TESS SPOTS A COMPACT SYSTEM OF SUPER-EARTHS AROUND THE NAKED-EYE STAR HR 858

ANDREW VANDERBURG1,27, CHELSEA X. HUANG2,28, JOSEPH E. RODRIGUEZ3,29, JULIETTE C. BECKER3,30,31, GEORGE R. RICKER3,4, ROLAND K. VANDERSPK5,6, DAVID W. LATHAM7,8, SARA SEAGER7,8, JOSHUA N. WINS8, JON M. JENKINS9, BRET ADDISON10, ALLYSON BIERYLA10, CESAR BRICEÑO10, BRENDA P. BOWLER11, TIMOTHY M. BROWN12,13, CHRISTOPHER J. BURKE14, JENNIFER A. BURT14,15, DOUGLAS A. CALDWELL16,17, JAKE T. CLARK18, IAN CROSSFIELD19, JASON A. DITTMANN13, SCOTT DYYES20,21, BENJAMIN J. FULTON22, NATALIA GUERRERO23, DANIEL HARRIE24, JONATHAN HORNER25, STEPHEN R. KANE26, JOHN KIRKLOUGH27, ADAM L. KRAUS28, LAURA KRIEDBERGER29,30, NICOLAS LAW31, ANDREW W. MANN31, MATTHEW W. MENGEL32, TIMOTHY D. MORTON33,34, JACK OKUMURA35, LOGAN A. PEARCE36, PETER PLAYCHAK37, SAMUEL N. QUINN38, MARKUS RABUS39,40, MARK E. ROSE41, PAM ROWDEN42, AVI SHPORER43, ROBERT J. SIVER44, JEFFREY C. SMITH45, KEIVAN STASSUN46,47, C.G. TINNEY48, ROB WITTENMYER49, DUNCAN J. WRIGHT50, HUI ZHANG51, GEORGE ZHOU52,33, CARL A. ZIEGLER53

Draft version July 17, 2019

ABSTRACT

Transiting Exoplanet Survey Satellite (TESS) observations have revealed a compact multi-planet system around the sixth-magnitude star HR 858 (TIC 178155732, TOI 396), located 32 parsecs away. Three planets, each about twice the size of Earth, transit this slightly-evolved, late F-type star, which is also a member of a visual binary. Two of the planets may be in mean motion resonance. We analyze the TESS observations, using novel methods to model and remove instrumental systematic errors, and combine these data with follow-up observations taken from a suite of ground-based telescopes to characterize the planetary system. The HR 858 planets are enticing targets for precise radial velocity observations, secondary eclipse spectroscopy, and measurements of the Rossiter-McLaughlin effect.

Subject headings: planetary systems, planets and satellites: detection, stars: individual (HR 858, TIC 178155732, TOI 396)

1. INTRODUCTION

1 Department of Astronomy, The University of Texas at Austin, Austin, TX 78712, USA
2 Department of Physics, and Kavli Institute for Astrophysics and Space Research, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA 02139, USA
3 Center for Astrophysics | Harvard and Smithsonian, Cambridge, MA 02138, USA
4 Department of Astronomy, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA
5 Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences, MIT, 77 Massachusetts Avenue, Cambridge, MA 02139, USA
6 Department of Astrophysical Sciences, Princeton University, 4 Ivy Lane, Princeton, NJ 08544, USA
7 NASA Ames Research Center, Moffett Field, CA, 94035
8 Centre for Astrophysics, University of Southern Queensland, Toowoomba, QLD 4350, Australia
9 Cerro Tololo Inter-American Observatory, Casilla 603, La Serena, Chile
10 University of Colorado/CASA, Boulder, CO 80309, USA
11 Las Cumbres Observatory Global Telescope Network, Santa Barbara, CA 93117, USA
12 SETI Institute, Mountain View, CA 94043, USA
13 Caltech/IPAC-NExScI, 1200 East California Boulevard, Pasadena, CA 91125, USA
14 Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences, University of California, Riverside, CA 92521, USA
15 Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Louisville, Louisville, KY 40292, USA
16 Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill, NC 27599, USA
17 Department of Astronomy, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL, 32611, USA
18 Center for Computational Astrophysics, Flatiron Institute, 162 5th Ave., New York, NY 10010
19 George Mason University, Fairfax, VA 22030, USA
20 Department of Physics, University of California, Santa Barbara, CA 93106-9530, USA
21 School of Physical Sciences, The Open University, Milton Keynes MK7 6AA, UK
22 Department of Physics and Astronomy, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, TN 37235 USA
23 Department of Physics, Fisk University, Nashville, TN 37208, USA
24 Exoplanetary Science at UNSW, School of Physics, UNSW Sydney, NSW 2052, Australia
25 School of Astronomy and Space Science, Key Laboratory of Modern Astronomy and Astrophysics in Ministry of Education, Nanjing University, Nanjing 210046, Jiangsu, China
26 Dunlap Institute for Astronomy and Astrophysics, University of Toronto, Ontario M5S 3H4, Canada
27 NASA Sagan Fellow
28 Juan Carlos Torres Fellow
29 Future Faculty Leaders Fellow
30 NSF Graduate Research Fellow
31 Leinweber Center for Theoretical Physics Graduate Fellow
32 S1 Pegasi b Postdoctoral Fellow
33 Harvard Junior Fellow
34 NASA Hubble Fellow
Using four wide-angle cameras, TESS is searching 80% of the sky for transiting exoplanets during its two-year primary mission. Already, TESS has discovered several new exoplanets around bright stars that are well-suited for follow-up observations (Huang et al. 2018b, Vander- spek et al. 2019), and hundreds more TESS planet candidates await confirmation.

Early in the mission, most TESS planet discoveries were singly-transiting systems (Wang et al. 2019, Rodriguez et al. 2019, Nielsen et al. 2019), but now that some stars have been observed for longer time baselines, the survey is detecting transiting systems with increasingly complex architectures (Quinn et al. 2019, Dragomir et al. 2019). Here, we report the discovery of three super-Earths around the naked-eye star HR 858. The planets are all about twice the size of Earth and have periods of 3.59, 5.98, and 11.23 days. HR 858 b and c orbit within 0.03% of the 3.5 period ratio, and may be in true mean motion resonance.

The compact and near-resonant architecture harkens back to the systems of tightly packed inner planets (STIPs) discovered by Kepler, but HR 858 is hundreds to thousands of times brighter than the Keplar primary mission. Already, the survey is detecting transiting systems with increas-

ing planets around bright stars that are well-suited for follow-up observations. Vanderburg et al. (2019), and hundreds more TESS planet candidates await confirmation.

Early in the mission, most TESS planet discoveries were singly-transiting systems (Wang et al. 2019, Rodriguez et al. 2019, Nielsen et al. 2019), but now that some stars have been observed for longer time baselines, the survey is detecting transiting systems with increasingly complex architectures (Quinn et al. 2019, Dragomir et al. 2019). Here, we report the discovery of three super-Earths around the naked-eye star HR 858. The planets are all about twice the size of Earth and have periods of 3.59, 5.98, and 11.23 days. HR 858 b and c orbit within 0.03% of the 3.5 period ratio, and may be in true mean motion resonance. This compact and near-resonant architecture harkens back to the systems of tightly packed inner planets (STIPs) discovered by Kepler, but HR 858 is hundreds to thousands of times brighter than the Kepler primary mission. Already, the survey is detecting transiting systems with increasing complexity.

Here, we report the discovery of three super-Earths around the naked-eye star HR 858. The planets are all about twice the size of Earth and have periods of 3.59, 5.98, and 11.23 days. HR 858 b and c orbit within 0.03% of the 3.5 period ratio, and may be in true mean motion resonance. This compact and near-resonant architecture harkens back to the systems of tightly packed inner planets (STIPs) discovered by Kepler, but HR 858 is hundreds to thousands of times brighter than the Kepler primary mission. Already, the survey is detecting transiting systems with increasing complexity.

We conclude by discussing the HR 858 system architecture and opportunities for follow-up observations in Section 5.

2. OBSERVATIONS AND DATA REDUCTION

2.1. TESS Photometry

TESS observed HR 858 during the third and fourth sectors of its two-year-long primary mission, obtaining data from 20 September 2018 UT until 14 November 2018 UT. During Sector 4, TESS saved and downlinked images of HR 858 every two minutes, standard procedure for the bright, nearby dwarf stars around which TESS was specifically designed to discover planets. However, during Sector 3, HR 858 fell only a few pixels from the edge of the field of view, so (as for most of the sky) TESS only downlinked co-added images with more-coarsely-sampled 30 minute cadence.

Once the TESS data were transmitted to Earth, we processed the data using two different sets of analysis tools in parallel: the MIT Quick Look Pipeline (QLP, Huang et al. in prep) and the Science Processing Operations Center (SPOC, Jenkins 2015) pipeline based at NASA Ames Research Center. After extracting light curves from the TESS pixel data and searching for periodic signals, both pipelines identified the signatures of two transiting exoplanet candidates. These signals, which repeated every 3.59 and 5.98 days, were tested using standard diagnostics to determine whether the candidate transits were caused by some astrophysical or instrumental phenomenon other than a genuine system of transiting planets. We found no indication that these signals were false positives, and alerted the community to their existence via the MIT TESS Alerts webpage.

We tentatively designated the planet candidates HR 858 b and c.

Next, working from the calibrated pixel files, we re-extracted light curves from a series of both circular and irregularly shaped apertures (Vanderburg et al. 2016). We ultimately chose the apertures shown in Figure 1 which minimized photometric scatter and contamination from two nearby stars. Systematic errors are present in the light curves from both sectors. Unlike Kepler, whose instrumental systematics were dominated by changes in the spacecraft’s focus (Jenkins et al. 2010), and K2, whose instrumental systematics were dominated by pointing drifts on timescales longer than single exposures (Vanderburg & Johnson 2014), TESS’s instrumental systematics are dominated by pointing jitter on timescales shorter than an exposure. Figure 2 shows common features appearing in the HR 858 light curve, the width of the TESS PSF (from a fit of the TESS images to a 2d Gaussian), and the intra-exposure scatter in engineering “quaternion” data. These systematics are present on both short (exposure to exposure) and long (~day) timescales (which come from steady increases in the pointing scatter ahead of reaction wheel momentum dump events).

We performed our own correction for the TESS systematics. First, we ignored data where the SPOC quality flag was non-zero and during the following time intervals (where t = BJD − 2457000): t < 1385.96 (while the TESS operations team conducted tests on the spacecraft’s attitude control system), 1393.4 < t < 1396.6361, 1406.25 < t < 1410.9054, and 1423.5136 < t < 1424.5539 (near TESS’s orbital perigee when Earthshine contaminated the aperture), and 1418.4915 < t < 1423.5136 (when spacecraft/instrument communications were interrupted, shutting down the instrument, activating a heater, and introducing systematic trends).

We then treated the remaining short and long timescale systematic behavior separately. The long-timescale behavior gives rise to slow trends in the light curve, and jumps each time the spacecraft resets the reaction wheel speeds by briefly firing its thrusters (a “momentum dump”). We remove this behavior by fitting a basis spline (with robust outlier rejection and knots present in the light curves from both sectors. Unlike Kepler, whose instrumental systematics were dominated by changes in the spacecraft’s focus (Jenkins et al. 2010), and K2, whose instrumental systematics were dominated by pointing drifts on timescales longer than single exposures (Vanderburg & Johnson 2014), TESS’s instrumental systematics are dominated by pointing jitter on timescales shorter than an exposure. Figure 2 shows common features appearing in the HR 858 light curve, the width of the TESS PSF (from a fit of the TESS images to a 2d Gaussian), and the intra-exposure scatter in engineering “quaternion” data. These systematics are present on both short (exposure to exposure) and long (~day) timescales (which come from steady increases in the pointing scatter ahead of reaction wheel momentum dump events).

We treated the short-timescale behavior in the TESS light curves differently between Sector 3 and Sector 4. During Sector 3, there are only a handful of exposures strongly affected by short-timescale pointing jitter. We

35 https://tess.mit.edu/alerts/36

36 These tests included searches for shallow secondary eclipses, differences in transit depth between even and odd-numbered transits, and shifts in HR 858’s apparent position during transit.

37 https://tess.mit.edu/alerts/

38 We used a cutout from the online TESScut tool for Sector 3 and the calibrated two-minute cadence target pixel files for Sector 4.

39 The quaternion measurements are two-second-cadence vector time series that describe the spacecraft attitude based on observations of a set of guide stars. For each vector component (Q1, Q2, Q3), we take the standard deviation of all measurements within each two-minute science image. The quaternions are measured in each TESS camera (in camera coordinates along the CCD row, column, and roll about the boresight), and are rotated into spacecraft coordinates (where the roll axis is pointing at the sky between Cameras 2 and 3). The quaternions are available online at https://archive.stsci.edu/missions/tess/engineering/
simply exclude the 2% of points with the widest measured PSF (indicating the largest intra-exposure pointing scatter), after removing slow drifts in the PSF width time series as done for the light curves (introducing discontinuities at momentum dumps). This cut corresponds roughly to excluding points with PSF width 7.5$\sigma$ larger than the high-pass-filtered median width, and removes all noticeable flux outliers from the light curve. This strategy is similar to that of Fausnaugh et al. (2019), who identified and removed anomalous points using the mean and standard deviation of the quaternion time series within exposures.

The short-timescale systematic effects in the Sector 4 light curve were higher-amplitude and more pervasive, so instead of simply clipping strongly affected points from the time series, we opted to decorrelate the light curve against other time series. In Sector 4, instead of using the PSF width as a proxy for spacecraft motion, we worked with the less-noisy quaternion data, with long-term trends removed as done for the light curves and PSF width time series. We performed the decorrelation using a matrix-inversion least squares technique, iteratively removing 3$\sigma$ outliers from the fit until convergence. We experimented with decorrelating the light curve against different combinations of parameters including the averages and standard deviations of the $(Q_1, Q_2, Q_3)$ quaternions within each exposure, averages and standard deviations of products of quaternions $(Q_1 \times Q_2, Q_2 \times Q_3, Q_1 \times Q_3)$, and various cotrending basis vectors used by the SPOC pipeline’s Presearch Data Conditioning (PDC) module (Smith et al. 2012; Stumpe et al. 2014). We also experimented with decorrelating against higher (quadratic and cubic) orders of these time series.

40 We used the quaternions derived from Camera 2 (where HR 858 was observed) in camera coordinates. We converted the quaternion timestamps from spacecraft time to barycentric Julian date (BJD) towards HR 858.

In the end, we found best results by decorrelating only against the standard deviation of the $Q_1$ and $Q_2$ quaternions and the seven cotrending vectors from PDC’s band 3 (fast timescale) correction. The result of this decorrelation (and the long-timescale correction) on the Sector 4 TESS data are shown in the bottom panel of Figure 2.

After producing light curves with systematic effects removed, we re-searched the light curve to look for additional transiting planet candidates. We searched the combined two-sector light curve (after binning the Sector 4 light curve to 30 minute cadence) with a Box-Least-Squares pipeline (Kovács et al. 2002; Vanderburg et al. 2016). In addition to recovering the two candidates identified by the QLP and SPOC pipelines, we detected a third convincing transit signal with a period of 11.23 days. TESS detected three transits of this candidate: two in Sector 3, and one in Sector 4. After identifying the new candidate, we re-derived the systematics correction while excluding points taken during transits of all three planet candidates, and used this light curve in our analysis.

We measured the centroid position of HR 858 in each TESS image and converted the measurements to time series in R.A. and DEC. The average changes in the position of HR 858’s centroid during each planet candidates’ transits were consistent with zero (with precision of a few milliarcseconds). This confidently rules out the possibility that any star more than 40″ away is the true source of the dimming events.

2.2. Archival and High Resolution Imaging

We examined the region of sky around HR 858 using archival surveys and newly-obtained data (Figure 1). Archival imaging from the Palomar Observatory Sky Survey (POSS) rules out background stars within about 6.5
Fig. 2.— Systematic errors in the Sector 4 TESS light curve of HR 858. Top block: Time series of measured brightness (top row), standard deviation of the Q1 quaternion component within each two-minute science exposure (middle row), and best-fit width of the TESS PSF (bottom row). The time ranges shown in the two columns differ to emphasize the varying nature of the short and long timescale systematics. Times when the spacecraft underwent reaction wheel momentum dumps are shown as vertical grey lines. Note that the time series of PSF width shows a slow drift due to focus change after a spacecraft anomaly caused an onboard heater to activate. Bottom: TESS light curves of HR 858 before (blue) and after (orange) removal of systematic errors as described in Section 2.1. Faint points are individual two-minute exposures, and bold points are averages in 30 minute bins. The photometric precision is estimated by binning the light curve to one-hour exposures and calculating the point-to-point scatter.

Based on the lack of a visible bulge in HR 858’s saturated PSF and the size of the saturated PSFs of nearby 12\textsuperscript{th}–13\textsuperscript{th} magnitude stars. The Gaia observations of the comoving companion show large astrometric scatter; this may be due to systematic effects from the nearby, much brighter primary star, or it may be an indication that the comoving companion is itself an unresolved binary (Evans 2018; Rizzuto et al. 2018).
Some basic information about the comoving companion, which we call HR 858 B, is given in Table 2.

We also obtained a high-resolution I-band image of HR 858 with the HRCam speckle imager on the Southern Astrophysical Research (SOAR) telescope. The observations and analysis were conducted as described by Tokovinin (2018). Our observation was sensitive to nearly equal-brightness companions at separations of 0.06 (1.8 AU projected distance) and fainter stars up to seven magnitudes fainter than HR 858 at larger (5.15, 100 AU projected) separations. We detected no additional stars brighter than these contrast limits near HR 858.

2.3. High Resolution Spectroscopy

We obtained high-resolution reconnaissance spectroscopy of HR 858 to determine spectroscopic parameters and rule out large radial velocity (RV) variations. We observed HR 858 twice with the Tillinghast Reflector Echelle Spectrograph (TRES) on the 1.5m telescope at Fred L. Whipple Observatory, once with the CHIRON spectrometer on the 1.5m SMARTS telescope at Cerro Tololo Inter-American Observatory (CTIO), once with the echelle spectrograph on the 2.3m Australian National University (ANU) telescope at Siding Spring Observatory, and seven times with the Network of Robotic Echelle Spectrographs (NRES, Eastman et al. 2014; Siverd et al. 2010, 2018) operated by Las Cumbres Observatory (LCO, Brown et al. 2013) from CTIO and South African Astronomical Observatory (SAAO). The reconnaissance observations showed no large radial velocity variations or evidence for a composite spectrum. From the TRES data, we measured an absolute RV of 9.6 ± 0.1 km s\(^{-1}\) by cross-correlating the observed spectra with synthetic spectra derived from Kurucz (1992) atmosphere models and applying empirical corrections to shift the measured velocity to the IAU scale (Stefanik et al. 1999). We found no evidence for large (\(\sim 1000\) km s\(^{-1}\)) RV variations that might indicate HR 858 is a close binary system. The measured absolute velocity is consistent with archival radial velocity measurements going back over a decade from the Gaia mission (Gaia Collaboration et al. 2018).

Pulkovo Observatory (Gontcharov 2006), and the Geneva Copenhagen Survey (Casagrande et al. 2011).

After our initial reconnaissance, we obtained 30 observations on 13 separate nights with the MINERVA-Australis telescope array at Mt. Kent Observatory in Queensland, Australia (Addison et al. 2019) to place stronger limits on the transiting companions’ masses. We measured radial velocities via least-squares analysis of spec- trograph drifts with simultaneous Thorium Argon arc lamp observations. From these data, which showed scatter of about 14 m s\(^{-1}\), we calculate upper limits (95% confidence) on the masses of the three planet candidates around HR 858 of about 45 \(M_\oplus\) each using the RadVel package (Fulton et al. 2018). Our radial velocity observations are summarized in Table 1

We determined spectroscopic parameters from the TRES spectra using the Stellar Parameter Classification (SPC) code (Buchhave et al. 2012, 2014) and found parameters \(T_{\text{eff}} = 6201 \pm 50\), \(\log g = 4.19 \pm 0.10\), \(\log [\text{Fe/H}] = -0.14 \pm 0.08\) consistent with literature determinations (Gray et al. 2006; Casagrande et al. 2011). Our spectroscopic reconnaissance also found that HR 858 is rotating moderately rapidly. Following Zhou et al. (2018), we measured a projected rotational velocity of \(v \sin i = 8.3 \pm 0.5\) km s\(^{-1}\) and a macroturbulent velocity of \(v_{\text{mac}} = 5.2 \pm 0.5\) km s\(^{-1}\). An analysis of the NRES spectra using SpecMatch (Petigura 2015; Petigura et al. 2017) yielded results \(T_{\text{eff}} = 6199 \pm 100\), \(\log g = 4.3 \pm 0.1\), \(\log [\text{Fe/H}] = -0.10 \pm 0.07\) consistent with those from TRES and SPC.

3. DETERMINATION OF SYSTEM PARAMETERS

We determined system parameters using the EXOFASTv2 global modeling software (Eastman et al. 2013; Eastman 2017). EXOFASTv2 uses Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) to explore a high-dimensional space in

\[ m [\text{H}] = -0.14 \pm 0.08 \]

\[ \log [\text{Fe/H}] = -0.10 \pm 0.07 \]
Fig. 3.— *TESS* light curves of HR 858. Top: Full two-sector light curve. During Sector 3, *TESS* only downloaded images of HR 858 in its 30-minute cadence FFIs, but during Sector 4, HR 858 was pre-selected for observations at two-minute cadence. We bin the Sector 4 observations to an equivalent 30 minute cadence for visual clarity. Bottom: Phase-folded *TESS* light curves of the three planets transiting HR 858, with the Sector 4 observations again binned to 30 minute cadence for visual clarity. All analysis, including transit fitting, was performed on the unbinned two-minute-cadence Sector 4 light curve.

physical model parameters and determine best-fit values and uncertainties. We fit the two-sector TESS light curve and a spectral energy distribution constructed from archival broadband photometry (listed in Table 2). We imposed priors on spectroscopic parameters from TRES and the *Gaia* parallax, and we enforced an upper limit on V-band extinction of $A_V < 0.04898$ mag from Schlegel et al. (1998). MIST isochrones (Choi et al. 2016) were used to constrain the stellar parameters. Each MCMC link’s linear and quadratic limb darkening parameters were assigned by interpolating from Claret & Bloemen (2011) models at that link’s surface gravity, effective temperature, and metallicity. We ran the fit until convergence (defined as 1000 independent posterior draws after the chains all reached a Gelman-Rubin statistic less than 1.01). The results of our fit are given in Table 2.

We cross-checked the EXOFASTv2 analysis with other less-comprehensive analyses in parallel. In particular, we fit for light curve and stellar parameters following Huang et al. (2018), and confirmed that our removal of low frequency variability and long-timescale systematics did not significantly affect the fit parameters. Another transit analysis that did not use constraints from the host star’s parameters yielded the duration of transit ingress/egress, $t_{12}$ (or the time between the first and second transit contacts; see Figure 1 of Seager & Mallén-Ornelas 2003) and the total transit duration, $t_{14}$ (from first to fourth contact). We also re-derived stellar parameters using an online interface [44] to fit the effective temperature, V-band magnitude and parallax with Padova models [da Silva et al. 2006], and using broadband photometry to fit the SED following Stassun et al. (2018); both analyses yielded results consistent with the EXOFASTv2 fit.

4. FALSE POSITIVE ANALYSIS

While experience from the *Kepler* mission has taught us that small planet candidates from space-based transit surveys are usually planets (Morton & Johnson 2011), especially those in multi-transiting systems (Lissauer et al. 2012), careful analysis is required to rule out false positive scenarios. During the *Kepler* and K2 eras, it became common to “statistically validate” planet candidates using tools like vespa (Morton 2012, 2015), BLENDER (Torres et al. 2011), and PASTIS (Diaz et al. 2014) which quantify the likelihood that the any given signal arises from a false positive.

Planet candidates discovered by *TESS* often have advantages over candidates from *Kepler/K2*, which can make it possible to rule out some or all false positive scenarios categorically, rather than calculating probabilities based on false positive population models. In particular, most *TESS* planet candidates are observed at 2 minute cadence, so we can precisely measure ingress/egress times, and many *TESS* targets are nearby and have high proper motion, so it is possible to show that background
stars cannot cause the transit signals. For HR 858, we take advantage of both approaches. We consider the following false positive scenarios for one or more of the transit signals around HR 858:

1. **HR 858 is an eclipsing binary:** Our radial velocity observations from MINERVA-Australis and TRES rule out this scenario (Section 2.3).

2. **Light from an unassociated eclipsing binary or transiting planet system is blended with HR 858:** If the transit signal comes from a star other than HR 858, the observed transit depth \( \delta \) will be:

\[
\delta \simeq \left( \frac{R_{p,\text{true}}}{R_*} \right)^2 \frac{F_{\text{source}}}{F_{\text{total}}} \tag{1}
\]

where \( R_{p,\text{true}}/R_* \) is the true radius ratio of the transiting/eclipsing body on the source star, and \( F_{\text{source}}/F_{\text{total}} \) is the fraction of the flux the source star contributes to the TESS light curve. The ratio of the transit ingress/egress duration, \( t_{12}, t_{13} \), to the duration from first to third contact (\( t_{13} \equiv t_{14} - t_{12} \)) constrains the radius ratio of the transit source regardless of any diluting flux (from Seager & Mallén-Ornelas 2003 Equation 21):

\[
\frac{R_{p,\text{true}}}{R_*} \leq \frac{t_{12}}{t_{13}} \tag{2}
\]

We calculate the magnitude difference \( \Delta m \) between HR 858 and the faintest companion which could cause the transit signals we see:

\[
\delta \simeq \left( \frac{t_{12}}{t_{13}} \right)^2 \frac{F_{\text{source}}}{F_{\text{total}}} \lesssim \left( \frac{t_{12}}{t_{13}} \right)^2 10^{-0.4\Delta m} \tag{3}
\]

\[
\Delta m \lesssim 2.5 \log_{10} \left( \frac{t_{12}^2}{t_{13}^2} \delta \right) \tag{4}
\]

Using Equation 4 and our transit analysis (Section 3), we find \( \Delta m \gtrsim 4.5, 5.9, \) and 6.1 magnitudes for HR 858 b, c, and d respectively (95% confidence). Analysis of the TESS image centroids shows that the source of the transits must be within 40" of HR 858 (Section 2.1), and archival imaging (Section 2.2) shows no stars both close enough and bright enough to contribute the transit signals, including at HR 858’s present-day position, ruling out background false positive scenarios.

3. **Light from a physically associated companion which is an eclipsing binary or transiting planet system is blended with HR 858:** The comoving companion HR 858 B is too faint (Gaia Rp = 14.5, \( \Delta \text{RP} = 8.6 \) mag) to contribute the transits based on our \( \Delta m \) constraints, and there is no evidence of any brighter resolved companions in speckle/archival imaging or any unresolved companion causing an RV acceleration. False positive scenarios involving bound companions to HR 858 are therefore unlikely, but we can not conclusively rule out the possibility that HR 858 has an undetected companion bright enough to contribute the transits.

Since we cannot rule out all false positive scenarios involving physically associated companions to HR 858, we use vespa to evaluate the probability of these false positive scenarios. Using the TESS light curve of each planet candidate and constraints from spectroscopy and imaging, vespa finds low false positive probabilities (FPP) for all three planet candidates (FPP < \( 10^{-3} \) for each candidate), so we consider HR 858 b, c, and d to be validated planets.

5. **DISCUSSION**

HR 858 is one of the brightest stars known to host transiting planets, trailing only HD 219134 (Motalebi et al. 2015), π Mensae (Huang et al. 2018b), and 55 Cancri (Winn et al. 2011). Transiting planets around stars this bright afford rich opportunities for detailed characterization, including mass measurements through precise RV observations, secondary eclipse spectroscopy with the James Webb Space Telescope14 and measurements of the alignment of the planetary orbits and stellar spin axis via the Rossiter-McLaughlin effect (Rossiter 1924; McLaughlin 1924) or Doppler Tomography15. HR 858 stands out even among the brightest known transiting systems because of its multiplicity; the next-brightest star known to host 3 transiting planets is 9 times fainter than HR 858. (see Figure 4).

From Kepler, we know of many examples of compact, multi-transiting, and coplanar systems, but relatively few of these systems are in true mean motion resonances (Fabrycky et al. 2014). The HR 858 system could be one of the exceptions to this rule; HR 858 b and c may be in a true 3:5 mean motion resonance. We assessed these planets’ resonant state by randomly drawing 50 sets of initial orbital parameters from the EXOFASTv2 posterior probability distributions and performing N-body integrations for \( 10^5 \) years using the Mercury6 (Chambers 1999) code. We used a hybrid symplectic and Bulirsch-Stoer integrator, with a time-step of 90 minutes and energy conservation kept to 1 part in \( 10^8 \).

The simulations include the stellar quadrupole field due to rotation as a \( J_2 \) moment, which we estimated to be \( J_2 \approx 10^{-6} \) by modeling the star as a \( n = 3 \) polytrope (Lanza et al. 2011; Batygin & Adams 2013) with our derived mass/radius/rotational velocity. About one third of the simulated system realizations show at least some evidence of mean motion resonance: 20% of the realizations exhibited librating resonance angles some of the time. Long-term RV and/or transit monitoring will help determine the resonant state of these planets; lower eccentricities for

---

14 The PandExo tool predicts that NIRCam observations (with a grism and the F444W filter) of a single secondary eclipse of HR 858 b should yield an 11σ detection over the full bandpass and \( \approx 30\% \) precision in 100 nm spectral bins. Despite HR 858 being near JWST’s bright limits, the simulated observing efficiency was 67% using the SUBGRISM64, frametime = 0.34 seconds read-out mode, and the star did not saturate the detectors.

15 Though HR 858’s moderate rotation complicates RV observations, it is possible to measure precise RVs of even more rapidly rotating stars (Barros et al. 2017). Early RV observations of HR 858 indicate it is possible to achieve precision of a few m s\(^{-1}\) (D. Gandolfi and D. Anderson, priv. comm.), similar to the expected 1-2 m s\(^{-1}\) amplitude of the RV orbits and Rossiter-McLaughlin signals.
Fig. 4.— HR 858 in the context of other known transiting exoplanet systems. Shown plotted are all known systems with at least three transiting planets, as a function of the host stars’ apparent brightness at visible wavelengths. The planets within each system are connected together with a horizontal line, and the planet radii and host star effective temperatures are encoded by the size and color of the symbols, respectively. We identified all pairs of planets within 1% of first order (1:2, 2:3, 3:4, 4:5, 5:6, 6:7) mean motion resonances, and within 0.1% of second-order (1:3, 3:5, 5:7) mean motion resonances and connected these planets together with purple lines. HR 858 stands out as the brightest of all known three-transiting-planet systems, while its compact near-resonant architecture is reminiscent of the population of compact multi-planet systems discovered by Kepler.

The comoving stellar companion, HR 858 B, adds further intrigue to the system’s architecture. The Gaia proper motion measurements for the primary and secondary differ by $13.9 \pm 0.2$ mas yr$^{-1}$. If we interpret this discrepancy as relative orbital motion between the two stars (and not systematics due to the large brightness contrast or unresolved orbital motion if HR 858 B is indeed itself a close binary), the orbit of HR 858 B about HR 858 A must be misaligned from the orbits of the transiting system by at least 40 degrees. If true, HR 858 B could have torqued HR 858’s planet-forming disk, causing a misalignment between the stellar spin axis and the transiting super-Earths’ orbits. In particular, HR 858 B’s mass and projected separation appear to put the system in a regime where the timescale for stellar spin axis realignment would be longer than the disk dissipation timescale, potentially “freezing in” the misalignment [Batygin 2012, Spalding & Batygin 2014]. Future monitoring of the HR 858 A/B binary orbit should confirm its misalignment with the transit system and determine whether these mechanisms could create a spin/orbit misaligned multi-planetary system (that could be identified via Rossiter-McLaughlin observations of HR 858 b, c, or d).

Though the TESS prime mission survey is only about 25% complete, there may not be many new transiting planets around stars brighter than HR 858 left to discover. Pre-launch estimates of the TESS planet yield (Sullivan et al. 2015, Barclay et al. 2018, Huang et al. 2018) predicted a handful of planet discoveries around naked eye stars, and so far only HR 858 and π Mensae have fit this description. HR 858 will thus likely retain its privileged position as one of the brightest transit hosts...
in the sky and the most favorable systems for detailed study.

We thank Jen Winters and Michael Fausnaugh for helpful discussions. We acknowledge the use of public TESS Alert data from pipelines at the TESS Science Office and at the TESS Science Processing Operations Center. Funding for the TESS mission is provided by NASA’s Science Mission directorate. Resources supporting this work were provided by the NASA High-End Computing (HEC) Program through the NASA Advanced Supercomputing (NAS) Division at Ames Research Center for the production of the SPOC data products. AV’s work was performed under contract with the California Institute of Technology / Jet Propulsion Laboratory funded by NASA through the Sagan Fellowship Program executed by the NASA Exoplanet Science Institute. CXH and JB acknowledge support from MIT’s Kavli Institute as Torres postdoctoral fellows. JAD and JNW acknowledge support from the Heising–Simons Foundation. JER is supported by the Harvard Future Faculty Leaders Postdoctoral fellowship. J.C.B is supported by the NSF Graduate Research Fellowship Grants No. DGE 1256260 and a graduate fellowship from the Leinweber Center for Theoretical Physics. Some of the data presented in this paper were obtained from the Mikulski Archive for Space Telescopes (MAST). STScI is operated by the Association of Universities for Research in Astronomy, Inc., under NASA contract NAS5–26555. Support for MAST for non–HST data is provided by the California Institute of Technology, under contract with the National Aeronautics and Space Administration under the Exoplanet Exploration Program. The National Geographic Society–Palomar Observatory Sky Atlas (POSS-I) was made by the California Institute of Technology with grants from the National Geographic Society. The Oschin Schmidt Telescope is operated by the California Institute of Technology and Palomar Observatory.

**Facilities:** TESS, FLWO:1.5m (TRES), MINERVA-Australis, SOAR (HRCAM), LCO:1m (NRES), ATT (echelle), CTIO:1.5m (CHIRON).

**Software:** IDL Astronomy Library (Landsman 1994), EXOFASTv2 (Eastman et al. 2013; Eastman 2017), Mercury (Chambers 1999), vespa (Morton 2012, 2015), Orbits for the Impatient (Blunt et al. 2017; Pearce et al., in prep), RadVel (Fulton et al. 2018), mumpy (Oliphant 2006), pandas (McKinney et al. 2010), matplotlib (Hunter 2007), Pandex (Batalha et al. 2017).

---

**REFERENCES**

Addison, B., Wright, D. J., Wittenmyer, R. A., et al. 2019, arXiv e-prints, arXiv:1901.11231

Anglada-Escudé, G., & Butler, R. P. 2012, ApJS, 200, 15

Barclay, T., Pepper, J., & Quintana, E. V. 2018, ApJS, 239, 2

Barros, S. C. C., Gosselin, H., Lillo-Box, J., et al. 2017, A&A, 608, A25

Batalha, N. E., Mandell, A., Pontoppidan, K., et al. 2017, PASP, 129, 064501

Batygin, K. 2012, Nature, 491, 418

Batygin, K., & Adams, F. C. 2013, ApJ, 778, 169

Blunt, S., Nielsen, E. L., De Rosa, R. J., et al. 2017, AJ, 153, 229

Borucki, W. J., Koch, D., Basri, G., et al. 2010, Science, 327, 977

Brown, T. M., Baliber, N., Bianco, F. B., et al. 2013, PASP, 125, 1031

Buchhave, L. A., Latham, D. W., Johansen, A., et al. 2012, Nature, 486, 375

Buchhave, L. A., Bizzarro, M., Latham, D. W., et al. 2014, Nature, 509, 593

Casagrande, L., Schönrich, R., Asplund, M., et al. 2011, A&A, 530, A138

Chambers, J. E. 1999, MNRAS, 304, 793

Choi, J., Dotter, A., Conroy, C., et al. 2016, ApJ, 823, 102

Claret, A., & Bloemen, S. 2011, A&A, 529, A75

da Silva, L., Girardi, L., Pasquini, L., et al. 2006, A&A, 458, 609

Diaz, R. P., Almenara, J. M., Santerne, A., et al. 2014, MNRAS, 441, 983

Dragomir, D., Teske, J., Gunther, M. N., et al. 2019, arXiv e-prints, arXiv:1901.00051

Eastman, J. 2017, EXOFASTv2: Generalized publication-quality exoplanet modeling code, Astrophysics Source Code Library, ascl:1710.003

Eastman, J., Gaudi, B. S., & Agol, E. 2013, PASP, 125, 83

Eastman, J., Siverd, R., & Gaudi, B. S. 2010, PASP, 122, 935

Eastman, J. D., Brown, T. M., Hygelund, J., et al. 2014, in Society of Photo-Optical Instrumentation Engineers (SPIE) Conference Series, Vol. 9147, Ground-based and Airborne Instrumentation for Astronomy V, 914716

Evans, D. F. 2018, Research Notes of the American Astronomical Society, 2, 20

Fabrycky, D. C., Lissauer, J. J., Ragozzine, D., et al. 2014, ApJ, 790, 146

Fausnaugh, M. M., Valley, P. J., Kochanek, C. S., et al. 2019, arXiv e-prints, arXiv:1904.02171

Fressin, F., Torres, G., Charbonneau, D., et al. 2013, ApJ, 766, 81

Fulton, B. J., Petigura, E. A., Blunt, S., & Sinukoff, E. 2018, PASP, 130, 044504

Gaia Collaboration, Brown, A. G. A., Vallenari, A., et al. 2018, arXiv e-prints, arXiv:1804.09365

Gaia Collaboration, Prusti, T., de Bruijne, J. H. J., et al. 2016, A&A, 595, A1

Gontcharov, G. A. 2006, Astronomy Letters, 32, 759

Gray, R. O., Corbally, C. J., Garrison, R. F., et al. 2006, AJ, 132, 161

Howell, S. B., Soebeek, C., Haas, M., et al. 2014, PASP, 126, 398

Huang, C. X., Pal, A., Vanderburg, A., & et. al. in prep

Huang, C. X., Shporer, A., Dragomir, D., et al. 2018a, arXiv e-prints, arXiv:1807.11129

Huang, C. X., Burt, J., Vanderburg, A., et al. 2018b, ApJ, 868, L39

Hunter, J. D. 2007, Computing in Science and Engineering, 9, 90

Jenkins, J. M. 2015, in AAS/Division for Extreme Solar Systems Abstracts, Vol. 3, AAS/Division for Extreme Solar Systems Abstracts, 106.05

---

Funding for the DPAC has been provided by national institutions, in particular the institutions participating in the Gaia Multilateral Agreement. MINERVA-Australis is supported by Australian Research Council LIEF Grant LE160100001, Discovery Grant DP180100972, Mount Cuba Astronomical Foundation, and institutional partners University of Southern Queensland, UNSW Australia, MIT, Nanjing University, George Mason University, University of Louisville, University of California Riverside, University of Florida, and University of Texas at Austin. This work makes use of observations from the LCOGT network. This research has made use of NASA’s Astrophysics Data System and the NASA Exoplanet Archive, which is operated by the California Institute of Technology, under contract with the National Aeronautics and Space Administration under the Exoplanet Exploration Program. The National Geographic Society–Palomar Observatory Sky Atlas (POSS-I) was made by the California Institute of Technology with grants from the National Geographic Society. The Oschin Schmidt Telescope is operated by the California Institute of Technology and Palomar Observatory.

**Software:** IDL Astronomy Library (Landsman 1993), EXOFASTv2 (Eastman et al. 2013; Eastman 2017), Mercury (Chambers 1999), vespa (Morton 2012, 2015), Orbits for the Impatient (Blunt et al. 2017; Pearce et al., in prep), RadVel (Fulton et al. 2018), mumpy (Oliphant 2006), pandas (McKinney et al. 2010), matplotlib (Hunter 2007), Pandex (Batalha et al. 2017).
### Identifying Information

- **HR 858, HD 17926, HIP 13363, TIC 178155732, TOI 396**
- **Gaia DR2 Source ID 506457420469473792**

#### Derived Stellar Parameters

| Parameter | Units | Values |
|-----------|-------|--------|
| R.A.      | Right Ascension (J2000) | 02:51:56.25 |
| DEC       | Declination (J2000)     | -30:48:52.3 |
| PMR       | Proper Motion in Right Ascension (mas yr\(^{-1}\)) | 123.229 ± 0.070 |
| PMDEC     | Proper Motion in Declination (mas yr\(^{-1}\))    | 105.788 ± 0.151 |
| \(\varpi\) | Parallax (mas)         | 31.256 ± 0.070 |

- Tycho B-band Magnitude: 6.956 ± 0.015
- Tycho V-band Magnitude: 6.438 ± 0.010
- 2MASS J-band Magnitude: 5.473 ± 0.030
- 2MASS H-band Magnitude: 5.225 ± 0.030
- 2MASS K-band Magnitude: 5.149 ± 0.020
- WISE Band 1 Magnitude: 5.098 ± 0.232
- WISE Band 2 Magnitude: 4.941 ± 0.094
- WISE Band 3 Magnitude: 5.171 ± 0.014
- WISE Band 4 Magnitude: 5.100 ± 0.029

### Observing Stellar Parameters

- \(\log g\): Spectroscopic surface gravity (cgs) 4.19 ± 0.1
- \(T_{\text{eff}}\): Effective Temperature (K) 6201 ± 50
- \([\text{Fe/H}]\): Metallicity (dex) 0.14 ± 0.08
- \(v\sin i\): Projected rotational velocity (km s\(^{-1}\)) 8.3 ± 0.5

### Derived Stellar Parameters

| Parameter | Units | Values |
|-----------|-------|--------|
| \(M_*\)   | Mass (\(M_\odot\)) | 1.145 ± 0.074 |
| \(R_*\)   | Radius (\(R_\odot\)) | 1.310 ± 0.024 |
| \(L_*\)   | Luminosity (\(L_\odot\)) | 2.348 ± 0.069 |
| \(\rho_*\) | Density (cgs) | 0.717 ± 0.064 |
| \(\log g\) | Model-derived surface gravity (cgs) | 4.262 ± 0.032 |
| \(u_1\)   | \(TESS\)-band linear limb-darkening coeff | 0.227 ± 0.034 |
| \(u_2\)   | \(TESS\)-band quadratic limb-darkening coeff | 0.295 ± 0.035 |

### Planet Parameters

| Parameter | Units | Values |
|-----------|-------|--------|
| \(P\)     | Period (days) | 3.58599 ± 0.00015 |
| \(R_p\)   | Radius (\(R_\oplus\)) | 2.085 ± 0.068 |
| \(T_C\)   | Time of conjunction (BJD\(_{\text{DB}}\)) | 2458409.18969 ± 0.00084 |
| \(a\)     | Semi-major axis (AU) | 0.0480 ± 0.0010 |
| \(i\)     | Inclination (Degrees) | 85.50 ± 0.50 |
| \(e\)     | Eccentricity (95% Confidence) | < 0.30 |
| \(T_{eq}\) | Equilibrium temperature (K) | 1572 ± 22 |
| \(R_p/R_*\) | Radius of planet in stellar radii | 0.01460 ± 0.00035 |
| \(a/R_*\) | Semi-major axis in stellar radii | 7.87 ± 0.23 |
| \(d/R_*\) | Planet/star separation at mid transit | 7.29 ± 0.83 |
| \(\delta\) | Transit depth \(R_p/R_*\)^2 | 0.000213 ± 0.000010 |
| \(T_{14}\) | Total transit duration (days) | 0.1129 ± 0.0016 |
| \(b\)     | Transit Impact parameter | 0.59 ± 0.10 |
| \(\langle F\rangle\) | Incident Flux \(10^9\) erg s\(^{-1}\) cm\(^{-2}\) | 1.347 ± 0.076 |