MULTIWAVELENGTH MONITORING OF THE NARROW-LINE SEYFERT 1 GALAXY AKN 564. III. OPTICAL OBSERVATIONS AND THE OPTICAL–UV–X-RAY CONNECTION

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ABSTRACT

We present the results of a two-year long optical monitoring program of the narrow-line Seyfert 1 galaxy Akn 564. The majority of this monitoring project was also covered by X-ray observations (RXTE) and for a period of ~50 days, we observed the galaxy in UV (HST) and X-rays (RXTE & ASCA) simultaneously with the ground-based observations. Rapid and large-amplitude variations seen in the X-ray band, on a daily and hour by hour scale, were not detected at optical and UV wavelengths, which in turn exhibited much lower variability either on short (one day) or long (several months) time-scales. The only significant optical variations can be described as two 2–4 day events with ~10% flux variations. We detect no significant optical line variations and thus cannot infer a reverberation size for the broad-line region. Similarly, the large X-ray variations seem to vanish when the light curve is smoothed over a period of 30 days. The UV continuum follows the X-rays with a lag of ~0.4 days, and the optical band lags the UV band by ~2 days. No significant correlation was found between the entire X-ray dataset and the optical band. Focusing on a 20-day interval around the strongest optical event we detect a significant X-ray–optical correlation with similar events seen in the UV and X-rays. Our data are consistent with reprocessing models on the grounds of the energy emitted in this single event. However, several large X-ray flares produced no corresponding optical emission.

Subject headings: galaxies: active – galaxies: individual (Akn 564) – galaxies: nuclei – galaxies: Seyfert – X-rays: galaxies

1. INTRODUCTION

Narrow-line Seyfert 1 galaxies (NLS1) are a subclass of type 1 Seyfert galaxies defined by their extremely narrow optical permitted emission lines (FWHM ~ 2000 km s⁻¹) in comparison with normal broad-line active galactic nuclei (AGN; Oschterbck & Pogge 1985). They show extreme AGN properties; their UV-optical emission lines put them at one extreme end of the Boroson & Green (1992) primary eigenvector and they tend in the X-rays. A summary of the properties of NLS1s can be found in Boller, Brandt, & Fink (1996) and Taniguchi, Murayama, & Nagao (1999).

A possible explanation for the narrower emission lines is that NLS1s have relatively low black-hole (BH) masses for their luminosity, but high accretion rates. The broad-line region (BLR) gas location is governed by the luminosity, and the small M_BH is responsible for the smaller Keplerian velocities at that location. This hypothesis can be checked observationally by ap-
Observations are described by Pounds et al. (2001). The
ative agreement with the National Science Foundation.
Mrk 110, NGC 4051, PG 0026
far, these techniques yielded an estimate of $M_{\text{BH}}$

Two out of seven objects that appear in their analysis, PG 1351

The well-known NLS1 galaxy Arakelian 564 ($\alpha = 0.0247$)
is a suitable candidate for a continuous monitoring campaign of
this kind. It is one of the brightest NLS1s in X-rays, lies conveniently at a moderate northern declination, and displays many of the extreme properties of the NLS1 class, i.e., $\text{FWHM}(H_{\beta}) = 700 \text{ km s}^{-1}$, strong Fe II lines, a steep soft-\text{X-ray} continuum, and a large soft X-ray excess variance (Turner et al. 1999a). This last property seems to be very common among NLS1s, which show persistent large-amplitude and rapid variability at soft X-ray energies (for an extreme example see the NLS1 galaxy IRAS 13224$-\text{S}$, which defines the reference data set. All other data sets

In this paper (Paper III of the series) we present the results of the optical–UV–X-ray connection in AGN in general. In § 4 we present the conclusions.

2. OBSERVATIONS AND DATA REDUCTION

Akn 564 was observed photometrically and spectrophotometrically from 1998 November through 1999 November and from 2000 May through 2001 January at several ground-based observatories in coordination with the AGN Watch consortium. The following observatories participated in the campaign: Tel-Aviv University Wise Observatory (WO), MDM Observatory at Kitt Peak, Crimean Astrophysical Observatory (CAO), Osservatorio Astronomico di Bologna at Loiano (Loiano), Katzman Automatic Imaging Telescope (KAIT) at Lick Observatory, Observatory of the Southeastern Association for Research in Astronomy (SARA), Skinakas Observatory in Crete, and the University of Nebraska Lincoln Observatory. Table 1 lists the contribution of optical data points by the various observatories. Light curves of the broad-band magnitudes and of the narrow spectral bands, with spectral regions marked on Figure 1, are publicly available in ASCII format at the AGN Watch web page.

Reduction of the data was carried out in the standard way using IRAF20 with its DAOPHOT package for the aperture photometry and its SPECRED, ONEDSPEC, and TWDOSPEC packages for the spectroscopic data. Most of the following reduction procedures and methods were described in detail by earlier AGN Watch campaigns (e.g., Kaspi et al. 1996) and we will only repeat them briefly along with the proper references.

Most of the data presented in this paper were obtained at the WO, which defines the reference data set. All other data sets were intercalibrated to the WO data. The spectrophotometric calibration of Akn 564 at the WO is based on observing a nearby comparison star simultaneously with the object of interest in the spectrograph’s wide slit (see Kaspi et al. 2000). Each spectroscopic observation at the WO consisted of two 45 to 60 minute exposures of Akn 564 and its comparison star. The consecutive galaxy/star flux ratio spectra were compared to test for systematic errors in the observations and to reject cosmic rays. We discarded pairs of data points with ratios larger than $\sim 10\%$ and verified that the comparison star is non-variable to within

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18 Two out of seven objects that appear in their analysis, PG 1351+640 and PG 1704+608, have very peculiar lines, formed by a very broad base with a strong superposed narrower core that results in a low FWHM and therefore cannot be considered as NLS1s; see Stirpe (1990) and Boroson & Green (1992).

19 All publicly available data and complete references to published AGN Watch papers can be found at http://www.astronomy.ohio-state.edu/~agnwatch.

20 IRAF (Image Reduction and Analysis Facility) is distributed by the National Optical Astronomy Observatories, which are operated by AURA, Inc., under cooperative agreement with the National Science Foundation.

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| Observatory | U | B | $N_{\text{phot}}$ | V | R | I | N$_{\text{spec}}$ | Telescope | Instrument | CCD Detector | Resolution |
|-------------|---|---|------------------|---|---|---|----------------|------------|------------|--------------|------------|
| WO          | 60 | 66 | 72               | 81 | 1m | FOSC | Tektronix 1k | ~8 Å       |
| MDM         | 20 | 24 | 19               | 18 | 16 | 40 | 1.3m/         | Templeton  | 1.9 Å       | 1.3m         |
|             |    |    |                  |    | 2.4m| MrkIII |            |            | 3.4 Å       | 2.4m       |
| CAO         |    |    |                  |    | 15 | 2.6m| CCDS          | Astro-550-580x520 | 8 Å       |
| KAIT        | 33 | 35 | 32               | 34 | 32 | 0.8m| SITe 0.5k    |            |            |              |
| Loiano      |    |    |                  |    | 1.5m| BFOSC | Loral 2k     |            |            |              |
| SARA        | 3  | 4  | 3                | 5  | 5  | 0.9m| Axiom/Apogee 2k |            |            |              |
| Skinakas    | 59 | 59 | 59               | 59 | 59 | 1.3m| Tektronix 1k |            |            |              |
| Nebraska    |    |    |                  |    | 0.4m| Kodak F-0401 |            |            |              |

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The optical–UV–X-ray connection in AGN in general. In § 4 we present the conclusions.
was performed by use of spectrophotometric standard stars that
spectral proximity and similar fluxes of the two lines.

were observed each night. The absolute calibration of these
is the mean $\text{[O III]}$ flux differences between these data sets (see Peterson et al.
2000 and references therein). We attribute these small relative
flux offsets to aperture effects, although the procedure we use
by the equation

$$F(H\beta)_{\text{WO}} = \varphi F(H\beta)_{\text{observed}},$$

where $F(H\beta)_{\text{WO}}$ is the reference flux measured for the WO
spectra. This factor accounts for the fact that different apertures
result in different amounts of light loss for the point-
spread function (PSF, which describes the light distribution of
the point-like continuum and the broad lines) and the partially
extended narrow-line region.

After correcting for aperture effects, another correction needs
to be applied to adjust for the different amounts of starlight ad-
mitted by different apertures. An extended source correction $G$
is thus defined as

$$F_\lambda(5200)_{\text{WO}} = \varphi F_\lambda(5200)_{\text{observed}} - G.$$  

The value of $G$ is essentially the nominal difference in the con-
taminating host-galaxy flux between the two spectrograph en-
trance apertures employed. This intercalibration procedure is
accomplished by comparing pairs of simultaneous observations
from each of the MDM/CAO data sets to that of the WO data set.
Since no pairs of WO and MDM/CAO spectra were taken
simultaneously, but only with a difference of $\sim 0.5$ day, we used
the interpolation method on the WO data, described by Kaspi et al.
(1996), in order to simulate simultaneous pairs. Finally, each
MDM/CAO spectrum was multiplied by the average $\varphi$ and an
average $G$ was subtracted from the resultant spectrum ($\varphi$ and
$G$ were averaged among all the close-in-time pairs). The inter-
calibration constants, $\varphi$ and $G$, for each data set are listed in
Table 2.

In order to estimate the flux of the AGN component in our
spectra, we separated the host galaxy starlight contribution
from the nuclear component, by measuring its flux through PSF
fitting to field stars in $V$-band images of the galaxy taken at WO.
The subtraction of those PSFs from the images allowed us to
find that the host galaxy contributes $\sim 40\%$ to the total light at
5200 Å. This is a crude estimate, since our limited resolution,
governed by a seeing disk of about 2.5″, does not allow us to
separate the various components of the host galaxy, such as a
bulge and bar, from the PSF. A constant host contribution of
2.4 × 10^{-15} \text{ ergs cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ Å}^{-1} was then subtracted from each of
the continuum light curves, thus increasing their relative flux
uncertainties to the order of $\sim 5\%$ (see Figures 2 & 3).

Photometric data sets for each observatory (except for the
Loiano, Skinakas, and Nebraska data sets) and each filter were
obtained using the WO DAOSTAT photometric-analysis pro-
gramme that converted raw IRAF magnitudes of Akn 564 to
instrumental magnitudes, relative to a set of reference stars in
the galaxy’s field (Netzer et al. 1996). The Loiano data set was
reduced separately using the IRAF APHOT package to mea-
sure integrated fluxes for Akn 564 and about 30 field stars. The
magnitudes of the stars were used to determine the instrumental
magnitudes of the galaxy. The instrumental magnitudes of the
Skinakas observations were transformed to the standard sys-
tem through observations of standard stars from Landolt (1992)
during the last four days of their observing run. These observ-
eations established a photometric sequence of three reference
stars in the field of Akn 564 (Table 3) that was used to trans-
form instrumental magnitudes to the standard system. The Skin-
akas photometric sequence also enabled transformation of the
instrumental magnitudes of Akn 564 from all the other data sets
into apparent magnitudes.

3. DISCUSSION

3.1. Optical and X-ray Variability

One of the major goals of this study was to measure the
mass of the central BH in Akn 564, which is obtained by cross-
correlating continuum and emission line light curves. Unfortu-
nately, throughout the campaign we found no significant corre-
lation between the continuum and the emission lines. This can
be attributed to the fact that Hβ exhibited only minor variability (≈3%) and that Hα did not vary significantly.

The fractional variability amplitude $F_{\text{var}}$ is defined as

$$ F_{\text{var}} = \sqrt{\frac{S^2 - \sigma_{\text{err}}^2}{\langle X \rangle^2}}, \quad (3) $$

where $S^2$ is the total variance of the light curve, $\sigma_{\text{err}}^2$ is the mean error squared, and $\langle X \rangle^2$ is the mean flux squared.

This definition is identical to the frequently used excess variance $\sigma_{\text{rms}}$ (Turner et al. 1999a). The uncertainty of $F_{\text{var}}$ is (Edelson et al. 2001)

$$ \sigma_{F_{\text{var}}} = \frac{S^2}{\sqrt{2N F_{\text{var}} \langle X \rangle^2}}. \quad (4) $$

Table 4 lists $F_{\text{var}}$ values calculated for the optical light curves, and for two X-ray data sets: ASCA 0.7–1.3 keV (Paper I) and

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**Fig. 2.** Optical light curves of Akn 564 in the 1999 campaign. (a) The continuum at the narrow 5200 Å band. (b) The continuum at the narrow 6900 Å band. (c) Hα and (d) V-band (note the different flux scale). Dotted horizontal lines represent ±σ around the mean fluxes. The vertical gap at JD=2451475 defines the beginning of the dense sampling in 1999 (note the different temporal scale to the right of that gap).
RXTE 2–10 keV (Pounds et al. 2001). Although $F_{\text{var}}$ depends on the number of data points (equivalent to the length of an observation), it is still possible to compare the excess variance of the X-ray and optical data sets in 1999 and in 2000, since they have roughly the same size. The derived value of $F_{\text{var}}$ for the X-rays is about 50% larger than the previously reported value (Turner, George, & Netzer 1999b; see also Paper I). The $F_{\text{var}}$ calculated for the optical bands is an order of magnitude smaller than that of the X-rays. By inspection of Figures 2 & 3 and Table 4 it is apparent that the optical light curves, both line and continua, show negligible variations. At the same time, the X-rays vary rapidly with flux variations as large as 100% throughout the entire monitoring period (see Pounds et al. 2001 and Paper I). The 1999 optical observations show very little ($\sim 3\%$) continuum and line variations compared with typical Seyfert 1 galaxies ($\sim 10\%$) on similar time-scales (e.g., Kaspi et al. 1996; Maoz, Edelson, & Nandra 2000). In 2000 the longer time-scale (several weeks) optical variability continued the 1999 trend, however large-amplitude ($\sim 10\%$) variability on a $\sim 1$ day time-scale is also observed. The optical varia-
tions in 2000 can be further compared with the simultaneous UV variations (Paper II), which show a similar trend although with continuum amplitudes almost a factor of two larger.

### Table 3

**Positions and Apparent Magnitudes of Reference Stars in the Field of Akn 564.**

| Star # | Right Ascension hh:mm:ss (J2000) | Declination dd:mm:ss (J2000) | B | V | R | I |
|--------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|---|---|---|---|
| 1      | 22:42:35:12                     | 29:45:37:56                | 16.0±0.03 | 14.7±0.02 | 14.4±0.02 | 14.7±0.02 |
| 2      | 22:42:32:08                     | 29:45:26:75                | 16.34±0.03 | 15.09±0.02 | 14.78±0.02 | 15.03±0.02 |
| 3      | 22:42:39:26                     | 29:44:20:87                | 14.81±0.03 | 13.65±0.02 | 13.37±0.02 | 13.65±0.02 |

### Table 4

**Fractional Variability \( F_{\text{var}} \) in per cent**

| Band        | 1999 Sparse | 1999 Dense | 1999 Entire | 2000         |
|-------------|-------------|------------|-------------|--------------|
| 2–10 keV (RXTE) | 25.40±1.19  | 30.11±4.31 | 28.36±1.63  | 33.74±1.71   |
| 0.7–1.3 keV (ASCA) | ...        | ...        | 24.23±3.00  | ...          |
| 4900 Å       | 4.27±1.05   | 4.08±1.21  | 4.31±0.79   | 4.36±0.64    |
| Hβ          | 3.69±1.24   | 3.18±1.95  | 3.58±1.02   | 2.14±1.00    |
| 5200 Å      | 4.05±1.00   | 3.12±1.13  | 3.78±0.74   | 3.88±0.59    |
| 6600 Å      | 2.76±1.29   | 0.36±3.30  | 2.39±0.95   | 1.56±0.70    |
| Hα-        | 2.10±3.97   | ...        | ...         | ...          |
| 6000 Å      | 3.54±1.30   | 0.97±1.88  | 3.26±0.95   | 1.65±0.75    |

*Except for the 1999 dense-sampling period, \( F_{\text{var}} \) for Hα came out complex since the mean error squared was larger than the variance of the light curve (see equation 3).*

### 3.2. X-ray and UV/Optical Correlations

To derive the cross-correlation function (CCF) between the X-rays (assumed to be the driving light curves) and the UV (from Paper II) and optical continua (assumed to be the responding light curves) we utilized the interpolated CCF (ICCF) method (Gaskell & Sparke 1986), as implemented by White & Peterson (1994), and the Z-transformed discrete correlation function (ZDCF) method (Alexander 1997). The uncertainties on the lags were estimated using the flux randomization/random subset selection (FR/RSS) method (Peterson et al. 1998).

As evident in Paper I, the X-rays are significantly correlated with the UV continuum that follows them with a lag of \( \sim 0.4 \) days. We find a similar relation between the soft-X-ray (0.7–1.3 keV from ASCA; Paper I) and hard-X-ray bands (2–10 keV from RXTE; Pounds et al. 2001) and the UV continuum. Figure 4 shows the CCFs between the two X-ray bands and the continuum at 1365 Å as well as the computed lags and their uncertainties. Both lags are consistent with being larger than zero to at least 68% confidence according to the FR/RSS method.

We have not found any significant correlation between the X-rays and the optical band by correlating the entire data sets (Figure 4c). However, there is an indication that one pronounced event, seen in the X-ray light curves of both RXTE and ASCA, is also observed in the optical band. This event is clearly seen in Figure 5 as a rise in both the X-ray and optical light curves at JD≈ 2451707, peaks at JD≈ 2451710 (JD≈ 2451713) in X-ray (optical), and then declines rapidly in the X-rays, but more slowly in the optical band. This same pattern is also seen in the simultaneous UV light curves of Akn 564 (Figure 5c; Paper II). Figure 4d shows that when the X-ray and optical narrow-band light curves are truncated to \( \pm 10 \) days around the peak of this event, a highly significant correlation, \( r = 0.69 \), arises with a lag of \( 1.8_{-0.8}^{+0.7} \) days. We emphasize that other events that are seen in the X-ray light curves, with similar amplitudes, have no detected counterparts in the optical band.

The photometric broad-band data sets were also cross-correlated with the X-rays and UV continua. The results are consistent with those derived with the spectral narrow bands, although the correlations are less significant. In particular, the relatively dense photometric sampling around the optical event, dominated by the Skinakas data set, shows a \( \sim 1.5 \) days lag of the optical band relative to the X-rays. Except for the case of this single event, we found no correlation between the optical broad bands and the X-rays.

### 3.3. Reprocessing Models

As described in § 3.1, the rapid X-ray variations are not detected in the optical and UV bands. A similar relation between the X-rays and the optical band in AGN, i.e., selective response or no response at all of the optical band to the rapid X-ray variations, was recently reported for NGC 3516 (Edelson et al. 2000) and previously reported for two NLS1s: NGC 4051 (Done et al. 1990) and IRAS 13224–3809 (Young et al. 1999), although for the latter, significant optical variations of hourly time-scale were independently found (Miller et al. 2000). However, one event is observed in the light curves of all the bands covered by our campaign. As described in § 3.2, this event appears as a large-amplitude X-ray flare (factor of 3) that rises and declines on a time-scale of \( \sim 0.5 \) days, while in the UV and optical bands this flare smears to a small bump on a time-scale of a few days with a much smaller amplitude (\( \lesssim 10\% \) change in flux).

Motivated by the single event, we checked whether our data are consistent with reprocessing models in the following ways: 1) by measuring the energy carried by the event across the spectrum, and 2) by comparing the mean energy contained in the 2–10 keV and the 0.7–1.3 keV bands with that contained in the 1365–6900 Å band. We corrected the observed UV/optical spectrum of Akn 564 for Galactic extinction by applying a standard extinction law (Cardelli, Clayton, & Mathis 1989) with \( A_B = 0.258 \) mag (Schlegel, Finkbeiner, & Davis 1998). Since indications for pronounced reddening in the UV, caused by intrinsic absorbing dust in Akn 564, have been reported in the past (Walter & Fink 1993), we had to correct for intrinsic extinction by comparing the observed He I λ1640/He II λ4686 emission-line ratio value of \( \sim 2.7 \) with the theoretical value \( \sim 8 \) (e.g., Netzer & Davidson 1979) and by assuming linear extinction in \( \lambda^{-1} \) that vanishes at infinite wavelength; in this case \( A_B = 0.698 \) mag. This way we obtained two different values for the energy of the UV/optical single event and for the mean flux in that band: one that is corrected for standard Galactic extinction, and
the second that also takes into account the effects of intrinsic reddening. We estimated the energy possessed by the event in each band, by approximating its temporal profile to a triangular shape and integrating over time. The mean X-ray fluxes and energy indices were taken from Paper I and the mean UV fluxes of Paper II were used. For $H_0 = 75 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$ and $q_0 = 0.5$, the energy output during the event reached some $10^{46}$ ergs in each of the hard-X-ray (2–10 keV), soft-X-ray (0.7–1.3 keV) and UV/optical (1365–6900 Å) bands, corrected for Galactic extinction. The mean flux radiated in the 1365–6900 Å band is $\sim 4 \times 10^{-11}$ ergs s$^{-1}$ cm$^{-2}$, when corrected for Galactic extinction, and is comparable to the mean flux in the 0.7–1.3 keV and in the 2–10 keV X-ray bands. On the other hand, the UV/optical (1365–6900 Å) flux increases by almost a factor of 4, when intrinsic reddening is taken into account.

Energy considerations suggest that the case of the X-ray–UV–optical event of JD$\approx 2451710$, corrected only for Galactic extinction, is consistent with reprocessing models. In such models it is assumed that the X-rays and the UV/optical band are strongly coupled, since an X-ray continuum source irradiates a relatively dense and cool absorbing medium and the energy of the absorbed X-rays is then re-radiated at longer wave-
lengths. However, when the UV/optical band is corrected for intrinsic reddening, the mean flux in that band is larger than the combined flux in the 0.7–1.3 and 2–10 keV X-ray bands by a factor of two, implying that there is not enough X-ray energy to account for the intrinsic UV/optical single event and mean flux. Obviously, the above numbers depend, to a large extent, on the exact energy range considered for the seed photons. Therefore, the reprocessing interpretation of the single event should be considered with caution, depending on the participating energy ranges as well as on the properties and geometry of the intrinsic extinction.

Our data imply that it takes an X-ray pulse that covers ~0.4 days in time, ~0.4 days to appear in the UV band and then, ~2 days later on, to appear in the optical band as well. In both the UV and optical light curves, this pulse extends to a time-scale of about 4 days. A simple interpretation of this scenario suggests that the region from which the variable portion of the UV/optical flux is emitted has a size of about 4 light days and is 0.4–2 light days distant from the X-ray source. The inferred minimal distance of 0.4 light days, corresponding to the delayed UV response (with respect to the X-rays), can be compared with various theoretical size estimates. For a thin accre-
tion disk, most of the UV flux is emitted within $\sim 30 R_g$ (gravitational radii). Comparing the two suggests $M_{BH} \gtrsim 10^8 M_\odot$, more than an order of magnitude larger than the $10^7 M_\odot$ estimate of Pounds et al. (2001), which is based on a power density spectrum (PDS) analysis. Thus the size of the reprocessing region is much larger than the size of the internally produced UV radiation, which is what we expect. Mass estimates based on slim accretion disk models, perhaps more appropriate to the case of NLS1s, are in closer agreement with the Pounds et al. (2001) estimate, since they are associated with higher temperatures and larger UV emitting regions (Abramowicz et al. 1988; Mineshige et al. 2000).

The main difficulty with the reprocessing scenario is the observational evidence that, at most times, the bulk of the optical emission does not respond to the X-ray variations, which occur mainly on very short time scales ($\lesssim 1$ day). It has been suggested that the physical nature of the rapid X-ray variations is associated with localized flaring activity (Stern et al. 1995). Such X-ray activity may arise in the corona above the accretion disk. Alternatively, this activity may be a consequence of relativistic boosting as described by Young et al. (1999) and Boller et al. (1997), such that the X-rays always have a boost factor which is many times larger than the optical boost factor. The flaring activity may also be associated with the disk itself, where magnetic flares produce large fluctuations in magnetic-field energy release (Mineshige et al. 2000 and references therein). These explanations are consistent with the case of Akn 564 because of the absence of an X-ray–optical correlation, except for the single event. In this case there might be multiple continuum regions that do not all participate in the reprocessing, perhaps due to unusual geometry.

There is growing evidence that the key to the relationship between the optical and X-ray bands lies in the longer time-scales, i.e., months to years. A possible 100-day lag of the X-rays over the optical band (leading band) for NGC 3516 was recently reported by Maoz et al. (2000), who suggested that the X-rays are possibly emitted by two different components/mechanisms, where one is exhibiting short time-scale behavior (i.e., the flaring activity) which is not reflected in the optical band, while the other exhibits long time-scale variations, which are possibly correlated with the optical band. A similar case applies for NGC 4051 (Peterson et al. 2000), where the long time-scale variations of both the X-ray and optical bands are seen to be correlated, although with zero lag. In order to look for large time-scale trends in the X-ray light curves, we smoothed the RXTE X-ray data with boxcars ranging from 10 to 30 days, similar to what was done for NGC 4051 (Peterson et al. 2000) and for NGC 3516 (Maoz et al. 2000). The rapid X-ray variations are suppressed to $\sim 30\%$ when a smoothing boxcar of 20 days is applied and almost disappear when a boxcar of 30 days is used (see Figure 6). This behavior is also reflected in the PDS of the X-ray variations recently calculated by Pounds et al. (2001). These authors report that the turn-over frequency in the PDS corresponds to $\sim 13$ days, which implies that most of the X-ray variability of Akn 564 occurs on the order of these time-scales or smaller. The results presented in this paper show that for Akn 564, on a long time-scale (months to years) during this campaign, both the X-rays and the optical bands did not vary.

1. The very strong (a factor of $2$–$3$ peak-to-peak) and rapid ($\lesssim 1$ day) X-ray variations that characterize NLS1 galaxies are also seen in Akn 564. The mean X-ray flux was basically constant on time-scales larger than $\sim 30$ days, similar to the mean UV and optical flux.

2. Most emission lines did not show any significant variation. Ly$_\alpha$ and N $\lambda 1240$ exhibit at most $\sim 7\%$ full range flux variations mainly during two short occasions. This prevented us from measuring accurately the broad-line region size and the central black-hole mass. However, there is evidence for correlated Ly$_\alpha$-continuum variability which is consistent with $\lesssim 3$ days lag and can be used to derive a mass estimate of $\lesssim 8 \times 10^6 M_\odot$.

3. The total flux in the soft X-ray band is well-correlated with the hard X-ray flux, with zero lag.

4. The UV continuum follows the X-rays with a lag of $\sim 0.4$ days.

4. CONCLUSIONS

This paper reports the results of the optical monitoring campaign on the NLS1 galaxy Akn 564. During this campaign Akn 564 was observed in X-rays with RXTE, continuously with a varying sampling rate from 1999 January 1 until 2000 September 19, and with ASCA continuously from 2000 June 1 until 2000 July 5. The optical observations were made in the 1998–1999, 1999–2000, and 2000–2001 seasons with sampling rates varying from once a week to twice a day. In 2000 May–July, Akn 564 was also observed in the UV with HST, with a sampling rate of $\sim 1$ day. Our observational results are incorporated with some of the main findings of Turner et al. (2001) and Collier et al. (2001) to produce a complete multiwavelength picture that emerges from this campaign, as follows:

- Relative Flux
- JD−2450000
- 0.6
- 0.8
- 1
- 1.2
- 0.4
- 0.6
- 0.8
- 1
- 2
- 1150 1250 1350 1450 1550 1650 1750 1850

FIG. 6.— Original and smoothed X-ray light curves. The original RXTE light curve (a) was binned by 10, 20, and 30 days; the resulting light curves appear in panels (b), (c), and (d), respectively. Note the large difference in flux scale between the original and the smoothed light curves.
The detected wavelength-dependent UV/optical continuum time delays can be considered as evidence for a stratified continuum reprocessing region, possibly an accretion-disk structure. The 4900 Å continuum band lags the 1365 Å continuum by $\sim 1.8$ days.

The optical continuum is not significantly correlated with the X-rays. However, focusing on a 20-day period around the largest optical event gives a significant correlation with a lag of $\sim 2$ days.

Our data are consistent with reprocessing models on the grounds of a single flare that was observed in all wavelengths. However, other X-ray flares do not produce corresponding UV/optical continuum emissions.

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