

1 LEVERAGING MULTI-MESSENGER ASTROPHYSICS FOR DARK MATTER SEARCHES

By

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Today

ABSTRACT

3 I did Dark Matter with HAWC and IceCube. I also used Graph Neural Networks

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⁶ Today

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

8 I love my friends. Thanks to everyone that helped me figure this out. Amazing thanks to the people
9 at LANL who supported me. Eames, etc Dinner Parties Jenny and her child Kaydince Kirsten, Pat,
10 Andrea Family. You're so far but so critical to my formation. Unconditional love. Roommate

TABLE OF CONTENTS

12	LIST OF TABLES	vi
13	LIST OF FIGURES	vii
14	LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	ix
15	CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION	1
16	CHAPTER 2 DARK MATTER IN THE COSMOS	2
17	2.1 Introduction	2
18	2.2 Dark Matter Basics	3
19	2.3 Evidence for Dark Matter	4
20	2.4 Searching for Dark Matter	11
21	2.5 Sources for Indirect Dark Matter Searches	16
22	2.6 Multi-Messenger Dark Matter	18
23	CHAPTER 3 DETECTING HIGH ENERGY NEUTRAL MESSENGERS	21
24	3.1 Cherenkov Radiation	21
25	3.2 HAWC	21
26	3.3 IceCube	21
27	3.4 Opportunities to Combine for Dark Matter	21
28	CHAPTER 4 HIGH ALTITUDE WATER CHERENKOV (HAWC) OBSERVATORY	22
29	4.1 The Detector	22
30	4.2 Events Reconstruction and Data Acquisition	22
31	4.3 Remote Monitoring	22
32	CHAPTER 5 ICECUBE NEUTRINO OBSERVATORY	23
33	5.1 The Detector	23
34	5.2 Events Reconstruction and Data Acquisition	23
35	5.3 Northern Test Site	23
36	CHAPTER 6 COMPUTATIONAL TECHNIQUES IN PARTICLE ASTROPHYSICS	24
37	6.1 Neural Networks for Gamma/Hadron Separation	24
38	6.2 Parallel Computing for Dark Matter Analyses	24
39	CHAPTER 7 GLORY DUCK	25
40	CHAPTER 8 NU DUCK	26
41	BIBLIOGRAPHY	27

42

LIST OF TABLES

43 Proof I know how to include

LIST OF FIGURES

45	Figure 2.1	Rotation curve fit to NGC 6503 from [7]. Dashed line is the contribution 46 from visible matter. Dotted curves are from gas. Dash-dot curves are from 47 dark matter (DM). Solid line is the composite contribution from all matter 48 and DM sources. Data are indicated with bold dots with error bars. Data 49 agree strongly with matter + DM composite prediction	5
50	Figure 2.2	Light from distant galaxy is bent in different way depending on the distribution 51 of mass between the galaxy and Earth. Yellow dashed lines indicate where 52 the light would have gone if the matter was not present [8].	7
53	Figure 2.3	(left) Optical image of galactic cluster. (right) X-ray image of the cluster with 54 redder meaning hotter and higher baryon density. (both) Green contours are 55 reconstruction of gravity contours from micro-lensing. White rings are the 56 best fit mass maxima at 68.3%, 95.5%, and 99.7% confidence. Maxima of 57 the clusters are clearly separated from x-ray maxima. [10]	8
58	Figure 2.4	Plank CMB sky. Sky map features small variations in temperature in pri- 59 mordial light. These anisotropies can be used to make inferences about the 60 universe's energy budget. [11]	9
61	Figure 2.5	Observed Cosmic Microwave Background power spectrum as a function of 62 multipole momentfrom Plank [11]. Blue line is best fit model from Λ CDM. 63 Red points and lines are data and error respectively.	10
64	Figure 2.6	Predicted power spectra of CMB for different $\Omega_m h^2$ values. (left) Low $\Omega_m h^2$ 65 increases the prominence of first and second peaks. (middle) $\Omega_m h^2$ is most 66 similar to the observed power spectrum. The second and third peaks are 67 similar in height. (right) $\Omega_m h^2$ is large which suppresses the first peak and 68 raises the prominence of the third peak.	10
69	Figure 2.7	The Standard Model (SM) of particle physics. Figure taken from http://www.quantumdiaries.org/2014/03/14/the-standard-model-a-beautiful-but-flawed-theory/	12
72	Figure 2.8	Simplified Feynman diagram demonstrating with different ways DM can 73 interact with SM particles. The 'X's refer to the DM particles whereas the 74 SM refer to fundamental particles in the SM. The large circle in the center 75 indicates the vertex of interaction and is purposely left vague. The colored 76 arrows refer to different directions of time as well as their respective labels. 77 The arrows indicate the initial and final state of the DM -SM interaction in time.	13

78	Figure 2.9 A single jet event in ATLAS detector from 2017 [16]. Jet momentum observed 79 to be 1.9 TeV. Missing transverse momentum observed to be 1.9 TeV as the 80 initial momentum of the event was 0. Implied MET is shown as a red dashed 81 line in event display.	14
82	Figure 2.10 More detailed pseudo-Feynman diagram of particle cascade from dark matter 83 annihilation into 2 quarks. The quarks hadronize and decay to stable particles 84 like γ or the anti-proton (p^-). Diagram pulled from ICRC 2021 presentation 85 on DM annihilation search [17].	15
86	Figure 2.11 Dark Matter (DM) decay spectrum for $b\bar{b}$ initial state and γ final state. Redder 87 spectra are for larger DM masses. Bluer spectra are light DM masses. x is a 88 unitless factor defined as the ratio of the mass of DM, m_χ , and the final state 89 particle energy E_γ . Figure from [19].	17
90	Figure 2.12 Different dark matter density profiles compared. Some models produce very 91 large densities at small r [20].	18
92	Figure 2.13 TODO: multimessenger sectors from the NSF[NEEDS A SOURCE][FACT 93 CHECK THIS]	19
94	Figure 2.14 TODO: Milky way at different wavelengths[NEEDS A SOURCE][FACT 95 CHECK THIS]	20

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

- 97 **MSU** Michigan State University
98 **LANL** Los Alamos National Laboratory
99 **DM** Dark Matter
100 **SM** Standard Model
101 **HAWC** High Altitude Water Cherenkov Observatory

102

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

103 Is the text not rendering right? Ah ok it knows im basically drafting the doc still

CHAPTER 2

104

DARK MATTER IN THE COSMOS

105 **2.1 Introduction**

106 I'll attempt to explain the dark matter problem at an entry level with the following thought
107 experiment. Let's say you're the teacher for an elementary school classroom. You take them on a
108 field trip to your local science museum and among exhibits is one for mass and weight. The exhibit
109 has a gigantic scale, and you come up with a fun problem for your classroom.

110 You say to your class, "What is the total weight of the classroom? Give your best estimation
111 to me in 30 minutes, and then we'll check on the scale. If your guess is within 10% of the right
112 answer, we will stop for ice cream on the way back"

113 The students are ecstatic to hear this, and they get to work. The solution is some variation of
114 the following strategy. The students should give each other their weight or best guess if they don't
115 know. Then, all they have to do is add each students' weight and get a grand total for the class.
116 The measurement on the giant scale should show the true weight of the class. When comparing
117 the measured weight, multiply the observation by 1.1 and 0.9 in order to get the +/- 10% tolerance
118 respectively.

119 Two of your students, Sandra and Mario, return to you with a solution.

120 They say, "We weren't sure of everyone's weight. We used 65 lbs for the people we didn't know
121 and added everyone who does know. There are 30 of us, and we got 2,000 lbs! That's a ton!"

122 You estimated 1,900 lbs assuming the average weight of a student in your class was 60 lbs. So
123 you're pleased with Sandra's and Mario's answer. You instruct your students to all gather on the
124 giant scale and read off the weight together. To all of your surprise, the scale reads *10,000 lbs!*
125 10,000 is significantly more than a 10% error from 2,000. In fact, it is approximately 5 times more
126 massive than either your or your students' estimates. You think to yourself and conclude there
127 must be something wrong with the scale. You ask an employee to check the scale and verify it is
128 calibrated well. They confirm that the scale is in working order. You weigh a couple of students
129 individually to test that the scale is well calibrated. Sandra weighs 59 lbs, and Mario weighs 62 lbs,

130 typical weights for their age. You then weigh each student individually and see that their weights
131 individually do not deviate greatly from 60 lbs. So, where does all the extra weight come from?

132 This thought experiment serves as an analogy to the Dark Matter problem. The important
133 substitution to make however is to replace the students with stars and classroom with a galaxy, say
134 the Milky Way. Individually the mass of stars is well measured and defined with the Sun as our
135 nearest test case. However, when we set out to measure the mass of a collection of stars as large as
136 galaxies, our well motivated estimation is wildly incorrect. There simply is not way to account for
137 this discrepancy except without some unseen, or dark, contribution to mass and matter in galaxies.
138 I set out in my thesis to narrow the possibilities of what this Dark Matter could be.

139 This chapter is organized like the following... **TODO: Text should look like ... Chaper x has**
140 **blah blah blah.**

141 2.2 Dark Matter Basics

142 Presently, the most compelling Dark Matter (DM) model is Λ Cold Dark Matter, or Λ CDM. I
143 present the evidence supporting Λ CDM in 2.3, yet discuss the conclusions of the Λ CDM model
144 here. According to Λ CDM fit to observations on the Cosmic Microwave Background (CMB), DM
145 is 26.8% of the universe's current energy budget Baryonic matter, stuff like atoms, gas, and stars,
146 contributes to 4.9% of the universe's current energy budget [1, 2, 3].

147 DM is dark; it doesn't interact readily with light at any wavelength. DM also doesn't interact
148 noticeably with the other standard model forces (Strong and Weak) at a rate that is readily observed
149 [3]. DM is cold, which is to say that the average velocity of DM is below relativistic speeds [1].
150 'Hot' DM would not likely manifest the dense structures we observe like galaxies, and instead
151 would produce much more diffuse galaxies than what is observed [3, 1]. DM is old; it played a
152 critical role in the formation of the universe and the structures within it [1, 2].

153 Observations of DM has so far been only gravitational. The parameter space available to what
154 DM could be therefore is very broad. Searches for DM are summarized by supposing a hypothesis
155 that has not yet been ruled out, and performing measurements to test them. When the observations
156 yield a null result, the parameter space is further constrained. I present some approaches for DM

157 searches in Section 2.4.

158 **2.3 Evidence for Dark Matter**

159 Dark Matter (DM) has been a looming problem in physics for almost 100 years. Anomalies
160 have been observed in galactic dynamics as early as 1933 when Fritz Zwicky noticed unusually
161 large velocity dispersions in the Coma cluster. Zwicky's measurement was the first recorded to
162 use the Virial theorem to measure the mass fraction of visible and invisible matter in celestial
163 bodies [4]. From Zwicky in [5], "*If this would be confirmed, we would get the surprising result*
164 *that dark matter is present in much greater amount than luminous matter.*" Zwicky's and other's
165 observation did not instigate a crisis in astrophysics because the measurements did not entirely
166 conflict with their understanding of galaxies [4]. In 1978, Rubin, Ford, and Norbert measured
167 rotation curves for ten spiral galaxies [6]. Rubin et. al.'s 1978 publication presented a major
168 challenge to the conventional understanding of galaxies that could no longer be accredited to
169 measurement uncertainties. Evidence has been mounting ever since for this exotic form of matter.
170 The following subsections sample some of the compelling evidence supporting DM.

171 **2.3.1 First Clues: Stellar Velocities**

172 Zwicky's, and later Rubin's, measurement of the stellar velocities were built upon the Virial
173 theorem, shown as

$$2T + V = 0. \quad (2.1)$$

174 Where T is the kinetic energy and V is the potential energy in a self-gravitating system. The
175 potential was defined as the classical Newton's law of gravity from stars and gas contained in the
176 observed galaxies

$$V = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_i \sum_{j \neq 1} \frac{m_i m_j}{r_{ij}}. \quad (2.2)$$

177 Zwicky et. al. measured just the velocities of stars apparent in optical wavelengths [5]. Rubin et.
178 al. added by measuring the velocity of the hydrogen gas via the 21 cm emission line of Hydrogen
179 [6]. The velocities of the stars and gas are used to infer the total mass of galaxies and galaxy clusters
180 via Eq. (2.1). An inferred mass is also made from the luminosity of the selected sources. The two

181 inferences are compared to each other as a luminosity to mass ratio and typically yields [1]

$$\frac{M}{L} \sim 400 \frac{M_{\odot}}{L_{\odot}} \quad (2.3)$$

182 M_{\odot} and L_{\odot} referring to stellar mass and stellar luminosity respectively. These ratios clearly indicate
183 a discrepancy in apparent light and mass from stars and gas and their velocities.

184 Rubin et.al. [6] demonstrated that the discrepancy was unlikely to be an under-estimation of
185 the mass of the stars and gas. The inferred 'dark' mass was up to 5 times more than the luminous
186 mass. This dark mass also needed to extend well beyond the extent of the luminous matter.

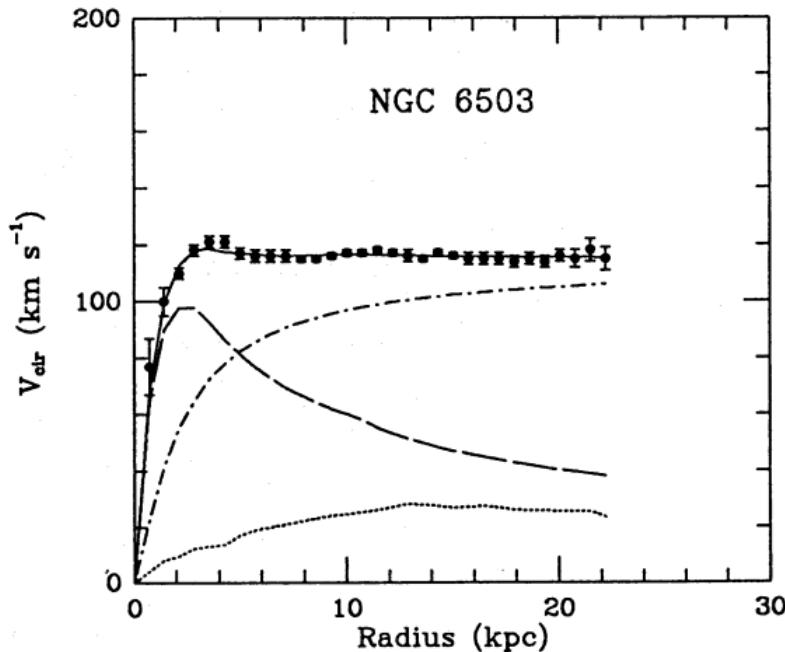


Figure 2.1 Rotation curve fit to NGC 6503 from [7]. Dashed line is the contribution from visible matter. Dotted curves are from gas. Dash-dot curves are from dark matter (DM). Solid line is the composite contribution from all matter and DM sources. Data are indicated with bold dots with error bars. Data agree strongly with matter + DM composite prediction

187 Fig. 2.1: features one of many observations made on the stellar velocities within galaxies.
188 The measured roation curves mostly feature a flattening of velocities at higher radius which is
189 not expected if the gravity was only coming from gas and luminous matter. The extension of
190 the flat velocity region also indicates that the DM is distributed far from the center of the galaxy.
191 Modern velocity measurements include significantly larger objects, galactic clusters, and smaller

192 objects, dwarf galaxies. Yet, measurements along this regime are leveraging the virial theorem with
193 Newtonian potential energies. We know Netwonian gravity is not a comprehensive description of
194 gravity. New observational techniques have been developed since 1978, and those are discussed in
195 the following sections.

196 **2.3.2 Evidence for Dark Matter: Micro-lensing**

197 Modern evidence for dark matter comes from new avenues beyond stellar velocities. Gravita-
198 tional micro-lensing from DM is a new channel from general relativity. The Cosmic Microwave
199 Background shows that the universe had DM in it from a very early stage. Computational resources
200 have expanded greatly in recent decades enabling universe models that again support the need for
201 DM in the evolution of the universe.

202 General relativity predicts abberations in light caused by massive objects. In recent decades
203 we have been able to measure the lensing effects from compact objects and DM haloes. Fig. 2.2
204 shows how different compact bodies change the final image of a far away galaxy resulting from
205 gravitational lensing. Gravitational lensing developed our understanding of dark matter in two
206 important ways.

207 First, micro-lensing observations, or the lack of them, of our Milky Way halo resulted in a
208 conspicuous absence of massive astrophysical compact halo objects (MACHOs). The hypothesis
209 was that 'dark matter' could be accounted for by sufficiently dim compact objects. Such objects
210 include things like planets, brown dwarves, black holes, or neutron stars. Whenever these objects
211 passed in front of a large luminous source, such as the Large Magelenic Clouds, a variation in light
212 should be observed [4]. The MACHO and EROS collaborations performed this observation and
213 did not find a substantial contribution to the DM Milky Way halo from MACHOs. They measured
214 that MACHOs of mass range 0.15 to $0.9 M_{\odot}$ contributes to an upper limit of 8% of the DM halo
215 mass [9].

216 Gravitational lensing can also be applied towards galaxy clusters for DM searches. The obser-
217 vation of two merging galactic clusters in 2006, shown in Fig. 2.3, provided a compelling arguement
218 for particle DM outside the Standard Model. These clusters merged recently in astrophysical time

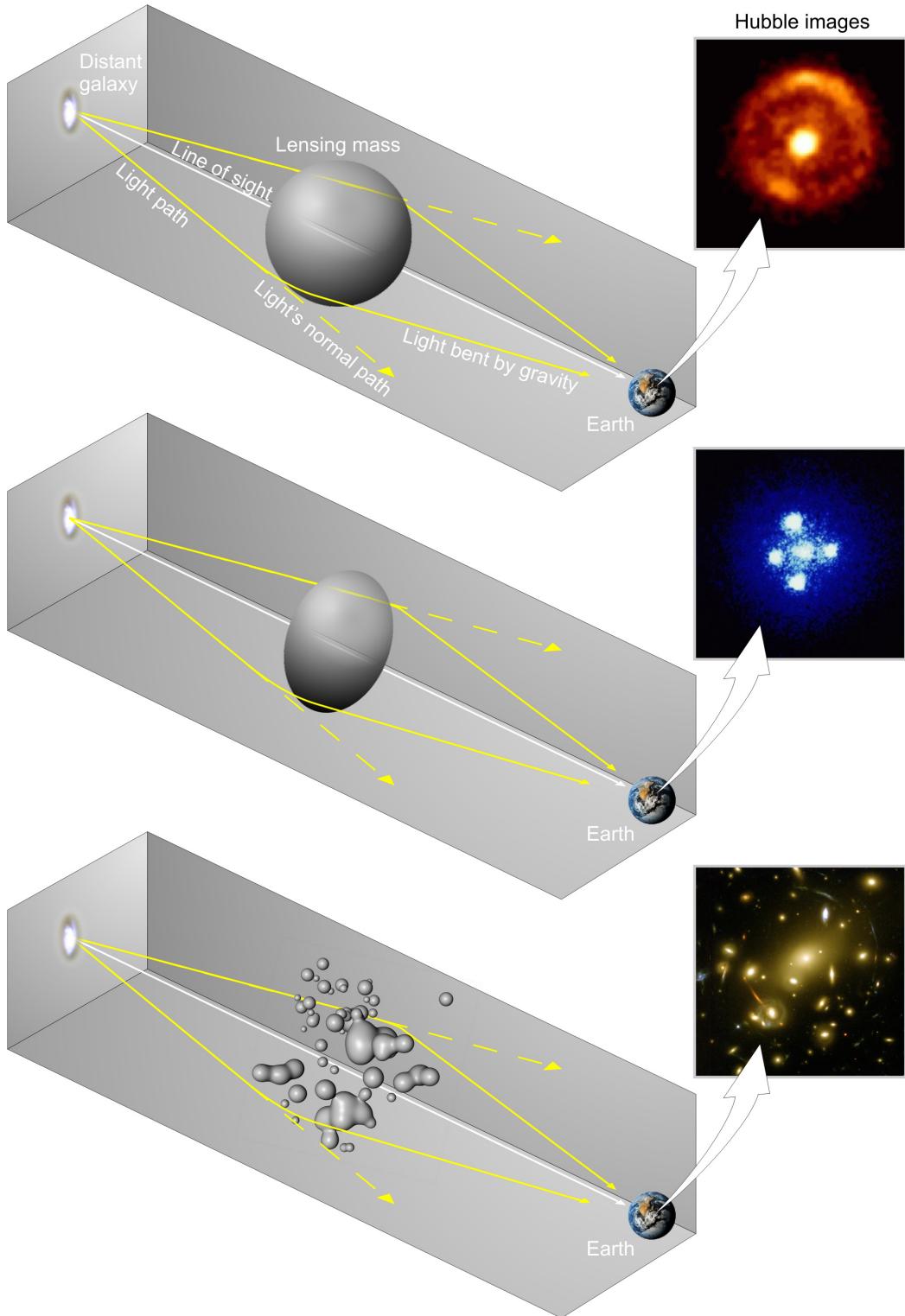


Figure 2.2 Light from distant galaxy is bent in different way depending on the distribution of mass between the galaxy and Earth. Yellow dashed lines indicate where the light would have gone if the matter was not present [8].

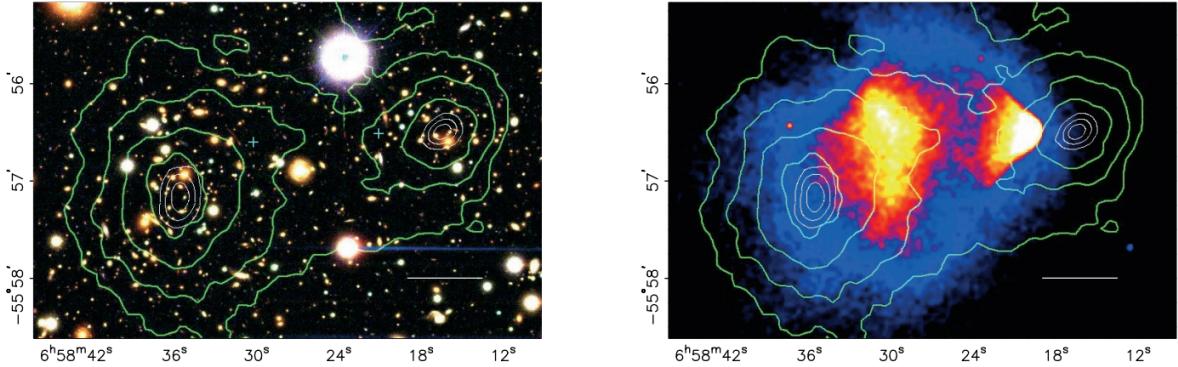


Figure 2.3 (left) Optical image of galactic cluster. (right) X-ray image of the cluster with redder meaning hotter and higher baryon density. (both) Green contours are reconstruction of gravity contours from micro-lensing. White rings are the best fit mass maxima at 68.3%, 95.5%, and 99.7% confidence. Maxima of the clusters are clearly separated from x-ray maxima. [10]

219 scales. They're recent merge separated the stars and galaxies are separated from the intergalactic
 220 gas. For these clusters, the hot, intergalactic gas is responsible for most of the mass in the systems
 221 [4]. The hot gas is observed from its x-rays emmision. Two observations of the clusters were made
 222 independantly of each other. The first was the microlensing of light around the galaxies due to
 223 their gravitational influences. When celestial bodies are large enough, the gravity they exert bends
 224 space and time itself. This bending effects light and will deflect light in a smilar way to how lenses
 225 will bend light. With a sufficient understanding of light sources behind a celestial body, we can
 226 reconstruct the countours of the gravitational lenses. The gradient of the contours then indicates
 227 how dense the matter is and where it is.

228 The x-ray emmision can then be observed from the clusters. Since these galaxies are mostly
 229 gas and are merging, then the gas should be getting hotter. If they're merging, the x-ray emmisions
 230 should be the strongest where the gas is mostly moving through each other. Hence, X-ray emmision
 231 maps out where the gas is in the merging galaxy cluster.

232 The micro-lensing and x-ray observations were done on the Bullet cluster featured on Fig. 2.3.
 233 The x-ray emmisions does not align with the gravitational countours from microlensing. The
 234 incongruence in mass density and baryon density suggests that there is a lot of matter somewhere
 235 that does not interact with light. Moreover, this dark matter is can not be baryonic [10]. The Bullet

236 Cluster measurement did not really tell us what DM is exactly, but it did give the clue that DM also
237 does not interact with itself very strongly. If DM did interact strongly with itself, then it would
238 have been more aligned with the x-ray emmision [10]. There have been follow-up studies of galaxy
239 clusters with similar results. The Bullet Cluster and others like it provide a strong case against
240 something possibly amiss in our gravitational theories.

241 **2.3.3 Evidence for Dark Matter: Cosmic Microwave Background**

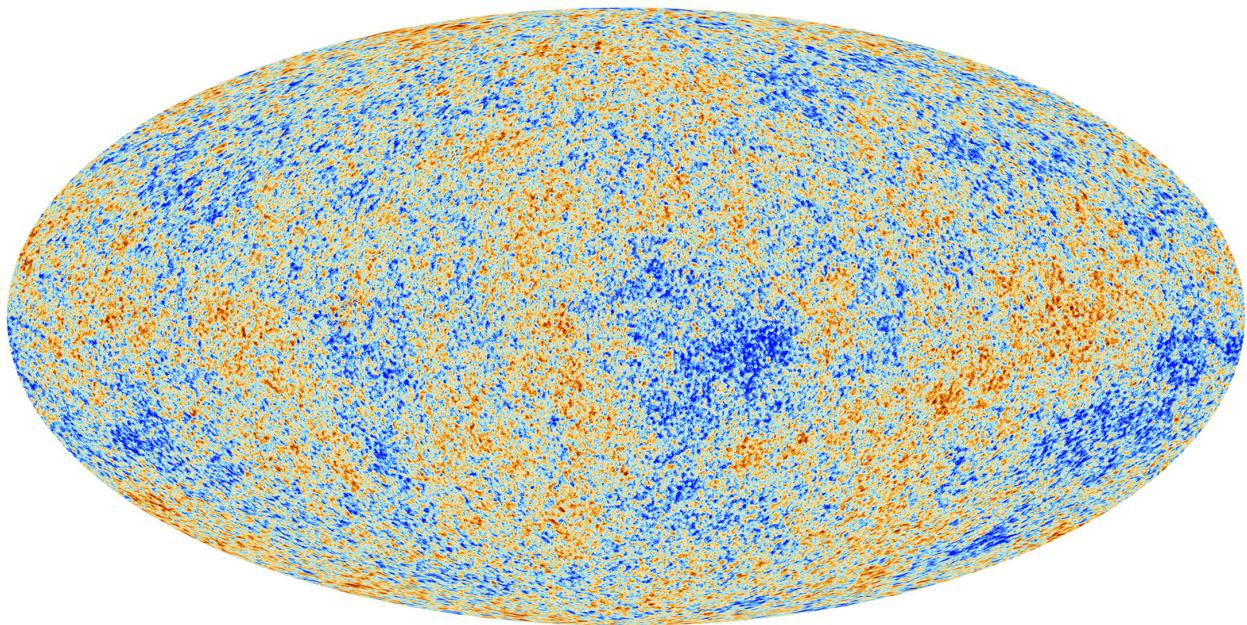


Figure 2.4 Plank CMB sky. Sky map features small variations in temperature in primordial light. These anisotropies can be used to make inferences about the universe's energy budget. [11]

242 The Cosmic Microwave Background (CMB) is the primordial light from the early universe
243 when Hydrogen atoms formed from the free electron and proton soup in the early universe. The
244 CMB is the earliest light we can observe; released when the universe was about 380,000 years old.
245 Then we look at how the simulated universes look like compared to what we see. Fig. 2.4 is the
246 most recent CMB image from the Plank observatory [11]. Redder regions indicate a slightly hotter
247 region of the early universe and blue indicates colder.

248 To measure the DM, Dark Energy, and matter fractions of the universe from the CMB, the image
249 is deconstructed into a power spectrum versus spherical multipole moments. Λ CDM provides the

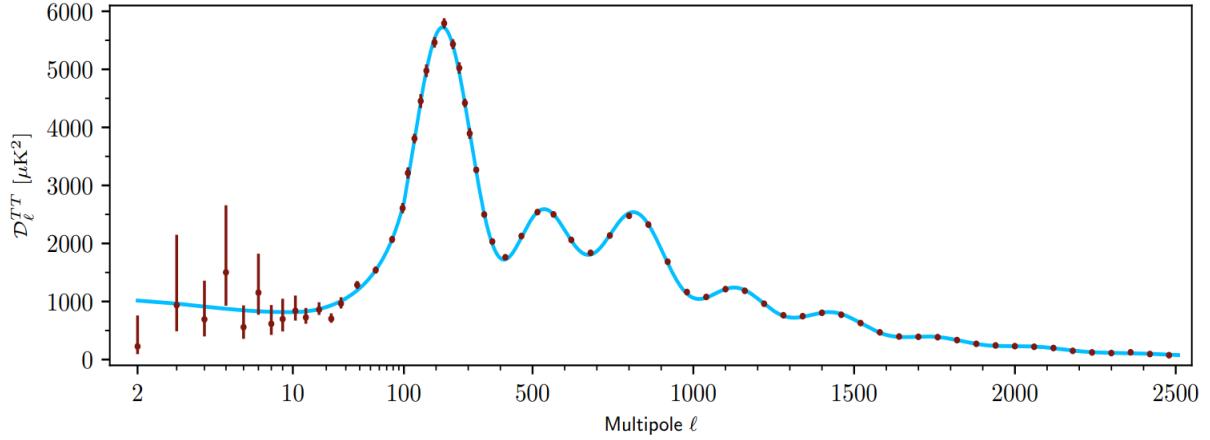


Figure 2.5 Observed Cosmic Microwave Background power spectrum as a function of multipole moment from Plank [11]. Blue line is best fit model from Λ CDM. Red points and lines are data and error respectively.

250 best fit to the power spectra of the CDM as shown in Fig. 2.5. The CMB power spectrum is very
 251 sensitive to the fraction of each energy contribution in the early universe. Low l modes are dominated
 252 by variations in gravitational potential. Intermediate l emerge from oscillations in photon-baryon
 253 fluid from competing baryon pressures and gravity. High l is a damped region from the diffusion
 254 of photons during electron-proton recombination. [1]

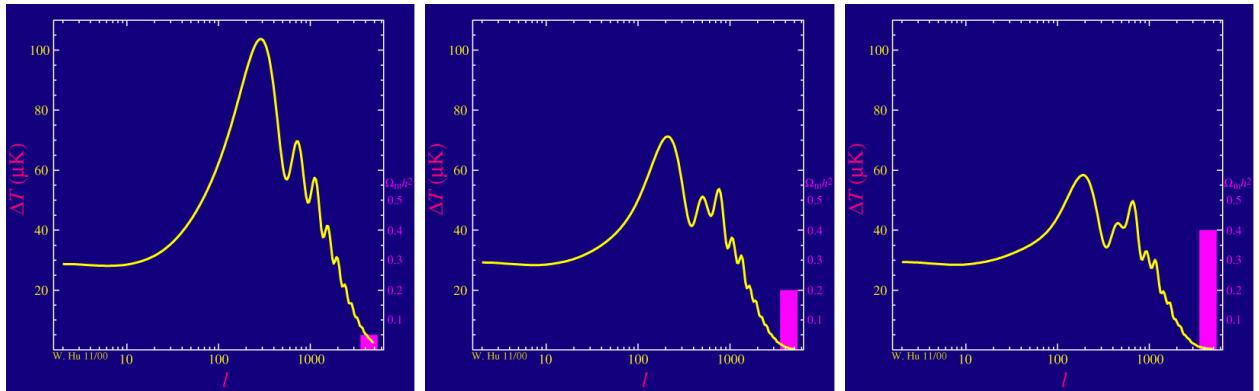


Figure 2.6 Predicted power spectra of CMB for different $\Omega_m h^2$ values. (left) Low $\Omega_m h^2$ increases the prominence of first and second peaks. (middle) $\Omega_m h^2$ is most similar to the observed power spectrum. The second and third peaks are similar in height. (right) $\Omega_m h^2$ is large which suppresses the first peak and raises the prominence of the third peak.

255 The harmonics would look very different for a universe with less DM. Fig. 2.6 shows the
 256 differences expected in the power spectrum for different baryon fractions of the universe's energy

257 budget. The observations fit well with the Λ CDM model and the derived fractions are as follows.
258 The matter fraction: $\Omega_m = 0.3153$; and the baryon fraction: $\Omega_b = 0.04936$ [11]. These findings
259 do rely however on a few assumptions and the precision of the Hubble constant, H_0 . H_0 especially
260 has seen a growing tension in recent decades that continues to deepened with observatories like the
261 James Webb Telescope [12, 13]

262 Overall these observations form a compelling body of research in favor of dark matter. However,
263 these observations really only confirm that DM is there. It takes another leap of theory and
264 experimentation to make observations of DM that are non-gravitational in nature. One hypothesis
265 is the Weakly Interacting Massive Particle DM. This DM candidate theory is discussed further in
266 the next section and is the hypothesis to this thesis.

267 2.4 Searching for Dark Matter

268 There remains many options available to what Dark Matter could be. For a particle dark matter
269 hypothesis, we assume that DM interacts in some way, even if very weakly, with the Standard
270 Model (SM), see Section 2.4. The current status of the SM does not have a viable DM candidate.
271 When looking at the standard model, we can immediately exclude any charged particle. This is
272 because charged particles interact with light. If DM is charged, it would be immediately visible if
273 it had similar charge to many SM particles. Specifically this will rule out the following charged,
274 fundamental particles: $e, \mu, \tau, W, u, d, s, c, t, b$ and their corresponding antiparticles. Recalling
275 from earlier that DM must be long lived and stable over the age of the universe, this would exclude
276 all SM particles with decay half-lives at or shorter than the age of the universe. The lifetime
277 constraint additionally eliminates the Z and H bosons. Finally, the candidate DM needs to be
278 somewhat massive. Recall from Section 2.2 that DM is cold or not relativistic through the universe.
279 This eliminates the remaining SM particles: $\nu_{e,\mu,\tau}, g, \gamma$ as DM candidates. Because there are no
280 DM candidates within the SM, the DM problem strongly hints to physics beyond the SM (BSM).

281 2.4.1 Shake it, Break it, Make it

282 When considering DM that couples in some way with the SM, the interactions are roughly
283 demonstrated by interaction demonstrated in Fig. 2.8. The figure is a simplified Feynman diagram

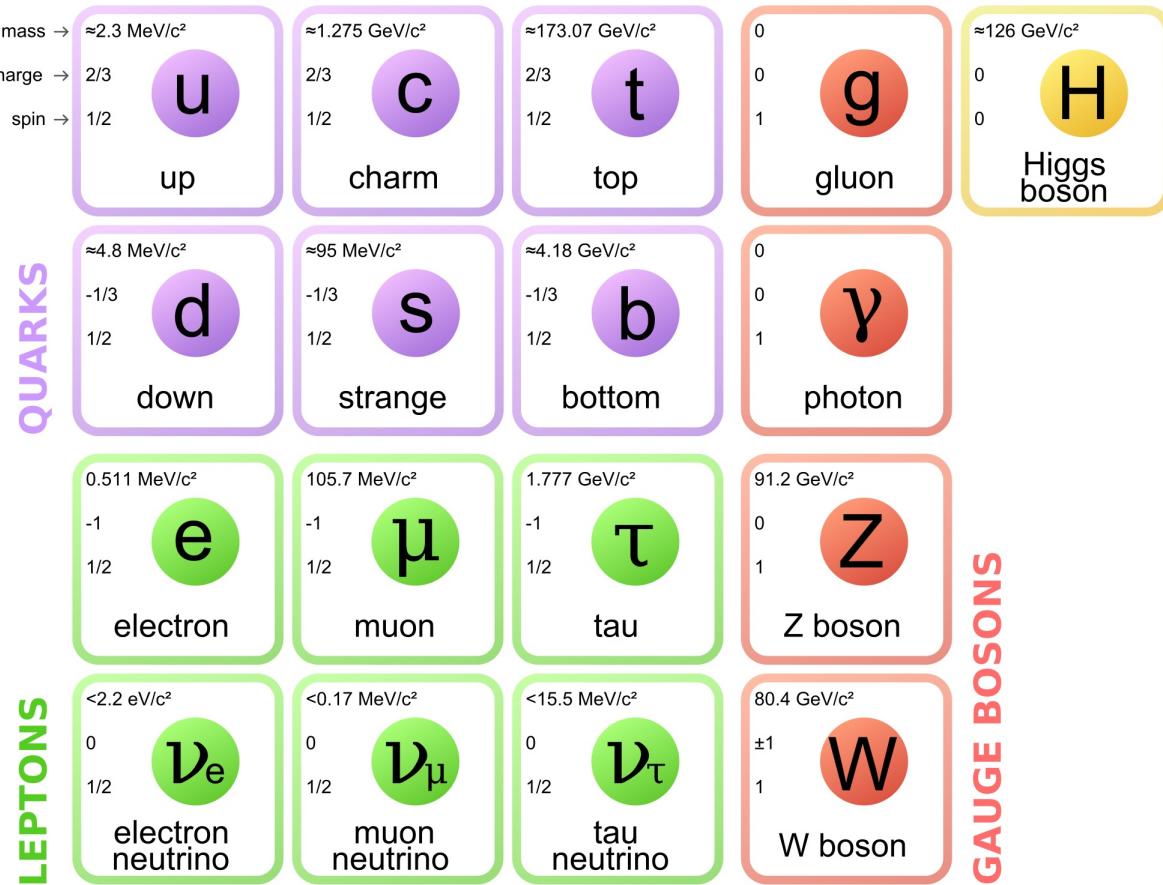


Figure 2.7 The Standard Model (SM) of particle physics. Figure taken from <http://www.quantumdiaries.org/2014/03/14/the-standard-model-a-beautiful-but-flawed-theory/>

- 284 where the arrow of time represents the interaction modes of: **Shake it, Break it, Make it.**
- 285 **Shake it** refers to the direct detection of dark matter. Direct detection interactions start with a
286 free DM particle and some SM particle. The DM and SM interact under some elastic or inelastic
287 collision and recoil away from each other. The DM remains in the dark sector and imparts some
288 momentum onto the SM particle. The hope is that the momentum imparted onto the SM particle
289 is sufficiently high enough to pick up with highly sensitive instruments. Because we cannot create
290 the DM in the lab, a direct detection experiment must wait until DM is incident on the detector.
291 Most direct detection experiments are therefore placed in low-background environments with inert
292 detection media like the noble gas Xenon. [14]
- 293 **Make it** refers to the production of DM from SM initial states. The experiment starts with
294 particles in the SM. These SM particles are accelerated to incredibly high energies and then collided

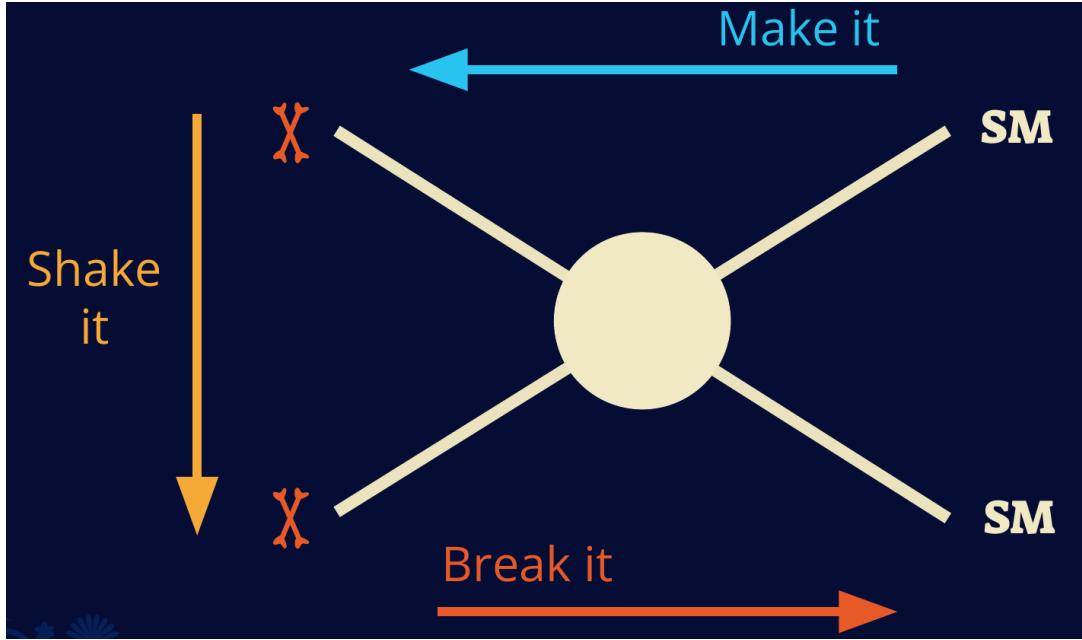


Figure 2.8 Simplified Feynman diagram demonstrating different ways DM can interact with SM particles. The 'X's refer to the DM particles whereas the SM refer to fundamental particles in the SM. The large circle in the center indicates the vertex of interaction and is purposely left vague. The colored arrows refer to different directions of time as well as their respective labels. The arrows indicate the initial and final state of the DM -SM interaction in time.

295 with each other. In the confluence of energy, DM hopefully emerges as a byproduct of the SM
 296 annihilation. Often it is the collider experiments that are able to generate energies high enough
 297 to probe DM production. These experiments include the world-wide collaborations ATLAS and
 298 CMS at CERN where protons are collided together at extreme energies. The DM searches however
 299 are complex. DM likely does not interact with the detectors and lives long enough to escape the
 300 detection apparatus of CERN's colliders. This means any DM production experiment searches for an
 301 excess of events with missing momentum or energy in the events. An example event with missing
 302 transverse momentum is shown in Fig. 2.9. The missing momentum with no particle tracks implies
 303 a neutral particle carried the energy out of the detector. However, there are other neutral particles
 304 in the SM, like neutrons or neutrinos, so any analysis have to account for SM signatures of missing
 305 momentum. [15]

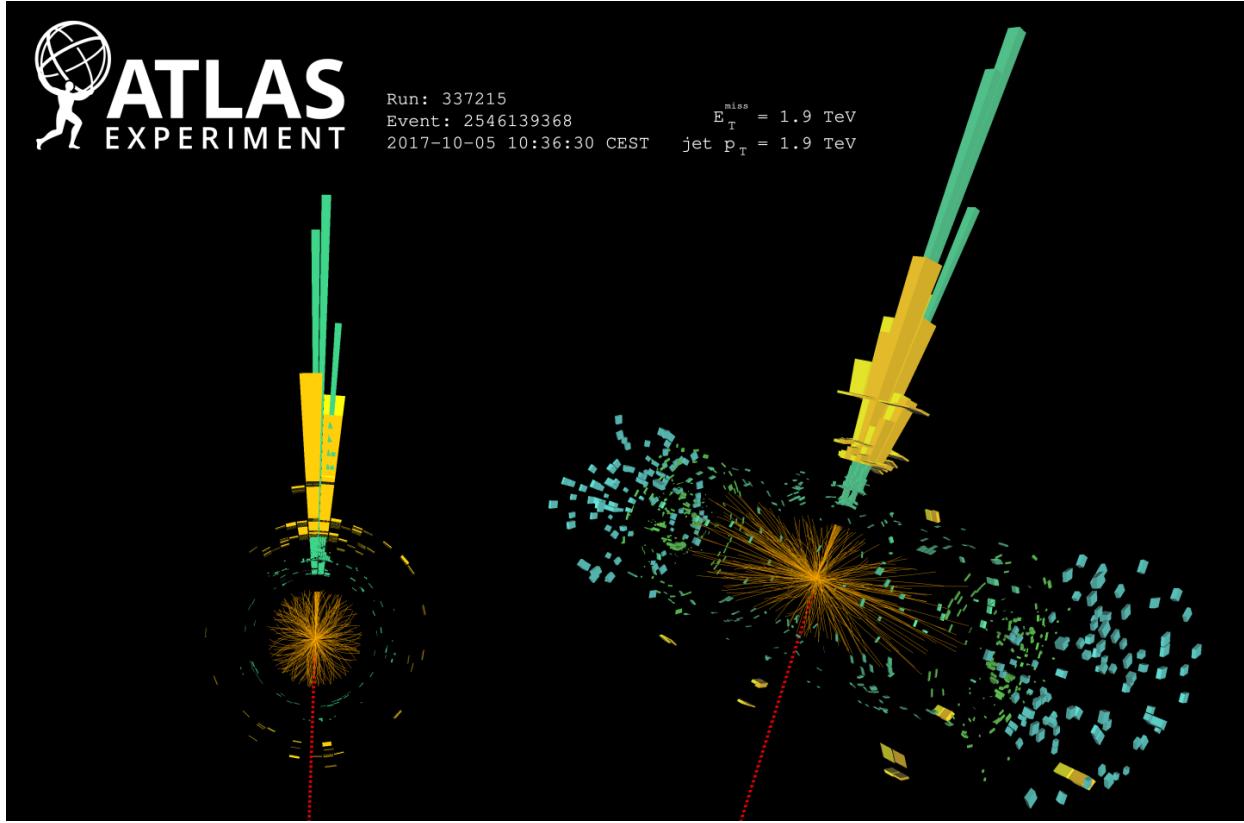


Figure 2.9 A single jet event in ATLAS detector from 2017 [16]. Jet momentum observed to be 1.9 TeV. Missing transverse momentum observed to be 1.9 TeV as the initial momentum of the event was 0. Implied MET is shown as a red dashed line in event display.

306 2.4.2 Break it: Standard Model Signatures of Indirect Dark Matter Searches

307 **Break it** refers to the creation of SM particles from the dark sector, and it is the primary focus
 308 of this thesis. The interaction begins with DM or in the dark sector. The hypothesis is that this
 309 DM will either annihilate with itself or decay and produce a SM byproduct. This method is often
 310 referred to the Indirect Detection of DM because we have no lab to directly control or manipulate the
 311 DM. Therefore most DM primary observations will be performed from observations of known DM
 312 densities among the astrophysical sources. The strength is that we have the whole of the universe
 313 and it's 13.6 billion year lifespan to use as the detector or particle accelerator. Additionally, locations
 314 of dark matter are also well understood since it was astrophysical observations that presented the
 315 problem of DM in the first place.

316 However, anything can happen in the universe. There are many difficult to deconvolve back-

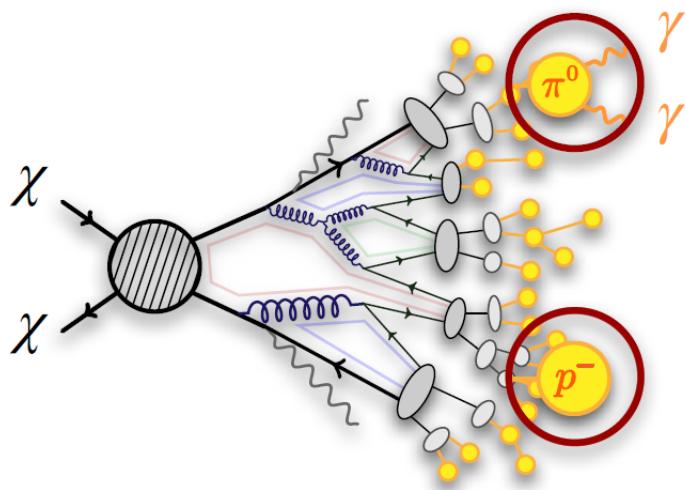


Figure 2.10 More detailed pseudo-Feynman diagram of particle cascade from dark matter annihilation into 2 quarks. The quarks hadronize and down to stable particles like γ or the anti-proton (p^-). Diagram pulled from ICRC 2021 presentation on DM annihilation search [17].

317 grounds when searching for DM. Once prominent example is the galactic center. There's a lot of
 318 DM there since the Milky Way definitely has a lot of DM. But any signal coming from there is hard
 319 to parse apart from the extreme environment of our supermassive black hole, Sagitarius A* [18]
 320 Despite the challenges, any DM model that yields evidence in the other observation two methods,
 321 **Shake it or Make it** must be corroborated with indirect observations of the known DM sources.
 322 Without corroborating evidence, DM observation in the lab is hard-pressed to demonstrate that it
 323 is the model contributing to the DM seen at the universal scale.

324 In the case of WIMP DM, signals are typically described in terms of primary SM particles
 325 produced from a DM decay or annihilation. The SM initial state particles are then simulated to
 326 stable final states such as the γ , ν , p , or e which can traverse galactic lengths to reach Earth.

327 Fig. 2.10 shows the quagmire of SM particles that emerges from SM initial states that are not
 328 stable [17]. There are many different particles with varying energies that can be produced in such an
 329 interaction. For any arbitrary DM source and stable SM particle, the SM flux from DM annihilating

330 to some neutral particle in the SM, ϕ , from a region in the sky is described by the following

$$\frac{d\Phi_\phi}{dE_\phi} = \frac{\langle\sigma v\rangle}{8\pi m_\chi^2} \frac{dN_\phi}{dE_\phi} \times \int_{\text{source}} d\Omega \int_{l.o.s} \rho_\chi^2 dl(r, \theta') \quad (2.4)$$

331 In Eq. (2.4), $\langle\sigma v\rangle$ is the velocity-weighted annihilation cross-section of DM to the SM. m_χ refers
332 to the mass of DM, noted with greek letter χ . $\frac{dN_\phi}{dE_\phi}$ is the N particle flux weighted by the particle
333 energy. An example is provided in Fig. 2.11 for the γ final state. The integrated terms are performed
334 over the solid angle, $d\Omega$, and line of sight, l.o.s. ρ is the density of DM for a location (r, θ') in the
335 sky. The terms left of the '×' are often referred to as the particle physics component. The terms on
336 the right are referred to as the astrophysical component. For decaying DM, the equation changes
337 to...

$$\frac{d\Phi_\phi}{dE_\phi} = \frac{1}{4\pi\tau m_\chi} \frac{dN_\phi}{dE_\phi} \times \int_{\text{source}} d\Omega \int_{l.o.s} \rho_\chi dl(r, \theta') \quad (2.5)$$

338 In Eq. (2.5), τ is the decay lifetime of the DM. Just as in Eq. (2.4), the left and right terms are
339 the particle physics and the astrophysical components respectively. The integrated astrophysical
340 component of Eq. (2.4) is often called the J-Factor. Whereas the integrated astrophysical component
341 of Eq. (2.5) is often called the D-Factor.

342 Exact DM $\text{DM} \rightarrow \text{SM}$ branching ratios are not known, so it is usually assumed to go 100%
343 into a SM particle/anti-particle. Additionally, when a DM annihilation or decay produces one of
344 the neutral, long-lived SM particles (ν or γ), the particle can be traced back to a DM source. For
345 DM above GeV energies, there are very few SM processes that can produce particles with such a
346 high energy. Seeing such a signal would almost certainly be an indication of the presence of dark
347 matter. The universe fortunately provides us with the largest volume and lifetime ever for a particle
348 physics experiment.

349 **2.5 Sources for Indirect Dark Matter Searches**

350 We of course have to know where to look. Thankfully, we have a good idea of where. The
351 first detection of DM relied on optical observations. Since then, we've developed new techniques
352 to find DM dense regions. As described in Section 2.3.1, many DM dense regions were through
353 observing galactic rotation curves. Our Milky Way galaxy is among DM dense regions discovered,

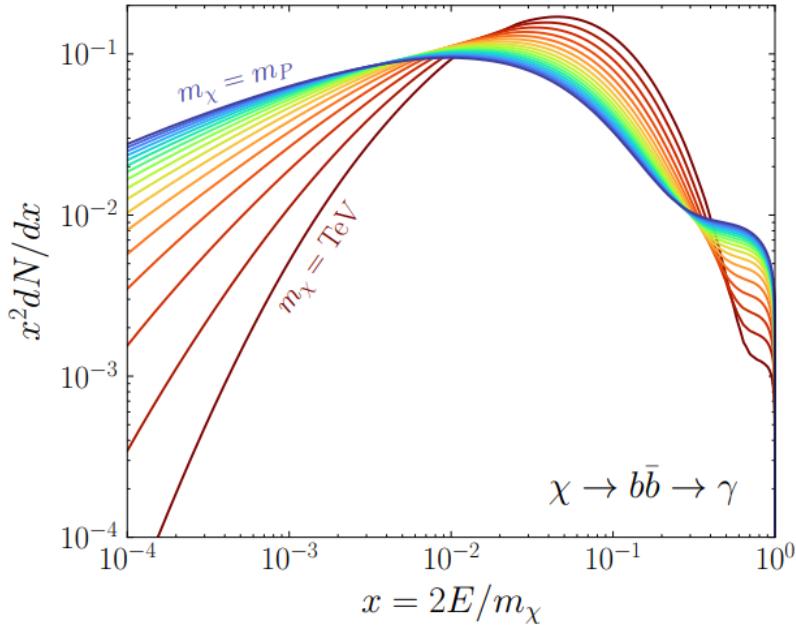


Figure 2.11 Dark Matter (DM) decay spectrum for $b\bar{b}$ initial state and γ final state. Redder spectra are for larger DM masses. Bluer spectra are light DM masses. x is a unitless factor defined as the ratio of the mass of DM, m_χ , and the final state particle energy E_γ . Figure from [19].

and it is the largest nearby DM dense region to look at. Additionally, the DM halo surrounding the Milky Way is somewhat clumpy [18]. There are regions in the DM halo of the Milky Way that have more DM than others they have captured gas over time. In some cases these sub-haloes were dense enough to host stars. These apparent sub galaxies are known was dwarf spheroidal galaxies and are the main sources studied in this thesis. Each source type comes with different trade offs. Galactic Center studies will be very sensitive to the assume distribution of DM. The central DM density can very substantially as demonstrated in (GIDF)

2.5.1 Dwarf Spheroidal Galaxies

The way we look for dwarf spheroidal galaxies (dSph's) is through mostly Newtonian physics. We use either the virial theorem to determine the DM density of the dSph's or a Jeans analysis /ns. DSphs tend to be ideal sources to look at for DM searches. The reason is that these environments are fairly quiet. Unlike the galactic center, the most active components of dSph's are the stars within them. There are few compact objects, like black holes, and much less gas that would contribute

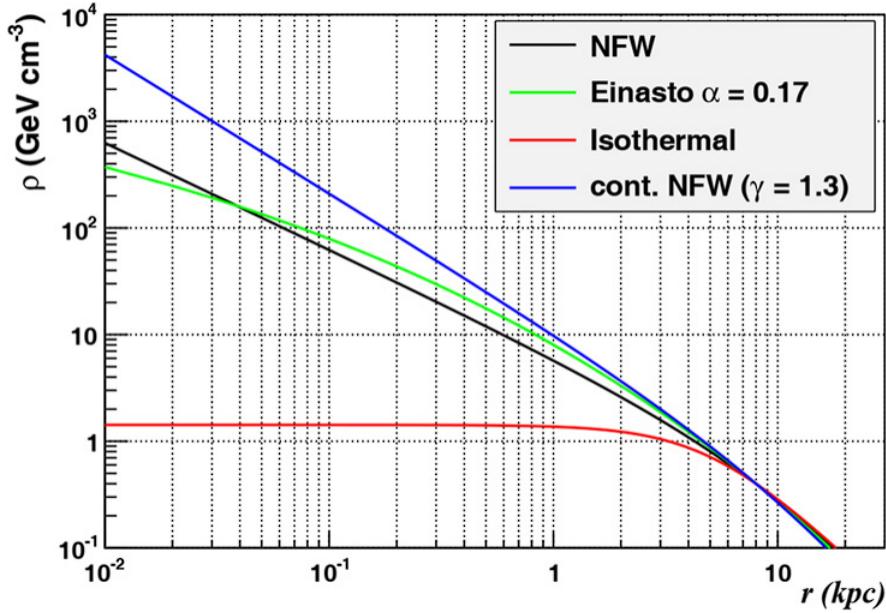


Figure 2.12 Different dark matter density profiles compared. Some models produce very large densities at small r [20].

367 to a large backgrounds. The DM to mass ratio here is also massive. [NEEDS A SOURCE]. The
 368 signal to background ratio is really large and we expect a lot of signal from how much dark matter
 369 there is. All this together means that dSph's are among the best sources to look at for indirect DM
 370 searches.

371 **2.6 Multi-Messenger Dark Matter**

372 Astrophysics entered a dope as fuck new phase in the past few decades that leverages our new
 373 knowlwedge of the SM and general relativity. Up until the 21st century, astrophysical observatations
 374 were done with photons. At first, observations were optical in nature. You can confirm this yourself
 375 by going outside at night. The moon and constellations are observabke to the naked eye. In darker
 376 places on Earth, celestial bodies like our Milky Way galaxy become visible. Novel observations
 377 of the universe have since only adjusted the sensitivity of the wavelength of light that's observed.
 378 Gems like the CMB, MEERkat, [NEEDS A SOURCE]and more have ultimately been observations
 379 of different wavelengths of light. Light can also be thought of as a particle in the SM is referred to
 380 as a photon, or a packet of light.



Figure 2.13 TODO: multimessenger sectors from the NSF[NEEDS A SOURCE][FACT CHECK THIS]

381 Come the 21st century and we've started to use more of the SM and general relativity. The
382 experiments LIGO and VIRGO had an iconic discovery in 2015??[FACT CHECK THIS]with the
383 first chirps of black hole mergers. This opened an entirely new method of observing the universe
384 through gravitational waves. They literally use the bending of space-time to do astrophysics like
385 holy shit. There's also been a surge of interest in the neutrino sector. We're now finally having
386 some sensitivity to neutrinos that we're able to detect them from astrophysical sources. Neutrinos,
387 like gravitational waves and light, travel mostly unimpeded from their source to our observatories.
388 This makes pointing to the originating source of these messengers much easier than it is for
389 cosmic rays that are almost always deflected from their source.

390 Being able to see the same objects under different regimes was demonstrated already with just
391 photons. From the previous figure you can see different ways to look at the milky way galaxy. Each
392 panel corresponds to a different wavelength of light which has different penetrations through gas



Figure 2.14 TODO: Milky way at different wavelengths[NEEDS A SOURCE][FACT CHECK THIS]

393 and galactic dust. Some sources are more apparent in some panels, while others are not. Recently,
394 the IceCube collaboration published a groundbreaking result of the milky way in neutrinos. This
395 new channel is very unique because we can really see through the galaxy. This new image also
396 refines our understanding of how high energy particles are accelerated since the fit to IceCube data
397 prefers one standard model process over the other.

398 Exposing our observations to more cosmic messengers greatly increases our sensitivity to rare
399 processes. In the case of DM, from fig (SM ann), you can see there are many SM particles at the end
400 of the particle cascade. Among the final states are gammas and neutrinos. The charged particles
401 however would not likely make it to earth since they'll be deflected. This means observatories that
402 can see the neutral messengers are especially good for DM searches and for combining data for a
403 multi-messenger search.

404

DETECTING HIGH ENERGY NEUTRAL MESSENGERS

405 **3.1 Cherenkov Radiation**

406 **3.2 HAWC**

407 **3.3 IceCube**

408 **3.4 Opportunities to Combine for Dark Matter**

409

CHAPTER 4

HIGH ALTITUDE WATER CHERENKOV (HAWC) OBSERVATORY

410 **4.1 The Detector**

411 **4.2 Events Reconstruction and Data Acquisition**

412 **4.2.1 G/H Discrimination**

413 **4.2.2 Angle**

414 **4.2.3 Energy**

415 **4.3 Remote Monitoring**

416 **4.3.1 ATHENA Database**

417 **4.3.2 HOMER**

CHAPTER 5

ICECUBE NEUTRINO OBSERVATORY

419 **5.1 The Detector**

420 **5.2 Events Reconstruction and Data Acquisition**

421 **5.2.1 Angle**

422 **5.2.2 Energy**

423 **5.3 Northern Test Site**

424 **5.3.1 PIgeon remote dark rate testing**

425 **5.3.2 Bulkhead Construction**

CHAPTER 6

COMPUTATIONAL TECHNIQUES IN PARTICLE ASTROPHYSICS

427 **6.1 Neural Networks for Gamma/Hadron Separation**

428 **6.2 Parallel Computing for Dark Matter Analyses**

CHAPTER 7**GLORY DUCK**

CHAPTER 8**NU DUCK**

431

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