

1 LEVERAGING MULTI-MESSENGER ASTROPHYSICS FOR DARK MATTER SEARCHES

By

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Today

**ABSTRACT**

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

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<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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## **CHAPTER 1**

### **INTRODUCTION**

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

## CHAPTER 2

95

### DARK MATTER IN THE COSMOS

96 **2.1 Introduction**

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

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

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

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

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

113 You estimated 1,900 lbs assuming the average weight of a student in your class was 60 lbs. So  
114 you're pleased with Sandra's and Mario's answer. You instruct your students to all gather on the  
115 giant scale and read off the weight together. To all of your surprise, the scale reads *10,000 lbs!*  
116 10,000 is significantly more than a 10% error from 2,000. In fact, it is approximately 5 times more  
117 massive than either your or your students' estimates. You think to yourself and conclude there  
118 must be something wrong with the scale. You ask an employee to check the scale and verify it is  
119 calibrated well. They confirm that the scale is in working order. You weigh a couple of students  
120 individually to test that the scale is well calibrated. Sandra weighs 59 lbs, and Mario weighs 62 lbs,

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

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

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

## 132 **2.2 Dark Matter Basics**

133 Presently, the most compelling Dark Matter (DM) model is  $\Lambda$  Cold Dark Matter, or  $\Lambda$ **CDM**. I  
134 present the evidence supporting  $\Lambda$ **CDM** in 2.3, yet discuss the conclusions of the  $\Lambda$ **CDM** model  
135 here. According to  $\Lambda$ **CDM** fit to observations on the Cosmic Microwave Background (CMB), DM  
136 is 26.8% of the universe's current energy budget Baryonic matter, stuff like atoms, gas, and stars,  
137 contributes to 4.9% of the universe's current energy budget [1–3].

138 DM is dark; it doesn't interact readily with light at any wavelength. DM also doesn't interact  
139 noticeably with the other standard model forces (Strong and Weak) at a rate that is readily observed  
140 [3]. DM is cold, which is to say that the average velocity of DM is below relativistic speeds [1].  
141 'Hot' DM would not likely manifest the dense structures we observe like galaxies, and instead  
142 would produce much more diffuse galaxies than what is observed [1, 3]. DM is old; it played a  
143 critical role in the formation of the universe and the structures within it [1, 2].

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

148 searches in Section 2.4.

149 **2.3 Evidence for Dark Matter**

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

162 **2.3.1 First Clues: Stellar Velocities**

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

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

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

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

168 Zwicky et. al. measured just the velocities of stars apparent in optical wavelengths [5]. Rubin et.  
169 al. added by measuring the velocity of the hydrogen gas via the 21 cm emission line of Hydrogen  
170 [6]. The velocities of the stars and gas are used to infer the total mass of galaxies and galaxy clusters  
171 via Eq. (2.1). An inferred mass is also made from the luminosity of the selected sources. The two

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

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

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

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

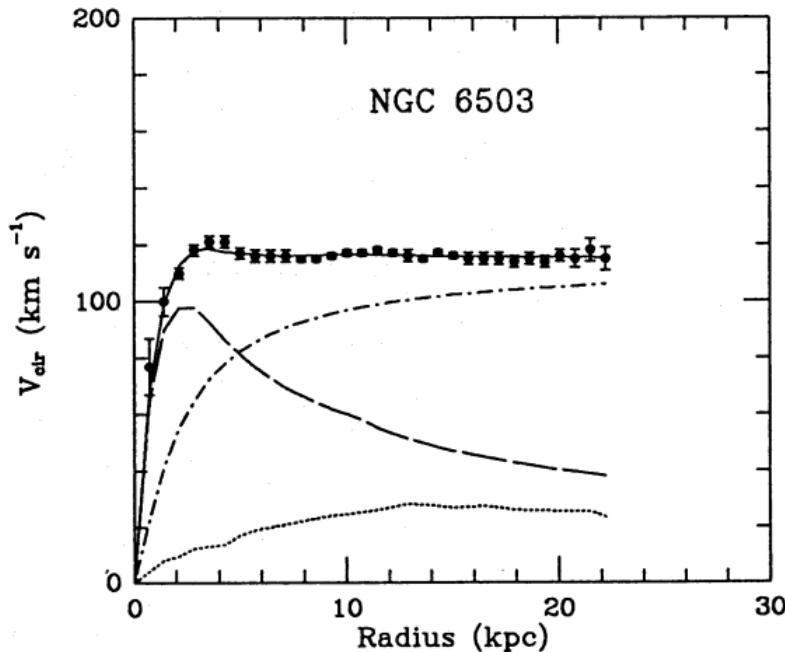


Figure 2.1 Rotation curve fit to NGC 6503 from [7]. Dashed line is the contribution from visible matter. Dotted curves are from gas. Dash-dot curves are from dark matter (DM). Solid line is the composite contribution from all matter and DM sources. Data are indicated with bold dots with error bars. Data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

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

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

187 **2.3.2 Evidence for Dark Matter: Micro-lensing**

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

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

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

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

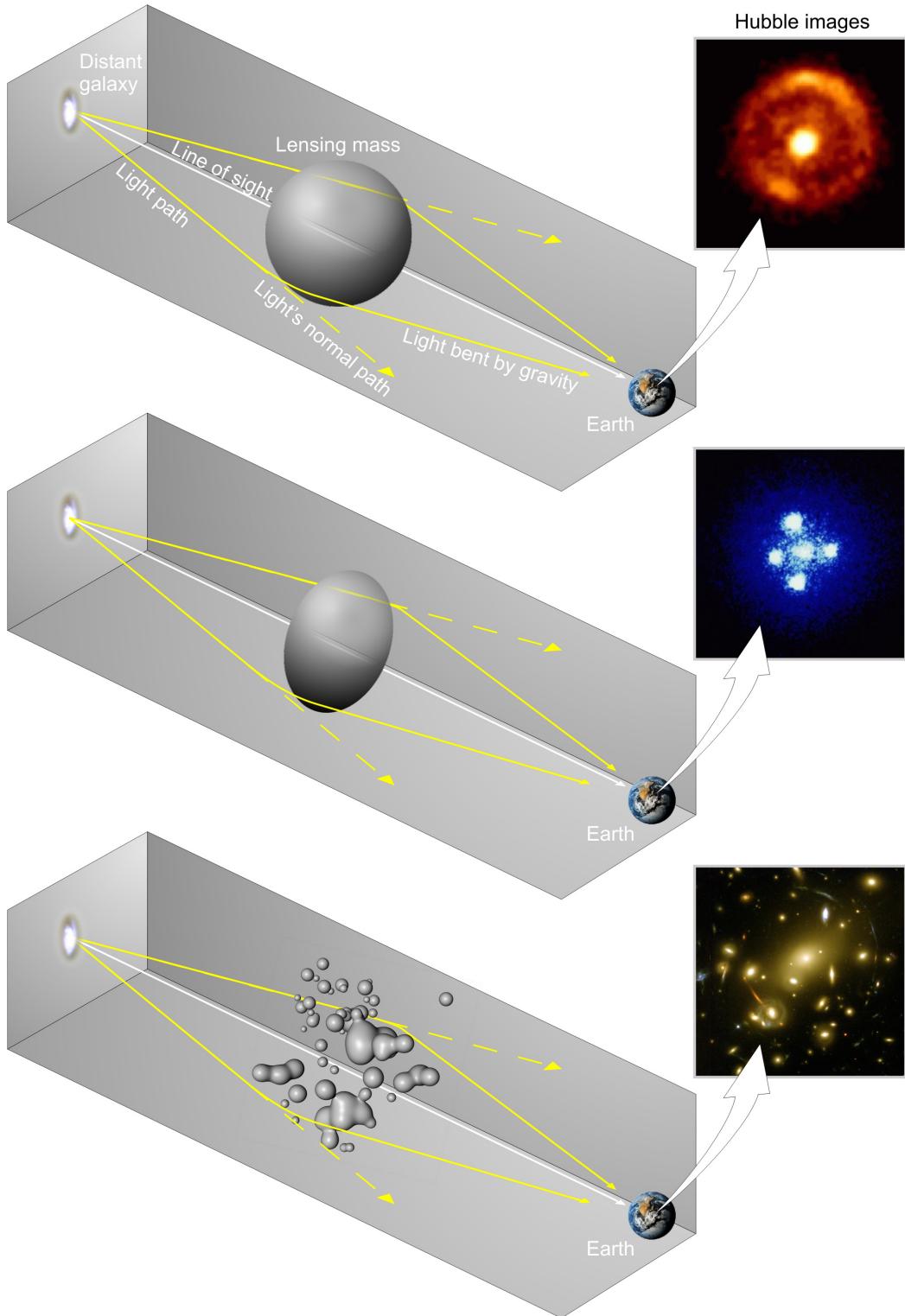


Figure 2.2 Light from distant galaxy is bent in different way depending on the distribution of mass between the galaxy and Earth. Yellow dashed lines indicate where the light would have gone if the matter was not present [8].

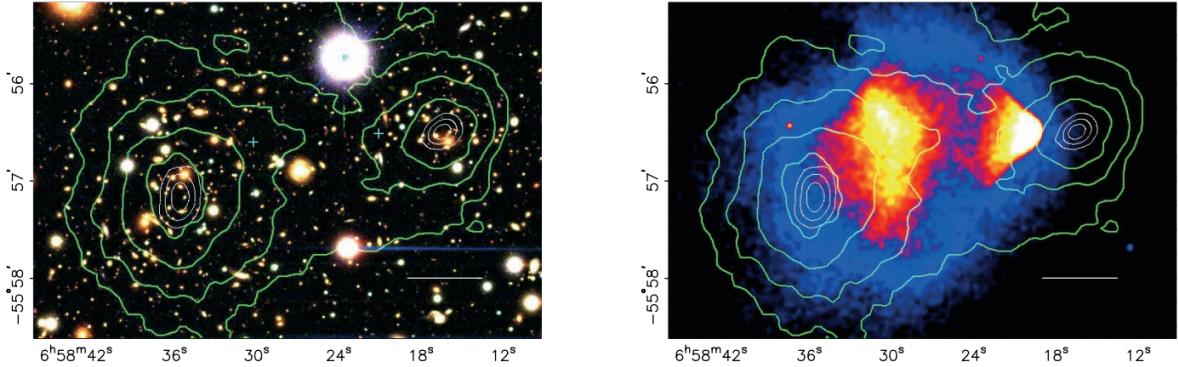


Figure 2.3 (left) Optical image of galactic cluster. (right) X-ray image of the cluster with redder meaning hotter and higher baryon density. (both) Green contours are reconstruction of gravity contours from micro-lensing. White rings are the best fit mass maxima at 68.3%, 95.5%, and 99.7% confidence.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

210 scales. They're recent merge separated the stars and galaxies are separated from the intergalactic  
 211 gas. For these clusters, the hot, intergalactic gas is responsible for most of the mass in the systems  
 212 [4]. The hot gas is observed from its x-rays emmision. Two observations of the clusters were made  
 213 independantly of each other. The first was the microlensing of light around the galaxies due to  
 214 their gravitational influences. When celestial bodies are large enough, the gravity they exert bends  
 215 space and time itself. This bending effects light and will deflect light in a smilar way to how lenses  
 216 will bend light. With a sufficient understanding of light sources behind a celestial body, we can  
 217 reconstruct the countours of the gravitational lenses. The gradient of the contours then indicates  
 218 how dense the matter is and where it is.

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

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

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

232 **2.3.3 Evidence for Dark Matter: Cosmic Microwave Background**

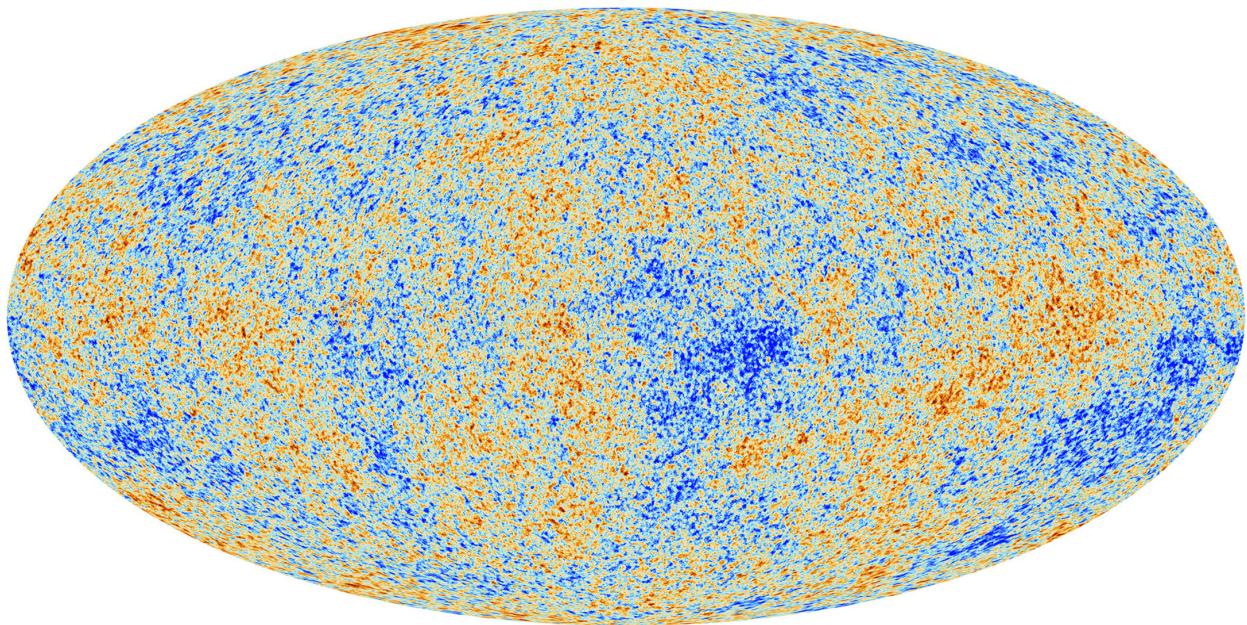


Figure 2.4 Plank CMB sky. Sky map features small variations in temperature in primordial light. These anisotropies can be used to make inferences about the universe's energy budget. [11]

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

239 To measure the DM, Dark Energy, and matter fractions of the universe from the CMB, the image  
240 is deconstructed into a power spectrum versus spherical multipole moments.  $\Lambda$ CDM provides the

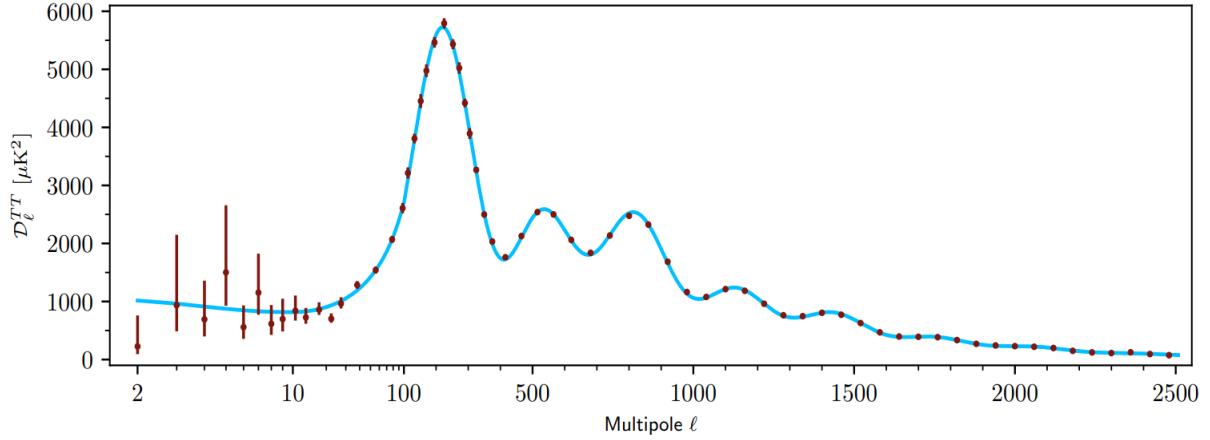


Figure 2.5 Observed Cosmic Microwave Background power spectrum as a function of multipole moment from Plank [11]. Blue line is best fit model from  $\Lambda$ CDM. Red points and lines are data and error respectively.

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

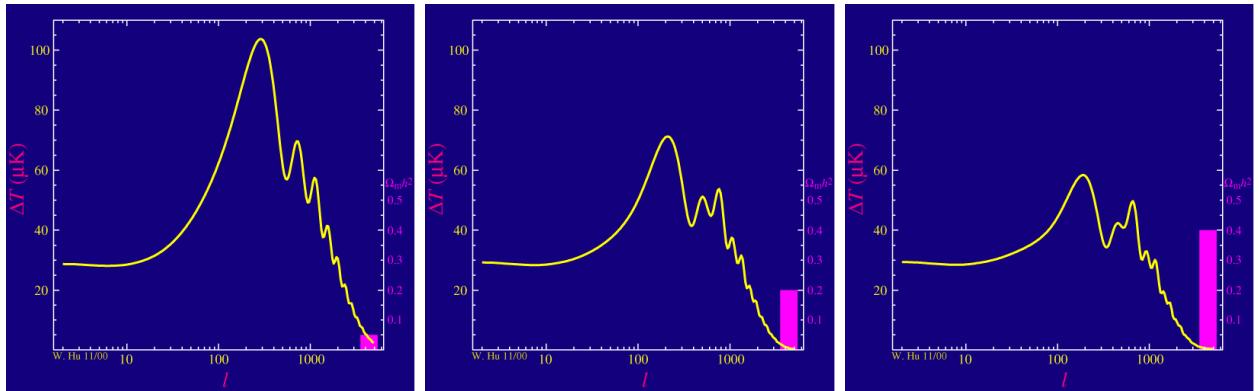


Figure 2.6 Predicted power spectra of CMB for different  $\Omega_m h^2$  values. (left) Low  $\Omega_m h^2$  increases the prominence of first and second peaks. (middle)  $\Omega_m h^2$  is most similar to the observed power spectrum. The second and third peaks are similar in height. (right)  $\Omega_m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

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

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

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

## 258 2.4 Searching for Dark Matter

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

### 272 2.4.1 Shake it, Break it, Make it

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

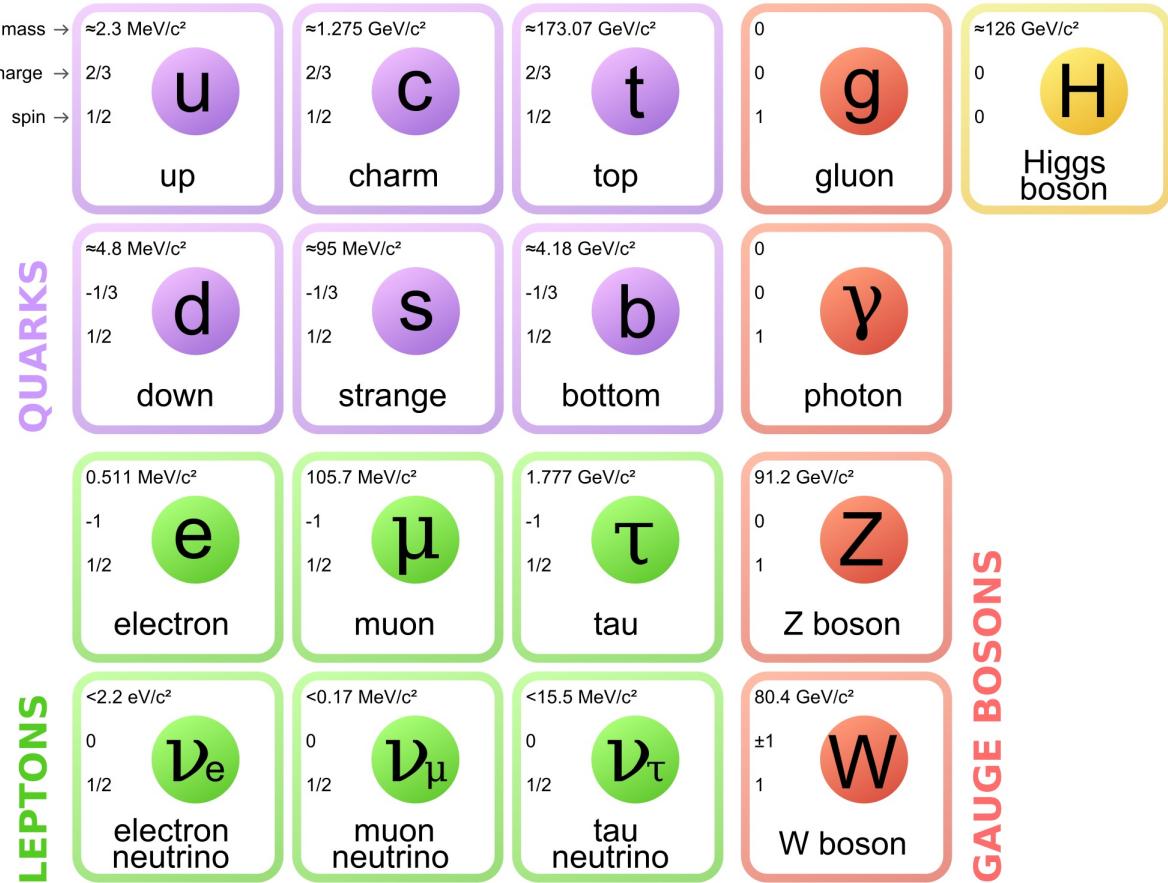


Figure 2.7 The Standard Model (SM) of particle physics. Figure taken from <http://www.quantumdiaries.org/2014/03/14/the-standard-model-a-beautiful-but-flawed-theory/>

275 where the arrow of time represents the interaction modes of: **Shake it, Break it, Make it.**

276 **Shake it** refers to the direct detection of dark matter. Direct detection interactions start with a  
 277 free DM particle and some SM particle. The DM and SM interact under some elastic or inelastic  
 278 collision and recoil away from each other. The DM remains in the dark sector and imparts some  
 279 momentum onto the SM particle. The hope is that the momentum imparted onto the SM particle  
 280 is sufficiently high enough to pick up with highly sensitive instruments. Because we cannot create  
 281 the DM in the lab, a direct detection experiment must wait until DM is incident on the detector.  
 282 Most direct detection experiments are therefore placed in low-background environments with inert  
 283 detection media like the noble gas Xenon. [14]

284 **Make it** refers to the production of DM from SM initial states. The experiment starts with  
 285 particles in the SM. These SM particles are accelerated to incredibly high energies and then collided

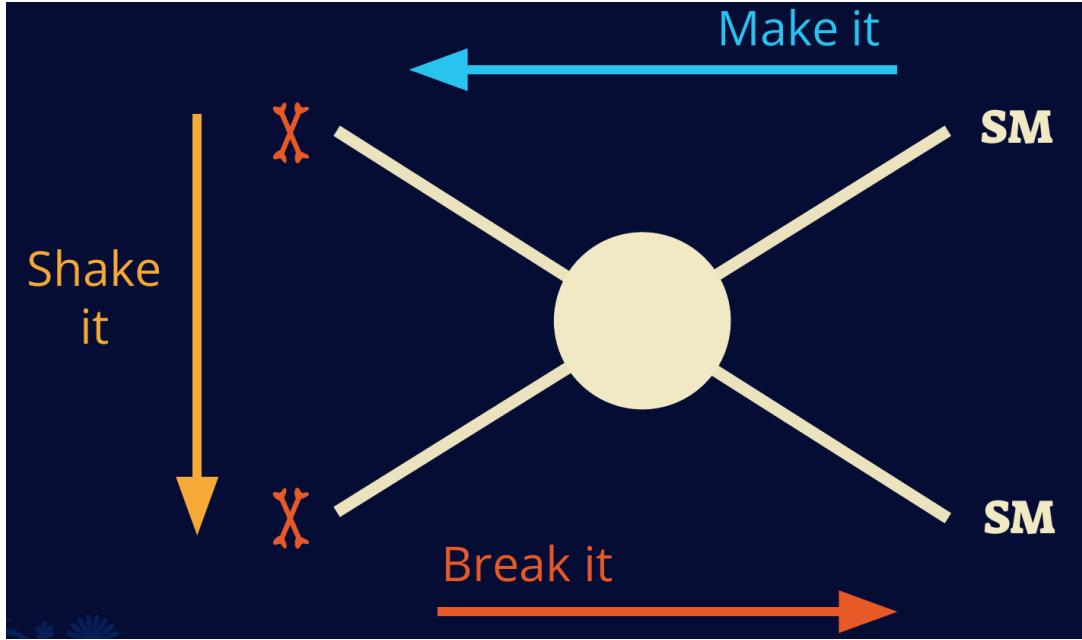


Figure 2.8 Simplified Feynman diagram demonstrating different ways DM can interact with SM particles. The 'X's refer to the DM particles whereas the SM refer to fundamental particles in the SM. The large circle in the center indicates the vertex of interaction and is purposely left vague. The colored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

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

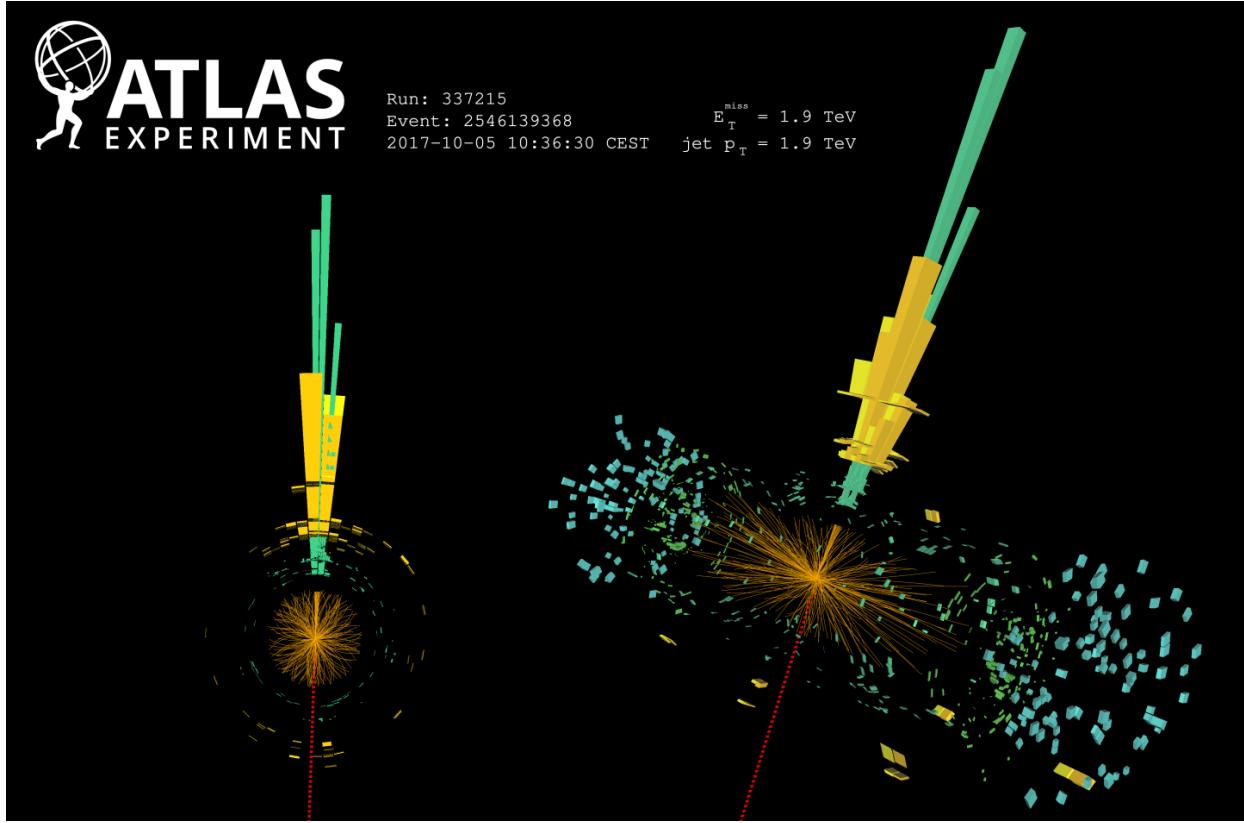


Figure 2.9 A single jet event in ATLAS detector from 2017 [16]. Jet momentum observed to be 1.9 TeV. Missing transverse momentum observed to be 1.9 TeV as the initial momentum of the event was 0. Implied MET is shown as a red dashed line in event display.

#### 297 2.4.2 Break it: Standard Model Signatures of Indirect Dark Matter Searches

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

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

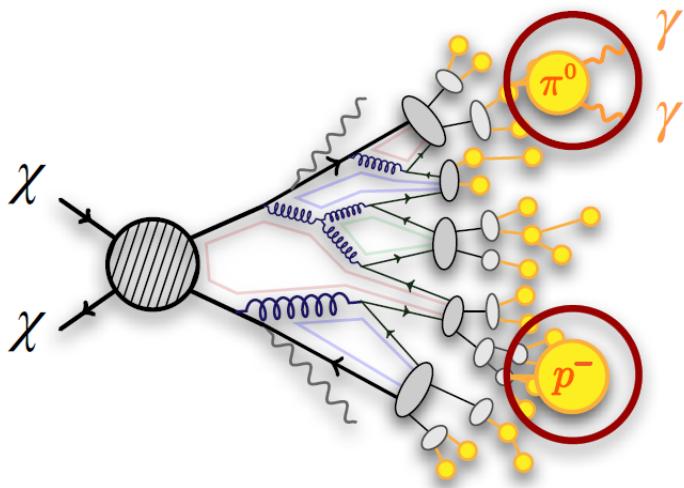


Figure 2.10 More detailed pseudo-Feynman diagram of particle cascade from dark matter annihilation into 2 quarks. The quarks hadronize and down to stable particles like  $\gamma$  or the anti-proton ( $p^-$ ). Diagram pulled from ICRC 2021 presentation on DM annihilation search [17].

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

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

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

321 to some neutral particle in the SM,  $\phi$ , from a region in the sky is described by the following

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

322 In Eq. (2.4),  $\langle\sigma v\rangle$  is the velocity-weighted annihilation cross-section of DM to the SM.  $m_\chi$  refers  
323 to the mass of DM, noted with greek letter  $\chi$ .  $\frac{dN_\phi}{dE_\phi}$  is the N particle flux weighted by the particle  
324 energy. An example is provided in Fig. 2.11 for the  $\gamma$  final state. The integrated terms are performed  
325 over the solid angle,  $d\Omega$ , and line of sight, l.o.s.  $\rho$  is the density of DM for a location  $(r, \theta')$  in the  
326 sky. The terms left of the '×' are often referred to as the particle physics component. The terms on  
327 the right are referred to as the astrophysical component. For decaying DM, the equation changes  
328 to...

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

329 In Eq. (2.5),  $\tau$  is the decay lifetime of the DM. Just as in Eq. (2.4), the left and right terms are  
330 the particle physics and the astrophysical components respectively. The integrated astrophysical  
331 component of Eq. (2.4) is often called the J-Factor. Whereas the integrated astrophysical component  
332 of Eq. (2.5) is often called the D-Factor.

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

340 **2.5 Sources Targets for Indirect Dark Matter Searches**

341 We of course have to know where to look. Thankfully, we have a good idea of where. Our  
342 first detection of DM relied on optical observations. Since then, we've developed new techniques  
343 to find large DM dense regions. We first found out about DM through observing galactic rotation  
344 curves. This includes our nearest galaxy, the Milky Way. The Milky Way thus is the largest nearby

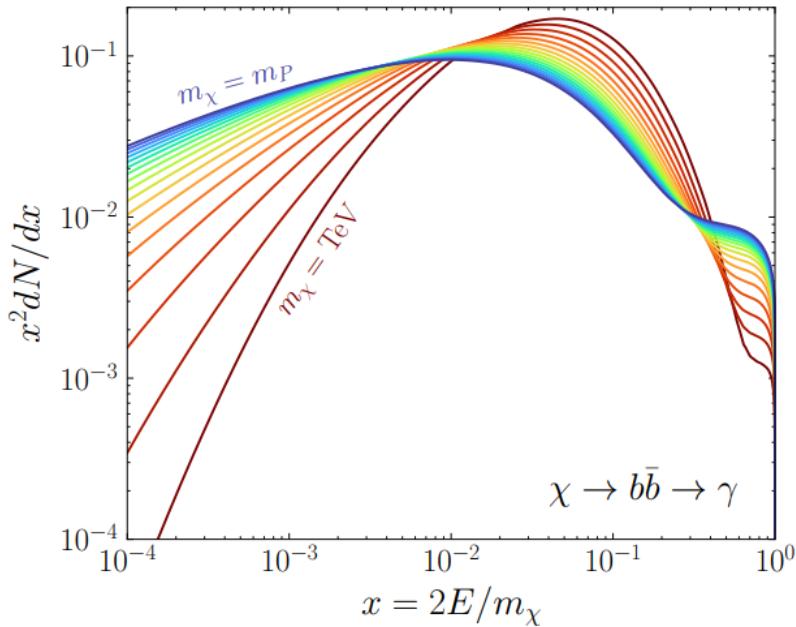


Figure 2.11 Dark Matter (DM) decay spectrum for  $b\bar{b}$  initial state and  $\gamma$  final state. Redder spectra are for larger DM masses. Bluer spectra are light DM masses.  $x$  is a unitless factor defined as the ratio of the mass of DM,  $m_\chi$ , and the final state particle energy  $E_\gamma$ . Figure from [18].

345 DM dense region to look at. Additionally, the DM halo surrounding the Milky Way is somewhat  
 346 clumpy [NEEDS A SOURCE]. There are regions in the DM halo of the Milky Way that have more  
 347 DM than others and it's captured gas over time. In some cases these sub-haloes were dense enough  
 348 to create stars. These apparent sub galaxies are known as dwarf spheroidal galaxies and are the  
 349 main sources studied in this thesis.

### 350 2.5.1 Dwarf Spheroidal Galaxies

351 The way we look for dwarf spheroidal galaxies (dSph's) is through mostly Newtonian physics.  
 352 We use either the virial theorem to determine the DM density of the dSph's or a Jeans analysis /ns.  
 353 DSphs tend to be ideal sources to look at for DM searches. The reason is that these environments  
 354 are fairly quiet. Unlike the galactic center, the most active components of dSph's are the stars within  
 355 them. There are few compact objects, like black holes, and much less gas that would contribute  
 356 to a large backgrounds. The DM to mass ratio here is also massive. [NEEDS A SOURCE]. The  
 357 signal to background ratio is really large and we expect a lot of signal from how much dark matter

358 there is. All this together means that dSph's are among the best sources to look at for indirect DM  
359 searches.

360 **2.6 Multi-Messenger Dark Matter**

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

370 Come the 21st century and we've started to use more of the SM and general relativity. The  
371 expirements LIGO and VIRGO had an iconic dicovery in 2015??[FACT CHECK THIS]with the  
372 first chirps of black hole mergers. This opened an entirely new method of observing the universe  
373 through gravitational waves. They litterally use the bending of space-time to do astrophysics like  
374 holy shit. There's also been a surge of interested in the neutrino sector. We're now finally having  
375 some sensitivity to neutrinos that we're able to detect them from astrophysical sources. Neutrinos,  
376 like gravitational waves and light, travels mostly unimpeded from their source to our observatories.  
377 This makes pointing to the oringinating source of the these messengers much each than it is for  
378 cosmic rays that are almost always deflected from their source.

379 Being able to see the same objects under different regimes was demonstrated already with just  
380 photons. From the previous figure you can see different ways to look at the milky way galaxy. Each  
381 panel corresponds do a different wavelength of light which has different penetrations through gas  
382 and galactic dust. Some sources are more apparent in some panels, while others are not. Recently,  
383 the IceCube collaboration published a groundbreaking result of the milky way in neutrinos. This  
384 new channel is very unique because we can really see through the galaxy. This new image also



Figure 2.12 TODO: multimessenger sectors from the NSF[NEEDS A SOURCE][FACT CHECK THIS]

385 refines our understanding of how high energy particles are accelerated since the fit to IceCube data  
386 prefers one standard model process over the other.

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



Figure 2.13 TODO: Milky way at different wavelengths[NEEDS A SOURCE][FACT CHECK THIS]

393

## CHAPTER 3

### DETECTING HIGH ENERGY NEUTRAL MESSENGERS

394 **3.1 Cherenkov Radiation**

395 **3.2 HAWC**

396 **3.3 IceCube**

397 **3.4 Opportunities to Combine for Dark Matter**

398

## CHAPTER 4

### HIGH ALTITUDE WATER CHERENKOV (HAWC) OBSERVATORY

399 **4.1 The Detector**

400 **4.2 Events Reconstruction and Data Acquisition**

401 **4.2.1 G/H Discrimination**

402 **4.2.2 Angle**

403 **4.2.3 Energy**

404 **4.3 Remote Monitoring**

405 **4.3.1 ATHENA Database**

406 **4.3.2 HOMER**

# CHAPTER 5

## ICECUBE NEUTRINO OBSERVATORY

408 **5.1 The Detector**

409 **5.2 Events Reconstruction and Data Acquisition**

410 **5.2.1 Angle**

411 **5.2.2 Energy**

412 **5.3 Northern Test Site**

413 **5.3.1 PIgeon remote dark rate testing**

414 **5.3.2 Bulkhead Construction**

## CHAPTER 6

### COMPUTATIONAL TECHNIQUES IN PARTICLE ASTROPHYSICS

416 **6.1 Neural Networks for Gamma/Hadron Separation**

417 **6.2 Parallel Computing for Dark Matter Analyses**

**CHAPTER 7****GLORY DUCK**

**CHAPTER 8****NU DUCK**

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