

3 SN 2018 FIF: A LARGE RED SUPERGIANT EXPLOSION DISCOVERED IN ITS INFANCY BY THE ZWICKY
4 TRANSIENT FACILITY

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7 ABSTRACT

8 High cadence transient surveys are able to capture supernovae closer and closer to their first light.
9 Applying analytical models to such early emission, we can constrain the progenitor stars properties. In
10 this paper, we present observations of SN 2018 fif (ZTF18abokyfk). The supernova was discovered close
11 to first light and monitored by the Zwicky Transient Facility (ZTF) and the *Swift* space telescope.
12 Early spectroscopic observations suggest that the progenitor of SN 2018 fif was surrounded by relatively
13 small amounts of circumstellar material compared to a handful of previous cases. This specificity, as
14 well as the high cadence multiple-band coverage, makes it a good candidate to investigate using
15 shock cooling models. We employ the SOPRANO code, an implementation of the model by Sapir &
16 Waxman (2017) that has the advantage of being self consistent by including a careful account for the
17 model validity time domain. We find that the progenitor of SN 2018 fif was a large red super-giant,
18 with a radius of $R = 1204_{-176.31}^{+121.52} R_{\odot}$ and an ejected mass of $M_{\text{ej}} = 10.5_{-0.0}^{+6.4} M_{\odot}$. Our model also
19 gives information on the explosion epoch, the progenitor inner structure, the shock velocity and the
20 extinction. The large radius differs from previously modeled objects, and the difference could be
21 either intrinsic or due to the relativeley small amount of CSM around SN 2018 fif, perhaps making it
a “cleaner” candidate for applying shock cooling analytical models.

22 1. INTRODUCTION

23 In recent years, advances in the field of high-cadence
24 transient surveys have made it possible to systematically
25 discover and follow-up Supernovae (SNe) within hours of
26 their first light (e.g., Nugent et al. 2011; Gal-Yam et al.
27 2014; Yaron et al. 2017; Arcavi et al. 2017; Tartaglia
28 et al. 2017). This offers several new opportunities to
29 understand the early stages of core collapse (CC) SN
30 explosions and to identify the nature of their progenitor
31 stars.

32 First, rapid spectroscopic follow-up in the hours follow-
33 ing first light has led to the detection of “flash ionized”
34 emission from infant SNe (Gal-Yam et al. 2014; Khazov
35 et al. 2016; Yaron et al. 2017; Hosseinzadeh et al. 2018).
36 These events show transient prominent high-ionization
37 recombination emission lines in their spectra, a signature
38 of confined circumstellar material (CSM) ionized by the
39 SN shock-breakout flash (“flash spectroscopy”). Khazov
40 et al. (2016) has shown that $\sim 20\%$ of the SNe discovered
41 by the Palomar transient factory (PTF) within 10 days
42 of explosion are “flashers”, while recent results from ZTF
43 (Bruch et al, in preparation) suggest that the fraction of
44 such events may be even higher for events observed ear-
45 lier, and that confined CSM around CC SNe progenitors
46 is common.

47 Second, the observational access to the first hours fol-
48 lowing the explosion has offered a new opportunity to
49 test theoretical models of early emission from CC SNe
50 and constrain their progenitor properties. The handful of
51 cases where direct pre-explosion observations of progeni-
52 tors exist (e.g., Smartt 2015, and references therein) sug-
53 gest that many type II SNe arise from red supergiants, a
54 population of stars with radii ranging from about $100 R_{\odot}$
55 to $1500 R_{\odot}$ (e.g., Levesque 2017, and references therein).
56 In recent years, theorists have developed analytical mod-
57 els linking SN early multi-color light curves to progenitor

58 properties, such as its radius, mass, or inner structure.
59 Recent papers by Morozova et al. (2016) and Rubin &
60 Gal-Yam (2017) review and compare these models. In
61 this paper, we use the recent model by Sapir & Wax-
62 man (2017) (SW17), which has two advantages. First,
63 it accounts for bound-free absorption in the calculation
64 of the color temperature, a specificity that may have a
65 large impact on the estimation of the progenitor radius.
66 Second, it extends the previous results by Rabinak &
67 Waxman (2011) to later times, making additional obser-
68 vations useful in this analysis.

69 Comparison between early observations of CC SNe and
70 theoretical predictions were performed in the past (e.g.
71 by Gall et al. 2015; González-Gaitán et al. 2015; Rubin
72 & Gal-Yam 2017; Hosseinzadeh et al. 2019). Rubin &
73 Gal-Yam (2017) account for the limited temporal validity
74 domain of these models - which some of the other analysis
75 do not - but were limited to r-band observations. To our
76 knowledge, SN 2013 fs (Yaron et al. 2017) is the only
77 published object for which high cadence multiple-band
78 observations are available and which was modeled with
79 the SW17 model, using a methodology accounting for the
80 time validity of this model. However, the spectroscopic
81 observations of SN 2013 fs - the best observed “flasher”
82 to date - show evidence for $\sim 10^{-3} M_{\odot}$ of confined CSM
83 surrounding the progenitor. The presence of CSM casts
84 doubt upon the validity of the SW17 model in this case,
85 and perhaps could have pushed the best-fit model radius
86 found for this object ($R = 100 - 350 R_{\odot}$) towards the
87 lower end of the RSG radius distribution. A “cleaner”
88 supernova, with no prominent signatures of CSM around
89 the progenitor, may be a more appropriate test-case for
90 the SW17 model.

91 In this paper, we present and analyse the UV and
92 visible-light observations of SN 2018 fif (ZTF18abokyfk),
93 a SN first detected shortly after explosion by the Zwicky
94 Transient Facility (ZTF; e.g., Bellm et al. 2019; Graham

TABLE 1

Parameter	Value
right ascension α ($J2000$)	2.360644 deg
declination δ ($J2000$)	47.354093 deg
redshift z	$z = 0.017189$
distance modulus μ	34.31 mag
galactic extinction E_{B-V}	0.10 mag

NOTE. — Basic parameters of SN 2018 fif.

95 et al. 2019) as part of the ZTF extragalactic high-cadence
96 experiment (Gal-Yam 2019).

97 We present the aforementioned observations of
98 SN 2018 fif in §2. In §3, we present the analysis of
99 these observations, and the spectroscopic evidence mak-
100 ing SN 2018 fif a good candidate for modeling. §4 is
101 dedicated to the modeling of the shock cooling phase of
102 SN 2018 fif and the derivation of the progenitor param-
103 eters. We then summarize our main results in §5.

104 2. OBSERVATIONS AND DATA REDUCTION

105 In this section, we present the observations of
106 SN 2018 fif by ZTF and *Swift*.

107 2.1. Discovery

108 SN 2018 fif was first detected on 2018 August 21
109 at 8:46 UT by the ZTF (Bellm et al. 2019; Graham
110 et al. 2019) wide-field camera mounted on the 1.2 m
111 Samuel Oschin telescope (P48) at Palomar Observatory.
112 ZTF images were processed and calibrated by the ZTF
113 pipeline (Masci et al. 2019). A duty astronomer review-
114 ing the ZTF alert stream (Patterson et al. 2019) via
115 the ZTF Growth Marshal (Kasliwal et al. 2019) issued
116 an internal alert, triggering follow-up with multiple tele-
117 scopes, using the methodology of (Gal-Yam et al. 2011).
118 This event was reported by Fremling (2018) and desig-
119 nated SN 2018fif by the IAU Transient Server (TNS¹).
120 The SN is associated with the $B = 14.5$ mag galaxy
121 UGC 85 (Falco et al. 1999), shown in Figure 1. The
122 coordinates of the object, measured in the ZTF images
123 are $\alpha = 00^h09^m26^s.55$, $\delta = +47^d21'14''.7$ ($J2000.0$).
124 The redshift $z = 0.017189$ and the distance modulus
125 $\mu = 34.31$ mag were obtained from the NASA/IPAC Ex-
126 tragalactic Database (NED) and the extinction was de-
127 duced from Schlafly & Finkbeiner (2011) and using the
128 extinction curves of Cardelli et al. (1989). These param-
129 eters are summarized in Table 1.

130 Previous ZTF observations were obtained in the
131 months prior to the SN explosion and the most recent
132 non-detection was on 2018 August 20 at 11:30, i.e. less
133 than 24 hours before the first detection. We present a
134 derivation of the explosion epoch in § 3.1.

135 2.2. Photometry

136 SN 2018 fif was photometrically followed in multiple
137 bands for ~ 5 months. Light curves are shown in Fig-
138 ure 2. The photometry is reported in electronic Table 2
139 and is available from the Weizmann Interactive Super-
140 nova data REPository² (WISeREP, Yaron & Gal-Yam
141 2012).

¹ <https://wis-tns.weizmann.ac.il/>

² <https://wiserep.weizmann.ac.il/>

TABLE 2

Epoch (jd)	Mag (magAB)	Flux (10^{-17} erg/s/cm ² /Å)	Instrument
2458351.866	19.11 ± 0.06	5.756 ± 0.318	P48/R
2458351.937	18.78 ± 0.10	15.10 ± 1.391	P48/G
2458353.697	18.18 ± 0.02	15.263 ± 0.281	P60/r'
2458353.699	18.17 ± 0.03	26.563 ± 0.734	P60/g'
2458353.7021	18.23 ± 0.02	9.907 ± 0.183	P60/i'
2458352.067	18.55 ± 0.10	62.282 ± 5.992	<i>Swift</i> /UVW1
2458352.074	18.48 ± 0.23	104.091 ± 22.299	<i>Swift</i> /UVW2
2458352.132	18.71 ± 0.09	70.281 ± 6.024	<i>Swift</i> /UVM2
2458352.071	18.36 ± 0.13	40.883 ± 4.793	<i>Swift</i> /u

NOTE. — **Photometry.** This table is available in its entirety in machine-readable format in the online journal. A portion is shown here for guidance regarding its form and content.

Swift observations of the SN 2018 fif field started on 2018 August 21 and 11 observations were obtained with a cadence of ~ 1 day.

Observations from the 1.2m Schmidt telescope at Palomar Observatory (P48) were obtained using the ZTF mosaic camera composed of 16 $6K \times 6K$ CCDs (e.g. Bellm et al. 2015) through SDSS r -band and g -band filters. Data were obtained with a cadence of 3 to 6 observations per day, to a limiting magnitude of $R \approx 20.5$ mag [AB]. ZTF data were reduced by the ZTF photometric pipeline (Masci et al. 2019) employing the optimal image subtraction algorithm of Zackay et al. (2016).

Observations from the robotic 1.52 m telescope at Palomar (P60; Cenko et al. 2006) were obtained using the rainbow camera arm of the SED Machine spectrograph (Blagorodnova et al. 2018), equipped with a 2048×2048 -pixel CCD camera and g' , r' , and i' SDSS filters. P60 data were reduced using the FPipe pipeline (Fremling et al. 2016).

135 2.3. Spectroscopy

Fifteen optical spectra of SN 2018 fif were obtained using the telescopes and spectrographs listed in Table 3. All the observations were corrected for a galactic extinction of $E_{B-V} = 0.10$ mag, deduced from Schlafly & Finkbeiner (2011) and using Cardelli et al. (1989) extinction curves.

We calibrated our spectroscopic data in the following way. Following standard spectroscopic reduction, all spectra were scaled so that their synthetic photometry matches contemporaneous P48 r -band value. All spectra are shown in Figure 3 and are available via WISeREP.

136 3. ANALYSIS

137 3.1. Epoch of first light

We fitted the P48 r -band rising flux during the first week with a function of the form

$$f = a(t - t_0)^n, \quad (1)$$

where t_0 is the time of zero flux. This allowed us to estimate the epoch at which the extrapolated light curve is crossing zero, which is used throughout this paper as the reference time $t_0(MJD) = 58351.1537^{+0.0356}_{-0.0903}$ (2018 Aug 21 at 03:41:19.680 UTC). In section 4.3, we show that the explosion time predicted by the Sapir & Waxman (2017) model for shock-cooling emission is earlier, and discuss this point.

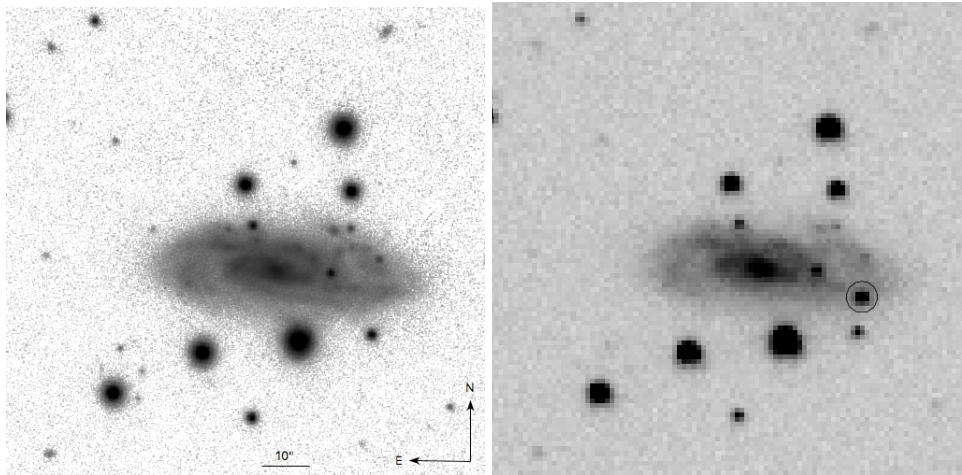


FIG. 1.— Left panel: the PS1 image^a of UGC 85, the host galaxy of the supernova SN 2018 fif. Right panel: the P48 image of SN 2018 fif close to peak. The circle is centered on the SN position: $\alpha = 2.360644^\circ$ and $\delta = 47.354093^\circ$.

^a<http://ps1images.stsci.edu>

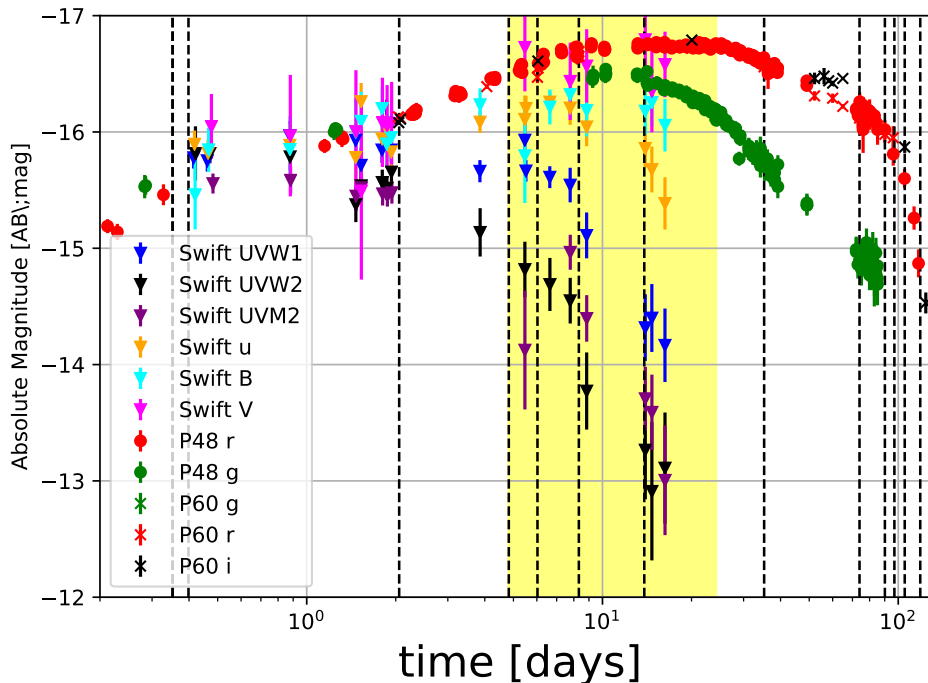


FIG. 2.— The light curve of SN 2018 fif. Time is shown relative to the estimated epoch at which the extrapolated light curve (Equation 1) is crossing zero: $t_0 = 2458351.6537$, as derived in § 3.1. Black dashed lines indicate dates at which spectroscopic data exist. The yellow background indicates the validity domain of the Sapir & Waxman (2017) best fit model: [4.81, 24.24] days.

3.2. Black body temperature and radius

185
186 Taking advantage of the multiple-band photometric
187 coverage, we derived the temperature and radius of the
188 black body that best fits the photometric data at each
189 epoch after interpolating the various data sets to ob-
190 tain data coverage at coinciding epochs, and deriving
191 the errors at the interpolated points with Monte Carlo
192 Markov chain simulations. This was performed using the
193 PhotoFit³ tool, which is released in the appendix. The

³ <https://github.com/maayane/PhotoFit>

194 interpolated SEDs are shown in Figure 4. The derived
195 best-fit temperatures T_{BB} and radii r_{BB} are shown and
196 compared to those derived for SN 2013 fs in Figure 5.

3.3. Bolometric light curve

197
198 Based on the measurement of r_{BB} and T_{BB} , we were
199 able to derive the luminosity $L_{BB} = 4\pi R^2 \sigma T^4$ of the
200 blackbody fits, shown in Figure 6. It is interesting to
201 note that the bolometric peak occurs early on during the
202 UV-dominated hot shock-cooling phase, well before the
203 apparent peak at visible light.

TABLE 3

Date	Facility	Reference	Phase
2018 Aug 21	P200 + DBSP	[1]	+0.35 days
2018 Aug 21	P60 + SEDM	[3]	+0.35 days
2018 Aug 21	Gemini N + GMOS	[2]	+0.40 days
2018 Aug 23	P60 + SEDM	[3]	+2.05 days
2018 Aug 25	LT + SPRAT	[4]	+4.82 days
2018 Aug 27	P60 + SEDM	[3]	+6.03 days
2018 Aug 29	P60 + SEDM	[3]	+8.32 days
2018 Sep 4	NOT + ALFOSC	-	+13.85 days
2018 Sep 25	P60 + SEDM	[3]	+35.20 days
2018 Sep 25	P60 + SEDM	[3]	+35.20 days
2018 Nov 3	P60 + SEDM	[3]	+73.96 days
2018 Nov 19	P60 + SEDM	[3]	+90.11 days
2018 Nov 26	P60 + SEDM	[3]	+97.04 days
2018 Dec 04	P60 + SEDM	[3]	+105.17 days
2018 Dec 17	WHT+ ACAM	[5]	+118.68 days

NOTE. — Spectroscopic observations of SN 2018fif. [1]:Oke & Gunn (1982); [2]:Oke et al. (1994); [3]:Blagorodnova et al. (2018); [4]:Steele et al. (2004); [5]:Benn et al. (2008)

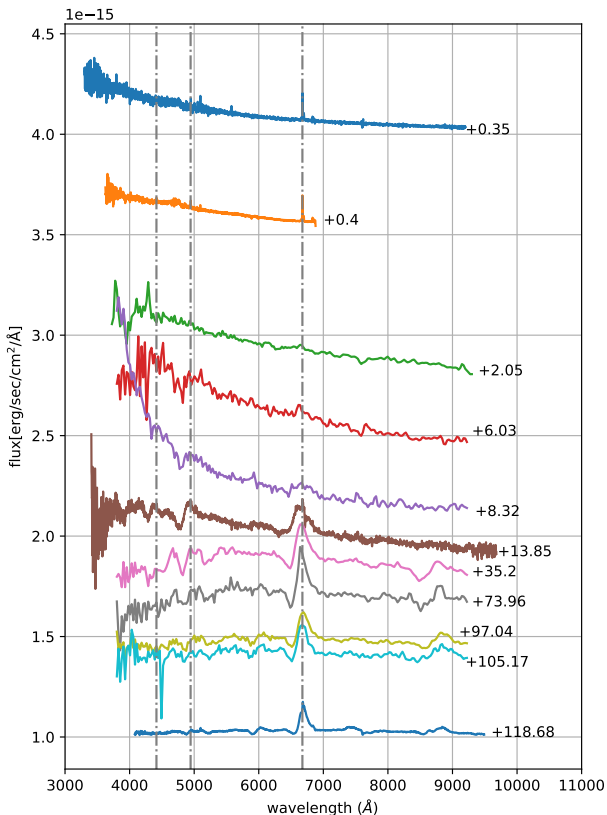


FIG. 3.— The observed spectra of SN 2018fif. An offset was applied for easier visualization. Dashed lines indicate the redshifted emission lines for the Balmer series up to $H\gamma$. The phase is shown relative to the estimated epoch at which the extrapolated r-band light curve (based on Equation 1) is crossing zero: $t_0 = 2458351.6537$ (2018 August 21), as derived in § 3.1. A color version of this figure is available in the online journal.

3.4. Spectroscopy

Figure 3 shows the spectroscopic evolution of SN 2018fif over 137 d from its estimated explosion time. The sequence is quite typical for Type II SNe (Gal-Yam 2017), initially showing blue, almost featureless spectra,

with low-contrast Balmer lines emerging and becoming pronounced after about a week. The spectrum at phase 13.85 d is typical for the early photospheric phase, with a relatively blue continuum and strong Balmer lines, with $H\alpha$ showing a strong emission component, $H\beta$ having a symmetric P-Cygni profile, and $H\gamma$ appearing only in absorption. The spectra continue to develop during the slowly declining light curve phase over several months, with the continuum emission growing redder and lines becoming stronger. The latest spectra approach the nebular phase and are dominated by a strong emission component of the $H\alpha$ line, emerging emission lines of Ca II (at 7300Å as well as the IR triplet), weaker OI (7774Å and a hint of 6300Å) and Na D.

Focusing on the earliest phase, in Figure 7, we show a comparison of the early spectra of SN 2018fif (P200/DBSP and Gemini-N/GMOS at +8.4 and +8.7 hrs from the estimated explosion time, respectively) with the +21 hr NOT/ALFOSC spectrum of SN 2013fs (Yaron et al. 2017), which is most similar to our data. We note that earlier spectra of SN 2013fs at similar phase to those of SN 2018fif (6 – 10 h after explosion) are dominated by very strong emission lines of OIV and HeII that are not seen in this case.

In the spectrum of SN 2013fs, the hydrogen Balmer lines show a broadened base and characteristic electron-scattering wings that are a measure of the electron density in the CSM. The spectra of SN 2018fif do not show such electron-scattering signatures, even at a much earlier time, and the narrow emission lines seem to arise only from host galaxy emission, with similar profiles to other host lines (such as NII and SII, evident right next to the $H\alpha$ line). A signatures of some CSM interaction may appear in the blue part of the spectrum, in a ledge-shaped emission bump near 4600Å. This shape is similar to that seen in the SN 2013fs spectrum, though the sharp emission spikes (in particular of He II 4686Å) are less well defined. The inset in Fig 7 shows a zoom-in of the elevated region around the He II $\lambda 4686$ emission line for both the "SN 2018fif +8.7 hr" and the "SN 2013fs +21 hr" spectra. Possible emission lines that may contribute to this elevated emission region include N V $\lambda 4604$, N II $\lambda 4631, 4643$ and C IV $\lambda 4658$. Although these identifications are not secure (since they are based on single lines that are only marginally above the noise level), it appears likely that a blend of high-ionization lines is responsible for the elevated emission above the blue continuum.

We conclude from this comparison that SN 2018fif shows weak evidence in its early spectra for CSM surrounding the progenitor, and that the CSM is likely less dense than in the case of SN 2013fs, as shown by the lack of strong high-ionization lines in the spectra of SN 2018fif at a similar epoch and the sharp profiles of the Balmer lines that show no evidence for electron scattering wings.

4. SHOCK COOLING AND PROGENITOR MODEL

4.1. The model

In order to model the multiple-bands emission from SN 2018fif, we used the model by Sapir & Waxman (2017), an extension of the model derived in Rabinak & Waxman (2011). In the following, we use the abbreviations "SW17" and "RW11" to refer to the models, as opposed to the papers in which they were published.

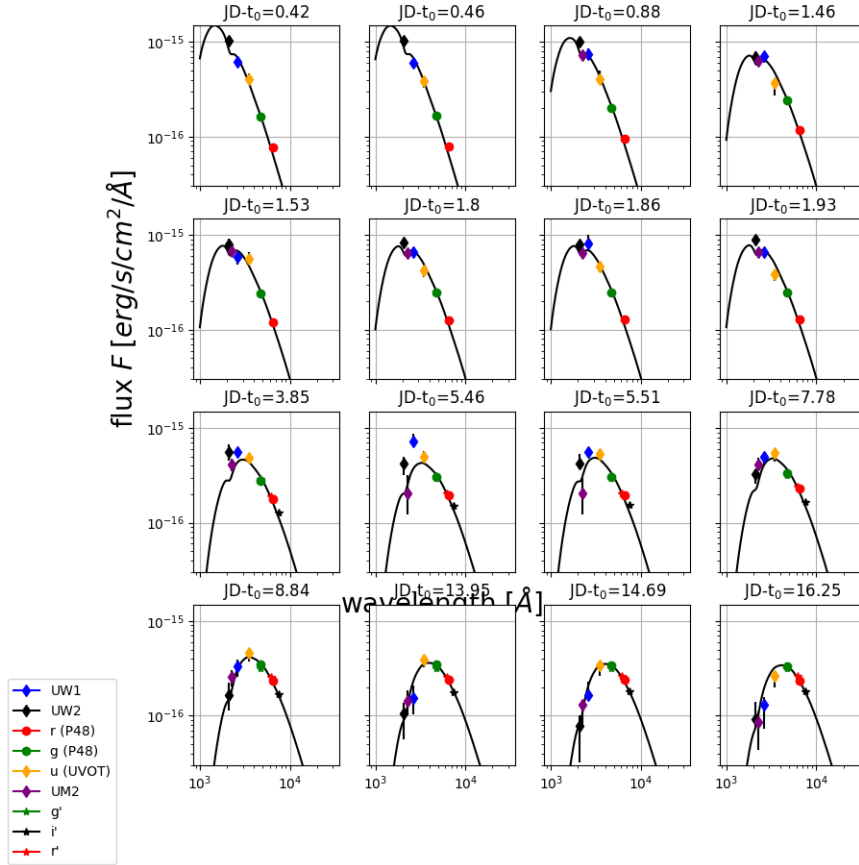


FIG. 4.— Black body fits to Swift/UVOT and optical photometry for 2018ff. Using the `PhotoFit` tool^a, photometric points were interpolated to a common epoch (UVOT epochs), and the errors at the interpolated points were computed with Monte Carlo Markov chain simulations.

^a<https://github.com/maayane/PhotoFit>

271 We summarize below the main conclusions of these two 284
 272 models. Both hold for temperatures > 0.7 eV, the limit 285
 273 above which Hydrogen is fully ionized, recombination effects 286
 274 can be neglected and the approximation of constant 287
 275 opacity holds. 288

276 4.1.1. *The Rabinak & Waxman (2011) model*

277 Rabinak & Waxman (2011) explored the domain of 291
 278 times when the the emission originates from a thin shell 292
 279 of mass i.e. the radius of the photosphere is close to the 293
 280 radius of the stellar surface. The post-breakout time- 294
 281 evolution of the photospheric temperature and bolomet- 295
 282 ric luminosity, is given by (see also Equation (4) of Sapir 296
 283 & Waxman 2017):

$$T_{\text{ph,RW}} = 1.61[1.69] \left(\frac{v_{s*,8.5}^2 t_d^2}{f_\rho M_0 \kappa_{0.34}} \right)^{\epsilon_1} \frac{R_{13}^{1/4}}{\kappa_{0.34}^{1/4}} t_d^{-1/2} \text{ eV}, \quad (2)$$

$$L_{\text{RW}} = 2.0[2.1] \times 10^{42} \left(\frac{v_{s*,8.5}^2 t_d^2}{f_\rho M_0 \kappa_{0.34}} \right)^{\epsilon_2} \frac{v_{s*,8.5}^2 R_{13}}{\kappa_{0.34}} \text{ erg/s}, \quad (3)$$

where $\kappa = 0.34 \kappa_{0.34} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$, $v_{s*} = 10^{8.5} v_{s*,8.5}$, $M = M_0 M_\odot$, $R = 10^{13} R_{13} \text{ cm}$, $\epsilon_1 = 0.027[0.016]$ and $\epsilon_2 = 0.086[0.175]$ for convective[radiative] envelopes. M is the mass of the ejecta, f_ρ is a numerical factor of order unity describing the inner structure of the envelope, t_d is the time from explosion in days, and v_{s*} is a measure of the shock velocity v_{sh} : in regions close to the stellar surface, at radii such as $\delta \equiv (R - r)/R \ll 1$, v_{sh} is linked to v_{s*} through (Gandel'Man & Frank-Kamenetskii 1956; Sakurai 1960)

$$v_{\text{sh}} = v_{s*} \delta^{-\beta n}, \quad (4)$$

with $\beta = 0.191[0.186]$, and v_{s*} only depends on E , M (the ejecta energy and mass) and f_ρ (Matzner & McKee 1999):

$$v_{s*} \approx 1.05 f_\rho^{-\beta} \sqrt{E/M}, \quad (5)$$

The RW11 model holds during a limited temporal range. The upper limit on this range,

$$t < 3 f_\rho^{-0.1} \frac{\sqrt{\kappa_{0.34} M_0}}{v_{s*,8.5}} \text{ days} \quad (6)$$

follows from the requirement that the emitting shell carry

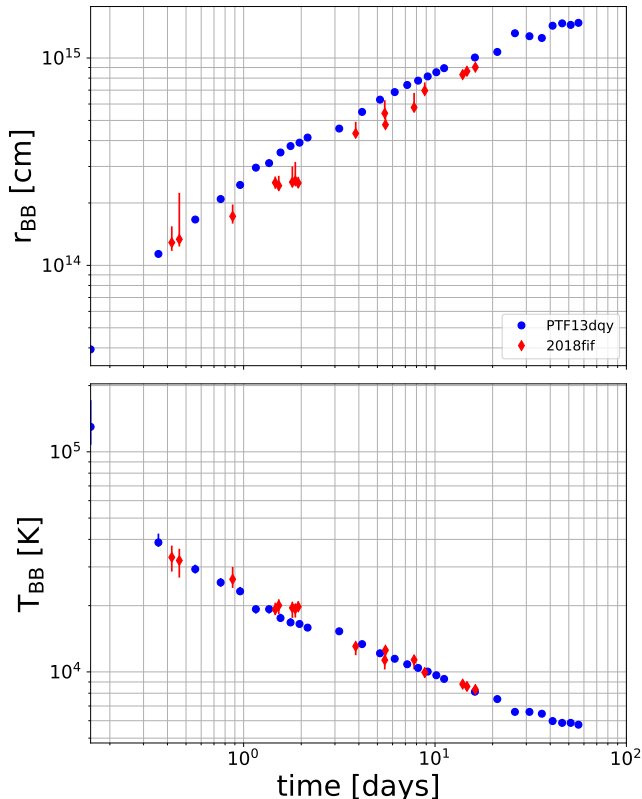


FIG. 5.— The evolution in time of: (1) the radius (top panel) and (2) the temperature (lower panel) of a blackbody with the same radiation as SN 2018 fif (red) and SN 2013 fs (blue), for comparison. For SN 2018 fif, the points were obtained by fitting a black body spectrum to the observed photometry, after interpolating the various data sets to obtain data coverage at coinciding epochs. The errors were obtained with Monte Carlo Markov chain simulations. The SN 2013 fs results were taken from Yaron et al. (2017).

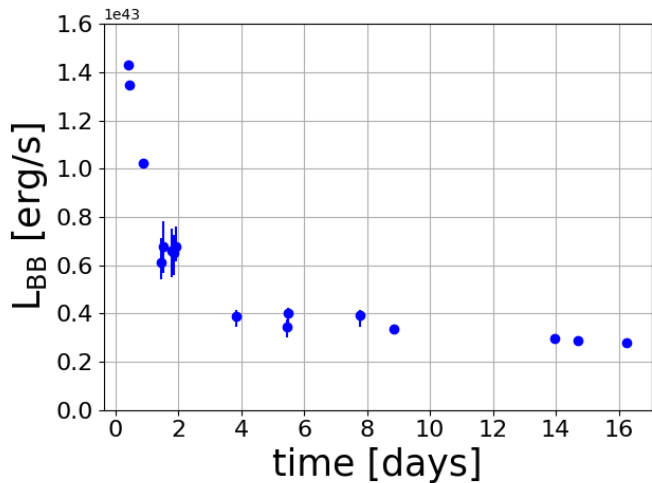


FIG. 6.— The evolution in time of the bolometric luminosity of a blackbody with the same radiation as SN 2018 fif.

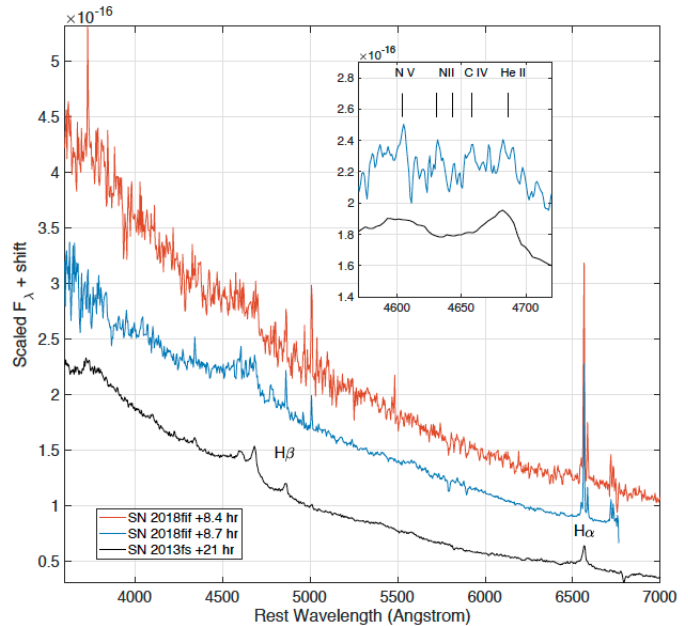


FIG. 7.— Comparison of early spectra of SN 2018 fif (at 8.7 hr) and SN 2013 fs (at 21 hr; from Yaron et al. 2017). SN 2018 fif shows sharp, narrow Balmer lines lacking a broad electron-scattering base. A broad ledge around 4600Å indicates a likely blend of weak high-ionization lines, suggesting some CSM emission does exist in this event, though less than in SN 2013 fs, see text.

a small fraction of the ejecta mass. The lower limit

$$t > 0.2 \frac{R_{13}}{v_{s*8.5}} \max \left[0.5, \frac{R_{13}^{0.4}}{(f_{\rho} \kappa_{0.34} M_0)^{0.2} v_{s*8.5}^{0.7}} \right] \quad (7)$$

comes from two different requirements: (1) The photosphere must have penetrated beyond the thickness at which the initial breakout happens (see equation (16) of RW11) and (2) Expansion must be significant enough so that the ejecta are no longer planar and have become spherical (Waxman & Katz 2017); this last requirement was added Sapir & Waxman (2017).

4.1.2. The Sapir & Waxman (2017) model

Sapir & Waxman (2017) extended the RW11 description to later times, when the photosphere has penetrated more deeply into the envelope, but is still close enough to the surface so that the emission is still weakly dependent on the inner structure of the envelope. As radiation originates from inner regions, the self-similar description of the shock-wave (Gandel’Man & Frank-Kamenetskii 1956; Sakurai 1960), one of the key ingredients of the RW11 model, does not hold anymore. This results in a suppression of the bolometric luminosity that can be approximated by (equation (14) of Sapir & Waxman 2017):

$$L/L_{RW} = A \exp \left[- \left(\frac{at}{t_{tr}} \right)^{\alpha} \right], \quad (8)$$

where $A = 0.94[0.79]$, $a = 1.67[4.57]$ and $\alpha = 0.8[0.73]$ for convective[radiative] envelopes. The thin shell requirement (Equation 6) is relaxed, and the new upper limit of the validity time range is dictated by the requirement of constant opacity:

$$t < \min(t_{\text{tr}}/a, t_{\text{T}<0.7}), \quad (9)$$

where t_{tr} is the time beyond which the envelope becomes transparent, and $t_{\text{T}<0.7}$ is the time when T drops below 0.7 eV and recombination leads to a decrease of the opacity.

The observed flux, for a SN at distance D and redshift z is given by

$$f_{\lambda}(\lambda, t) = \frac{L(t)}{4\pi D^2 \sigma T_{\text{col}}^4} (z+1)^4 B_{\lambda}(\lambda, T_{\text{col},z}) \\ = \left(\frac{R(t)}{D}\right)^2 (z+1)^4 B_{\lambda}(\lambda, T_{\text{col},z}), \quad (10)$$

where $T_{\text{col}}/T_{\text{ph,RW}} = 1.1[1.0] \pm 0.05$ for convective[radiative] envelopes, L is the bolometric luminosity given in equation 8 and $T_{\text{col},z} = T_{\text{col}}/(z+1)$ is the temperature of a blackbody with intrinsic temperature T_{col} , observed at redshift z .

4.2. The SOPRANO algorithm

The main difficulty in implementing the SW17 model is that the temporal validity domain of the model depends on the parameters of the model themselves. In other worlds, different combinations of the model's parameters correspond to different data to fit (Rubin & Gal-Yam 2017). One way to cope with this difficulty is to fit the data on a chosen range of times, and to retrospectively assess whether the solution is valid in this temporal window. This approach, which was taken e.g. by Valenti et al. (2014); Bose et al. (2015); Rubin et al. (2016) and Hosseinzadeh et al. (2019), is not fully satisfactory for several reasons: (1) it may limit the explored area in the parameters space, since this area is pre-defined by the choice of the data temporal window and (2) it makes it impossible to make a fair comparison between models, as the goodness of a model should be judged on nothing more or less than its specific validity range: a good model fits the data on its *entire* validity range and *only* on its validity range. It is clear that the best-fit model (and hence deduced progenitor parameters) may depend on the arbitrary choice of pre-defined data modeled, which is not a good result.

Here, we adopt a self-consistent approach and build an algorithm to find models that fit well the data included in their entire range of validity. In this sense, our approach is similar to the one adopted by Rubin & Gal-Yam (2017). The SOPRANO algorithm (ShOck cooling modeling with saPiR & wAxman model by gANot & sOumagnac, Ganot et al. in preparation) is available in two versions: SOPRANO-grid, written in `matlab` and SOPRANO-mcmc, written in `python`. Both will shortly be released to the community (Ganot et al., in preparation). The steps of SOPRANO-grid are as follows:

- we build a 6-dimensional grid of parameters $\{R, v_{\text{s}*,8.5}, t_0, M, f_{\rho}, E_{\text{B-V}}\}$: a given point in the grid (indexed e.g. j , for clarity) corresponds to a model \mathcal{M}_j ;
- we calculate, for each point in the grid, the time-validity domain, and deduce from it the set of N_j

data points $\{x_i, y_i\}_{i \in [1, N_j]}$ (with uncertainties σ_{y_i} on the y_i values) to be taken into account in the fit of model \mathcal{M}_j to the data;

- we calculate a probability for each point in the grid, using

$$P_j = \text{PDF}(\chi_j^2, \nu_j), \quad (11)$$

where ν_j is the number of degrees of freedom (this number varies between models, as the validity domain - and hence the number of points included in the data - varies), χ_j^2 is the chi-square statistic of the fit, for the model \mathcal{M}_j

$$\chi_j^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{N_j} \frac{(y_i - \mathcal{M}_j(x_i))^2}{\sigma_{y_i}^2} \quad (12)$$

and PDF is the chi-squared probability distribution function.

The output of this procedure is a grid of probabilities, which we can compare to each other to find the most probable model. In order to have a sensitive radius measurement (the progenitor radius is measured through the explosion temperature temporal change, and the largest change occurs at early times, when the UV channels peak), we required at least three UV points to be within the time validity domain of a model. The models labeled as invalid through this procedure have non-physical parameters.

The second version of the SOPRANO algorithm, SOPRANO-mcmc, uses the model probability defined in equation 11 as the input of a MarKov Chain Monte Carlo simulation. No specific requirement on the amount of UV points within the time validity domain is applied.

In both cases, we apply the following flat priors for the six parameters of our model: $R \in [200, 2000]$, $v_{\text{s}*,8.5} \in [0.3, 1.5]$, $M \in [1, 25]$, $f_{\rho} \in [\sqrt{1/3}, \sqrt{10}]$ (Sapir & Waxman 2017), $t_{\text{exp}} \in [2458348.5, t_0]$, $E_{\text{B-V}} \in [0.1, 0.25]$. The prior on the radius R was chosen to reflect current measurements (Davies et al. 2018; see Figure 10). The prior on $f_{\rho} \in [\sqrt{1/3}, \sqrt{10}]$ corresponds to the range used in the model by Sapir & Waxman (2017). The choice of priors for t_{exp} , $v_{\text{s}*,8.5}$ and $E_{\text{B-V}} \in [0.1, 0.25]$ is the result of an iterative process (coarse to fine grid) aiming at finding the relevant location in the parameters space while limiting the memory use and running-time.

Note that our approach is similar to the one by Rubin & Gal-Yam (2017), in the sense that it is self-consistent and takes care of the time-validity issue. However, the strategy adopted to compare and discriminate between models (equation 11) is different.

4.3. Results

In figure 9, we show the two dimensional projections of the pdf distributions obtained by fitting our model to the data, obtained with SOPRANO-mcmc. In order to compute the best-fit parameters, we ran the `matlab` optimizing algorithm `fminsearch`, that minimizes the six-parameter function $1 - \text{pdf}$, setting the initial conditions to the maximum of the grid computed by SOPRANO-grid (another possibility is to set the initial

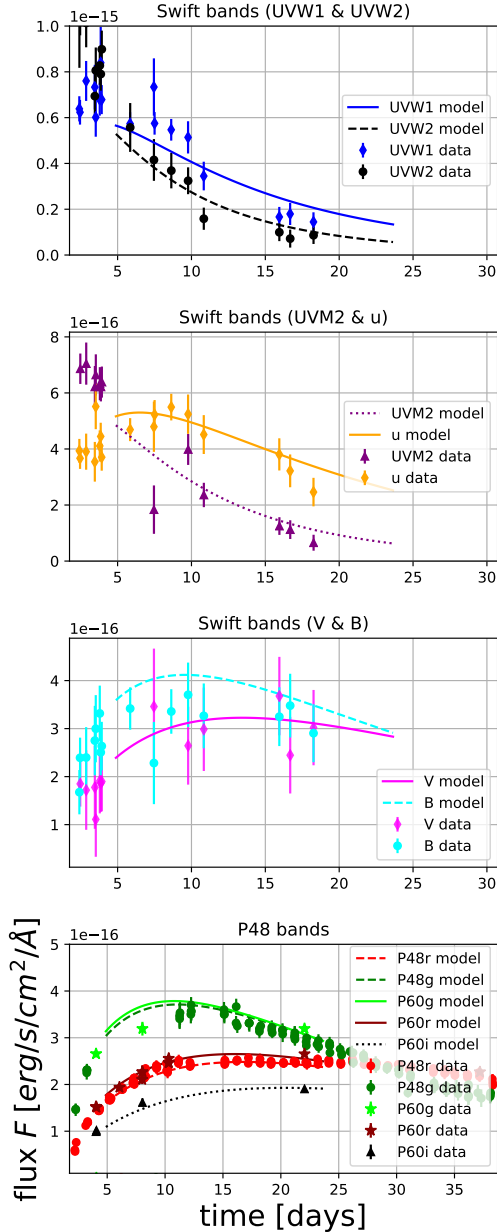


FIG. 8.— Best fit Sapir & Waxman model ($\chi^2/dof = 1.13$) superimposed with the photometric data of SN 2018 fif.

conditions to the maximum of the MCMC chain computed by SOPARANO-mcmc). Note that when the probability function is not purely Gaussian (e.g. if it is double-peaked, which is the case here) or is asymmetric, the maximum probability does not fall necessarily close to the median of the marginalized distributions. In particular, it can fall outside of the symmetric interval containing 68% of the probability, which is often reported as the 1σ -confidence range, and does not reflect any asymmetry of the distribution. Here, we report instead the tightest intervals containing 68% of the probability and including our best-fit values.

A full tabulation of the best-fit parameters, as well as the median and 68.2% confidence range for each pa-

TABLE 4

Parameter name	Best fit	Median of posterior distr.	68.2% confidence range
R	1204	1135.83	[1027.69, 1325.52]
$v_{s*,8.5}$	0.62	0.62	[0.56, 0.7]
M	10.5	14.5	[10.5, 16.9]
t_{exp}	2458349.54	2458349.76	[2458349.29, 2458350.38]
E_{B-V}	0.216	0.189	[0.169, 0.216]
f_{ρ}	2.19	1.96	[1.22, 2.48]
χ^2/dof	1.13	8.632	—

NOTE. — Results of the model fitting. The table shows the best-fit parameters, the median values of the MCMC chains, and 68.2% confidence range for each parameter, computed using the marginalised posterior distributions

parameter computed with SOPARANO-mcmc is shown in table 4. We checked that they are consistent with the confidence intervals computed with SOPARANO-grid. The best fit parameters correspond to $\chi^2/dof = 1.13$ and are : $R = 1204^{+121.52}_{-176.31} R_{\odot}$, $M_{\text{ej}} = 10.5^{+6.4}_{-0.0} M_{\odot}$, $t_{\text{exp}} = 2458349.54^{+0.84}_{-0.25}$ JD, $E_{B-V} = 0.216^{+0.0}_{-0.047}$, $f_{\rho} = 2.19^{+0.29}_{-0.97}$ and $v_{s*,8.5} = 0.620^{+0.076}_{-0.062}$. The temporal validity window of this model is [4.81, 24.24] days. In Figure 8, we show a comparison of the data and the best-fit model. We comment on the best-fit results below:

- In figure 10, we show red supergiant (RSG) radii and luminosities derived from the temperatures and luminosities measured by Davies et al. (2018) for RSGs in the small and large Magellanic Clouds (SMC and LMC). The best-fit value of the radius we find for the SN 2018 fif progenitor star, $R = 1204^{+121.52}_{-176.31} R_{\odot}$, is within but at the high end of the range of radii measured for RSGs.
- The value of t_{exp} , the epoch of the explosion predicted by our model, is earlier than $t_0 = 2458351.6537^{+0.0356}_{-0.0903}$ JD, the estimated epoch at which the extrapolated r-band light curve is crossing zero. This is not surprising: t_0 is a measure of the epoch of first-light in the r-band and hot young SNe are predicted to emit light in the UV before they significantly emit optical light: there is no reason for t_0 and t_{exp} to be identical. Moreover, this discrepancy between t_{exp} and t_0 is observed in other cases: in the GALEX-PTF sample, to be published by Ganot et al. (in preparation), it can reach several days, like here.

- The relatively high range of values of f_{ρ} corresponds to a high ratio of M_{env}/M_C , where M_{env} is the mass of the envelope (see Figure 5 of Sapir & Waxman 2017).

- The best-fit value of the extinction $E_{B-V} = 0.216^{+0.0}_{-0.047}$ is high: note that it is the sum of the galactic extinction $E_{B-V} = 0.10$ (deduced from Schlafly & Finkbeiner 2011 and using Cardelli et al. 1989 extinction curves) and all other sources of extinction along the line of sight, including the extinction from the SN host galaxy. The galactic extinction has a relatively high contribution to the derived value of E_{B-V} .

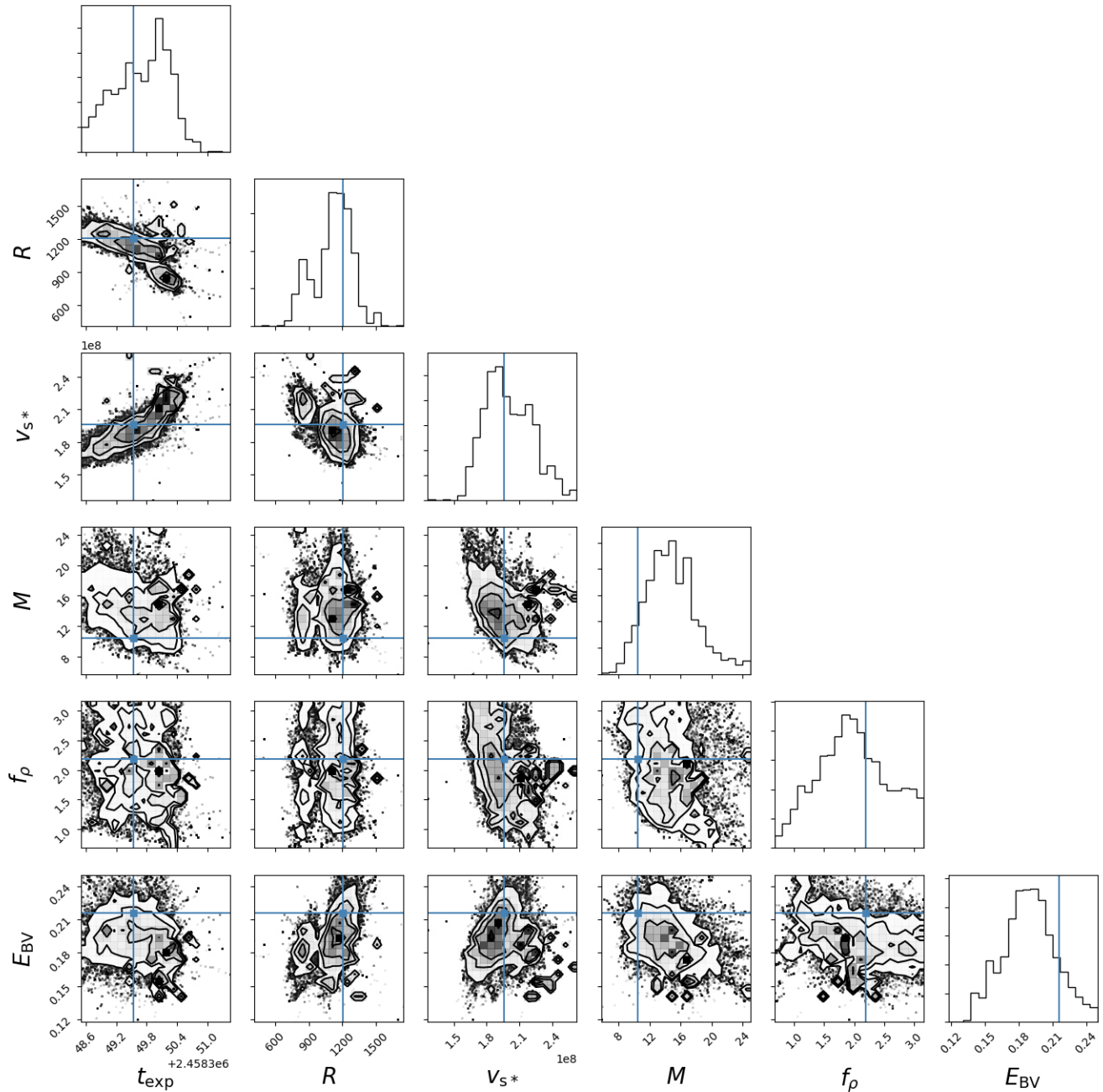


FIG. 9.— All the one and two dimensional projections of the posterior probability distributions of the parameters R , $v_{s*,8.5}$, M , f_ρ , t_{exp} , $E_{\text{B-V}}$. This quickly demonstrates all of the covariances between parameters. The contours correspond to the 1σ , 2σ and 3σ symmetric percentiles. The blue line corresponds to the maximum probability value calculated with the `matlab` optimizing algorithm `fminsearch`, setting the initial conditions to the maximum of the grid computed by `SOPARANO-grid`.

487 • In order to verify whether our best-fit value for 498
 488 $v_{s*,8.5}$ is consistent with the observations, we make 499
 489 an order of magnitudes estimate of v_{sh} using equa- 500
 490 tions 4 and 5 and equation (11) from Rabinak & 501
 491 Waxman (2011), which provides an expression of 502
 492 the depth δ as a function of our model parameters. 503
 493 We obtain that the predicted value of the velocity 504
 494 of the shock wave is $v_{sh} \approx 9800$ km/s. We use the 505
 495 P-Cygni profile of the H line in the spectrum of 506
 496 SN 2018 fif at $t = +13.85$ days to estimate the observed 507
 497 velocity $v \approx 10000$ km/s and find that it is 508

consistent with the model prediction.

5. CONCLUSIONS

We presented the observations of the SN 2018 fif by ZTF and *Swift*. The analysis of the early spectroscopic observations of SN 2018 fif reveals that its progenitor was surrounded by relatively small amounts of circumstellar material compared to a handful of previous cases. This specificity, as well as the high cadence multiple-bands coverage, make it a good candidate to test shock-cooling models.

We employ the `SOPRANO` code, an implementation

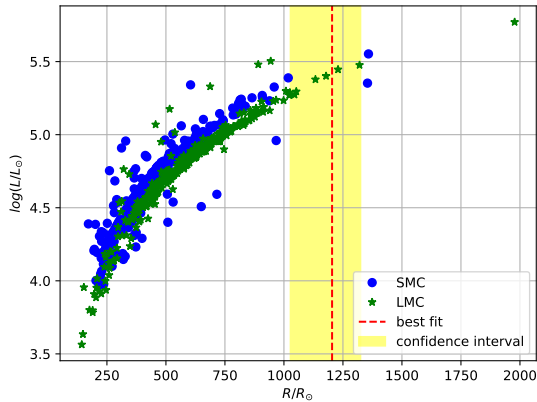


FIG. 10.— Radii and luminosities of the stars in the small and large Magellanic Clouds. They were derived from the effective temperatures and luminosities published by Davies et al. (2018) (Figure 5).

533 in this paper offers a framework to analyze these ob-
 534 jects, in order to constrain the properties of their mas-
 535 sive progenitors and pave the way to a comprehensive
 536 understanding of the final evolution and explosive death
 537 of massive stars.

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APPENDIX

RELEASE OF THE PHOTOFIT CODE

REFERENCES

509 of the model by Sapir & Waxman (2017), which will
 510 soon be available to the community in its two versions,
 511 SOPRANO-grid (matlab) and SOPRANO-mcmc (python).
 512 The SOPRANO algorithm has the advantage of being self-
 513 consistent, by including a careful account for the model
 514 validity time domain.

515 We find that the progenitor of SN 2018 fif was a large
 516 red super-giant, with a radius of $R/R_{\odot} = 1204^{121.52}_{176.31}$
 517 and an ejected mass of $M/M_{\odot} = 10.5^{6.4}_{0.0}$. Our model also
 518 gives information on the explosion epoch, the progeni-
 519 tor inner structure, the shock velocity and the extinc-
 520 tion. The large radius differs from previously modeled
 521 objects, and the difference could be either intrinsic (dif-
 522 fering progenitors) or due to the relatively small amount
 523 of CSM around SN 2018 fif, perhaps making it a cleaner
 524 candidate for applying shock cooling analytical models.

525 As new wide-field transient surveys such as the Zwicky
 526 Transient Facility (e.g., Bellm et al. 2019; Graham et al.
 527 2019) are deployed, many more SNe will be observed
 528 early, and quickly followed up with early spectroscopic
 529 observation and multiple-band photometric observations.

530 The ULTRASAT UV satellite mission (Sagiv et al.
 531 2014) will also collect early UV light curves of hundreds
 532 of core-collapse supernovae. The methodology proposed

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