














































# JWST Observations of SN 2024ggi. I. Interpretation and Model Comparison of the Type II Supernova 2024ggi at 55 Days past Explosion

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## Abstract

We present panchromatic 0.4–21  $\mu\text{m}$  observations of the nearby ( $\sim 7.2$  Mpc) Type II supernova (SN) 2024ggi, obtained during the plateau phase at  $\sim 55$  days past explosion. Our data set includes JWST spectra spanning 1.7–14  $\mu\text{m}$ , mid-infrared (MIR) imaging at 7.7 and 21  $\mu\text{m}$ , and near-simultaneous ground-based optical and near-infrared (NIR) spectra covering 0.32–1.8  $\mu\text{m}$ . The NIR and MIR spectral features of SN 2024ggi are dominated by H I emission. We present line IDs and a toy PHOENIX/1D model that reproduces the observations well, especially the continuum redward of 0.9  $\mu\text{m}$ . We compare SN 2024ggi to SN 2022acko and SN 2023ixf, two other Type II SNe that were also observed by JWST, and highlight key similarities and differences in their spectral features. No evidence for a MIR excess or dust is found at these epochs, with the model matching the observed flux out to 21  $\mu\text{m}$ . We discuss the model's shortcomings, focusing on the density profile, which

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suppresses line blanketing and produces features in the optical that are too narrow. Our results show the power of panchromatic studies in both exploring the nature of the SN ejecta and constraining detailed models of SNe.

*Unified Astronomy Thesaurus concepts:* [Type II supernovae \(1731\)](#); [Spectroscopy \(1558\)](#)

## 1. Introduction

Hydrogen-rich core-collapse supernovae (CC SNe), classified as Type II supernovae (SNe II), mark the deaths of massive stars with initial masses  $\gtrsim 8 M_{\odot}$ . These progenitors are typically red supergiants, although exceptions exist, such as the blue supergiant progenitor of SN 1987A (e.g., W. D. Arnett et al. 1989). Binary evolution likely plays a significant role in shaping the final evolutionary state of the progenitor. Massive stars—at the end of their lives—form degenerate iron cores, which, upon exceeding the Chandrasekhar mass, undergo gravitational collapse to nuclear densities. This process releases  $\sim 100$  foe of energy (1 foe =  $10^{51}$  erg; G. E. Brown 2005), primarily in the form of neutrinos, but also powers the optical supernova (SN) display. The explosion is inherently aspherical, and fully modeling the collapse and explosion remains computationally challenging. As such, the detailed mechanisms driving core collapse and the resulting observable signatures remain active areas of research (e.g., H.-T. Janka 2025; D. Vartanyan et al. 2025).

To date, the number of panchromatic optical-to-mid-infrared (MIR) observations of SNe II is limited, because much of the wavelength regime is not observable from the ground. Yet, the near-infrared (NIR) and MIR contain a wealth of information because lines are less blended and more varied compared to the optical and ultraviolet. The lower optical depths in the NIR and MIR also reveal the inner ejecta at earlier times (W. P. S. Meikle et al. 1993) and at later times can contain signatures of both molecule and dust formation (J. Spyromilio et al. 1988, 2001; D. H. Wooden et al. 1993; J. Rho et al. 2018).

Infrared (IR) observations of CC SNe were pioneered with the explosion of SN 1987A (P. Bouchet et al. 1987, 1991; E. Oliva et al. 1987; R. M. Catchpole et al. 1988, 1989; J. H. Elias et al. 1988; D. M. Rank et al. 1988; P. A. Whitelock et al. 1988; W. P. S. Meikle et al. 1989, 1991, 1993; C. M. Sharp & P. Hoefflich 1990; I. J. Danziger et al. 1991). These studies demonstrated the wealth of information available at these wavelengths and laid the groundwork for the interpretation of future IR observations. SN 1987A continues to be studied in the NIR and MIR with the James Webb Space Telescope (JWST; O. C. Jones et al. 2023; J. Larsson et al. 2023).

Since SN 1987A, many SNe II have been observed using ground-based NIR (1–2  $\mu\text{m}$ ) resources allowing the characterization of spectral line evolution from a couple of days past the explosion through the nebular phase (S. Benetti et al. 2001; M. Hamuy et al. 2001; A. Elmhamdi et al. 2003; M. Pozzo et al. 2006; A. Pastorello et al. 2009; K. Maguire et al. 2010; M. Fraser et al. 2011; L. Tomasella et al. 2013; M. Dall’Ora et al. 2014; A. Jerkstrand et al. 2014; T. Morokuma et al. 2014; K. Takáts et al. 2014, 2015; S. Valenti et al. 2015, 2016; J. Rho et al. 2018; K. A. Bostroem et al. 2019; T. Szalai et al. 2019; M. A. Tucker et al. 2024). For example, SN 1999em was well observed with NIR spectroscopy, providing line identifications and additional analysis (M. Hamuy et al. 2001; A. Elmhamdi et al. 2003). S. Davis et al. (2019) presented the results of 30 SNe II with 81 NIR spectra obtained by the Carnegie

Supernova Project 2 (E. Y. Hsiao et al. 2019; M. M. Phillips et al. 2019) and were able to discern correlations between the strength of the He I lines and the formation of CO. However, at wavelengths longer than 2  $\mu\text{m}$ , there is still a dearth of data.

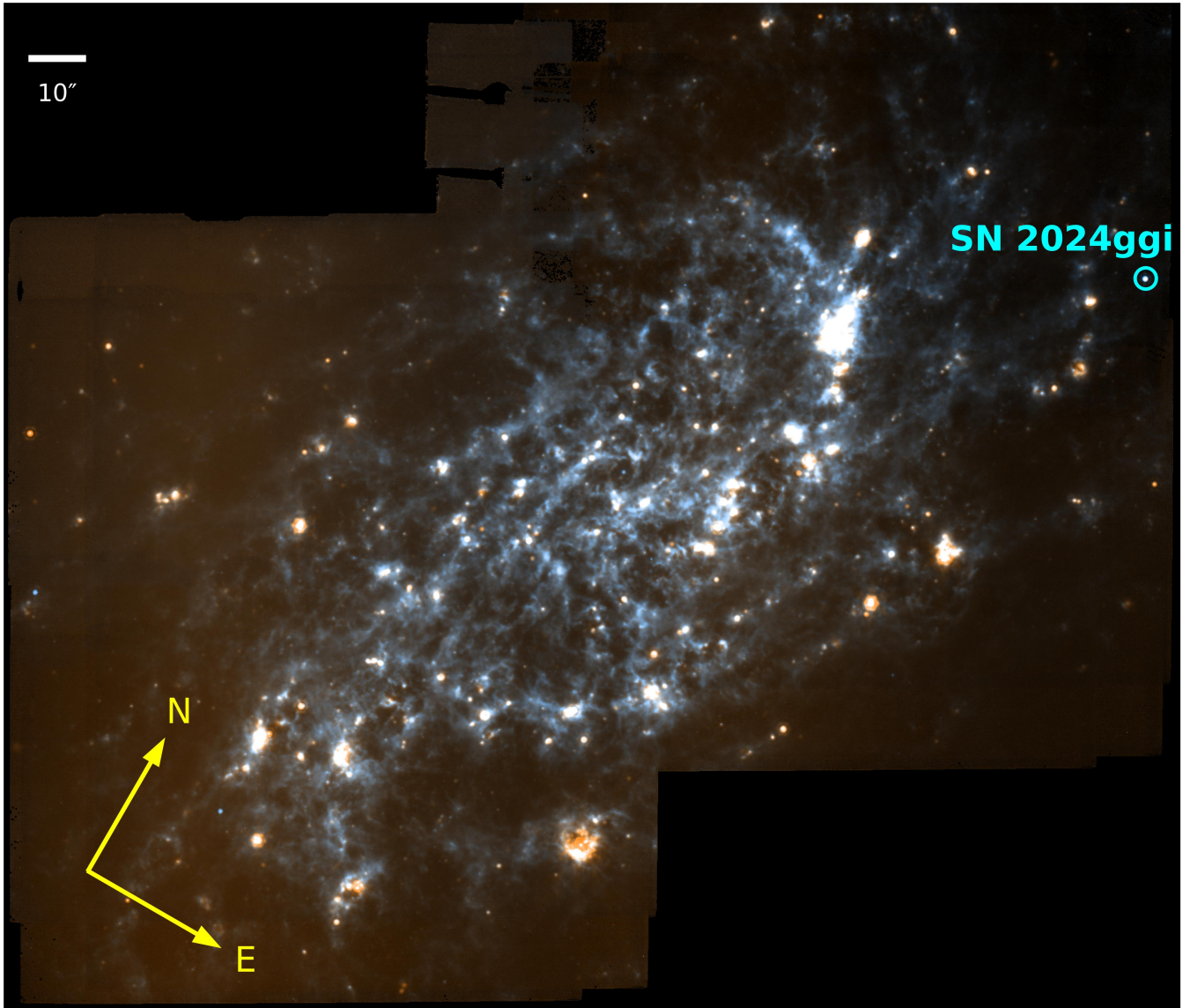
The era of MIR spectroscopy ( $\lambda > 2 \mu\text{m}$ ) for CC SNe began to take traction with the launch of the Spitzer Space Telescope (SST) with observations of SNe 2004et, 2004dj, and 2005af (R. Kotak et al. 2009; O. D. Fox et al. 2011; T. Szalai & J. Vinkó 2013), which showed the evolution of CO, and dust in the ejecta. However, these data sets did not have continuous wavelength coverage from the optical to MIR and hence lacked complete coverage of key spectral features such as the CO fundamental band at  $\sim 4 \mu\text{m}$ .

More recently, a number of CC SNe have been observed with JWST, including the SNe II 2022acko (M. Shahbandeh et al. 2024) and 2023ixf (J. M. DerKacy et al. 2025; K. Medler et al. 2025a). The launch of JWST opened the window to continuous spectral coverage into the MIR, allowing the construction of panchromatic multiepoch optical-to-MIR data sets of SNe. Observations of SN 2022acko at  $\sim 50$  days show many series of H lines and a lack of preexisting molecules or dust (M. Shahbandeh et al. 2024), revealing the promise that the construction of these data sets offers. SNe II are heterogeneous at optical wavelengths (K. R. Hinds et al. 2025), due to variations in both the progenitor systems and explosion processes. IR observations probe deeper into the ejecta than optical photons, opening a new window into the ejecta structure.

SN 2024ggi was discovered by the Asteroid Terrestrial-impact Last Alert System (S. Srivastav et al. 2024; J. Tonry et al. 2024; T.-W. Chen et al. 2025) on 2024 April 11 (MJD 60411.14) in the host galaxy NGC 3621 located at a distance of  $7.24 \pm 0.20$  Mpc (A. Saha et al. 2006)—making SN 2024ggi, along with SN 2023ixf, one of the closest SNe in modern times. The transient was classified as an SN II with flash ionization features (W. Hoogendam et al. 2024; Q. Zhai et al. 2024). Due to the proximity of SN 2024ggi and its early discovery, JWST Director Discretionary Time was approved to observe it throughout its evolution through program JWST-GO-6677/6716 (PI: Ashall; C. Ashall et al. 2024a, 2024b).<sup>34</sup> The purpose of this program is to follow the NIR and MIR spectroscopic evolution of SN 2024ggi from the plateau phase to  $\sim 300$  days past explosion.

We present the first epoch of these observations, which were obtained  $\sim 55$  days post explosion. In addition to the spectra and photometry obtained with JWST, optical and NIR spectra were obtained with Spectroscopic Classification of Astronomical Transients (SCAT) program (M. A. Tucker et al. 2022) and the Hawaii Infrared Supernova Study (HISS; K. Medler et al. 2025b), respectively. The features in the observed spectra are identified. We present non-LTE (NLTE) PHOENIX models that reproduce the features and continuum in NIR and MIR and discuss their shortcomings.

<sup>34</sup> <https://chrisashall.com/mid-infrared-supernova-collaboration-mirsnac/>



**Figure 1.** A composite two-band color image constructed from the MIRI imaging of NGC 3621 using filters F700W and F2100W. The location of SN 2024ggi is highlighted with the turquoise circle.

### 1.1. Previous Work

While we focus on our panchromatic observations at one epoch on the plateau, SN 2024ggi has been well observed at early times. Here, we briefly review the previous work on SN 2024ggi.

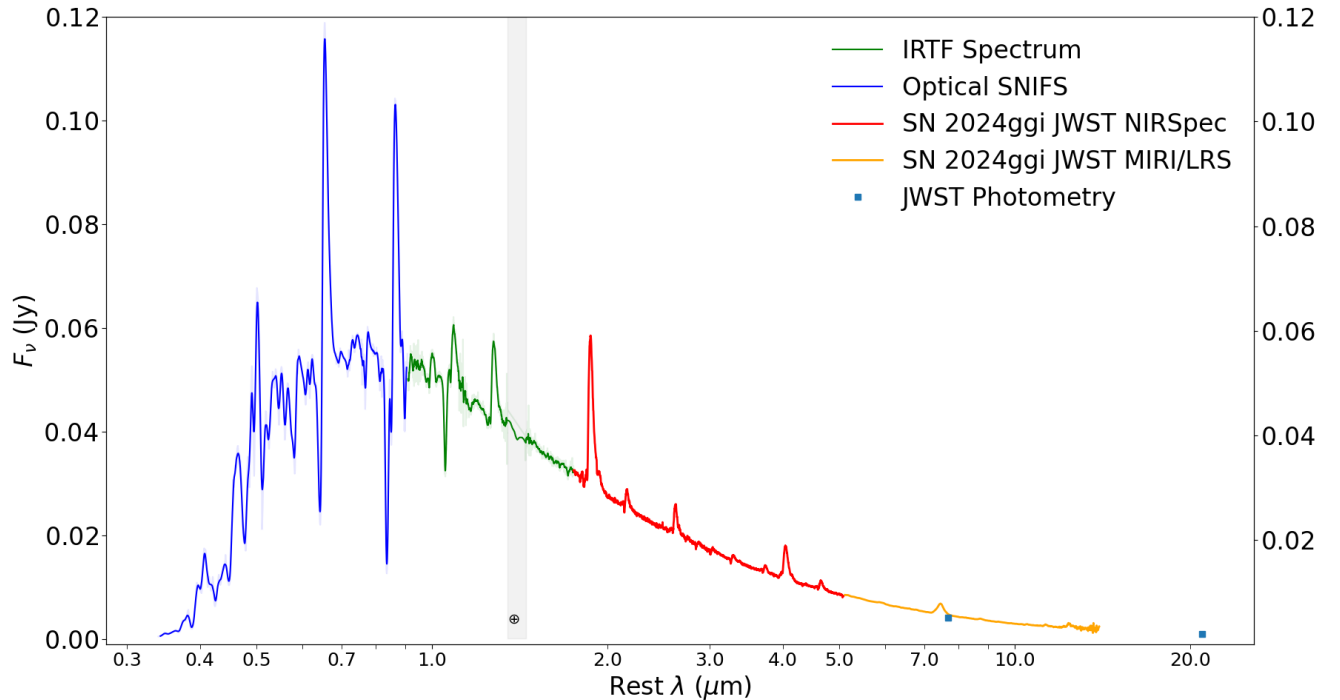
High-resolution spectra of SN 2024ggi were obtained with the MIKE spectrograph on the Magellan Clay Telescope 21, 27, 28, and 34 hr after discovery (T. Pessi et al. 2024; M. Shrestha et al. 2024). They show solid evidence of flash ionization features. The early spectra were compared to detailed radiative-transfer models, and a mass-loss rate of  $\dot{M} = 4 \times 10^{-3} M_{\odot} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  was inferred (M. Shrestha et al. 2024). Thus, there is evidence for interaction of the ejecta with the surrounding circumstellar medium (CSM).

Early-time (+8 to +17 days) observations using Atacama Large Millimeter/submillimeter Array (ALMA) millimeter data (M. Hu et al. 2025) and high-cadence optical spectroscopy (T. Pessi et al. 2024; J. Zhang et al. 2024) have been crucial in probing the CSM around the progenitor. While

**Table 1**  
Basic Observational Parameters of SN 2024ggi Used in This Work

Parameter	Value	Source
R.A. (hh:mm:ss)	11:18:22.087	(1, 2)
Decl. (deg:arcmin:arcsec)	-32:50:15.27	(1, 2)
$T_{\text{exp}}$ (MJD)	60410.80 $\pm$ 0.34	(3)
$M_{V_{\text{max}}}$ (mag)	$\sim$ -17.72	(4)
$z$	0.002435	(5)
Distance (Mpc)	7.24 $\pm$ 0.20	(5)
$\mu$ (Mpc)	29.30 $\pm$ 0.03	(5)
$E(B - V)_{\text{MW}}$ (mag)	0.054 $\pm$ 0.02	(4, 6)
$E(B - V)_{\text{Host}}$ (mag)	0.034 $\pm$ 0.02	(5)
$E(B - V)_{\text{Cloud}}$ (mag)	0.066 $\pm$ 0.02	(4)
Host	NGC 3621	(1)

**References.** (1) TNS (<https://www.wis-tns.org/object/2024ggi>), (2) K. C. Chambers et al. (2024), (3) W. V. Jacobson-Galán et al. (2024), (4) M. Shrestha et al. (2024), (5) A. Saha et al. (2006), (6) E. F. Schlafly & D. P. Finkbeiner (2011).



**Figure 2.** The full dereddened SED of SN 2024ggi. The UH88 optical spectrum was obtained on MJD 60470 (day  $\sim 60$ ); the IRTF spectrum was obtained on day 44. The NIRSpec spectrum was obtained on MJD 60466.46 (day 55), and the MIRI/LRS spectrum was obtained in the same visit as the NIRSpec. We note that the F700W and F2100W images were taken  $\sim 9$  days after the JWST spectra, which might explain the flux discrepancy between the photometry and the spectra.

**Table 2**  
The Photometry Obtained with JWST

Filter	Obs. Date (MJD)	Exp. Time (s)	Phase (days)	Magnitude (mag)
F770W	60474.7995	44	63.84	$14.885 \pm 0.002$
F2100W	60474.864	172	63.91	$16.443 \pm 0.017$

ALMA did not detect emission, the results help distinguish between a steady wind and an eruptive mass-loss scenario, with an eruptive model favored and a derived mass-loss rate of approximately  $5 \times 10^{-3} M_{\odot} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  (M. Hu et al. 2025). Early light curves are well described by a broken power law with a break at  $\sim 1$  day (M. Shrestha et al. 2024). Flash ionization features indicate CSM velocities of  $\sim 20\text{--}40 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ , radii of  $3\text{--}6 \times 10^{14} \text{ cm}$ , and mass-loss rates ranging from  $10^{-3}$  to  $10^{-1} M_{\odot} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  (W. V. Jacobson-Galán et al. 2024; M. Shrestha et al. 2024; J. Zhang et al. 2024; T.-W. Chen et al. 2025).

The CSM mass is estimated at  $0.4 M_{\odot}$  (T.-W. Chen et al. 2025), and the maximum observed velocities reach up to  $8000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  (J. Zhang et al. 2024). Spectroscopic observations within the first 2 days postdiscovery reveal flash ionization features of H I, He I, He II, C III, C IV, N III, and Si IV (T. Pessi et al. 2024; T.-W. Chen et al. 2025). The line profiles are best fit with Voigt profiles, and the broad emission components increase in velocity over time, suggesting an accelerated, radiatively driven wind (T. Pessi et al. 2024). Notably, high-ionization lines such as He II are sometimes absent (J. Zhang et al. 2024). Comparisons to CMFGEN (D. J. Hillier & D. L. Miller 1998) and other detailed models reproduce the ionization state at  $\sim 1$  day and the blue edge of H $\alpha$  at  $\sim 15$  days,

but no model fits all features perfectly (W. V. Jacobson-Galán et al. 2024; J. Zhang et al. 2024).

Light-curve modeling, including the rapid early blueward evolution and the presence of flash ionization features, supports a scenario involving wind shock breakout (T.-W. Chen et al. 2025). Explosion energies are inferred to be  $2 \times 10^{51} \text{ erg}$ , with ejecta masses of  $1.2 M_{\odot}$  and CSM radii of  $4\text{--}6 \times 10^{14} \text{ cm}$  (X. Chen et al. 2024; W. V. Jacobson-Galán et al. 2024; J. Zhang et al. 2024; T.-W. Chen et al. 2025). The derived mass-loss rates and CSM masses are difficult to reconcile with steady-state wind mass loss (N. Smith 2017) or standard neutrino-driven core-collapse explosion mechanisms (N. Soker 2024).

Progenitor properties have been constrained using preexplosion imaging from the Hubble Space Telescope, the SST, and the Dark Energy Camera Legacy Survey (X. Chen et al. 2024; D. Xiang et al. 2024). The progenitor is identified as a variable star consistent with a red supergiant, with a mass-loss rate of less than  $3 \times 10^{-6} M_{\odot} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  prior to the enhanced mass-loss phase inferred from the flash ionization (D. Xiang et al. 2024). This result is corroborated by light-curve and spectral modeling that finds that the CSM distribution likely consists of a two-component structure with a compact core and extended tail (K. Ertini et al. 2025). K. Ertini et al. (2025) find the progenitor fits a zero-age main  $M_{\text{ZAMS}} = 15 M_{\odot}$ , with a pre-SN mass  $14.1 M_{\odot}$  and a mass-loss rate of  $4 \times 10^{-3} M_{\odot} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , giving an explosion energy 1.3 foe. Analysis of the progenitor environment indicates a uniform spatial distribution and a star formation history corresponding to a progenitor mass of  $10.2 M_{\odot}$  (X. Hong et al. 2024). Semianalytic modeling and archival imaging yield ejecta masses of  $1.2 M_{\odot}$ , a progenitor radius of  $555 R_{\odot}$ , and progenitor masses in the range  $14\text{--}17 M_{\odot}$  (X. Chen et al. 2024).

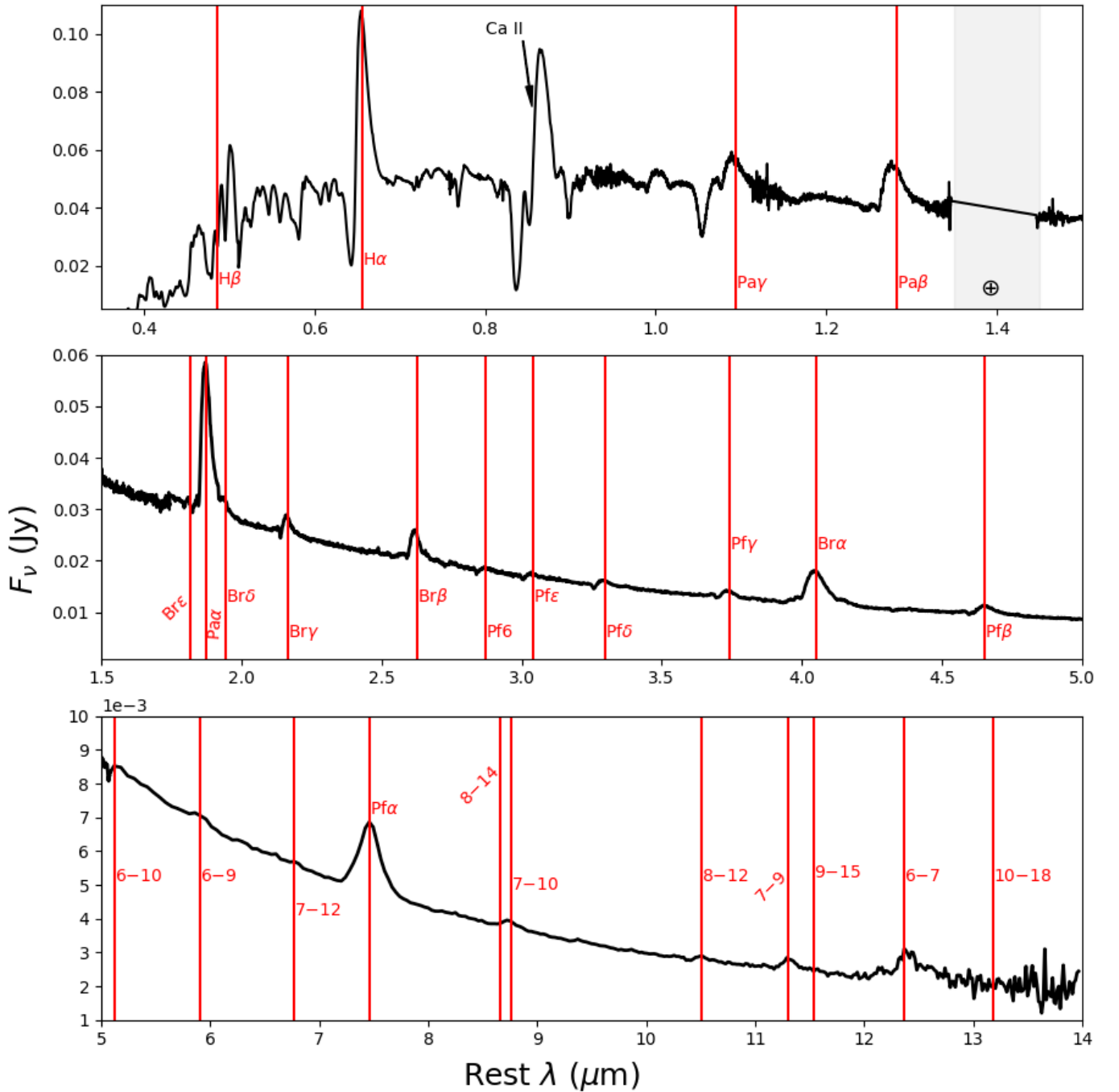


Figure 3. The optical, ground-based NIR, and JWST SN 2024ggi spectra with prominent H I lines identified.

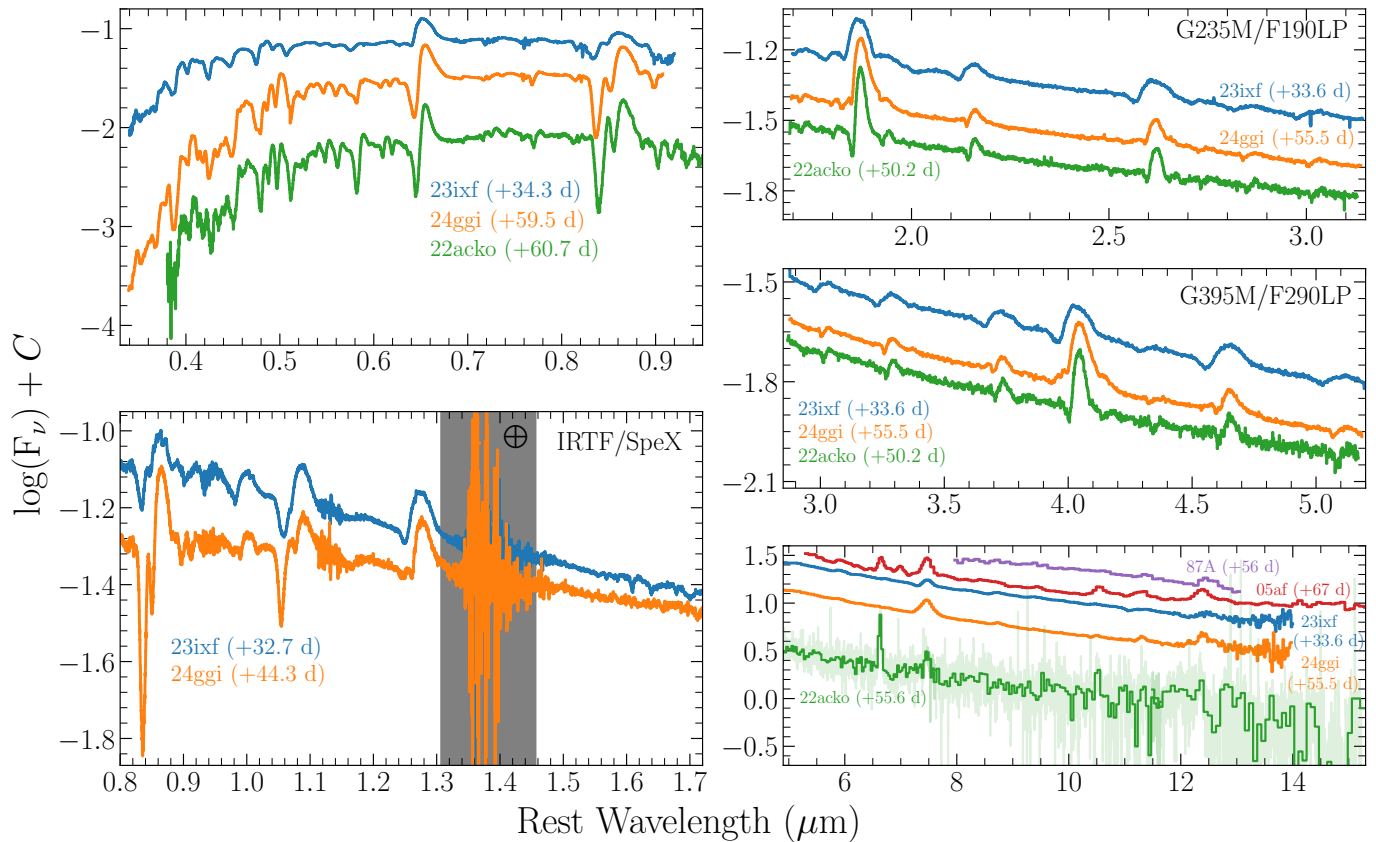
## 2. Observations and Data Reduction

The basic parameters we use throughout this work are presented in Table 1. We take the time of first light from W. V. Jacobson-Galán et al. (2024): MJD  $60410.80 \pm 0.34$  days, which is based on the average between the times of the last nondetection and first detection. (Unless stated otherwise, we will quote epochs in time since first light, referring interchangeably to this as time since explosion). We adopt the total extinction estimate of  $E(B - V)_{\text{total}} = 0.154$  mag (M. Shrestha et al. 2024), which is similar to values found in other investigations (W. V. Jacobson-Galán et al. 2024; T. Pessi et al. 2024). We note that in addition to extinction in the host and the Galaxy, M. Shrestha et al. (2024)

include extinction from an intervening cloud at redshift  $z = 0.00039$  and that their extinction estimates rely on the Na D equivalent width formula of D. Poznanski et al. (2012), which is known to have a large error (M. M. Phillips et al. 2013).

### 2.1. JWST Spectra

Spectroscopic observations were obtained at  $\sim 55$  days past explosion using the fixed slit with the NIRSpect and the Mid-Infrared Instrument (MIRI) Low Resolution Spectrometer (LRS). This produced continuous spectral data from  $\sim 1.6$  to  $14 \mu\text{m}$ . The resolving power of these observations is  $\sim 1000$  for NIRSpect and  $\sim 100$  for MIRI/LRS. All data were reduced using the JWST pipeline version 1.18.0 and CRDS context



**Figure 4.** Panchromatic spectral comparison of SNe II observed with JWST (SNe 2022acko, 2023ixf, and 2024ggi) during the plateau phase and other historical SNe II (SNe 1987A D. K. Aitken et al. 1988) and (SN 2005af R. Kotak et al. 2006) observed in the MIR at similar phases. The SN 2022acko data shown here have been re-reduced using updated versions of the JWST pipeline (v1.18.0+jwst\_1371.pmap and v1.17.1+jwst\_1363.pmap for the NIRSpec and MIRI/MRS data, respectively) relative to the data first presented in M. Shahbandeh et al. (2024).

jwst\_1371.pmap. A log of the spectral observations can be found in Table A1.

## 2.2. JWST Imaging

The Physics at High Angular Resolution in Nearby Galaxies collaboration (J. C. Lee et al. 2022; A. Leroy et al. 2023) obtained serendipitous imaging of SN 2024ggi in the JWST MIRI filters F770W and F2100W at  $\sim 64$  days. As SN 2024ggi was located at the edge of the field of view, it is only visible in two of the four dithers in each of these filters. Figure 1 presents a color composite of SN 2024ggi and the host galaxy NGC 3621.

Point-spread function (PSF) photometry was computed using a custom-made Python notebook making use of the *WebbPSF* photometry package (M. D. Perrin et al. 2014).<sup>35</sup> The PSF width was determined by minimizing the residual while also taking into account the secular increase of the PSF with wavelength. The fluxes of each dither, where the SN was visible, were averaged, and the error in the flux was obtained using the standard deviation of the fluxes. A log of the photometric observations is presented in Table 2.

## 2.3. Ground-based Spectra

In order to fill out the spectral energy distribution (SED), we obtained optical and NIR spectra at a similar epoch to the JWST data. An optical (0.32–0.9  $\mu\text{m}$ ) spectrum was obtained as part of

the SCAT program (M. A. Tucker et al. 2022), using the SuperNova Integral Field Spectrograph (SNIFS; B. Lantz et al. 2004) mounted on the University of Hawaii 88 inch telescope. The data were obtained 59.5 days (MJD = 60470.27) past explosion with a 1200 s exposure and reduced using the procedure outlined in M. A. Tucker et al. (2022).

To observe the NIR, we also obtained a NASA Infrared Telescope Facility (IRTF) spectrum (Program 2024A987, PI: Hoogendam) 44.43 days (MJD = 60455.23) past explosion as part of HISS (K. Medler et al. 2025b). The IRTF spectrum had an exposure time of 1434.5 s, consisting of 12 A/B individual 119.5 s exposures and was reduced using the methods described by the HISS team (W. B. Hoogendam et al. 2025a, 2025b; K. Medler et al. 2025b).

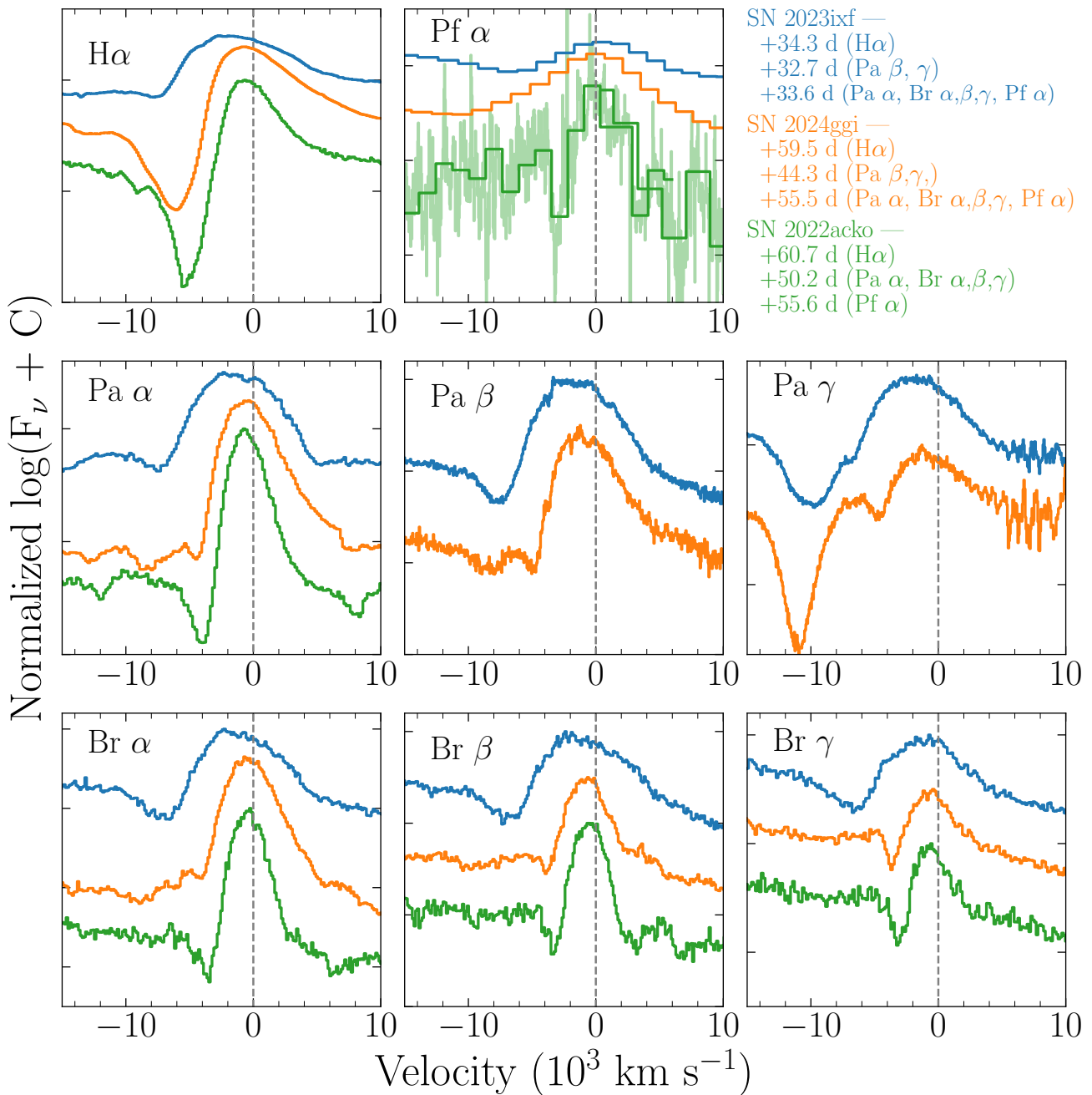
The SNIFS spectra are not processed with the full SNFactory pipeline and are thus not spectrophotometric; however, only minor (roughly 10%) adjustments in flux were needed to match the IRTF spectrum to that of JWST, which was then matched to the SNIFS spectrum again with minor adjustments. We focus on the flux-calibrated JWST spectra for the spectral modeling.

## 3. Data Analysis

### 3.1. SED

Figure 2 shows the full 0.32–20  $\mu\text{m}$  SED of SN 2024ggi at  $\sim 55$  days past explosion. The spectra are consistent with a recombination-dominated regime characterized by numerous hydrogen line transitions. Despite the ground-based and JWST

<sup>35</sup> [https://github.com/orifox/psf\\_phot/blob/main/space\\_phot/MIRI/miri\\_1028.ipynb](https://github.com/orifox/psf_phot/blob/main/space_phot/MIRI/miri_1028.ipynb)



**Figure 5.** A velocity-space comparison of some strong P-Cygni profiles found in JWST and ground-based observations of SNe 2022acko, 2023ixf, and 2024ggi.

spectra being obtained at a slightly different phase, they align in flux with only modest matching. The photometric data, which were taken  $\sim 9$  days after the JWST data, have a flux slightly below that of the spectra.

Figure 3 shows that, except for the optical wavelengths, all of the major features in both the IRTF and the JWST spectra are accounted for by lines of H I. The strength and width of these lines reflect transitions within the atomic structure, with the strongest features arising from the most probable or lowest-energy level transitions.

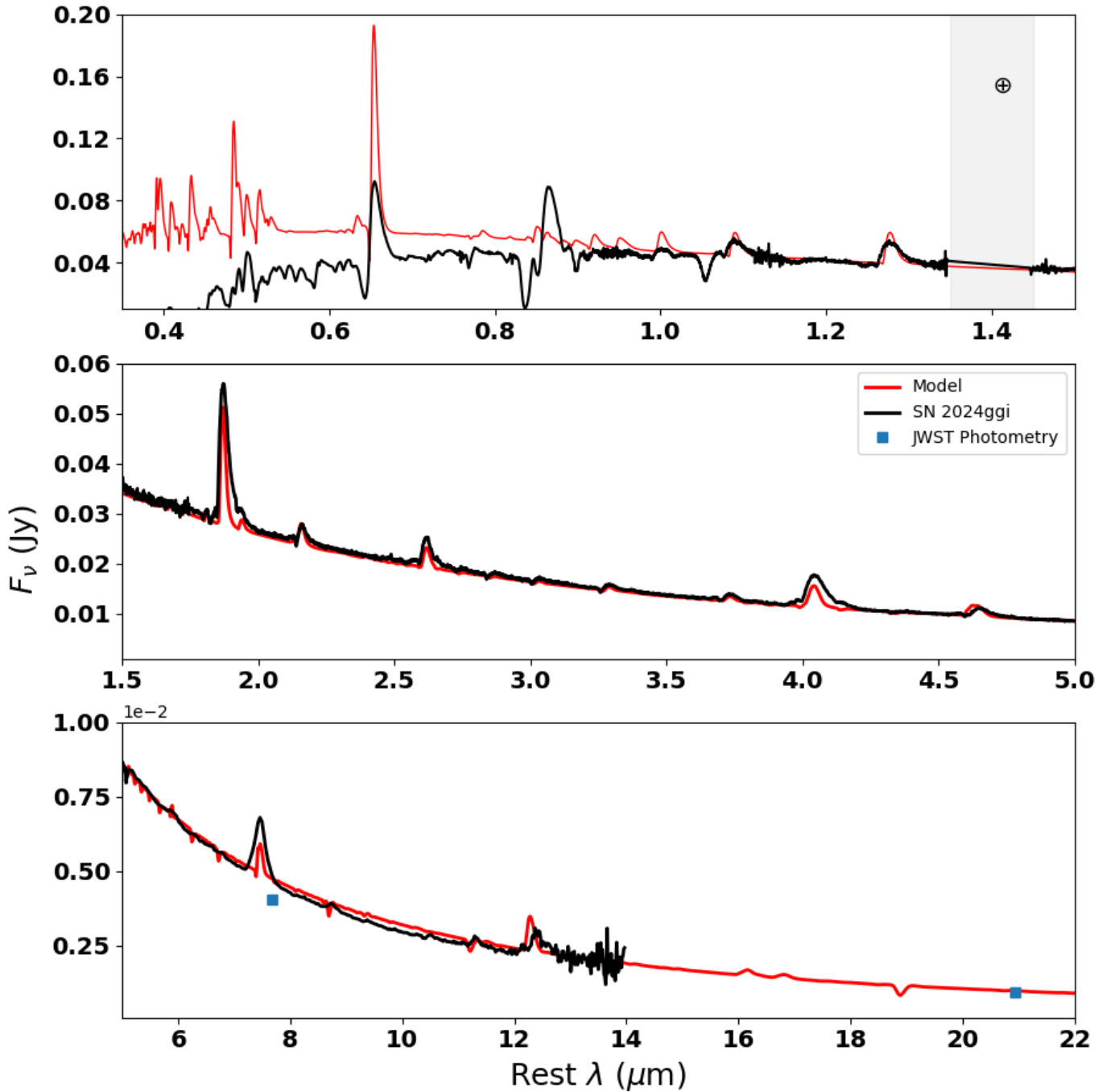
### 3.2. Spectral Comparison

Both SN 2022acko (M. Shahbandeh et al. 2024) and SN 2023ixf (J. M. DerKacy et al. 2025) have panchromatic data

sets (near-) contemporaneous with their JWST observations during the plateau phase. These comparisons are shown in Figure 4. JWST data were obtained approximately at the midpoint of the plateau phase for each SN. We note that the spectra of SN 2022acko used in the figure have been re-reduced using the `AstroBkgInterp`<sup>36</sup> package, which recovers the SN continuum better than the reduction presented by M. Shahbandeh et al. (2024).

In general, all three SNe show features typical of normal SNe II on the plateau. In the optical, the later observation epoch of SN 2022acko and SN 2024ggi compared to that of SN 2023ixf results in stronger blanketing by iron-group lines

<sup>36</sup> <https://github.com/brynickson/AstroBkgInterp>



**Figure 6.** The observed day 55 SN 2024ggi ground-based and JWST spectra compared to the PHOENIX model (see Section 4.2). In this and subsequent model plots, the synthetic spectrum has been scaled to the observed spectrum at  $3 \mu\text{m}$ .

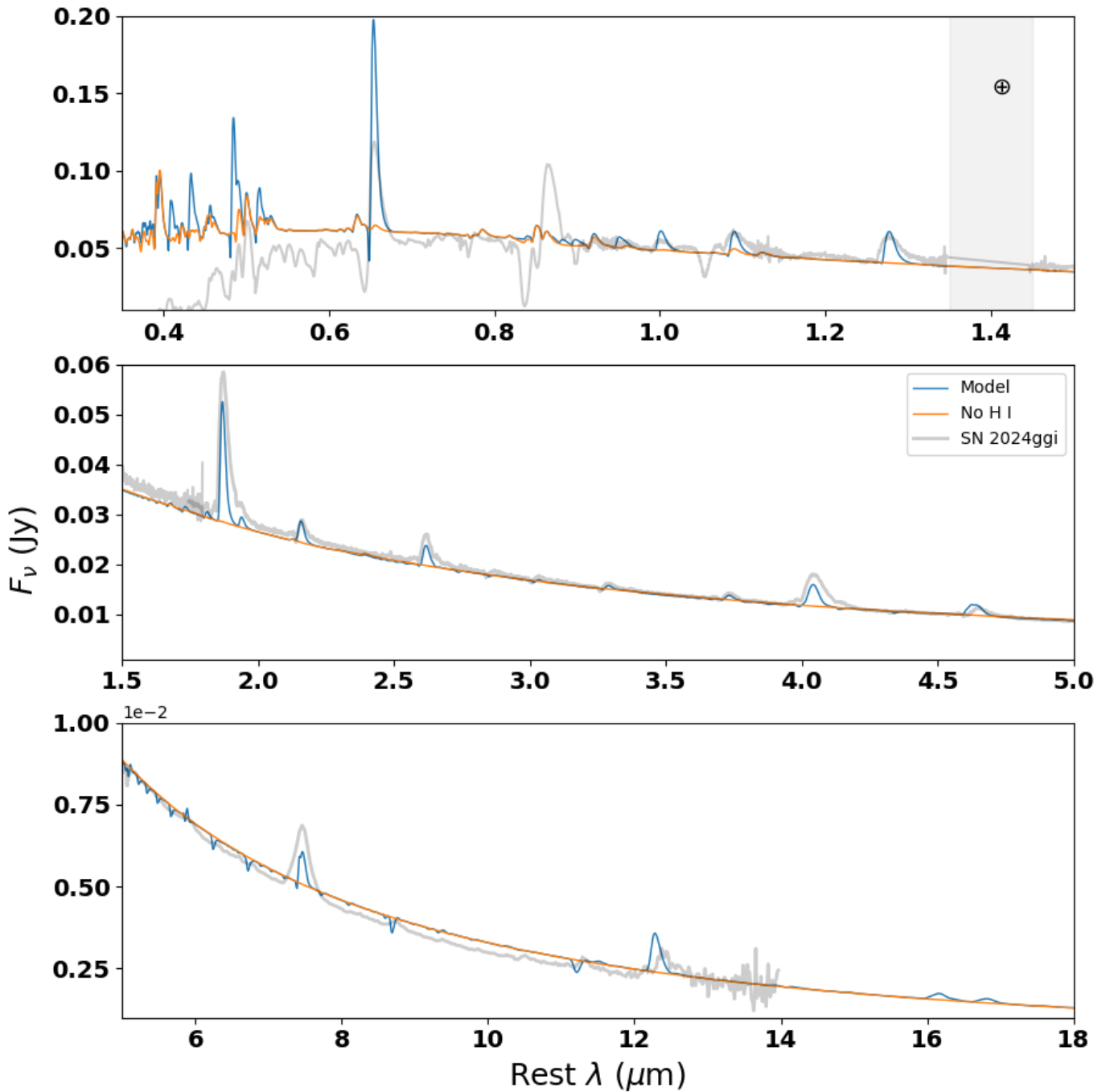
in the blue optical wavelengths and more *s*-process lines observed. While J. M. DerKacy et al. (2025) identify the He I  $1.083 \mu\text{m}$  line in the ground-based IRTF spectra of SN 2023ixf, we see no strong evidence for lines of He I in SN 2024ggi. The lower velocity of the Paschen lines in SN 2024ggi results in less blending than is seen in SN 2023ixf. The feature blueward of Pa $\gamma$  is more likely due to the C I  $1.069 \mu\text{m}$  line than to the He I  $1.083 \mu\text{m}$  line (see Section 5).

In the JWST/NIRSpec observations, there is near uniformity among all three objects in the H lines that are present in the spectrum. At MIR wavelengths ( $\lambda > 5 \mu\text{m}$ ), all three SNe are dominated by hydrogen lines of the Pfund,

Humphreys, and unnamed higher-order series. The emission peaks of the strong Pf $\alpha$  plus Hu $\beta$  blend and the Hu $\alpha$  line are more prominent in SN 2024ggi, similar to SN 2005af, than in SNe 1987A or 2023ixf. The lower signal-to-noise ratio of the SN 2022acko data makes distinguishing all but the strongest hydrogen lines difficult.

### 3.3. Spectral Line Velocities

More detailed comparisons focusing on the hydrogen lines with strong P-Cygni features in the three JWST SNe II (e.g., H $\alpha$ ; Pa  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ ; Br  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ ; and Pf $\alpha$ ) are shown in Figure 5. Though the

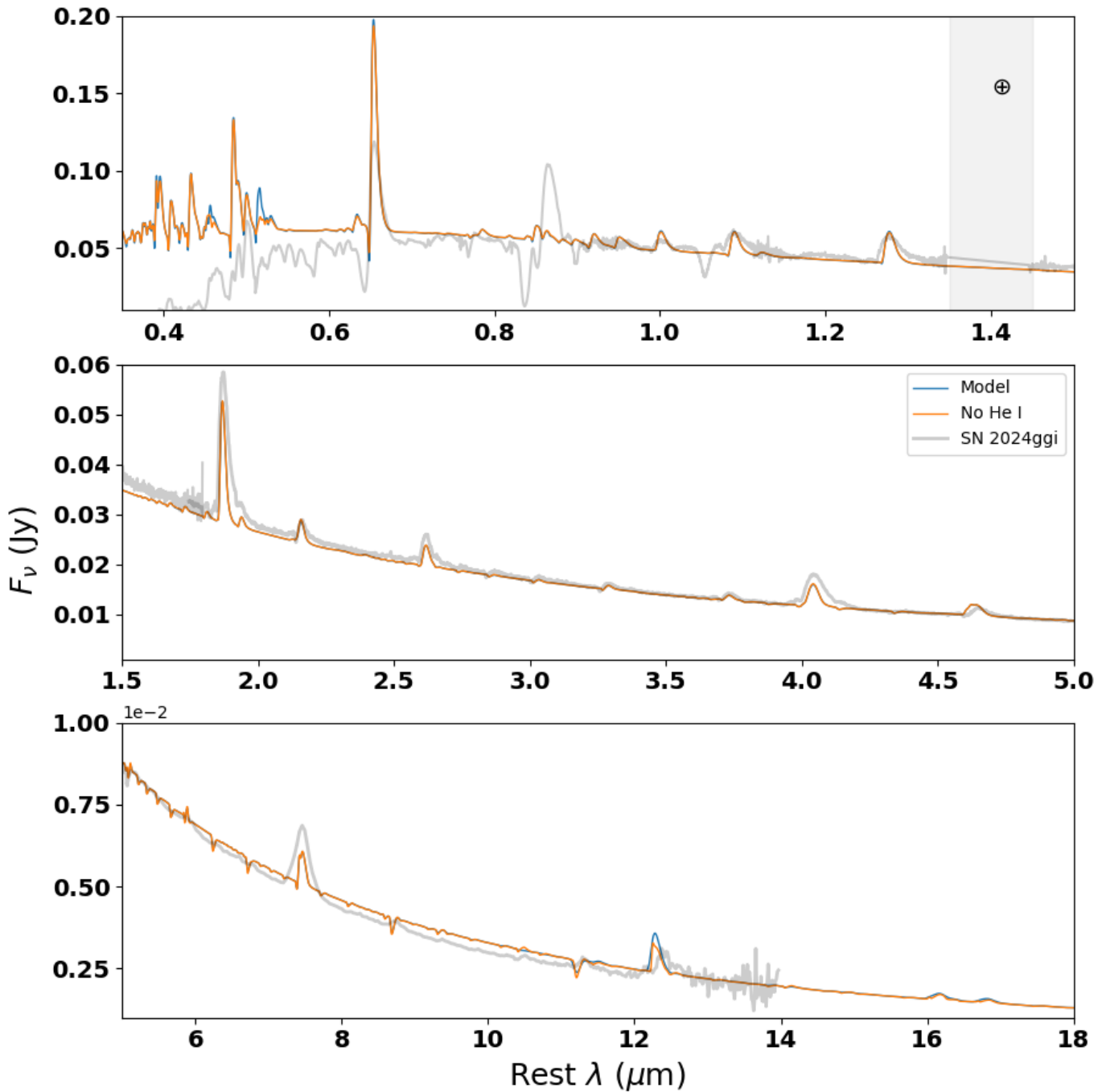


**Figure 7.** The observed day 55 SN 2024ggi JWST spectrum, the PHOENIX model, and the PHOENIX model with all H I lines turned off. Most of the observed spectral features are due to H I lines.

phases of the SNe with respect to explosion vary somewhat, the wide variation in the line shapes gives an indication of the degree of heterogeneity of the SN IIP subclass. One trend that is homogeneous across all three SNe is the correlation between line velocity (measured from the P-Cygni absorption trough) and the absolute  $V$ -band magnitude (M. Hamuy & P. A. Pinto 2002; T. de Jaeger et al. 2020). SN 2022acko has  $M_V \sim -15.4$  mag (K. A. Bostroem et al. 2023), while SN 2023ixf has  $M_V \sim -18.2$  mag (W. Zheng et al. 2025), and SN 2024ggi has  $M_V \sim -17.7$  mag (Table 1). As Figure 5 shows, this trend is consistent across multiple series of H lines, not just the H $\beta$  and

Fe II  $\lambda 5169$  lines commonly used as characteristic measures of the photospheric velocity in SNe II.

Not only are the line profiles heterogeneous across the SN II sample but also within each SN. Unlike SN 2023ixf, which shows multiple examples of substructure within the H lines (A. Singh et al. 2024; J. M. DerKacy et al. 2025), SN 2024ggi shows no substructures common to multiple H series, at this phase. The closest thing to substructure seen in SN 2024ggi is a small peak at  $\sim -1300$  km s $^{-1}$  in the Paschen  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ ,  $\delta$ , and  $\zeta$  lines. The feature may be present in other lines, but it is too weak to be distinguished given the line profile variability.



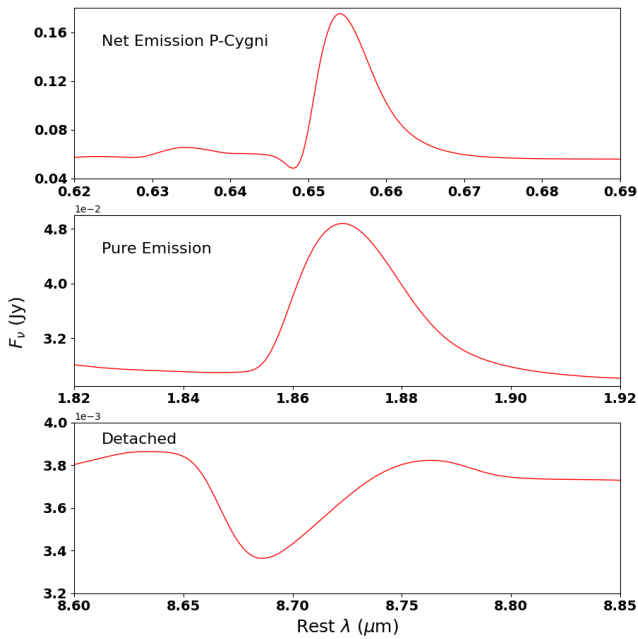
**Figure 8.** The observed day 55 SN 2024ggi ground-based and JWST spectrum, the PHOENIX model, and the PHOENIX model with all He I lines turned off. The one He I line that is prominent in the model spectrum is nearly coincident with the  $\text{H}\alpha$  line. Thus, there is no strong evidence for He I lines at this epoch and observed wavelength range.

#### 4. Models

Synthetic spectral models of CC SNe have a long history (C. Payne-Gaposchkin & F. L. Whipple 1940; D. Branch 1980), but the advent of SN 1987A prompted much work (R. P. Harkness & J. C. Wheeler 1988; P. Hoefflich 1988; L. B. Lucy 1988; R. G. Eastman & R. P. Kirshner 1989; D. A. Swartz et al. 1989; P. A. Mazzali et al. 1992; P. H. Hauschildt & L. M. Ensmann 1994; C. Kozma & C. Fransson 1998; R. C. Mitchell et al. 2002). Numerical approaches roughly fall into three classes: (i) Direct modeling approaches such as that used by the SYNOW code

(D. J. Jeffery & D. Branch 1990); (ii) grid-based solution of the radiative-transfer equation, such as PHOENIX/1D (P. H. Hauschildt & E. Baron 1999), HYDRA (P. Hoefflich 1988), and CMFGEN (D. J. Hillier & D. L. Miller 1998; L. Dessart & D. J. Hillier 2005); and (iii) Monte Carlo methods such as those of Mazzali (P. A. Mazzali et al. 1992), ARTIS (S. A. Sim 2007; M. Kromer & S. A. Sim 2009), TARDIS (W. E. Kerzendorf & S. A. Sim 2014), SEDONA (D. Kasen et al. 2006), and SUMO (A. Jerkstrand et al. 2011).

Here we use SYNOW and PHOENIX/1D. SYNOW generates synthetic SN spectra by modeling the photospheric phase with a few simplifying assumptions: spherical symmetry and



**Figure 9.** The three different line types seen in the models. Top panel: the strongly net-emission P-Cygni H $\alpha$  line. Middle panel: a nearly pure emission line (transition). Bottom panel: a P-Cygni line that appears to be pure absorption in Figure 6. The line is essentially detached (see Section 4.3).

homologous expansion; and a sharp photosphere emitting a blackbody continuum with only line transport that is treated as resonance scattering in the Sobolev approximation ignoring ionization and rate equations. The output is a blackbody continuum overlaid with blended P-Cygni profiles. We only focus on H $\alpha$  here, but in general, for each ion, the input parameters are the Sobolev optical depth of a reference line photospheric velocity ( $v_{\text{phot}}$ ) and the  $e$ -folding velocity of the reference line optical depth,  $v_e$ . Optical depths decline exponentially with velocity:  $\tau(v) = \tau(v_{\text{phot}}) \exp[-(v - v_{\text{phot}})/v_e]$ . See D. J. Jeffery & D. Branch (1990) and D. Branch et al. (2005, 2006) for more details.

PHOENIX/1D is a generalized stellar atmosphere code that solves the radiative-transfer equation along characteristic rays in spherical symmetry, fully accounting for special-relativistic effects. It treats NLTE rate equations for a comprehensive set of ions. Primary NLTE transitions determine level populations and opacity; weaker lines are added in LTE using the NLTE ground-state occupation, ensuring no transition is omitted. Energy balance is enforced in the comoving frame, implicitly incorporating time-dependent effects through PdV work and gamma-ray deposition. The outer boundary sets the observer-frame bolometric luminosity; the inner boundary condition is set by requiring that the flux at the deepest zone is determined by the diffusion approximation, evaluated at that boundary.

PHOENIX/1D has been used on a wide variety of SNe including SN 1993J (E. Baron et al. 1993, 1995), SN 1994I (E. Baron et al. 1996, 1999), SN 1998S (E. J. Lentz et al. 2001c), SN 1999em (E. Baron et al. 2000, 2004), SN 1987A (R. C. Mitchell et al. 2002), SN 1993W (E. Baron et al. 2003), and SNe Ia (P. Nugent et al. 1995; E. J. Lentz et al. 2001a, 2001b; E. Baron et al. 2006, 2008; S. Bongard et al. 2006, 2008; B. Friesen et al. 2017; J. M. DerKacy et al. 2020).

#### 4.1. Methods

Given that both the ground-based and JWST spectra are dominated by H I lines (Section 3), we model the spectra to place constraints on the line formation processes in the ejecta. The goal is to produce a model that matches the overall spectra and not to tweak the model to match every single feature. Thus, using the generalized stellar atmospheres code PHOENIX (P. H. Hauschildt & E. Baron 1999), we constructed a simple model assuming a power-law density profile,  $\rho \propto v^{-n}$ , with  $n = 13$  and  $v_{\text{max}} = 5900 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ . The model has solar abundances (M. Asplund et al. 2009). The low outer velocity is intended to mimic the effect of circumstellar interaction. The luminosity is  $L = 2 \times 10^9 L_{\odot}$ , the ejecta mass (mass exterior to  $\tau_{\text{std}} = 10$ , where  $\tau_{\text{std}}$  is the optical depth in the continuum at  $5000 \text{ \AA}$ ) is  $M_{\text{ejecta}} = 9.1 M_{\odot}$ , with kinetic energy  $E_{\text{ejecta}} = 0.48 \text{ foe}$ . Since the spectra were dominated by hydrogen recombination lines, we were able to choose rather generic parameters for SNe IIP (based on previous studies) and thus, did not need to vary our initial parameter choices, except for the outer pressure (which determines  $v_{\text{max}}$ ) in order to obtain the fiducial model.

#### 4.2. Results

Figure 6 shows the fiducial model described above (Section 4.1) compared to the data from the optical to the MIR. While the JWST spectra were obtained at 55 days, the optical UH88 spectrum is at  $\sim 60$  days and the IRTF spectrum is at  $\sim 44$  days; the model is constructed at 55 days. The model does a very good job of fitting the NIR+MIR continuum ( $\lambda > 0.9 \mu\text{m}$ ). However, the relatively steep density profile significantly inhibits line blanketing in the UV, showing that the true ejecta density profile is not captured by a single power law.

Our goal is not to produce a perfect fit to the full data set, but rather, we focus on the fit associated with the NIR+MIR data, and thus, we take this model as our fiducial model.

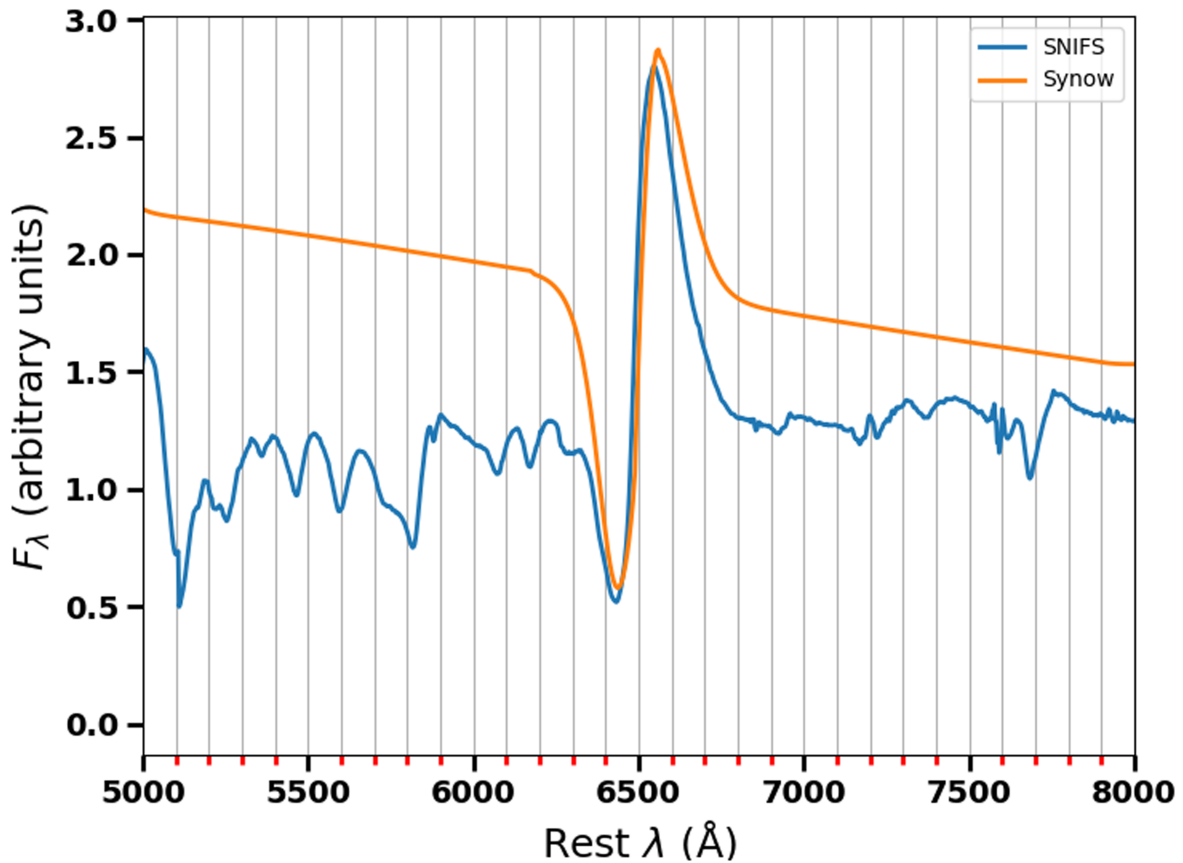
Figure 7 shows the fiducial model (blue) and the same model with the H I opacities turned off (orange). Beyond the Ca IR triplet (0.757789, 0.758322, and 0.760342  $\mu\text{m}$ ), there are hardly any observed features not accounted for by H I lines.

Figure 8 shows the fiducial model (blue) and the same model with the He I opacities turned off (orange). The only strong features are the singlet and triplet transitions near 0.50  $\mu\text{m}$  and the singlet and triplet transitions near 12.2  $\mu\text{m}$ .

The only neutral helium lines clearly evident in Figure 8 are the 1S-1P  $\lambda 5017.1$  line and the 3P-3D multiplet near 12.26  $\mu\text{m}$ , but the presence of H $\alpha$  at 12.372  $\mu\text{m}$  makes that identification weak. There are a few other features that contribute somewhat blueward of 0.5  $\mu\text{m}$ . It is possible that the feature just blueward of Pa $\gamma$  is due to the He I 1.083  $\mu\text{m}$  line, but the C I 1.069  $\mu\text{m}$  line seems to be a more likely identification (see Section 5). Thus, the entire observed spectrum is well explained solely by lines of neutral hydrogen.

#### 4.3. Line Profiles

An obvious inconsistency of the model is that it does not reproduce the strong observed high-velocity component seen in the Ca IR triplet (and possibly the Mg II 0.9226  $\mu\text{m}$  line) in the optical+NIR (from the spectrum obtained on the IRTF),



**Figure 10.** A SYNOW fit to the  $H\alpha$  line in SN 2024ggi. The optical depth is  $\tau = 10$ ,  $v_{\text{phot}} = 3500 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ , the density profile is given by an exponential with  $v_e = 2000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ , and  $v_{\text{max}} = 20,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ .

but this is inherent in the model since the atmosphere contains no material at velocities above  $5900 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ . While the model does an excellent job of fitting the JWST line profiles blueward of  $5 \mu\text{m}$  and redward of  $5 \mu\text{m}$ , the model predicts absorption profiles where the observations show emission profiles. Although the  $\text{P}\alpha$  line is not a great fit in the model, it does show strong net emission as observed. However, for the 7–10 H I feature at  $8.76 \mu\text{m}$ , the observations show net emission, while the model shows a nearly pure absorption line. This is likely due to a lack of significant optical depth in the line at the photosphere but significant optical depth in the line above the photosphere (such that the line is “detached”; see, for example, D. Branch et al. 2003). In the fiducial model,  $v_{\text{phot}} = 3000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ . (In PHOENIX models, there is no predefined photosphere, so  $v_{\text{phot}}$  is *not* defined a priori, as it is in SYNOW. In PHOENIX, we therefore define  $v_{\text{phot}}$  as the point where  $\tau_{\text{std}} = 1$ ). Examining the departure coefficients shows that the  $\text{P}\alpha$  levels are both underpopulated, whereas levels 7 and 10 are quite overpopulated to the model surface, making the line likely to be detached.

Figure 9 shows the three different line types produced by the model (and seen in the observations): strongly net-emission P-Cygni ( $H\alpha$ ), a nearly pure emission line, and a P-Cygni line that appears strongly in absorption. The latter corresponds to a detached feature.

The PHOENIX/1D model does a relatively poor job of fitting the blue absorption troughs of the H I optical lines, even while fitting the line widths in the NIR and MIR. In this work, we are focused on using a simple toy model that describes the NIR + MIR. However, it is worth examining the velocity

extent of  $H\alpha$ . Figure 10 shows a SYNOW calculation of  $H\alpha$ , which does a relatively good job of fitting the velocity extent of the feature.

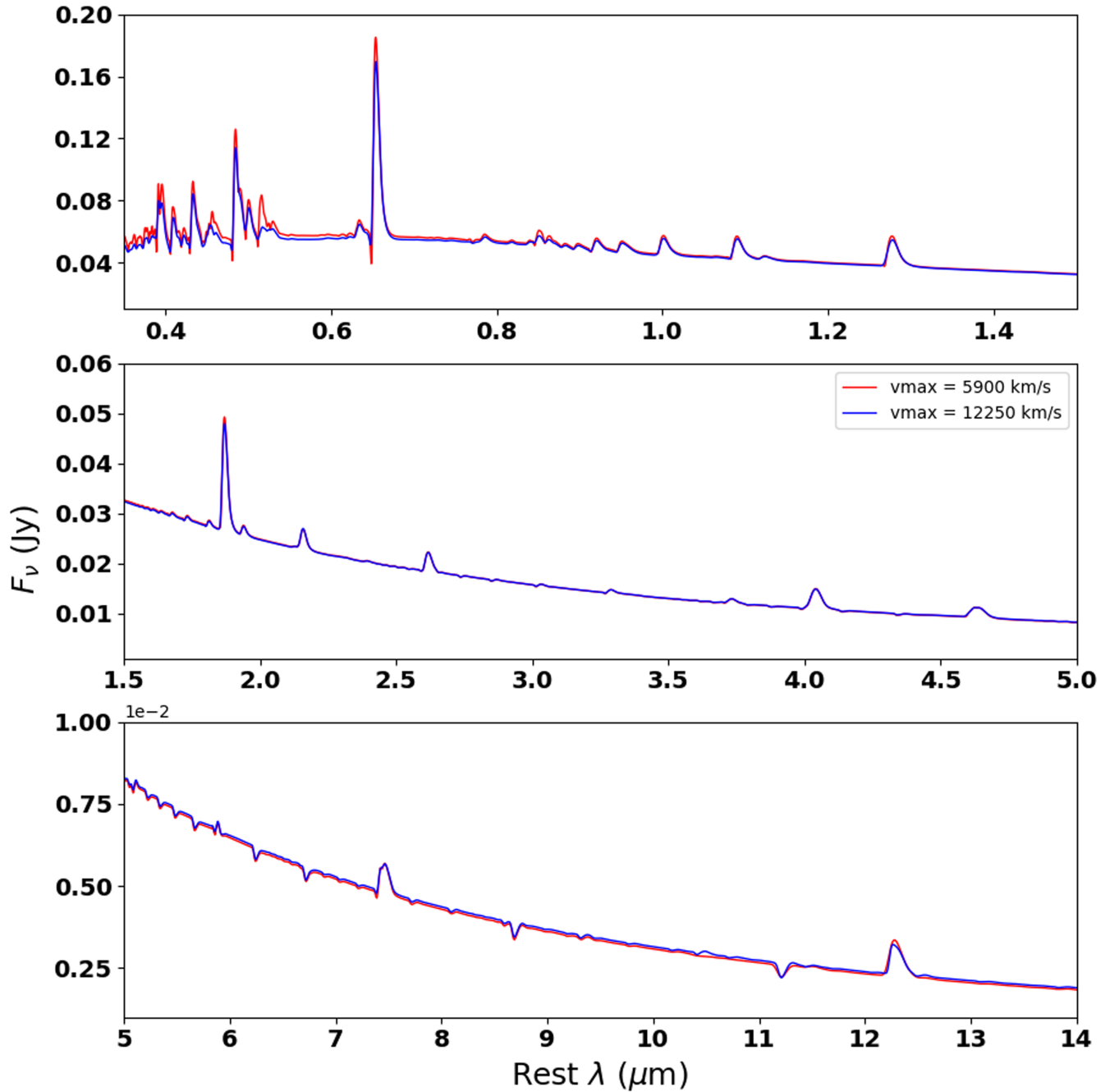
The SYNOW parameters are  $\tau = 10$  and  $v_{\text{phot}} = 3500 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ ; the density profile is given by an exponential with  $v_e = 2000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ , and  $v_{\text{max}} = 20,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ . This density profile is significantly shallower than the PHOENIX/1D model, leading to the more extended blue absorption trough in the P-Cygni line profile.

#### 4.4. Velocity Extent

Although there are no indications of molecular or dust emission at this early phase, it is useful to know the velocity extent of the ejecta in order to constrain the emission radius for future dust. We have run several models in addition to the fiducial model to explore this. Unfortunately, simply extending the velocity extent without altering the density profile does not affect the predicted spectrum significantly enough to draw conclusions about whether the ejecta could extend to higher velocity. Figure 11 shows the fiducial model and a model with  $v_{\text{max}} = 12,250 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ .

## 5. Discussion

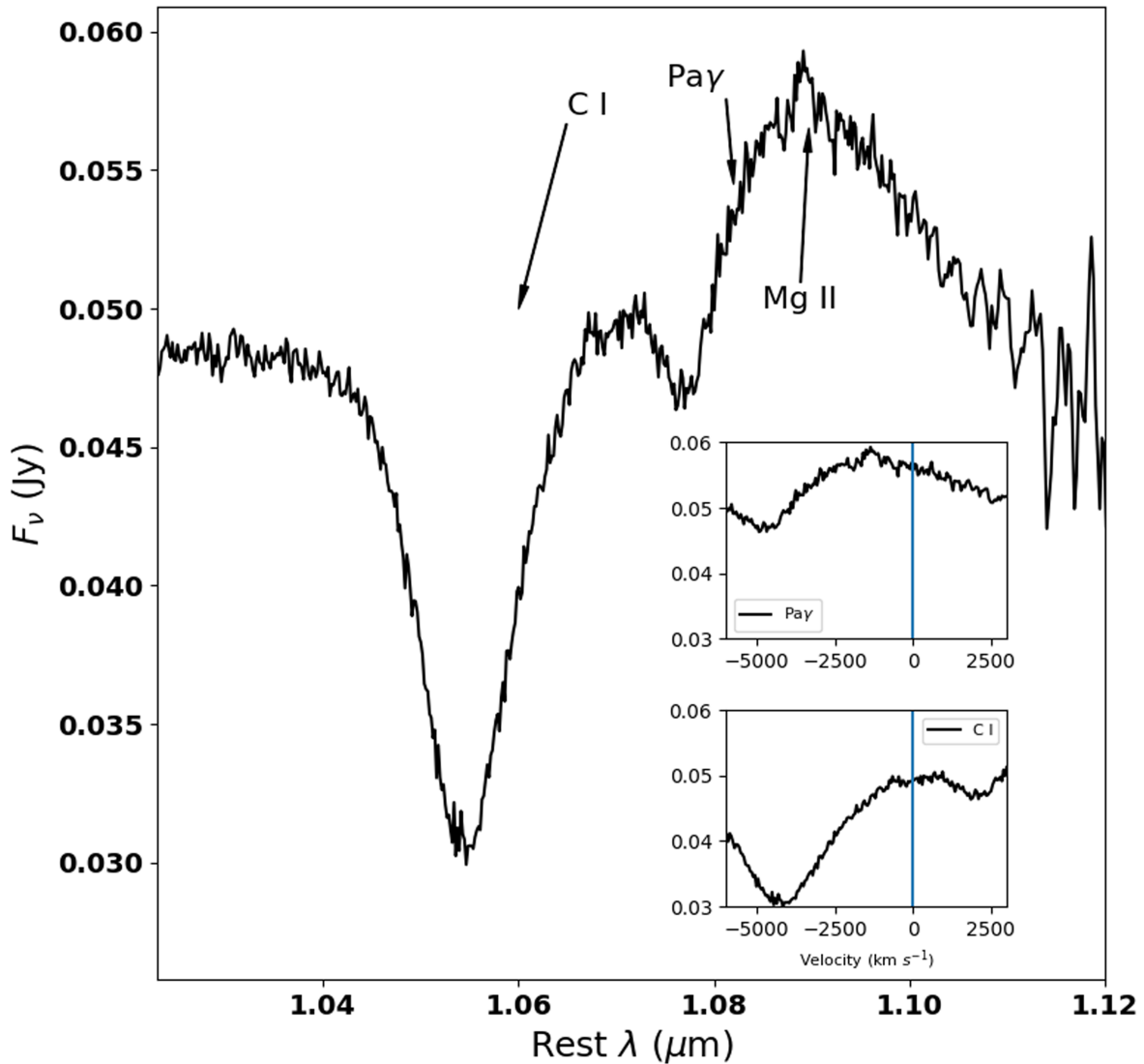
The observations and modeling show that, with the exception of the Ca IR triplet and the C I  $1.069 \mu\text{m}$  line, all the features in the NIR+MIR spectrum can be attributed to H I. Figure 12 shows the velocity extent of the  $\text{Pa}\gamma$  line (left) and the C I  $1.069 \mu\text{m}$  line (right). They both have roughly the same velocity ( $\sim 4800 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  for  $\text{Pa}\gamma$  and  $\sim 4300 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  for C I).



**Figure 11.** The fiducial model with  $v_{\max} = 5900 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  and a model with  $v_{\max} = 12,250 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ .

The “bump” on  $\text{Pa}\gamma$  at  $v \sim -1300 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  is interesting; as noted above, it is evident in a few other H I features. If the putative CI line were instead due to the He I  $1.083 \mu\text{m}$  line, it would have a velocity of  $7800 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ , and it would be difficult to reproduce the P-Cygni shape of the feature since the emission peak of He I would be blended with the emission peak of  $\text{Pa}\gamma$ , whereas the CI line has an emission peak at its rest wavelength, giving us confidence in the identification. Nevertheless, the  $\text{Pa}\gamma$  feature could be a blend of  $\text{Pa}\gamma$  and He I that can only be disentangled by detailed modeling. In a study of 30 SNe II, observed in the NIR, S. Davis et al. (2019) identify the emission component of  $\text{Pa}\gamma$  feature at 50 days as due to H I, He I, and the Sr II  $1.092 \mu\text{m}$  line, with the absorption primarily due to He I  $1.083 \mu\text{m}$ . Our model, as shown in Figures 7 and 8, finds that the observed feature is due

primarily to  $\text{Pa}\gamma$  in both the emission and absorption components of the P-Cygni feature, and at least in our model, there is no strong evidence for the He I  $1.083 \mu\text{m}$  line. However, Figure 7 clearly shows that there is an additional emission component that is not due to either H I or He I. We explored the possibility that the emission in the model was due to Sr II but found no evidence to support that. We determined that the model feature is due to the Mg II  $1.0926 \mu\text{m}$  transition (see Figure 13). Indeed, Figure 13 shows significant model contributions from Mg II at  $0.36376$ ,  $0.35521$ ,  $0.4432$ ,  $0.77899$ ,  $0.82316$ , and  $0.9226 \mu\text{m}$  transitions in addition to the  $1.0926 \mu\text{m}$  transition. Although the model attributes the feature to Mg II, a small bump also appears in the observed spectrum at the same velocity in several other H I features. This suggests that the observed line profiles might be partially influenced by another



**Figure 12.** A close-up of the P-Cygni features formed by  $\text{Pa}\gamma$  and the C I  $1.069 \mu\text{m}$  line (from the IRTF spectrum). Also indicated is the feature on the maximum of  $\text{Pa}\gamma$  that is almost certainly due to the Mg II  $1.0926 \mu\text{m}$  line (see Section 5). The insets show the velocity extent of the two P-Cygni lines.

effect. These results also show that SN 2024ggi would fall into the weak SN II class of S. Davis et al. (2019). However, S. Davis et al. (2019) find that weak SNe show an absorption feature that they ascribe to high-velocity He I. Since we see no strong evidence for the He I  $1.083 \mu\text{m}$  feature at this epoch, SN 2024ggi does not fit well into either of their classes.

The simple, untuned model does a relatively good job of fitting the strength and width of the lines, suggesting that most of the ejecta is reasonably well described by a power-law density profile, solar compositions, and a velocity extent  $v_{\text{max}} \lesssim 10,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ . This result is compatible with the value obtained by J. Zhang et al. (2024).

### 5.0.1. Ca–O

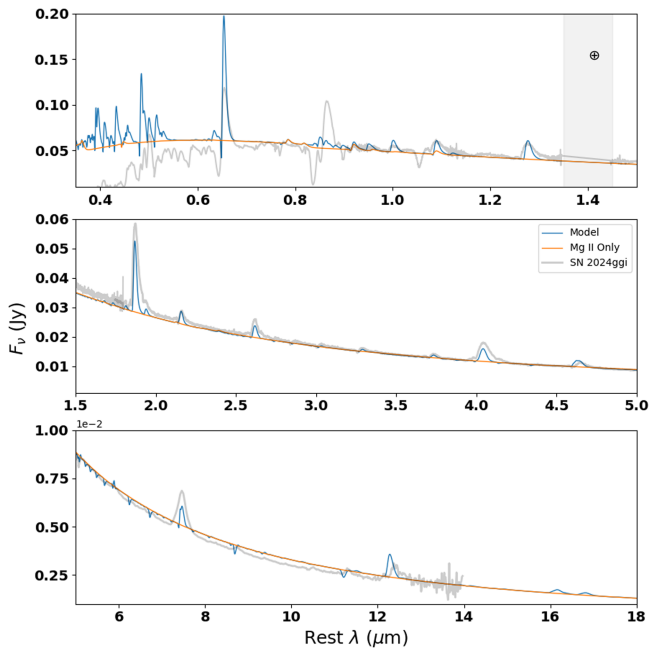
Our model does a poor job on the Ca IR triplet, producing a feature that is too weak and whose blueshifted absorption is too slow, likely because the line is just too weak in the model. However, the model does reproduce the observed separation between the triplet components. It appears likely that, rather than the IR triplet being due to unresolved photospheric and high-velocity components  $v_{\text{ph}} = 2100$  and  $v_{\text{HV}} = 7200 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ ,

the 8662 and 8498 components produce separate P-Cygni features with  $v = 4900$  and  $4400 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ , respectively. Even though this is not reproduced by our model (possibly due to clumping, J. Zhang et al. 2024), the velocity extent is reasonably well captured by our model. Our model also does not reproduce the O I  $7773.4 \text{ \AA}$  line; again, the line in the model is much weaker than in the observed spectrum. The model also fails to reproduce the Ca II lines that appear in the two observed spectra as two features that evolve with time.

Since the steep power-law density captures neither the extended velocity profiles in the optical nor the line blanketing, our low estimate of  $E_{\text{ejecta}} \sim 0.5 \text{ foe}$  is likely a lower limit to the true value of  $E_{\text{ejecta}}$ .

## 6. Conclusions

We present optical-to-MIR observations of SN 2024ggi obtained on the plateau at  $\sim 55$  days after first light. We produce a panchromatic SED from  $0.32$  to  $21 \mu\text{m}$ . Our data set includes ground-based optical and NIR spectra as well as both JWST NIRSpec and MIRI spectra and imaging. SN 2024ggi was the third SN II to be observed by JWST in the plateau



**Figure 13.** Same as Figure 7 but with all the line opacity except for that due to Mg II turned off.

phase after SN 2022acko and SN 2023ixf. The spectra of SN 2024ggi are consistent with a H recombination spectrum, where the features are primarily produced by H I lines. The NIR+MIR spectral features are broader and have higher velocities compared to the underluminous SN 2022acko. This is consistent with SN 2024ggi being a luminous SN II, likely with a more massive progenitor.

We present a PHOENIX model that is able to reproduce many of the observed spectral features. The model has a density profile with a power-law index of  $n = -13$ . The velocity extent of the model is rather narrow:  $v_{\text{phot}} = 3000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  and  $v_{\text{max}} = 5900 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ . The main discrepancy of the model occurs in the optical, particularly in the line profiles of  $\text{H}\alpha$ , O I  $\lambda 7773.4$ , and the Ca IR triplet; however, the inferred velocity of the IR triplet is within that of the fiducial model. Thus, it seems likely that clumping is required, perhaps in a cool dense shell in order to reproduce the Ca IR triplet line profile. While a SYNOW fit of  $\text{H}\alpha$  fits the blueshifted absorption, simple PHOENIX/1D models do not. It is beyond the scope of this work to fit the  $\text{H}\alpha$  profile with toy PHOENIX/1D models (see Appendix B), but it shows the power of panchromatic studies to validate or falsify detailed hydrodynamical models.

We see no evidence of preexisting molecules (CO or SiO) in the system of SN 2024ggi in these early phases. Furthermore, the PHOENIX/1D model does an excellent job of reproducing the continuum at  $21 \mu\text{m}$  (Figure 6), showing there is no evidence of warm or cold dust or excess flux in the MIR. Data we obtained at a later epoch, particularly SN 2024ggi from our JWST Director’s Discretionary (DD) programs DD-6677 and DD-6716 (C. Ashall et al. 2024a, 2024b), show clear evidence for CO emission (T. Evans 2025, in preparation). Future observations by JWST will reveal the formation processes of new molecules and potentially dust in the system, helping us to elucidate the origins of dust in the early Universe.

Overall, the panchromatic optical-to-MIR data sets of SNe II provide a powerful tool to investigate the physics of line formation, molecules, and dust in the ejecta. The close

proximity of SN 2024ggi offers a unique opportunity for continued monitoring throughout the lifetime of JWST. Future comparative studies with SN 2023ixf, which also has a direct progenitor detection and JWST data, will enable detailed and novel exploration of dust formation pathways and explosion physics in SNe II in a way not previously possible.

The data is available at MAST: doi:10.17909/50v0-my61.

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### Appendix A Log of JWST Spectral Observations

Table A1 shows the log of the JWST spectral observations.

**Table A1**  
Log of the JWST Spectral Observations

Parameter	Value
NIRSpec Spectral Observations	
Mode	Fixed Slit
$T_{\text{obs}}$ (MJD)	60466.465/60466.460
Phase (days)	55.52
Slit	S400A1
Subarray	SUBS400A1
Grating-Filter	G235M-F170LP/G395M-F290LP
Exp Time (s)	60.82/98.22
Groups per Integration	12/20
Integrations per Exp.	1/1
Total Dithers	3/3
Total Integrations	3/3
Readout Pattern	NRS
MIRI Spectral Observations	
Mode	LRS
$T_{\text{obs}}$ (MJD)	60466.439
Phase (days)	55.50
Groups per Integration	15
Integrations per Exp.	3
Exposures per Dither	1
Total Dithers	2
Total Exp Time (s)	260.85

## Appendix B

### H $\alpha$ Line Profile

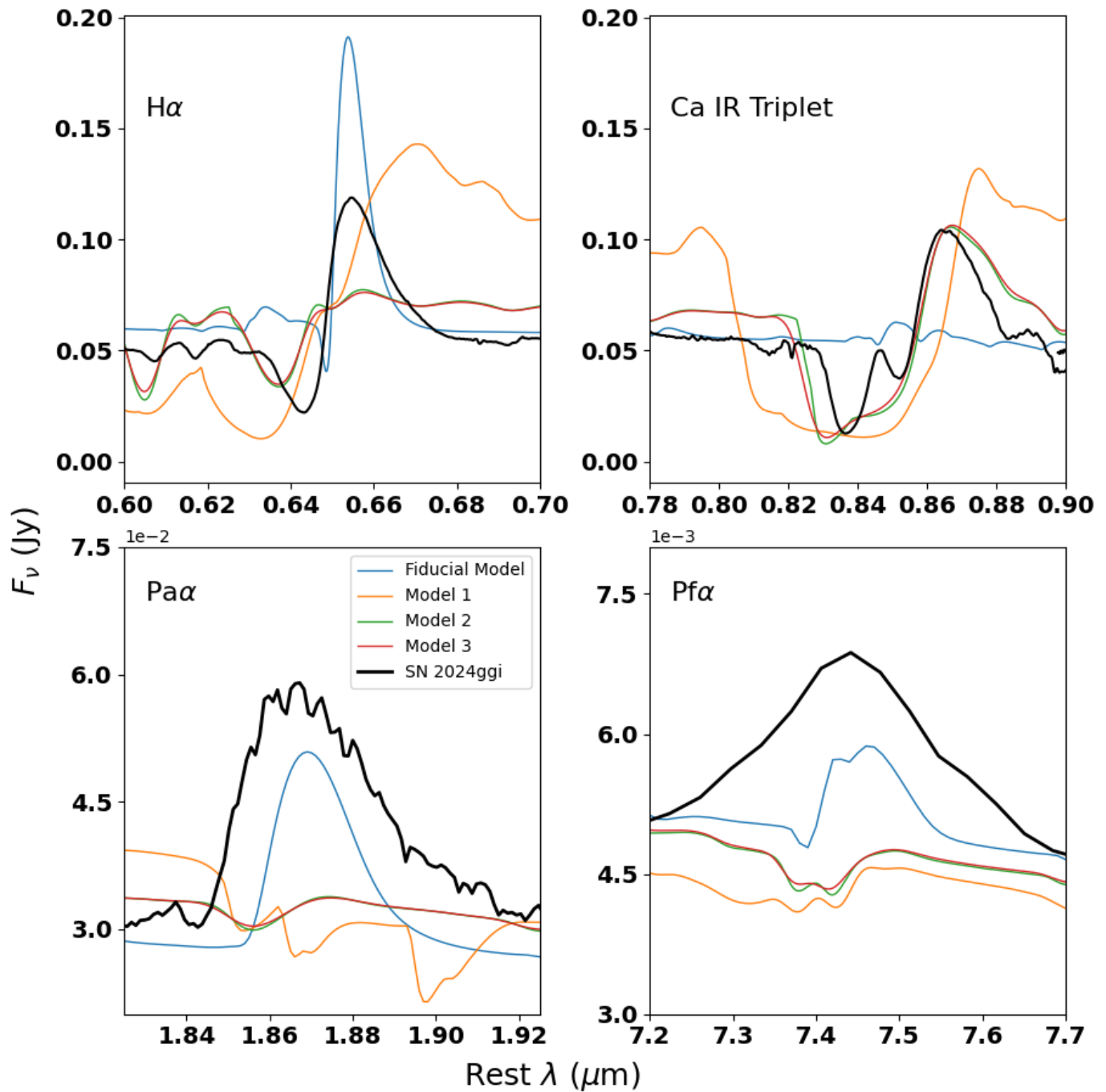
In order to probe the results found with the SYNOW fit to H $\alpha$  a bit further, we ran a few PHOENIX/1D models in LTE, not forcing convergence to radiative equilibrium. The point is just to illustrate the effects of the density profile on the velocity extent of the lines, not to produce a model that fits every feature from the optical to the MIR. The model parameters for

**Table B1**  
Parameters of the Comparison PHOENIX/1D Models

Model	NLTE	Density Profile	$v_0$ (km s $^{-1}$ )	$v_e$ (km s $^{-1}$ )	$v_{\text{max}}$ (km s $^{-1}$ )
Fiducial	Yes	$(v/v_0)^{-13}$	3000	...	5900
1	No	$\exp[-(v - v_0)/v_e]$	3500	2000	13000
2	No	$\exp[-(v - v_0)/v_e]$	3500	800	9800
3	No	$\exp[-(v - v_0)/v_e]$	3500	800	13500

the test models (1–3) and the fiducial model are given in Table B1. Figure B1 shows the line profiles of H $\alpha$ , the Ca IR triplet, Pa $\alpha$ , and Pf $\alpha$  for SN 2024ggi for the four models described in Table B1. None of the models does a great job of fitting the blueshifted absorption trough of H $\alpha$ ; Model 1 with the density profile inferred from the SYNOW calculation extends way too far to the blue, whereas the steeper-density profiles in Models 2 and 3 do a somewhat better job of reproducing the observed velocity extent. Only the fiducial model does a good job of reproducing the shape of the rest wavelength H $\alpha$  emission peak. Moving to the Ca IR triplet, all of the LTE models produce blueshifted absorption troughs that extend too far to the blue and show no separation among the components of the triplet, whereas that is evident in the data. The steeper-density Models 2 and 3 do a reasonable job of replicating the rest wavelength emission peak of the P-Cygni profile, while the fiducial model shows only a very weak Ca IR triplet. Moving to the NIR and MIR, the fiducial model does a much better job of reproducing both Pa $\alpha$  and Pf $\alpha$ .

While it is beyond the scope of this work to attempt to find “the model” of SN 2024ggi, it is clear that the fiducial model captures much of the line and continuum formation in the NIR and MIR but that there is more complexity needed to reproduce the optical features. This work does show the power of long multiwavelength spectroscopy and photometry to produce data that can validate or falsify detailed models.
























**Figure B1.** The line profiles of  $H\alpha$  (upper left panel), Ca IR triplet (upper right panel),  $Pa\alpha$  (lower left panel), and  $Pf\alpha$  (lower right panel). Models with more extended velocity profiles capture the velocity extent of the optical features but do a poorer job of reproducing the shape of the NIR and MIR features. The synthetic spectra have been scaled for clarity. See Appendix B for more details.

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