# Constraints on the Occurrence and Distribution of $\mathbf{1 - 2 0} M_{\text {Jup }}$ Companions to Stars at Separations of 5-5000 au from a Compilation of Direct Imaging Surveys 

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#### Abstract

We present the first statistical analysis of exoplanet direct imaging surveys combining adaptive optics (AO) imaging at small separations with deep seeing-limited observations at large separations allowing us to study the entire orbital separation domain from 5 to 5000 au simultaneously. Our sample of 344 stars includes only confirmed members of nearby young associations and is based on all AO direct-imaging detection limits readily available online, with addition of our own previous seeing-limited surveys. Assuming that the companion distribution in mass and a semimajor axis follows a power-law distribution and adding a dependence on the mass of the host star, such as $d^{2} n \propto f M^{\alpha} a^{\beta}\left(M_{\star} / M_{\odot}\right)^{\gamma} d M d a$, we constrain the parameters to obtain $\alpha=-0.18_{-0.65}^{+0.77}$, $\beta=-1.43_{-0.24}^{+0.23}$, and $\gamma=0.62_{-0.50}^{+0.56}$ at a $68 \%$ confidence level, and we obtain $f=0.11_{-0.05}^{+0.11}$ for the overall planet occurrence rate for companions with masses between 1 and $20 M_{\mathrm{Jup}}$ in the range of 5-5000 au. Thus, we find that occurrence of companions is negatively correlated with a semimajor axis and companion mass (marginally) but is positively correlated with the stellar host mass. Our inferred mass distribution is in good agreement with other distributions found previously from direct imaging surveys for planets and brown dwarfs, but is shallower as a function of mass than the distributions inferred by radial velocity surveys of gas giants in the 1-3 au range. This may suggest that planets at these wide and very wide separations represent the low-mass tail of the brown dwarfs and stellar companion distribution rather than an extension of the distribution of the inner planets.


Unified Astronomy Thesaurus concepts: Exoplanets (498); Direct imaging (387); Brown dwarfs (185)
Supporting material: machine-readable table

## 1. Introduction

Over the last 15 years, many teams-using several telescopes on the ground and in space-surveyed young nearby stars to uncover new planets with direct imaging (Lafrenière et al. 2007; Marois et al. 2008; Delorme et al. 2013b; Macintosh et al. 2015; Naud et al. 2017). All in all, about 1000 unique stars were observed in the search of planets using first-generation adaptive optics (AO) systems, seeing-limited imaging, or space-based telescopes. The orbital separations probed by these surveys range from several astronomical units to hundreds and even thousands of astronomical units, while the detectable planet masses are restricted to that of Jupiter or higher. Some of these surveys targeted only higher mass stars (Vigan et al. 2012; Nielsen et al. 2013; Rameau et al. 2013b), others aimed only at low-mass stars (Bowler et al. 2015; Galicher et al. 2016; Lannier et al. 2016; Naud et al. 2017), and some surveyed stars of all spectral types (Lafrenière et al. 2007; Heinze et al. 2010a; Biller et al. 2013; Chauvin et al. 2015; Meshkat et al. 2017; Uyama et al. 2017; Baron et al. 2018; Stone et al. 2018). Although only a few planets have been found through these efforts, the resulting large data set can be used to investigate the occurrence rate and distribution of planets as well as their dependence on the star properties. Such studies are necessary to gain knowledge about the formation and evolution of planets at the large orbital separations probed by direct imaging. This is particularly important since the standard planet formation models-core accretion or disk instabilitystruggle to form planets beyond 100 au.

One of the first attempts to constrain the orbital separation distribution and the mass distribution of Jupiter-like planets was
made by Tabachnik \& Tremaine (2002). Using data on 72 planets found by radial velocity (RV) and a distribution such as $d n=C(M)^{-\alpha}(P)^{-\beta} d \ln M d \ln P$, where $M$ is the planet mass and $P$ the orbital period, they inferred that $\alpha=0.11 \pm 0.10$ and $\beta=-0.27 \pm 0.06$ for $M \lesssim 10 M_{\mathrm{Jup}}$ and 2 days $<P<10 \mathrm{yr}$. This idea was then pushed further by Cumming et al. (2008) who also used a power law to fit the distribution of planets with masses over $0.3 M_{\text {Jup }}$ and periods less than 2000 days detected using RV measurements of FGK stars. With a mass-period distribution of $d^{2} n=C(M)^{\alpha}(P)^{\beta} d \ln M d \ln P$, they obtained a constraint on the parameters of $\alpha=-0.31 \pm 0.20$ and $\beta=$ $0.26 \pm 0.10$. Also based on RV measurements of 166 stars, Howard et al. (2010) found that planet occurrence increases with decreasing planet mass, such as $d n=0.39 M^{-0.48} d \ln M$. Dong \& Zhu (2013) studied Kepler planets with $P<250$ days and found that the distribution of planets in terms of periods, $d n / d \ln P$, is proportional to $P^{0.7 \pm 0.1}$ for a Neptune-sized planet and agrees with a flat distribution for super-Earth or Earth-sized planets. Fernandes et al. (2019), based on transit and RV data, described the distribution of giant planets as a broken power law in a semimajor axis, showing initially an increase of planet occurrence with a semimajor axis, a turnover at about 3 au , followed by a decrease. They also found a power-law distribution in planet mass, showing an increase in occurrence for lower masses. All of those studies mostly focus on close-in planets of various masses, and there are very few constraints on semimajor axes greater than 10 au and even fewer over 100 au. However, the distribution of planets as presented in Cumming et al. (2008) was widely used, and still is, when planning surveys with direct imaging, as a way to predict the planet yield of the survey.

Table 1
Young Moving Groups

| Name | Short Name | Distance | $\begin{gathered} \text { Age } \\ (\mathrm{Myr}) \end{gathered}$ | References |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\beta$ Pictoris | BPIC | 9-73 | $24 \pm 3$ | Shkolnik et al. (2017) |
| AB Doradus | ABD | 37-77 | $149_{-19}^{+51}$ | Bell et al. (2016) |
| Argus | ARG | 29-118 | 40-50 | Torres et al. (2008), Zuckerman (2019) |
| Carina | CAR | 46-88 | $45_{-7}^{+11}$ | Bell et al. (2016) |
| Columba | COL | 35-81 | $42_{-4}^{+6}$ | Bell et al. (2016) |
| Tucana-Horologium | THA | 36-71 | $45 \pm 3$ | Bell et al. (2016) |
| TW Hya | TW | 8-92 | $10 \pm 3$ | Bell et al. (2016) |
| Hercules-Lyra | HLY | ~30 | $260 \pm 50$ | Eisenbeiss et al. (2013) |
| Lower Centaurus Crux | LCC | $\sim 140$ | $16 \pm 2$ | Pecaut \& Mamajek (2016) |
| $\epsilon$ Chamaeleontis | EPSC | $\sim 100$ | $3.7 \pm 4.6$ | Murphy \& Lawson (2015) |
| Upper Scorpius | US | $\sim 130$ | $10 \pm 2$ | Pecaut \& Mamajek (2016) |
| Octans | OCT | $\sim 130$ | $35 \pm 5$ | Murphy et al. (2013) |
| Carina-Near | CN | $\sim 30$ | $\sim 200$ | Zuckerman et al. (2006) |

Constraining the planet distribution of massive planets on wide orbits is needed to get more accurate planet yields.

A few constraints on the planet distribution do exist for separations beyond 10 au from direct imaging data. For instance, Heinze et al. (2010a) used their AO planet imaging survey to rule out with $90 \%$ confidence a distribution as in Cumming et al. (2008) at separations up to 110 au . Brandt et al. (2014) used a combined sample of direct imaging data to model the population of companion with masses $5-70 M_{\text {Jup }}$ and semimajor axes of $10-100$ au with a power law. They found that $d n \propto M^{-0.65 \pm 0.60} a^{-0.85 \pm 0.39}$, which does not agree with the distribution of planets from Cumming et al. (2008) and hints that the low-mass companions in their sample represent the low-mass tail of the brown dwarf distribution. Reggiani et al. (2016) showed that the results from direct imaging surveys searching for substellar companions around Sun-like stars are consistent with an extrapolation of the Cumming et al. (2008) distribution to larger separations combined with the log-normal brown dwarf mass distribution from Raghavan et al. (2010). Lastly, Meyer et al. (2018) studied planets with masses between 1 and $10 M_{\text {Jup }}$ and separations between 0.07 and 400 au and found that the semimajor axis distribution is best described by a log-normal distribution peaking at about 3 au . For larger separations, there are virtually no constraints to date.

In this work, we merged different direct imaging surveys to constrain the occurrence rate and distribution of companions with masses between 1 and $20 M_{\text {Jup }}$ at orbital separations of $5-5000$ au. Section 2 describes the sample of stars and observations taken from the Direct Imaging Virtual Archive (DIVA) and some other previous surveys made by our team. In Section 3, we first establish a planet detection completeness map for each target in our sample, and then use those to determine the occurrence rate of companions and, through a Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) approach, constrain the parameters governing their distributions. We discuss our results and their implications in Section 4 and conclude in Section 5.

## 2. Sample

We assembled a sample of stars that were observed by AO direct-imaging planet searches, as well as by the seeing-limited PSYM-WIDE (Naud et al. 2017) and WEIRD (Baron et al. 2018) surveys. We focused on the stars that are confirmed members of young moving groups with ages of less than

300 Myr , meaning that they have a RV measurement, a trigonometric parallax, and $X Y Z U V W$ values consistent with the moving group spatial's position and space velocity, as well as independent signatures of youth, such as spectroscopic signs of low-gravity, strong X-ray or UV emission, or lithium absorption. Table 1 presents the young moving groups to which our stars belong, namely TW Hya (de la Reza et al. 1989; Kastner et al. 1997), $\beta$ Pictoris (Zuckerman et al. 2001a), AB Doradus (Zuckerman et al. 2004), Tucana-Horologium (Torres et al. 2000; Zuckerman et al. 2001b), Carina (Torres et al. 2008), Columba (Torres et al. 2008), Argus (Makarov \& Urban 2000), Carina-Near (Zuckerman et al. 2006), Upper Scorpius (USCO; Pecaut \& Mamajek 2016), Lower Centaurus Crux (LCC; Pecaut \& Mamajek 2016), $\epsilon$ Chamaeleontis (Murphy et al. 2013), Hercules-Lyra (Eisenbeiss et al. 2013), or Octans (Murphy et al. 2013). We have included the star that is a member of HerculesLyra, even if Mamajek (2016) indicated that Hercules-Lyra might be a stream and not a real association.

The WEIRD survey (Baron et al. 2018) surveyed 177 stars of all spectral types using deep seeing-limited imaging to search for giants planets on very wide orbits. A typical completeness of $2 M_{\mathrm{Jup}}$ is reached, while some stars of the younger/nearer groups have a $1 M_{\text {Jup }}$ detection limit, at separations between 1000 and 5000 au . We added all the objects from the WEIRD survey in our sample, as they are all bona fide members of young associations.

The PSYM-WIDE survey (Naud et al. 2017) observed 95 M dwarfs using seeing-limited imaging, out of which only 10 were bona fide members of nearby young moving groups, the others being nonconfirmed candidate members at the time of publication. However, using the Gaia DR2 release (Gaia Collaboration et al. 2018; Lindegren et al. 2018) and the web tool BANYAN $\Sigma$ from Gagné et al. (2018), we confirmed the membership of 34 stars out of those 85 candidates; see Table 2. The total number of bona fide members from PSYM-WIDE used in our study is thus 44 . The survey reached good completeness for a mass of $10 M_{\text {Jup }}$ or more at semimajor axes larger than 1000 au.
To complement the above seeing-limited observations, sensitive to the widest orbital separations, we used the DIVA archive (Vigan et al. 2017) to extract data for 119 stars that are bona fide members of young associations of less than 300 Myr and that were observed at closer separations by Masciadri et al. (2005),

Table 2
Confirmed Members from PSYM-WIDE

| 2MASS Name | $\begin{aligned} & \text { R.A. } \\ & \text { (J2000.0) } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Decl. } \\ \text { (J2000.0) } \end{gathered}$ | Probability \% | Association |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| J00325584-4405058 | 8.2326770 | -44.084965 | 99.3 | ABD |
| J00374306-5846229 | 9.4294440 | -58.773033 | 99.7 | THA |
| J01123504+1703557 | 18.146006 | 17.065475 | 99.1 | ABD |
| J01521830-5950168 | 28.076262 | -59.838001 | >99.9 | THA |
| J02045317-5346162 | 31.221569 | -53.771183 | >99.9 | THA |
| J02070176-4406380 | 31.758289 | -44.112339 | >99.9 | THA |
| J02215494-5412054 | 35.478949 | -54.201511 | >99.9 | THA |
| J02224418-6022476 | 35.684107 | -60.379906 | 80.0 | CAR |
| J02340093-6442068 | 38.503875 | -64.701912 | >99.9 | THA |
| J02485260-3404246 | 42.219191 | -34.073517 | 99.8 | COL |
| J02564708-6343027 | 44.196205 | -63.717438 | 90.4 | CAR |
| J03350208 + 2342356 | 53.758697 | 23.709892 | 99.0 | BPIC |
| J04091413-4008019 | 62.308892 | -40.133862 | >99.9 | COL |
| J04213904-7233562 | 65.412690 | -72.565613 | >99.9 | THA |
| J04363294-7851021 | 69.137280 | -78.850594 | 96.0 | ABD |
| J04402325-0530082 | 70.096891 | -5.5022970 | 96.4 | CN |
| J04440099-6624036 | 71.004021 | -66.402084 | 97.1 | THA |
| J04571728-0621564 | 74.322039 | -6.3656870 | 99.8 | ABD |
| J05241317-2104427 | 81.054884 | -21.078550 | >99.9 | COL |
| J05335981-0221325 | 83.499224 | -2.3590290 | >99.9 | BPIC |
| J05395494-1307598 | 84.978924 | -13.133292 | 95.4 | COL |
| J06112997-7213388 | 92.874897 | -72.227448 | 94.8 | CAR |
| J08173943-8243298 | 124.41432 | -82.724945 | 99.7 | BPIC |
| J12383713-2703348 | 189.65473 | -27.059681 | 99.7 | ABD |
| J18420694-5554254 | 280.52895 | -55.907082 | 99.8 | BPIC |
| J19560294-3207186 | 299.01626 | -32.127125 | 93.5 | BPIC |
| J20004841-7523070 | 300.20174 | -75.385284 | 99.8 | BPIC |
| J21100535-1919573 | 317.52232 | -19.332603 | 99.8 | BPIC |
| J22021626-4210329 | 330.56775 | -42.175831 | 99.4 | THA |
| J23131671-4933154 | 348.31962 | -49.554298 | >99.9 | THA |
| J23285763-6802338 | 352.24016 | -68.042747 | 98.6 | THA |
| J23320018-3917368 | 353.00077 | -39.293564 | $>99.9$ | ABD |
| J23452225-7126505 | 356.34272 | -71.447380 | >99.9 | THA |
| J23474694-6517249 | 356.94561 | -65.290260 | >99.9 | THA |

Biller et al. (2007), Lafrenière et al. (2007), Kasper et al. (2007), Chauvin et al. (2010), Heinze et al. (2010a), Vigan et al. (2012), Rameau et al. (2013b), Chauvin et al. (2015), Meshkat et al. (2015a), or Meshkat et al. (2015b). Out of the 119 stars, 73 have also been observed by the WEIRD or the PSYM-WIDE surveys at larger separations. Overall, the completeness maps of these targets reach good completeness at $3 M_{\text {Jup }}$ over a range of semimajor axes of 50-5000 au.
We also used data from the AO survey of Upper Scorpius stars of Lafrenière et al. (2014). They list 91 stellar members of Upper Scorpius, and 84 of them have a parallax in Gaia DR2. One of them, HIP 78265, was rejected from our sample because its new Gaia parallax puts it at a distance of 590 pc , which is too far from the other members of Upper Scorpius. All other stars with parallaxes from that study were kept. This survey probes an intermediate range of semimajor axes compared to the above AO imaging survey, with a good completeness between 200 and 800 au for companions with masses as low as $10 M_{\text {Jup }}$, as the members of this association are further away than most of the other targets in the sample.

Table 3 lists the 344 unique stars in our sample, along with their R.A., decl., spectral type, proper motion in R.A. and decl., association, and distance. Figure 1 presents the summary of our sample. The median target has a distance of 50 pc , a proper
motion of 80 mas $\mathrm{yr}^{-1}$, and an age of 24 Myr . The spectral types of the targets range from B to L dwarfs, and most of the targets are M dwarfs.

Seven stars in our sample are known hosts of companions ( $M<20 M_{\mathrm{Jup}}$ ) on wide orbits : 51 Eri, HR 8799, $\beta$ Pictoris, AB Pic, Gu Psc, TWA 27, and 1RXS J160929.1-210524. Each system is described briefly below.

1. 51 Erib is a $2-10 M_{\text {Jup }}$ planet orbiting the FOIV star 51 Eri at a projected separation of $\sim 14 \mathrm{au}$; it was found with the Gemini Planet Imager (GPI) at Gemini (Macintosh et al. 2015). While the star is part of our sample, the companion was not detected in the data we compiled.
2. HR 8799 hosts four planets of $7_{-2}^{+4}, 10 \pm 3,10 \pm 3$ and $9 \pm 4 M_{\text {Jup }}$ (Marois et al. 2008, 2010) at semimajor axes of, respectively, $70_{-0.18}^{+0.19}, 43.1_{-1.4}^{+1.3}, 26.2_{-0.7}^{+0.9}$, and $16.2 \pm$ 0.5 au , assuming stable coplanar orbits (Wang et al. 2018). Rameau et al. (2013b), whose data are part of our study, were able to recover planets (b), (c), and (d), but not planet e due to the small parallactic angle rotation of the observation. We assume in this work that HR 8799 is an A5V star member of the Columba association, although its membership has been questioned. However, signs of youth are present in the planets' spectra and

Table 3
Properties of the Sample of Bona Fide Members

| Name | R.A. <br> $(\mathrm{J} 2000.0)$ | Decl. <br> $(\mathrm{J} 2000.0)$ | SpT | $\mu_{\alpha} \cos \delta$ <br> $\left(\mathrm{mas} \mathrm{yr}^{-1}\right)$ | $\mu_{\delta}$ <br> $\left(\mathrm{mas} \mathrm{yr}^{-1}\right)$ | Association | Distance <br> $(\mathrm{pc})$ | Masses <br> $\left(M_{\odot}\right)$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| HIP 490 | 000552.54 | -414511.0 | G0V | $97.53 \pm 0.38$ | $-76.27 \pm 0.44$ | THA | $39.385 \pm 0.915$ | 1.53 |
| HD 203 | 000650.08 | -230627.1 | F2IV | $96.77 \pm 0.13$ | $-47.12 \pm 0.06$ | BPIC | $39.960 \pm 0.099$ | 1.33 |
| HIP 1113 | 001353.01 | -744117.8 | G8V | $83.53 \pm 0.78$ | $-47.89 \pm 0.75$ | THA | $44.404 \pm 1.616$ | 1.18 |
| HD 984 | 001410.25 | -071156.8 | F5V | $104.53 \pm 0.15$ | $-67.91 \pm 0.06$ | COL | $45.911 \pm 0.118$ | 1.00 |
| 2MASS J00172353- | 001723.53 | -664512.4 | M2.5 | $102.90 \pm 1.00$ | $-15.00 \pm 1.00$ | ABD | $51.241 \pm 0.120$ | 1.56 |
| $\quad$ 6645124 |  |  |  |  |  | 10 |  |  |

References. (1) Biller et al. (2007), (2) Chauvin et al. (2010), (3) Chauvin et al. (2015), (4) Heinze et al. (2010a), (5) Kasper et al. (2007), (6) Lafrenière et al. (2007), (7) Masciadri et al. (2005), (8) Meshkat et al. (2015a), (9) Meshkat et al. (2015b), (10) Rameau et al. (2013b), (11) Vigan et al. (2012), (12) Naud et al. (2017), (13) Lafrenière et al. (2014), (14) Baron et al. (2018).
(This table is available in its entirety in machine-readable form.)

Zuckerman et al. (2011) have shown that HR 8799 is younger than the Pleiades.
3. $\beta$ Pictoris, an A6V star member of the $\beta$ Pictoris moving group, hosts a $11 \pm 2 M_{\text {Jup }}$ planet (Lagrange et al. 2009; Snellen \& Brown 2018) with a semimajor axis of $9.2_{-0.4}^{+1.5}$ au (Millar-Blanchaer et al. 2015). Rameau et al. (2013b) were also able to recover this companion.
4. AB Pic b is a $13.5 \pm 0.5 M_{\text {Jup }}$ object at a projected separation of 250 au from AB Pic, a K2V star member of the Tucana-Horologium association (Chauvin et al. 2005). It was recovered by Rameau et al. (2013a) and also tentatively recovered by Biller et al. (2007).
5. GU Psc, an M3V star member of the AB Doradus association, is host to a $11 \pm 2 M_{\text {Jup }}$ companion (Naud et al. 2014) at an angular separation of $42^{\prime \prime}$. We used the new parallax from Gaia DR2 to revise the projected separation estimate to $1998 \pm 6$ au. The discovery observations were part of the PSYM-WIDE survey.
6. TWA 27 hosts a $4 \pm 1 M_{\text {Jup }}$ companion (Chauvin et al. 2004) at a projected separation of $46_{-15}^{+37}$ au (Blunt et al. 2017). The host is a young brown dwarf, member of the TW Hydrae association at 52 pc . The planet was discovered using the Very Large Telescope (VLT) with the NACO instrument but it was not detected in the images used in our survey.
7. As part of the Upper Scorpius survey used in the present study, Lafrenière et al. $(2008,2010)$ found a directly imaged planet around 1RXS J160929.1-210524, an M0 star member of the Upper Scorpius association. 1RXS J160929.1-210524b has a mass between 7 and $12 M_{\text {Jup }}$ (Lachapelle et al. 2015) and a projected separation of $320 \pm 40 \mathrm{au}$.

The sample of our study thus includes five detected planethosting stars and seven detected planets. Four of those orbit BA stars, two orbit FGK stars, and one is around an M dwarf. The small number of planets around $M$ dwarfs in our sample may seem surprising, given the large number of $M$ dwarfs in our sample and the relatively large number of companions found by direct imaging around M dwarfs (e.g., Rebolo et al. 1998; Itoh et al. 2005; Luhman et al. 2006, 2009; Reid \& Walkowicz 2006; Goldman et al. 2010; Todorov et al. 2010; Ireland et al. 2011; Bowler et al. 2013; Delorme et al. 2013a; Kraus et al. 2014; Naud et al. 2014; Artigau et al. 2015; Gauza et al. 2015; Deacon et al. 2016; Dupuy et al. 2018), but we point out that out of all those detections only two were found around

M bona fide members of young associations (Chauvin et al. 2004; Naud et al. 2017).

## 3. Analysis

We used the $7 \sigma$ detection limits as a function of angular separation provided by the DIVA archive, by Baron et al. (2018), by Naud et al. (2017), and by Lafrenière et al. (2014) to build the completeness maps for each target. We first defined a $100 \times 100$ grid of masses and semimajor axes, with the masses equally spaced in logarithmic scale between 1 and $20 M_{\text {Jup }}$ and the semimajor axes equally spaced in logarithmic scale between 5 and 5000 au . At each point of the grid, $10^{4}$ planets were simulated, each having an eccentricity taken randomly from the beta function eccentricity distribution reported in Kipping (2013), which is taken from the eccentricity distribution of RV planets as well as a random inclination and orbital phase, which then yield a projected separation for each planet. Following the method described in Baron et al. (2018) and using the AMES.Cond evolution models (Allard et al. 2001; Baraffe et al. 2003) to convert the planets masses to flux, we compared the planet's magnitudes to the detection limits found earlier to assess the detectability of each planet. If the detection limits were provided in planet-to-star contrast, they were converted into the detection limit in the planet absolute magnitude using the star's magnitudes. We then obtained completeness maps for all of the stars in the sample. If a given star was observed by two or more surveys, the most sensitive detection probability was adopted at each point of the massseparation grid, and we assumed that the exoplanet did not move on its orbit between the different observations. As some of the calculations that follow will need it, a similar completeness map was calculated for each star but this time directly over a grid of projected separations instead of semimajor axes. For this latter approach, there was no need to draw orbital parameters randomly as the fiducial planets were directly generated at projected separations that can be compared directly with the detection limits.
At 5000 au , about half of the stars in the sample have a $>60 \%$ probability of detecting a companion of mass anywhere in the range of $1-20 M_{\text {Jup }}$, while about $20 \%$ of the stars have this same probability at 20 au , and $10 \%$ at 5 au . We choose a lower mass limit of $1 M_{\text {Jup }}$ as observations from the WEIRD sample reach sufficient completeness ( $>50 \%$ ) at this mass for the large semimajor axis ( $>1000 \mathrm{au}$ ). The upper mass limit of $20 M_{\text {Jup }}$ was chosen to exclude the brown dwarf companion population, as RV data suggest a natural dividing line between


Figure 1. Histograms of the number of stars in each association, distances (pc), proper motions (mas/yr), and spectral types of the targets in the sample.
planets and brown dwarfs somewhere in the $25-45 M_{\text {Jup }}$ range (Sahlmann et al. 2011).

Figure 2 shows the average completeness maps for (a) the 220 objects with WEIRD or PSYM-Wide images (seeinglimited), (b) the 119 targets with only the AO observations from the DIVA archives, (c) the 83 Upper Scorpius targets with only AO observations, and (d) the 73 targets that were observed by AO and either WEIRD or PSYM-WIDE. The known companions discussed above are overplotted. Note that the semimajor axis is used when known; otherwise, the projected separation is used as a semimajor axis. The maps show that the AO images are sensitive to companions with masses of about $7 M_{\text {Jup }}$ or higher at a completeness of $70 \%$ with a semimajor axis between 50 and 300 au , or a completeness of $50 \%$ for semimajor axes larger than 20 au . The seeing-limited observations, on the other hand, are mostly sensitive to semimajor axes above 500 au for masses above $3 M_{\text {Jup }}$ with a completeness of $70 \%$. As panel (d) demonstrates, combining AO imaging with wide-field imaging enables a good semimajor axis coverage as well as a decent companion mass coverage. Panel (e) shows the average completeness maps for the entire survey. Overall, the survey is mostly sensitive to objects more massive than $3 M_{\text {Jup }}$ at semimajor axes between 500 and 1500 au.

### 3.1. Frequency of Companions

Using the individual completeness maps for all targets in the sample and the statistical formalism presented in Lafrenière et al. (2007), a frequency $f$ of stars that have at least one companion with a mass between 1 and $20 M_{\mathrm{Jup}}$ and a semimajor axis between 20 and 5000 au was evaluated. For this first
analysis, we chose to focus on the $20-5000$ au range of the semimajor axis, as this is where we reach the most interesting completeness to constrain the occurence rate. Even though we have some sensitivity at smaller separations, extending this analysis to cover smaller separations would lead to larger uncertainties because the completeness is significantly smaller below 20 au . Assuming that $N$ is the total number of stars in the sample and $k$ is the $i$ th star of said sample, then the results of the survey can be summarized by the set $\left\{d_{k}\right\}$, where the value of $d_{k}$ is 1 if one (or more) companion is detected around star $k$, and $d_{k}$ is 0 otherwise. If $p_{k}$ is the probability that such a star hosts a companion that would be detected given the detection limits of the observations if indeed it was there, then the likelihood of the data for a given value of $f$ is given by the binomial likelihood

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{L}\left(\left\{d_{k}\right\} \mid f\right)=\prod_{k=0}^{N}\left(1-f p_{k}\right)^{1-d_{k}}\left(f p_{k}\right)^{d_{k}} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $p(f)$ is the prior probability of $f$, then according to Baye's theorem, the posterior distribution for $f$, in light of the data, is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
p\left(f \mid\left\{d_{k}\right\}\right)=\frac{\mathcal{L}\left(\left\{d_{k}\right\} \mid f\right) p(f)}{\int_{0}^{1} \mathcal{L}\left(\left\{d_{k}\right\} \mid f\right) p(f) d f} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

The prior $p(f)$ represents the best knowledge about the posterior distribution of $f$ based only on information that is independent from the current analyses, to apply Bayesian statistics in a way that only depends on the available data and the given likelihood, it is appropriate to use a noninformative


Figure 2. Average detection completeness maps of the masses vs. the semimajor axis. Filled circles show the known companions detected in the observations used in the present study, while open circles show known companions of stars in our sample that were detected by other surveys. The maps show the average probability of detecting a companion with a mass between 1 and $20 M_{\text {Jup }}$ as a function of the separation from the host star. Panel (a) is the average completeness map for the seeinglimited observations (WEIRD and PSYM-WIDE) only, sensitive to larger separations; (b) is for AO observations of nearby young associations, sensitive to shorter orbits; (c) is for AO observations of stars of the more distant Upper Scorpius association, sensitive to intermediate separations; (d) is for the subset of stars in nearby associations that were observed with both seeing-limited observations and AO ; (e) is the average completeness map for the overall survey; and (f) is the same as (e) using cold-start models.
prior (Berger et al. 2009). Here, we used a noninformative Jeffrey's prior, which is appropriate for the binomial likelihood, and is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
p(f)=\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{\sqrt{f}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-f}} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The maximum of the posterior distribution is obtained for the most likely value for $f$. An equal-tail credible interval ( $\alpha=0.95$ ) can be determined from

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{1-\alpha}{2}=\int_{0}^{f_{\min }} p\left(f \mid d_{k}\right) d f  \tag{4}\\
& \frac{1+\alpha}{2}=\int_{f_{\max }}^{1} p\left(f \mid d_{k}\right) d f \tag{5}
\end{align*}
$$

We applied the above procedure to constrain $f$ over various semimajor axis intervals and for planet masses from 1 to 20 $M_{\text {Jup }}$. To compute $p_{k}$ we simply averaged the above completeness maps over the appropriate region of semimajor axis and
planet mass of our grid; this amounts to assuming the planets are distributed uniformly in logarithm scale in both mass and semimajor axis.

Figure 3 shows the posterior distributions obtained for the full semimajor axis range probed by our study, as well as for two subranges, 20-1000 au and 1000-5000 au. From these posterior distributions, we can infer a frequency of companions with masses between 1 and $20 M_{\text {Jup }}$ for the corresponding ranges of semimajor axes. First, for the 20-1000 au range, which contains the detection of companions around four stars of the sample (AB Pic, HR 8799, HIP 78530 B, and 1RXS J160929.1-210524), we obtained a frequency of $2.17_{-0.73}^{+6.85} \%$ at a $95 \%$ confidence level. For the $1000-5000$ au range, which contains only one companion (GU Psc b), we inferred a frequency of $0.3_{-0.1}^{+2.6} \%$ at a $95 \%$ confidence level. This is much lower than at shorter separations, and is easily understood as this range contains much fewer detections despite having better sensitivities on average. For the overall range of semimajor


Figure 3. Posterior distributions of the occurrence rate of companions of masses between 1 and $20 M_{\text {Jup }}$. The dotted line shows the frequency in the semimajor axis range of $20-5000 \mathrm{au}$, the dashed-dotted line is for the range of $1000-5000 \mathrm{au}$, and the dashed is for the range of $20-1000 \mathrm{au}$. The solid line shows the Jeffrey's prior used.
axes probed here ( $20-5000 \mathrm{au}$ ) we obtained a frequency of $2.61_{-1.00}^{+6.97} \%$ at a $95 \%$ confidence level.

Figure 4 shows the frequency that we found and those obtained by the individual surveys included in our study over a similar companion mass range and for various ranges of semimajor axes. Here, the horizontal bars represent the ranges of semimajor axes while the vertical error bars correspond to the uncertainty interval on the frequencies (at a $95 \%$ confidence level). The surveys included in our sample cover a wide range of spectral types, but some of the other surveys focused on M dwarfs and others on A stars. The surveys in our study that focused on wide orbits (20-1000 au) found overall marginally higher frequencies than those that focused on very wide orbits (1000-5000 au). This is consistent with the frequencies we calculated in both intervals. Table 4 presents, for context, a compilation of several literature results for the occurrence of giant planets based on direct imaging surveys. We can also compare our results directly to others surveys to show that we get similar results. First we compare to the meta-analysis from Bowler (2016). Using the same analysis as previously in the interval of 5-13 $M_{\text {Jup }}$ and $30-300$ au for all spectral types, we obtain a occurrence of $1.83_{-0.62}^{+5.76} \%$, comparable to the overall occurrence rate of Bowler (2016) of $0.6_{-0.7}^{+0.5} \%$. We also compare our analysis to studies that targeted M dwarfs, as our survey has a good number of them. In the range of 500-5000 au and $1-13 M_{\text {Jup }}$, Naud et al. (2017) obtained a frequency of $0.84_{-0.66}^{+6.73} \%$. For the same range of semimajor axes and masses, we get $0.3_{-0.06}^{+2.75} \%$, which is comparable within uncertainties to Naud et al. (2017). We also compare with Galicher et al. (2016) and we obtained an occurrence of $1.79_{-0.49}^{+7.5} \%$, comparable to their $1.05_{-0.70}^{+2.80} \%$ in the range of $1-14 M_{\text {Jup }}$ and 20-300 au.

### 3.2. Constraining the Distribution of Companions

We used a Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) approach to constrain the distribution of companions as a function of their mass and semimajor axis. We used the same mass-semimajor axis grid in the 5-5000 au interval for the calculation of the completeness maps, and we use index $i$ to refer to a given bin in mass, index $j$ to refer to a given bin in semimajor axis, index $s$


Figure 4. Frequency of companions for various ranges of semimajor axes probed by this study and others. The survey that concentrated on M dwarfs is shown in orange, the studies that surveyed A stars in blue, and the others are shown in green. The frequency from Baron et al. (2018) is represented by a circle, the one from Naud et al. (2017) is drawn as a star, the one from Chauvin et al. (2015) is a diamond, the one from Rameau et al. (2013b) is drawn as a triangle pointing up, the one from Vigan et al. (2012) is shown as a left pointing triangle, the one from Lafrenière et al. (2007) is drawn as a right pointing triangle, and the one for Lafrenière et al. (2014) is represented by a thick plus sign. The frequency from the current analysis is shown as a black square for the range of $20-5000 \mathrm{au}$, a black triangle for the range of 1000-5000 au, and a dark circle for the range of $20-1000 \mathrm{au}$. The horizontal bars represent the ranges of semimajor axes, while the vertical error bars show a $95 \%$ credible interval for the companion frequency.
to refer to a given bin in projected separation axis, and index $k$ to refer to a given star out of the total sample of $N$ stars surveyed. The completeness maps as a function of the projected separation, calculated earlier, are noted as $C_{k, i s}$. The set $\left\{d_{k, i s}\right\}$ denotes the detection made by the observations, such that $d_{k, i s}$ is 1 if there is a planet detected in bin $(i, s)$ for star $k$, otherwise $d_{k, i s}$ is 0 . In our calculations, detected companions were assigned to the projected separation bin $s$ when they were detected in the images used in our study.

As a first case, we assumed that the distribution of planets follows a power law in mass and semimajor axis,

$$
\begin{equation*}
d^{2} n=f \frac{\alpha \beta}{C} M^{\alpha} a^{\beta} d M d a \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $d n$ is the expected number of companions with a mass in the range of $[M, M+d M]$ and a semimajor axis in the range of $[a, a+d a], f$ is the overall mean number of planets per star (what we also call the frequency of planets), and $C$ is a normalization constant ensuring that the overall expected number of companions per star found by integrating $d n$ over the full mass and the semimajor axis is equal to $f$.

For a given bin $(i, j)$, the expected number of companions is found by integrating over the bin, which yields,
if $\alpha \neq-1$ and $\beta \neq-1$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
n_{i, j}=\frac{f}{D}\left[M_{i+1}^{\alpha+1}-M_{i}^{\alpha+1}\right]\left[a_{i+1}^{\beta+1}-a_{i}^{\beta+1}\right] \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

or if $\alpha=-1$ and $\beta=-1$

$$
\begin{equation*}
n_{i, j}=\frac{f}{D} \ln \left(\frac{M_{i+1}}{M_{i}}\right) \ln \left(\frac{a_{i+1}}{a_{i}}\right) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Table 4
Properties of the Sample of Bona Fide Members

| Name | $\begin{gathered} \text { RA } \\ (\mathrm{J} 2000.0) \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { DEC } \\ (\mathrm{J} 2000.0) \end{gathered}$ | SpT | $\begin{aligned} & \mu_{\alpha} \cos \delta \\ & \text { (mas } / \mathrm{yr} \text { ) } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \mu_{\delta} \\ (\mathrm{mas} / \mathrm{yr}) \end{gathered}$ | Association | Distance (pc) | Masses ( $\mathrm{M}_{\odot}$ ) | Surveys |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| HIP 490 | 000552.54 | -41 4511.0 | G0V | $97.53 \pm 0.38$ | $-76.27 \pm 0.44$ | THA | $39.385 \pm 0.915$ | 1.53 | 3 |
| HD 203 | 000650.08 | -23 0627.1 | F2IV | $96.77 \pm 0.13$ | $-47.12 \pm 0.06$ | BPIC | $39.960 \pm 0.099$ | 1.33 | 3 |
| HIP 1113 | 001353.01 | -74 4117.8 | G8V | $83.53 \pm 0.78$ | $-47.89 \pm 0.75$ | THA | $44.404 \pm 1.616$ | 1.18 | 3 |
| HD 984 | 001410.25 | -07 1156.8 | F5V | $104.53 \pm 0.15$ | $-67.91 \pm 0.06$ | COL | $45.911 \pm 0.118$ | 1.00 | 3 |
| 2MASS J00172353-6645124 | 001723.53 | -66 4512.4 | M2.5 | $102.90 \pm 1.00$ | $-15.00 \pm 1.00$ | ABD | $51.241 \pm 0.120$ | 1.56 | 10 |
| V* PW And | 001820.89 | 305722.1 | K0Ve | $143.19 \pm 0.09$ | $-171.11 \pm 0.06$ | ABD | $29.450 \pm 0.133$ | 0.80 | 12 |
| HIP 1481 | 001826.12 | -63 2838.9 | F8 | $90.06 \pm 0.05$ | $-59.18 \pm 0.05$ | THA | $42.970 \pm 0.055$ | 2.00 | 11 |
| HIP 1910 AB | 002408.98 | -62 1104.3 | M0Ve | $90.34 \pm 0.95$ | $-45.14 \pm 0.94$ | THA | $44.230 \pm 1.066$ | 2.06 | 9 |
| HIP 1993 | 002514.66 | -61 3048.2 | M0Ve | $87.92 \pm 0.04$ | $-56.16 \pm 0.04$ | THA | $44.163 \pm 0.056$ | 0.37 | 7 |
| GJ 2006 A | 002750.23 | -32 3306.4 | M3.5V | $117.40 \pm 2.80$ | $-29.30 \pm 8.10$ | BPIC | $32.289 \pm 1.834$ | 1.33 | 2 |
| HIP2484 | 003132.67 | -62 5729.6 | A2V | $83.64 \pm 0.19$ | $-54.82 \pm 0.18$ | THA | $41.407 \pm 0.342$ | 0.27 | 7 |
| bet03 Tuc | 003243.90 | -63 0153.4 | A0V | $86.41 \pm 0.21$ | $-50.35 \pm 0.21$ | THA | $45.901 \pm 0.280$ | 1.16 | 3 |
| 2MASS J00325584-4405058 | 003255.84 | -44 0505.8 | L0 $\gamma$ | $128.30 \pm 3.40$ | $-93.60 \pm 3.00$ | BPIC | $28.335 \pm 0.037$ | 1.23 | 2 |
| HIP 2729 | 003451.20 | -6154 58.1 | K5Ve | $88.69 \pm 0.04$ | $-52.66 \pm 0.03$ | THA | $44.497 \pm 0.049$ | 0.25 | 12 |
| 2MASS J00374306-5846229 | 003743.06 | -58 4622.9 | L0 $\gamma$ | $57.00 \pm 10.00$ | $17.00 \pm 5.00$ | BPIC | $75.573 \pm 0.185$ | 1.31 | 3 |
| HIP 3556 | 004528.15 | -513733.9 | M3 | $99.23 \pm 0.09$ | $-58.58 \pm 0.08$ | THA | $41.160 \pm 0.105$ | 2.20 | 2 |
| HIP 3589 | 004550.89 | 545840.2 | F8V | $96.81 \pm 0.65$ | $-74.17 \pm 0.53$ | ABD | $52.521 \pm 2.455$ | 1.20 | 2 |
| HIP 4448 A | 005655.46 | -515231.8 | K3Ve | $96.24 \pm 0.34$ | $10.75 \pm 0.29$ | ARG | $37.071 \pm 0.274$ | 0.49 | 12 |
| G132-51 B | 010342.11 | +40 5115.8 | M2.6V | $132.00 \pm 5.00$ | $-164.00 \pm 5.00$ | ABD | $29.940 \pm 1.972$ | 1.16 | 3 |
| HD 6569 AB | 010626.15 | -14 1747.1 | K1V | $99.92 \pm 0.08$ | $-94.62 \pm 0.05$ | ABD | $45.433 \pm 0.090$ | 0.80 | 12 |
| 2MASS J01112542+1526214 | 011125.42 | 152621.5 | M5V | $180.00 \pm 2.00$ | $-120.00 \pm 5.00$ | BPIC | $21.800 \pm 0.798$ | 1.10 | 2 |
| 2MASS J01123504+1703557 | 011235.04 | 170355.7 | M3 | $92.00 \pm 1.00$ | $-98.40 \pm 1.00$ | BPIC | $46.274 \pm 0.184$ | 1.51 | 3,13 |
| HIP 6276 | 012032.26 | -1128 03.7 | G0V | $111.43 \pm 0.09$ | $-136.88 \pm 0.06$ | ABD | $35.331 \pm 0.059$ | 1.60 | 3 |
| 2MASS J01220441-3337036 | 012204.41 | -33 3703.6 | K7 | $105.30 \pm 1.20$ | $-58.30 \pm 1.00$ | BPIC | $109.625 \pm 0.997$ | 0.93 | 1 |
| 2MUCD 13056 | 012311.26 | -69 2138.0 | M7.5V | $77.40 \pm 2.40$ | $-25.40 \pm 9.00$ | THA | $46.296 \pm 7.073$ | 1.06 | 3 |
| HIP 6485 | 012321.25 | -57 2850.6 | G6V | $92.79 \pm 0.04$ | $-36.08 \pm 0.03$ | THA | $45.314 \pm 0.053$ | 1.16 | 3 |
| G269-153 | 012427.68 | -33 5508.6 | M 4.3 V | $178.00 \pm 20.00$ | $-110.00 \pm 20.00$ | ABD | $25.125 \pm 1.010$ | 0.32 | 12 |
| HIP 6856 | 012808.65 | -52 3819.1 | K1V | $106.14 \pm 0.04$ | $-42.98 \pm 0.04$ | THA | $39.843 \pm 0.044$ | 0.86 | 12 |
| 2MASS J01351393-0712517 | 013513.92 | -07 1251.7 | M4(sb2) | $106.50 \pm 5.10$ | $-60.70 \pm 5.10$ | BPIC | $37.279 \pm 0.125$ | 0.80 | 1,2,7,10,11 |
| G271-110 | 013655.17 | -06 4737.9 | M3.5V | $168.00 \pm 5.00$ | $-105.00 \pm 5.00$ | BPIC | $41.666 \pm 0.694$ | 0.80 | 2 |
| 2MASS J01521830-5950168 | 015218.30 | -59 5016.8 | M2-3 | $109.20 \pm 1.80$ | $-25.70 \pm 1.80$ | THA | $24.883 \pm 0.093$ | 1.95 | 10 |
| HIP 9141 AB | 015748.97 | -2154 05.3 | G3V | $103.56 \pm 0.09$ | $-50.29 \pm 0.09$ | THA | $41.411 \pm 0.092$ | 1.43 | 2,10 |
| HIP 9685 | 020435.13 | -54 5254.0 | F2V | $75.35 \pm 0.09$ | $-25.86 \pm 0.07$ | THA | $46.281 \pm 0.109$ | 0.98 | 12 |
| 2MASS J02045317-5346162 | 020453.17 | -53 4616.2 | K5 | $95.10 \pm 2.90$ | $-33.60 \pm 3.10$ | BPIC | $101.081 \pm 0.378$ | 0.20 | 12 |
| 2MASS J02070176-4406380 | 020701.98 | -44 0644.4 | M3.5(sb1) | $94.90 \pm 1.30$ | $-30.60 \pm 1.30$ | TWA | $30.346 \pm 0.052$ | 0.84 | 12 |
| HIP 9892 | 020718.06 | -531156.5 | G7V | $86.06 \pm 0.58$ | $-22.60 \pm 0.65$ | THA | $50.942 \pm 1.660$ | 0.89 | 12 |
| HIP 9902 | 020726.12 | -59 4045.9 | F8V | $92.58 \pm 0.04$ | $-18.26 \pm 0.04$ | THA | $45.610 \pm 0.056$ | 0.15 | 12 |
| HIP 10272 | 021215.41 | 235729.5 | K1V | $125.44 \pm 1.45$ | $-161.47 \pm 0.98$ | ABD | $36.630 \pm 1.596$ | 1.65 | 1,5,7 |
| HD 14228 A | 021630.58 | -513043.7 | B8IV | $90.23 \pm 0.49$ | $-22.85 \pm 0.49$ | THA | $46.095 \pm 0.724$ | 1.04 | 12 |
| * gam Tri | 021718.86 | 335049.9 | A1 | $45.35 \pm 0.70$ | $-51.61 \pm 0.63$ | OCT | $28.679 \pm 0.060$ | 0.65 | 6 |
| HIP 10679 | 021724.74 | 284430.4 | G2V | $80.15 \pm 4.38$ | $-78.40 \pm 4.91$ | BPIC | $27.337 \pm 4.356$ | 1.23 | 6 |
| 2MASS J02215494-5412054 | 022154.94 | -54 1205.4 | M8beta | $136.00 \pm 10.00$ | $-10.00 \pm 17.00$ | TWA | $28.679 \pm 0.060$ | 0.68 | 12 |
| 2MASS J02224418-6022476 | 022244.18 | -60 2247.6 | M4 | $137.40 \pm 1.70$ | $-13.80 \pm 1.70$ | TWA | $49.615 \pm 0.083$ | 2.13 | 11 |
| HIP 11152 | 022326.64 | 224406.7 | M3V | $92.43 \pm 3.05$ | $-113.69 \pm 2.36$ | BPIC | $28.686 \pm 2.337$ | 0.16 | 12 |
| HD 15115 | 022616.24 | 061733.1 | F4IV | $88.03 \pm 0.07$ | $-50.51 \pm 0.07$ | BPIC | $49.002 \pm 0.100$ | 0.01 | 12 |
| HIP 11437 | 022729.25 | 305824.6 | K8V | $79.78 \pm 2.56$ | $-70.02 \pm 1.73$ | BPIC | $39.952 \pm 3.591$ | 0.42 | 12 |
| 1RXS J022735.8+471021 | 022737.26 | 471004.5 | M4.6V | $119.00 \pm 5.00$ | $-183.00 \pm 5.00$ | ABD | $36.509 \pm 3.079$ | 0.55 | 12 |

Table 4
(Continued)

Table 4
(Continued)

Table 4
(Continued)

Table 4
(Continued)

Table 4
(Continued)

Table 4
(Continued)

or if $\alpha \neq-1$ and $\beta=-1$

$$
\begin{equation*}
n_{i, j}=\frac{f}{D}\left[M_{i+1}^{\alpha}-M_{i}^{\alpha}\right] \ln \left(\frac{a_{i+1}}{a_{i}}\right), \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

or if $\alpha=-1$ and $\beta \neq-1$

$$
\begin{equation*}
n_{i, j}=\frac{f}{D} \ln \left(\frac{M_{i+1}}{M_{i}}\right)\left[a_{i+1}^{\beta}-a_{i}^{\beta}\right], \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $D=\left(M_{\max }^{\alpha+1}-M_{\min }^{\alpha+1}\right)\left(a_{\max }^{\beta+1}-a_{\min }^{\beta+1}\right)$.
The number of companions expected in a bin $(i, s)$, of given mass and projected separation, is equal to the number of companions expected in bin $(i, j)$, of mass and semimajor axis, multiplied by the probability $p(s \mid j)$ of the companions to be observed at projected separation $s$ given their semimajor axis $j$, and summed up over all semimajor axis bins,

$$
\begin{equation*}
n_{i s}=\sum_{j} n_{i j} p(s \mid j) \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

The probability $p(s \mid j)$ is computed using a Monte Carlo simulation assuming the same eccentricity distribution as before and accounting for random orientations and phases of the observations. Factoring in the completeness of the observations, the expected number of detected planets in bin $(i, s)$ for star $k$ is thus $C_{k, i s} n_{i s}$. Assuming that the presence of a planet in a given bin does not depend on the presence of other planets in other bins and using Poisson statistics for each bin and each star, we have that the probability $P$ of obtaining the observed results in a given bin given the assumed models is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
P\left(\left\{d_{k, i s}\right\} \mid\{\alpha, \beta, f\}\right)=e^{-C_{k, i s} n_{i s}}\left(C_{k, i s} n_{i s}\right)^{d_{k, i s}} . \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus, the likelihood of the whole survey results is obtained by multiplying the above probability for all bins and all stars:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{L}\left(\left\{d_{k, i s}\right\} \mid\{\alpha, \beta, f\}\right)=\prod_{k=1}^{N} \prod_{i, s} e^{-C_{k, i s} n_{i s}}\left(C_{k, i s} n_{i s}\right)^{d_{k, i s}}, \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
\ln \mathcal{L}=\sum_{i, j, k} \ln \left[\left(C_{k, i s} n_{i s}\right)^{d_{k, i s}}\right]-C_{k, i s} n_{i s} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

This is the form we used in the calculations that follow. The set $\left\{d_{k, i s}\right\}$ for our survey includes the detection of seven companions, as mentioned in Section 2. In this section, we consider the full range of separations from 5 to 5000 au , rather than only $20-5000$ au as in the previous analysis; a justification will be provided later.

To constrain the parameters $\alpha, \beta$, and $f$ that define the companion distribution, we used the emcee (Foreman-Mackey et al. 2013) Python implementation of the affine-invariant MCMC ensemble sampler of Goodman \& Weare (2010). The MCMC sampler iteratively generates, for each of several random walkers, a sequence of samples for the three parameters in our model. We used uniform priors on all parameters (in log scale for $f$ ) and we defined the starting parameter values for the walkers to be drawn randomly from a uniform distribution between -3 and 1 for $\log f$, between -4.9 and 4.9 for $\alpha$, and between -4.9 and 4.9 for $\beta$. We discarded the first $25 \%$ of the steps as the burn-in phase and considered that the remaining samples were representative of the posterior densities. The likelihood function is computed at each iteration, for each set of
parameters. At each step, the sampler tries to move the walkers randomly in the parameter space: if the new set of parameters corresponds to a higher probability density part of the posterior distribution, then the move is accepted, otherwise, the new set can be accepted or rejected depending on the trial positions. The sampler thus mostly probes the higher probability region of the parameter space and the final output samples are representative of the posterior distributions for each parameter of the model.
Figure 5 shows the results for 200 walkers and 1000 steps. The results indicate that $\alpha=-0.08_{-0.63}^{+0.75}, \beta=-1.41_{-0.24}^{+0.22}$, and $f=0.12_{-0.06}^{+0.11}$, where the uncertainty corresponds to $68 \%$ confidence intervals. This indicates an increased planet occurrence for smaller semimajor axes, while the planet mass distribution shows a marginal decrease with mass. The parameters $\alpha$ and $\beta$ show no correlation between each other.

Results from RV surveys have shown that the host star mass is correlated with the presence of planets (Johnson et al. 2010). In the case of planets on wide orbits, there seems to be no significant trend in planet frequency with host mass (Bowler 2016) or a moderate trend (Lannier et al. 2016) that would indicate that planets on wide orbits may be more common around more massive stars. To investigate this, we added a dependence on the host star mass in the distribution of planets. The planet distribution then becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
d^{2} n=f \frac{\alpha \beta}{C}\left(\frac{M_{\star}}{M_{\odot}}\right)^{\gamma} M^{\alpha} a^{\beta} d M d a . \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

The mass of each star in the sample was estimated from either its spectral type or its $J$-band absolute magnitude. For stars with spectral types from late-B to late-K, we used the evolution models of Siess et al. (2000) to estimate the mass from the spectral type and the age. For stars with spectral types of M0 or later, we used models from Baraffe et al. (2015) to estimate the mass from the $J$-band magnitude and the age. The masses for the earlier-type stars (<late-B) were taken from Lafrenière et al. (2014), where they were estimated using the evolution models of Schaller et al. (1992). Lastly, the mass of HIP 100751 was taken from David \& Hillenbrand (2015).
This new model has four parameters. In our MCMC, we used the same initial ranges for our walkers for the three parameters we had previously, and for $\gamma$ we used random values in the range of -4.9 to 4.9 . We used uniform priors on all parameters, 200 walkers and 1000 steps. The results are shown on Figure 6. No correlation is seen between $\alpha$ and $\beta, \gamma$ and $\beta$, or $\alpha$ and $\gamma$. However, the frequency $f$ is correlated to all other parameters. Our results indicate that the best parameter values are $\alpha=-0.18_{-0.65}^{+0.77}, \beta=-1.43_{-0.24}^{+0.23}, \gamma=0.62_{-0.50}^{+0.56}$, and $f=0.11_{-0.05}^{+0.11}$. The values for $\alpha, \beta$ and $f$ are consistent within uncertainties to the values obtained with the previous models. The added parameter $\gamma$ shows that the number of planets is correlated with the host star mass, such that massive stars host more planets in the separation and mass domains considered here.

As mentioned above, in this section we considered the full range from 5 to 5000 au instead of the $20-5000$ range used in Section 3.1. To verify our choice of orbital separation range, we repeated the calculations in this section but over the 20-5000 au range, and in the case where the distribution is described by Equation (6), we obtained $\alpha=-0.10_{-0.65}^{+0.75}, \beta=-1.58_{-0.26}^{+0.29}$, and $f=0.23_{-0.15}^{+0.35}$. Thus, both semimajor axis intervals favor similar $\alpha$ and $\beta$, but the overall planet frequency is significantly higher


Figure 5. Results of the MCMC simulations for all the stars of the sample. The histogram represent the marginalized posterior probability distributions for our three parameters: $\alpha, \beta$, and $f$. Correlation plots for the parameters are also shown, with the solid contour lines corresponding to regions containing $68 \%, 95 \%$, and $99 \%$ of the posterior. We use 200 walkers with 1000 steps. Here, purple indicates the highest values of the likelihoods and whites indicates the lowest. The posterior distributions of the priors are also shown in teal in the histograms, for reference.
and has much larger uncertainties for the 20-5000 au interval (although both agree within uncertainties). The higher uncertainty on the frequency for the $20-5000$ au range can be understood on the basis of the favored slope of the semimajor axes distribution, which puts much more planets on shorter orbits. The effect of a change in planet frequency is thus more pronounced at the shortest separations, and neglecting the observational information that we have in the 5-20 au interval, even if incomplete, has a big impact on the frequency uncertainty. For the analyses in this section, we decided to keep the range that provides the lowest uncertainties, namely the 5-5000 au interval.

### 3.3. Comparison with Cold-start Models

The analysis described in the earlier sections uses hot-start models. However, it is possible that planets on wide orbits formed through a cold-start. For planets at more than hundreds
of astronomical unit separations, this would likely mean that they formed in the disk at smaller separations and migrated out. In the cold-start models, an accretion shock is created by freefalling gas onto the protoplanet, which irradiates the gravitational potential energy away from the core. This leaves newly formed planets with low entropies and luminosities. Young massive planets are much fainter in cold-start models than in hot-start models. This effect is particularly important for young objects as the luminosity for both hot- and cold-start models is similar at 200 Myr and beyond, as the initial condition effects are washed away by evolution.
To investigate the impact that a cold-start formation would have on our results, we did one more analysis similar to those presented in Section 3.1 but this time we used cold-start models from Fortney et al. (2008). The Fortney et al. (2008) models give $T_{\text {eff }}$ and $R$ for given masses as a function of age. To use


Figure 6. Same as Figure 5 but with four parameters and using the distribution of planets from Equation (15).
these models for our purpose, we first had to interpolate the given values at the ages of the stars in our sample and on our grid of masses; because the models were available only up to $10 M_{\text {Jup }}$, we linearly extrapolated the models from 10 to $20 M_{\text {Jup }}$ to complete our grid, neglecting luminosity bursts due to deuterium burning for objects more massive than $13 M_{\mathrm{Jup}}$, and we calculated synthetic magnitudes for all filters used in our study. To do so, we used synthetic spectra from the BTSettl atmospheric models, scaled to the luminosity of the models, in combination with the appropriate filter response functions. The synthetic spectra are only available for
$\log g=4$ and effective temperatures ranging from 400 to 600 K ; when the surface gravity of the models was below 4, we used a synthetic spectrum with $\log g=4$. Furthermore, the cold-start models yield planets with effective temperatures in the range of $170-560 \mathrm{~K}$, extending much below the lowest temperature ( 400 K ) of the synthetic spectra. The effective temperatures of the cold-start models in the range of $400-600 \mathrm{~K}$ were thus interpolated into the atmospheric grid at temperatures of 400,500 , or 600 K , and effective temperatures in $350-400 \mathrm{~K}$ were extrapolated, while temperatures below 350 K were considered too cold to be detected. We were then able to
calculate cold-start contrast maps for each star. The completeness maps for the cold-start models are not as good as for the hot-start models, since companions of mass $1-20 M_{\text {Jup }}$ are much fainter in the former models. Indeed, a $10 M_{\text {Jup }}$ can be 5 magnitudes fainter in cold-start models than in hot-start models. Still, with the cold-start completeness maps, we inferred the frequency of companions of masses between 1 and $20 M_{\text {Jup }}$ and separations of $5-5000$ au as we did previously in Section 3.1. In the case of the cold-start models, the set $\left\{d_{k}\right\}$ is 0 for all targets, as all detected companions would be more massive than $20 M_{\text {Jup }}$ according to those models. We obtained an upper limit of $5.2 \%$, at a $95 \%$ confidence level, for companions with masses in $1-20 M_{\mathrm{Jup}}$ and separation in the 5-5000 au range, which is only slightly higher than the companion frequency inferred from the hot-start models.

## 4. Discussion

The frequency of Jupiter-like planets has been evaluated many times before from surveys made with techniques other than direct imaging. One study often quoted is that by Cumming et al. (2008) as mentioned in the introduction. Based on 8 yr of precise RV measurements from the Keck Planet Search, they inferred that $10.5 \%$ of solar-type stars have a companion with a mass of $0.3-10 M_{\mathrm{Jup}}$ and a semimajor axis below 3 au. Similarly, based on the results of the High Accuracy Radial Velocity Planet Searcher (HARPS), Mayor et al. (2011) found that $9.7 \% \pm 1.3 \%$ of stars host a gas giant ( $>0.3 M_{\text {Jup }}$ ) with a semimajor axis $<4.6$ au. Taken at face values and in comparison with the RV results, our results indicate that giant planets are less frequent above 5 au than below, even when summing the planet population all the way up to 5000 au . One possible caveat here is that our imaging survey has very little sensitivity to planets below 1-2 $M_{\text {Jup }}$, and thus that a population of low-mass giant planets may be unaccounted for in our results.

Estimates of giant planet occurrence were also derived from microlensing surveys. Based on the OGLE survey follow-up by the PLANET collaboration, Cassan et al. (2012) find that $17_{-9}^{+6} \%$ of stars host massive planets ( $0.3-10 M_{\text {Jup }}$ ) with a semimajor axis between 0.5 and 10 au . This frequency is marginally higher than the one we infer here from direct imaging surveys, $2.61_{-1.00}^{+6.97} \%$ for the $20-5000$ au range. If we assume that about $10 \%$ of the microlensing survey results are accounted for by planets below 5 au , per the above RV results, then the remainder would be in very good agreement with our results. In turn, this would indicate that within our range of sensitivity most of the planets at the larger separations would be located toward the small semimajor axes, which is indeed as we observed in our sample.

Another caveat to our results is that our mass determinations are indirect, relying on mostly uncalibrated evolution models. If young giant planets are much fainter than expected by hotstart models, then possibly much more than currently estimated could have been missed by the observations, leading to an underestimate of giant planet occurrence at large separations. Our results based on the cold-start models suggest that this is however not the case. Giant planets thus seem to be less frequent at large separations than small separations even when applying cold-start models.

It has often been assumed that the companion mass and semimajor axis distribution of the RV planets can be extrapolated for planets onto larger orbits, at least up to some point. Converting


Figure 7. Comparison of the slopes of various power-law semimajor axis distributions of companions $\left(d n=a^{\beta}\right)$. The RV distribution of planets from Cumming et al. (2008) is shown in black. The broken power-law distribution of transiting and RV planets from Fernandes et al. (2019) is drawn in blue; the turnover point is at 3 au . The direct imaging distribution of brown dwarfs from Brandt et al. (2014) is drawn in orange. Only the slopes are depicted here, and all curves are normalized at a semimajor axis of 1 au.
the Cumming et al. (2008) period distribution mentioned in the introduction into a semimajor axis power-law distribution, in line with Equation (6), yields a value of $\beta=-0.69 \pm 0.15$. This means that giant planets on short orbits are more common than on wide orbits. Our value for $\beta$ of $-1.43_{-0.24}^{+0.23}$, which is significantly different from that of Cumming et al. (2008), possibly hints that the more massive planets (several $M_{\text {Jup }}$ or more) on orbits $\gg 5 \mathrm{au}$ probed here are part of a different population than the less massive RV planets at $\lesssim 3$ au.

Figure 7 compares the slopes of various power-law distributions in planet semimajor axes found in the literature. The slopes obtained in this work are shown in pink and are compared with the slopes from RV planet distributions from Cumming et al. (2008) in black and Fernandes et al. (2019; asymmetrical distribution) in blue. The direct imaging distribution of brown dwarfs from Brandt et al. (2014) is drawn in orange. While the slope from Cumming et al. (2008) is not consistent with the one we measure, as noted earlier, the slope from Fernandes et al. (2019) at separations greater than the snow line is marginally consistent. The slope reported by Brandt et al. (2014) for more massive, 5-70 $M_{\mathrm{Jup}}$, companions is also marginally consistent with ours. Overall, we measure a sharp decrease with semimajor axis, which is broadly consistent with the distribution of planets with a semimajor axis greater than 3 au seen with RV and with brown dwarf companions to main-sequence stars.

Figure 8 compare the slopes of various power-law distributions in mass. Our results, shown in pink, are in good agreement with the slope of the mass distribution of brown dwarf companions from Metchev \& Hillenbrand (2009) in green and Brandt et al. (2014) in orange. They also agree with the slope for stellar companions at larger separations from Duchêne \& Kraus (2013), shown in navy blue. However, it is not in agreement with the slopes of the distributions of RV planets from Cumming et al. (2008) in black and Fernandes et al. (2019) in blue. This may


Figure 8. Comparison of the slopes of various power-law mass distributions of companions $\left(d n=M^{\alpha}\right)$. The RV distribution of planets from Cumming et al. (2008) is shown in black and for Fernandes et al. (2019) it is shown in blue. The direct imaging distribution of brown dwarfs from Metchev \& Hillenbrand (2009) is drawn in green and from Brandt et al. (2014) in orange. The distribution of stellar companions from Duchêne \& Kraus (2013) is shown in navy blue. The distribution of companions from this work is drawn in pink. The slope our distribution is consistent with slopes from the distribution of brown dwarfs or stellar companions. Only the slopes are depicted here, and all curves are normalized at a mass of $1 M_{\mathrm{Jup}}$.
suggest that our survey is probing the low-mass tail of the brown dwarf and stellar companion distribution rather than the continuation of the distribution of planets observed at smaller semimajor axes.

Vigan et al. (2017) compiled 12 direct imaging surveys and compared the results to models based on the gravitational instability formation scenario from Forgan \& Rice (2013). In that study they showed that, assuming that companions form by the gravitational instability process, the models predict that the occurrence of companions increases with separation between 1 and 20 au but decreases slowly with separation beyond. This change in the distribution with the semimajor axis might be evidence for a change of populations where the closer planets would be a population of nonscattered planets while the planets on wide orbits would be coming from a population of scattered planets. Qualitatively, our results at large separations agree with the simulations as we find a number of companions that decreases with semimajor axes. However, our slope is steeper that the slopes presented in Vigan et al. (2017).

Surveys focusing on probing the binary fraction of stars of all spectral types tend to show that the binaries with a low-mass component decline in number and have closer separations (Raghavan et al. 2010). Also, binary fraction decreases with decreasing mass (Chabrier et al. 2005; Fontanive et al. 2018). Those results are consistent with our work, as our results show that companions are more frequent for more massive host stars.

## 5. Conclusions

We used an MCMC analysis to put constraints on the distribution of $1-20 M_{\text {Jup }}$ companions at separations of 5-5000 au from a compilation of direct imaging surveys using the DIVA archives, a survey of Upper Scorpius, the PSYMWIDE survey, and the WEIRD survey. We used a distribution of planets in the form of a power law in mass and the semimajor axis of planets and host star mass. In general, we
found that the occurrence of planets increases with smaller planet masses, closer orbits, and around more massive stars. Moreover, our constraints on the mass distribution shows that it is in better agreement with the mass distribution of brown dwarfs and stellar companions than it is with the distribution of planetary companions found by RV at smaller separations.
The constraints on the distribution of companions found in this work depend on and are limited by the number of planets that the sample holds. In particular, while a wide range of semimajor axis is covered by the seven planets, the range in mass is rather narrow, as all the planets have very similar masses. This prevents us from reaching strong constraints on the $\alpha$ parameter controlling the power-law distribution in planet mass. Thus, the search for planets using direct imaging should continue to uncover a larger and more diverse sample of planets enabling to better constrain their distribution.
In this work, we have chosen to fit our sample with a single power-law distribution. The next step in this project would be to use different distributions, for example a broken power law in planet mass. This particular distribution would be motivated for instance by the work from Santos et al. (2017) who have found evidence of a change in the population of giant planets at $4 M_{\mathrm{Jup}}$. They suggest that the lower-mass planets are formed by the core accretion process, while the more massive planets are mainly formed through the gravitational instability scenario, with an overlap of the two processes at $4 M_{\text {Jup }}$. Also, Reggiani et al. (2016) suggested a superposition of two different populations to explain their null results from direct imaging. They coupled the brown dwarf companion distribution to the planet companion distribution truncated at about 100 au . This new distribution has a minimum for companion masses in 10-50 $M_{\text {Jup }}$, which can explain the lack of objects in this range of masses without having to introduce another formation process for brown dwarfs. This is another distribution that could be investigated with our sample, or preferably, with an expanded sample containing more detected companions and spanning a wider range of companion masses.

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