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The Distance to NGC 4993: The Host Galaxy of the Gravitational-wave Event GW170817

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Abstract

The historic detection of gravitational waves from a binary neutron star merger (GW170817) and its electromagnetic counterpart led to the first accurate (sub-arcsecond) localization of a gravitational-wave event. The transient was found to be \(\sim10\)" from the nucleus of the S0 galaxy NGC 4993. We report here the luminosity distance to this galaxy using two independent methods. (1) Based on our MUSE/VLT measurement of the heliocentric redshift \(z_{\mathrm{helio}} = 0.009783 \pm 0.000023\), we infer the systemic recession velocity of the NGC 4993 group of galaxies in the cosmic microwave background (CMB) frame to be \(v_{\mathrm{CMB}} = 3231 \pm 53\) km s\(^{-1}\). Using constrained cosmological simulations we estimate the line-of-sight peculiar velocity to be \(v_{\mathrm{pec}} = 307 \pm 230\) km s\(^{-1}\), resulting in a cosmic velocity of \(v_{\mathrm{cosmic}} = 2924 \pm 236\) km s\(^{-1}\). (2) Using Hubble Space Telescope measurements of the effective radius (15.5 ± 15.5) and contained intensity and MUSE/VLT measurements of the velocity dispersion, we place NGC 4993 on the Fundamental Plane (FP) of E and S0 galaxies. Comparing to a frame of 10 clusters containing 226 galaxies, this yields a distance estimate of \(D_{\mathrm{FP}} = 44.0 \pm 7.5\) Mpc. The combined redshift and FP distance is \(D_{\mathrm{NGC\,4993}} = 41.0 \pm 3.1\) Mpc. This "electromagnetic" distance estimate is consistent with the independent measurement of the distance to GW170817 as obtained from the gravitational-wave signal (\(D_{\mathrm{GW}} = 43.8^{+2.9}_{-5.9}\) Mpc) and confirms that GW170817 occurred in NGC 4993.

Key words: galaxies: distances and redshifts – galaxies: fundamental parameters – galaxies: individual (NGC 4993)

1. Introduction

GW170817 was the first gravitational-wave event arising from a binary neutron star (NS) merger to have been detected by LIGO/Virgo (Abbott et al. 2017a). The source was localized to a sky region of 28 deg\(^2\) purely using gravitational-wave data from the three interferometers. As such, it provided the first realistic chance of detecting an electromagnetic counterpart, as outlined in Abbott et al. (2017b): 2 s after the merger, Fermi and INTEGRAL detected a weak gamma-ray burst, and half a day after the event, an optical (Coulter et al. 2017) and near-infrared (NIR; Tanvir et al. 2017) counterpart was localized to sub-arcsecond precision, \(\sim10\)" from the nucleus of the S0 galaxy NGC 4993 (Abbott et al. 2017b). It exhibited an unprecedented optical/NIR lightcurve and spectral evolution (Abbott et al. 2017b; Tanvir et al. 2017), strongly suggestive of formation of very heavy elements (lanthanides) out of the tidally ejected neutron-rich material in the merger (Pian et al. 2017; Tanvir et al. 2017).

It is highly likely that the neutron star–neutron star (NS–NS) merger occurred in NGC 4993. A precise distance to NGC 4993 is therefore required in order to understand the energetics of the event. Furthermore, since NS–NS mergers provide a route to \(H_0\) via the direct "standard siren" measurement provided by the Abbott et al. (2017c), it is valuable to have an accurate redshift as well as independent electromagnetic distance estimates. The redshift, especially if corrected to the Hubble flow, is vital in constructing the gravitational-wave Hubble diagram, while an independent distance estimate can confirm the galaxy association.

To our knowledge, there are no direct measurements of the distance to NGC 4993 (Tully et al. 2009). NGC 4993 belongs to a group of galaxies (see Section 3.2). Two galaxies have distances in the Cosmicflows-3 data release (Tully et al. 2016). NGC 4970 (PGC 45466) has a Fundamental Plane (FP) distance of 39.8 ± 10.3 Mpc from the 6dF Galaxy Survey (Springob et al. 2014), while ESO508-G019 (PGC 45666) has a Tully–Fisher distance of 37.5 ± 5.6 Mpc from I-band and Spitzer photometry (Willick et al. 1997; Springob et al. 2009; Sorce et al. 2014). Combined, these estimates suggest a group distance of 38.0 ± 4.9 Mpc.

Section 2 summarizes the origin of the data used to provide new distance estimates to NGC 4993. In Section 3, we provide an updated distance along this avenue. We use a new redshift and estimate of the peculiar velocity of NGC 4993. In Section 4, we obtain the first direct estimate of the distance to NGC 4993 itself using the FP method. We discuss the results in Section 5 and summarize in Section 6.

2. Data

The data used in this Letter are described in Levan et al. (2017). NGC 4993 was observed with the Very Large Telescope (VLT) and the MUSE Integral Field Spectrograph on 2017 August 18.

We also used an Advanced Camera for Surveys F606W Hubble Space Telescope (HST) image of NGC 4993 obtained on 2017 April 28. The image was reduced via astrodriz- zle, with the final scale set to 0"/07.
3. Redshift Distance

3.1. Redshift of NGC 4993

An updated value of the heliocentric redshift of NGC 4993 is obtained from the MUSE/VLT observation reported by Levan et al. (2017). Based on fits to the absorption lines from stars in the center of the galaxy, the heliocentric recession velocity is determined to be $v_{\text{helio}} = 2933 \pm 7 \text{ km s}^{-1}$, corresponding to a heliocentric redshift of $z_{\text{helio}} = 0.009783 \pm 0.000023$.

3.2. Redshift of the NGC 4993 Group of Galaxies

NGC 4993 appears to be a member of a group of galaxies; see Figure 1. Crook et al. (2007) list it to be one of 46 members of a group of galaxies in the 2MASS redshift survey (group number 955, with an average heliocentric velocity of 2558 km s$^{-1}$ and a velocity dispersion of 486.5 km s$^{-1}$). However, NGC 4993 is located ≈4.2 Mpc in projection from the center of this putative group and a non-detection in X-rays appears to rule out such a rich relaxed group. Makarov & Karachentsev (2011) find NGC 4993 to be one of 15 members with a velocity dispersion of 74 km s$^{-1}$. Recently, Kourkchi & Tully (2017) found it to be one of 22 members of a group with a mean heliocentric velocity of 2995 km s$^{-1}$ and a velocity dispersion of 118 km s$^{-1}$ (our calculation of the rms velocity spread of the 22 galaxies is 155 km s$^{-1}$). However, it is evident from Figure 2 that five of the galaxies have a much higher recession velocity than the rest and so do not appear to be part of a relaxed group. We therefore exclude these 5 galaxies and consider the properties of the remaining 17 galaxies. We also update the NGC 4993 velocity from 2902 to 2933 km s$^{-1}$ (as measured here) and compute a mean heliocentric velocity of 2921 km s$^{-1}$ and a velocity dispersion of 53 km s$^{-1}$. This small velocity dispersion and the large extent of the structure suggest a relaxation time larger than $10^{10}$ years, and so the structure is unlikely to be a relaxed group. We therefore adopt the velocity dispersion of the structure as the uncertainty in the recession velocity (rather than the error in the mean, $53/\sqrt{16} = 13 \text{ km s}^{-1}$), i.e., $v_{\text{NGC 4993, group}} = 2921 \pm 53 \text{ km s}^{-1}$. This structure is shown in Figure 1. Note that NGC 4993 is at the outskirts of the structure while its velocity is very close to the mean velocity of the structure.

Using the WMAP measurement of the cosmic microwave background (CMB) dipole (Hinshaw et al. 2009), we obtain\(^5\) a recession velocity in the frame defined by the CMB of $v_{\text{CMB}} = 3231 \pm 53 \text{ km s}^{-1}$.

\(^5\) Using the NED Velocity Correction Calculator at [https://ned.ipac.caltech.edu/forms/vel_correction.html](https://ned.ipac.caltech.edu/forms/vel_correction.html).
with the error in group velocity the velocity of NGC 4993 is indicated.

above the mean velocity plotted as filled circles, the mean velocity is \( v_{\text{helio}} = 2921 \text{ km s}^{-1} \). The updated velocity of NGC 4993 is indicated.

3.3. Peculiar Velocity

To estimate the “cosmic velocity,” i.e., the recession velocity corresponding to pure Hubble flow, we need to take into account the peculiar velocity due to large-scale structure:

\[
v_{\text{cosmic}} = v_{\text{CMB}} - v_{\text{pec}}.
\]

Following Li et al. (2014), we make use of a dark-matter simulation from the Constrained Local Universe Simulations (CLUES) project to find the best estimate of the peculiar velocity of NGC 4993. The initial conditions of the simulation were generated using constraints from observations probing the distribution of galaxies and their peculiar velocities so that the final snapshot is a 3D representation of the observed local universe (for technical details see Gottloeber et al. 2010). The simulation reproduces all main large-scale structures around the Local Group such as the Virgo cluster, the Coma cluster, the Great Attractor, and the Perseus–Pisces supercluster and the resulting peculiar velocity field. Structures on scales smaller than \( \sim 5h^{-1} \text{ Mpc} \) are not subject to observational constraints and emerge from random sampling of the initial density field. Their evolution, however, is strongly influenced by tidal forces from the nearby large-scale structures. Therefore, the simulation provides a realistic and dynamically self-consistent model for the matter distribution and the velocity field in the local universe. The simulation adopted cosmological parameters from the third data release of the WMAP satellite (WMAP3), i.e., matter density \( \Omega_m = 0.24 \), dimensionless Hubble parameter \( h = 0.73 \), and normalization of the power spectrum \( \sigma_8 = 0.76 \). The simulation box has a side length equal to \( 160 h^{-1} \text{ Mpc} \) and contains 1024\(^3\) particles.

In order to find the position vector of the observational cone in the simulation box, we calculate the angular distances of NGC 4993 from three reference points that have unambiguous analogs in the numerical model: the direction of the peculiar velocity of the Local Group, the Great Attractor (Norma cluster), and the Perseus cluster. These three angular separations are then used to determine the position vector with respect to the analog of the Local Group in the simulation box. Having found the direction of NGC 4993 in the simulation, we compute the radial projection of peculiar velocities of dark-matter particles found in a narrow light cone. Figure 3 shows the resulting projected peculiar velocity as a function of the heliocentric velocities, with no galaxies in the range 3005–3169 km s\(^{-1}\), i.e., in the positive range above the mean velocity \( v_{\text{helio}} = 2995 \text{ km s}^{-1} \). Considering only galaxies plotted as filled circles, the mean velocity is \( v_{\text{helio}} = 2921 \text{ km s}^{-1} \). The updated velocity of NGC 4993 is indicated.

3.4. Hubble Distance

To a good approximation, Hubble’s law gives the luminosity distance at low redshift as

\[
D_L = H_0^{-1}c\left(1 + \frac{1 - q_0}{2}z_{\text{cosmic}}\right),
\]

with \( q_0 = -0.53 \) for standard cosmological parameters. For a local Hubble constant of \( H_0 = 73.24 \pm 1.74 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1} \) (Riess et al. 2016) we obtain \( D_L = 40.4 \pm 3.4 \text{ Mpc} \). The quoted uncertainty accounts for the limited depth of the NGC 4993 group of galaxies (Figure 1), which is less than 1°, corresponding to 0.6 Mpc.

We note that adopting a mean heliocentric velocity of 2995 km s\(^{-1}\) for the NGC 4993 group (Kourkchi & Tully 2017) would increase \( v_{\text{cosmic}} \) by 74 km s\(^{-1}\) and hence the inferred distance by 1.0 Mpc.

4. FP Distance

The FP is a fairly tight relation between radius, surface brightness, and velocity dispersion for bulge-dominated galaxies (Djorgovski & Davis 1987). It is widely used as a
distance indicator for early-type galaxies. The FP that we consider is
\[ \log R_e + \alpha \log \sigma + \beta \log (L_e) + \gamma, \]
where \( R_e \) is the effective radius measured in arcseconds, \( \sigma \) is the velocity dispersion in \( \text{km s}^{-1} \), \( (L_e) \) is the mean intensity inside the effective radius measured in \( L_\odot \text{ pc}^{-2} \), and \( \gamma \) is the distance-dependent zero point of the relation.

The global values adopted by Jorgensen et al. (1996) are \( \alpha = 1.24 \) and \( \beta = 0.82 \) in Gunn r. We adopt \( r = F606W + 0.04 \) mag (Fukugita et al. 1995; Sirianni et al. 2005) for E/S0 galaxies. The surface brightness is
\[ \log (L_e) = -0.4[F606W(<R_e)] - 0.04 - 0.29 + 2.5 \log \pi + 5 \log R_e - 26.40 - 10 \log (1 + z) - 2.5 \log (1 + z), \]
(Hjorth & Tanvir 1997), which transforms into Gunn r and corrects for Galactic extinction (Schlafly & Finkbeiner 2011), cosmological surface brightness dimming, and spectral bandwidth (k-correction), with \( z = \alpha \text{ cosmic} \).

In principle, FP distances may be affected by the observed magnitude range, morphological makeup of the sample (E-to-S0 ratio), and environment. According to Jorgensen et al. (1996), their version of the FP excludes biases above 1% due to magnitude and morphological selection.

4.1. FP Parameters

4.1.1. Photometric Properties

The HST F606W image is fit to a 2D version of the Sérsic function,
\[ I(R) = I_e \exp \left\{ -b_n \left( \frac{R}{R_e} \right)^{n} - 1 \right\}, \]
where \( R_e \) is the half-light (effective) radius, \( I_e \) is the intensity at \( R_e \), and \( n \) is the fitted Sérsic index (which is uniquely related to the coefficient \( b_n \)).

The fit was performed using the Astropy package FittingWithOutlierRemoval (Astropy Collaboration 2013). The function uses \( \sigma \) clipping to filter out bad data points and iterates \( n_{\text{iter}} \times \) times over the data. Data deviating more than \( n_s \) times the standard deviation of surrounding data points are removed in each iteration. The filtered data are then fitted with the Sérsic function.

The fitting algorithm was applied to a range of different combinations of \( n_{\text{iter}} \) and \( n_s \). Fitting parameters stabilize after 15 iterations for all \( n_s \) values, so \( n_{\text{iter}} = 15 \) is used for the fit. The final \( n_s \) was chosen for values excluding outliers and including most of the light from the center of the galaxy. This worked well for \( n_s \) values between 20 and 40.

An example of a fit to the F606W image is shown in Figure 4. Inside an effective radius of \( 15'5 \) we find \( F606W = 12.99 \) mag. The Sérsic index is \( n \approx 3.8 \). A detailed discussion of the properties of NGC 4993 is presented in Levan et al. (2017).

4.1.2. Velocity Dispersion

The velocity dispersion is measured in an aperture equivalent to \( 3''4 \) at Coma (Jorgensen et al. 1996), i.e., in a diameter of about \( 8''5 \) at the distance of NGC 4993. Rather than using aperture corrections from a measurement of the central velocity dispersion, we measure the luminosity-weighted velocity dispersion directly from our MUSE data to be \( \sigma = 171 \pm 2 \text{ km s}^{-1} \) (see also Figure 3 of Levan et al. 2017). This method allows us to tie our FP directly to that of Jorgensen et al. (1996), thus eliminating systematic uncertainties related to the approach adopted in determining the velocity dispersion.

4.2. FP Distance

The parameters used to determine the FP distance are summarized in Table 1. Calibrating the zero point of the FP to the Leo I group we can infer the distance to NGC 4993 as
\[ D = 10^{-0.4 \log R_e + 1.24 \log \sigma - 0.82 (L_e) + 2.194 (1 + \alpha \text{ cosmic})^2} \text{ Mpc} \]
(Hjorth & Tanvir 1997), where the last term corrects the angular diameter distance to luminosity distance. The resulting distance is 44.0 Mpc.

4.3. Uncertainties

The measurement of the effective radius is subject to systematic uncertainties due to the nuclear spiral arms, residuals at larger radius, and difficulty in determining the true background level. We estimate the uncertainty in \( R_e \) is about \( 1.5 \). The combination of \( R_e \) and \( (L_e) \) in Equation (1) is highly degenerate (Jorgensen et al. 1996) and so the FP distance is not very sensitive to the uncertainty in \( R_e \). The measurement of \( \sigma \) required no aperture correction since we integrate over \( R_e \) in the IFU data directly. We estimate that the uncertainty in \( \sigma \) is about \( 2 \text{ km s}^{-1} \). The uncertainties in \( R_e \) and \( \sigma \) lead to \( \sim 1.4\% \) uncertainties in the distance, in total 2.5% in the distance. Therefore, the observational uncertainties are negligible compared to the intrinsic scatter in the FP that amounts to 17% (Jorgensen et al. 1996), which we adopt as the uncertainty in the FP distance to NGC 4993, i.e., \( D_{FP} = 44.0 \pm 7.5 \text{ Mpc} \).

5. Discussion

The two distance estimates obtained in this Letter are independent. One is based on a redshift and an assumed Hubble constant, and the other is based on a direct measurement of the distance. We can therefore combine the two distances to yield \( D_{NGC 4993} = 41.0 \pm 3.1 \text{ Mpc} \). This is consistent with the independent distance obtained from the gravitational-wave signal, \( D_{GW} = 43.8^{+29}_{-6.9} \text{ Mpc} \) (Abbott et al. 2017c).

As a sanity check, we can compare these estimates to a slightly different approach. Figure 5 presents an analysis of the Cosmicflows-2 catalog (Tully et al. 2013). We took all distances in a range \( \pm 1000 \text{ km s}^{-1} \) around \( v_{CMB} \) of NGC 4993 and 10° around its position. From a fitted linear model with intrinsic scatter, the estimated distance for NGC 4993 is \( D_{CF-2} = 36.2 \pm 2.8 \text{ Mpc} \) (the error includes intrinsic scatter). We tried narrower cuts in \( v_{CMB} \) and the position, and the estimate is stable to such variations. This approach is not entirely independent from the other electromagnetic distances derived here, so we do not include it in our final value.

In Section 3, we used the Riess et al. (2016) value of the Hubble constant, \( H_0 = 73.24 \pm 1.74 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1} \). Planck Collaboration et al. (2016) instead find \( H_0 = 67.8 \pm 0.9 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1} \) in a ΛCDM cosmology. Using the Planck value for \( H_0 \) would increase our best estimate of the luminosity distance from 40.4 Mpc to 43.7 Mpc, a shift by \( \sim 1 \) standard deviation. This sensitivity to \( H_0 \) again points to the utility of these high-accuracy redshift measurements coupled with
independent gravitational-wave distance measurements in the determination of $H_0$.

Other powerful distance indicators to distant early-type galaxies include surface brightness fluctuations (SBFs) and the globular cluster luminosity function (GCLF). Both methods are preferentially used at distances smaller than that of NGC 4993. For example, the GCLF peaks at $M_V \sim -7.5$ mag (Rejkuba 2012), i.e., at around $F606W \sim 25.5$ at the distance of NGC 4993, about a magnitude shallower than the $2\sigma$ detection limit for point sources in the HST image (Levan et al. 2017). SBFs will be reported elsewhere.

### 6. Summary and Conclusions

We have obtained a new estimate of the distance to NGC 4993 based on two methods. (1) From a new measurement of its redshift with MUSE/VLT and an estimate of its peculiar velocity using CLUES constrained cosmological simulations we obtain $D_t = 40.4 \pm 3.4$ Mpc. (2) From new measurements of its velocity dispersion (with MUSE/VLT) and effective radius ($HST$; Table 1) we obtain an FP distance of $D_{FP} = 44.0 \pm 7.5$ Mpc. Combined, these result in an “electromagnetic” distance of $D_{NGC\ 4993} = 41.0 \pm 3.1$ Mpc. This compares well with the independent gravitational-wave
distance of $D_{GW} = 43.8^{+2.9}_{-6.9}$ Mpc. These results are summarized in Table 2.

The consistency between the electromagnetic and gravitational-wave distances lends credence to both avenues of determining distances and confirms that GW170817 occurred in NGC 4993.

There are at least two different ways in which the electromagnetically measured redshift to the host can lead to improved inference from gravitational-wave data. We can assume, as in Section 3.4, that the Hubble constant $H_0$ is known from other observations in order to provide better constraints on the distance. This distance estimate can then be fed in to gravitational-wave data analysis as a much tighter distance prior than the isotropic-in-volume prior (Cutler & Flanagan 1994; Aasi et al. 2013; Abbott et al. 2017c). Tighter constraints on the inclination angle of the binary’s orbit relative to the line of sight can in turn aid in the interpretation of the electromagnetic transient. Alternatively, the electromagnetic redshift measurement and the gravitational-wave distance measurement can be combined to achieve an independent estimate of the Hubble constant, insensitive to the potential systematics of electromagnetic distance estimates (Schutz 1986; Abbott et al. 2017c).

The prospects for improving the electromagnetic distance to NGC 4993 are good. Future FP studies will benefit from studies of larger samples with MUSE/VLT, which will allow disentangling different velocity components in galaxies and perhaps a refined FP indicator. The uncertainties in the peculiar velocity will also diminish as we obtain a better understanding of cosmic flows, e.g., along the avenue presented in this work. Improved photometric parameters and extension to SBF and GCLF distance indicators are within reach with the James Webb Space Telescope.

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**Table 2**

Distance Estimates to NGC 4993

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Distance (Mpc)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Redshift</td>
<td>40.4 ± 3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fundamental Plane</td>
<td>44.0 ± 7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined Electromagnetic (z+FP)</td>
<td>41.0 ± 3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gravitational Waves</td>
<td>43.8^{+2.9}_{-6.9}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**Figure 5.** Distance vs. recession velocity in the CMB frame for Cosmicflows-2 galaxies. The best-fitting relation is consistent with the distance derived for NGC 4993 from the redshift and FP methods within the errors.

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