

1 LEVERAGING MULTI-MESSENGER ASTROPHYSICS FOR DARK MATTER SEARCHES

By

Daniel Nicholas Salazar-Gallegos

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to  
Michigan State University  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the degree of

Physics—Doctor of Philosophy  
Computational Mathematics in Science and Engineering—Dual Major

Today

**ABSTRACT**

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

<sup>4</sup> Copyright by

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<sup>6</sup> Today

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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

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**LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

- 245 **MSU** Michigan State University  
246 **LANL** Los Alamos National Laboratory  
247 **DM** Dark Matter  
248 **SM** Standard Model  
249 **HAWC** High Altitude Water Cherenkov Observatory

250

## **CHAPTER 1**

### **INTRODUCTION**

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

## CHAPTER 2

252

### DARK MATTER IN THE COSMOS

253 **2.1 Introduction**

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

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

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

261 The students are ecstatic to hear this, and they get to work. The solution is some variation of  
262 the following strategy. The students should give each other their weight or best guess if they do  
263 not know. Then, all they must do is add each student's weight and get a grand total for the class.

264 The measurement on the giant scale should show the true weight of the class. When comparing  
265 the measured weight to your estimation, multiply the measurement by  $1.0 \pm 0.1$  to get the  $\pm 10\%$   
266 tolerances for your estimation.

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

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

270 You estimated 1,900 lbs. assuming the average weight of a student in your class was 60 lbs.  
271 So, you are pleased with Sandra's and Mario's answer. You instruct your students to all gather on  
272 the giant scale and read off the weight together. To all your surprise, the scale reads *10,000 lbs.*!  
273 10,000 is significantly more than a 10% error from 2,000. In fact, it is approximately 5 times more  
274 massive than either your or your students' estimates. You think to yourself and conclude there  
275 must be something wrong with the scale. You ask an employee to check the scale and verify it is  
276 well calibrated. They confirm that the scale is in working order. You weigh a couple of students  
277 individually to assess that the scale is well calibrated. Sandra weighs 59 lbs., and Mario weighs

278 62 lbs., typical weights for their age. You then weigh each student individually and see that their  
279 weights individually do not deviate greatly from 60 lbs. So, where does all the extra weight come  
280 from?

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

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

## 290 2.2 Dark Matter Basics

291 Presently, a more compelling theory of cosmology that includes Dark Matter (DM) in order  
292 to explain a variety of observations is  $\Lambda$  Cold Dark Matter, or  $\Lambda$ CDM. I present the evidence  
293 supporting  $\Lambda$ CDM in Section 2.3 yet discuss the conclusions of the  $\Lambda$ CDM model here. According  
294 to  $\Lambda$ CDM fit to observations on the Cosmic Microwave Background (CMB), DM is 26.8% of the  
295 universe's current energy budget. Baryonic matter, stuff like atoms, gas, and stars, contributes to  
296 4.9% of the universe's current energy budget [1, 2, 3].

297 DM is dark; it does not interact readily with light at any wavelength. DM also does not interact  
298 noticeably with the other standard model forces (Strong and Weak) at a rate that is readily observed  
299 [3]. DM is cold, which is to say that the average velocity of DM is below relativistic speeds [1].  
300 'Hot' DM would not likely manifest the dense structures we observe like galaxies, and instead  
301 would produce much more diffuse galaxies than what is observed [3, 1]. DM is old; it played a  
302 critical role in the formation of the universe and the structures within it [1, 2].

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

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

308 **2.3 Evidence for Dark Matter**

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

322 **2.3.1 First Clues: Stellar Velocities**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

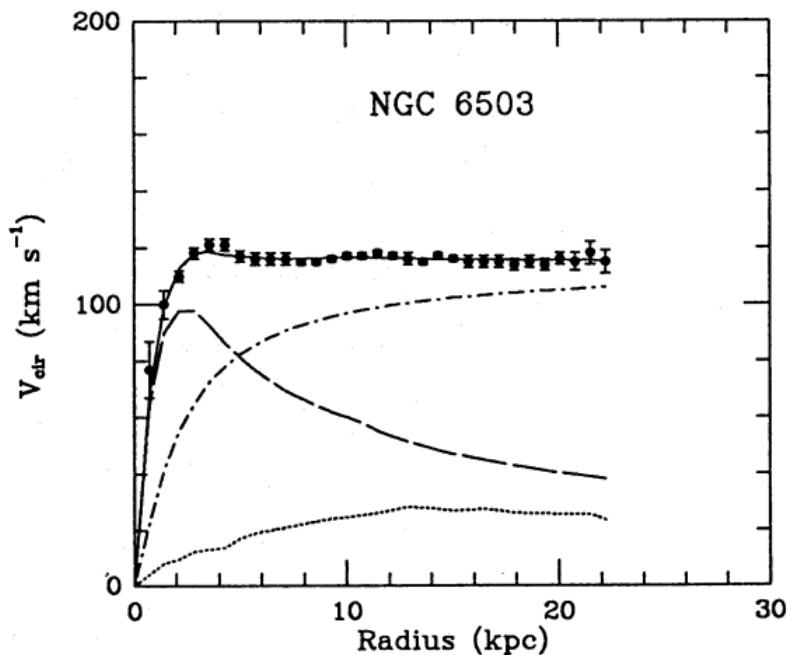


Figure 2.1 Rotation curve fit to NGC 6503 from [7]. Dashed line is the contribution from visible matter. Dotted curves are from gas. Dash-dot curves are from dark matter (DM). Solid line is the composite contribution from all matter and DM sources. Data are indicated with bold dots with error bars. Data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

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

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

347 **2.3.2 Evidence for Dark Matter: Gravitational Lensing**

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

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

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

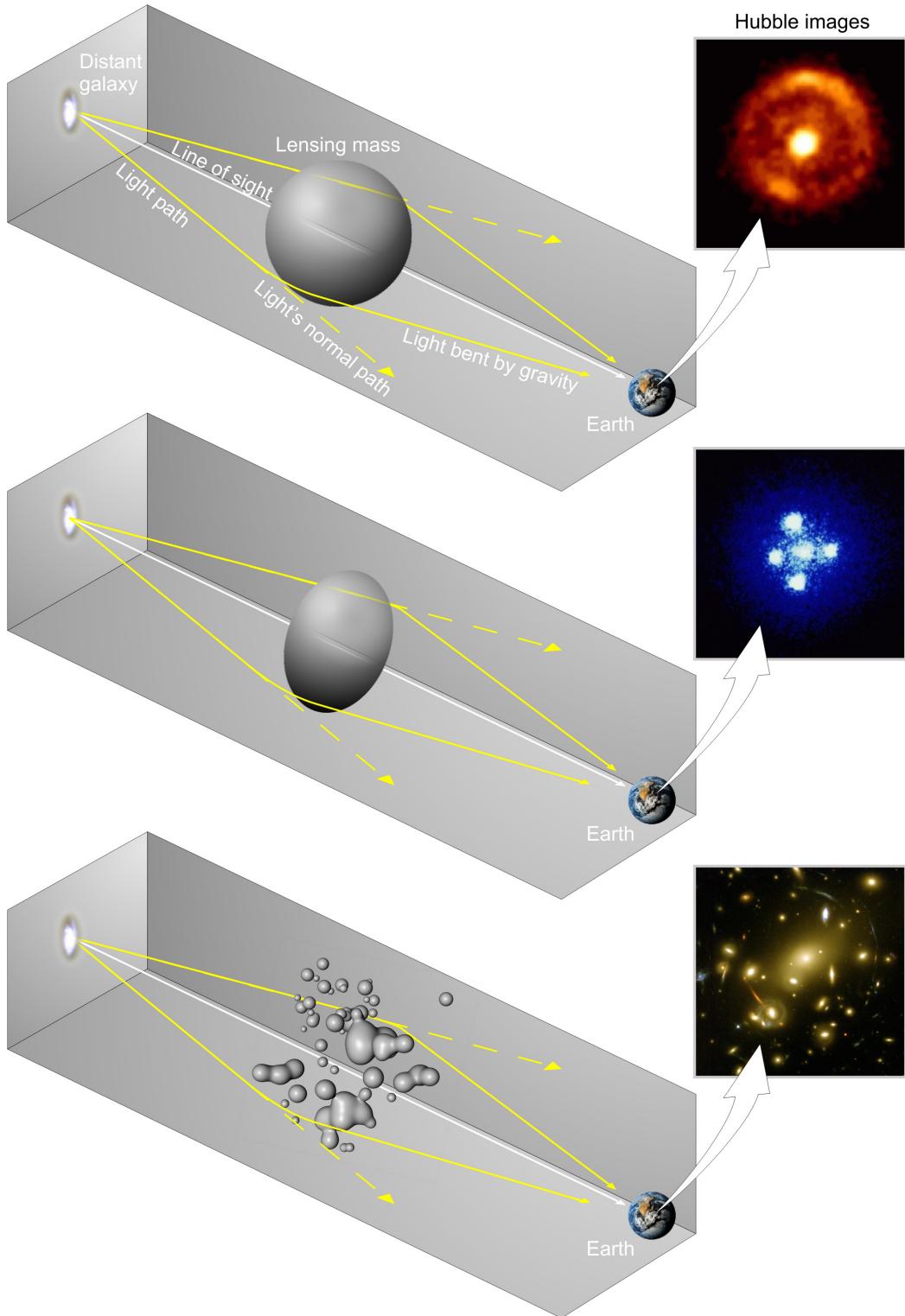


Figure 2.2 Light from distant galaxy is bent in unique ways depending on the distribution of mass between the galaxy and Earth. Yellow dashed lines indicate where the light would have gone if the matter were not present [8].

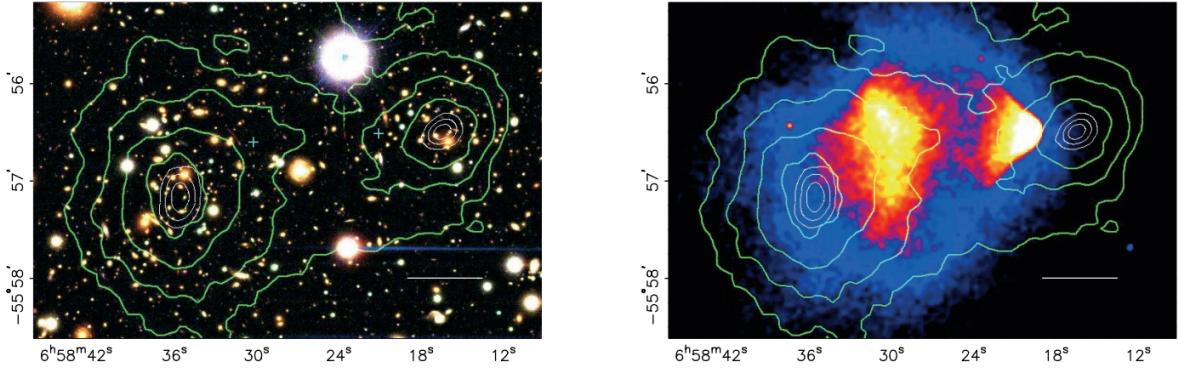


Figure 2.3 (left) Optical image of galactic cluster 1E0657-558. (right) X-ray image of the cluster with redder meaning hotter and higher baryon density. (both) Green contours are reconstruction of gravity contours from weak lensing. White rings are the best fit mass maxima at 68.3%, 95.5%, and 99.7%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

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

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

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

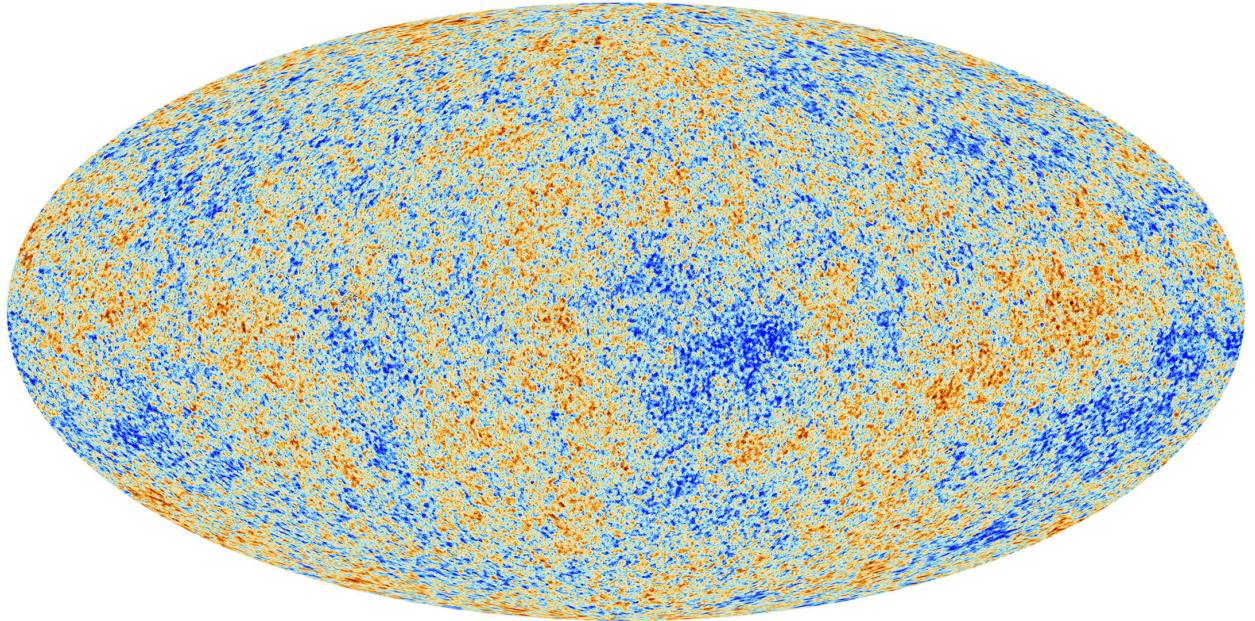


Figure 2.4 Plank CMB sky. Sky map features small variations in temperature in primordial light. These anisotropies are used to make inferences about the universe’s energy budget and developmental history. [10]

382     **2.3.3 Evidence for Dark Matter: Cosmic Microwave Background**

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

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

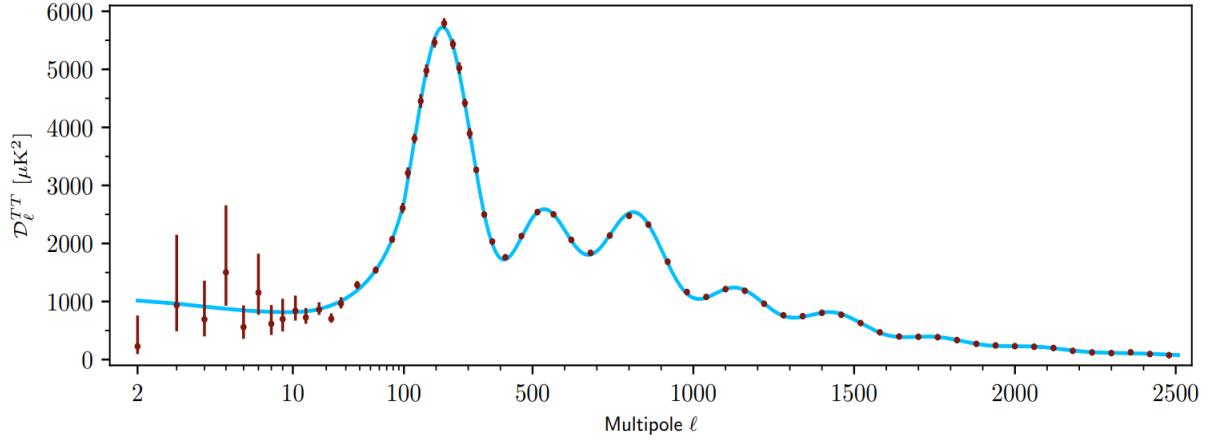


Figure 2.5 Observed Cosmic Microwave Background power spectrum as a function of multipole moment from Plank [10]. Blue line is best fit model from  $\Lambda$ CDM. Red points and lines are data and error, respectively.

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

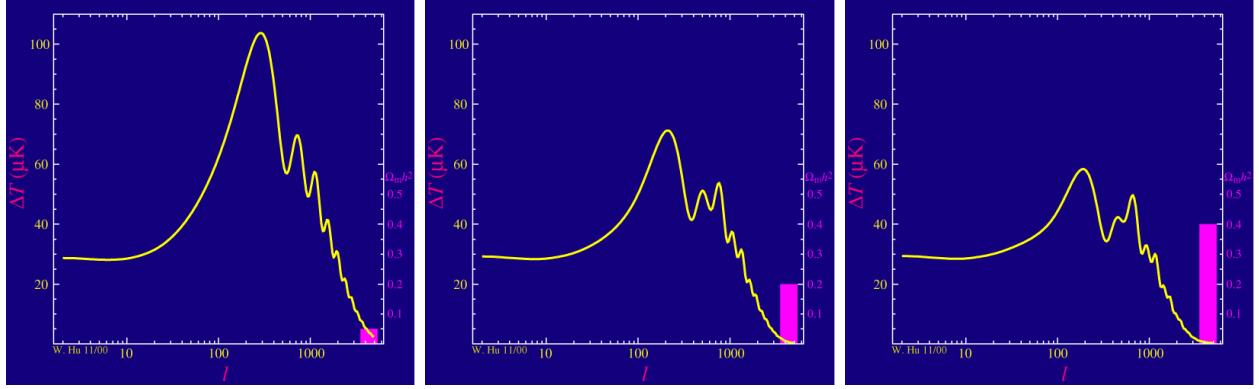


Figure 2.6 Predicted power spectra of CMB for different  $\Omega_m h^2$  values for fixed baryon density from [11]. (left) Low  $\Omega_m h^2$  increases the prominence of first and second peaks. (middle)  $\Omega_m h^2$  is most similar to the observed power spectrum. The second and third peaks are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

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

405 past decade that continues to deepened with observations from instruments like the James Webb  
406 Telescope [12, 13]. As Hubble tensions deepen, we may find that perhaps  $\Lambda$ **CDM**, despite its  
407 successes, is missing some critical physics.

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

417 **2.4 Searching for Dark Matter: Particle DM**

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

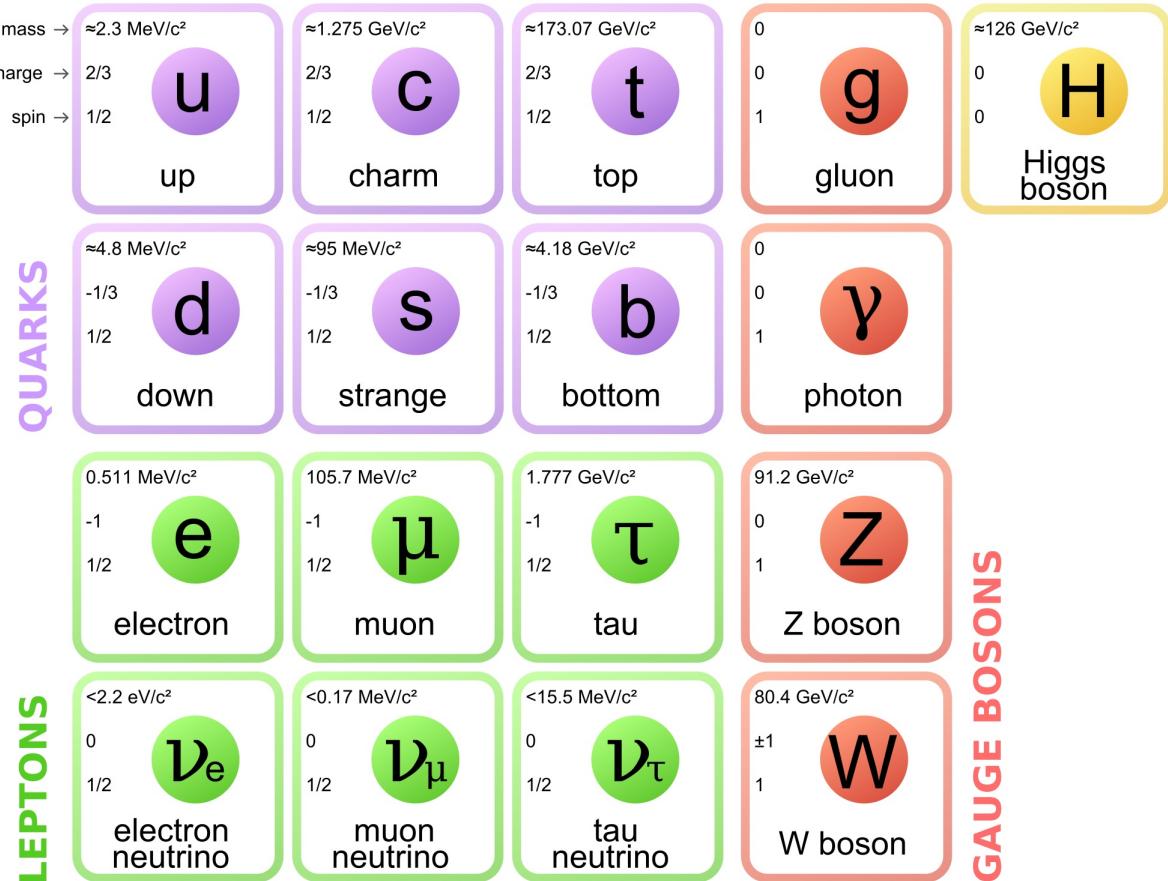


Figure 2.7 The Standard Model (SM) of particle physics. Figure taken from <http://www.quantumdiaries.org/2014/03/14/the-standard-model-a-beautiful-but-flawed-theory/>

#### 430 2.4.1 Shake it, Break it, Make it

431 When considering DM that couples in some way with the SM, the interactions are roughly  
 432 demonstrated by interaction demonstrated in Figure 2.8. The figure is a simplified Feynman  
 433 diagram where the arrow of time represents the interaction modes of: **Shake it, Break it, Make it**.

434 **Shake it** refers to the direct detection of dark matter. Direct detection interactions start with  
 435 a free DM particle and an SM particle. The DM and SM interact via elastic or inelastic collision  
 436 and recoil away from each other. The DM remains in the dark sector and imparts some momentum  
 437 onto the SM particle. The hope is that the momentum imparted onto the SM particle is sufficiently  
 438 high enough to pick up with extremely sensitive instruments. Because we cannot create the DM in  
 439 the lab, a direct detection experiment must wait until DM is incident on the detector. Most direct  
 440 detection experiments are therefore placed in low-background environments with inert detection

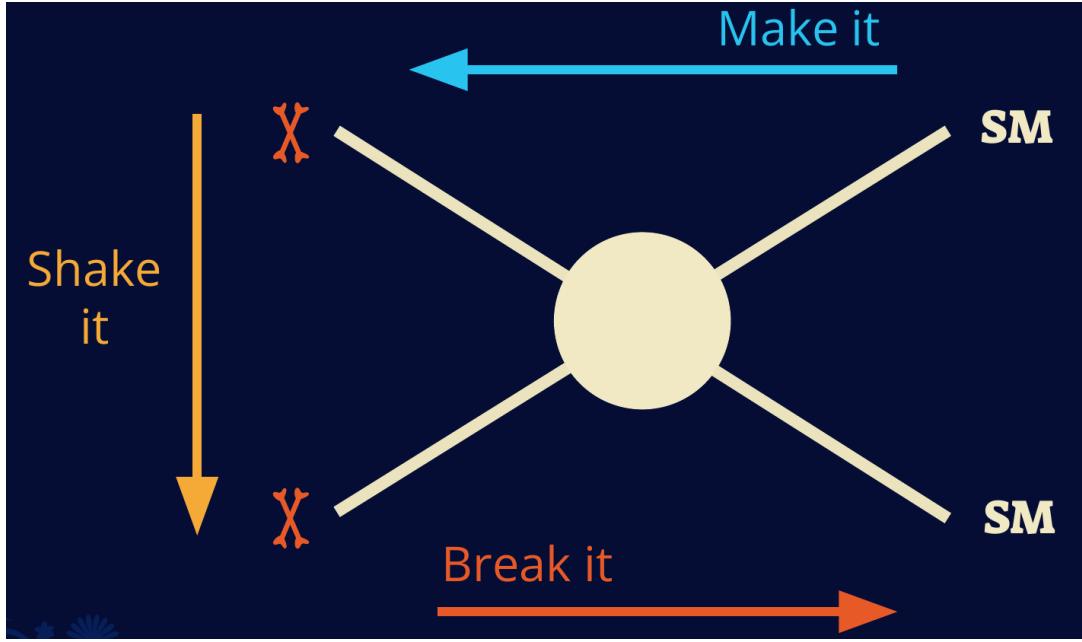


Figure 2.8 Simplified Feynman diagram demonstrating different ways DM can interact with SM particles. The 'X's refer to the DM particles whereas the SM refer to fundamental particles in the SM. The large circle in the center indicates the vertex of interaction and is purposely left vague. The colored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

<sup>441</sup> media like the noble gas Xenon. [14]

<sup>442</sup> **Make it** refers to the production of DM from SM initial states. The experiment starts with  
<sup>443</sup> particles in the SM. These SM particles are accelerated to incredibly high energies and then collide  
<sup>444</sup> with each other. In the confluence of energy, DM hopefully emerges as a byproduct of the SM  
<sup>445</sup> annihilation. Often it is the collider experiments that are energetic enough to hypothetically produce  
<sup>446</sup> DM. These experiments include the world-wide collaborations ATLAS and CMS at CERN where  
<sup>447</sup> proton collide together at extreme energies. The DM searches, however, are complex. DM likely  
<sup>448</sup> does not interact with the detectors and lives long enough to escape the detection apparatus of  
<sup>449</sup> CERN's colliders. This means any DM production experiment searches for an excess of events  
<sup>450</sup> with missing momentum or energy in the events. An example event with missing transverse  
<sup>451</sup> momentum is shown in Figure 2.9. The missing momentum with no particle tracks implies a  
<sup>452</sup> neutral particle carried the energy out of the detector. However, there are other neutral particles  
<sup>453</sup> in the SM, like neutrons or neutrinos, so any analysis has to account for SM signatures of missing

454 momentum. [15]

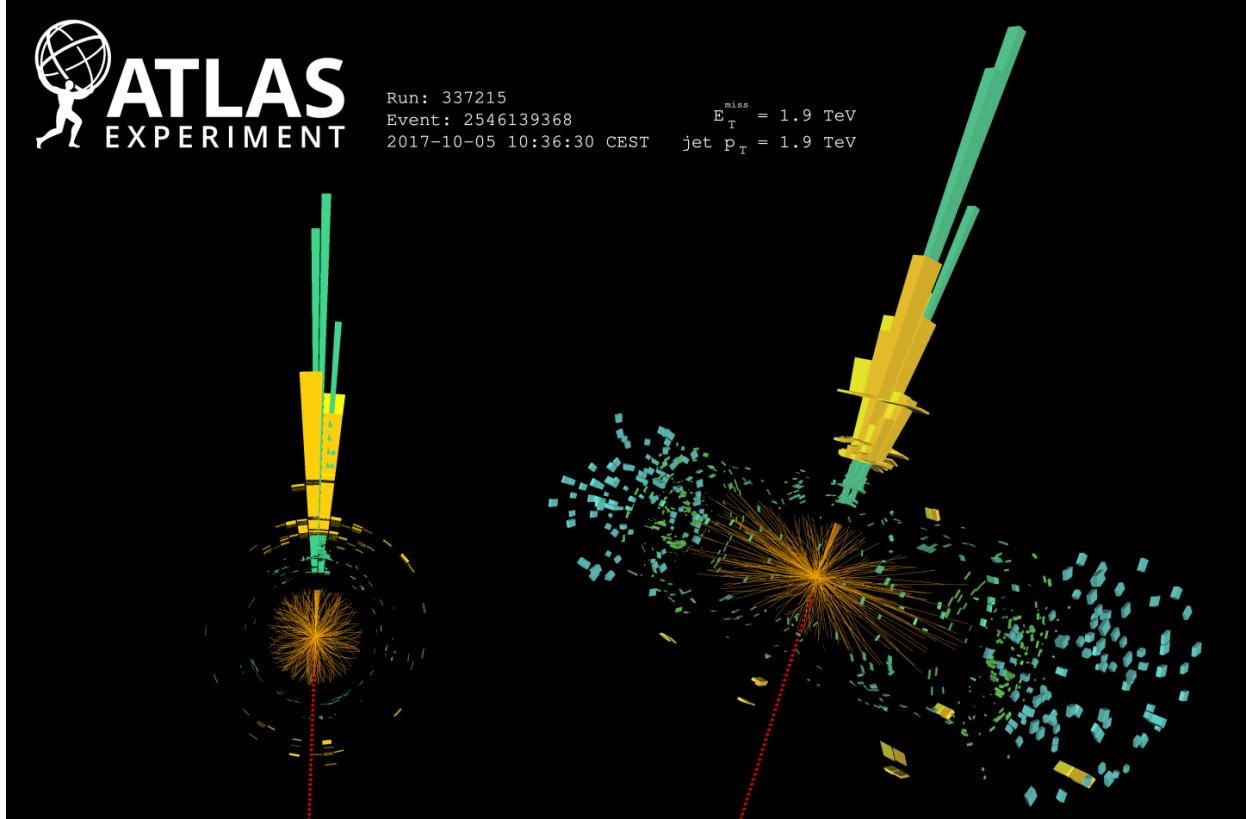


Figure 2.9 A single jet event in ATLAS detector from 2017 [16]. Jet momentum was observed to be 1.9 TeV. Missing transverse momentum was observed to be 1.9 TeV compared to the initial transverse momentum of the event was 0. Implied MET is traced by a red dashed line in event display.

#### 455 2.4.2 Break it: Standard Model Signatures of Dark Matter through Indirect Searches

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

464 the problem of DM in the first place.

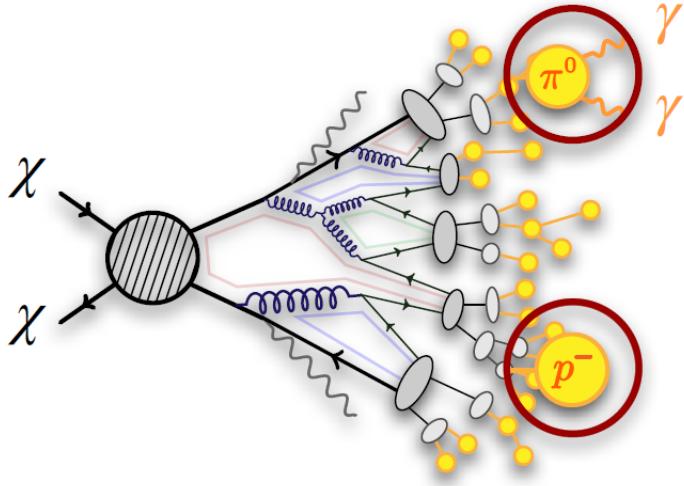


Figure 2.10 More detailed pseudo-Feynman diagram of particle cascade from dark matter annihilation into 2 quarks. The quarks hadronize and down to stable particles like  $\gamma$  or the anti-proton ( $p^-$ ). Diagram pulled from ICRC 2021 presentation on DM annihilation search [17].

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

474 In the case of WIMP DM, signals are described in terms of primary SM particles produced  
475 from DM decay or annihilation. The SM initial state particles are then simulated down to stable  
476 final states such as the  $\gamma$ ,  $\nu$ ,  $p$ , or  $e$  which can traverse galactic lengths to reach Earth.

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

479 interaction. For any arbitrary DM source and stable SM particle, the SM flux from DM annihilating  
 480 to a neutral particle in the SM,  $\phi$ , from a region in the sky is described by the following.

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

481 In Equation (7.1),  $\langle\sigma v\rangle$  is the velocity-weighted annihilation cross-section of DM to the SM.  $m_\chi$   
 482 refers to the mass of DM, noted with Greek letter  $\chi$ .  $\frac{dN_\phi}{dE_\phi}$  is the N particle flux weighted by the  
 483 particle energy. An example is provided in Figure 2.11 for the  $\gamma$  final state. The integrated terms  
 484 are performed over the solid angle,  $d\Omega$ , and line of sight, l.o.s.  $\rho$  is the density of DM for a  
 485 location  $(r, \theta')$  in the sky. The terms left of the ' $\times$ ' are often referred to as the particle physics  
 486 component. The terms on the right are referred to as the astrophysical component. For decaying  
 487 DM, the equation changes to...

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

488 In Equation (2.5),  $\tau$  is the decay lifetime of the DM. Just as in Equation (7.1), the left and  
 489 right terms are the particle physics and the astrophysical components respectively. The integrated  
 490 astrophysical component of Equation (7.1) is often called the J-Factor. Whereas the integrated  
 491 astrophysical component of Equation (2.5) is often called the D-Factor.

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

## 499 2.5 Sources for Indirect Dark Matter Searches

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

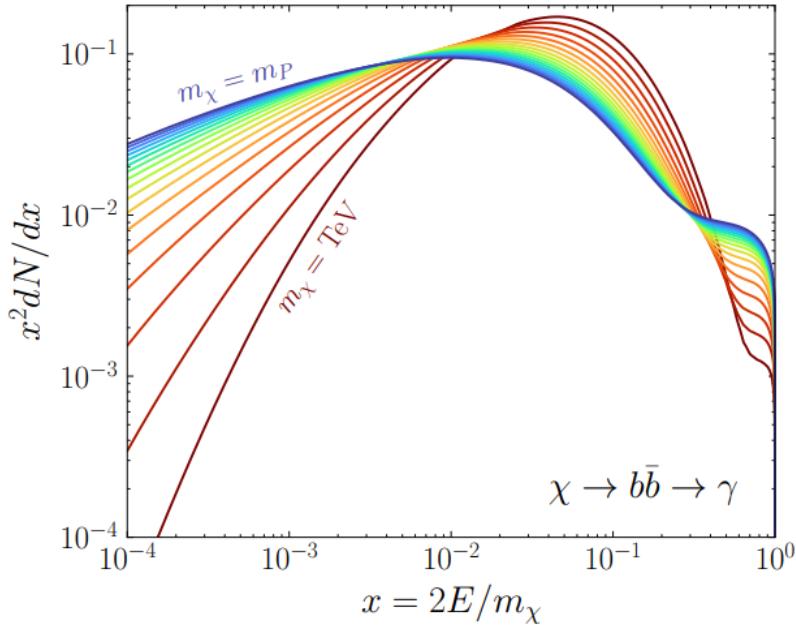


Figure 2.11 Dark Matter (DM) decay spectrum for  $b\bar{b}$  initial state and  $\gamma$  final state. Redder spectra are for larger DM masses. Bluer spectra are light DM masses.  $x$  is a unitless factor defined as the ratio of the mass of DM,  $m_\chi$ , and the final state particle energy  $E_\gamma$ . 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 to 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  $\gamma$ -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

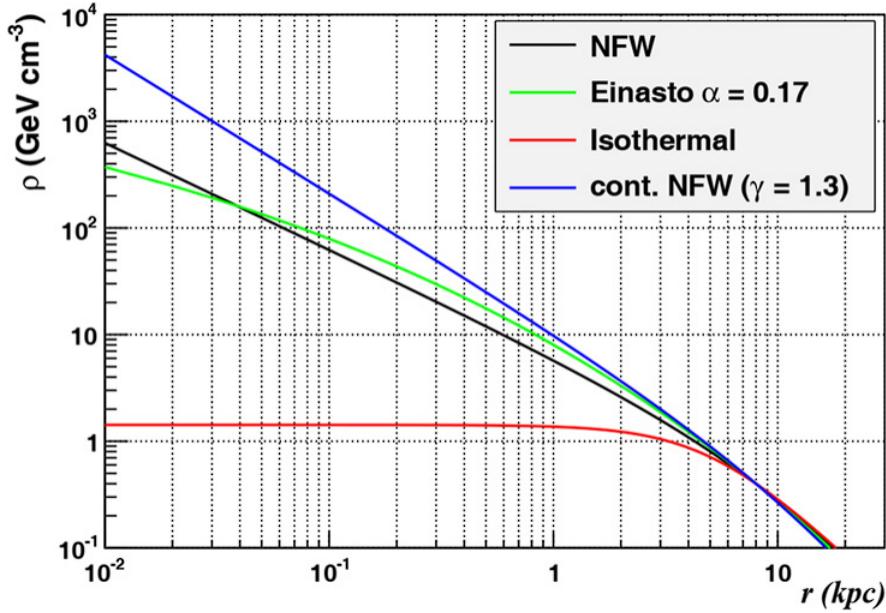


Figure 2.12 Different dark matter density profiles compared. Some models produce exceptionally large densities at small  $r$  [20].

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

## 521 **2.6 Multi-Messenger Dark Matter**

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

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

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

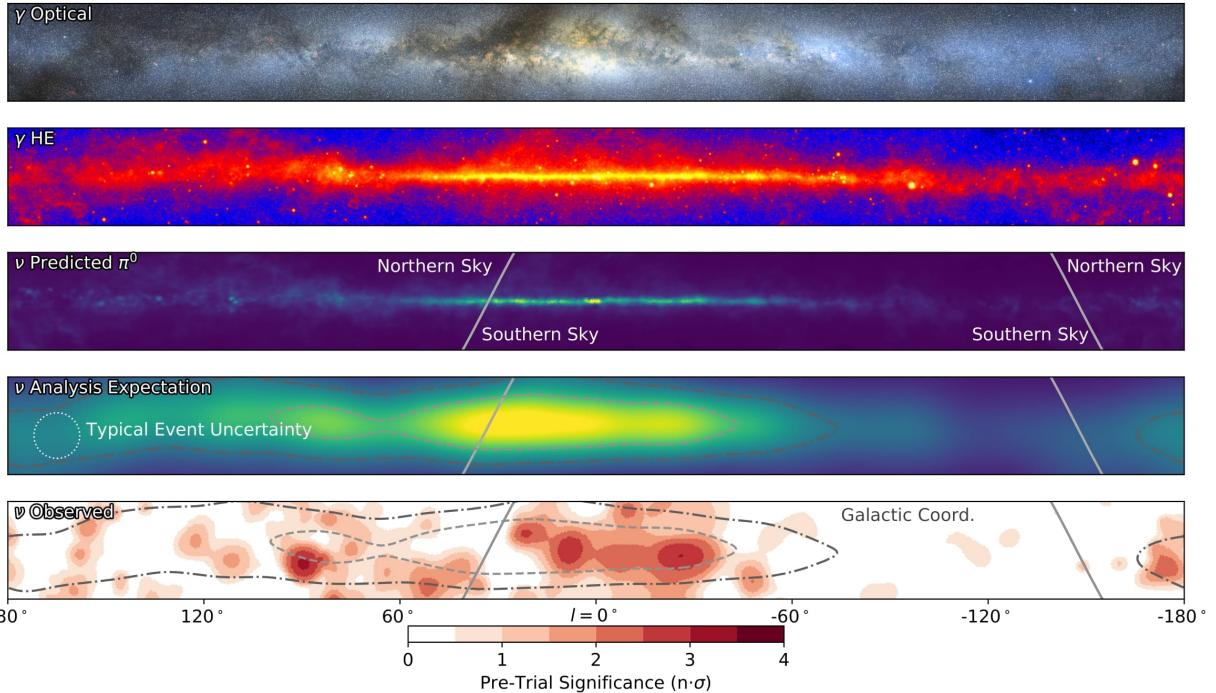


Figure 2.13 The Milky Way Galaxy in photons ( $\gamma$ ) and neutrinos ( $\nu$ ) [22]. The Galactic center is at  $l=0^\circ$  and is the brightest region in all panels. (top) An Optical color image of the Milky Way galaxy seen from Earth. Clouds of gas and dust obscure some light from stars. (2nd down) Integrated flux of  $\gamma$ -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.

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

543 energy particles are produced. For example, the fit to IceCube data prefers neutrino production  
 544 from the decay of  $\pi^0$  [22].

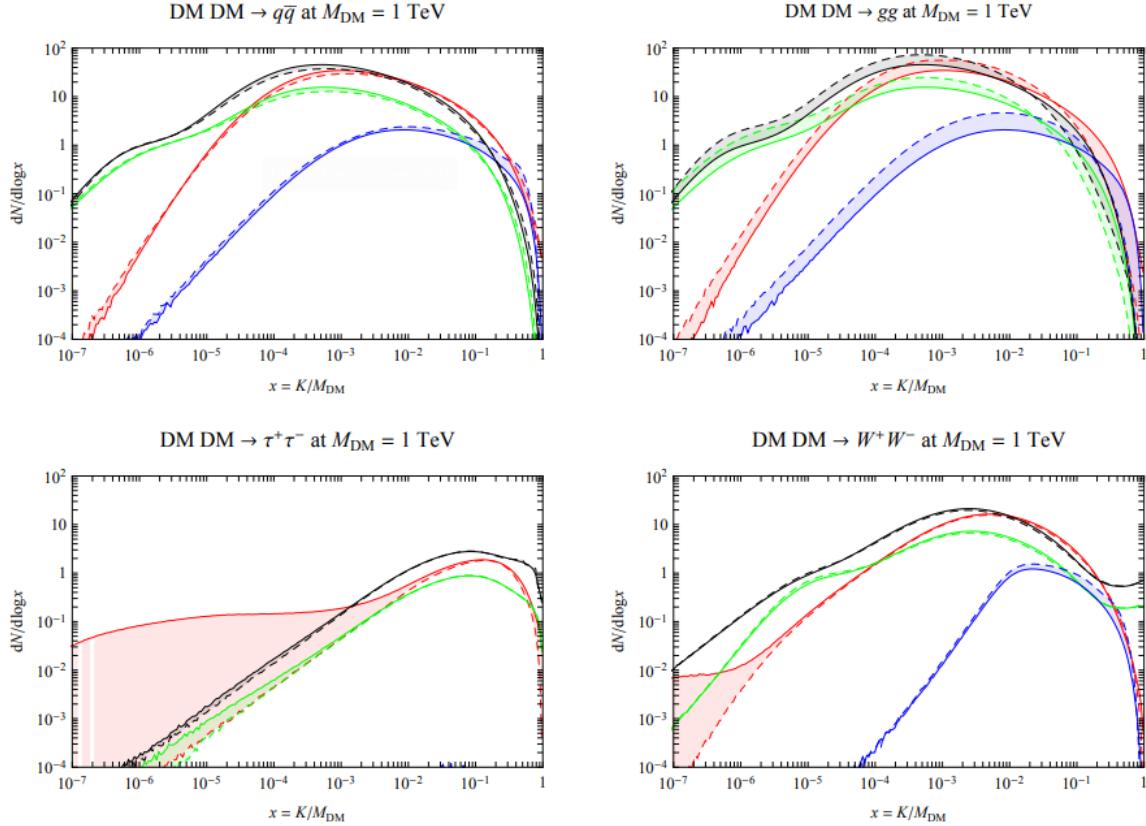


Figure 2.14 Dark Matter annihilation spectra for different final state particle and standard model annihilation channels [24]. Photons (red),  $e^\pm$  (green),  $\bar{p}$  (blue),  $\nu$  (black).

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

## CHAPTER 3

### 551      MULTIMESSENGER ASTROPHYSICS: DETECTING HIGH ENERGY NEUTRAL 552      MESSENGERS

#### 553    **3.1 Introduction**

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

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

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

#### 573    **3.2 Charged Particles in a Medium**

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

577 speed of light in that medium. This is similar to sonic boom where an object moves through air  
578 faster than the speed of sound in air. Cherenkov radiation can therefore be thought of as an 'optic  
579 boom'. Many astro-particle physics experiments will use water as the medium as because water  
580 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]

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

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

582 The absorption spectra is shown in the following figure:

583 **3.3 Photons ( $\gamma$ )**

584 **3.4 Neutrinos ( $\nu$ )**

585 **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

586

### HIGH ALTITUDE WATER CHERENKOV (HAWC) OBSERVATORY

587 **4.1 The Detector**

588 **4.2 Events Reconstruction and Data Acquisition**

589 **4.2.1 G/H Discrimination**

590 **4.2.2 Angle**

591 **4.2.3 Energy**

592 **4.3 Remote Monitoring**

593 **4.3.1 ATHENA Database**

594 **4.3.2 HOMER**

595

## CHAPTER 5

### ICECUBE NEUTRINO OBSERVATORY

596 **5.1 The Detector**

597 **5.2 Events Reconstruction and Data Acquisition**

598 **5.2.1 Angle**

599 **5.2.2 Energy**

600 **5.3 Northern Test Site**

601 **5.3.1 PIgeon remote dark rate testing**

602 **5.3.2 Bulkhead Construction**

603

## CHAPTER 6

### COMPUTATIONAL TECHNIQUES IN PARTICLE ASTROPHYSICS

604 **6.1 Neural Networks for Gamma/Hadron Separation**

605 **6.2 Parallel Computing for Dark Matter Analyses**

## CHAPTER 7

### GLORY DUCK: MULTI-WAVELENGTH SEARCH FOR DARK MATTTER ANNIHILATION TOWARDS DWARF SPHEROIDAL GALAXIES

#### 7.1 Introduction

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

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

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

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

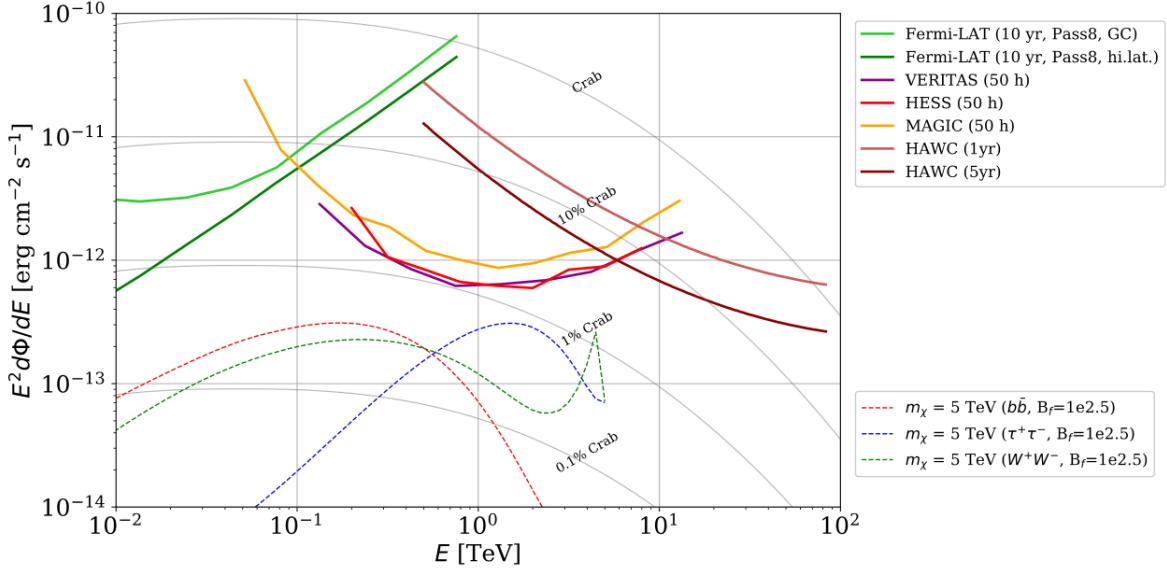


Figure 7.1 Sensitivities of five gamma-ray experiments compared to percentages of the Crab nebula’s emission and dark matter annihilation. Solid lines present estimated sensitivities to power law spectra [FACT CHECK THIS] for each experiment. Green lines are Fermi-LAT sensitivities where lighter green 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]

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

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

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

644 **7.2 Dataset and Background**

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

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

647 the Glory Duck analysis.

648 **7.2.1 Itemized HAWC files**

649 • Detector Resolution: [response\\_aerie\\_svn\\_27754\\_systematics\\_best\\_mc\\_test\\_no  
650 broadpulse\\\_10pctlogchargesmearing\\_0.63qe\\_25kHzNoise\\_run5481\\_curvatu  
651 re0\\_index3.root](#)

652 • Data Map: [maps-20180119/liff/maptree\\_1024.root](#)

653 • Spectral Dictionary: [DM\\_CirrelliSpectrum\\_dict\\_gammas.npy](#)

654 • Analysis wiki: [https://private.hawc-observatory.org/wiki/index.php/Glory\\_Duck\\_Multi-Experiment\\_Dark\\_Matter\\_Search](https://private.hawc-observatory.org/wiki/index.php/Glory_Duck_Multi-Experiment_Dark_Matter_Search)

656 **7.2.2 Software Tools and Development**

657 This analysis was performed using HAL and 3ML [42, 43] in Python version 2. I built software  
658 to implement the *A Poor Particle Physicist Cookbook for Dark Matter Indirect Detection* (PPPC)  
659 [44] DM spectral model and dSphs spatial model from [45] for HAWC analysis. A NumPy version  
660 of this dictionary was made for both Py2 and Py3. The code base for creating this dictionary is  
661 linked on my GitLab sandbox:

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

663 • Py3: [PPPC2Dict](#)

664 The analysis was performed using the  $f_{\text{hit}}$  framework performed in the HAWC Crab paper  
665 [42]. The Python2 NumPy dictionary file for gamma-ray final states is [dmCirSpecDict.npy](#). The  
666 corresponding Python3 file is [DM\\_CirrelliSpectrum\\_dict\\_gammas.npy](#). These files can also

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

670 **7.2.3 Data Set and Background Description**

671 The HAWC data maps used for this analysis contain 1017 days of data between runs 2104  
672 (2014-11-26) and 7476 (2017-12-20). They were generated from pass 4.0 reconstruction. The  
673 analysis is performed using the  $f_{hit}$  energy binning scheme with bins (1-9) similar to what was done  
674 for the Crab and previous HAWC dSph analysis [42, 46]. Bin 0 was excluded as it has substantial  
675 hadronic contamination and poor angular resolution.

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

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

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

688 **7.3 Analysis**

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

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

691 Where  $\langle \sigma v \rangle$  is the velocity weighted annihilation cross-section.  $\frac{dN}{dE}$  is the expected differential  
 692 number of photons produced at each energy per annihilation.  $m_\chi$  is the rest mass of the supposed  
 693 DM particle.  $\rho_\chi$  is the DM density.  $J$  is the astrophysical J-factor and is defined as

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

694  $l$  is the distance to the source from Earth.  $r$  is the radial distance from the center of the source.  $\theta'$  is  
 695 the half angle defining a cone containing the DM source. How each component is synthesized and  
 696 considered for HAWC's analysis is presented in the following sections. Section 7.3.1 presents the  
 697 particle physics model for DM annihilation. Section 7.3.2 presents the spatial distributions built  
 698 for each dSph.

### 699 7.3.1 $\frac{dN_\gamma}{dE_\gamma}$ - Particle Physics Component

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

### 708 7.3.2 $J$ - Astrophysical Component

709 The J-factor profiles for each source are imported from Geringer-Sameth (referred to with  $\mathcal{GS}$ )  
 710 [45]. These were pulled from the publication as  $J(\theta)$ , where  $\theta$  is the angular separation from the  
 711 center of the source. HAWC requires maps in terms of  $\frac{dJ}{d\Omega}$ , so the conversion from the maps was  
 712 done in the following way...

713 First, convert the angular distances to solid angles

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

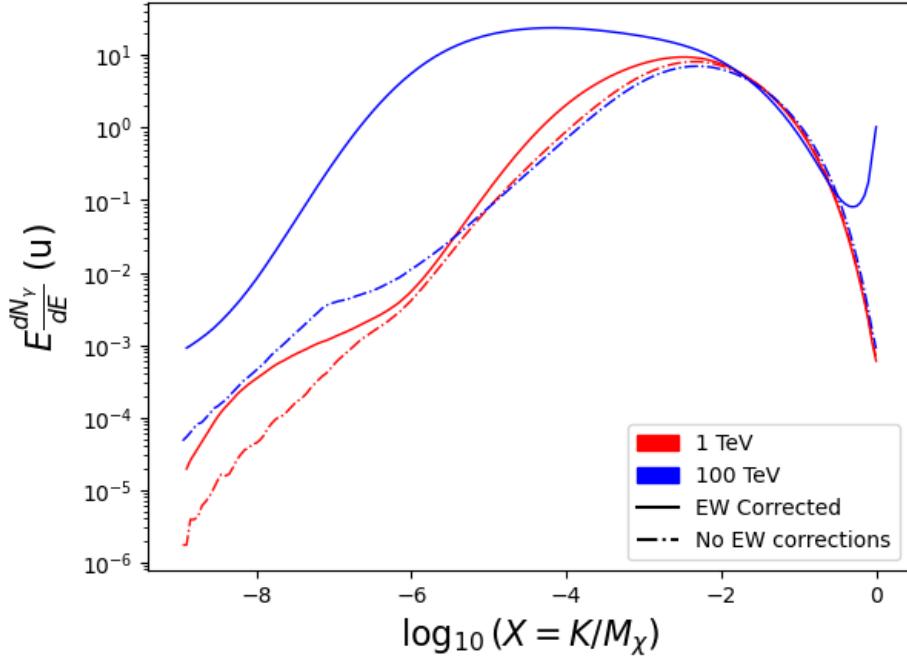


Figure 7.2 Effect of Electroweak (EW) corrections on expected DM annihilation spectrum for  $\chi\chi \rightarrow W^-W^+$ . Solid lines are spectral models that consider EW corrections. Dash-dot lines are spectral models without EW corrections. Red lines are models for  $M_\chi = 1$  TeV. Blue lines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

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

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

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

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

724 of bins, Newton’s integral:

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

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

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

### 732 7.3.3 Source Selection and Annihilation Channels

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

741 This analysis improves on the previous HAWC dSph paper [46] in the following ways. Pre-  
742 viously, the dSphs were treated and implemented as point sources. For this analysis, dSphs are  
743 modeled and treated as extended source. The impact of this change with respect to the upper limit  
744 is source dependent and is explored in Section 7.7.2. Previously, the particle physics model used for  
745 gamma-ray spectra from DM annihilation did not have EW corrections where the PPPC includes  
746 them. Finally, the gamma-ray ray dataset is much larger. The study performed here analyzes over  
747 1000 days of data compared to 507.

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

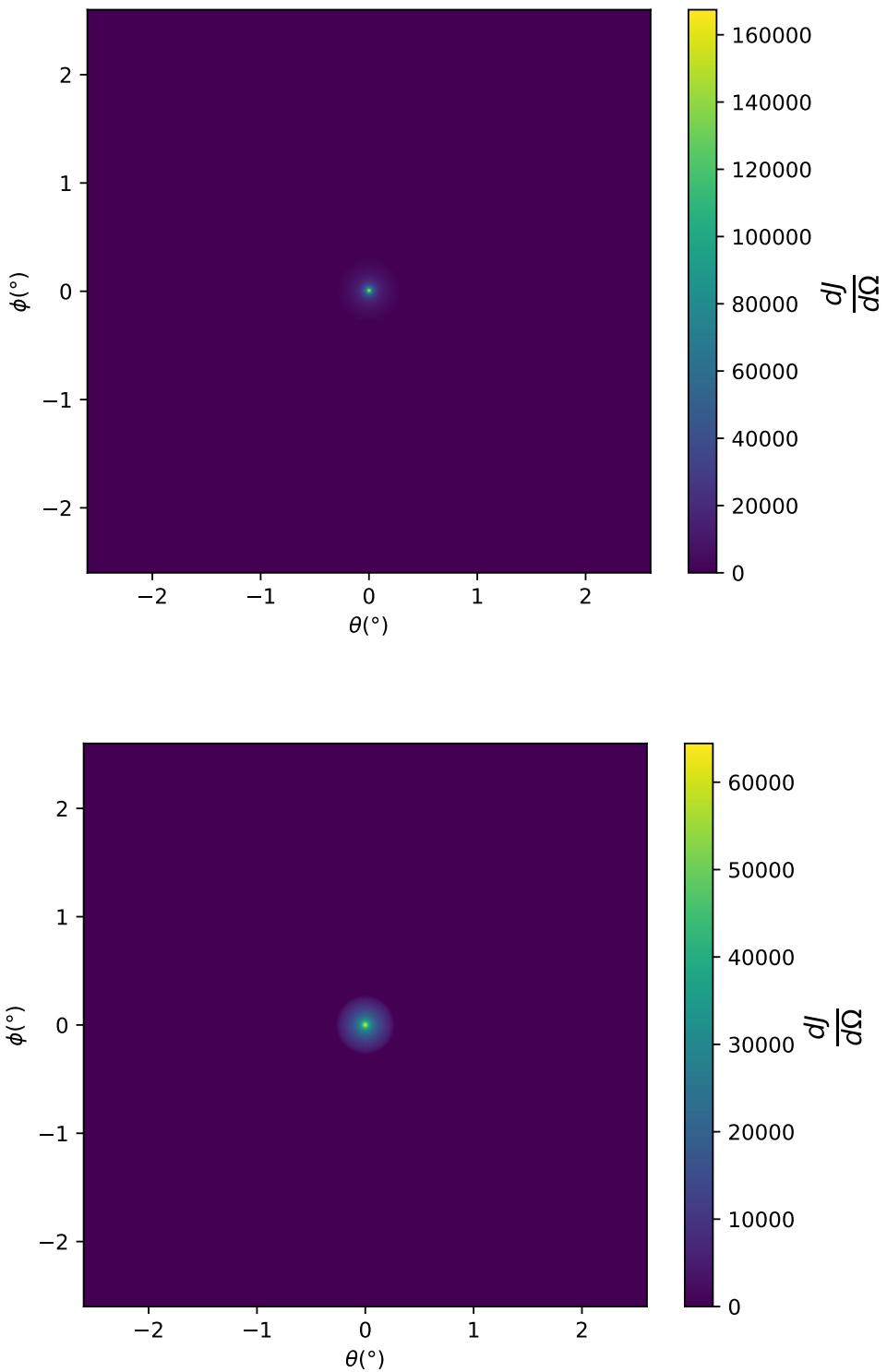


Figure 7.3  $\frac{dJ}{d\Omega}$  maps for Segue1 (top) and Coma Berenices (bottom). Origin is centered on the specific dwarf spheroidal galaxies (dSph). X and Y axes are the angular separation from the center of the dwarf. Plots of the remaining 11 dSph HAWC studied are linked in Fig. A.1.

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

750 to the source, is provided in Table 7.2.

## 751 7.4 Likelihood Methods

### 752 7.4.1 HAWC Likelihoods

753 For every analysis bin in energy,  $f_{hit}$  bins (1-9), and location, we can expect  $N$  signal events and  
 754  $B$  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  $\theta$  of the signal or ON region, the ratio of exposures between the background-control (OFF) and signal (ON) regions ( $\tau$ ), and the significance of gamma-ray excess in standard deviations,  $\sigma$ .

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)	$\theta$ (°)	$\tau$	$S$ ( $\sigma$ )
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

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

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

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

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

761 where  $S_i$  is the sum of expected number of signal counts.  $B_i$  is the number of background counts  
 762 observed.  $N_i$  is the total number of counts.

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

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

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

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

#### 768 7.4.2 Glory Duck Joint Likelihood

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

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

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

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

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

776 For this study,  $N_{\text{dSphs}} = 20$  is the number of dSphs studied.  $\mathcal{D}_l$  are the gamma-ray observations  
 777 of dSph,  $l$ .  $\nu_l$  are the nuisance parameters modifying the gamma-ray observations of dSph,  $l$ ,  
 778 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  
 779 parameter whose value is unknown.  $\log_{10} J_{l,\text{obs}}$  and  $\sigma_{\log J_l}$  are obtained from fitting a log-normal  
 780 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  
 781 in Table 7.1. The term  $\mathcal{J}_l$  constraining  $J_l$  is written as:

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

782 Both the  $\mathcal{GS}$  and  $\mathcal{B}$ , displayed in Table 7.1, sets of  $J$  factors are used in this analysis. Equation (7.12)  
 783 is also normalized, so it can also be interpreted as a probability density function (PDF) for  $J_{l,\text{obs}}$ .  
 784 From Equation (7.1), we can also see that  $\langle \sigma v \rangle$  and  $J_l$  are degenerate when computing  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{dSph},l}$ .  
 785 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  $J_l$ .  
 786 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  $J_l$ .  
 787 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  
 788 compute results from a different set of  $J$  factors):

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

789 which is a straightforward rescaling operation that reduces the computational needs of the profiling  
 790 operation since:

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

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

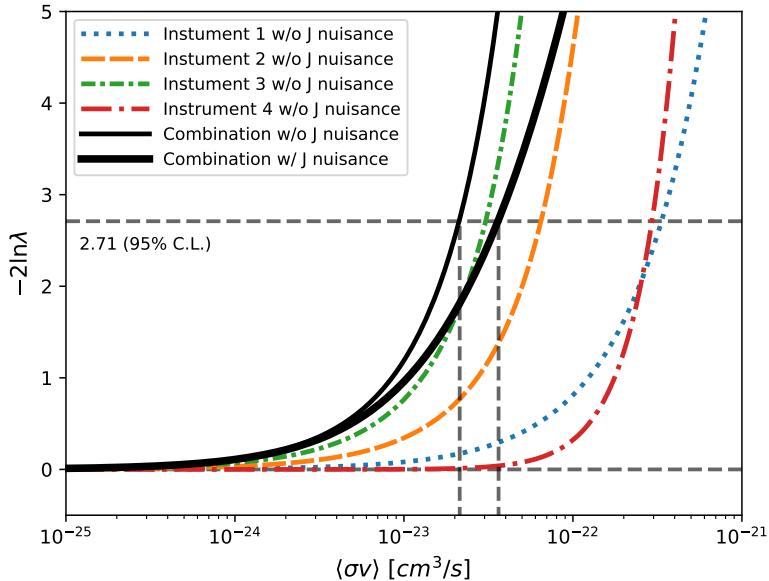


Figure 7.4 Illustration of the combination technique showing a comparison between  $-2 \ln \lambda$  provided by four instruments (colored lines) from the observation of the same dSph without any  $J$  nuisance and their sum, *i.e.* the resulting combined likelihood (thin black line). According to the 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.

793 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  
 794 instrumental nuisance parameters  $\nu_l$ , these nuisance parameters are discussed in more detail below.  
 795 These values are produced by each detector independently and therefore there is no need to share  
 796 sensitive low-level information used to produce them, such as event lists. Figure 7.4 illustrates the  
 797 multi-instrument combination technique used in this study with a comparison of the upper limit  
 798 on  $\langle \sigma v \rangle$  obtained from the combination of the observations of four experiments towards one dSph  
 799 versus the upper limit from individual instruments. It also shows graphically the effect of the  
 800  $J$ -factor uncertainty on the combined observations.

801 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  $\nu_{lk}$ . Then, values of  $\lambda$  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  $m_\chi$  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  $\lambda$ , 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  $N_{lk,ij}$

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

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

830 where  $E'$  and  $E$  are the reconstructed and true energies,  $P'$  and  $P$  the reconstructed and true  
 831 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  
 832 energy bin and the  $j$ -th arrival direction bin;  $T_{\text{obs}}$  is the (dead-time corrected) total observation  
 833 time;  $t$  is the time along the observations;  $d^2\Phi/dEd\Omega$  is the DM flux in the source region (see  
 834 Equation (7.1)); and  $\text{IRF}(E', P' | E, P, t)$  is the IRF, which can be factorized as the product of the  
 835 effective collection area of the detector  $A_{\text{eff}}(E, P, t)$ , the PDFs for the energy estimator  $f_E(E' | E, t)$ ,  
 836 and arrival direction  $f_P(P' | E, P, t)$  estimators. Note that for Fermi-LAT, HAWC, MAGIC, and  
 837 VERITAS the effect of the finite angular resolution is taken into account through the convolution  
 838 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  
 839 delta function. This approximation has been made in order to maintain compatibility of the result  
 840 with what has been previously published. The difference introduced by this approximation is  $< 5\%$   
 841 for all considered dSphs. A more comprehensive review of the differences between the analyses of  
 842 different instruments can be found in [25].

## 843 7.5 HAWC Results

844 13 of the 20 dSphs considered for the Glory Duck analysis are within HAWC's field of view.  
 845 These dSph are analyzed for emission from DM annihilation according to the likelihood method  
 846 described in Section 7.4. The 13 likelihood profiles are then stacked to synthesize a combined  
 847 limit on the dark matter cross-section,  $\langle\sigma\nu\rangle$ . This combination is done for the 7 SM annihilation  
 848 channels used in the Glory Duck analysis. Figure 7.5 shows the combined limit for all annihilation  
 849 channels with HAWC only observations. We also perform 300 studies of Poisson trials on the

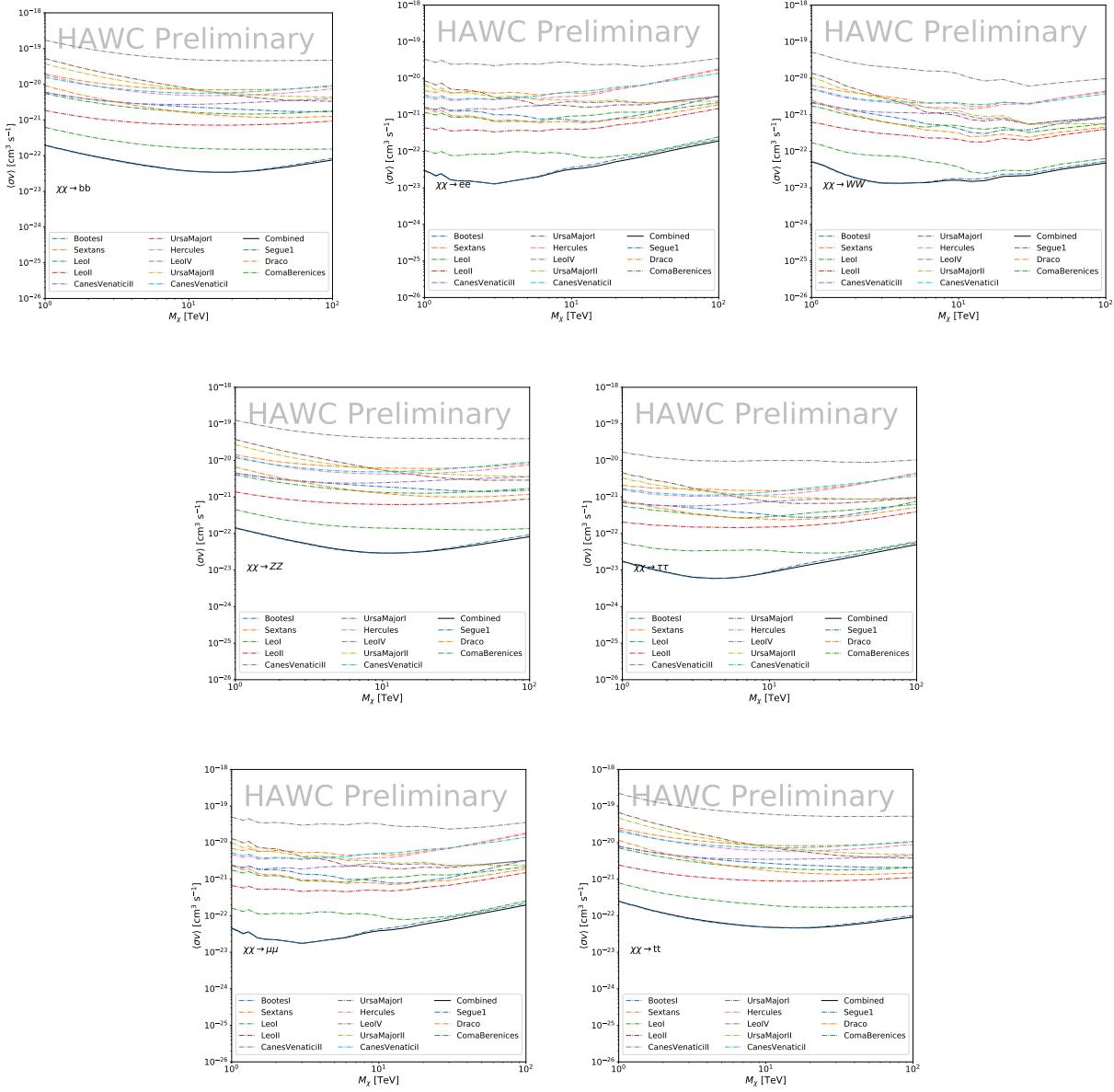


Figure 7.5 HAWC upper limits at 95% confidence level on  $\langle\sigma v\rangle$  versus DM mass for seven annihilation channels, using the set of  $J$ -factors from Ref. [53]. The solid line represents the observed combined limit. Dashed lines represent limits from individual dSphs.

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

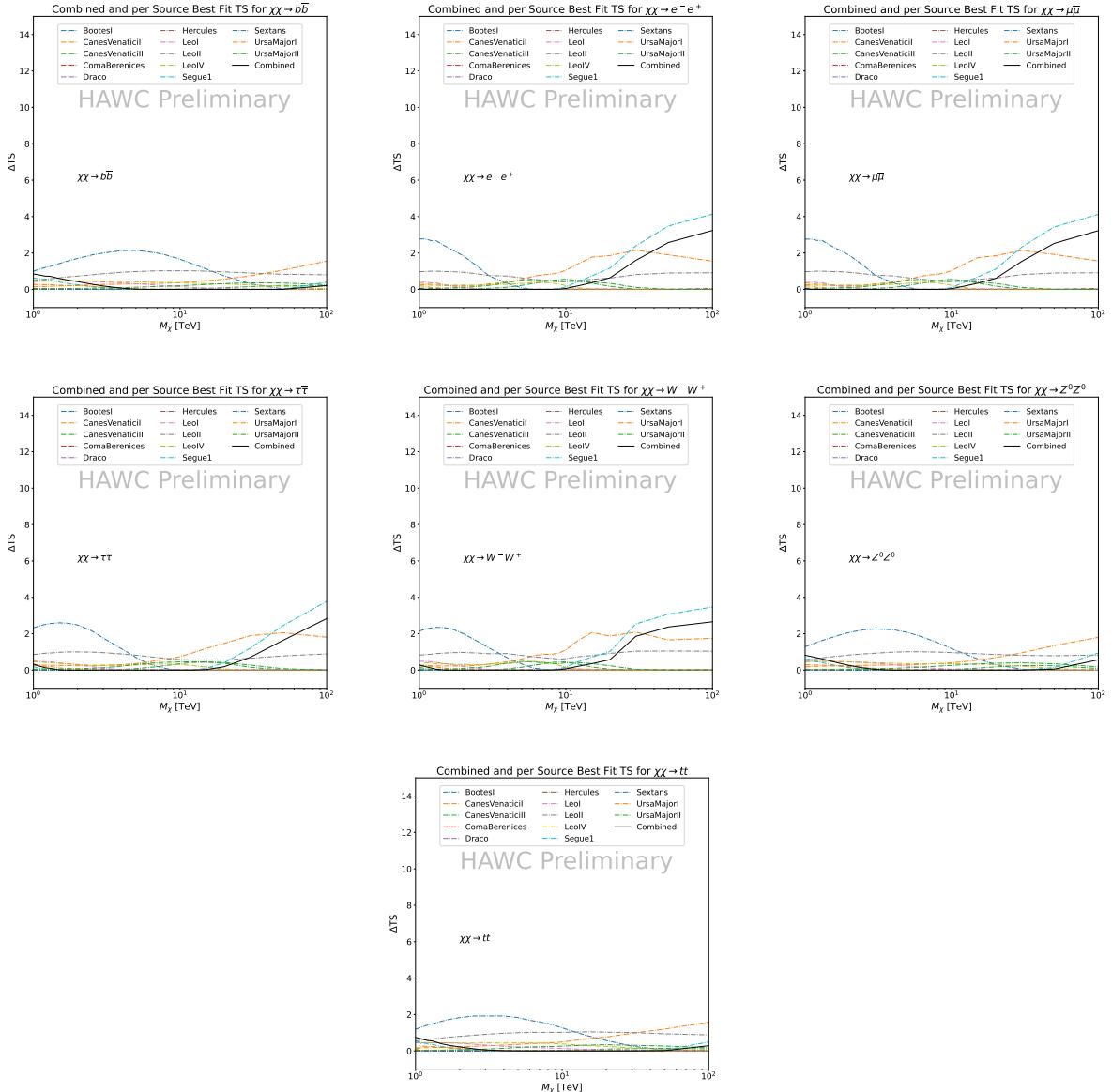


Figure 7.6 HAWC TS values for best fit  $\langle \sigma v \rangle$  versus  $m_\chi$  for seven SM annihilation channels with  $J$  factors from  $\mathcal{GS}$ . The solid black line shows the combined best fit TS values. The colored, dashed lines are the TS values for each of the 13 sources HAWC studied.

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.

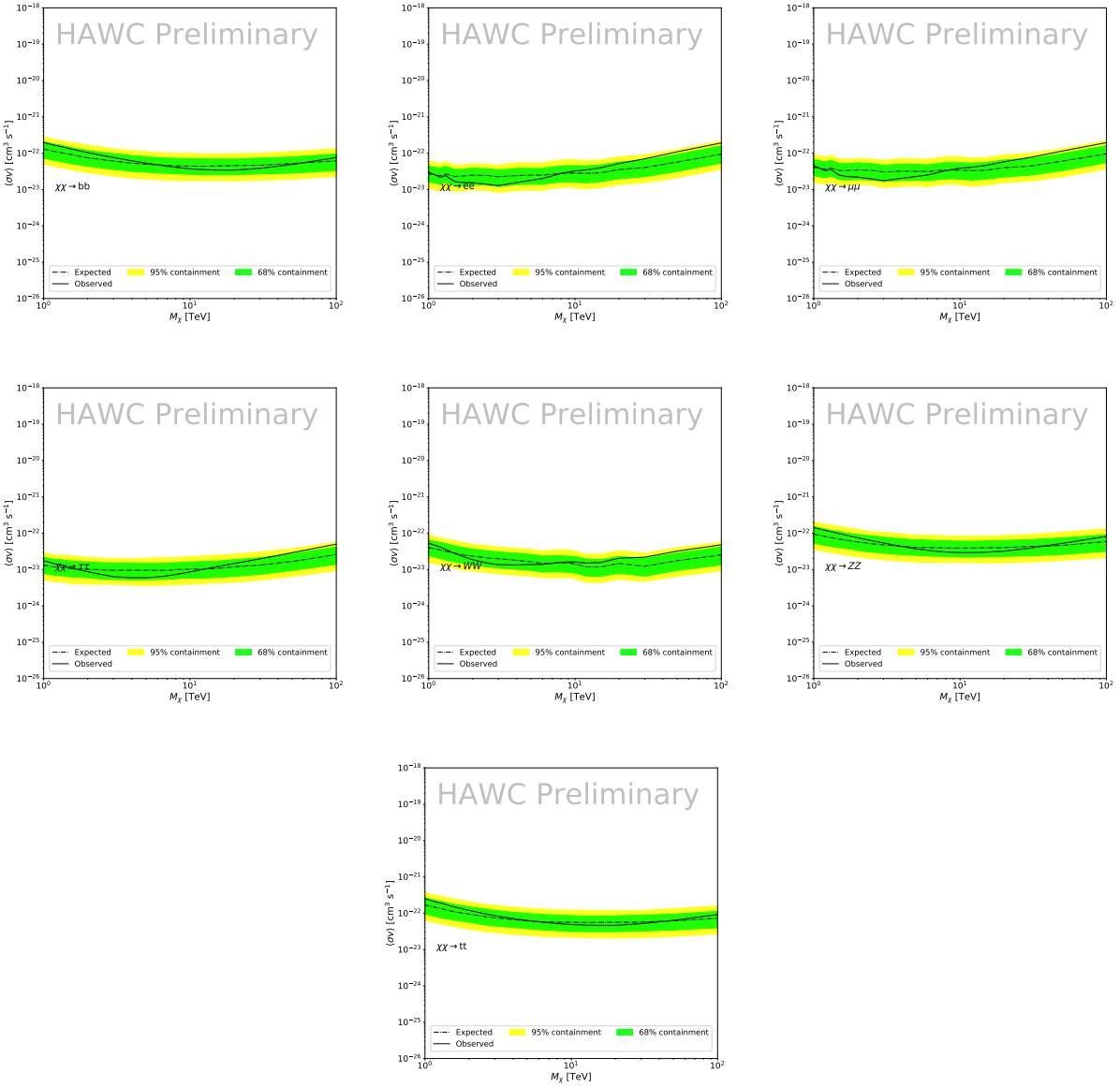


Figure 7.7 HAWC Brazil bands at 95% confidence level on  $\langle\sigma v\rangle$  versus DM mass for seven annihilation channels with  $J$ -factors from  $\mathcal{GS}$  [53]. The solid line represents the combined limit from 13 dSphs. The dashed line is the expected limit. The green band is the 68%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

## 859 7.6 Glory Duck Combined Results

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

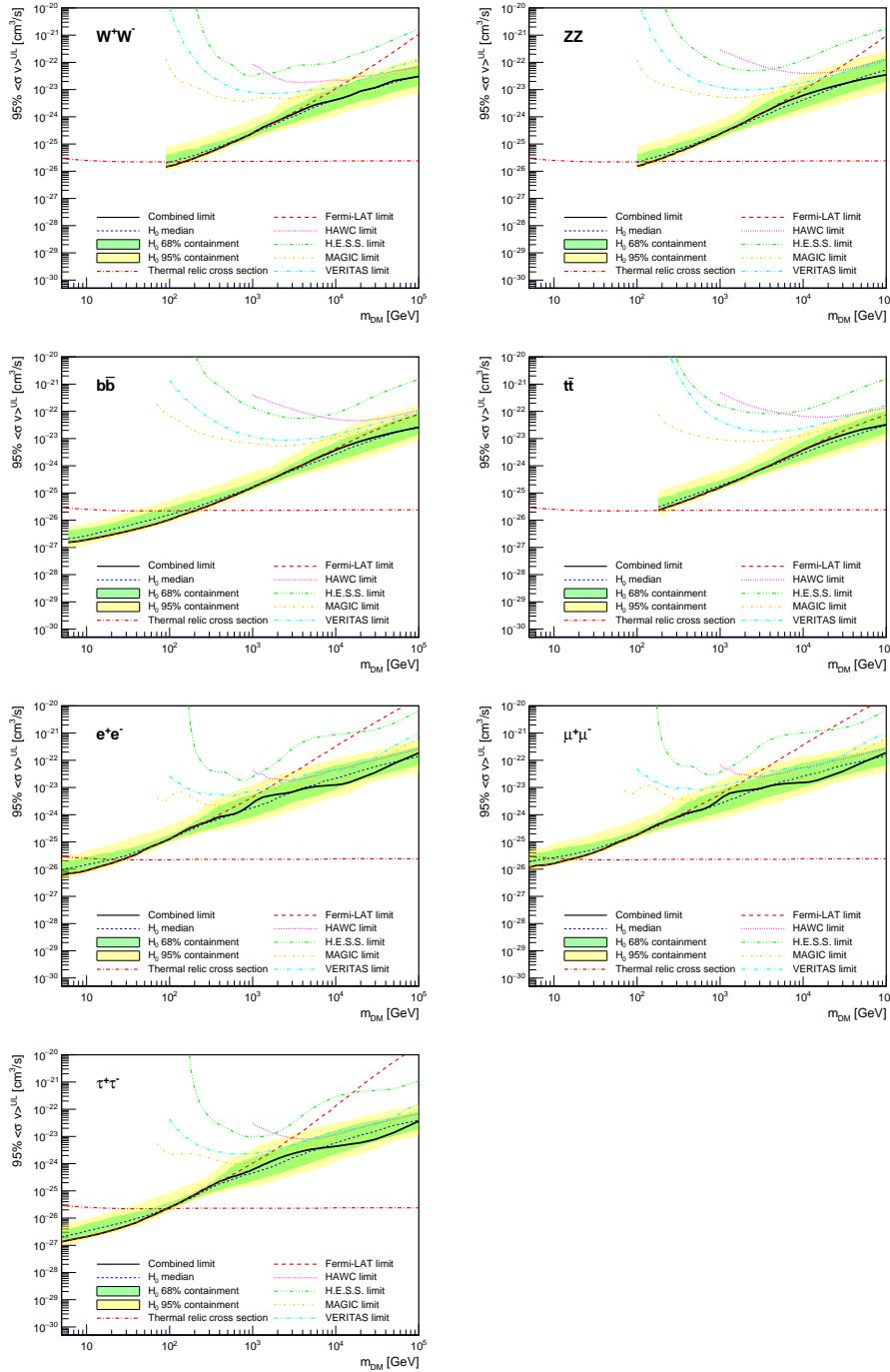


Figure 7.8 Upper limits at 95% confidence level on  $\langle\sigma v\rangle$  in function of the DM mass for eight annihilation channels, using the set of  $J$  factors from Ref. [53] ( $\mathcal{GS}$  set in Table 7.1). The black solid line represents the observed combined limit, the black dashed line 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].

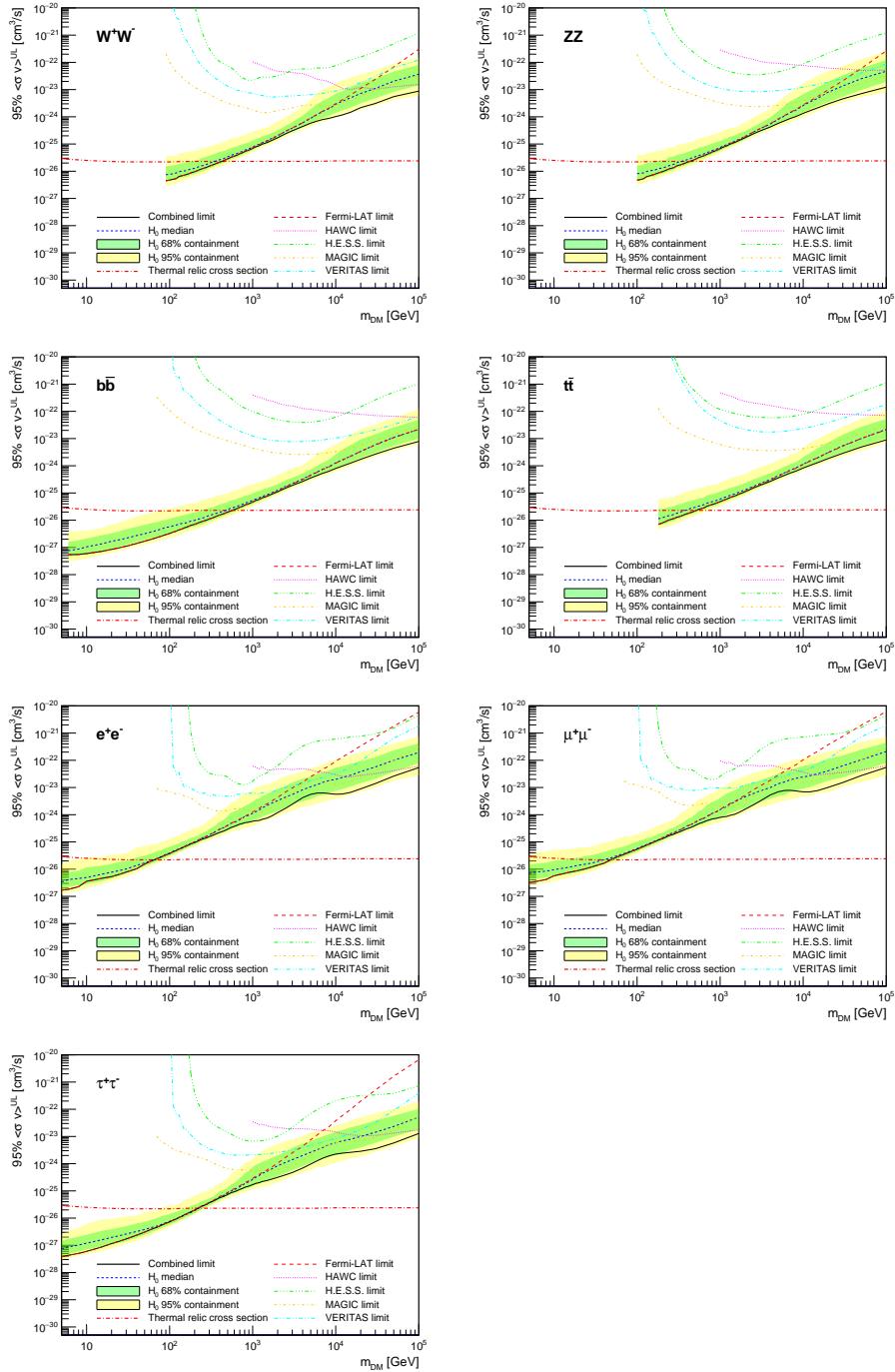


Figure 7.9 Same as Fig. 7.8, using the set of  $J$  factors from Ref. [47, 55] ( $\mathcal{B}$  set in Table 7.1).

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-

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

870 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  
871 for the  $\mathcal{B}$  set of  $J$ -factors [47, 55]. The combined limits are presented with their 68% and 95%  
872 containment bands, and are expected to be close to the median limit when no signal is present.  
873 We observe agreement with the null hypothesis for all channels, within  $2\sigma$  standard deviations,  
874 between the observed limits and the expectations given by the median limits. Limits obtained from  
875 each detector are also indicated in the figures, where limits for all dSphs observed by the specific  
876 instrument have been combined.

877 Below  $\sim 300$  GeV, the *Fermi*-LAT dominates the DM limits for all annihilation channels. From  
878  $\sim 300$  GeV to  $\sim 2$  TeV, *Fermi*-LAT continues to dominate for the hadronic and bosonic DM channels,  
879 yet the IACTs (H.E.S.S., MAGIC, and VERITAS) and *Fermi*-LAT all contribute to the limit for  
880 leptonic DM channels. For DM masses between  $\sim 2$  TeV to  $\sim 10$  TeV, the IACTs dominate leptonic  
881 DM annihilation channels, whereas both the *Fermi*-LAT and the IACTs dominate bosonic and  
882 hadronic DM annihilation channels. From  $\sim 10$  TeV to  $\sim 100$  TeV, both the IACTs and HAWC  
883 contribute significantly to the leptonic DM limit. For hadronic and bosonic DM, the IACTs and  
884 *Fermi*-LAT both contribute strongly.

885 We notice that the limits computed using the  $\mathcal{B}$  set of  $J$ -factor are always better compared to the  
886 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  
887 limits computed with the two sets of  $J$ -factor is varying between a factor of  $\sim 3$  and  $\sim 5$  depending  
888 on the energy, with the largest ratio around 10 TeV. For the channels  $e^+e^-$ ,  $\mu^+\mu^-$ , and  $\tau^+\tau^-$ , the  
889 ratio lies between  $\sim 2$  to  $\sim 6$ , being maximum around 1 TeV. Examining Figure 7.16 and Figure 7.17  
890 in Section 7.8, these differences are explained by the fact that the  $\mathcal{B}$  set provides higher  $J$ -factors  
891 for the majority of the studied dSphs, with the notable exception of Segue I. The variation on the  
892 ratio of the limits for the two sets is due to different dSph dominating the limits depending on the  
893 energy. This pushes the range of thermal cross-section which can be excluded to higher mass. This  
894 comparison demonstrates the magnitude of systematic uncertainties associated with the choice of

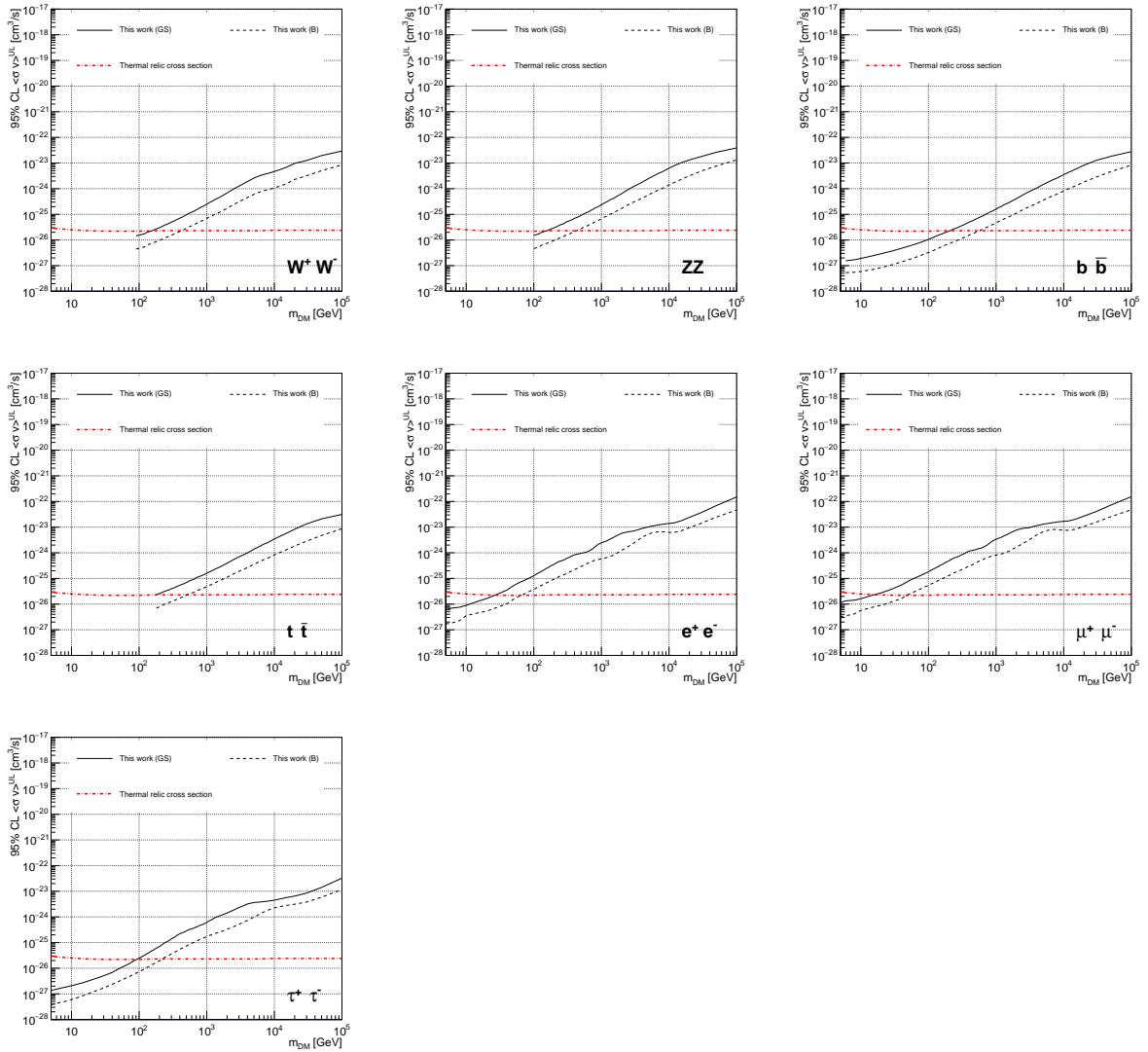


Figure 7.10 Comparisons of the combined limits at 95% confidence level for each of the eight annihilation channels when using the  $J$  factors from Ref. [53] ( $\mathcal{GS}$  set in Table 7.1), plain lines, and the  $J$  factor from Ref. [47, 55] ( $\mathcal{B}$  set in Table 7.1), dashed lines. The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

#### 895 the $J$ -factor

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

901 **7.7 HAWC Systematics**

902 **7.7.1 Inverse Compton Scattering**

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

913 **7.7.2 Point Source Versus Extended Source Limits**

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

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

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

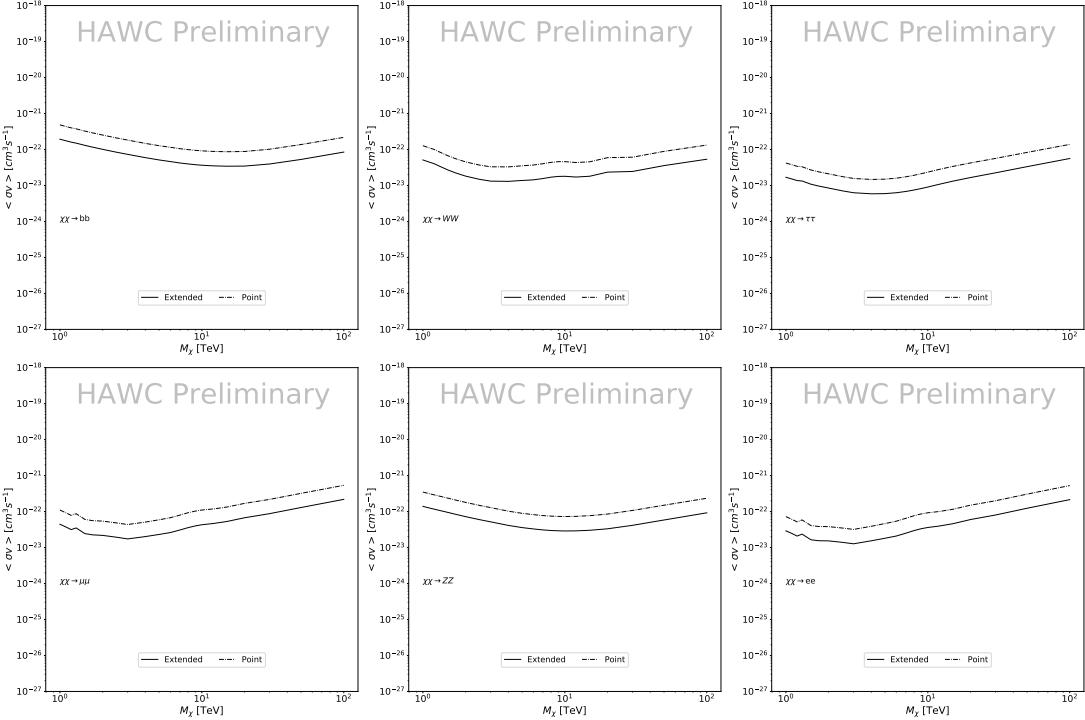


Figure 7.11 Comparisons of the combined limits at 95% confidence level for a point source analysis and extended source using [53]  $\mathcal{GS}$  J-factor distributions and PPPC [44] annihilation spectra. Shown are the limits for Segue1 which will have the most significant impact on the combined limit. 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.

### 926 7.7.3 Impact of Pointing Systematic

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

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

## 933 7.8 J-factor distributions

### 934 7.8.1 Numerical integration of $\mathcal{GS}$ maps

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

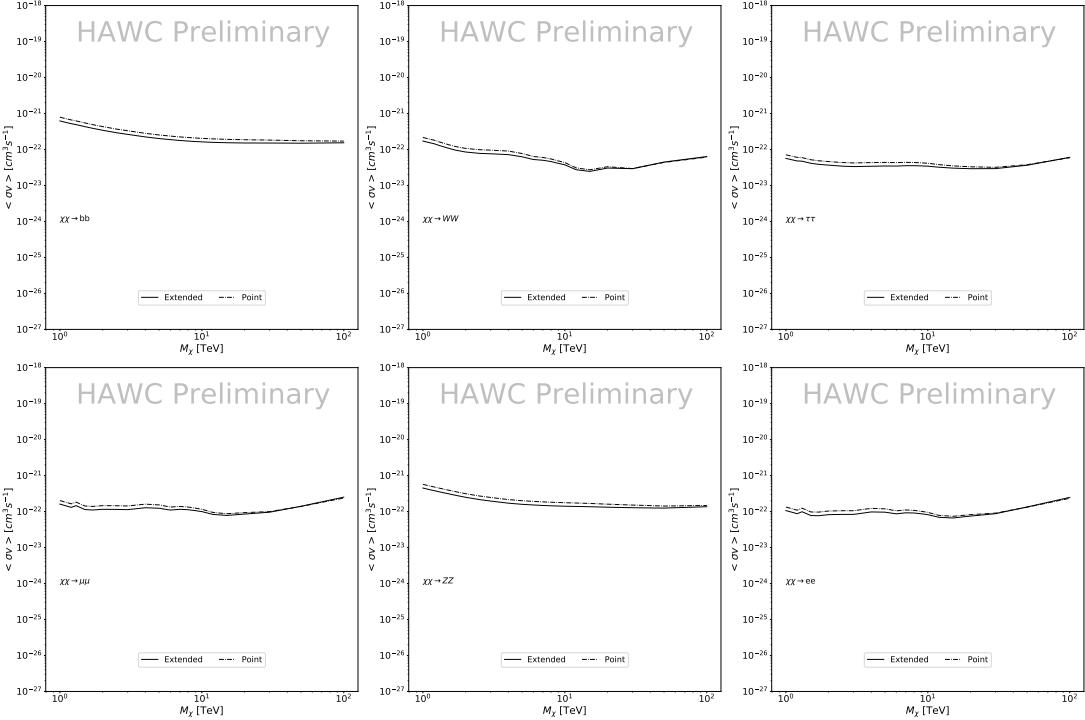


Figure 7.12 Same as Fig. 7.11 on Coma Berenices. This dSph also contributes significantly to the limit. The limits are identical in this case.

and collaborators had been that the published tables represented the  $J$ -factor as a function of  $\theta$  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  $\theta$ . Therefore, the model is changing for each value of  $\theta$  for each dwarf. Yet, the introduced features from unique models at each  $\theta$  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.

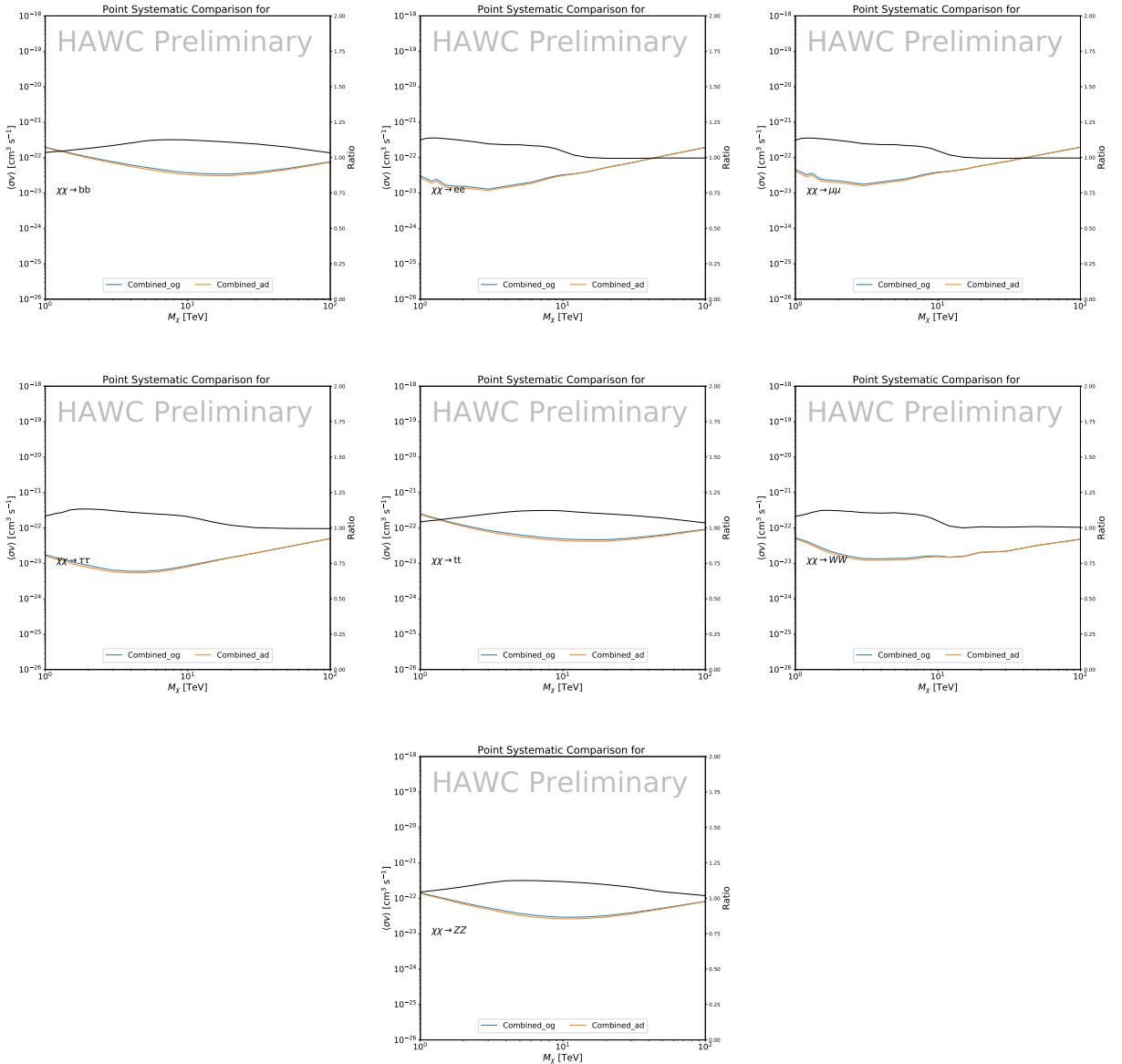


Figure 7.13 Comparison of combined limits when correcting for HAWC's pointing systematic. All DM annihilation channels are shown. The solid black line is the ratio between published limit to the declination corrected limit. The blue solid line or "Combined\_og" represented the limits computed for Glory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

## 951 7.8.2 $\mathcal{G}\mathcal{S}$ Versus $\mathcal{B}$ spatial models

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

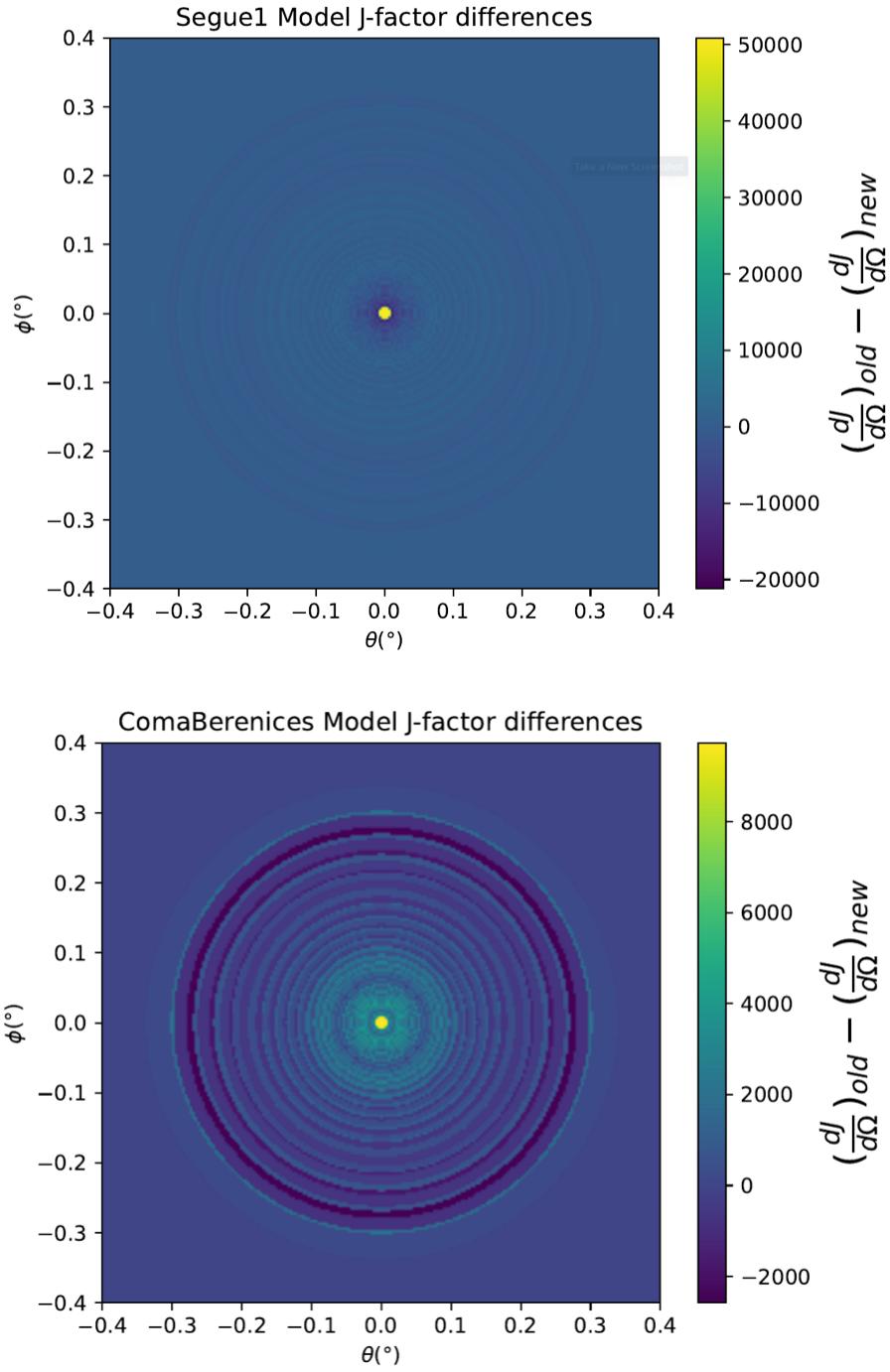


Figure 7.14 Differential map of  $dJ/\Omega$  from model built in Section 7.8.1 and profiles provided directly from authors. (Top) Differential from Segue1. (bottom) Differential from Coma Berenices. Note that their scales are not the same. Segue1 shows the deepest discrepancies which is congruent with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

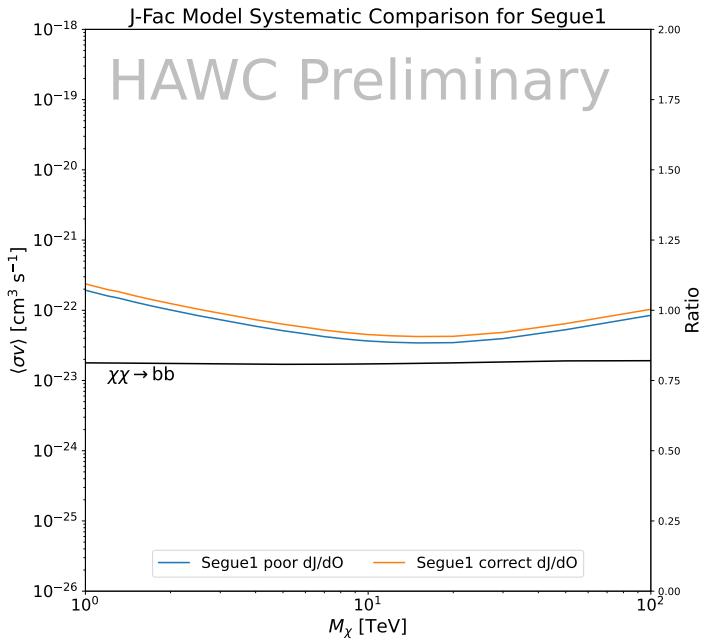
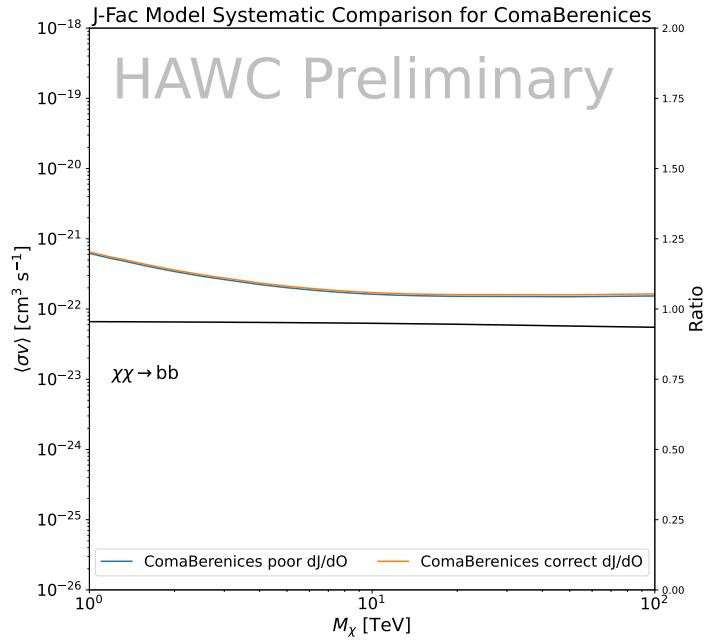


Figure 7.15 HAWC limits for Coma Berenices (top) and Segue1 (bottom) for two different map sets. Blue lines are limits calculated on maps with poor model representation. Orange lines are limits calculated on spatial profiles provided by the authors of [45]. Black line is the ratio of the poor spatial 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.

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

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

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

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

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

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

## 989 7.9 Discussion and Conclusions

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

996 Fermi-LAT brings the most stringent constraints for continuum channels below approximately  
997 1 TeV. The remaining detectors dominate at higher energies. Overall, for multi-TeV DM mass,  
998 the combined DM constraints from all five telescopes are 2-3 times stronger than any individual  
999 telescope for multi-TeV DM.

1000 Derived from observations of many dSphs, our results produce robust limits given the DM  
1001 content of the dSphs is relatively well constrained. The obtained limits span the largest mass  
1002 range of any WIMP DM search. Our combined analysis improves the sensitivity over previously  
1003 published results from each detector which produces the most stringent limits on DM annihilation  
1004 from dSphs. These results are based on deep exposures of the most promising known dSphs with  
1005 the currently most sensitive gamma-ray instruments. Therefore, our results constitute a legacy of  
1006 a generation of gamma-ray instruments on WIMP DM searches towards dSphs. Our results will  
1007 remain the reference in the field until a new generation of more sensitive gamma-ray instruments  
1008 begin operations, or until new dSphs with higher  $J$ -factors are discovered.

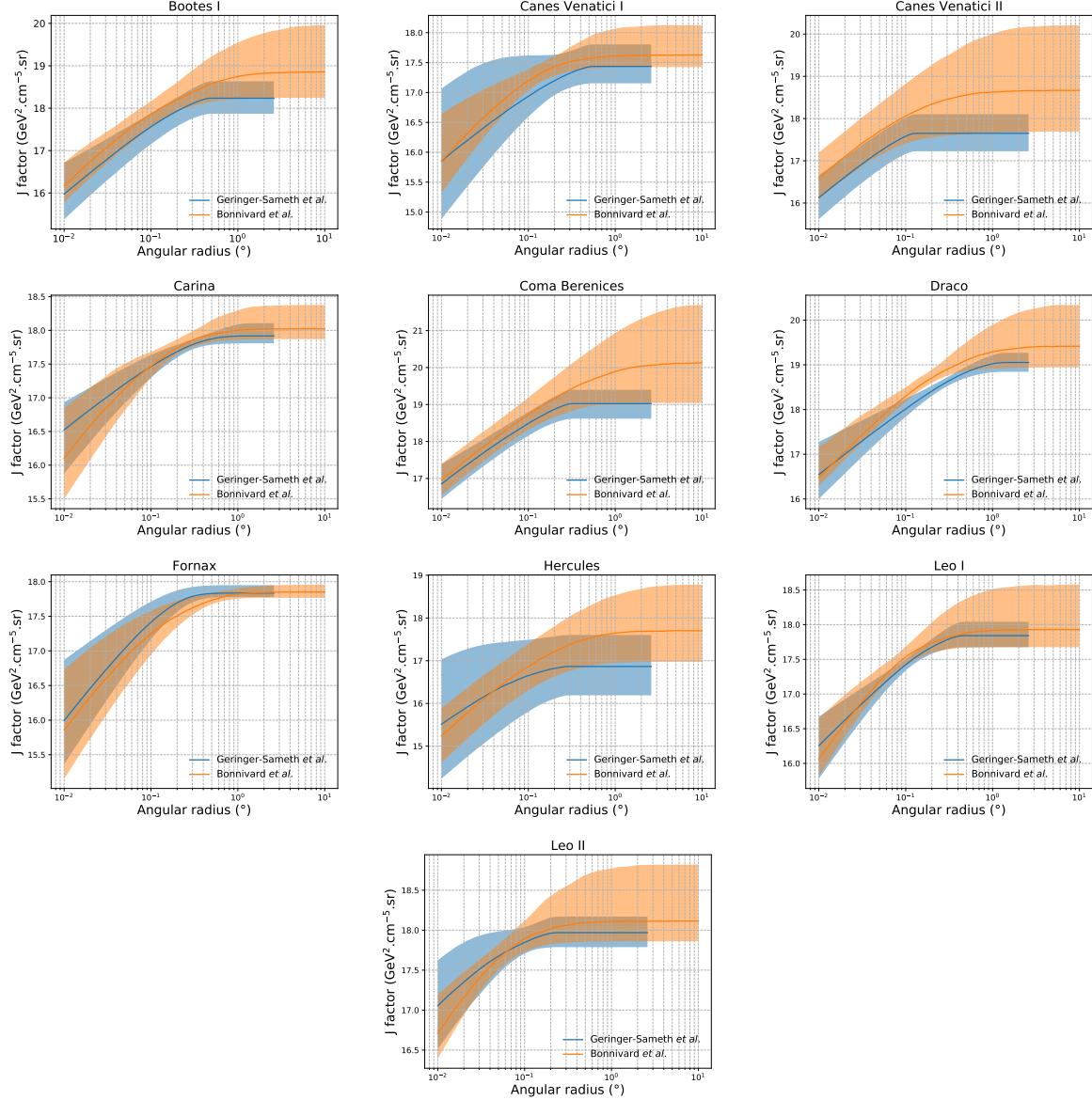


Figure 7.16 Comparisons between the  $J$ -factors versus the angular radius for the computation of  $J$  factors from Ref. [53] ( $\mathcal{GS}$  set in Table 7.1) in blue and for the computation from Ref. [47, 55] ( $\mathcal{B}$  set in Tab. 7.1) in orange. The solid lines represent the central value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

1009 This analysis serves as a proof of concept for future multi-instrument and multi-messenger  
 1010 combination analyses. With this collaborative effort, we have managed to sample over four orders  
 1011 in magnitude in gamma-ray energies with distinct observational techniques. Determining the nature  
 1012 of DM continues to be an elusive and difficult problem. Larger datasets with diverse measurement  
 1013 techniques could be essential to tackling the DM problem. A future collaboration using similar

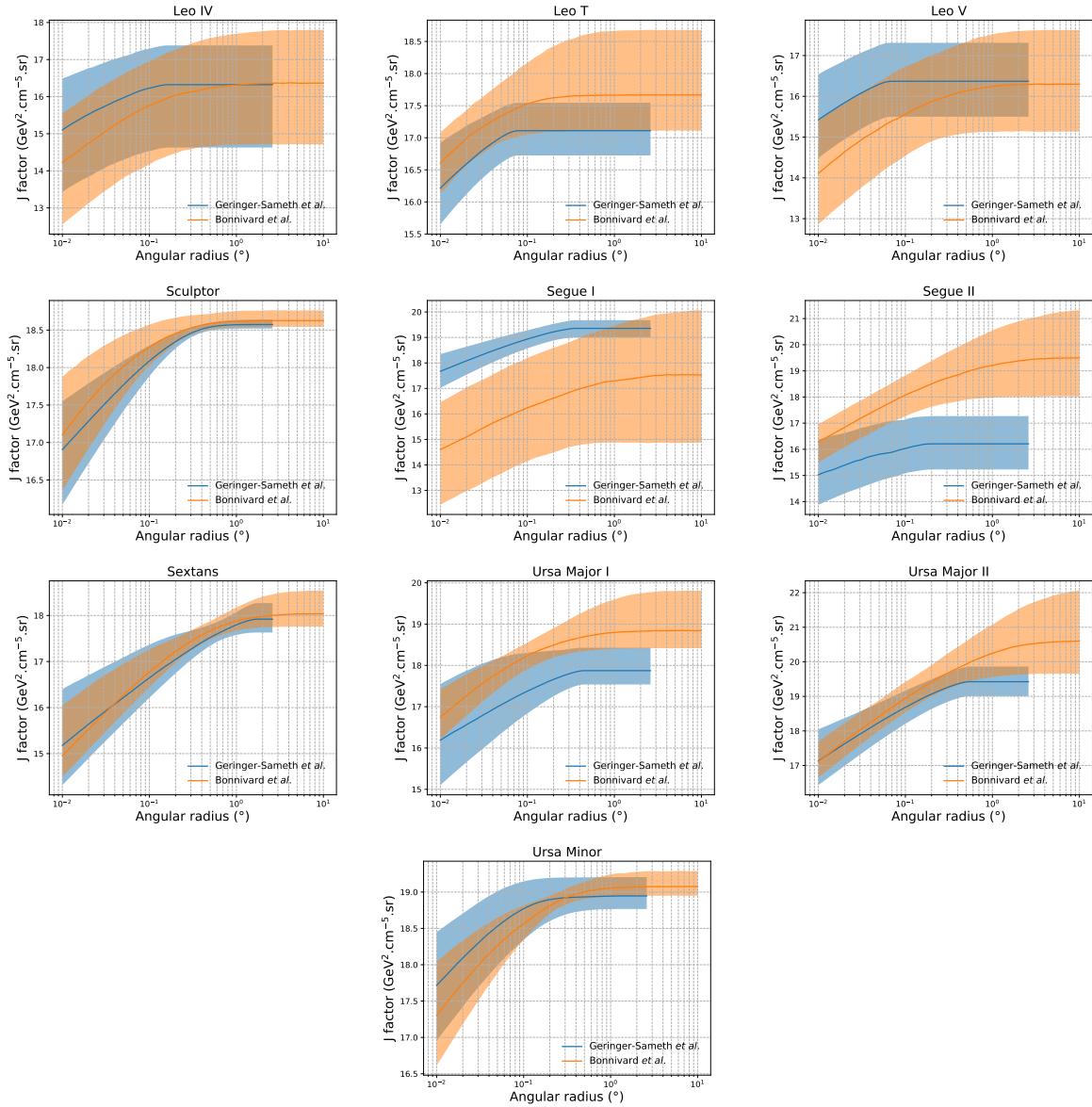


Figure 7.17 Comparisons between the  $J$ -factors versus the angular radius for the computation of  $J$  factors from Ref. [53] ( $\mathcal{GS}$  set in Tab. 7.1) in blue and for the computation from Ref. [47, 55] ( $\mathcal{B}$  set in Tab. 7.1) in orange. The solid lines represent the central value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

1014 techniques as the ones described in this paper could grow even beyond gamma rays. The models we  
 1015 used for this study include annihilation channels with neutrinos in the final state. Advanced studies  
 1016 could aim to merge our results with those from neutrino observatories with large data sets. Efforts  
 1017 are already underway to add data from the IceCube, ANTARES, and KM3NeT observatories to  
 1018 these gamma-ray results.

1019 From this work, a selection of the best candidates for observations, according to the latest  
1020 knowledge on stellar dynamics and modelling techniques for the derivation of the  $J$ -factors on  
1021 the potential dSphs targets, is highly desirable at the time that new experiments are starting their  
1022 dark matter programs using dSphs. Given the systematic uncertainty inherent to the derivation of  
1023 the  $J$ -factors, an informed observational strategy would be to select both objects with the highest  
1024  $J$ -factors that could lead to DM signal detection, and objects with robust  $J$ -factor predictions, i.e.  
1025 with kinematic measurements on many bright stars, which would strengthen the DM interpretation  
1026 reliability of the observation outcome.

1027 This analysis combines data from multiple telescopes to produce strong constraints on astro-  
1028 physical objects. From this perspective, these methods can be applied beyond just DM searches.  
1029 Almost every astrophysical study can benefit from multi-telescope, multi-wavelength gamma-ray  
1030 studies. We have enabled these telescopes to study the cosmos with greater precision and detail.  
1031 Many astrophysical searches can benefit from multi-instrument gamma-ray studies, for which our  
1032 analysis lays the foundation.

1033

## **CHAPTER 8**

### **NU DUCK**

## CHAPTER 9

### MULTITHREADING HAWC ANALYSES FOR DARK MATTER SEARCHES

**APPENDIX A****MULTI-EXPERIMENT SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES**

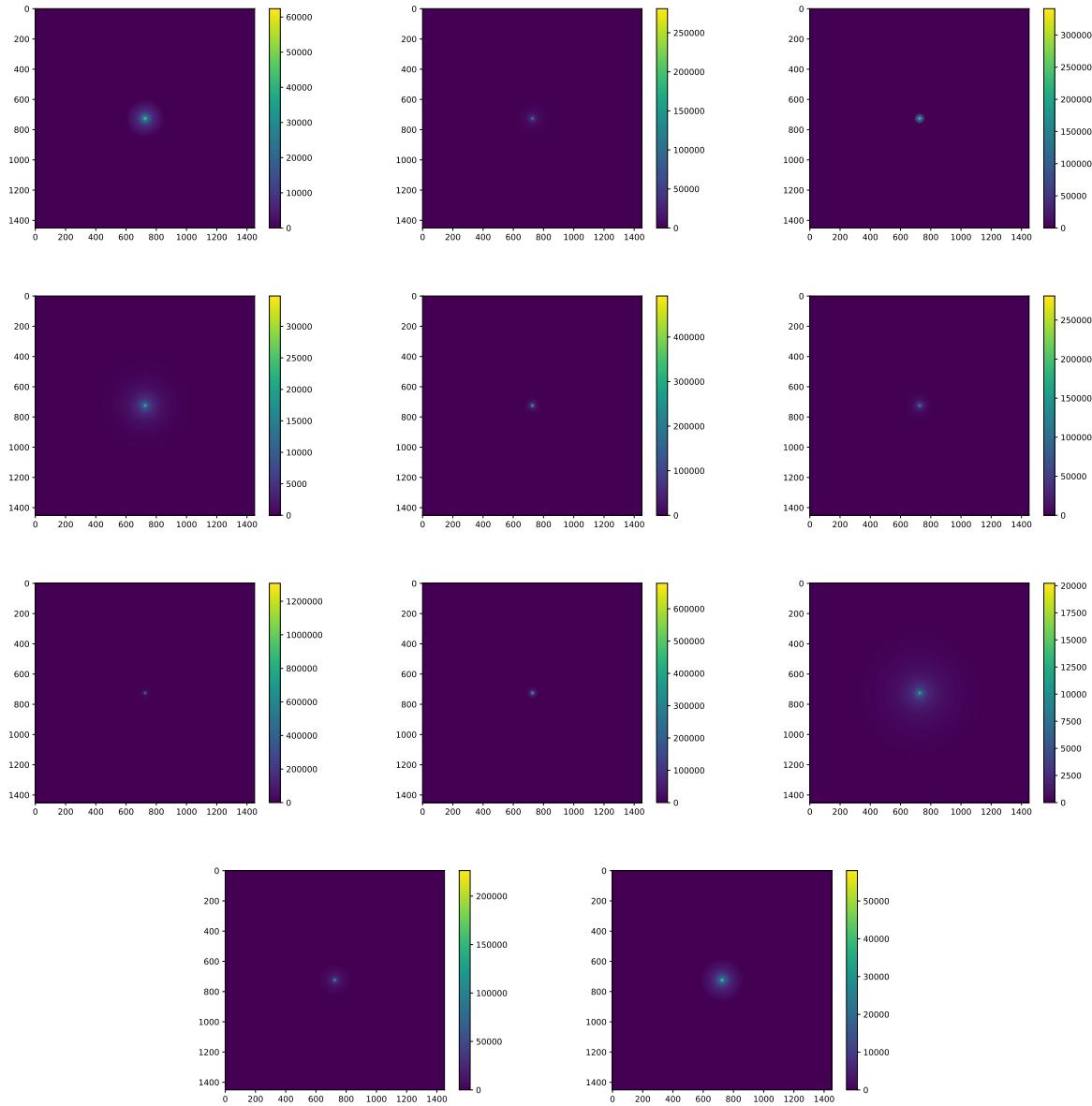


Figure A.1 Sister figure to Figure 7.3. Sources in the first row from left to right: Bootes I, Canes Venatici I, II. In second row: Draco, Hercules, Leo I. In the first row: Leo II, Leo IV, Sextans. In the final row: Ursa Major I, Ursa Major II.

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