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Multiple Populations of Extrasolar Gas Giants-

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ABSTRACT

There are two planetary formation scenarios: core accretion and gravitational disk instability. Mostextrasolar gaseous objects discovered to date are thought to be formed from the core accretion, based Based on athe fact that gaseous objects are preferentially observed around metal-rich host stars, most extrasolar gaseous objects discovered to date are thought to have been formed by core accretion. Here, we present the 623 samples in $\textcolor{red}{\textbf{520 planetary systems comprising}} \underline{of} \ gaseous \ planets \ and \ brown \ dwarfs \ \textcolor{red}{\textbf{discovered}} \underline{found \ in \ 520 \ planetary}$ systems. Discovered by radial-velocity measurements in, they span three mass regimes, with boundary values of at 4 and 20 Jupiter-mass in terms of masses. We have performed cluster analyses of these samples regarding the host-star metallicity through performing a cluster analysis to the samples, after minimizing anthe impact of the radial-velocity selection effect of radial velocity measurements on the cluster analysis. The larger boundary mass is thought to be a the boundary between planet planetary and sub-stellar formations substellar formation around G-type stars, being in agreement, it agrees with the upper mass limit of the for core-accreted planets predicted by some theoretical studies. The distributions of host-star metallicities, the masses and eccentricities for the of planetary objects lighter than 20 Jupiter-mass orbiting masses that orbit G-type stars as functions of the host-star metallicities can be explained naturally explained by the core-accretion model. In contrast, the lower mass limit reflects appears to reflect the difference between planetary formation processes around early-type and G-type stars. A population with masses renging from between 4 to and 20 Jupiter-mass orbiting masses that orbits early-type stars is thought to be composed consist of planets formed via the gravitational disk instability, considering because that the population preferably preferentially orbits metal-poor stars or is independent of the host-star metallicity.

Keywords: methods: data analysis - planets and satellites: terrestrial planets

1. INTRODUCTION

Decades ago, the

The discussion of planetary formation in solar system was developed decades ago for the solar system (Hayashi et al. 1985). Two representative formation scenarios for Jupiter have been proposed: Corecore accretion (Perri & Cameron 1974; Mizuno 1980; Pollack et al. 1996) and disk instability (Kuiper 1951; Boss 1997; Mayer et al. 2002). In theory, the two planetary-planet-formation processes have different dependences on the proto-planetary-disk metallicity, which is defined as the ratio of the metal number density of metals to hydrogen atoms,—and planet on the planetary mass (e.g., Matsuo et al. 2007). For In the core_accretion model, a proto-planet core easily grows to the critical core mass before the disk gas dissipates. This occurs because the disk metallicity reflects the building materials available for the core (Ida & Lin 20046; Mordasini et al. 2012). In fact, since the first planet orbiting a normal star was discovered (Mayor & Queloz 1995), large-sized radial_velocity observations have revealed that, while although the metallicities of stars hosting smaller planets—such as Neptune-like planets and super-Earths—are significantly lower than those of stars orbited by extrasolar gas giants (Mayor et al. 2011; Wang & Fischer 2015), the gas giants preferentially orbit metal-rich stars (e.g., Santos et al. 2003; Fischer & Valenti 2005). Because the central star and its surrounding protoplanetary disks disk are formed from athe same molecular cloud, according to the primordial hypothesis, most gas giants are thought to have formed via the core accretion. Regarding the planet mass, the Indeed, gas giants with planet mass planetary masses up to 30 M_jM_j are potentially formed via the core accretion (e.g., Tanigawa & Ikoma 2007; Tanigawa & Tanaka 2016), where MiM represents the Jupiter-mass. The number of the gas giants more massive than a few MM gradually decreases as the planetplanetary mass is larger increases (e.g., Mordasini et al. 2009).

For the disk_instability scenario, the relationship between disk metallicity and disk-instability-induced planetary formation has been studied theoretically studied; there exists. There are reports of a negative correlation (Cai et al. 2006; Durisen et al. 2007), a very weak positive correlation (Mayer et al. 2007), and no correlation (Boss 2002) inwith the metallicity range metallicities of the stars hosting the observed planets. Although the lower limit may exist on the masses of the disk-instability-induced planets may exist (Matsuo et al. 2007), the mass distribution of the gas giants formed via the disk instability still remains an open question. On

the other hand, direct imaging of the extrasolar planets orbiting HR8799, Formalhaut, and beta Pictorisreported
in 2008 and 2010 (Marois et al. 2008; Kalas et al. 2008;

_Lagrange et al. 2010), respectively.) has confirmed the existing existence of outer planets, which can be
naturally explained better by the disk-instability scenario rather than the by extended core accretion with
migration or planet-planet scattering (Dodson-Robinson et al. 2009). Thus, there may exist two populations
of planets that have originated from the two planetary formations. different planet-formation mechanisms
may exist.

Several previous studies (Ribas & Miralda-Escude 2007; Santos et al. 2017) showedhave shown that the gas giants are divided into two regimes with separated by a boundary mass of 4 MMJ, and they have interpreted the two populations as an outcome originated outcomes originating from the two planetaryformations; while the formation mechanisms: gas giants lighter than 4 MiMJ are core-accreted planets, the gas giants while those more massive than 4 M; M_I are formed through the disk instability. In addition In contrast, by performing a cluster analysis on the diagram of planetary mass vs. host-star metallicity and, Schlaufman (2018) found that there is a transition between 4 and 10 MjM₁ instead of a clear boundary of at 4 MiM, for gaseous objects orbiting G-type stars, performing a cluster analysis to a diagram of host star metallicity and planet mass. However, in theory, it is possible to form very massive gas giants—up to 30 Mj-M_I—via the core accretion in theory (e.g., Tani-gawa (cf., Tanigawa & Ikoma 2007; Mordasini et al. 2009; Tanigawa & Tanaka 2016), and the upper mass limit of the for core-accreted planets is also expected to depend on the disk metallicity (Mordasini et al. 2012). Pebble Recently, pebble accretion has been recently proposed as thea third planetary-formation scenario that it enables massive erecores to be formed in the outer region regions of a planetary system beyond 10 AU (Ormel & Klahr 2010; Lambrechts & Johansen 2012), Planets more massive planets than the core accreted planets are those that can be formed by core accretion can potentially be formed thanks to a wider hilllarger Hill radius in more the outer region, regions. Thus, it is still unknown whether the boundary mass of 4 Mi-Mi-or the transition between 4 and 10 Mi-Mi-can be applied as the upper boundaries boundary of thea bottom-up planetary-formation scenarios such as the core accretion, and or whether pebble accretion is still unknown, applies instead. Furthermore, although the previous studies didhave not consider the considered selection effects of the on planet detections, the detection limits offor the radial-velocity measurements clearly depend on the metallicity of the host star (see Figure 1 (a).

Here, we report that on 623 samples comprising of gaseous planets and brown-dwarfs are, which we have divided into three-mass regimes with separated by boundary masses of at 4 and 20 Mj.Mj. The upper boundary mass is thought to represent the upper mass limits of limit for planetary objects that can be

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formed around G-type and early-type stars. The lower boundary mass represents a the difference between the planetary-formation processes around G-type and early-type stars. While most of the samples orbiting the G-type stars are naturally explained by the core-accretion model, the samples more massive than 4 Mj-orbiting Mj that orbit early-type stars seem to be formed by the disk-instability process, where the In this paper, we define G-type and early-type stars were defined as starsthose with masses ranging from 0.8 to 1.3 Solar-mass, Mc, solar masses (Mo) and those more larger massive than 1.3 Mc in this paper Mo, respectively. Note that the samples we have constructed the samples used for this study were considered such so that an the impact of the selection effect of the radial-velocity selection effects on the statistical analysis is are minimized.

This paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, <u>first</u>, we explain how <u>we constructed</u> the samples applying to <u>used for our</u> statistical <u>analysis were constructed analyses</u>, introducing <u>the</u> "common-biased samples" that were," which we have selected <u>such that an to minimize the</u> impact of the difference between the selection effects in the metal-rich and -poor regions on the <u>analysis is minimized analyses</u>. In Section 3, we derive the boundary metallicity that <u>is divided divides the samples</u> into two regions <u>such that for which</u> the distributions of the <u>planetplanetary</u> masses and semi-major axes are most different. We differ the most. By applying a Gaussian-mixture model, we also show that the samples are divided into three-mass regimesthrough applying the Gaussian mixture model to the samples and three-mass regimes, which arise from the difference between the distributions for of gaseous objects orbiting G-type and early-type stars. In Section 4, <u>by comparing the results of our statistical analysis with the two planetary-formation models</u>, we discuss what the upper-mass limit of the <u>for</u> gas giants formed via the bottom-up planetary formation is, and we consider whether the disk-instability-induced planetary formation occurs, comparing the results of the statistical analysis with the two planetary formation models.

2. METHOD

In this section, we explain how to perform statistical analysis analyses for extrasolar gaseous objects to understand their formation and evolution processes, and we show how to deal with the selection effect of the radial-velocity measurements by which the samples constructed for this study were detected. We also explain how we constructed the samples we used, determining the boundary between gas dwarfs—such as Neptune-like planets—and gaseous giants.

2.1. -Overview of the Statistical Analysis

In this study, we first, we examined whether the difference between the distributions of semi-major axes and masses for gaseous objects orbiting metal-rich and -poor stars arises from the radial-velocity selection effect of radial velocity measurements effects or from whether it is due to the dependence of the planetary

formation and evolution processprocesses on the disk metal-licity, constructing metallicity. We have constructed samples named as that we term "common-biased samples" that, "which minimize an the impact of the selection effecteffects on the distributions, as to be discussed we discuss in Section 2.2. Given that the measurement errors follow a normal distribution, we have sampled the host-star metallicities and companion masses, and then divided the common

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biased samples into two by agroups that depend upon the host-star metallicity. Using the "anderson_ksamp" module in Python, we have compared the planetary masses and semi-major axes of the divided sub-samples in terms of planet mass and semi-major axis with using the two-sample Anderson-Darling test. Calculating By calculating the p-values derived from the two-sample Anderson Darlingthat test as a function of the host-star metallicity, we searched for a boundary metallicity that divides the common-biased samples such so that the distributions of companion masses and semi-major axes for the two sub-samples are the most different. We iterated this procedure 1,000 times and finally evaluated howmuch different the distributions of the two common-biased sub-samples are in terms of the semi-major axis and planet mass at the boundary metallicity. This result is shown in Section 3.1 shows this result.

Next, we explored how many populations exist in extrasolar gaseous objects discovered so far, to investigate what the upper mass limit of the for core-accreted planets is; In particular, we have re-examined whether onlythere are just two populations exist in the of extrasolar gaseous objects, as shownhas been found in the several previous studies (Ribas & Miralda-Escude 2007; Santos et al. 2017; Schlaufman 2018). Using the "GaussianMix ture Gaussian Mixture" package in Python, we applied a two-dimensional Gaussian-mixture model to the diagram of companion masses versus host-star metallicities versus companion masses for the common-biased samples. The number of the We used from one to ten Gaussian-mixture models used for this cluster analysis ranges from 1 to 10. We determined the number of the components of the best Gaussian-mixture model based on the Bayesian Information Criterion, as well as on the cluster to which cluster each common-biased sample belong belongs. Sampling the host-star metallicities and companion masses, we repeated this procedure 1,000 times. This result is introduced in Section 3.3 shows this result.

2.2. —Common-biased Samples

In order to reveal

To determine the distributions of masses and orbital properties for samples orbiting various. host-star of various metallicities, we gathered collected extrasolar gaseous objects that have been discovered by radial-velocity observations that can precisely determine for which the lower limit of companion mass, the semi-major axis, and the eccentricity. The gathered can be determined precisely. We term these objects were referred to as the "original samples" in this paper. Considering that, "Because there exists theis a relation between the planetary-formation processes and the host-star metallicity, as introduced discussed in Section 1, it is preferable that the accuracies and durations (or "terms") of the radial-velocity measurements, which detected used to detect the original samples, are be independent of the host-star metallicity. This is because the The original samples detected via radial-velocity measurements are

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Comment [Editor4]: Remark: It is common practice to list the quantity plotted on the y-axis first, as a function of the quantity plotted on the x-axis. We have changed this order throughout the manuscript to be consistent with this practice.

influenced by two selection effects: (i) limited sensitivity to long-period planets, owing to the relatively short observation terms and (ii) limited sensitivity to low-mass planets, owing to a lack of measurement precision in the radial-velocity measurement measurements. The maximum semi-major axis, $a|_{max}$, and the lower mass limit, $M_p \sin i|_{min}$, of the detectable companion can be determined by the accuracy, a, σ and the term, τ , τ of the radial-velocity measurements as below (Torres et al. 2008);

$$a|_{max} = M_s^{\frac{1}{2}} \tau^{\frac{2}{3}},$$
 (1)
 $M_s \sin i|_{min} \approx 4.919 \times 10^{-3} P^{\frac{1}{3}} (1 - e^2)^{\frac{1}{3}} M_s^{\frac{2}{3}} \sigma_s.$ (2)

where, M_{mr} , P, e, and i are, respectively, the host-star mass, and the orbital period, eccentricity, and orbital inclination of the companion, respectively. The, We have derived the region in which a companion can be detected was derived for each radial_velocity measurement based on Equation (1) and (2). Figure 1 (a) compares the detection probabilities of for a companion with against the radial_velocity measurements of for all of the samples, for just the early-type stars, and for the G-type stars in the, for both metal-rich and —poor regions cases, plotted in terms of the semi-major axis and the lower mass limit. Note that we have fixed the boundary metallicity was fixed for this figure to be 0 dex. As shown in Figure 1, the accuracies of the radial_velocity measurements for the original metal-poor original samples are clearly worse than those for the metal-rich ones. The detectable semi-major axes for the original samples orbiting the metal-rich stars are almost same as those of or the metal-poor samples. Thus, the selection effect of the radial_velocity measurements selection effect depends on the host-star metallicity and affects the distributions of masses and semi-major axes for the two original sub-samples orbiting the metal-rich and -poor samples.

Focusing on athe fact that the distributions of masses and semi-major axes for the original samples discovered in the metal-rich (-poor) region are biased with the selection effect of due to the radial-velocity measurements selection criteria for the metal-rich (-poor) stars, we can minimize the impact on the original samples of the difference between the selection effects in for the metal-rich and -poor regions on the original samples through cases by filtering the metal-rich (-poor) original samples with the selection effect incriteria for the metal-poor (-rich). The samples This equalizes the selection biases of for the samples orbiting the metal-rich and -poor stars were equalized ([see Figure 1 (b))-)]. In the filtering process, we judged whether each original sample simply satisfies the following criteria:

$$M_{p,j} \sin i_j - M_{p,k} \sin i_k |_{min} \ge \frac{1}{2} (a_j - a_k |_{max}),$$
 (3)
 $a_j \le a_k |_{max},$ (4)

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Hyphenation of Compound Adjectives: For the ease of readability and comprehension, hyphenation may be used to link the components of compound adjectives that precede the nouns they modify. In this case, the noun "measurements" is modified by the compound adjective "radial, velocity" which may be hyphenated.

Comment [Editor6]: Remark: It is not clear how this is shown by Fig. 1. Please clarify.

Comment [Editor7]: Remark: Should this be "regions" or "cases"? Please check. where j and k represent the j-th original sample and the k-th radial velocity observation, respectively. Note that the j-th original sample is observed by the a randomly selected k-th radial-velocity observation for each iteration.

Each original sample is included in the filtered samples only when the above criteria are satisfied. Now, we'We refer the to these filtered samples to as "common-biased samples."

2.3. Preparation of Samples

The original samples considered in this study were limited to companion objects detected by the radial-velocity observations, allowing the orbital parameters to be characterized and lower limits to the companion mass masses to be determined. Essentially, we selected the original samples were selected from those labeled "Radial Velocity" in the "detection method" column of the Extrasolar Planet Encyclopedia catalog as of the end of June 2018 (Schneider et al. 2011). The radial velocities of the host stars orbited by the original samples, and as well as the orbital periods and eccentricities of the original samples, were also collected from the same catalog. The We referred to the SWEET-Cat catalog was referred to for the metallicity and mass of the each host star (Santos et al. 2013; Sousa et al. 2018); this catalog presents the uniformly derived stellar parameters of for the planet-host stars. For some of the original samples that are not listed in the SWEET-Cat catalog, we used the metallicities and masses compiled in the Geneva-Copenhagen catalog (Casagrande et al. 2011) was applied and calibrated them by using regression lines for G-type and early-type stars. The We determined the regression lines was determined from the metallicity or mass enrelationcorrelations between the SWEET-Cat and Geneva-Copenhagen catalogs to minimize measurement biases for host-star metallicities and masses (see Figure 2). Note that We calibrated 41 and 4four samples orbiting the that, respectively, orbit G-type and early-type stars were, respectively, calibrated in terms of the host-star metallicity. Using Because the host-star masses were thus revised, we used the new stellar mass and to re-calculate the lower limit of to the companion mass was newly calculated based on from Equation (2) because the host-star masses were revised.). The

As indicators of the selection effect, we extracted the measurement accuracy and term of observation term for the radial-velocity measurement of each original sample as the indicators of the selection effect were extracted from the exoplanets.org catalog, for each original sample. According to the Kepler's third law, shown in Equation (1), the term of observation term and the host-star mass provide the upper limit onto the semi-major axis of a detectable companion with for each radial-velocity measurement. Using the derived maximum semi-major axis, host-star mass, and measurement accuracy, we derived the lower mass limit of the for detectable companion was derived based on from Equation (2).

2.4. Boundary between Gas Giants and Neptune-like _Planets
Only

<u>We extracted only</u> gaseous objects <u>were extracted</u> from all the samples in the Extrasolar Planet Encyclopedia catalog to remove the impact of low-mass samples, <u>such</u> as Neptune-mass planets (gas dwarfs) and super-Earths, <u>on for</u> this

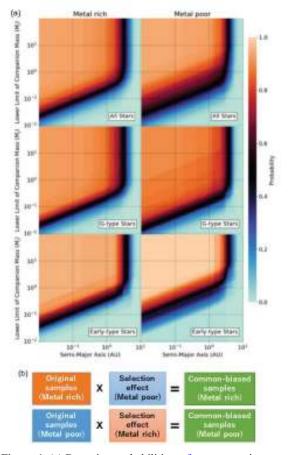


Figure 1. (a) Detection probabilities of for a companion with as derived from the radial-velocity measurements of or all stars (upper panel), for G-type stars (middle panel), and for early-type stars (lower panel) in the metal-rich (left column) and -poor regions (right column), plotted in terms of the companion mass vs. the semi-major axis and companion mass. O dex was. For this figure, we applied 0 dex as the metallicity boundary. The We defined the probability was denned as the fraction of the number of the radial-velocity measurements that can detect a companion to the total number of the measurements in each metallicity region. Note that their this paper we define G-type and early-type stars were, respectively, denned as starsthose with masses ranging from 0.8 to 1.3 MeMo and onesthose more massive than 1.3 Mo inthis paper. Mo. (b) Procedure for equalizing the selection biases included in the original samples in the two

different metallicity regions. The We filtered the original metal-rich (-poor) samples were additionally filtered with the selection effect constructed from further using the criteria for the radial-velocity measurements offer the metal-poor (-rich) original samples. The We define the samples so-filtered original samples were denned as "common-biased samples" that; " i.e., they are biased by a common selection offect. The offects. This filtering procedure judges whether the original samples can be detected by radial-velocity measurements with the constructed selection offect, and the filtered samples are included in the common-biased samples only when the original samples are detectable.

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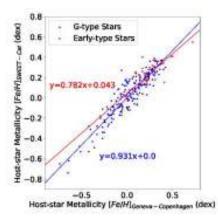


Figure 2. Metallicity correlations between the SWEET-Cat and Geneva-Copenhagen catalogs for G-type (blue) and early-type stars (red). The numbers of samples in both the catalogs There are 271 for G-type stars and 58 for early-type stars, common to both catalogs. The variables y and x in the linear-regression equations represent the host-star metallicities of from the SWEET-Cat and Geneva-Copenhagen catalogs, respectively.

analysis. We determined the boundary mass between the gaseous gas-giant and gas-dwarf objects from athe perspective of both theory and observation. According to a previous study (Ida & Lin 2004a), gas-dwarf objects, which consisting primarily consist of heavy-core objects such as Neptune and Uranus, have the potential to grow to the extent allowed by the core_building materials inside their semi-major axes. This growth occurs via giant impacts in the inner region of the disk after the disk gas dissipates. However, this core growth is limited by the scattering effect of from the heavy core increasing, which increases with greater distances distance from the central star. Therefore, the mass of a gas-dwarf object reaches a maximum at the semi-major axis, where the scattering effect begins to limit the core growth. Given that Assuming the ratio of collision-to-ejection probabilities for the heavy core is to be 0.1 and the core density is to be 1 g/cm³, thewe obtain an upper mass limit of the for a gas-dwarf object is of approximately 0.1 M; M₁ for dust surface densities of adust three times the Minimum Solar Nebulae Model value (MMSN).

From a standpoint of the observation, a the *Kepler* data, the boundary between gas giants and gas dwarfs at has been found observationally to be four times the Earth's radius has been observationally revealed by the Kepler data (Buchhave *et al.* 2012). From the empirical planetary mass-radius relation (e.g., Bashi *et al.* 2017):

$$\frac{R_p}{R_\oplus} \propto \left(\frac{M_p}{M_\oplus}\right)^{0.55\pm0.02}, \tag{5}$$

we found that the boundary upper limit of planetary mass is about 30 times the Earth's mass, corresponding to 0.1 M_J.M_J. Based on these considerations, we used 0.1 M_J was applied M_J in this study as the boundary mass between gas giants and gas dwarfs. The numbers of For this study, we considered 623 samples and their of gaseous planets or substellar objects belonging to 520 planetary systems considered in this study are 623 and 520, respectively.

3. RESULTS

In this section, we <u>show</u> quantitatively <u>show</u> how different <u>are</u> the distributions of the orbital properties and planet masses for <u>the</u> extrasolar gaseous objects orbiting <u>the</u> metal-rich and -poor stars <u>after</u> minimizing the impact of the <u>radial-velocity</u> selection effect <u>of radial velocity measurement</u> on <u>their these</u> distributions. <u>We also In addition</u>, <u>we</u> explore how many <u>components exit in the types of extrasolar gaseous</u> objects <u>throughexist by</u> classifying the common-biased samples with <u>thea</u> Gaussian-mixture model.

3.1. Metallicity Boundary for Common-Biased Samples

We first

First, we determined the metallicity boundary that divides the original samples into two groups, such that the distributions of planetplanetary mass and semi-major axis in the two-metal-rich and -poor regions are differ the most different, respectively, considering the selection effectafter taking account of the radial-velocity measurements selection effect, as explained in Section 2.1. Figure 3 shows the p-values derived by the two-sample Anderson-Darling test for the distributions of the semi-major axes and lower mass limits of the common-biased samples, changing the metallicity boundary from -0.7 to 0.4 dex. We iterated the calculation 1,000 times and averaged the calculated p-values for at each divided dividing point to derive the mean means and standard deviation deviations of the p-values. The minimum p-values of from the two-sample Anderson-Darling tests for the distributions of the semi-major axis axes and the planet mass were planetary masses are 2.4 x 10-3 and 3.5 x 10-5/4.2 x 10-5 at the metallicity of metallicities -0.04 and -0.29--0.06 dex, respectively. Thus, we have found that the planetary distributions in the metal-rich and -poor regions do not arise from the radial-velocity selection effect of the radial velocity measurements but rather from the planet formation and evolution. In mechanism. Therefore, in this study, we used applied -0.05 dex as the

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metallicity boundary for constructing the common-biased samples, considering that the two minimum p-values are around -20.05 dex.

Next, as shown in Figure 4, we compared the distributions of semi-major axes and lower limits of companion mass for the common-biased sub-samples in the metal-rich and -poor regions that were divided by we separated at the boundary metallicity of -_0.05 dex. The In the metal-poor region, samples with semi-major axes less than 0.3 AU are relatively lacking, and masses larger than

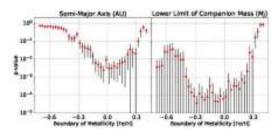


Figure 3. PThe p-values calculated *via* two-sample Anderson-Darling tests for the semi-major axis (left) and the lower limit of the companion mass (right) of for the original samples, as a function function of the assumed metallicity boundary. The red points and black vertical bars represent the mean p-values and their standard deviations, respectively. The number of the calculations for each metallicity boundary is 1,000.

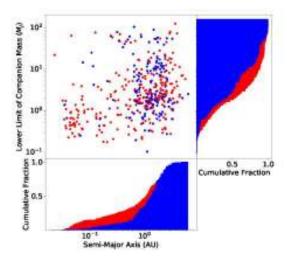


Figure 4. Distribution of semi-major axes and lower limits of companion mass for the common-biased samples (upper left) and the cumulative distributions of semi-major axis axes (bottom) and lower limit limits of companion mass (right). The red and blue points/bins represent the metal-rich and -poor samples, respectively. An This figure shows one example from among the 1,000 calculations was shown.

about 5 $\frac{M_i}{M_i}$ in the metal-poor region $\frac{M_i}{M_i}$ are relatively lack and excessabundant, compared to those in the metal-rich region, respectively. In Section 3.3, we discuss where the origin of this difference between the planetary distributions in the metal-rich and -poor regions comes from.

We classified the common-biased samples selected from the 623 original ones in a diagram ofshowing the companion mass vs. host-star metallicity and companion mass with the using a Gaussian -mixture model to explore how many distinct sub-samples exist mamong the extrasolar gas giants discovered to datadate, given that each sub-sample follows a normal distribution. Changing the number of the sub-samples, we We evaluated each model with using the Bayesian Information Criterion and while varying the number of sub-samples. In this way, we found that thea three-component model is suitable as the best Gaussian-mixture model for the common-biased samples. Figure 5 shows the this best-suited model for the non-biased samples. The common-biased samples are divided into three almost along groups by the two boundary masses of 4 and 20 Mi. The MI. This three-component model results from a relative paucity of the common-biased samples in two specific regions in the diagram of companion mass versus host-star metallicity versus companion mass; the two regions indicate gaseous objects with masses ranging: the mass range from 20 to 30 MjMJ around both the metal-rich and -poor stars and those with masses ranging the mass range from 0.1 to 4 M; M₁ around the metal-poor stars. As a result Consequently, the mean metallicity of the stars hosting the gaseous objects more with masses from between 4 to and 20 MiM is lower than that of the samples lighter than $4 \frac{M_1M_1}{M_2}$, and the mean metallicity of the samples more massive than $20 \frac{M_1M_1}{M_2}$ is much lower than those of the other two sub-samples. Thus, we also have confirmed that the lower boundary mass is consistent with the results shownobtained in the previous studies (Ribas & Miralda-Escude 2007; Santos et al. 2017; Schlaufman 2018).

3.3. Planetary distributions around G- and early-type _stars

We next

Next, we extracted the sub-samples from among the common-biased samples orbiting G-type stars with masses ranging from 0.8 to 1.3 MeMo and early-type stars more massive than 1.3 Me from the common-biased samples Mo, and then we investigated the distributions of host-star metallicities and companion masses around the two types of host-stars. Figure 6 shows the distributions of host-star metallicities for the three substellar-mass regimes of for the G-type and early-type stars. Note that we have constructed the common-biased sub-samples for G-type and early-type stars were constructed by accounting for the selection biases for the two different spectral-type types of stars, as shown in the middle and lower panels of Figure 1 (a).

Regarding the distribution of host-star metallicity around the G-type stars, the

The mean metallicities for of the G-type host-stars with gaseous samples lighter than 20 MjM_J are much higher than that of the those with samples more massive than 20 Mj, which almost M_J. This corresponds

closely to that the metallicity of the nearby G-type stars selected from the Geneva-Copenhagen catalog (Casagrande *et al.* 2011). There is also no boundary at 4 Mj in terms of the distribution of the host-star

metallicity.metallicities. While a stellar star-formation process such as gravitational core collapse and fragmentation of a molecular eloudscloud (Padoan & Nordlund 2004; Hennebelle & Chabrier 2008) forms the gaseous objects more massive than 20 Mj, the MJ, gaseous objects with masses ranging from 4 to 20 Mj. MJ—as well as from 0.1 to 4 Mj.MJ—are thought to be formed via core-accretion. Thus, the larger upper boundary of around 20 Mj elearly MJ apparently reflects the upper mass limit of the for core-accreted planets, which are almost is approximately consistent with those shown found in the previous theoretical studies (e.g., Tanigawa & Ikoma 2007; Mordasini et al. 2009; Tanigawa & Tanaka 2016). Note that the paucity of samples more massive than 20 MjMJ around the early-type stars also seems to support that the this upper boundary corresponds to as the maximum mass of the for a planetary objects object.

In contrast, regarding the distribution of host star metallicities and companion masses around the for early-type stars, the mean metallicity for the gaseous objects with masses ranging from 4 to 20 M₂M₂ is much lower than that of for the samples lighter than 4 M₂M₂. Therefore, the lower boundary mass of 4 M₃ in the three mass regimes indicates M₂ seems to indicate that the distribution of the host-star metallicity largely metallicities changes significantly at the 4 M₂ boundary of 4 M₃ around the early-type stars. The This lower boundary also reflects a difference between the planetary—formation processes around the G-type and early-type stars, considering that since there is no boundary at 4 M₃M₂ around the G-type stars. In fact, although the common-biased sub-samples with masses ranging from 4 to 20 M₃M₂ orbiting the G-type and early-type stars distribute are distributed in the outer region than of the planetary system beyond 0.3 AU (Figure 4), their eccentricity distributions are largely quite different, as shown in Figure 6.7. Note that, because we calibrated 41 and 2 two of the samples, respectively, among the 380 G-type and 189 early-type stars were calibrated in terms of the host-star metallicity, respectively, the impact of non-uniformity in the samples on the distribution of host-star metallicities from non-uniformities in the samples is small.

Based on the above considerations above, we redefined the samples lighter than $20 \, \underline{\text{M}_{2}\text{M}_{2}}$ as planetary-mass objects and labeled the two sub-samples with masses from 0.1 to $4 \, \underline{\text{M}_{2}\text{M}_{2}}$ and from 4 to $20 \, \underline{\text{M}_{2}\text{M}_{2}}$ as "intermediate-mass planets" and "massive planets," respectively. In addition, we re-labeled the samples more massive than $20 \, \underline{\text{M}_{2}\text{ are labeled}}$ as "brown-dwarfs." Note that the boundary between planetary-mass and brown-dwarf objects established by the deuterium-burning minimum mass of around $10 \, \underline{\text{M}_{2}\text{M}_{2}}$ is semantic (Chabrier *et al.* 2014); this boundary has no physical meaning from the evolutionary perspective object evolution.

4. DISCUSSION

Comment [Editor12]: Remark: Please verify our edit here.

In this section, we first, we discuss the formation process of the intermediate-mass and massive planets orbiting

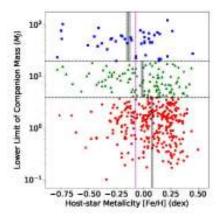


Figure 5. Distribution of host star metallicities and the lower limits of companion mass for as a function of host-star metallicity for the three common-biased sub-samples classified by the best Gaussian-mixture model. The different symbols of (square, triangle, and circle) represent the classified sub-samples. The three colors of the samples correspond to three-mass regimes with separated by the two boundary masses of 4 and 20 MiM₂, which are shown by the horizontal long-dashed lines. The vertical short dashed line and gray region in each mass regime represent the mean metallicity and its standard deviation over 1000 iterations, respectively. The This distribution of the lower limit of companion mass of the samples in terms of vs. host-star metallicity and lower limit of companion mass shows anone example from among the 1000 calculations. The magenta dashed line and region, respectively, shows the mean metallicity and its standard error for all the samples in the Geneva-Copenhagen catalog, where we converted the mean metallicity was converted with using the linear regression between the samples in the SWEET-Cat and that entalogs catalog.

G-type stars, comparing the mass distribution with that predicted by the core_accretion model. We next Then, we focus on the distributions of masses and eccentricities for the intermediate-mass and massive planets orbiting the early-type stars. We finally showprovide an entire viewoverview of the extrasolar gaseous objects discovered so far from a standard point in the context of the two planetary planet-formation scenarios.

4.1. Planetary Formation Processes around G-Type Stars

Comment [Editor13]: Remark: We have deleted the phrase "and region" because we do not see a magenta region in this figure. Please check and revise as applicable.

We compared the intermediate-mass and massive planets with the simulation data generated by Mordasini et al. (2012) that), who performed a population synthesis around a 1 Me \underline{M}_0 star within the framework of the core-accretion model, including planet growth and migration through caused by planet-disk interaction. The upper panelpanels of Figure 8 shows show the distributions of semi-major axes and masses for the common-biased intermediate-mass and massive planets and of the simulation samples in as functions of the semi-major axes for both the metal-rich and -poor regions. The distribution of semi

These distributions

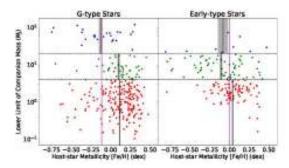


Figure 6. Distributions of companion masses as functions of the host-star metallicities and companion masses for the common-biased samples orbiting G-type stars with masses ranging from 0.8 to 1.3 McMo (left) and orbiting early-type stars with masses more massive greater than 1.3 McMo (right). The symbols are same as those in Figure 5. The We constructed the common-biased samples for G-type and early-type stars were constructed by compensating for the radial-velocity selection effects of the radial velocity measurements for the two spectral-type—types of stars, as shown in the middle and lower panels of Figure 1; (a).

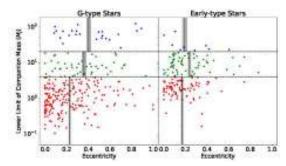


Figure 7. Distributions of <u>companion masses as functions of the</u> eccentricities and <u>masses</u> for the common-biased samples orbiting G-type (left) and early-type stars (right). The symbols and lines are same as those in Figure 5.

major axes and masses for the intermediate-mass and massive planets around G-type stars are almostapproximately consistent with that for from the simulation samples. simulations. In fact, as shown in the lower panel of Figure 8, the mean masses for the observation observations of planets around G-type stars and agree well with the simulation samples have a good agreement over the entire metallicity region range of metallicities. Note that we filtered the simulation samples were also filtered by both for the selection effects of for both metal-rich and -poor regions, and we restricted the observational samples were restricted to the to intermediate-mass and massive planets orbiting host stars with masses ranging from 0.8 to 1.3 Mode.

An increase

The increases in the eccentricities of the massive planets orbiting G-type stars, shown in Figure 7, can be also be explained by the following two models that were expanded from, which are extensions of the core-accretion model. One isextension involves planet-disk interaction at the Lindblad and co-rotation resonances prior to gas dissipation (e.g., Goldreich & Sari 2003). According to the numerical simulations performed by Kley & Dirksen (2006), the minimum planetplanetary mass for changing necessary to change the disk gas into a high_eccentricity state is 3 MjM_J for thea viscous coefficient of 10⁻⁵, which. This is almost approximately consistent with the boundary between the intermediate-mass and massive planets. Another in The second extension involves dynamical instabilities induced by two closely separated gas giants and or by three gas giants, so-called "gravitational planet-planet interaction interaction interaction interaction interaction in the control of the c tions" (e.g., Ida et al. 2013). The dynamical instability produces a gas giant with an eccentric orbit in the outer region of the planetary system and a circular hot Jupiter in the inner region through tidal circularization (e.g., Rasio & Ford 1996). In fact, awe confirm the paucity of the intermediate-mass planets that locate located within 0.1 AU around the metal-poor G-type stars was confirmed; the gravitational planet-planet interaction is thoughgthought to occur only around the metal-rich G-type stars. The previous Previous observations have also confirmed that hot Jupiters orbit-only theorbit metal-rich G-type stars (Dawson & Murray-Clay 2013; Adibekyan et al. 2013).

Thus, the distributions of masses and eccentricities for the intermediate-mass and massive planets orbiting G-type stars can be <u>explained</u> naturally <u>explained</u> by the core_accretion model. Their distributions support the <u>conclusion</u> that the upper mass limit <u>of the for</u> core-accreted planets is around 20 <u>MiM</u>.

4.2. Planetary Formation <u>ProcessProcesses</u> around Early-Type _Stars

Considering

Because the mean host-star metallicity for the intermediate-mass planets orbiting early-type stars is relatively higher than that for the massive planets, the intermediate-mass planets are thought to be formed by core accretion. In contrast, the massive planets around early-type stars seem to preferentially orbit the metal-poor stars, preferentially. Note that the mean value of the nearby early-type stars extracted from the Geneva-Copenhagen Catalog may be higher than the true value because of a systematic offset between the Geneva-Copenhagen and SWEET-Cat catalogs. In addition, the distribution distributions of semi-major axes and masses for the massive planets around early-type stars is are not consistent with that for the simulation samples; there is an excess of the massive planets orbiting metal-poor stars, and most of the planets locally distribute distributed in the transition region between 1 and 3 AU, in which thewhere there is a paucity of simulation samples are paucity. The excess of massive planets orbiting metal-poor early-type stars differs from that expected form the core-accretion

Comment [Editor14]: Remark: It is not clear how this conclusion can be drawn from Fig. 6. Unless this would be immediately obvious to anyone working in your field, please clarify.

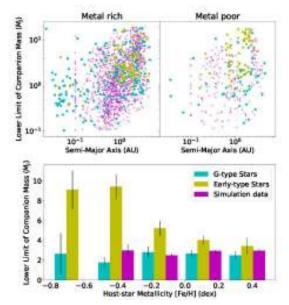


Figure 8. Top: Distributions of semi-major axes and the lower limit of companion masses as a function of semi-major axis for the common-biased samples with masses less than 20 M₂M₂ orbiting G-type stars with. The G-star masses ranging from 0.8 to 1.3 MCM_Q (cyan dots), and the early-type stars are more massive than 1.3 MCM_Q (yellow dots) and the). The simulation samples withgenerated by Mordasini et al. (2012) have companion masses ranging from 0.1 to 20 M₂M₂ (purple dots) generated by Mordasini et al. (2012) in the.). The metal-rich (upper left) and -poor regions (are shown in the upper left and upper right), panels of the figure, respectively. Bottom: Histograms of mean masses for from the simulation samples (purple bars) and from the common-biased samples with masses less than 20 M₂M₂ orbiting G-type stars (cyan bars) and early-type stars (yellow bars).

formation theory in terms of regarding the following two points: (1) While more_massive planets are likely expected to be formed around more metal-rich stars (Mordasini et al. 2012), the mean masses for the intermediate-mass and massive planets orbiting early-type stars clearly increases increase as the metallicity decreases (Figure 8). (2) In addition, although a continuous decrease in the mass function of or massive planets is theoretically predicted to exhibit a continuous decrease (Mordasini et al. 2009), the observation observational samples orbiting metal-poor early-type stars are clustered cluster around 4 and 10 MiM_L (Figure 8). The eccentricities of the massive planets orbiting that orbit early-type stars also differ from those around the G-type stars (Figure 7); the eccentricities of the massive planets around the early-type stars do not seem to be enhanced through the by planet-disk interaction interactions prior to gas dissipation

and or by gravitational planet-planet interaction. Intus, the distributions of masses and eccentricities for the massive planets orbiting early-type stars are unlikely to be explained by the bottom-up models.

An explanation for the excess<u>of</u> massive planets orbiting metal-poor stars is that the disk instability acts in the vicinity of metal-poor stars, because a lower mass limit applies <u>for to</u> planets formed via the disk_instability mechanism <u>{[i.e., corresponding roughly to an order of the Jeans mass (Matsuo et al. 2007; Mayer 2010)). As a result)]. Consequently, a sharp increase appears in the planetary mass function around 4 <u>Mi-Mj.</u> It is also <u>generally accepted that planet formation due to the disk instability tends to occur in the vicinity of metal-poor stars, because the cooling timescale in the disk mid-plane is reduced owing to <u>the low disk opacity (Cai et al. 2006; Durisen et al. 2007)</u>. The low eccentricities of the massive planets orbiting the early-type stars are also consistent with the numerical simulations (Mayer et al. 2004; Mayer 2010; Boss 2011) and <u>with the eccentricities of the four gas giants orbiting HR8799</u>, an A-type star, (Wertz et al. 2017). Note that the four gas giants are located in <u>a the region beyond the core_accretion model (see Figure 9.).</u></u></u>

4.3. Planetary Formation Scenarios

Based on the above considerations above, we have compared the distribution of companion masses as a function of the host-star metallicities and companion masses for the common-biased samples selected from the 623 original ones with the planet-formation regions expected from the core_accretion and disk_instability models for the G-type and early-type stars (Figure 9). The searce Sparsely populated regions appear in terms of companion mass, those at _occur between 0.1 to and 0.3 Mi3Mi and between 20 to and 30 Mi3Mi around G-type stars and those at between 0.1 to and 1 Mi3Mi and in larger than 20 Mi3Mi around early-type stars. The lack of the lighter planets orbiting G-type and early-type stars arises from the rapid gas accretion onto the core. In contrast, the lackgap in the distribution of the massive companions around G-type stars represents a corresponds to the gap between binary_star and planet formation. In addition, few-the paucity of brown dwarfs around the early-type stars may support the conclusion that the boundary mass of aroundabout 20 Mi3Mi corresponds to the maximum mass of a planetary objects object. Thus, the upper and lower and upper boundaries of the two regions appear to reflect the upper and lower and upper mass limits offer extrasolar gaseous objects that are formed by the planetary two planet-formation processes, respectively. In fact, thethis upper mass limit is almostapproximately consistent with the theoretical expectations (Tanigawa & Ikoma 2007; Mordasini et al. 2009; Tanigawa & Tanaka 2016).

Comment [Editor15]: Remark: Could this not also result from selection effects? The lower masses are harder to detect. While the intermediate-mass and massive planets orbiting G-type stars can be explained by the core_accretion model, the exeessabundance of massive planets around early-type stars is likely to be explained not by thea@ bottom-up scenario but instead by thea@ top-down one-mechanism such as gravitational instability. The previous Previous Previous observational studies one-dualof the two

planetary-planet-formation scenarios (Ribas & Miralda-Escude 2007; Santos *et al.* 2017; Schlaufman 2018) showed have shown that there exists a boundary mass of 4 to 10 MjM_J exists in the diagram of host-star metallicities and masses for gaseous objects and mentioned have pointed out that the this boundary reflects the transition between the two planetary formations; planet-formation processes; *i.e.*, the upper limit of the for core-accreted planets is around 4 Mj-MJ. However, we have found that the boundary of at 4 MJ reflects instead seems to reflect a population that is likely to behave been formed *via* the disk instability and expected, while we expect that planets with masses up to 20—30 MJ can be formed continuously formed by core-accretion around G-type stars stars.

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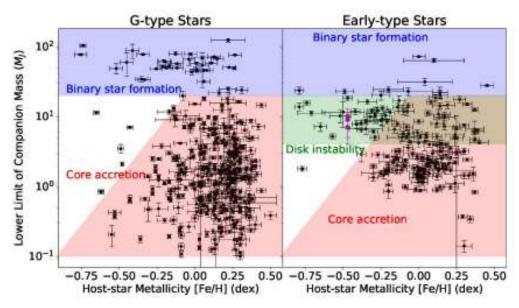


Figure 9. Distributions of companion masses as functions of the host-star metallicities and companion masses for the common biases-biased samples orbiting G-type stars (left) and early-type stars (right). The common-biased samples (black dots) and the four planets orbiting HR 8799 (purple dots) were are compared with expectations from the core—accretion and disk—instability theories in terms of host star—metallicities and planetary mass distributions. The red, green, and blue regions, respectively, indicate where the objects can be formed by core accretion—or by disk instability and where binary—star formation—respectively, occurs. The black error bars represent the 1 ag measurement errors. The We have assumed the dependence of the maximum mass of the core-accreted planets on the disk metallicity for core-accreted planets to be same around early-type stars was assumed to be same as that around G-type stars, which was derived dependence we obtained from the population synthesis performed by Mordasini et al. (2012).

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