East Asia VLBI Network observations of the TeV Gamma-Ray Burst 190114C

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Long duration gamma-ray bursts (GRBs) signal the death of massive stars and the formation of stellar mass black holes (BHs). GRB emission extends from the $\gamma$-rays (the short-lived prompt emission) through the X-rays and optical/near infrared to the radio bands (the long-lived afterglow emission, reviewed in previous works [1–3]). Very high energy (VHE, $E > 100 \text{ GeV}$) emission from GRB afterglows has been long predicted (e.g., [4–6]). VHE detections provide rich information on GRB shock physics and on the conditions of the emitting zone [7]. In particular, the detection of the inverse Compton emission component would constrain the characteristic energy of the shock accelerated electrons responsible for the synchrotron emission and the fraction of the outflow kinetic energy distributed among relativistic particles and, through its amplification, magnetic field. On the other hand, the detection of VHE emission from GRBs is very challenging due to the attenuation by extra-galactic background light and/or by internal absorption. Despite that hundreds of GRBs have been detected with an afterglow, no emission at tera electron Volt (TeV) photon energy has ever been detected above 300 GeV [11] with a significance of $>2\sigma$. The burst has also been detected by the Gamma-Ray Burst Monitor (GBM) [12] and the Large Area Telescope (LAT) [13] onboard the Fermi satellite. Prompt follow-up by Swift revealed a bright X-ray afterglow and initiated a series of multi-band follow-up observations ranging from X-ray to radio bands.

Other than being the first GRB ever to be detected by ground-based Cherenkov telescopes, GRB 190114C is a notable target of particular attraction for a number of other reasons. First, GRB 190114C shows evidence of a very early afterglow onset [14], allowing for an estimate of its initial bulk Lorentz factor (see also Ref. [15]). Second, GRB 190114C was observed and detected across 16 orders of magnitude in frequency, from $\gamma$-rays to radio, within several hours after the burst (see above paragraph), allowing for a study of the multi-band evolution of the afterglow starting early after the trigger (e.g., for a notable example of how important broadband afterglow modelling can be for the interpretation of this kind of events [16]). Third, GRB 190114C is one of the few GRBs with an early radio detection: 3.2 h after the burst it was observed by the Atacama Large Millimeter/Submillimeter Array (ALMA) at 90 GHz, revealing a fading mm-wavelength counterpart [17]. 4.2 h after the burst by the Karl G. Jansky Very Large Array (VLA) at a central frequency of 33.5 GHz [18] with a flux density of 3.1 mJy at the position of RA (J2000) = 03h38m01s.191, Dec (J2000) = −26°56′46″.72; later ATCA detected the source at 5.5, 9, 17 and 19 GHz with a flux density of $\sim$2 mJy about 1.5 days after the burst [19]. A detection was also reported by the RT-22 telescope, with a flux density of $\sim$4 mJy at 36.8 GHz on 2019 January 15 and 16 [20].

Fundamental information about GRB jets can be derived from radio observations of their afterglow, including jet energy, inter-
stellar medium (ISM) density, and shock parameters [21]. Very Long Baseline Interferometry (VLBI), owing to its unparalleled high resolution, has been proven to be capable of providing unique information on the shock energy (and its distribution) and expansion velocity. One such case was the famous and exceptionally bright GRB 030329. Very Long Baseline Array (VLBA) and global VLBI observations determined the accurate size and source expansion velocity of GRB 030329 [22–25]. Later on, VLBI observations of GRB 170817A (the electromagnetic counterpart of the gravitational wave event GW 170817) revealed a proper motion of the radio centroid and secured constraints on its linear size at milliarcsecond scales, invaluable in telling competing models for the ejecta dynamics apart [26–28]. Modelling the temporal evolution of radio flux densities offers critical constraints on the progenitor environment. The multi-band light curves of the extremely bright GRB 130427A can be described by a two-jet model, which favors a low-density progenitor environment [29–31].

Multi-epoch European VLBI Network (EVN) and VLBA observations of GRB 151027A played a pivotal role in favouring the wind density profile model, typical of the medium surrounding a massive star in the final stages of its evolution, rather than a homogeneous profile typical of the interstellar medium [32].

Given the exceptional brightness and energy spectrum of GRB 190114C, this seemed another ideal case to take advantage of high angular resolution and sensitivity provided by the VLBI technique.

Owing to the above reasons, we applied for VLBI observations of GRB 190114C with the East Asia VLBI Network (EAVN) [33]. It is critical to have a proper characterisation of the emission in the first days, when it is possible to observe the source at high frequency. Moreover, multi-epoch VLBI radio observations starting in the immediate aftermath of the burst enable to determine or constrain the source expansion. In order to fulfill these described goals, we conducted VLBI observations at 22 GHz in three epochs within about one month after the burst. The VLBI observational results and insights from afterglow modelling are presented in this paper.

We carried out high-resolution follow-up observations of GRB 190114C with the East Asia VLBI Network on three epochs of 2019 January 21, 30, and 2019 February 16, which correspond to 6, 15 and 32 days respectively after the burst discovered on 2019 January 15 (see the report in Ref. [34]). These observations made use of the Director’s Discretionary Time (DDT). The first observation was scheduled as soon as possible, within 1 week after the burst, with the initial purpose of constraining the self-absorption frequency. The primary purpose of the second and third epochs was to monitor the flux density evolution in order to track the possible evolution of the self-absorption frequency and, if possible, to determine or constrain the source expansion speed. They would also have the added value of validating and strengthening any positional constraints derived from the first epoch.

Altogether, eight telescopes participated in the observations. The detailed observation setup is presented in Table A1 (online). The same observation setup was used in the three sessions. Although the target is at a relatively low declination, each station could observe it at elevation $> 20^\circ$ for most of the time during the observing runs and with a maximum elevation angle up to $40^\circ$. An example of the $(u,v)$ coverage is shown in Fig. A1 (online). The observations were carried out in phase referencing mode. The nearby bright source J0348-2749 (1.2 Jy at 22 GHz; 2.5′ away from the target on the plane of the sky) was used as the calibrator. The image of J0348-2749 is displayed in Fig. B1 (online), showing a compact core-jet structure. We first calibrated the phases of J0348-2749, then applied the complex gain solutions derived from J0348-2749 to the target source data by interpolation. The data were finally averaged in frequency within each sub-band, but individual sub-bands were kept to minimize bandwidth smearing. Similarly, the data were time-averaged to 2 s for imaging. Additional details on the observation and data reduction are deferred to the Supplementary materials.

We compare the upper limits from our radio observations with standard afterglow model predictions, and we model the GRB afterglow emission following Granot and Sari [35], which accounts for synchrotron emission from electrons in a relativistic shock whose hydrodynamical profile is described by the self-similar [36] solution. The number density profile of the external medium in which the shock propagates is parametrized as $n(R) \propto R^{-k}$, where the two relevant scenarios in GRBs are $k = 0$ (constant density medium, representing a uniform ISM region) or $k = 2$ (the expected density profile of the circumburst medium produced by the winds of the progenitor star, e.g., Ref. [37]). A fraction $\epsilon_p$ of the energy density in the shocked material is assumed to take the form of relativistic electrons (accelerated into a non–thermal energy distribution with index $p$), while a fraction $\epsilon_b$ is assumed to be shared by the magnetic field, amplified by small-scale magneto–hydrodynamic instabilities. These parameters suffice to derive the synchrotron emission, i.e., the spectral shape and normalization, at all times for which the underlying assumptions hold.
Fig. 1 shows the images of the sky zone. The root mean square (rms) noise in the three images is 0.92, 0.61 and 0.28 mJy beam\(^{-1}\), respectively (Table B1 online). As a comparison, the image noise derived from the Korean and Japanese-only telescopes results in an increase by 28%-45%. The first epoch has only five telescopes, compared to seven telescopes in other two sessions, and thus has a relatively higher noise level. The images cover a square region of the sky, with a side length of 200 mas, centered at RA = 03h38m01s.191, Dec = \(-26^\circ 56'56''.730\) (J2000), i.e., the same as the position determined from the VLA observation \[18\]. The positional uncertainty given by the VLA observation is 0.04'' in RA direction and 0.02'' in Dec direction, respectively. Therefore a field with a radius of 100 mas is large enough to search for the GRB signal. An integration time of 1 s was used in correlation, to avoid time smearing effects. There is no significant peak brighter than 5\(\sigma\) in either image. Fig. 1a displays ripples in which there are some bright points with a maximum brightness of \(\sim 4\sigma\). The ripples are caused by sparse sampling of the visibilities resulted from a limited number of telescopes (five, corresponding to 10 geographical baselines). These 4\(\sigma\) points do not have corresponding counterparts in Fig. 1b and c, whose noise level is 1.5–3 times lower. Therefore we regard these peaks as noise. In contrast, Fig. 1b and c show a smooth field without any clues of dominant signals which can be identified as candidate sources. In conclusion, we did not detect GRB 190114C from the EAVN data in the three epochs. A 3\(\sigma\) upper limit is given as 2.76 mJy (2019 January 21), 1.82 mJy (2019 January 30) and 0.84 mJy (2019 February 16) respectively and used to constrain the model parameters below.

The afterglow of GRB 190114C has been studied in a number of recent works, some of which are still in preprint form, while others have been published. Wang et al. \[38\] model the multi-wavelength emission after \(\sim 1\)ks as synchrotron radiation from the forward shock. A similar modelling is proposed by Fraija et al. \[39\], where the early optical/X-ray emission is instead interpreted as due to the deceleration of the jet in a wind-like stratified medium. The radio (1.3–97 GHz) emission in the early phase up to \(\sim 1\)ks has been interpreted as due to the emission by the transient reverse shock that marks the time during which the jet injects its energy into the shocked region \[40\]. At present two possible scenarios seem to emerge in the interpretation of the available multi-

Fig. 2. (Color online) Constraints on the forward shock synchrotron afterglow model parameters. The panels show either the 2D parameter space \(\varepsilon_e-A_s\) (for the wind external medium – left-hand column) or \(\varepsilon_e-n_{\text{ISM}}\) (for the uniform ISM external medium – right-hand column). The parameter \(A_s\) is the density parameter for the wind medium (as defined in Ref. \[37\]). Coloured regions correspond to parameters that produce radio emission consistent with our upper limits. Each plot shows three shaded regions corresponding to three different values of \(\varepsilon_e\), namely 0.01, 0.1 and 0.9. The two rows correspond to two possible values of the outflow kinetic energy, namely \(E_k = 10^{53}\) erg and \(10^{54}\) erg.
wavelength data: either emission from the reverse/forward shock component in a wind medium (where the reverse and forward shock emission dominate the early- and late-time emission, respectively) or emission dominated solely by the forward shock produced by the expansion of the outflow in a medium whose density evolves from a wind environment to an ISM with a constant number density [39].

These different scenarios will be best tested by considering all the available multi-wavelength data sets. In particular the TeV data by MAGIC can constrain the fraction of energy of the electrons $\epsilon_e$ along with other afterglow parameters (see e.g., Ref. [7]). Here we show to what extent our three radio observations can constrain the parameter space of a standard forward shock synchrotron afterglow model (given that, at our observation time, any reverse shock contribution would not be relevant anymore). We consider the two possible external medium scenarios (ISM or wind) and three possible values of the parameter $\epsilon_e = [0.01, 0.1, 0.9]$ which correspond to the range of values adopted to model this afterglow in the literature. The afterglow flux is governed, among other parameters, by the outflow kinetic energy: we consider two possible values $E_k = [10^{52}, 10^{54}]$ erg. Considering the isotropic equivalent energy radiated in $\gamma$-rays of $\sim 3 \times 10^{53}$ erg as measured from the prompt emission spectrum (e.g., Ref. [14]), the assumed values for $E_k$ correspond to an efficiency of the prompt phase ($\eta \sim E_{iso}/E_k$) of 75% and 30%, respectively. Finally, we assume a typical spectral index of the electron power-law distribution $p = 2.3$ (this parameter has little impact on the emission at our frequencies). With these assumptions, we explore the parameter space given by the combination of the energy in the magnetic field, described through parameter $c_B$, and the density of the external medium $n$ (or the normalization of the wind profile $A_\nu$) and require the afterglow emission at 6, 15 and 32 days at 22 GHz to be consistent with our upper limits. In Fig. 2 we show the parameter space allowed by our three upper limits with colored regions for the possible combinations of the assumed parameter values described above. Each shade of colour refers to a different value of $c_B$: the two rows refer to the two considered values of isotropic-equivalent kinetic energy $E_k$: the two columns refer to the wind (left-hand column) and uniform ISM (right-hand column) cases. Additionally, in Fig. 3 we compare our limits with the expected 22 GHz emission for the various parameter sets proposed so far in the literature. Most parameter values are consistent with our upper limits.

We carried out follow-up observations of GRB 190114C with the EAVN at 22 GHz in three epochs, on 6, 15 and 32 days after the burst respectively. In none of the images derived from the three VLBI observations we find a source with brightness above 5σ, suggesting that the source flux density has rapidly declined. The present observations set upper limits of radio emission of GRB 190114C, offering useful constraints on the parameter space (e.g., energy fraction of the magnetic field, density of external medium, kinetic energy) of the synchrotron afterglow model of a standard forward shock. The modelled light curves in the recent papers are found to be consistent with our upper limits.

In addition to its scientific importance, this observation campaign is of particular merit: it is the first time for the EAVN to conduct fast-response observations of a transient. The experience gained, i.e., completion of the sequence of proposing the observations, coordinating the efforts at the various stations, scheduling and conducting the first-epoch observation within one week after the X-ray triggering, is very useful for a future Target-of-Opportunity (ToO) operational mode of the EAVN. Moreover, this is the first phase-referencing observation of the EAVN. So far, the EAVN has mostly been limited to the observations of bright sources (e.g., [41–43]), therefore the capability of phase referencing will greatly expand its science applications.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgments

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Author contributions

Tao An and Marcello Giroletti coordinated the observation. Tao An, Om Salafia and Giancarlo Ghirlanda drafted and revised the paper. Yingkang Zhang, Marcello Giroletti and Kazuhiro Hada analyzed the VLBI Data. Om Salafia and Giancarlo Ghirlanda made the afterglow model. All authors contributed to the observation design and the discussion and interpretation of the data.

Appendix A. Supplementary materials

Supplementary materials to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scib.2019.11.012.

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