THE H& LIGHT CURVES OF NOVAE IN M31

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ABSTRACT

We present H α and B light curves for 11 M31 novae, four of which were well observed near maximum. These data, along with the H α light curves of two Galactic novae, demonstrate that a nova's maximum H α flux occurs days or weeks after its continuum maximum at a monochromatic intensity 1–2 magnitudes above its peak flux in B. Moreover, after this maximum is achieved, a typical nova will radiate a third as many photons in H α as in the entire B bandpass. The most interesting part of a nova's H α light curve, however, is its decline. We find that, regardless of a nova's speed, its $H\alpha$ decay rate after maximum is almost identical to its decay rate in B. Because the effective temperature of the central source is most likely increasing during this time, this behavior suggests that most of a nova's optical luminosity during early decline is continuum emission from the nebula, rather than direct radiation from the central source.

Although the data are limited, we find no correlation of maximum $H\alpha$ magnitude with nova speed, and no evidence that an H α maximum magnitude-rate of decline relation exists. However, the H α emission is still a useful tool for studying the underlying population of nova progenitors. To facilitate such probes, we present the mean H α lifetimes for novae for a set of limiting magnitudes. These values will enable extragalactic nova rates to be derived from multiepoch $H\alpha$ surveys.

Subject headings: galaxies: individual $(M31)$ — stars: novae

I. introduction

Novae are potentially one of the most useful extragalactic distance indicators. At maximum light, novae can be as bright as $M_B \sim -8$, making them among the brightest objects in de Vaucouleurs's (1978) list of primary standard candles. Moreover, since novae are not exclusively Population I objects, they can be found in uncrowded, dust-free regions of galaxies where no Cepheids or other bright, regular variables exist. Because of this, novae offer a way to obtain distances to the early-type galaxies ofVirgo (Pritchet and van den Bergh 1987).

At the present time, however, there are several problems associated with the use of novae as distance indicators. One difficulty is the calibration of novae in our own Galaxy for use as a primary standard candle. Although there are several maximum magnitude-decay rate relations in the literature (McLaughlin 1960; Pfau 1976; de Vaucouleurs 1978; Cohen 1985), the absolute calibration of Galactic novae is treacherous. Direct distance measurements to novae are theoretically possible through the nebular parallax method, but the results are dependent on the geometry of the nova explosion. The shells of many resolved novae are clearly nonspherical, hence

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two-dimensional models of the mass ejection are necessary (Barden, Rabin, and Wade 1988; Ford and Ciardullo 1988). Furthermore, few Galactic novae are observed at maximum, and the calculations of absolute magnitudes must address the question of interstellar absorption. Because of these uncertainties, the usefulness of the \sim 15 well-observed Galactic novae is limited.

The above difficulties can be avoided by using novae as secondary standard candles and calibrating the light curves in M31. Partial curves in the blue or ultraviolet bandpass exist for almost 300 M31 novae (Hubble 1929; Arp 1956; Rosino 1964, 1973; Rosino et al. 1989), and in these homogeneous sets, the broad-band maximum magnitude-decay rate relation has been calibrated quite well. However, an examination of these data reveals the principal obstacle in their use. Novae are relatively rare—the nova rate in M31 is only \sim 30 per year over the entire galaxy (Arp 1956; Capaccioli et al. 1989). Furthermore, more than half of these novae have broad-band decay times longer than 2 weeks and are therefore difficult to follow with short observing runs (Capaccioli et al. 1989). Hence, in order to use the nova absolute magnitude-decay time relation in distant galaxies, long continuous surveys with large telescopes are needed.

A nova's bright continuum is not its only easily observable property, however. Shortly after maximum light, novae develop strong, broad Balmer emission lines. Within a few days after maximum, $H\alpha$ becomes much stronger than the continuum, and while the continuum continues to fade, $H\alpha$ remains bright. This emission has been used to find M31 novae that were weeks or months past maximum (Ciardullo, Ford, and Jacoby 1983; Ciardullo et al. 1987, hereafter Paper I).

The longevity of the H α emission suggests new ways to use novae as standard candles. Whereas on a single deep image of a distant galaxy it may be possible to identify one or two recent novae, with a deep $H\alpha$ image, many more novae are detectable. Furthermore, the ability to detect a nova's $H\alpha$ emission long after maximum allows its decay rate to be calculated with only a few observations spaced weeks or months apart. Hence Ha observations of novae may offer significant advantages over B in the determination of extragalactic distances.

In Paper I we reported the results of a homogeneous 5 yr $H\alpha$ nova survey of M31's bulge and discussed the spatial distribution of these objects. Here, we present $H\alpha$ and B light curves for several of our best observed novae, supplementing the observations of the original survey with measurements made from other telescopes. Using these light curves, and the light curves of Nova Cyg 1975 and Nova Cyg 1986, the only Galactic novae with comprehensive spectrophotometry, we will show that a nova's $H\alpha$ flux usually peaks several days or weeks after its optical continuum maximum, at a monochromatic intensity 1-2 magnitudes above its maximum emission in B. Moreover, we will show that when a nova's $H\alpha$ flux does decline, it does so at a rate approximately equal to the B band fade rate. Thus, in the days and weeks after maximum, a nova will emit roughly a third as many photons in a 75 Å bandpass around H α as it will in the entire B bandpass. Unfortunately, we will also show that this property does not appear to be a useful standard candle, as there is no evidence for a maximum magnitude-rate of decline relation. Nevertheless, because $H\alpha$ surveys do allow the detection of large numbers of novae with relatively little effort, observations in this filter are useful for studying the nova progenitor population. We will therefore calculate the mean $H\alpha$ lifetime for novae, so that this emission can be used for the determination of extragalactic nova rates.

II. OBSERVATIONS AND REDUCTIONS

Our survey region consisted of a strip along M31's bulge, extending 26.3 in diameter along the major axis and 17.1 along the minor axis, defined by eight RCA CCD camera fields at the f/7.5 focus of the Kitt Peak No. ¹ 0.9 m telescope. Observations were taken through three filters, an H α filter wide enough to include the entire nova emission line (75 Â full width halfmaximum), an off-band H α filter ($\lambda_c = 6194$ Å; FWHM = 347 Å), and a broad-band B filter. The exposure times and the details of the observing program are described in Paper I. Except for the initial year of our survey, the Kitt Peak data were collected in two or three short observing runs separated by \sim 1 month.

To supplement these measurements, data were obtained at two other observatories. Starting in the 1984 observing season, RCA CCD camera frames in B and $H\alpha$ were taken at McDonald Observatory, mostly with the f/13.5 0.8 m telescope. Typical exposure times for these images were 40 minutes for the on-band $H\alpha$ frames and 5 minutes for B. Because of the slower f-ratio, the generally poorer seeing, and the characteristics of the McDonald CCDs, these frames did not go as deep as their Kitt Peak counterparts and could not be used in the nova population study. Instead, the McDonald observations were used primarily to follow novae which were first identified

on the Kitt Peak survey frames. The photometry from these frames enabled us to sample several light curves at 1-2 week intervals throughout two observing seasons.

In addition, for a 46 night stretch in the late summer of 1986, our survey region was monitored nightly in B and $H\alpha$ with an RCA CCD camera at the f/8 focus of the Wise Observatory (Israel) ¹ m telescope. Because the plate scale and field size of this telescope/detector combination were similar to that of the Kitt Peak survey telescope, the CCD exposure times, typically 15 minutes in H α and 10 minutes in B, were also chosen to be similar. Although the median \sim 3" seeing restricted the limiting magnitude of these frames, the continuous coverage allowed the observation of novae at outburst.

The data from the Wise and McDonald Observatories were reduced in a manner similar to that described in Paper I. Raw magnitudes were calculated within apertures of the order of the seeing full width half-maximum using the DAOPHOT photometry package (Stetson 1987). These magnitudes were then placed on a standard system by scaling the nova measurements to measurements made of the photometric field stars defined in Paper I. This technique enabled the observations of five telescopes and eight CCDs to be combined without significant systematic errors.

The dates of coverage from Kitt Peak, McDonald, and Wise Observatories are summarized in Table 1. Table 2 supplements the Kitt Peak magnitude measurements tabulated in Paper I by presenting the magnitudes of newly identified novae, and by combining all the nova observations for objects recorded at

TABLE l

Summary of Observations

		Beginning	Number of		
Run	Year	UT Date	Nights	Telescope	CCD
1 .	1982	Sep 13	14	Kitt Peak 0.9 m	RCA ₁
\overline{c} .	1983	Sep 10	6	Kitt Peak 0.9 m	RCA ₂
3	1983	Oct 10	5	Kitt Peak 0.9 m	RCA ₁
$\overline{4}$	1984	Sep 2	4	McDonald 0.8 m	Red RCA
5	1984	Sep 19	3	McDonald 0.8 m	Blue RCA
6	1984	Oct 1	\overline{c}	Kitt Peak 0.9 m	RCA ₁
7	1984	Oct 20	3	McDonald 0.8 m	Blue RCA
8	1984	Nov 1	3	Kitt Peak 0.9 m	RCA ₁
9 .	1984	Nov 16	5	McDonald 0.8 m	Blue RCA
10 .	1984	Nov 21	4	McDonald 0.8 m	Blue RCA
11 .	1985	Sep 3	8	McDonald 0.8 m	Blue RCA
12 .	1985	Sep 11	5	Kitt Peak 0.9 m	RCA ₃
13 .	1985	Sep 25	3	McDonald 0.8 m	Blue RCA
14 1.1.1.1	1985	Oct 4	5	McDonald 0.8 m	Red RCA
15 .	1985	Oct 13	$\overline{4}$	Kitt Peak 0.9 m	RCA ₃
16 .	1985	Oct 23	3	McDonald 0.8 m	Blue RCA
17 .	1985	Nov ₇	\overline{c}	McDonald 0.9 m	Blue RCA
18 .	1985	Nov 21	$\overline{2}$	McDonald 0.9 m	Blue RCA
19 .	1986	Aug 16	46	Wise 1 m	RCA
20 .	1986	Oct 4	5	Kitt Peak 0.9 m	RCA ₃
21 .	1986	Nov 21	4	Kitt Peak 0.9 m	RCA ₁
22 .	1987	Oct 2	1	McDonald 0.8 m	RCA ₂
23 .	1987	Oct 27	1	McDonald 0.8 m	RCA ₂
24 .	1987	Nov 10	\overline{c}	McDonald 0.8 m	RCA ₂
25 .	1987	Dec 12	$\overline{2}$	McDonald 0.8 m	RCA ₂
26 .	1988	Jan 29	$\mathbf{1}$	McDonald 2.1 m	RCA ₂
27 .	1988	Feb 11	$\mathbf{1}$	McDonald 2.1 m	RCA ₂
28 .	1988	Mar 6	$\mathbf{1}$	McDonald 2.1 m	RCA ₂
29 .	1988	Aug 21	$\mathbf{1}$	McDonald 2.1 m	RCA ₂
30 .	1988	Sep 29	$\mathbf{1}$	Kitt Peak 0.9 m	RCA1
31 .	1988	Oct 31	1	Kitt Peak 0.9 m	RCA ₃
32 .	1988	Nov ₂	1	McDonald 0.8 m	RCA ₂
33	1988	Dec 29	\overline{c}	Kitt Peak 0.9 m	RCA ₁
34 .	1989	Jan 17	$\mathbf{1}$	McDonald 2.1 m	TEK ₁

TABLE 2

M31 Nova Magnitudes

.472C													
.356	474					CIARDULLO ET AL.							
								TABLE 2					
1990ApJ							M31 NOVA MAGNITUDES						
			Nova Observatory (+2440000)	J.D.	$m_{\rm H\alpha}$	JD. $(+2440000)$	B		Nova Observatory (+2440000) $m_{\text{H}\alpha}$	J.D.		J.D. $(+2440000)$	B
		15	McDonald	5944.84	16.32	\cdots	.		Kitt Peak	6353.71	15.73	6353.73	17.26
			McDonald	5947.86	16.28	\ldots	\cdots		Kitt Peak	6353.96	15.91	6353.95	17.47
			McDonald	5961.85	16.79		\cdots		McDonald	6361.68	14.86	6361.67	17.53
			Kitt Peak	5973.68	16.75	5973.69	20.15		McDonald	\cdots	\ldots	6361.67	17.86
			Kitt Peak	5974.74	16.85	5974.75	20.48		McDonald	6361.74	14.76	6361.74 6362.62	17.49 17.56
			McDonald Kitt Peak	5993.65 6004.64	17.37 17.26	\ldots 6004.67	\cdots		McDonald McDonald	\ddotsc	\ldots \cdots	6362.65	17.84
			Kitt Peak	6005.86	17.36	\ddotsc	\cdots \ldots		McDonald	\ldots 6362.67	14.78	6362.67	17.76
			Kitt Peak	6006.89	17.31	6006.87	\cdots		McDonald		\ddotsc	6375.62	18.80
									Asiago	\ldots	\ldots	6376.43	18.2
		19	McDonald	6311.90	16.29	6311.89	18.91		Asiago	\cdots	\cdots	6376.45	18.2
			Kitt Peak Kitt Peak	6318.77	16.12	6318.76	19.26		McDonald	6376.62	15.15	6376.61 6378.46	18.98 18.3
			Kitt Peak	6320.81 6322.94	16.24 16.28	\ldots 6322.92	\ldots 19.64		Asiago McDonald	\ddotsc 6389.69	\ldots 15.67	\ldots	\cdots
			McDonald	6332.76	16.86	\ldots	\cdots		McDonald	6390.59	15.62	\ddotsc	\ldots
			McDonald	6333.93	17.07	\ldots	\ldots						
			McDonald	6341.89	17.63	\ldots	\cdots	27	Kitt Peak	6350.86	15.84	6350.85	16.07
			McDonald	6343.89	17.36	\cdots	\ddotsc		Kitt Peak	6353.90	14.49	6353.89	15.59
			McDonald McDonald	6343.92	17.36	\cdots	\cdots		McDonald	6360.89	13.88	\ldots	\cdots
			McDonald	6344.89 6344.91	17.41 17.63	\cdots \cdots	\cdots \ldots		McDonald McDonald	6361.79 6362.70	14.08 13.99	\ldots \cdots	\ddotsc \ddotsc
			Kitt Peak	6350.90	17.63	6350.88	20.75		McDonald	6362.74	14.09	\cdots	\ddotsc
			Kitt Peak	6353.93	17.72	6353.91	20.76						
			McDonald	6361.85	18.01	\ldots	\ldots	28	Kitt Peak	6350.90	18.78	6350.88	20.55
		20							Kitt Peak	6353.93	18.26	6353.91	18.99
			Kitt Peak Kitt Peak	6318.77 6320.81	17.30 17.52	6318.76	20.53		McDonald	6362.90	17.75	\ldots	\ldots
			Kitt Peak	6321.71	17.44	\cdots 6321.73	\ldots 20.22	29	Wise	6696.33	18.30	6696.32	19.18
			Kitt Peak	6322.94	17.37	6322.92	20.27		Wise	6697.35	17.54	6697.34	18.47
			McDonald	6332.80	17.68	6332.79	19.85		Wise	6700.24	17.02	6700.23	18.24
			McDonald	\cdots	\ldots	6335.93	19.94		Kitt Peak	6706.78	16.54	6706.81	18.54
			McDonald McDonald	6343.92 6344.91	17.20 17.09	\ldots	\ldots		Kitt Peak	\ddotsc	\ldots 16.60	6707.96 6710.71	18.52 18.53
			McDonald	\ldots	\ldots	\ddotsc 6345.79	\ldots 20.24		Kitt Peak	6710.72			
			Kitt Peak	6350.90	16.97	6350.88	19.82	31	Wise	6692.45	16.78	6692.44	17.73
			Kitt Peak	6353.93	16.97	6353.91	19.98		Wise	\cdots	\ldots	6694.28	16.95
			Kitt Peak	6707.90	18.48	6707.92	21.43		$_{\rm{Wise}}$	6695.56	15.93	6695.52	17.84
			Kitt Peak	6708.67	18.59	\cdots	\ldots $\overline{}$		Wise	6696.25	16.02	6696.24	17.56
		24	Kitt Peak	6320.95	17.64	6320.96	21.54		Wise Wise	6697.26 6699.25	16.01 15.68	6697.25 6699.24	17.52 17.85
			Kitt Peak	6353.68	17.77	6353.75	\ldots		Wise	6701.28	15.68	\ldots	\ldots
			McDonald	\ldots	\ldots	6361.89	19.34		Kitt Peak	6707.85	16.31	6707.89	20.36
			McDonald	6362.90	18.20	\ldots	\ldots		Kitt Peak	6710.92	16.47	6710.91	19.79
									Kitt Peak	6758.62	16.97	6758.61	\cdots
		25	McDonald McDonald	\cdots	\ldots	6341.85 6343.76	17.63 17.77		Kitt Peak	6778.56	17.35	\ldots	\cdots
			McDonald	\ldots \cdots	\ldots \cdots	6343.76	18.39	32	Wise	6658.47	16.45		\cdots
			McDonald	\ldots	\ldots	6344.73	17.90		Wise	6659.48	16.45	\cdots	\cdots
			McDonald	\ldots	\ldots	6344.74	18.05		Wise	6660.41	16.64	\ldots	\cdots
			McDonald	\ldots	\ldots	6345.74	18.03		Wise	6661.46	16.51		\cdots
			McDonald	\cdots 6350.76	\ldots 16.32	6345.74 6350.77	19.09 19.52		Wise Wise	6662.41 6662.42	16.42 16.52	\ldots	\cdots
			Kitt Peak Kitt Peak	6350.94	16.00	6350.92	18.48		Wise	6663.40	16.52	\ldots \ddotsc	\ldots \cdots
			Kitt Peak	6351.73	16.20	6351.71	18.51		Wise	6664.40	16.55		\cdots
			Kitt Peak	6351.95	16.16	6351.94	18.61		Wise	6665.44	16.42	\ldots	\ldots
			Kitt Peak	6353.71	16.43	6353.73	18.81		Wise	6666.44	16.53	\ddotsc	\cdots
			Kitt Peak	6353.96	16.53	6353.95	19.65		Wise	6667.44	16.49	\ldots	\ldots
			McDonald	6361.79	16.95	\ldots	\ldots		Wise Wise	6668.44 6669.45	16.64 16.42	\ldots	\cdots
		26	McDonald	\ldots	\ldots	6345.73	19.31		Wise $\overline{}$	6670.44	16.55	\cdots \ldots	\cdots \cdots
			Kitt Peak	6350.76	16.47	6350.77	17.60		Wise	6671.29	16.67	\ldots	\cdots
			Kitt Peak	6350.94	16.40	6350.92	17.56		Wise	6672.28	16.90	\cdots	\cdots
			Kitt Peak	6351.95	16.12	6351.94	17.56		Wise	6673.28	16.27	\ldots	\cdots

TABLE 2—Continued

Wise Wise Wise Wise	6674.29 6675.29 6676.40 6677.29	16.35 16.49 16.56									
						McDonald	7226.62	17.39			
				.		McDonald	7394.70	17.89			
			.			Kitt Peak	7433.80	17.87		.	
		16.35	\cdots			Kitt Peak	7433.81	17.94	.	\cdots	
Wise	6678.30	16.32	\cdots	\cdots		Kitt Peak	7433.82	17.60	\ddotsc		
Wise	6681.32	16.43				Kitt Peak	7465.74	17.87			
Wise	6683.26	16.41				Kitt Peak	7465.75	17.96			
Wise	6687.27	16.30	\cdots	\cdots		McDonald	7467.61	17.63			
Wise	6688.40	16.42		\cdots		Kitt Peak	7526.66	18.30			
Wise	6689.35	16.38	\cdots	\cdots		Kitt Peak	7525.67	17.88	\ddotsc	\cdots	
Wise	6690.37	16.47				McDonald	7543.65	18.28		\cdots	
Wise	6692.45	16.24	\cdots								
Wise	6695.56	16.57	\cdots	\cdots	36	Kitt Peak	7433.84	15.81			
Wise	6696.25	16.42	\cdots			Kitt Peak	7433.85	15.78	\ddotsc		
Wise	6697.26	16.43		\cdots							
Wise	6699.25	16.62	\cdots	\cdots	37	Kitt Peak	7433.70	17.99	.		
Wise	6701.28	16.37		\cdots		Kitt Peak	7433.71	17.94	.		
Kitt Peak	6707.85	16.43	6707.89	19.91		Kitt Peak	7465.67	18.34			
Kitt Peak	6710.92	16.42	6710.91	19.82		Kitt Peak	7465.68	18.28		.	
Kitt Peak	6758.62	16.38	6758.61	20.11							
Kitt Peak	6778.56	16.46			38	Kitt Peak	7433.89	16.95			
McDonald	7070.77	17.08	.	\cdots		Kitt Peak	7433.90	16.92			
McDonald	7095.71	16.94		\cdots							
McDonald	7109.87	16.87			39	Kitt Peak	7433.76	18.56			
McDonald	7110.69	17.12		\cdots		Kitt Peak	7433.77	18.34	.	\ddotsc	
McDonald		\ddotsc	7121.71	20.9		Kitt Peak	7465.72	18.57			
McDonald	7141.77	17.22				Kitt Peak	7465.73	18.81			
McDonald	7142.65	16.96									
McDonald	7189.63	17.42	\cdots		40	Kitt Peak	7525.66	17.71			
McDonald	7202.61	17.48	\cdots	\cdots		Kitt Peak	7525.67	17.42		\ddotsc	

multiple observatories. The coordinates of novae discovered subsequent to Paper I are presented in Table 3.

Following Paper I, the $H\alpha$ magnitudes have been referred to the magnitude of Vega through a 75 Å H α filter, with 0.0 mag = 1.50×10^{-7} ergs cm⁻² s⁻¹. We note, however, that these magnitudes do not always correspond directly to the total emitted flux in the line. Three factors cause a discrepancy. If the expansion velocity of a nova shell is greater than \sim 1700 km s⁻¹, then the H α emission from the object will overfill the 75 Â wide filter and cause us to underestimate the total flux. Such a condition exists only for the very fastest novae. More commonly, if the velocity of a nova's ejecta is greater than \sim 800 km s⁻¹, H α and [N ii] lines $\lambda\lambda$ 6548, 6584 will become hopelessly blended. This effect will be most important in the latter stage of nova evolution, when the object has faded by several magnitudes and is entering its nebular phase. Finally, a nova at maximum is a continuum object, hence narrow-band filter measurements during this time measure the photospheric continuum, not the emission line. However, as evidenced by

our success in discovering novae by comparing on-band and off-band H α frames (Paper I), it does not take long for H α emission to totally dominate the bandpass. Thus, during most of a nova's early decline, our $H\alpha$ magnitudes are a fair representation of the true flux emitted in $H\alpha$.

III. THE Ha LIGHT CURVES

Although the best way to detect novae in other galaxies, may be with direct images through an $H\alpha$ filter, a quantitative understanding of a nova's $H\alpha$ light curve is extremely difficult. While theoretical models have successfully reproduced the continuum emission from several Galactic novae (see Starrfield 1989 and references therein), calculations involving nova Balmer emission have yet to be done. (Some time-dependent complications which must be considered are the hardening of the radiation field, the high density and variable dumpiness of the ejecta, the time-dependent propagation of the ionization fronts, the changing speed and intensity of the nova wind, and contamination of the H α emission by [N II] $\lambda\lambda$ 6548, 6584.) Therefore, for the present, the investigation of nova evolution in Ha must be done empirically, using both Galactic and extragalactic objects.

Since $1970 \sim 40$ Galactic novae have been observed in outburst, but less than 10 have been observed spectrophotometrically, and only Nova Cyg 1975 (VI500 Cyg) and Nova Cyg 1986 (VI819 Cyg) have reasonably complete spectrophotometry throughout their decline. According to the observations of Ferland, Lambert, and Woodson (1986), the H α emission from Nova Cyg 1975 reached a maximum of 5.90×10^{-8} ergs cm⁻²

FIG. 1.—The observed B, y, and H α light curve of Nova Cyg 1975 during the first 2 months of outburst ($t_0 = 1975$ Aug 28.5 = JD 2,442,653.0). The B magnitudes have been taken from the photometry of Young et al. (1976) and Williamon (1977), the Strömgren y photometry comes from Lockwood and Millis (1976), and the H α points are derived from the spectrophotometry of Ferland, Lambert, and Woodman (1986). In this fastest Galactic nova on record, the H α emission peaked 2 days after the broad-band maximum. Six days after maximum, more photons were being recorded in $H\alpha$ than in the entire B filter. Note the similarity in the decay rates of $H\alpha$ and B after this time.

 s^{-1} 2.26 days after maximum light (Young *et al.* 1976). In the next two weeks, during the phase labeled by McLaughlin (1960) as early decline, the nova's B luminosity faded by 4.5 mag (Williamon 1977), but its H α flux only declined by 1.5 mag. At this stage, the observed fluxes contained in the B filter and in $H\alpha$ were approximately the same. Past this point, the decay rates of H α and B were similar, with H α declining slightly more rapidly. If we adopt Ferland's (1977) value of $E(B-V) = 0.50$ for the differential extinction to Nova Cyg and a Seaton (1979) reddening law, then during this phase, the true $B - H\alpha$ color of the object was ~ 3.5 and the blue continuum to H α flux ratio was $v f_{\nu}(B)/f(H\alpha) \sim 8$. In other words, during early decline Nova Cyg 1975 emitted roughly as many photons in H α as in the entire B filter. The B and H α light curves for the early stages of Nova Cyg 1975's outburst are reproduced in Figure 1.

Nova Cyg 1986, although much slower, behaved in a similar manner. The light curve of Andronov et al. (1988) shows that the object attained a maximum photographic magnitude of \sim 9 on 1986 Aug 9, then began a slow, oscillating decline similar to that of Nova Pictoris 1925 (RR Pic). The spectrophotometry of Whitney and Clayton (1989), however, shows that the nova's H α maximum did not occur until 2-3 weeks that the nova's H α maximum did not occur until 2–3 weeks
later, when a peak flux of $\sim 2.8 \times 10^{-10}$ ergs cm⁻² s⁻¹ was achieved. After this maximum, the decay rates of the continuum and $H\alpha$ were roughly the same. If we adopt a differential reddening of $E(B-V) = 0.35$ to the object (Whitney and Clayton 1989), the application of Seaton's (1979) reddening curve implies that during this phase of decline $v f_v(B)/f(H\alpha) \sim$ 25.

Although these two objects do not by any means represent all novae, the observations of M31 suggest that the above light curves are typical. In the course of our nova survey, we were able to obtain complete coverage of only two novae: Nova 26 in 1985 and Nova 31 in 1986. However, nine other objects were well observed including two which were detected at outburst (Nova 6 in 1982 and Nova 29 in 1986). Figures 2 and 3 display the most complete light curves. A summary of the derivable properties for all the novae is listed in Table 4.

Nova 26 is one of the two novae with a well-sampled light curve. On JD 2,446,345, the object was just barely visible on a B image taken at McDonald Observatory; five days later, it was probably past its maximum of $B \approx 17$ and on its way down. The H α maximum did not occur until \sim 2 weeks later, when the $B - H\alpha$ color was ~ 2.9 . Assuming a foreground

FIG. 2.—The light curves of four M31 novae at outburst. The solid points are Ha magnitudes; the open figures are measurements in B. Circles represent observations taken at Kitt Peak, squares are from McDonald Observatory, triangles from the Wise Observatory, and diamonds are photographic magnitudes from the Asiago 1.82 m telescope (Rosino et al. 1989). From these four novae and Nova Cyg 1975, there appears to be little correlation between the speed of a nova and its maximum Ha brightness.

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FIG. 3.—The light curves of seven M31 novae observed days or weeks after outburst. The solid points are Ha magnitudes; the open figures are measurements in B. Circles represent observations taken at Kitt Peak, squares are from McDonald Observatory, and triangles were taken at the Wise Observatory, Israel. Remarkably, when $H\alpha$ is in decline, it parallels the B light curve, regardless of the object's speed or absolute magnitude.

differential extinction of $E(B-V) = 0.11$ to the bulge of M31 (McClure and Racine 1969), this color implies roughly half as many photons were emerging in $H\alpha$ as in the B filter (a blue continuum to H α flux ratio of \sim 15). Once past maximum the H α fade rate of 0.029 mag per day was very similar to the implied B fade rate of 0.037 mag per day, which is typical for a moderately fast nova.

Nova 31, the other well-surveyed object, was much faster. The complete coverage around maximum shows that, in the continuum, the nova quickly rose to a maximum $B \le 16.9$, but then faded by over 3 magnitudes within 3 weeks. In H α , however, the nova remained bright. The data from the Wise Observatory show that the H α maximum occurred a little over a week past continuum maximum, at a time when B had already faded by a magnitude. Despite the rapid decline in B, the $H\alpha$ fade rate, as determined from post-maximum Kitt Peak data was ~ 0.013 mag per day, slower than that of Nova 26. Both the shapes of the light curves and the large $B - H\alpha$ color are similar to that seen in Nova Cyg 1975.

Despite the lack of coverage in their later stages of evolution, the light curves of Nova 6 and Nova 29 are also instructive for studying the behavior of novae near maximum light. Nova 6 was a fast nova observed at outburst at both Asiago Observatory (Rosino et al. 1989) and Kitt Peak. The H α maximum of this object occurred \sim 5 days after its B maximum, when the dereddened $B - H\alpha$ color was ~ 2.0 . Judging from its maximum B luminosity. Nova 29 was much slower, but both the time delay between the H α and B maxima and the nova's $B - H\alpha$ color at H α maximum were similar to that of Nova 6. (A comparison of Nova 29's position with a $B - \lambda 6200$ color map of M31's bulge [Ciardullo et al. 1988] does show that the nova is projected on dust lane, but its $B - H\alpha$ color at outburst does not indicate an extreme amount of extinction.) Interestingly, Nova 29 must have faded rather rapidly, since 40 days

 $=$

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past maximum its B continuum could not be detected at Asiago, and 60 days after outburst, its $H\alpha$ emission was invisible on the Kitt Peak frames.

The light curves shown in Figure 3 demonstrate the behavior of $H\alpha$ at later stages of nova evolution. Though the fade rates of the seven novae vary dramatically, from the rapid rate of \sim 0.08 mag per day seen in Nova 5 and 25 to the extremely slow decay of 0.67 mag per year observed for Nova 32 (see Cowley and Starrfield 1987 and Tomaney and Shafter 1990 for spectra of this object), in none of these cases is there a statistically significant difference between the B and $H\alpha$ decay rate. Though none of these objects was recorded at outburst, and thus their ages are not known, there appears to be no relationship between the observed $H\alpha$ magnitude and rate of decline. On both short and long time scales, however, the evidence is clear that the H α and B magnitudes are well correlated.

When considered together, these 11 objects present a coherent picture of the behavior of novae in $H\alpha$. When a nova first goes off, the H α and B light rise in unison until the B maximum is achieved. At this point, the object's $B - H\alpha$ color of ~ 0.5 represents the continuum emission of its A or F type photosphere, which is radiating at or near the critical Eddington luminosity for the progenitor white dwarf plus red dwarf. Shortly after this maximum, the gas which is being expelled from the system becomes optically thin in the continuum, and the nova's broad-band emission begins to decline, while an $H\alpha$ emission line starts to develop. For a short period of time which is extremely well correlated with the nova's speed, B and H α go their separate ways: the broad-band B luminosity drops, while Ha continues to increase. In the case of Nova Cyg 1975, which is the fastest nova in the sample and the fastest nova on record, the increase in $H\alpha$ lasted only 2 days past maximum light; for the slower Nova Cyg 1986 and M31 Nova

29, the H α emission intensified for over 2 weeks. After this maximum, however, the H α light curve turns over and the emission begins to decay at a rate almost equal to the decline in B. During a nova's decline, its mean $B - H\alpha$ color is \sim 2.7 \pm 0.6, a number which translates into a blue continuum

to H α flux ratio of 17 \pm 10. The intrinsic scatter in this relation is real: a comparison of the $B - H\alpha$ nova colors with the underlying color of the galaxy, as measured from the $B - \lambda 6200$ color map of Ciardullo *et al.* (1988), shows no systematic trend.

The key to understanding a nova's behavior in $H\alpha$ lies in understanding its slow decline, which parallels that of the B continuum. Upon outburst, the central engine of a nova maintains a constant bolometric luminosity near its Eddington limit for weeks or months. However, as matter is ejected in the nova explosion, the photosphere of the object shrinks in radius, and as a result, the effective temperature of the central source increases from ~ 8000 K at optical maximum, to $\sim 200,000$ K (Bath and Shaviv 1976; Bath 1978; Prialnik, Shara, and Shaviv 1978, 1979; Gallagher and Starrfield 1978). This flux redistribution decreases the amount of energy radiated in the optical, but produces a large increase in the number of emitted UV and EUV photons. However H α , which is a product of photoionization from UV photons, does not undergo a similar increase. Instead, a nova's $H\alpha$ flux fades at the same rate as its B continuum. Out of our sample of 40 novae, 13 were observed in both B and $H\alpha$ at multiple epochs during decline. All of these objects, regardless of magnitude or speed class, behaved in a like manner: after H α maximum, the B and H α decay rates were the same. This property was also observed in Nova Cyg 1975 (cf. Fig. 1) and Nova Cyg 1986. If the bolometric luminosity of a nova is indeed constant during this phase, then it is exceedingly difficult, if not impossible, to achieve this coupling if the B luminosity comes from the central remnant and the $H\alpha$ emission emanates from the envelope.

There are several possible solutions to this problem. The first, and simplest, is to hypothesize that the B filter bandpass is dominated by nebular emission lines, and hence the recorded B magnitudes do not reflect the level of the continuum. There is some truth to this: during the latter stages of nova evolution, the lines which fall in the B filter, $H\beta$, $H\gamma$, $H\delta$, [O III] $\lambda\lambda\lambda$ 4363, 4959, 5007, the 24640 blend, and several Fe n lines, can emit a total flux comparable to that of Ha. However, in most novae, the observed ratio of B to H α flux is \sim 3 times stronger than this value. Moreover, as discussed below, for novae in early decline, steep Balmer decrements are the rule and forbidden line emission is suppressed by high nebular densities. Additional evidence attesting to the relative unimportance of emission lines in the B band comes from Strömgren ν photometry of Nova Cyg 1975 (Lockwood and Millis 1976). As displayed in Figure 1, between optical maximum and $t \approx 30$ days, there is no significant difference between the nova's decay rate in ν and B. Since no emission lines exist in the 200 Å wide γ filter, this fact demonstrates directly that B is indeed recording the object's continuum. The effect of emission lines in the B bandpass can be seen in the divergence of the y and B light curves at later times, but significantly, it is the y light curve which better reflects the emission in H α .

A relatively easy way of coupling a nova's B and $H\alpha$ emission is to postulate that both the H α emission line and the optical continuum are produced in the expanding nebula. If this is the case, the similarity in the two light curves is a natural consequence of the nebula physics and the relative intensities

of the continuum and $H\alpha$ line is a probe of the electron temperature of the nebula (Osterbrock 1974). Unfortunately, although there is no problem in fitting the continuum shape with nebular emission—the optical flux distribution of Nova Her 1960 (Meinel 1963) and Nova Her 1963 (Chalonge et al. 1965), and the infrared spectrum of Nova Cyg 1975 (Gallagher and Ney 1976) have all been fitted with simple one component nebular emission models—the observed blue continuum to $H\alpha$ ratio is much too large for this explanation. In the 13 best observed declining novae of Table 4, and in Nova Her 1960 (Meinel 1963), Nova Cyg 1975 (Ferland, Lambert, and Woodman 1986), and Nova Cyg 1986 (Whitney and Clayton 1989), $v f_v(B)/f(H\alpha)$ never got below 8 and were observed to be as high as 38. In a Case B recombination nebula with electron temperatures less than 20,000 K, however, a number closer to ¹ is expected. Now it may be possible to change this ratio by assuming additional sources of continuum emission, such as a coronal line region (Ferland, Lambert, and Woodman 1986), but it is difficult to lock this independent emission to $H\alpha$ in every object. Furthermore, as noted by McLaughlin (1960) and Gallagher and Starrfield (1976), there is a correlation between the color temperature of a nova and its visual magnitude—as a nova fades, its color becomes bluer. This can most easily be explained in terms of an increasing effective temperature for the central source. Indeed, models in which most of a nova's luminosity comes from a thermonuclear runaway on the central remnant have been extremely successful at reproducing bolometric and optical light curves (e.g., Sparks, Starrfield, and Truran 1978; Starrfield, Sparks, and Truran 1985) near maximum. If the observed optical continuum actually emanates from the expanding envelope, then a new explanation must be found to explain why a nova's optical light fades while its bolometric luminosity remains constant. In addition, the photometric observations of Nova Cyg 1975 by Patterson (1978) add an additional complication to the nebula emission model. While in outburst, Nova Cyg 1975 displayed a \sim 3 hr photometric period which almost certainly originated with the central binary. Thus, at least in this one object, some of the optical continuum must have come from the core of the system rather than the nebula.

A better way of explaining the covariance of $H\alpha$ with B comes from considering one of the most obvious characteristics of a nova's post-maximum spectrum: its steep Balmer decrement. Most novae in early decline have Balmer decrements that are much larger than predicted by Case B recombination. In Nova Cyg 1975, the reddening corrected $H\alpha/H\beta$ ratio rose to \sim 9 within 3 weeks of outburst, and remained above \sim 6 for over a year (Ferland, Lambert, and Woodman 1986). Similarly steep decrements have been observed in a host of other novae, including Nova Her 1960 (Meinel 1963), Nova Set 1975 (Gallagher 1978), Nova Sgr 1982 (Mazeh et al. 1985), Nova Cyg 1986 (Whitney and Clayton 1989), and five M31 novae (Ciardullo, Ford, and Jacoby 1983; Cowley and Starrfield 1987). The reason for these large line ratios is the optical thickness of the nova shell to Balmer photons. Shortly after outburst, extremely high optical depths in H α ($\tau \gtrsim 1000$) are not uncommon in the expanding nebula of a nova. Strittmatter *et al.* (1977) demonstrated that the strong O I λ 8446 emission seen throughout the first 48 days of Nova Cyg 1975 was the result of resonance-florescence of $2p \frac{3p}{2} - 3d \frac{3p}{2}$ λ 1025.77 by Ly β λ 1025.72 (Bowen 1947), and, as pointed out by Grandi (1980), this mechanism only works if the gas is optically thick in H α . (If the nebula is optically thin in H α , then Ly β can be

removed by decaying into $H\alpha + Ly\alpha$.) Strong O I emission has also been seen in the post-maximum spectra of Nova Set 1975 (Gallagher 1978), Nova Sgr 1982 (lijima and Rosino 1983), and Nova Vul 1984 No. 2 (Andrillat and Houziaux 1985), confirming the frequency of the phenomena. In such cases, Balmer self-absorption produces steep Balmer decrements in virtually all nebula with electron densities between $10^8 \le n_e \le 10^{12}$ (Drake and Ulrich 1980). Ferland, Lambert, and Woodman's (1986) measurement of the strength of $[O \text{ III}]$ λ 4363 relative to [O III] λ 5007 + λ 4959 shows that 6 weeks after outburst, the electron density of Nova Cyg 1975 was certainly in this range (cf. Osterbrock 1974; Filippenko and Halpern 1984) and the general absence of strong forbidden lines in the post-maximum spectra of novae (McLaughlin 1960) suggests that such high densities are not uncommon. Thus, there is strong evidence that novae contain a region where $H\alpha$ is trapped by its high optical depth.

This being the case, a new avenue exists to explain the covariance of $H\alpha$ with the continuum. If a nova shell is optically thick in $H\alpha$, then its emission in the Balmer lines can be several magnitudes smaller than predicted by the Case B scenario due to self-absorption in the lines (Canfield and Puetter 1981). The strength of the continuum is then no longer a problem, since the nebular emission can dominate the flux emitted from the central source without generating huge line fluxes. The variation of $H\alpha$ with the continuum is then a natural consequence of the nebular physics of a high-density, optically thick zone. Furthermore, if the H α optical depth reaches $\tau_{\text{H}\alpha} \sim 2000$, as it appears to have done in Nova Cyg 1975 (Strittmatter et al. 1977), the nova shell can become optically thick in the Balmer continuum as well, thus shielding our view of the central engine in the near-ultraviolet and, in the reprocessing, strengthening the optical and IR continuum even more.

If the above scenario is correct, the following picture of a nova outburst emerges. When a nova first goes off, its spectrum is that of an expanding photosphere, and consequently, the luminosity of the object reflects its size. Eventually, as the density of this photosphere decreases, the central source becomes optically thin in the continuum, and the luminosity increase is halted. (In a few exceptional objects with super-Eddington emission, such as Nova Cyg 1975, a rapid decrease in brightness may also occur at this point.) The region immediately surrounding this photosphere, however, is still very optically thick in the Balmer lines, and the temporary increase in $H\alpha$ luminosity immediately after continuum maximum reflects the extra expansion of this " $H\alpha$ photosphere." As the eruption continues and the mass injection rate decreases, the density throughout the wind drops and the H α photosphere moves inward. It is this contraction which produces the observed decline in the $H\alpha$ and continuum emission fluxes.

Work in two areas would improve our understanding of nova outbursts. First, detailed models of the physical processes occurring in thick winds powered by a photosphere evolving at approximately constant luminosity are needed. Comparison of such models with the present observations would give new insights into the physical processes which take place during the ejection of a nova envelope. Second, more observations in the ultraviolet are required during a nova's early decline. After maximum, the effective temperature of the central remnant increases from ~ 8000 K to $\sim 200,000$ K. If the flux from this source is not overwhelmed by emission from the H α photosphere, this change should be detectable with ultraviolet telescopes, such as IUE (or the HST). Unfortunately, the IUE nova observations to date appear to be either of a relatively cool photosphere, or an extremely hot central remnant. Ultraviolet observations during several stages of a nova's early decline are needed in order to try and fill in the gap.

IV. Ha LIGHT CURVES AS A DISTANCE INDICATOR

Because there are well-defined relationships between a nova's maximum B magnitude and its rate of decline (de Vaucouleurs 1978; Cohen 1985; van den Bergh and Pritchet 1986), it is tempting to try and find a similar relationship involving its $H\alpha$ emission. Unfortunately, the present data suggests that no such relationship exists. Although only four M31 novae have both their speed and $H\alpha$ maximum recorded, the light curves of these objects, along with that of Nova Cyg 1975 and Nova Cyg 1986, imply that there is no correlation between a nova's rate of decline and its maximum $H\alpha$ magnitude. For instance, although Nova 26 and Nova 6 both declined by 2 magnitudes in \sim 25 days, Nova 26, the slower nova, attained an H α magnitude almost 0.7 mag brighter than Nova 6. The two fastest novae in our study, Nova 31 and Nova Cyg 1975, both declined by three B magnitudes within 3 weeks, but while Nova Cyg's H α flux decreased by 2 magnitudes within a month, this same decay in Nova 31 took over 3 months. At the other end of the spectrum, Nova 29, an apparent slow nova, got no brighter than $m_{\text{H}\alpha} = 16.5$ but faded from view within 60 days. Nova 32, however, was first detected at $m_{\text{H}\alpha} = 16.5$ and remained visible for over 2 yr. All this evidence leads to the conclusion that there is no correlation between a nova's speed and its maximum $H\alpha$ flux.

This lack of correlation is consistent with the theoretical idea that the speed of a nova is determined by its metallicity, Z, its envelope mass M_{env} , and its white dwarf mass, M_{wd} (cf. Shara 1989). M_{env} and Z are determined by the accretion history of the white dwarf before eruption, and this may vary from system to system. Thus novae with the same envelope mass but different accretion histories, and hence different envelope Z, can display different speeds. If the H α flux is mostly determined by envelope mass, then the lack of correlation is understandable.

Despite this discouraging result, the H α emission from novae can still be useful for extragalactic distance determinations. In order to obtain a distance with a conventional maximum magnitude-rate of decline relation, the continuum of a nova must be followed at least 2 or 3 magnitudes below maximum. For novae in distant galaxies, this observation is extremely difficult and is limited by the bright, rapidly varying background of the parent galaxy. However, as Figure 3 demonstrates, once a nova passes $H\alpha$ maximum, its B and $H\alpha$ light curves parallel. Since $H\alpha$ is much easier to detect during this phase, observations in $H\alpha$ present an easy way to measure the decline of an undetectable continuum.

There is, of course, a basic limitation to this technique. The correlation between a nova's continuum and Ha flux takes place only after the emission line has fully developed. Any fading which occurs before this time is lost and cannot be recovered with narrow-band observations. Thus for fast novae, such as Nova Cyg 1975 and M31 Nova 31, surrogate measurements in $H\alpha$ cannot be used in the maximum magnitude-rate of decline relation. H α observations can, however, be useful for estimating the rate of decline of slower novae, and therefore may be of some use in the determination of extragalactic distances.

V. THE MEAN Ha LIFETIME

Although a nova's $H\alpha$ emission does not appear to offer an opportunity for extragalactic distance measurements, its high visibility does make it ideal for studying the population of nova progenitors. Paper I noted that there is a strong dependence of nova rate on stellar population; specifically the overwhelming majority of novae in M31 are associated with the bulge. This high rate may be due to some internal property of the bulge (e.g., the age of the population, the mean star density, etc.), or it may be caused by the formation and ejection of close binaries by globular clusters (cf. Paper I). Periodic $H\alpha$ surveys of nearby galaxies can examine these alternatives.

In order to use $H\alpha$ observations to calculate extragalactic nova rates, the mean lifetime of a nova in $H\alpha$ is needed. This number can be estimated from Paper I's M31 bulge survey in two ways. An upper limit to the $H\alpha$ lifetime of a nova can be found from the light curves of Figures 1-3. Of the best observed novae, the most rapid $H\alpha$ decline was that of Nova Cyg 1975, which faded 3 magnitudes in 32 days; the slowest decay rate belonged to M31 Nova 32, which remained bright in the emission line for more than 2 yr. If we take the estimated decay rates listed in Table 4 to be representative of the entire nova population and assume that the H α maximum typically occurs \sim 1 week after outburst, then the median time for a nova to fade 3 mag in H α is \sim 240 days. This value, based on the fragmentary light curves recorded in M31, is an upper limit, since a nova's rate of decline will normally slow with time and our limited coverage selects against the fastest objects. Nevertheless, the 240 day period of detectability gives some idea of the power of $H\alpha$ measurements for finding recent novae.

Since the purpose of estimating the mean nova $H\alpha$ lifetime is to measure extragalactic nova rates, a more appropriate method for determining this quantity is to count the number of novae actually observed in the H α survey and divide by the true nova rate. This technique, which derives from the methodology used by Zwicky (1942) to determine the rate of extragalactic supernovae, requires only that the effective survey time be calculated.

The amount of time sampled by any individual survey frame depends on when the preceding survey took place. If we define the mean nova lifetime, τ_c , to be the length of time a nova remains brighter than m_c , then the time sampled by a single image taken at epoch t_i is

$$
T_i = \min (t_i - t_{i-1}, \tau_c).
$$
 (1)

The mean nova lifetime is then derivable from the true nova rate, R, by solving the relation

$$
R = \frac{N(m < m_c)}{\tau_c + \sum_{i=2}^{n} T_i},
$$
 (2)

where $N(m < m_c)$ is the number of novae observed brighter than the critical magnitude identified over n epochs.

Unfortunately, in order to calculate τ_c , the true nova rate within the region must be known. One way to estimate this is to adopt the Capaccioli *et al.* (1989) value of 23.2 ± 4 for the annual nova rate in M31's bulge. When normalized to Walterbos's (1986) value of $B = 5.21$ for the total bulge magnitude,

TABLE 5

		MEAN LIFETIMES IN $H\alpha$ for M31 Novae	
Apparent $m_{\text{H}\alpha}$	Absolute $M_{H\alpha}$	Number of Novae Observed	Mean $H\alpha$ Lifetime (days)
15.00	9.53		$7.3_{+5.0}^{-4.8}$
$15.50\dots$	-9.03		$20.4^{-9.1}_{+4.3}$
$16.00\dots$	-8.53	10	$26.1_{+14.0}^{-6.3}$
$16.50\dots$	-8.03	17	$58.0^{-19.1}_{+22.1}$
$17.00\dots$	-7.53	24	$95.6_{+31.5}^{-26.4}$
$17.50\dots$	-7.03	29	$127.6_{+28.3}^{-34.1}$

and scaled to a distance of 710 kpc (Welch et al. 1986) and a foreground extinction of $E(B-V) = 0.11$ (McClure and Racine 1969), this estimate implies a luminosity specific nova rate of 1969), this estimate implies a luminosity specific nova rate of $\rho_{\text{Bulge}} \approx 24 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ per $10^{10} L_{B_{\odot}}$. (The Capaccioli *et al.* value of $\rho_{\text{Bulge}} \approx 24 \text{ yr}^{-1} \text{ per } 10^{-6} L_{B_{\odot}}$. (The Capaccion *et al.* value of $\rho_{\text{Bulge}} \approx 10 \text{ yr}^{-1} \text{ per } 10^{10} L_{B_{\odot}}$, which is based on the assumption that there is over a magnitude of internal extinction in M31's bulge, leads to mean $H\alpha$ lifetimes of well over a year. Although some dust does exist in M31's inner bulge [cf. Ciardullo et al. 1988], it is certainly not enough to change the estimated rate of nova production by more than a few percent.) If the bolometric correction applicable to the bulge of M31 is -0.80 (Ciardullo et al. 1989), then the bolometric luminosity -0.80 (Ciardullo *et al.* 1989), then the bolometric luminospecific nova rate of M31 is $\rho_{\text{Bulge}} \approx 10 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ per $10^{10} L_{\odot}$.

Scaling this rate to the amount of light included in our Ha survey region $(B = 6.00)$ gives an effective nova rate of \sim 11.2 \pm 2. Substituting this rate into equation (2) and using the Kitt Peak survey periods listed in Table 1, yields the $H\alpha$ lifetimes tabulated in Table 5. (The errors associated with the $H\alpha$ lifetimes reflect only the Poisson statistics of the small number of novae.) The absolute magnitudes presented were derived by again using a distance of 710 kpc (Welch et al. 1986), a differential extinction of $E(B-V) = 0.11$ (McClure and Racine 1969), and the interstellar extinction law of Seaton (1979). Because novae fainter than $m_{\text{H}\alpha} \approx 17.3$ were missed within \sim 20" of the nucleus, the last entry in Table 5 excludes novae within this region. The overall relationship defined by the table is a featureless power law, with a least-squares relation

$$
\log \tau(M < M_c) \approx 5.6 + 0.48 M_c \,, \tag{3}
$$

with τ given in days. By using this relationship and scaling extragalactic surveys to the luminosity sampled in M31, the nova rates for other galaxies can be determined through multiepoch $H\alpha$ observations.

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