

1 LEVERAGING MULTI-MESSENGER ASTROPHYSICS FOR DARK MATTER SEARCHES

By

Daniel Nicholas Salazar-Gallegos

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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

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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

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

- 276 **MSU** Michigan State University
277 **LANL** Los Alamos National Laboratory
278 **DM** Dark Matter
279 **SM** Standard Model
280 **HAWC** High Altitude Water Cherenkov Observatory

281

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

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

CHAPTER 2

283

DARK MATTER IN THE COSMOS

284 **2.1 Introduction**

285 The dark matter problem can be summarized in part by the following thought experiment.

286 Let us say you are the teacher for an elementary school classroom. You take them on a field
287 trip to your local science museum and among the exhibits is one for mass and weight. The exhibit
288 has a gigantic scale, and you come up with a fun problem for your class.

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

292 The students are ecstatic to hear this, and they get to work. The solution is some variation of
293 the following strategy. The students should give each other their weight or best guess if they do
294 not know. Then, all they must do is add each student's weight and get a grand total for the class.
295 The measurement on the giant scale should show the true weight of the class. When comparing
296 the measured weight to your estimation, multiply the measurement by 1.0 ± 0.1 to get the $\pm 10\%$
297 tolerances for your estimation.

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

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

301 You estimated 1,900 lbs. assuming the average weight of a student in your class was 60 lbs.
302 So, you are pleased with Sandra's and Mario's answer. You instruct your students to all gather on
303 the giant scale and read off the weight together. To all your surprise, the scale reads *10,000 lbs.*!
304 10,000 is significantly more than a 10% error from 2,000. In fact, it is approximately 5 times more
305 massive than either your or your students' estimates. You think to yourself and conclude there
306 must be something wrong with the scale. You ask an employee to check the scale and verify it is
307 well calibrated. They confirm that the scale is in working order. You weigh a couple of students
308 individually to assess that the scale is well calibrated. Sandra weighs 59 lbs., and Mario weighs

309 62 lbs., typical weights for their age. You then weigh each student individually and see that their
310 weights individually do not deviate greatly from 60 lbs. So, where does all the extra weight come
311 from?

312 This thought experiment serves as an analogy to the Dark Matter problem. The important
313 substitution to make however is to replace the students with stars and the classroom with a galaxy,
314 say the Milky Way. Individually the mass of stars is well measured and defined with the Sun as our
315 nearest test case. However, when we set out to measure the mass of a collection of stars as large as
316 galaxies, our well-motivated estimation is wildly incorrect. There simply is no way to account for
317 this discrepancy except without some unseen, or dark, contribution to mass and matter in galaxies.
318 I set out in my thesis to narrow the possibilities of what this Dark Matter could be.

319 This chapter is organized like the following... **TODO: Text should look like ... Chapter x has**
320 **blah blah blah.**

321 **2.2 Dark Matter Basics**

322 Presently, a more compelling theory of cosmology that includes Dark Matter (DM) in order
323 to explain a variety of observations is Λ Cold Dark Matter, or Λ CDM. I present the evidence
324 supporting Λ CDM in Section 2.3 yet discuss the conclusions of the Λ CDM model here. According
325 to Λ CDM fit to observations on the Cosmic Microwave Background (CMB), DM is 26.8% of the
326 universe's current energy budget. Baryonic matter, stuff like atoms, gas, and stars, contributes to
327 4.9% of the universe's current energy budget [1, 2, 3].

328 DM is dark; it does not interact readily with light at any wavelength. DM also does not interact
329 noticeably with the other standard model forces (Strong and Weak) at a rate that is readily observed
330 [3]. DM is cold, which is to say that the average velocity of DM is below relativistic speeds [1].
331 'Hot' DM would not likely manifest the dense structures we observe like galaxies, and instead
332 would produce much more diffuse galaxies than what is observed [3, 1]. DM is old; it played a
333 critical role in the formation of the universe and the structures within it [1, 2].

334 Observations of DM have so far been only gravitational. The parameter space available to what
335 DM could be therefore is extremely broad. The broad DM parameter space is iteratively tested in

336 DM searches by supposing a hypothesis that has not yet been ruled out and performing observations
337 to test them. When the observations yield a null result, the parameter space is constrained further.
338 I present some approaches for DM searches in Section 2.4.

339 **2.3 Evidence for Dark Matter**

340 Dark Matter (DM) has been a looming problem in physics for almost 100 years. Anomalies
341 have been observed by astrophysicists in galactic dynamics as early as 1933 when Fritz Zwicky
342 noticed unusually large velocity dispersion in the Coma cluster. Zwicky's measurement was the
343 first recorded to use the Virial theorem to measure the mass fraction of visible and invisible matter
344 in celestial bodies [4]. From Zwicky in [5], "*If this would be confirmed, we would get the surprising*
345 *result that dark matter is present in much greater amount than luminous matter.*" Zwicky's and
346 others' observation did not instigate a crisis in astrophysics because the measurements did not
347 entirely conflict with their understanding of galaxies [4]. In 1978, Rubin, Ford, and Norbert
348 measured rotation curves for ten spiral galaxies [6]. Rubin et al.'s 1978 publication presented a
349 major challenge to the conventional understanding of galaxies that could no longer be dismissed by
350 measurement uncertainties. Evidence has been mounting ever since for this exotic form of matter.
351 The following subsections provide three compelling pieces of evidence in support of the existence
352 of DM.

353 **2.3.1 First Clues: Stellar Velocities**

354 Zwicky, and later Rubin, measured the stellar velocities of various galaxies to estimate their
355 virial mass. The Virial Theorem upon which these observations are interpreted is written as

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

356 Where T is the kinetic energy and V is the potential energy in a self-gravitating system. The
357 classical Newton's law of gravity from stars and gas was used for gravitational potential modeled in
358 the observed galaxies:

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

359 Zwicky et al. measured just the velocities of stars apparent in optical wavelengths [5]. Rubin et al.
 360 added by measuring the velocity of the hydrogen gas via the 21 cm emission line of Hydrogen [6].
 361 The velocities of the stars and gas are used to infer the total mass of galaxies and galaxy clusters
 362 via Equation (2.1). An inferred mass is obtained from the luminosity of the selected sources. The
 363 two inferences are compared to each other as a luminosity to mass ratio which typically yielded [1]

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

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

366 Rubin et al. [6] demonstrated that the discrepancy was unlikely to be an underestimation of
 367 the mass of the stars and gas. The inferred "dark" mass was up to 5 times more than the luminous
 368 mass. This dark mass also needed to extend well beyond the extent of the luminous matter.

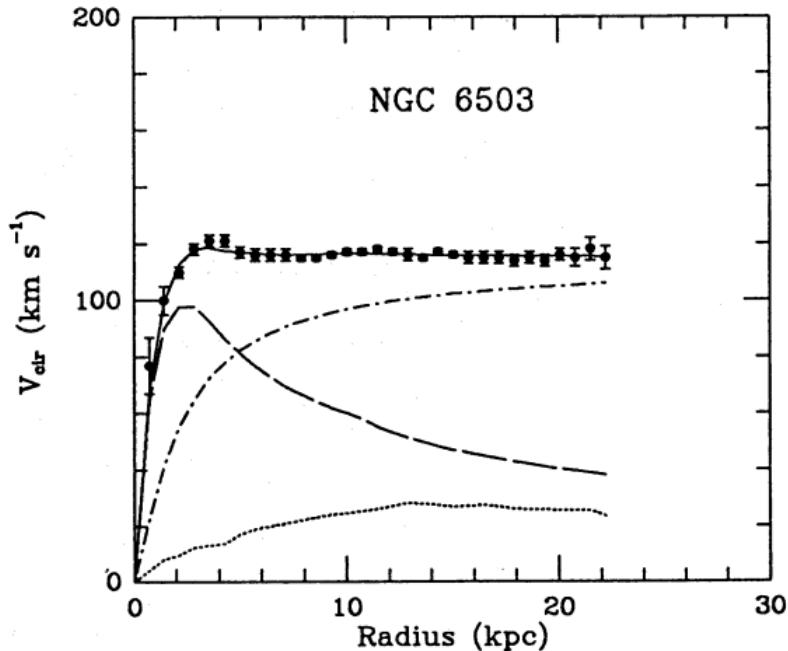


Figure 2.1 Rotation curve fit to NGC 6503 from [7]. Dashed line is the contribution from visible matter. Dotted curves are from gas. Dash-dot curves are from dark matter (DM). Solid line is the composite contribution from all matter and DM sources. Data are indicated with bold dots with error bars. Data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

369 Figure 2.1 features one of many rotation curves plotted from the stellar velocities within galaxies.

370 The measured rotation curves mostly feature a flattening of velocities at higher radius which is not
371 expected if the gravity was only coming from gas and luminous matter. The extension of the
372 flat velocity region also indicates that the DM is distributed far from the center of the galaxy.
373 Modern velocity measurements include significantly larger objects, galactic clusters, and smaller
374 objects, dwarf galaxies. Yet, measurements along this regime are leveraging the Virial theorem
375 with Newtonian potential energies. We know Newtonian gravity is not a comprehensive description
376 of gravity. New observational techniques have been developed since 1978, and those are discussed
377 in the following sections.

378 **2.3.2 Evidence for Dark Matter: Gravitational Lensing**

379 Modern evidence for dark matter comes from new avenues beyond stellar velocities. Grav-
380 itational lensing from DM is a new channel from general relativity. General relativity predicts
381 aberrations in light caused by massive objects. In recent decades we have been able to measure the
382 lensing effects from compact objects and DM halos. Figure 2.2 shows how different massive ob-
383 jects change the final image of a faraway galaxy resulting from gravitational lensing. Gravitational
384 lensing developed our understanding of dark matter in two important ways.

385 Gravitational lensing provides additional compelling evidence for DM. The observation of two
386 merging galactic clusters in 2006, shown in Figure 2.3, provided a compelling argument for DM
387 outside the Standard Model. These clusters merged recently in astrophysical time scales. Galaxies
388 and star cluster have mostly passed by each other as the likelihood of their collision is low. Therefore,
389 these massive objects will mostly track the highest mass, dark and/or baryonic, density. Yet, the
390 intergalactic gas is responsible for the majority of the baryonic mass in the systems [4]. These gas
391 bodies will not phase through and will heat up as they collide together. The hot gas is located via
392 x-ray emission from the cluster. Two observations of the clusters were performed independently of
393 each other.

394 The first was the lensing of light around the galaxies due to their gravitational influences.
395 When celestial bodies are large enough, the gravity they exert bends space and time itself. The
396 warped space-time lenses light and will deflect in an analogous way to how glass lenses will bend

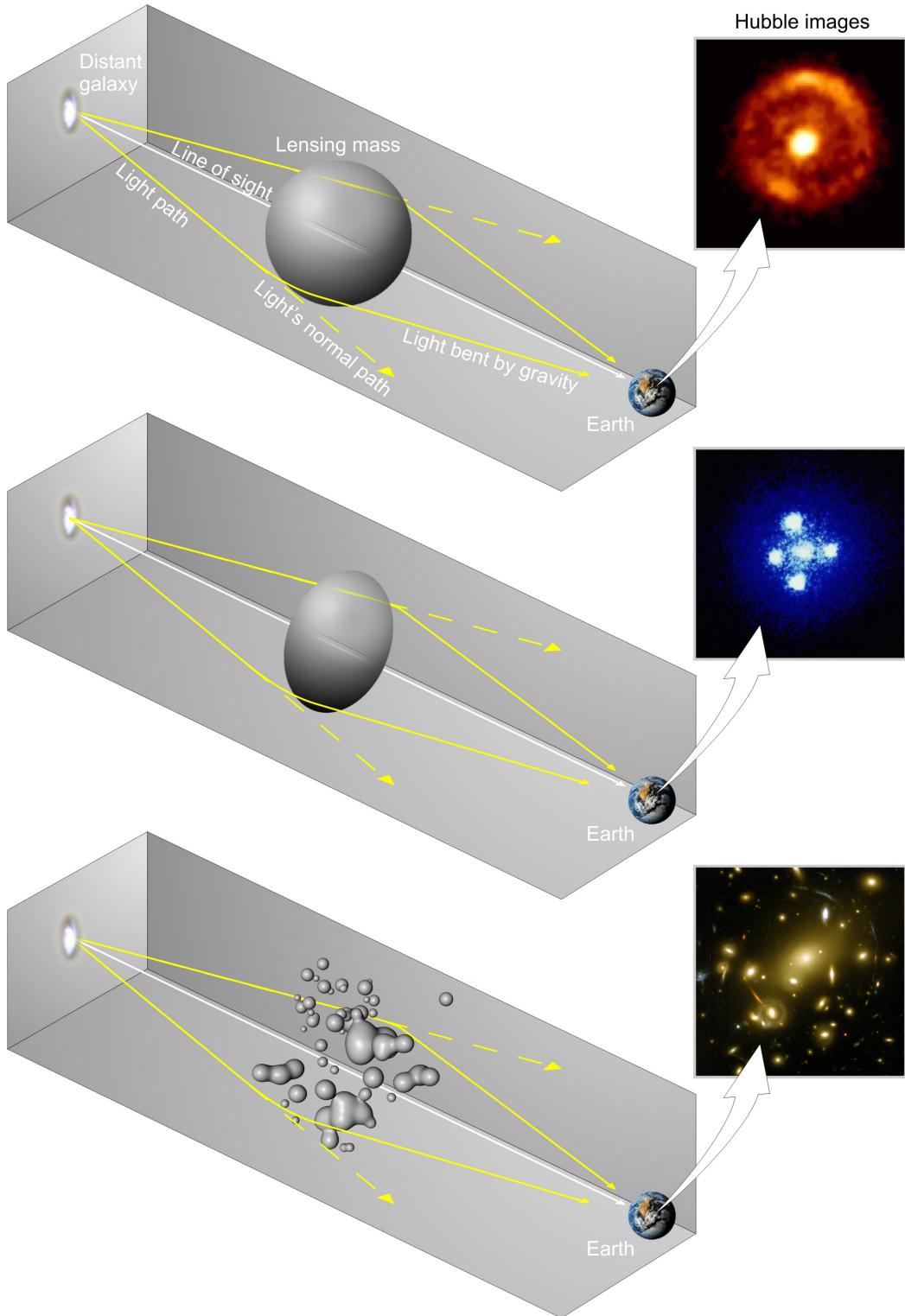


Figure 2.2 Light from distant galaxy is bent in unique ways depending on the distribution of mass between the galaxy and Earth. Yellow dashed lines indicate where the light would have gone if the matter were not present [8].

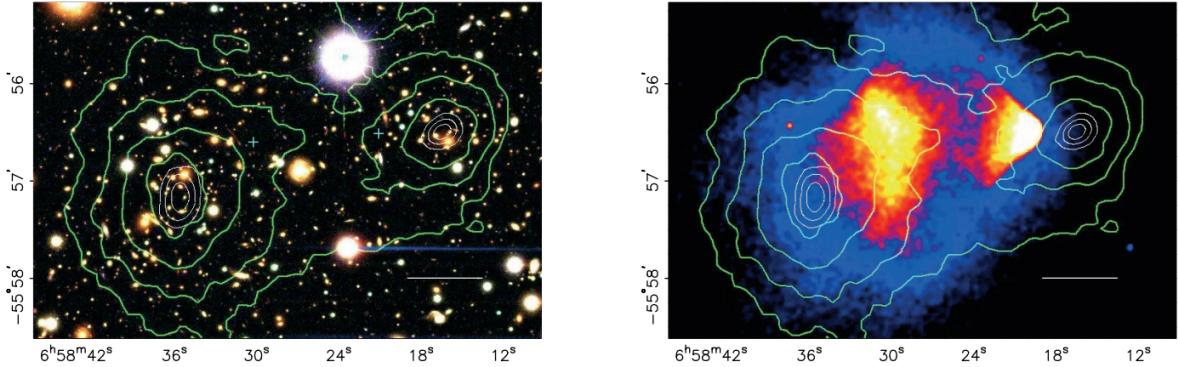


Figure 2.3 (left) Optical image of galactic cluster 1E0657-558. (right) X-ray image of the cluster with redder meaning hotter and higher baryon density. (both) Green contours are reconstruction of gravity contours from weak lensing. White rings are the best fit mass maxima at 68.3%, 95.5%, and 99.7% confidence. The matter maxima of the clusters are clearly separated from x-ray maxima. [9]

397 light, see Figure 2.2. With a sufficient understanding of light sources behind a massive object, we
 398 can reconstruct the contours of the gravitational lenses. The gradient of the contours shown in
 399 Figure 2.3 then indicates how dense the matter is and where it is.

400 The x-ray emission can then be observed from the clusters. Since these galaxies are mostly gas
 401 and are merging, then the gas should be getting hotter. If they are merging, the x-ray emissions
 402 should be the strongest where the gas is mostly moving through each other. Hence, X-ray emission
 403 maps out where the gas is in the merging galaxy cluster.

404 The lensing and x-ray observations were done on the Bullet cluster featured on Figure 2.3.
 405 The x-ray emissions do not align with the gravitational contours from lensing. The incongruence
 406 in mass density and baryon density suggests that there is a lot of matter somewhere that does
 407 not interact with light. Moreover, this dark matter cannot be baryonic [9]. The Bullet Cluster
 408 measurement did not really tell us what DM is exactly, but it did give the clue that DM also does
 409 not interact with itself very strongly. If DM did interact strongly with itself, then it would have been
 410 more aligned with the x-ray emission [9]. There have been follow-up studies of galaxy clusters with
 411 similar results. The Bullet Cluster and others like it provide a persuasive case against something
 412 possibly amiss in our gravitational theories.

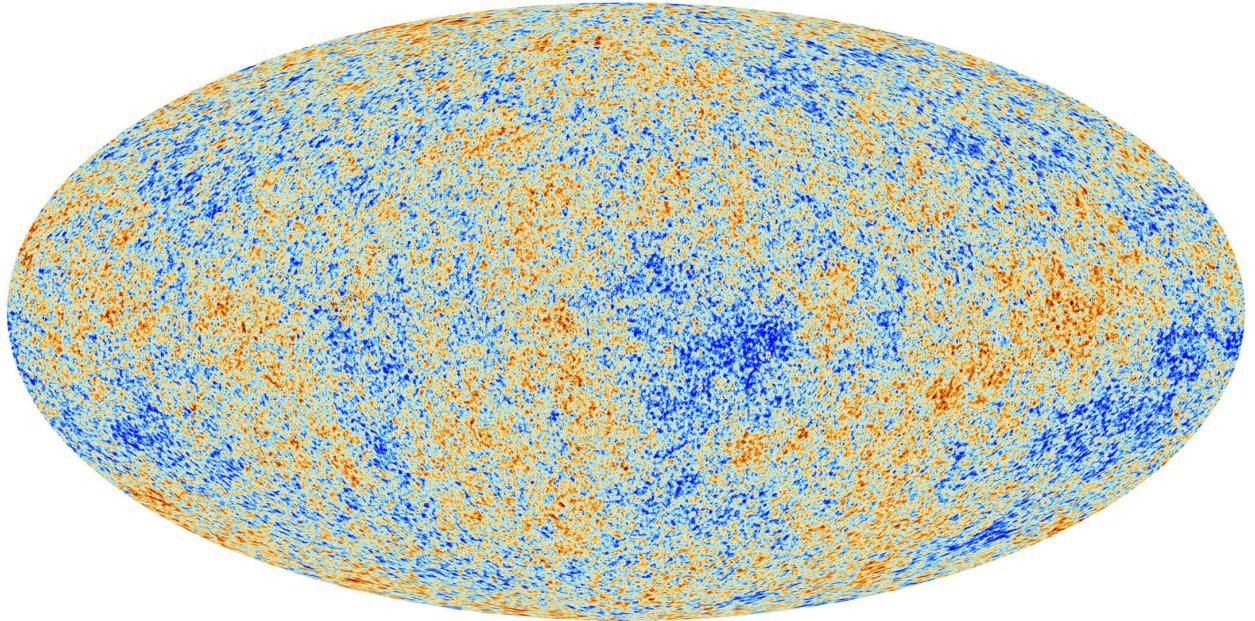


Figure 2.4 Plank CMB sky. Sky map features small variations in temperature in primordial light. These anisotropies are used to make inferences about the universe’s energy budget and developmental history. [10]

413 **2.3.3 Evidence for Dark Matter: Cosmic Microwave Background**

414 The Cosmic Microwave Background (CMB) is the primordial light from the early universe
415 when Hydrogen atoms formed from the free electron and proton soup in the early universe. The
416 CMB is the earliest light we can observe; released when the universe was about 380,000 years old.
417 Then we look at how the simulated universes look like compared to what we see. Figure 2.4 is the
418 most recent CMB image from the Plank satellite after subtracting the average value and masking the
419 galactic plane [10]. Redder regions indicate a slightly hotter region in the CMB, and blue indicates
420 colder. The intensity variations are on the order of 1 in 1000 with respect to the average value.

421 The Cosmic Microwave Background shows that the universe had DM in it from an incredibly
422 early stage. To measure the DM, Dark Energy, and matter fractions of the universe from the CMB,
423 the image is analyzed into a power spectrum, which shows the amplitude of the fluctuations as
424 a function of spherical multipole moments. Λ CDM provides the best fit to the power spectra of
425 the CMB as shown in Figure 2.5. The CMB power spectrum is quite sensitive to the fraction
426 of each energy contribution in the early universe. Low l modes are dominated by variations
427 in gravitational potential. Intermediate l emerge from oscillations in photon-baryon fluid from

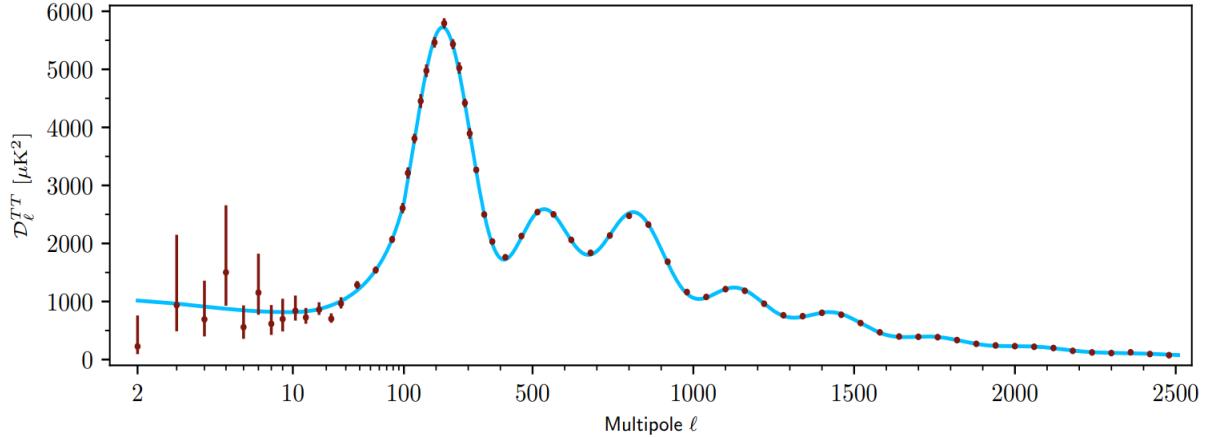


Figure 2.5 Observed Cosmic Microwave Background power spectrum as a function of multipole moment from Plank [10]. Blue line is best fit model from Λ CDM. Red points and lines are data and error, respectively.

428 competing baryon pressures and gravity. High l is a damped region from the diffusion of photons
 429 during electron-proton recombination. [1]

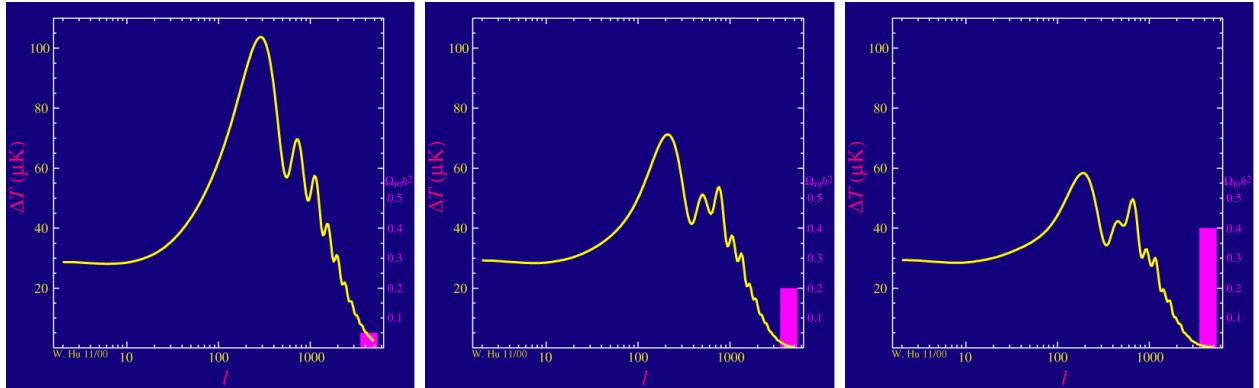


Figure 2.6 Predicted power spectra of CMB for different $\Omega_m h^2$ values for fixed baryon density from [11]. (left) Low $\Omega_m h^2$ increases the prominence of first and second peaks. (middle) $\Omega_m h^2$ is most similar to the observed power spectrum. The second and third peaks are similar in height. (right) $\Omega_m h^2$ is large which suppresses the first peak and raises the prominence of the third peak.

430 The harmonics would look quite different for a universe with less DM. Figure 2.6 demonstrates
 431 the effect $\Omega_m h^2$ has on the expected power spectrum for fixed baryon matter density. [11] Sweeping
 432 $\Omega_m h^2$ in this way clearly shows the effect dark matter has on the CMB power spectrum. The
 433 observations fit well with the Λ CDM model, and the derived fractions are as follows. The matter
 434 fraction: $\Omega_m = 0.3153$; and the baryon fraction: $\Omega_b = 0.04936$ [10]. Plank's observations also
 435 provide a measure of the Hubble constant, H_0 . H_0 especially has seen a growing tension in the

436 past decade that continues to deepened with observations from instruments like the James Webb
437 Telescope [12, 13]. As Hubble tensions deepen, we may find that perhaps Λ **CDM**, despite its
438 successes, is missing some critical physics.

439 Overall, the Newtonian motion of stars in galaxies, weak lensing from galactic clusters, and
440 power spectra from primordial light form a compelling body of research in favor of dark matter.
441 It takes another leap of theory and experimentation to make observations of DM that are non-
442 gravitational in nature. In Section 2.3, the evidence for DM implies strongly that the DM is matter
443 and not a lost parameter in the gravitational fields between massive objects. Finally, if we take one
444 axiom: that this matter has quantum behavior, such as being described by some Bohr wavelength
445 and abiding by some fermion or boson statistics; then we arrive at particle dark matter. One particle
446 DM hypothesis is the Weakly Interacting Massive Particle (WIMP). This DM candidate theory is
447 discussed further in the next section and is the focus of this thesis.

448 **2.4 Searching for Dark Matter: Particle DM**

449 Section 2.4 shows the Standard Model of particle physics and is currently the most accurate
450 model for the dynamics of fundamental particles like electrons and photons. The current status
451 of the SM does not have a viable DM candidate. When looking at the standard model, we can
452 immediately exclude any charged particle because charged particles interact strongly with light.
453 Specifically, this will rule out the following charged, fundamental particles: $e, \mu, \tau, W, u, d, s, c, t, b$
454 and their corresponding antiparticles. Recalling from Section 2.2 that DM must be long-lived and
455 stable over the age of the universe which excludes all SM particles with decay half-lives at or shorter
456 than the age of the universe. The lifetime constraint additionally eliminates the Z and H bosons.
457 Finally, the candidate DM needs to be somewhat massive. Recall from Section 2.2 that DM is cold
458 or not relativistic through the universe. This eliminates the remaining SM particles: $\nu_{e,\mu,\tau}, g, \gamma$ as
459 DM candidates. Because there are no DM candidates within the SM, the DM problem strongly
460 hints to physics beyond the SM (BSM).

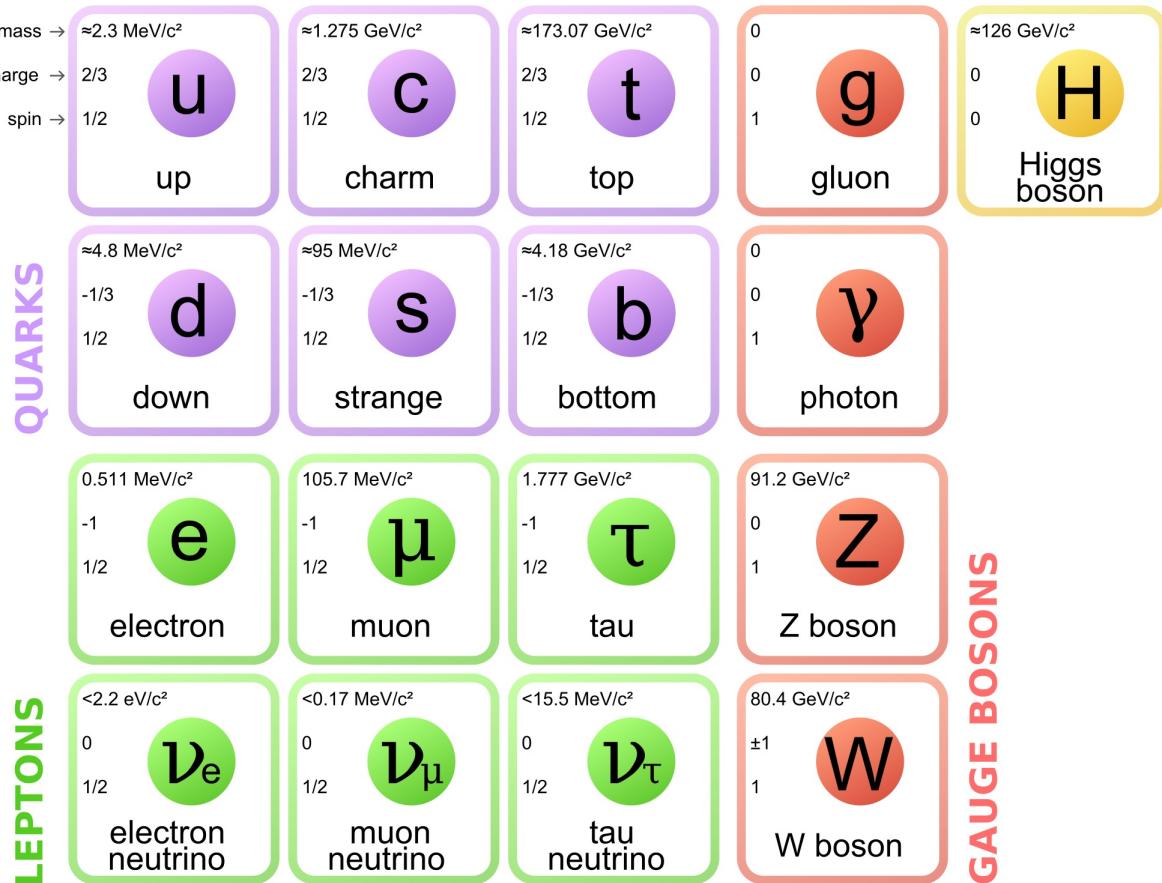


Figure 2.7 The Standard Model (SM) of particle physics. Figure taken from <http://www.quantumdiaries.org/2014/03/14/the-standard-model-a-beautiful-but-flawed-theory/>

461 2.4.1 Shake it, Break it, Make it

462 When considering DM that couples in some way with the SM, the interactions are roughly
 463 demonstrated by interaction demonstrated in Figure 2.8. The figure is a simplified Feynman
 464 diagram where the arrow of time represents the interaction modes of: **Shake it, Break it, Make it**.
 465 **Shake it** refers to the direct detection of dark matter. Direct detection interactions start with
 466 a free DM particle and an SM particle. The DM and SM interact via elastic or inelastic collision
 467 and recoil away from each other. The DM remains in the dark sector and imparts some momentum
 468 onto the SM particle. The hope is that the momentum imparted onto the SM particle is sufficiently
 469 high enough to pick up with extremely sensitive instruments. Because we cannot create the DM in
 470 the lab, a direct detection experiment must wait until DM is incident on the detector. Most direct
 471 detection experiments are therefore placed in low-background environments with inert detection

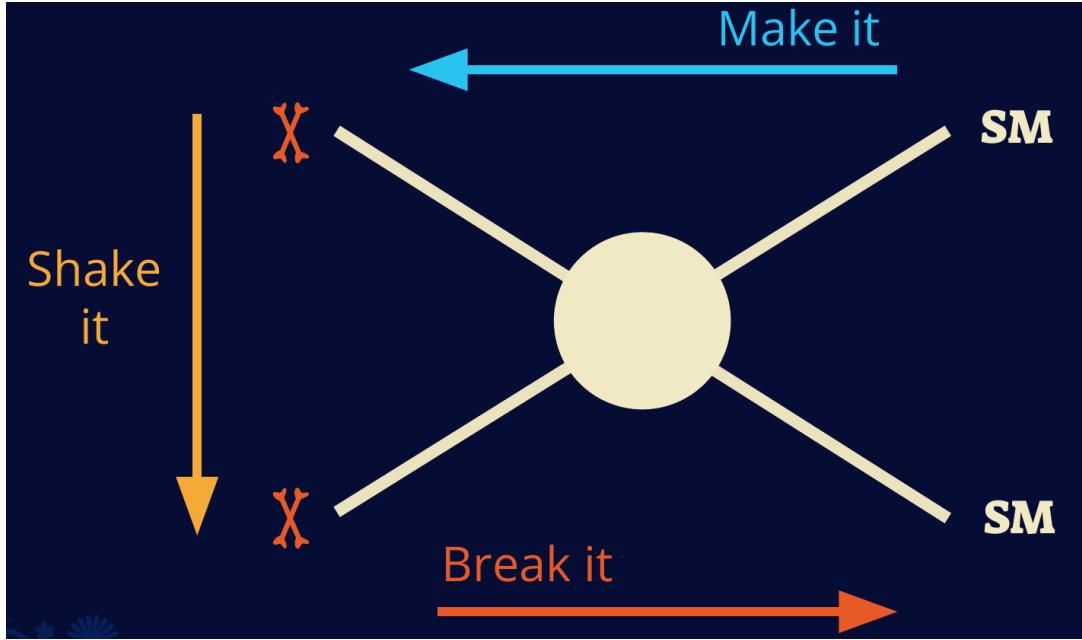


Figure 2.8 Simplified Feynman diagram demonstrating different ways DM can interact with SM particles. The 'X's refer to the DM particles whereas the SM refer to fundamental particles in the SM. The large circle in the center indicates the vertex of interaction and is purposely left vague. The colored 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.

⁴⁷² media like the noble gas Xenon. [14]

⁴⁷³ **Make it** refers to the production of DM from SM initial states. The experiment starts with
⁴⁷⁴ particles in the SM. These SM particles are accelerated to incredibly high energies and then collide
⁴⁷⁵ with each other. In the confluence of energy, DM hopefully emerges as a byproduct of the SM
⁴⁷⁶ annihilation. Often it is the collider experiments that are energetic enough to hypothetically produce
⁴⁷⁷ DM. These experiments include the world-wide collaborations ATLAS and CMS at CERN where
⁴⁷⁸ proton collide together at extreme energies. The DM searches, however, are complex. DM likely
⁴⁷⁹ does not interact with the detectors and lives long enough to escape the detection apparatus of
⁴⁸⁰ CERN's colliders. This means any DM production experiment searches for an excess of events
⁴⁸¹ with missing momentum or energy in the events. An example event with missing transverse
⁴⁸² momentum is shown in Figure 2.9. The missing momentum with no particle tracks implies a
⁴⁸³ neutral particle carried the energy out of the detector. However, there are other neutral particles
⁴⁸⁴ in the SM, like neutrons or neutrinos, so any analysis has to account for SM signatures of missing

485 momentum. [15]

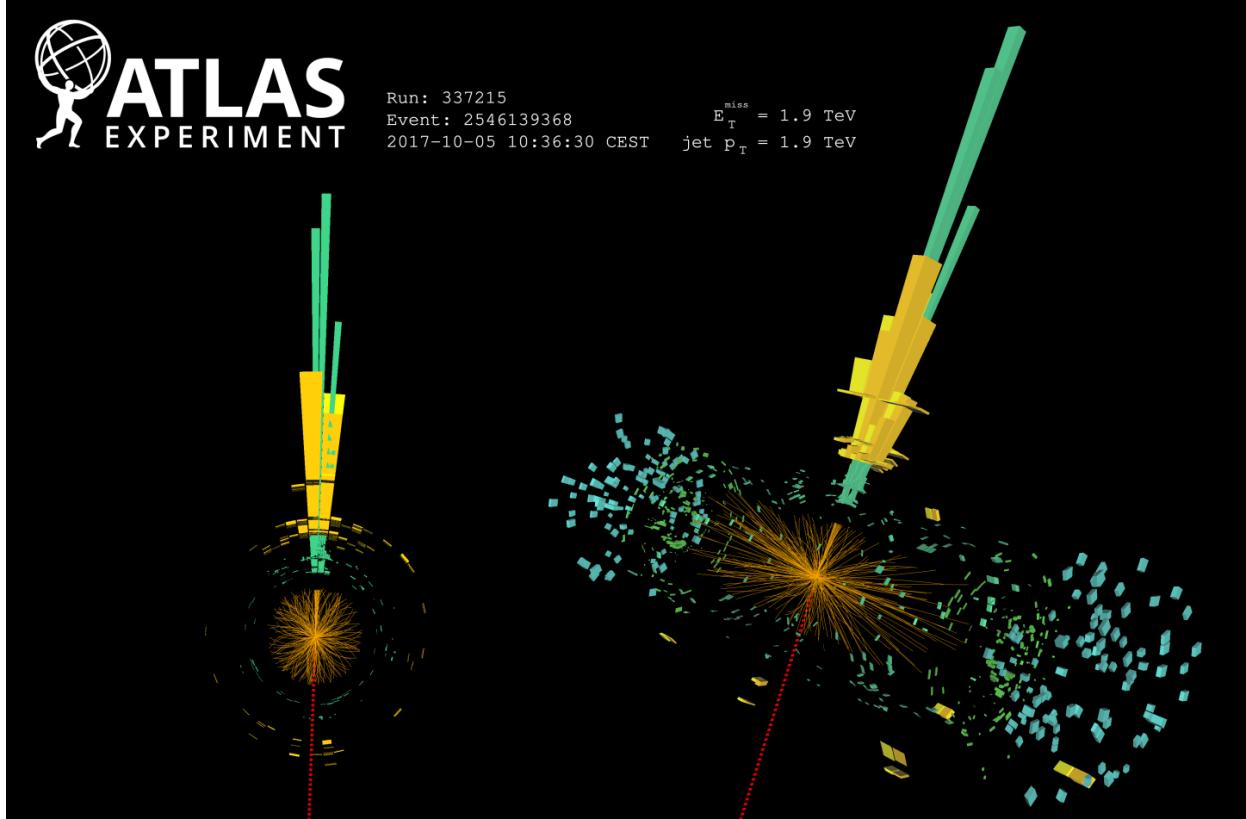


Figure 2.9 A single jet event in ATLAS detector from 2017 [16]. Jet momentum was observed to be 1.9 TeV. Missing transverse momentum was observed to be 1.9 TeV compared to the initial transverse momentum of the event was 0. Implied MET is traced by a red dashed line in event display.

486 2.4.2 Break it: Standard Model Signatures of Dark Matter through Indirect Searches

487 **Break it** refers to the creation of SM particles from the dark sector, and it is the primary focus
488 of this thesis. The interaction begins with DM or in the dark sector. The hypothesis is that this
489 DM will either annihilate with itself or decay and produce an SM byproduct. This method is
490 often referred to as the Indirect Detection of DM because we have no lab to directly control or
491 manipulate the DM. Therefore, most indirect DM searches are performed using observations of
492 known DM densities among the astrophysical sources. The strength is that we have the whole of the
493 universe and its 13.6-billion-year lifespan to use as a detector and particle accelerator. Additionally,
494 locations of dark matter are well cataloged since it was astrophysical observations that presented

495 the problem of DM in the first place.

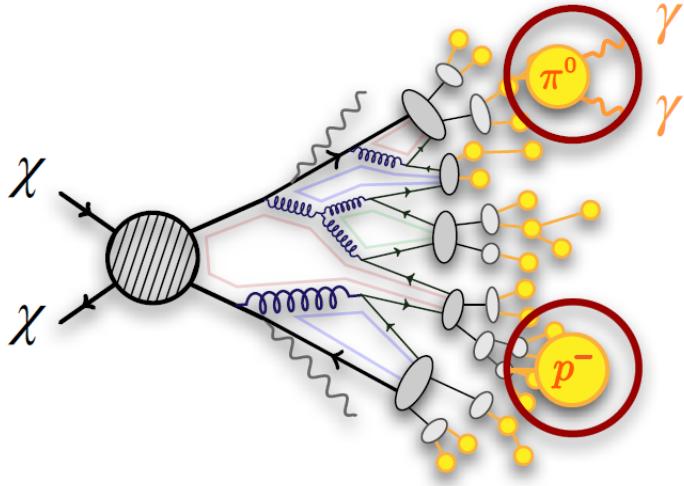


Figure 2.10 More detailed pseudo-Feynman diagram of particle cascade from dark matter annihilation into 2 quarks. The quarks hadronize and down to stable particles like γ or the anti-proton (p^-). Diagram pulled from ICRC 2021 presentation on DM annihilation search [17].

496 However, anything can happen in the universe. There are many difficult to deconvolve back-
497 grounds when searching for DM. One prominent example is the galactic center. We know the
498 galactic center has a large DM content because of stellar kinematics in our Milky Way and DM halo
499 simulations. Yet, any signal from the galactic center is challenging to parse apart from the extreme
500 environment of our supermassive black hole, unresolved sources, and diffuse emission from the
501 interstellar medium [18]. Despite the challenges, any DM model that yields evidence in the other
502 two observation methods, **Shake it or Make it** must be corroborated with indirect observations of
503 the known DM sources. Without corroborating evidence, DM observation in the lab is hard-pressed
504 to demonstrate that it is the model contributing to the DM seen at the universal scale.

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

508 Figure 2.10 shows the quagmire of SM particles that emerges from SM initial states that are not
509 stable [17]. There are many SM particles with varying energies that can be produced in such an

510 interaction. For any arbitrary DM source and stable SM particle, the SM flux from DM annihilating
 511 to a neutral particle in the SM, ϕ , from a region in the sky is described by the following.

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

512 In Equation (7.1), $\langle\sigma v\rangle$ is the velocity-weighted annihilation cross-section of DM to the SM. m_χ
 513 refers to the mass of DM, noted with Greek letter χ . $\frac{dN_\phi}{dE_\phi}$ is the N particle flux weighted by the
 514 particle energy. An example is provided in Figure 2.11 for the γ final state. The integrated terms
 515 are performed over the solid angle, $d\Omega$, and line of sight, l.o.s. ρ is the density of DM for a
 516 location (r, θ') in the sky. The terms left of the ' \times ' are often referred to as the particle physics
 517 component. The terms on the right are referred to as the astrophysical component. For decaying
 518 DM, the equation changes to...

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

519 In Equation (8.1), τ is the decay lifetime of the DM. Just as in Equation (7.1), the left and right
 520 terms are the particle physics and the astrophysical components respectively. The integrated
 521 astrophysical component of Equation (7.1) is often called the J-Factor. Whereas the integrated
 522 astrophysical component of Equation (8.1) is often called the D-Factor.

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

530 2.5 Sources for Indirect Dark Matter Searches

531 The first detection of DM relied on optical observations. Since then, we have developed new
 532 techniques to find DM dense regions. As described in Section 2.3.1, many DM dense regions were
 533 through observing galactic rotation curves. Our Milky Way galaxy is among DM dense regions

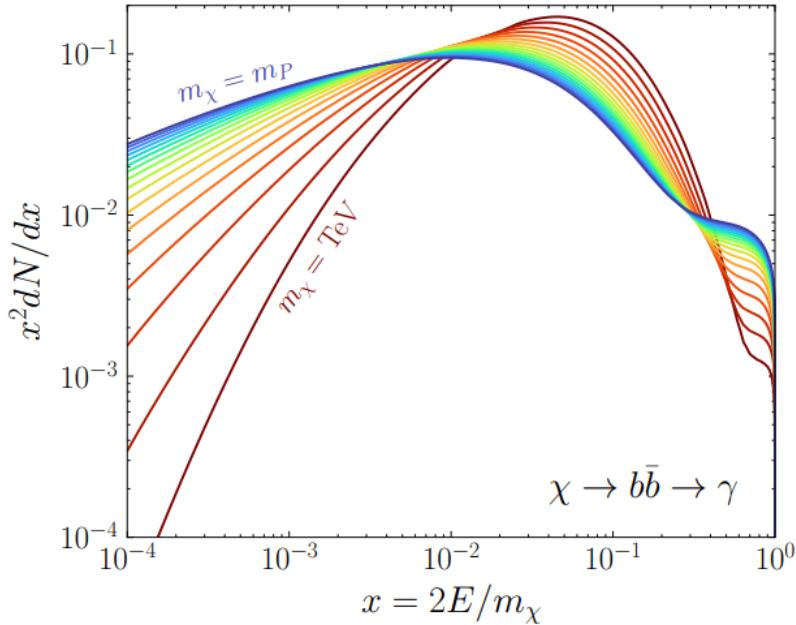


Figure 2.11 Dark Matter (DM) decay spectrum for $b\bar{b}$ initial state and γ final state. Redder spectra are for larger DM masses. Bluer spectra are light DM masses. x is a unitless factor defined as the ratio of the mass of DM, m_χ , and the final state particle energy E_γ . Figure from [19].

discovered, and it is the largest nearby DM dense region to look at. Additionally, the DM halo surrounding the Milky Way is clumpy [18]. There are regions in the DM halo of the Milky Way that have more DM than others that have captured gas over time. These sub-halos were dense enough collapse gas and form stars. These apparent sub galaxies are known as 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 assumed distribution of DM. The central DM density can vary substantially as demonstrated in Figure 2.12. At distances close to the center of the galaxy, or small r , the differences in DM densities can be 3-4 orders of magnitude. Searches toward the galactic center will therefore be quite sensitive to the assumed DM distribution.

Searches toward Dwarf Spheroidal Galaxies (dSph's) suffer from uncertainties in the DM density less than the galactic center studies. This is mostly from their diminutive size being smaller than the angular resolution of most γ -ray observatories [18]. The DM content dSph's are typically determined with the Virial theorem, Equation (2.1), and are usually majority DM [18] in mass. DSph's tend to be ideal sources to look at for DM searches. Their environments are quiet with little

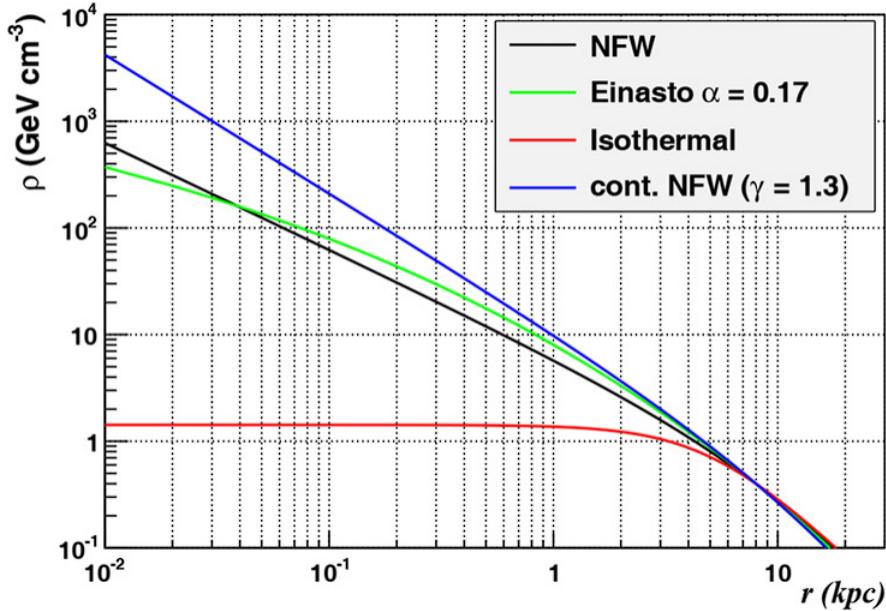


Figure 2.12 Different dark matter density profiles compared. Some models produce exceptionally large densities at small r [20].

548 astrophysical background. Unlike the galactic center, the most active components of dSph's are the
 549 stars within them versus a violent accretion disc around a black hole. All this together means that
 550 dSph's are among the best sources to look at for indirect DM searches. dSph's are the targets of
 551 focus for this thesis.

552 2.6 Multi-Messenger Dark Matter

553 Astrophysics entered a new phase in the past few decades that leverages our increasing sensitivity
 554 to SM channels and general relativity (GR). Up until the 21st century, astrophysical observations
 555 were performed with photons (γ) only. Astrophysics with this 'messenger' is fairly mature now.
 556 Novel observations of the universe have since only adjusted the sensitivity of the wavelength of
 557 light that is observed except at MeV energies. Gems like the CMB [10], and more have ultimately
 558 been observations of different wavelengths of light. Multi-messenger astrophysics proposes using
 559 other SM particles such the $p^{+/-}$, or ν or gravitation waves predicted by general relativity.

560 The experiment LIGO had a revolutionary discovery in 2016 with the first detection of a binary
 561 black hole merger [21]. This opened the collective imagination to observing the universe through
 562 gravitational waves. There has also been a surge of interest in the neutrino (ν) sector. IceCube

563 demonstrated that we are sensitive to neutrinos in regions that correlate with significant photon
 564 emission like the galactic plane [22]. Neutrinos, like gravitational waves and light, travel mostly
 565 unimpeded from their source to our observatories. This makes pointing to the originating source
 566 of these messengers much easier than it is for cosmic rays which are deflected from their source by
 567 magnetic fields.

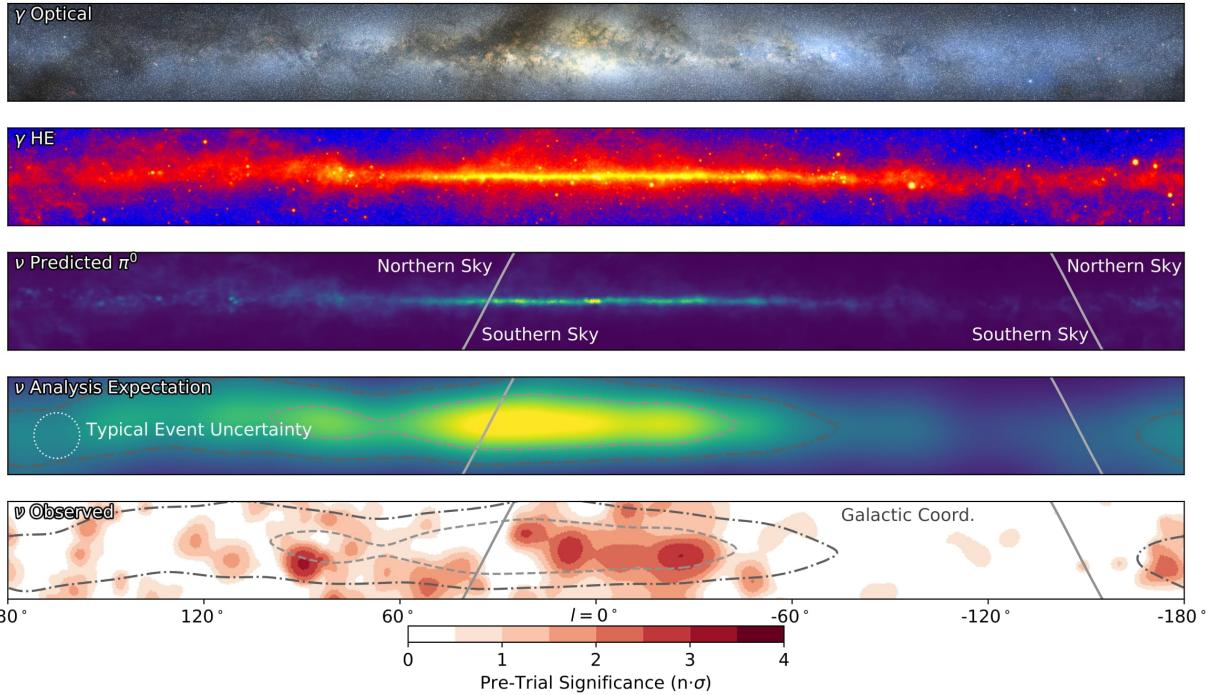


Figure 2.13 The Milky Way Galaxy in photons (γ) and neutrinos (ν) [22]. The Galactic center is at $l=0^\circ$ and is the brightest region in all panels. (top) An Optical color image of the Milky Way galaxy seen from Earth. Clouds of gas and dust obscure some light from stars. (2nd down) Integrated flux of γ -rays observed by the Fermi-LAT telescope [23]. (middle) Expected neutrino emission that corresponds with Fermi-LAT observations. (2nd up) Expected neutrino emission profile after considering detector systematics of IceCube. (bottom) Observed neutrino emission from region of the galactic plane. Substantial neutrino emission was detected.

568 The IceCube collaboration recently published a groundbreaking result of the Milky Way in
 569 neutrinos. The recent result from IceCube, shown in Figure 2.13, proves that we can make
 570 observations under different messenger regimes. The top two panels show the appearance of the
 571 galactic plane to different wavelengths of light. Some sources are more apparent in some panels,
 572 while others are not. This new channel is powerful because neutrinos are readily able to penetrate
 573 through gas and dust in the Milky Way. This new image also refines our understanding of how high

574 energy particles are produced. For example, the fit to IceCube data prefers neutrino production
 575 from the decay of π^0 [22].

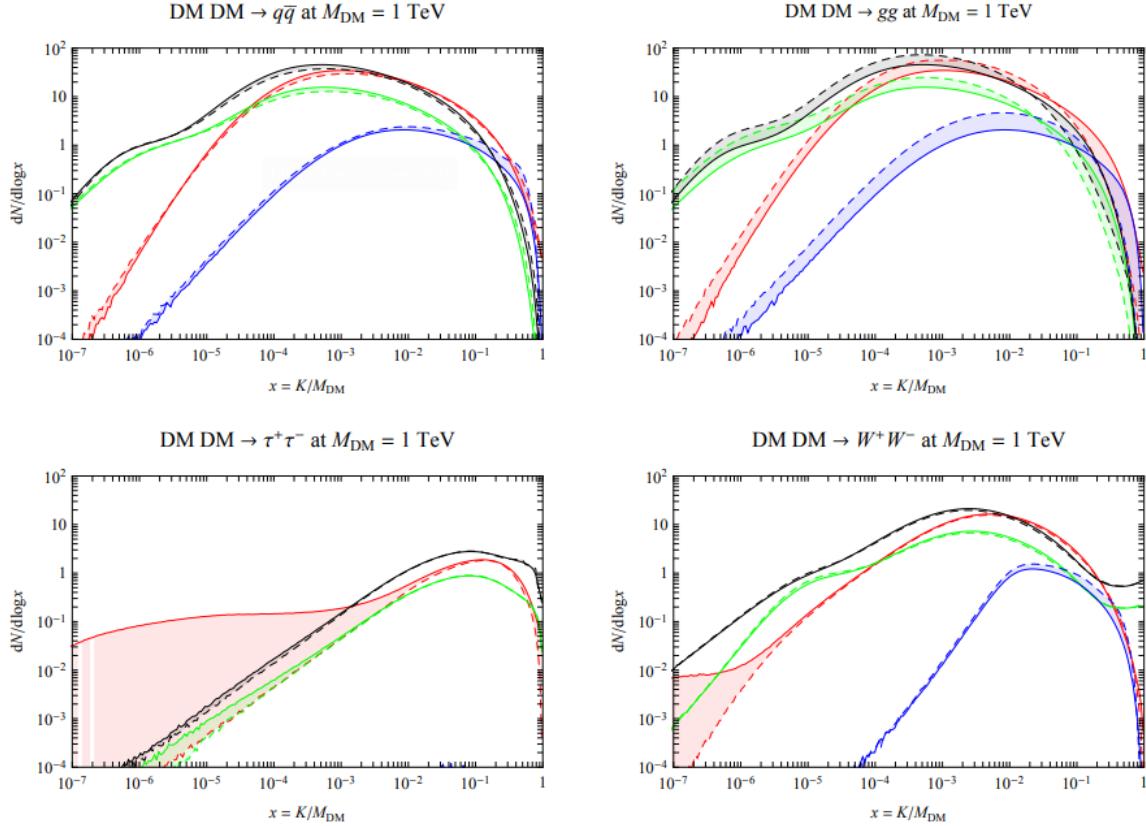


Figure 2.14 Dark Matter annihilation spectra for different final state particle and standard model annihilation channels [24]. Photons (red), e^\pm (green), \bar{p} (blue), ν (black).

576 Exposing our observations to more cosmic messengers greatly increases our sensitivity to
 577 rare processes. In the case of DM, Figure 2.14, there are many SM particles produced in DM
 578 annihilation. Among the final state fluxes are gammas and neutrinos. Charged particles are also
 579 produced however they would not likely make it to Earth since they will be deflected by magnetic
 580 fields between the source and Earth. This means observatories that can see the neutral messengers
 581 are especially good for DM searches and for combining data for a multi-messenger DM search.

CHAPTER 3

582 MULTIMESSENGER ASTROPHYSICS: DETECTING HIGH ENERGY NEUTRAL 583 MESSENGERS

584 3.1 Introduction

585 Before the 20th century, all asttrophysics observations were optical in nature. We litterly only
586 saw things with highly magnified optical observations. Then we discovered cosmic rays. cosmic
587 rays are charged particles, typically naked protons or H+. This was seen by Victor Hess in 19??.
588 Around the same time we discovered neutrinos from beta decay. Sometime around 1950 we started
589 to build neutrino detectors which were mostly sensitive to neutrinos from the sun. Finally, it was
590 theorized that compact objects like black holes and neutron stars would create waves in space-time
591 when they experience mergers or collisions.

592 In the 21st century, we have developed new observation techniques and detectors that are no only
593 sensitive to these four messengers - photons (TODO: photon), neutrinos (TODO: nu), Cosmic
594 Rays (CR), and Gravitational Wave (WV) - we're collect high energy versions of these events.
595 For the standad model particles, we're now sensitive to all messengers above the MeV eneryg
596 range. Additionally, the GW's were sensitive to are in the stellar mass black hole region and above
597 within our galactic neighborhood. This means were becoming sensitive to the fundamental physics
598 occuring within the universe and we can rely on the universe as a TeV+ particle accelerator. We
599 also have the abaility to correlate high energy events across messengers and gain new insights on
600 the processes that occur in our universe.

601 This thesis focuses on very high energy (VHE) gamma rays and neutrinos. These can both be
602 observed through the water cherenkov detection technique altho not exclusively. Methods on how
603 to detect and observe these neutral messengers are discussed Section 3.3 and Section 3.4

604 3.2 Charged Particles in a Medium

605 For high enery gamma-rays and neutrinos, we can exploit the same effect that charged particles
606 have with water. This effect is known as Cherenkov radiation. Cherenkov Radiation occurs when a
607 charged particle, usually electrons (e) or muons (μ), traverse a medium, like water, faster than the

608 speed of light in that medium. This is similar to sonic boom where an object moves through air
609 faster than the speed of sound in air. Cherenkov radiation can therefore be thought of as an 'optic
610 boom'. Many astro-particle physics experiments will use water as the medium as because water
611 has a unique set of properties ideal for charged particle tracking.



Figure 3.1 TODO: Show a nuclear reactor with cherenkov radiation[NEEDS A SOURCE][FACT CHECK THIS]

612 The frequency of light emitted due to cherenkov radiation follows the equation:

$$INSERT\ Cherenkov\ wavelength\ calc\ HERE. \quad (3.1)$$

613 The absorption spectra is shown in the following figure:

614 **3.3 Photons (γ)**

615 **3.4 Neutrinos (ν)**

616 **3.5 Opportunities to Combine for Dark Matter**



Figure 3.2 TODO: absorption spectrum of liquid and solid water[NEEDS A SOURCE][FACT CHECK THIS]

CHAPTER 4

617 **HIGH ALTITUDE WATER CHERENKOV (HAWC) OBSERVATORY**

618 **4.1 The Detector**

619 **4.2 Events Reconstruction and Data Acquisition**

620 **4.2.1 G/H Discrimination**

621 **4.2.2 Angle**

622 **4.2.3 Energy**

623 **4.3 Remote Monitoring**

624 **4.3.1 ATHENA Database**

625 **4.3.2 HOMER**

626

CHAPTER 5

ICECUBE NEUTRINO OBSERVATORY

627 **5.1 The Detector**

628 **5.2 Events Reconstruction and Data Acquisition**

629 **5.2.1 Angle**

630 **5.2.2 Energy**

631 **5.3 Northern Test Site**

632 **5.3.1 PIgeon remote dark rate testing**

633 **5.3.2 Bulkhead Construction**

634

CHAPTER 6

COMPUTATIONAL TECHNIQUES IN PARTICLE ASTROPHYSICS

635 **6.1 Neural Networks for Gamma/Hadron Separation**

636 **6.2 Parallel Computing for Dark Matter Analyses**

CHAPTER 7

637 **GLORY DUCK: MULTI-WAVELENGTH SEARCH FOR DARK MATTTER** 638 **ANNIHILATION TOWARDS DWARF SPHEROIDAL GALAXIES**

639 **7.1 Introduction**

640 The field of astrophysics now has several instruments and observatories sensitive to high
641 energy gamma-rays. The energy sensitivity for the modern gamma-ray program spans many orders
642 of magnitude. Figure 7.1 demonstrates these similar sensitivities across energies for the five
643 experiments: Fermi-LAT, HAWC, HESS, MAGIC, and VERITAS.

644 Each of the five experiments featured in Figure 7.1 have independently searched for DM
645 annihilation from dwarf spheroidal galaxies (dSph) and set limits. Intriguingly, there are regions of
646 substantial overlap in their energy sensitivities. This clearly motivates an analysis that combines data
647 from these five. Each experiment has unique gamma-ray detection methods and their weaknesses
648 and strengths can be leveraged with each other. The HAWC gamma-ray observatory is extensively
649 introduced in chapter 4, so it is not introduced here. A brief description of the remaining experiments
650 are in the following paragraphs.

651 The Large Area Telescope (LAT) is a pair conversion telescope mounted on the NASA Fermi
652 satellite in orbit \sim 550 km above the Earth [26]. LAT's field of view covers about 20% of the
653 whole sky, and it sweeps the whole sky approximately every 3 hours. LAT's gamma-ray energy
654 sensitivity ranges from 20 MeV up to 1 TeV. Previous DM searches towards dSphs using Fermi-LAT
655 are published in [27] and [28]

656 The High Energy Spectroscopic System (HESS), Major Atmospheric Gamma Imaging
657 Cherenkov (MAGIC), and Very Energetic Radiation Imaging Telescope Array System (VERI-
658 TAS) are arrays of Imaging Atmospheric Cherenkov Telescopes (IACT). These telescopes observe
659 the Cherenkov light emitted from gamma-ray showers in the Earth's atmosphere. The field of
660 view for these telescopes is no larger than 5° with energy sensitivities ranging from 30 GeV up
661 to 100 TeV [29, 30, 31]. IACTs are able to make precise observations in selected regions of the
662 sky, however can only be operated in ideal dark conditions. HESS's observations of the dwarves

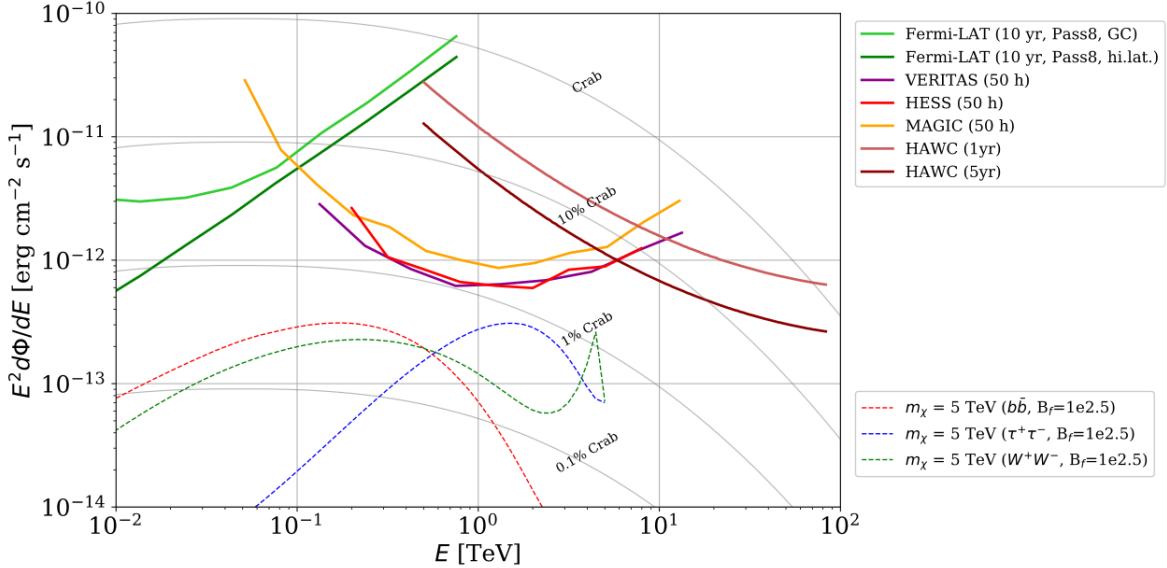


Figure 7.1 Sensitivities of five gamma-ray experiments compared to percentages of the Crab nebula’s emission and dark matter annihilation. Solid lines present estimated sensitivities to power law spectra [FACT CHECK THIS] for each experiment. Green lines are Fermi-LAT sensitivities where lighter green is the sensitivity to the galactic center and dark green is its sensitivity to higher declinations. Orange, red, and purple solid lines represent the MAGIC, HESS, and VERITAS 50 hour sensitivities respectively. The maroon and brown lines are the HAWC 1 year and 5 year sensitivities. Across four decades of gamma-ray energy, these experiments have similar sensitivities on the order 10^{-12} erg $\text{cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$. The dotted lines are estimated dark matter fluxes assuming $m_\chi = 5$ TeV DM annihilating to bottom quarks (red), tau leptons (blue), and W bosons (green). Faded gray lines outline percentage flux of the Crab nebula. Figure is an augmented version of [25]

663 Sculptor and Carina were between January 2008 and December 2009. HESS’s observations of
 664 Coma Berenices were from 2010 to 2013, and Fornax was observed in 2010 [32, 33, 34]. MAGIC
 665 provided deep observations of Segue1 between 2011 and 2013 [35]. MAGIC also provides data
 666 for three dwarves: Coma Berenices, Draco, and Ursa Major II where observations were made
 667 in: January - June 2019 [36], March - September 2018 [36], and 2014 - 2016 [37] respectively.
 668 VERITAS provided data for Boötes I, Draco, Segue 1, and Ursa Minor from 2009 to 2016 [38].

669 This chapter presents the Glory Duck analysis, the name given for the search for dark matter
 670 annihilation from dSph by combining data from the five gamma-ray observatories: Fermi-LAT,
 671 HAWC, HESS, MAGIC, and VERITAS. Specifically, the methods in analysis and modeling are
 672 presented for the HAWC gamma-ray observatory. This work was published to the Journal of
 673 Cosmology and Astroparticle Physics and presented at the International Cosmic Ray Conference

674 in 2019, 2021, and 2023 [39, 40, 41] and others.

675 **7.2 Dataset and Background**

676 This section enumerates the data and background methods used for HAWC’s study of dSphs.

677 Section 7.2.1 and Section 7.2.2 are most useful for fellow HAWC collaborators looking to replicate

678 the Glory Duck analysis.

679 **7.2.1 Itemized HAWC files**

680 • Detector Resolution: [response_aerie_svn_27754_systematics_best_mc_test_no
broadpulse_10pctlogchargesmearing_0.63qe_25kHzNoise_run5481_curvatu
re0_index3.root](#)

683 • Data Map: [maps-20180119/liff/maptree_1024.root](#)

684 • Spectral Dictionary: [DM_CirrelliSpectrum_dict_gammas.npy](#)

685 • Analysis wiki: https://private.hawc-observatory.org/wiki/index.php/Glory_Duck_Multi-Experiment_Dark_Matter_Search

687 **7.2.2 Software Tools and Development**

688 This analysis was performed using HAL and 3ML [42, 43] in Python version 2. I built software
689 to implement the *A Poor Particle Physicist Cookbook for Dark Matter Indirect Detection* (PPPC)
690 [44] DM spectral model and dSphs spatial model from [45] for HAWC analysis. A NumPy version
691 of this dictionary was made for both Py2 and Py3. The code base for creating this dictionary is
692 linked on my GitLab sandbox:

693 • Py2: [Dictionary Generator \(Deprecated\)](#)

694 • Py3: [PPPC2Dict](#)

695 The analysis was performed using the f_{hit} framework performed in the HAWC Crab paper
696 [42]. The Python2 NumPy dictionary file for gamma-ray final states is [dmCirSpecDict.npy](#). The
697 corresponding Python3 file is [DM_CirrelliSpectrum_dict_gammas.npy](#). These files can also

698 be used for decay channels and the PPPC describes how [44]. All other software used for data
699 analysis, DM profile generation, and job submission to SLURM are also kept in my sandbox for
700 [the Glory Duck](#) project.

701 **7.2.3 Data Set and Background Description**

702 The HAWC data maps used for this analysis contain 1017 days of data between runs 2104
703 (2014-11-26) and 7476 (2017-12-20). They were generated from pass 4.0 reconstruction. The
704 analysis is performed using the f_{hit} energy binning scheme with bins (1-9) similar to what was done
705 for the Crab and previous HAWC dSph analysis [42, 46]. Bin 0 was excluded as it has substantial
706 hadronic contamination and poor angular resolution.

707 This analysis was done on dSphs because of their large DM mass content relative to baryonic
708 mass. We consider the following to estimate the background to this study.

- 709 • The dSphs are small in HAWC’s field of view, so the analysis is not sensitive to large or small
710 scale anisotropies.
- 711 • The dSphs used in this analysis are off the galactic plane.
- 712 • The dSphs are baryonically faint relative to their expected dark matter content and are not
713 expected to contain high energy gamma-ray sources.

714 Therefor we make no additional assumptions on the background from our sources and use
715 HAWC’s standard direct integration method for background estimation [42]. It is possible for
716 gamma rays from DM annihilation to scatter in transit to HAWC via Inverse Compton Scattering
717 (ICS). This was investigated and its impact on the flux is basically zero. Supporting information
718 on this is in Section 7.7.1

719 **7.3 Analysis**

720 The expected differential photon flux from DM-DM annihilation to standard model particles,
721 $d\Phi_\gamma/dE_\gamma$, over solid angle, Ω is described by the familiar equation.

$$\frac{d\Phi_\gamma}{dE_\gamma} = \frac{\langle\sigma v\rangle}{8\pi m_\chi^2} \frac{dN_\gamma}{dE_\gamma} \times \int_{\text{source}} d\Omega \int_{l.o.s} \rho_\chi^2 dl(r, \theta') \quad (7.1)$$

722 Where $\langle \sigma v \rangle$ is the velocity weighted annihilation cross-section. $\frac{dN}{dE}$ is the expected differential
 723 number of photons produced at each energy per annihilation. m_χ is the rest mass of the supposed
 724 DM particle. ρ_χ is the DM density. J is the astrophysical J-factor and is defined as

$$J = \int d\Omega \int_{l.o.s} dl \rho_\chi^2(r, \theta') \quad (7.2)$$

725 l is the distance to the source from Earth. r is the radial distance from the center of the source. θ' is
 726 the half angle defining a cone containing the DM source. How each component is synthesized and
 727 considered for HAWC's analysis is presented in the following sections. Section 7.3.1 presents the
 728 particle physics model for DM annihilation. Section 7.3.2 presents the spatial distributions built
 729 for each dSph.

730 7.3.1 $\frac{dN_\gamma}{dE_\gamma}$ - Particle Physics Component

731 For these spectra, we import the PPPC with Electroweak (EW) corrections [44]. The spectrum
 732 is implemented as a model script in astromodels for 3ML. The EW corrections were previously not
 733 considered for HAWC and are significant for DM annihilating to EW coupled SM particles such
 734 as all leptons, and the γ , Z , and W bosons [46]. Figure 7.2 demonstrates the significance of EW
 735 corrections for W boson annihilation. Across EW SM channels, the gamma-ray spectra become
 736 harder than spectra without EW corrections. Tables from the PPPC were reformatted into Python
 737 NumPy dictionaries for collaboration-wide use. A class in astromodels was developed to include
 738 the EW correction from the PPPC and is aptly named `PPPCSpectra` within `DM_models.py`.

739 7.3.2 J - Astrophysical Component

740 The J-factor profiles for each source are imported from Geringer-Sameth (referred to with \mathcal{GS})
 741 [45]. These were pulled from the publication as $J(\theta)$, where θ is the angular separation from the
 742 center of the source. HAWC requires maps in terms of $\frac{dJ}{d\Omega}$, so the conversion from the maps was
 743 done in the following way...

744 First, convert the angular distances to solid angles

$$\Omega = 2 \cdot \pi(1 - \cos(\theta)) \quad (7.3)$$

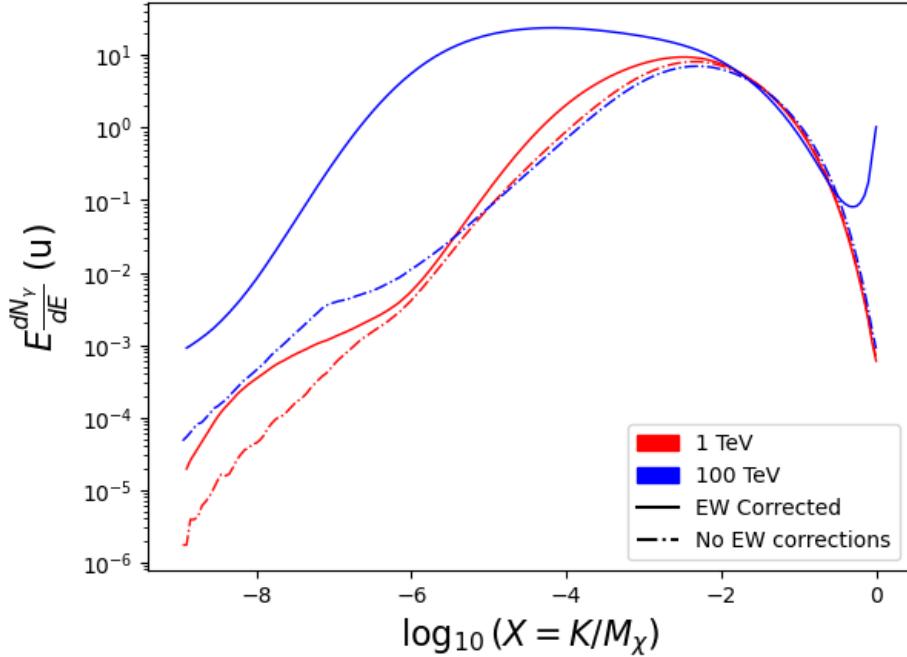


Figure 7.2 Effect of Electroweak (EW) corrections on expected DM annihilation spectrum for $\chi\chi \rightarrow W^-W^+$. Solid lines are spectral models that consider EW corrections. Dash-dot lines are spectral models without EW corrections. Red lines are models for $M_\chi = 1$ TeV. Blue lines represent models for $M_\chi = 100$ TeV. All models are sourced from the PPPC4DMID [44].

745 which reduces with a small angle approximation to $\pi\theta^2$. Next, the central difference for both the
 746 ΔJ and $\Delta\Omega$ value were calculated from the discretized $J(\theta)$ with the central difference stencil:

$$\Delta\phi_i = \phi_{i+1} - \phi_{i-1} \quad (7.4)$$

747 Where ϕ is either Ω or J . These were done separately in case the grid spacing in θ was not uniform.
 748 Finally, these lists are divided so that we are left with an approximation of the $dJ/d\Omega$ profile that
 749 is a function of θ . Admittedly, this is an approximation method for the map which introduces small
 750 errors compared to the true profile estimate. This was checked as a systematic against the author's
 751 profiling of the spatial distribution and is documented in Section 7.8.1.

752 With $\frac{dJ}{d\Omega}(\theta)$, a map is generated, first by filling in the north-east quadrant of the map. This
 753 quadrant is then reflected twice, vertically then horizontally, to fill the full map. Maps are then
 754 normalized by dividing the discrete 2D integral of the map. The 2D integral was a simple height

755 of bins, Newton’s integral:

$$p^2 \cdot \sum_{i,j=0}^{N,M} \frac{dJ}{d\Omega}(\theta_{i,j}, \phi_{i,j}) \quad (7.5)$$

756 These maps are HEALpix maps with NSIDE 16384 and saved in the `.fits` format.

757 Another DM spatial distribution model from Bonnivard (\mathcal{B}) [47] was used for the Glory Duck
758 study. However, to save computational time, limits from \mathcal{GS} were scaled to \mathcal{B} instead of each
759 experiment performing a full study a second time. How these models compare is demonstrated
760 for each dSph in Figure 7.16 and Figure 7.17 Plots of these maps are provided for each source
761 in chapter A Examples of the two most impactful dSphs derived from \mathcal{GS} , Segue1 and Coma
762 Berenices are featured in Figure 7.3

763 7.3.3 Source Selection and Annihilation Channels

764 We use many of the dSphs presented in HAWC’s previous dSph DM search [46]. HAWC’s
765 sources for Glory Duck include Boötes I, Coma Berenices, Canes Venatici I + II, Draco, Hercules,
766 Leo I, II, + IV, Segue 1, Sextans, and Ursa Major I + II. A full description of all sources used
767 in Glory Duck is found in Table 7.1. Triangulum II was excluded from the Glory Duck analysis
768 because of large uncertainties in its J factor. Ursa Minor was excluded from HAWC’s contribution
769 to the combination because the source extension model extended Ursa Minor beyond HAWC’s field
770 of view. Ursa Minor was not expected to contribute significantly to the combined limit, so work
771 was not invested in a solution to include Ursa Minor.

772 This analysis improves on the previous HAWC dSph paper [46] in the following ways. Pre-
773 viously, the dSphs were treated and implemented as point sources. For this analysis, dSphs are
774 modeled and treated as extended source. The impact of this change with respect to the upper limit
775 is source dependent and is explored in Section 7.7.2. Previously, the particle physics model used for
776 gamma-ray spectra from DM annihilation did not have EW corrections where the PPPC includes
777 them. Finally, the gamma-ray ray dataset is much larger. The study performed here analyzes over
778 1000 days of data compared to 507.

779 The SM annihilation channels probed for the Glory Duck combination include $b\bar{b}$, $e\bar{e}$, $\mu\bar{\mu}$, $\tau\bar{\tau}$,
780 $t\bar{t}$, W^+W^- , and ZZ . A summary of all sources, with a description of each experiments’ sensitivity

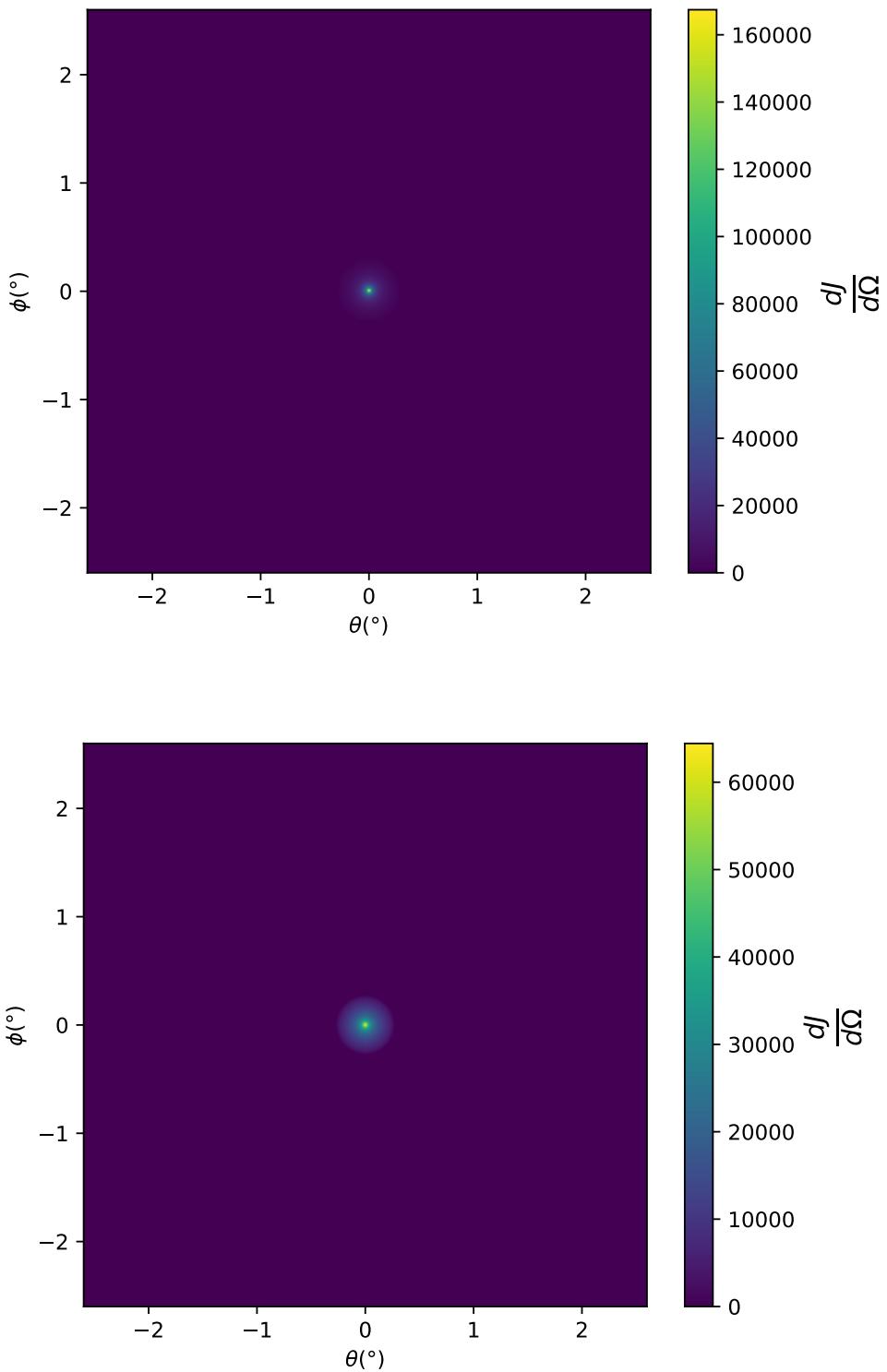


Figure 7.3 $\frac{dJ}{d\Omega}$ maps for Segue1 (top) and Coma Berenices (bottom). Origin is centered on the specific dwarf spheroidal galaxies (dSph). X and Y axes are the angular separation from the center of the dwarf. Plots of the remaining 11 dSph HAWC studied are linked in Fig. A.1.

Table 7.1 Summary of the relevant properties of the dSphs used in the present work. Column 1 lists the dSphs. Columns 2 and 3 present their heliocentric distance and galactic coordinates, respectively. Columns 4 and 5 report the J -factors of each source given from the \mathcal{GS} and \mathcal{B} independent studies and their estimated $\pm 1\sigma$ uncertainties. The values $\log_{10} J$ (\mathcal{GS} set) [45] correspond to the mean J -factor values for a source extension truncated at the outermost observed star. The values $\log_{10} J$ (\mathcal{B} set) [47] are provided for a source extension at the tidal radius of each dSph. **Bolded sources are within HAWC's field of view and provided to the Glory Duck analysis.**

Name	Distance (kpc)	l, b ($^{\circ}$)	$\log_{10} J$ (\mathcal{GS} set) $\log_{10}(\text{GeV}^2\text{cm}^{-5}\text{sr})$	$\log_{10} J$ (\mathcal{B} set) $\log_{10}(\text{GeV}^2\text{cm}^{-5}\text{sr})$
Boötes I	66	358.08, 69.62	$18.24^{+0.40}_{-0.37}$	$18.85^{+1.10}_{-0.61}$
Canes Venatici I	218	74.31, 79.82	$17.44^{+0.37}_{-0.28}$	$17.63^{+0.50}_{-0.20}$
Canes Venatici II	160	113.58, 82.70	$17.65^{+0.45}_{-0.43}$	$18.67^{+1.54}_{-0.97}$
Carina	105	260.11, -22.22	$17.92^{+0.19}_{-0.11}$	$18.02^{+0.36}_{-0.15}$
Coma Berenices	44	241.89, 83.61	$19.02^{+0.37}_{-0.41}$	$20.13^{+1.56}_{-1.08}$
Draco	76	86.37, 34.72	$19.05^{+0.22}_{-0.21}$	$19.42^{+0.92}_{-0.47}$
Fornax	147	237.10, -65.65	$17.84^{+0.11}_{-0.06}$	$17.85^{+0.11}_{-0.08}$
Hercules	132	28.73, 36.87	$16.86^{+0.74}_{-0.68}$	$17.70^{+1.08}_{-0.73}$
Leo I	254	225.99, 49.11	$17.84^{+0.20}_{-0.16}$	$17.93^{+0.65}_{-0.25}$
Leo II	233	220.17, 67.23	$17.97^{+0.20}_{-0.18}$	$18.11^{+0.71}_{-0.25}$
Leo IV	154	265.44, 56.51	$16.32^{+1.06}_{-1.70}$	$16.36^{+1.44}_{-1.65}$
Leo V	178	261.86, 58.54	$16.37^{+0.94}_{-0.87}$	$16.30^{+1.33}_{-1.16}$
Leo T	417	214.85, 43.66	$17.11^{+0.44}_{-0.39}$	$17.67^{+1.01}_{-0.56}$
Sculptor	86	287.53, -83.16	$18.57^{+0.07}_{-0.05}$	$18.63^{+0.14}_{-0.08}$
Segue I	23	220.48, 50.43	$19.36^{+0.32}_{-0.35}$	$17.52^{+2.54}_{-2.65}$
Segue II	35	149.43, -38.14	$16.21^{+1.06}_{-0.98}$	$19.50^{+1.82}_{-1.48}$
Sextans	86	243.50, 42.27	$17.92^{+0.35}_{-0.29}$	$18.04^{+0.50}_{-0.28}$
Ursa Major I	97	159.43, 54.41	$17.87^{+0.56}_{-0.33}$	$18.84^{+0.97}_{-0.43}$
Ursa Major II	32	152.46, 37.44	$19.42^{+0.44}_{-0.42}$	$20.60^{+1.46}_{-0.95}$
Ursa Minor	76	104.97, 44.80	$18.95^{+0.26}_{-0.18}$	$19.08^{+0.21}_{-0.13}$

781 to the source, is provided in Table 7.2.

782 7.4 Likelihood Methods

783 7.4.1 HAWC Likelihoods

784 For every analysis bin in energy, f_{hit} bins (1-9), and location, we can expect N signal events and
 785 B background events. The expected number of excess signal events from dark matter annihilation,

Table 7.2 Summary of dSph observations by each experiment used in this work. A ‘-’ indicates the experiment did not observe the dSph for this study. For Fermi-LAT, the exposure at 1 GeV is given. For HAWC, $|\Delta\theta|$ is the absolute difference between the source declination and HAWC latitude. HAWC is more sensitive to sources with smaller $|\Delta\theta|$. For IACTs, we show the zenith angle range, the total exposure, the energy range, the angular radius θ of the signal or ON region, the ratio of exposures between the background-control (OFF) and signal (ON) regions (τ), and the significance of gamma-ray excess in standard deviations, σ .

Source name	Fermi-LAT	HAWC	H.E.S.S, MAGIC, VERITAS						
	Exposure (10^{11} s m 2)	$ \Delta\theta $ (°)	IACT	Zenith (°)	Exposure (h)	Energy range (GeV)	θ (°)	τ	S (σ)
Boötes I	2.6	4.5	VERITAS	15 – 30	14.0	100–41000	0.10	8.6	-1.0
Canes Venatici I	2.9	14.6	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Canes Venatici II	2.9	15.3	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Carina	3.1	–	H.E.S.S.	27 – 46	23.7	310 – 70000	0.10	18.0	-0.3
Coma Berenices	2.7	4.9	H.E.S.S.	47 – 49	11.4	550 – 70000	0.10	14.4	-0.4
Draco	3.8	38.1	MAGIC	5 – 37	49.5	60 – 10000	0.17	1.0	–
			MAGIC	29 – 45	52.1	70 – 10000	0.22	1.0	–
			VERITAS	25 – 40	49.8	120 – 70000	0.10	9.0	-1.0
Fornax	2.7	–	H.E.S.S.	11 – 25	6.8	230 – 70000	0.10	45.5	-1.5
Hercules	2.8	6.3	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Leo I	2.5	6.7	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Leo II	2.6	3.1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Leo IV	2.4	19.5	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Leo V	2.4	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Leo T	2.6	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Sculptor	2.7	–	H.E.S.S.	10 – 46	11.8	200 – 70000	0.10	19.8	-2.2
Segue I	2.5	2.9	MAGIC	13 – 37	158.0	60 – 10000	0.12	1.0	-0.5
			VERITAS	15 – 35	92.0	80 – 50000	0.10	7.6	0.7
Segue II	2.7	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Sextans	2.4	20.6	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Ursa Major I	3.4	32.9	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Ursa Major II	4.0	44.1	MAGIC	35 – 45	94.8	120 – 10000	0.30	1.0	-2.1
Ursa Minor	4.1	–	VERITAS	35 – 45	60.4	160 – 93000	0.10	8.4	-0.1

786 S , is estimated by convolving Equation (7.1) with HAWC's energy response and pixel point spread
 788 functions. I then compute the test statistic (TS) with the log-likelihood ratio test,

$$\text{TS} = -2 \ln \left(\frac{\mathcal{L}_0}{\mathcal{L}^{\max}} \right) \quad (7.6)$$

789 where \mathcal{L}_0 is the null hypothesis, or no DM emission, likelihood. \mathcal{L}^{\max} is the best fit signal
 790 hypothesis where $\langle \sigma v \rangle$ maximizes the likelihood. We calculate the likelihood of each source and
 791 model, assuming events are Poisson distributed, with

$$\mathcal{L} = \prod_i \frac{(B_i + S_i)^{N_i} e^{-(B_i + S_i)}}{N_i!} \quad (7.7)$$

792 where S_i is the sum of expected number of signal counts. B_i is the number of background counts
 793 observed. N_i is the total number of counts.

794 I also calculate an upper limit on $\langle \sigma v \rangle$ by calculating the 95% confidence level (CL). For the
 795 CL, we define a parameter, TS_{95} , as

$$\text{TS}_{95} \equiv \sum_{\text{bins}} \left[2N \ln \left(1 + \frac{\epsilon S_{\text{ref}}}{B} \right) - 2\epsilon S_{\text{ref}} \right] \quad (7.8)$$

796 where the expected signal counts from a dSph is scaled by ϵ . S_{ref} is the expected number of excess
 797 counts in a bin from DM emission from a dSph with a corresponding annihilation cross-section,
 798 $\langle \sigma v \rangle$. We scan ϵ such that

$$2.71 = \text{TS}_{\max} - \text{TS}_{95} \quad (7.9)$$

799 7.4.2 Glory Duck Joint Likelihood

800 The joint likelihood for the 5-experiment combination was done similarly as Section 7.4.1. We
 801 calculate upper limits on $\langle \sigma v \rangle$ from the TS, Eq. (7.6), and define the likelihood ratio more generally

$$\lambda(\langle \sigma v \rangle | \mathcal{D}_{\text{dSphs}}) = \frac{\mathcal{L}(\langle \sigma v \rangle; \hat{\nu} | \mathcal{D}_{\text{dSphs}})}{\mathcal{L}(\widehat{\langle \sigma v \rangle}; \hat{\nu} | \mathcal{D}_{\text{dSphs}})} \quad (7.10)$$

802 $\mathcal{D}_{\text{dSphs}}$ is the totality of observations across experiments and dSphs. ν are the nuisance parameters
 803 which are the J factors in this study. $\widehat{\langle \sigma v \rangle}$ and $\hat{\nu}$ are the respective estimate that maximize \mathcal{L}
 804 globally. Finally, $\hat{\nu}$ is the set of nuisance parameters that maximize \mathcal{L} for a fixed value of $\langle \sigma v \rangle$.

805 The *complete* joint likelihood, \mathcal{L} that encompasses all observations from all instruments and
 806 dSphs can be factorized into *partial* functions for each dSph l (with $\mathcal{L}_{\text{dSph},l}$) and its J factor (\mathcal{J}_l):

$$\mathcal{L} (\langle \sigma v \rangle; \nu | \mathcal{D}_{\text{dSphs}}) = \prod_{l=1}^{N_{\text{dSphs}}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{dSph},l} (\langle \sigma v \rangle; J_l, \nu_l | \mathcal{D}_l) \times \mathcal{J}_l (J_l | J_{l,\text{obs}}, \sigma_{\log J_l}). \quad (7.11)$$

807 For this study, $N_{\text{dSphs}} = 20$ is the number of dSphs studied. \mathcal{D}_l are the gamma-ray observations
 808 of dSph, l . ν_l are the nuisance parameters modifying the gamma-ray observations of dSph, l ,
 809 but excludes \mathcal{J}_l . \mathcal{J}_l is the J factor for dSph, l , as defined in Equation (7.2), and it is a nuisance
 810 parameter whose value is unknown. $\log_{10} J_{l,\text{obs}}$ and $\sigma_{\log J_l}$ are obtained from fitting a log-normal
 811 function of $J_{l,\text{obs}}$ to the posterior distribution of J_l [48]. $\log_{10} J_{l,\text{obs}}$ and $\sigma_{\log J_l}$ values are provided
 812 in Table 7.1. The term \mathcal{J}_l constraining J_l is written as:

$$\mathcal{J}_l (J_l | J_{l,\text{obs}}, \sigma_{\log J_l}) = \frac{1}{\ln(10) J_{l,\text{obs}} \sqrt{2\pi} \sigma_{\log J_l}} \exp\left(-\frac{(\log_{10} J_l - \log_{10} J_{l,\text{obs}})^2}{2\sigma_{\log J_l}^2}\right). \quad (7.12)$$

813 Both the \mathcal{GS} and \mathcal{B} , displayed in Table 7.1, sets of J factors are used in this analysis. Equation (7.12)
 814 is also normalized, so it can also be interpreted as a probability density function (PDF) for $J_{l,\text{obs}}$.
 815 From Equation (7.1), we can also see that $\langle \sigma v \rangle$ and J_l are degenerate when computing $\mathcal{L}_{\text{dSph},l}$.
 816 Therefore, as noted in [49], it is sufficient to compute $\mathcal{L}_{\text{dSph},l}$ versus $\langle \sigma v \rangle$ for a fixed value of J_l .
 817 We used $J_{l,\text{obs}}(\mathcal{GS})$ reported in Tab. 7.1, in order to perform the profile of \mathcal{L} with respect to J_l .
 818 The degeneracy implies that for any $J'_l \neq J_{l,\text{obs}}$ (in practice in our case we used $J'_l = J_{l,\text{obs}}(\mathcal{B})$ to
 819 compute results from a different set of J factors):

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{dSph},l} (\langle \sigma v \rangle; J'_l, \nu_l | \mathcal{D}_l) = \mathcal{L}_{\text{dSph},l} \left(\frac{J'_l}{J_{l,\text{obs}}} \langle \sigma v \rangle; J_{l,\text{obs}}, \nu_l | \mathcal{D}_l \right), \quad (7.13)$$

820 which is a straightforward rescaling operation that reduces the computational needs of the profiling
 821 operation since:

$$\mathcal{L} (\langle \sigma v \rangle; \hat{\nu} | \mathcal{D}_{\text{dSphs}}) = \prod_{l=1}^{N_{\text{dSphs}}} \max_{J_l} \left[\mathcal{L}_{\text{dSph},l} (\langle \sigma v \rangle; J_l, \hat{\nu}_l | \mathcal{D}_l) \times \mathcal{J}_l (J_l | J_{l,\text{obs}}, \sigma_{\log J_l}) \right]. \quad (7.14)$$

822 In addition, Eq. (7.13) enables the combination of data from different gamma-ray instruments and
 823 observed dSphs via tabulated values of $\mathcal{L}_{\text{dSph},l}$, or equivalently of λ from Eq. (7.10) as was done in

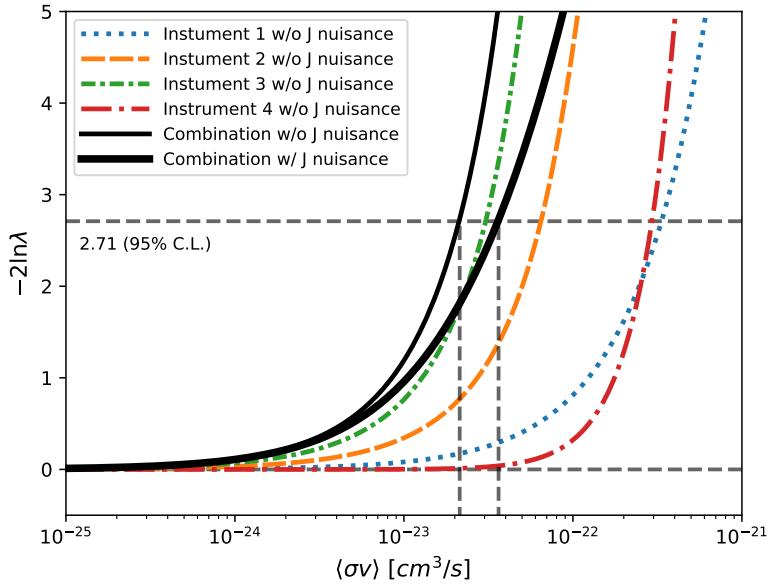


Figure 7.4 Illustration of the combination technique showing a comparison between $-2 \ln \lambda$ provided by four instruments (colored lines) from the observation of the same dSph without any J nuisance and their sum, *i.e.* the resulting combined likelihood (thin black line). According to the test statistics of Equation (7.6), the intersection of the likelihood profiles with the line $-2 \ln \lambda = 2.71$ indicates the 95% C.L. upper limit on $\langle\sigma v\rangle$. The combined likelihood (thin black line) shows a smaller value of upper limit on $\langle\sigma v\rangle$ than those derived by individual instruments. We also show how the uncertainties on the J factor effects the combined likelihood and degrade the upper limit on $\langle\sigma v\rangle$ (thick black line). All likelihood profiles are normalized so that the global minimum $\widehat{\langle\sigma v\rangle}$ is 0. We note that each profile depends on the observational conditions in which a target object was observed. The sensitivity of a given instrument can be degraded and the upper limits less constraining if the observations are performed in non-optimal conditions such as a high zenith angle or a short exposure time.

824 this work, versus $\langle\sigma v\rangle$. $\mathcal{L}_{dSph,l}$ is computed for a fixed value of J_l and profiled with respect to all
 825 instrumental nuisance parameters ν_l , these nuisance parameters are discussed in more detail below.
 826 These values are produced by each detector independently and therefore there is no need to share
 827 sensitive low-level information used to produce them, such as event lists. Figure 7.4 illustrates the
 828 multi-instrument combination technique used in this study with a comparison of the upper limit
 829 on $\langle\sigma v\rangle$ obtained from the combination of the observations of four experiments towards one dSph
 830 versus the upper limit from individual instruments. It also shows graphically the effect of the
 831 J -factor uncertainty on the combined observations.

832 The *partial* joint likelihood function for gamma-ray observations of each dSph ($\mathcal{L}_{dSph,l}$) is

written as the product of the likelihood terms describing the $N_{\text{exp},l}$ observations performed with any of our observatories:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{dSph},l} (\langle \sigma v \rangle; J_l, \nu_l | \mathcal{D}_l) = \prod_{k=1}^{N_{\text{exp},l}} \mathcal{L}_{lk} (\langle \sigma v \rangle; J_l, \nu_{lk} | \mathcal{D}_{lk}), \quad (7.15)$$

where each \mathcal{L}_{lk} term refers to an observation of the l -th dSph with associated k -th instrument responses. $N_{\text{exp},l}$ varies from dSph to dSph and can be inferred from Table 7.2.

Each collaboration separately analyzes their data for \mathcal{D}_{lk} corresponding to dSph l and gamma-ray detector k , using as many common assumptions as possible in the analysis. HAWC's treatment was described earlier in Section 7.4.1 whereas the specifics of the remaining experiments is left to the publication. We compute the values for the likelihood functions \mathcal{L}_{lk} (see Eq. (7.15)) for a fixed value of J_l and profile over the rest of the nuisance parameters ν_{lk} . Then, values of λ from Eq. (7.10) are computed as a function of $\langle \sigma v \rangle$, and shared using a common format. Results are computed for seven annihilation channels, W^+W^- , ZZ , $b\bar{b}$, $t\bar{t}$, e^+e^- , $\mu^+\mu^-$, and $\tau^+\tau^-$ over 62 m_χ values between 5 GeV and 100 TeV provided in [44]. The $\langle \sigma v \rangle$ range is defined between 10^{-28} and $10^{-18} \text{cm}^3 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$, with 1001 logarithmically spaced values. The likelihood combination, i.e. Equation (7.11), and profile over the J -factor to compute the profile likelihood ratio λ , Equation (7.10), are carried out with two different public analysis software packages, namely `gLike` [50] and `LklCom` [51], that provide the same results [52].

As mentioned previously, each experiment computes the \mathcal{L}_{lk} from Equation (7.10) differently. The remainder of this section highlights the differences in this calculation across the experiments. Four experiments, namely *Fermi*-LAT, H.E.S.S., HAWC and MAGIC, use a binned likelihood to compute the \mathcal{L}_{lk} . For these experiments, for each observation \mathcal{D}_{lk} of a given dSph l carried out using a given gamma-ray detector k , the binned likelihood function is:

$$\mathcal{L}_{lk} (\langle \sigma v \rangle; J_l, \nu_{lk} | \mathcal{D}_{lk}) = \prod_{i=1}^{N_E} \prod_{j=1}^{N_P} \left[\mathcal{P}(s_{lk,ij}(\langle \sigma v \rangle, J_l, \nu_{lk}) + b_{lk,ij}(\nu_{lk}) | N_{lk,ij}) \right] \times \mathcal{L}_{lk,\nu} (\nu_{lk} | \mathcal{D}_{\nu_{lk}}) \quad (7.16)$$

where N_E and N_P are the number of considered bins in reconstructed energy and arrival direction, respectively; \mathcal{P} represents a Poisson PDF for the number of gamma-ray candidate events $N_{lk,ij}$

856 observed in the i -th bin in energy and j -th bin in arrival direction, when the expected number is
 857 the sum of the expected mean number of signal events s_{ij} (produced by DM annihilation) and of
 858 background events b_{ij} ; $\mathcal{L}_{lk,\nu}$ is the likelihood term for the extra ν_{lk} nuisance parameters that vary
 859 from one instrument k to another. The expected counts for signal events s_{ij} for a given dSph l and
 860 detector k is given by:

$$s_{ij}(\langle\sigma\nu\rangle, J) = \int_{E'_{\min,i}}^{E'_{\max,i}} dE' \int_{P'_{\min,j}}^{P'_{\max,j}} d\Omega' \int_0^\infty dE \int_{\Delta\Omega_{tot}} d\Omega \int_0^{T_{\text{obs}}} dt \frac{d^2\Phi(\langle\sigma\nu\rangle, J)}{dEd\Omega} \text{IRF}(E', P' | E, P, t) \quad (7.17)$$

861 where E' and E are the reconstructed and true energies, P' and P the reconstructed and true
 862 arrival directions; $E'_{\min,i}$, $P'_{\min,j}$, $E'_{\max,i}$, and $P'_{\max,j}$ are their lower and upper limits of the i -th
 863 energy bin and the j -th arrival direction bin; T_{obs} is the (dead-time corrected) total observation
 864 time; t is the time along the observations; $d^2\Phi/dEd\Omega$ is the DM flux in the source region (see
 865 Equation (7.1)); and $\text{IRF}(E', P' | E, P, t)$ is the IRF, which can be factorized as the product of the
 866 effective collection area of the detector $A_{\text{eff}}(E, P, t)$, the PDFs for the energy estimator $f_E(E' | E, t)$,
 867 and arrival direction $f_P(P' | E, P, t)$ estimators. Note that for Fermi-LAT, HAWC, MAGIC, and
 868 VERITAS the effect of the finite angular resolution is taken into account through the convolution
 869 of $d\Phi/dEd\Omega$ with f_P in Equation (7.17), whereas in the cases of H.E.S.S. f_P is approximated by a
 870 delta function. This approximation has been made in order to maintain compatibility of the result
 871 with what has been previously published. The difference introduced by this approximation is $< 5\%$
 872 for all considered dSphs. A more comprehensive review of the differences between the analyses of
 873 different instruments can be found in [25].

874 7.5 HAWC Results

875 13 of the 20 dSphs considered for the Glory Duck analysis are within HAWC's field of view.
 876 These dSph are analyzed for emission from DM annihilation according to the likelihood method
 877 described in Section 7.4. The 13 likelihood profiles are then stacked to synthesize a combined
 878 limit on the dark matter cross-section, $\langle\sigma\nu\rangle$. This combination is done for the 7 SM annihilation
 879 channels used in the Glory Duck analysis. Figure 7.5 shows the combined limit for all annihilation
 880 channels with HAWC only observations. We also perform 300 studies of Poisson trials on the

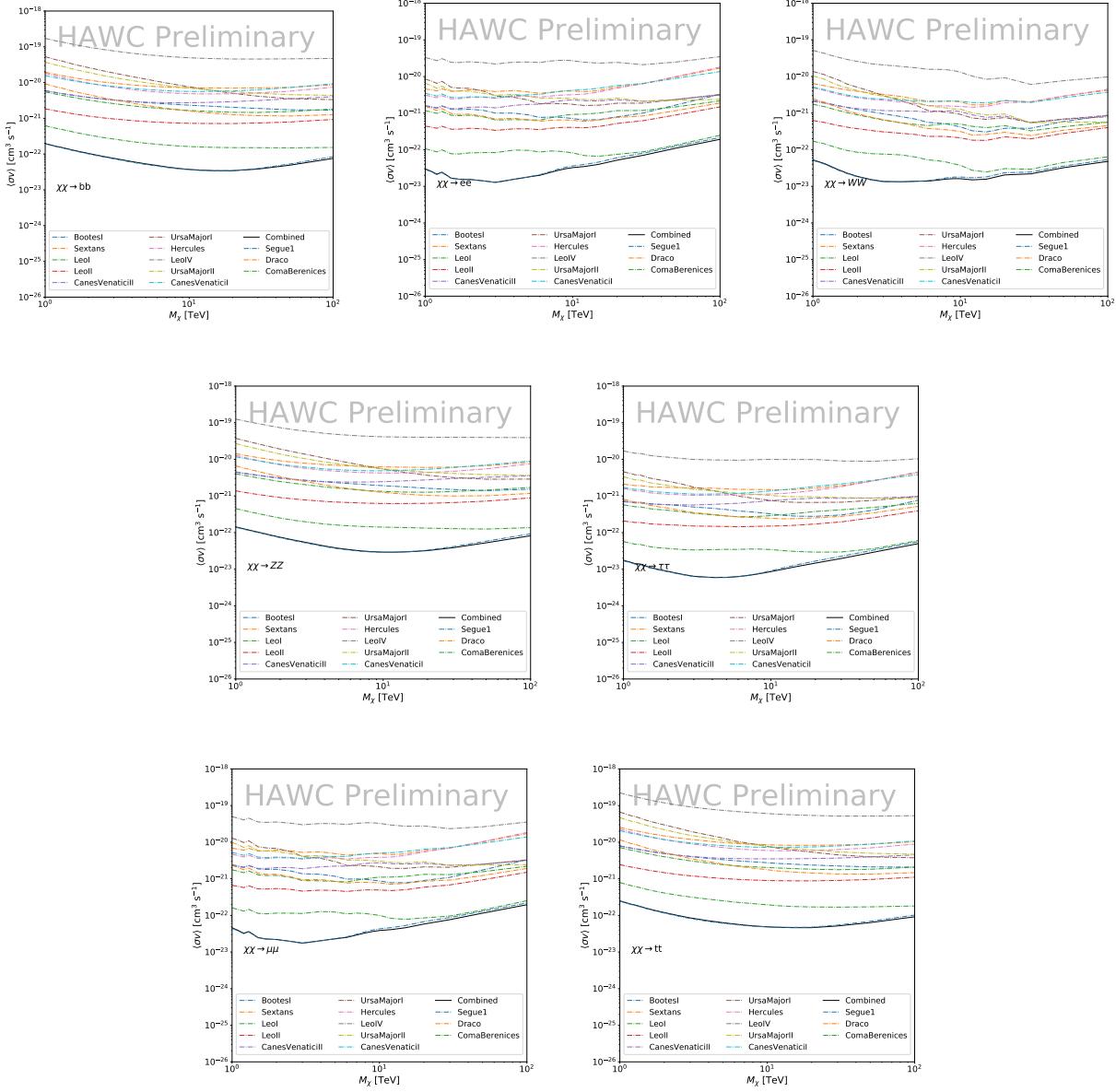


Figure 7.5 HAWC upper limits at 95% confidence level on $\langle\sigma v\rangle$ versus DM mass for seven annihilation channels, using the set of J -factors from Ref. [53]. The solid line represents the observed combined limit. Dashed lines represent limits from individual dSphs.

background. These trials are used to produce HAWC Brazil bands which were shared with the other collaborators for combined Brazil Bands. The results on fitting to HAWC's Poisson trials of the DM hypothesis is shown in Figure 7.7 for all the DM annihilation channels studied for Glory Duck.

No DM was found in HAWC observations. HAWC's limits are dominated by the dSphs Segue1

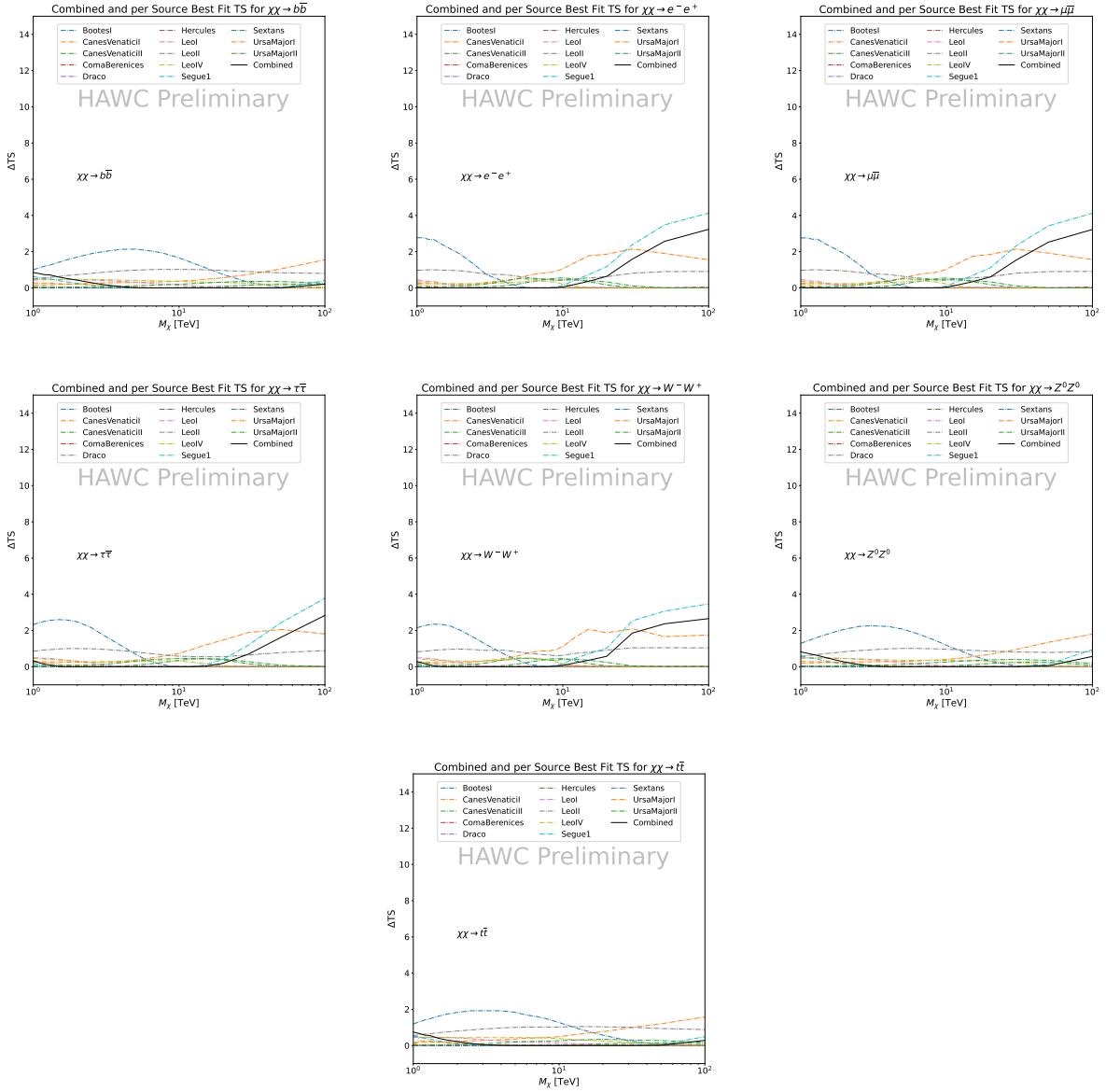


Figure 7.6 HAWC TS values for best fit $\langle \sigma v \rangle$ versus m_χ for seven SM annihilation channels with J factors from \mathcal{GS} . The solid black line shows the combined best fit TS values. The colored, dashed lines are the TS values for each of the 13 sources HAWC studied.

and Coma Berenices. The remaining 11 dSphs do not contribute significantly to the limit because they are at high zenith and/or have much smaller J factors. Even though some remaining dSphs have large J factors, they are towards the edge of HAWC's field of view where HAWC analysis is less sensitive.

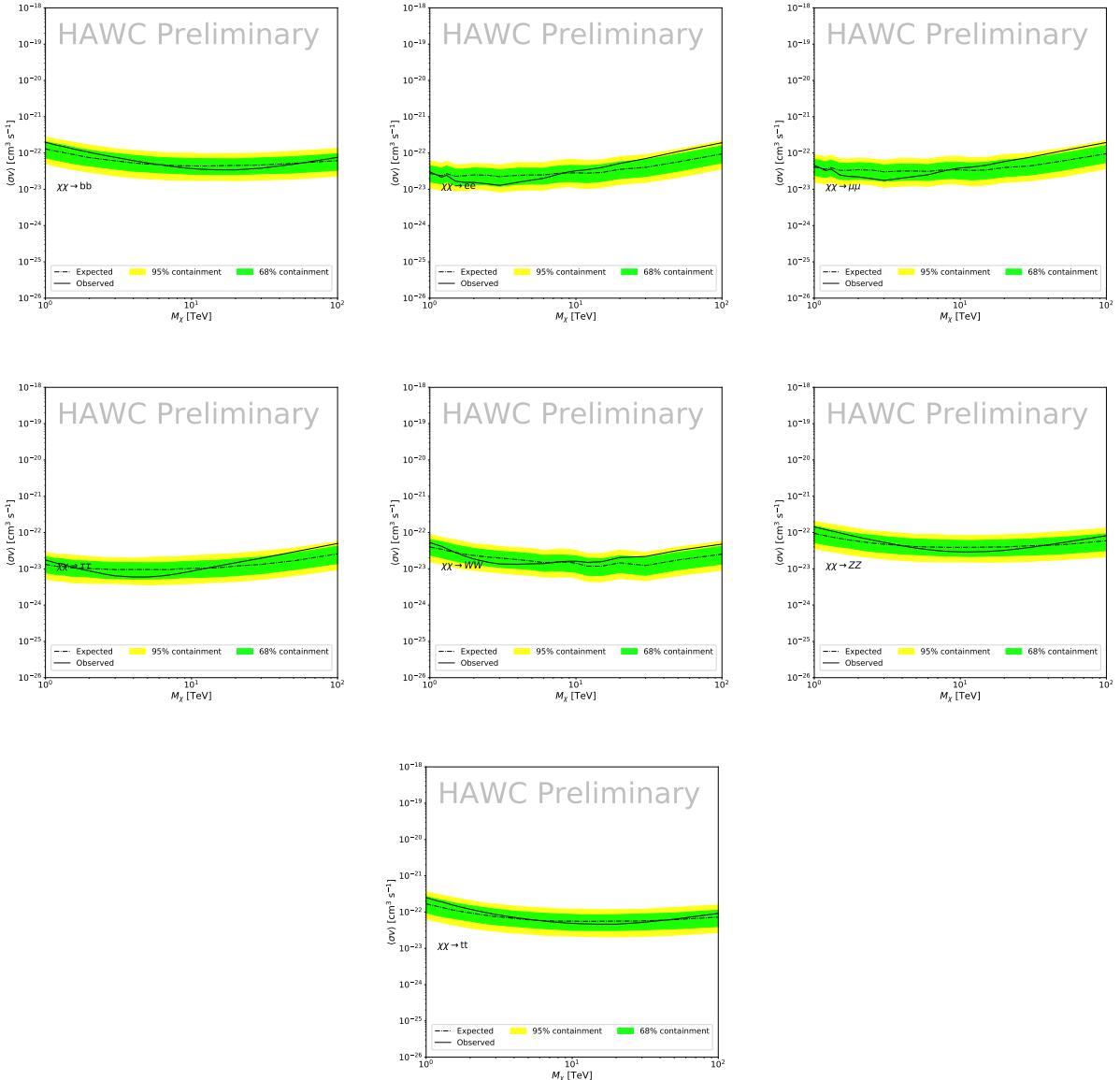


Figure 7.7 HAWC Brazil bands at 95% confidence level on $\langle\sigma v\rangle$ versus DM mass for seven annihilation channels with J -factors from \mathcal{GS} [53]. The solid line represents the combined limit from 13 dSphs. The dashed line is the expected limit. The green band is the 68% containment. The yellow band is the 95% containment.

890 7.6 Glory Duck Combined Results

891 The crux of this analysis is that HAWC's results are combined with 4 other gamma-ray observa-
 892 tories: Fermi-LAT, H.E.S.S., MAGIC, and VERITAS. No significant DM emission was observed
 893 by any of the five instruments. We present the upper limits on $\langle\sigma v\rangle$ assuming seven independent
 894 DM self annihilation channels, namely W^+W^- , Z^+Z^- , $b\bar{b}$, $t\bar{t}$, e^+e^- , $\mu^+\mu^-$, and $\tau^+\tau^-$. The 68%

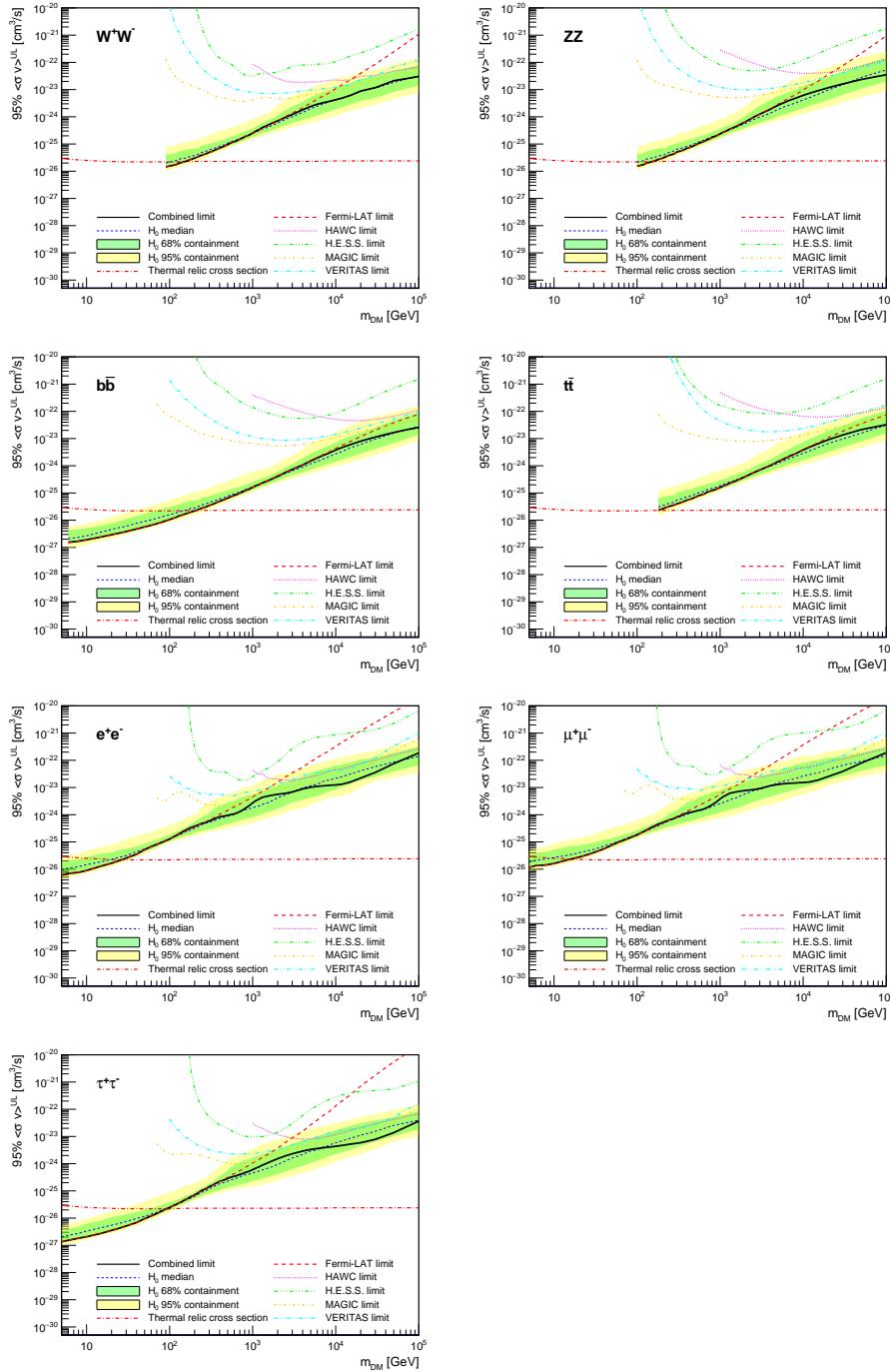


Figure 7.8 Upper limits at 95% confidence level on $\langle\sigma v\rangle$ in function of the DM mass for eight annihilation channels, using the set of J factors from Ref. [53] (\mathcal{GS} set in Table 7.1). The black solid line represents the observed combined limit, the black dashed line is the median of the null hypothesis corresponding to the expected limit, while the green and yellow bands show the 68% and 95% containment bands. Combined upper limits for each individual detector are also indicated as solid, colored lines. The value of the thermal relic cross-section in function of the DM mass is given as the red dotted-dashed line [54].

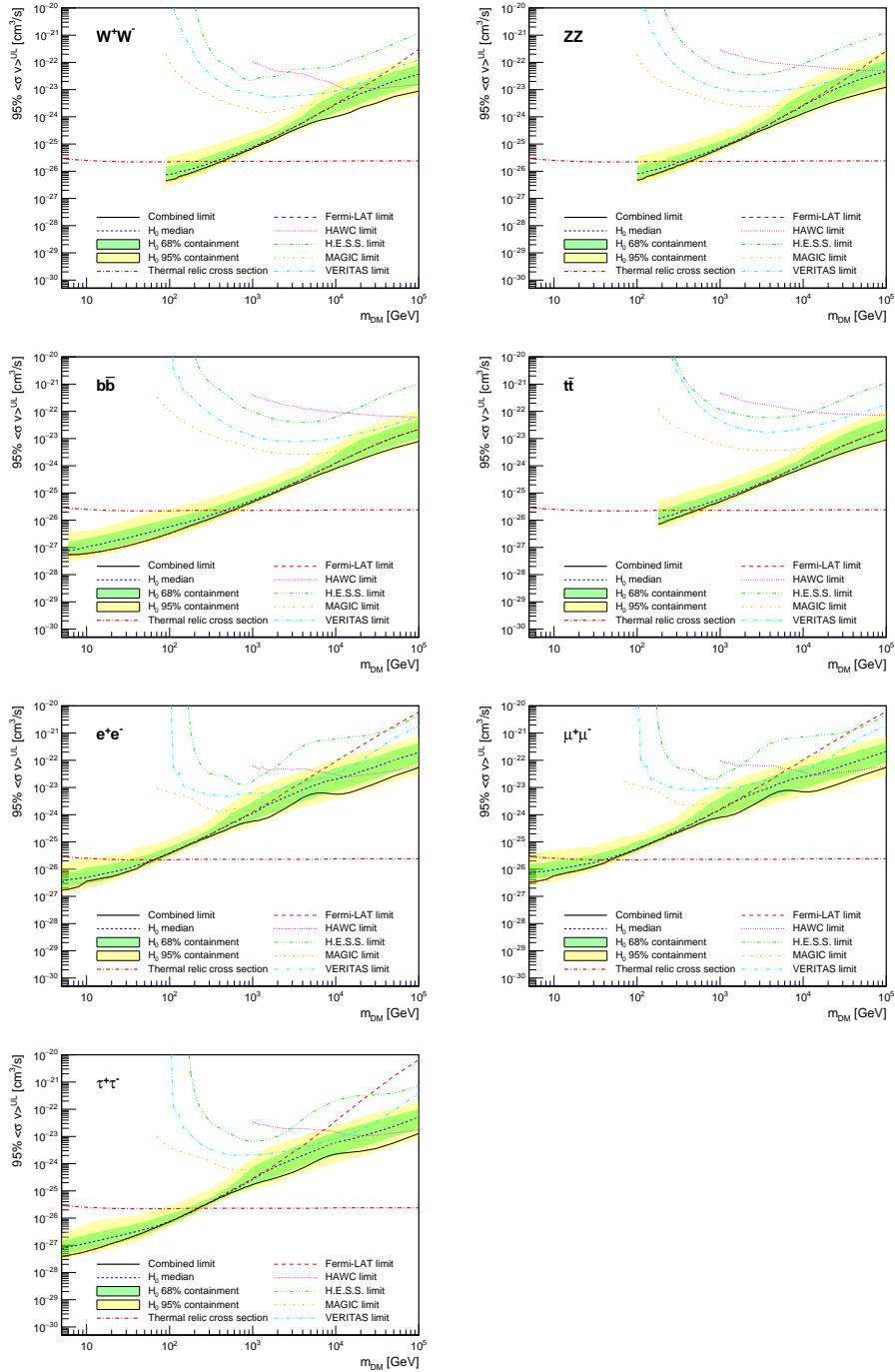


Figure 7.9 Same as Fig. 7.8, using the set of J factors from Ref. [47, 55] (\mathcal{B} set in Table 7.1).

and 95% containment bands are produced from 300 Poisson realizations of the null hypothesis corresponding to each of the combined datasets. These 300 realizations are combined identically to dSph observations. The containment bands and the median are extracted from the distribution of resulting limits on the null hypothesis. These 300 realizations are obtained either by fast simu-

899 lations of the OFF observations, for H.E.S.S., MAGIC, VERITAS, and HAWC, or taken from real
900 observations of empty fields of view in the case of Fermi-LAT [48, 56, 57].

901 The obtained limits are shown in Figure 7.8 for the $\mathcal{G}\mathcal{S}$ set of J -factors [53] and in Figure 7.9
902 for the \mathcal{B} set of J -factors [47, 55]. The combined limits are presented with their 68% and 95%
903 containment bands, and are expected to be close to the median limit when no signal is present.
904 We observe agreement with the null hypothesis for all channels, within 2σ standard deviations,
905 between the observed limits and the expectations given by the median limits. Limits obtained from
906 each detector are also indicated in the figures, where limits for all dSphs observed by the specific
907 instrument have been combined.

908 Below ~ 300 GeV, the *Fermi*-LAT dominates the DM limits for all annihilation channels. From
909 ~ 300 GeV to ~ 2 TeV, *Fermi*-LAT continues to dominate for the hadronic and bosonic DM channels,
910 yet the IACTs (H.E.S.S., MAGIC, and VERITAS) and *Fermi*-LAT all contribute to the limit for
911 leptonic DM channels. For DM masses between ~ 2 TeV to ~ 10 TeV, the IACTs dominate leptonic
912 DM annihilation channels, whereas both the *Fermi*-LAT and the IACTs dominate bosonic and
913 hadronic DM annihilation channels. From ~ 10 TeV to ~ 100 TeV, both the IACTs and HAWC
914 contribute significantly to the leptonic DM limit. For hadronic and bosonic DM, the IACTs and
915 *Fermi*-LAT both contribute strongly.

916 We notice that the limits computed using the \mathcal{B} set of J -factor are always better compared to the
917 ones calculated with the $\mathcal{G}\mathcal{S}$ set. For the W^+W^- , Z^+Z^- , $b\bar{b}$, and $t\bar{t}$ channels, the ratio between the
918 limits computed with the two sets of J -factor is varying between a factor of ~ 3 and ~ 5 depending
919 on the energy, with the largest ratio around 10 TeV. For the channels e^+e^- , $\mu^+\mu^-$, and $\tau^+\tau^-$, the
920 ratio lies between ~ 2 to ~ 6 , being maximum around 1 TeV. Examining Figure 7.16 and Figure 7.17
921 in Section 7.8, these differences are explained by the fact that the \mathcal{B} set provides higher J -factors
922 for the majority of the studied dSphs, with the notable exception of Segue I. The variation on the
923 ratio of the limits for the two sets is due to different dSph dominating the limits depending on the
924 energy. This pushes the range of thermal cross-section which can be excluded to higher mass. This
925 comparison demonstrates the magnitude of systematic uncertainties associated with the choice of

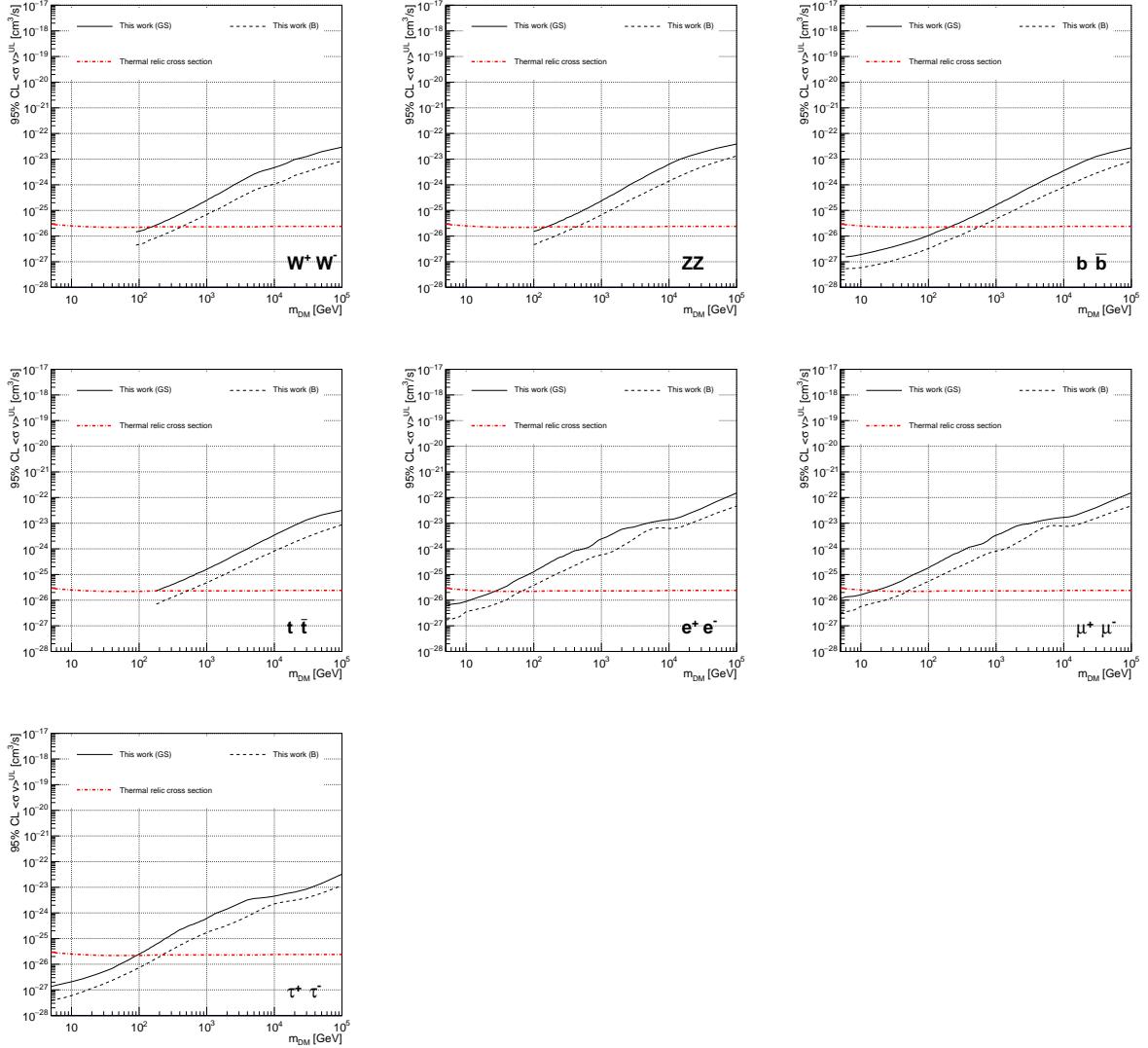


Figure 7.10 Comparisons of the combined limits at 95% confidence level for each of the eight annihilation channels when using the J factors from Ref. [53] (\mathcal{GS} set in Table 7.1), plain lines, and the J factor from Ref. [47, 55] (\mathcal{B} set in Table 7.1), dashed lines. The cross-section given by the thermal relic is also indicated [54].

926 the J -factor

927 This comparison demonstrates the magnitude of systematic uncertainties associated with the
 928 choice of the J -factor calculation. The \mathcal{GS} and \mathcal{B} sets present a difference in the limits for all
 929 channels of about This difference is explained, see Figure 7.16 and Figure 7.17 in Appendix, by the
 930 fact that the \mathcal{B} set provides higher J factors for all dSph except for Segue I. This pushes the range
 931 of thermal cross-section which can be excluded to higher mass.

932 **7.7 HAWC Systematics**

933 **7.7.1 Inverse Compton Scattering**

934 The DM-DM annihilation channels produce many high energy electrons regardless of the
935 primary annihilation channel. These high energy electrons can produce high energy gamma-rays
936 through Inverse Compton Scattering (ICS). If this effect is strong, it would change the morphology
937 of the source and increase the total expected gamma-ray counts from any source. The PPPC [44]
938 provides tools in Mathematica for calculating the impact of ICS for an arbitrary location in the
939 sky for a specified annihilation channel. We calculated the change in gamma-ray counts for DM
940 annihilation to primary $e\bar{e}$ for RA and Dec corresponding to Segue1 and Coma Berenices. These
941 dSphs were chosen because they are the strongest contributors to the limit. $e\bar{e}$ was selected because
942 it would have the largest number of high energy electrons. The effect was found to be on the order
943 of 10^{-7} on the gamma-ray spectrum. As a result, this systematic is not considered in our analysis.

944 **7.7.2 Point Source Versus Extended Source Limits**

945 The previous DM search toward dSph approximated the dSphs as point sources [46]. In
946 this analysis, the dSphs are implemented as extended with J-factor distributions following those
947 produced by [53]. The resolution of the cited map is much finer than HAWC's angular resolution.
948 The vast majority of the J-factor distribution is represented on the central HAWC pixel of the dSph
949 spatial map. However, the neighboring 8 pixels are not negligible and contribute to our limit.

950 Figure 7.11 shows a substantial improvement to the limit for Segue1. Fig. 7.12 however showed
951 identical limits. These disparities are best explained by the relative difference in their J-Factors.
952 Both dSphs pass almost overhead the HAWC detector, however Segue1 has the larger J-Factor
953 between the two. Adjacent pixels to the central pixel will therefore contribute to the limits. This is
954 the case for other dSph that are closer to overhead the HAWC detector.

955 Comparison plots for all sources and the combined limit can be found in the sandbox for the
956 Glory Duck project.

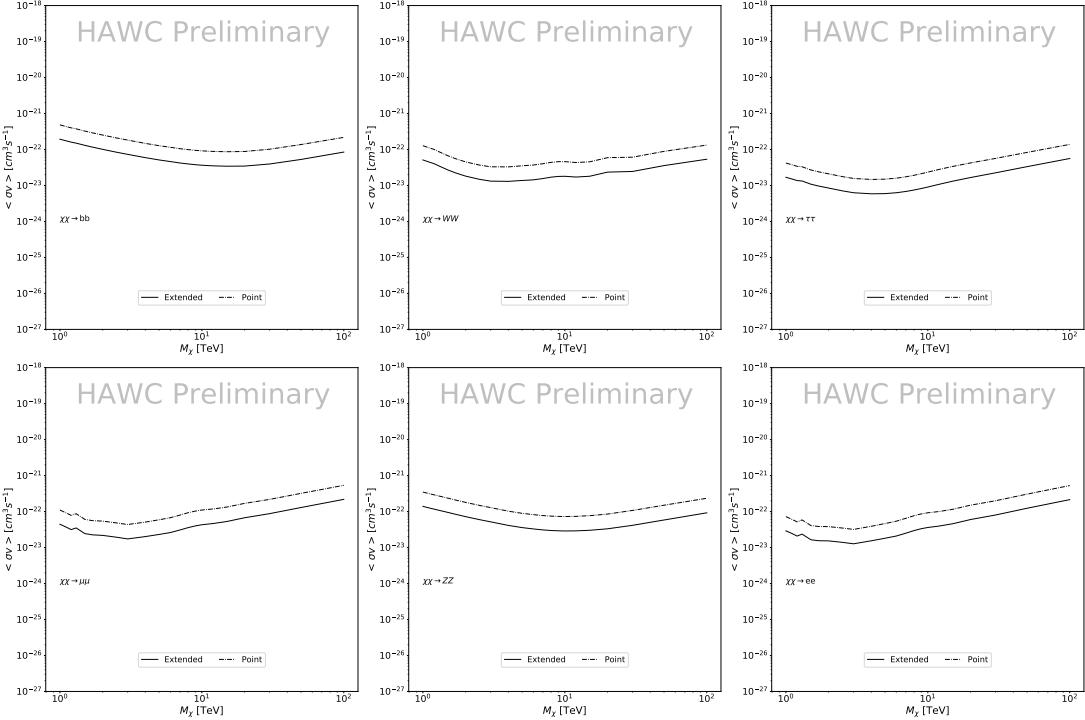


Figure 7.11 Comparisons of the combined limits at 95% confidence level for a point source analysis and extended source using [53] \mathcal{GS} J-factor distributions and PPPC [44] annihilation spectra. Shown are the limits for Segue1 which will have the most significant impact on the combined limit. 6 of the 7 DM annihilation channels are shown. Solid lines are extended source studies. Dashed lines are point source studies. Overall, the extended source analysis improves the limit by a factor of 2.

957 7.7.3 Impact of Pointing Systematic

958 During the analysis it was discovered that reconstruction of gamma-rays. Slides describing this
 959 systematic can be found [here](#). Shown on the presentation is dependence on the pointing systematic
 960 on declination. New spatial profiles were generated for every dSph and limits were computed for
 961 the adjusted declination.

962 Section 7.7.3 demonstrates the impact of this systematic for all DM annihilation channels
 963 studied by HAWC. The impact is a tiny improvement, yet mostly identical, to the combined limits.

964 7.8 J-factor distributions

965 7.8.1 Numerical integration of \mathcal{GS} maps

966 It was discovered well after the HAWC analysis was completed that the published tables from
 967 \mathcal{GS} [45] quoted median J-factors were computed in a non-trivial manner. The assumption myself

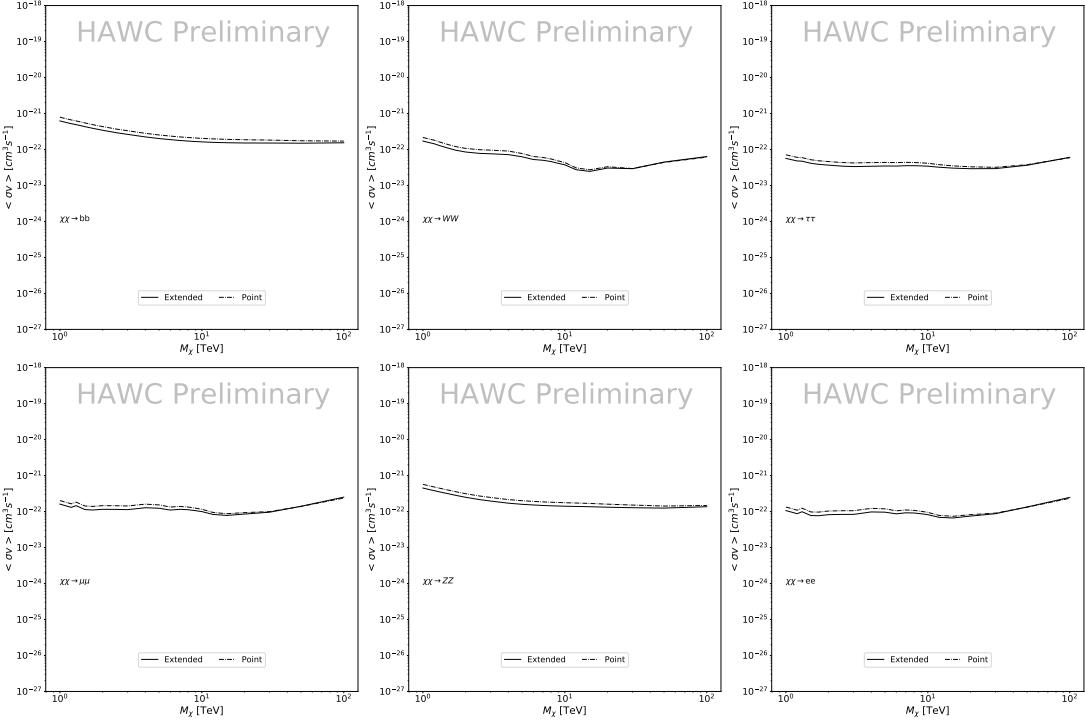


Figure 7.12 Same as Fig. 7.11 on Coma Berenices. This dSph also contributes significantly to the limit. The limits are identical in this case.

and collaborators had been that the published tables represented the J -factor as a function of θ for the best global fit model on a per-source basis. However, this is not the case. Instead, what is published are the best fit model for each dwarf that only considers stars up to the angular separation θ . Therefore, the model is changing for each value of θ for each dwarf. Yet, the introduced features from unique models at each θ are much smaller than the angular resolution of HAWC. It is not expected for these effects to impact the limits and TS greatly as a result.

Median J -factor model profiles were provided by the authors. New maps were generated and analyzed for Segue1 and Coma Berenices. Figure 7.14 shows the differential between maps generated with the method from Section 7.8.1 and from the authors of [45]. These maps were reanalyzed for all SM DM annihilation channels. Upper limits for these channels are shown in Figure 7.15

From Figure 7.15, we can see that the impact of these model difference was no substantial. The observed impact was a fractional effect which is much smaller than the impact from selecting another DM spatial distribution model as was shown in Figure 7.10.

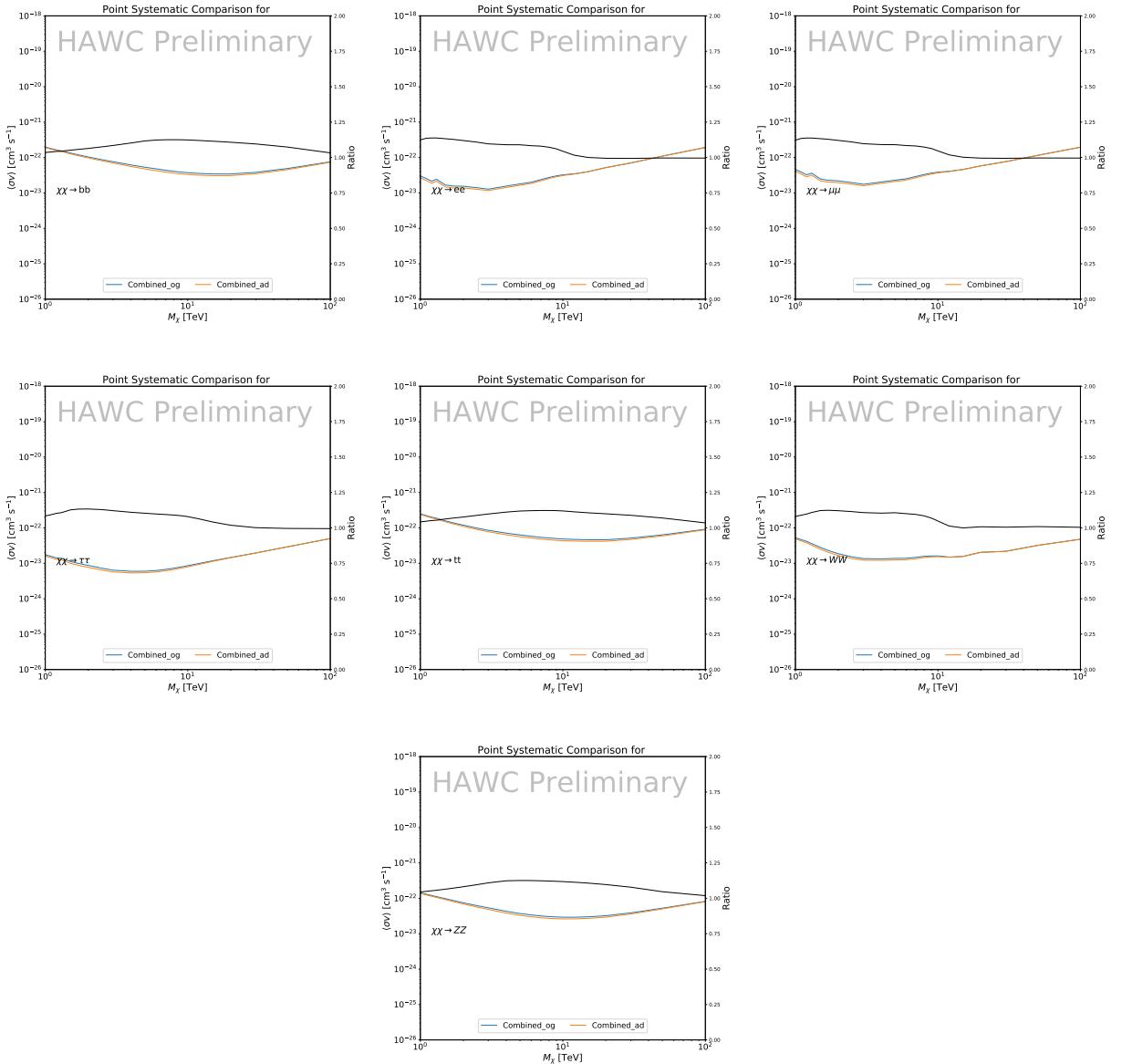


Figure 7.13 Comparison of combined limits when correcting for HAWC's pointing systematic. All DM annihilation channels are shown. The solid black line is the ratio between published limit to the declination corrected limit. The blue solid line or "Combined_og" represented the limits computed for Glory Duck. The solid orange line or "Combined_ad" represented the limits computed after correcting for the pointing systematic.

982 7.8.2 $\mathcal{G}\mathcal{S}$ Versus \mathcal{B} spatial models

983 We show in this appendix a comparison between the J -factors computed by Geringer-Sameth
 984 *et al.* [53] (the $\mathcal{G}\mathcal{S}$ set) and the ones computed by Bonnivard *et al.* [47, 55] (the \mathcal{B} set). The
 985 $\mathcal{G}\mathcal{S}$ J -factors are computed through a Jeans analysis of the kinematic stellar data of the selected

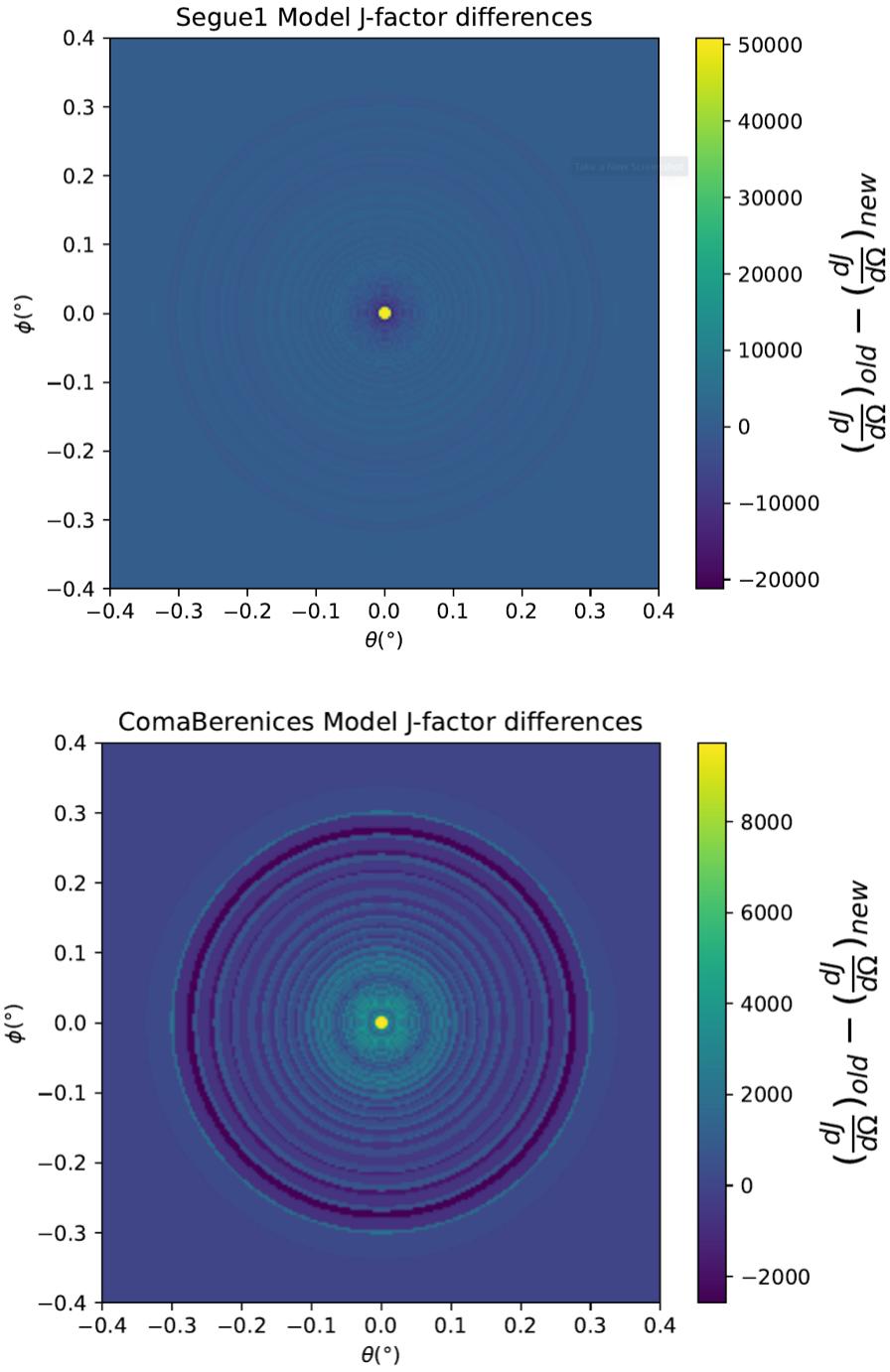


Figure 7.14 Differential map of dJ/Ω from model built in Section 7.8.1 and profiles provided directly from authors. (Top) Differential from Segue1. (bottom) Differential from Coma Berenices. Note that their scales are not the same. Segue1 shows the deepest discrepancies which is congruent with its large uncertainties. Both models show anuli where unique models become apparent.

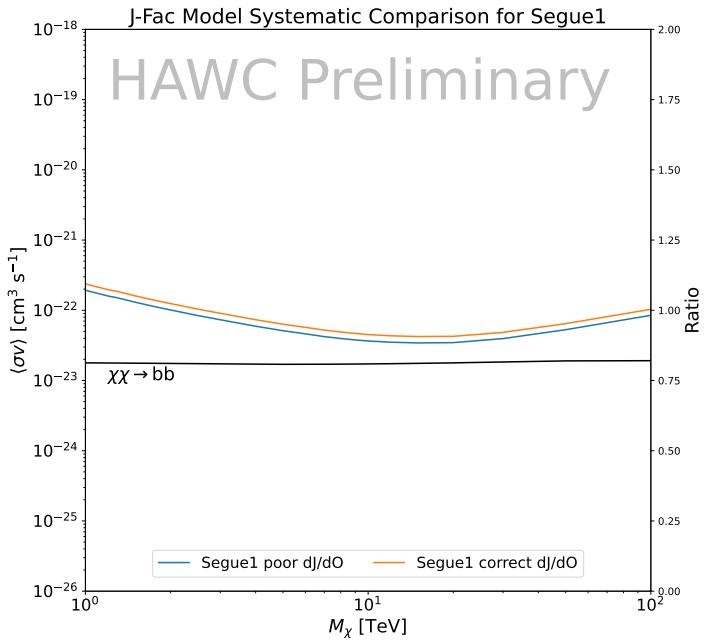
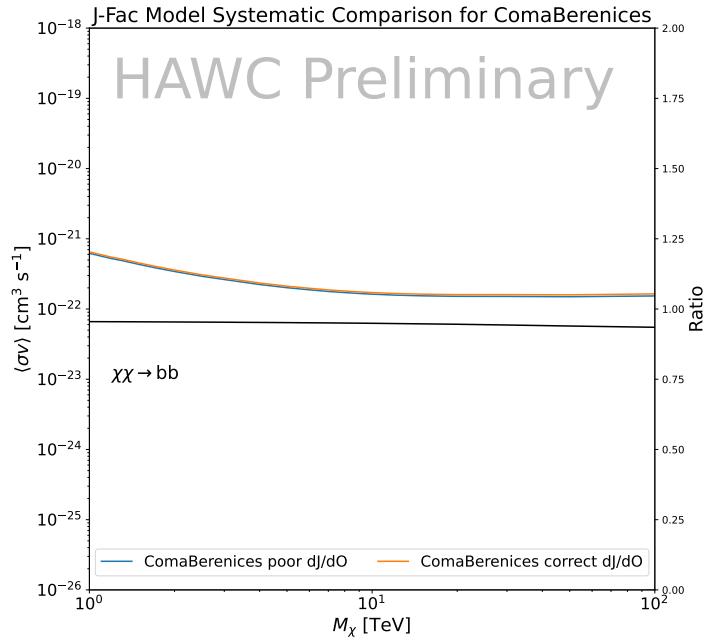


Figure 7.15 HAWC limits for Coma Berenices (top) and Segue1 (bottom) for two different map sets. Blue lines are limits calculated on maps with poor model representation. Orange lines are limits calculated on spatial profiles provided by the authors of [45]. Black line is the ratio of the poor spatial model limits to the corrected spatial models. The left y-axis measures $\langle \sigma v \rangle$ for the blue and orange lines. The right y-axis measures the ratio and is unitless.

986 dSphs, assuming a dynamic equilibrium and a spherical symmetry for the dSphs. They adopted
987 the generalized DM density distribution, known as Zhao-Hernquist, introduced by [58], carrying
988 three additional index parameters to describe the inner and outer slopes, and the break of the
989 density profile. Such a profile parametrization allows the reduction of the theoretical bias from
990 the choice of a specific radial dependency on the kinematic data. In other words, the increase of
991 free parameters with the use of the Zhao-Hernquist profile allows a better description of the mass
992 density distribution of dark matter.

993 In addition, a constant velocity anisotropy profile and a Plummer light profile [59] for the stellar
994 distribution were assumed. The velocity anisotropy profile depends on the radial and tangential
995 velocity dispersion. However, its determination remains challenging since only the line-of-sight
996 velocity dispersion can be derived from velocity measurements. Therefore, the parametrization of
997 the anisotropy profile is obtained from simulated halos (see [60] for more details). They provide the
998 values of the J -factors of regions extending to various angular radius up to the outermost member
999 star.

1000 The \mathcal{B} J -factors were computed through a Jeans analysis taking into account the systematic
1001 uncertainties induced by the DM profile parametrization, the radial velocity anisotropy profile, and
1002 the triaxiality of the halo of the dwarf galaxies. They performed a more complete study of the dSph
1003 kinematics and dynamics than \mathcal{GS} for the determination of the J -factor. Conservative values of the
1004 J -factors where obtained using an Einasto DM density profile [61], a realistic anisotropy profile
1005 known as the Baes & Van Hese profile [62] which takes into account that the inner regions can be
1006 significantly non-isotropic, and a Zhao-Hernquist light profile [58].

1007 For both sets, J -factor values are provided for all dSphs as a function of the radius of the
1008 integration region [53, 47, 55]. Table 7.1 shows the heliocentric distance and Galactic coordinates
1009 of the twenty dSphs, together with the two sets of J -factor values integrated up to the outermost
1010 observed star for \mathcal{GS} and the tidal radius for \mathcal{B} . Both J -factor sets were derived through a Jeans
1011 analysis based on the same kinematic data, except for Draco where the measurements of [63] have
1012 been adopted in the computation of the \mathcal{B} value. The computations for producing the \mathcal{GS} and \mathcal{B}

1013 samples differ in the choice of the DM density, velocity anisotropy, and light profiles, for which the
1014 set \mathcal{B} takes into account some sources of systematic uncertainties.

1015 Figure 7.16 and Figure 7.17 show the comparisons for the J -factor versus the angular radius
1016 for each of the 20 dSphs used in this study. The uncertainties provided by the authors are also
1017 indicated in the figures. For the \mathcal{GS} set, the computation stops at the angular radius corresponding
1018 to the outermost observed star, while for the \mathcal{B} set, the computation stops at the angular radius
1019 corresponding to the tidal radius.

1020 7.9 Discussion and Conclusions

1021 In this multi-instrument analysis, we have used observations of 20 dSphs from the gamma-ray
1022 telescopes Fermi-LAT, H.E.S.S., MAGIC, VERITAS, and HAWC to perform a collective DM
1023 search annihilation signals. The data were combined across sources and detectors to significantly
1024 increase the sensitivity of the search. We have observed no significant deviation from the null, no
1025 DM hypothesis, and so present our results in terms of upper limits on the annihilation cross-section
1026 for seven potential DM annihilation channels.

1027 Fermi-LAT brings the most stringent constraints for continuum channels below approximately
1028 1 TeV. The remaining detectors dominate at higher energies. Overall, for multi-TeV DM mass,
1029 the combined DM constraints from all five telescopes are 2-3 times stronger than any individual
1030 telescope for multi-TeV DM.

1031 Derived from observations of many dSphs, our results produce robust limits given the DM
1032 content of the dSphs is relatively well constrained. The obtained limits span the largest mass
1033 range of any WIMP DM search. Our combined analysis improves the sensitivity over previously
1034 published results from each detector which produces the most stringent limits on DM annihilation
1035 from dSphs. These results are based on deep exposures of the most promising known dSphs with
1036 the currently most sensitive gamma-ray instruments. Therefore, our results constitute a legacy of
1037 a generation of gamma-ray instruments on WIMP DM searches towards dSphs. Our results will
1038 remain the reference in the field until a new generation of more sensitive gamma-ray instruments
1039 begin operations, or until new dSphs with higher J -factors are discovered.

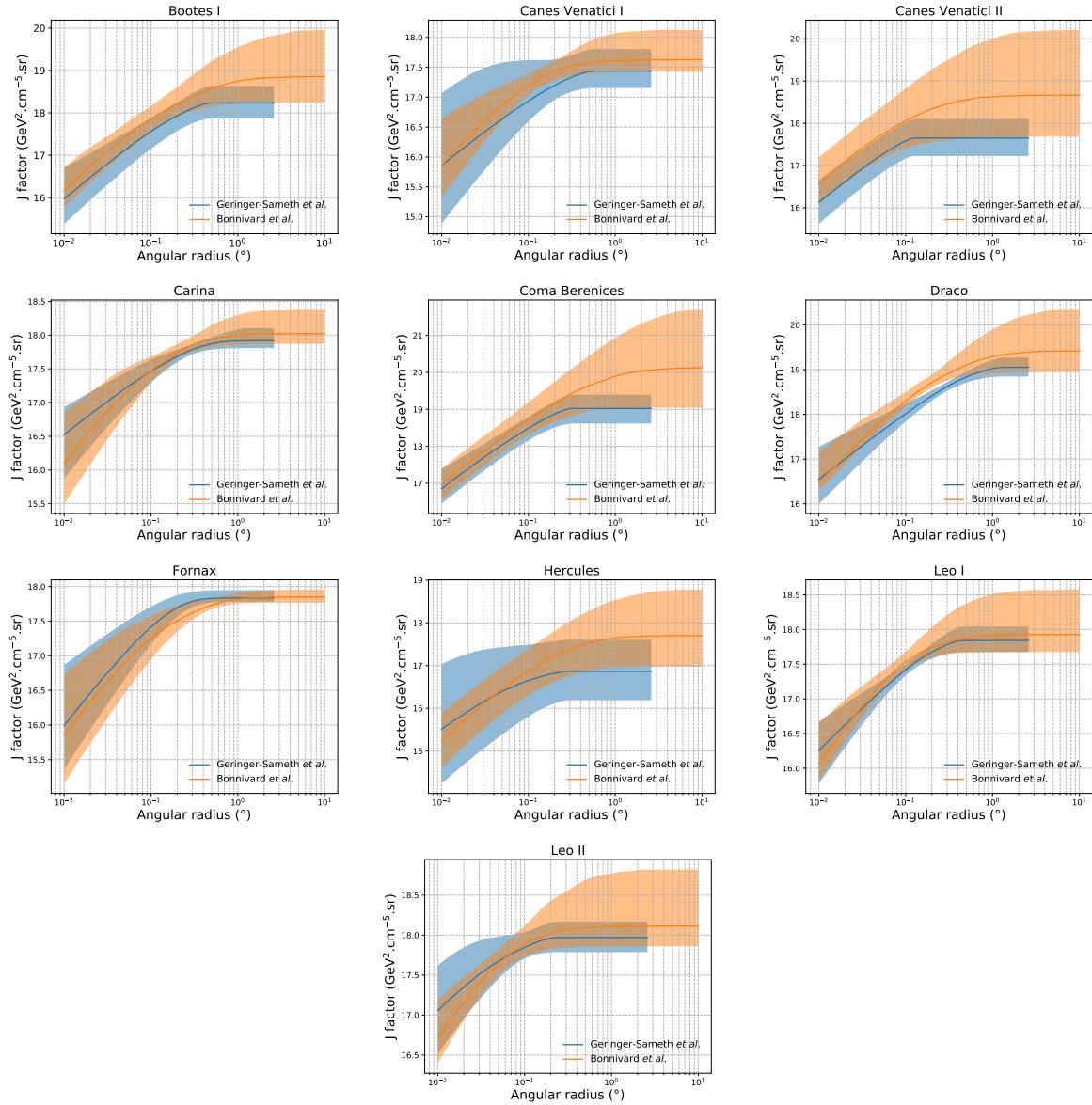


Figure 7.16 Comparisons between the J -factors versus the angular radius for the computation of J factors from Ref. [53] (\mathcal{GS} set in Table 7.1) in blue and for the computation from Ref. [47, 55] (\mathcal{B} set in Tab. 7.1) in orange. The solid lines represent the central value of the J -factors while the shaded regions correspond to the 1σ standard deviation.

This analysis serves as a proof of concept for future multi-instrument and multi-messenger combination analyses. With this collaborative effort, we have managed to sample over four orders in magnitude in gamma-ray energies with distinct observational techniques. Determining the nature of DM continues to be an elusive and difficult problem. Larger datasets with diverse measurement techniques could be essential to tackling the DM problem. A future collaboration using similar

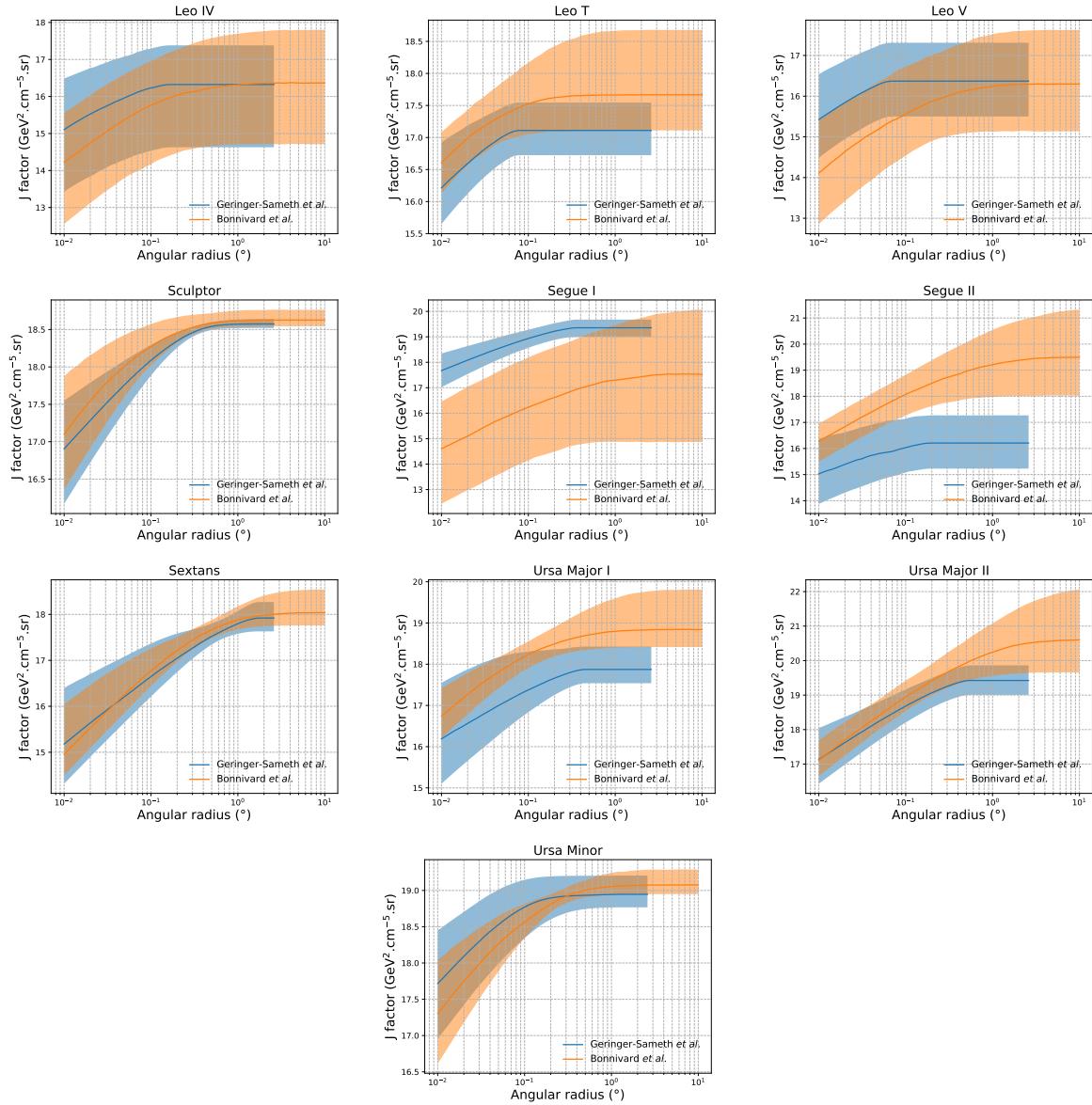


Figure 7.17 Comparisons between the J -factors versus the angular radius for the computation of J factors from Ref. [53] (\mathcal{GS} set in Tab. 7.1) in blue and for the computation from Ref. [47, 55] (\mathcal{B} set in Tab. 7.1) in orange. The solid lines represent the central value of the J -factors while the shaded regions correspond to the 1σ standard deviation.

1045 techniques as the ones described in this paper could grow even beyond gamma rays. The models we
 1046 used for this study include annihilation channels with neutrinos in the final state. Advanced studies
 1047 could aim to merge our results with those from neutrino observatories with large data sets. Efforts
 1048 are already underway to add data from the IceCube, ANTARES, and KM3NeT observatories to
 1049 these gamma-ray results.

1050 From this work, a selection of the best candidates for observations, according to the latest
1051 knowledge on stellar dynamics and modelling techniques for the derivation of the J -factors on
1052 the potential dSphs targets, is highly desirable at the time that new experiments are starting their
1053 dark matter programs using dSphs. Given the systematic uncertainty inherent to the derivation of
1054 the J -factors, an informed observational strategy would be to select both objects with the highest
1055 J -factors that could lead to DM signal detection, and objects with robust J -factor predictions, i.e.
1056 with kinematic measurements on many bright stars, which would strengthen the DM interpretation
1057 reliability of the observation outcome.

1058 This analysis combines data from multiple telescopes to produce strong constraints on astro-
1059 physical objects. From this perspective, these methods can be applied beyond just DM searches.
1060 Almost every astrophysical study can benefit from multi-telescope, multi-wavelength gamma-ray
1061 studies. We have enabled these telescopes to study the cosmos with greater precision and detail.
1062 Many astrophysical searches can benefit from multi-instrument gamma-ray studies, for which our
1063 analysis lays the foundation.

CHAPTER 8

1064 **MULTITHREADING HAWC ANALYSES FOR DARK MATTER SEARCHES**

1065 **8.1 Introduction**

1066 HAWC's current software suite, plugins to 3ML, does not fully utilize computational advancements of recent decades. Said advancements include the proliferation of Graphical Processing
1067 Units (GPUs), and multithreading on multi-core processors. The analysis described in chapter 7
1068 took up to 3 months of human time waiting for the full gambit of data analysis and simulation
1069 of background to run. Additionally, with the addition of a 2D binning scheme, f_{hit} and NN, the
1070 expected compute time is expected to grow further. Although excessive computing time was, in
1071 part, from an intense use of a shared computing cluster, it was evident that there was room for
1072 improvement. In HAWC's next generation dSph DM search, I decided to develop codes that would
1073 utilize the multi-core processors on modern high performance computing clusters. The results of
1074 this work are featured in this chapter and brought a human timing improvement to computation that
1075 scales as $1/N$ where N is the number of threads.

1077 **8.2 Dataset and Background**

1078 This section enumerates the data and background methods used for HAWC's multi-threaded
1079 study of dSphs. Section 8.2.1 and Section 8.2.2 are most useful for fellow HAWC collaborators
1080 looking to replicate a multithreaded dSph DM search.

1081 **8.2.1 Itemized HAWC files**

- 1082 • Detector Resolution: `refit-Pass5-Final-NN-detRes-zenith-dependent.root`
- 1083 • Data Map: `Pass5-Final-NN-maptree-ch103-ch1349-zenith-dependent.root`
- 1084 • Spectral Dictionary: `HDMspectra_dict_gamma.npy`

1085 **8.2.2 Software Tools and Development**

1086 This analysis was performed using HAL and 3ML [42, 43] in Python version 3. I built software
1087 in collaboration with Michael Martin and Letrell Harris to implement the *Dark Matter Spectra from*

1088 *the Electroweak to the Planck Scale* (HDM) [64] and dSphs spatial model from [65] for HAWC
1089 analysis. A NumPy dictionary of HDM was made for Py3. The corresponding Python3 file is
1090 `HDMspectra_dict_gamma.npy`. These files can also be used for decay channels and tools are
1091 provided in HDM’s [git repository](#) [64]. The analysis was performed using the Neural Network
1092 energy estimator for Pass 5.F. A description of this estimator was provided in chapter 4. **TODO:**
1093 **define a subsection when it’s written** All other software used for data analysis, DM profile generation,
1094 and job submission to SLURM are also kept in my sandbox in the [Dark Matter HAWC](#) project.
1095 The above repository also incorporates the model inputs used previously in Glory Duck, described
1096 in chapter 7

1097 **8.2.3 Data Set and Background Description**

1098 The HAWC data maps used for this analysis contain 2565 days of data between runs 2104 (1099 **TODO: Day start**) and 7476 (**TODO: day end**). They were generated from pass 4.0 reconstruction.
1100 The analysis is performed using the NN energy estimator with bin list:

1101 B1C0Ea, B1C0Eb, B1C0Ec, B1C0Ed, B1C0Ee, B2C0Ea, B2C0Eb, B2C0Ec, B2C0Ed, B2C0Ee,
1102 B3C0Ea, B3C0Eb, B3C0Ec, B3C0Ed, B3C0Ee, B3C0Ef, B4C0Eb, B4C0Ec, B4C0Ed, B4C0Ee,
1103 B4C0Ef, B5C0Ec, B5C0Ed, B5C0Ee, B5C0Ef, B5C0Eg, B6C0Ed, B6C0Ee, B6C0Ef, B6C0Eg,
1104 B6C0Eh, B7C0Ee, B7C0Ef, B7C0Eg, B7C0Eh, B7C0Ei, B8C0Ee, B8C0Ef, B8C0Eg, B8C0Eh,
1105 B8C0Ei, B8C0Ej, B9C0Ef, B9C0Eg, B9C0Eh, B9C0Ei, B9C0Ej, B10C0Eg, B10C0Eh,
1106 B10C0Ei, B10C0Ej, B10C0Ek, B10C0El

1107 Bin 0 was excluded as it has substantial hadronic contamination and poor angular resolution.

1108 Background considerations and source selection was identical to Section 7.2, and no additional
1109 arguments are provided here. Many of the HAWC systematics explored in Section 7.7 also apply
1110 for this DM search and are not added upon here.

1111 **8.3 Analysis**

1112 The analysis and its systematics are almost identical to Section 7.3. Importantly, we use the
1113 same Equation (7.1) and Equation (7.2) for estimating the gamma-ray flux at HAWC from our

sources. We add on to the previous study with a search for DM decay. The flux equations for DM decay are

$$\frac{d\Phi_\gamma}{dE_\gamma} = \frac{1}{4\pi\tau m_\chi} \frac{dN_\gamma}{dE_\gamma} \times \int_{\text{source}} d\Omega \int_{l.o.s} dl \rho_\chi(r, \theta') \quad (8.1)$$

with a new quantity, the D factor, defined as

$$D = \int d\Omega \int_{l.o.s} dl \rho_\chi(r, \theta') \quad (8.2)$$

Software was written to accomodate DM decay from dSphs, however decay profiles were not received from $\mathcal{L}\mathcal{S}$ by the time of writing this tehsis.

8.3.1 $\frac{dN_\gamma}{dE_\gamma}$ - Particle Physics Component

For these spectra, we import HDM with Electroweak (EW) corrections and additional corrections for neutrinos above the EW scale [64]. The spectrum is implemented as a model script in astromodels for 3ML. A comprehensive description of EW corrections and neutrino considerations are provided later in [TODO: refeance MM nu duck](#).

Figure 8.1 demonstrates the impact of changes from HDM on DM annihilation to W bosons. A class in astromodels was developed to include HDM and is aptly named `HDMspectra` within `DM_models.py`. The SM DM annihilation channels studied here are $\chi\chi \rightarrow:$

$$e^+e^-, \mu^+\mu^-, \tau^+\tau^-, b\bar{b}, t\bar{t}, gg, W^+W^-, ZZ, c\bar{c}, u\bar{u}, d\bar{d}, s\bar{s}, \nu_e\bar{\nu}_e, \nu_\mu\bar{\nu}_\mu, \nu_\tau\bar{\nu}_\tau, \gamma\gamma, hh.$$

For $\gamma\gamma$ and ZZ , a substantial fraction of the signal photons are expected to have total energy equal m_χ [64]. This introduces a δ -function that is much narrower than the energy resolution of the HAWC detector. To ensure that this feature is not lost in the likelihood fits, the 'line' feature is convolved with a gaussian kernel with a 1σ width of $0.05 \cdot m_\chi$ and total kernel window of $\pm 4\sigma$. This differs from HAWC's previous line study where 30% of HAWC's energy resolution was used for the kernel [66]. The NN energy estimator's strength compared to f_{hit} at low gamma-ray energy enables smaller resolutions in addition to low energy tails in the spectral models [64]. $\chi\chi \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$ and ZZ spectral hypotheses are shown in Figure 8.2. Spectral models for the remaining annihilation channels are plotted for each m_χ in Figure B.1.

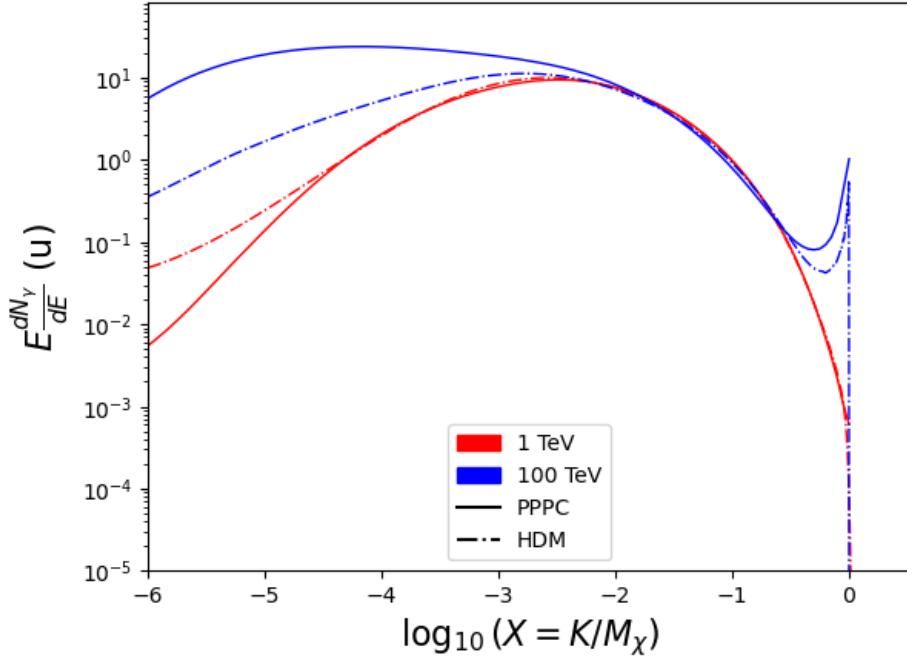


Figure 8.1 Difference between spectral hypotheses from PPPC [44] and HDM [64]. Shown is the expected DM annihilation spectrum for $\chi\chi \rightarrow W^-W^+$. Solid lines are spectral models with EW corrections from the PPPC. Dash-dot lines are spectral models from HDM. Red lines are models for $M_\chi = 1$ TeV. Blue lines represent models for $M_\chi = 100$ TeV.

1137 8.3.2 *J* and *D*- Astrophysical Components

1138 The J-factor profiles for each source are imported from Louis Strigari et al. (referred to with

1139 \mathcal{LS}) [65]. Profiles in $\frac{dJ}{d\Omega}(\theta)$ and $\frac{dD}{d\Omega}(\theta)$ up to $\theta = 0.5^\circ$ were provided directly from the authors.

1140 Map generation from these profiles were almost identical to Section 7.3.2 except that a higher order

1141 trapezoidal integral was used for the normalization of the square, uniformly-spaced map:

$$p^2 \cdot \sum_{i=0}^N \sum_{j=0}^M w_{i,j} \frac{d\mathcal{K}}{d\Omega}(\theta_{i,j}, \phi_{i,j}) \quad (8.3)$$

1142 \mathcal{K} is either J or D for the spatial distributions of annihilation or decay respectively. p is the angular

1143 side of one pixel in the map. $w_{i,j}$ is a weight assigned the following ways:

1144 $w_{i,j} = 1$ if $(\theta_{i,j}, \phi_{i,j})$ is fully within the region of integration

1145 $w_{i,j} = 1/2$ if $(\theta_{i,j}, \phi_{i,j})$ is on an edge of the region of integration

1146 $w_{i,j} = 1/4$ if $(\theta_{i,j}, \phi_{i,j})$ is on a corner of the region of integration

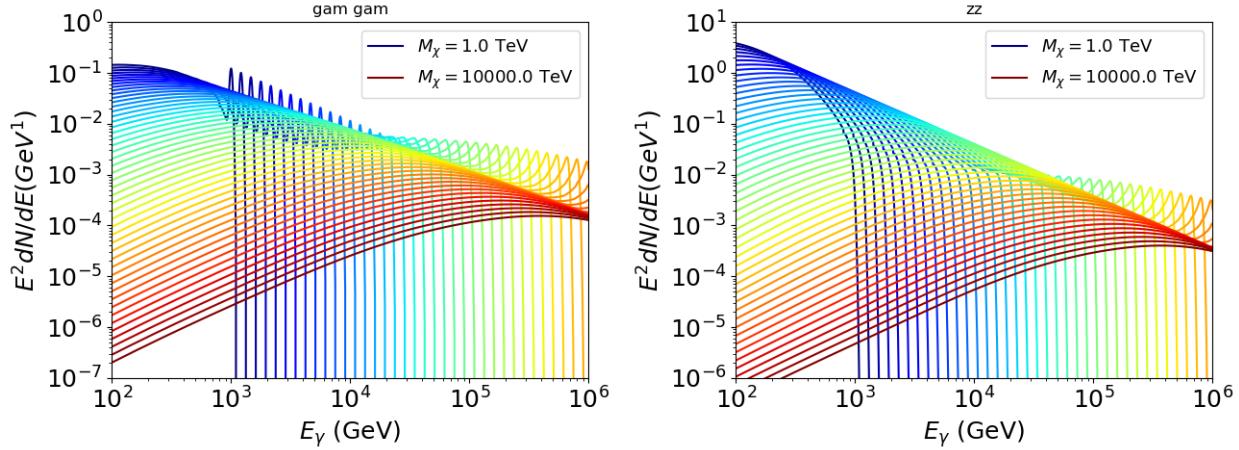


Figure 8.2 Photon spectra for $\chi\chi \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$ (left) and $\chi\chi \rightarrow ZZ$ (right) after gaussian convolution of line features. Both spectra have δ -features at photon energies equal to the DM mass. Bluer lines are annihilation spectra with lower DM mass. Redder lines are spectra from larger DM mass. All Spectral models are sourced from the Heavy Dark Matter models [64].

1147 Figure 8.3 shows the median and $\pm 1\sigma$ maps used as input for DM annihilation studied by \mathcal{LS} .

1148 8.3.3 Source Selection and Annihilation Channels

1149 HAWC's sources for this multithreaded analysis include Coma Berenices, Draco, Segue 1, and
 1150 Sextans. \mathcal{LS} observes up to 43 sources in its publication, however the best fit profiles were not
 1151 provided at the time this thesis was written. A full description of each source used in this analysis
 1152 is found in Table 8.1.

1153 This analysis improves on chapter 7 in the following ways. Previously, the particle physics model

Name	Distance (kpc)	l, b ($^\circ$)	$\log_{10} J$ (\mathcal{LS} set) $\log_{10}(\text{GeV}^2 \text{cm}^{-5} \text{sr})$
Coma Berenices	44	241.89, 83.61	$19.00^{+0.36}_{-0.35}$
Draco	76	86.37, 34.72	$18.83^{+0.12}_{-0.12}$
Segue I	23	220.48, 50.43	$19.12^{+0.49}_{-0.58}$
Sextans	86	243.50, 42.27	$17.73^{+0.13}_{-0.12}$

Table 8.1 Summary of the relevant properties of the dSphs used in the present work. Column 1 lists the dSphs. Columns 2 and 3 present their heliocentric distance and galactic coordinates, respectively. Columns 4 reports the J -factors of each source given from the \mathcal{LS} studies and estimated $\pm 1\sigma$ uncertainties. The values $\log_{10} J$ (\mathcal{LS} set) [65] correspond to the mean J -factor values for a source extension truncated at 0.5° .

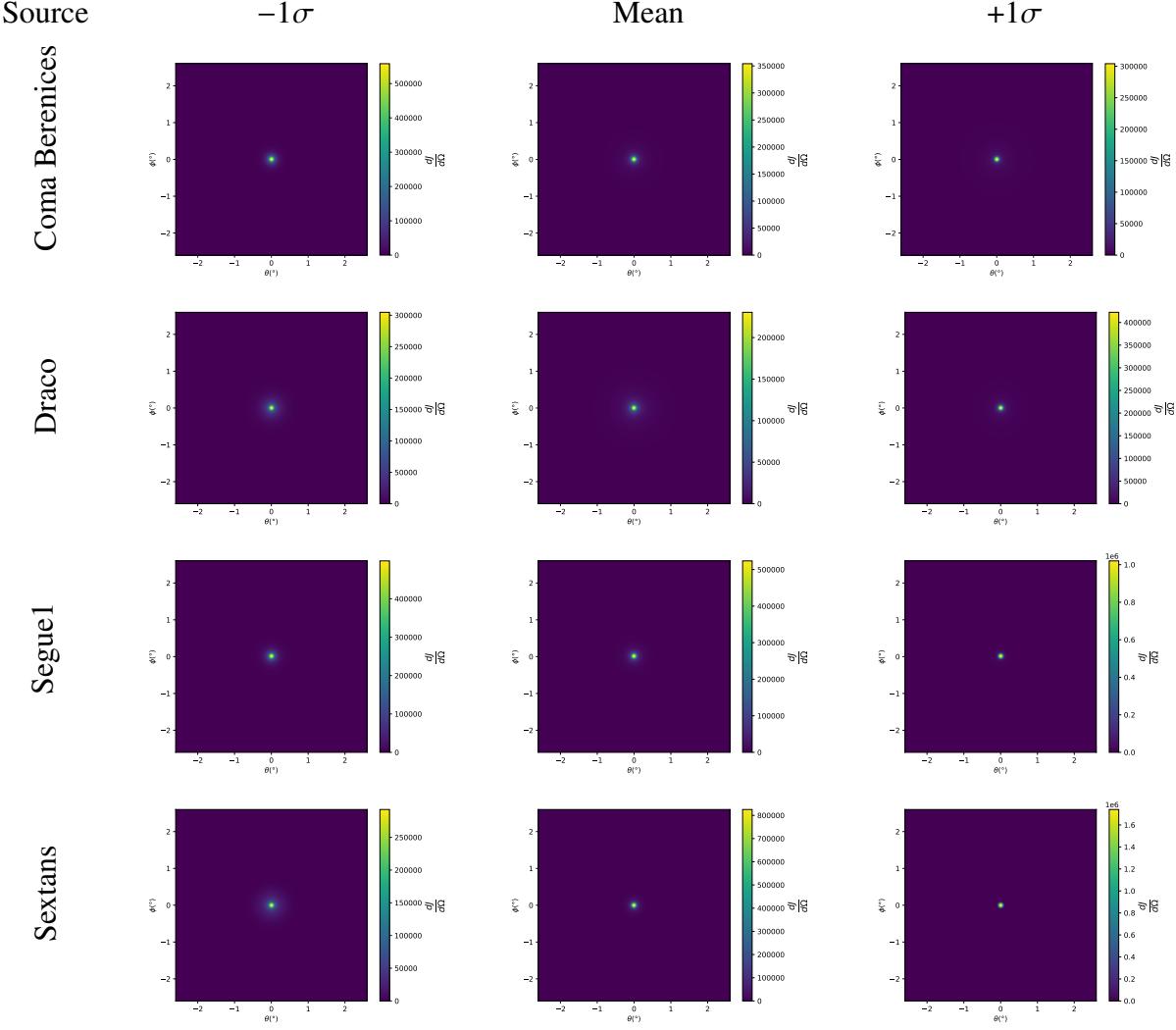


Figure 8.3 $\frac{dJ}{d\Omega}$ maps for Coma Berenices, Draco, Segue1, and Sextans. Columns are divided for the $\pm 1\sigma$ uncertainties in $dJ/d\Omega$ around the median value from \mathcal{LS} [65]. Origin is centered on the specific dwarf spheroidal galaxies (dSph). θ and ϕ axes are the angular separation from the center of the dwarf. Axes are drawn roughly according to the energy sensitivity of HAWC.

1154 used for gamma-ray spectra from DM annihilation was from the PPPC [44] which missed important
 1155 considerations relevant for the neutrino sector. HDM is used to account for this shortfall [64]. A
 1156 larger source catalog is used that uses a Navarro–Frenk–White (NFW) spatial DM distribution from
 1157 \mathcal{LS} [65]. Because NFW has fewer parameters than what is used for \mathcal{GS} , \mathcal{LS} is able to fit ultra-faint
 1158 dwarves, expanding the number of sources available for DM searches. Finally, the gamma-ray ray
 1159 dataset is much larger. The study performed here analyzes 2565 days of data compared to 1017
 1160 days analyzed in chapter 7.

CHAPTER 9

1161 **HEAVY DARK MATTER ANNIHILATION SEARCH WITH ICECUBE'S NORTH SKY**
1162 **TRACK DATA**

CHAPTER 10

NU DUCK

1163

MULTI-EXPERIMENT SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES

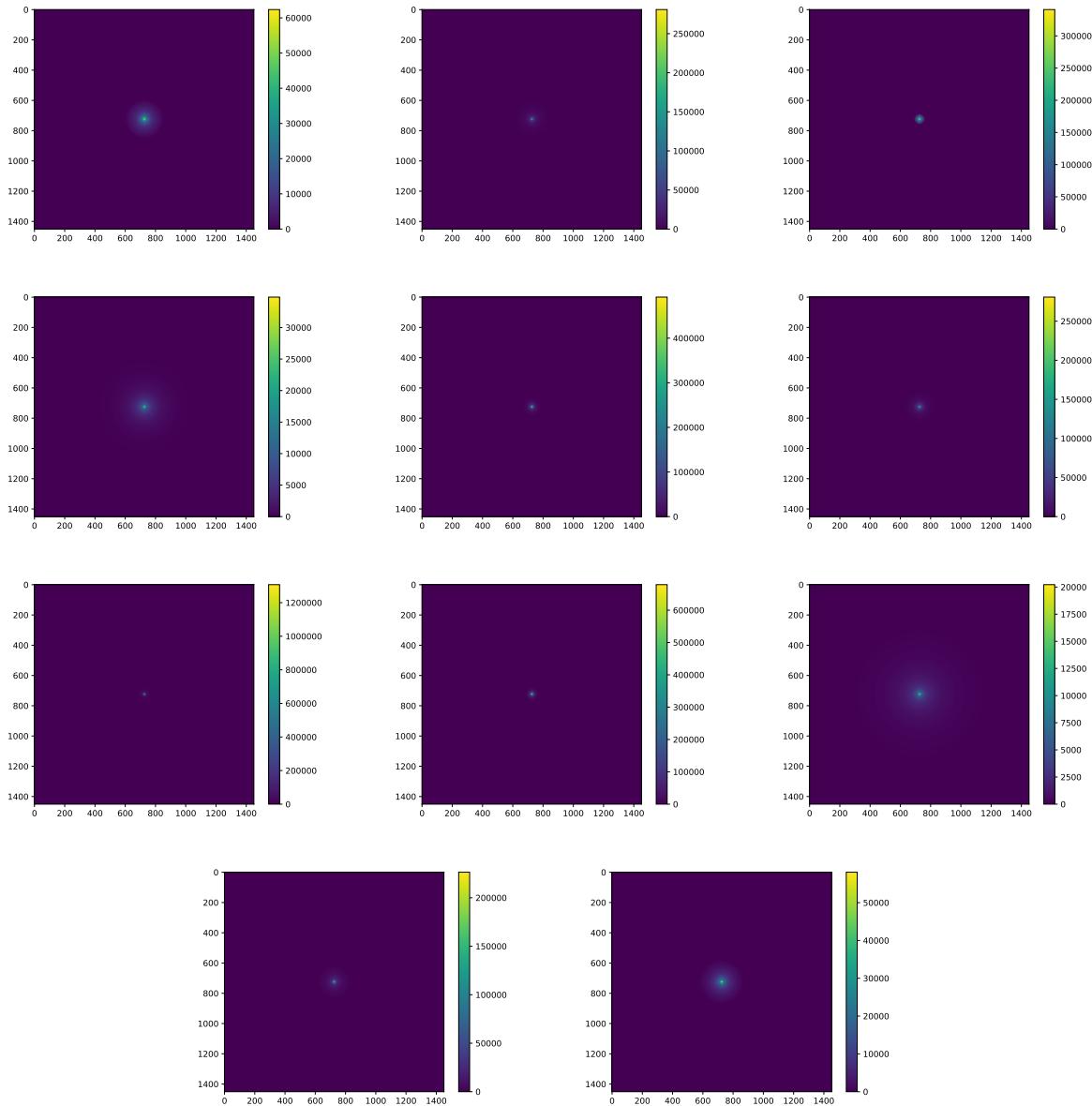


Figure A.1 Sister figure to Figure 7.3. Sources in the first row from left to right: Bootes I, Canes Venatici I, II. In second row: Draco, Hercules, Leo I. In the first row: Leo II, Leo IV, Sextans. In the final row: Ursa Major I, Ursa Major II.

APPENDIX B

MULTITHREADING SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES

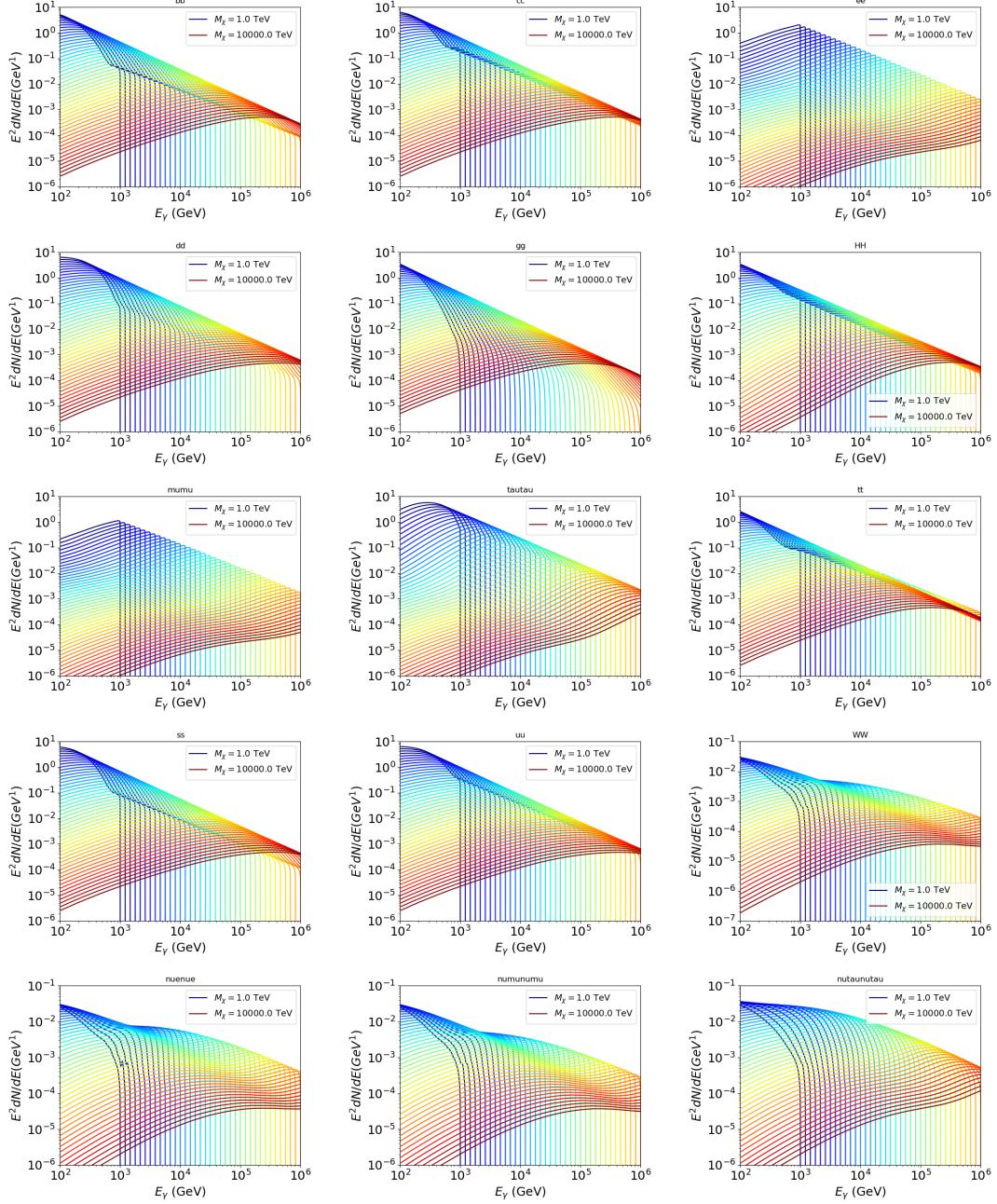


Figure B.1 Sister figure to Figure 8.2 for remaining SM primary annihilation channels studied for this thesis. These did not require any post generation smoothing and so are directly pulled from [64] with a binning scheme most helpful for a HAWC analysis.

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