

Strong Supernova 1987A Constraints on Bosons Decaying to NeutrinosDamiano F. G. Fiorillo¹, Georg G. Raffelt², and Edoardo Vitagliano³¹*Niels Bohr International Academy, Niels Bohr Institute, University of Copenhagen, 2100 Copenhagen, Denmark*²*Max-Planck-Institut für Physik (Werner-Heisenberg-Institut), Föhringer Ring 6, 80805 München, Germany*³*Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of California, Los Angeles, California 90095-1547, USA* (Received 28 September 2022; revised 17 January 2023; accepted 21 June 2023; published 13 July 2023)

Majoron-like bosons would emerge from a supernova (SN) core by neutrino coalescence of the form $\nu\nu \rightarrow \phi$ and $\bar{\nu}\bar{\nu} \rightarrow \phi$ with 100-MeV-range energies. Subsequent decays to (anti)neutrinos of all flavors provide a flux component with energies much larger than the usual flux from the “neutrino sphere.” The absence of 100-MeV-range events in the Kamiokande-II and Irvine-Michigan-Brookhaven signal of SN 1987A implies that less than 1% of the total energy was thus emitted and provides the strongest constraint on the Majoron-neutrino coupling of $g \lesssim 10^{-9}$ MeV/ m_ϕ for $100 \text{ eV} \lesssim m_\phi \lesssim 100 \text{ MeV}$. It is straightforward to extend our new argument to other hypothetical feebly interacting particles.

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Introduction.—The hot, dense cores of collapsing stars are powerful test beds for novel feebly interacting particles (FIPs), such as sterile neutrinos, dark photons, new scalars, axions, axionlike particles, and many others [1–3], notably including “secret” neutrino-neutrino interactions [4–8]. In standard supernova (SN) theory, the trapped electron-lepton number (some 0.30 per baryon) and the gravitational binding energy (some 10% of the formed neutron star’s mass) are carried away by neutrinos on a timescale of a few seconds. The neutrino burst from the historical SN 1987A was observed in the Kamiokande-II [9–13] and Irvine-Michigan-Brookhaven (IMB) [14–16] water Cherenkov detectors and the Baksan underground scintillation telescope [17,18]. Despite sparse statistics and several anomalies, it has been taken to confirm the standard picture, leaving only limited room for energy loss in the form of FIPs.

If the FIPs interact so strongly that they are trapped themselves or decay before leaving the SN, they contribute to energy transfer [19] and may strongly affect overall SN physics and the explosion mechanism. A class of low-explosion-energy SNe provides particularly strong constraints on such scenarios [20]. FIPs on the trapping side of the SN-excluded regime are often constrained by other arguments, although allowed gaps may remain, such as the historical hadronic axion window or, more recently, the “cosmic triangle” for axionlike particles, both meanwhile closed.

Radiative decays en route to Earth and beyond provide strong limits using γ -ray observations from SN 1987A and the cosmic diffuse background [21–26]. Similar arguments pertain to kilonovae [27] and hypernovae [28].

In other cases, FIP decays include active neutrinos. In the free-streaming limit, FIPs escape from the inner SN core and so their decays provide 100-MeV-range events, much larger than the usual neutrino burst of few 10 MeV that emerges from the neutrino sphere at the edge of the SN core. The background of atmospheric muons has yet larger energies and so the new signal would stick out in a future SN neutrino observation. This argument was first advanced in Ref. [7] and offers an intriguing future detection opportunity.

Our main point is that, by the same token, SN 1987A already provides restrictive limits because the legacy data do not sport any events with such intermediate energies. This constraint, which is available today without the need to wait for the next galactic SN, is far more restrictive than the traditional energy-loss argument.

We illustrate our new argument with the simple case of nonstandard or secret neutrino-neutrino interactions [4–8], mediated by a (pseudo)scalar ϕ (mass m_ϕ) that we call Majoron and take to interact with all flavors with the same strength g . We consider $m_\phi \gtrsim 100 \text{ eV}$ so that neutrino masses and refractive matter potentials can be ignored. The lepton-number violating production channels $\bar{\nu}\bar{\nu} \rightarrow \phi$ and $\nu\nu \rightarrow \phi$ and corresponding decays yield the constraints previewed in Fig. 1.

The older Majoron literature [31–39] instead took the low-mass limit where neutrino coalescence $\bar{\nu}\bar{\nu} \rightarrow \phi$ and decay is enabled by the matter potential and, otherwise, second-order processes of the type $\nu\phi \rightarrow \nu\phi$ or $\bar{\nu}\bar{\nu} \rightarrow \phi\phi$ dominate. One may consult Fig. 9 of Ref. [6] for the landscape of constraints, including previous SN 1987A energy-loss limits in our mass range [4,5].

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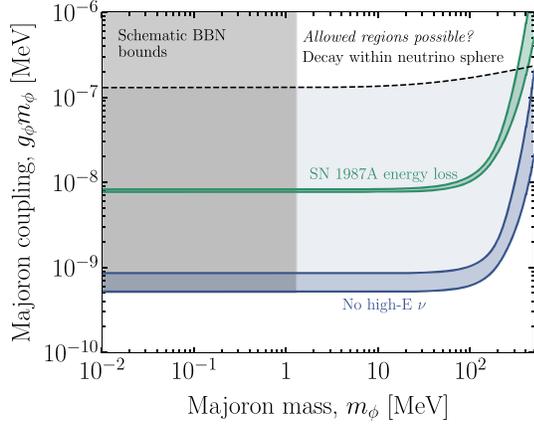


FIG. 1. Constraints on the Majoron coupling in the m_ϕ - $g_\phi m_\phi$ plane from SN 1987A energy loss (green) and the absence of 100-MeV-range (“high-E”) events (blue). The shaded range brackets the cold (upper curves) vs hot (lower curves) SN models, i.e., the Garching muonic models SFHo-18.8 and LS220-s20.0 [29]. Above the dashed line, Majorons with a reference kinetic energy of 110-MeV decay before leaving the SN core. The “ceiling” of the energy-loss bound is probably outside this figure, but we are not confident about its exact location. The schematic big bang nucleosynthesis (BBN) bounds are taken from Fig. 1 of Ref. [30], based on the cosmic radiation density. Somewhat more restrictive limits may follow from the cosmic microwave background (CMB) (see text).

Majoron decay and production.—A universal ν - ν interaction by Majoron exchange is given by [39]

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{int}} = -\frac{g}{2} \psi_\nu^T \sigma_2 \psi_\nu \phi + \text{H.c.}, \quad (1)$$

where ψ_ν is a two-component Majorana field and g is a real number. In the relativistic limit, we refer to the Majorana helicity states as ν and $\bar{\nu}$ in the usual sense.

The decay into pairs of relativistic neutrinos requires equal helicities, implying the lepton-number violating channels $\phi \rightarrow \nu\nu$ or $\bar{\nu}\bar{\nu}$. Each individual rate is

$$\Gamma_{\phi \rightarrow \nu\nu} = \frac{g^2 m_\phi}{32\pi}, \quad (2)$$

which includes a symmetry factor 1/2 for identical final-state particles. (We always use natural units with $\hbar = c = k_B = 1$.) The total rate requires a factor of 6 for six species [40]. For a relativistic Majoron, this rate is slower by the Lorentz factor m_ϕ/E_ϕ , implying that the laboratory decay rate depends only on the combination gm_ϕ .

The requirement that Majorons with $E_\phi = 100$ MeV decay beyond the neutrino-sphere radius of 20 km thus implies $gm_\phi \lesssim 10^{-7}$ MeV, shown as a dashed line in Fig. 1. On the other hand, the decay neutrinos should not be delayed by more than a few seconds. The requirement $\Gamma^{-1} \lesssim 1$ s implies $gm_\phi \gtrsim 1 \times 10^{-9}$ MeV for $E_\phi = 100$ MeV. The

time-of-flight difference is much smaller for relativistic Majorons, so for the constraints shown in Fig. 1 the signals are indeed contemporaneous, although somewhat marginally for m_ϕ around 100 MeV.

The neutrino decay spectrum is flat between $E_\pm = \frac{1}{2}(E_\phi \pm p_\phi)$ with $p_\phi = (E_\phi^2 - m_\phi^2)^{1/2}$. In a neutrino gas of one species α , occupation number $f_\alpha(E_\nu)$, the spectral Majoron emission rate from $\nu_\alpha \nu_\alpha$ coalescence then is

$$\left. \frac{d\dot{N}_\phi^{(\alpha)}}{dE_\phi} \right|_{E_\phi} = \frac{g^2 m_\phi^2}{64\pi^3} \int_{E_-}^{E_+} dE_\nu f_\alpha(E_\nu) f_\alpha(E_\phi - E_\nu). \quad (3)$$

For local thermal equilibrium with temperature T and neutrino chemical potential μ_α , the corresponding Fermi-Dirac distribution is $f_\alpha(E_\nu) = [e^{(E_\nu - \mu_\alpha)/T} + 1]^{-1}$. The chemical potential for a flavor ν_ℓ enters with opposite sign, depending on α denoting a ν or $\bar{\nu}$. Notice that the lepton-number violation caused by the ϕ interaction implies $\mu_\nu = 0$ in true equilibrium.

All Majorons decay close to the SN equally into all six neutrino species with a flat spectrum. Therefore, the effective single-species spectral neutrino emission rate is

$$\left. \frac{d\dot{N}_\alpha}{dE_\nu} \right|_{E_\nu} = \frac{2}{6} \int_{E_{\text{min}}}^{\infty} \frac{dE_\phi}{p_\phi} \sum_{\beta=1}^6 \left. \frac{d\dot{N}_\phi^{(\beta)}}{dE_\phi} \right|_{E_\phi}. \quad (4)$$

The minimal E_ϕ to produce a neutrino of energy E_ν is $E_{\text{min}} = E_\nu + m_\phi^2/4E_\nu$. The first factor of 2 is for two neutrinos per decay, whereas 1/6 appears because this is the rate into one of six species.

One-zone SN model.—For a first estimate, we use a one-zone model of the collapsed SN core with a chemical potential $\mu_\nu = 100$ MeV for ν_e and vanishing for the other flavors, volume $(4\pi/3)R^3$ with $R = 10$ km for the emitting region, and duration for substantial deleptonization of $\tau = 1$ s [41]. After collapse, the SN core is cold ($T \simeq 10$ MeV) and heats up from outside in as the material deleptonizes. Majoron emission is thus from the coalescence of $\nu_e \nu_e$ alone, which we take as perfectly degenerate. (In contrast, novel particle emission usually becomes large only after the SN core has heated up at around 1 s after collapse [24].)

For $m_\phi = 0$, the integral in Eq. (3) is a “triangle function” that rises linearly to the value μ_ν at $E_\phi = \mu_\nu$ and then decreases linearly to zero at $E_\phi = 2\mu_\nu$. The energy-loss rate per unit volume is $Q_\phi = (gm_\phi)^2 \mu_\nu^3 / 64\pi^3$. Comparing $L_\phi = Q_\phi (4\pi/3)R^3$ with $L_\nu \simeq 2 \times 10^{52}$ erg/s as recommended by a simple recipe [2] implies $gm_\phi \lesssim 4\pi \sqrt{3L_\nu/R^3 \mu_\nu^3} = 5.5 \times 10^{-9}$ MeV.

Likewise, the effective ν_α production rate per unit volume is $\dot{N}_\alpha = (g^2 m_\phi^2 / 64\pi^3) \mu_\nu^2 / 3$ and therefore the total emitted number is $N_\alpha = \dot{N}_\alpha (4\pi/3)R^3 \tau$. The fluence at Earth is $N_\alpha / (4\pi d_{\text{SN}}^2)$ where $d_{\text{SN}} = 49.6$ kpc is the distance

to SN 1987A [66]. The largest detector was IMB with a fiducial mass of 6.8 kton [15] and thus $N_p = 4.5 \times 10^{32}$ fiducial protons. The detection cross section is very roughly $\sigma \simeq \bar{\sigma} E_\nu^2$ with $\bar{\sigma} \simeq 10^{-43} \text{ cm}^2/\text{MeV}^2$ and $\langle E_\nu^2 \rangle = 7\mu_\nu^2/18$. The total number of 100-MeV-range events therefore is $N_{e^+} = \sigma N_p N_\alpha / 4\pi d_{\text{SN}}^2$ and the requirement $N_{e^+} \lesssim 1$ implies $gm_\phi \lesssim 72(2d_{\text{SN}}^2 \pi^3 / 7N_p R^3 \mu_\nu^4 \bar{\sigma} \tau)^{1/2} = 1 \times 10^{-9} \text{ MeV}$.

Numerical SN models.—This constraint is much more restrictive than from energy loss, motivating a detailed study. To this end, we use the Garching 1D models SFHo-18.8 and LS220-s20.0 that were evolved with the PROMETHEUS VERTEX code with six-species neutrino transport [67]. These muonic models were recently also used for other particle constraints [24,29]. With different final neutron-star masses and different equations of state, these models were taken to span the extremes of a cold and a hot case, reaching internal T of around 40 vs 60 MeV. On the other hand, the initial μ_ν profiles are much more similar, in both cases around 150 MeV in the center and a “lepton core” reaching up to around 10 km. The lepton number of the outer core layers is released within a few milliseconds after core bounce in the form of the prompt ν_e burst. More details about these models are provided in the Supplemental Material [42].

SN neutrinos follow a quasithermal spectrum that can be represented by a Gamma distribution [68–70]. We thus write the time-integrated spectrum in the form

$$\frac{dN_{\bar{\nu}_e}}{dE_\nu} = \frac{E_{\text{tot}} (1 + \alpha)^{1+\alpha}}{6E_0^2 \Gamma(1 + \alpha)} \left(\frac{E_\nu}{E_0}\right)^\alpha e^{-(1+\alpha)E_\nu/E_0}, \quad (5)$$

where E_{tot} is the total SN energy release, E_0 is the average $\bar{\nu}_e$ energy, α is a parameter that would be 2 for a Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution, and Γ is the Gamma function, not to be confused with a Gamma distribution. The factor 1/6 represents assumed flavor equipartition. The parameters are chosen such that E_{tot} , $E_0 = \langle E_\nu \rangle$, and $\langle E_\nu^2 \rangle$ agree with the numerical spectrum.

The cold model releases $E_{\text{tot}} = 1.98 \times 10^{53} \text{ erg}$. The exact impact of flavor oscillations on SN neutrinos is not yet fully understood. Averaging over all three $\bar{\nu}$ flavors, we find $E_0 = 12.7 \text{ MeV}$ and $\alpha = 2.39$. For the hot model, these parameters are $E_{\text{tot}} = 3.93 \times 10^{53} \text{ erg}$, $E_0 = 14.3 \text{ MeV}$, and $\alpha = 2.07$.

SN 1987A cooling limit.—The local Majoron energy loss follows from Eq. (3), which we correct for gravitational redshift through the tabulated lapse factors as described in Ref. [24]. In the cold model, we find a Majoron luminosity at 1 s postbounce of $L_\phi(1 \text{ s}) = (gm_{\text{MeV}})^2 6.46 \times 10^{68} \text{ erg/s}$, where $m_{\text{MeV}} = m_\phi/\text{MeV}$. According to the traditional SN 1987A cooling argument [2,24,71], we compare it with $L_\nu(1 \text{ s}) = 4.40 \times 10^{52} \text{ erg/s}$, leading to $gm_\phi < 0.83 \times 10^{-8} \text{ MeV}$ shown in Fig. 1. For larger masses, we include a cutoff for those Majorons that are produced with insufficient energy to escape the gravitational potential as

explained in the Supplemental Material of Ref. [20]. The total emission is $E_\phi^{\text{tot}} = (gm_{\text{MeV}})^2 1.94 \times 10^{69} \text{ erg}$ and nominally $E_\nu^{\text{tot}} = E_\phi^{\text{tot}}$ for $gm_\phi = 0.99 \times 10^{-8} \text{ MeV}$, practically identical to the luminosity comparison at 1 s.

For the hot model, we find $L_\phi(1 \text{ s}) = (gm_{\text{MeV}})^2 1.39 \times 10^{69} \text{ erg/s}$, to be compared with $L_\nu(1 \text{ s}) = 8.29 \times 10^{52} \text{ erg/s}$, leading to $gm_\phi < 0.77 \times 10^{-8} \text{ MeV}$. Moreover, $E_\phi^{\text{tot}} = (gm_{\text{MeV}})^2 4.39 \times 10^{69} \text{ erg}$ and $E_\nu^{\text{tot}} = E_\phi^{\text{tot}}$ for $gm_\phi = 0.93 \times 10^{-8} \text{ MeV}$. As seen from these numbers and Fig. 1, the constraints are very insensitive to the specific SN model and similar to the one-zone estimate.

Neutrino detection.—The main SN 1987A neutrino observations came from the water Cherenkov detectors Kamiokande-II (2.14 kton) [9–11] and IMB (6.8 kton) [14–16]. They observed events with energies up to 40 MeV via inverse beta decay $\bar{\nu}_e + p \rightarrow e^+ + n$, whereas elastic scattering on electrons is small (but dominates for solar ν_e detection). For our 100-MeV-range energies, charged current (CC) reactions on oxygen of the form $\bar{\nu}_e + \text{O} \rightarrow e^+ + X$ and $\nu_e + \text{O} \rightarrow e^- + Y$, with X and Y excited final-state nuclei, dominate for $E_\nu \gtrsim 70 \text{ MeV}$. For energies above the muon production threshold ($m_\mu = 105.7 \text{ MeV}$), the corresponding muonic CC processes also happen, especially of course for atmospheric neutrinos at yet larger energies. Muons quickly come to rest by ionization and produce “Michel e^\pm ” with a characteristic spectrum ending at 53 MeV, half the muon mass. Below the muon Cherenkov threshold of about 160 MeV, they are termed “invisible muons.” (For more details about these processes, see the Supplemental Material [42].)

Figure 2 shows the spectral fluence (time-integrated flux) for the standard SN neutrinos from the cold model, averaged

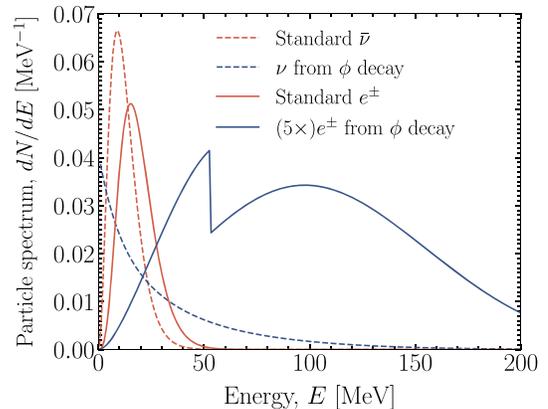


FIG. 2. Normalized particle spectra from the time-integrated emission of the cold model SFHo-18.8. “Standard $\bar{\nu}$ ” is the flavor average of the usual SN $\bar{\nu}$ and “Standard e^\pm ” is the corresponding e^\pm spectrum in the detector (ignoring detection efficiencies), whereas the new contributions are marked “from ϕ decay.” They include Michel e^\pm (end point 53 MeV) from μ^\pm decays at rest, which themselves emerge from CC interactions of ν_μ and $\bar{\nu}_\mu$ that come from ϕ decay.

over $\bar{\nu}_e$, $\bar{\nu}_\mu$, and $\bar{\nu}_\tau$. The energy-integrated fluence is $5.10 \times 10^9 \text{ cm}^{-2}$ for one species. We also show the corresponding e^\pm spectrum in the detector; the total event number is 5.07 per kton (for 100% detection efficiency). Next we show the ν spectrum from ϕ decay, which is the same in every species; the total fluence in one species is $(gm_{\text{MeV}})^2 1.90 \times 10^{25} \text{ cm}^{-2}$. The e^\pm event number times $(gm_{\text{MeV}})^2/\text{kton}$ is 3.62×10^{17} , produced by $\bar{\nu}_e$ and ν_e in CC reactions and 0.37×10^{17} from Michel e^\pm ($E \lesssim 53 \text{ MeV}$) caused by invisible muons, and a total of 3.99×10^{17} .

Above the muon Cherenkov threshold of 160 MeV, and assuming the same detection efficiency as for e^\pm , visible μ^\pm contribute another 11% to the total events. After each such event, the IMB detector would be blind by trigger dead time, so we should not include the subsequent Michel events. However, even for μ^\pm themselves, the Cherenkov threshold behavior and the detection efficiency are not available. Therefore, we do not include visible muons, making our Majoron bounds more conservative by some 5%.

A single event with 100% detection efficiency in IMB thus requires $gm_\phi = 6.06 \times 10^{-10} \text{ MeV}$. For the hot model, the corresponding result is $gm_\phi = 3.71 \times 10^{-10} \text{ MeV}$, both smaller than the estimate from the one-zone model, where we underestimated the cross section. Once more, the exact SN model is not crucial and we essentially find the limits shown in Fig. 1.

Analysis of SN 1987A data.—We now turn to a detailed analysis of the Kamiokande-II and IMB data. We summarize several details in the Supplemental Material [42] and here only remark that event information was recorded depending on a hardware trigger. In an off-line analysis, one searched for low-energy few-second event clusters. “Low energy” was defined in Kamiokande-II as less than 170 photoelectrons in the inner detector or $E_e \lesssim 50 \text{ MeV}$ [9–11], whereas IMB used maximally 100 photomultiplier tubes firing or $E_e \lesssim 75 \text{ MeV}$ [14–16]. However, as discussed in the Supplemental Material [42], we can conclude that no high-energy events were actually observed even above these thresholds during the SN 1987A burst.

The events from ϕ decay overlap with the standard SN signal, so one should perform a maximum likelihood analysis with g and m_ϕ as fit parameters. However, the standard SN signal depends on the chosen SN model. For example, our cold (hot) model (using the average $\bar{\nu}_e - \bar{\nu}_\mu - \bar{\nu}_\tau$ spectrum) would have produced 9.12 (21.3) events in Kamiokande-II with average detected electron energy of 20.1 (22.6) MeV, to be compared with the actually observed 12 events with 14.7 MeV average energy. In IMB, they would have produced 3.49 (12.5) events on average with 31.3 (34.4) MeV, to be compared with 8 events with 31.9 MeV average. Neither of these models fits the data well and the Kamiokande-II and IMB data are themselves in tension with each other, although in terms of the $E_{\text{tot}}-E_0-\alpha$ parameters one finds credible overlapping values [72,73].

We do not have a suite of SN models that would allow us to find the one that best fits the SN 1987A data. Instead we represent the signal in the form of Eq. (5) and use an unbinned likelihood for the energies of the events in each detector, as defined in the Supplemental Material [42]. First, we verify that the maximum of the likelihood for both experiments is at $g = 0$, i.e., neither of them prefers the new signal. Next, we marginalize the combined likelihood by maximizing it for each value of g and m_ϕ over E_0 and E_{tot} . This guarantees our constraints to be conservative, because for each choice of the Majoron parameters we choose the SN neutrino spectral shape as the one that maximizes the agreement with the data. We then follow the procedure outlined in Ref. [74] to set upper bounds on the Majoron coupling for each value of the Majoron mass; more details on our statistical procedure are given in the Supplemental Material [42]. We show the corresponding constraints, dominated by the IMB data, in Fig. 1.

Discussion and outlook.—We have considered FIPs that escape from the inner SN core and later decay into active neutrinos. Our main result is that the lack of 100-MeV-range events in the SN 1987A data provides surprisingly restrictive constraints. Specifically, the energy loss by $\nu\nu \rightarrow \phi$ Majoron emission must be less than 1% of the total binding energy, much more restrictive than the usual SN 1987A cooling limit.

Moreover, our new bound depends mainly on emission during the first second and not on the sparse late-time events or the predicted cooling speed that depends, e.g., on PNS convection. Our result is also insensitive to a concern that the SN 1987A neutron star has not yet been found (see, however, [75,76]) and that the late events could have been caused by black-hole accretion [77]. (See, however, [29] for a rebuttal of this scenario.)

Our limit implies that the impact on SN physics and the explosion mechanism is small. However, our discussion leaves open what happens for much stronger couplings when Majorons do not freely escape. The SN core could deleptonize already during infall, perhaps preventing a successful explosion. On the other hand, a thermal bounce may still occur [35,78]. If the interactions are yet stronger, neutrinos and Majorons form a viscous fluid that is more strongly coupled to itself than to the nuclear medium. This peculiar case was recently examined [8]; the SN 1987A signal may exclude a certain range of parameters beyond the upper edge of Fig. 1.

For $m_\phi \lesssim 1 \text{ MeV}$, the cosmic radiation density measured by BBN provides comparable bounds (Fig. 1 of Ref. [30], see also Refs. [79–81]), and those from the CMB may be more restrictive, but the exact reach in mass and coupling strength was not directly provided. Having different systematic issues, the cosmological and SN 1987A arguments are nicely complementary for $m_\phi \lesssim 1 \text{ MeV}$, whereas the SN 1987A sensitivity is unique for larger m_ϕ .

Our method can be applied to any class of FIPs decaying to neutrinos. Examples include heavy neutral leptons [82,83] and gauge bosons arising from new symmetries like $U(1)_{L_\mu-L_\tau}$ [84,85], which can be further constrained relative to the existing bounds from energy loss [86,87]. Notice also that bosons coupling *exclusively* to neutrinos have different production rates if the coalescence process is lepton-number conserving ($\nu\bar{\nu} \rightarrow \phi$) or violating ($\nu\nu \rightarrow \phi$) because, in the PNS core, the neutrino and antineutrino distributions differ.

At present it remains open if there exist allowed Majoron parameters somewhere in the trapping regime, a question left for future study. Couplings below our limit leave open the exciting possibility of a detection in the neutrino signal of a future galactic SN [7] that would reveal FIP emission from the inner SN core.

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Note added.—Recently, our new argument was used to constrain the heavy-lepton model of Ref. [88].

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