A LONG LOOK AT NGC 3783 WITH THE XMM-NEWTON REFLECTION GRATING SPECTROMETER

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ABSTRACT

A long 280 ks observation of the Seyfert 1 galaxy NGC 3783 with XMM-Newton is reported. We focus on the oxygen line complex between 17 and 24 Å as measured with the Reflection Grating Spectrometer. Accurate absorption column densities and emission-line fluxes are obtained. We explore several options for the geometry and physical form of the emitting and absorbing gas. The lack of change in ionization in the absorber despite an increase in continuum flux during the observation restricts the high-ionization (O-K) and the low-ionization (Fe-M) gas to distances of at least 0.5 and 2.8 pc, respectively, away from the central source. Given the P Cygni type profiles in the resonance spectral lines and the similar velocity widths, column densities, and ionization structure inferred separately from the emission and absorption lines, it is tempting to relate the X-ray narrow-line emitting plasma with the X-ray–absorbing gas. Under this assumption, the scenario of dense clumped clouds can be ruled out. Conversely, extended ionization cones (r > 10 pc) are consistent with the observation independent of this assumption. These findings are in stark contrast to the picture of numerous clumpy (n_e > 10^9 cm^{-3}) clouds drawn recently from UV spectra, but they are consistent with the extended X-ray emission cones observed directly in Seyfert 2 galaxies.

Subject headings: galaxies: active — galaxies: individual (NGC 3783) — galaxies: Seyfert — techniques: spectroscopic — X-rays: galaxies

On-line material: color figures

1. INTRODUCTION

As a bright, nearby Seyfert 1 galaxy (z = 0.00976; de Vaucouleurs et al. 1991), NGC 3783 is one of the best-studied active galactic nuclei (AGNs). In the X-ray, observations with ROSAT (Turner et al. 1993) and ASCA (George et al. 1998) revealed a highly ionized absorber but lacked the spectral resolution required for kinematic measurements. Lately, the rich absorption-line spectrum of NGC 3783 has been readily measured with the grating spectrometers on board the X-ray observatories Chandra (Kaspi et al. 2000, 2001, 2002) and XMM-Newton (Blustin et al. 2002), telling us that the highly ionized gas is outflowing at velocities of a few 100 km s^{-1}. These spectra of NGC 3783 feature numerous absorption lines by K-shell ions of C, N, O, Ne, Mg, Si, and S, as well as by L-shell ions of Fe. Many inner-shell absorption lines formed by lower ionization states are also found in NGC 3783 (Behar & Netzer 2002), indicating a broad range of ionization.

Kaspi et al. (2002) used the high resolving power (\lambda/\Delta\lambda up to 1000) of the Chandra High Energy Transmission Grating Spectrometer (HETGS, which covers the 1.6–23.4 Å wavelength range) to determine a mean outflow velocity of \pm 590\pm 150 km s^{-1} and a mean FWHM of 820 \pm 280 km s^{-1} for the absorber in NGC 3783. The unprecedented small errors are due to an integrated observing time of 900 ks. Both velocities are consistent with a blend of known UV-absorption systems. Blustin et al. (2002) employed a short 40 ks observation of NGC 3783 with the Reflection Grating Spectrometer (RGS; \lambda/\Delta\lambda up to 400) on board XMM-Newton to construct a plasma model with two ionization phases in the X-ray absorber that reproduced the RGS spectrum between 6 and 38 Å quite well. However, as was also pointed out by Kaspi et al. (2001), the wide range of observed charge states is indicative of a broad distribution of ionization within each phase. Despite the extensive X-ray measurements, the location, form, and energetic significance of the outflow in NGC 3783 have remained much of a mystery.

The connection of the X-ray absorber to AGN constituents observed in other wave bands is a long-standing puzzle. The broad-line region (BLR) in NGC 3783 is inferred from the optical time-lag measurements of Onken & Peterson (2002) to cover a range of distances from approximately 10^{15} to 10^{16} cm (not along the line of sight). Combining X-ray and UV observations, Shields & Hamann (1997) favor the interpretation by which the UV and X-ray absorbers constitute a single medium. Their analysis implies an upper limit of about 30 pc for the separation between the nucleus and the absorbing plasma. Recently, four velocity components have been resolved by Gabel et al. (2003) in the UV-absorption spectrum of NGC 3783. Interpreting absorption of C iv at 1175 Å as arising from a metastable level, Gabel et al. (2003) estimate the electron density in the high-velocity component to be n_e \approx 10^9 cm^{-3} and, hence, the absorber to be located at a distance r \leq 8 \times 10^{17} cm away from the central source and with a typical size of \Delta r \approx 10^{10} cm, i.e., numerous highly clumped clouds.

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Conversely, a narrow O vi emission-line component with a centroid velocity of 0 km s\(^{-1}\) was estimated by Gabel et al. (2003) to originate about 40 pc away from the nucleus.

In 2001 December, XMM-\textit{Newton} observed NGC 3783 for 280 ks. The high effective area of the RGS makes this data set comparable in statistical quality to that obtained in 900 ks with the HETGS in the respective wave bands. In this paper we present the RGS spectrum from this long observation. The main goal is to further characterize the X-ray–absorbing and –emitting gas and particularly to constrain its geometry and physical conditions.

2. THE DATA

2.1. Data Reduction

NGC 3783 was observed by XMM-\textit{Newton} for a total of 280 ks from December 17 to 21 as part of the RGS guaranteed time program. The data obtained with the European Photon Imaging Camera (EPIC) and with the Optical Monitor (OM) will be discussed elsewhere (A. J. Blustin et al. 2003, in preparation). Here we focus on the RGS spectrum. The RGS data were processed using custom software developed at Columbia University, which operates on the observation data files. This software is similar in origin and in function to the RGS branch of the science analysis system (SAS) but is more flexible and includes recent calibration of the instrumental O-edge region based on accumulated data from long observations of Mrk 421 (Rasmussen, Kahn, & Paerels 2003). It corrects for the effect of aspect drift on the dispersion angles and includes background subtraction using off-target CCD regions.

2.2. Short-Time Variability

The RGS light curves are shown in Figure 1. It is evident that the soft X-ray flux varies fitfully and by as much as a factor of 2 on timescales of hours. The light curves obtained with the EPIC cameras, which are more sensitive to hard X-rays, show very similar behavior. The UV light curve obtained with the OM resembles the curve in Figure 1, only it

\[\text{counts}^2\]

Days (Jan. 0, 2000)

Fig. 1.—RGS light curve (RGS 1 and 2 combined) during the present 280 ks observation in time bins of approximately 10 minutes. Different segments of the observations have been labeled. [See the electronic edition of the Journal for a color version of this figure.]

is somewhat smoother (A. J. Blustin et al. 2003, in preparation). Observed variations in the ionization state of the absorber due to changes in the continuum flux could potentially shed light on the location of the absorber through ionization and recombination times. With that goal in mind, we divide the 280 ks observation into four temporal segments, seeking variations in the absorption spectrum.

The four segments are labeled in Figure 1 as the “low,” “rise,” “high,” and “peak” phases. The spectra obtained for each segment separately are presented in Figure 2. Each segment by itself suffers from limited statistics. Consequently, disparities in narrow features such as emission or absorption lines, which have limited counts in a few bins, are very difficult to detect unambiguously. On the other hand, it is clearly seen that the broad absorption features in the spectrum, such as the Fe M-shell 2p–3d unresolved transition array (UTA) between 16 and 17 Å and the O-K edges (14.2 and 16.8 Å) do not appear to vary. The quality of the data is not good enough to enable detection of variability in the narrow lines. [See the electronic edition of the Journal for a color version of this figure.]

\[\text{counts}^2\]

Rest Frame Wavelength (Å)

Fig. 2.—RGS spectra during the four time segments defined in Fig. 1. The data are plotted in bins of about 0.1 Å to accentuate broad structure—hence the small error bars. The lines between the data points are plotted just to guide the eye. Apart from the different flux levels, the shape of the absorption structure appears to be remarkably similar in all four spectra. In particular, the broad absorption features due to the Fe-M 2p–3d UTA (16–17 Å) and the O-K edges (14.2 and 16.8 Å) do not appear to vary. The quality of the data is not good enough to enable detection of variability in the narrow lines. [See the electronic edition of the Journal for a color version of this figure.]
observed at the same time. During the present observation, the ionizing flux overall increased gradually by almost a factor of 2 (Fig. 1). An average increase of about 50% occurs between the source and the absorber. For a detailed discussion of ionization in winds, see Krolik & Kriss (1995). We refer to the average power-law ionizing flux density \( \dot{E} = A(E/E_0) \Gamma \) with \( E_0 = 1 \) keV and \( \Gamma \approx 1.7 \) (determined for NGC 5783 by Kaspi et al. 2001, Blustin et al. 2002, and this paper). The normalization factor \( A \) scales with \( r^{-2} \) and reaches its observed value of about 0.015 photons s\(^{-1}\) cm\(^{-2}\) keV\(^{-1}\) at the telescope with a distance of 41.8 Mpc (assuming \( H_0 = 70 \) km s\(^{-1}\) Mpc\(^{-1}\)). To first order and as an upper limit, the ionization time is the reciprocal of the photo-ionization (PI) rate \( \frac{1}{\int \dot{E} \sigma_{\text{PI}}(E) dE} \), where \( \sigma_{\text{PI}}(E) \) is the PI cross section. For \( \text{O} \text{vii} \) we get a time of 4.6\( r_{\text{pc}} \) days, where \( r_{\text{pc}} \) is the distance of the absorber from the source in parsecs. The unnoticeable change in ionization observed over more than a day following the rise of the continuum implies that the \( \text{O} \text{vii} \) absorber is at least 0.46 pc away from the source. Extrapolating the power-law continuum down to the ionization energy of \( \text{Fe} \text{xix} \) (\( \approx 0.23 \) keV), which is dominant in the \( \text{Fe} \text{-M UTA} \) (at about 16.6 A˚) but also representative of the other M-shell ions, we get an even shorter ionization time of about 0.13\( r_{\text{pc}} \) days. Consequently, the \( \text{Fe} \text{xix} \) absorber must be at least 2.8 pc away from the source to not be affected. Although only crude lower limits, these estimates already clearly exclude the BLR, which is approximately 0.003 pc away from the source (Onken & Peterson 2002). For comparison with previous estimates, Appenzeller & Wagner (1991) place emission by highly ionized species (e.g., \( \text{Fe} \text{vii} \)) just outside the BLR, while Shields & Hamann (1997) give an upper limit of 30 pc for the X-ray and UV gas.

Note that despite the fluctuations over timescales of days, the average X-ray flux in NGC 3783 has remained steady over the past few years (e.g., Markowitz et al. 2003). Under these conditions and at a distance \( \approx 0.5 \) pc, the ionization state of the absorber does not react to the short-timescale fluctuations but instead is governed entirely by the mean flux. Indeed, Kaspi et al. (2001) point out that the shape of the X-ray absorption spectrum of NGC 3783 has been unchanged since 1996, when it was measured with \( \text{ASCA} \), although the continuum level has clearly varied during that period. A study of spectral variability on intermediate timescales of a few months using fractions of the 900 ks HETGS observation is bound to shed new light on the behavior of NGC 3783 in time (H. Netzer et al. 2003, in preparation).

2.3. Time-integrated Spectrum

The fact that the absorption in the spectrum does not vary significantly during the course of our observation justifies the treatment of the 280 ks time-integrated spectrum as a whole for studying the absorption. Furthermore, when we compare the present average spectrum with earlier observations (Kaspi et al. 2001, 2002; Blustin et al. 2002), we still find no significant discrepancies. Consequently, for the most part the best-fit model proposed by Blustin et al. (2002) describes the current spectrum rather well. This is demonstrated in Figure 4, in which the slab model from Blustin et al. (2002) is compared with the current 280 ks spectrum. No adjustment whatever has been applied to the model, including no renormalization. Noticeable discrepancies between data and the model occur in the details around the \( \text{O} \text{K}\alpha \) region between 14 and 24 A˚. These could not have been modeled properly with the first 40 ks exposure because of lack of counts in the narrow lines present in this range.

In this work we focus on the \( \text{O} \text{I} \rightarrow \text{O} \text{viii} \) complex in the wavelength range 17.3–24.7 A˚. The goal is to measure individual emission- and absorption-line fluxes. Because of considerable blending, a simultaneous fit of many spectral features is required. We fit the spectrum locally with a power law plus an ensemble of individual-ion absorption models and a few (unabsorbed) emission lines. Subsequently, Galactic absorption \( (N_1 = 8.7 \times 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-2}) \) is applied to the entire spectrum. The models are based on atomic data calculated with HULLAC (Bar-Shalom, Klapisch, & Oreg 2001) and include all of the inner-shell atomic transitions and their autoionization widths for all ions and elements that appear in the spectrum. A similar method has been

![Figure 3](https://example.com/figure3.png)
successfully applied to several previous AGN spectra (e.g., Sako et al. 2001; Kaastra et al. 2002; Blustin et al. 2002).

2.3.1. Absorption

Out of four velocity components resolved in the UV (e.g., for O vi), of which two are marginally resolved with HETGS in lines of O vii and O viii (Kaspi et al. 2002), the RGS reveals only one blended trough. Indeed, the blueshifts measured here (≈-600 km s⁻¹) are consistent with the mean velocity of the two dominant (and slowest) components in the UV and are in agreement with the velocity measured with HETGS. Thus, in the model we use only one velocity component for each ion. We fit for the turbulent velocity width and obtain \( v\text{turb} = 170 \text{ km s}^{-1} \) (i.e., \( \sigma_v = 120 \text{ km s}^{-1} \), FWHM = 280 km s⁻¹). This width is very close to the value of 150 km s⁻¹ used by Kaspi et al. (2000). Both here and in Kaspi et al. (2000), this velocity width was used because it enables the fitting of entire series of lines with a single kinematic component. However, it should be clear that the actual absorption troughs comprise more than one intrinsic velocity component and are broader. In fact, Kaspi et al. (2001, 2002) measured directly \( v\text{turb} = 500 \pm 170 \text{ km s}^{-1} \). In fitting the spectrum, we assume a covering factor of unity, which is an approximation for the value of 0.8 obtained by Gabel et al. (2003), who fitted for the covering factor of the X-ray observed components in the UV spectra. The present velocity-blended spectrum is not sensitive to this difference. Emission lines are modeled by Gaussians. None of these approximations hamper the good estimates we get for the total column density in each ion and for the total flux in each emission line, which are the physical quantities of interest here.

The best-fit spectral model for the O region is given in Figures 5 and 6, highlighting the Kα and Kβ (and higher) transition regions, respectively. The good fit, including that for the high-order lines of the He-like series below 19 Å, is apparent in the figures. Absorption by all charge states from O viii down to O iv is clearly detected. It is obvious from the figures that it is crucial to fit all charge states simultaneously, including both absorption and emission, in order to obtain the correct physical measurements. The various ions are found outflowing at (indistinguishable) centroid velocities of \(-470\text{ to } -800\text{ km s}^{-1}\) with respect to the systemic velocity of NGC 3783. The fitted parameters for each of these ions are given in Table 1.

Evidently, the broad range of charge states observed along the line of sight is ubiquitous to Seyfert outflows (Sako et al. 2001; Behar & Netzer 2002; Blustin et al. 2003; Steenbrugge et al. 2003). It is also observed in Seyfert 2 galaxies (Kinkhabwala et al. 2002). If all charge states are present at similar distances from the central source, as observed directly in Seyfert 2 galaxies, it implies a strong
density gradient of 3–4 orders of magnitude (e.g., for O iv to O vii) over relatively short distances. In turn, comparable column densities together with a strong density gradient would imply that the highly ionized gas occupies a much larger volume than the less ionized gas. This picture is consistent with a wind that emanates from a dense object (e.g., accretion disk or bloated stars). It then accelerates, expands, and becomes hotter and more ionized. Pressure equilibrium also favors the hotter gas being more tenuous and therefore more extended.

In addition to the high charge states, weak absorption by O i and O ii may also take place in (the rest frame of) NGC 3783, as indicated in Figure 5. However, blending with other ions hampers an unambiguous detection. The O i K α line in NGC 3783 overlaps with the strongest absorption lines of Ar xvi at 23.529 Å (Lepson et al. 2003). The O ii K α line in NGC 3783 cannot be resolved from the local Galactic K α line in our own Galaxy. O iii is not detected. Nevertheless, since we simultaneously fit many lines from each ion, we are able to overcome the problem of blending to some extent and to provide upper limits to the ion column densities. Of course, these constraints are not as tight as those provided by UV measurements for the same ions, when those are available (Kraemer, Crenshaw, & Gabel 2001).

The errors on the outflow velocities are relatively large because of the wavelength channel widths of the RGS. Estimating the uncertainty to be bound by three channels implies an error range of ±16.5 mÅ corresponding at 22 Å to ±230 km s⁻¹, as quoted in Table 1. The best-fit column densities are also given in Table 1. The column densities of O vii and O viii are constrained most tightly by their detected photoelectric edges. An additional constraint is imposed by fitting entire series of lines (see also Fig. 6). The values of (1.0 ± 0.3) and (4.0 ± 1.0) × 10¹⁸ cm⁻² obtained for the column densities of O vii and O viii, respectively, are in excellent agreement with the values of 1.1 and 4.3 × 10¹⁸ cm⁻² obtained by Kaspi et al. (2002).

The O vi ion is of particular interest for the possible connection between the UV and X-ray absorbers. Inner-shell O vi absorption can be observed in the present spectrum, although only marginally. We detect the Kα line at a significance of about 2 σ over a total of four wavelength channels, but the errors on the data points are still too large to see the line profile clearly (compare the data with the continuum model in Fig. 5). The feature at 19.33 Å can be associated with the O vi Kβ line, although it is mostly due to O v Kγ (see Fig. 6). The derived column density of O v is much higher than that of O vi. This is due to the closed-shell structure of O v and to the pervasively low fractional abundance of the Li-like species O vi (<0.25, e.g., Kallman & Bautista 2001). To that end, O vi and Li-like ions in general are perhaps the least favorable vestige for probing the ionized outflow in AGNs. The precise rest-frame wavelengths of the Kα inner-shell transitions in O ions have yet to be measured in the laboratory and are still somewhat in debate (Behar & Kahn 2002). Here we use wavelength values for O vi Kα and Kβ of 22.01 and 19.34 Å, respectively. With a fitted turbulent velocity of 170 km s⁻¹, we obtain only an upper limit to the O vi column density of 2.0 × 10¹⁶ cm⁻². This is loosely consistent with Gabel et al. (2003), who find a lower limit of 0.63 × 10¹⁶ cm⁻² for the total O vi column density in the two corresponding UV components. We note that there was a hint to the Kα line of O vi in the 900 ks HETGS spectrum (Kaspi et al. 2002), but there, the lower statistical quality did not allow for a definite identification.

The present high-quality spectrum reveals an absorption feature at 21.64 Å (21.43 Å in Fig. 5 at the rest frame of NGC 3783). We identify it tentatively as absorption by O viii in the intergalactic medium. Given this interpretation, the gas would be at a redshift of z = 0.0018 ± 0.0008. The absorption parameters deduced for this line are given in Table 1. Another possible identification for this line could be Ca xvi (21.49 Å in the rest frame) in the outflow of NGC 3783, but lines by neighboring charge states of Ca are not as obvious in the spectrum, which casts doubt on the identification of Ca. Since this feature may not be related to NGC 3783, we defer a more careful analysis of it to a separate paper. There is a hint of this line in the 900 ks HETGS spectrum, but there it seems to be at 21.60 Å (as opposed to 21.64 Å), at which local O vi would be expected. In any event, because of the lower statistical quality of the HETGS observation in this spectral band, Kaspi et al. (2002) conclude that it is insignificant.

### 2.3.2. Emission

In addition to the numerous absorption lines, a few bright, narrow emission lines are present in the spectrum. In the O region of the spectrum, the brightest emission lines are O viii Lyα at ~19 Å and the Heα triplet of O vii at ~22 Å (the resonance, intercombination, and forbidden lines: r, i, and f). The radiative recombination continuum of O vii is also detected, although its location at 16.8 Å in the midst of the Fe-M 2p–3d UTA makes a precise determination of its flux rather difficult. In fact, it is much better resolved with HETGS (Fig. 6 in Kaspi et al. 2002). The weaker O vii and O vi Kβ as well as higher order emission lines have been identified with HETGS (Kaspi et al. 2002), but here the lower spectral resolution impedes the measurement of their flux. The measurable O emission features are listed in Table 2. Fitting for a uniform velocity width for all emission lines, we obtain a turbulent velocity of 740 ± 140 km s⁻¹ (FWHM of 1220 ± 230 km s⁻¹). Kaspi et al. (2002) measured a FWHM of 930 ± 350 km s⁻¹ for the most isolated O vi f-line. Previous optical measurements by Appenzeller & Östreich (1988) of narrow, forbidden emission lines of highly ionized species in NGC 3783 show a consistent linear increase in velocity width with ionization.

### Table 1

| Ion   | Outflow Velocity (km s⁻¹) | \(v_{\text{line}}\) (km s⁻¹) | \(N_i\) \((10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-2})\) |
|-------|--------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| O vii | -550 ± 230               | 170 ± 50                    | 4.0 ± 1.0                       |
| O vii | -660 ± 230               | 170 ± 50                    | 1.0 ± 0.3                       |
| O vii | -800 ± 230               | 170 ± 50                    | 0.01 ± 0.01                     |
| O v    | -470 ± 230               | 170 ± 50                    | 0.18 ± 0.03                     |
| O iv   | -770 ± 230               | 170 ± 50                    | 0.08 ± 0.02                     |
| O iii  | -230                     | -                           | ≤0.0005                         |
| O iv    | ±230                     | \(kT_i = 0.1 \text{ eV}\)   | 0.004 ± 0.01                    |
| O iv    | ±230                     | \(kT_i = 0.02 \text{ eV}\)  | 0.025 ± 0.035                   |
| O vii Gal & i | z = 0.0018 ± 0.0008 | 40; \(kT_i = 0.1 \text{ keV}\) | 0.084 ± 0.03 |

* Turbulent velocities of O iv–O vii were tied together in the fit.
* Blended with O i in our Galaxy.
* Ion temperature.
* Blended with Ar xvi in NGC 3783.
* Tentative identification.

The table includes the outflow velocity, the line velocity, and the column density for each ion. The uncertainties are given in parentheses.
energy. The currently measured width of a 1220 km s\(^{-1}\) FWHM for O \(\text{vii}\) fits that trend perfectly (see their Fig. 13). For O \(\text{vii}\) we are not able to provide an independent measurement of the emission-line width, because there are no O \(\text{vii}\) nonabsorbed (forbidden) lines in the spectrum.

As evident from Figures 5 and 6, the emission/absorption model fits the data (including the intrinsic line profiles) remarkably well. This gives confidence in the individual (deblended) line fluxes obtained. All of the measured emission lines are slightly redshifted by about 300 ± 230 km s\(^{-1}\). Owing to the large errors, this is still consistent with the mean shift of 130 ± 290 km s\(^{-1}\) measured for the emission lines with HETGS (Kaspi et al. 2002). These redshifts together with the complex P Cygni type profiles seen for the resonance lines are suggestive of a bipolar outflow, as discussed in detail below. Also presented in Table 2 are the line fluxes measured with HETGS. The current values are in good agreement with the HETGS values. The largest discrepancies are found for the resonance lines, which have complicated P Cygni type profiles [\(\text{Ly}_\alpha\) and \(\text{He}_\alpha\)]. This is due to the different methods used for measuring the line fluxes. For example, Kaspi et al. (2002) did not fit for overlapping absorption and did not require the widths of the three O \(\text{vii}\) lines to be uniform. Nonetheless, the general agreement between the two measurements implies no time variation, as expected for the narrow-line region (NLR).

### 3. DISCUSSION

#### 3.1. Relation between the X-Ray Emitter and Absorber

To summarize the X-ray outflow kinematics in the rest frame of the AGN as manifested by the absorption and emission lines: The emission lines are redshifted by about 300 ± 230 km s\(^{-1}\) and have a FWHM of 1220 ± 230 km s\(^{-1}\) (present work). The absorption lines are blueshifted by about −600 ± 150 km s\(^{-1}\) and have a FWHM of 820 ± 280 km s\(^{-1}\) (Kaspi et al. 2002). Although it is impossible to constrain the exact shape of the X-ray line profiles, and in particular their broad wings, because of the crowded nature of this wave band and the overlapping emission and absorption, it is obvious that high-velocity gas (up to ~1000 km s\(^{-1}\)) is both emitting and absorbing X-rays. For the resonance lines, P Cygni type profiles are observed (Figs. 5 and 6). These line profiles are characteristic of a bipolar, noncollimated outflow in conjunction with absorption by the outflow along the line of sight. It is important to point out that we have only approximated these profiles by emission and (slightly offset) absorption lines, but the comparable velocity widths obtained for the absorption and emission lines already support the biconical interpretation.

We wish to further compare the X-ray line emission and absorption in NGC 3783. In the context of Seyfert 2 galaxies, it has been shown that intensity ratios among the He-like emission lines can be used to decisively determine the column density of the emitting plasma (Behar et al. 2002; Kinkhabwala et al. 2002), even when the absorption spectrum is not available to us directly because of orientation and obscuration effects. The present emission-line fluxes give ratios of \(f/r = 1.5 ± 0.3\) and \(i/r = 0.5 ± 0.2\). With a velocity width of 740 km s\(^{-1}\), this \(f/r\) value is obtained in our model at an O \(\text{vii}\) column density of \((1.1 ± 0.35) \times 10^{18}\) cm\(^{-2}\). The \(i/r\) ratio provides just a lower limit of \((1.3 ± 10^{18}\) cm\(^{-2}\). These ranges are both in good agreement with the ion column density of \((1.0 ± 0.3) \times 10^{18}\) cm\(^{-2}\) measured directly from the absorption lines and edge of O \(\text{vii}\).

Next, it would have been useful to compare the fractional ionic abundances derived from the emission lines with those derived from the absorption. However, direct comparison is not available, since recombination-driven lines are due to the next ionized state (e.g., O \(\text{ix}\) for \(\text{Ly}_\alpha\)). Hence, the O \(\text{vii}\) and O \(\text{viii}\) emission-line intensities reflect the \(n_{\text{O VII}}/n_{\text{O VIII}}\) abundance ratio, while the absorption column densities reflect \(n_{\text{O VII}}/n_{\text{O VIII}}\). Nevertheless, the comparable emission-line fluxes and column densities of O \(\text{vii}\) and O \(\text{viii}\) suggest that all highly ionized states are fairly abundant in the emitting plasma, just as they are in the absorbing plasma. Moreover, it is possible to find an ionization parameter \(\xi = 30\) ergs s\(^{-1}\) cm that reproduces just the right amount of O \(\text{vii}\) and O \(\text{viii}\) emission and absorption, which we observe.

Clearly, we are seeing a very broad distribution in \(\xi\), but for simplicity, this single value can be used to describe the O \(\text{vii}\) and O \(\text{viii}\) spectral features. In summary, the velocity widths, the column densities, and the fractional abundances all make it tempting to interpret the X-ray emission and absorption as arising from the same gas.

#### 3.2. Location and Geometry of the X-Ray Plasma

The measured emission-line flux \(F_{\lambda}\) (e.g., of an O ion) can be related to the volume (\(V\)) emission measure (EM) as

\[
EM \equiv \int n_e n_i dV = \frac{4\pi d^2 F_{\lambda}}{f_{\lambda} A_0 P_{\lambda}}.
\]

The computed line power \(P_{\lambda}\) is defined through the line emissivity \(n_e n_i P_{\lambda}\) (i.e., the number of line photons emitted in the plasma per unit time per unit volume). Here \(n_q\) is the

| Ion     | Observed Wavelength (Å) | Velocity Shift\(^a\) (km s\(^{-1}\)) | Velocity Width\(^b\) (km s\(^{-1}\)) | Line Flux\(^c\) (10\(^{-5}\) counts s\(^{-1}\) cm\(^{-2}\)) | Line Flux\(^d\) (10\(^{-5}\) counts s\(^{-1}\) cm\(^{-2}\)) |
|---------|------------------------|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| O \(\text{vii} \text{ Ly}_\alpha\) | 19.173 | 330 ± 230 | 740 ± 140 | 4.5 ± 0.8 | 2.32 ± 0.74 |
| O \(\text{vii} \text{ r}\) | 21.833 | 290 ± 230 | 740 ± 140 | 7.8 ± 1.5 | 4.58 ± 2.38 |
| O \(\text{vii} \text{ i}\) | 22.034 | 290 ± 230 | 740 ± 140 | 4.1 ± 1.3 | 3.52 ± 1.82 |
| O \(\text{vii} \text{ f}\) | 22.335 | 290 ± 230 | 740 ± 140 | 11.5 ± 1.6 | 10.13 ± 2.74 |

\(^a\) In the system of NGC 3783 and tied for all O \(\text{vii}\) lines.
\(^b\) Tied for all lines.
\(^c\) This paper.
\(^d\) Kaspi et al. 2002.
number density of ions with charge \( q \). The line power takes into account all line-driving mechanisms and in particular recombination, radiative cascades, and photoionization. The fraction of ions with charge \( q \) \( (n_q / \sum n_q) \) is denoted by \( f_q \). For recombination-driven emission lines such as the present ones, the most relevant fraction is \( f_{q=1} \). In equation (1) \( A_0 \) represents the oxygen elemental abundance relative to hydrogen. The distance to the source \( d \) is taken, for the case of NGC 3783, to be 41.8 Mpc. In a fully ionized cosmic plasma, we can also relate the electron density to the hydrogen density by \( n_e = 1.2n_H \). On the other hand, the column density \( N_H \) can be written as

\[
N_H = \int_{r_{\text{min}}}^{r_{\text{max}}} n_H dr = \frac{\rho H L}{\xi} \left( \frac{1}{r_{\text{min}}} - \frac{1}{r_{\text{max}}} \right).
\]

The measured ionic column densities \( N_i \) are related to \( N_H \) by \( N_i = f_q A_0 n_H \). The minimal and maximal distances for absorbing gas in the outflow are denoted by \( r_{\text{min}} \) and \( r_{\text{max}} \). To obtain the right-hand side of equation (2), we used \( n_e = L/\xi \).

We focus here on the \( \text{O vii} \) and \( \text{O viii} \) spectral features as the tracers of the very highly ionized gas simply because they exhibit the best measurable features in our spectrum. However, since Seyfert 2 observations show that all charge states coexist and overlap in space along the outflow, we expect the present analysis of O ions to be applicable to the entire highly ionized plasma. We choose an ionization parameter of \( \xi = 30 \) ergs s\(^{-1}\) cm\(^{-1}\), where ionization balance calculations give \( n_\text{O vii}/n_\text{O ix} \approx 1.7 \) (in accord with the emission-line ratio) and \( n_\text{O viii}/n_\text{O vii} \approx 4 \) (in accord with the absorption column densities). This implies \( f_q \) values of 0.14, 0.57, and 0.29, respectively, for \( \text{O vii}, \text{O viii}, \) and \( \text{O ix} \). Again, a single value of \( \xi \) is assumed in this section just for simplicity. The observed broad distribution in \( \xi \) makes it clear that each ion exists mostly around its typical range of \( \xi \).

Equations (1) and (2) cannot be solved for the most general case, and some approximations need to be made. In the following we explore the two extreme scenarios: \( r_{\text{max}} \approx r_{\text{min}} \) and \( r_{\text{max}} \gg r_{\text{min}} \).

### 3.2.1. Localized Scenario

First, we explore the possibility of a well-localized X-ray plasma, i.e., one in which the typical size \( \Delta r = r_{\text{max}} - r_{\text{min}} \) is much smaller than the average distance \( r \) from the ionizing source. In that case, the localization in \( r \) immediately imposes a narrow distribution in \( n_e \) (through \( \xi \)). Equations (1) and (2) can then be rewritten simply as

\[ EM = \frac{n_H n_e}{L} \Delta r^3 \]

and

\[ N_H = \frac{L}{\xi} \left( \frac{1}{r_{\text{min}}} - \frac{1}{r_{\text{max}}} \right). \]

Even now, these equations cannot yet be solved separately. However, if one identifies the emitter with the absorber, both equations can be solved simultaneously. Indeed, by using equations (1) and (2) and the definition of \( \xi \) to solve for \( r, \Delta r, \) and \( n_e \), one would expect to obtain a rough idea of these quantities. However, using the present measurements for the \( \text{O vii} \) forbidden line and for the \( \text{O viii} \) Ly\( \alpha \) line, in both cases we obtain values of \( r \approx \Delta r \approx 10 \) pc. This suggests that the confined geometry (\( \Delta r \ll r \)) is inadequate for describing the highly ionized outflow of NGC 3783, at least as long as the line emission and absorption are due to the same outflow constituent. All of the measured and derived quantities are summarized in Table 3.

### Table 3

| Parameter                  | \( \text{O vii} \) (\( f \)) | \( \text{O viii} \) (Ly\( \alpha \)) | UV (Gabel et al. 2003) |
|----------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------|
| \( \xi \) (ergs s\(^{-1}\) cm\(^{-1}\)) | 30                          | 30                                 |                        |
| \( L \) (10\(^{44}\) ergs s\(^{-1}\)) | 1.5                         | 1.5                                |                        |
| \( n_i \) (10\(^{18}\) cm\(^{-3}\)) | 1.0 ± 0.3                    | 4.0 ± 1.0                          |                        |
| \( f_q \)                         | 0.14                        | 0.57                               |                        |
| \( f_{q=1} \)                     | 0.57                        | 0.29                               |                        |
| \( A_0 \)                       | 5 × 10\(^{-4}\)             | 5 × 10\(^{-4}\)                    |                        |
| \( N_H \) (10\(^{22}\) cm\(^{-2}\)) | 1.43 ± 0.43                | 1.40 ± 0.35                        |                        |
| \( d \) (Mpc)                   | 41.8                        | 41.8                               |                        |
| \( f_p \) (10\(^{-5}\) counts s\(^{-1}\) cm\(^{-2}\)) | 11.5 ± 1.6                | 4.5 ± 0.8                          |                        |
| \( P_p \) (10\(^{-12}\) s\(^{-1}\) cm\(^{-3}\)) | 3.9                       | 5.7                                |                        |
| \( EM \) (10\(^{45}\) cm\(^{-3}\)) | 2.2 ± 0.3                   | 1.2 ± 0.3                          |                        |

**Localized Clouds Scenario** \( (r_{\text{max}} - r_{\text{min}} = \Delta r \ll r) \)

- \( r \) (pc) ........................................ 16.3 ± 7.3
- \( \Delta r \) (pc) .................................. 9.9 ± 3.0
- \( n_e \) (cm\(^{-3}\)) .............................. 200 ± 180
- \( v_{\text{out}} \) (km s\(^{-1}\)) ............... -600 ± 150
- \( M \) (10\(^{33}\) g) .................................. 1.0 ± 1.3
- \( \Omega \) (10\(^{18}\) g pc\(^{-3}\)) ............... 0.6 ± 0.7

**Ionization Cones Scenario** \( (r_{\text{max}} \gg r_{\text{min}}) \)

- \( r_{\text{min}} \) (pc) .................. 9.4 ± 2.8
- \( n_i \) (10\(^{23}\) cm\(^{-3}\)) .............. 590 ± 350
- \( \Omega/2\pi \) ..................................... 0.24 ± 0.08
- \( M/\pi r_{\text{max}} \) (10\(^{16}\) g pc\(^{-3}\)) | 8.4 ± 2.6 |
- \( M \) (10\(^{33}\) g yr\(^{-1}\)) .............. 5.2 ± 2.0

**UV (Gabel et al. 2003)**

- \( r \) (10\(^{16}\) g yr\(^{-1}\)) .............. 16 ± 0.2
- \( \Delta r \) (pc) .................................. 12 ± 4.9
- \( n_e \) (10\(^{16}\) g yr\(^{-1}\)) .............. 3.3 ± 10\(^{-9}\)
- \( \Omega/2\pi \) ..................................... 81 ± 0.05
- \( M/\pi r_{\text{max}} \) (10\(^{16}\) g pc\(^{-3}\)) | 4.7 ± 1.8 |
- \( M \) (10\(^{33}\) g yr\(^{-1}\)) .............. 3.4 ± 10\(^{-13}\)
3.2. Ionization Cone Scenario

Inspired by the Chandra X-ray images of Seyfert 2 galaxies (Sako et al. 2000; Young, Wilson, & Shopbell 2001; Brinkman et al. 2002; Ogle et al. 2003), we propose an alternative geometry of two ionization cones with an opening solid angle $\Omega$. In NGC 1068, AGN-driven X-rays are detected as far as 500 kpc away from the nucleus (Brinkman et al. 2002). Furthermore, Young et al. (2001) and Ogle et al. (2003) show that the X-ray NLR in NGC 1068 overlaps on the plane of the sky with the optical NLR. Extended ionization cones in Seyfert 1 galaxies, only oriented along the line of sight, would substantiate the unified theory of AGNs (Antonucci & Miller 1985) in the X-ray regime. Unfortunately, it is impossible to distinguish between clumpy clouds and ionization cones in NGC 3783 by means of X-ray imaging, since even the best angular resolution available with Chandra ($0.5''$) corresponds to 100 pc at the distance of NGC 3783. Therefore, we have to make use of the spectrum.

In the ionization cones scenario, the plasma covers a large range of distances (and densities), and it is necessary to revert to the integral forms of EM and $N_H$ in equations (1) and (2) with $dV = 2(\pi)^2 \, dr$. Note that even within the framework of the extended geometry and even when $r_{\text{max}} > r_{\text{min}}$, for a given $\xi$ most of the absorption occurs close to $r_{\text{min}}$, while the actual size of the cones (i.e., $r_{\text{max}}$) cannot be well constrained by the observation. Indeed, equations (1) and (2) can now be rewritten as

$$r_{\text{min}} \simeq \left( \frac{r_{\text{min}}^{-1} - r_{\text{max}}^{-1}}{r_{\text{max}}^{-1}} \right)^{-1} \frac{L}{n_0 \xi N_H}, \quad (3)$$

$$\Omega = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\text{EM}}{N_H} \frac{\xi}{L}, \quad (4)$$

In this scenario, since equation (3) is attained from the column density alone without the EM, the result for $r_{\text{min}}$ is independent of the emission. Thus, it is independent of the assumption that the X-ray emitter and absorber represent the same plasma. Equations (3) and (4) demonstrate the dependence of the derived values on the assumption for $\xi$. Thus, if O vii actually forms at $\xi$ values somewhat lower than we assume (30 ergs s$^{-1}$ cm), we would be slightly underestimating $r_{\text{min}}$ and overestimating $\Omega$, and vice versa. We stress that the focus on a certain ion or on a specific value of $\xi$ constitutes a complementary and totally consistent approach with the observation of a broad range of charge states. Again, analogous to the Seyfert 2 case, each charge state could be present throughout the cone, only at different densities, while at the same time different charge states are colocated thanks to the steep density gradients at each point in the cone. The X-ray observation simply traces O vii and O viii wherever they are along the cone.

We now substitute the measured values into equations (3) and (4) using the data for the O vii forbidden line and the O viii Ly$\alpha$ line. These values as well as the results for $r_{\text{min}}$ and $\Omega$ are summarized in Table 3. The electron density is again $n_0 = L/(\xi r^2)$, but here it decreases rapidly ($\propto r^{-2}$) along the cone. In Table 3 we give the maximal $n_e$ value attained at $r_{\text{min}}$. It can be seen that the results for both O vii and O viii suggest consistently that the X-ray emitter/absorber lies at $r_{\text{min}} \simeq 10$ pc. The maximal densities are of the order of 600 cm$^{-3}$. These results are not very different from those obtained by Shields & Hamann (1997), who do not assume a cone geometry, but give values of $n_e \gtrsim 50$ cm$^{-3}$ and $r_{\text{min}} \lesssim 30$ pc.

The typical opening angle $\Omega/2\pi$ we get for each of the two cones is about 15%–25%, fully consistent with the fraction of Seyfert galaxies that show a highly ionized absorbing outflow ($\sim$50% of the Seyfert 1 galaxies). The currently proposed geometry with the high $r_{\text{min}}$ and $\Omega$ values makes for a large-scale outflow that from our perspective would entirely blanket the central AGN region including the BLR, provided that the ionization cone is uniformly filled. Since Gabel et al. (2003) find that at some radial velocities the BLR is only partially covered by the UV outflow, identifying the UV absorber with the extended X-ray ionization cone would require that some of the BLR be observed directly, i.e., through (velocity-specific) holes in the cone. We note that Steenbrugge et al. (2003) estimate for NGC 5548 much smaller opening angles: $\Omega/2\pi < 0.5\%$. However, that result was obtained by assuming a mass-loss rate that is equal to the mass accretion rate (with a luminosity efficiency of 5%). If this assumption is relaxed, extended ionization cones may be applicable for NGC 5548 as well. Indeed, the high values for $\Omega$ in NGC 3783 imply that the outflow mass-loss rate exceeds the accretion rate, as discussed in § 3.2.3.

3.2.3. Mass Estimates

By integrating the mass density $\mu n_H m_H$ (where $\mu = 1.3$ is the average atomic weight for a solar-abundance plasma) over the ionization cone (or clouds), it is possible to estimate the total mass $M$ and similarly the mass-loss rate $\dot{M}$ in the outflow. These quantities are listed in Table 3 for both the localized and ionization cone models. In the ionization cone model, the total mass depends on $r_{\text{max}} - r_{\text{min}}$, which is not well constrained by the observation. Therefore, the mass in Table 3 is normalized to $r_{\text{max}} \simeq r_{\text{max}} - r_{\text{min}}$. Taking an outflow velocity of $600$ km s$^{-1}$, we obtain a total mass-loss rate of up to a few solar masses per year. We compare this with an estimate of the mass accretion rate. With a bolometric luminosity of $4.5 \times 10^{44}$ ergs s$^{-1}$ (Markowitz et al. 2003) and a gravitation-to-light conversion efficiency of $L_{\text{bol}}/(M_{\text{acc}} c^2) = 5\%$, NGC 3783 would be accreting about $0.2 M_\odot$ yr$^{-1}$. If all these numbers are correct, then NGC 3783 is accreting only about 10% of the mass it is ejecting. Although this is a surprisingly low accretion efficiency, we are not aware of any hard evidence against it. Furthermore, ultrahigh velocity outflows ($\sim 0.1 c$) have been discovered recently in several AGNs. It has been postulated that the high mass-loss rate observed in these sources is due to their high accretion rate $L_{\text{bol}}/L_{\text{Eddington}}$ (Pounds et al. 2003). Narrow-line Seyfert 1 galaxies such as NGC 3783 could be the low-mass facet of this phenomenon.

It is worth stressing that the errors given in Table 3 reflect only those due to the currently measured $N_H$ and $F_{\text{bol}}$ values. Indeed, the present mass estimates should be treated with more caution, since the X-ray outflow of NGC 3783 is undoubtedly more complex than a simple, continuous cone, which was assumed here. Nonetheless, these estimates are good enough to rule out radically different scenarios, such as the highly localized one. Most likely, the true picture for NGC 3783 is somewhat less extreme than $r_{\text{max}} \gg r_{\text{min}}$, and therefore $r_{\text{min}}$ could be somewhat less than 10 pc but certainly not much less, given the timing constraints obtained in § 2.2 of $r_{\text{min}} \gtrsim 0.5$ pc for O-K and $r_{\text{min}} \gtrsim 2.8$ pc for Fe-M.
3.2.4. Comparison with Other Observations

The extended ionization cones stand in contrast to interpretations of two other Seyfert 1 galaxies. Netzer et al. (2002), based on observed recombination times, place the ionized absorber in NGC 3516 about 0.2 pc away from the nucleus. Kriss et al. (2003) and Blustin et al. (2003) even suggest that part of the ionized absorber in NGC 7469 is closer to the nucleus than the BLR. In both of these cases, the observers find that the UV and X-ray absorbers are connected. More importantly, the present results are in stark contrast to the parameters derived by Gabel et al. (2003) for NGC 3783 based on UV absorption, which according to those authors occurs at subparsec distances in tiny clouds the size of $\Delta r \approx 10^{10}$ cm. At the heart of the argument of Gabel et al. (2003) lies the absorption by the C iii multiplet at 1175 Å detected in the high-velocity UV component ($-1300$ km s$^{-1}$). Following Bromage et al. (1985), Gabel et al. (2003) take this feature as evidence for high-density gas ($\gtrsim 10^9$ cm$^{-3}$) in this component, which inevitably restricts it to clumps very close to the source. We wish to point out that the 2s2p triplet complex from which those C iii lines are absorbed can in fact be populated at lower densities. Only one fine-structure level in the triplet requires high densities (see, e.g., Fig. 1 in Bhatia & Kastner 1993), but absorption from the other two levels of the triplet may be possible at low densities and might be producing the C iii lines at 1175 Å observed by Gabel et al. (2003).

On the other hand, it may also be possible that dense clouds reside at the base of the ionization cone where the outflow is clumpy and less ionized and thus absorbs UV light. Farther out in the outflow, perhaps, the ejecta evaporate and become much more tenuous and, consequently, more highly ionized. These more extended parts of the outflow might then constitute the X-ray--absorbing/emitting gas. However, following Kaspi et al. (2002) and Gabel et al. (2003), we note that the very similar velocity structure in the X-ray- and UV-absorption systems strongly suggests that the two coincide and most likely are two different manifestations of the same outflow. Finally, based on UV variability and recombination times, Shields & Hamann (1997) also arrive at the conclusion that the X-ray and UV absorbers are more than 10 pc away from the ionizing source.

A paramount difference between the UV-derived and X-ray–derived parameters of the outflow lies in the corresponding $M$ and $\dot{M}$ values. In the Gabel et al. (2003) picture, the calculated $M$ and $\dot{M}$ values are more than 10 orders of magnitude smaller than the values derived here from the X-ray measurement (see Table 3). According to the UV interpretation, the outflow carries insignificant mass and energy out of the AGN system, while according to the present X-ray analysis, the outflow must play a major role in the mass and energy budgets of the AGN.

4. CONCLUSIONS

The present 280 ks observation of NGC 3783 leads to a few interesting conclusions, which can be summarized as follows:

1. Despite the continuum increasing by up to a factor of 2 during the 280 ks observation, no significant effect on the absorption structure has been detected. The fact that the absorbing plasma did not respond to the increase in flux within, for instance, 1 day places it at least 0.5 (O-K) to 2.8 pc (Fe-M) away from the continuum source, regardless of its geometry or physical situation (e.g., density).

2. The interpretation of the X-ray line absorbing and emitting plasma being closely connected to, or actually being a manifestation of, the same outflow is very tempting given the P Cygni type profiles as well as the similar velocity widths, inferred column densities, and ionization distributions.

3. Assuming that the two components are connected rules out a localized geometry ($\Delta r \ll r$ and $n_e \approx 10^9$ cm$^{-3}$) for the X-ray plasma. This geometry was suggested by Gabel et al. (2003) for the UV-absorbing outflow.

4. Instead, we propose diffuse gas in the form of ionization cones. These cones cannot be closer than about 10 pc from the ionizing source and must therefore have much lower densities (a few $100$ cm$^{-3}$ and decreasing with distance). In this case we find that the mass-loss rate in the outflow is significant, of the order of $1 M_\odot$ yr$^{-1}$.

5. The conflict with the clumpy cloudlet description of Gabel et al. (2003) could possibly be due to erroneous use of the C iii multiplet at 1175 Å as a density diagnostic, but it could also be resolved if the UV absorber lies at the base of the ionization cone in the form of clouds. This constituent then represents a transient phase of the gas as it expands, ionizes, and transforms into the much more extended and more tenuous X-ray plasma.

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