

1 LEVERAGING MULTI-MESSENGER ASTROPHYSICS FOR DARK MATTER SEARCHES

By

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Today

ABSTRACT

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

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⁶ Today

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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

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217	lines represent the central value of the J -factors while the shaded regions	
218	correspond to the 1σ standard deviation.	

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

- 225 **MSU** Michigan State University
226 **LANL** Los Alamos National Laboratory
227 **DM** Dark Matter
228 **SM** Standard Model
229 **HAWC** High Altitude Water Cherenkov Observatory

230

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

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

CHAPTER 2

232

DARK MATTER IN THE COSMOS

233 **2.1 Introduction**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

250 You estimated 1,900 lbs. assuming the average weight of a student in your class was 60 lbs.
251 So, you are pleased with Sandra's and Mario's answer. You instruct your students to all gather on
252 the giant scale and read off the weight together. To all your surprise, the scale reads *10,000 lbs.*!
253 10,000 is significantly more than a 10% error from 2,000. In fact, it is approximately 5 times more
254 massive than either your or your students' estimates. You think to yourself and conclude there
255 must be something wrong with the scale. You ask an employee to check the scale and verify it is
256 well calibrated. They confirm that the scale is in working order. You weigh a couple of students
257 individually to assess that the scale is well calibrated. Sandra weighs 59 lbs., and Mario weighs

258 62 lbs., typical weights for their age. You then weigh each student individually and see that their
259 weights individually do not deviate greatly from 60 lbs. So, where does all the extra weight come
260 from?

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

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

270 2.2 Dark Matter Basics

271 Presently, a more compelling theory of cosmology that includes Dark Matter (DM) in order
272 to explain a variety of observations is Λ Cold Dark Matter, or Λ CDM. I present the evidence
273 supporting Λ CDM in Section 2.3 yet discuss the conclusions of the Λ CDM model here. According
274 to Λ CDM fit to observations on the Cosmic Microwave Background (CMB), DM is 26.8% of the
275 universe's current energy budget. Baryonic matter, stuff like atoms, gas, and stars, contributes to
276 4.9% of the universe's current energy budget [1, 2, 3].

277 DM is dark; it does not interact readily with light at any wavelength. DM also does not interact
278 noticeably with the other standard model forces (Strong and Weak) at a rate that is readily observed
279 [3]. DM is cold, which is to say that the average velocity of DM is below relativistic speeds [1].
280 'Hot' DM would not likely manifest the dense structures we observe like galaxies, and instead
281 would produce much more diffuse galaxies than what is observed [3, 1]. DM is old; it played a
282 critical role in the formation of the universe and the structures within it [1, 2].

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

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

288 **2.3 Evidence for Dark Matter**

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

302 **2.3.1 First Clues: Stellar Velocities**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

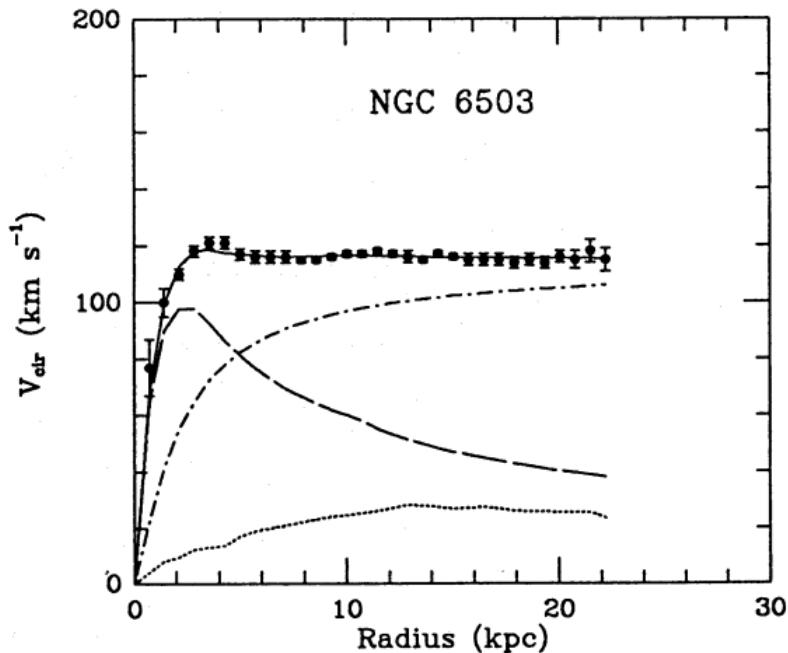


Figure 2.1 Rotation curve fit to NGC 6503 from [7]. Dashed line is the contribution from visible matter. Dotted curves are from gas. Dash-dot curves are from dark matter (DM). Solid line is the composite contribution from all matter and DM sources. Data are indicated with bold dots with error bars. Data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

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

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

327 **2.3.2 Evidence for Dark Matter: Gravitational Lensing**

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

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

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

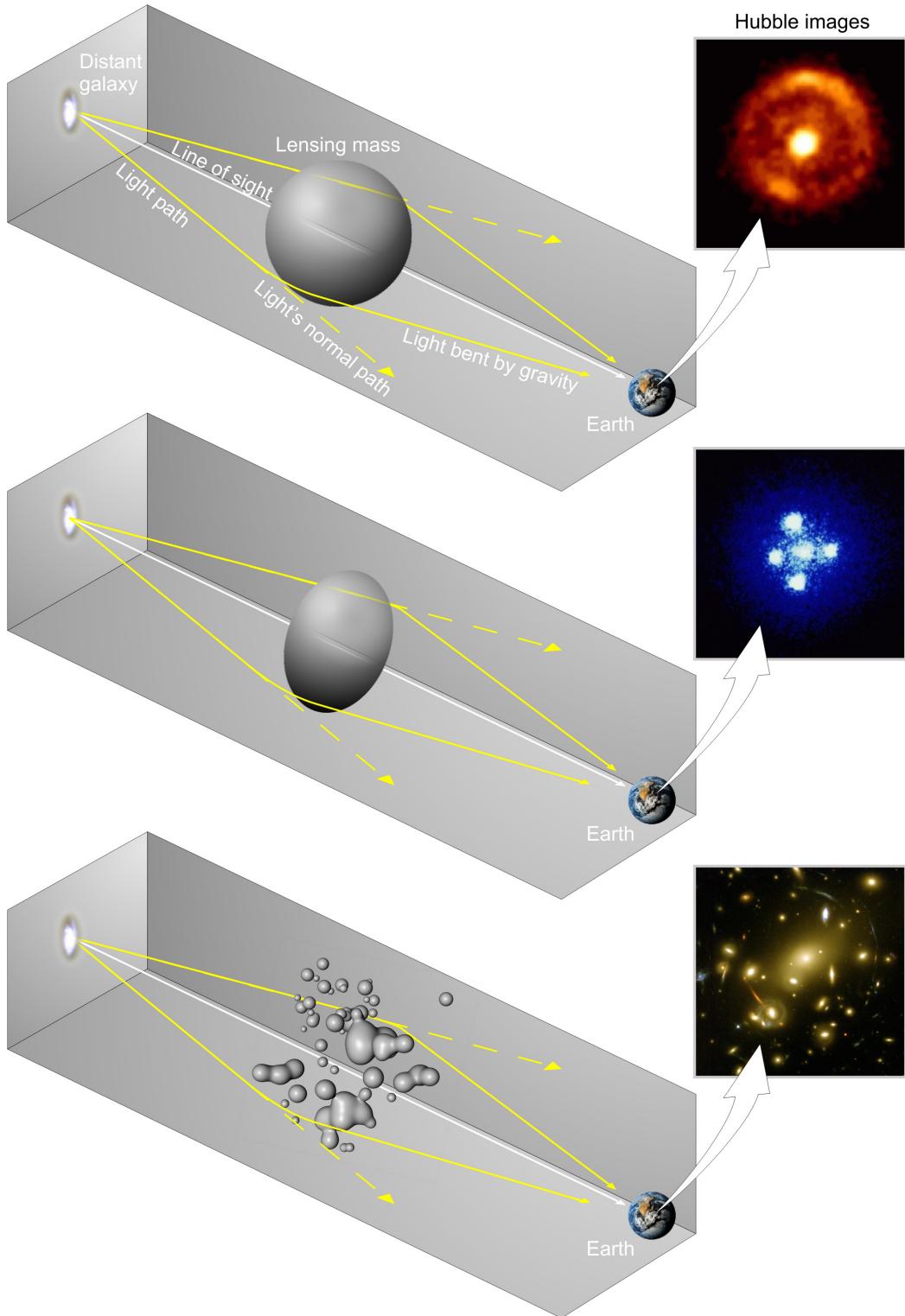


Figure 2.2 Light from distant galaxy is bent in unique ways depending on the distribution of mass between the galaxy and Earth. Yellow dashed lines indicate where the light would have gone if the matter were not present [8].

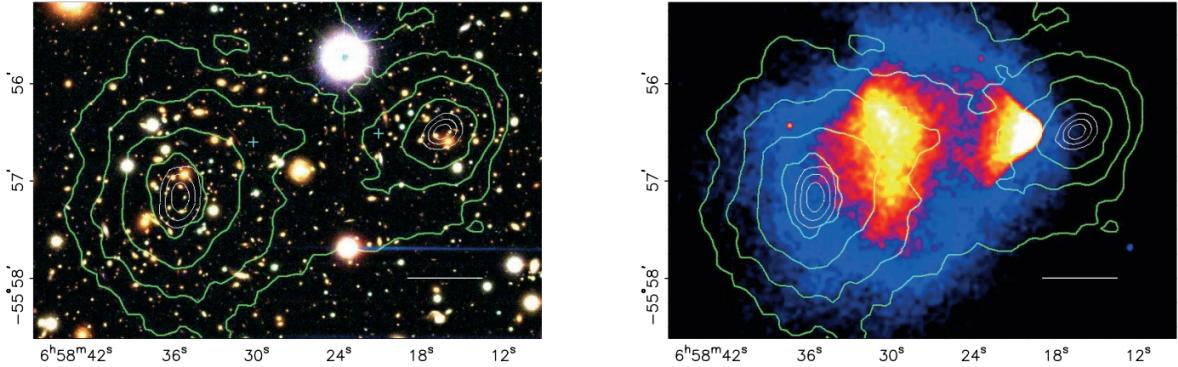


Figure 2.3 (left) Optical image of galactic cluster 1E0657-558. (right) X-ray image of the cluster with redder meaning hotter and higher baryon density. (both) Green contours are reconstruction of gravity contours from weak lensing. White rings are the best fit mass maxima at 68.3%, 95.5%, and 99.7%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

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

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

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

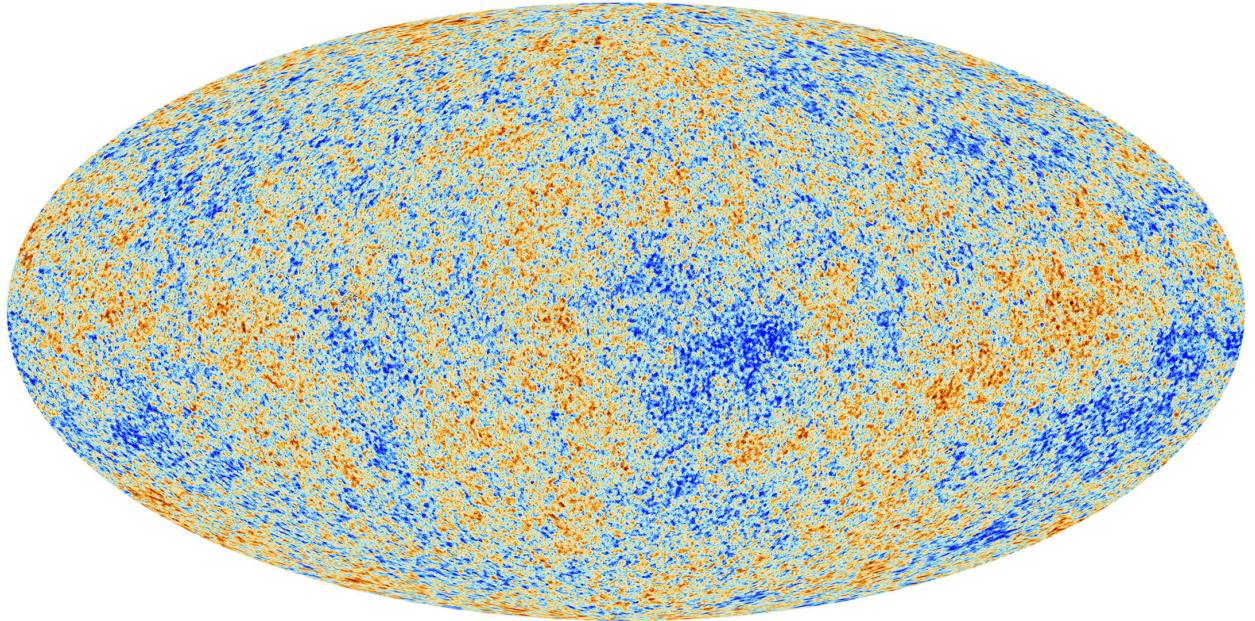


Figure 2.4 Plank CMB sky. Sky map features small variations in temperature in primordial light. These anisotropies are used to make inferences about the universe’s energy budget and developmental history. [10]

362 **2.3.3 Evidence for Dark Matter: Cosmic Microwave Background**

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

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

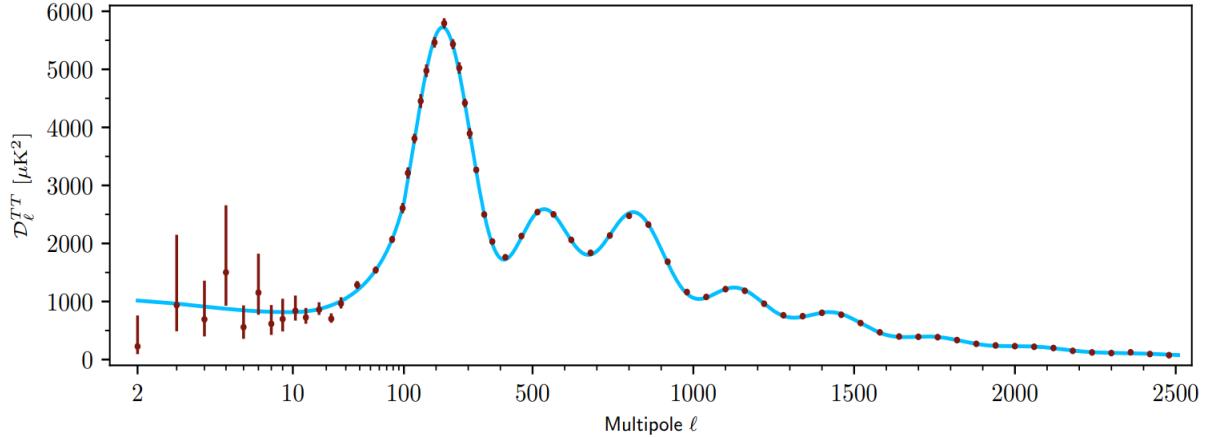


Figure 2.5 Observed Cosmic Microwave Background power spectrum as a function of multipole moment from Plank [10]. Blue line is best fit model from Λ CDM. Red points and lines are data and error, respectively.

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

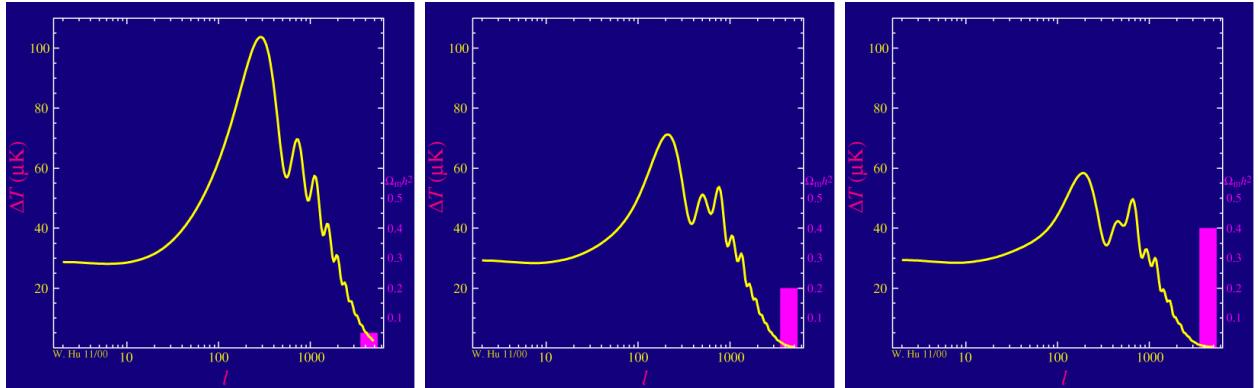


Figure 2.6 Predicted power spectra of CMB for different $\Omega_m h^2$ values for fixed baryon density from [11]. (left) Low $\Omega_m h^2$ increases the prominence of first and second peaks. (middle) $\Omega_m h^2$ is most similar to the observed power spectrum. The second and third peaks are similar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

379 The harmonics would look quite different for a universe with less DM. Figure 2.6 demonstrates
 380 the effect $\Omega_m h^2$ has on the expected power spectrum for fixed baryon matter density. [11] Sweeping
 381 $\Omega_m h^2$ in this way clearly shows the effect dark matter has on the CMB power spectrum. The
 382 observations fit well with the Λ CDM model, and the derived fractions are as follows. The matter
 383 fraction: $\Omega_m = 0.3153$; and the baryon fraction: $\Omega_b = 0.04936$ [10]. Plank's observations also
 384 provide a measure of the Hubble constant, H_0 . H_0 especially has seen a growing tension in the

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

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

397 **2.4 Searching for Dark Matter: Particle DM**

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

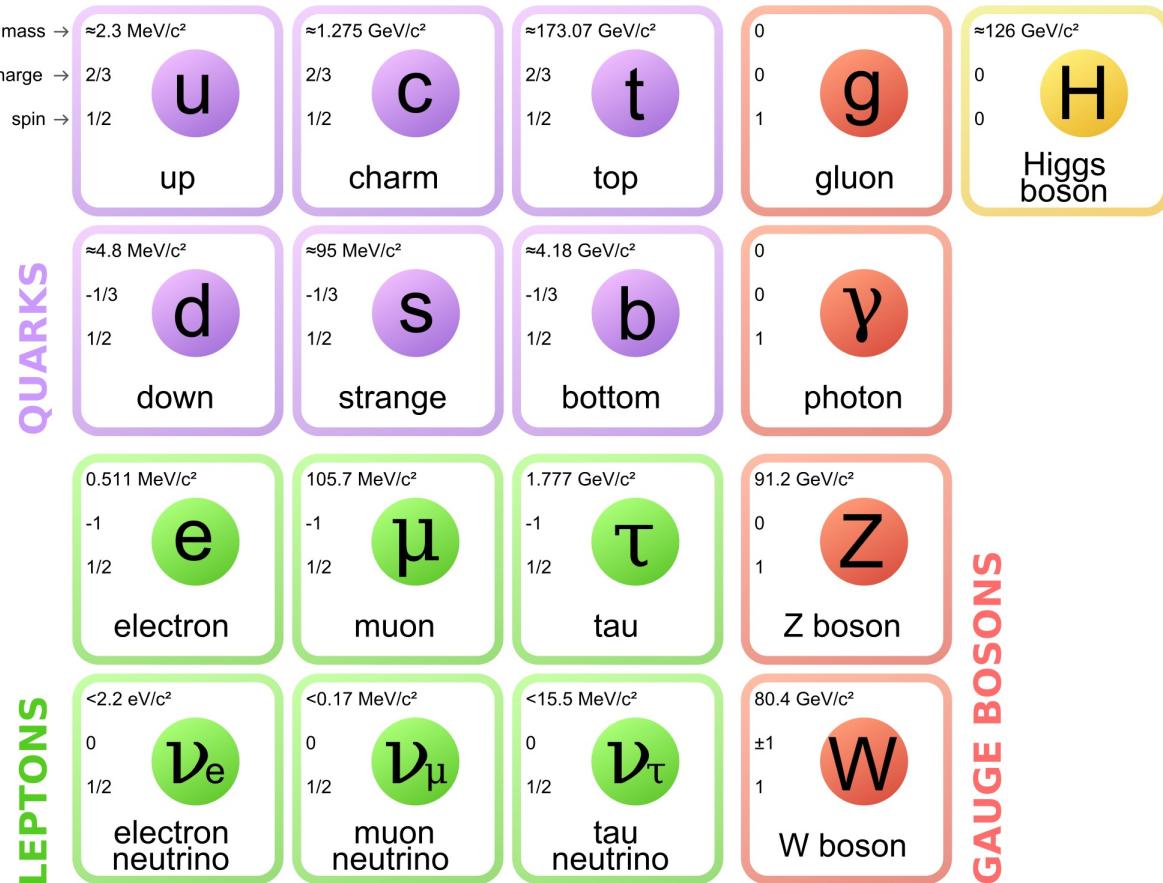


Figure 2.7 The Standard Model (SM) of particle physics. Figure taken from <http://www.quantumdiaries.org/2014/03/14/the-standard-model-a-beautiful-but-flawed-theory/>

410 2.4.1 Shake it, Break it, Make it

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

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

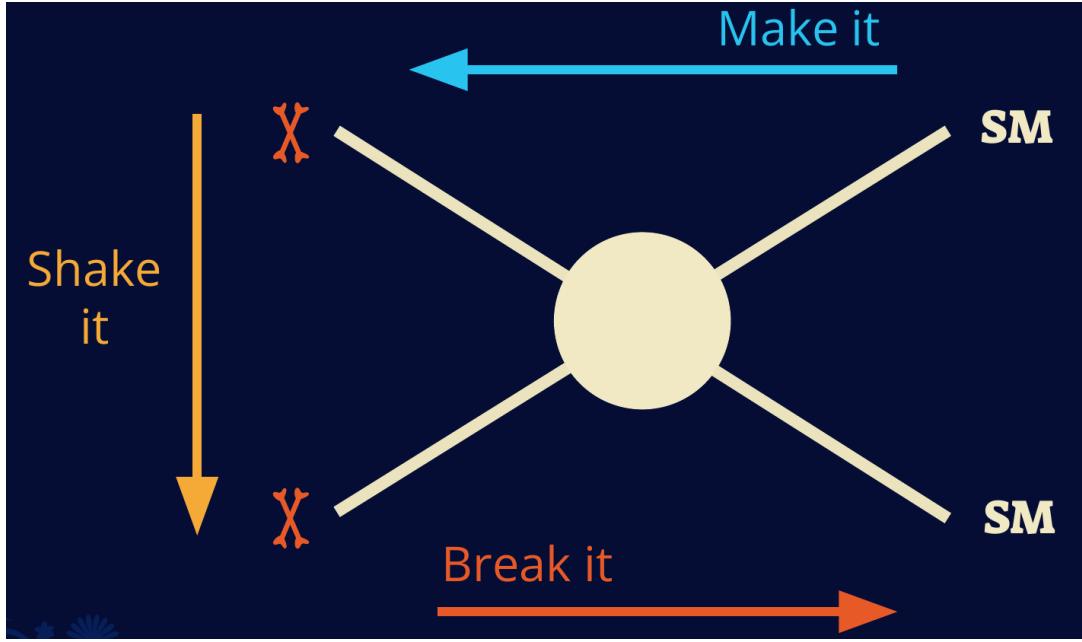


Figure 2.8 Simplified Feynman diagram demonstrating different ways DM can interact with SM particles. The 'X's refer to the DM particles whereas the SM refer to fundamental particles in the SM. The large circle in the center indicates the vertex of interaction and is purposely left vague. The colored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

⁴²¹ media like the noble gas Xenon. [14]

⁴²² **Make it** refers to the production of DM from SM initial states. The experiment starts with
⁴²³ particles in the SM. These SM particles are accelerated to incredibly high energies and then collide
⁴²⁴ with each other. In the confluence of energy, DM hopefully emerges as a byproduct of the SM
⁴²⁵ annihilation. Often it is the collider experiments that are energetic enough to hypothetically produce
⁴²⁶ DM. These experiments include the world-wide collaborations ATLAS and CMS at CERN where
⁴²⁷ proton collide together at extreme energies. The DM searches, however, are complex. DM likely
⁴²⁸ does not interact with the detectors and lives long enough to escape the detection apparatus of
⁴²⁹ CERN's colliders. This means any DM production experiment searches for an excess of events
⁴³⁰ with missing momentum or energy in the events. An example event with missing transverse
⁴³¹ momentum is shown in Figure 2.9. The missing momentum with no particle tracks implies a
⁴³² neutral particle carried the energy out of the detector. However, there are other neutral particles
⁴³³ in the SM, like neutrons or neutrinos, so any analysis has to account for SM signatures of missing

434 momentum. [15]

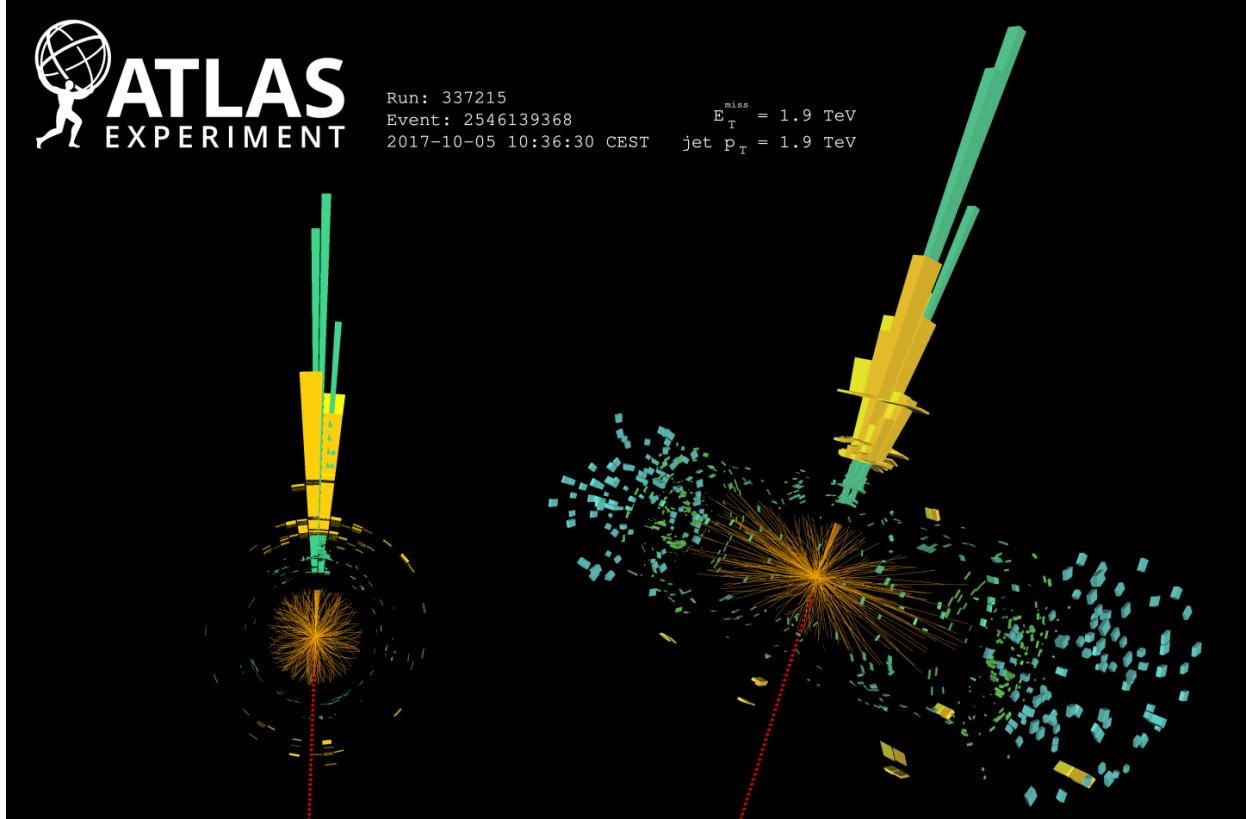


Figure 2.9 A single jet event in ATLAS detector from 2017 [16]. Jet momentum was observed to be 1.9 TeV. Missing transverse momentum was observed to be 1.9 TeV compared to the initial transverse momentum of the event was 0. Implied MET is traced by a red dashed line in event display.

435 2.4.2 Break it: Standard Model Signatures of Dark Matter through Indirect Searches

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

444 the problem of DM in the first place.

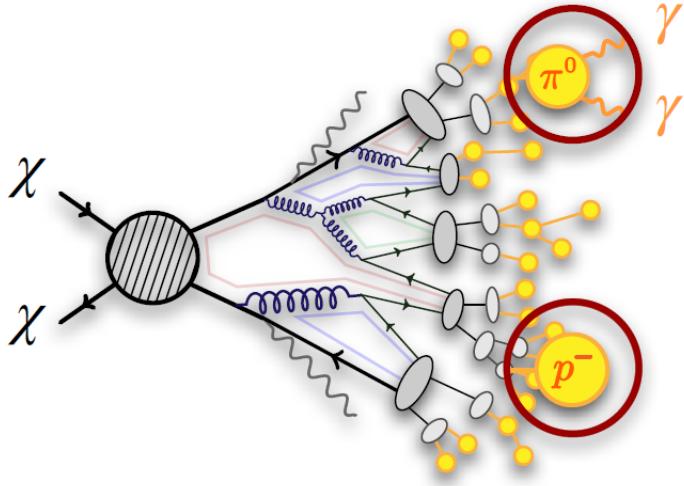


Figure 2.10 More detailed pseudo-Feynman diagram of particle cascade from dark matter annihilation into 2 quarks. The quarks hadronize and down to stable particles like γ or the anti-proton (p^-). Diagram pulled from ICRC 2021 presentation on DM annihilation search [17].

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

468 In Equation (2.5), τ is the decay lifetime of the DM. Just as in Equation (7.1), the left and
 469 right terms are the particle physics and the astrophysical components respectively. The integrated
 470 astrophysical component of Equation (7.1) is often called the J-Factor. Whereas the integrated
 471 astrophysical component of Equation (2.5) is often called the D-Factor.

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

479 2.5 Sources for Indirect Dark Matter Searches

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

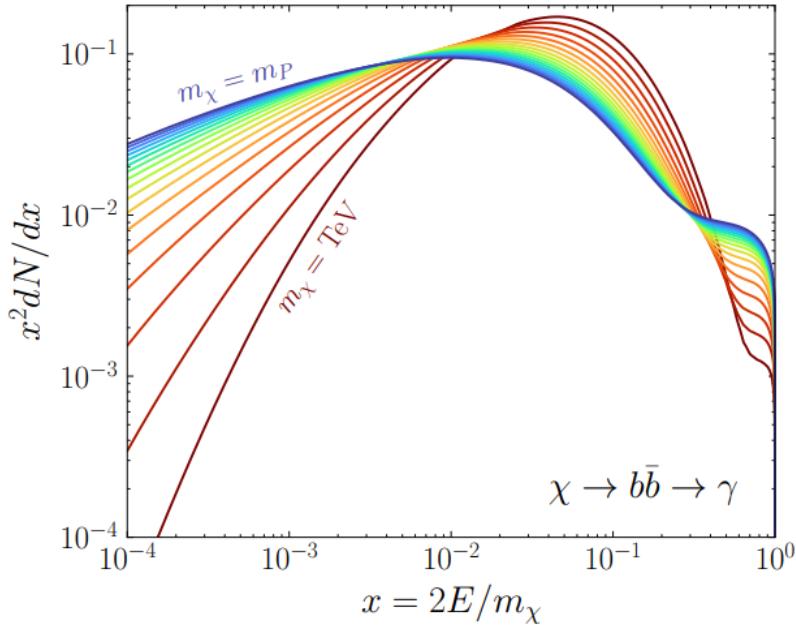


Figure 2.11 Dark Matter (DM) decay spectrum for $b\bar{b}$ initial state and γ final state. Redder spectra are for larger DM masses. Bluer spectra are light DM masses. x is a unitless factor defined as the ratio of the mass of DM, m_χ , and the final state particle energy E_γ . Figure from [19].

discovered, and it is the largest nearby DM dense region to look at. Additionally, the DM halo surrounding the Milky Way is clumpy [18]. There are regions in the DM halo of the Milky Way that have more DM than others that have captured gas over time. These sub-halos were dense enough 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 γ -ray observatories [18]. The DM content dSph's are typically determined with the Virial theorem, Equation (2.1), and are usually majority DM [18] in mass. DSph's tend to be ideal sources to look at for DM searches. Their environments are quiet with little

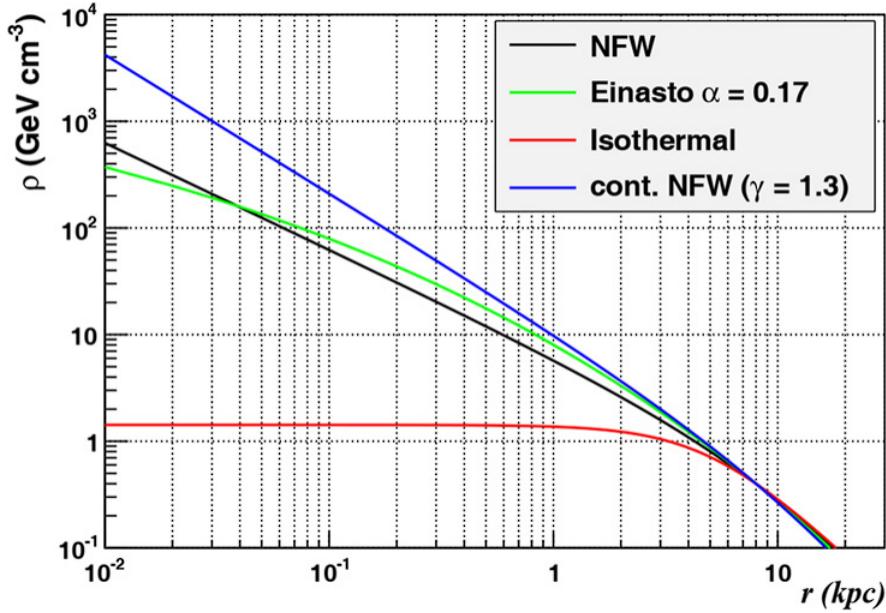


Figure 2.12 Different dark matter density profiles compared. Some models produce exceptionally large densities at small r [20].

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

501 2.6 Multi-Messenger Dark Matter

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

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

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

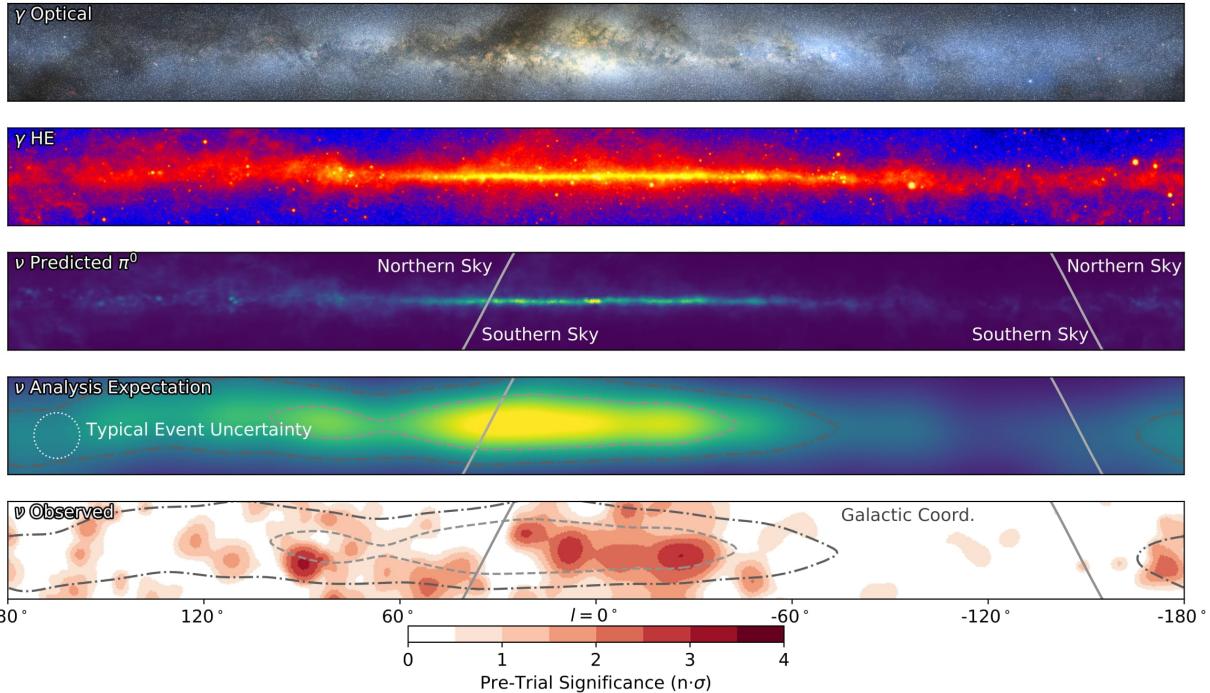


Figure 2.13 The Milky Way Galaxy in photons (γ) and neutrinos (ν) [22]. The Galactic center is at $l=0^\circ$ and is the brightest region in all panels. (top) An Optical color image of the Milky Way galaxy seen from Earth. Clouds of gas and dust obscure some light from stars. (2nd down) Integrated flux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

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

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

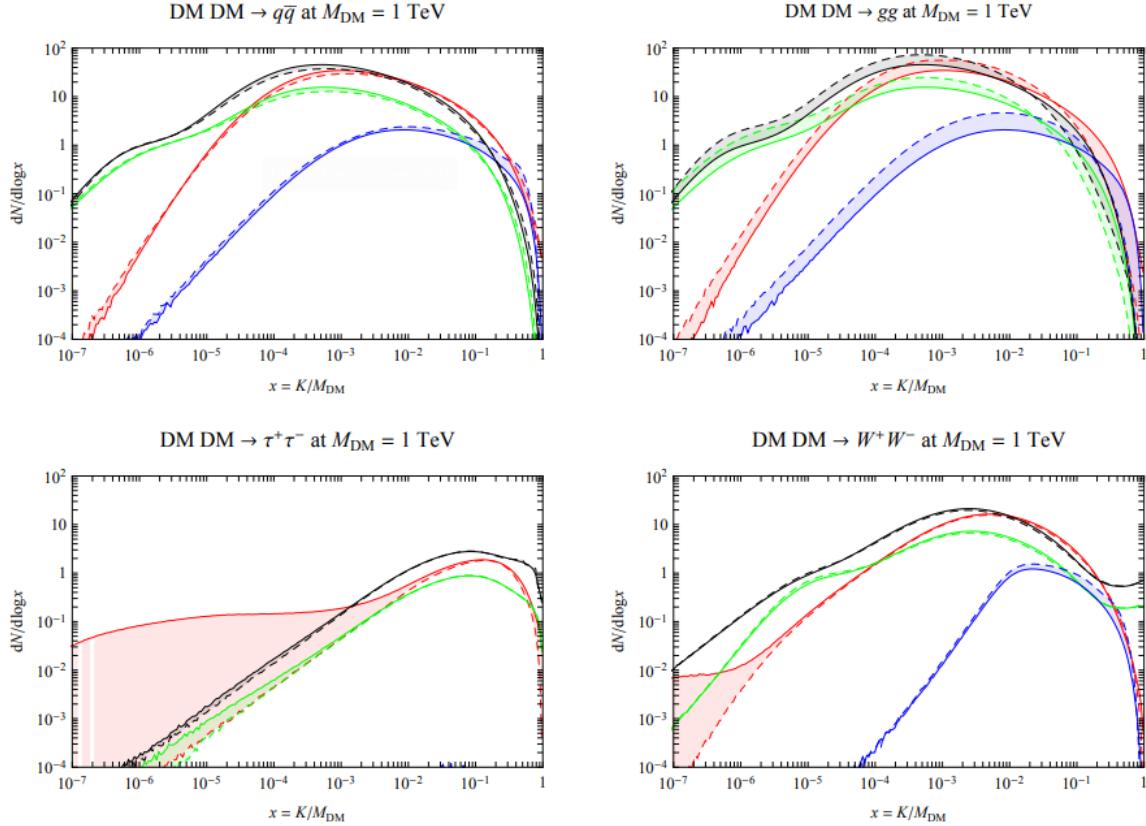


Figure 2.14 Dark Matter annihilation spectra for different final state particle and standard model annihilation channels [24]. Photons (red), e^\pm (green), \bar{p} (blue), ν (black).

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

CHAPTER 3

531 **MULTIMESSENGER ASTROPHYSICS: DETECTING HIGH ENERGY NEUTRAL** 532 **MESSENGERS**

533 **3.1 Introduction**

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

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

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

553 **3.2 Charged Particles in a Medium**

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

557 speed of light in that medium. This is similar to sonic boom where an object moves through air
558 faster than the speed of sound in air. Cherenkov radiation can therefore be thought of as an 'optic
559 boom'. Many astro-particle physics experiments will use water as the medium as because water
560 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]

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

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

562 The absorption spectra is shown in the following figure:

563 **3.3 Photons (γ)**

564 **3.4 Neutrinos (ν)**

565 **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

566

HIGH ALTITUDE WATER CHERENKOV (HAWC) OBSERVATORY

567 **4.1 The Detector**

568 **4.2 Events Reconstruction and Data Acquisition**

569 **4.2.1 G/H Discrimination**

570 **4.2.2 Angle**

571 **4.2.3 Energy**

572 **4.3 Remote Monitoring**

573 **4.3.1 ATHENA Database**

574 **4.3.2 HOMER**

CHAPTER 5

ICECUBE NEUTRINO OBSERVATORY

576 **5.1 The Detector**

577 **5.2 Events Reconstruction and Data Acquisition**

578 **5.2.1 Angle**

579 **5.2.2 Energy**

580 **5.3 Northern Test Site**

581 **5.3.1 PIgeon remote dark rate testing**

582 **5.3.2 Bulkhead Construction**

CHAPTER 6

COMPUTATIONAL TECHNIQUES IN PARTICLE ASTROPHYSICS

584 **6.1 Neural Networks for Gamma/Hadron Separation**

585 **6.2 Parallel Computing for Dark Matter Analyses**

CHAPTER 7

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

588 7.1 Introduction

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

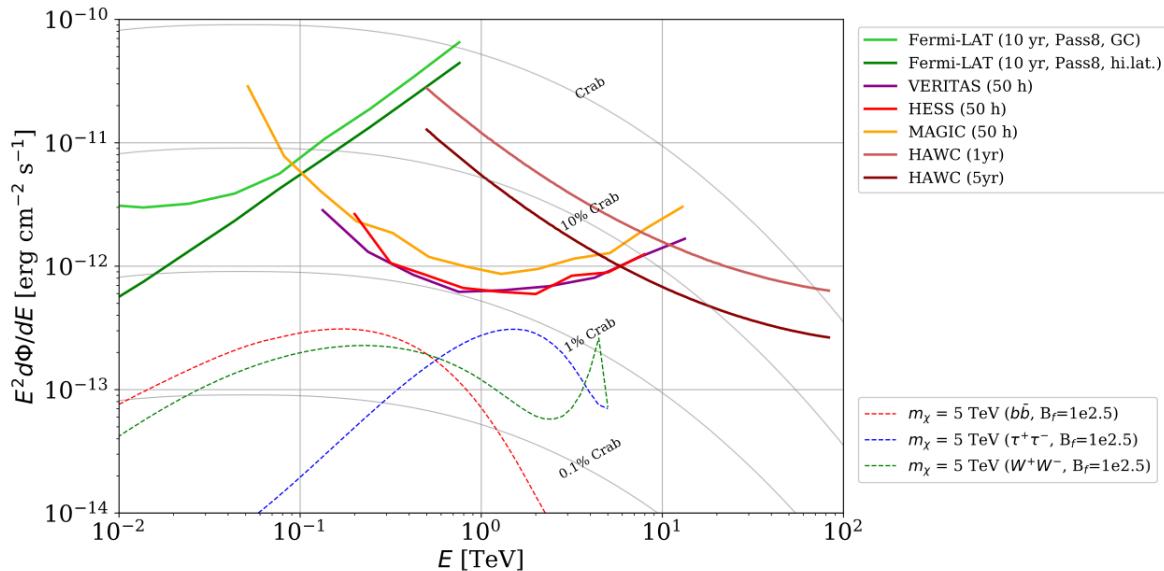


Figure 7.1 [NEEDS A SOURCE]Sensitivities of five gamma-ray experiments compared to percentages of the Crab nebula’s emission and dark matter annihilation. Solid lines present estimated sensitivities to power law spectra [FACT CHECK THIS]for each experiment. Green lines are Fermi-LAT sensitivities where lighter green is the sensitivity to the galactic center and light 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 DM annihilating to bottom quarks (red), tau leptons (blue), and W bosons (green). Faded grey lines outline percentage flux of the Crab nebula.

593 Each of the five experiments featured in Figure 7.1 have independently searched for DM
 594 annihilation from dwarf galaxies and set limits. Intriguingly, their similarities overlap in regions
 595 where these observatories are less sensitive. This clearly motivates an analysis that combines data

596 from these five. Each experiment has unique gamma-ray detection methods and their weaknesses
597 and strengths can be leveraged with each other. The HAWC gamma-ray observatory is extensively
598 introduced in chapter 4, so it is not introduced here. A brief description of the remaining experiments
599 are in the following paragraphs.

600 The Large Area Telescope (LAT) is a pair conversion telescope mounted on the NASA Fermi
601 satellite in orbit 550 km above the Earth [25]. LAT's field of view covers about 20% of the
602 whole sky, and it sweeps the whole sky every 3 hours, approximately. LAT's gamma-ray energy
603 sensitivity ranges from 20 MeV up to 1 TeV. Previous DM searches towards dwarf galaxies using
604 Fermi-LAT are published in [26] and [27]

605 The High Energy Spectroscopic System (HESS), Major Atmospheric Gamma Imaging
606 Cherenkov (MAGIC), and Very Energetic Radiation Imaging Telescope Array System (VERI-
607 TAS) are arrays of Imaging Atmospheric Cherenkov Telescopes (IACT). These telescopes observe
608 the Cherenkov light emitted from gamma-ray showers in the Earth's atmosphere. The field for
609 these telescopes is no larger than 5° with energy sensitivities ranging from 30 GeV up to 100 TeV.
610 [28, 29, 30] IACTs are able to make precise observations in selected regions of the sky, however
611 can only be operated in ideal dark conditions. HESS's observations of the dwarves Sculptor and
612 Carina were between January 2008 and December 2009. HESS observations of Coma Berenices
613 were from 2010 to 2013, and Fornax was observed in 2010 [31, 32, 33]. MAGIC provided deep
614 observations of Segue1 between 2011 and 2013 [34]. MAGIC also provides data for three dwarves:
615 Coma Berenices, Draco, and Ursa Major II where observations were made in: January - June 2019
616 [35], March - September 2018 [35], and 2014 - 2016 [36] respectively. VERITAS provided data
617 for Boötes I, Draco, Segue 1, and Ursa Minor from 2009 to 2016 [37]

618 This chapter presents the Glory Duck analysis, the name given for the search for dark matter
619 annihilation from dwarf galaxies by combining data from the five gamma-ray observatories: Fermi-
620 LAT, HAWC, HESS, MAGIC, and VERITAS. Specifically, the methods in analysis and modeling
621 are presented for the HAWC gamma-ray observatory. This work was published to ??? and presented
622 at the International Cosmic Ray Conference in 2019, 2021, and 2023 [38, 39, 40] and more.

623 **7.2 Dataset and Background**

624 This section enumerates the data and background methods used for HAWC's study of the dwarf
625 spheroidal galaxies (dSph). Section 7.2.1 and Section 7.2.2 are most useful for fellow HAWC
626 collaborators looking to replicate the Glory Duck analysis.

627 **7.2.1 Itemized HAWC files**

- 628 • Detector Resolution: [response_aerie_svn_27754_systematics_best_mc_test_no](#)
629 [broadpulse_10pctlogchargesmearing_0.63qe_25kHzNoise_run5481_curvatu](#)
630 [re0_index3.root](#)
- 631 • Data Map: [maps-20180119/liff/maptree_1024.root](#)
- 632 • Spectral Dictionary: [DM_CirrelliSpectrum_dict_gammas.npy](#)
- 633 • Analysis wiki: https://private.hawc-observatory.org/wiki/index.php/Glory_Duck_Multi-Experiment_Dark_Matter_Search

635 **7.2.2 Software Tools and Development**

636 This analysis was performed using HAL and 3ML, in Python version 2[41, 42]. I built software
637 to implement the *Poor Particle Physicists' Cookbook* (PPPC) [43] DM spectral model and dSphs
638 spatial model from [44] for HAWC analysis. A NumPy version of this dictionary was made for
639 both Py2 and Py3. The code base for creating this dictionary is linked on my GitLab sandbox:

- 640 • Py2: [Dictionary Generator \(Deprecated\)](#)
- 641 • Py3: [PPPC2Dict](#)

642 The analysis was performed using the f_{hit} framework performed in the Crab paper[41]. The
643 Python2 NumPy dictionary file for gamma-ray final states is [dmCirSpecDict.npy](#). The corre-
644 sponding Python3 file is [DM_CirrelliSpectrum_dict_gammas.npy](#). These files can also be
645 used for decay channels and the PPPC describes how. [43]. All other software used for data

646 analysis, DM profile generation, and job submission to SLURM are also kept in my sandbox for
647 [the Glory Duck](#) project.

648 7.2.3 Data Set and Background Description

649 The HAWC data maps used for this analysis contain 1017 days of data between runs 2104
650 (2014-11-26) and 7476 (2017-12-20). They were generated from pass 4.0 reconstruction. The
651 analysis is performed using the f_{hit} energy binning scheme with bins (1-9) similar to what was done
652 for the Crab and previous HAWC dSph analysis. [41, 45]. Bin 0 was excluded as it has substantial
653 hadronic contamination and poor angular resolution.

654 This analysis was done on dwarf spheroidal (dSph) galaxies because of their large dark matter
655 (DM) content relative to baryonic. We consider the following to estimate the background to this
656 study.

- 657 • The dSphs are small in HAWC’s field of view, so the analysis is not sensitive to large or small
658 scale anisotropies.
- 659 • The dSphs used in this analysis are off the galactic plane.
- 660 • The dSphs are baryonically faint relative to their expected dark matter content and are not
661 expected to contain gamma-ray sources.

662 Therefor we make no additional assumptions on the background from our sources and use
663 HAWC’s standard direct integration method for background estimation [41]. It is possible for
664 gamma rays from DM annihilation to scatter in transit to HAWC via Inverse Compton Scattering
665 (ICS). This was investigated and its impact on the flux is basically zero. Supporting information
666 on this is in Section 7.6.1

667 7.3 Analysis

668 The expected differential photon flux from DM-DM annihilation to standard model particles
669 over solid angle is described by the familiar equation.

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

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

$$J = \int \int \rho_\chi^2(l, \Omega) dl d\Omega \quad (7.2)$$

673 ρ_χ is the DM density. How each component is generated and considered for HAWC's analysis
 674 is presented in the following sections.

675 **7.3.1 $\frac{dN_\gamma}{dE_\gamma}$ - Particle Physics Component**

676 For this value, we import the PPPC with Electro-Weak (EW) corrections [43]. The spectrum is
 677 implemented as a model script in astromodels for 3ML. The PPPC model selected for this analysis
 678 included EW corrections. The EW corrections were previously not considered for HAWC and are
 679 significant for DM annihilating to EW coupled SM particles such as all leptons, and the γ , Z , and W
 680 bosons. [45]. Figure 7.2 demonstrates the significance of EW corrections for W boson annihilation.
 681 Tables from the PPPC were reformatted into python Numpy dictionaries for collaboration-wide use.
 682 A class in atromodels was created to include the EW correction from the PPPC and is aptly named
 683 `PPPCSpectra` within `DM_models.py`.

684 **7.3.2 J - Astrophysical Component**

685 The J-factor profiles for each source are imported from Geringer-Sameth (GS) [44]. These
 686 were provided from the authors as $J(\theta)$, where θ is the angular separation from the center of the
 687 source. HAWC requires maps in terms of $\frac{dJ}{d\Omega}$, so the conversion from the maps was done in the
 688 following way.

689 First, convert the angular distances to solid angles

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

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

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

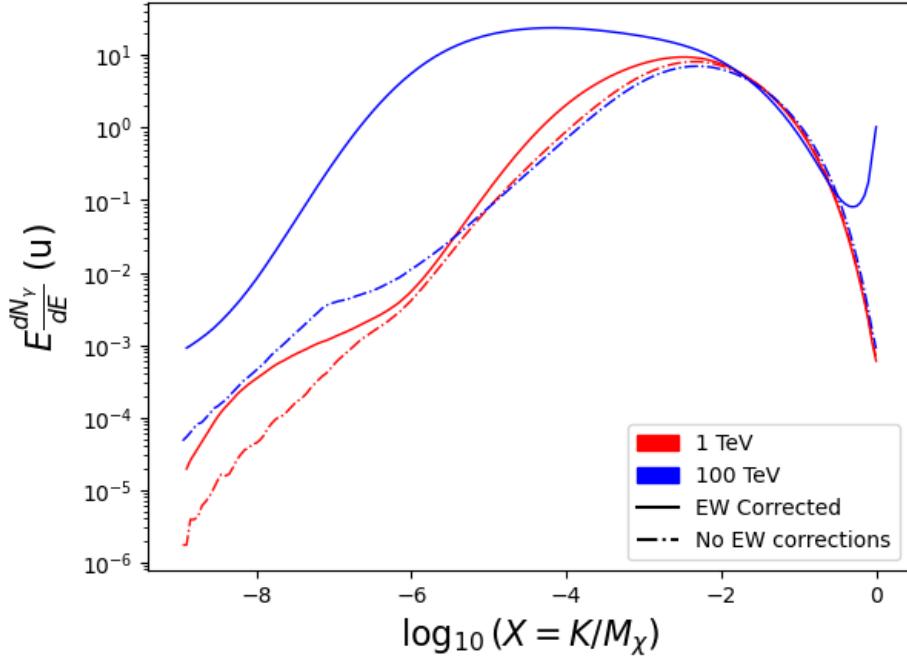


Figure 7.2 Effect of Electro-Weak (EW) corrections on expected DM annihilation spectrum for $\chi\chi \rightarrow W^-W^+$. Solid lines are spectral models that consider EW corrections. Dash-dot lines are spectral models without EW corrections. Red lines are models for $M_\chi = 1$ TeV. Blue lines represent models for $M_\chi = 100$ TeV. All models are sourced from the PPPC4DMID [43].

692 Where ϕ is either θ or J . These were done separately in case the grid spacing in θ was not uniform.
 693 Finally, these lists are divided so that we are left with approximation of the profile of $dJ/d\Omega$ that
 694 is a function of θ . Admittedly, this is an approximation method for the map which introduces
 695 small errors compared to the true profile estimate. This was checked as a systematic against the
 696 author's profiling of the spatial distribution and is documented in **TODO: Model dependant limit,**
 697 **remember the jfactors!**

698 With $\frac{dJ}{d\Omega}$, a map is generated, first by filling in the north-east quadrant of the map. This quadrant
 699 is then reflected twice, vertically then horizontally, to fill the full map. Maps are then normalized
 700 by dividing the discrete 2D integral of the map. The 2D integral was a simple height of bins,
 701 Newton's integral:

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

702 These maps are HEALpix maps with NSIDE 16384 and saved in the `.fits` format.
 703 Another DM spatial distribution model from Bonnivard (\mathcal{B}) [46] was used for the complete

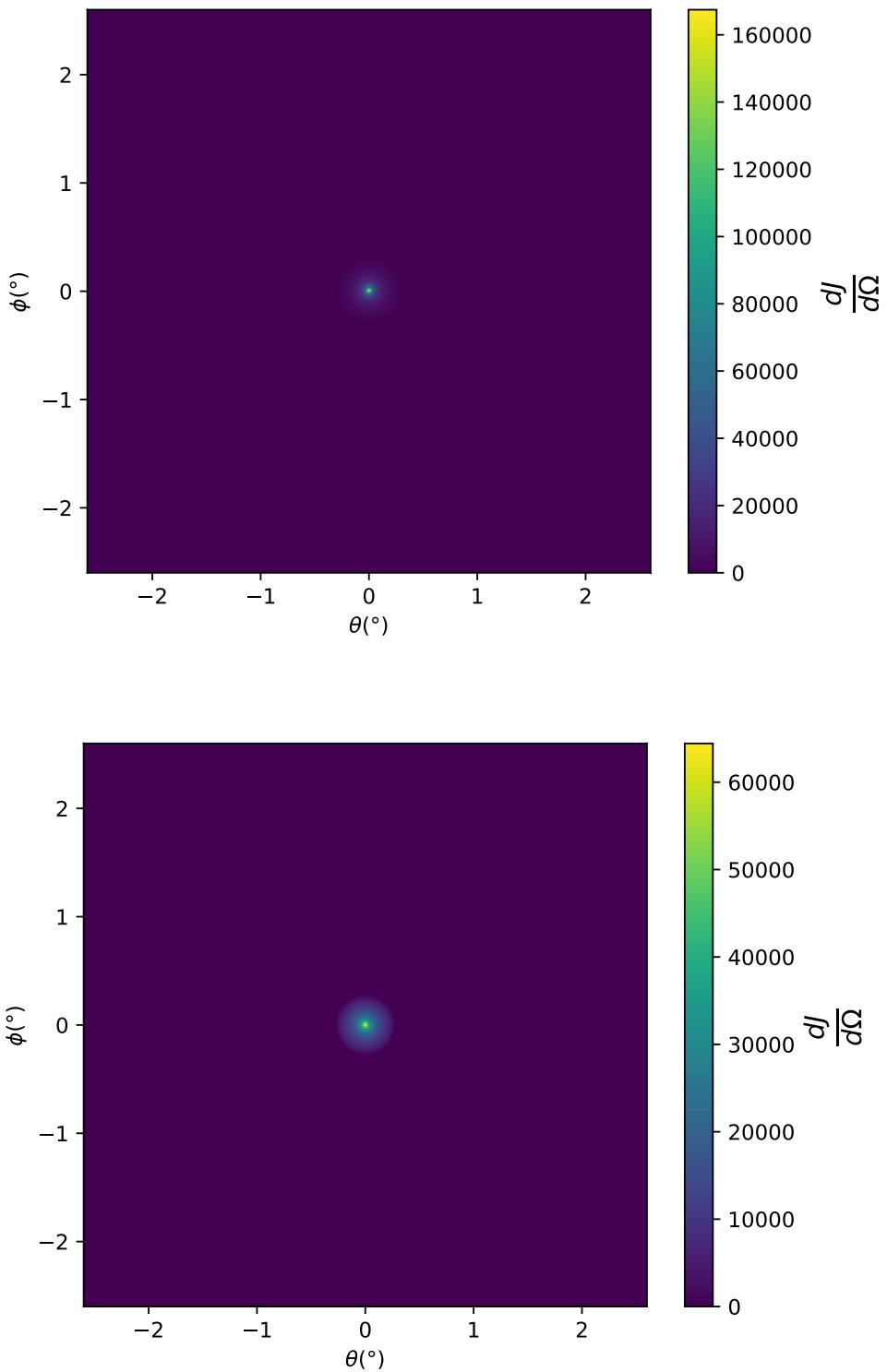


Figure 7.3 $\frac{dJ}{d\Omega}$ maps for Segue1 (top) and Coma Berenices (bottom). Origin is centered on the specific dwarf spheroidal galaxies (dSph). X and Y axes are the angular separation from the center of the dwarf. Plots of the remaining 11 dSph HAWC studied are found linked in Section 7.2.2.

study. However, to save computational time, limits from \mathcal{GS} were scaled to \mathcal{B} instead of each experiment performing a full study a second time. How these models compare is demonstrated for each dSph in Figure 7.13 and Figure 7.14. Plots of these maps are provided for each source in the sandbox directory: `GD_mass_profiles`. Examples of the two most impactful dSph, Segue1 and Coma Berenices are featured in Figure 7.3.

7.3.3 Source Selection and Annihilation Channels

We use many of the dSph presented in our previous dSph DM search [45]. HAWC's sources for Glory Duck include Boötes I, Coma Berenices, Canes Venatici I + II, Draco, Hercules, Leo I, II, + IV, Segue 1, Sextans, and Ursa Major I + II. A full description of all sources used in Glory Duck is found in Table 7.1. Triangulum II was excluded from the Glory Duck analysis because of large uncertainties in its J-factor. Ursa Minor was excluded from HAWC's contribution to the combination because the source extension model extended Ursa Minor beyond HAWC's field of view. Ursa Minor was not expected to contribute significantly to the combined limit, so work was not invested in a solution to include Ursa Minor.

The DM annihilation channels probed for the Glory Duck combination include $b\bar{b}$, $e\bar{e}$, $\mu\bar{\mu}$, $\tau\bar{\tau}$, $t\bar{t}$, W^+W^- , and ZZ . A summary of all sources, with a description of each experiments' sensitivity to the source, is provided in Table 7.2.

7.3.4 Likelihood Methods

We perform a standard HAWC binned maximum likelihood analysis using f_{hit} bins 1-9. This analysis was performed using HAL and 3ML, in Python2 [41, 42]. With these tools we compute the max from the likelihood profiles and perform a ratio test to calculate the significance of each source. This analysis is identical to the previous dSph analysis [45] except the sources are treated as extended. For the vast majority of our sources, this extension is no greater than 2 degrees. We calculate the likelihood of each source and model, assuming events are Poisson distributed, with

$$\mathcal{L} = \prod_i \frac{(B_i + S_i)^{N_i} e^{-(B_i + S_i)}}{N_i!} \quad (7.6)$$

S_i is the sum of expected number of signal counts. B_i is the number of background counts

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) [44] 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) [46] are provided for a source extension at the tidal radius of each dSph. **Bolded sources are within HAWC's field of view and provided to the Glory Duck analysis.**

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

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

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

729 observed. N_i is the total number of counts. The i th bin is iterated over spatial and f_{hit} . Then we
 730 combine the profiles across all five experiments. The profile likelihood ratio λ as a function of
 732 annihilation cross-section $\langle\sigma v\rangle$ is computed by:

$$\lambda(\langle\sigma v\rangle | \mathcal{D}_{\text{dSphs}}) = \frac{\mathcal{L}(\langle\sigma v\rangle; \hat{\nu} | \mathcal{D}_{\text{dSphs}})}{\mathcal{L}(\widehat{\langle\sigma v\rangle}; \hat{\nu} | \mathcal{D}_{\text{dSphs}})} \quad (7.7)$$

733 for a considered annihilation channel and DM mass.

734 **TODO: Section pasted from paper. Rephrase cause plagiarism is a thing.** As mentioned pre-
 735 viously, each experiment computes the \mathcal{L}_{lk} from Equation (7.7) differently. The remainder of
 736 this section highlights the differences in this calculation across the experiments. Four experiments,
 737 namely *Fermi*-LAT, H.E.S.S., HAWC and MAGIC, use a binned likelihood to compute the \mathcal{L}_{lk} . For
 738 these experiments, for each observation \mathcal{D}_{lk} of a given dSph l carried out using a given gamma-ray
 739 detector k , the binned likelihood function is:

$$\mathcal{L}_{lk}(\langle\sigma v\rangle; J_l, \nu_{lk} | \mathcal{D}_{lk}) = \prod_{i=1}^{N_E} \prod_{j=1}^{N_P} \left[\mathcal{P}(s_{lk,ij}(\langle\sigma v\rangle, J_l, \nu_{lk}) + b_{lk,ij}(\nu_{lk}) | N_{lk,ij}) \right] \times \mathcal{L}_{lk,\nu}(\nu_{lk} | \mathcal{D}_{\nu_{lk}}) \quad (7.8)$$

740 where N_E and N_P are the number of considered bins in reconstructed energy and arrival
 741 direction, respectively; \mathcal{P} represents a Poisson PDF for the number of gamma-ray candidate events
 742 observed in the i -th bin in energy and j -th bin in arrival direction, when the expected number
 743 is the sum of the expected mean number of signal events s_{ij} (produced by DM annihilation) and of
 744 background events b_{ij} ; $\mathcal{L}_{lk,\nu}$ is the likelihood term for the extra ν_{lk} nuisance parameters that vary
 745 from one instrument k to another. The expected counts for signal events s_{ij} for a given dSph l and
 746 detector k is given by:

$$s_{ij}(\langle\sigma v\rangle, J) = \int_{E'_{\min,i}}^{E'_{\max,i}} dE' \int_{P'_{\min,j}}^{P'_{\max,j}} d\Omega' \int_0^\infty dE \int_{\Delta\Omega_{tot}} d\Omega \int_0^{T_{\text{obs}}} dt \frac{d^2\Phi(\langle\sigma v\rangle, J)}{dEd\Omega} \text{IRF}(E', P' | E, P, t) \quad (7.9)$$

747 where E' and E are the reconstructed and true energies, P' and P the reconstructed and true
 748 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
 749 energy bin and the j -th arrival direction bin; T_{obs} is the (dead-time corrected) total observation

750 time; t is the time along the observations; $d^2\Phi/dEd\Omega$ is the DM flux in the source region (see
 751 Equation (7.1)); and $\text{IRF}(E', P' | E, P, t)$ is the IRF, which can be factorized as the product of the
 752 effective collection area of the detector $A_{\text{eff}}(E, P, t)$, the PDFs for the energy estimator $f_E(E' | E, t)$,
 753 and arrival direction $f_P(P' | E, P, t)$ estimators. Note that for Fermi-LAT, HAWC, MAGIC, and
 754 VERITAS the effect of the finite angular resolution is taken into account through the convolution
 755 of $d\Phi/dEd\Omega$ with f_P in Equation (7.9), whereas in the cases of H.E.S.S. f_P is approximated by a
 756 delta function. This approximation has been made in order to maintain compatibility of the result
 757 with what has been previously published. The difference introduced by this approximation is $< 5\%$
 758 for all considered dSphs. **TODO: End of paper section**

759 From Equation (7.7), we can compute the test statistic (TS) with the ratio test:

$$\text{TS} = -2 \ln \left(\frac{\mathcal{L}}{\mathcal{L}^{\max}} \right). \quad (7.10)$$

760 \mathcal{L}^{\max} here is equivalent to $\mathcal{L}(N_i, B_i, S_i = 0)$ or no signal counts.

761 7.4 HAWC Results

762 13 of the 20 dSphs considered for the Glory Duck analysis are within HAWC's field of view.
 763 These dSph are analyzed for DM content according to the likelihood method described in Sec-
 764 tion 7.3.4. The 13 likelihood profiles are then combined to create a combined limit on the dark
 765 matter cross-section. This combination is done for 7 of the 8 annihilation channels used in the Glory
 766 Duck analysis. Figure 7.5 shows the combined limit for all annihilation channels with HAWC only
 767 observations. We also perform 300 studies of Poisson trials on the background. These trials are
 768 used to produce HAWC Brazil bands are shared with the other collaborators for combined Brazil
 769 Bands. The results on fitting to HAWC's poisson trials of the DM hypothesis is shown in Figure 7.6
 770 for seven of the DM annihilation channels.

771 No DM was found in HAWC observations. The limits are dominated by the dSph Segue1 and
 772 Coma Berenices. The remaining 11 dSphs do no contribute significantly to the limit. Even though
 773 the remaining dSphs have large J-factors, they are towards the edge of HAWC's field of view where
 774 this analysis is less sensitive.

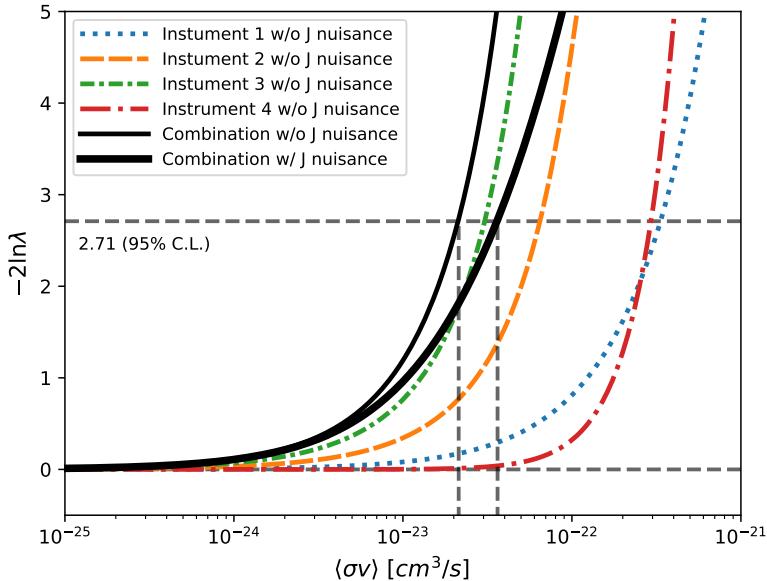


Figure 7.4 Illustration of the combination technique showing a comparison between $-2 \ln \lambda$ provided by four instruments (colored lines) from the observation of the same dSph without any J nuisance and their sum, *i.e.* the resulting combined likelihood (thin black line). According to the test statistics of Equation (7.10), 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 the uncertainties on the J -factor affects 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.

775 7.5 Glory Duck Combined Results

776 The crux of this analysis is that HAWC's results are combined with 4 other gamma-ray obser-
 777 vatories: Fermi-LAT, H.E.S.S., MAGIC, and VERITAS. The complete joint likelihood for the l -th
 778 dSph is the product of likelihood functions of the 5 experiments.

779 **TODO:** place holder for results

780 No significant DM emission was observed by any of the five telescopes. We present upper
 781 limits on $\langle \sigma v \rangle$ using the test statistics, Eq. (7.10).

$$TS = -2 \ln \lambda(\langle \sigma v \rangle), \quad (7.11)$$

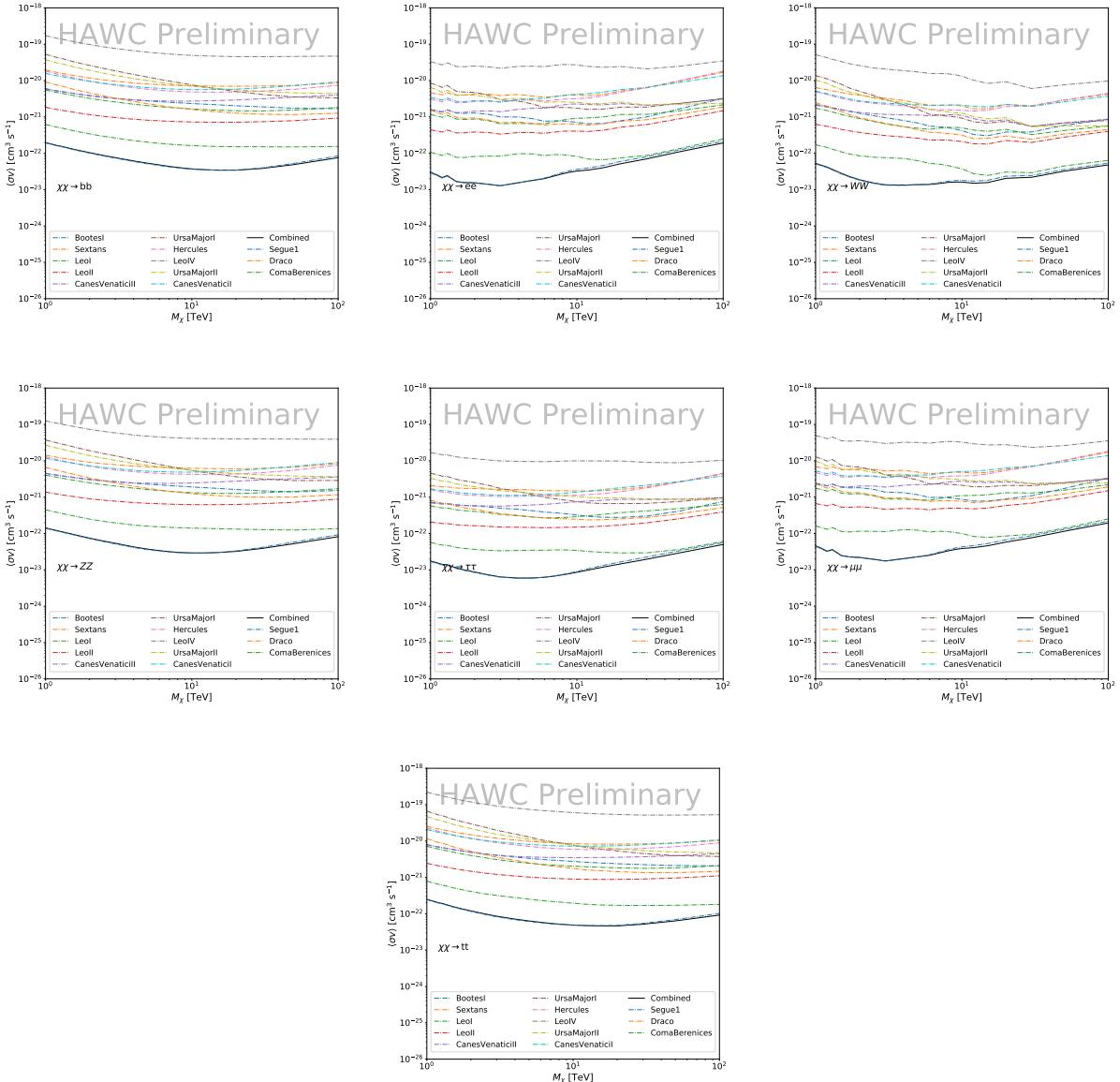


Figure 7.5 HAWC upper limits at 95% confidence level on $\langle\sigma v\rangle$ versus DM mass for seven annihilation channels, using the set of J -factors from Ref. [47]. The solid line represents the observed combined limit. Dashed lines represent limits from individual dSphs.

No significant DM emission was observed by any of the five instruments. We present the upper limits on $\langle\sigma v\rangle$ assuming seven independent DM self annihilation channels, namely W^+W^- , Z^+Z^- , $b\bar{b}$, $t\bar{t}$, e^+e^- , $\mu^+\mu^-$, and $\tau^+\tau^-$. The 68% 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

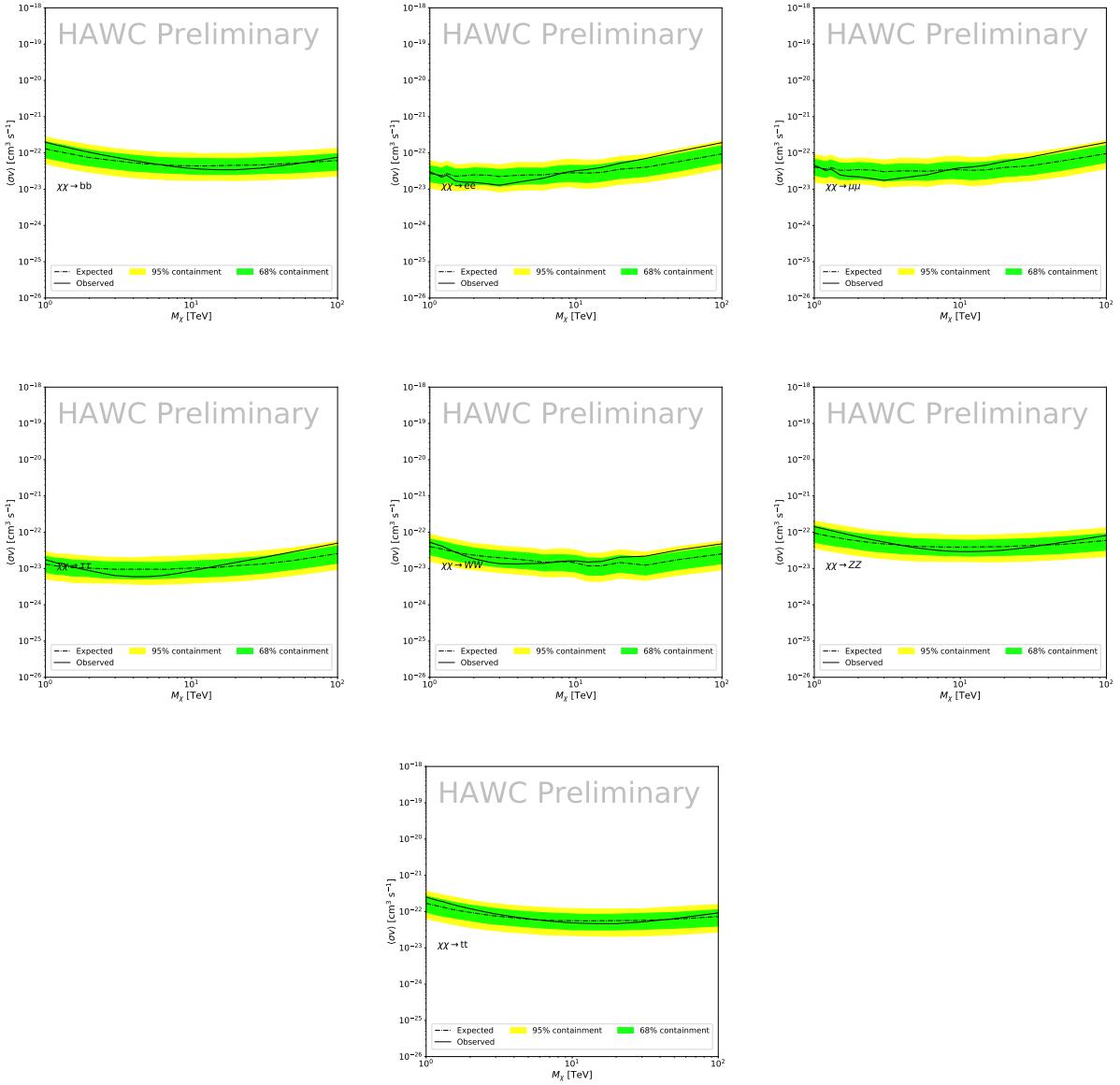


Figure 7.6 HAWC Brazil bands at 95% confidence level on $\langle\sigma v\rangle$ versus DM mass for seven annihilation channels with J -factors from \mathcal{GS} [47]. The solid line represents the combined limit from 13 dSphs. The dashed line is the expected limit. The green band is the 68% containment. The yellow band is the 95% containment.

median are extracted from the distribution of resulting limits on the null hypothesis. These 300 realizations are obtained either by fast simulations of the OFF observations, for H.E.S.S., MAGIC, VERITAS, and HAWC, or taken from real observations of empty fields of view in the case of Fermi-LAT [48, 49, 50].

The obtained limits are shown in Figure 7.7 for the \mathcal{GS} set of J -factors [47] and in Figure 7.8

792 for the \mathcal{B} set of J -factors [46, 51]. The combined limits are presented with their 68% and 95%
793 containment bands, and are expected to be close to the median limit when no signal is present.
794 We observe agreement with the null hypothesis for all channels, within 2σ standard deviations,
795 between the observed limits and the expectations given by the median limits. Limits obtained from
796 each detector are also indicated in the figures, where limits for all dSphs observed by the specific
797 instrument have been combined.

798 Below ~ 300 GeV, the *Fermi*-LAT dominates the DM limits for all annihilation channels. From
799 ~ 300 GeV to ~ 2 TeV, *Fermi*-LAT continues to dominate for the hadronic and bosonic DM channels,
800 yet the IACTs (H.E.S.S., MAGIC, and VERITAS) and *Fermi*-LAT all contribute to the limit for
801 leptonic DM channels. For DM masses between ~ 2 TeV to ~ 10 TeV, the IACTs dominate leptonic
802 DM annihilation channels, whereas both the *Fermi*-LAT and the IACTs dominate bosonic and
803 hadronic DM annihilation channels. From ~ 10 TeV to ~ 100 TeV, both the IACTs and HAWC
804 contribute significantly to the leptonic DM limit. For hadronic and bosonic DM, the IACTs and
805 *Fermi*-LAT both contribute strongly.

806 We notice that the limits computed using the \mathcal{B} set of J -factor are always better compared to the
807 ones calculated with the \mathcal{GS} set. For the W^+W^- , Z^+Z^- , $b\bar{b}$, and $t\bar{t}$ channels, the ratio between the
808 limits computed with the two sets of J -factor is varying between a factor of ~ 3 and ~ 5 depending
809 on the energy, with the largest ratio around 10 TeV. For the channels e^+e^- , $\mu^+\mu^-$, and $\tau^+\tau^-$, the
810 ratio lies between ~ 2 to ~ 6 , being maximum around 1 TeV. Examining Figure 7.13 and Figure 7.14
811 in Section 7.7, these differences are explained by the fact that the \mathcal{B} set provides higher J -factors
812 for the majority of the studied dSphs, with the notable exception of Segue I. The variation on the
813 ratio of the limits for the two sets is due to different dSph dominating the limits depending on the
814 energy. This pushes the range of thermal cross-section which can be excluded to higher mass. This
815 comparison demonstrates the magnitude of systematic uncertainties associated with the choice of
816 the J -factor

817 This comparison demonstrates the magnitude of systematic uncertainties associated with the
818 choice of the J -factor calculation. The \mathcal{GS} and \mathcal{B} sets present a difference in the limits for all

819 channels of about This difference is explained, see Figure 7.13 and Figure 7.14 in Appendix, by the
820 fact that the \mathcal{B} set provides higher J factors for all dSph except for Segue I. This pushes the range
821 of thermal cross-section which can be excluded to higher mass.

822 **7.6 HAWC Systematics**

823 **7.6.1 Inverse Compton Scattering**

824 The DM-DM annihilation channels produce many high energy electrons regardless of the
825 primary annihilation channel. These high energy electrons can produce high energy gamma-rays
826 through Inverse Compton Scattering (ICS). If this effect is strong, it would change the morphology
827 of the source and increase the total expected gamma-ray counts from any source. The PPPC [43]
828 provides tools in Mathematica for calculating the impact of ICS for an arbitrary location in the
829 sky for a specified annihilation channel. We calculated the change in gamma-ray counts for DM
830 annihilation to primary $e\bar{e}$ for RA and Dec corresponding to Segue1 and Coma Berenices. These
831 dSphs were chosen because they are the strongest contributors to the limit. $e\bar{e}$ was selected because
832 it would have the largest number of high energy electrons. The effect was found to be on the order
833 of 10^{-7} on the gamma-ray spectrum. As a result, this systematic is not considered in our analysis.

834 **7.6.2 Point Source Versus Extended Source Limits**

835 The previous DM search toward dSph approximated the dSphs as point sources [45]. In
836 this analysis, the dSphs are implemented as extended with J-factor distributions following those
837 produced by [47]. The resolution of the cited map is much finer than HAWC's angular resolution.
838 The vast majority of the J-factor distribution is represented on the central HAWC pixel of the dSph
839 spatial map. However, the neighboring 8 pixels are not negligible and contribute to our limit.

840 Figure 7.10 shows a substantial improvement to the limit for Segue1. Fig. 7.11 however showed
841 identical limits. These disparities are best explained by the relative difference in their J-Factors.
842 Both dSphs pass almost overhead the HAWC detector, however Segue1 has the larger J-Factor
843 between the two. Adjacent pixels to the central pixel will therefore contribute to the limits. This is
844 the case for other dSph that are closer to overhead the HAWC detector.

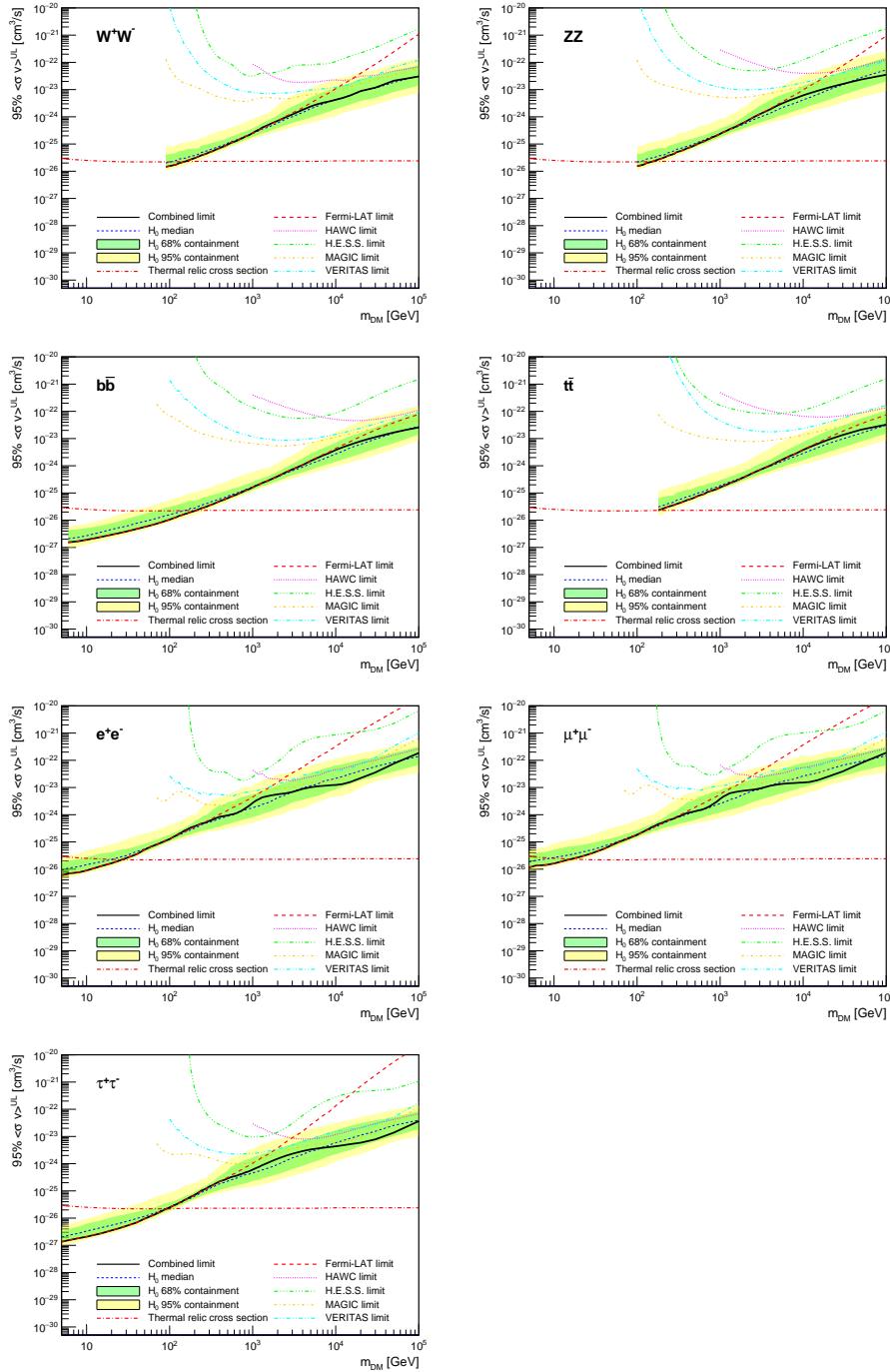


Figure 7.7 Upper limits at 95% confidence level on $\langle\sigma v\rangle$ in function of the DM mass for eight annihilation channels, using the set of J factors from Ref. [47] (\mathcal{GS} set in Table 7.1). The black solid line represents the observed combined limit, the black dashed line is the 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 [52].

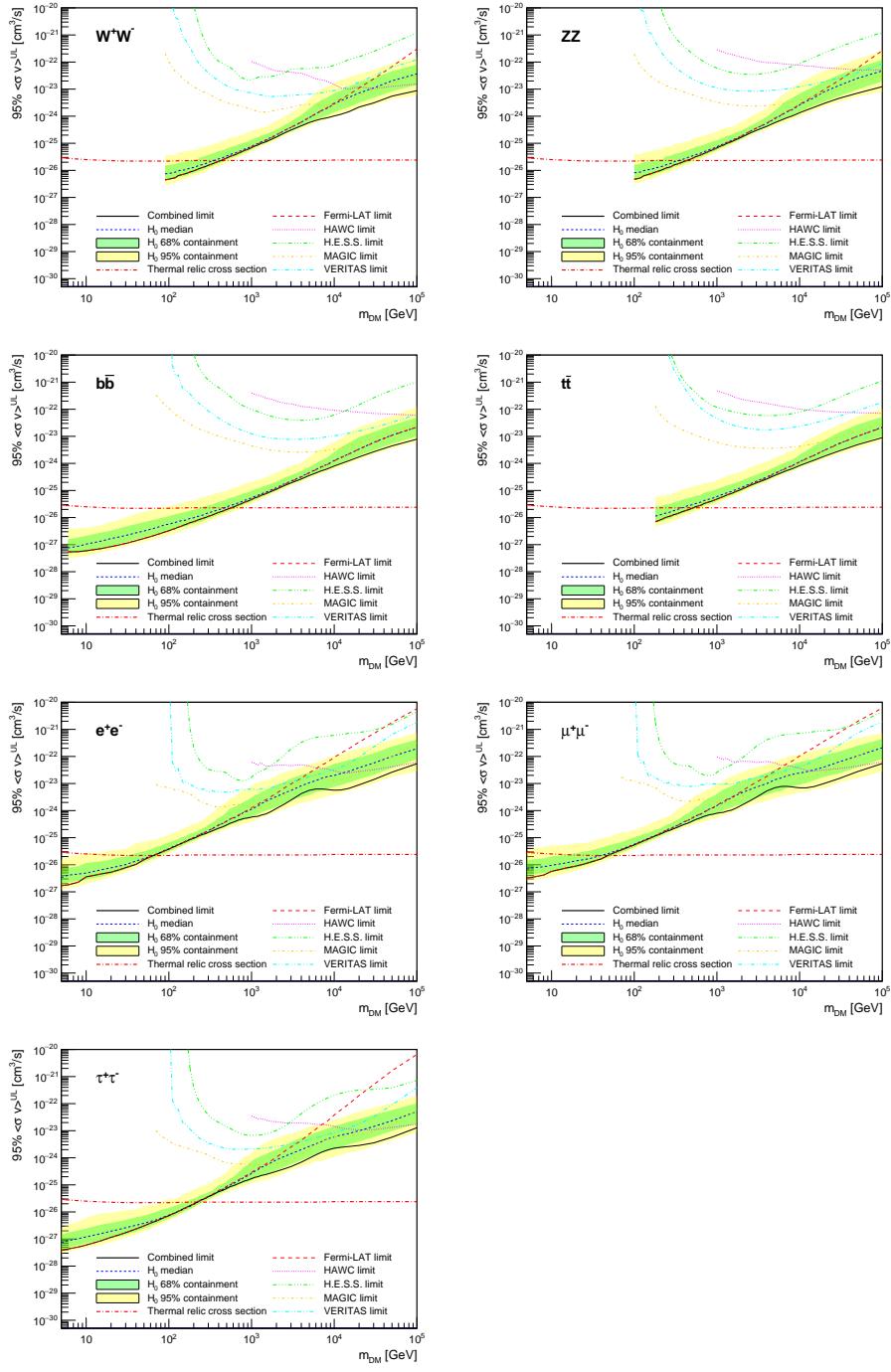


Figure 7.8 Same as Fig. 7.7, using the set of J factors from Ref. [46, 51] (\mathcal{B} set in Table 7.1).

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

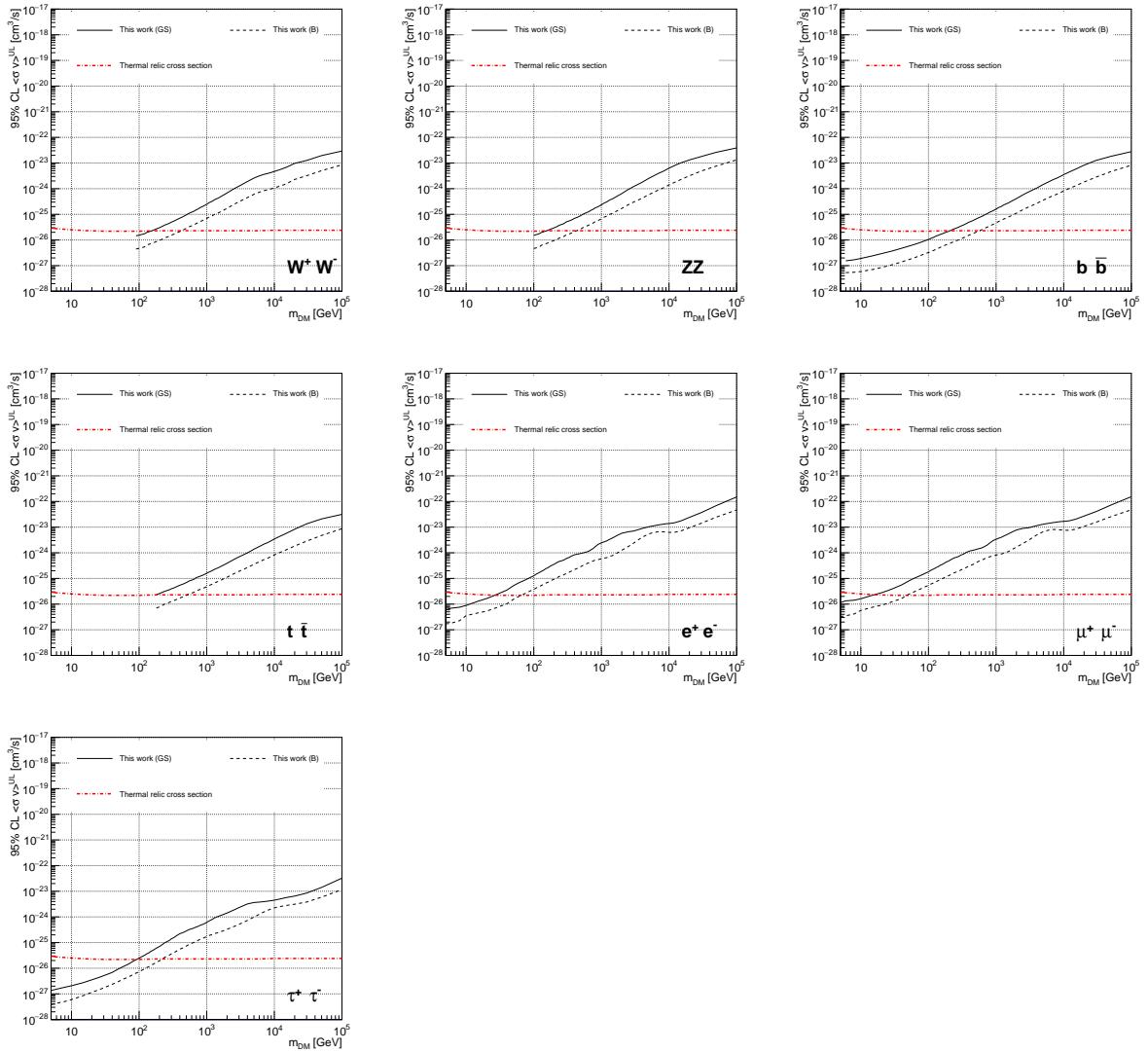


Figure 7.9 Comparisons of the combined limits at 95% confidence level for each of the eight annihilation channels when using the J factors from Ref. [47] (\mathcal{GS} set in Table 7.1), plain lines, and the J factor from Ref. [46, 51] (\mathcal{B} set in Table 7.1), dashed lines. The cross-section given by the thermal relic is also indicated [52].

847 7.6.3 Impact of Pointing Systematic

848 During the analysis it was discovered that reconstruction of gamma-rays. Slides describing this

849 systematic can be found [here](#). Shown on the presentation is dependence on the pointing systematic
850 on declination. New spatial profiles were generated for every dSph and limits were computed for
851 the adjusted declination.

852 Section 7.6.3 demonstrates the impact of this systematic for all DM annihilation channels

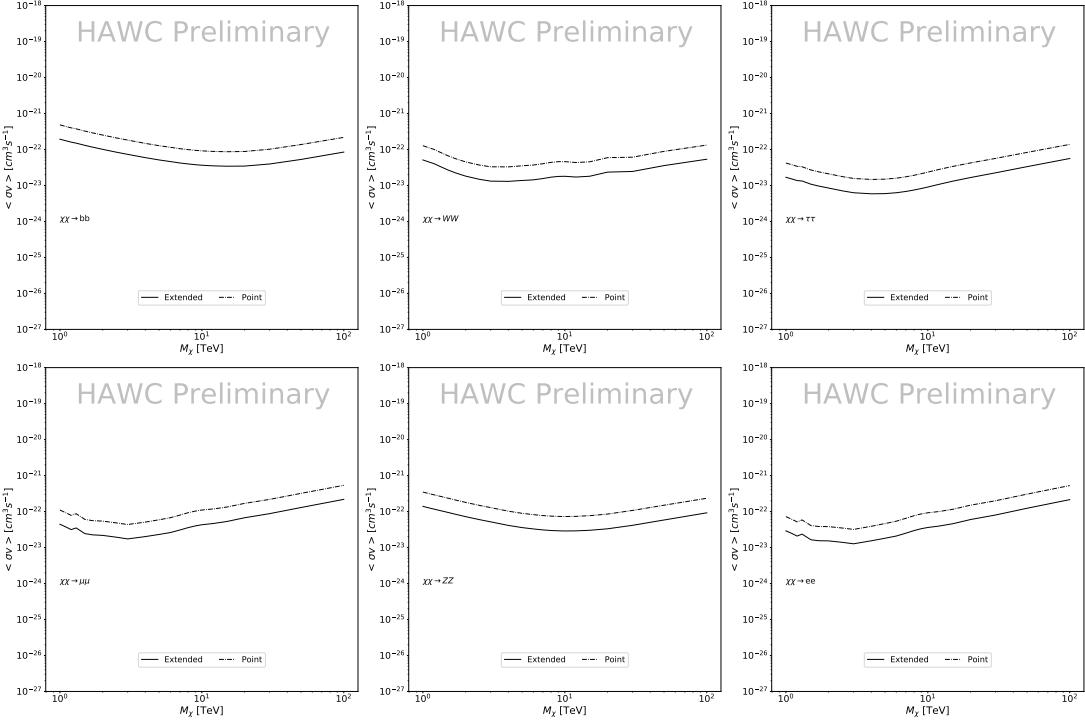


Figure 7.10 Comparisons of the combined limits at 95% confidence level for a point source analysis and extended source using [47] *GS* J-factor distributions and PPPC [43] annihilation spectra. Shown are the limits for Segue1 which will have the most significant impact on the combined limit. 6 of the 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.

853 studied by HAWC. The impact is a tiny improvement, yet mostly identical, to the combined limits.

854 7.7 J-factor distributions

855 We show in this appendix a comparison between the *J*-factors computed by Geringer-Sameth
 856 *et al.* [47] (the *GS* set) and the ones computed by Bonnivard *et al.* [46, 51] (the *B* set). The
 857 *GS* *J*-factors are computed through a Jeans analysis of the kinematic stellar data of the selected
 858 dSphs, assuming a dynamic equilibrium and a spherical symmetry for the dSphs. They adopted
 859 the generalized DM density distribution, known as Zhao-Hernquist, introduced by [53], carrying
 860 three additional index parameters to describe the inner and outer slopes, and the break of the
 861 density profile. Such a profile parametrization allows the reduction of the theoretical bias from
 862 the choice of a specific radial dependency on the kinematic data. In other words, the increase of
 863 free parameters with the use of the Zhao-Hernquist profile allows a better description of the mass

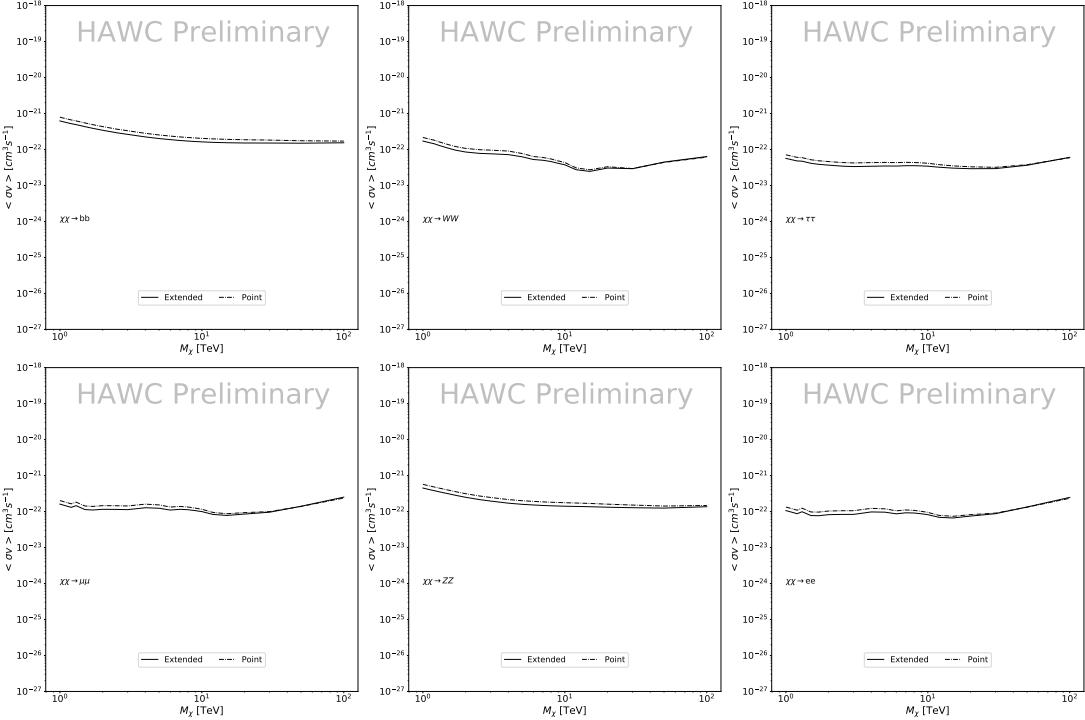


Figure 7.11 Same as Fig. 7.10 on Coma Berenices. This dSph also contributes significantly to the limit. The limits are identical in this case.

864 density distribution of dark matter.

865 In addition, a constant velocity anisotropy profile and a Plummer light profile [54] for the stellar
 866 distribution were assumed. The velocity anisotropy profile depends on the radial and tangential
 867 velocity dispersions. However, its determination remains challenging since only the line-of-sight
 868 velocity dispersion can be derived from velocity measurements. Therefore, the parametrization of
 869 the anisotropy profile is obtained from simulated halos (see [55] for more details). They provide the
 870 values of the J -factors of regions extending to various angular radius up to the outermost member
 871 star.

872 The \mathcal{B} J -factors were computed through a Jeans analysis taking into account the systematic
 873 uncertainties induced by the DM profile parametrization, the radial velocity anisotropy profile, and
 874 the triaxiality of the halo of the dwarf galaxies. They performed a more complete study of the dSph
 875 kinematics and dynamics than \mathcal{GS} for the determination of the J -factor. Conservative values of the
 876 J -factors where obtained using an Einasto DM density profile [56], a realistic anisotropy profile
 877 known as the Baes & Van Hese profile [57] which takes into account that the inner regions can be

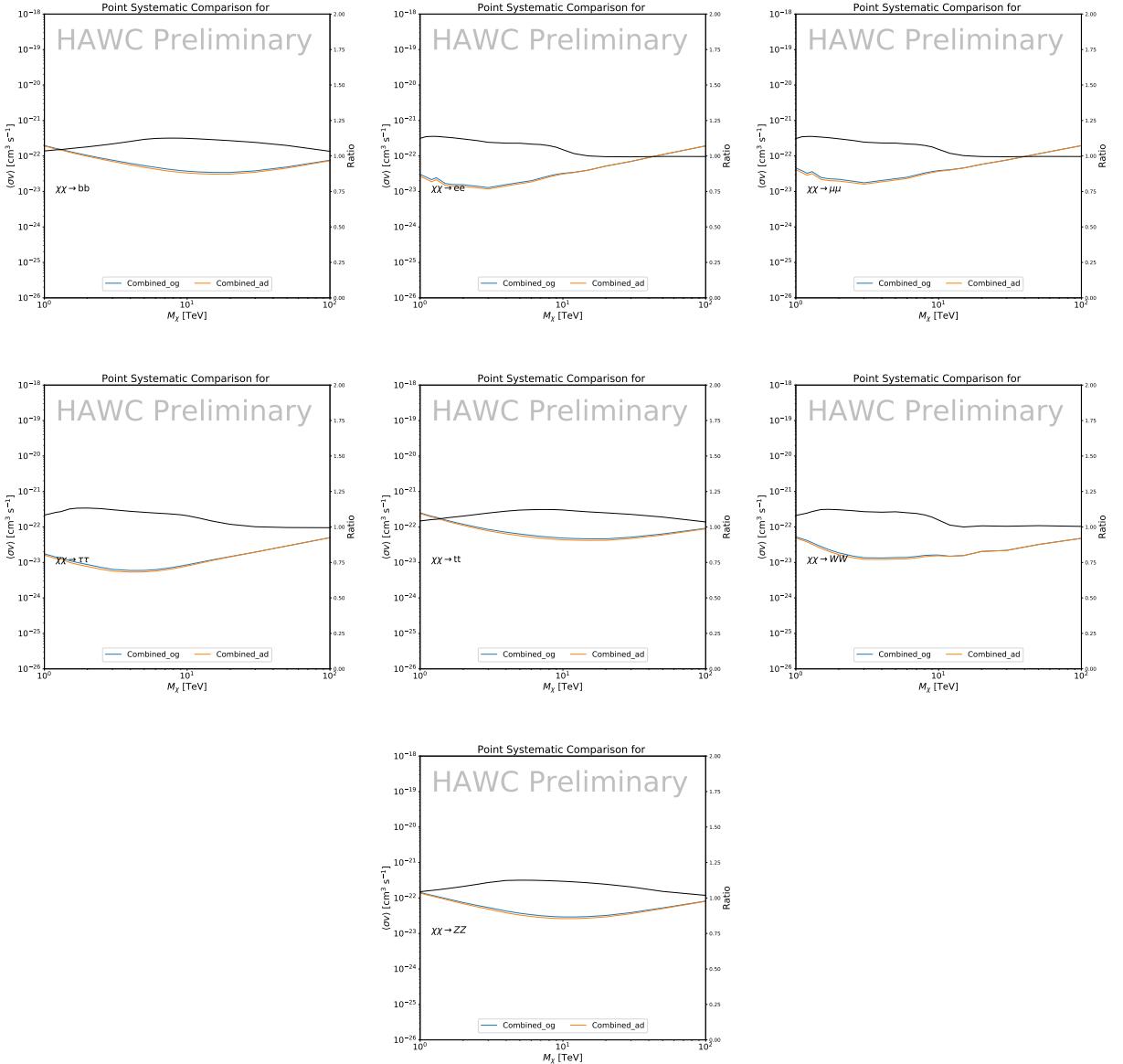


Figure 7.12 Comparison of combined limits when correcting for HAWC's pointing systematic. All DM annihilation channels are shown. The solid black line is the ratio between published limit to the declination corrected limit. The blue solid line or "Combined_og" represented the limits computed for Glory Duck. The solid orange line or "Combined_ad" represented the limits computed after correcting for the pointing systematic.

878 significantly non-isotropic, and a Zhao-Hernquist light profile [53].

879 For both sets, J -factor values are provided for all dSphs as a function of the radius of the
 880 integration region [47, 46, 51]. Table 7.1 shows the heliocentric distance and Galactic coordinates
 881 of the twenty dSphs, together with the two sets of J -factor values integrated up to the outermost

882 observed star for \mathcal{GS} and the tidal radius for \mathcal{B} . Both J -factor sets were derived through a Jeans
883 analysis based on the same kinematic data, except for Draco where the measurements of [58] have
884 been adopted in the computation of the \mathcal{B} value. The computations for producing the \mathcal{GS} and \mathcal{B}
885 samples differ in the choice of the DM density, velocity anisotropy, and light profiles, for which the
886 set \mathcal{B} takes into account some sources of systematic uncertainties.

887 Figure 7.13 and Figure 7.14 show the comparisons for the J -factor versus the angular radius
888 for each of the 20 dSphs used in this study. The uncertainties provided by the authors are also
889 indicated in the figures. For the \mathcal{GS} set, the computation stops at the angular radius corresponding
890 to the outermost observed star, while for the \mathcal{B} set, the computation stops at the angular radius
891 corresponding to the tidal radius.

892 7.8 Discussion and Conclusions

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

899 Fermi-LAT brings the most stringent constraints for continuum channels below approximately
900 1 TeV. the remaining detectors dominate at higher energies. Overall, for multi-TeV DM mass,
901 the combined DM constraints from all five telescopes are 2-3 times stronger than any individual
902 telescope for multi-TeV DM.

903 Derived from observations of many dSphs, our results produce robust limits given the DM
904 content of the dSphs is relatively well constrained. The obtained limits span the largest mass
905 range of any WIMP DM search. Our combined analysis improves the sensitivity over previously
906 published results from each detectors which produces the most stringent limits on DM annihilation
907 from dSphs. These results are based on deep exposures of the most promising known dSphs with
908 the currently most sensitive gamma-ray instruments. Therefore, our results constitute a legacy of

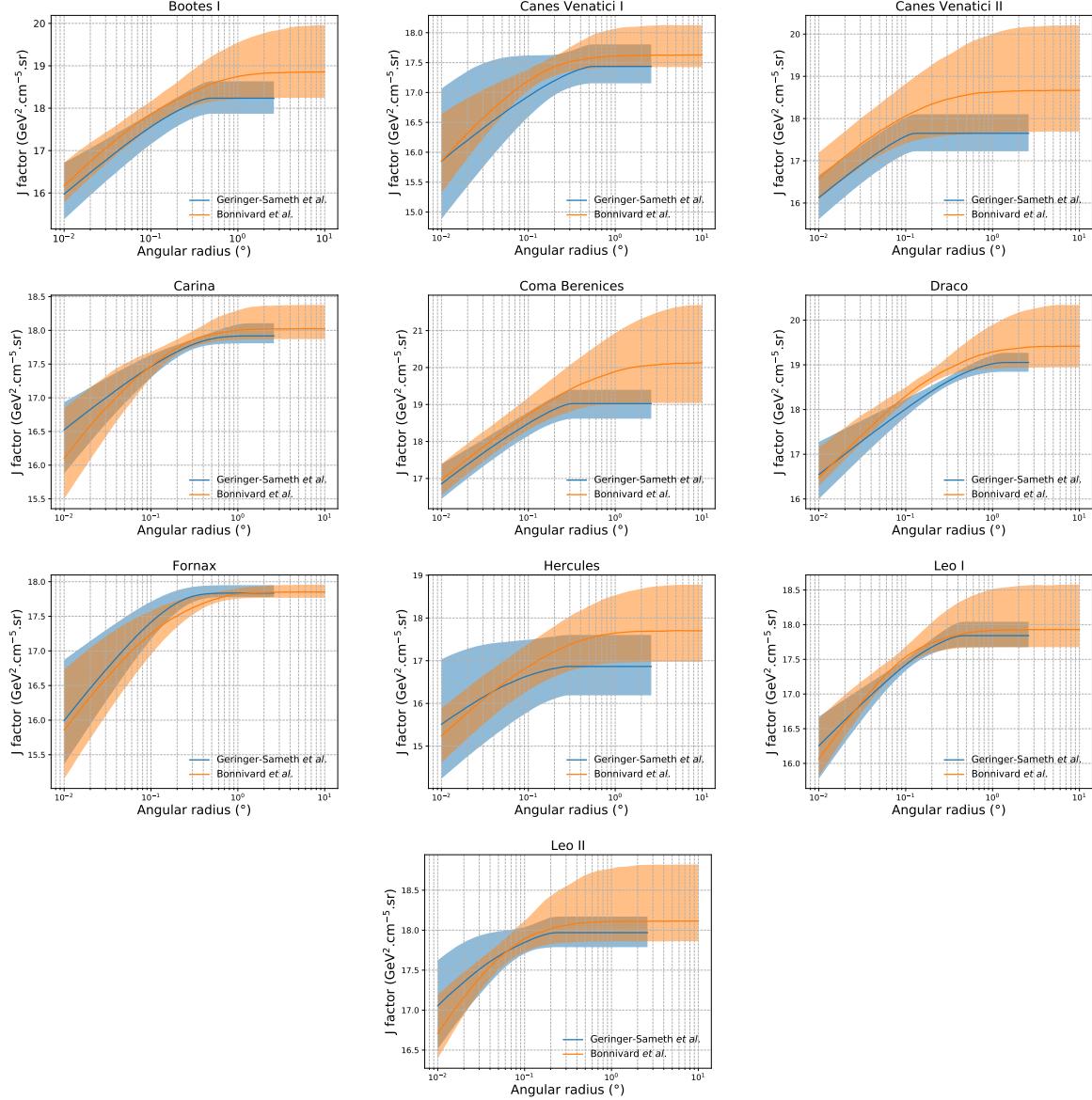


Figure 7.13 Comparisons between the J -factors versus the angular radius for the computation of J factors from Ref. [47] (\mathcal{GS} set in Table 7.1) in blue and for the computation from Ref. [46, 51] (\mathcal{B} set in Tab. 7.1) in orange. The solid lines represent the central value of the J -factors while the shaded regions correspond to the 1σ standard deviation.

909 a generation of gamma-ray instruments on WIMP DM searches towards dSphs. Our results will
 910 remain the reference in the field until a new generation of more sensitive gamma-ray instruments
 911 begin operations, or until new dSphs with higher J -factors are discovered.

912 This analysis serves as a proof of concept for future multi-instrument and multi-messenger
 913 combination analyses. With this collaborative effort, we have managed to sample over four orders

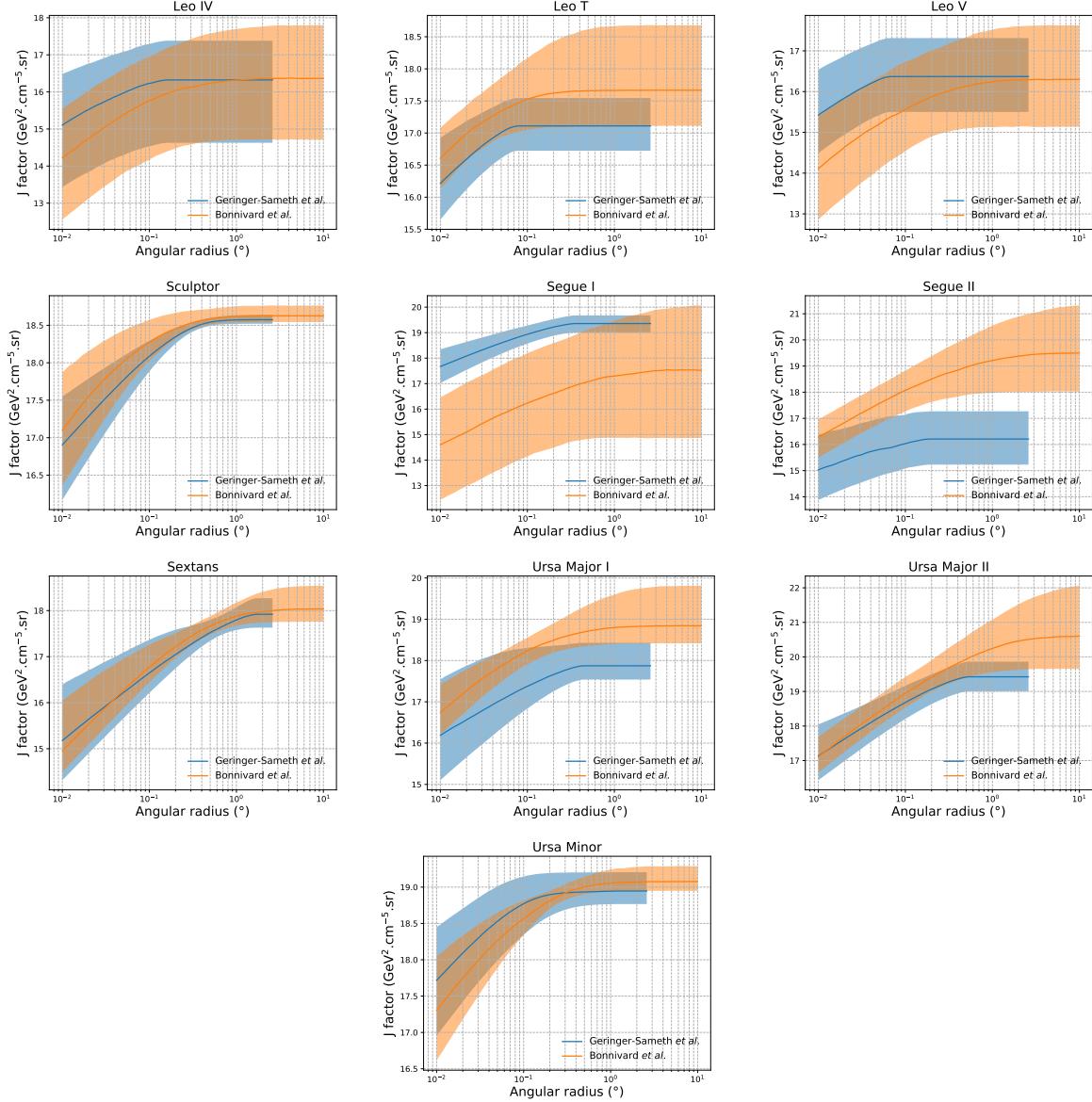


Figure 7.14 Comparisons between the J -factors versus the angular radius for the computation of J factors from Ref. [47] (\mathcal{GS} set in Tab. 7.1) in blue and for the computation from Ref. [46, 51] (\mathcal{B} set in Tab. 7.1) in orange. The solid lines represent the central value of the J -factors while the shaded regions correspond to the 1σ standard deviation.

in magnitude in gamma-ray energies with distinct observational techniques. Determining the nature of DM continues to be an elusive and difficult problem. Larger datasets with diverse measurement techniques could be essential to tackling the DM problem. A future collaboration using similar techniques as the ones described in this paper could grow even beyond gamma rays. The models we used for this study include annihilation channels with neutrinos in the final state. Advanced studies

919 could aim to merge our results with those from neutrino observatories with large data sets. Efforts
920 are already underway to add data from the IceCube, ANTARES, and KM3NeT observatories to
921 these gamma-ray results.

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

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

CHAPTER 8

NU DUCK

CHAPTER 9

MULTITHREADING HAWC ANALYSES FOR DARK MATTER SEARCHES

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