CONSTRaining the EQUATION of STATE of SUPRANUCLEAR DENSE MATTER FROM XMM-NEWTON OBSERVATIONS of NEUTRON STARS in GLOBULAR CLUSTERS

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ABSTRACT

We report on the detailed modeling of the X-ray spectra of three likely neutron stars. The neutron stars, observed with XMM-Newton, are found in three quiescent X-ray binaries in the globular clusters: ω Cen, M13, and NGC 2808. Whether they are accreting at very low rates or radiating energy from an accretion-heated core, their X-ray spectra are expected to be those of a hydrogen atmosphere. We use and compare publicly available hydrogen atmosphere models with constant and varying surface gravities to constrain the masses and radii of the neutron stars. Thanks to the high XMM-Newton throughput and the accurate distances available for these clusters, using the latest science analysis software release and calibration of the XMM-Newton EPIC cameras, we derive the most stringent constraints on the masses and radii of the neutron stars obtained to date from these systems. A comparison of the models indicates that previously used hydrogen atmosphere models (assuming constant surface gravity) tend to underestimate the mass and overestimate the radius of neutron stars. Our data constrain the allowed equations of state to those which concern normal nucleonic matter and one possible strange quark matter model, thus constraining radii to be from 8 km and masses up to 2.4 $M_\odot$.

Subject headings: dense matter — equation of state — globular clusters: individual (ω Cen, M13, NGC 2808) — stars: neutron — X-rays: stars

Online material: color figures

1. INTRODUCTION

Forty years after their discovery, the nature of the material making up the core of neutron stars remains largely unknown. At densities above a few times the equilibrium density of nuclear matter, models predict the existence of exotic components such as pion or kaon condensates or unconfined quarks (e.g., Lattimer & Prakash 2007). The exciting idea that neutron stars may contain exotic forms of matter makes them of prime interest, not only for astrophysics but for physics in general.

Different equations of state (EOSs) of dense matter predict different maximum masses and different mass-radius relationships. So far accurate mass measurements have been made for radio pulsars giving masses ranging from $1.18^{+0.03}_{-0.02} M_\odot$, for the case of one of the pulsars in PSR J1756–2251 (Faulkner et al. 2005) to $1.4414 \pm 0.0002 M_\odot$, for PSR B1913+16 (Weisberg & Taylor 2005). Such low values can be accommodated by a wide range of EOSs and do not provide a strong constraint on the composition of dense matter. There is, however, growing evidence that neutron stars, as massive as $2 M_\odot$, may also exist, in particular in accreting X-ray binaries, as inferred from the study of the properties of kilohertz quasi-periodic oscillations (QPOs; e.g., Lattimer & Prakash 2007). The neutron star in 4U 1636–536, which is estimated to have a mass of $1.9–2.1 M_\odot$; Barret et al. 2005) and binary millisecond pulsars that are no longer accreting (e.g., PSR J0751+1807, which has a mass measured through relativistic orbital decay of $2.1 \pm 0.2 M_\odot$; Nice et al. 2005). If the latter estimates are confirmed (by dynamical mass estimates of the binary components), they would rule out some exotic forms of matter, such as quarks or pion condensates.

While there are some accurate mass measurements already available, the situation is different with radii which are much harder to constrain. X-ray spectroscopy is one promising avenue to follow to tackle this issue. So far, there has been one single (and still debated) measurement of redshifted absorption lines in the combined early- and late-type I X-ray burst spectra of the X-ray binary EXO 0748–676. The line energies are consistent with Fe xxvi Hα ($n = 2–3$) and Fe xxv Hα ($n = 2–3$), respectively, both at the same redshift $z = 0.350 \pm 0.005$ (Cottam et al. 2002). The measured redshift provided a direct estimate of mass/radius ($M/R = (c^2/2G)[1 – (1 + z)^{-2}]$). Assuming a canonical mass of $1.4 M_\odot$, this would imply a radius of about 9 km. Following this result and using the burst properties, Özel (2006) estimated both mass and radius separately. This led to a massive neutron star with a mass $M \geq 2.10 \pm 0.28 M_\odot$ (and $R \geq 13.8 \pm 1.8$ km) in EXO 0748–676, a result suggesting again that if this system is typical, exotic forms of matter such as condensates and unconfined quarks do not exist in neutron star cores.

Another promising way of inferring radii is through observations of quiescent X-ray emission from neutron stars for which the distance ($d$) can be estimated reliably [$F_\infty = (R_\infty/d)^2 \sigma T_\infty^4$, where $F_\infty$, and $T_\infty$ are the flux and radiation temperatures redshifted to the Earth, and $R_\infty = R/(1 – 2GM/Rc^2)^{1/2}$ is the radiation radius]. Whether the energy reservoir is the heat deposited deep in the neutron star crust during the outburst phase of the transient (Brown et al. 1998), or sustained by a low-level of radial accretion (van Paradijs et al. 1987) (via an advection-dominated accretion flow), the X-rays originate from the atmosphere of the neutron star. The spectrum radiated by the atmosphere will depend on its actual composition, the strength and the structure of the magnetic field. In general, it is thought that the old neutron stars in globular clusters have low magnetic fields and hydrogen-rich atmospheres (gravitational settling of heavier elements occurs rapidly; see Rutledge et al. 2002 and references therein). Early nonmagnetic hydrogen atmosphere models have been shown to provide adequate fits to the quiescent X-ray spectra of several neutron star systems, all providing plausible values for the neutron star radius (typically around 10 km; Rutledge et al.
2. OBSERVATIONS AND DATA REDUCTION

We have observations of the three likely neutron stars in three different globular clusters, ω Centauri (ω Cen), M13, and NGC 2808. Observations of each of these clusters were made with the X-ray observatory XMM-Newton. All three EPIC cameras were used in the full-frame mode with the medium filter. Further information about these observations can be found in Table 1.

To reduce these data we used the latest version of the XMM-Newton Science Analysis Software (SAS; ver. 7.0). This has many improvements over the earlier versions of the SAS used to reduce ω Cen and M13 (ver. 5.3.3), such as upgraded EPIC calibration, resulting in a much better cross-calibration among the EPIC instruments, and including modeling of spatial and temporal response dependencies. Improvements to the bad-pixel–finding algorithms (decreasing the noise at low energies significantly, important for neutron stars which emit mainly at low energies), the vignetting correction and exposure maps have also been made (see the SAS release notes1). The MOS data were reduced using emchain. The event lists were filtered, so that 0–12 of the predefined patterns (single, double, triple, and quadruple pixel events) were retained and the high background periods were identified by defining a count rate threshold above the low background rate and the periods of soft proton flares were then flagged in the event list. We also filtered in energy. We used the energy range 0.2–10.0 keV, as recommended in the document EPIC Status of Calibration and Data Analysis (Kirsch et al. 2002). The pn data were reduced using epchain in SAS. Again the event lists were filtered, so that 0–4 of the predefined patterns (single and double events) were retained, as these have the best energy calibration. We again filtered in energy, where we used the energy range 0.2–10.0 keV, and we also filtered for the soft proton flares. A summary of the observations and good time intervals for each observation and camera is given in Table 1.

We extracted the ω Cen spectra using circles of radii 45″ (to include at least 90% of the available flux from the neutron star) centered on the source. For the neutron star in M13 we used an extraction radius of 25″ due its close proximity to other sources and excluded a region of radius 15″ around a second source that fell in the extraction region (the large region contains at least 80% of the total source counts from the neutron star and less than 10% of the counts from the neighboring source; Ehle et al. 2006a) (see Fig. 1). Due to overcrowding in the center of NGC 2808 we used extraction regions of 8″, which includes 50% of

![FIG. 1.—Image showing the region used to extract the M13 neutron star spectrum (brighter source) and the region excluded due to the source found at 18.4″ from the neutron star, superposed on the MOS 1 data (0.2–10.0 keV). [See the electronic edition of the Journal for a color version of this figure.]](image)

1 At http://xmm.vilspa.esa.es/sas/7.0.0/documentation/releasenotes.
the total source counts from the neutron star (Ehle et al. 2006a) (see Fig. 2). We used a similar neighboring region, free from X-ray sources to extract a background spectrum. We rebinned the MOS data into 15 eV bins and the pn data into 5 eV bins as recommended in Ehle et al. (2006b). We used the SAS tasks rmfgen and arfgen to generate a redistribution matrix file and an ancillary response file for each spectrum.

3. SPECTRAL ANALYSIS

We exploit three different hydrogen atmosphere models that are publicly available in Xspec 12.3.0. These are the basic neutron star atmosphere (NSA) model that we used previously in Gendre et al. (2003a, 2003b). This model includes a uniform surface (effective) temperature, either a nonmagnetized neutron star or with a field \( B = 10^{12} \) or \( 10^{13} \) G and a radiative atmosphere in hydrostatic equilibrium. The NSAGRAV model used is similar, but allows for a variety of surface gravitational accelerations, ranging from \( 10^{13} \) to \( 10^{15} \) cm s\(^{-2}\), adapted to the masses and radii investigated. Finally, we use the NSATMOS model described by Heinke et al. (2006). This model includes a range of surface gravities and effective temperatures, and incorporates thermal electron conduction and self-irradiation by photons from the compact object. It also assumes negligible (less than \( 10^9 \) G) magnetic fields and a pure hydrogen atmosphere.

For each neutron star, we fitted the spectrum obtained from all three cameras simultaneously. However, for the neutron star in M13 we also included the ROSAT PSPC archival observations of this source in M13 (Verbunt 2001), as in Gendre et al. (2003b), as the ROSAT data extend below the XMM-Newton data, down to 0.1 keV. (Only 11.5 ks of data exist in the archives for \( \omega \) Cen, which is insufficient to improve our spectra. No data exist for NGC 2808.) The ROSAT PSPC has a poorer angular resolution than the EPIC cameras (PSPC = 25" and MOS = 6"), and the spectrum extracted contains data from both the neutron star and the source found at 18.4" from the neutron star (see Fig. 1). We have extracted the XMM-Newton EPIC MOS spectrum of this source. The best fit to this spectrum is either a power law, \( \Gamma = 1.75^{+0.61}_{-0.55} \), C-statistic = 5.96 (eight bins), or a bremsstrahlung model, \( kT = 4.49^{+171.70}_{-2.60} \), C-statistic = 5.98 (eight bins). This source contributes approximately 28% of the counts in the ROSAT band (0.1–2.4 keV). To take this source into account, we have allowed the normalization for the ROSAT data to float, to account for the uncertain cross-calibration between the two observatories.

All the data were binned to contain a minimum of 20 counts bin\(^{-1}\) where possible, and we used the \( \chi^2 \) technique to judge the goodness of the model fits. However, for \( \omega \) Cen and NGC 2808 the data were binned with 15 counts bin\(^{-1}\) (to increase the number of data points). In these cases we used the C-statistic to judge the goodness of the fit, as the number of counts per bin is no longer strictly in the Gaussian statistics regime but approaches that of the Poissonian statistics regime. Even though we are at the limit between the two regimes, the C-statistic has been shown to work well at even higher counts (Nousek & Shue 1989) and should therefore give good results. The inverse is not necessarily true. Nousek & Shue (1989) showed that using the Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm (the algorithm used in Xspec) for small numbers of events per bin gives a systematic bias.

3.1. Absorption in the Spectra

For each model we included (photoelectric) absorption along the line of sight to the object. This was initially fixed at the value determined for each cluster (see Table 1) and then allowed to vary. In every case we found that we required additional absorbing material, assumed to be additional gas intrinsic to the system. This was typically 30%–60% more, i.e., \( \omega \) Cen required an \( n_H \sim 0.11 \times 10^{22} \) cm\(^{-2}\), an increase of 60% with an \( f \)-test probability of 0.0099, indicating that it is reasonable to include additional material. The normalization was fixed to the value corresponding to the distance to the cluster (see Table 1), and the masses and radii were then allowed to vary.

We then tried to constrain the nature of the additional absorbing material, in the same way as Heinke et al. (2006), by employing the Xspec model vphabs and using the abundances corresponding to those of each of the clusters. For M13 we chose the iron abundance to be 3% solar (\( \text{Fe/H} = -1.5 \)), the abundances of C, N, and O to be 5% solar (\( X/H = -1.32 \)), the abundances of Ne to Ca to be 4% solar (\( X/H = -1.38 \)) and that of helium to be of solar abundance, following Cohen & Meléndez (2005). For \( \omega \) Cen the situation is more complicated, as there are three distinct populations of stars in this cluster (see, e.g., Origlia et al. 2003). We elected the abundances from the largest population in the cluster, basing our choice on the fact that the highest probability was that the donor star comes from the largest population. We adopt the iron abundance to be 3% solar (\( \text{Fe/H} = -1.58 \)), the abundances of C, N, and O to be 6% solar (\( X/H = -1.24 \)), the abundances of Ne to Ca to be 6% solar (\( X/H = -1.19 \)), and that of helium to be of solar abundance, following Origlia et al. (2003) and Norris (2004). For NGC 2808 we select the iron abundance to be 9% solar (\( \text{Fe/H} = -1.06 \)), the abundances of C, N, and O to be 32% solar (\( X/H = -0.5 \)), the abundances of Ne to Ca to be 16% solar (\( X/H = -0.8 \)), and that of helium to be of solar abundance, following Castellani et al. (2006) and Gratton (1982). Again, however, it is believed that NGC 2808 has as many as three populations of stars, with different abundances (Piotto et al. 2007). We chose the abundances for the only population with sufficient information in the literature. We then modeled the neutron star spectra fixing the photoelectric absorption (phabs) to be that of the cluster and allowing the photoelectric absorption with variable abundances (vphabs) to vary (using the abundances given above). The results that we obtained
gave very small masses and/or radii, often small enough to hit the lower mass or radius limit allowed in the models (see below for values).

We thus decided to determine whether our data are of sufficiently good quality to constrain the nature of the additional absorbing material. We simulated a spectrum similar to that obtained for $\omega$ Cen, using the simple phabs model. We modeled this spectrum in Xspec using first the phabs model and then the vphabs model. We obtained similar $\chi^2$ values (1.17, 78 degrees of freedom [dof] when using phabs and 1.29, 78 dof when using vphabs), but again the masses and radii were very low when the vphabs model was used, only $\sim$80% of the value given to simulate the spectrum as opposed to values within 10% when using the phabs model. We also simulated the same spectrum but using the vphabs model. Again, modeling this spectrum in Xspec using the vphabs model we found values as low as 33% of the original value, yet when modeling with the phabs model our values are within 5% of our original values. Further, we obtain equally good fits using vphabs to our simulated spectrum ($\chi^2 = 1.09$, 78 dof) when we choose abundances that are different by 300% to those used in the simulated spectrum, and we still have the problem that either the mass or the radius is very small. We therefore conclude that the quality of our data is insufficient to constrain the nature of the additional absorbing material and we use the phabs model only.

3.2. Contribution from Neighboring Sources

We also investigated whether we required an extra power-law tail, especially for the two neutron stars found in proximity of other sources i.e., the neutron stars in M13 and NGC 2808. This is important, as substantial flux from other sources is likely to be the dominant source of counts in the higher energy bands (i.e., above 1 keV). This may tend to systematically bias the spectral fits to higher temperatures, and thus smaller radii.

To do this we extracted the spectra of the neighboring sources and determined their photon indices ($\Gamma \sim 1.75$ for M13 and $\Gamma \sim 1.5$ for NGC 2808). We then estimated the contribution from the neighboring sources in the extraction region for each neutron star (8% for M13 and 20% for NGC 2808; see Figs. 1 and 2). We used these values and refitted our spectra. Interestingly, we found values very similar to those obtained when no power law was included. Even allowing the normalization to increase, increasing the weight of the power law, made little difference to the fits. F-tests show that adding the power law is not necessary. Probability results for fitting NSA, NSATMOS, and NSAGRAV models with and without the additional power laws to the neutron star in M13 are 0.31, 0.22, and 0.199, respectively, and to the neutron star in NGC 2808 are 0.13, 0.06, and 0.08, respectively. We therefore conclude that adding a power law is not required by the data. The spectra of the three neutron stars can be found in Figures 3–5, along with the best-fitting NSATMOS model.
The principal goal of our spectral fitting is to self-consistently constrain the allowed space in mass and radius using our three neutron stars, but also to test the reliability and accuracy of the three models examined. Table 2 gives the best fits for each neutron star fitted with each of the three models, along with the best-fitting values for the column densities, surface temperatures of the neutron stars, masses and radii. Errors are also given at the 90% confidence limit for the one interesting parameter. To calculate the errors, the mass and distance were held fixed and all other parameters were allowed to vary, except when calculating the error on the mass, when the radius was held fixed. A $p$ after the error value indicates that the hard limit of the model was reached. The estimated unabsorbed bolometric luminosity for each neutron star is also given.

### 3.3. Modelling the Spectra

The column density $N_{\text{H}}$ is $\times 10^{22}$ cm$^{-2}$, the temperature ($T$) is given as the logarithm of the temperature in kelvins, and the masses are in solar units and the radii in kilometers. All errors are given at the 90% confidence limit for the one

### Table 2

| Cluster        | NSA          | NSAGRAV     | NSATMOS     | $L_{\text{bol}}$ (ergs s$^{-1}$) |
|----------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|-------------------------------|
|                | $N_{\text{H}} = 0.12 \pm 0.04$ | $N_{\text{H}} = 0.11 \pm 0.05$ | $N_{\text{H}} = 0.12 \pm 0.04$ | $4.91 \times 10^{32}$ |
|                | $\log(T) = 5.99 \pm 0.10$ | $\log(T) = 6.00 \pm 0.10$ | $\log(T) = 5.98 \pm 0.30$ | $4.91 \times 10^{32}$ |
|                | $M = 1.16 \pm 1.20$ | $M = 1.40 \pm 1.30$ | $M = 1.66 \pm 1.30$ | $4.91 \times 10^{32}$ |
|                | $R = 11.30 \pm 7.17$ | $R = 10.00 \pm 7.00$ | $R = 11.66 \pm 9.13$ | $4.91 \times 10^{32}$ |
|                | Cstat = 91.28, 85 dof | Cstat = 91.26, 85 dof | Cstat = 91.35, 85 dof | $5.08 \times 10^{32}$ |
| M3            | $N_{\text{H}} = 0.013 \pm 0.005$ | $N_{\text{H}} = 0.013 \pm 0.005$ | $N_{\text{H}} = 0.012 \pm 0.003$ | $1.02 \times 10^{33}$ |
|                | $\log(T) = 6.00 \pm 0.10$ | $\log(T) = 6.00 \pm 0.10$ | $\log(T) = 6.00 \pm 0.09$ | $1.02 \times 10^{33}$ |
|                | $M = 1.38 \pm 0.23$ | $M = 1.39 \pm 0.21$ | $M = 1.30 \pm 0.12$ | $1.02 \times 10^{33}$ |
|                | $R = 9.95 \pm 0.24$ | $R = 9.95 \pm 0.24$ | $R = 9.77 \pm 0.29$ | $1.02 \times 10^{33}$ |
|                | $x^2 = 1.10, 62$ | $x^2 = 1.10, 62$ | $x^2 = 1.08, 62$ | $1.02 \times 10^{33}$ |
| NGC 2808       | $N_{\text{H}} = 0.17 \pm 0.00$ | $N_{\text{H}} = 0.18 \pm 0.01$ | $N_{\text{H}} = 0.16 \pm 0.01$ | $1.02 \times 10^{33}$ |
|                | $\log(T) = 6.04 \pm 0.07$ | $\log(T) = 6.03 \pm 0.07$ | $\log(T) = 6.03 \pm 0.03$ | $1.02 \times 10^{33}$ |
|                | $M = 0.67 \pm 0.13$ | $M = 0.95 \pm 0.50$ | $M = 0.91 \pm 0.41$ | $1.02 \times 10^{33}$ |
|                | $R = 8.45 \pm 3.43$ | $R = 7.48 \pm 1.57$ | $R = 6.10 \pm 1.47$ | $1.02 \times 10^{33}$ |
|                | Cstat = 17.59, 19 dof | Cstat = 18.12, 19 dof | Cstat = 16.95, 19 dof | $1.02 \times 10^{33}$ |

**Notes.**—As described in § 3. The column density $N_{\text{H}}$ is $\times 10^{22}$ cm$^{-2}$, the temperature ($T$) is given as the logarithm of the temperature in kelvins, and the masses are in solar units and the radii in kilometers. All errors are given at the 90% confidence limit for the one interesting parameter. To calculate the errors, the mass and distance were held fixed and all other parameters were allowed to vary, except when calculating the error on the mass, when the radius was held fixed. A $p$ after the error value indicates that the hard limit of the model was reached. The estimated unabsorbed bolometric luminosity for each neutron star is also given.

It is clear from the table that the NSA model gives comparable results to the NSAGRAV model. However, the NSATMOS model gives slightly lower temperatures and higher masses, which may indicate a degeneracy in spectral shape variations between the surface gravity and the surface temperature. However, here we calculate a range of neutron star masses and radii, for which the NSATMOS and NSAGRAV, thanks to their variable surface gravities, are better adapted (see the discussion in Heinke et al. 2006). The use of these fixed gravity models for testing neutron stars with a variety of masses and radii (and therefore gravities) is not therefore strictly appropriate. This is borne out by the modeling. For this reason and to simplify the following plots, we ignore the NSA model (as it is less accurate), and we plot only the NSATMOS model (as the NSAGRAV and NSATMOS models are similar) to show the constraints on mass and radius.

![Region excluded by causality](https://example.com/region-excluded-by-causality.png)

**Fig. 6.**—Contour plot showing the results of modeling the neutron star in M3 with the Xspec models: NSA (solid lines), NSATMOS (dotted lines), and the NSAGRAV (dashed lines). The 90% and 99% confidence contours for the neutron star masses ($M_\odot$) and the radii (km) are plotted along with neutron star EOSs taken from Lattimer & Prakash (2007). [See the electronic edition of the *Journal for a color version of this figure.*]
4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

As seen in §3 even if the NSA model is more accurate in constraining $R_n$ than the NSATMOS and NSAGRAV models, when calculating a range of neutron star masses and radii, we find that the NSATMOS and NSAGRAV models are better adapted. We conclude that the use of fixed gravity models for testing neutron stars with a variety of masses and radii (and therefore gravities) is not strictly appropriate as previously indicated by Gānsicke et al. (2002) and Heinke et al. (2006).

Using the results from Figures 6 and 7, and the results found by Heinke et al. (2006) when fitting Chandra observations of X7 in 47 Tuc, we show the allowed EOSs in Figure 8. Modeling the neutron star in M13 alone shows that the data do not favor the stiffer EOSs, such as MS0-2 and PAL 1. We combine these results with those from modeling the neutron star in $\omega$ Cen. The low quality of the data for the neutron star in NGC 2808 results in very poor constraints for this object, and hence we disregard this source in the discussion, although the results seem to be similar to those for the neutron star in M13. The EOSs that are satisfied by all three neutron stars fall in the middle of the diagram and includes the EOSs of normal nucleonic matter and one strange quark matter model. The equations allowed are GS1, PAL 6, AP3 & 4, GM3, FSU, SQM3, ENG, and MPA1, with radii above 8 km and masses up to 2.4 $M_\odot$.

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Fig. 7.—Contour plot showing the results of modeling the neutron stars in $\omega$ Cen (solid lines) and NGC 2808 (dotted lines) with the XSPEC model NSATMOS. The 90% and 99% confidence contours for the neutron star masses ($M_\odot$) and the radii (km) are plotted along with neutron star EOSs taken from Lattimer & Prakash (2007). [See the electronic edition of the Journal for a color version of this figure.]

Fig. 8.—Contour plot showing the results of modeling the neutron stars in M13 (dotted line), $\omega$ Cen (solid lines) and X7 in 47 Tuc (dash-dotted lines) (Heinke et al. 2006) with the Xspec model NSATMOS. The 99% confidence contours for the neutron star masses ($M_\odot$) and the radii (km) are plotted along with neutron star EOSs taken from Lattimer & Prakash (2007). The gray hashed region indicates the region not investigated with the models. [See the electronic edition of the Journal for a color version of this figure.]
