STRUCTURE AND MASS OF A YOUNG GLOBULAR CLUSTER IN NGC 6946

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ABSTRACT

Using the Wide Field Planetary Camera 2 on board the Hubble Space Telescope, we have imaged a luminous young star cluster in the nearby spiral galaxy NGC 6946. Within a radius of 65 pc, the cluster has an absolute visual magnitude, $M_V = -13.2$, comparable to the most luminous young “superstar clusters” in the Antennae merger galaxy. $UBV$ colors indicate an age of about 15 Myr. The cluster has a compact core (radius ~ 1.3 pc) surrounded by an extended envelope with a power-law luminosity profile. The outer parts of the cluster profile gradually merge with the general field, making it difficult to measure a precise half-light radius $R_h$, but we estimate $R_h < 13$ pc. Combined with population synthesis models, the luminosity and age of the cluster imply a mass of $8.2 \times 10^3 M_\odot$ for a Salpeter initial mass function (IMF) extending down to $0.1 M_\odot$. If the IMF is lognormal below 0.4 $M_\odot$, then the mass decreases to $5.5 \times 10^2 M_\odot$. Depending on model assumptions, the central density of the cluster is between $5.3 \times 10^3$ and $1.7 \times 10^4 M_\odot$ pc$^{-3}$, comparable to other high-density star-forming regions. We also estimate a dynamical mass for the cluster using high-dispersion spectra from the HIRES spectrograph on the Keck I telescope. The HIRES data indicate a velocity dispersion of 10.0 $\pm$ 2.7 km s$^{-1}$ and imply a total cluster mass within 65 pc of $(1.7 \pm 0.9) \times 10^5 M_\odot$. Comparing the dynamical mass with the mass estimates based on the photometry and population synthesis models, we find that the mass-to-light ratio is at least as high as for a Salpeter IMF extending down to 0.1 $M_\odot$, although a turnover in the IMF at 0.4 $M_\odot$ is still possible within the ~ 1 $\sigma$ errors. The cluster will presumably remain bound, evolving into a globular cluster–like object.

Subject headings: galaxies: individual (NGC 6946) — galaxies: star clusters

1. INTRODUCTION

Ever since the presence of ultraluminous young star clusters in certain external galaxies was first suspected, the true nature of such objects has remained somewhat controversial. It took the spatial resolution of the Hubble Space Telescope (HST) to definitively prove that the compact blue objects in starburst dwarfs such as NGC 1705 and NGC 1569 (Sandage 1978; Arp & Sandage 1985) are indeed star clusters and not merely foreground stars (O’Connell, Gallagher, & Hunter 1994). Subsequently, similar “superstar clusters” or “young massive clusters” (YMCs) have been discovered in other starburst galaxies, notably in mergers such as, e.g., the Antennae, NGC 7252, and NGC 3256 (Whitmore et al. 1993; Whitmore & Schweizer 1995; Zepf et al. 1999). From their luminosities and reasonable estimates of the mass-to-light ratios, YMCs appear to have masses similar to those of the old globular clusters observed around virtually all major galaxies, and there is thus growing anticipation that the study of these young clusters can provide important information about how their older counterparts formed.

One remaining challenge is to verify that YMCs contain enough low-mass stars to remain bound for a significant fraction of a Hubble time. Deep HST imaging has recently allowed the stellar population of the R136 cluster in the Large Magellanic Cloud (LMC) to be probed down to about $1.35 M_\odot$ (Sirianni et al. 2000), with some evidence for a flattening of the mass function below ~ 2 $M_\odot$. Direct observations of low-mass stars in more distant extragalactic star clusters are currently far beyond reach. Brodie et al. (1998) compared features in low-resolution spectra of YMCs in the peculiar galaxy NGC 1275 with population synthesis models and concluded that their data were best explained by models with a lack of low-mass stars. However, the integrated light of these young objects is generally dominated by A- and B-type stars and cool supergiants, and conclusions about low-mass stars based on integrated spectra and/or photometry are inevitably quite uncertain and model dependent. A potentially better way to gain insight into the stellar mass function of unresolved star clusters is to compare dynamical mass estimates with the masses predicted by population synthesis models. Should the dynamical masses turn out to be much lower than expected, this would indicate that the clusters may lack a significant number of low-mass stars. This, in turn, would imply that such objects are not similar to old globular clus-
Dynamical masses have so far been estimated only for a small number of YMCs in NGC 1569, NGC 1705 (Ho & Filippenko 1996a, 1996b), M82 (Smith & Gallagher 2000), and the Antennae (Mengel 2001). Sternberg (1998) concluded that the velocity dispersion and luminosity of the luminous cluster NGC 1569A are consistent with a Salpeter initial mass function (IMF) down to 0.1 $M_\odot$, while the cluster NGC 1705A may have a flatter IMF slope. The luminous cluster F in M82 appears to have a somewhat lower velocity dispersion than expected from its luminosity, favoring a top-heavy IMF (Smith & Gallagher 2001). The 100 Myr old cluster NGC 1866 in the LMC was studied by Fischer et al. (1992), who obtained a dynamical mass of $1.35 \times 10^5 M_\odot$. Van den Bergh (1999) pointed out that, for the luminosity and age of NGC 1866, this mass implies a very high mass-to-light ratio and large numbers of low-mass stars.

In a study of 21 nearby spiral galaxies, Larsen & Richtler (1999) found several examples of YMCs. Most of these galaxies are at distances of less than about 10 Mpc and thus offer attractive targets for detailed studies of their YMC populations. A particularly interesting, very luminous young cluster was found within a peculiar bubble-shaped star-forming region in the nearby face-on spiral NGC 6946. Tully (1988) lists a distance of 5.5 Mpc, and more recently a mean distance of $5.9 \pm 0.4$ Mpc has been estimated for the NGC 6946 group from ground-based photometry of the brightest blue stars (Karachentsev, Sharina, & Huchtmeier 2000). For the remainder of this paper we adopt the latter distance estimate. The star-forming region was first noted by Hodge (1967) in a search for objects similar to Constellation III in the LMC but was then largely forgotten. Using ground-based CCD images from the Nordic Optical Telescope, the YMC and its surroundings were further discussed by Elmegreen, Efremov, & Larsen (2000), who estimated a total mass of about $5 \times 10^5 M_\odot$ and an age of 15 Myr, based on $UBV$ colors. The ground-based data, obtained in a seeing of about $0.7^\prime$, also provided an estimate of the half-light (effective) radius of the cluster of about 11 pc. With an apparent $V$ magnitude of about 17, it may seem surprising that such a luminous object in a nearby galaxy went relatively unnoticed until recently. This may be due to the fact that NGC 6946 is located at a low Galactic latitude.

![WFPC2 field of view superimposed on a Digital Sky Survey image of NGC 6946; north is up and east toward the left](image)
(b = 12") in a field rich in foreground stars. Therefore, on ground-based images taken in less than optimal seeing, the cluster is easily confused with a foreground star.

Here we present new HST Wide Field Planetary Camera 2 (WFPC2) and Keck I/HIRES data for the YMC in NGC 6946, labeled NGC 6946-1447 by Larsen (1999). The WFPC2 field of view is shown in Figure 1, superimposed on an image of NGC 6946 from the Digital Sky Survey. A color image from the Nordic Optical Telescope showing the region around the cluster can be found in Elmegreen et al. (2000).

2. DATA

2.1. Hubble Space Telescope Data

WFPC2 data were acquired in cycle 9, using the F336W (U), F439W (B), F555W (V), and F814W (I) filters. The integration times were 3000, 2200, 600, and 1400 s in the four bands, respectively, with all integrations split into two exposures in order to facilitate efficient elimination of cosmic-ray hits. Initial processing (bias subtraction, flatfielding, etc.) was performed "on the fly" by the standard pipeline processing system at Space Telescope Science Institute. The individual exposures were then combined using the IMCOMBINE task within IRAF, with the reject option set to crreject in order to eliminate cosmic-ray hits.

The PC field of view of the F555W exposure is shown in Figure 2. The whole star-forming complex comfortably fits on the PC chip, and we do not consider data in the WF chips in this paper. The YMC is easily recognizable as the single most luminous object in the field. At the distance of NGC 6946, 1 PC pixel corresponds to a linear scale of 1.3 pc, so unless the YMC is unusually compact, its radial profile will be well resolved. In this paper we discuss only the cluster itself and its immediate neighborhood. The numerous other clusters and individual stars contained within the PC field will be discussed in a subsequent paper.

2.2. Keck I Data

Observations with the HIRES high-dispersion spectrograph (Vogt et al. 1994) on the Keck I telescope were

2 IRAF is distributed by the National Optical Astronomical Observatories, operated by the Association of Universities for Research in Astronomy, Inc., under contract with the National Science Foundation.

![Fig. 2](image1)

**FIG. 2.—** An F555W image showing the PC field of view. North and east are indicated by the arrow. The young globular cluster is easily recognizable as the single most luminous object, near the center of the image.

| Star   | Type     |
|--------|----------|
| HR 37  | K5 III   |
| HR 97  | G5 III   |
| HR 207 | G0 Ib    |
| HR 213 | G8 II    |
| HR 690 | F7 Ib    |
| HR 861 | K3 Ib    |
| HR 1009| M0 II    |
| HR 8412| G5 1a    |
| HR 8692| G4 Ib    |
| HR 8726| K5 Ib    |
| HR 9053| G8 Ib    |

![Fig. 3](image2)

**FIG. 3a**

**FIG. 3b**

**TABLE 1**

**TEMPLATE STARS USED FOR CROSS-CORRELATION**

| Star   | Type     |
|--------|----------|
| HR 8412| G5 1a    |
| HR 114 | A7 III   |
| NGC 6946-1447 | YGC |

**Fig. 3a**

**Fig. 3b**

**Fig. 3.—** Two echelle orders from the HIRES spectra of the young globular cluster (bottom) and two comparison stars. The spectra have been shifted to the same wavelength scale, correcting for the radial velocity of NGC 6946.
obtained during two half-nights in 2000 August. Both
ights were photometric with a seeing of around 0'9. Fo-
lowing Ho & Filippenko (1996a), we used two dif-
ferent setups: one optical setting, covering the wavelength range
from 3780 to 6180 Å in 37 echelle orders, and a near-IR
setting, ranging from 6220 to 8550 Å in 16 orders. For the
optical setting we used the C1 decker, providing a 7'' × 0'86
slit, while the D1 decker with a 14′′ × 1'15 slit was used for
the near-IR setting. This provided a spectral resolution
of $R = 45,000$ and $R = 34,000$ for the two settings,
respectively.

The total integration times were 180 and 220 minutes for
the optical and near-IR spectra, split into four individual
exposures for each setting. The slit orientation was kept
constant with respect to the sky during the exposures but
was aligned with the parallactic angle at the beginning of
each exposure. In addition to the cluster spectra, we also
obtained spectra for 11 stars of different spectral types, to be
used as cross-correlation templates. These are listed in
Table 1.

The reductions were performed using the highly automa-
ted makee package, written by T. Barlow; makee automati-
\textit{\textup{\textcolor{red}{c}}}cally performs bias subtraction and flat-fielding, identifies
the location of the echelle orders on the images, and extracts
the spectra. Wavelength calibration is done using spectra of
ThAr calibration lamps mounted in HIRES. Each of the
individual one-dimensional spectra were then combined
using the \textit{scomb} task in IRAF. In Figure 3 we show two
echelle orders from the cluster spectra compared with a G5
Ia star (HR 8412) and an A7 III star (HR 114). The left plot
includes the Hβ line. The cluster spectrum is clearly of a
composite nature, showing both strong Balmer lines similar
to those in early-type stars and numerous lines due to
heavier elements, as in evolved cool supergiants.

3. RESULTS

3.1. Structure of the Cluster

Figure 4 shows close-ups of the cluster in F336W, F555W, and F814W, each spanning 6′′, or about 170 pc
across. Note that another fainter cluster is located about 15
pixels (19 pc) to the northeast. In addition, a number of field
stars are visible, in particular in the F814W image, and the
young globular itself also begins to resolve into individual
stars. From Figures 2 and 4 it is hard to tell where the
cluster ends and where the general field population begins.
In fact, star formation appears to have taken place over an
area much larger than that directly connected with the
cluster, and only the stars closest to the cluster center may
actually be bound to it.

In Figure 5 we show the integrated luminosity (\textit{left panel})
and surface brightness (\textit{right panel}) of the cluster as a func-
tion of radius. The photometry was done using the \textit{PHOT}
task within the DAOPHOT package (Stetson 1987) in
IRAF, measuring the background in an annulus starting at
50 pixels (2:25) and 50 pixels wide. The instrumental profile
has not been taken into account in Figure 5. We do not
measure the luminosity profile of the cluster beyond 50
pixels, as it is clear from, e.g., Figure 2 that the irregular
background at larger distances from the cluster would make
such a measurement very uncertain. Nevertheless, the in-
tegrated light will probably continue to rise well beyond 50
pixels ($\sim 65$ pc). This is not unusual for young star clusters:
Elson, Fall, & Freeman (1987) found that young (8–300
Myr) clusters in the LMC are surrounded by large
envelopes with power-law luminosity profiles that will
probably be lost to tidal forces. Similarly, Whitmore et al.
(1999) found an extended envelope with a diameter of more
than 900 pc around the highly luminous "knot S" in the
Antennae.

If we approximate the surface brightness (SB) as a func-
tion of radius $r$ with a simple power law of the form $SB \propto r^\alpha$
(for SB in counts per unit area) and perform a fit to the
cluster profile between $r = 2$ and $r = 15$ pixels, we formally
obtain an exponent of $\alpha = -1.79 \pm 0.03$. The fit is indi-
cated by the dashed line in the right panel of Figure 5.

Although a power law may provide a satisfactory fit to
the outer parts of a cluster, the intensity must level off at
some radius near the center. Thus, a more realistic analytic
model of the cluster profile will involve some core radius $r_c$.
Elson et al. (1987) found that the surface brightness profiles
of young clusters in the LMC are generally well fitted by
analytic models of the form

$$SB \propto \left(1 + \frac{r_c}{r}\right)^{-\frac{\xi}{2}}, \quad (1)$$

with exponent $\xi$ in the range $2.2 < \xi < 3.2$ and core radii in
the range $1.3 < r_c < 7$ pc. For $r > r_c$, equation (1) is
similar to a power law with slope $-\xi$, but reaches a con-
stant value near the center.

Because the core radius of NGC 6946-1447 is comparable
to the resolution of the PC camera, it cannot be accurately
estimated from a simple plot of surface brightness versus
radius. We have used a modified version of the \textit{ishape} algo-
rithm (Larsen 1999) to fit models of the form (1) to the
image of the young globular; \textit{ishape} iteratively adjusts the
been normalized to that measured on the F555W image. The F336W and F814W profiles have been convolved with the HST PSF until the best match to the observed cluster image is obtained. The HST PSF is modeled using the Tiny Tim PSF simulator (Krist & Hook 1997), and the modeling done by ishape also involves a convolution with the WFC2 “diffusion kernel” (Krist & Hook 1997). Since the diffusion kernel is best characterized for the F555W band, we used exposures in this band for the model fits.

To test the stability of the fitted parameters, we carried out a number of fits, varying the fitting radius between 5 and 15 pixels and changing the initial guesses for the exponent $\xi$. The algorithm returned exponents in the range $1.98 < \xi < 2.18$ and FWHM values between 1.70 and 2.19 pixels. We thus adopt FWHM = 1.95 ± 0.25 pixels and $\xi = 2.1 ± 0.1$ as our estimates of the structural parameters for the cluster. Note that this is a slightly steeper profile than that obtained by a simple power-law fit to the raw cluster profile, uncorrected for instrumental effects. For the relevant range of $\xi$ values, the core radius is $r_e = 0.5 \times$ FWHM to within 5%; i.e., $r_e = 1.26 ± 0.16$ pc for a distance of 5.9 Mpc. This is comparable to the most compact young LMC clusters and is also a typical value for Milky Way globular clusters (Peterson & King 1975; Harris 1996). In five of the six fits we performed, ishape returned minor/major axis ratios between 0.91 and 0.93, and one fit (for $r = 5$ pixels) returned an axis ratio of 0.97. The cluster thus seems to be somewhat elongated with an axis ratio of about 0.92, with a likely uncertainty of a few times 0.01.

Integrating equation (1) from $r = 0$ to $r = \infty$, the total luminosity diverges for $\xi < 2$. With our estimate of $\xi = 2.1 ± 0.1$, the half-light radius ($R_e$) is therefore not very well defined. For $\xi = 2$, equation (1) is identical to a King (1962) profile with infinite tidal radius. We also attempted to fit King models to the cluster profile by varying the concentration parameter, but such fits are highly sensitive to inaccuracies in the background level and turned out to be too uncertain. If we (somewhat arbitrarily) define the “total” luminosity as the luminosity contained within 50 pixels, Figure 5 suggests $R_e \sim 10$ pixels, or about 13 pc. This crude estimate is significantly larger than the typical half-light radius for stellar clusters but agrees well with the ground-based estimate of $R_e \sim 11$ pc obtained by Elmegreen et al. (2000). Old globular clusters typically have $R_e \sim 3$ pc (e.g., Harris 1996), while YMCs in starburst/merger galaxies such as the Antennae may have slightly larger effective radii ($R_e \sim 4$ pc; Whitmore et al. 1999). However, because of the youth of the cluster in NGC 6946, it is quite likely that much of the loosely bound outer parts may eventually be stripped. Assuming that the core remains relatively unaffected by tidal stripping, we can calculate the half-light radius for King models with various tidal radii ($r_t$). Integration of the King profiles shows that the effective radius $R_e$ and the core radius are related as $R_e = 2.9 r_c$ and $R_e = 5.1 r_c$ for $r_t/r_c = 30$ and $r_t/r_c = 100$, respectively. Assuming $r_t = 1.3$ pc for NGC 6946-1447, we then obtain $R_e = 3.8$ pc and $R_e = 6.6$ pc for $r_t/r_c = 30$ and $r_t/r_c = 100$, respectively. These numbers suggest that, if the cluster evolves toward a King profile with a finite tidal radius, its effective radius could decrease significantly.

It is also worth noting that some old globular clusters have significantly larger half-light radii than 3 pc. The Harris (1996) catalog lists $R_e$ values up to about 20 pc for some of the outer Palomar-type halo clusters, and Harris, Poole, & Harris (1998) obtained a half-mass radius of about 7 pc for a globular cluster in NGC 5128, corresponding to $R_e \sim 5.3$ pc.

### 3.2. Integrated Photometry

In Table 2 we list photometry for the young cluster in 5 different apertures between $r = 5$ pixels (0.23) and $r = 50$ pixels (2.25). Again, the photometry was obtained using the PHOT task within IRAF, measuring the background between 50 and 100 pixels from the cluster center. Instrumental magnitudes measured on the PC images were transformed to the standard UBV I system using the transformations in Holtzman et al. (1995). For comparison we also list the ground-based photometry from Larsen (1999). The magnitudes and colors in Table 2 have not been corrected for Galactic foreground extinction, and no aperture corrections have been applied to the HST data other than the $-0.1$ mag correction, which is implicit in the
as for the real photometry. For was measured on the synthetic images in the same annulus and to correct for these we convolved Tiny Tim PSFs in different bands (Larson et al. 1996). What we actually measure is the line-of-sight velocity dispersion \( v_r \), where \( v_r \) is the three-dimensional velocity dispersion and \( \sigma_r \) is the three-dimensional velocity dispersion (Spitzer 1987, p. 11). Note that \( v_r \) is the three-dimensional velocity dispersion, not the velocity dispersion of a point source observed through a (11 pixels) aperture. We note that, since the colors are not very sensitive to metallicity below \( \sim 500 \times 10^6 \) yr, so this should not lead to any large errors in the age estimate.

### 3.3. Velocity Dispersion

From the virial theorem, the total mass \( (M) \), velocity dispersion \( \sigma \), and half-mass radius \( (r_h) \) of an isolated cluster with isotropic velocity distribution are related as

\[
M = \frac{a v^2 r_h}{G},
\]

where \( a \) is a constant with a value of about 2.5 (Spitzer 1987, p. 11). Note that \( v \) is the line-of-sight velocity dispersion, not the velocity dispersion of a point source observed through a (11 pixels) aperture. We note that, since the colors are not very sensitive to metallicity below \( \sim 500 \times 10^6 \) yr, so this should not lead to any large errors in the age estimate.

### Table 2

**Photometry for the Young Globular Cluster in NGC 6946**

| Aperture (pixels) | \( V \)          | \( U-B \)    | \( B-V \)    | \( V-I \)    |
|-------------------|-----------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| 5                 | 17.944 ± 0.002  | -0.443 ± 0.005 | 0.488 ± 0.004 | 1.217 ± 0.002 |
| 10                | 17.458 ± 0.002  | -0.447 ± 0.004 | 0.462 ± 0.004 | 1.166 ± 0.002 |
| 20                | 17.042 ± 0.002  | -0.461 ± 0.004 | 0.439 ± 0.004 | 1.134 ± 0.002 |
| 30                | 16.880 ± 0.002  | -0.475 ± 0.005 | 0.420 ± 0.004 | 1.122 ± 0.002 |
| 50                | 16.683 ± 0.002  | -0.491 ± 0.006 | 0.410 ± 0.004 | 1.103 ± 0.003 |
| Ground…          | 16.91          | -0.45       | 0.40        | 1.15        |

**Note:** Comparison of PC and ground-based photometry for the young globular cluster in NGC 6946. No correction for Galactic extinction has been applied. Note that the magnitudes listed here include an implicit \(-0.1 \) mag aperture correction, which is valid only for a point source observed through a 0.5 (11 pixels) aperture.
to FWHM<sub>cc</sub> = 25.7, 33.1, and 41.9 pixels for the three test cases. In this case, the data imply a velocity dispersion for the cluster spectrum close to 11 km s<sup>-1</sup>.

In practice, we convolved the template star spectra with a number of Gaussians with dispersions between 2 and 8 pixels (4.15–16.6 km s<sup>-1</sup>). In this way, FWHM<sub>cc</sub> was empirically established as a function of v<sub>cc</sub> for each combination of template stars. In Figure 7, this is illustrated for just one combination of template stars, HR 8412 and HR 9053 (as in Fig. 6). The diamonds show FWHM<sub>cc</sub> for the HV 9053 spectrum convolved with Gaussians of different velocity dispersions. We rejected measurements where FWHM<sub>cc</sub> for the cluster versus template star peak fell outside the range corresponding to a velocity dispersion in the 4.15–16.6 km s<sup>-1</sup> interval.

As is evident from Figure 3, the saturated nature of the Balmer lines along with the rapid rotation of hot early-type stars makes them unsuitable for measurement of velocity dispersion. We therefore used regions of the spectra dominated by features from cool supergiants. Cool supergiants in an ~15 Myr old cluster are expected to be of luminosity class Ia–Ib, but to test the sensitivity of the results to the luminosity class of the templates, we observed a number of template stars covering a range of spectral types as well as luminosity classes. The template stars are listed in Table 1.

In spite of the large number of echelle orders, only relatively few turned out to be useful. In the optical setting, the S/N was quite low at the blue end and only three orders were used. In the near-IR setting, many orders were dominated by skylines, reducing the number of useful orders to six. Even so, the number of individual estimates of the

![Fig. 6.—Cross-correlation functions for the young cluster vs. HR 8412 (upper left) and for HR 9053 vs. HR 8412, where the HR 9053 spectrum has been convolved with Gaussians corresponding to velocity dispersions of 7, 11, and 15 km s<sup>-1</sup>.](image)

![Fig. 7.—Illustration of the technique used for deriving velocity dispersions. Diamonds: FWHM of the cross-correlation peak for the template star HR 8412 vs. HR 9053, the latter convolved with Gaussians of different dispersions as indicated on the x-axis of the plot. The FWHM of the cluster vs. HV 8412 cross-correlation peak of 32.95 pixels corresponds to a velocity dispersion of 10.4 km s<sup>-1</sup>.](image)
cluster velocity dispersion is very large: each estimate is obtained by first cross-correlating one echelle order in the cluster spectrum with a template star, then cross-correlating the template star with another smoothed template star spectrum, and finally comparing the two. The distribution of all velocity dispersion measurements is shown in Figure 8, and Table 3 lists the median velocity dispersion for each echelle order for stars of luminosity classes I, II, and III separately. In some cases, only part of an order was used, as indicated by column (2) of Table 3. As can be seen from Figure 8, the lower and upper velocity dispersion limits bracket the relevant range quite well. The median value is 10.1 km s$^{-1}$ and the standard deviation is 2.7 km s$^{-1}$.

The velocity dispersions are generally larger when using template stars of luminosity class III. This is not surprising considering the significant amounts of macroturbulence in the atmospheres of cool supergiants that contribute to line broadening (Gray & Toner 1987). Thus, when using normal cool giants as templates, the velocity dispersion of the cluster stars will be overestimated.

Using only template stars of luminosity class I, the median value for the velocity decreases slightly to 10.0 km s$^{-1}$, while the scatter remains at 2.7 km s$^{-1}$. As a further check, we also computed the velocity dispersion using the three best-fitting templates. As determined from the height of the cross-correlation peaks, these are HR 1009 (M0 II), HR 861 (K3 Ib), and HR 8726 (K5 Ib). The best fits were obtained from orders 10 and 14 in the IR setting, leading to an average velocity dispersion of 9.4 km s$^{-1}$ with a standard deviation of 0.57 km s$^{-1}$ for this best-fitting template subsample. This value is slightly lower than that based on the full sample, but within the error margins there is good agreement. We thus adopt $v_\kappa = 10.0 \pm 2.7$ km s$^{-1}$ as our final estimate of the velocity dispersion of NGC 6946-1447, noting that the uncertainty estimate is probably quite conservative.

3.4. Cluster Mass

3.4.1. Dynamical Mass

With an estimate of the cluster velocity dispersion and physical size at hand, we are now ready to estimate the dynamical mass. Note that the cluster radius used in equation (2) is the three-dimensional half-mass radius $r_h$, which is larger than the two-dimensional half-light, or effective radius $R_e$, measured on the images by approximately a factor of 1.3 (Spitzer 1987). As discussed in § 3.1, the effective radius of the cluster is not very well determined, but if we tentatively adopt $r_h = 17$ pc and insert this number together with a velocity dispersion of $v_\kappa = 10.0 \pm 2.7$ km s$^{-1}$ in equation (2), then the total virial cluster mass becomes $(3.0 \pm 1.6) \times 10^6 M_\odot$.

However, obtaining the dynamical cluster mass directly from equation (2) is inaccurate for a number of reasons. As already mentioned, the half-mass radius is uncertain because we observe the cluster profile out to only 50 pixels. As noted in § 3.1, the cluster may not even have a well-defined half-light radius. Second, equation (2) gives the total virial mass out to some large radius, so comparing this dynamical mass with the luminosity within a radius of, say, 50 pixels may not give a realistic picture of the extent to which the luminous and dynamical masses agree. We there-

![Fig. 8.—Distribution of velocity dispersions derived from all combinations of template stars and echelle orders.](image)

| Order  | Pixels   | Velocity Dispersion (km s$^{-1}$) |
|--------|----------|-----------------------------------|
|        |          | I (7 stars) | II (2 stars) | III (2 stars) |
| OPT-29 | 50–2000  | 12.8 ± 2.8 | 8.9 ± 2.3    | 12.4 ± 2.2    |
| OPT-34 | 50–2000  | 11.8 ± 1.6 | 13.0 ± 2.4   | 16.2 ± 1.6    |
| OPT-37 | 50–2000  | 10.4 ± 0.9 | 9.1 ± 1.3    | 11.0 ± 0.6    |
| IR-3   | 50–2000  | 15.1 ± 1.4 | 14.4 ± 1.5   | 15.5 ± 0.2    |
| IR-4   | 500–2000 | 8.7 ± 1.6  | 7.3 ± 1.0    | 8.8 ± 0.7     |
| IR-7   | 50–2000  | 5.6 ± 0.7  | 6.5 ± 0.8    | 8.1 ± 0.6     |
| IR-10  | 50–2000  | 9.9 ± 0.8  | 8.8 ± 1.1    | 10.9 ± 0.3    |
| IR-11  | 100–2000 | 8.9 ± 0.8  | 9.2 ± 0.6    | 10.0 ± 0.2    |
| IR-14  | 50–2000  | 10.1 ± 1.7 | 11.2 ± 1.4   | 12.4 ± 0.7    |

Note.—Estimates of the velocity dispersion of the young globular for different echelle orders and template star luminosity classes. The errors are computed as the standard deviation of all velocity dispersion estimates for a given echelle order and luminosity class. Prefixes OPT and IR denote the optical and near-IR spectrograph setups.
fore decided to perform a more detailed modeling of the cluster’s structure, as described in the following.

First we modeled the cluster density distribution using the projected, azimuthally averaged intensity profile in each passband, measured out to 50 pixels. We interpolated through the intensity bump from the companion cluster in the northeast using a power-law fit to the profile on either side of it. The corrected profile was then assumed to come from a spherical cluster with a three-dimensional density profile \( \rho(r) \) plus some unknown light contamination from foreground and background stars. In addition to the background subtraction done prior to photometric analysis, various levels of background light were uniformly subtracted from the profile to give a range of density solutions, ranging from the background level measured at the 50th pixel down to zero background subtraction. With the largest of these subtracted backgrounds, the pure cluster intensity went to zero at the 50th pixel, as if the cluster had an edge there.

The three-dimensional density profile \( \rho(r) \) was then determined from this projected profile by assuming that the cluster was made from a superposition of equal-density onion-skin shells, one at each pixel. In fact, the pixels of the measurements were interpolated linearly onto a finer grid with 4 times as many pixels to get a better accuracy in the final density. The line-of-sight depth through each of these interpolated shells is known from the spherical symmetry assumption, so we began at the outer pixel where the intensity came only from the outer shell and obtained the density there. This outer density was determined from the ratio of the intensity to the line-of-sight depth of the outer shell. The density in the next inner shell was determined by first subtracting the intensity at this position coming from the outer shell, using the appropriate line-of-sight depth and density there from the observed intensity, and then dividing this difference by the line-of-sight depth through the next inner shell. In this way, we could work from the outside to the inside and determine the three-dimensional density of each shell. The result is the three-dimensional density profile inside the cluster.

Figure 9 shows the fitted three-dimensional density profile of the cluster, determined from the \( V \)-band projected intensity profile using a background subtraction that was tuned to give the densities at the largest few radii a smooth continuation. This will be called the best-fit solution. Larger subtractions caused the density profile to drop suddenly at the 50 pixel edge, and smaller subtractions caused it to turn up. The dashed line in Figure 9 is a solution to the density structure of an isothermal cluster using the same velocity dispersion as the average determined from the observations. The straight dashed line has a slope of 2, which is the expected slope for an isothermal cluster at large radius.

The fitted three-dimensional density profile was used in the equation of hydrostatic equilibrium in order to determine the one-dimensional velocity dispersion, \( v_1(r) \), in each shell. This dispersion satisfies the equation

\[
\frac{d\rho v_1^2}{dr} = -\frac{\rho GM}{r^2},
\]

for mass as a function of radius, \( M(r) \), obtained from the density solution, \( M(r) = \int_0^r 4\pi r^2 \rho(r)dr \). To solve equation (3), we need to know the velocity dispersion at the edge of the cluster, to give the boundary condition on pressure there. We assumed two cases: zero dispersion at the edge corresponding to zero pressure and a dispersion equal to the average in the cluster, determined from the fitted \( (M/R)^{1/2} \) at the cluster edge as given by the density profile. The run of dispersion \( v_1(r) \) was determined by integrating from the outside in. Once this dispersion solution was obtained, the square of the dispersion was averaged with a weighting proportional to the shell mass. The square root of this weighted average then gives the rms dispersion in the whole cluster, as would be observed with a slit spectrograph that covers it all. This final dispersion makes the reasonable assumption that the flux-weighted sum of Gaussian line profiles from subcomponents of a total cluster is approximately equal to a Gaussian line profile itself and that the dispersion of this summed profile is equal to the weighted quadratic sum of the dispersions of the components.

The absolute calibration for the density and mass now comes from the ratio of the observed \( (v_x) \) to the modeled \( (v_1) \) one-dimensional velocity dispersions. The absolute mass is \( (v_x/v_1)^2 \times (1.3 \text{ pc})/G \) multiplied by the program-fitted mass, which is in units of photon counts. The absolute density is \( (v_x/v_1)^2/(1.3 \text{ pc})^2/G \) multiplied by the program-fitted density. Here 1.3 pc is 1 pixel. For the best-fit density solution with an edge dispersion equal to the average, the mass out to 50 pixels, or 65 pc radius, becomes \( 1.67 \times 10^6 M_\odot \), and the central density is \( 5.3 \times 10^3 M_\odot \text{ pc}^{-3} \). With no background subtraction and an average edge dispersion, the peripheral density is greater and the central density smaller, at \( 3.8 \times 10^3 M_\odot \text{ pc}^{-3} \), to give the same observed velocity dispersion, but the mass inside 50 pixels is about the same.

The case with zero velocity dispersion at the edge is not physical but it is interesting to compare with the results given by equation (2), which is for an isolated cluster with zero pressure at the boundary. Our masses for this zero-dispersion case were systematically larger than the masses for the average dispersion cases, particularly for the models in which there was no background subtraction. Compared to the best-fit mass above of \( 1.67 \times 10^6 M_\odot \), the zero-edge dispersion masses were \( 1.78 \times 10^6 \) and \( 2.81 \times 10^6 M_\odot \) for the best-fit and no-background subtraction density fits.

![Figure 9](image_url)
respectively. The reason why equation (2) gives a larger mass is that it effectively includes all of the mass out to some zero-pressure boundary, even if it is beyond 50 pixels, but the three-dimensional fit includes only the mass inside 50 pixels. Also, equation (2) assumes that the cluster has a well-defined half-mass radius, while our three-dimensional fit derives the mass directly from the luminosity profile.

In summary, the \( V \)-band radial intensity profile was converted to a three-dimensional density profile using a reasonable assumption involving the level of background contamination, and this density profile was used to find a velocity dispersion profile assuming hydrostatic equilibrium, with a dispersion at the edge equal to the average obtained from the density fit. The weighted average of this equilibrium, with a dispersion at the edge equal to the average obtained from the density \( \rho \)-fit, derives the mass directly from the luminosity profile.

A well-defined half-mass radius, while our three-dimensional fit includes only the mass inside 50 pixels. The reason why equation (2) gives a larger mass is that it effectively includes all of the mass out to some zero-pressure boundary, even if it is beyond 50 pixels, but the three-dimensional fit includes only the mass inside 50 pixels. Also, equation (2) assumes that the cluster has a well-defined half-mass radius, while our three-dimensional fit derives the mass directly from the luminosity profile.

\[ dN = (1 - e^{-M(M_\odot)^2})M^{-\gamma - 1}dM, \tag{4} \]

with \( M_\odot = 0.4 M_\odot \). For \( \gamma = 1.35 \), it approaches a Salpeter function at high masses but has a shallower slope for \( M < M_\odot \), making it similar to the IMF reported for old globular clusters by Paresce & de Marchi (2000). If the function is normalized to the pure Salpeter function at high mass to give the same cluster luminosity, then it has only 0.67 times as much mass as the Salpeter-only function, down to 0.1 \( M_\odot \), or \( (0.55 \pm 0.20) \times 10^6 M_\odot \). This is somewhat lower than the dynamical mass estimate, although an IMF of the form of the form (4) is still within the \( 1 \sigma \) error margins.

Although we have corrected for Galactic foreground extinction, some extinction may still be present within NGC 6946 itself. Elmegreen et al. (2000) suggested that the extinction may vary substantially across the star-forming region surrounding the young globular. In Figure 10 we show a \((B - V), (U - B)\) two-color diagram with the Girardi et al. (1995) S-sequence and a cross indicating the cluster colors corrected for foreground extinction. The S-sequence is basically a fit to the colors of LMC clusters. The young globular in NGC 6946 lies almost perfectly on the S-sequence, but the reddening vector is nearly parallel to the S-sequence at this location, and the cluster could be considerably younger if additional absorption is present. Furthermore, around \( 10^7 \) yr, cluster colors do not really change as smoothly with age as indicated by the S-sequence, and ages derived on the basis of \( UBV \) colors should be taken as only approximations (Girardi et al. 1995). Assuming an additional \( A_B = 0.5 \) within NGC 6946, the cluster colors would correspond to an age of only \( \sim 5 \times 10^6 \) yr (according to the Girardi et al. 1995 calibration), and the \( V \)-band luminosity is

\[ \sim 5.7 \times 10^6 M_\odot \]
nosity per unit mass predicted by the Bruzual & Charlot models would increase by \( \sim 1.1 \) mag (for Salpeter IMF). Although a correction for additional reddening would also make the absolute magnitude 0.4 mag brighter in \( V \), this is not enough to account for the decrease in the mass-to-light ratio due to lower age. If the cluster is subject to additional reddening in NGC 6946, the net result would therefore be a decrease in the photometric cluster mass estimate, while the dynamical mass would remain unaffected as long as the relative radial profile is the same.

An additional uncertainty comes from the distance to NGC 6946. Although Karachentsev et al. (2000) list a mean distance modulus of 28.9 for the NGC 6946 group and adopt this as the distance of NGC 6946 itself, they actually obtain a distance modulus of 29.15 for NGC 6946. This would increase our estimate of the half-mass radius of the cluster to 20 pc and the dynamical mass from equation (2) to \((3.5 \pm 1.9) \times 10^6 \, M_\odot\). The fitted mass from the three-dimensional density profile would increase by the same linear factor and become \(1.9 \times 10^6 \, M_\odot\). Also, at this distance, the absolute \( V \) magnitude would be \(-13.6\), and the resulting photometric mass \(2.0 \times 10^6\) or \(1.0 \times 10^6 \, M_\odot\) for Scalo or Salpeter IMFs.

In conclusion, our data are compatible with any of the three stellar IMFs considered here, although a somewhat steeper IMF than Salpeter is preferred. An IMF with Salpeter slope down to \(-0.4 \, M_\odot\) and a lognormal shape below this limit is still within the error limits, but it is clear that our data do not favor a top-heavy IMF with any significant lack of low-mass stars.

### 3.5. Central Density

The central density \(\rho_0\) of the cluster can be estimated from the central \(V\)-band surface brightness \(\sigma_0(V)\) in mag arcsec\(^{-2}\), the mass-to-light ratio, and the core radius in parsecs (Peterson & King 1975; Williams & Bahcall 1979):

\[
\rho_0 = \frac{3.44 \times 10^{10}}{P^c} \times 10^{-0.4\alpha(V)(M/L)} \, M_\odot \, \text{pc}^{-3},
\]

where \(P \approx 2\). Assuming a light profile of the form (1) with \(\xi = 2.1\) and an extinction-corrected \(V\)-band magnitude of 16.0 within 20 pixels (Table 2), the central surface brightness is \(\sigma_0(V) = 12.3\) mag arcsec\(^{-2}\). Here we have used the \(r = 20\) pixel aperture for reference in order to avoid extrapolation of the model profile to larger radii. Measuring the light directly on the image gives \(\sigma_0(V) = 13.2\) mag arcsec\(^{-2}\) within the central \(r = 0.5\) pixels. The direct measurement is expected to underestimate the central surface brightness because the central cusp of the profile is smeared by the finite resolution of the PC. For the same reason, the estimate of \(\rho_0 = 5.3 \times 10^3 \, M_\odot \, \text{pc}^{-3}\) for the central density from \(\sigma_0(V)\) is also likely to be an underestimate. In the following we adopt \(\sigma_0(V) = 12.3\) mag arcsec\(^{-2}\) as our best estimate of the central surface brightness.

For a mass of \((1.7 \pm 0.9) \times 10^6 \, M_\odot\) and absolute \(V\) magnitude \(M_V = -13.2\), the mass-to-light ratio is \(M/L = 0.11 \pm 0.06\). Inserting in equation (5), the central density is then \(\rho_0 = (1.7 \pm 0.9) \times 10^4 \, M_\odot \, \text{pc}^{-3}\). We can also use the population synthesis models instead of the dynamical mass to derive \(M/L\). For an IMF of the form (4) with \(M_0 = 0.4\) and \(\gamma = 1.35\), we get \(M/L = 0.039\) and \(\rho_0 = 6.2 \times 10^3 \, M_\odot \, \text{pc}^{-3}\), which may be considered a lower limit. In any case, the central density is on the order of \(10^4 \, M_\odot \, \text{pc}^{-3}\) and thus similar to that of the densest stellar clusters in the Milky Way, such as Monoceros R2 and the Trapezium cluster (Carpenter et al. 1997; Prosser et al. 1994), and to the R136 cluster at the center of the 30 Dor complex in the LMC (Campbell et al. 1992), but the total number of stars and physical dimensions of NGC 6946-1447 are much larger.

### 4. DISCUSSION

With a total mass somewhere around \(10^6 \, M_\odot\), NGC 6946-1447 is about an order of magnitude more massive than the most massive young cluster in the LMC, NGC 1866 (Fischer et al. 1992), and many orders of magnitude more massive than typical open clusters in the Milky Way. It is, however, comparable to the most massive clusters in merger and starburst galaxies such as the Antennae (Zhang & Fall 1999). This clearly illustrates that, although such clusters are mostly observed in merger galaxies and other starburst environments, they can also form far from the nucleus in quite normal, apparently undisturbed disk galaxies. Violent interactions such as galaxy collisions may help to create an environment that is favorable for formation of massive clusters, but such events are evidently not a necessary condition. The density near the cluster center seems to be similar to dense star-forming regions in the Milky Way. Thus the basic star-forming mechanism at work may well be the same, although proceeding at a much larger scale in NGC 6946-1447.

It is also of interest to compare NGC 6946-1447 with two of the most luminous old globular clusters in the Milky Way, \(\omega\) Cen and 47 Tuc. From their dynamical properties, Meylan & Mayor (1986) estimate total masses for the two clusters of \(2.9 \times 10^6\) and \(1.3 \times 10^6 \, M_\odot\), respectively. Considering that a significant fraction of the mass may be located beyond 65 pc makes NGC 6946-1447 comparable in mass to these two old globular clusters. The cluster 47 Tuc has a relatively compact core with \(r_c = 0.46\) pc, while \(\omega\) Cen is a quite loosely structured cluster with \(r_c = 3.8\) pc (Harris 1996). The effective radii of the two clusters are 3.5 and 6.2 pc. Our estimate of 1.3 pc for the core radius for NGC 6946-1447 is intermediate between 47 Tuc and \(\omega\) Cen, while the effective radius is larger than for either of the two old globulars. As argued in § 3.1, the outer parts of the cluster may eventually be stripped away, and this might decrease the effective radius of NGC 6946-1447 over time. The rotation curve of NGC 6946 indicates a mass of \(\sim 3 \times 10^{10} \, M_\odot\) within the location of NGC 6946-1447, at about 4.5 kpc from the center (Carignan et al. 1990). For a cluster mass of \(1 \times 10^6 \, M_\odot\), this corresponds to a tidal radius of about 70–100 pc (King 1962; Keenan 1981). This number depends only weakly on the exact masses of the galaxy and cluster but assumes a homogeneous gravitational field. In practice, passages near giant molecular clouds, through spiral arms, etc., may further contribute to the stripping of stars from the cluster.

One outstanding question has been whether or not YMCs will be able to survive for any considerable amount of time. Here we find that the dynamical mass estimate of NGC 6946-1447 agrees well with the mass predicted by various population synthesis models. Formally, a slightly steeper than Salpeter IMF is preferred, but a Salpeter IMF with a lower mass limit of 0.1 \(M_\odot\) is within the error margins. The cluster IMF could even have a Salpeter slope down to 0.4 \(M_\odot\) and a lognormal behavior below this limit,
but our data do not support a top-heavy IMF with a significant lack of low-mass stars. A Salpeter IMF with a lower mass limit of $2 \, M_\odot$ for example, would give a total cluster mass of only $\sim 2 \times 10^7 \, M_\odot$.

5. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

We have presented new HST/WFPC2 and Keck I/HIRES data for an extremely luminous young star cluster in the nearby spiral galaxy NGC 6946. Within an $r = 50$ pixel (65 pc) aperture, the integrated cluster luminosity is $M_V = -13.2$, making the cluster luminosity similar to that of young super star clusters observed in starburst galaxies. It is certainly the most luminous star cluster known in the disk of any normal spiral galaxy. From the PC images, we find that the cluster has a compact core with a core radius of about 1.3 pc but is surrounded by an extended envelope. At large radii, the luminosity profile as a function of radius is well modeled by a power-law function with an exponent close to $-2$, similar to the profile of young clusters in the LMC (Elson et al. 1987) and to a King (1962) profile with a large tidal radius. We estimate the half-light radius $R_h$ to be about 13 pc, but this estimate is uncertain because of the extended halo that surrounds the cluster. However, it agrees well with a previous estimate based on ground-based data of $R_h \sim 11$ pc (Elmegreen et al. 2000).

From the Keck I/HIRES high-dispersion spectra we estimate a velocity dispersion of $10.0 \pm 2.7 \, \text{km s}^{-1}$ for the cluster. From a detailed modeling of the density profile of the cluster, we find that this implies a dynamical mass within 65 pc of $(1.7 \pm 0.9) \times 10^6 \, M_\odot$. Bruzual & Charlot population synthesis models predict a mass of about $1.7 \times 10^6 \, M_\odot$ for a Scalo (1986) stellar IMF and $0.8 \times 10^6 \, M_\odot$ for a Salpeter (1955) IMF of 0.1–125 $M_\odot$. If the IMF is Salpeter down to 0.4 $M_\odot$ and lognormal below this mass as seen in old globular clusters (Paresce & de Marchi 2000), then the predicted cluster mass is $0.55 \times 10^6 \, M_\odot$. Comparing the photometric and dynamical mass estimates and taking the associated uncertainties into account, we find that the IMF presumably contains at least as much mass in low-mass stars as a Salpeter law (but a turnover at 0.4 $M_\odot$ is within the uncertainty limits), and the cluster will most likely remain bound, although it may lose much of its outer envelope to tidal forces. The cluster is comparable in mass to the most massive clusters in the Antennae galaxy and an order of magnitude more massive than the young LMC cluster NGC 1866. The central density of the cluster is about $10^4 \, M_\odot \, \text{pc}^{-3}$, comparable to the densest star-forming regions in the Milky Way, such as the Trapezium cluster in Orion.

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