THE AFTERGLOW, ENERGETICS AND HOST GALAXY OF THE SHORT-HARD GAMMA-RAY BURST 051221A

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ABSTRACT

We present detailed optical, X-ray and radio observations of the bright afterglow of the short gamma-ray burst 051221a obtained with Gemini, Swift/XRT, and the Very Large Array, as well as optical spectra from which we measure the redshift of the burst, \( z = 0.5464 \). At this redshift the isotropic-equivalent prompt energy release was about \( 1.5 \times 10^{51} \) erg, and using the standard afterglow synchrotron model we find that the blastwave kinetic energy is similar, \( E_{K,\text{iso}} \approx 8.4 \times 10^{51} \) erg. An observed jet break at \( t \approx 5 \) days indicates that the opening angle is \( \theta_j \approx 7^\circ \) and the total beaming-corrected energy is therefore \( \approx 2.5 \times 10^{49} \) erg, comparable to the values inferred for previous short GRBs. We further show that the burst experienced an episode of energy injection by a factor of 3.4 between \( t = 1.4 \) and 3.4 hours, which was accompanied by reverse shock emission in the radio band. This result provides continued evidence that the central engines of short GRBs may be active significantly longer than the duration of the burst and/or produce a wide range of Lorentz factors. Finally, we show that the host galaxy of GRB051221a is actively forming stars at a rate of about 1.6 \( M_\odot \) yr\(^{-1} \), but at the same time exhibits evidence for an appreciable population of old stars (\( \sim 1 \) Gyr) and near solar metallicity. These properties are intermediate between those of long GRB hosts and those of previous short bursts suggesting that the progenitor lifetimes may have a large spread. The lack of bright supernova emission and the low circumburst density (\( n \approx 10^{-3} \) cm\(^{-3} \)), however, continue to support the idea that short bursts are not related to the death of massive stars and are instead consistent with a compact object merger. Given that the total energy release is a factor of \( \sim 10 \) larger than the predicted yield for a neutrino annihilation mechanism, this suggests that magnetohydrodynamic processes may be required to power the burst.

Subject headings: gamma-ray bursts: specific (GRB 051221a)

1. INTRODUCTION

Following over a decade of speculation about the nature of the short-duration hard-spectrum gamma-ray bursts (GRBs), the recent discovery of afterglow emission from these bursts provided the first physical constraints on possible progenitor models. We now know that short GRBs occur at cosmological distances, \( z \gtrsim 0.1 \), have energy releases of about \( 10^{49} \) erg when corrected for relatively wide opening angles of \( \sim 10^\circ \), are associated with both star-forming and elliptical galaxies, and are not associated with bright supernovae (Barthelmy et al. 2005; Berger et al. 2005; Bloom et al. 2006; Fox et al. 2005; Gehrels et al. 2005; Hjorth et al. 2005a,b; Villasenor et al. 2005). These properties indicate that short GRBs are associated with an old stellar population, and are broadly consistent with expectations of the popular neutron star (NS) and/or black hole (BH) coalescence models (e.g., Eichler et al. 1989; Narayan, Paczynski & Piran 1992; Katz & Canel 1996; Rosswog & Ramirez-Ruiz 2002; Aloy, Janka & Müller 2005).

On the other hand, some of the afterglow observations, in particular the detection of soft X-ray tails and X-ray flares on a timescale \( \gtrsim 10^2 \) s (Barthelmy et al. 2005; Villasenor et al. 2005), cannot be easily explained in the coalescence scenario. These observations raise the possibility that short GRBs may have different or multiple progenitors systems (e.g., accretion-induced collapse of a neutron star; MacFadyen, Ramirez-Ruiz & Zhang 2005),

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or that some key physical processes in the energy extraction mechanism or accretion disk hydrodynamics remain unaccounted for in the simple models (Perna, Armitage & Zhang 2006). Secondary indicators such as the redshift and luminosity distributions have also been used to argue against the coalescence model (Nakar, Gal-Yam & Fox 2006, but see Guetta & Piran 2005), but these rely on a very limited sample of events (≤ 4 with reasonably robust redshifts) and strong constraints are likely premature.

In the absence of direct evidence for or against the coalescence model from the detection of gravitational waves (e.g., Cutler & Thorne 2002), or a mildly relativistic outflow (Li & Paczyński 1998; Kulkarni 2005), progress in our understanding of the nature and diversity of the progenitor systems and the underlying physics requires a much larger statistical sample than the current data set of two short GRBs with secure redshifts (050709 and 050724) and two with putative redshifts (050509b and 050813). In addition, only GRBs 050709 and 050724 have broad-band afterglow coverage which allowed a determination of the energy release and circumburst density, and provided evidence for ejecta collimation (Berger et al. 2005; Fox et al. 2005; Panaitescu 2006). With a larger sample of well-studied short GRBs we can begin to address the properties of the progenitor systems and the GRB mechanism through a census of the energy release, the jet opening angles, the density of the circumburst environment, and the relative fraction of short GRBs in star-forming and elliptical galaxies.

In this vein, we present in this paper detailed optical, X-ray and radio observations of the bright GRB051221a, which we localize to a star-forming galaxy at z = 0.5464. We show from the evolution of the various light curves and from modeling of the broad-band afterglow data that the beaming-corrected energy release of this burst is comparable to those of previous short-hard bursts. In addition, we find that the circumburst density is low indicating that the progenitor system is unlikely to reside in a star forming region. Finally, we show that the GRB experienced an episode of significant energy injection, which was accompanied by reverse shock emission in the radio band. This, along with an energy release exceeding 10^{49} erg, suggests that the energy extraction mechanism leads to a complex ejecta structure and is possibly driven by MHD processes rather than neutrino anti-neutrino annihilation.

2. OBSERVATIONS

GRB 051221a was discovered by the Swift Burst Alert Telescope (BAT) on 2005 December 21.0773 UT (Parsons et al. 2005) and localized to a 0.8′ radius error circle centered on α = 21^h 54^m 50.7^s, δ = 16°53′31.9″ (J2000; Cummings et al. 2005). The burst was also observed by the Suzaku Wideband All-sky Monitor (WAM; Endo et al. 2005) and by Konus-Wind (Golenetskii et al. 2005). The gamma-ray light-curve is characterized by an initial hard pulse (FWHM ~ 0.25 s) composed of several separate pulses (FWHM ~ 15 ms) followed by a softer emission component lasting ~ 1 s (Norris et al. 2005; Endo et al. 2005; Golenetskii et al. 2005). The total duration of the burst is T_{90} ≈ 1.4 ± 0.2 sec with a peak energy, E_p ≈ 400 ± 80 keV (Cummings et al. 2005; Golenetskii et al. 2005). The short duration and high E_p indicate that GRB 051221a is a classical short burst. The Konus-Wind gamma-ray fluence is F_γ = 3.2^{+0.1}_{-0.7} × 10^{-6} erg cm^{-2} (20 keV - 2 MeV; Golenetskii et al. 2005).

Starting at t ≈ 92 sec the X-ray Telescope (XRT) onboard Swift detected a fading source at α = 21^h 54^m 48.71^s, δ = 16°53′28.2″ (J2000) with a 90% containment error radius of 3.5″ (Burrows et al. 2006). A near-infrared (NIR) object was identified within the XRT error circle although it showed no evidence for fading between t ≈ 1.19 and 1.38 hr after the burst (Bloom 2005b,a).

2.1. Optical Observations

We began observations of GRB 051221a in the r′-band using the Gemini Multi-Object Spectrograph (GMOS) on the Gemini-north 8-m telescope about 2.8 hr after the burst and detected a bright optical source coincident with the NIR object (Figure 1). A comparison of the first and last exposures in the observation (227 and 271 min after the burst) revealed that the source has faded indicating that it is the optical afterglow of GRB 051221a. Astrometry was performed relative to USNO-B using 60 sources in common between our summed image and the catalog resulting in an rms positional uncertainty of 0.18″ in each coordinate. The position of the afterglow is α = 21^h 54^m 48.63^s, δ = +16° 53′ 27.4″ (J2000).

We continued to monitor the afterglow in the r′, i′, z′ bands for a period of about nine days. A log of all Gemini observations is provided in Table 1. All observations were reduced using the standard gmos package in IRAF.

To study the afterglow variability and remove the contribution from the bright host galaxy, we used the ISIS subtraction routine by Alard (2000) which accounts for temporal variations in the stellar PSF. Adopting the final epoch observations in each filter as templates we produced residual images (Figure 2). Photometry was performed on the afterglow emission in each residual image. To estimate the error introduced by the subtraction procedure, we used IRAF/mkobject to insert fake stars of comparable brightness to the afterglow at random positions on each image. The images were then subtracted and the false stellar residuals were photometered in the same manner as the afterglow residual. We adopt the standard deviation of the false residual magnitudes as an estimate for the error introduced by the subtraction procedure. This error is negligible for all observations before t ∼ 3 days and is about 0.2 magnitudes for subsequent observations.

For the later epochs in which the afterglow is not detected in our residual images we estimate our detection threshold by performing photometry in blank apertures placed at random positions in the residual images. We use the standard deviation of the resulting photometry to estimate the limit (5σ) to which we could reliably recover faint sources. Field calibration was performed for the r′-band images using a GMOS observation of the standard star SA92-250 in photometric conditions on 2005 Dec 30 UT. To calibrate the i′- (z′)-band fields we used 25 (26) isolated, unsaturated stars in common with the USNO-B catalog and converted them to the SDSS photometric system according to
bursts (Fox et al. 2005), the prompt energy release of GRB051221a is a factor of $\sim 6 - 35$ times higher.

2.3. X-ray Observations

The X-ray afterglow of GRB051221a was monitored with XRT from $t \approx 92$ s to about 11 days after the burst. We retrieved the XRT data from the HEASARC archive\footnote{http://heasarc.gsfc.nasa.gov/W3Browse/} and performed the reduction with the xrtpipeline script packaged within the HEAsoft software. We used the default grade selections and screening parameters to produce light-curves for the $0.3 - 10$ keV energy range. Data were re-binned using lcurve to produce the final afterglow light-curve (Figure 5 and Table 3). During the first $\sim 17$ hr, the afterglow spectrum is well fit by a power-law with a redshift $\beta_X \approx -1.0 \pm 0.2$ ($F_{\nu,X} \propto \nu^{\beta_X}$), absorbed by a neutral hydrogen column density $N_H \approx 1.6 \times 10^{21}$ cm$^{-2}$. This value is somewhat larger than that inferred from the Galactic extinction assuming the standard conversion of Predehl & Schmitt (1995). These parameters are consistent with the analysis by Burrows et al. (2006).

We use the spectral parameters derived above to calibrate the light-curve; we find a conversion rate of 1 $\text{cts} = 5.27 \times 10^{-11}$ erg cm$^{-2}$ s$^{-2}$ (0.3–10 keV). We find that the afterglow flux at $t = 10$ hrs is $F_X \approx 7.5 \times 10^{-13}$ erg cm$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ which translates to a luminosity of $L_{X,10} \approx 5.6 \times 10^{44}$ erg s$^{-1}$. This value is one to two orders of magnitude higher than for previous short bursts (Fox et al. 2005) and is in the range typical of the long-duration events (Berger, Kulkarni & Frail 2003). Our analysis of the full XRT dataset between $t \approx 92$ sec and 11 days shows that the evolution of the X-ray afterglow can be characterized by three phases: an initial fading as $F_X \propto t^{-\alpha}$ with $\alpha \approx -1.07 \pm 0.03$, a brief plateau phase between $t \approx 0.05$ and 0.13 days, and a subsequent decay as $\alpha_X \approx -1.06 \pm 0.04$. We emphasize that the decay indices before and after the plateau phase are identical suggesting a simple evolution interrupted by an injection of energy (§3.3).

2.4. Radio Observations

We initiated radio observations of GRB051221a with the Very Large Array\footnote{The Very Large Array and Very Long Baseline Array are operated by the National Radio Astronomy Observatory, a facility of the National Science Foundation operated under cooperative agreement by Associated Universities, Inc.} (VLA) on 2005 December 21.99 UT. The data were obtained at 8.46 GHz covering the range $0.91 - 23.93$ days (see Table 4). All observations were taken in standard continuum observing mode with a bandwidth of $2 \times 50$ MHz. We used 3C48 (J0137+331) for flux calibration, while phase referencing was performed against calibrator J2152+175. The data were reduced using standard packages within the Astronomical Image Processing System (AIPS).

We detect a radio source coincident with the optical position with a flux $F_{\nu} = 155 \pm 30$ $\mu$Jy in the first observation. The source subsequently faded below our detection threshold with a decay rate of $\alpha_{\text{rad}} \lesssim -1.0$.

3. AFTERGLOW PROPERTIES
Using the detailed multi-frequency observations of the GRB 051221a afterglow we proceed to constrain the physical properties of the ejecta and the circumburst density. We assume that like the afterglows of long GRBs, the afterglows of short bursts are produced through the dynamical interaction of the ejecta with the surrounding medium (the forward shock; FS) with an additional component from shock heating of the ejecta (the reverse shock; RS). This assumption is consistent with the existing afterglow data for short bursts (Berger et al. 2005; Bloom et al. 2006; Fox et al. 2005; Panaitescu 2006). In this scenario, the total energy density is partitioned between relativistic electrons, $\epsilon_e$, and magnetic fields, $\epsilon_B$, while the thermal energy of the shocked protons accounts for the fraction remaining (see Piran 1999 for a review). The shocked electrons are accelerated into a power-law distribution, $N(\gamma) \propto \gamma^{-p}$ above a minimum Lorentz factor, $\gamma_m$. The emission resulting from the forward and reverse shock components is described by a synchrotron spectrum characterized by three break frequencies — the self-absorption frequency, $\nu_a$, the characteristic frequency, $\nu_m$, and the cooling frequency, $\nu_c$ — and a flux normalization, $F_{\nu_m}$ (Sari, Piran & Narayan 1998). In modeling the afterglow spectral and temporal evolution, we adopt the formalism of Granot & Sari (2002) for a relativistic forward shock expanding into a constant density circumburst medium and the scalings of Sari & Piran (1999) for a mildly-relativistic reverse shock.

3.1. Preliminary Constraints

We proceed to fit the forward shock model to the afterglow data using only observations at $t \gtrsim 0.1$ day in the X-rays and $t \gtrsim 1$ day in the radio when the afterglow evolution follows a simple power-law. As shown in §3.3 the data prior to $t \sim 0.1$ day in the X-ray band are influenced by energy injection while the radio detection at $t \approx 0.91$ days and the subsequent decline are inconsistent with a simple forward shock model and are instead explained in the context of reverse shock emission.

To constrain the spectrum of the forward shock, we first investigate the evolution in the optical and X-ray bands. From the X-ray data we measure $\alpha_X = -1.06 \pm 0.04$ and $\beta_X = -1.0 \pm 0.2$, leading to $\alpha - 3\beta/2 = 0.44 \pm 0.23$. A comparison to the standard closure relations (see Sari, Piran & Narayan 1998), $\alpha - 3\beta/2 = 0$ ($\nu_m < \nu < \nu_c$) and $\alpha - 3\beta/2 = 1/2$ ($\nu > \nu_c$) indicates that $\nu_X < \nu_c$. These conclusions are supported by the optical to X-ray spectral slope, $\beta_{OX} = -0.64 \pm 0.05$ (after correcting the optical data for Galactic extinction), which is flatter than $\beta_X$ as expected if $\nu_{opt} < \nu_c < \nu_X$. In addition, the optical decay rate, $\alpha_{opt} = -0.92 \pm 0.04$, is somewhat shallower than $\alpha_X$ as expected if $\nu_c$ is between the two bands. We note that this also supports our assumption of a constant density medium since in a wind environment the expected value of $\alpha_{opt}$ is about $-1.3$, significantly steeper than the observed value.

Using all the available optical and X-ray observations we find that $p = 2.15 \pm 0.10$ and $\nu_c = (2 \pm 1) \times 10^{17}$ Hz at $t = 1$ day. Here and throughout this section we have accounted for the smooth shape of the spectral breaks and we note that in this context the values of $F_{\nu_m}$ quoted below are the asymptotic extrapolations.

Next we compare the optical and radio afterglow data to constrain $\nu_m$ and the peak spectral flux, $F_{\nu_m}$. The single power-law optical decay constrains $\nu_m$ to be lower than the optical band before the first observation at $t = 0.0542$ days, and $F_{\nu_m}$ to be above the flux of the first observation. Scaling these constraints to $t = 1$ day ($\nu_m \propto t^{-1.5}$ and $F_{\nu_m} \propto t^0$) we find $\nu_m \lesssim 1.5 \times 10^{12}$ Hz and $F_{\nu_m} \gtrsim 74$ $\mu$Jy. Furthermore, we note that the two constraints are linked through the relation $F_{\nu_m} \propto \nu_m^{-(p-1)/2}$ such that lower values of $\nu_m$ imply increasingly higher values of $F_{\nu_m}$.

Given the link between $\nu_m$ and $F_{\nu_m}$ we obtain a lower bound on $\nu_m$ (and hence an upper bound on $F_{\nu_m}$) from the limits on the radio flux at $t \gtrsim 1$ day. In particular, the $3\sigma$ limits of $\lesssim 80$ $\mu$Jy at $t \sim 2 - 7$ days indicate that $\nu_m \gtrsim 4.0 \times 10^{11}$ Hz and $F_{\nu_m} \lesssim 160$ $\mu$Jy at $t = 1$ day; otherwise the forward shock flux would be brighter than the observed radio limits. Combined with the optically-derived limits, we therefore find the following allowed ranges: $4.0 \times 10^{11} \lesssim \nu_m \lesssim 1.5 \times 10^{12}$ Hz and $74 \lesssim F_{\nu_m} \lesssim 160 \mu$Jy at $t = 1$ day.

3.2. Forward Shock Broad-Band Model

Adopting these preliminary constraints on $\nu_m$ and $F_{\nu_m}$ and using the derived value of $\nu_c$, we apply a broad-band afterglow model fit to the multi-frequency data in order to determine the physical parameters of the burst. The four spectral parameters ($F_{\nu_m}$, $\nu_m$, $\nu_c$ and $\nu_v$) are fully determined by four physical quantities: the kinetic energy of the ejecta, $E_{K,iso}$, the energy partition fractions, $\epsilon_e$ and $\epsilon_B$, and the circumburst density, $n$. Therefore by constraining the four spectral parameters through broad-band observations, we are able to determine a unique solution for the four physical parameters. Although $\nu_c$ is not directly constrained by the observations, we are able to define a range of reasonable solutions by requiring that $\epsilon_e, \epsilon_B \leq 1/3$, which accounts for an equal (or larger) contribution from shocked protons ($\epsilon_p \geq 1/3$). This requirement excludes unphysical solutions in which the sum of the contributions from shocked electrons, protons and magnetic fields exceed the total energy density. With this constraint on the energy partition fractions, and the observed limits for $F_{\nu_m}$, $\nu_m$ and $\nu_c$ from §3.1, we find the following ranges for the physical parameters:

\begin{align}
1.1 \times 10^{51} \lesssim E_{K,iso} &\lesssim 4.4 \times 10^{51} \text{ erg} \quad (1a) \\
2.8 \times 10^{-4} \lesssim n &\lesssim 1.5 \times 10^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-3} \quad (1b) \\
9.5 \times 10^{-2} \lesssim \epsilon_e &\lesssim 1/3 \quad (1c) \\
7.8 \times 10^{-3} \lesssim \epsilon_B &\lesssim 1/3. \quad (1d)
\end{align}

3.3. Energy Injection and Reverse Shock Model

We now turn to the X-ray plateau phase observed between $t \approx 1$ and 3 hrs after the burst. The flattening of the light-curve suggests that GRB 051221a experienced an episode of energy injection on this timescale. As shown in Figure 5, an extrapolation of the early decay lies a factor of about 3.3 below the observed flux after the plateau phase. Given that $\nu_c$ is located below the X-ray band on this timescale we have $F_{\nu,X} \propto \nu^{(p+2)/4}$. Thus for $p = 2.15$
the flux increase corresponds to an energy injection of a factor of $\sim 3.4$. We note that given the flat X-ray evolution during the energy injection phase the ejecta refreshing the shock follows the relation $E(\gamma) \propto \gamma^{-4.5}$ (Sari & Mészáros 2000).

One implication of this energy injection episode is emission from the associated reverse shock (Sari & Mészáros 2000). The broad-band spectrum of the reverse shock differs from that of the forward shock spectrum primarily due to its lower characteristic frequency, $\nu_{m}^{RS} \approx \nu_{m}^{FS} / \gamma^2$, and its higher spectral peak flux, $F_{\nu_{m}^{RS}} \approx \gamma F_{\nu_{m}^{FS}}$. Here, the bulk Lorentz factor of the ejecta is given by $\gamma \approx 8.3 \left( E_{K, iso}/10^{51} \text{ erg} \right)^{1/8} (n/10^{-3} \text{ cm}^{-3})^{-1/8} (t/1 \text{ day})^{-3/8}$.

Adopting the constraints for $\nu_{m}^{FS}$ and $F_{\nu_{m}^{FS}}$ (along with the associated constraints on $E_{K,iso}$ and $n$) from §3, we find that at the time of the energy injection episode ($t \approx 0.1 \text{ days}$) $18 \lesssim \gamma \lesssim 26$ and thus $2.0 \times 10^{50} \lesssim \nu_{m} \lesssim 1.5 \times 10^{11} \text{ Hz}$ and $1.3 \lesssim F_{\nu_{m}^{RS}} \lesssim 4.1 \text{ mJy}$. Using the temporal scalings of Sari & Piran (1999), $\nu_{m} \propto t^{-73/48}$ and $F_{\nu_{m}^{RS}} \propto t^{-47/48}$ we find that $\nu_{m}^{RS}$ is just below 8.46 GHz during our first radio observation. We therefore estimate $47 \lesssim F_{\nu_{8.46}^{RS,GB}} \lesssim 295 \text{ mJy} / t \approx 0.91 \text{ days}$ which is fully consistent with our measured flux of $F_{\nu_{8.46, iso}} = 155 \pm 30$. The radio RS component is then predicted to decay rapidly as $F_{\nu} \propto t^{-1.85}$ implying an estimated flux at $t = 1.94 \text{ days}$ (our second radio epoch) of $12 \lesssim F_{\nu_{8.46}^{RS, GB}} \lesssim 73 \text{ mJy}$, again consistent with our measured limit of $F_{\nu_{8.46, iso}} \lesssim 72 \text{ mJy}$. We therefore conclude that the X-ray plateau phase at $t \approx 0.1 \text{ day}$ and the early radio decay are the result of an energy injection episode. We note that this interpretation predicts a 4.86 GHz flux density limit at $t \approx 0.6 \text{ days}$ which is a factor of $\sim 2$ above the measured limit of van der Horst (2005). However, this can be explained as the result of synchrotron self-absorption since for the reverse shock, $\nu_{\nu}^{RS} \approx \gamma^{8/5} \nu_{\nu}^{FS}$, can be as high as 5 GHz at $t = 0.6 \text{ days}$ given our allowed range of $\nu_{\nu}^{FS}$.

### 3.4. A Combined FS+RS Model

In Figure 6 we show the combined FS+RS light-curves and we find that the contribution of the reverse shock emission in the radio band we can limit the range of allowed physical parameters beyond the constraints provided in Equations 1a to 1d. Using the observed upper limits, we therefore favor the fainter end of the allowed FS model corresponding to the parameters $\nu_{\nu}^{FS} \approx 1.5 \times 10^{12} \text{ Hz}$ and $F_{\nu_{\nu}^{FS}} \approx 74 \text{ mJy}$ at $t = 1 \text{ day}$. This provides the following constraints on the physical parameters: $E_{K, iso} \approx (1.1 - 1.6) \times 10^{51} \text{ erg}$, $n \approx (0.5 - 2.4) \times 10^{-3} \text{ cm}^{-3}$, $\epsilon_{e} \approx (0.24 - 0.33)$ and $\epsilon_{B} \approx (0.12 - 0.33)$.

These improved constraints lead to the following implications. First, the efficiency in converting the energy in the ejecta into $\gamma$-rays is $n_{\gamma} \approx 0.6 - 0.7$ indicating a roughly equal partition in prompt and afterglow energy, similar to what is found for long GRBs (Panaitescu & Kumar 2002). Second, we find that the shock energy is in rough equipartition between relativistic electrons and magnetic fields. This is consistent with the values inferred for long-duration GRBs (Yost et al. 2003; Panaitescu & Kumar 2002).

### 3.5. A Jet Break

Using late-time Chandra ACIS-S observations extending to 26 days, Burrows et al. (2006) find strong evidence for a steepening in the X-ray afterglow light-curve, which they attribute to a jet break. By supplementing our optical, XRT and radio data with the late-time Chandra observations, we are able to constrain the opening angle of the jet and thus derive the beaming-corrected energy of the burst. As shown in Figure 5, the first two Chandra epochs at $t \approx 1.7$ and 4.6 days are consistent with the Swift/XRT measurements and the inferred decay of $\alpha_{X} \approx -1.06$. However, the last three Chandra points at $t \gtrsim 15 \text{ days}$ show a steeper decay, $\alpha_{X} = -2.0 \pm 0.4$, which is consistent with the expected decay rate in the case of a jet break, $\alpha_{X} = -2.15$ (Sari, Piran, & Halpern 1999). By fitting the radio, optical and X-ray data together, we modify our spherical FS+RS model to include a jet break and find a best fit for a smooth break at $t_{j} \approx 5 \text{ days}$, consistent with the findings of Burrows et al. (2006).

As shown in Figure 6, this model provides an excellent fit to the entire broad-band data set.

Together with the physical parameters derived in §3.4, the observed jet break constrains the collimation of the ejecta to $\theta_{j} \approx 6.6( E_{K}/10^{51} \text{ erg})^{-1/8} (n/10^{-3} \text{ cm}^{-3})^{1/8}$ $(5.7 - 7.3)$ degrees. This indicates that the true energy release is $E_{K} \approx (1.2 - 1.9) \times 10^{49} \text{ erg}$ and $E_{K} \approx (7.8 - 8.9) \times 10^{48} \text{ erg}$, or a total relativistic energy yield of $(E_{\gamma} + E_{K}) \approx (2.3 - 3) \times 10^{49} \text{ erg}$. We summarize the final parameters for GRB 051221a in Table 5 and note that they are generally consistent with those reported by Burrows et al. (2006). Finally, we find that the ejecta will become non-relativistic on a timescale $t_{NR} \approx 2.0( E_{K}/10^{51})^{1/3}(n/10^{-3} \text{ cm}^{-3})^{1/3} \approx (0.3 - 0.5) \text{ yrs}$.

### 3.6. Limits on an Associated Supernova

The optical afterglow measurements at late-time can also be used to constrain the contribution from an associated supernova. To assess this contribution we adopt the optical data for the local Type Ibc SNe 1994I (Richmond et al. 1996), 1998bw (Galama et al. 1998; McKenzie & Schaefer 1999) and 2002ap (Foley et al. 2003) as templates. These three SNe were selected based on their well-sampled optical light-curves and peak luminosities which represent the overall spread in the observed properties of Type Ibc supernovae. To produce synthesized light-curves for each of these template SNe, we compiled optical UBVRI observations from the literature and smoothed the extinction-corrected (foreground plus host galaxy) light-curves. We then produced k-corrected light-curves by redshifting the interpolated photometric spectrum and stretching the arrival time of the photons by a factor of $(1 + z)$. A full discussion of the template datasets and the method by which we produce the synthetic SN light-curves appears in Soderberg et al. (2005).

Shown in Figure 6 are the synthesized $\nu^{*}$-band light-curves for these three supernovae at the redshift of GRB 051221a (roughly equivalent to the rest-frame $B$-band SN emission). These light-curves represent the summed contribution from the afterglow and SN models. Clearly, our late-time optical measurements rule out
the presence of the brighter two SNe (1998bw and 1994I) while our limits are consistent with a faint SN 2002ap-like event with a peak optical magnitude of $M_V \gtrsim -17.2$ (rest-frame) corresponding to a limit on the mass of synthesized Nickel of $\lesssim 0.07 M_\odot$ (Mazzali et al. 2002). We note, however, that the bright afterglow flux at $t \lesssim 1$ day can easily hide the emission from a mildly relativistic “macronova” for a wide range of ejecta velocities and energies (Kulkarni 2005), and we therefore cannot assess the contribution from such a component. Finally, we note that no SN absorption features were observed in the spectrum taken at $t \approx 10.2$ days at which time a typical Type Ibc SN would reach maximum light.

4. HOST GALAXY PROPERTIES

We now turn to the properties of the GRB host galaxy. We measure the brightness of the host galaxy using our final epoch template images (Table 1) and find $r' = 21.99 \pm 0.09$ mag, $i' = 21.99 \pm 0.17$ mag, and $z' = 21.97 \pm 0.40$ mag; all magnitudes are in the AB system, have been corrected for Galactic extinction $E(B-V) = 0.069$ mag, and the uncertainties are dominated by the photometric calibration. The spectral slope based on these magnitudes is nearly flat in $F_\nu$. At the redshift of the host galaxy the rest-frame $V$-band is traced by the combination of the $r'$ and $z'$ bands, leading to an absolute magnitude, $M_V \approx -20.0 \pm 0.3$ mag, while the rest-frame $B$-band is traced by the $r'$-band indicating $M_B \approx -19.9 \pm 0.1$ mag, or a luminosity $L_B \approx 0.3 L_*$. This luminosity is similar to those of the host galaxies of many long GRBs, as well as the host galaxy of the short GRB 050709 with $L \approx 0.1 L_*$ (Fox et al. 2005).

We further use galfit (Peng et al. 2002) to examine the surface brightness profile of the host galaxy. We use nearby stars to construct a point-spread function image for the deconvolution process and find that the best-fit scale length is about $420 \pm 50$ mas, or about $2.6 \pm 0.3$ kpc, and the Sersic index is about 0.6, close to the value of 1 for an exponential disk, but significantly different from a value of 4 appropriate for elliptical galaxies. The morphological parameters are again similar to those found for the hosts of long-duration GRBs (Wainwright, Berger & Penprase 2005).

At $z = 0.5464$, the measured offset of the afterglow ($\S2.1$) relative to the center of the host galaxy corresponds to $760 \pm 30$ pc. Normalized by the scale length of the galaxy this corresponds to $r/r_\star = 0.29 \pm 0.04$. This offset is somewhat smaller than those measured for previous short GRBs (Fox et al. 2005) and continues the trend of smaller offsets compared to predictions from population synthesis models. For example Fryer, Woosley & Hartmann (1999) predict that $< 1\%$ of short GRBs will have offsets less than 2 kpc. We note, however, that smaller offsets are possible for merger events within star-forming galaxies, which may have small initial binary separations (Belczynski, Bulik & Kalogera 2002).

As shown in Figure 4, the host exhibits both emission lines and Ca II H&K absorption features. Using our late-time spectrum in which the afterglow contribution is negligible, we estimate the star formation rate in the host galaxy from the observed fluxes of the various emission lines. From the flux of the [O II]3727 line, $F_{[\text{OII}]} = 1.3 \times 10^{-16}$ erg cm$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ (Table 2), and the conversion of Kennicutt (1998), SFR = $(1.4 \pm 0.4) \times 10^{-41} L_{[\text{OII}]}$, we find a star formation rate of about $2.0 \pm 0.5$ M$_\odot$ yr$^{-1}$. From the H$\beta$ line flux, $F_{\text{H}\beta} \approx 4.5 \times 10^{-17}$ erg cm$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$, and assuming the case-B recombination ratio of $F_{\text{H}\alpha}/F_{\text{H}\beta} = 2.85$ we infer a star formation rate of about 1.2 M$_\odot$ yr$^{-1}$. Thus, we conclude that the star formation rate (not corrected for host extinction) is about $1.6 \pm 0.4$ M$_\odot$ yr$^{-1}$. We note that the measured ratio of H$\gamma$/H$\beta \approx 0.3$, compared to the theoretical value of about 0.47 (Osterbrock 1989), may point to an extinction correction of the star formation rate of about a factor of two. The inferred star formation rate is not atypical for the hosts of long GRBs, but is about a factor of six larger than in the star-forming host of the short GRB 050709 (Fox et al. 2005). Moreover, it exceeds by at least a factor of 20 – 30 the limits on the star formation rates in the elliptical hosts of GRBs 050509b and 050724 (Berger et al. 2005; Bloom et al. 2006; Prochaska et al. 2006).

The combination of the inferred star formation rate and host luminosity provides a measure of the specific star formation rate. We find a value of 4 M$_\odot$ yr$^{-1} L^*/L_\star$, which is about a factor of 2.5 times lower than the mean specific star formation rate for the hosts of long-duration GRBs (Christensen, Hjorth & Gorosabel 2004). This indicates that the star formation activity in the host of GRB051221a is less intense than in a typical long GRB host galaxy.

The detection of Ca II H&K absorption lines indicates that while the host is under-going current star formation, at least some fraction of the light arises from an old population of stars. The relative strengths of the two Ca II lines provide an indication of the age of the stellar population. Following the approach of Rose (1985) we find that the ratio of Ca II H+He to Ca II K is about unity. This value is typical for stars with spectral type later than F; for earlier type stars Ca II reversal takes place. An accurate decomposition of the fractions of old and new stars is difficult to achieve given that these features are only weakly detected. Still, a contribution from a stellar population with an age of $\sim 1$ Gyr is suggested.

Finally, we use the relative strengths of the oxygen and hydrogen emission lines to infer the ionization state and oxygen abundance. The relevant indicators are $R_{23} \equiv \log (F_{[\text{OIII}]} + F_{[\text{OII}]}/F_{\text{H}\beta}) \approx 0.62$ and $O_{32} \equiv \log (F_{[\text{OIII}]}/F_{[\text{OII}]}) \approx -0.24$. Using the calibration of McGaugh (1991) we find that the for the upper branch the metallicity is $12 + \log (O/H) \approx 8.7$ while for the lower branch it is about 8.2; the two branches are due to the double-valued nature of $R_{23}$ in terms of metallicity. Thus, the host metallicity is 0.3 – 1 Z$_\odot$. This is somewhat higher than in the host galaxies of long GRBs, some of which have metallicities that are $\sim 1/10$ solar (e.g., Prochaska et al. 2004). This supports the conclusion that the stellar population in the host galaxy of GRB051221a is more evolved than that in the host galaxies of long GRBs.

To summarize, we find that the host galaxy of GRB051221a is undergoing active star formation with a rate and intensity at the low end of the distribution for
the hosts of long GRBs, but larger than all previous hosts of short GRBs. The active star formation with an [O II] equivalent width of about 36Å, signs of an old stellar population from the Ca II H&K absorption, and a non-detected Balmer/4000Å break indicate a classification intermediate between e(b) and e(c) in the classification scheme of Dressler et al. (1999). Along with a nearly solar metallicity, the host galaxy of GRB 051221a appears to have a relatively evolved population of stars. This continues to support the trend that the progenitors of short bursts arise from old stellar populations, but given the higher star-formation rate compare to previous short burst hosts leaves open the possibility that the progenitor life-times span a wide range.

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

We present broad-band optical, radio, and X-ray data for the afterglow of the short-hard burst GRB 051221a. Due to our rapid identification of the afterglow we were able to obtain a spectrum at $t \approx 1.1$ day when the afterglow was in principle sufficiently bright to detect absorption features from the interstellar medium of the host galaxy leading to a direct redshift measurement. Unfortunately, at the redshift of the host galaxy, $z = 0.5464$, no strong metal UV lines are redshifted into the waveband of our spectrum. Still, rapid identification and spectroscopy of future short bursts may potentially lead to direct redshift measurements.

At $z = 0.5464$, GRB 051221a currently represents the most distant short GRB for which we have a secure redshift. More importantly, we emphasize that GRB 051221a is only the third short burst for which a detailed afterglow study has been performed and the physical parameters have been constrained. The isotropic-equivalent $\gamma$-ray and kinetic energy releases are $2.4 \times 10^{51}$ and $1.4 \times 10^{51}$ erg respectively. These values are a factor of 10 and $10^2$ times larger than the values for the short GRBs 050724 and 050709, respectively.

Adopting the results of our standard synchrotron model and using $t_j \approx 5$, we constrain the collimation of the ejecta to $\theta_j \approx 7^\circ$, comparable to the opening angles of GRBs 050709 and 050724 (Fox et al. 2005; Berger et al. 2005; Panaitescu 2006; but see Grupe et al. 2006). A comparison to the compilation of jet opening angles of long GRBs, shown in Figure 7 demonstrates that while overlap exists between the two distributions, the opening angles measured for the three short GRBs are about a factor of two larger than the median value of 5$^\circ$ for long GRBs. This may not be surprising given that in the case of long GRBs the passage of the jet through the stellar envelope is thought to be responsible for its collimation (Zhang, Woosley & MacFadyen 2003). On the other hand, in models of compact object mergers it has been argued that the outflow may be collimated by a neutrino driven wind (Rosswog, Ramirez-Ruiz & Davies 2003) or the accretion disk itself (Aloy, Janka & Müller 2005) both of which lead to relatively wide opening angles, $\geq 10^\circ$. Most likely the same holds true for scenarios such as accretion induced collapse of a neutron star or a white dwarf (Yi & Blackman 1998; Fryer et al. 1999).

With the inferred opening angle, the beaming-corrected energy of GRB 051221a are similar to those of previous short bursts and comparable to the low end of the distribution for long duration events (e.g., GRB 031203; Sazonov, Lutovinov & Sunyaev 2004; Soderberg et al. 2004). This is shown in Figure 8 where we compile the beaming-corrected gamma-ray energy release and ejecta energy values for both long and short duration bursts. It has been argued that the majority of the long GRBs have a total (prompt plus afterglow) true energy release within 0.5 dex of $1.7 \times 10^{51}$ erg (Berger et al. 2003), with 3 events having a total energy of $\lesssim 10^{50}$ erg (Soderberg et al. 2004, 2006b). The similar $\gamma$-ray efficiencies of long and short bursts indicate that the energy dissipation process of the prompt emission is most likely the same.

The energy release inferred for GRB 051221a can also be used to constrain the energy extraction mechanism particularly in the context of merger models. Two primary mechanisms for energy extraction from the central engine have been discussed in the literature, namely $\nu\ell$ annihilation or magnetohydrodynamic (MHD) processes, for example the Blandford-Znajek process (e.g., Blandford & Znajek 1977; Lee, Ramirez-Ruiz & Page 2005; Rosswog, Ramirez-Ruiz & Davies 2003). Numerical simulations indicate that $\nu\ell$ annihilation generally produces a less energetic outflow than MHD processes (Lee, Ramirez-Ruiz & Granot 2005). Rosswog & Ramirez-Ruiz (2002) show that even under the most favorable conditions, neutrino annihilation is unlikely to power a burst with a beaming-corrected energy in excess of $\sim 10^{48}$ erg, while magnetic mechanisms can produce luminosities $\gtrsim 10^{52}$ erg s$^{-1}$ (Rosswog, Ramirez-Ruiz & Davies 2003). Given that the beaming-corrected total energy for GRB 051221a is a factor of $\sim 10$ larger than the predicted yield for the $\nu\ell$ annihilation model, this may indicate that MHD processes are responsible.

We next compare the circumburst densities of long and short GRBs. In Figure 9 we show that the circumburst densities for short bursts cluster near $n \sim 10^{-2}$ cm$^{-3}$. On the other hand, the densities inferred for long GRBs range from about $10^{-2}$ to 10 cm$^{-3}$ with a median value of about 2 cm$^{-3}$. The fact that the circumburst densities of short GRBs cluster at the low end of the distribution for long GRBs supports the notion that short bursts do not explode in rich stellar wind environments but are instead consistent with interstellar densities.

Finally, we show that the host galaxy of GRB 051221a is actively forming stars at a rate of about 1.6 M$_\odot$ yr$^{-1}$, but at the same time exhibits evidence for an appreciable population of old stars ($\sim 1$ Gyr). The inferred star-formation rate is at least an order of magnitude larger than the values inferred for previous short GRB hosts and yet is at the low end of the distribution for long GRB hosts. Similarly, the inferred metallicity for the GRB 051221a host galaxy appears to be higher than those of long GRB hosts indicating that it is more evolved. It is conceivable that the spread in short GRB host properties reflects a dispersion in the progenitor lifetimes such that the progenitor of GRB 051221a may be younger than those of GRBs 050509b and 050724 which occurred in elliptical galaxies (see also Prochaska et
The potential spread in progenitor lifetimes may also be supported by the smaller offset of GRB 051221a compared to previous short bursts, but we caution that offsets are affected not only by progenitor lifetimes but also by the potential dispersion in kick velocities, host masses, and projection effects.

While the basic properties of short GRBs (redshifts, hosts, isotropic γ-ray energies) are now available for several events, it is clear that detailed afterglow observations are required for a complete understanding of the burst properties. With the addition of GRB 051221a to the existing sample of only two well-studied events, we have embarked on a quantitative study of short bursts that over the next few years will shed light on the diversity of progenitors and energy extraction mechanisms.

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Table 1

**Gemini-N/GMOS Observations of GRB 051221a**

| Date Obs (UT) | $\Delta t$ (days) | Filter | magnitude$^a$ (AB) |
|---------------|-------------------|--------|-------------------|
| 2005 Dec 21.2060 | 0.1287 | $r'$ | 20.99 ± 0.08 |
| 2005 Dec 21.2194 | 0.1421 | $r'$ | 21.07 ± 0.08 |
| 2005 Dec 22.2000 | 1.1227 | $r'$ | 23.04 ± 0.08 |
| 2005 Dec 22.2114 | 1.1341 | $i'$ | 23.11 ± 0.23 |
| 2005 Dec 23.2014 | 2.1241 | $i'$ | 24.22 ± 0.35 |
| 2005 Dec 23.2150 | 2.1377 | $z'$ | 23.92 ± 0.40 |
| 2005 Dec 23.2280 | 2.1515 | $r'$ | 24.14 ± 0.12 |
| 2005 Dec 24.2020 | 3.1247 | $i'$ | < 23.99 |
| 2005 Dec 24.2158 | 3.1385 | $z'$ | < 23.98 |
| 2005 Dec 24.2294 | 3.1530 | $r'$ | 24.12 ± 0.28 |
| 2005 Dec 26.2013 | 5.1240 | $i'$ | < 24.50 |
| 2005 Dec 26.2150 | 5.1377 | $z'$ | < 24.13 |
| 2005 Dec 26.2280 | 5.1518 | $r'$ | 24.81 ± 0.21 |
| 2005 Dec 27.2030 | 6.1257 | $i'$ | ... |
| 2005 Dec 27.2194 | 6.1421 | $z'$ | ... |
| 2005 Dec 27.2358 | 6.1577 | $r'$ | < 24.74 |
| 2005 Dec 29.2046 | 8.1273 | $r'$ | < 24.92 |
| 2005 Dec 30.2042 | 9.1269 | $r'$ | ... |

$^a$Photometry of residual images (see §2.1). We have assumed the source flux to be negligible in the final (template) epoch for each filter. Errors are given as 1$\sigma$ and limits are given as 5$\sigma$. These measurements are not corrected for Galactic extinction of $A_r = 0.19$, $A_i = 0.14$ and $A_z = 0.12$ mag (Schlegel, Finkbeiner & Davis 1998).
### Table 2
**Spectroscopic lines for GRB 051221a**

| Line    | \( \lambda_{\text{rest}} \) (Å) | \( \lambda_{\text{obs}} \) (Å) | Redshift | Flux \(^b\) (\( \times 10^{-17} \text{erg cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \)) |
|---------|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|----------|----------------------------------|
| [OII]   | 3728.48                       | 5765.68                         | 0.5464   | 10.3                             |
| H\(\gamma\) | 4341.69                     | 6714.53                         | 0.5465   | 1.1                             |
| H\(\beta\) | 4862.69                     | 7519.62                         | 0.5464   | 3.9                             |
| [OIII]  | 4960.24                       | 7671.23                         | 0.5465   | 1.4                             |
| [OIII]  | 5008.24                       | 7743.78                         | 0.5462   | 4.5                             |
| CaII K  | 3934.77                       | 6082.33                         | 0.5458   | 0.15\(^c\)                     |
| CaII H  | 3969.59                       | 6136.58                         | 0.5459   | 0.14\(^c\)                     |

\(^a\)Observed wavelengths have been corrected to vacuum.

\(^b\)Flux values have not been corrected for Galactic extinction.

\(^c\)Fluxes are measured at the line bottom following the prescription of Rose (1985).
Table 3

Swift/XRT Observations of GRB 051221A

| $\Delta t$ (days) | sample time (days) | $F_X$ (0.3-10 keV) (erg cm$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$) | $\sigma$ (erg cm$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$) |
|-------------------|-------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------|
| $1.12 \times 10^{-3}$ | $1.16 \times 10^{-4}$ | $2.02 \times 10^{-10}$ | $3.82 \times 10^{-11}$ |
| $1.91 \times 10^{-3}$ | $1.48 \times 10^{-3}$ | $5.83 \times 10^{-11}$ | $1.76 \times 10^{-11}$ |
| $3.40 \times 10^{-3}$ | $1.48 \times 10^{-3}$ | $3.88 \times 10^{-11}$ | $5.54 \times 10^{-12}$ |
| $4.88 \times 10^{-3}$ | $1.48 \times 10^{-3}$ | $2.51 \times 10^{-11}$ | $3.33 \times 10^{-12}$ |
| $6.37 \times 10^{-3}$ | $1.48 \times 10^{-3}$ | $2.08 \times 10^{-11}$ | $2.91 \times 10^{-12}$ |
| $7.85 \times 10^{-3}$ | $1.48 \times 10^{-3}$ | $1.63 \times 10^{-11}$ | $2.57 \times 10^{-12}$ |
| $9.34 \times 10^{-3}$ | $1.48 \times 10^{-3}$ | $1.38 \times 10^{-11}$ | $2.37 \times 10^{-12}$ |
| $1.08 \times 10^{-2}$ | $1.48 \times 10^{-3}$ | $1.02 \times 10^{-11}$ | $2.03 \times 10^{-12}$ |
| $1.60 \times 10^{-2}$ | $5.93 \times 10^{-3}$ | $7.33 \times 10^{-12}$ | $8.63 \times 10^{-13}$ |
| $2.19 \times 10^{-2}$ | $5.93 \times 10^{-3}$ | $4.98 \times 10^{-12}$ | $7.19 \times 10^{-13}$ |
| $2.78 \times 10^{-2}$ | $5.93 \times 10^{-3}$ | $3.68 \times 10^{-12}$ | $6.96 \times 10^{-13}$ |
| $6.19 \times 10^{-2}$ | $4.05 \times 10^{-2}$ | $1.97 \times 10^{-12}$ | $2.78 \times 10^{-13}$ |
| $0.102$ | $4.05 \times 10^{-2}$ | $2.06 \times 10^{-12}$ | $2.97 \times 10^{-13}$ |
| $0.143$ | $4.05 \times 10^{-2}$ | $2.16 \times 10^{-12}$ | $2.21 \times 10^{-13}$ |
| $0.183$ | $4.05 \times 10^{-2}$ | $1.70 \times 10^{-12}$ | $6.43 \times 10^{-13}$ |
| $0.223$ | $4.05 \times 10^{-2}$ | $1.33 \times 10^{-12}$ | $1.75 \times 10^{-13}$ |
| $0.264$ | $4.05 \times 10^{-2}$ | $9.55 \times 10^{-13}$ | $1.95 \times 10^{-13}$ |
| $0.305$ | $4.05 \times 10^{-2}$ | $9.71 \times 10^{-13}$ | $2.17 \times 10^{-13}$ |
| $0.345$ | $4.05 \times 10^{-2}$ | $7.46 \times 10^{-13}$ | $1.28 \times 10^{-13}$ |
| $0.427$ | $4.05 \times 10^{-2}$ | $1.14 \times 10^{-12}$ | $1.70 \times 10^{-13}$ |
| $0.522$ | $0.116$ | $6.71 \times 10^{-13}$ | $9.69 \times 10^{-14}$ |
| $0.638$ | $0.116$ | $5.59 \times 10^{-13}$ | $8.63 \times 10^{-14}$ |
| $1.18$ | $0.480$ | $1.41 \times 10^{-13}$ | $2.29 \times 10^{-14}$ |
| $1.66$ | $0.480$ | $1.55 \times 10^{-13}$ | $2.45 \times 10^{-14}$ |
| $2.27$ | $0.656$ | $1.09 \times 10^{-13}$ | $1.65 \times 10^{-14}$ |
| $2.93$ | $0.656$ | $1.15 \times 10^{-13}$ | $1.67 \times 10^{-14}$ |
| $3.58$ | $0.656$ | $7.64 \times 10^{-14}$ | $1.40 \times 10^{-14}$ |
| $4.45$ | $0.990$ | $4.45 \times 10^{-14}$ | $8.57 \times 10^{-15}$ |
| $5.44$ | $0.990$ | $4.88 \times 10^{-14}$ | $8.92 \times 10^{-15}$ |
| $6.42$ | $0.990$ | $3.72 \times 10^{-14}$ | $7.93 \times 10^{-15}$ |
| $7.44$ | $0.957$ | $3.08 \times 10^{-14}$ | $7.94 \times 10^{-15}$ |
| $8.45$ | $0.953$ | $4.58 \times 10^{-14}$ | $8.82 \times 10^{-15}$ |
| $11.33^b$ | $4.72$ | $1.99 \times 10^{-14}$ | $3.48 \times 10^{-15}$ |

$^a$ Values give at mid-exposure time.

$^b$ Co-addition of multiple observations.
# Radio Observations of GRB 051221a

| Date Obs (UT) | $\Delta t$ (days) | $F_{\nu, 8.46 \text{ GHz}}$ ($\mu$Jy) | $\sigma_{8.46 \text{ GHz}}$<sup>a</sup> ($\mu$Jy) |
|---------------|-------------------|----------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 2005 Dec 21.99 | 0.91              | 155                                    | ±30                             |
| 2005 Dec 23.02 | 1.94              | $\cdots$                               | ±24                             |
| 2005 Dec 24.83 | 3.75              | $\cdots$                               | ±32                             |
| 2005 Dec 27.96 | 6.88              | $\cdots$                               | ±28                             |
| 2006 Jan 14.01 | 23.93             | $\cdots$                               | ±16                             |

<sup>a</sup> All errors are given as 1$\sigma$ (rms).
Table 5
Physical Parameters for GRB 051221a

| Parameter | Value |
|-----------|-------|
| $E_{\gamma,\text{iso}}$ | $2.4^{+0.1}_{-1.3} \times 10^{51}$ erg |
| $E_{K,\text{iso}}$ | $(1.1 - 1.6) \times 10^{51}$ erg |
| $n$ | $(0.5 - 2.4) \times 10^{-3}$ cm$^{-3}$ |
| $\epsilon_e^a$ | $(0.24 - 1/3)$ |
| $\epsilon_B^a$ | $(0.12 - 1/3)$ |
| $\theta_j$ | $(5.7 - 7.3)^\circ$ |
| $f_0$ | $(0.005 - 0.008)$ |
| $E_p$ | $(1.2 - 1.9) \times 10^{49}$ erg |
| $E_K$ | $(7.8 - 8.9) \times 10^{48}$ erg |

$^a$Values are constrained to be < 1/3.
Fig. 1.— Color composite image of the field of GRB 051221a as observed with Gemini-N/GMOS. The image is composed of $i'$- and $z'$-band data from 2005 Dec 27.2 UT and $r'$-band data from 2005 Dec 30.2 UT. The host galaxy of GRB 051221a is the only source detected inside the XRT error circle and is clearly blue as expected for a star-forming galaxy. We note that our spectrum of GRB 051221a also included galaxy G2 (diamond, left panel). This galaxy exhibits a strong Balmer/4000Å break in addition to Ca II H&K absorption at $z = 0.849$. The presence of several nearby galaxies with a similar color and brightness may point to a background cluster unassociated with the burst.
Fig. 2.— Residual images of the optical afterglow ($r'$-band) of GRB 051221a produced through image subtraction techniques. The host galaxy emission dominates the optical light after $t \approx 2$ d. We assume that the afterglow emission is negligible in the final (template) epoch. The position of the afterglow (cross, template image) is offset by $0.12 \pm 0.04$ arcsec with respect to the host galaxy center.
Fig. 3.— Optical ($r', i', z'$) light-curves of the afterglow of GRB 051221a. We have converted the early $R$-band detection by Wren et al. (2005) at $t = 0.0542$ days to the $r'$-band (encircled dot) using the standard zeropoints. The data have been corrected for Galactic extinction of $E(B - V) = 0.069$ mag (Schlegel, Finkbeiner & Davis 1998). The temporal evolution follows a decay index of $\alpha_{\text{opt}} = -0.92 \pm 0.04$. 
Fig. 4.— Spectrum of the host galaxy of GRB 051221a taken with Gemini-N/GMOS on 2005 December 22.2 and 31.2 (\(t \approx 1.1\) and 10.2 days). We detect several bright emission lines which indicate a redshift of \(z = 0.5464 \pm 0.0001\) (Table 2). Absorption features attributed to CaII H&K are also weakly detected. These features indicate that the host is an active star-forming galaxy with a significant population of older stars.
Fig. 5.— Light-curve of the X-ray afterglow of GRB 051221a as observed with Swift/XRT (grey circles) and Chandra/ACIS-S (encircled black dots; Burrows et al. 2006) from $t \approx 92$ sec to 26 days after the burst. The light-curve is characterized by four phases: an initial decay with index $\alpha_X = -1.07 \pm 0.03$, a brief plateau phase, a subsequent decay with $\alpha_X = -1.06 \pm 0.04$ and steepening at $t \approx 5$ days. An extrapolation of the early decay to $t \sim 1$ day indicates an increase in flux by a factor of $\sim 3.3$ corresponding to an energy injection of a factor of $\sim 3.4$. We interpret the late-time steepening as a jet break and derive a collimation angle of $\theta_j \approx 7$ degrees.
Fig. 6.— Broad-band afterglow model fits for the radio (8.5 GHz), optical ($r'$-band) and X-ray data of GRB 051221a based on the inferred constraints discussed in §3.2. Detections are shown as filled circles and upper limits are plotted as inverted triangles. The $r'$-band data have been corrected for Galactic extinction. Black lines designate the forward shock contribution while the shaded region in the radio includes the allowed range of $\nu F_S$ and $F_F S$ (see also optical band) and the reverse shock emission associated with the energy injection episode in the X-rays at $t \sim 0.1$ days. Overplotted in the optical panel are the predicted light-curves including the contribution from Type Ibc SNe 1998bw, 1994I, and 2002ap (thin grey lines; top-to-bottom, respectively). The late-time optical limits clearly rule out the presence of a bright SN 1998bw-like event and constrain the peak optical magnitude to $M_V \gtrsim -17.2$ mag (rest-frame), consistent with a faint event similar to SN 2002ap. At jet break is observed at $t \approx 5$ days, causing an achromatic steepening of the afterglow light-curves.
Fig. 7.— The collimation angles for long (Berger, Kulkarni & Frail 2003; Bloom, Frail & Kulkarni 2003; Ghirlanda, Ghisellini & Lazzati 2004 and references therein) and short (GRB 050709: Fox et al. 2005; GRB 050724: Berger et al. 2005; GRB 051221a: this paper) GRBs are compiled from the literature. All three short bursts have opening angles larger than 5 degrees which is the median value for long bursts.
Fig. 8.— The energy release in prompt gamma-ray emission is plotted against the total kinetic energy of the ejecta for long GRBs (grey circles; Bloom, Frail & Kulkarni 2003; Ghirlanda, Ghisellini & Lazzati 2004; Sazonov, Lutovinov & Sunyaev 2004; Soderberg et al. 2006a,b and references therein) and short bursts (black circles; GRB 050709: Fox et al. 2005; GRB 050724: Berger et al. 2005) as inferred from broad-band afterglow modeling. Both axes are corrected for collimation of the ejecta. The total energy release (prompt plus afterglow) of long bursts cluster near \(1.7 \times 10^{51}\) erg (black solid arc). GRB 051221a (star) has a total energy comparable to short GRBs 050724 and 050709.
Fig. 9.— The circumburst density values for long (Soderberg et al. 2006a and references therein) and short (GRB 050709: Fox et al. 2005; GRB 050724: Berger et al. 2005; GRB 051221a: this paper) are shown as a histogram. While long bursts show a wide range of circumburst densities, the short events cluster toward lower values. This can be understood in terms of their different progenitors and environments.