

# Effects of dark matter self-interaction on the evolution of the Sagittarius stream

Connor Hainje  
Advised by Professor Mariangela Lisanti

May 2021

## **Abstract**

asdf

# Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Lambda-CDM</b>	<b>2</b>
1.1	Evidence for dark matter . . . . .	2
1.2	Lambda-CDM . . . . .	3
1.3	Structure formation . . . . .	5
1.4	Small-scale problems . . . . .	7
<b>2</b>	<b>Self-interacting dark matter</b>	<b>9</b>
2.1	Introduction . . . . .	9
2.2	Particle physics models . . . . .	10
2.2.1	Self-coupled scalar . . . . .	11
2.2.2	Light mediator . . . . .	12
2.2.3	Strong interactions . . . . .	12
2.3	Predicted density profile . . . . .	14
2.4	Self-interaction in simulation . . . . .	15
<b>3</b>	<b>Sagittarius</b>	<b>17</b>
3.1	Introduction . . . . .	17

# Chapter 1

## Lambda-CDM

### 1.1 Evidence for dark matter

In 1932, Jan Oort studied the velocities of stars near the Sun, and he found that the velocities of these stars were systematically larger than expected [29]. From the velocities of stars at a given radius in a galaxy, one can measure the gravitational mass of all objects inside that radius. As such, Oort's velocity findings were really a statement about the mass of the Milky Way. In Oort's own words, these velocities implied that the amount of gravitating matter in the Milky Way must be larger than what one can estimate by simply counting stars, with the latter falling short by roughly 30-50% [44].

The next year, Fritz Zwicky studied velocity dispersions in the Coma galaxy cluster [52, 1]. From his measurements, he found that the velocity dispersions required "10 to 100 times more mass" for the cluster to remain bound than could be accounted for by luminous matter. He concluded that there must be some large source of non-luminous matter present to account for the difference, calling the non-luminous matter "dunkle Materie", or "dark matter". This is often cited as the origin of the term.

Over the next few decades, evidence continued to mount for the existence of dark matter. Rotation curves began being considered, first by Babcock in 1939 [2] and Oort in 1940 [28]. In the words of Oort, "the distribution of mass in this object [the M31 galaxy] appears to bear almost no resemblance to that of light." Studies of globular clusters in the Milky Way indicated that at least two-to-three times as much mass must lie outside the orbit of the Sun as inside [21] (todo add Kunth 1952). Studies of binary galaxies revealed large mass-to-light ratios [32, 17] (todo add van den Bergh 1961). More galaxy clusters were studied, and the trends noted by Zwicky were found to hold generally [45]. This mounting evidence largely took the form of acknowledgement of a large mass-to-light ratio; it was not widely thought that a yet unknown form of matter was responsible.

By the 1970s, however, that would change. This was in large part due to developments on a few different fronts. First, the 1960s and 70s saw new methods for measuring the masses of galaxy clusters. Both X-ray measurements and gravitational lensing first began being used in the 1960s to obtain measurements of the masses of galaxy clusters. These studies independently confirmed the large, non-luminous masses that were indicated by the previous velocity analyses. *todo add a citation*

Second, the cosmic microwave background was discovered in 1965 (*todo add a citation*), and found to be remarkably isotropic (to better than a part in  $10^4$ ). However, strictly baryonic models of the universe suggest anisotropies in the CMB on the order of  $\sim 3 \times 10^{-4}$ . If the Universe contained some non-baryonic matter which interacted with photons only gravitationally, however, the predicted anisotropies are revised downward, closer to  $10^{-5}$ , consistent with observation. Dark matter seems to fit this role perfectly. Anisotropies on this scale have been observed by more recent studies, beginning with the COBE satellite in 1992 (*todo add citation*).

Third, data from rotation curves became quite convincing. Rubin and Ford published improved optical data from the galaxy M31, the same galaxy studied by Oort in 1940 [40]. They found that, to even farther radii than had been previously considered, the rotation curve did *not* decrease outside the optically bright region of the galaxy, an even stronger indicator of the existence of mass not accounted for by luminous matter. Similarly, Roberts and Rots [37] and Roberts and Whitehurst [38] used measurements of 21cm hydrogen emissions to draw very similar conclusions.

Lastly, 1974 saw two watershed papers by independent research groups, each concluding that galaxies have dark halos. Einasto, Kaasik, and Saar wrote “the mass of galactic coronae halos exceeds the mass of populations of known stars by one order of magnitude, as do the effective dimensions” [12]. Similarly, Ostriker, Peebles, and Yahil wrote “the very large mass-to-light ratio and the very great extent of the spiral galaxies can perhaps most plausibly be understood as due to a giant halo of faint stars” [31]. They also note that the year prior, Ostriker and Peebles had come to a similar conclusion from considerations of stability, finding the traditional disk galaxy model to be unstable without a spherical disk [30].

## 1.2 Lambda-CDM

Since these discoveries, it has been widely believed among astronomers and cosmologists that non-baryonic dark matter exists, that it comprises large, spherical halos around galaxies, and that it played an integral role in the formation of the structures we can see today. Evidence has become increasingly strong with improved measurements of the anisotropy in the CMB (*todo cite someone*), improved rotation curves for more galaxies (*todo cite someone*), and better X-ray

and gravitational lensing measurements.

Another major question of the twentieth century which came to be largely settled toward its end was that of the cosmological constant,  $\Lambda$ . This constant was introduced by Einstein into his theory of general relativity (to explain why). Physically, this constant can be interpreted as the vacuum energy density of empty space. It is often called “dark energy” for this reason [41]. In the late 1990s, measurements of Type Ia supernovae strongly constrained  $\Lambda$  to be positive, giving empty space a significant, constant vacuum energy [36, 33].

These findings, combined with large amounts of evidence for the Big Bang hypothesis, are all most simply described by the  $\Lambda$ CDM model, sometimes called the standard model of cosmology or the concordance model [10]. The model describes the Universe as consisting of three components—the cosmological constant  $\Lambda$ , cold dark matter (CDM), and standard matter—operating under general relativity and coming from an origination event roughly 14 Gyr ago (the Big Bang). This rather simple model is remarkably successful at explaining the Universe.

Through its inclusion of the Big Bang event, the  $\Lambda$ CDM model gives an explanation for the origin of the CMB. In this model, the CMB is a residual radiation left-over from a period shortly after the Big Bang, where the Universe was hot ( $>10,000$  K). As the Universe cooled and structures began to form, the photons from this period began to propagate freely in all directions.

The  $\Lambda$ CDM model also provides a well-tested account of the formation of structures in the Universe [10]. In the early Universe, small gravitational perturbations caused matter to collapse into small structures. These small structures—effectively just perturbations in the mass density of the Universe—created gravitational potential wells, attracting other small structures and assembling together to produce larger ones. This works especially well for describing the distribution of dark matter in the Universe, as small pockets of dark matter converge to form subhalos, halos, and larger. The case for baryonic matter and galaxy formation is more complicated, involving baryonic processes, gas dynamics, and more, but is also well-explained in the régime of hierarchical structure formation. Simulations of hierarchical structure formation have found that it is able to account well for the observed distribution of structures on the scales of galaxies, galaxy clusters, and larger. The implications of this model of structure formation are considered in more detail in the next section.

In fact, the success of this theory of structure formation serves as reason to believe that dark matter is cold (hence the “C” in  $\Lambda$ CDM). Dark matter being “cold” means that it was non-relativistic at the time of decoupling (the period in the early Universe when matter began to fall out of thermal equilibrium) [24]. By contrast, “hot” dark matter (HDM) would have been relativistic at the time of decoupling. Given these higher velocities, the velocity dispersion of HDM would have been non-negligible (differing from the negligible velocity dispersion

of CDM). A finite velocity dispersion, however, would have prevented the dark matter particles from being bound to shallow gravitational potential wells, further preventing the formation of small-scale structures [41]. Thus, HDM fails to form structure.

On its own,  $\Lambda$ CDM is remarkably able to explain most of our observations of the Universe. However, there are a few cosmological problems which have arisen. One is known as the horizon problem [3, 41], which points out that the CMB is, to a high degree, isotropic, indicating that the photons making up this radiation are roughly in thermal equilibrium across the sky. However, this means that regions of the sky which are too far separated to be causally connected have remained in equilibrium. This is not explained by  $\Lambda$ CDM.

Another problem is the flatness problem, which points out that there is potentially a fine-tuning problem with the vanilla  $\Lambda$ CDM model [3, 41]. The Universe as we observe it is approximately flat today, meaning that its curvature is approximately unity. If the curvature were not unity, its deviation from flatness is expected to grow with time. As such, if the Universe is not flat, it must have been *very* close to unity at early times, meaning that this parameter may need to be “fine-tuned” to achieve a reasonable explanation. The problem is that our model should be able to describe parameters like these *without* fine-tuning.

Combining the  $\Lambda$ CDM model with the theory of cosmic inflation, however, solves both of these problems [3]. Inflation posits that the Big Bang was followed by a period of rapid (exponential!) inflationary expansion. Such a phenomenon would solve the horizon problem, as the whole observable Universe would have originated from a much smaller, thermally-connected region before inflation. It also solves the flatness problem, as inflation would have significantly stretched and flattened any curvature in the Universe, providing a natural explanation for the observed flatness today. In fact, this creates a sort of inverse fine-tuning problem: in this theory, any curvature which is *far* from unity requires fine-tuning.

### 1.3 Structure formation

As stated above, the  $\Lambda$ CDM model predicts structures to form in the Universe as a result of gravitational perturbations at early times. As expansion slows, the pockets of matter created by these perturbations host small gravitational potential wells, causing nearby matter to collapse inward and the growth of structure to occur. With the majority of matter in the Universe being dark matter, the first structures which occur are pockets of dark matter halos. The halos observable today are the result of the hierarchical combination of smaller halos.

The abundance of these halos can be described by extended Press-Schechter (EPS) theory [5]. This theory is grounded on rather simple assumptions: that

one can use a spherical collapse model and that one can extrapolate from linear perturbation theory even into non-linear regimes. Despite these assumptions, it has been shown to give predictions about the mass spectrum of dark matter halos which are in accord with high-resolution numerical simulations.

The halos themselves can be described as virialized objects with mass

$$M_{\text{vir}} = \frac{4\pi}{3} R_{\text{vir}}^3 \Delta_c \rho_c,$$

where  $R_{\text{vir}}$  is the virial radius,  $\rho_c$  is the critical density of the Universe, and  $\Delta_c$  is the over-density parameter. In this work, we choose to set  $\Delta_c = 200$  and thus mark the virial mass and radius as with a subscript 200 instead of “vir”.

The  $\Lambda$ CDM model also provides predictions about the internal structure of these dark matter halos. Dark matter-only N-body simulations were performed as early as 1988 [15], with higher-resolution simulations like [11] and [27] following shortly thereafter. The resulting halos from these simulations were found to agree remarkably well with a *two-power* density profile [4]

$$\rho(r) = \frac{\rho_0}{(r/a)^\alpha (1 + r/a)^{\beta-\alpha}},$$

where  $\rho_0$  is a characteristic density for the halo and  $a$  is the length scale. Special cases of this model include  $(\alpha, \beta) = (1, 4)$ , the Hernquist model [16], and  $(\alpha, \beta) = (1, 3)$ , the NFW model [27, 26]. In general, the NFW model enjoys the most usage as one of the most simple and accurate models of the mass density distribution of smaller halos.

todo Include some figures

The required parameters above,  $\rho_0$  and  $a$ , are typically reformulated for the NFW distribution. In particular, we can take a given virial mass  $M_{200}$ , determine the corresponding virial radius  $R_{200}$ , and define the halo concentration  $c = R_{200}/a$ . The characteristic density can be found by integrating the density profile up to  $R_{200}$  and setting it equal to  $M_{200}$ . In this way, the virial mass and concentration are enough to completely specify the NFW distribution. The result is given by

$$\rho_0 = \frac{M_{200}}{4\pi a^3} \frac{1}{\log(1+c) - c/(1+c)}.$$

As these halos are formed hierarchically from smaller halos, however, it has been found that the dense centers of the subhalos are able to survive the merging process. A direct result of this finding is that dark matter halos today should be full of substructure with satellite subhalos of varying sizes. In fact, simulations have shown that the number of subhalos within a halo is approximately self-similar for host halo mass [5]. While it is difficult to determine a method for identifying and counting these subhalos, it does yield a testable prediction of the small-scale structure of dark matter in the  $\Lambda$ CDM paradigm.

todo Discuss galaxy formation with an eye for how this leads to the missing satellites and too-big-to-fail problems



## 1.4 Small-scale problems

The theory of structure formation that follows from  $\Lambda$ CDM leads us to a few important results. First, we expect the density distributions of dark matter halos to approximately follow the NFW model, specifically with  $r^{-1}$  dependence for small  $r$ . Second, we expect rich substructure in massive dark matter halos with predictions for the number of subhalos of varying masses contained within. Third, through galaxy formation and the method of abundance matching, we obtain predictions about the number and masses of satellite galaxies that should be hosted in galaxies like the Milky Way. These three key deductions form the basis for the three classic **small-scale problems** in the  $\Lambda$ CDM model.

The first problem we will discuss is known as the **core-cusp problem**, which is primarily related to the first deduction above. Dark matter-only simulations of CDM halos show that the expected distribution of mass follows a density distribution that is very dense and *cuspy*, i.e. one that goes like  $r^{-1}$  at small radii (Bullock and Boylan-Kolchin 2017). As early as 1993, however, it was pointed out that such a distribution is inconsistent with observational data. In particular, “[cuspy] density profiles are excluded by gravitational lensing analyses on cluster scales and by the rotation curves of gas-rich, halo-dominated dwarf spirals on small scales” [14]. It was also recognized by Navarro, Frenk, and White, who wrote “CDM halos are too concentrated to be consistent with the halo parameters inferred for dwarf irregulars” [27].

The second problem is the **missing satellites** problem. CDM simulations predict that galaxies as large as the Milky Way should have as many as  $\sim 1000$  dark subhalos large enough to host dwarf galaxies [5]. However, as of 2019, less than 60 dwarf galaxies are known within the Milky Way [42].

There exists a potential solution to the missing satellites problem, however, in the form of abundance matching. First, one can expect that dark matter halos become less efficient at making galaxies with decreasing mass, and therefore there exists some threshold mass below which these halos remain completely dark. Then, abundance matching allows one to “solve” the missing satellites problem for the subhalos above this threshold [5].

This solution to the missing satellites problem thus makes a testable prediction. The central masses of Milky Way satellites should be consistent with the central masses of the most massive subhalos in  $\Lambda$ CDM simulation [5]. First probed by Boylan-Kolchin et al. in 2011 (todo cite), however, this does not hold; the most massive subhalos predicted in simulation are significantly more massive than the most massive satellite galaxies. If these subhalos do exist but have just remained dark, then we have a new problem: why did these subhalos fail to form galaxies? This is known as the **too-big-to-fail problem**, as these subhalos ought to be too big to fail to form observable galaxies. If these massive dark subhalos just do not exist, then this is a fundamental failing of the  $\Lambda$ CDM model’s predictions in line with the missing satellites problem.

Some believe that these small-scale problems are the result of the omission of baryonic effects in  $\Lambda$ CDM simulations. As described above, the majority of the conflicting predictions come as the result of dark matter-only simulations. Further, in recent years, it has been shown that all of the above problems (and other small-scale issues) can be reduced or eliminated by the inclusion of stellar feedback and other effects. For example, [35] show that supernova feedback can alleviate the core-cusp problem, and [7] show that stellar feedback can explain the too-big-to-fail problem.

However, prior to these findings, researchers sought modifications to the model that would preserve the successes of  $\Lambda$ CDM on large scales *and* solve the small-scale problems. Some researchers have sought modifications to the model of gravity, but a more popular avenue has been the modification of the dark matter model. While it seems that integration of more sophisticated baryonic processes may be sufficient to solve the small-scale problems, there is no evidence yet that other proposed dark matter models are incorrect descriptions of the particle nature of dark matter. As such, further tests of  $\Lambda$ CDM and these alternative dark matter models are necessary as probes of dark matter particle physics. The alternative dark matter model that we consider in this work is *self-interacting dark matter*, or SIDM.

## Chapter 2

# Self-interacting dark matter

### 2.1 Introduction

Self-interacting dark matter (SIDM) was introduced in 2000 by Spergel and Steinhardt [43]. The model was proposed as a solution to the core-cusp and missing satellites problems, as the addition of self-interactions was thought to have three primary effects on the distribution of dark matter.

1. Self-interactions in regions of high density would cause dark matter particles to be unbound, reducing the density of halos primarily in their center region. This would yield a cored density profile rather than a cuspy one, solving the core-cusp problem.
2. It is also expected that interactions would yield a more isotropic velocity dispersion than seen in CDM as well as erase the typical triaxial ellipticity seen in halo shapes. In other words, SIDM halos should be more spherical, a testable prediction.
3. Through the processes of isotropizing the velocity dispersion and reducing density in core regions, it was also expected that substructure would be greatly reduced, lowering the number of dwarf galaxies and thereby solving the missing satellites problem. However, since the dark matter scattering rate would be naturally dependent on the dark matter density, these effects would only be expected in higher density regions. Toward the outermost radii of halos and on larger scales, the effects of self-interaction would be negligible, preserving the large-scale successes of the  $\Lambda$ CDM model.

One other feature of the model is that the dark matter scattering rate is naturally dependent on the dark matter density.

Shortly thereafter began a wave of numerical simulations to test these predictions. The results of these simulations were mixed. Some were focused on the evolution of galaxies and found confirmation of the predicted effects (more strongly spherical shape, cored density profile) like [6, 9]. Other simulations, like cluster and cosmological simulations, seemed to show that SIDM would be inconsistent with observation [25, 49, 50].

At the same time, constraints on the allowed self-interaction cross section began being compiled, primarily from clusters. Given the lack of knowledge of the mass of dark matter particles, cross section values are generally given as cross section-to-mass ratios, denoted  $\sigma/m$ . We will use the term cross section interchangeably with this. [22] used cluster simulations to limit the allowable cross section to  $< 0.1 \text{ cm}^2/\text{g}$ . Similarly, gravitational lensing data from the MS 2137-23 cluster was used by [23] to limit the cross section to  $< 10^{-25.5} \text{ cm}^2/\text{GeV}$ , approximately  $0.02 \text{ cm}^2/\text{g}$ . These cross sections were far too small to solve the small-scale problems in galaxies, as simulations like [9] suggested the necessary cross section to be in the range  $10^{-25}$  to  $10^{-23} \text{ cm}^2/\text{MeV}$  ( $0.05$  to  $5 \text{ cm}^2/\text{g}$ ).

However, more recent simulations with higher resolution, better statistics, and updated algorithms for considering self-interactions have relaxed many of these constraints significantly, improving the viability of the model and once again sparking interest in self-interactions. Examples include [39, 34, 51, 13]. These newer, better simulations revised the previous constraints and generally show that cross sections on the order of  $\sigma/m \sim 0.1$  to  $10 \text{ cm}^2/\text{g}$  are viable and consistent with observation. Of particular relevance for this thesis is [39], which put forth a novel method for computing the effects of self-interactions in N-body simulation. See Subsection 2.4 for a discussion of their method.

[46] have distilled the relevant modern observational constraints on the self-interaction cross section into a table. The data are reproduced in Table 2.1. In particular, notice that the data are consistent with a decaying cross section as the velocity scale increases.

todo add one of those plots that shows it changing slowly for galactic scales

todo add a discussion of what different kinds of astrophysical observations might mean different things about the particle physics properties

## 2.2 Particle physics models

Given that very little is known conclusively about the particle physics nature of dark matter, the introduction of the possibility of self-interactions makes way for a wealth of rich new theories. We will cover a few of the most popularly considered models below.

	$\sigma/m$ (cm <sup>2</sup> /g)	$v_{\text{rel}}$ (km/s)	Observation
Cores in spiral galaxies	$\gtrsim 1$	30-200	Rotation curves
TBTF in Milky Way	$\gtrsim 0.6$	50	Stellar dispersion
TBTF in Local Group	$\gtrsim 0.5$	50	Stellar dispersion
Cores in clusters	$\sim 0.1$	1500	Stellar dispersion, lensing
Halo shape/ellipticity	$\lesssim 1$	1300	Cluster lensing surveys
Substructure mergers	$\lesssim 2$	500-4000	DM-galaxy offset
Merging clusters	$\lesssim \text{few}$	2000-4000	Post-merger halo survival

Table 2.1: Observational constraints on the self-interaction cross section of dark matter. All listed observations are derived from sets of multiple systems. “TBTF” is the abbreviation for “too-big-to-fail.” This is an abridged reproduction of the table compiled by [46]. A distinction is made between “positive observations” (above the horizontal rule) and “constraints” (below the horizontal rule) by the original authors. References to the original papers are given therein.

### 2.2.1 Self-coupled scalar

The first particle model that we consider is the simplest: a scalar particle,  $\varphi$ , that interacts with itself through a two-to-two coupling. This can be described by the Lagrangian

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{int}} = -\frac{\lambda}{4!}\varphi^4. \quad (2.1)$$

From the Lagrangian, we can read off the Feynman rule for a four-point intersection to have the matrix element  $i\mathcal{M} = -i\lambda$ , yielding the two-to-two self-interaction differential cross-section

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \frac{\lambda^2}{64\pi^2(4m^2)}. \quad (2.2)$$

Integrating over the solid angle and dividing by two to account for identical particles gives a total cross section

$$\sigma(\varphi\varphi \rightarrow \varphi\varphi) = \frac{\lambda^2}{128\pi m^2}. \quad (2.3)$$

One can easily see that this cross section does not admit any kind of velocity independence. Thus, one could make this model consistent for a small subset of scales (e.g.  $\sigma/m \sim 1 \text{ cm}^2/\text{g}$  for dwarf galaxy scales), but then it would necessarily fail on other scales. This makes the model viable only for analyses of limited scales where the cross-section is not expected to vary greatly, but it is generally infeasible as a solution to the small-scale problems.

### 2.2.2 Light mediator

Perhaps the simplest model with a theory rich enough to solve all of the observed problems is one wherein dark matter self-interactions are mediated by a light particle. We will consider a model where dark matter is represented by  $\chi$  and has mass  $m_\chi$ , and the mediator field is  $\phi$  with mass  $m_\phi$ . This theory works with both scalar and vector mediators, depending on what specific theory one wants to consider. Perhaps the best motivated origin for such a model is one where the dark matter particle is charged under a spontaneously broken  $U(1)$  symmetry and the mediator arises as the corresponding gauge boson [46].

Such a model would have an interaction Lagrangian given by

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{int}} = \begin{cases} g_\chi \bar{\chi} \gamma^\mu \chi \phi_\mu & (\text{vector mediator}), \\ g_\chi \bar{\chi} \chi & (\text{scalar mediator}), \end{cases} \quad (2.4)$$

where we let the coupling constant be  $g_\chi$ . In the non-relativistic limit, the interaction is well-approximated by the Yukawa potential [47, 48]

$$V(r) = \pm \frac{\alpha_\chi}{r} e^{-m_\phi r}, \quad (2.5)$$

where  $\alpha_\chi \equiv g_\chi^2/4\pi$  is the dark fine structure constant. The  $\pm$  will be set depending on whether the interaction is attractive or repulsive. For a scalar  $\phi$ , the potential is attractive and the sign is  $(-)$ . For vector  $\phi$ , the potential is attractive  $(+)$  for  $\chi\bar{\chi}$  scattering and repulsive  $(-)$  for  $\chi\chi$  and  $\bar{\chi}\bar{\chi}$  scattering.

Using the Yukawa potential, we can obtain the Born differential cross section in the limit that  $\alpha_\chi m_\chi/m_\phi \ll 1$  to be [46]

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \frac{\alpha_\chi^2 m_\chi^2}{\left[ m_\chi^2 v_{\text{rel}}^2 (1 - \cos \theta)/2 + m_\phi^2 \right]^2} \quad (2.6)$$

An important implication of this formula is that the mediator mass must be positive, i.e.  $m_\phi > 0$ . If instead  $m_\phi = 0$ , we would then find that  $d\sigma/d\Omega \propto v_{\text{rel}}^{-4}$ , which is far too strong at small velocities to admit a solution which is consistent with observations. A small but nonzero mediator mass  $m_\phi$ , on the other hand, allows us to “soften” this velocity-dependence to admit a more consistent model.

While quite simple, it has been shown in [48] that it is possible for it to simultaneously accommodate all important observations and solve the small scale problems.

### 2.2.3 Strong interactions

Some of the richest theories for self-interacting dark matter candidates that one can consider are non-Abelian gauge theories where the dark matter candidates

arise as composite bound states. In these theories, the self-interaction manifests as a strong interaction.

The motivation for considering such a model comes from our experience with QCD and the visible sector [20]. For a dark matter model to be a good candidate, it must be stable over the lifetime of the Universe and be neutral under standard model phenomena. Further, we desire models in which the particles exhibit strong self-interactions. These are all properties exhibited by particles in the visible sector under QCD, so it makes sense to consider a similar theory to describe our dark matter candidate. However, we do not necessarily know the gauge group or particle properties of dark matter, leaving us a great freedom to vary the model significantly. Many of the resulting models thus have interesting and unique new physics, though these details are greatly model-dependent.

The primary free parameters of models of this kind are the confinement scale  $\Lambda$  (different from the cosmological constant), and the dark quark mass(es). In the event that our “dark QCD” contains no analogue to electromagnetic/weak interactions, meson-like bound states of the dark quarks could be stable [8]. These mesons can be classified as loosely pion-like, where  $m \ll \Lambda$ , or quarkonium-like, where  $m \gg \Lambda$  [20]. There are several proposed models for each of these scenarios; one of the more well-known is the strongly-interacting massive particle, or SIMP, where the dark matter candidate is pion-like and many non-Abelian theories are possible.

Our non-Abelian model may instead look quite similar to visible QCD, wherein the primary stable bound states are baryonic in nature. In [20], it is noted that the advantage of such models is that “dark matter is automatically sufficiently stable, and no further ultraviolet model-building is needed.” One such dark baryon model is “Stealth Dark Matter,” proposed by the LSD collaboration, which is a scalar dark baryon under a confining  $SU(4)$  theory. This theory is named *stealth* dark matter because it is found that the baryons are safe from direct detection, though it does predict a spectrum of lighter meson particles that would be possible to detect at colliders [20].

The third class of candidate particles that has received attention are dark glueballs. Glueballs are bound states of only gluons and are predicted to exist in QCD, but are very difficult to detect. Dark glueballs would then be bound states of dark gluons. Such a model is possible if all the dark fermions in the theory have masses significantly larger than  $\Lambda$ . In this case, glueballs may become stable under an accidental symmetry like baryons, allowing them to be the primary dark matter candidate.

The observables that could result from the above considerations are as diverse as the models themselves. One aspect of these models that we have not considered is what the interactions with the standard model could look like. Some models predict the dark matter candidate to be neutral under standard model interactions, but its constituents to be charged. In such a case, the model would

have a coupling to the photon, and it would be possible to directly detect the particle. We may also consider the case where our theory predicts fundamental fermions. It is plausible that these fermions would obtain at least part of their mass through a coupling to the Higgs boson, again providing a mechanism by which we could directly detect the particles. Kribs and Neil provide more details of these observables, as well as collider-specific results, in [20].

## 2.3 Predicted density profile

todo run through an analytic calculation of core size, etc. todo Jeans approach!

In 2014, Kaplinghat et al. [19] provided a semi-analytic approach to deriving equilibrium solutions for the dark matter density profile using the Jeans equation. This approach allows for the inclusion of the gravitational potential of both the dark matter and baryons, providing the means to make predictions about the effects of baryons on the dark matter distribution.

They begin with the Jeans equation, rewritten via Poisson's equation. They assume constant velocity dispersion  $\sigma_0$  and that the dark matter density profile is given by  $\rho(\mathbf{r}) = \rho_0 \exp(h(\mathbf{r}))$ . Plugging these in yields

$$\nabla_x^2 h(\mathbf{x}) + (4\pi G_N r_0^2 / \sigma_0^2) [\rho_B(\mathbf{x}) + \rho_0 \exp(h(\mathbf{r}))] = 0, \quad (2.7)$$

where we have introduced a length scale  $r_0$ , a dimensionless length  $x = r/r_0$ , and the baryonic density profile  $\rho_B$ .

As a simple test of this equation, we can consider the case where baryonic matter dominates. Then, the  $\exp(h)$  term can be neglected, yielding

todo work through this derivation with a few more steps

The solution in this case can then be written as

$$\rho(\mathbf{x}) = \rho_0 \exp[(\Phi_B(0) - \Phi_B(\mathbf{x}))/\sigma_0^2]. \quad (2.8)$$

The authors then recommend defining the core radius as the radius at which the density is half the initial density,  $\rho_0/2$ . Such a position would give  $h(\mathbf{r}_c) = -\ln 2$ , or

$$\Phi(0) - \Phi(\mathbf{r}_c) = -\sigma_0^2 \ln 2. \quad (2.9)$$

Thus, the core size would depend only on the baryonic potential in the case where it dominates, which follows from these assumptions but stands in marked contrast to observation, where the baryonic contribution does not dominate.

todo finish this discussion



## 2.4 Self-interaction in simulation

In this work, we will be exploring the introduction of self-interaction in predictions about the infall of the Sagittarius dwarf galaxy and, specifically, the formation of its stream. This is done through the use of N-body simulations. As such, we present a description of how these self-interactions are modeled in simulation. We choose to use GIZMO [18] for our simulations, and the implementation of self-interactions therein is the one described by [39]. Much of the following discussion comes in large part from [39].

In our simulation, we consider some number of “macro-particles,” each of which represents an ensemble of dark matter particles, a patch of the dark matter phase-space density. We let each macro-particle have mass  $m_p$ , and we keep this mass consistent across all dark matter macro-particles. Since we consider the macro-particle as representing a patch of the phase-space density, we consider its position to be centered at some point  $\mathbf{x}$  but spread out according to a kernel  $W(r, h)$ . Here,  $r$  is the distance from the center of the macro-particle and  $h$  is a smoothing length. In GADGET-2, from which GIZMO is built, the kernel is given by

$$W(r, h) = \frac{8}{\pi h^3} \begin{cases} 1 - 6(r/h)^2 + 6(r/h)^3 & 0 \leq r/h \leq 1/2, \\ 2(1 - r/h)^3 & 1/2 < r/h \leq 1, \\ 0 & r/h > 1. \end{cases} \quad (2.10)$$

todo find whether this is the same for GIZMO. todo find how  $h$  is determined in GIZMO. The velocity of the macro-particle, on the other hand, is taken to be a delta function, such that the macro-particles have a single defined velocity.

When the patches represented by two macro-particles overlap, we can compute the interaction rate between them. The rate of scattering of a macro-particle  $j$  off a target particle  $i$  is given by

$$\Gamma(i|j) = (\sigma/m)m_p |\mathbf{v}_i - \mathbf{v}_j| g_{ji}, \quad (2.11)$$

where  $\sigma/m$  is the familiar cross-section to mass ratio and  $g_{ij}$  is a number density factor whose purpose is account for the overlap of the two macro-particles’ smoothing kernels. It is given by

$$g_{ji} = \int_0^h d^3 \mathbf{x}' W(|\mathbf{x}'|, h) W(|\delta \mathbf{x}_{ji} + \mathbf{x}'|, h), \quad (2.12)$$

with  $\delta \mathbf{x}_{ji}$  the displacement vector between the macro-particle positions.

Over the course of a time step  $\delta t$ , the probability of an interaction of macro-particle  $j$  off target macro-particle  $i$  is given by

$$P(i|j) = \Gamma(i|j) \delta t. \quad (2.13)$$

The total probability of interaction between these two particles in this time step, then, would be the average of the two directed probabilities, i.e.

$$P_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} (P(i|j) + P(j|i)). \quad (2.14)$$

To actually represent the interaction, then, one draws a random number and adjusts the velocities of the particles if the number lies below the probability. The velocities are adjusted in a manner consistent with an elastic scattering which is isotropic in the center of mass frame.

More details are presented in [39], including the derivation of the scattering rate formula from the Boltzmann equation. We use the implementation which is packaged with the publicly-available GIZMO simulation suite.

## Chapter 3

# Sagittarius

### 3.1 Introduction

Sagittarius is a dwarf spheroidal (dSph) galaxy in orbit in the Milky Way.

discovered ...

parameters used to describe it ...

description of sgr stream, stream coordinates ...

law, majewski model

dierickx loeb model

# Bibliography

- [1] Heinz Andernach and Fritz Zwicky. “English and Spanish Translation of Zwicky’s (1933) The Redshift of Extragalactic Nebulae”. In: *arXiv:1711.01693 [astro-ph]* (Nov. 2017). arXiv: 1711.01693. URL: <http://arxiv.org/abs/1711.01693> (visited on 04/19/2021).
- [2] Horace W. Babcock. “The rotation of the Andromeda Nebula”. In: *Lick Observatory Bulletin* 19 (1939), pp. 41–51. ISSN: 0075-9317. DOI: 10.5479/ADS/bib/1939LicOB.19.41B. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/1939LicOB..19...41B> (visited on 04/19/2021).
- [3] Lars Bergström and Ariel Goobar. *Cosmology and particle astrophysics*. en. 2. ed., reprinted. Springer Praxis books in astronomy and planetary science. OCLC: 254584818. Berlin: Springer, 2008. ISBN: 978-3-540-32924-4.
- [4] James Binney and Scott Tremaine. *Galactic dynamics*. 2nd ed. Princeton series in astrophysics. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 2008. ISBN: 978-0-691-13026-2 978-0-691-13027-9.
- [5] James S. Bullock and Michael Boylan-Kolchin. “Small-Scale Challenges to the  $\Lambda$ CDM Paradigm”. In: *Annual Review of Astronomy and Astrophysics* 55 (Aug. 2017), pp. 343–387. ISSN: 0066-4146. DOI: 10.1146/annurev-astro-091916-055313. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/2017ARA%26A..55..343B> (visited on 04/22/2021).
- [6] Andreas Burkert. “The Structure and Evolution of Weakly Self-interacting Cold Dark Matter Halos”. In: *The Astrophysical Journal Letters* 534 (May 2000), pp. L143–L146. ISSN: 0004-637X. DOI: 10.1086/312674. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/2000ApJ...534L.143B> (visited on 04/23/2021).
- [7] T. K. Chan et al. “The impact of baryonic physics on the structure of dark matter haloes: the view from the FIRE cosmological simulations”. In: *Monthly Notices of the Royal Astronomical Society* 454 (Dec. 2015), pp. 2981–3001. ISSN: 0035-8711. DOI: 10.1093/mnras/stv2165. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/2015MNRAS.454.2981C> (visited on 04/22/2021).
- [8] James M. Cline et al. “Composite strongly interacting dark matter”. In: *Phys. Rev. D* 90.1 (July 2014). arXiv: 1312.3325, p. 015023. ISSN: 1550-

- 7998, 1550-2368. DOI: 10.1103/PhysRevD.90.015023. URL: <http://arxiv.org/abs/1312.3325> (visited on 01/05/2021).
- [9] Romeel Davé et al. “Halo Properties in Cosmological Simulations of Self-interacting Cold Dark Matter”. In: *The Astrophysical Journal* 547 (Feb. 2001), pp. 574–589. ISSN: 0004-637X. DOI: 10.1086/318417. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/2001ApJ...547..574D> (visited on 04/23/2021).
  - [10] Scott Dodelson and Fabian Schmidt. *Modern Cosmology*. en. 2nd ed. Elsevier, 2021. ISBN: 978-0-12-815948-4. DOI: 10.1016/B978-0-12-815948-4.00002-4. URL: <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/B9780128159484000024> (visited on 03/23/2021).
  - [11] John Dubinski and R. G. Carlberg. “The structure of cold dark matter halos”. In: *The Astrophysical Journal* 378 (Sept. 1991), pp. 496–503. ISSN: 0004-637X. DOI: 10.1086/170451. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/1991ApJ...378..496D> (visited on 04/19/2021).
  - [12] Jaan Einasto et al. “Missing mass around galaxies: morphological evidence”. en. In: *Nature* 252.5479 (Nov. 1974). Number: 5479 Publisher: Nature Publishing Group, pp. 111–113. ISSN: 1476-4687. DOI: 10.1038/252111a0. URL: <https://www.nature.com/articles/252111a0> (visited on 04/19/2021).
  - [13] Oliver D. Elbert et al. “Core formation in dwarf haloes with self-interacting dark matter: no fine-tuning necessary”. In: *Monthly Notices of the Royal Astronomical Society* 453 (Oct. 2015), pp. 29–37. ISSN: 0035-8711. DOI: 10.1093/mnras/stv1470. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/2015MNRAS.453...29E> (visited on 04/23/2021).
  - [14] Ricardo Flores et al. “Rotation curves from baryonic infall - Dependence on disk-to-halo ratio, initial angular momentum, and core radius, and comparison with data”. In: *The Astrophysical Journal* 412 (Aug. 1993), pp. 443–454. ISSN: 0004-637X. DOI: 10.1086/172934. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/1993ApJ...412..443F> (visited on 04/19/2021).
  - [15] Carlos S. Frenk et al. “The formation of dark halos in a universe dominated by cold dark matter”. In: *The Astrophysical Journal* 327 (Apr. 1988), pp. 507–525. ISSN: 0004-637X. DOI: 10.1086/166213. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/1988ApJ...327..507F> (visited on 04/19/2021).
  - [16] Lars Hernquist. “An analytical model for spherical galaxies and bulges”. In: *The Astrophysical Journal* 356 (June 1990), pp. 359–364. ISSN: 0004-637X. DOI: 10.1086/168845. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/1990ApJ...356..359H> (visited on 04/19/2021).
  - [17] Erik Holmberg. “On the masses of double galaxies”. In: *Meddelanden fran Lunds Astronomiska Observatorium Serie I* 186 (June 1954), pp. 1–20. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/1954MeLuF.186....1H> (visited on 04/19/2021).
  - [18] Philip F. Hopkins. “A new class of accurate, mesh-free hydrodynamic simulation methods”. In: *Monthly Notices of the Royal Astronomical Society* 450 (June 2015), pp. 53–110. ISSN: 0035-8711. DOI: 10.1093/mnras/stv195. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/2015MNRAS.450...53H> (visited on 04/23/2021).

- [19] Manoj Kaplinghat et al. “Tying Dark Matter to Baryons with Self-Interactions”. In: *Physical Review Letters* 113 (July 2014), p. 021302. ISSN: 0031-9007. DOI: 10.1103/PhysRevLett.113.021302. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/2014PhRvL.113b1302K> (visited on 04/23/2021).
- [20] Graham D. Kribs and Ethan T. Neil. “Review of strongly-coupled composite dark matter models and lattice simulations”. In: *Int. J. Mod. Phys. A* 31.22 (Aug. 2016). arXiv: 1604.04627, p. 1643004. ISSN: 0217-751X, 1793-656X. DOI: 10.1142/S0217751X16430041. URL: <http://arxiv.org/abs/1604.04627> (visited on 01/05/2021).
- [21] W. Lohmann. “Die Masse der Galaxis”. de. In: *Z. Physik* 144.1-3 (Feb. 1956), pp. 66–75. ISSN: 1434-6001, 1434-601X. DOI: 10.1007/BF01327068. URL: <http://link.springer.com/10.1007/BF01327068> (visited on 04/19/2021).
- [22] Massimo Meneghetti et al. “Giant cluster arcs as a constraint on the scattering cross-section of dark matter”. In: *Monthly Notices of the Royal Astronomical Society* 325 (July 2001), pp. 435–442. ISSN: 0035-8711. DOI: 10.1046/j.1365-8711.2001.04477.x. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/2001MNRAS.325..435M> (visited on 04/23/2021).
- [23] Jordi Miralda-Escudé. “A Test of the Collisional Dark Matter Hypothesis from Cluster Lensing”. In: *The Astrophysical Journal* 564 (Jan. 2002), pp. 60–64. ISSN: 0004-637X. DOI: 10.1086/324138. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/2002ApJ...564...60M> (visited on 04/23/2021).
- [24] Subhendra Mohanty. *Astroparticle Physics and Cosmology: Perspectives in the Multimessenger Era*. en. Vol. 975. Lecture Notes in Physics. Cham: Springer International Publishing, 2020. ISBN: 978-3-030-56200-7 978-3-030-56201-4. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-030-56201-4. URL: <http://link.springer.com/10.1007/978-3-030-56201-4> (visited on 03/22/2021).
- [25] Ben Moore et al. “Collisional versus Collisionless Dark Matter”. In: *The Astrophysical Journal Letters* 535 (May 2000), pp. L21–L24. ISSN: 0004-637X. DOI: 10.1086/312692. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/2000ApJ...535L..21M> (visited on 04/23/2021).
- [26] Julio F. Navarro, Carlos S. Frenk, and Simon D. M. White. “A Universal Density Profile from Hierarchical Clustering”. In: *arXiv:astro-ph/9611107* (Oct. 1997). arXiv: astro-ph/9611107. DOI: 10.1086/304888. URL: <http://arxiv.org/abs/astro-ph/9611107> (visited on 04/19/2021).
- [27] Julio F. Navarro, Carlos S. Frenk, and Simon D. M. White. “The Structure of Cold Dark Matter Halos”. In: *arXiv:astro-ph/9508025* (Aug. 1995). arXiv: astro-ph/9508025. DOI: 10.1086/177173. URL: <http://arxiv.org/abs/astro-ph/9508025> (visited on 04/19/2021).
- [28] J. H. Oort. “Some Problems Concerning the Structure and Dynamics of the Galactic System and the Elliptical Nebulae NGC 3115 and 4494.” en. In: *ApJ* 91 (Apr. 1940), p. 273. ISSN: 0004-637X, 1538-4357. DOI: 10.1086/144167. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/doi/10.1086/144167> (visited on 04/19/2021).
- [29] J. H. Oort. “The force exerted by the stellar system in the direction perpendicular to the galactic plane and some related problems”. In: *Bulletin*

- of the *Astronomical Institutes of the Netherlands* 6 (Aug. 1932), p. 249. ISSN: 0365-8910. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/1932BAN....6..2490> (visited on 04/19/2021).
- [30] J. P. Ostriker and P. J. E. Peebles. “A Numerical Study of the Stability of Flattened Galaxies: or, can Cold Galaxies Survive?” In: *The Astrophysical Journal* 186 (Dec. 1973), pp. 467–480. ISSN: 0004-637X. DOI: 10.1086/152513. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/1973ApJ...186..4670> (visited on 04/19/2021).
  - [31] J. P. Ostriker, P. J. E. Peebles, and A. Yahil. “The size and mass of galaxies, and the mass of the universe”. In: *The Astrophysical Journal Letters* 193 (Oct. 1974), pp. L1–L4. ISSN: 0004-637X. DOI: 10.1086/181617. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/1974ApJ...193L...10> (visited on 04/19/2021).
  - [32] Thornton Page. “Average Masses and Mass-Luminosity Ratios of the Double Galaxies.” In: *The Astrophysical Journal* 132 (Nov. 1960), pp. 910–912. ISSN: 0004-637X. DOI: 10.1086/146995. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/1960ApJ...132..910P> (visited on 04/19/2021).
  - [33] S. Perlmutter et al. “Measurements of  $\Omega$  and  $\Lambda$  from 42 High-Redshift Supernovae”. In: *The Astrophysical Journal* 517 (June 1999), pp. 565–586. ISSN: 0004-637X. DOI: 10.1086/307221. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/1999ApJ...517..565P> (visited on 04/22/2021).
  - [34] Annika H. G. Peter et al. “Cosmological simulations with self-interacting dark matter - II. Halo shapes versus observations”. In: *Monthly Notices of the Royal Astronomical Society* 430 (Mar. 2013), pp. 105–120. ISSN: 0035-8711. DOI: 10.1093/mnras/sts535. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/2013MNRAS.430..105P> (visited on 04/23/2021).
  - [35] Andrew Pontzen and Fabio Governato. “How supernova feedback turns dark matter cusps into cores”. In: *Monthly Notices of the Royal Astronomical Society* 421 (Apr. 2012), pp. 3464–3471. ISSN: 0035-8711. DOI: 10.1111/j.1365-2966.2012.20571.x. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/2012MNRAS.421.3464P> (visited on 04/22/2021).
  - [36] Adam G. Riess et al. “Observational Evidence from Supernovae for an Accelerating Universe and a Cosmological Constant”. In: *The Astronomical Journal* 116 (Sept. 1998), pp. 1009–1038. ISSN: 0004-6256. DOI: 10.1086/300499. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/1998AJ...116.1009R> (visited on 04/22/2021).
  - [37] M. S. Roberts and A. H. Rots. “Comparison of Rotation Curves of Different Galaxy Types”. In: *Astronomy and Astrophysics* 26 (Aug. 1973), pp. 483–485. ISSN: 0004-6361. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/1973A%26A...26..483R> (visited on 04/19/2021).
  - [38] M. S. Roberts and R. N. Whitehurst. “The rotation curve and geometry of M31 at large galactocentric distances.” In: *The Astrophysical Journal* 201 (Oct. 1975), pp. 327–346. ISSN: 0004-637X. DOI: 10.1086/153889. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/1975ApJ...201..327R> (visited on 04/19/2021).

- [39] Miguel Rocha et al. “Cosmological simulations with self-interacting dark matter - I. Constant-density cores and substructure”. In: *Monthly Notices of the Royal Astronomical Society* 430 (Mar. 2013), pp. 81–104. ISSN: 0035-8711. DOI: 10.1093/mnras/sts514. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/2013MNRAS.430...81R> (visited on 04/23/2021).
- [40] Vera C. Rubin and W. Kent Ford Jr. “Rotation of the Andromeda Nebula from a Spectroscopic Survey of Emission Regions”. In: *The Astrophysical Journal* 159 (Feb. 1970), p. 379. ISSN: 0004-637X. DOI: 10.1086/150317. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/1970ApJ...159..379R> (visited on 04/19/2021).
- [41] Peter Schneider. *Extragalactic Astronomy and Cosmology*. en. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer Berlin Heidelberg, 2015. ISBN: 978-3-642-54082-0 978-3-642-54083-7. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-642-54083-7. URL: <http://link.springer.com/10.1007/978-3-642-54083-7> (visited on 03/22/2021).
- [42] Joshua D. Simon. “The Faintest Dwarf Galaxies”. In: *Annual Review of Astronomy and Astrophysics* 57 (Aug. 2019), pp. 375–415. ISSN: 0066-4146. DOI: 10.1146/annurev-astro-091918-104453. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/2019ARA%26A...57..375S> (visited on 04/22/2021).
- [43] David N. Spergel and Paul J. Steinhardt. “Observational Evidence for Self-Interacting Cold Dark Matter”. In: *Physical Review Letters* 84 (Apr. 2000), pp. 3760–3763. ISSN: 0031-9007. DOI: 10.1103/PhysRevLett.84.3760. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/2000PhRvL...84.3760S> (visited on 04/22/2021).
- [44] Virginia Trimble. “Existence and Nature of Dark Matter in the Universe”. en. In: *Annu. Rev. Astron. Astrophys.* 25.1 (Sept. 1987), pp. 425–472. ISSN: 0066-4146, 1545-4282. DOI: 10.1146/annurev.aa.25.090187.002233. URL: <http://www.annualreviews.org/doi/10.1146/annurev.aa.25.090187.002233> (visited on 03/22/2021).
- [45] Virginia Trimble. “History of Dark Matter in Galaxies”. In: *Planets, Stars, and Stellar Systems: Galactic Structure and Stellar Populations*. Ed. by Terry D. Oswalt and Gerard Gilmore. Vol. 5. Dordrecht: Springer Netherlands, 2013, pp. 1091–1118.
- [46] Sean Tulin and Hai-Bo Yu. “Dark matter self-interactions and small scale structure”. In: *Physics Reports* 730 (Feb. 2018), pp. 1–57. ISSN: 0370-1573. DOI: 10.1016/j.physrep.2017.11.004. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/2018PhR...730....1T> (visited on 04/19/2021).
- [47] Sean Tulin, Hai-Bo Yu, and Kathryn M. Zurek. “Beyond Collisionless Dark Matter: Particle Physics Dynamics for Dark Matter Halo Structure”. In: *Phys. Rev. D* 87.11 (June 2013). arXiv: 1302.3898, p. 115007. ISSN: 1550-7998, 1550-2368. DOI: 10.1103/PhysRevD.87.115007. URL: <http://arxiv.org/abs/1302.3898> (visited on 01/05/2021).
- [48] Sean Tulin, Hai-Bo Yu, and Kathryn M. Zurek. “Resonant Dark Forces and Small Scale Structure”. In: *Phys. Rev. Lett.* 110.11 (Mar. 2013). arXiv: 1210.0900, p. 111301. ISSN: 0031-9007, 1079-7114. DOI: 10.1103/PhysRevLett.110.111301. URL: <http://arxiv.org/abs/1210.0900> (visited on 01/05/2021).



- [49] Naoki Yoshida et al. “Collisional Dark Matter and the Structure of Dark Halos”. In: *The Astrophysical Journal Letters* 535 (June 2000), pp. L103–L106. ISSN: 0004-637X. DOI: 10.1086/312707. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/2000ApJ...535L.103Y> (visited on 04/23/2021).
- [50] Naoki Yoshida et al. “Weakly Self-interacting Dark Matter and the Structure of Dark Halos”. In: *The Astrophysical Journal Letters* 544 (Dec. 2000), pp. L87–L90. ISSN: 0004-637X. DOI: 10.1086/317306. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/2000ApJ...544L..87Y> (visited on 04/23/2021).
- [51] Jesús Zavala, Mark Vogelsberger, and Matthew G. Walker. “Constraining self-interacting dark matter with the Milky Way’s dwarf spheroidals”. In: *Monthly Notices of the Royal Astronomical Society* 431 (Apr. 2013), pp. L20–L24. ISSN: 0035-8711. DOI: 10.1093/mnrasl/sls053. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/2013MNRAS.431L..20Z> (visited on 04/23/2021).
- [52] F. Zwicky. “Die Rotverschiebung von extragalaktischen Nebeln”. In: *Helvetica Physica Acta* 6 (1933), pp. 110–127. ISSN: 0018-0238. URL: <http://adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/1933AcHPh...6..110Z> (visited on 04/19/2021).