On the lifetime of discs around late type stars

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ABSTRACT

We address the question of whether protoplanetary discs around low mass stars (e.g. M-dwarfs) may be longer lived than their solar-type counterparts. This question is particularly relevant to assess the planet-making potential of these lower mass discs. Given the uncertainties inherent to age-dating young stars, we propose an alternative approach that is to analyse the spatial distribution of disc-bearing low-mass stars and compare it to that of disc-bearing solar-type stars in the same cluster. A significant age difference between the two populations should be reflected in their average nearest neighbour distance (normalised to the number of sources), where the older population should appear more spread out.

To this aim, we perform a Minimum Spanning Tree (MST) analysis on the spatial distribution of disc-bearing young stellar objects (YSOs) in six nearby low mass star forming regions. We find no evidence for significant age differences between the disc-bearing low-mass (later than M2) and ‘solar-type’ (earlier than M2) stars in these regions. We model our results by constructing and analysing synthetic fractal distributions that we evolve for typical values of the velocity dispersions. A comparison of simple models to our MST analysis suggests that the lifetime of discs around M-stars is similar to that of discs around solar-type stars. Furthermore, a model-independent spatial analysis of the observations robustly shows that any age differences between the two samples must be smaller than the average age difference between disc-bearing classical T-Tauri stars and disc-less Weak-Lined T-Tauri stars.

Key words:

1 INTRODUCTION

The lifetime of protoplanetary discs around young low-mass stars has been the subject of numerous recent observational and theoretical studies (e.g. Luhman et al. 2010; Ercolano, Clarke & Hall 2011; Currie & Kenyon 2009; Ercolano, Clarke & Robitaille 2009; Sicilia-Aguilar et al. 2008). The interest is justified by the key role played by this circumstellar material in the formation and evolution of planetary systems, by providing the gas and dust reservoirs from which planets form and through which they migrate.

Discs around solar type stars are rarely seen for systems of age 10 Myr or older (e.g. Mamejek, 2009), implying that (giant) planet formation around such stars must occur within this timescale. There has been considerable interest recently with regards to planetary systems around lower mass stars (e.g. Pascucci et al. 2011). The attraction of M-dwarfs resides, first of all, in their larger population, assuming a Salpeter/Kroupa initial mass function (Salpeter 1955; Kroupa 2002) there are 50/10 0.2 M\textsubscript{\odot} stars for every 1 M\textsubscript{\odot} star. Furthermore, their habitable zones (HZ) extend close to the parent star allowing for a stronger (detectable) radial velocity signal from potentially neptune-size planets or smaller.

There are, however, a number of possible drawbacks to the search of planetary systems around M-dwarfs, namely their stronger magnetic activity and the possibility of tidal locking for planets with small orbital separation from the star. There is at present no consensus with regards to whether either of these factors could prevent the development of life on these planets (for a recent review see Pascucci et al. 2011). With regards to the actual formation of the planets themselves there are further considerations to be made. The lower column densities of discs around late type stars may imply longer timescales for planet formation under the core accretion scenario, but this may be offset by the fact that the discs may be longer lived. While absolute ages of star forming regions (or, worse, individual objects within a region) are known to be uncertain (e.g. Mayne & Naylor 2008; Baraffe, Chabrier, & Gallardo 2009), the high fraction of disc bearing M-stars in \eta Chamaleontis, aged 8 Myr, has been interpreted as evidence for longer disc lifetimes around late type stars (Sicilia-Aguilar et al. 2009). Furthermore, there is tentative evidence that the frequency of infrared excess emission appears to decrease less steeply with age as the mass of the central object decreases, this result, however, is not yet
conclusive because only a few disk fractions have been measured for low-mass stars older than 3 Myr (Carpenter et al. 2006; Luhrman 2009).

A significantly longer disc lifetime for late-type stars could have important implications for the formation and evolution of planetary systems, but compelling observational evidence is still missing. Theoretical considerations based on standard disc dispersal mechanisms do not seem to support a significantly longer disc lifetime for M-stars. Gorti, Dullemond & Hollenbach (2009) calculated models of disc dispersal driven mainly by FUVE-driven photo-evaporation for stars in the range 0.5-30M⊙, finding that disc lifetimes were only mildly dependent on stellar mass in the range 0.5-3M⊙, with roughly only a factor two difference in the timescales at 0.5 and 3M⊙. It is unclear, however, how these results could be extrapolated down to the M-dwarf regime. The X-ray photoevaporation models of Ercolano et al. (2008, 2009) and Owen et al. (2010) only considered the dispersal of discs around a 0.7 M⊙ star. However, if a constant viscous α parameter and radial scaling (i.e. r ∝ R) is assumed, the viscous scaling relations (Lynden-Bell & Pringle, 1974) can be used to estimate median disc lifetimes as a function of stellar mass. By approximating the disc’s lifetime as the time when the viscous accretion rates become equal to the wind mass loss rates, described in Owen et al. (2011) as the ‘null’ model, (see also Ercolano & Clarke 2010), we find that:

$$\tau_d \propto L_x^{2/3} t_v \propto M_d(0)^{2/3} \propto L_x^{2/3} R_1^{1/3} M_1^{2/3} M_d(0)^{2/3}$$

(1)

where the second relation is for a flared reprocessing disc (e.g. Chiang & Goldreich, 1997). t_v is the viscous time, R_1 is the initial scale size of the disc and M_d(0) is the initial disc mass which is expected to scale linearly with mass (e.g. Alexander & Armitage, 2006). The X-ray luminosity has been observationally shown to scale approximately as L_x ∝ M^2 (e.g. Preibisch et al. 2005, Güdel et al. 2007). However, the scaling of t_v, and hence R_1, with mass is rather more uncertain, both observationally and theoretically. Alexander & Armitage (2006) use the observed M ∝ M^2 scaling (e.g. Muzerolle et al. 2005; Natta et al. 2006; Sicilia-Aguilar et al. 2006) to argue that t_v ∝ M_1^{-1} which yields τ_d ∝ R_1^{2/3}. However, the solution for t_v from the M–M relation is far from unique (e.g. Dullemond et al. 2006). Furthermore, the observationally determined M–M relation has not yet been confirmed as a physical relation and the role played by observational biases in its derivation is still uncertain (e.g. Clarke & Pringle, 2006; Tilling et al. 2008). By instead assuming that all stars form from cores with identical ratios of rotational to gravitational energy (β), then R_1 ∝ M, and thus τ_d ∝ R_1^{1/6}. By including all known scalings in equation (1) one finds:

$$\tau_d \propto R_1^{1/6}$$

(2)

Therefore, while the actual variation of disc lifetime with mass is unclear, for all sensible scalings of disc radius with mass, it is clear that X-ray photoevaporation predicts only a mild negative scaling between disc lifetime and mass.

There are clearly a number of, potentially important, theoretical uncertainties and these highlight the need to find alternative methods, based on observations, to understand the dependence of disc lifetimes on stellar mass, which is essential to constrain models of disc evolution and planet formation around M-dwarfs. In this paper we compare the spatial distribution of disc-bearing young late type stars (later than M2) to that of earlier types, which we crudely refer to as ‘solar-type stars’ (i.e. earlier than M2). The aim is to look for the statistical signature of a longer lived disc population amongst the lower mass stars, which should manifest itself as larger mean separations between disc-bearing low mass stars.

| Region       | Age [Myr] | Distance [pc] | Size [pc] | σ_v [km/s] |
|--------------|-----------|---------------|-----------|------------|
| Serpens      | 2–6      | 260–415       | 0.4       | 0.25–0.61   |
| Lupus III    | 2<r<3.5  | 200–300       | 2.4       | 1.3–3.4    |
| Taurus       | 1–5      | 140–300       | 18        | 0.26       |
| IC 348       | 2.3–3.5  | 261–340       | 0.95      | 0.1–0.2    |
| Cha I        | 2–5      | 162–200       | 2.8       | 0.6–1.2    |
| ChaII        | 4–11     | 178–300       | 2.3       | –          |
| Tr 37        | 4–12     | 900–1200      | 4.7       | –          |
| Tr 37 West   | 1–12     | 900–1200      | 4.7       | –          |

Table 1. Physical properties of the star forming region [16] (Oliveira et al. 2009, 11 Straizys et al. 1996 and Dzib et al. 2010; 2 Williams 2001; 3 Comerón 2008; 6 Merin et al. 2008; 7 Makarov 2007; 5c Luhrman 2004; 8 Kenyon et al. 2008 and references therein; 20 Kenyon et al. 1994; 9 Kraus & Hillenbrand 2008; 10 Meunich et al. 2003; Luhrman et al. 2003; 11 Herbst 2008; Luhrman et al. 2003; Scholz et al. 1998; Herbst 1998; Cernis 1993; 8 Herbig 1998; 5d Luhrman 2003, 2008; 10 Whittle et al. 1997; 16 Dubath et al. 1996; 4 Spezzi et al. 2008; 12a Sicilia-Aguilar et al. 2005, 12b Contreras et al. 2002).

Table 2. Observed average separation differences, Δdobs =dobs(< M2)–dobs(> M2), between disc-bearing low mass and solar-mass stars in young clusters.

is based on the simple assumption that the older stars would have had more time to move away from their birthplace at the typical velocity dispersions measured for low mass star forming regions (of order 1 km/s). Indeed a spatial comparison of Class I and Class II sources showed that Class I sources were less distributed than the Class IIs, and were more likely to still be near filamentary structures in the gas where they presumably formed (e.g. Gutermuth et al. 2008, Maaskant et al. 2011 ).

In Section 2 we describe the hypothesis in more detail as well as the methods and observational data-sets employed. In Section 3 we present the results of the analysis, as well as Monte Carlo simulations to assess the robustness of our results. Finally, a discussion of the physical implications is given in Section 4.

2 HYPOTHESIS, METHODS AND OBSERVATIONS

It is true that discs around low mass stars live significantly longer than discs around more massive (solar-type) stars, and that stars in a cluster are formed over an extended period (i.e. the age-spread within a cluster is comparable to the timescale over which protoplanetary discs disperse), then the disc-bearing low-mass (later than M2) stellar population in a given cluster should be on average older than the disc-bearing solar-mass population (earlier than M2) in the same cluster. The mean age difference amongst the two stellar populations should be reflected in the relative spatial distribution of the young stars, with the disc-bearing low mass stars being more spread out than the solar-mass stars. Indeed at a velocity of 1 km/s, which is a typical velocity dispersion measured for
nearby low mass star-forming region, a disc-bearing M-star would be able to travel approximately 10 pc during a hypothetical 10-Myr lifetime of its disc, while a disc-bearing solar-type star may only move a fraction of that distance.

The recent compilation of catalogues of young stellar objects (YSOs) in nearby star-forming regions renders possible a preliminary investigation of the spatial distribution of disc-bearing YSOs. We have collected data for seven nearby star forming regions, including the position of the YSOs, their spectral classification and whether an infra-red excess (i.e. a disc) is detected for each individual object. In Table 1 we summarise the physical properties of the regions studied and provide references for the data we used. We note that the 'size' quoted in the Table is not the size commonly given in the literature for these regions but it is an effective radius of the region occupied by the well characterised, disc-bearing YSOs used in our analysis. This was obtained by simply plotting the disc bearing sources, calculating the area occupied by them and deriving an effective radius from it.

2.1 Spatial analysis

We employ a Minimum-Spanning-Tree (MST) method to calculate average stellar separations. A MST is formed by connecting all points (spatial positions in this case) in order to form a unified network, such that the total length (i.e. sum) of all of the connections is minimised, and no closed loops are formed. The method is routinely employed to study large scale star-forming regions in galaxies (e.g Bastian et al. 2007, 2009, 2011; Gieles et al. 2008; Schmeja et al 2009) as well as local star-forming regions (Koenig et al. 2008; Gutermuth et al. 2009; Schmeja, Kumar & Ferreira 2008). We constructed MST diagrams for the disc-bearing low-mass and solar-type stars in each region and calculated the average nearest-neighbour distance ($d_{nn}$) for the two populations. We ensured that the two populations had the same number of sources by stochastically culling the number of sources in the larger population. The stochastic culling and nearest neighbours analysis of the larger sample was performed fifty times and an average value was taken. The spread in the Monte Carlo results provided us with a measure of the error introduced by this procedure and by the low number statistics. We only included YSOs in the sample for which spectral types were available from the literature and excluded brown dwarfs from our samples. Spectral types were measured on the basis of optical and/or near-infrared follow-up spectroscopy. For a more detailed description of the spectral type classification of the YSOs in our sample, we defer the reader to the work by Oliveira et al (2009) for Serpens, Hughes et al (1993); Krautter et al (1997); Comerón et al (2003); Allen et al (2007) for Lup III, Luhman (2004) and references therein for Taurus, Luhman et al. (2003) and Muench et al. (2003) for IC 348, Luhman (2007) and Luhman & Muench (2008) for Cha I, Spezzi et al. (2008) for Cha II and Sicilia-Aguilar et al (2005) for Tr 37. As will be further discussed in Section 3, we find no evidence of longer disc dispersal timescales around the lower mass stellar population. Figure 1 shows the distribution of the disc-bearing sources as a function of spectral types in the range G6 to M6. In all the clusters studied, apart from Tr 37, which, as described in the following section, has been excluded from our final analysis. The thick horizontal line shows the formal separation between “solar types” and “low mass” stars set at M2 in this work.

2.2 Method validation

As is often the case in this field, however, our analysis is plagued by small number statistics and perhaps a signal that may be too small to be detected using the proposed technique. In order to validate our method, we perform two sets of tests which are described next.

2.2.1 Test 1: The spatial distribution of disc-bearing and disc-less objects

The average age difference between the disc-bearing (class II) and disc-less (class III) sources in our catalogues should be of the same order as a hypothetical age difference between disc-bearing solar type and low-mass stars. We therefore perform a spatial analysis of the distribution of class II and class III objects in each of our studied clusters to verify that our method is indeed able to pick up the signal in the average separations.

The results are shown in Table 3, where it is clear that in all cases, aside from Tr 37, the mean separation of disc-less stars is larger than the mean separation of disc-bearing sources. This demonstrates that the method we propose here is indeed capable of picking up age difference of the order a few Myr in these clusters.

Table 3. The spatial distribution of the disc-bearing (Class II) versus disc-less (Class III) stars.

| Region  | Selected Number | $d_{nn}$ [pc] | $d_{nn}$ [pc] |
|---------|----------------|---------------|---------------|
| Serpens | 129            | 0.10          | 0.065         |
| Lupus III | 64            | 0.11          | 0.077         |
| Taurus  | 181            | 0.55          | 0.38          |
| IC 348  | 93             | 0.18          | 0.16          |
| Cha I   | 99             | 0.12          | 0.05          |
| Cha II  | 40             | 0.21          | 0.12          |
| Tr 37†  | 62             | 0.03          | 0.06          |

* Excluding the Tr 37 West sources. See Text.

The signal is clearly present even though we included all sources irrespective of spectral type. This latter point further suggests that the timescales for dispersal cannot be a strong function of spectral type.

Tr 37 is the only outlier in our sample, where the disc-bearing objects appear to be more spread out than the disc-less stars. However Tr 37 is known to show a distribution of ages between 1 and 8 Myr with an age gradient through the cluster from east (older) to west (younger). We have not included the so-called “globule”, where evidence for a new episode of star formation was reported by Sicilia-Aguilar et al (2006), see also Barentsen et al. 2011), however it is likely that the complex star formation history of this region may be washing out the signal in the spatial distribution. We therefore exclude Tr 37 from further analysis.

2.2.2 Test 2: Simulated clusters

In order to predict whether a detectable signal (above the three sigma error given by the Monte Carlo culling described above) is to be expected, we have performed the same MST-based spatial analysis on synthetic clusters of sizes and velocity dispersions appropriate for each of the regions listed in Table 1. We populate each

1 Note that brown dwarf were excluded from our sample, however due to their small numbers, their inclusion does not affect the conclusions.
cluster assuming that star formation is continuous during the evolutionary timescale of the low-mass YSO discs and stars are ‘born’ in a three-dimensional fractal distribution. The simulations presented here used a 3D fractal dimension of 1.7. Cartwright & Whitworth (2004) estimated fractal dimensions in the range 1.7 (e.g. Taurus) to 2.3 (e.g. Chamaleon). As a comparison the fractal dimension of the Interstellar medium is thought to be 2.3 (Elmegreen & Falgarone 1996). In general the fractal dimension in young clusters is expected to start off low (clumpy) and increase with age (e.g. Bastian et al 2009, 2011). We thus use a low fractal dimension to assign the birthplaces of the YSOs. A higher fractal dimension would of course weaken the expected signal, so we have also investigated models with higher (2.3) fractal dimensions and found that this only affects the results $\Delta d_{av}$ by 25% at most. $\Delta d_{av}$ is defined as the difference between the mean $d_{av}$ of disc-bearing low mass and solar-type stars.

The solar-type star discs are assumed to disperse after 2 Myr and we vary the lifetime of the low mass star discs, $t_{lm}$, between 2 and 10 Myr in steps of 1 Myr. We assign the direction of motion of each star stochastically with a velocity module equal to the literature value of the velocity dispersion measured for the given region (Table 1). For each simulation we measure $\Delta d_{av}$, after stochastically culling the synthetic clusters to the same number of sources available in the observed clusters (see Table 2). We summarise the results of our Monte Carlo simulations in Figure 1, where each region-specific simulation is plotted in individual pan-
Figure 2. Difference in nearest neighbour distance between the low mass and solar-mass stars as a function of age for simulated clusters with parameters as given in Table 1. The black, red, green, blue, magenta and cyan asterisks represent models with low-mass star disc lifetimes of 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 Myr, respectively, while the black, red and green triangles represent models with low-mass star discs dispersal timescales of 8, 9 and 10 Myr. The solar type disc dispersal timescales are kept fixed at 2 Myr. The down pointing arrows represent negative values, or values smaller than the lower limit on the y-axis, which have not been plotted on our log plot. The blue hashed box gives the 3 times Monte Carlo error obtained from the stochastic culling of the larger population in the spatial analysis of the observed regions (see section 2.1).

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The down pointing arrows represent negative values, which
have not been plotted on our log plot. The blue hashed boxes show the 3 or Monte Carlo error obtained from the stochastic sampling of the observed clusters. Figure 1 shows that for all clusters, apart from Taurus the observations are not consistent for differences in the disc lifetimes between low mass and solar type stars in excess of 1 Myr, and are instead consistent with the two populations having basically indistinguishable lifetimes. This result will be further discussed in the context of the observations in the next section.

As mentioned above the scope of this very simplified test is only to quantify the age differences to which the spatial distribution analysis presented in the previous section is sensitive to, and to this aim the age difference between the two population, rather than the absolute dispersal age of each, is the important parameter. However it should be also noted that the “base age”, i.e. the dispersal timescale of the shortest lived population, plays a role for those regions with ages comparable to it. To address the concern that the assumption of an older dispersal age for solar type stars may weaken the expected signal in the younger regions, we have repeated the experiment for the synthetic IC348 and ChaI models, setting the dispersal timescales for solar-type discs to 3 Myr and to 4 Myr. We show the results in Figure 3, where it is clear that our conclusions are unaffected by the choice of the longer timescales even for these young regions. Figure 3 still indicates that the null signal is still only consistent with differences smaller than 1 Myr in the mean disc dispersal timescale of discs around the two populations.

We note that, in theory, mass segregation could also result in lower average nearest neighbour distances for the higher mass star. This effect could easily be corrected for by comparing the distribution of all YSOs (disc-bearing and disc-less). However, mass segregation is not expected to be a dominant effect in the low mass low number regions considered here, and, in any case, as will be further discussed in the next session, we do not find any differences in the distribution of YSOs as a function of mass (in the mass range considered here), regardless of whether they have an infra-red excess. Dynamical expulsion of low-mass members from clusters could also be a problem by decreasing the average nearest neighbour distance of the low-mass members. Again, this effect is only expected to be relevant in a ‘classical’ cluster, i.e. a centrally concentrated dense object where dynamical interactions between members are common. The star forming regions considered here are all relatively low surface density objects (c.f. Bressert et al. 2010). Finally, bound clusters wold also evolve differently, of course, from the simple description of expansion in our toy models, N-body simulations are required to model these effect in detail and will be explored in future work: this is, however, not relevant for the young low density regions studied here.

3 RESULTS

In Table 2 we summarise the results for the relative average separations of low and solar-mass disc-bearing stars in the seven regions studied. The difference between the average nearest neighbour distances for these two populations (\(\Delta d_{av}\)) is indicated. The errors refer to the uncertainties introduced by our stochastic culling of the more numerous population, described in the previous section, and it represents the Monte Carlo error intrinsic to this procedure. In five out of the six regions studied in this work (we exclude Tr 37 from the discussion, see Section 2.2.1) the difference in \(d_{av}\) between the low and solar-mass stars is always smaller than the three sigma error from the Monte Carlo culling. The only exception is the LupusIII region where we find a signal at the seven sigma level, but with a negative sign (i.e. indicating smaller average distances for M-stars). We note however that the average distances were computed using only 15 stars in each population and are distributed over an extended non-spherical region. The same analysis performed on only the central higher density region shows a much weaker but still detectable negative signal (roughly at the 4 sigma level), but the low number statistics weaken any conclusions from this one cluster alone.

This null result can be interpreted in the contexts of the statistical tests performed in Section 2. Our comparison of the spatial distributions of disc-bearing (class II) against disc-less (class III) objects, described in Section 2.2.1, showed that our method is able to recognise an age difference between these two classes of objects. This suggests in the first instance that if a similar age difference existed between disc-bearing low mass objects and disc bearing solar type object, it should also be picked up by the same method. Our Monte Carlo simulations of synthetic clusters, discussed in Section 2.2.2, allows us to determine limits on the maximum average age difference between low mass and solar type discs in each of the cluster. Figure 1 shows that for all regions, except for the young Taurus region, our results are consistent with no age difference between the two populations.

The simulated cluster analysis presented in the previous sections predicts that for an age difference between the low-mass and solar-type disc population greater or equal to 1 Myr the \(d_{av}\) should be much larger than the 3 \(\sigma\) upper limits given by the Monte Carlo errors (blue hashed boxes in Figure 1), thus arguing for similar dispersal timescales (black asterisks in Figure 1) for both populations. Taurus is the only exception, where the non-detection of a signal cannot be interpreted as the two populations being coeval. This result is largely driven by the extremely young age of the region, its large physical extension and low velocity dispersion which conspire to give an undetectable signal.

On the basis of these considerations we conclude that there is no evidence of a significant difference in the lifetimes of discs around low-mass and solar-type stars on the basis of their relative spatial distributions. Indeed, the statistically indistinguishable spatial distribution of the low-mass and solar mass stars in Serpens, Lupus III, ChaI, ChaII and IC 348 argues against the hypothesis that discs around low mass stars live significantly longer than discs around solar-mass stars, although we cannot rule out differences of less than 1 Myr (see Section 2).

To summarise, our simple spatial analysis using MSTs provides evidence against significantly longer disc dispersal timescales around late-type stars (e.g. M-dwarf) compared to their solar-mass counterparts. Low number statistics prevents us from providing tight constraints on the allowed difference in disc survival timescales in these two populations, but our analysis, based on simple models, indicates that it is consistent with similar disc dispersal timescales, with differences certainly smaller than the average age difference between CTTs and WTTs.

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Figure 3. Difference in nearest neighbour distance between the low mass and solar-mass stars as a function of age for simulated clusters with parameters as given in Table 1 for IC348 and ChaI. The black, red, green, blue, magenta and cyan asterisks represent models with low-mass star disc lifetimes of 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 Myr, respectively, while the black, red and green triangles represent models with low-mass star disc dispersal timescales of 8, 9 and 10 Myr. The solar type disc dispersal timescales are kept fixed at 3 Myr (top panels) and 4 Myr (bottom panels). The down pointing arrows represent negative values (or values smaller than the y-axes limit, which have not been plotted on our log plot. The blue hashed box gives the 3 times Monte Carlo error obtained from the stochastic culling of the larger population in the spatial analysis of the observed regions (see section 2.1).

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