

1 LEVERAGING MULTI-MESSENGER ASTROPHYSICS FOR DARK MATTER SEARCHES

By

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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

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⁶ Today

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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

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Proof I know how to include

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

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

CHAPTER 2

89

DARK MATTER IN THE COSMOS

90 **2.1 Introduction**

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

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

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

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

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

107 You estimated 1,900 lbs assuming the average weight of a student in your class was 60 lbs. So
108 you're pleased with Sandra's and Mario's answer. You instruct your students to all gather on the
109 giant scale and read off the weight together. To all of your surprise, the scale reads *10,000 lbs!*
110 10,000 is significantly more than a 10% error from 2,000. In fact, it is approximately 5 times more
111 massive than either your or your students' estimates. You think to yourself and conclude there
112 must be something wrong with the scale. You ask an employee to check the scale and verify it is
113 calibrated well. They confirm that the scale is in working order. You weigh a couple of students
114 individually to test that the scale is well calibrated. Sandra weighs 59 lbs, and Mario weighs 62 lbs,

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

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

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

126 **2.2 Dark Matter Basics**

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

132 DM is dark; it doesn't interact readily with light at any wavelength. DM also doesn't interact
133 noticeably with the other standard model forces (Strong and Weak) at a rate that is readily observed
134 [3]. DM is cold, which is to say that the average velocity of DM is below relativistic speeds [1].
135 'Hot' DM would not likely manifest the dense structures we observe like galaxies, and instead
136 would produce much more diffuse galaxies than what is observed [1, 3]. DM is old; it played a
137 critical role in the formation of the universe and the structures within it [1, 2].

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

142 searches in Section 2.4.

143 **2.3 Evidence for Dark Matter**

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

156 **2.3.1 First Clues: Stellar Velocities**

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

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

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

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

162 Zwicky et. al. measured just the velocities of stars apparent in optical wavelengths [5]. Rubin et.
163 al. added by measuring the velocity of the hydrogen gas via the 21 cm emission line of Hydrogen
164 [6]. The velocities of the stars and gas are used to infer the total mass of galaxies and galaxy clusters
165 via Eq. (2.1). An inferred mass is also made from the luminosity of the selected sources. The two

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

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

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

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

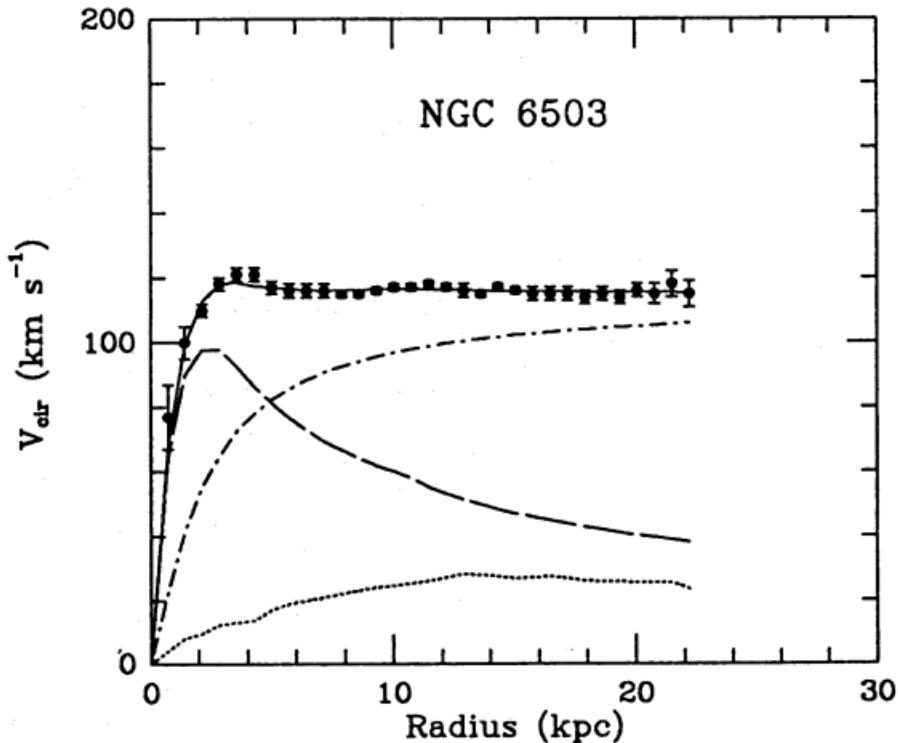


Figure 2.1 Rotation curve fit to NGC 6503 from [7]. Dashed line is the contribution from visible matter. Dotted curves are from gas. Dash-dot curves are from dark matter (DM). Solid line is the composite contribution from all matter and DM sources. Data are indicated with bold dots with error bars. Data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

172 Fig. 2.1: features one of many observations made on the stellar velocities within galaxies.
173 The measured roation curves mostly feature a flattening of velocities at higher radius which is
174 not expected if the gravity was only coming from gas and luminous matter. The extension of

175 the flat velocity region also indicates that the DM is distributed far from the center of the galaxy.
176 Modern velocity measurements include significantly larger objects, galactic clusters, and smaller
177 objects, dwarf galaxies. Yet, measurements along this regime are leveraging the virial theorem with
178 Newtonian potential energies. We know Netwonian gravity is not a comprehensive description of
179 gravity. New observational techniques have been developed since 1978, and those are discussed in
180 the following sections.

181 **2.3.2 Evidence for Dark Matter: Micro-lensing**

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

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

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

201 Gravitational lensing can also be applied towards galaxy clusters for DM searches. The obser-

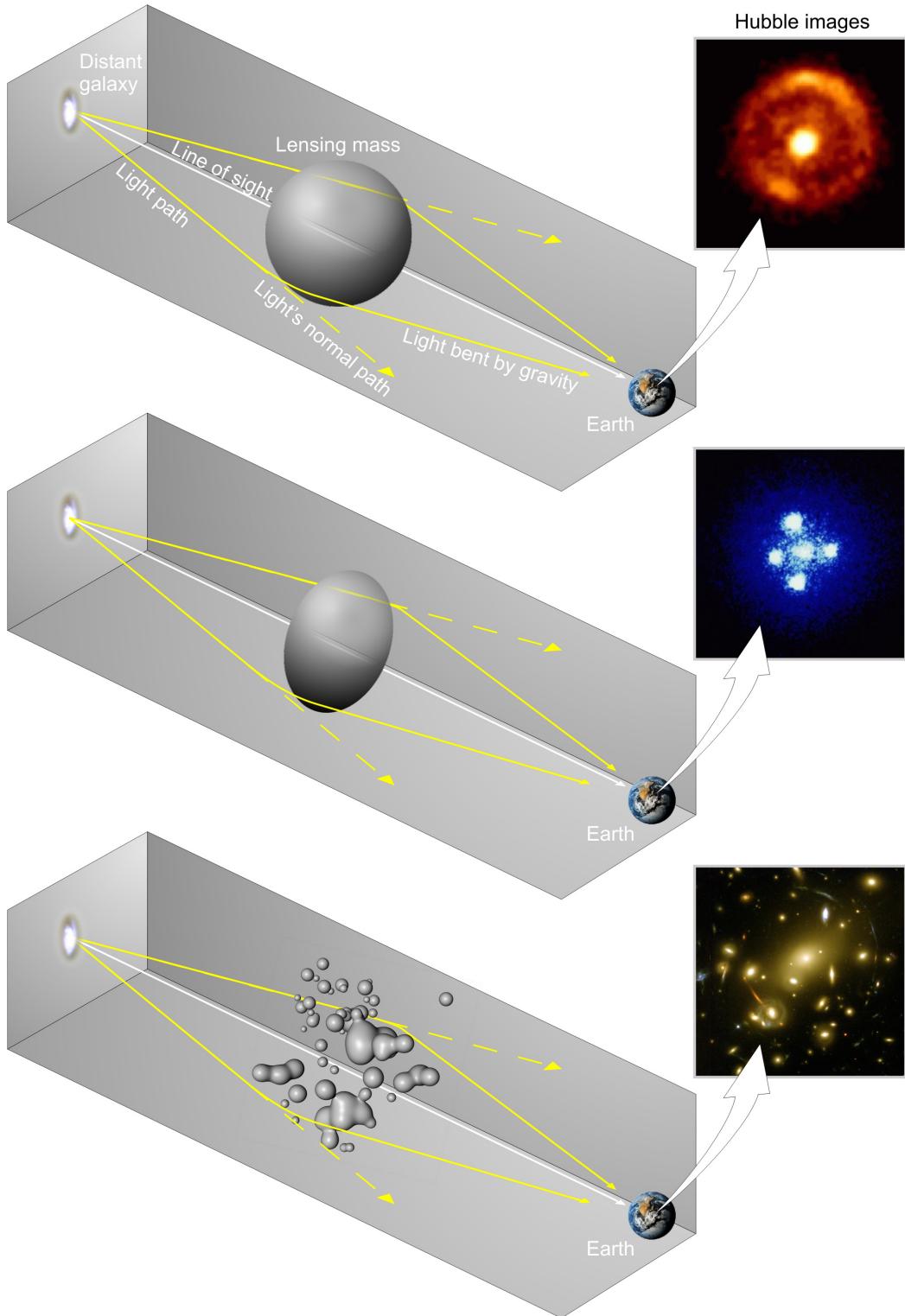


Figure 2.2 Light from distant galaxy is bent in different way depending on the distribution of mass between the galaxy and Earth. Yellow dashed lines indicate where the light would have gone if the matter was not present [8].

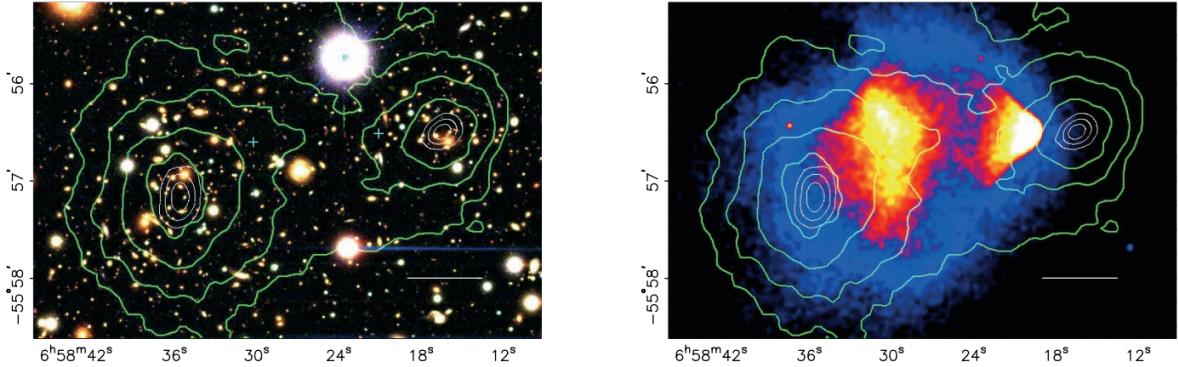


Figure 2.3 (left) Optical image of galactic cluster. (right) X-ray image of the cluster with redder meaning hotter and higher baryon density. (both) Green contours are reconstruction of gravity contours from micro-lensing. White rings are the best fit mass maxima at 68.3%, 95.5%, and 99.7% confidence.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

202 vation of two merging galactic clusters in 2006, shown in Fig. 2.3, provided a compelling arguement
 203 for particle DM outside the Standard Model. These clusters merged recently in astrophysical time
 204 scales. They're recent merge separated the stars and galaxies are separated from the intergalactic
 205 gas. For these clusters, the hot, intergalactic gas is responsible for most of the mass in the systems
 206 [4]. The hot gas is observed from its x-rays emmision. Two observations of the clusters were made
 207 independantly of each other. The first was the microlensing of light around the galaxies due to
 208 their gravitational influences. When celestial bodies are large enough, the gravity they exert bends
 209 space and time itself. This bending effects light and will deflect light in a smilar way to how lenses
 210 will bend light. With a sufficient understanding of light sources behind a celestial body, we can
 211 reconstruct the countours of the gravitational lenses. The gradient of the contours then indicates
 212 how dense the matter is and where it is.

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

217 The micro-lensing and x-ray observations were done on the Bullet cluster featured on Fig. 2.3.
 218 The x-ray emmisions does not align with the gravitational countours from microlensing. The

219 incongruence in mass density and baryon density suggests that there is a lot of matter somewhere
220 that does not interact with light. Moreover, this dark matter is can not be baryonic [10]. The Bullet
221 Cluster measurement did not really tell us what DM is exactly, but it did give the clue that DM also
222 does not interact with itself very strongly. If DM did interact strongly with itself, then it would
223 have been more aligned with the x-ray emmision [10]. There have been follow-up studies of galaxy
224 clusters with similar results. The Bullet Cluster and others like it provide a strong case against
225 something possibly amiss in our gravitational theories.

226 **2.3.3 Evidence for Dark Matter: Cosmic Microwave Background**

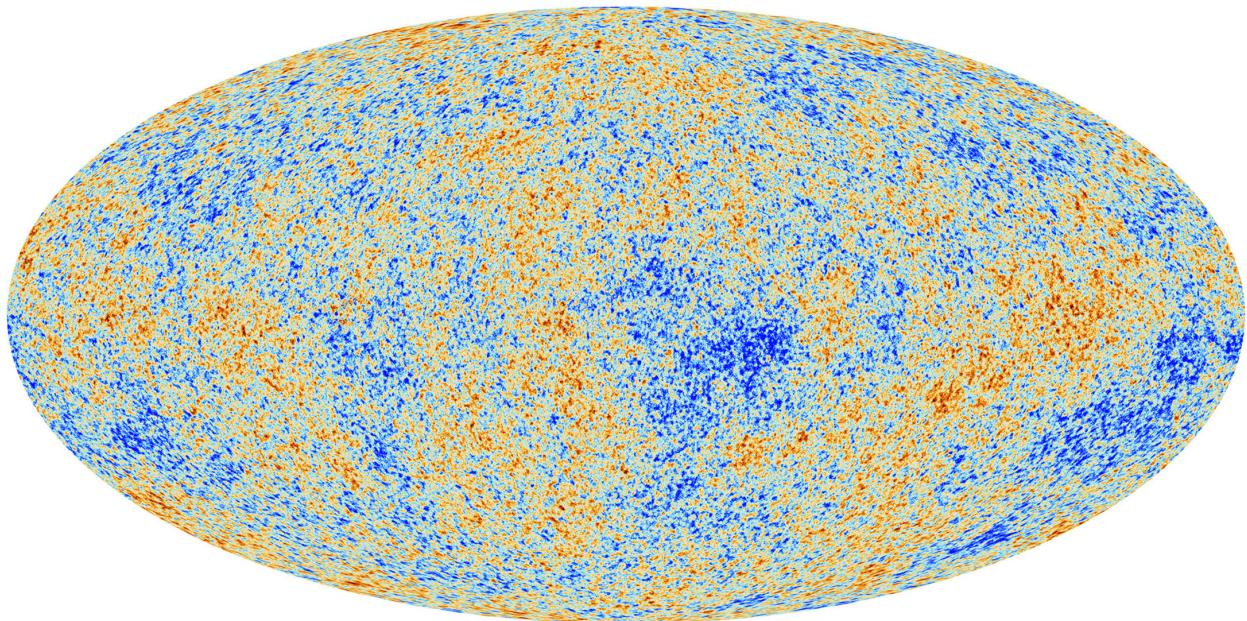


Figure 2.4 Plank CMB sky. Sky map features small variations in temperature in primordial light. These anisotropies can be used to make inferences about the universe's energy budget. [11]

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

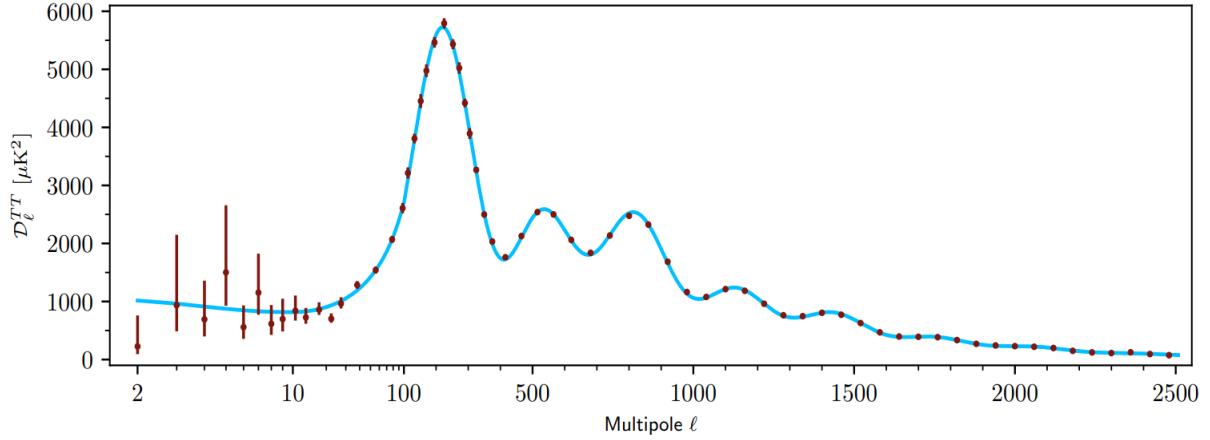


Figure 2.5 Observed Cosmic Microwave Background power spectrum as a function of multipole moment from Plank [11]. Blue line is best fit model from Λ CDM. Red points and lines are data and error respectively.

233 To measure the DM, Dark Energy, and matter fractions of the universe from the CMB, the image
 234 is deconstructed into a power spectrum versus spherical multipole moments. Λ CDM provides the
 235 best fit to the power spectra of the CDM as shown in Fig. 2.5. The CMB power spectrum is very
 236 sensitive to the fraction of each energy contribution in the early universe. Low l modes are dominated
 237 by variations in gravitational potential. Intermediate l emerge from oscillations in photon-baryon
 238 fluid from competing baryon pressures and gravity. High l is a damped region from the diffusion
 239 of photons during electron-proton recombination. [1]

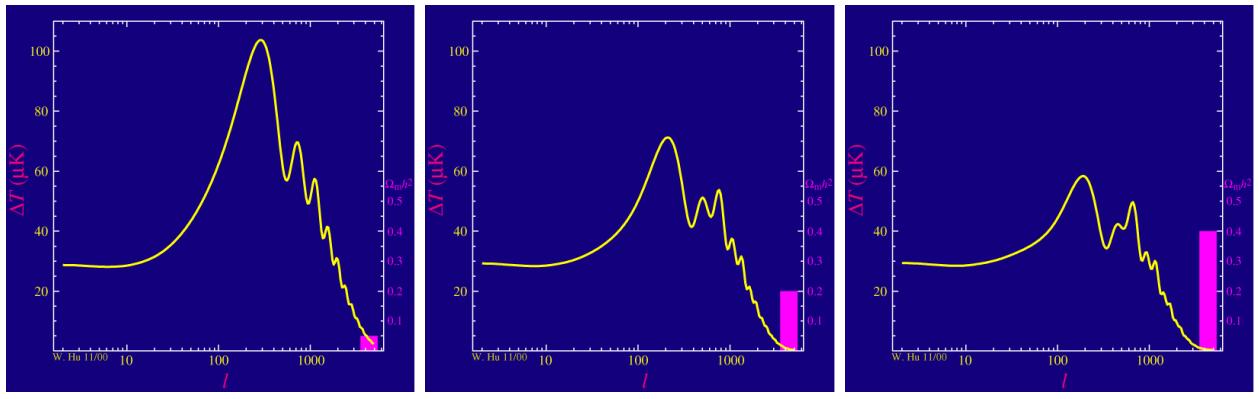


Figure 2.6 Predicted power spectra of CMB for different $\Omega_m h^2$ values. (left) Low $\Omega_m h^2$ increases the prominence of first and second peaks. (middle) $\Omega_m h^2$ is most similar to the observed power spectrum. The second and third peaks are similar in height. (right) $\Omega_m h^2$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

240 The harmonics would look very different for a universe with less DM. Fig. 2.6 shows the
241 differences expected in the power spectrum for different baryon fractions of the universe's energy
242 budget. The observations fit well with the Λ **CDM** model and the derived fractions are as follows.
243 The matter fraction: $\Omega_m = 0.3153$; and the baryon fraction: $\Omega_b = 0.04936$ [11]. These findings
244 do rely however on a few assumptions and the precision of the Hubble constant, H_0 . H_0 especially
245 has seen a growing tension in recent decades that continues to deepened with observatories like the
246 James Webb Telescope [12, 13]

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

252 **2.4 Searching for Dark Matter**

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

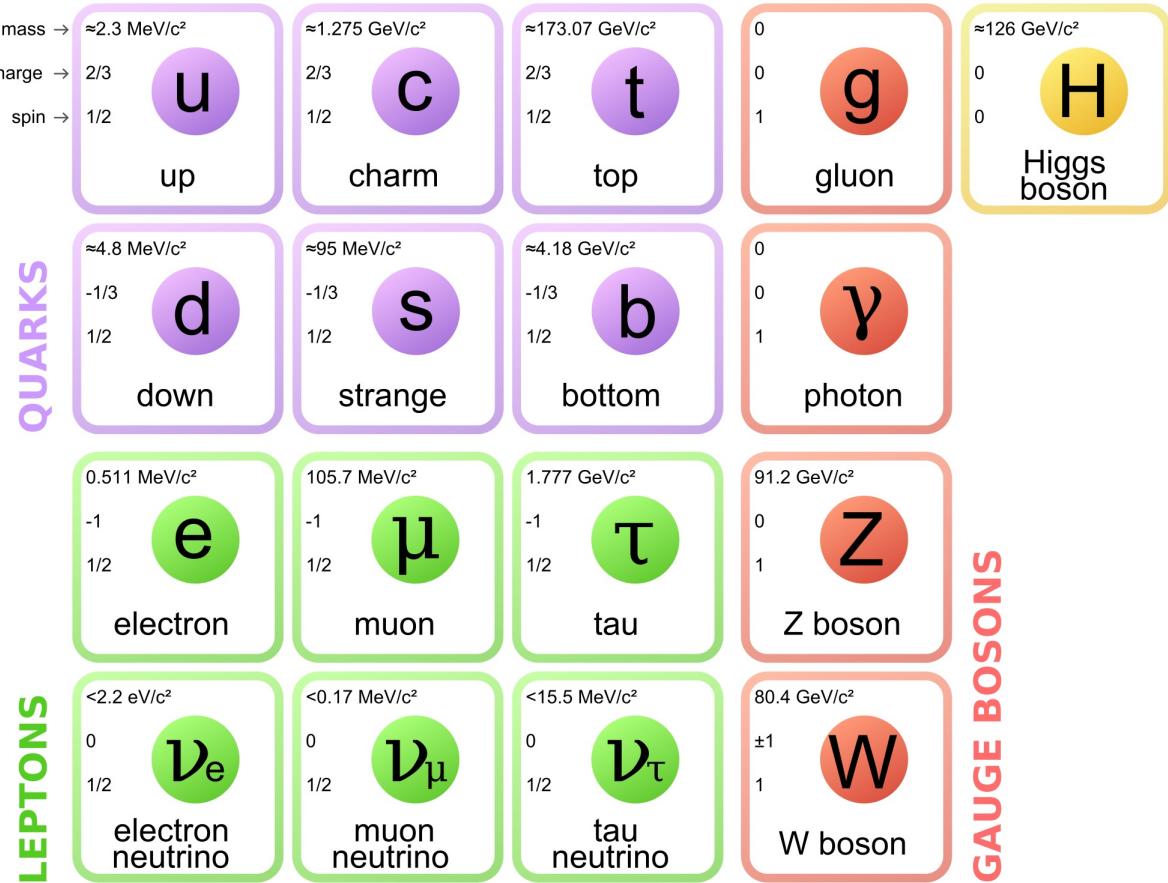


Figure 2.7 The Standard Model (SM) of particle physics. Figure taken from <http://www.quantumdiaries.org/2014/03/14/the-standard-model-a-beautiful-but-flawed-theory/>

266 2.4.1 Shake it, Break it, Make it

267 When considering DM that couples in some way with the SM, the interactions are roughly
 268 demonstrated by interaction demonstrated in Section 2.4.1 The figure is a simplified Feynman
 269 diagram where the arrow of time represents the interaction modes of: **Shake it, Break it, Make it.**

270 **Shake it** refers to the direct detection of dark matter. Direct detection interactions start with a
 271 free DM particle and some SM particle. The DM and SM interact under some elastic or inelastic
 272 collision and recoil away from each other. The DM remains in the dark sector and imparts some
 273 momentum onto the SM particle. The hope is that the momentum imparted onto the SM particle
 274 is sufficiently high enough to pick up with highly sensitive instruments. Because we cannot create
 275 the DM in the lab, a direct detection experiment must wait until DM is incident on the detector.
 276 Most direct detection experiments are therefore placed in low-background environments with inert

277 detection media like the noble gas Xenon. [14]

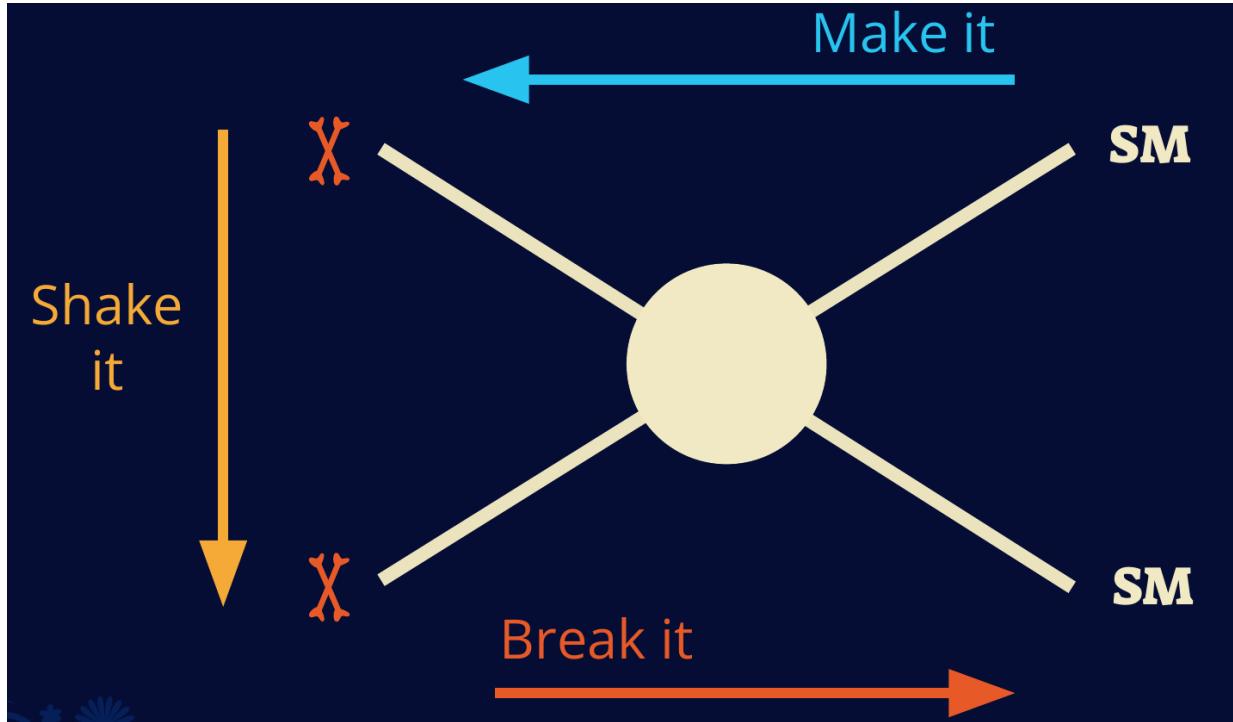


Figure 2.8 Simplified Feynman diagram demonstrating with different ways DM can interact with SM particles. The 'X's refer to the DM particles whereas the SM refer to fundamental particles in the SM. The large circle in the center indicates the vertex of interaction and is purposely left vague. The colored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

278 **Make it** refers to the production of DM from SM initial states. The experiment starts with
279 particles in the SM. These SM particles are accelerated to incredibly high energies and then collided
280 with each other. In the confluence of energy DM, hopefully, emerges as a byproduct of the SM
281 annihilation. Often it is the collider experiments that are able to generate energies high enough to
282 probe DM. These experiments include the world-wide collaborations ATLAS and CMS at CERN
283 where protons are collided together at extreme energies. The DM searches however are complex.
284 DM likely does not interact with the detectors and lives long enough to escape the detection apparatus
285 of CERN's colliders. This means any DM search with production searches for an excess of events
286 with missing energy in the events. The missing energy with no particle tracks implies a neutral
287 particle carried the energy out of the detector. However, there are other neutral particles in the SM

288 and so any analysis have to discriminate between SM signatures of missing energy and a potential
289 DM candidate.



Figure 2.9 TODO: A particle event in CMS/ATLAS with Missing E[NEEDS A SOURCE][FACT CHECK THIS]

290 **2.4.2 Break it: Standard Model Signatures of Indirect Dark Matter Searches**

291 **Break it** refers to the creation of SM particles from the dark sector, and it is the primary concern
292 of this thesis. The interaction begins with dark matter or in the dark sector. The hypothesis is that
293 this DM will either annihilate with itself or decay and produce a SM byproduct which we can detect.
294 This method is often referred to the Indirect detection of DM because we have no lab to directly
295 control or manipulate the DM. Therefore most DM primary observations will be performed from
296 observations of known DM densities among the cosmos. The strength is that we have the entirety
297 of the universe and its lifespan to use as the detector or particle accelerator. Additionally, locations
298 of dark matter are also well understood since it was astrophysical observations that presented the

299 problem of DM in the first place.

300 However, anything can happen in the universe. So there are many difficult to deconvolve
301 backgrounds when searching for a DM signal. Once prominent example is the galactic center.
302 There's a lot of DM there since the Milky Way definitely has a lot of DM. But any signal coming
303 from there is hard to parse apart from the extreme environment of our supermassive black hole,
304 Sagitarius A*. In fact, there has been known γ -ray excesses from the galactic center [NEEDS A
305 SOURCE], yet the environment presents a difficult problem in sussing out what the fuck is actually
306 going on. Despite the challenges, any DM model that yields evidence in the other observation
307 two methods, **Shake it or Make it** must be corroborated with indirect observations of the known
308 DM overdensities. Without corroborating Evidence, DM observation in the lab is hard pressed to
309 demonstrate that it is the model contributing to the DM seen at the universal scale.

310 In the case of WIMP DM, signals are typically described in terms of primary SM particles
311 produced from a DM decay or annihilation. These particles are then simulated to stable final states
312 such as: γ , ν , p , or e which can traverse galactic lengths to reach the earth.

313 The figure shows the quagmire of SM particles that emerges from SM initial states that are not
314 stable. There's a lot of different things with different energies that can pop out.

315 For any neutral messenger, the DM flux from DM annihilating to some particle in the SM, φ ,
316 from a region in the sky is

$$\text{INSERT DM annihilation flux equation HERE.} \quad (2.4)$$

317

318 **TODO: explain the equation** And for decay it is . . .

$$\text{INSERT DM decay flux equation HERE.} \quad (2.5)$$

319

320 **TODO: explain the equation**



Figure 2.10 TODO: particle cascade from DM[NEEDS A SOURCE][FACT CHECK THIS]

321 The integral over a line of sight is a simplification made because we mostly observe a 2d
322 surface with our Astrophysics experiments. This also translates the equation into observables in
323 our detector like solid angle. The spectral shape is mostly determined by the SM primary products.
324 From HDMSpectra, they look like the following figures for the bb, tau, and Z spectra.

325 Additionaly, when DM primarily goes into one of the neutral messengers (nu or gamma), the
326 spectra will typically have a line feature. These messengers are very unlikely to be attenuated in
327 any way from their primary state. These line spectra are usually considered smoking gun signals
328 as their energy will be half the COM of the DM \rightarrow SM process. For DM in the GeV+ scale, there
329 is no similar SM process and so seeing the signal would almost certainly be an indication of the
330 presence of dark matter.

331 We forunately have the largest volume and lifetime ever for a particle physics experiment in the
332 universe. This means we can do some pretty cool shit very efficiently. The drawn back are the



Figure 2.11 TODO: HDMSSpectra: bb, tautau, WW[NEEDS A SOURCE][FACT CHECK THIS]

333 backgrounds.

334 **2.5 Multi-Messenger Dark Matter**

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

344 Come the 21st century and we've started to use more of the SM and general relativity. The



Figure 2.12 TODO: Line spectra, nu and gamma[NEEDS A SOURCE][FACT CHECK THIS]

345 experiments LIGO and VIRGO had an iconic discovery in 2015??[FACT CHECK THIS]with the
346 first chirps of black hole mergers. This opened an entirely new method of observing the universe
347 through gravitational waves. They literally use the bending of space-time to do astrophysics like
348 holy shit. There's also been a surge of interest in the neutrino sector. We're now finally having
349 some sensitivity to neutrinos that we're able to detect them from astrophysical sources. Neutrinos,
350 like gravitational waves and light, travel mostly unimpeded from their source to our observatories.
351 This makes pointing to the originating source of these messengers much easier than it is for
352 cosmic rays that are almost always deflected from their source.

353 Being able to see the same objects under different regimes was demonstrated already with just
354 photons. From the previous figure you can see different ways to look at the milky way galaxy. Each
355 panel corresponds to a different wavelength of light which has different penetrations through gas
356 and galactic dust. Some sources are more apparent in some panels, while others are not. Recently,



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

357 the IceCube collaboration published a groundbreaking result of the milky way in neutrinos. This
358 new channel is very unique because we can really see through the galaxy. This new image also
359 refines our understanding of how high energy particles are accelerated since the fit to IceCube data
360 prefers one standard model process over the other.

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



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

367 2.6 Search Targets for Dark Matter

368 We of course have to know where to look. Thankfully, we have a good idea of where. Our
369 first detection of DM relied on optical observations. Since then, we've developed new techniques
370 to find large DM dense regions. We first found out about DM through observing galactic rotation
371 curves. This includes our nearest galaxy, the Milky Way. The Milky Way thus is the largest nearby
372 DM dense region to look at. Additionally, the DM halo surrounding the Milky Way is somewhat
373 clumpy [NEEDS A SOURCE]. There are regions in the DM halo of the Milky Way that have more
374 DM than others and it's captured gas over time. In some cases these sub-haloes were dense enough
375 to create stars. These apparent sub galaxies are known as dwarf spheroidal galaxies and are the
376 main sources studied in this thesis.

377 **2.6.1 Dwarf Spheroidal Galaxies**

378 The way we look for dwarf spheroidal galaxies (dSph's) is through mostly Newtonian physics.
379 We use either the virial theorem to determine the DM density of the dSph's or a Jeans analysis /ns.
380 DSphs tend to be ideal sources to look at for DM searches. The reason is that these environments
381 are fairly quiet. Unlike the galactic center, the most active components of dSph's are the stars within
382 them. There are few compact objects, like black holes, and much less gas that would contribute
383 to a large backgrounds. The DM to mass ratio here is also massive. [NEEDS A SOURCE]. The
384 signal to background ratio is really large and we expect a lot of signal from how much dark matter
385 there is. All this together means that dSph's are among the best sources to look at for indirect DM
386 searches.

387

CHAPTER 3

DETECTING HIGH ENERGY NEUTRAL MESSENGERS

388 **3.1 Cherenkov Radiation**

389 **3.2 HAWC**

390 **3.3 IceCube**

391 **3.4 Opportunities to Combine for Dark Matter**

CHAPTER 4

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

393 **4.1 The Detector**

394 **4.2 Events Reconstruction and Data Acquisition**

395 **4.2.1 G/H Discrimination**

396 **4.2.2 Angle**

397 **4.2.3 Energy**

398 **4.3 Remote Monitoring**

399 **4.3.1 ATHENA Database**

400 **4.3.2 HOMER**

401

CHAPTER 5

ICECUBE NEUTRINO OBSERVATORY

402 **5.1 The Detector**

403 **5.2 Events Reconstruction and Data Acquisition**

404 **5.2.1 Angle**

405 **5.2.2 Energy**

406 **5.3 Northern Test Site**

407 **5.3.1 PIgeon remote dark rate testing**

408 **5.3.2 Bulkhead Construction**

CHAPTER 6

COMPUTATIONAL TECHNIQUES IN PARTICLE ASTROPHYSICS

410 **6.1 Neural Networks for Gamma/Hadron Separation**

411 **6.2 Parallel Computing for Dark Matter Analyses**

CHAPTER 7**GLORY DUCK**

CHAPTER 8**NU DUCK**

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