¹³⁴ D. TUYENBAYEV,¹⁵⁶ K. UENO,¹³⁴ D. UGOLINI,²²⁶ C. S. UNNIKRISHNAN,¹⁷⁶ A. L. URBAN,⁵⁷ S. A. USMAN,¹²¹ H. VAHLBRUCH,⁶⁴ G. VAJENTE,⁵⁶ G. VALDES,⁵⁷ N. VAN BAKEL,⁸⁹ M. VAN BEUZEKOM,⁸⁹ J. F. J. VAN DEN BRAND,^{128, 89} C. VAN DEN BROECK,^{89, 227} D. C. VANDER-HYDE,⁹⁵ J. V. VAN HEIJNINGEN,¹¹⁶ L. VAN DER SCHAAF,⁸⁹ A. A. VAN VEGGEL,⁹⁷ M. VARDARO,^{104, 105} V. VARMA,⁹⁹ S. VASS,⁵⁶ M. VASÚTH,¹⁰⁰ A. VECCHIO,⁶⁶ G. VEDOVATO,¹⁰⁵ J. VEITCH,⁹⁷ P. J. VEITCH,¹⁰⁸ K. VENKATESWARA,²¹⁶ G. VENUGOPALAN,⁵⁶ D. VERKINDT,⁸⁵ F. VETRANO,^{125, 126} A. VICERÉ,^{125, 126} A. D. VIETS,⁷⁸ D. J. VINE,²¹⁷ J.-Y. VINET,¹¹⁸ S. VITALE,⁶⁷ T. VO,⁹⁵ H. VOCCA,^{92, 93} C. VORVICK,⁹⁸ S. P. VYATCHANIN,¹¹⁵ A. R. WADE,⁵⁶ L. E. WADE,¹⁶⁷ M. WADE,¹⁶⁷ R. WALET,⁸⁹ M. WALKER,⁸⁰ L. WALLACE,⁵⁶ S. WALSH,⁷⁸ G. WANG,^{69, 74} H. WANG,⁶⁶ J. Z. WANG,¹⁷⁸ W. H. WANG,¹⁵⁶ Y. F. WANG,¹⁴² R. L. WARD,⁷⁶ Z. A. WARDEN,⁸⁶ J. WARNER,⁹⁸ M. WAS,⁸⁵ J. WATCHI,¹⁵² B. WEAVER,⁹⁸ L.-W. WEI,^{63, 64} M. WEINERT,^{63, 64} A. J. WEINSTEIN,⁵⁶ R. WEISS,⁶⁷ F. WELLMANN,^{63, 64} L. WEN,¹¹⁶ E. K. WESSEL,⁷² P. WESSELS,^{63, 64} J. W. WESTHOUSE,⁸⁶ K. WETTE,⁷⁶ J. T. WHELAN,¹¹¹ B. F. WHITING,¹⁰¹ C. WHITTLE,⁶⁷ D. M. WILKEN,^{63, 64} D. WILLIAMS,⁹⁷ A. R. WILLIAMSON,^{180, 89} J. L. WILLIS,⁵⁶ B. WILLKE,^{63, 64} M. H. WIMMER,^{63, 64} W. WINKLER,^{63, 64} C. C. WIPF,⁵⁶ H. WITTEL,^{63, 64} G. WOAN,⁹⁷ J. WOEHLER,^{63, 64} J. K. WOFFORD,¹¹¹ J. WORDEN,⁹⁸ J. L. WRIGHT,⁹⁷ D. S. WU,^{63, 64} D. M. WYSOCKI,¹¹¹ L. XIAO,⁵⁶ H. YAMAMOTO,⁵⁶ C. C. YANCEY,¹²⁹ L. YANG,¹⁶⁶ M. J. YAP,⁷⁶ M. YAZBACK,¹⁰¹ D. W. YEELES,¹²¹ HANG YU,⁶⁷ HAOCUN YU,⁶⁷ S. H. R. YUEN,¹⁴² M. YVERT,⁸⁵ A. K. ZADROŻNY,^{156, 195} M. ZANOLIN,⁸⁶ T. ZELENKOVA,⁹⁴ J.-P. ZENDRI,¹⁰⁵ M. ZEVIN,¹¹² J. ZHANG,¹¹⁶ L. ZHANG,⁵⁶ T. ZHANG,⁹⁷ C. ZHAO,¹¹⁶ M. ZHOU,¹¹² Z. ZHOU,¹¹² X. J. ZHU,⁶¹ M. E. ZUCKER,^{56, 67} AND J. ZWEIZIG,⁵⁶

(THE LIGO SCIENTIFIC COLLABORATION AND THE VIRGO COLLABORATION)

¹Department of Physics, Brandeis University, Waltham, MA 02453, USA²Fermi National Accelerator Laboratory, P. O. Box 500, Batavia, IL 60510, USA³Department of Physics & Astronomy, University College London, Gower Street, London, WC1E 6BT, UK⁴Instituto de Física Teórica UAM/CSIC, Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, 28049 Madrid, Spain⁵Department of Physics, University of Chicago, Chicago, IL 60637, USA⁶Kavli Institute for Cosmological Physics, University of Chicago, Chicago, IL 60637, USA⁷Department of Astronomy and Astrophysics, University of Chicago, Chicago, IL 60637, USA⁸Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA 19104, USA⁹Centro de Investigaciones Energéticas, Medioambientales y Tecnológicas (CIEMAT), Madrid, Spain¹⁰Laboratório Interinstitucional de e-Astronomia - LineA, Rua Gal. José Cristino 77, Rio de Janeiro, RJ - 20921-400, Brazil¹¹University of Nottingham, School of Physics and Astronomy, Nottingham NG7 2RD, UK¹²Kavli Institute for Particle Astrophysics and Cosmology and Department of Physics, Stanford University, Stanford, CA, USA, 94305¹³Department of Particle Physics & Astrophysics, SLAC National Accelerator Laboratory, Menlo Park, CA 94025

- ¹⁴SLAC National Accelerator Laboratory, Menlo Park, CA 94025, USA
¹⁵Observatório Nacional, Rua Gal. José Cristino 77, Rio de Janeiro, RJ - 20921-400, Brazil
¹⁶Department of Physics, Stanford University, 382 Via Pueblo Mall, Stanford, CA 94305, USA
¹⁷Kavli Institute for Particle Astrophysics & Cosmology, P. O. Box 2450, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305, USA
¹⁸Harvard-Smithsonian Center for Astrophysics, 60 Garden Street, Cambridge MA 02138, USA
¹⁹The Observatories of the Carnegie Institution for Science, 813 Santa Barbara St., Pasadena, CA 91101, USA
²⁰Hubble Fellow
²¹Department of Physics, Columbia University, New York, NY 10025, USA
²²American Astronomical Society, 1667 K Street NW, Suite 800 Washington, DC 20006, USA
²³Cerro Tololo Inter-American Observatory, National Optical Astronomy Observatory, Casilla 603, La Serena, Chile
²⁴Institute of Cosmology and Gravitation, University of Portsmouth, Portsmouth, PO1 3FX, UK
²⁵LSST, 933 North Cherry Avenue, Tucson, AZ 85721, USA
²⁶Physics Department, 2320 Chamberlin Hall, University of Wisconsin-Madison, 1150 University Avenue Madison, WI 53706-1390
²⁷CNRS, UMR 7095, Institut d'Astrophysique de Paris, F-75014, Paris, France
²⁸Sorbonne Universités, UPMC Univ Paris 06, UMR 7095, Institut d'Astrophysique de Paris, F-75014, Paris, France
²⁹Department of Astronomy, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 1002 W. Green Street, Urbana, IL 61801, USA
³⁰National Center for Supercomputing Applications, 1205 West Clark St., Urbana, IL 61801, USA
³¹Institut de Física d'Altes Energies (IFAE), The Barcelona Institute of Science and Technology, Campus UAB, 08193 Bellaterra (Barcelona) Spain
³²Institut d'Estudis Espacials de Catalunya (IEEC), 08034 Barcelona, Spain
³³Institute of Space Sciences (ICE, CSIC), Campus UAB, Carrer de Can Magrans, s/n, 08193 Barcelona, Spain
³⁴Institut d'Estudis Espacials de Catalunya (IEEC), 08034 Barcelona, Spain"
³⁵Department of Physics, IIT Hyderabad, Kandi, Telangana 502285, India
³⁶University of Chicago, Chicago, IL 60637, USA
³⁷Department of Astronomy/Steward Observatory, 933 North Cherry Avenue, Tucson, AZ 85721-0065, USA
³⁸Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California Institute of Technology, 4800 Oak Grove Dr., Pasadena, CA 91109, USA
³⁹Department of Astronomy, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA
⁴⁰Department of Physics, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA
⁴¹Santa Cruz Institute for Particle Physics, Santa Cruz, CA 95064, USA
⁴²Max Planck Institute for Extraterrestrial Physics, Giessenbachstrasse, 85748 Garching, Germany
⁴³Universitäts-Sternwarte, Fakultät für Physik, Ludwig-Maximilians Universität München, Scheinerstr. 1, 81679 München, Germany
⁴⁴Harvard-Smithsonian Center for Astrophysics, Cambridge, MA 02138, USA
⁴⁵Australian Astronomical Optics, Macquarie University, North Ryde, NSW 2113, Australia
⁴⁶Departamento de Física Matemática, Instituto de Física, Universidade de São Paulo, CP 66318, São Paulo, SP, 05314-970, Brazil
⁴⁷George P. and Cynthia Woods Mitchell Institute for Fundamental Physics and Astronomy, and Department of Physics and Astronomy, Texas A&M University, College Station, TX 77843, USA
⁴⁸Institució Catalana de Recerca i Estudis Avançats, E-08010 Barcelona, Spain
⁴⁹Department of Astrophysical Sciences, Princeton University, 4 Ivy Lane, Princeton, NJ 08544
⁵⁰Department of Physics and Astronomy, Pevenssey Building, University of Sussex, Brighton, BN1 9QH, UK
⁵¹School of Physics and Astronomy, University of Southampton, Southampton, SO17 1BJ, UK
⁵²Instituto de Física Gleb Wataghin, Universidade Estadual de Campinas, 13083-859, Campinas, SP, Brazil
⁵³Computer Science and Mathematics Division, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Oak Ridge, TN 37831
⁵⁴Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, 1 Cyclotron Road, Berkeley, CA 94720, USA
⁵⁵Institute for Astronomy, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh EH9 3HJ, UK
⁵⁶LIGO, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, CA 91125, USA
⁵⁷Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, LA 70803, USA
⁵⁸Inter-University Centre for Astronomy and Astrophysics, Pune 411007, India
⁵⁹Università di Salerno, Fisciano, I-84084 Salerno, Italy
⁶⁰INFN, Sezione di Napoli, Complesso Universitario di Monte S.Angelo, I-80126 Napoli, Italy
⁶¹OzGrav, School of Physics & Astronomy, Monash University, Clayton 3800, Victoria, Australia
⁶²LIGO Livingston Observatory, Livingston, LA 70754, USA
⁶³Max Planck Institute for Gravitational Physics (Albert Einstein Institute), D-30167 Hannover, Germany
⁶⁴Leibniz Universität Hannover, D-30167 Hannover, Germany
⁶⁵University of Cambridge, Cambridge CB2 1TN, United Kingdom
⁶⁶University of Birmingham, Birmingham B15 2TT, United Kingdom
⁶⁷LIGO, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA 02139, USA
⁶⁸Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas Espaciais, I2227-010 São José dos Campos, São Paulo, Brazil
⁶⁹Gran Sasso Science Institute (GSSI), I-67100 L'Aquila, Italy

- ⁷⁰INFN, Laboratori Nazionali del Gran Sasso, I-67100 Assergi, Italy
⁷¹International Centre for Theoretical Sciences, Tata Institute of Fundamental Research, Bengaluru 560089, India
⁷²NCSA, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Urbana, IL 61801, USA
⁷³Università di Pisa, I-56127 Pisa, Italy
⁷⁴INFN, Sezione di Pisa, I-56127 Pisa, Italy
⁷⁵Departamento de Astronomía y Astrofísica, Universitat de València, E-46100 Burjassot, València, Spain
⁷⁶OzGrav, Australian National University, Canberra, Australian Capital Territory 0200, Australia
⁷⁷Laboratoire des Matériaux Avancés (LMA), CNRS/IN2P3, F-69622 Villeurbanne, France
⁷⁸University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, Milwaukee, WI 53201, USA
⁷⁹SUPA, University of Strathclyde, Glasgow G1 1XQ, United Kingdom
⁸⁰California State University Fullerton, Fullerton, CA 92831, USA
⁸¹APC, AstroParticule et Cosmologie, Université Paris Diderot, CNRS/IN2P3, CEA/Irfu, Observatoire de Paris, Sorbonne Paris Cité, F-75205 Paris Cedex 13, France
⁸²Università di Roma Tor Vergata, I-00133 Roma, Italy
⁸³INFN, Sezione di Roma Tor Vergata, I-00133 Roma, Italy
⁸⁴INFN, Sezione di Roma, I-00185 Roma, Italy
⁸⁵Laboratoire d'Annecy de Physique des Particules (LAPP), Univ. Grenoble Alpes, Université Savoie Mont Blanc, CNRS/IN2P3, F-74941 Annecy, France
⁸⁶Embry-Riddle Aeronautical University, Prescott, AZ 86301, USA
⁸⁷Montclair State University, Montclair, NJ 07043, USA
⁸⁸Max Planck Institute for Gravitational Physics (Albert Einstein Institute), D-14476 Potsdam-Golm, Germany
⁸⁹Nikhef, Science Park 105, 1098 XG Amsterdam, The Netherlands
⁹⁰Korea Institute of Science and Technology Information, Daejeon 34141, South Korea
⁹¹West Virginia University, Morgantown, WV 26506, USA
⁹²Università di Perugia, I-06123 Perugia, Italy
⁹³INFN, Sezione di Perugia, I-06123 Perugia, Italy
⁹⁴European Gravitational Observatory (EGO), I-56021 Cascina, Pisa, Italy
⁹⁵Syracuse University, Syracuse, NY 13244, USA
⁹⁶University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN 55455, USA
⁹⁷SUPA, University of Glasgow, Glasgow G12 8QQ, United Kingdom
⁹⁸LIGO Hanford Observatory, Richland, WA 99352, USA
⁹⁹Caltech CaRT, Pasadena, CA 91125, USA
¹⁰⁰Wigner RCP, RMKI, H-1121 Budapest, Konkoly Thege Miklós út 29-33, Hungary
¹⁰¹University of Florida, Gainesville, FL 32611, USA
¹⁰²Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305, USA
¹⁰³Università di Camerino, Dipartimento di Fisica, I-62032 Camerino, Italy
¹⁰⁴Università di Padova, Dipartimento di Fisica e Astronomia, I-35131 Padova, Italy
¹⁰⁵INFN, Sezione di Padova, I-35131 Padova, Italy
¹⁰⁶Montana State University, Bozeman, MT 59717, USA
¹⁰⁷Nicolaus Copernicus Astronomical Center, Polish Academy of Sciences, 00-716, Warsaw, Poland
¹⁰⁸OzGrav, University of Adelaide, Adelaide, South Australia 5005, Australia
¹⁰⁹Theoretisch-Physikalisches Institut, Friedrich-Schiller-Universität Jena, D-07743 Jena, Germany
¹¹⁰INFN, Sezione di Milano Bicocca, Gruppo Collegato di Parma, I-43124 Parma, Italy
¹¹¹Rochester Institute of Technology, Rochester, NY 14623, USA
¹¹²Center for Interdisciplinary Exploration & Research in Astrophysics (CIERA), Northwestern University, Evanston, IL 60208, USA
¹¹³INFN, Sezione di Genova, I-16146 Genova, Italy
¹¹⁴RRCAT, Indore, Madhya Pradesh 452013, India
¹¹⁵Faculty of Physics, Lomonosov Moscow State University, Moscow 119991, Russia
¹¹⁶OzGrav, University of Western Australia, Crawley, Western Australia 6009, Australia
¹¹⁷Department of Astrophysics/IMAPP, Radboud University Nijmegen, P.O. Box 9010, 6500 GL Nijmegen, The Netherlands
¹¹⁸Artemis, Université Côte d'Azur, Observatoire Côte d'Azur, CNRS, CS 34229, F-06304 Nice Cedex 4, France
¹¹⁹Physik-Institut, University of Zurich, Winterthurerstrasse 190, 8057 Zurich, Switzerland
¹²⁰Univ Rennes, CNRS, Institut FOTON - UMR6082, F-3500 Rennes, France
¹²¹Cardiff University, Cardiff CF24 3AA, United Kingdom
¹²²Washington State University, Pullman, WA 99164, USA
¹²³University of Oregon, Eugene, OR 97403, USA
¹²⁴Laboratoire Kastler Brossel, Sorbonne Université, CNRS, ENS-Université PSL, Collège de France, F-75005 Paris, France
¹²⁵Università degli Studi di Urbino 'Carlo Bo,' I-61029 Urbino, Italy

- ¹²⁶INFN, Sezione di Firenze, I-50019 Sesto Fiorentino, Firenze, Italy
¹²⁷Astronomical Observatory Warsaw University, 00-478 Warsaw, Poland
¹²⁸VU University Amsterdam, 1081 HV Amsterdam, The Netherlands
¹²⁹University of Maryland, College Park, MD 20742, USA
¹³⁰School of Physics, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, GA 30332, USA
¹³¹Université Claude Bernard Lyon 1, F-69622 Villeurbanne, France
¹³²Università di Napoli 'Federico II,' Complesso Universitario di Monte S'Angelo, I-80126 Napoli, Italy
¹³³NASA Goddard Space Flight Center, Greenbelt, MD 20771, USA
¹³⁴RESCEU, University of Tokyo, Tokyo, 113-0033, Japan.
¹³⁵Tsinghua University, Beijing 100084, China
¹³⁶Texas Tech University, Lubbock, TX 79409, USA
¹³⁷The University of Mississippi, University, MS 38677, USA
¹³⁸Museo Storico della Fisica e Centro Studi e Ricerche "Enrico Fermi", I-00184 Roma, Italy
¹³⁹The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA 16802, USA
¹⁴⁰National Tsing Hua University, Hsinchu City, 30013 Taiwan, Republic of China
¹⁴¹Charles Sturt University, Wagga Wagga, New South Wales 2678, Australia
¹⁴²The Chinese University of Hong Kong, Shatin, NT, Hong Kong
¹⁴³Seoul National University, Seoul 08826, South Korea
¹⁴⁴Pusan National University, Busan 46241, South Korea
¹⁴⁵Carleton College, Northfield, MN 55057, USA
¹⁴⁶INAF, Osservatorio Astronomico di Padova, I-35122 Padova, Italy
¹⁴⁷INFN, Trento Institute for Fundamental Physics and Applications, I-38123 Povo, Trento, Italy
¹⁴⁸Dipartimento di Fisica, Università degli Studi di Genova, I-16146 Genova, Italy
¹⁴⁹OzGrav, University of Melbourne, Parkville, Victoria 3010, Australia
¹⁵⁰Columbia University, New York, NY 10027, USA
¹⁵¹Universitat de les Illes Balears, IAC3—IEEC, E-07122 Palma de Mallorca, Spain
¹⁵²Université Libre de Bruxelles, Brussels 1050, Belgium
¹⁵³Sonoma State University, Rohnert Park, CA 94928, USA
¹⁵⁴Departamento de Matemáticas, Universitat de València, E-46100 Burjassot, València, Spain
¹⁵⁵University of Rhode Island, Kingston, RI 02881, USA
¹⁵⁶The University of Texas Rio Grande Valley, Brownsville, TX 78520, USA
¹⁵⁷Bellevue College, Bellevue, WA 98007, USA
¹⁵⁸MTA-ELTE Astrophysics Research Group, Institute of Physics, Eötvös University, Budapest 1117, Hungary
¹⁵⁹Institute for Plasma Research, Bhat, Gandhinagar 382428, India
¹⁶⁰The University of Sheffield, Sheffield S10 2TN, United Kingdom
¹⁶¹IGFAE, Campus Sur, Universidad de Santiago de Compostela, 15782 Spain
¹⁶²Dipartimento di Scienze Matematiche, Fisiche e Informatiche, Università di Parma, I-43124 Parma, Italy
¹⁶³California State University, Los Angeles, 5151 State University Dr, Los Angeles, CA 90032, USA
¹⁶⁴Università di Trento, Dipartimento di Fisica, I-38123 Povo, Trento, Italy
¹⁶⁵Università di Roma 'La Sapienza,' I-00185 Roma, Italy
¹⁶⁶Colorado State University, Fort Collins, CO 80523, USA
¹⁶⁷Kenyon College, Gambier, OH 43022, USA
¹⁶⁸Christopher Newport University, Newport News, VA 23606, USA
¹⁶⁹National Astronomical Observatory of Japan, 2-21-1 Osawa, Mitaka, Tokyo 181-8588, Japan
¹⁷⁰Canadian Institute for Theoretical Astrophysics, University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario M5S 3H8, Canada
¹⁷¹Observatori Astronòmic, Universitat de València, E-46980 Paterna, València, Spain
¹⁷²School of Mathematics, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh EH9 3FD, United Kingdom
¹⁷³Institute Of Advanced Research, Gandhinagar 382426, India
¹⁷⁴Indian Institute of Technology Bombay, Powai, Mumbai 400 076, India
¹⁷⁵University of Szeged, Dóm tér 9, Szeged 6720, Hungary
¹⁷⁶Tata Institute of Fundamental Research, Mumbai 400005, India
¹⁷⁷INAF, Osservatorio Astronomico di Capodimonte, I-80131, Napoli, Italy
¹⁷⁸University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA
¹⁷⁹American University, Washington, D.C. 20016, USA
¹⁸⁰GRAPPA, Anton Pannekoek Institute for Astronomy and Institute of High-Energy Physics, University of Amsterdam, Science Park 904, 1098 XH Amsterdam, The Netherlands
¹⁸¹Delta Institute for Theoretical Physics, Science Park 904, 1090 GL Amsterdam, The Netherlands

- ¹⁸²*Directorate of Construction, Services & Estate Management, Mumbai 400094 India*
- ¹⁸³*University of Białystok, 15-424 Białystok, Poland*
- ¹⁸⁴*King's College London, University of London, London WC2R 2LS, United Kingdom*
- ¹⁸⁵*University of Southampton, Southampton SO17 1BJ, United Kingdom*
- ¹⁸⁶*University of Washington Bothell, Bothell, WA 98011, USA*
- ¹⁸⁷*Institute of Applied Physics, Nizhny Novgorod, 603950, Russia*
- ¹⁸⁸*Ewha Womans University, Seoul 03760, South Korea*
- ¹⁸⁹*Inje University Gimhae, South Gyeongsang 50834, South Korea*
- ¹⁹⁰*National Institute for Mathematical Sciences, Daejeon 34047, South Korea*
- ¹⁹¹*Ulsan National Institute of Science and Technology, Ulsan 44919, South Korea*
- ¹⁹²*Universität Hamburg, D-22761 Hamburg, Germany*
- ¹⁹³*Maastricht University, P.O. Box 616, 6200 MD Maastricht, The Netherlands*
- ¹⁹⁴*Chennai Mathematical Institute, Chennai 603103, India*
- ¹⁹⁵*NCBJ, 05-400 Świerk-Otwock, Poland*
- ¹⁹⁶*Institute of Mathematics, Polish Academy of Sciences, 00656 Warsaw, Poland*
- ¹⁹⁷*Cornell University, Ithaca, NY 14850, USA*
- ¹⁹⁸*Hillsdale College, Hillsdale, MI 49242, USA*
- ¹⁹⁹*Hanyang University, Seoul 04763, South Korea*
- ²⁰⁰*Korea Astronomy and Space Science Institute, Daejeon 34055, South Korea*
- ²⁰¹*NASA Marshall Space Flight Center, Huntsville, AL 35811, USA*
- ²⁰²*Dipartimento di Matematica e Fisica, Università degli Studi Roma Tre, I-00146 Roma, Italy*
- ²⁰³*INFN, Sezione di Roma Tre, I-00146 Roma, Italy*
- ²⁰⁴*ESPCI, CNRS, F-75005 Paris, France*
- ²⁰⁵*OzGrav, Swinburne University of Technology, Hawthorn VIC 3122, Australia*
- ²⁰⁶*University of Portsmouth, Portsmouth, PO1 3FX, United Kingdom*
- ²⁰⁷*Southern University and A&M College, Baton Rouge, LA 70813, USA*
- ²⁰⁸*College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, VA 23187, USA*
- ²⁰⁹*Centre Scientifique de Monaco, 8 quai Antoine Ier, MC-98000, Monaco*
- ²¹⁰*Indian Institute of Technology Madras, Chennai 600036, India*
- ²¹¹*IISER-Kolkata, Mohanpur, West Bengal 741252, India*
- ²¹²*Whitman College, 345 Boyer Avenue, Walla Walla, WA 99362 USA*
- ²¹³*Université de Lyon, F-69361 Lyon, France*
- ²¹⁴*Hobart and William Smith Colleges, Geneva, NY 14456, USA*
- ²¹⁵*Janusz Gil Institute of Astronomy, University of Zielona Góra, 65-265 Zielona Góra, Poland*
- ²¹⁶*University of Washington, Seattle, WA 98195, USA*
- ²¹⁷*SUPA, University of the West of Scotland, Paisley PA1 2BE, United Kingdom*
- ²¹⁸*Indian Institute of Technology, Gandhinagar Ahmedabad Gujarat 382424, India*
- ²¹⁹*Université de Montréal/Polytechnique, Montreal, Quebec H3T 1J4, Canada*
- ²²⁰*Indian Institute of Technology Hyderabad, Sangareddy, Khandi, Telangana 502285, India*
- ²²¹*International Institute of Physics, Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Norte, Natal RN 59078-970, Brazil*
- ²²²*Villanova University, 800 Lancaster Ave, Villanova, PA 19085, USA*
- ²²³*Andrews University, Berrien Springs, MI 49104, USA*
- ²²⁴*Max Planck Institute for Gravitationalphysik (Albert Einstein Institute), D-14476 Potsdam-Golm, Germany*
- ²²⁵*Università di Siena, I-53100 Siena, Italy*
- ²²⁶*Trinity University, San Antonio, TX 78212, USA*
- ²²⁷*Van Swinderen Institute for Particle Physics and Gravity, University of Groningen, Nijenborgh 4, 9747 AG Groningen, The Netherlands*

ABSTRACT

We present a multi-messenger measurement of the Hubble constant H_0 using the binary-black-hole merger GW170814 as a standard siren, combined with a photometric redshift catalog from the Dark Energy Survey (DES). The luminosity distance is obtained from the gravitational wave signal detected by the LIGO/Virgo Collaboration (LVC) on 2017 August 14, and the redshift information is provided by the DES Year 3 data. Black-hole mergers such as GW170814 are expected to lack bright electromagnetic emission to uniquely identify their host galaxies and build an object-by-object Hubble diagram. However, they are suitable for a statistical measurement, provided that a galaxy catalog of adequate depth and redshift completion is available.

Here we present the first Hubble parameter measurement using a black-hole merger. Our analysis results in $H_0 = 75.2^{+39.5}_{-32.4} \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$, which is consistent with both SN Ia and CMB measurements of the Hubble constant. The quoted 68% credible region comprises 60% of the uniform prior range [20,140] $\text{km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$. This result shows that even a single dark siren can provide a constraint on the Hubble constant, albeit a weak one. Future combinations of many sirens will lead to improved constraints. A multifold increase in the LVC event detection rate is expected in the coming years, and this bodes well since future combinations of many additional sirens will lead to improved constraints.

Keywords: catalogs — cosmology: observations — gravitational waves — surveys

1. INTRODUCTION

Unlike most extragalactic distance observables, mergers of neutron star and black hole binary systems are *absolute* distance indicators. Often referred to as “standard sirens”, they emit gravitational waves (GW) from which the luminosity distance can be inferred without relying on any calibration with respect to another source: the rate of change in frequency gives the system’s size and thus the intrinsic amplitude, which is compared against the observed signal amplitude to obtain the distance to the source. If redshifts are associated with those sirens (in the simplest case, the host galaxy is identified and its redshift is obtained via spectroscopic follow up), a measurement of the present rate of expansion of the Universe H_0 can be achieved via the distance–redshift relation. The use of gravitational wave sources as cosmological probes was first proposed by Schutz (1986), and recently revisited in several works (e.g. Holz & Hughes 2005).

For dark energy research, the possibility of measuring H_0 directly and independently from other methods is of great interest. Local measurements obtained from type Ia Supernovae (SN Ia) and other distance indicators, as well as the predicted value inferred from the cosmic microwave background at $z \sim 1100$, have achieved remarkable precision of 1–2.5% (e.g. Riess et al. 2018; Planck Collaboration et al. 2018). They disagree, however, by more than 3σ and interpreting this tension as evidence for beyond- Λ CDM dark energy or new physics at the early universe requires new measurements of great precision and accuracy (Freedman 2017; Mörtzell & Dhawan 2018). Those measurements are one of the greatest challenges faced by current experiments in cosmology because the observables are subject to correlated systematic effects arising from their complex astrophysics. As estimates become more precise, this challenge becomes more severe and the need for novel independent methods becomes more pressing. Those methods, however, are few and hard to come by. One possibility is standard sirens, which remained elusive for almost 30 years, until the detection of the first gravitational wave event (GW150914; Abbott et al. 2016).

The first standard siren-based H_0 measurement (Abbott et al. 2017a) came with the discovery of the binary–neutron-star (BNS) merger GW170817 (Abbott et al. 2017) and its associated electromagnetic counterpart (LIGO Scientific Collaboration et al. 2017; Soares-Santos et al. 2017; Arcavi et al. 2017; Coulter et al. 2017; Lipunov et al. 2017; Tanvir et al. 2017; Valenti et al. 2017). Several studies have developed methodologies to infer cosmological parameters from standard sirens and establish their constraining power (Schutz 1986; Holz & Hughes 2005; MacLeod & Hogan 2008; Nissanke et al. 2010; Del Pozzo 2012; Nissanke et al. 2013; Chen et al. 2017a; Feeney et al. 2018; Vitale & Chen 2018; Mortlock et al. 2018). Chen et al. (2017a) predict that we will be able to constrain H_0 with 2% precision within 5 years with standard sirens detected by LIGO/Virgo, while Nair et al. (2018) predict a $\sim 7\%$ measurement with just 25 binary black hole (BBH) events from the Einstein telescope.

Anticipating that the LIGO/Virgo Collaboration (LVC) network of gravitational wave detectors would eventually achieve sensitivity sufficient to enable standard siren-based measurements, the Dark Energy Survey (DES) collaboration and external collaborators launched in 2015 the DES gravitational waves (DESGW) program. DESGW uses DECam to search for optical emission associated with LVC detected mergers and pursues cosmological measurements with standard sirens. In particular, the multi-messenger shared discovery of the neutron–star merger GW170817 and of its optical kilonova, resulted in a measurement of H_0 (Abbott et al. 2017a) that inaugurated the era of siren-based cosmology. We have also performed the most comprehensive searches for optical emission to black hole events, including GW150914 (Soares-Santos et al. 2016), GW151226 (Cowperthwaite et al. 2016), and GW170814 (Doctor et al. 2018). These events are expected to be dark, although the possibility of optical emission has yet to be observationally excluded.

Dark sirens can also be used for cosmology using a statistical method, as first proposed in Schutz (1986). Provided a catalog of potential host galaxies within the event localization region, their redshifts will contribute in a probabilistic way to the measurement of H_0 , depending on the galaxies’ distance and sky position. This approach has been developed within a Bayesian framework by Del Pozzo (2012) and Chen

* Deceased, November 2017.

† Deceased, July 2018.

et al. (2017a) and implemented in Fishbach et al. (2018) using GW170817, which produced results consistent with the first measurement (Abbott et al. 2017a) where the identified host galaxy, NGC 4993 (e.g., Palmese et al. 2017), was used. Eventually, a large sample of events will enable precise cosmological measurements using the dark siren approach.

In this work, we measure H_0 using the gravitational wave event GW170814 (Abbott et al. 2017b) as a dark siren. GW170814 resulted from the inspiral and merger of a binary black hole system at a luminosity distance of 540^{+130}_{-210} Mpc (median value with 90% credible interval). The masses of the black holes were $30.5^{+5.7}_{-3.0}$ and $25.3^{+2.8}_{-4.2} M_\odot$, each. GW170814 is the first BBH detected by a triple network (including LIGO Hanford and Livingston, plus Virgo), and it has the smallest localization volume of any of the BBH events detected by LVC thus far. Therefore the number of potential host galaxies is lower compared to other events, making GW170814 the most appropriate event for this measurement. Additionally, the event localization region falls within the DES footprint, making DES galaxy catalogs a prime sample for measurement of H_0 . With this one event, our goal is to provide a proof of principle measurement, addressing the challenges that are specific to the dark siren method, and establishing its potential to yield precision cosmology results in the near future.

A key component of the measurement is crafting the appropriate galaxy catalog: completeness, as well as precise and accurate photometric redshifts ($\text{photo-}z$'s), throughout the entire volume probed are required. The overlap of GW170814's area with DES allows us to employ galaxy catalogs produced from the first three years of the survey (DES Y3; Abbott et al. 2018). This first dark siren measurement is a step towards incorporating this new cosmological probe into the portfolio of cosmic surveys for dark energy.

A detailed description of the data used in this analysis is provided in §2, followed by a description of our implementation of the method in §3 and methodology illustrations using simulations in §4. We present our results and conclusions in §5. Throughout this paper we assume a flat ΛCDM cosmology with $\Omega_m = 0.3$ and H_0 values in the $20 - 140 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$ range. All quoted error bars represent the 68% confidence level (CL), unless otherwise stated.

2. DATA

2.1. The LVC sky map

The sky map used in this work is the publicly available LALInference map (LIGO Scientific Collaboration & Virgo Collaboration 2017)¹, provided in HEALPix (Górski et al. 2005) pixels. The luminosity distance probability dis-

tribution is approximated with a Gaussian in each pixel. The region of interest, enclosing 90% of the localization probability, is 61.66 deg^2 . The projected sky map and the distribution of luminosity distance mean values from the LVC distance likelihood in each pixel within the region of interest are shown in Figure 1. The probability peak is located at RA, Dec = $(47.523, -44.856)$ deg. At the peak location, the luminosity distance is 504.7 Mpc and the Gaussian width is 91.9 Mpc. Using the limiting values of our H_0 prior range ($[20, 140] \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$) we can convert the 90% and 99.7% distance range into a redshift range ($0.02 < z < 0.26$ and $z < 0.3$, respectively) for this analysis.

2.2. The DES galaxy catalog

The DES²(The Dark Energy Survey Collaboration 2005; Dark Energy Survey Collaboration et al. 2016) is an optical-near-infrared survey that images 5000 deg^2 of the South Galactic Cap in the $grizY$ bands. The survey is being carried out using a $\sim 3 \text{ deg}^2$ CCD camera (the DECam, see Flaugher et al. 2015) mounted on the Blanco 4-m telescope at the Cerro Tololo Inter-American Observatory (CTIO) in Chile. The data used here are from the first 3 years of observations (September 2013 – February 2016, Abbott et al. 2018).

The DES Data Management (DESDM) pipeline was used for data reduction (Morganson et al. 2018). The process includes calibration of the single-epoch images, which are co-added after background subtraction and then cut into tiles. The source catalogue was created using SOURCE EXTRACTOR (SEXTRACTOR, Bertin & Arnouts 1996) to detect objects on the riz co-added images. The median 10σ limiting magnitudes of Y3 data for galaxies are $g = 24.33$, $r = 24.08$, $i = 23.44$, $z = 22.69$, and $Y = 21.44$ mag (Abbott et al. 2018). The photometry used in this work is part of a value-added Y3 catalog not released with DR1, and is the result of the Multi-Object Fitting (MOF) pipeline that uses the ngmix code.³ Following a procedure similar to Drlica-Wagner et al. (2017) for Year 1 data, the DES collaboration made further selections to produce a high-quality object catalog called the Y3 “gold” catalog. For this sample, redshifts have been computed using the Directional Neighborhood Fitting (DNF; De Vicente et al. 2016), and they are not included in DR1.

The DNF method applied to Y3 data provides redshift information for each galaxy in the form of a probability distribution function (PDF), from which a mean redshift, and half of the central 68th percentile width are computed. The width of the PDF can be over or under-estimated due to the sampling of the training set and algorithmic details of DNF. This issue is particularly relevant for the redshift range used in

¹ <https://dcc.ligo.org/LIGO-T1700453/public>

² www.darkenergysurvey.org

³ <https://github.com/esheldon/ngmix>

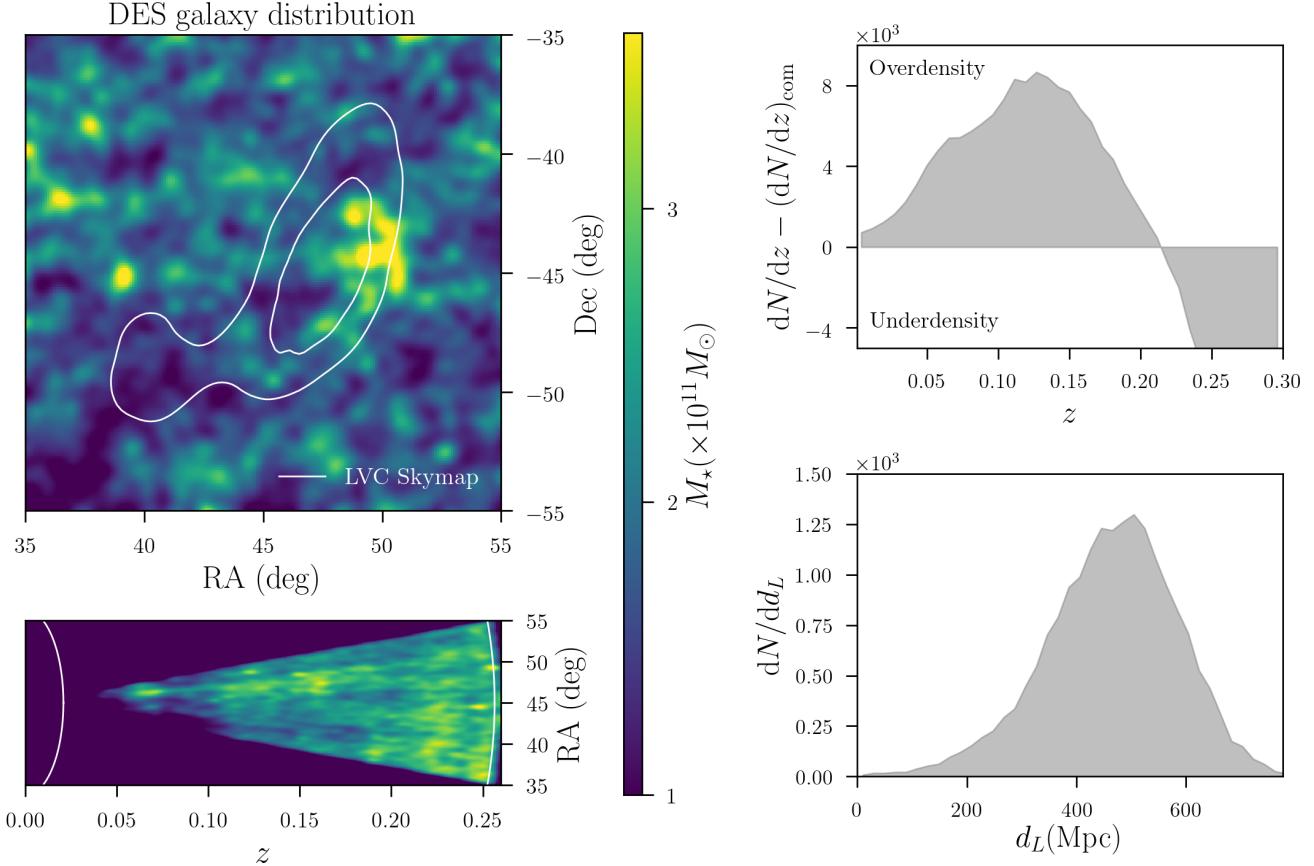


Figure 1. *Left:* Stellar mass distribution of the DES galaxies used in this analysis (color map) and the GW170814 localization region at 50 and 90% CL (white contours). The region in redshift space is valid for the prior range $20 < H_0 < 140 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$. The stellar mass map has been smoothed with a Gaussian filter of width 0.3 deg. The bottom panel shows the galaxies’ stellar mass distribution in RA and redshift, projected over the Dec. *Right:* Distributions of the DES galaxy redshifts within the region of interest (top) and the luminosity distance in HEALPix pixels from the LVC distance likelihood, as given in the sky map (bottom). The histograms are obtained from a Monte–Carlo (MC) sampling the galaxies’ redshift PDF and the luminosity distance likelihood in each pixel. The redshift distribution has been subtracted by a uniform distribution in comoving volume (dN/dz)_{com}, obtained assuming $H_0 = 70 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$, and containing the same total number of galaxies to highlight the overdensity of galaxies in the region.

this work, which is low compared to that exploited in weak lensing and large scale structure cosmology, for which the DNF method was optimized. We find that the typical uncertainty below redshift $z \sim 0.1$ is underestimated by a factor of 10 when compared to the typical scatter found for the subset of the galaxies with available spectroscopic redshifts (where the standard deviation is $\sigma \gtrsim 0.015$). Thus, we add a minimum uncertainty of 0.015 for these low- z galaxies. At $0.1 < z < 0.3$, the uncertainty is well behaved and the average value follows $\bar{\sigma}_z(z) \simeq 0.013(1+z)^3$, as we find using an empirical fit.

We produce alternative photo- z estimates with another machine learning code, ANNz2 (Sadeh et al. 2016). This allows us to test the impact of the correction applied to the DNF errors on the posterior of the Hubble constant. Photo- z with ANNz2 have previously been validated for cosmological analyses using DES Science Verification data (Bon-

nett et al. 2016; Leistedt et al. 2016; Abbott et al. 2016) and for the Kilo-Degree Survey (KiDS; Bilicki et al. 2018), and are produced as part of the DES photo- z pipeline (Gschwend et al. 2018). In particular, it provides error estimates through a k -nearest neighbor (k NN) method, and dedicated redshifts for the purposes of this analysis. We additionally employ a reweighting technique (Lima et al. 2008) specifically for our galaxy sample to further tune our redshifts. We run ANNz2 in randomized regression mode with 50 Boosted Decision Trees (BDTs), using a spectroscopic sample of 245,458 matching Y3 galaxies out to redshift $z \gtrsim 1$, randomly split into subsamples for training, testing and validation. The training and the reweighting use $griz$ MOF magnitudes. We find that the typical error roughly follows $\sim 0.02(1+z)^3$ in the redshift range of interest. The two algorithms, DNF and ANNz2, gave similar results, see section §5.

These redshifts, together with publicly available spectroscopic redshifts from 2dF, 6dF and SPT-GMOS (Colless et al. 2001; Jones et al. 2009; Bayliss et al. 2016) and the DES MOF photometry, are used to estimate galaxy properties (including stellar mass and absolute magnitude) of this sample. This is achieved through a broadband Spectral Energy Distribution (SED) fitting of galaxy magnitudes with LEPHARE (Arnouts et al. 1999, Ilbert et al. 2006). Estimates of the galaxy properties used here from DES data alone have been tested and studied in several DES works (Palmese et al. 2016; Etherington et al. 2017; Palmese et al. 2018). We add a 0.05 systematic uncertainty in quadrature to the magnitudes, to account for systematic uncertainties in magnitude estimation and model variance.⁴ The simple stellar population (SSP) templates used for the fitting are Bruzual & Charlot (2003), with three metallicities ($0.2 Z_{\odot}$, Z_{\odot} and $2.5 Z_{\odot}$), a Chabrier (2003) Initial Mass Function (IMF) and a Milky Way (Allen 1976) extinction law with five different values between 0 and 0.5 for the $E(B-V)$ reddening. The star formation history (SFH) chosen is exponentially declining as $e^{-t/\tau}$ with $\tau = 0.1, 0.3, 1, 2, 3, 5, 10, 15$ and 30 Gyr.

The source list of the Y3 gold catalogue is 95% complete for galaxies within our apparent magnitude limit, $r < 23.35$ (Abbott et al. 2018). This value is computed through the recovery rate of sources from the deeper CFHTLenS survey (Erben et al. 2013), and thus includes the correct distribution of surface brightnesses. Nevertheless, extended, low surface brightness galaxies near our flux limit may be preferentially missed by the detection pipeline. We therefore provide an approximate completeness of sources throughout the redshift range of interest. Using DNF mean redshifts we convert the source completeness to $r < 23.35$ from Abbott et al. (2018) (Figure 12) into a completeness in redshift intervals, $\Delta z = 0.02$. By taking the peak of the magnitude distribution in each bin as roughly our observed magnitude limit at that redshift, we find our sample is $> 93\%$ complete across the range $0 < z < 0.26$. We further determined that the fraction of low redshift, extended galaxies missed by the DES Y3 pipeline is $\sim 1\%$, when compared with the 2MASS extended source catalog (Huchra et al. 2012). For the purpose of this paper, we choose to ignore those ultra-low z sources as most of them are at $z < 0.02$ and are not relevant for the present analysis.

The DES Y3 gold catalog is nonetheless an observed magnitude-limited sample. This analysis requires a volume-limited sample, which we obtain by applying a luminosity cut. In order to determine the appropriate cut to create a

⁴ This is a regularization to compensate for the synthetic model set grid and the fact that many SED fitting codes do not include a model error function. The value chosen is based on past experience of what gives stable results.

volume-limited sample, we compute the completeness limits in terms of absolute quantities (luminosity and stellar mass). We follow the method outlined in Pozzetti et al. (2010) and Hartley et al. (2013). We identify galaxies with observed magnitudes that are bright enough to be complete and representative of the real galaxy population within redshift bins. To compute the 95% completeness limit in (rest-frame) luminosity, we scale the luminosities of this sample to that which they would have if their observed magnitude were equal to the survey completeness limit, and take the 95th percentile of the resulting luminosity distribution. This value corresponds to -17.2 in r -band absolute magnitude and $\sim 3.8 \times 10^8 M_{\odot}$ in stellar mass for the redshift range of interest. We cut the DES catalog at the specific absolute luminosity value mentioned above. We conclude that our volume-limited galaxy sample is complete within the redshift range of interest for galaxies down to stellar masses of $\sim 3.8 \times 10^8 M_{\odot}$. In other words, our galaxy catalog contains $\sim 77\%$ of the total stellar mass in the volume considered by assuming that the galaxies follow a Schechter stellar mass function with the best fit values from Weigel et al. (2016).

The final galaxy stellar mass and redshift distributions of galaxies are shown in Figure 1. The stellar mass map clearly shows the presence of large scale structure, including clusters, voids and filaments. We recognize a number of well-known clusters within the volume of interest, including several Abell clusters. A uniform distribution of galaxies in comoving volume $(dN/dz)_{\text{com}}$ has been subtracted from the observed galaxies' redshift distribution in Figure 1 to highlight the overdensities. The $(dN/dz)_{\text{com}}$ distribution has been obtained by assuming $H_0 = 70 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$ and it contains the same total number of galaxies as the observed dN/dz over the redshift range shown. We are able to identify a “wall”-like structure around $z \sim 0.06$ spanning most of the area between $35 < \text{RA} < 55$ and $-55 < \text{Dec} < -35$, which is spectroscopically confirmed by 2dF, LCRS (Shectman et al. 1996), and especially 6dF. A broader galaxy overdensity is found around $z \sim 0.12$ (also seen in LCRS and 2dF, and composed of several Abell galaxy clusters). This broad peak is also identified in redshift distributions by other photo- z codes, including a template based code, the Bayesian Photometric Redshift (BPZ; Benítez 2000). We have further verified that overdensities at the lowest redshifts ($z \sim 0.06$) are also present in spectroscopic samples outside of the region of interest. This is expected at these low redshifts, where large scale structure projects onto vast areas of the sky. In summary, there are 77,092 galaxies within the 90% LIGO/Virgo probability volume, and 105,011 when 99.7% of the distance probability is considered, of which $\sim 6,000$ have spectroscopic redshifts.

3. METHOD

In order to estimate the posterior probability of H_0 given GW data d_{GW} from a single event detection, and electromagnetic (EM) data from a galaxy survey, we follow [Chen et al. \(2017a\)](#). By applying Bayes' theorem, one can write the posterior as:

$$p(H_0|d_{\text{GW}}, d_{\text{EM}}) \propto p(d_{\text{GW}}, d_{\text{EM}}|H_0)p(H_0). \quad (1)$$

We assume that all cosmological parameters except for H_0 are fixed (Flat Λ CDM cosmology with $\Omega_m = 0.3$ and $\Omega_\Lambda = 0.7$). We treat the joint GW and EM likelihood $p(d_{\text{GW}}, d_{\text{EM}}|H_0)$ as the product of two individual likelihoods (since the processes involved in producing the data from the two experiments are independent) marginalized over all variables except for the true luminosity distance d_L and solid angle $\hat{\Omega}_{\text{GW}}$ of the GW source, and for the true host galaxy redshift z_i and solid angle $\hat{\Omega}_i$. Note that the solid angles $\hat{\Omega}$ are vectors with the angular position of the source/galaxy as direction, and they all subtend the same area ($\sim 3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ deg}^2$) as the sky is pixelized with HEALPIX maps in this work. If we assume that the event happened in one of the observed galaxies i , then $\hat{\Omega}_{\text{GW}}$ and $\hat{\Omega}_i$ are related, and so are d_L and z_i through the cosmology (in this case, H_0). By marginalizing also over the choice of galaxy i , the joint, marginal likelihood can be written as:

$$\begin{aligned} p(d_{\text{GW}}, d_{\text{EM}}|\{z_j, \hat{\Omega}_j\}, H_0) &\propto \sum_i w_i \int dd_L d\hat{\Omega}_{\text{GW}} p(d_{\text{GW}}|d_L, \hat{\Omega}_{\text{GW}}) \\ &\quad \times p(d_{\text{EM}}|\{z_j, \hat{\Omega}_j\}) \delta_D(d_L - d_L(z_i, H_0)) \delta_D(\hat{\Omega}_{\text{GW}} - \hat{\Omega}_i), \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where δ_D is the Dirac delta function, w_i are weights that represent the relative probability that different galaxies host a GW source, and $\{z_j, \hat{\Omega}_j\}$ represents all the galaxies' redshift and solid angle. These weights could be based on some galaxy properties, such as luminosity or star-formation rate, but here we assume they are uniform across all galaxies given our lack of knowledge of GW host galaxy properties.

We also need to marginalize over the galaxies' redshifts and sky positions, with a reasonable choice of prior $p(z_i, \hat{\Omega}_i)$. If one assumes that the galaxies are uniformly distributed in comoving volume V , and volume-limited within V_{\max} :

$$p(z_i, \hat{\Omega}_i) dz_i d\hat{\Omega}_i \propto \frac{1}{V_{\max}} \frac{d^2 V}{dz_i d\hat{\Omega}_i} dz_i d\hat{\Omega}_i \propto \frac{1}{V_{\max}} \frac{r^2(z_i)}{H(z_i)} dz_i d\hat{\Omega}_i, \quad (3)$$

where $\mathcal{Z}_i = \int p(d_{\text{EM}}|z_i) r^2(z_i)/H(z_i) dz_i$ are evidence terms that arise from integrating out the other galaxy redshifts in

where r is the comoving distance to the galaxy. While this assumption holds on average over sufficiently large volumes, it is possible that future precision cosmology analyses will require taking into account the real clustering of galaxies in this formalism.

Assuming that we precisely know the galaxies' positions $\{\hat{\Omega}_j\}$ (which is realistic especially in the limit in which spatial probabilities are considered within HEALPIX pixels), we can integrate over the galaxies' positions as delta functions about the observed values. The marginal EM likelihood reduces to $p(d_{\text{EM}}|\{z_j\})$, which we approximate for simplicity by a product of Gaussian distributions, \mathcal{N} , for each galaxy, centred around the observed redshift values $z_{\text{obs},i}$ with a width given by the redshift's uncertainty $\sigma_{z,i}$ for each galaxy i :

$$p(d_{\text{EM}}|\{z_j\}) = \prod_i p(z_{\text{obs},i}|z_i) = \prod_i \mathcal{N}(z_{\text{obs},i}, \sigma_{z,i}; z_i). \quad (4)$$

The marginal GW likelihood $p(d_{\text{GW}}|d_L, \Omega)$ can be computed as prescribed in [Singer et al. \(2016\)](#):

$$p(d_{\text{GW}}|d_L, \hat{\Omega}) \propto p(\hat{\Omega}) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma(\hat{\Omega})} \exp\left[-\frac{(d_L - \mu(\hat{\Omega}))^2}{2\sigma^2(\hat{\Omega})}\right] N(\hat{\Omega}), \quad (5)$$

where the position probability, location, normalization and scale (PROB $p(\hat{\Omega})$, DISTMU μ , DISTNORM N and DISTSTD σ respectively) of the luminosity distance at each position are provided in the sky map.

We now consider the selection effects of GW events and galaxies introduced by the experiments' sensitivities and detection pipelines. We follow the approach of [Chen et al. \(2017a\)](#) and [Mandel et al. \(2018\)](#), and include a $[\beta(H_0)]^{-1}$ factor that normalizes the likelihood over all possible GW and EM data. Given that our galaxy catalog is volume-limited out to larger distances than the maximum observable distance for the GW events, this term reduces to:

$$\beta(H_0) = \frac{V[d_{L,\text{GW}}^{\max}(H_0)]}{V_{\max}(H_0)}, \quad (6)$$

where $V[d_{L,\text{GW}}^{\max}(H_0)]$ is the maximum observable volume for the GW events considered.

Finally, Eq. (1) becomes:

$$p(H_0|d_{\text{GW}}, d_{\text{EM}}) \propto \frac{p(H_0)}{V[d_{L,\text{GW}}^{\max}(H_0)]} \sum_i \frac{1}{\mathcal{Z}_i} \int dz_i p(d_{\text{GW}}|d_L(z_i, H_0), \hat{\Omega}_i) p(d_{\text{EM}}|z_i) \frac{r^2(z_i)}{H(z_i)}, \quad (7)$$

each term of the sum. This formalism can be extended to

combine data $\{d_{\text{GW},j}\}$ and d_{EM} from a sample of multiple events j , assuming that the GW events are independent and that the galaxy catalog is fixed for all events:

$$p(H_0|\{d_{\text{GW},j}\}, d_{\text{EM}}) \propto p(H_0) \int d^N z_k d^N \hat{\Omega}_k p(z_k, \hat{\Omega}_k) \times \\ p(d_{\text{EM}}|z_k, \hat{\Omega}_k) \left[\prod_j p(d_{\text{GW},j}|z_k, \hat{\Omega}_k) \right]. \quad (8)$$

In the following, we assume a flat prior on H_0 within $[20, 140]$ $\text{km s}^{-1} \text{Mpc}^{-1}$, unless otherwise stated. This is a very broad prior, covering a range much larger than current estimates of H_0 . We choose this weak prior so that our result is mostly informed by the LVC and DES data rather than by external constraints.

A blinded analysis has been performed when estimating the H_0 posterior from the data to avoid confirmation bias. The values of the Hubble constant have been randomly displaced by an unknown amount, and we unblinded after our pipeline was able to reliably reproduce the input cosmology on simulation tests.

4. SIMULATIONS

We use simulated data to illustrate the method presented in §3 and estimate the impact of luminosity distance and redshift uncertainties, the two most important sources of uncertainty for this measurement. For this purpose, we produce two sets of simulated sky maps. The first set comprises ideal, well-localized events with a 90% credible area of 1 deg^2 , to illustrate the sensitivity of the posteriors to those uncertainties, and how they combine into a final posterior. The second set of simulated sky maps has a more realistic localization area (60 deg^2). We generate 100 sky maps for different distance uncertainties, for each of the two sets of simulations. In all cases, the uncertainties are modeled as Gaussian. The impact of non-Gaussian uncertainties, which will become important for precision cosmology analysis using multiple dark sirens, will be the subject of future work.

In our simulations, we randomly draw GW event distances from a uniform distribution in comoving volume out to a maximum observable volume $V(d_{L,\text{GW}}^{\max})$ corresponding to that of the past LVC observing run (i.e., out to $d_L \sim 650$ Mpc for merging black holes of 25 and 30 solar masses, as computed with the calculator provided by Chen et al. 2017b). Each generated event is matched in distance to a host galaxy from the DES Y3 mock galaxy catalogs (DeRose et al., in prep; Wechsler et al., in prep), using its input cosmology ($H_0 = 70 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{Mpc}^{-1}$, $\Omega_m = 0.286$). We use the host coordinates to build sky maps, where the position probability is modeled as a 2-dimensional Gaussian with width scaled so that the 90% localization area corresponds to the chosen

value A (1 or 60 deg^2). For the set of well-localized simulated sky maps, the Gaussian is centered on the host galaxy. To simulate the more realistic set of sky maps, we apply a random offset to the coordinates of the center of the simulated event region, drawing from Gaussian distributions with widths given by the uncertainties in angular space and distance. The resulting maps are in the same format as the real data, with a Gaussian distance probability distribution in each pixel. The Gaussian widths σ_d are a fixed fraction of the distance d for all events in the sample: σ_d/d . Gaussian uncertainties are also assigned to the galaxy redshifts, with widths σ_z . When selecting the host galaxy for a given GW event, we ignore incompleteness in the simulated galaxy catalog. However, when performing the analysis on the simulated data, we apply the same luminosity cuts that we use in the analysis on data to ensure a volume limited catalog of the same depth. We generate samples of 100 events and then compare the results of our analysis to the input cosmology of the galaxy catalog.

In the first 3 samples (Figure 2) σ_d/d varies between 2% and 10% (about half of the distance uncertainty of GW170814) while σ_z varies between zero and $0.013(1+z)^3$ (uncertainty typical of our photometric redshift data). The sky area A is fixed to 1 deg^2 (90% c.l.), the prior range is set to $[50, 90]$, and the random offsets are set to zero. This is an *ideal* simulation, with a choice of parameters designed for illustrative purposes. For single events, the posterior is expected to have peaks corresponding to large scale structure along the line of sight. Those peaks are broadened and blended if σ_d (or σ_z) increases. We first vary σ_d/d keeping our redshifts fixed, with $\sigma_z = 0$, as if the EM data were from a spectroscopic sample. We then introduce non-zero σ_z values and estimate that for $\sigma_d/d = 10\%$, the photometric redshift uncertainties typical of DES Y3 data are sub-dominant.

The H_0 uncertainties achieved with these ideal simulations (1%) are unrealistic. Given the typical distance and redshift uncertainties, and the large localization area of real GW events, we expect to recover one or few very broad peaks from our analysis of GW170814. In order to quantify that expectation, we produced new simulation samples of 100 events, with parameters similar to our data: $A = 60 \text{ deg}^2$ areas each, non-zero random offsets, and σ_z and σ_d values in a grid around the values seen in our data. For typical distance uncertainties reported for merger events detected to date (15–20%), our simulations indicate that DES photometric redshifts ($0.01 < \sigma_z/(1+z) < 0.02$) will support measurements with precision better than 60% ($\pm 42 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{Mpc}^{-1}$) per event. This is the expected sensitivity of the analysis presented in this work.

Extending the above simulation to 100 events, this analysis achieves 4.5% precision. The uncertainty after 100 events is insensitive to the H_0 prior used; we find this same result

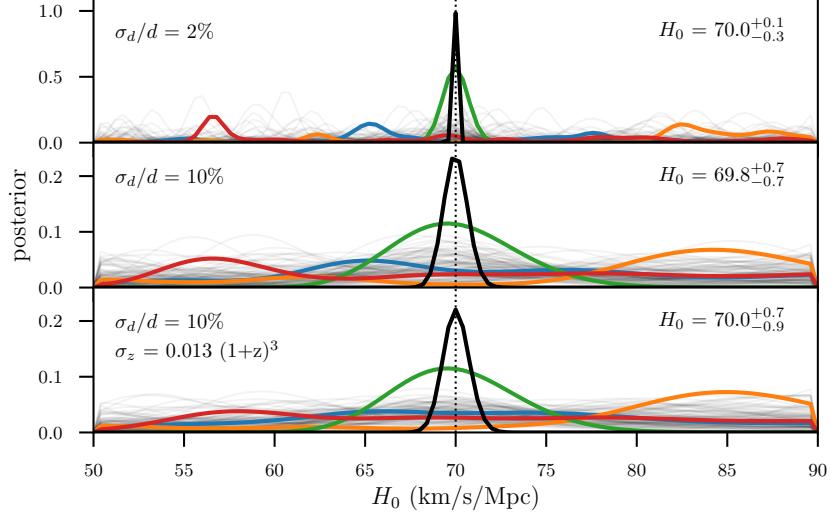


Figure 2. Example posteriors for idealized simulations of 100 GW events out to 500 Mpc (grey lines), with a 90% probability region of $\sim 1 \text{ deg}^2$. The peaks correspond to large scale structure along the line of sight. In each panel, from top to bottom, the same four random events are highlighted in color to illustrate the shapes of individual event posteriors. The combined posterior is shown as a thick black line and the true input cosmology is marked by the dotted line. An increase in distance uncertainty from 2% (top) to 10% (middle) per event causes broadening of the peaks and results in an increase on the H_0 uncertainty. While photometric redshift uncertainties cause further smearing of the peaks (bottom), the combined posterior still peaks sharply around the input cosmology. This is an important validation of our method. These idealized simulations result in H_0 uncertainty of 1%, much smaller than what we expect to obtain for real GW events which have larger areas, greater distance uncertainties, and sky map peak location offset from the true host galaxies.

if a $[20, 140] \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$ prior or other wide enough priors (even asymmetric around $70 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$) is used. The precision on H_0 decreases with N events by $1/\sqrt{N}$ until statistical uncertainties are no longer dominant. We expect that the main sources of systematics will include photo- z catastrophic outliers, non-Gaussian redshift PDFs and biases, and the results presented here are optimistic estimates of the expected uncertainties.

In the past two LVC observing seasons, black-hole mergers outnumbered neutron star events at a rate of approximately 10 to 1. Uncertainties on the expected detection rate are large, but conservative estimates predict ~ 1 event per week for the upcoming observing campaign (scheduled to start in early 2019). The majority of these events will have larger localization volumes than GW170814 (Chen et al. 2017 estimate $\lesssim 1\%$ of BBHs will be localized to better than 10^4 Mpc^3) and hence provide poorer constraints than those reported here. However, given the high expected event rate for dark sirens, larger event samples will be available in the future.

5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

We apply the described methodology to the DES galaxies' redshifts and the GW170814 LIGO/Virgo sky map to produce a posterior distribution for the Hubble constant. We find that changes in the H_0 estimate and its uncertainty between using the corrected DNF photo- z 's or the ANNz2

outputs are below the percent level. This agreement is expected, since the two methods produce redshift distributions that are consistent with similar uncertainties. We also add a 0.001 systematic redshift error in quadrature (corresponding to a typical peculiar velocity of $\sim 300 \text{ km s}^{-1}$). The effect of this correction on the posterior is negligible because only a few percent of the galaxies have a spectroscopic redshift, and the effect of peculiar velocities on the remaining galaxies is more than an order of magnitude below their typical photo- z error.

Our maximum a posteriori estimate of the Hubble constant is $H_0 = 75.2_{-32.4}^{+39.5} \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$ using a flat prior between 20 and $140 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$. The full posterior distribution is shown in Figure 3, and Table 1 summarizes our findings. The presence of a main, though broad, peak is expected given the large scale structure seen in the observed volume.

As described in section 2.1, the galaxy sample used in these results is selected as described in §2, and covers the LIGO/Virgo 90% credible localization volume. The distance cut is translated into a redshift cut (made on the mean photo- z value of each galaxy) for a given H_0 prior. This cut ensures that the galaxy catalog is as complete as possible throughout the whole redshift range of interest for the cosmological parameters used, and includes the fainter galaxies observable for a volume-limited sample defined as in §2. In fact, in order to include more distant galaxies, the luminosity cut

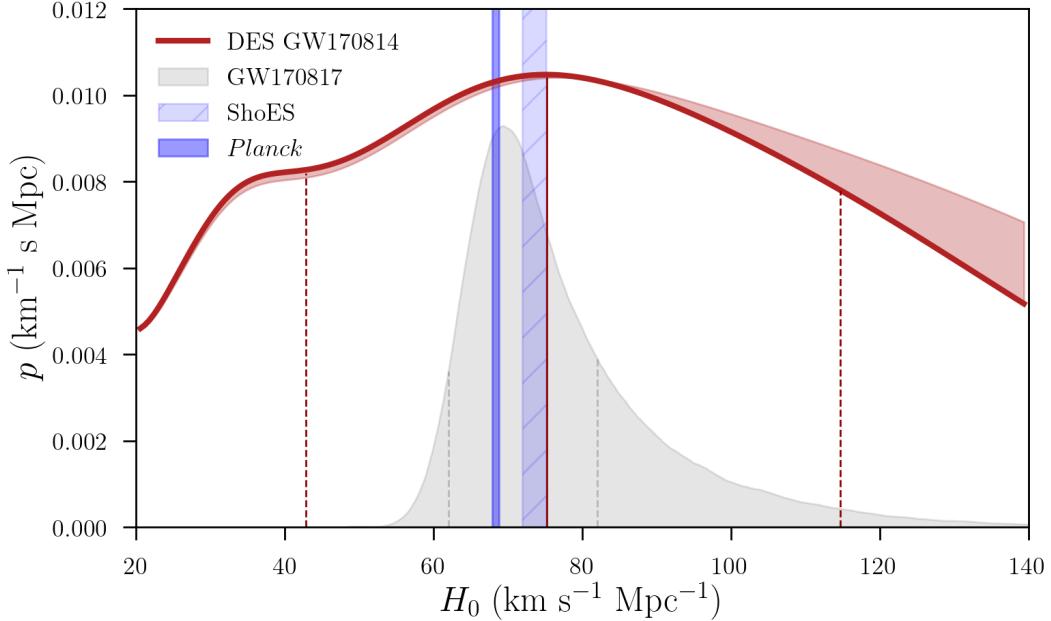


Figure 3. Hubble constant posterior distribution obtained by marginalizing over $\sim 77,000$ possible host galaxies (red line), showing the maximum value (solid vertical line). The maximum a posteriori and its 68% confidence level is $H_0 = 75.2_{-32.4}^{+39.5} \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$ for a flat prior in the range $[20, 140] \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$. The shaded region represents the change in the posterior when different fractions of the localization volume are considered (from 90 to 99.7% of the LIGO/Virgo luminosity distance posterior). The PDF computed from the larger volume has been renormalized to have the same value of the 90% localization volume H_0 posterior at the maximum, to highlight differences below and beyond the main peak. The posterior obtained by Abbott et al. (2017a) for the bright standard siren event GW170817, associated to one galaxy, is shown in grey. The prior used in that work was flat-in-log over a narrower range ($[50, 140] \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$), and the posterior has been rescaled by a factor 0.2 for visualization purposes. The 68% CL of both PDFs is shown by the dashed lines. Constraints from Planck (Planck Collaboration et al. 2018) and SHoES (Riess et al. 2016, 2018) at 1σ are shown in purple boxes.

needs to be brighter to ensure that the sample is still volume-limited, with the risk of missing the true host galaxy. We have explored the impact of the redshift cut on the H_0 posterior, while keeping the angular selection to be within the 90% credible localization area. The effect of including galaxies out to 99.7% of the distance localization (corresponding to $z \lesssim 0.3$) is most pronounced at high H_0 values, as shown by the shaded red region in Figure 3. With this less restrictive cut, the credible region shifts to $H_0 = 77_{-33}^{+41} \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$, showing a $\sim 2\%$ change of the maximum. The effect described here arises from tens of thousand of galaxies at the higher redshifts included with the more relaxed distance cut and the ansatz of Gaussianity of the luminosity distance posterior. In fact, these galaxies contribute with a non-negligible probability to the posterior because of the high d_L tail shown in the bottom right panel of Figure 1, and they contribute more significantly at high H_0 values. This few percent effect is insignificant at the current levels of precision, but will need to be explored in the future using a more realistic luminosity distance posterior.

Our result agrees well (as expected, due to the large uncertainty) with the latest CMB estimate of the Hubble constant by the *Planck* Collaboration ($67.36 \pm 0.54 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$

from TT,TE,EE+lowP+lensing; Planck Collaboration et al. 2018), and with results using distance ladder methods by SHoES ($73.52 \pm 1.62 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$; Riess et al. 2016) and by DES ($67.77 \pm 1.30 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$ from SN+BAO; Macaulay et al. 2018).

For the bright standard siren measurement using GW170817 and its electromagnetic counterpart, Abbott et al. (2017a) found $H_0 = 70.0_{-8.0}^{+12.0} \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$ at 68% credible interval. Without an EM counterpart leading to a unique host galaxy redshift, we would have recovered a broader H_0 posterior since we average over all possible host galaxies in the localization volume. For example, Fishbach et al. (2018) applied the statistical standard siren method to GW170817 and found a larger uncertainty than the counterpart standard siren result: $H_0 = 76_{-23}^{+48} \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$ for a uniform prior over the range $[10, 220] \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$. For a BBH standard siren measurement, as in this work, the combination of the larger localization volume (implying a significantly greater number of potential host galaxies) and the large photometric redshift uncertainty for each galaxy results in an even broader H_0 posterior. Therefore, while applying the statistical standard siren method to GW170817 yields a 68% credible region on H_0 comprising 34% of the prior range (Fishbach et al. 2018), in

| Prior | H_0 | $+ \sigma_{H_0}$ | $- \sigma_{H_0}$ | σ_{H_0}/H_0 | σ_{H_0}/H_0 prior |
|----------|-------|------------------|------------------|--------------------|--------------------------|
| [20,140] | 75.2 | 39.5 | 32.4 | 47.8% | 54.3% |

Table 1. Hubble constant estimate from this work. All H_0 values and errors are in $\text{km s}^{-1} \text{Mpc}^{-1}$. The uncertainty from the flat prior only is derived by assuming the same H_0 maximum found in the analysis. Quoted uncertainties represent 68% confidence level around the maximum of the posterior, and they are statistical only. The last column quantity (σ_{H_0}/H_0 prior) corresponds to 68% times the prior width divided by H_0 .

this work we obtain a 68% credible region on H_0 that is 60% of the prior range. We note that the prior used in Fishbach et al. (2018) is 1.75 times broader than the prior used in this work; if we adopt the same broader prior of [10,220] for our analysis of GW170814, we find $H_0 = 78^{+96}_{-24} \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$. The analysis in Fishbach et al. (2018) for GW170817 used the GLADE galaxy catalog (Dálya et al. 2018), and accounted for incompleteness at the distance of GW170817. GLADE becomes significantly incomplete at the distance to GW170814. As GW detectors improve in sensitivity, the majority of dark standard sirens will be detected at even greater distances and with larger localization volumes, well beyond the reach of spectroscopic galaxy catalogs. This highlights the need for reliable and complete photometric galaxy catalogs. Surveys such as DES, Pan-STARRS1 (Chambers et al. 2016) and LSST are therefore likely to play an important role in future constraints from BBH standard sirens.

The assumption throughout this work is that even if the event occurred in a galaxy below our luminosity threshold, large scale structure predicts that fainter galaxies follow the clustering pattern of the more luminous galaxies in our sample. We have verified in our simulations that a threshold up to 1 magnitude brighter than the limit used here to place events has a negligible impact over a sample of 100 events, provided that the catalog is volume-limited for the range of redshifts relevant to the measurement.

Since galaxies are biased tracers of the Universe’s dark matter, some theories predict that the origin of the black holes involved in these GW events is primordial, constituting part or all of the dark matter (Bird et al. 2016; Clesse & García-Bellido 2017; García-Bellido 2017; Clesse & García-Bellido 2018). In that case, GW events follow exactly the underlying dark matter distribution (presenting an unbiased tracer). Because of the stellar mass to dark matter halo connection (see Wechsler & Tinker 2018 and references therein) it is reasonable to weight galaxies by their stellar mass in Eq. (2) as $w_i \propto M_*$. The impact of this scaling with stellar mass or star-formation rate has been explored in Fishbach et al. (2018). We find that the stellar mass weighting has a negligible effect on the posterior. This is due to the large volume analyzed (over which the stellar masses tend to be averaged out) and to the precision level of this measurement. In other theories,

these black hole binaries are produced in very low metallicity galaxies (e.g. Cao et al. 2018; Mapelli et al. 2018), biased relative to the dark matter distribution differently than the luminous galaxies in our catalog. Annis et al. (in prep.) explore the effect of the tracer bias assumptions on the H_0 posterior for future analyses aiming at precision measurements.

Another assumption of our analysis that needs attention concerns the redshift likelihood. As anticipated above for the GW likelihood, this will not, in general, be well approximated by a Gaussian. In the future, we plan to explore the impact of realistic photometric redshift PDFs on the H_0 posterior, in order to enable precision cosmology with binary black hole events. An analysis with the full, asymmetric, GW likelihood will also be required. A number of analyses are thus required to assess the systematics error budget and potential biases due to various ansatzes, while the results reported here only provide a statistical uncertainty. While an estimate of those effects is needed, tests on off-source lines-of-sight show that our constraint is likely not strongly impacted by the photo- z training sample or systematic failures. With these caveats in mind, we remind the reader that the dark sirens method will provide precise measurements of cosmological parameters after a large sample of events is available (cf. §4). In fact, the dependence of the H_0 uncertainty on the prior choice from this single event is a consequence of the fact that with this method the likelihood will always be above zero, as long as there are galaxies along the line of sight. This demonstrates that dark siren measurements are only interesting when multiple events can be combined.

6. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we have performed the first measurement of the Hubble constant using a gravitational wave detection of a binary-black-hole merger as a dark standard siren and the DES galaxies as a sample of potential host galaxies. Our analysis was blinded to avoid confirmation bias. Our main results, discussed in §5, include a measurement of $H_0 = 75.2^{+39.5}_{-32.4} \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$ for a flat prior within [20,140] $\text{km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$, consistent with previous measurements of H_0 . The 68% confidence interval quoted here is 60% of the uniform prior range, demonstrating that while dark sirens can provide measurements of H_0 , the measurements from individual events are relatively uninformative. Constraints will improve as multiple dark sirens are combined.

Our analysis on simulated data, used to validate the methodology in §4, shows that we will be able to reach a $\sim 5\%$ statistical precision with $O(100)$ LIGO/Virgo events similar to GW170814 and a DES-like galaxy catalog. Predicted event rates for upcoming observing seasons are approximately one event per week, although the majority of these events will not be as well localized as GW170814. Note that a DES-like catalog is currently only available for

$\sim 1/8$ of the sky. However, DES can be complemented with other datasets taken with DECam (such as the Blanco Imaging of the Southern Sky, BLISS, and the Dark Energy Camera Legacy Survey, DECals), to cover the whole Southern sky to a good depth ($r \sim 23.4$, 5σ depth). An even deeper survey with more precise photo- z 's, such as the Large Synoptic Survey Telescope (LSST; [LSST Dark Energy Science Collaboration 2012](#)), would be of great value for further improving these constraints. Overall, this new cosmological probe has thus the potential of achieving results comparable to the latest quasar time-delay strong lensing analyses ($\sim 7\%$ precision, [Birrer et al. 2018](#)) in the future.

At the expected level of precision from hundreds of events, systematics will play an important role. In future work, we plan to incorporate systematic uncertainties in our simulated data studies, in order to prepare for precision cosmology analyses on real data. We anticipate that some of the main sources of systematics will be photo- z biases and catastrophic outliers, photo- z training sample sample variance, galaxy catalog cuts and galaxy catalog completeness. In order to achieve the full potential of statistical standard siren cosmology, wide and deep galaxy surveys such as DES and LSST are necessary. Overall, our findings show that the synergy between gravitational wave black-hole merger detections and new generation large galaxy surveys will establish a new powerful probe for precision cosmology.

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