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Kinematic signatures of impulsive supernova feedback in dwarf galaxies

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Impulsive supernova feedback and non-standard dark matter models, such as self-interacting dark matter (SIDM), are the two main contenders for the role of the dominant core formation mechanism at the dwarf galaxy scale. Here we show that the impulsive supernova cycles that follow episodes of bursty star formation leave distinct features in the distribution function of stars: groups of stars with similar ages and metallicities develop overdense shells in phase space. If cores are formed through supernova feedback, we predict the presence of such features in star-forming dwarf galaxies with cored host halos. **Their systematic absence would favor alternative dark matter models, such as SIDM, as the dominant core formation mechanism.**

I Introduction. One of the most persevering small-scale challenges [1] to the collisionless cold dark matter (CDM) paradigm concerns the inner density profiles of DM halos that host dwarf galaxies. Hints for constant density cores **observed in some dwarf galaxies** [2–7] appear to be at odds with the ubiquitous cusps predicted by CDM N-body simulations [8, 9]. To reconcile the success of the CDM paradigm at predicting the properties of the large-scale structure of the Universe with these observations on the scale of low-mass galaxies, a physical mechanism is required to remove the central DM cusps predicted by CDM N-body simulations [8, 9]. A potential way to flatten the central density profile of halos is through strong and impulsive fluctuations in the gravitational potential caused by supernova-driven episodes of gas removal [10–16]. For SNF to be effective, supernovae must occur in quasi-periodic cycles **and cause strong fluctuations in the central potential** on timescales that are shorter than the typical dynamical time in the galaxy, i.e., impulsively [11]. **As the time between the birth of a heavy ($\gtrsim 8\mathrm{M}_\odot$) star and its type II supernova explosion is less than ~ 40 Myrs, such quasi-periodic SN cycles can only be realized in galaxies with a bursty star formation history, i.e. a star formation rate that shows order of magnitude fluctuations over less than a dynamical time (see also [17]).** Although there is evidence of bursty star formation in dwarf galaxies at the high mass end [18], the duration of star bursts in the intermediate and low mass regime is far more uncertain [19, 20]. In cosmological simulations, SNF is most efficient at forming cores on the scale of bright dwarfs [12–14], **as long as the simulated star formation history is bursty and the gas dominates the binding energy in the inner halo before being expelled by feedback, causing a strong fluctuation in the total potential [15, 17]**.

In modern sub-resolution models of the interstellar medium (e.g.[21, 22]), both the (average) burstiness of star formation and the maximal densities to which gas cools before forming stars can be regulated via a single numerical parameter set at the resolved scales in the simulations, the so-called SF threshold n_{th}, which gives the minimum density that gas needs to reach before it is eligible to form stars [15]. **In an otherwise fixed, idealized (non-cosmological) setup,** adopting larger values of n_{th} results in burstier SF**, more substantial potential fluctuations,** and thus more impulsive SNF, until eventually a threshold for core formation is reached **(see [16] for a discus-**

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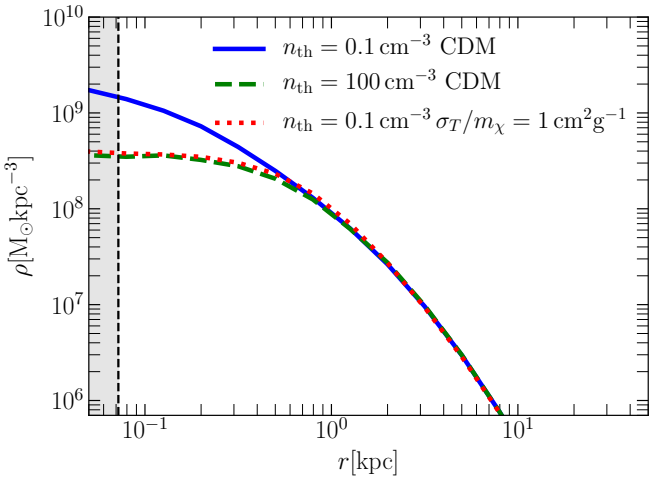

FIG. 1. Adiabatic and impulsive cusp-core transformation: Spherically averaged radial DM density of three different simulated dwarf-size halos after 3 Gyr of simulation time. The solid blue line corresponds to the CDM simulation with smooth star formation ($n_{\rm th} = 0.1\,{\rm cm}^{-3}$), whereas the dashed green line denotes the result of the CDM simulation with bursty star formation ($n_{\rm th} = 100\,{\rm cm}^{-3}$). The red dotted line corresponds to the SIDM simulation with smooth star formation ($n_{\rm th} = 0.1\,{\rm cm}^{-3}$) and a self-interaction cross section $\sigma_T/m_\chi = 1\,{\rm cm}^2{\rm g}^{-1}$.

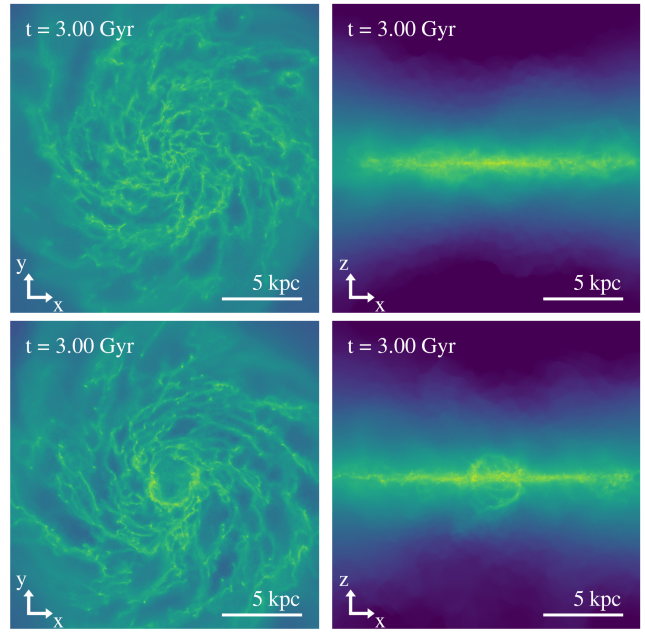

FIG. 2. Gas distributions of resulting galaxies after 3 Gyr of simulation time for two simulations with different star formation thresholds. We show face-on (left column) and edge-on (right column) projections of the gas density for the CDM simulation with smooth (top row) and bursty (bottom row) star formation. The side-length of the field of view is 20 kpc in each panel **and we defined a coordinate system such that the z-axis is perpendicular to the gas disc**. Notice how central gas is vertically expelled out of the disc plane in the simulation with bursty star formation. Such galactic outflows are characteristic of violent and impulsive events of supernova-driven energy release.

sion).

An adiabatic way to form a core is through elastic scattering between DM particles. Self-interacting DM (SIDM, [23–26]) redistributes energy outside-in, leading to the formation of a ~ 1 kpc size DM core in dwarf-size halos, provided the self-interaction cross section is $\sigma_T/m_\chi \sim 1\,{\rm cm}^2{\rm g}^{-1}$ on the scales of dwarf galaxies [24, 27, 28]. Such value of the cross section also evades current constraints [29–31], while for cross sections smaller by about an order of magnitude, SIDM is indistinguishable from CDM [32]. **Contrary to SNF, SIDM causes the formation of cores in all haloes below a certain mass and, thus, observations of dwarf galaxies with cuspy host haloes (e.g. [31]) are more challenging to explain in SIDM (however, see [33] for a possible explanation).**

In this *Letter* we use a suite of hydrodynamical simulations of an isolated dwarf galaxy to demonstrate that impulsive SNF produces distinct, shell-like kinematic signatures that appear in the phase space distribution of stars in dwarf galaxies – and argue that the systematic absence of such features **across** star-forming dwarf galaxies **with confirmed cores**, **and in particular in dwarfs with recent starbursts,** would point to an adiabatic core formation mechanism, such as SIDM.

II Simulations. The results presented here are derived from a suite of 16 high-resolution **(with a DM particle mass $m_{\rm DM} \sim 1.3 \times 10^3{\rm M}_\odot$ and a typical baryon mass $m_{\rm b} \sim 1.4 \times 10^3{\rm M}_\odot$ [34]** simulations of an isolated dwarf galaxy **with a total baryonic mass of $M_b = 7.2 \times 10^8\,{\rm M}_\odot$ and** structural properties similar to those of the Small Magellanic Cloud (see [21, 22, 35],[36]). We use the formalism described in [37] to generate initial conditions of a system in approximate hydrostatic equilibrium. We then simulate the evolution of the isolated system, using the ISM model `SMUGGLE` [22] for the cosmological simulation code `AREPO` [38], along with the SIDM model presented in [24], for 16 different combinations of the star formation threshold $n_{\rm th}$ and the SIDM self-interaction cross section σ_T/m_χ. In Fig. 1, we demonstrate that **nearly identical** constant density DM cores **can** form **adiabatically** in SIDM simulations with **smooth star formation histories** (low values of $n_{\rm th}$) and $\sigma_T/m_\chi \sim 1\,{\rm cm}^2{\rm g}^{-1}$ and **through impulsive SNF** in CDM simulations with **bursty star formation histories** (high values of $n_{\rm th}$). **While identical cores can form through SIDM and impulsive SNF**, the phase space distribution of baryons is distinctly different between simulations **with or without impulsive SNF**, **irrespective of whether DM is self-interacting**. Hereafter, we illustrate this difference by comparing the results of the CDM runs with $n_{\rm th} = 0.1\,{\rm cm}^{-3}$ (representative of smooth SF and thus adiabatic SNF) and $n_{\rm th} = 100\,{\rm cm}^{-3}$ (representative of

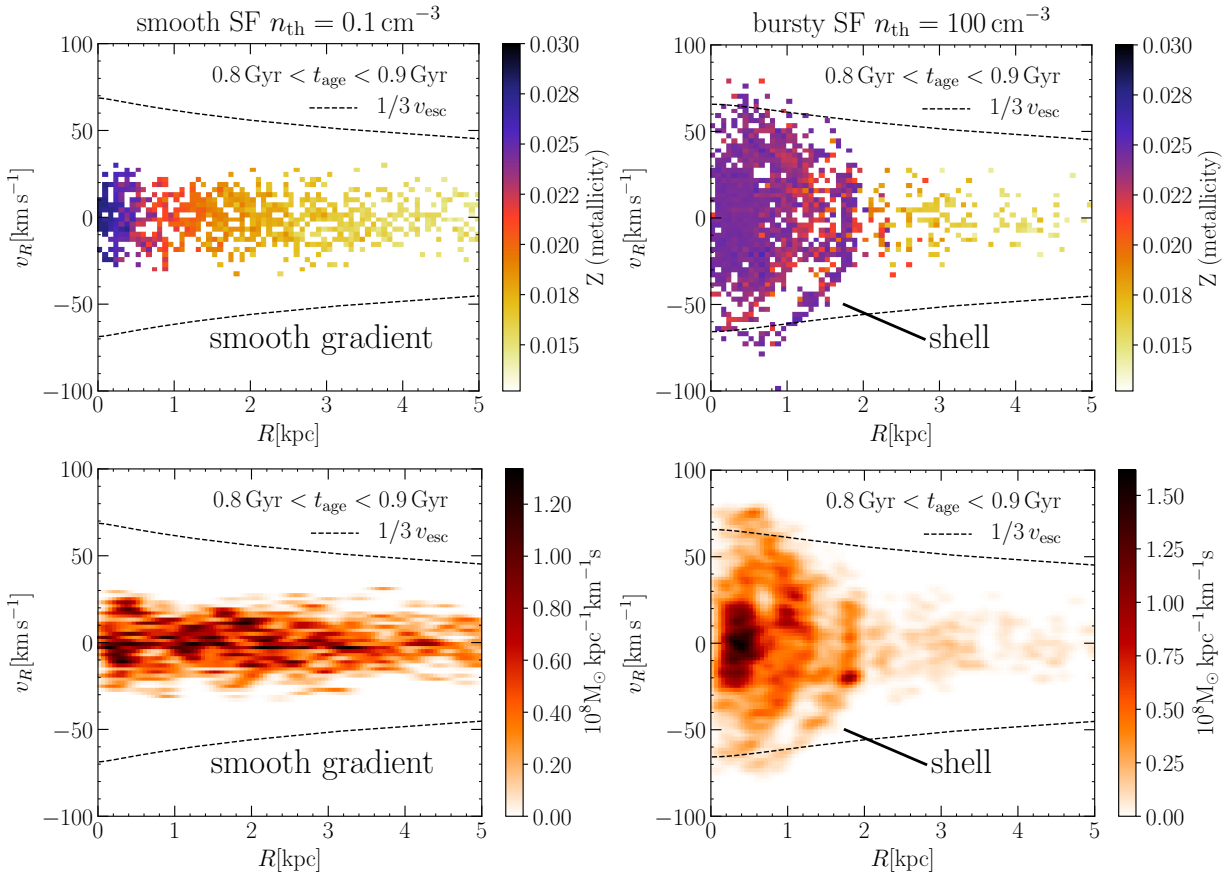

FIG. 3. Average metallicity distribution (top panels) and mass-weighted distribution function (bottom panels) of star particles calculated after 3 Gyr of simulation time for two different simulations, projected into the radial phase space ($R - v_R$). Star particles are subject to a cut in stellar age, only stars which are $0.8 - 0.9$ Gyr old are shown in these plots.Averaged stellar metallicity (mass-weighted distribution function) is color-coded according to the scale on the right of each panel. For scale, we show a third of the escape velocity as a function of radius as black dashed lines. The left (right) column corresponds to the CDM simulation with smooth (bursty) star formation. Smooth star formation results in a smooth metallicity gradient with the enriched/younger starts in the centre. Bursty star formation results in an overall weaker gradient, along with the presence of a shell of stars with high metallicity that intersects a low metallicity population at $R \sim 2$kpc. This shell appears as a distinct overdense region in the mass-weighted distribution function.

bursty SF and thus impulsive SNF).

Projections of the gas distribution after 3 Gyr of simulation time are shown in Fig. 2 for both benchmark simulations. The gas distributions of the two runs look strikingly different, in particular towards the centre of the galaxies. In the simulation with bursty SF – **and thus with impulsive SNF** – the central gas density is lower than in the immediate surroundings due to a supernova-driven gas outflow extending out of the galactic disc, which can be clearly appreciated as a nearly spherical bubble in the edge-on projection. In contrast, in the simulation with smooth SF, the edge-on projection of the gas appears rather regular and the face-on projection has no distinct features.

III Stellar phase space shells. Fig. 3 shows (for both benchmark CDM runs) the metallicity distribution and the mass-weighted distribution function of mono-age stars which are $0.8-0.9$ Gyr old projected onto the $R-v_R$ plane at the end of the simulation. For the simulation with smooth SF, we observe a steady decrease of the average metallicity of stars with increasing cylindrical radius, a natural consequence of the centrally concentrated star-forming gas. Statistically, more stars form in environments with higher gas densities, i.e., towards the centre of galaxies. Thus, the subsequent SNF cycles cause a metal enrichment of the ISM that is larger in the central regions. Therefore, stars of subsequent generations (like the ones shown in Fig. 3)acquire a negative metallicity gradient. Moreover, the radial velocities of stars are rather small in magnitude, $v_R \sim 25\,{\rm km\,s^{-1}}$ at most. A different picture emerges in the centre of the galaxy **with impulsive SNF**. Instead of a monotonic stellar metallicity gradient, a pattern of several shells in $R - v_R$ space emerges in the metallicity distribution – and the mass-weighted distribution function – of stars with similar ages. The shells are comprised of star particles with high metallicities, some of which move at radial speeds of more than $50\,{\rm km\,s^{-1}}$. These high metallicity shells

intersect phase space regions inhabited by more metal-poor star particles whose radial speeds are smaller on average. Such features are transient for a given group of stars, but occur at various times in the evolution, and are not unique to the CDM run with $n_{\rm th} = 100\,{\rm cm}^{-3}$; we find them also in other simulations (both in CDM and SIDM), **as long as the SF histories in these simulations are bursty – and SNF is impulsive. For our choice of initial conditions and fixed SMUGGLE parameters, the transition from smooth to bursty SF – and thus to impulsive SNF – happens around $n_{\rm th} = 10\,{\rm cm}^{-3}$ (see [16]). Notice that shells appear in all simulations in which SNF is impulsive – regardless of whether the DM is self-interacting or not.**

To quantify the difference between the final stellar distributions in the bursty SF case and in the smooth SF case **shown in Fig. 3**, we estimate the likelihood of randomly finding, in the smooth SF case, an overdensity similar to that associated with the clear shell in the bursty SF simulation. **We take the normalized, cumulative stellar mass distribution of the smooth SF simulation as a target distribution for random sampling and construct 10^7 re-sampled distributions, each time drawing as many radii as there are stars in the original distribution. For each re-sampled distribution, we then search a pre-defined "signal range" for the largest spherical overdensity that arises as a result of Poisson sampling [39]. We also calculate the overdensity at the position of the shell in the bursty SF simulation. From these values, we create a distribution of global (signal region) and local (shell area) overdensities. Comparison against the measured shell overdensity in the bursty SF simulation reveals that the shell has a global (local) significance of more than $5\,\sigma$ ($3.3\,\sigma$) compared to the smooth SF case.** These are conservative estimates for the significance of the shell-like feature since they are based on the stellar density distribution only and do not take into account information on the metallicity of stars. Finding an overdensity of such amplitude, combined with the observation that the overdensity consists mainly of high-metallicity stars, would be a smoking gun signature of an impulsive SNF cycle following an episode of bursty SF.

To determine how the shell-like features appear in the line-of-sight phase space of galaxies that are observed edge-on, we projected the distributions shown in Fig. 3 into $|x| - v_y$ space (**using the coordinate system defined in Fig. 2, [40]**). In the featureless smooth SF case, the emerging distribution of stars tracks the rotation curve of the galaxy, **with** a monotonic decrease of **(average)** metallicity with distance. In the bursty SF case, we observe two isolated overdense clusters consisting mainly of high metallicity stars, at a distance to the galaxy's centre of $\sim 2\,$kpc, similar to the radius at which the phase space shell appears in Fig. 3. We explicitly confirmed that those clusters consist of the same stars as the phase space shell.**We emphasize again that similar differences between the phase space distributions of stellar particles in galaxies with or without impulsive SNF emerge when SIDM simulations are considered.**

IV How shells are created. The shell-like features shown in Fig. 3 arise in the aftermath of starburst events – which are closely followed by impulsive episodes of SNF. **Reference [41] showed that young stars born in a turbulent ISM inherit the orbits of the star-forming gas and can be born with significant radial motion. The orbits of these stars are then further heated by subsequent feedback episodes, leading to sustained radial migration. The shells presented here form from such groups of stars, which are born during starburst events in a turbulent ISM. Such groups of stars constitute** *orbital families*[**16, 42**] **– sets of orbits defined by similar integrals of motion**[43]. **Moreover, they are born with similar metallicities and – as outlined above – with some initial amount of radial motion.**

Instead of causing a coherent net expansion, subsequent impulsive fluctuations in the gravitational potential discontinuously change the (gravitational) energy of a star (particle) by an amount that depends on its orbital phase [11, 42]. As a consequence, they can split an initially phase mixed *orbital family*, **i.e., create a distribution that is unmixed [16]. The phase space shells we observer are therefore signatures of the early stages of phase mixing [44, 45]. To compare this to the smooth case, we note that** in dynamical systems in which orbits are regular and stars act as dynamical tracers of the gravitational potential, the average metallicity of stars can only depend on their actions [46]. We can **therefore generally assume** *orbital families* **to be well approximated** by groups of stars with similar ages and metallicities. **Across our simulation suite,** we find that in simulations with impulsive SNF (following bursty SF), the energy distribution of *orbital families* is wider than in simulations with smooth SF [47], **a direct result of the period, SNF-driven heating of stellar orbits (see [42]).** The **shell-like signatures of** early-stage phase mixing observed here **are** thus a direct consequence of **impulsive SNF.**

V Discussion and outlook. **Finding stellar shells similar to the ones presented here in nearby dwarfs would imply a prior episode of impulsive SNF without necessarily establishing SNF as the dominant core formation mechanism.** In cosmological halos, we expect that diffusion caused by **the halo's triaxial shape** will erase the shells within ~ 1 dynamical time [42], implying that galaxies without recent bursty star formation (e.g. quenched galaxies) are fairly bad targets to look for phase space shells. Nevertheless, it is instructive to evaluate the potential of detecting such signatures of bursty SF in the Milky Way satellites, in particular Fornax [48–50], since it has been claimed to have

a core [5] (albeit this remains controversial, see [51]) and information on line-of-sight kinematics, metallicity [48], and age [49] is available for a sub-sample of its member stars. Unfortunately, we find that the ages of individual stars carry uncertainties which are too large (~ 1 Gyr) to conclusively **identify** *orbital families*. Ideal future targets to look for impulsive SNF signatures are star-forming field dwarfs in the vicinity of the Local Group **(see [4])**. **At the current time, the number of resolved stars with known ages and metallicities in these galaxies is too small.** Within the next decade, **however**, the Roman Space Telescope will provide precise photometric data of individual stars in dwarf galaxies within the Local Volume [52]. Combined with spectroscopic data from the ground, this will enable the precision needed to determine the ages, metallicities, and kinematics of a sufficient number of stars to conclusively establish whether the characteristic shell-like signatures of impulsive SNF presented here **– or rather their projections into the space of line-of-sight velocity vs projected radius [53]** – are ubiquitously present or **systematically** absent. **Further in the future, new generations of extremely large telescopes (ELTs) may even provide sufficiently precise data on the 3d motions of stars in nearby dwarfs to allow for a search of shells directly in $R - v_R$ space [54].**

The significance of a (potential) non-detection of such shells in dwarf galaxies with a core also depends on how robust our results are to changes in the initial setup or the stellar evolution model. Apart from the host halo's triaxiality, two effects that we do not explicitly test for may be significant. First, SF histories in real dwarf galaxies may be bursty, but starbursts may occur away from the galaxy's center. However, SNF needs to impulsively change the central potential to be a feasible core formation mechanism (see [11, 16]). The non-detection of kinematic signatures would then require starbursts to occur mainly in the center of dwarfs, but exclusively off-center at late times; a possible but unlikely scenario (see [41]). Second, stellar clusters (i.e. *orbital families*) **born in starburst events need to contain a sufficient number of stars to allow us to identify shells formed from them. Based on our re-sampling routine [55], we estimate that a shell needs to contain a few hundred stars to be significant at a $2\,\sigma$ level (notice that this implies that future experiments need to provide precise age and metallicity information for $\mathcal{O}(10^4)$ stars if we assume a constant average SF rate). In a detailed high-resolution study of the impact of different kinds of stellar feedback, [56] found that clusters of such size formed in all simulations in which SNF was included. At this time, we are unaware of any study in which no clusters of at least ~ 100 stars form, while SNF is modeled self-consistently and found it to be a feasible core formation mechanism.**

We thus infer that the conclusive, systematic absence of signatures of impulsive SNF **across all** isolated, star-forming field dwarfs with confirmed cores would give strong support to alternative DM models, such as SIDM.

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