X-RAY BINARIES AND GLOBULAR CLUSTERS IN ELLIPTICAL GALAXIES
RAYMOND E. WHITE III, CRAIG L. SARAZIN, AND SHRINIVAS R. KULKARNI
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ABSTRACT

The X-ray emission from normal elliptical galaxies has two major components: soft ($kT \approx 0.2-1$ keV) emission from diffuse gas and harder ($kT \approx 6$ keV) emission from populations of accreting (low mass) stellar X-ray binaries. If the low-mass X-ray binary (LMXB) population is intimately tied to the field stellar population in a galaxy, its aggregate X-ray luminosity is expected to be simply proportional to the optical luminosity of the galaxy. However, recent ASCA and Chandra X-ray observations show that the global luminosities of LMXB components in elliptical galaxies exhibit significant scatter (a factor of $\sim 4$) at a given optical luminosity. This scatter may reflect a range of evolutionary stages among X-ray binary populations in elliptical galaxies of different ages. If so, the ratio of the global LMXB X-ray luminosity to the galactic optical luminosity, $L_{\text{LMXB}}/L_{\text{opt}}$, may in principle be used to determine when the bulk of stars were formed in individual elliptical galaxies. To test this we compare variations in $L_{\text{LMXB}}/L_{\text{opt}}$ for LMXB populations in elliptical galaxies to optically derived estimates of stellar ages in the same galaxies. We find no correlation, which suggests that variations in $L_{\text{LMXB}}/L_{\text{opt}}$ are not a good age indicator for elliptical galaxies. Alternatively, LMXBs may be formed primarily in globular clusters (through stellar tidal interactions) rather than comprise a subset of the primordial binary star population in a galactic stellar field. Since elliptical galaxies exhibit a wide range of globular cluster populations for a given galactic luminosity, this may induce a dispersion in the LMXB populations of elliptical galaxies with similar optical luminosities. Indeed, we find that $L_{\text{LMXB}}/L_{\text{opt}}$ ratios for LMXB populations are strongly correlated with the specific globular cluster frequencies in elliptical galaxies. This suggests that most LMXBs were formed in globular clusters. If so, Chandra observations of central dominant galaxies with unusually large globular cluster populations should find proportionally excessive numbers of LMXBs.

Subject headings: binaries: close — galaxies: elliptical and lenticular, cD — globular clusters: general — X-rays: binaries — X-rays: galaxies

1. INTRODUCTION

The X-ray emission from normal elliptical galaxies has two major components: soft ($kT \approx 0.2-1$ keV) emission from diffuse gas and harder ($kT \approx 6$ keV) emission from populations of accreting (low mass) stellar X-ray binaries. The X-ray properties of the low-mass X-ray binary (LMXB) component have been difficult to determine owing to their spatial confusion with diffuse gaseous emission and to spectral hardness that places much of the LMXB emission outside the effective bandpasses of most imaging X-ray satellite spectrometers. The presence of the LMXB component has been inferred in part through observations of spectral hardening in elliptical galaxies with progressively smaller X-ray-to-optical luminosity ratios (Kim, Fabbiano, & Trinchieri 1992), indicating that they have relatively little gas, exposing the harder LMXB component. Populations of LMXBs are also expected in elliptical galaxies simply by analogy with detections of discrete LMXB sources in nearby spheroids, such as the bulges and halos of our Galaxy and M31 (Forman, Jones, & Tucker 1985; Canizares, Fabbiano, & Trinchieri 1987) as well as in the radio galaxy Cen A (Turner et al. 1997).

A simple argument suggests that the total X-ray luminosities of LMXB populations in elliptical galaxies might be proportional to the stellar luminosities of the galaxies: if the properties of low-mass binary stellar systems (such as the fraction of stars in binaries, the distributions of binary separations and mass ratios, etc.) are largely independent of their galactic context, the number of LMXBs (hence their aggregate X-ray luminosity) should be simply proportional to the number of stars in the galaxy (and thus their total optical luminosity).

High angular resolution Chandra observations are now allowing individual LMXBs to be resolved out of the diffuse gaseous X-ray emission in nearly elliptical galaxies (Kraft et al. 2000, 2001; Sarazin, Irwin, & Bregman 2000, 2001; Angelini, Loewenstein, & Mushotzky 2001; Finoguenov & Jones 2001), which makes their composite spectral analysis much easier. The bulk of the hard emission in normal elliptical galaxies indeed comes from LMXBs, rather than from advection-dominated accretion flows onto massive, central black holes, proposed by Allen, Di Matteo, & Fabian (2000).

Until Chandra observes more nearby elliptical galaxies, the strongest spectral constraints to date on the hard stellar LMXB component in a large sample of elliptical galaxies will still come from ASCA spectra (Matsumoto et al. 1997; White 2000, 2002a, 2002b). Since the effective angular resolution of ASCA imaging spectrometers is $2''-3''$ (half-power diameter), confusion prevents individual LMXBs from being easily resolved out of the diffuse gas in elliptical galaxies. The hard LMXB component can be spectrally distinguished from the softer gaseous component, however. Matsumoto et al. (1997) separated the hard LMXB component in elliptical galaxies from softer gaseous emission by considering ASCA Gas Imaging Spectrometer (GIS) spectral energies above 4 keV. Stacking 4–10 keV GIS spectra for 12 elliptical galaxies, they found a best-fit thermal bremsstrahlung model with $kT = 12^{+3.5}_{-2.6}$ keV (where errors are 90% confidence limits); a power law with photon index $\alpha = 1.8^{+0.4}_{-0.3}$ fitted equally well. Matsumoto et al. (1997) found that the X-ray luminosities of the LMXB components were propor-
tional to the optical luminosities of the elliptical galaxies, but with a surprisingly large scatter (a factor of ~4). Some of the elliptical galaxies included in the sample have significant X-ray emission from active galactic nuclei (AGNs), which may account for some of the scatter.

White (2000, 2002a, 2002b) performed a similar ASCA analysis, but with a larger spectral bandwidth (0.7–10 keV), on six normal elliptical galaxies (i.e., elliptical galaxies without significant AGN emission). Spectra were extracted from within metric radii of 6r_e from the galactic centers, where r_e is the effective radius of a galaxy. The GIS spectra of the six elliptical galaxies were simultaneously fitted with both soft (gaseous) and hard (LMXB) emission components. (Only GIS data were used because the GIS detectors have twice the effective area of the Solid-State Imaging Spectrometer detectors above 7 keV.) The temperatures (or power-law indices) of the hard components in the galaxies were tied together, while the temperatures of the soft components (if present) were allowed to vary individually. Much tighter spectral model constraints were provided by the increased spectral bandwidth compared to the 4–10 keV bandwidth in the stacked spectral study of Matsumoto et al. (1997). The spectra of the LMXB components were fitted equally well by a bremsstrahlung model with kT = 6.4^{+1.7}_{-1.3} keV or a power-law model with photon index \alpha = 1.82^{+0.10}_{-0.09} (errors are 90% confidence limits). Individual fits to each galaxy in the set were consistent with the results of the joint fits and fluxes were obtained by adopting the best jointly fit temperature. These are the tightest constraints to date on the global spectral properties of the stellar LMXB component in elliptical galaxies. GIS X-ray fluxes were determined from the LMXB components from the elliptical sample of White (2002b) that were included in the sample of nonsolar abundance ratios), to the single-burst stellar population models of Worthey (1994). For their sample of 50 elliptical galaxies, Trager et al. (2000) find ages ranging from ~4.0 to 18 Gyr. In Figure 1, the optical stellar luminosities of galaxies are also slowly declining with time. Figure 1 of Bruzual & Charlot (1993) shows that the (visual) optical luminosity of an elliptical galaxy declines as L_v \propto t^{-0.55}. This time dependence is close enough to estimates for the temporal decline in the X-ray luminosity of LMXB populations that it is difficult to assess how the X-ray–to–optical ratio of the LMXB component is evolving at the present epoch.

For our purposes, ambiguity in the theoretical expectation for the temporal evolution of L_{LMXB}/L_{opt} does not matter—we can deduce the evolution empirically. If variations in the X-ray properties of the LMXB component for galaxies of a given optical luminosity are correlated with independent age estimates, the L_{LMXB}/L_{opt} ratio itself might then be used as an indicator of galactic age.

To test this possibility, we compare the L_{LMXB}/L_{opt} ratio for the LMXB components from the optical sample of White (2002b) to recent stellar age estimates for elliptical galaxies (Trager et al. 2000). The stellar age estimates were derived by comparing the strengths of optical spectral line indices of (Fe), Mg b, and H\beta (which were corrected for the effects of nonsolar abundance ratios), to the single-burst stellar population models of Worthey (1994). For their sample of 50 elliptical galaxies, Trager et al. (2000) find ages ranging from 1.5 to 18 Gyr. In Figure 1, the relevant optical stellar age estimates (ranging from ~4 or 14 Gyr) are compared to the L_{LMXB}/L_{opt} ratios for the LMXB populations in the eight elliptical galaxies of (the 14 in) White (2002b) that were included in the sample of White (2002b). The X-ray luminosities were calculated in the 0.5–4.5 keV range, and their errors are 90% confidence limits. There is apparently no correlation, so variations in the L_{LMXB}/L_{opt} ratios for LMXB populations are not likely to be due to galactic age differences.

2. POSSIBLE SOURCES OF VARIANCE IN LMXB POPULATIONS IN ELLIPTICAL GALAXIES

2.1. Variations in Galaxy Ages

If LMXB populations are a subset of the primordial binary systems in a galactic stellar field, then the evolution of an LMXB population should be tied to the evolution of visible stars. The evolution of the aggregate X-ray luminosity of an LMXB population is best assessed with a population synthesis calculation (Wu 2001). A simpler, more phenomenological approach was adopted by White & Ghosh (1998). The luminosity of an LMXB population (neglecting burst sources) is expected to rise for about a gigayear (White & Ghosh 1998), driven by the time it takes the less massive secondaries in binaries to evolve off the main sequence, overflow their Roche lobes, and start dumping mass onto the more massive (primary) compact stellar remnants in the binaries. After this gigayear ramp-up, the luminosity of an LMXB population is expected to slowly decline (White & Ghosh 1998; Wu 2001).

The optical stellar luminosities of galaxies are also slowly declining with time. Figure 1 of Bruzual & Charlot (1993) shows that the (visual) optical luminosity of an elliptical galaxy declines as L_v \propto t^{-0.55}. This time dependence is close enough to estimates for the temporal decline in the X-ray luminosity of LMXB populations that it is difficult to assess how the X-ray–to–optical ratio of the LMXB component is evolving at the present epoch.

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![Figure 1](https://example.com/figure1.png)

**Figure 1.** Mean ages of the stars in elliptical galaxies (Trager et al. 2000) are plotted against the ratios of the X-ray luminosity of their LMXBs to their optical B-band luminosity (White 2002b). Open circle indicates an upper limit to L_{LMXB} due to the presence of an AGN.
2.2. Globular Cluster Population Variations

Alternatively, most LMXBs may be formed in globular clusters, rather than in the stellar field of a galaxy. Observations of LMXBs in our own Galaxy show that it is very difficult to make LMXBs in the field. There are comparable numbers of high-mass X-ray binaries (HMXBs) and LMXBs, but HMXB lifetimes are only \( \sim 10^8 \) yr, which is \( 10^3 \) to \( 10^6 \) times shorter than LMXB lifetimes. Thus, the formation of LMXBs in our Galaxy is \( 10^2 \) to \( 10^5 \) times less efficient than the formation of HMXBs.

Meanwhile, globular clusters are the most efficient formation sites for LMXBs in our Galaxy: \( \sim 20\% \) of all LMXBs in our Galaxy reside in globular clusters, yet globular clusters contain \( \lesssim 0.1\% \) of the stars in our Galaxy (Katz 1975). Thus, globular clusters form LMXBs more than 200 times more efficiently than the rest of the Galaxy through tidal capture during close stellar encounters (Clark 1975).

Given this, it is reasonable to consider whether most LMXBs are formed in globular clusters. Grindlay (1984) suggested that X-ray bursting binaries in the bulge of our Galaxy (not residing in globular clusters) were formed in globular clusters that were later destroyed by tidal shocks while passing through the Galaxy’s disk. This disruption mechanism is not relevant to globulars residing in elliptical galaxies, but if globulars are on eccentric orbits, they may still lose stars due to galactic tides at perigalacticon. Vesperini (2000) estimates that only \( \sim 10\% \) of globular clusters are disrupted in the most luminous elliptical galaxies, but the fraction disrupted increases considerably for progressively smaller elliptical luminosities. Also, some LMXBs formed in globular clusters may be ejected by the velocity kicks imparted by supernovae during the formation of neutron stars. Typical supernovae kick velocities are thought to range from 100 to 500 km s\(^{-1}\) (Kalogera 1996; Terman, Taam, & Savage 1996; Fryer, Burrows, & Benz 1998), while the escape velocities of globular clusters range from 5 to 60 km s\(^{-1}\) (Webbink 1985). Since LMXB lifetimes can be quite long (\( \sim 10^9 \) yr), LMXBs ejected from globular clusters can be visible outside the clusters for a long time. If LMXBs are made primarily in globular clusters, we would expect their number to be proportional to the number of globular clusters, regardless of the fraction ejected from clusters.

With the excellent angular resolution of Chandra, it is possible to determine positions of LMXBs with sufficient accuracy to confirm whether they coincide with globular clusters. Observations of elliptical galaxies show that a significant fraction are located in globulars (Sarazin et al. 2000, 2001; Angelini et al. 2001; S. W. Randall, C. L. Sarazin, & J. A. Irwin 2002, in preparation; R. E. White, D. S. Davis, & D. A. Hanes 2002, in preparation). The fraction ranges from \( \gtrsim 20\% \) to \( 70\% \). In the same region of these galaxies, the globular clusters typically provide only \( \lesssim 0.1\% \) of the optical light, which implies that optical stars in globular clusters are much more likely to be the donor stars in LMXBs than in the field. The primary limitation with identifying LMXBs with globulars in elliptical galaxies at present is the lack of Hubble Space Telescope (HST) globular cluster lists for many of the Chandra observed elliptical galaxies.

Since elliptical galaxies exhibit an order of magnitude range of globular cluster populations for a given galactic luminosity, we can assess whether these variations are correlated with variations in \( L_{\text{LMXB}}/L_{\text{opt}} \). In Figure 2, we compare the specific frequency of globular clusters \( S \) (the number of globular clusters per galaxy visual luminosity in units of the luminosity of an \( M_V = -15 \) galaxy) from the compilation of Kissler-Patig (1997) to the \( L_{\text{LMXB}}/L_{\text{opt}} \) ratio for the LMXB populations in the elliptical sample described above. The Kissler-Patig (1997) compilation includes error estimates for \( S \), as indicated in the figure, for all but one elliptical in this sample. There appears to be a strong correlation (White 2000, 2002a), and the relationship is consistent with direct proportionality: \( L_{\text{LMXB}}/L_{\text{opt}} \propto S^{1.2 \pm 0.4} \). Thus, LMXB populations may indeed be controlled by globular cluster populations.

3. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This study suggests that globular cluster populations in elliptical galaxies control the evolution of their populations of low-mass stellar X-ray binaries. At the present epoch, age differences among the elliptical galaxies in the small sample described above do not seem to be correlated with the variations in their X-ray binary populations. It would be useful to compare the LMXBs in early-type galaxies with more detailed properties (such as color and magnitude) of their globulars (other than just the number), to see if the history of star formation in the globular affects the LMXB population. The Chandra observations of NGC 1399 suggested that LMXBs are more likely to be found in redder globular clusters (Angelini et al. 2001). There also is evidence that LMXBs are more likely to be found in brighter globulars (Angelini et al. 2001), although it is unclear whether this is just due to the larger number of stars in brighter globulars or indicates a higher probability per star in more massive clusters.

It is possible that most or all LMXBs in early-type galaxies are formed in globular clusters. In this scenario, any field LMXBs in elliptical galaxies would have escaped from globulars. The field LMXBs might have been ejected by the kick velocities resulting from supernovae, by stellar dynamical processes, such as superelastic encounters in which internal binding energy in the binaries is converted into kinetic energy of motion of the binary, or by the dissolution of the globular due to tidal effects.

There is some evidence that the LMXBs in globular clusters in elliptical galaxies are brighter in X-rays than those in the field (Angelini et al. 2001). If all of the LMXBs were formed in globular clusters, this would require that the less luminous
There are no super-Eddington LMXBs associated with globular and S0 galaxies, but not with the bulges of spiral galaxies. Many sources associated with globulars have X-ray luminosities that exceed the Eddington luminosity of a 1.4 $M_\odot$ neutron star, $L_{\text{Edd, NS}} \approx 2 \times 10^{38}$ erg s$^{-1}$ (Sarazin et al. 2000, 2001; Angelini et al. 2001; Blanton et al. 2001; S. W. Randall et al. 2002, in preparation; White et al. 2002b). In general, LMXB luminosity functions within early-type galaxies have a break at a luminosity very close to $L_{\text{Edd, NS}}$ (Sarazin et al. 2000, 2001; Blanton et al. 2001; S. W. Randall et al. 2002, in preparation). This break may separate accreting black holes, at higher luminosities, from accreting neutron stars at lower luminosities (Sarazin et al. 2000). If the sources are Eddington-limited single binaries, then the brightest sources associated with globular clusters must contain quite massive ($\approx 20 M_\odot$) black holes (Sarazin et al. 2000). It is not clear how globular clusters would form and retain such massive black holes in LMXBs and also not have them form binary black hole systems (e.g., Portegies Zwart & McMillan 2000).

On the other hand, these super-Eddington sources might be globular clusters containing multiple X-ray sources (Angelini et al. 2001). The difficulty with this suggestion is that the fraction of globulars which contain at least one X-ray source is low; the fraction is about 3–4% in NGC 1399 (Angelini et al. 2001), NGC 4697 (Sarazin et al. 2000, 2001), and NGC 4649. (It is interesting that this fraction is almost the same in these three elliptical galaxies.) The luminosity function of the LMXBs is not steep enough that multiple sources should affect the luminosity function at the high end, given this low fraction. On the other hand, if the LMXBs are mainly confined to a smaller subset of globular clusters (e.g., very bright and/or very red and/or core-collapsed systems), then the fraction of the relevant subset of globulars with X-ray sources and the probability of multiple sources might be much higher.

There is some evidence that these luminous super-Eddington X-ray sources are associated with globular clusters in elliptical and S0 galaxies, but not with the bulges of spiral galaxies. There are no super-Eddington LMXBs associated with globular clusters in the bulge of our Galaxy (e.g., Hut et al. 1992). The same is true of the central S5 of the bulge of M31 (Shirey et al. 2001). The luminosity of LMXBs in the nearby large spiral bulge NGC 1291 has a cutoff at a luminosity that is very close to $L_{\text{Edd, NS}}$. Unless this is the result of statistical fluctuations and the large populations of globular clusters in elliptical galaxies, this suggests that the binaries in globulars in elliptical galaxies have different histories than those in spiral bulges.

In general, the specific frequency of globular clusters decreases along the Hubble sequence from late- to early-type spirals, from spirals to S0s, from S0s to elliptical galaxies, and from normal giant elliptical galaxies to cD galaxies (e.g., Harris 1991). If LMXBs are born in globular clusters, then one would expect the specific frequency of LMXBs and their X-ray–to–optical ratio to increase along the same sequence. In particular, a number of central dominant elliptical galaxies in galaxy clusters are notable for having enormous populations of globular clusters. White (1987) suggested that these unusually populous systems belong to the galaxy clusters, rather than individual galaxies: globular clusters will have been tidally stripped from individual galaxies during the collapse of a galaxy cluster and will then virialize along with other cluster constituents. If LMXBs are formed primarily in globular clusters, then central dominant galaxies with high specific globular cluster frequencies (such as M87, NGC 1399, NGC 3311, and NGC 4874) should be particularly rich in LMXBs as well. Chandra observations have already confirmed the large populations of LMXBs in NGC 1399 (Angelini et al. 2001), and in the region of this galaxy with a globular cluster list based on HST observations, 70% of the LMXBs are located in globular clusters.

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