The X-ray activity–rotation relation of T Tauri stars in Taurus-Auriga

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ABSTRACT

Context. The Taurus-Auriga star-forming complex hosts the only population of T Tauri stars in which an anticorrelation of X-ray activity and rotation period has been observed.

Aims. We aim to explain the origin of the X-ray activity–rotation relation in Taurus-Auriga. We also aim to put the X-ray activity of these stars into the context of the activity of late-type main-sequence stars and T Tauri stars in the Orion Nebula Cluster.

Methods. We have used XMM-Newton’s European Photon Imaging Cameras to perform the most sensitive survey to date of X-ray emission (0.3-10 keV) from young stars in Taurus-Auriga. We investigated the dependences of X-ray activity measures – X-ray luminosity, LX, its ratio with the stellar luminosity, Lx/L⋆, and the surface-averaged X-ray flux, FXS – on rotation period and compared them with predictions based solely on the observed dependence of LX on a star’s L⋆ and whether it is accreting or not. We tested for differences in the distributions of Lx/L⋆ of fast and slow rotators, accretors and non-accretors, and compared the dependence of Lx/L⋆ on the ratio of the rotation period and the convective turnover timescale, the Rossby number, with that of late-type main-sequence stars.

Results. We found significant anticorrelations of Lx and FXS with rotation period, but these could be explained by the typically higher stellar luminosity and effective temperature of fast-rotators in Taurus-Auriga and a near-linear dependence of Lx on L⋆. We found no evidence for a dependence of Lx/L⋆ on rotation period, but for accretors to have lower Lx/L⋆ than non-accretors at all rotation periods. The Rossby numbers of accretors and non-accretors were found to be the same as those of late-type main-sequence stars showing saturated X-ray emission.

Conclusions. Non-accreting T Tauri stars show X-ray activity entirely consistent with the saturated activity of fast-rotating late-type main-sequence stars. Accreting T Tauri stars show lower X-ray activity, but this cannot be attributed to their slower rotation.

Key words. stars: pre-main sequence – stars: activity – stars: rotation – X-rays: stars – Open clusters and associations: Individual: Taurus-Auriga

1. Introduction

T Tauri stars are young stars contracting toward the main sequence, a subclass of which, the ‘classical’ T Tauri stars, show signatures that they are actively accreting material from circumstellar accretion disks. Both accreting and non-accreting T Tauri stars exhibit strong, variable, X-ray emission which provides evidence for hot coronae generated by magnetic activity. Key open questions concerning this emission are the extent to which this magnetic activity is analogous to that exhibited by the Sun and similar stars, and what effect interaction with the circumstellar material, particularly through accretion, has on the magnetic activity.

In the Sun, and all stars whose structure is composed of a radiative interior and a convective envelope, magnetic activity is believed to be predominantly generated by a dynamo that is located in a shell at the interface of the radiative and convective zones and is driven by (differential) rotational and convective motions (an αΩ dynamo; Parker, 1955). This is supported by observations of signatures of magnetic activity, such as chromospheric Hα or Ca H and K line emission or coronal X-ray emission, in stars with convective envelopes. The strengths of these activity signatures correlate directly with the projected rotation velocity, v sin i, and inversely with the rotation period of the star, Prot (e.g. Pallavicini et al., 1981). They furthermore show a tighter inverse correlation with the Rossby number, R0, which is the ratio of the rotation period to the convective turnover timescale at the base of the convective envelope, τconv (e.g. Noyes et al., 1984).

The strengths of the activity signatures are observed to saturate at fast rotation velocities, short rotation periods and low
Rossby numbers [Vilhu 1984; Vilhu & Walter 1987]. It is not yet known whether this is due to a saturation of the dynamo itself or constraints on the available volume of the corona (see e.g. Jardine & Unruh 1999).

Pizzolato et al. (2003) have shown that the ratio of the X-ray luminosity to the stellar bolometric luminosity, $L_X/L_\star$, for main-sequence stars of spectral types from G to early M is well-determined by the Rossby number, $R_0$, such that $L_X/L_\star \approx 10^{-3.2} (R_0/R_{0,\text{sat}})^{-2}$ for $R_0 > R_{0,\text{sat}}$ and $L_X/L_\star \approx 10^{-3.2}$ for $R_0 < R_{0,\text{sat}}$, where $R_{0,\text{sat}} \approx 0.2$ is the Rossby number at which saturation sets in.

T Tauri stars with masses greater than approximately $0.3 \, M_\odot$ are expected to be initially fully-convective and to develop a solar-like structure after nuclear fusion begins in the core. Stars with masses less than approximately $0.3 \, M_\odot$ are expected to remain fully-convective. The majority of T Tauri stars are thus expected to have long convective turnover timescales of 100–300 d. Despite the fact that an $\Omega$ dynamo cannot operate in fully-convective main-sequence stars, there is no empirical evidence for different characteristics in the magnetic activity of these stars: fast rotators show activity at the saturated level and only slow rotators show activity well below the saturated level (Delfosse et al. 1998; Mohanty & Basri 2003).

The T Tauri stars in Taurus-Auriga stand out as the only population of pre-main sequence stars in which an anticorrelation of X-ray activity with rotation period has been observed (Bouvier 1990; Damiani & Micela 1995; Neuhäuser et al. 1995; Stelzer & Neuhäuser 2001). The Rossby numbers of all the COUP stars with measured rotation periods placed them in the saturated regime of main-sequence stars, and their $L_X/L_\star$ was largely consistent with the saturation level of main-sequence stars but with a very large scatter. A strong dependence of X-ray luminosity on the stellar bolometric luminosity was found, as had been seen in previous surveys of X-ray emission from T Tauri stars (e.g. Preibisch & Zinnecker 2002). Accreting T Tauri stars were found to have generally lower X-ray activity levels than non-accretors.

The lower X-ray activity of accreting T Tauri stars has also been observed in Taurus-Auriga (Damiani & Micela 1995; Neuhäuser et al. 1995; Stelzer & Neuhäuser 2001), and has been usually attributed to their typically slower rotation and an anticorrelation of X-ray activity with rotation period.

We use the results of a new X-ray survey of Taurus-Auriga, the XMM-Newton Extended Survey of the Taurus Molecular Cloud (XEST), described in Sect. 2 to reinvestigate the dependence of X-ray emission on rotation in this star-forming region. Our sample selection and data analysis methods are described in Sects. 3 and 4 respectively. In Sect. 5 we present, and propose an explanation for, the observed dependences of X-ray activity measures on rotation period. In Sect. 6 we explore the role of rotation in the different activity levels of accreting and non-accreting stars. We investigate the dependence of X-ray activity on Rossby number in Sect. 7 to examine the observed activity in the context of the activity of solar-like main-sequence stars and of T Tauri stars in the ONC studied by COUP. In Sect. 8 we make a careful comparison with, and reexamination of, the most comprehensive previous X-ray study of Taurus-Auriga, made by Stelzer & Neuhäuser (2001) with the ROSAT Position Sensitive Proportional Counter. In Sect. 9 we conclude by summarizing our findings and identifying outstanding questions and suggesting prospective observing strategies which could address them.

2. The XMM-Newton Extended Survey of the Taurus Molecular Cloud (XEST)

The XEST comprises 28 observations with exposure times of at least 30 ks of regions of the Taurus-Auriga complex that are most densely-populated by T Tauri stars. XMM-Newton's co-aligned European Photon Imaging Camera (EPIC) PN, MOS1 and MOS2 detectors each have a full field of view approximately 30 arcmin in diameter and perform simultaneous imaging, timing and spectroscopy of X-rays in the energy range 0.2–12 keV, with respective resolutions of 6 arcsec (FWHM), less than 2.5 s, and 50–200 eV ($E/\Delta E \approx 20–50$). The survey observations and data reduction procedures are described in detail in Güdel et al. (2007a).

XEST makes key improvements over previous surveys of Taurus-Auriga using the Einstein Imaging Proportional Camera (IPC) and ROSAT Position Sensitive Proportional Camera (PSPC) (Bouvier 1990; Damiani & Micela 1995; Neuhäuser et al. 1995; Stelzer & Neuhäuser 2001) thanks primarily to the greater sensitivity, broader energy band and higher spectral resolution of the EPIC detectors, augmented by longer exposure times. XEST reaches X-ray luminosities of $10^{25}$ erg s$^{-1}$ at the 140 pc distance of Taurus-Auriga (Loinard et al. 2005), approximately an order of magnitude lower than the ROSAT PSPC pointing survey (Stelzer & Neuhäuser 2001), enabling the detection of almost all known T Tauri stars in the survey area down to the substellar mass limit for the first time. This is vital for accurately quantifying the dependence of X-ray activity on parameters such as stellar luminosity. T Tauri stars, particularly accreting T Tauri stars, are typically surrounded by circumstellar material or observed through molecular cloud material that absorbs soft X-ray emission from the star. The broad bandpass of EPIC allows it to detect the less absorbed harder emission. The EPIC spectra enabled the absorption to be measured for each T Tauri star and accounted for in calculating its X-ray luminosity. This is crucial for accurate determination of X-ray luminosities and was not generally possible with the data obtained by the Einstein and ROSAT surveys. Additionally, since the ROSAT surveys many more low-mass members of Taurus-Auriga have been identified by optical and near-infrared photometric surveys (e.g. Luhman et al. 2003), making the known population of T Tauri stars much more complete.

3. Sample selection

We performed a literature study to compile a catalogue of recognised members of Taurus-Auriga and their relevant data, such as stellar luminosity, $L_\star$, effective temperature, $T_{\text{eff}}$, multiplicity, photometric rotation period, $P_{\text{rot}}$, projected equatorial rotation velocity, $v \sin i$, and signatures of accretion such as the equivalent width of the H$\alpha$ line. This catalogue and the many sources of information used in its compilation are found, along with the XEST X-ray data for these stars, in Güdel et al. (2007a).

The XEST data provide an almost detection-complete sample of more than 100 T Tauri stars (excluding Class I protostars, Herbig Ae stars and substellar objects) evenly divided between accretors and non-accretors and well-spread in masses from 0.1 to 2.5 $M_\odot$. We have chosen to restrict our study to T Tauri stars of spectral types M3 and earlier ($T_{\text{eff}} > 3400$ K). No star in the XEST sample of later spectral type has a measured photometric
period, and few such stars have measured v sin i. Stars of later spectral type are typically less-well studied and are not expected to develop a solar-like structure.

We have excluded four undetected accreting T Tauri stars for which L_X upper limits could not be calculated due to lack of knowledge of absorption (Coku-Tau 1, HH 30, ITG 33A and IRAS S04301+261), two T Tauri stars whose characteristic X-ray activity could not be assessed because a decay from a large flare persisted throughout their XEST observation (DH Tau and V830 Tau), and all T Tauri stars for which T_{eff} and/or L_\star were not available, or whose T_{eff} and L_\star placed them outside the stellar evolutionary model grids of Siess et al. (2000). The decay of a large flare also dominated the XEST observation of FS Tau, but we have used additional Chandra data to assess its characteristic X-ray activity.

Our sample contains a total of 74 T Tauri stars, 47 accretors and 27 non-accretors. These include 23 stars with a measured photometric rotation period, of which 13 are accretors and 10 are non-accretors. There are 47 stars that have a measured v sin i, of which 30 are accretors and 17 are non-accretors, and this sample includes all stars with a measured photometric rotation period except for the accretor XZ Tau.

4. Data Analysis

Our study comprises four investigations. The data analysis performed in these investigations is described in this section, while the results of each investigation are presented and discussed in a dedicated section in Sects. 5-8.

Firstly, we examined the correlations with rotation period of the three most commonly-used measures of X-ray activity: the X-ray luminosity, L_X, its ratio with the stellar bolometric luminosity, L_X/L_\star, and the surface-averaged X-ray flux, F_{XS} = L_X/4\pi R_\star^2. In order to compare to previous studies we have treated accreting and non-accreting stars as a single sample. We tried to understand the observed activity–rotation relations in terms of the near-linear dependency of L_X on L_\star, and the typically lower L_X of accreting stars, which have been consistently observed in populations of T Tauri stars that do not show an anticorrelation of activity on rotation (e.g. Preibisch et al. 2005, Preibisch & Zinnecker 2003). We used the correlations of L_X on L_\star derived separately for accretors and non-accretors in the XEST study by Telleschi et al. (2007) to calculate the expected L_X and hence the L_X/L_\star and F_{XS} of each star in our sample based on its L_\star and whether it was accreting or not. We compared the resulting correlations with rotation period of the expected and the observed activity measures. The results are presented and discussed in Sect. 5.

Secondly, we tested the hypothesis that the lower L_X/L_\star of accretors compared to non-accretors is due to their slower rotation period. In this analysis we have divided the full sample described in Sect. 3, into subsamples based on rotation period calculated from v sin i and on whether the star was accreting or not and statistically compared the distributions of L_X/L_\star of the subsamples. The results are presented and discussed in Sect. 6.

Thirdly, we compared the X-ray activity of the T Tauri stars in our sample with the activity of solar-like main-sequence stars and T Tauri stars in the ONC based on the dependence of L_X/L_\star on Rossby number. The results are presented and discussed in Sect. 7.

Finally we compared our activity–rotation relations with those obtained by the previous most-comprehensive X-ray survey of Taurus-Auriga, made by Stelzer & Neuhauser (2001) using the ROSAT PSPC. The results of this comparison are presented and discussed in Sect. 8.

The X-ray activity measures and rotation periods we used are described in Sects. 4.1 and 4.2, respectively. The criterion we used to distinguish accretors and non-accretors is given in Sect. 4.3. The estimation of the convective turnover timescale for each of the stars in our sample is described in Sect. 4.4. The statistical methods used in our investigations are described in Sect. 4.5.

4.1. Determination of the X-ray activity measures

X-ray activity measures, L_X, L_X/L_\star and F_{XS}, were calculated for each star using the data tabulated in Guedel et al. (2007a). The L_X of each observed T Tauri star was calculated in Guedel et al. (2007a) as follows. A spectral fit of each source was made in XSPEC (Arnaud 1996) using a model composed of an optically-thin collisionally-ionized, so-called ‘coronal’, plasma (APEC; Smith et al. 2001), having a two-power-law distribution of emission measure with temperature, multiplied with a photoelectric absorption model (WABS). The emission measure distribution was cut off at 10^6 and 10^8 K. The elemental abundances of the plasma were fixed to values derived from high-resolution X-ray spectra of young stars. The power-law index at low energies, \alpha, is unconstrained in EPIC spectra and was fixed to +2, as observed in young solar analogues (Telleschi et al. 2005). The free parameters were the break temperature of the two power laws, 6.3 \geq \log T_0 \geq 7.5, the power-law index at high energies, \beta \geq +1, the normalization, and the equivalent hydrogen column density of the absorbing gas, N_H. We integrated the flux under the best-fitting model between 0.3 and 10.0 keV and as-
sumed a distance of 140 pc to calculate the X-ray luminosity. Time intervals in which a star was clearly flaring were removed before spectral analysis if possible.

We excluded observations of stars in which the emission was clearly dominated by a flare throughout the observation. If there were two or more acceptable observations of the same star we calculated the X-ray luminosity as the logarithmic average of the individual $L_X$ determinations.

For each observation of a star we estimated the uncertainty in $L_X$ by finding the 68 per cent confidence interval in $N_{\text{H}}$ and calculating $L_X$ for the best-fitting models with $N_{\text{H}}$ fixed to the lower and upper limits of this confidence interval. $L_X$ was poorly constrained when there were few counts, particularly when $N_{\text{H}}$ was appreciable (> few $10^{22}$ cm$^{-2}$) and the slope of the spectrum at energies above 2 keV was not well-defined. A degeneracy between log $T_0$ and $N_{\text{H}}$ sometimes developed, that in the worst case led to well-fitting models with very low log $T_0$ and very high $N_{\text{H}}$, hence high $L_X$. Such cool temperatures were not observed in good-quality spectra showing low $N_{\text{H}}$ and it is therefore likely that such models highly overestimate $L_X$. In such cases the error bars plotted throughout this work extend from these probably unrealistically high values of $L_X$ to lower values corresponding to more realistic hotter models with lower $N_{\text{H}}$. In some poorly constrained fits we fixed $\beta$, usually the least well-constrained parameter, to a typical value of ~1. In G"udel et al. (2007b) we also fixed $N_{\text{H}}$ in several particularly poorly-constrained cases to the value indicated by the visual or near-infrared extinction. However, this results in unrepresentative uncertainties and we have reanalysed those four cases here with just $\beta$ fixed to ~1. The results of this additional analysis are given in Table 1.

We have also performed additional spectral analysis of four jet-driving accreting T Tauri stars, DG Tau A, GV Tau, DP Tau and CW Tau, whose X-ray spectra could not be well-described by a model with just a single absorbing column. G"udel et al. (2007b) found instead a little-absorbed unvarying low-temperature component, which they proposed to be due to shocks in the jets, and a highly-absorbed and variable hot component, which they attributed to a corona. We have modelled the hot component with the spectral model described above – rather than the absorbed isothermal plasma used by G"udel et al. (2007b) – and, the cool component with an isothermal model with photoelectric absorption. The hot components of DG Tau A and GV Tau were strongly variable in their XEST observations. In these cases we have first used the average spectrum from the whole observation to determine the best-fitting parameters of the unvarying cool component. The parameters of the cool component were then fixed to these values when we fitted the spectrum of the time intervals when the star appeared to be in a low or quiescent X-ray emission state to derive characteristic parameters for the hot component. CW Tau required no cool component when we excluded energies below 0.5 keV. We fixed $\beta$ to ~1 in these fits. Nevertheless, log $T_0$ was unconstrained in all cases, so we have calculated $L_X$ for log $T_0 = 7.0$ and have expressed the range of uncertainties found when log $T_0$ was a free parameter (see Table 1).

Just one star in our sample, FV Tau/c, was not detected in the XEST observation. FV Tau/c has no measured photometric rotation period or $v \sin i$. As described in G"udel et al. (2007a), we calculated a 95 per cent confidence upper limit to its EPIC count-rate and used a spectrum with log $T_0 = 7.0$ and $\beta = -1$, with $N_{\text{H}}$ estimated from its optical extinction, to calculate an upper limit to its X-ray luminosity.

For recognised multiple systems not spatially resolved into their individual components by XMM-Newton, we have assumed that the $L_X$ of the components scales linearly with $L_*$, as motivated by Fig. 1. Thus, each component of a multiple system is assumed to have the same $L_X/L_*$, which is the ratio of the observed $L_X$ and the total stellar luminosity of the system. The multiplicity-corrected $L_X$ of the primary is therefore the observed $L_X$ multiplied by the fraction of the summed stellar luminosities that is contributed by the primary. This fraction was estimated using the luminosities of the individual components if these had been determined, else the magnitude differences in the K-band or I-band, as available. $L_X/L_*$ was always calculated using the uncorrected observed $L_X$ and the total stellar luminosity of the system. $F_{XS} = L_X/4\pi R_*^2 = (L_X/L_*)\sigma T_{\text{eff}}^4$ was always calculated using $L_X/L_*$ and the effective temperature, $T_{\text{eff}}$, of the primary.

### 4.2. Rotation periods

Rotational data in the form of rotation periods and spectroscopic $v \sin i$ have been taken from Rebull et al. (2004), where a comprehensive list of references can be found, with a small number of additions from L. Rebull (priv. comm.), and were always assigned to the primary in the cases of unresolved multiple systems. For the larger sample of T Tauri stars with measured $v \sin i$, we estimated rotation periods as $P_{\text{rot}}/\sin i = 2\pi R_*/v \sin i$. These are essentially upper limits to the rotation period but we note that for a randomly oriented sample $\sin i = \pi/4 \approx 0.785$, the 1σ lower limit to $\sin i$ is 0.73 and there is just a 10 per cent chance that $\sin i$ is less than 0.44. RY Tau, LkCa 21 and CW Tau have tabulated photometric periods in G"udel et al. (2007b) but their high measured $v \sin i$ indicate that the photometric periods are too long to be the rotation periods (Bouvier et al., 1993, 1995) and we use only the $v \sin i$ values for these three stars in this work.

### 4.3. Accretion criterion

Accreting pre-main sequence stars, classical T Tauri stars, have been traditionally identified through their strong Hα emission, believed to arise from heated accreting material. Hα emission is also produced by chromospheric activity, but, outside of exceptional flares, is restricted by the saturation of magnetic activity and one can use the criterion $\log(L_{\text{Hα}}/L_*) > -3.3$ to identify accreting stars (Barrado y Navascués & Martín, 2003). It is simpler to measure the equivalent width of the Hα line, $EW_{\text{Hα}}$, but cooler stars have less continuum emission at the Hα line and so the criterion becomes a function of spectral type. We have adopted the dependence on spectral type of the $EW_{\text{Hα}}$ criterion that was proposed by Barrado y Navascués & Martín (2003), directly based on the criterion $\log(L_{\text{Hα}}/L_*) > -3.3$. The classification of the primary was used in cases of multiple systems not resolved by XMM-Newton.

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1 The K-band is not ideal as accretion disks can emit substantially in this band, and lower-mass companions emit a higher proportion of their bolometric flux in this band relative to higher-mass primaries. For this latter reason, however, many multiplicity studies have been performed in this band.
2 Two of the slowly-rotating non-accretors, HBC 358 and HBC 359, have only upper limits to $v \sin i$ of 10 km s$^{-1}$ and hence lower limits to $P_{\text{rot}}/\sin i$ of > 6.98 and > 6.72 d, respectively.
3 The criterion proposed by Martín (1997) gives identical classifications for the present sample.
Table 1. The results of spectral fits additional to those performed in Güdel et al. (2007a).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>XEST</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>(N_H) (1σ range) (10^{22}) cm(^{-2})</th>
<th>(T_0) (1σ range) (K)</th>
<th>(L_X) (1σ range) (10^{30}) erg s(^{-1})</th>
<th>(\log(L_X/L_\odot))</th>
<th>(x_{\text{red}})</th>
<th>dof</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>04-010</td>
<td>GH Tau AB</td>
<td>0.48 (0.33,0.63)</td>
<td>6.4 (6.3,7.3)</td>
<td>0.39 (0.29,0.50)</td>
<td>−3.91</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09-010</td>
<td>HO Tau AB</td>
<td>0.27 (0.09,0.44)</td>
<td>6.6 (6.3,6.9)</td>
<td>0.064 (0.034,0.13)</td>
<td>−4.00</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07-011</td>
<td>JH 223</td>
<td>0.19 (0.14,0.31)</td>
<td>6.6 (6.3,6.7)</td>
<td>0.099 (0.078,0.18)</td>
<td>−3.84</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-079</td>
<td>CFHT-Tau 21</td>
<td>1.72 (1.20,2.20)</td>
<td>7.2 (6.3,7.5)</td>
<td>0.22 (0.15,0.36)</td>
<td>−3.82</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02-022</td>
<td>DG Tau A</td>
<td>4.50 (2.07,7.61)</td>
<td>7.0 (6.3,7.5)</td>
<td>0.55 (0.17,2.39)</td>
<td>−4.08</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-046</td>
<td>CW Tau</td>
<td>2.93 (1.33,4.72)</td>
<td>7.0 (6.3,7.5)</td>
<td>0.11 (0.038,0.31)</td>
<td>−4.60</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-045</td>
<td>DP Tau</td>
<td>6.31 (2.98,9.02)</td>
<td>7.0 (6.3,7.5)</td>
<td>0.33 (0.089,0.74)</td>
<td>−3.37</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13-004</td>
<td>GV Tau A</td>
<td>3.02 (1.31,5.16)</td>
<td>7.0 (6.3,7.5)</td>
<td>0.55 (0.19,2.86)</td>
<td>−4.11</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4. Determination of convective turnover timescales

Convective turnover timescales must be determined empirically or derived from stellar models. In Preibisch et al. (2005), a convective turnover timescale was derived from a full stellar model for each of 596 T Tauri stars in the ONC. We have determined the value of \(\tau_{\text{conv}}\) for each T Tauri star in the XEST sample from the values calculated for the ONC stars (Th. Preibisch, priv. comm.), based on its stellar luminosity and effective temperature (see Fig. 2). For multiple systems, the \(L_*\) and \(T_{\text{eff}}\) of the primary were used when available. The stars with \(T_{\text{eff}} < 4100 \, K\) are essentially all fully-convective according to the evolutionary models of Siess et al. (2000) and have very similar \(\tau_{\text{conv}}\) of 200–250 d. The stars in our sample with \(T_{\text{eff}}\) in the range 4100–5400 K have radiative interiors and shorter \(\tau_{\text{conv}}\), but these are still longer than 100 d. \(\tau_{\text{conv}}\) falls steeply with further increases in \(T_{\text{eff}}\). As the three G-type stars in the XEST sample (SU Aur, HD 283572 and HP Tau/G2) are much less luminous than stars with similar \(T_{\text{eff}}\) in the ONC sample, all we can say is that the \(\tau_{\text{conv}}\) of these stars are shorter than the shortest value calculated for ONC stars, 11.6 d.

4.5. Statistical analysis

We used assumed power-law correlations between the X-ray activity measures and rotation period, and we have used the ASURV survival analysis package (Lavalley et al., 1992) to perform the regression. Although ASURV is designed to analyse data containing upper and/or lower limits (Isobe et al., 1986), while our sample of T Tauri stars with measured photometric rotation periods contained no non-detections, this enabled us to compare our results directly with those of previous studies (e.g. Stelzer & Neuhauser, 2001; Preibisch et al., 2005). We used the parametric Estimation Maximization (EM) method for the regression and have quoted the full range of probabilities of no correlation calculated by the three tests in ASURV (Cox Proportional Hazard, Generalized Kendall’s \(\tau\) and Spearman’s \(\rho\)).

We used the two-sample tests in ASURV to assess the probabilities that pairs of observed distributions of \(L_X/L_*\) were drawn from the same distribution (one of the subsamples of stars with no rotational information includes an upper limit). We have quoted the full range of probabilities calculated by the five tests in ASURV (Gehan’s Generalized Wilcoxon Tests using permutation variance and hypergeometric variance, Logrank Test, Peto and Peto Generalized Wilcoxon Test, and Peto and Prentice Generalized Wilcoxon Test).

5. The observed activity–rotation relations and their origins

Fig. 3 (left) presents the relationship of the observed activity measures \(L_X\), \(L_X/L_*\) and \(F_{\text{XS}}\) with rotation period for the 23 stars in our sample with measured photometric rotation periods. If we consider accretors and non-accretors together as a single sample, as has been done in previous studies, we observe clear anticorrelations of \(L_X\) and \(F_{\text{XS}}\) with rotation period. The tests performed in ASURV give probabilities of less than 0.01 that no correlation exists. The slopes of the correlations are approximately −1 (Table 2). However, we see no convincing anticorrelation of \(L_X/L_*\) with rotation period; the tests in ASURV give probabilities of 0.14–0.26 that there is no correlation and the best-fit slope of approximately −0.4 is less than 1.5 standard deviations from zero (Table 2).

Telleschi et al. (2007) found a near-linear correlation of \(L_X\) with \(L_*\) in the XEST sample which they proposed was due to saturated activity. When they analysed the correlations of accretors and non-accretors separately, using the parametric EM algorithm in ASURV, they found similar slopes of \(L_X\) with \(L_*\) for the two samples but that \(L_X\) was systematically 0.4 dex (a factor 2.5) lower for accretors (see Fig. 1). The best-fitting relations were: \(\log L_X = (30.24 \pm 0.06) + (1.17 \pm 0.09) \log(L_*/L_\odot)\) for non-
accretors and log $L_X = (29.83 \pm 0.06) + (1.16 \pm 0.09) \log (L_\star / L_\odot)$ for accretors.

There is the impression in Fig. [3] (left middle) that the accretors have consistently lower $L_X / L_\star$ at all rotation periods, while the absence of a significant anticorrelation of $L_X / L_\star$ with rotation period supports the concept of saturated activity. Nevertheless, the significant anticorrelations of $L_X$ and $F_{XS}$ with rotation period still suggest some kind of X-ray activity–rotation relation.

Let us assume that the X-ray activity of T Tauri stars in Taurus-Auriga is saturated in the sense that $L_X$, $L_X / L_\star$, and $F_{XS}$ have no intrinsic dependence on rotation period, but $L_X$ is instead characterized solely by the dependences on $L_\star$ and accretion reported by Telleschi et al. (2007). We have thus calculated the expected value of $L_X$ correlation between each activity measure and rotation period as it is an accretor or non-accretor. Then we analysed the resulting star in our sample based on its stellar luminosity and whether it was an accretor or not. The regression was performed using the Parametric Estimation Maximization method in the ASURV analysis package (Lavalley et al. 1992).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Values</th>
<th>log $L_X$ (erg s$^{-1}$)</th>
<th>log($L_X / L_\star$)</th>
<th>log $F_{XS}$ (erg cm$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$A$</td>
<td>$B$</td>
<td>$A$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observed</td>
<td>31.04 ± 0.21</td>
<td>−1.20 ± 0.30</td>
<td>−3.20 ± 0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>39.71 ± 0.25</td>
<td>−1.17 ± 0.36</td>
<td>−3.27 ± 0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected</td>
<td>7.13 ± 0.17</td>
<td>−1.04 ± 0.25</td>
<td>7.53 ± 0.17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Origin of the lower $L_X / L_\star$ of accretors

The lower $L_X / L_\star$ of accretors compared to non-accretors in Taurus-Auriga has been reported before (Damiani & Micela 1995; Neuhäuser et al. 1995; Stelzer & Neuhäuser 2001) and has usually been attributed to their slower rotation and the action of an activity–rotation relationship. However, the assumption we made in the previous section was that accretors had an intrinsically lower $L_X / L_\star$ than non-accretors at all rotation periods.

If we analyse the correlation of $L_X / L_\star$ with rotation period separately for the accretors and non-accretors, these samples, 13 accretors and 10 non-accretors, are very small and the resultant fits in ASURV have large uncertainties and low significances and can be strongly influenced by a single data point. The probability that no correlation exists is approximately 0.5 for both samples. The slope of $+0.16 \pm 0.19$ for the non-accreting sample suggests that $L_X / L_\star$ is not anticorrelated with rotation period, but the slope of $-0.38 \pm 0.34$ for the accreting sample leaves open the possibility that rotation could play a role in the lower $L_X / L_\star$ of accretors. The exclusion of XZ Tau reduces the slope for the accretors to $-0.11 \pm 0.34$.

We have used the larger sample of T Tauri stars with measured projected equatorial rotational velocities, $v \sin i$, to study in more detail the dependences of $L_X / L_\star$ on rotation for accretors and non-accretors. This sample contains 30 accretors and 17 non-accretors. We have calculated rotation periods as $P_{rot} / \sin i = 2 \pi R_\star / v \sin i$. Fig. 5 shows $L_X / L_\star$ plotted against $P_{rot} / \sin i$.

We have divided both the accretors and non-accretors into three subsamples: fast-rotators, with $P_{rot} / \sin i < 6$ d, slow-rotators, with $P_{rot} / \sin i > 6$ d, and stars with no measured $v \sin i$. The cumulative frequency distributions of log($L_X / L_\star$) for these subsamples are compared in Fig 6. We can immediately see that the distributions for the three subsamples of accretors are at lower log($L_X / L_\star$) than the distributions for the three subsamples of non-accretors, and that the distribution for fast-rotating accretors

---

Note: The text contains a correction to the high X-ray luminosity of XZ Tau, which has the highest $L_X / L_\star$ of the accretors, and has the lowest mass and stellar luminosity of any star in our sample with a measured rotation period. It is moreover a binary system whose secondary was known to be undergoing an optical outburst that influenced the X-ray emission of the system at the time of the observation used in XEST (Giardino et al. 2006).
The mean log($L/\xi$) is at higher log($L/\xi$) of very cool plasma (T $\approx$ 2 MK), absorbed by very high probability, [332] protective temperature. For each of the three subsamples, the accretors have a mean log($L/\xi$) of each other, while that of the fast-rotating accretors is approximately 2$\sigma$ higher than those of the other accretors. For each of the three subsamples, the accretors have a mean log($L/\xi$) of at least 3$\sigma$ lower than the non-accretors.

We have used the two-sample tests in ASURV to assess the probability, $P_{\text{same}}$, that the distributions of $L_X/\xi_*$ in pairs of these subsamples were drawn from the same distribution. The distributions of $L_X/\xi_*$ for the subsamples of non-accretors are indistinguishable from one another ($P_{\text{same}} > 0.5$). The distributions of $L_X/\xi_*$ for the accretors which are slow rotators and those with no measured $v \sin i$ are also indistinguishable from one another ($P_{\text{same}} > 0.75$), and not significantly different from that of the fast-rotating accretors ($P_{\text{same}} = 0.09\pm0.35$ for slow-rotators and 0.16–0.24 for stars with no measured $v \sin i$). We find no strong evidence for a dependence of $L_X/\xi_*$ on rotation for accreting or non-accreting T Tauri stars.

However, for each of the three subsamples, the distributions of $L_X/\xi_*$ of accretors and non-accretors are significantly different ($P_{\text{same}} = 0.01\pm0.03$ for fast-rotators, $<0.002$ for slow-rotators, and 0.005–0.03 for stars with no measured $v \sin i$). We therefore find good evidence for a property of accretors other than their slow rotation to be the reason for their lower $L_X/\xi_*$.

If we separate the samples at $P_{\text{rot}}/\sin i = 5$ d instead of 6 d, the distributions of $L_X/\xi_*$ of fast-rotating accretors and non-accretors are less significantly different ($P_{\text{same}} = 0.03\pm0.10$) but the distributions of $L_X/\xi_*$ of accreting fast and slow rotators are even less significantly different ($P_{\text{same}} = 0.18\pm0.49$). There is no support for a dependence of $L_X/\xi_*$ on rotation.

The slightly higher log($L_X/\xi_*$) of fast-rotating accretors in our analysis may come about from an underestimation of $\xi_*$ for some stars. $L_X/\xi_*$ and $P_{\text{rot}}/\sin i$ are not entirely independent variables as $P_{\text{rot}} \sin i \propto R_\star$ and $R_\star \propto \sqrt{L_\star}$. If $L_\star$ is underestimated, a data point moves to the upper left in Fig. 5 to higher log($L_X/\xi_*$) and lower $P_{\text{rot}}/\sin i$. The $L_\star$ of accretors can be difficult to determine due to veiling and absorption. Three of the four accretors with $P_{\text{rot}}/\sin i < 5$ d and log($L_X/\xi_*$) $> -3.4$ have suspiciously high ages of $>10$ Myr in the table of Güdel et al. [2007] which suggest underestimated $L_\star$.

The accreting stars have noticeably larger error bars than the non-accretors. The accretors had typically lower-quality XEST spectra, partly due to their lower $L_X$, which gives a lower X-ray flux from the star, and partly due to higher $N_H$, which absorbs more of this X-ray flux. However, the upper limits of the larger error bars are produced by models with large amounts of very cool plasma ($T_0 \approx$ 2 MK), absorbed by very high $N_H$. As models with such cool temperatures were not found to fit the spectra of either accretors or non-accretors with low $N_H$, we consider these unlikely to be realistic models. Such models would anyway point to fundamental differences in the corona of these accretors and the non-accretors, in temperature rather than luminosity.

**Fig. 5.** The ratio of X-ray and stellar luminosities plotted as a function of rotation period for T Tauri stars in Taurus-Auriga observed by XMM-Newton with measured $v \sin i$. Rotation periods have been calculated from $v \sin i$ and the stellar radius and the plotted values include an unknown factor $\sin i$ and are therefore upper limits. Triangles denote accretors and circles mark non-accretors.

**Fig. 4.** The stellar luminosities (top) and effective temperatures (bottom) of T Tauri stars in Taurus-Auriga with measured photometric rotation periods. Black triangles indicate accretors and grey circles mark non-accretors. Filled symbols denote stars observed by XMM-Newton in the present survey; unfilled symbols denote additional stars observed by ROSAT (Stelzer & Neuhäuser, 2001).
We conclude that there is no demonstrable dependence of $L_X/L_\star$ on rotation among T Tauri stars in Taurus-Auriga. The activity is consistent with being saturated at $\log(L_X/L_\star) \approx -3.3$ for accretors and $\approx -3.7$ for non-accretors. These values are consistent with those found for T Tauri stars in the ONC (Preibisch et al. 2005). The lower $L_X/L_\star$ of accretors compared to non-accretors is not caused by their slower rotation, but to some other property that distinguishes accretors from non-accretors. The most natural interpretation is that it is a direct or indirect effect of the accretion process itself. We direct the reader to Telleschi et al. (2007) and Preibisch et al. (2005) for discussions of mechanisms by which accretion could reduce the X-ray output of accreting stars.

Additional to these discussions, Jardine et al. (2006) have proposed that the coronae of T Tauri stars, and hence their X-ray emission, are limited by pressure stripping (resulting in lower-mass stars having lower $L_X$, as observed e.g. in the ONC), but those of accreting T Tauri stars may be further limited by the encroachment of the accretion disk. As a reasonable estimate for the location of the inner edge of the accretion disk is at the corotation radius, where orbiting material rotates around the star with the same period as the star itself rotates, Jardine et al. further suggested that the wide range of $L_X$ and $L_X/L_\star$ observed among the accreting T Tauri stars in the ONC could be attributed to this rotation dependence. We have observed neither a wide range in $L_X/L_\star$ among accretors nor a positive correlation of $L_X$ or $L_X/L_\star$ with rotation rate. However, a directly observable dependence on rotation could be swamped by other influential parameters in the model (e.g. stellar mass or coronal temperature), and the mass-dependence of $L_X$ and the lower $L_X/L_\star$ of accretors in the XEST sample reflect those observed in the ONC (Telleschi et al. 2007). Therefore, the Jardine et al. model appears to be a viable description of the X-ray characteristics of T Tauri stars that merits further observational testing.

### Table 3

A comparison of the mean $\log(L_X/L_\star)$ of subsamples of T Tauri stars in Taurus-Auriga observed by XMM-Newton. Stars in the fast samples have $P_{\text{rot}}/\sin i < 6$ d, those in the slow sample have $P_{\text{rot}}/\sin i > 6$ d, and those in the none sample have no measured $v \sin i$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Non-accretors</th>
<th>Accretors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$N$ (log($L_X/L_\star$))</td>
<td>$N$ (log($L_X/L_\star$))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fast</td>
<td>9 $-3.27 \pm 0.06$</td>
<td>17 $-3.61 \pm 0.09$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slow</td>
<td>8 $-3.28 \pm 0.08$</td>
<td>13 $-3.81 \pm 0.09$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>10 $-3.31 \pm 0.13$</td>
<td>17 $-3.79 \pm 0.10$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. Comparison with the activity of main-sequence stars and that of T Tauri stars in the ONC

Fig. 7 shows $L_X/L_\star$ plotted as a function of Rossby number for T Tauri stars in the XEST sample with measured photometric rotation periods, or for which rotation periods could be estimated from $v \sin i$ as in Sect. 6. Fig. 7 also compares this sample with main-sequence stars studied by Pizzolato et al. (2003) and T Tauri stars in the Coup study of the ONC (Preibisch et al. 2005).

The K- and M-type T Tauri stars in our sample all have values of $R_0$ that place them deep inside the saturated regime. The non-accretors with measured photometric rotation periods have $L_X/L_\star$ and $R_0$ consistent with the main body of saturated main-sequence stars. The non-accretors with rotation periods derived from $v \sin i$ have a little lower $L_X/L_\star$ but still within the range of values observed for saturated main-sequence stars. We conclude that the X-ray activity of non-accreting T Tauri stars in Taurus-Auriga is entirely consistent with that of main-sequence stars showing saturated activity.

The accretors have Rossby numbers concentrated toward the higher end of the range of values of the non-accretors, due to their typically longer rotation periods, but well within the range of $R_0$ that defines saturated main-sequence stars. However, as we saw in Sect. 6, the $L_X/L_\star$ of accretors is significantly lower than that of the non-accretors and a significant fraction have $\log(L_X/L_\star) < -4.7$. Such an activity level would be clearly recognised as unsaturated for a late-type main-sequence star and interpreted as evidence for a less efficient magnetic dynamo due to slow rotation. If T Tauri stars harbour the same kind of dynamo, the $\tau_{\text{conv}}$ of these stars would need to have been systematically overestimated by approximately an order of magnitude for this interpretation to explain the lower activity of the accretors.

Wuchterl & Tscharnuter (2003) have presented pre-main sequence evolutionary models in which T Tauri stars that would be expected to be fully convective instead have radiative cores and a solar-like structure due to ongoing accretion. This would result in shorter convective turnover timescales than we have determined here, but detailed modelling would be required to determine how much shorter. Even if this would be the case, it would be the effect of accretion on the $\tau_{\text{conv}}$ that would cause the lower X-ray activity of accretors compared to non-accretors, and not their slower rotation. Our results, however, point less to a reduced magnetic dynamo efficiency and more to the effects of circumstellar material on the stellar surface and atmosphere as an explanation of the lower X-ray emission of accretors (see e.g. Telleschi et al. 2007; Preibisch et al. 2005).

Also striking in Fig. 7 are the positions of the G-type T Tauri stars SU Aur, HD 283572 and HP Tau/G2, for which we could estimate only upper limits to $\tau_{\text{conv}}$. Although they are among the fastest rotators in our sample, their short $\tau_{\text{conv}}$ moves them to the highest $R_0$, and they are almost outside the expected saturated

![Fig. 6](image-url) Cumulative frequency distributions of $L_X/L_\star$ for subsamples of T Tauri stars in Taurus-Auriga observed by XMM-Newton. Grey lines show non-accreting stars and black lines show accretors. Unbroken lines mark fast rotators ($P_{\text{rot}}/\sin i < 6$ d), dashed lines mark slow rotators ($P_{\text{rot}}/\sin i > 6$ d), and dot-dashed lines mark stars with no measured $v \sin i$. Fig. 7 shows $L_X/L_\star$ plotted as a function of Rossby number for T Tauri stars in the XEST sample with measured photometric rotation periods, or for which rotation periods could be estimated from $v \sin i$ as in Sect. 6. Fig. 7 also compares this sample with main-sequence stars studied by Pizzolato et al. (2003) and T Tauri stars in the Coup study of the ONC (Preibisch et al. 2005).
regime. One might expect similar stars with longer rotation periods, perhaps > 5 d instead of 1–2 d, to fall outside the saturated regime and to show significantly lower L_X/L_⋆. This may have been observed among T Tauri stars with radiative zones in NGC 2264 (Rebull et al., 2006): while many had L_X/L_⋆ at saturated levels, a significant fraction also had log(L_X/L_⋆) < −5. The mean log(L_X/L_⋆) of the stars with radiative zones was significantly lower than that of a population. A subset of stars with radiative zones showing such low activity is not found in the XEST sample. A two-sample test of stars with and without radiative zones finds no significant difference in the log L_X/L_⋆ distributions of non-accretors or accretors (P_same = 0.15–0.44 and 0.17–0.21, respectively). We propose that a significant proportion of the stars with radiative zones in NGC 2264 may be rotating slowly enough that their activity, produced in the same way as solar-like main-sequence stars, is no longer saturated.

The T Tauri stars in Taurus-Auriga are concentrated to higher Rossby numbers than those in the ONC. This is mainly due to lower-mass T Tauri stars, whose rotational properties are generally studied in Taurus-Auriga, but which form a large population in the ONC and are mostly fast-rotating. The ONC stars have a larger scatter in L_X/L_⋆ (Fig. 7) and the ONC accretors and non-accretors have much more overlap in L_X/L_⋆ (not shown in Fig. 7) than those in Taurus-Auriga. This could indicate that younger T Tauri stars experience greater X-ray variability, or it could reflect difficulties in estimating the L_X and L_⋆ due to absorption. There are a number of non-accretors in the COUP data with log(L_X/L_⋆) < −4 whose Rossby numbers indicate they should show saturated emission by analogy with solar-like main-sequence stars. Accretion cannot be the cause of lower activity in non-accreting T Tauri stars, so such stars are potentially very interesting for investigating the differences between the X-ray activity of T Tauri stars and late-type main-sequence stars.

8. Comparison with previous results

The anticorrelations of L_X, F_XS and L_X/L_⋆ with rotation period that we have found for the combined sample of accreting and non-accreting stars differ from those found by Stelzer & Neuhäuser (2001) using ROSAT PSPC data. Stelzer & Neuhäuser (2001) found steeper power-law slopes for all three activity measures, approximately −1.5 for L_X and L_X/L_⋆ and approximately −2 for F_XS, and a highly significant anticorrelation of L_X/L_⋆ with rotation period.

We have made a careful reexamination of the data used by Stelzer & Neuhäuser (2001, B. Stelzer, priv. comm.) to try to understand the differences between the two results. This has revealed systematic underestimation of L_X and overestimation of L_⋆, both of which were stronger for accretors than for non-accretors. This caused a particularly strong underestimation of L_X/L_⋆, and hence F_XS, for some accretors with respect to non-accretors. Because the accretors have generally longer rotation periods than the non-accretors, this led to exaggerated slopes in the anticorrelations of the activity measures with rotation period. Significant correlations of L_X and F_XS, and perhaps even L_X/L_⋆, with rotation period are nonetheless to be expected as the tendency for faster rotators to have higher L_⋆ and T_eff and to be non-accreting is also true in the larger Stelzer & Neuhäuser (2001) sample (Fig. 4).

The underestimation of L_X was primarily due to insufficient accounting of the absorption of X-ray flux by interstellar and circumstellar material in the line of sight to the star. The ROSAT PSPC had, in principle, the spectroscopic capability to measure and account for the absorbing column density, N_H. However, its soft energy bandpass of 0.1–2.4 keV and low sensitivity, especially at harder energies, combined with modest exposure times, provided spectra of insufficient quality for Stelzer & Neuhäuser (2001) to perform spectral fitting for each star. They instead converted observed count-rates to X-ray fluxes using a conversion factor that aimed to account for absorption through a dependence on hardness ratio. Our calculations using the PSPC on-axis spectral response in XSPEC have found that the maximum value of this conversion factor would account for absorption only for N_H < 2.5 × 10^{20} cm^{-2}, while almost all T Tauri stars in Taurus-Auriga are observed through greater absorbing columns. Fig. 8 shows that 42 of the 45 stars detected in both the XEST and the ROSAT PSPC study have higher L_X in the XEST study and that the factor of underestimation in Stelzer & Neuhäuser (2001) is dependent on N_H in the manner expected and can exceed an order of magnitude. As accreting stars are generally surrounded by more circumstellar material than non-accretors, they are typically observed through higher N_H and therefore their L_X was typically underestimated by a larger factor.

The overestimation of L_⋆ in Stelzer & Neuhäuser (2001) came about from the use of the bolometric luminosities listed by Kenyon & Hartmann (1995), as these include emission from circumstellar material (mostly in the infrared) as well as the output from the star itself. While the greater amount of circumstellar material around accretors led to a greater underestimation of L_X with respect to non-accretors, so it also led to a greater overestimation of their L_⋆.

A secondary reason for the underestimation of L_X/L_⋆ in Stelzer & Neuhäuser (2001) was their treatment of multiple systems. The observed L_X was divided equally between the components, whereas we now know that L_X is approximately proportional to L_⋆, so this approach typically underestimates the L_X of the primary component. At the same time, the bolometric luminosities from Kenyon & Hartmann (1995) included emission from all components of multiple systems, and so overestimated the L_⋆ of the primary.

These difficulties demonstrate some of the challenges faced by studies of the X-ray activity of T Tauri stars. While the higher-energy bandpasses and higher sensitivities of XMM-Newton’s EPIC and Chandra’s ACIS detectors have made it easier to account for absorption than was the case for the ROSAT PSPC, there are still cases where N_H, and hence L_X are very poorly constrained. Uncertainties in L_X that account for uncertainties in the spectral fitting are rarely shown in the literature. Could the surprisingly large scatter in the COUP data be attributed to such uncertainties? The determination of the spectral type and extinction of accretors is complicated by veiling, the filling in of photospheric absorption lines by continuum emission from heated accreting material, which can make L_⋆ also quite uncertain. The division of the observed X-ray flux among the components of unresolved multiple systems is always somewhat arbitrary, and even stars which are not recognised to be multiples may yet have undiscovered companions. There remains room for improvement in studies of the X-ray emission of T Tauri stars. While the usefulness of precision measurements is limited, because the L_X of any individual T Tauri star is likely to be variable by factors of 2–3 on timescales of weeks–years and by larger factors during flaring on shorter timescales, it is important to avoid systematic problems, for example between accreting and non-accreting stars.

This includes also stars with spectral types later than M3.
Fig. 8. Logarithm of the ratio of X-ray luminosities in the ROSAT study of Stelzer & Neuhäuser (2001) and multiplicity-corrected X-ray luminosities in the present (XEST) study, plotted as a function of absorption column density, \(N_\text{H}\). Black triangles and grey circles mark accreting and non-accreting T Tauri stars, respectively. Lines show the expected ratio as a function of \(N_\text{H}\) for three spectral models covering the range of temperature considered in the XEST survey (\(\log T_0 = 6.3\), dashed; 7.0, full; 7.5, dot-dashed, with \(\beta = -1\) in each case), assuming a count-to-flux conversion factor of 1.0 \(\times 10^{-11}\) erg cm\(^{-2}\) s\(^{-1}\) per ROSAT PSPC count s\(^{-1}\) was used to calculate the ROSAT luminosities. Stelzer & Neuhäuser (2001) used this factor in cases where the hardness ratio could not be measured, for example, for the most-heavily absorbed stars which were not detected in the 0.1–0.4 keV band, while the maximum value used was \(1.36 \times 10^{-11}\).

with rotation period then comes about from the shallow \(L_X/L_\star\) relation due to the observation that the fast rotators in Taurus-Auriga have typically higher \(T_\text{eff}\) than the slow rotators.

Previous studies which have reported the lower \(L_X/L_\star\) of accretors in Taurus-Auriga have usually attributed it to the typically slower rotation periods of accretors and an anticorrelation of \(L_X/L_\star\) with rotation period. Using a larger sample of stars from the XEST sample with spectral types M3 or earlier, whose rotation periods were derived from \(v \sin i\), we find no evidence that slow-rotating accretors have significantly lower \(L_X/L_\star\) than faster-rotating accretors, or that slow-rotating non-accretors have lower \(L_X/L_\star\) than fast-rotating non-accretors. This is consistent with saturated emission. However accretors were found to have significantly lower \(L_X/L_\star\) than non-accretors, whether they were fast-rotating, slow-rotating, or had no measured \(v \sin i\). The lower \(L_X/L_\star\) of accretors compared to non-accretors is therefore not due to their slower rotation.

Pizzolato et al (2003) have shown that the \(L_X/L_\star\) of solar-like main-sequence stars of spectral types G to early M is determined by the Rossby number, the ratio of rotation period to convective turnover timescale. We have estimated the convective turnover timescale of each star in the XEST sample by interpolating values calculated for T Tauri stars in the ONC (Preibisch et al 2005) and hence derived the Rossby number of each T Tauri star in the XEST sample with rotational information.

We have found that all T Tauri stars of spectral types K and M in the XEST sample have Rossby numbers that lie well within the saturated regime of main-sequence stars. The non-accretors have \(L_X/L_\star\) entirely consistent with those of saturated main-sequence stars. The accretors have, however, generally lower \(L_X/L_\star\), and a significant fraction have \(\log (L_X/L_\star) < -4\). Although this would be interpreted as unsaturated emission if exhibited by a main-sequence star, the determined Rossby numbers of these accretors are approximately an order of magnitude too low to be in the conventional unsaturated regime. This points towards some effect of the coupling of the stellar surface and atmosphere to circumstellar material, rather than a reduced dynamo efficiency, as the cause of the lower X-ray output of accreting T Tauri stars (see Telleschi et al. 2007; Preibisch et al. 2005).

Identifying the process which causes this general reduction is an important motivation for future studies, but just one element in understanding the complex interaction of magnetic activity and the circumstellar environment. Recent studies have found, for instance, that dramatic increases in accretion rate can have quite differing effects on the observed X-ray emission in different cases (Kastner et al. 2004; Audard et al. 2005), and that X-ray emission may also arise in shocks, in accretion streams onto the star (e.g. Kastner et al. 2002) or in jet outflows (e.g. Guidel et al. 2007b).

Non-accreting stars offer simpler means for understanding the magnetic activity and dynamo processes in pre-main-sequence stars. The identification of non-accretors with \(L_X/L_\star\) significantly below the conventional saturation level and determination of their Rossby numbers is a potentially important probe of their dynamo mechanism. In particular, do there exist slow-rotating non-accreting T Tauri stars with low activity that are analogous to the low-activity slow-rotating solar-like and fully-convective main-sequence stars and which would provide evidence for low dynamo efficiency due to slow rotation?

Investigations of the influence of stellar or circumstellar properties on the X-ray emission depend on a good characterization of those properties. The T Tauri stars in Taurus-Auriga form a relatively small but very important population for such
studies, because they are closeby and they and their circumstellar environments are individually well-studied. The small sample of just 23 stars with measured photometric rotation periods that we have studied here, out of a total of ~ 200 T Tauri stars in Taurus-Auriga, demonstrates the potential that further optical photometric monitoring and X-ray campaigns could unlock. However, there may remain still more potential in improved characterization of the stellar and circumstellar characteristics in the much larger, but more distant, sample of T Tauri stars in the ONC in combination with refined analysis of the already comprehensive X-ray dataset obtained in the COUP campaign. It is also important to study pre-main sequence populations with a range of ages to understand the evolution of magnetic activity during this interesting phase of star and planet formation.

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References

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List of Objects

'Coku-Tau 1' on page 3
'HH 30' on page 3
'ITG 33A' on page 3
'IRAS 04301+261' on page 3
'DH Tau' on page 3
'V 830 Tau' on page 3
'FS Tau' on page 3
'XZ Tau' on page 3
'KPN0-Tau 8' on page 3
'DG Tau A' on page 4
'GV Tau' on page 4
'DP Tau' on page 4
'CW Tau' on page 4
'DG Tau A' on page 4
'GV Tau' on page 4
'CW Tau' on page 4
'FV Tau/c' on page 4
'FV Tau/c' on page 4
'RY Tau' on page 4
'LCa 21' on page 4
'CW Tau' on page 4
'HBC 358' on page 4
'HBC 359' on page 4
'GH Tau AB' on page 5
'HO Tau AB' on page 5
'HH 223' on page 5
'CFHT-Tau 21' on page 5
'DG Tau A' on page 5
'CW Tau' on page 5
'DP Tau' on page 5
'GV Tau A' on page 5
'SU Aur' on page 5
'HD 283572' on page 5
'SU Aur' on page 6
'XZ Tau' on page 6
'HP Tau/G2' on page 6
'XZ Tau' on page 6
'SU Aur' on page 8
'HD 283572' on page 8
'HP Tau/G2' on page 8
Fig. 3. The X-ray activity–rotation relation of T Tauri stars in Taurus-Auriga observed by XMM-Newton. The observed (left) and expected (right) values of X-ray activity measures are plotted as a function of rotation period: Top, X-ray luminosity; middle, its ratio with stellar luminosity; bottom, the surface-averaged X-ray flux. Expected values were calculated for each star based on its stellar luminosity and whether it is accreting or not. Black triangles indicate accretors and grey circles indicate non-accretors. Lines show the best-fitting power-law correlation in each case.
Fig. 7. The ratio of X-ray and stellar luminosities plotted as a function of Rossby number. Grey filled circles show late-type main sequence stars studied by Pizzolato et al. (2003); grey open squares show T Tauri stars in the Orion Nebula Cluster studied by Preibisch et al. (2005); black circles and triangles show, respectively, non-accreting and accreting T Tauri stars in Taurus-Auriga in the present study. The filled black symbols show stars with measured photometric rotation periods; the open black symbols have periods derived from $v \sin i$ measurements and are effectively upper limits to the Rossby number. The grey leftward-pointing arrows represent periods derived from $v \sin i$ measurements in Pizzolato et al. (2003). The black rightward-pointing arrows show cases where only upper limits to the convective turnover time could be estimated.