Two New HATNet Hot Jupiters around A Stars and the First Glimpse at the Occurrence Rate of Hot Jupiters from TESS∗

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Received 2019 June 2; revised 2019 July 26; accepted 2019 July 28; published 2019 September 11

∗ Based on observations obtained with the Hungarian-made Automated Telescope Network. Based in part on observations obtained with the Tillinghast Reflector 1.5 m telescope and the 1.2 m telescope, both operated by the Smithsonian Astrophysical Observatory at the Fred Lawrence Whipple Observatory in Arizona. This work makes use of the Smithsonian Institution High Performance Cluster (SI/HPC). Based in part on observations made with the Southern African Large Telescope (SALT).

44 Hubble Fellow.
45 Packard Fellow.
46 51 Pegasi b Fellow.
47 Pappalardo Fellow.
48 MTA Distinguished Guest Fellow.
1. Introduction

Radial velocity and transit surveys have been responsible for the discovery of about 400 close-in giant planets with periods less than 10 days. These “hot Jupiters” are the best-characterized exoplanets and are test beds for nearly all of the techniques to measure the densities, composition, atmospheric properties, orbital, and dynamical properties of exoplanetary systems. Hot Jupiters are also extreme examples of planetary migration, thought to have formed beyond the ice line, and migrated to their present-day locations via interactions with the protoplanetary gas disk, or via dynamical interactions with nearby planets or stars followed by tidal migration (as recently reviewed by Dawson & Johnson 2018).

About three-quarters of the known hot Jupiters have emerged from ground-based, wide-field transit surveys. These surveys have been successful not only in detecting a large number of planets, but also in searching a wide range of stellar types, thanks to their wide-field sky coverage. Transiting Jovian planets have been confirmed around stars ranging from M dwarfs (HATS-6, Hartman et al. 2015; NGTS-1, Bayliss et al. 2018; HATS-71, Bakos et al. 2018) to A stars (e.g., WASP-33, Collier Cameron et al. 2010; KELT-9, Gaudi et al. 2017). The properties of planets are thought to be dependent on the properties of the host stars. In particular, more massive stars may host more massive protoplanetary disks (e.g., Natta et al. 2006). Radial velocity surveys of intermediate-mass subgiants (“retired A stars”) reported that giant planets are more abundant around more massive stars, but tend to have wider and more circular orbits than their lower-mass main-sequence counterparts (Johnson et al. 2010; Jones et al. 2014; Reffert et al. 2015; Ghezzi et al. 2018). Data from the Kepler primary mission allowed for the determination of occurrence rates for planets as small as 1 R_J around FGK stars (e.g., Howard et al. 2012; Dong & Zhu 2013; Fressin et al. 2013; Petigura et al. 2013; Burke et al. 2015; Petigura et al. 2018). In particular, occurrence rates from Kepler indicate that small planets with orbital periods less than a year are more common around less massive stars (Dressing & Charbonneau 2013; Mulders et al. 2015).

Despite this progress, many questions remain unanswered. Planets around main-sequence A stars are still poorly explored. A stars have radii as large as 4 R_J, on the main sequence, causing the transit depth of a Jovian planet to be 16 times smaller than it would be for a solar-type star. As such, ground-based transit surveys have poor completeness in this regime. The Kepler mission could have performed a sensitive search for giant planets around A stars, but in fact very little data from main-sequence A stars were obtained, because the mission was geared toward the detection of smaller planets for which FGK stars are more favorable. For these reasons, there has been no robust determination of the frequency of giant planets around main-sequence A stars.

There has also been tension between the occurrence rates of hot Jupiters measured by Kepler (0.43 ± 0.05% from Fressin et al. 2013, 0.57±0.14% from Petigura et al. 2018, 0.43±0.07% from Masuda & Winn 2017) and those from radial velocity surveys (1.5 ± 0.6% from Cumming et al. 2008, 1.2 ± 0.4% from Wright et al. 2012). These differences have been attributed to metallicity (e.g., Wright et al. 2012), stellar age, or multiplicity (Wang et al. 2015, although see also Bouma et al. 2018). Surveying different populations with a diverse set of host stars may help resolve these tensions.

The launch of the Transiting Exoplanet Survey Satellite (TESS; Ricker et al. 2016) heralds a new era of exoplanet characterization. In particular, the 30 minute cadence Full Frame Images (FFI) are providing us with an opportunity to search a wide range of stellar types. Unlike Kepler, with TESS there is no need to preselect the target stars to be within a certain range of masses or sizes. Based on observations of seven sky sectors between late 2018 July and 2019 February, TESS has delivered space-based photometry for 126,950 stars brighter than T_m = 10. The promise of near-complete sensitivity from space-based photometry to hot Jupiters across the main sequence and the availability of follow-up results from the tremendous efforts of the TESS follow-up program motivate another look into the occurrence rates of hot Jupiters.

In this paper, we describe the confirmation of two planets discovered by the Hungarian-made Automated Telescope Network (HATNet) survey around A stars, members of a relatively unexplored planet demographic. TESS data for these objects became available during our confirmation process and
were independently identified as planet candidates based on FFI photometry. The follow-up observations, modeling of the systems, and derived system parameters are described in Sections 2 and 3. In Section 4, we describe our estimates of the occurrence rates of hot Jupiters around main-sequence A, F, and G stars. The estimate makes use of a magnitude-limited sample of main-sequence stars ($T_{\text{mag}} < 10$) surveyed by TESS during its first seven sectors, planets cataloged in the TESS Objects of Interest (TOI) list, existing planets from the literature recovered by TESS, and false-positive rates estimated via vetting observations of the TESS follow-up program.

2. Observations

HAT-P-69 and HAT-P-70 were identified as transiting planet candidates by the HATNet survey (Bakos et al. 2004). HAT-P-69 was observed by HATNet between 2010 November and 2011 June, resulting in approximately 24,000 photometric data points. Subsequently, it received photometric and spectroscopic follow-up observations over 2011–2019 that confirmed its planetary nature. It was then observed during Sector 7 of the TESS mission, flagged as a transiting planet candidate by the MIT quick-look pipeline (C. X. Huang et al. 2019, in preparation), and assigned TOI number 625. These highly precise space-based photometric observations are subsequently incorporated in the analyses below. HAT-P-69 was also independently identified as a planet candidate (1SWASPJ084201.35+034238.0) by the Wide Angle Search for Planets (WASP) survey (Pollacco et al. 2006) and was the subject of extensive photometric follow-up via the WASP survey team. These observations are described in Section 2.1 and included in the global analyses.

HAT-P-70 was identified as a planet candidate based on nearly 10,000 HATNet observations spanning the interval from 2009 September to 2010 March. Subsequent ground-based photometric follow-up observations were attempted during the 2016–2017 time frame, but these observations failed to recover the transit event due to the accumulation of uncertainty in the transit ephemerides. HAT-P-70 was also independently identified as a hot Jupiter candidate by the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) quick-look pipeline and given the designation TOI 624. The revised ephemeris from TESS allowed us to successfully perform photometric and spectroscopic follow-up observations that confirmed the planetary nature of the system. HAT-P-70 was also identified by the WASP survey independently as a planet candidate (1SWASPJ045812.56+095952.7), receiving substantial ground-based photometric follow-up prior to the TESS observations.

2.1. Photometry

2.1.1. Candidate Identification by HATNet

The HATNet survey (Bakos et al. 2004) is one of the longest-running wide-field photometric surveys for transiting planets. It employs a network of small robotic telescopes at the Fred Lawrence Whipple Observatory (FLWO) in Arizona and at Maunakea Observatory in Hawaii. Each survey field is $8^\circ \times 8^\circ$, and observations are obtained with the Sloan r′ filter. Observations are reduced following the process laid out by Bakos et al. (2010). Light curves were extracted via aperture photometry. Systematic effects were mitigated using external parameter decorrelation (EPD; Bakos et al. 2007), and the trend filtering algorithm (TFA; Kovács et al. 2005). Periodic transit signals were identified via the box-fitting least squares analysis (BLS; Kovács et al. 2002). The HATNet observations are summarized in Table 1, and the discovery light curves are shown in Figure 1.

2.1.2. TESS Observations

HAT-P-69 and HAT-P-70 were observed by TESS during Year 1 of its primary mission. HAT-P-69 is present in the Camera 1 FFIIs obtained during the Sector 7 campaign, between 2019 January 7 and February 2. HAT-P-70 is present on the Camera 1 FFIs in Sector 5, between 2018 November 15 and December 11. TESS FFIs provide approximately 27 days of nearly continuous monitoring for all stars within its field of view.

We extracted the FFI light curves of the two systems with the lightkurve package (Barentsen et al. 2019) using the public FFI images from the Mikulski Archive for Space Telescopes (MAST) archive produced from the Science Processing Operations Center pipeline (Jenkins et al. 2016). The raw aperture photometry light curves are diluted by the presence of nearby bright stars. In particular, HAT-P-70 is located within $33''$ (1.6 pixels) of a fainter star with a magnitude difference of $\Delta m_{\text{mag}} = 0.75$. We extracted $10 \times 10$ pixel subarrays surrounding each star and defined photometric apertures to include all pixels with fluxes higher than 68% of the fluxes of nearby pixels. For HAT-P-70, this aperture includes both the target star and the nearby neighbor. For HAT-P-69, the photometric aperture does not contain any other stars within 6 mag of the target star. Nearby pixels of apparently blank sky were used to estimate the background flux surrounding the target star. Figure 2 shows each star as observed by TESS, along with the photometric aperture. An R-band image of the star field from the Digitized Sky Survey 2 (McLean et al. 2000) is also shown for reference. The extracted light curve of HAT-P-70 was then deblended, based on the magnitudes of nearby stars from version 6 of the TESS Input Catalog (Stassun et al. 2018).

Figures 3 and 4 present the TESS light curves of the target stars. The TESS light curves of HAT-P-69 and HAT-P-70 show no large systematic variation, nor signs of pulsations or additional eclipsing companions. The TESS transit signals agree in depth with the depths that are measured from ground-based observations.

Phase Modulation and Secondary Eclipses—Hot Jupiters on circular orbits are expected to be tidally locked (e.g., Mazeh 2008), with a fixed dayside atmosphere facing the star at all times. As a result, there can be large temperature differences between the dayside and nonilluminated nightside. During a secondary eclipse, when the planet passes behind the star, the total flux from the dayside is occulted. In addition, as the planet orbits the host star, the flux from the planet’s sky-projected hemisphere changes periodically, producing an atmospheric brightness modulation.

To search for these signals in the TESS data, we fit a simple phase curve model to the full light curve (transits, secondary eclipses, and out-of-eclipse flux modulation), following the methods described in detail in Shporer et al. (2019). Given the geometry of the system, the extrema of the atmospheric brightness modulation occur during conjunction, that is, a cosine of the orbital phase. The out-of-eclipse flux is therefore given by $F(t) = 1 + B_1 \cos(\phi)$, where $\phi = 2\pi(t - T_c)$ is the orbital phase, and $B_1$ is the semiamplitude of the phase curve.
signal. We include secondary eclipse signals halfway between transits, with a depth parameterized by \(f_p\), the relative brightness of the planet’s dayside hemisphere.

Since we are interested in temporal signals in the out-of-eclipse light curve, we do not use the detrended time series and instead multiply the phase curve model by generalized polynomials in time to capture all nonastrophysical time-dependent signals in the raw light curve, which are likely attributable to instrumental systematics. The raw light curves shown in Figures 3 and 4 display clear long-term temporal

![Figure 1. Discovery light curves of HAT-P-69 (left) and HAT-P-70 (right). The light curves have been averaged in phase with bins of width 0.002. The top panels show the HATNet light curves, and the bottom panels show the WASP light curves.](image)

### Table 1

| Target     | Facility     | Date(s)          | Number of Images\(^a\) | Cadence (s)\(^b\) | Filter               |
|------------|--------------|------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|---------------------|
| HAT-P-69   | WASP-South/North | 2009 Jan 14–2012 Apr 23 | 25282                  | 432               | WASP Broadband      |
| HAT-P-69   | HAT-6        | 2010 Nov 2–2011 Apr 21   | 10384                  | 229               | r                   |
| HAT-P-69   | HAT-7        | 2010 Nov 2–2011 May 25   | 8707                   | 233               | r                   |
| HAT-P-69   | HAT-7        | 2011 Feb 14–2011 Jun 3    | 4539                   | 215               | r                   |
| HAT-P-69   | KeplerCam 1.2 m | 2011 Dec 15             | 93                     | 170               | z                   |
| HAT-P-69   | KeplerCam 1.2 m | 2012 Jan 3              | 417                    | 44                | z                   |
| HAT-P-69   | LCO BOS 1.0 m   | 2012 Feb 20            | 170                    | 48                | i                   |
| HAT-P-69   | LCO BOS 1.0 m   | 2012 Apr 8            | 223                    | 68                | i                   |
| HAT-P-69   | KeplerCam 1.2 m | 2013 Mar 14            | 617                    | 24                | i                   |
| HAT-P-69   | KeplerCam 1.2 m | 2018 Feb 6             | 759                    | 22                | z                   |
| HAT-P-69   | KeplerCam 1.2 m | 2018 Mar 2            | 886                    | 22                | z                   |
| HAT-P-69   | TRAPPIST 0.6 m | 2018 Nov 11            | 234                    | 60                | RC\(^c\)             |
| HAT-P-69   | TRAPPIST 0.6 m | 2018 Dec 5            | 251                    | 60                | GC\(^d\)            |
| HAT-P-69   | KeplerCam 1.2 m | 2019 Jan 12         | 381                    | 18                | i                   |
| HAT-P-69   | TRAPPIST 0.6 m | 2019 Feb 9            | 223                    | 52                | RC                  |
| HAT-P-69   | TESS          | 2019 Jan 8–2019 Feb 1   | 1087                   | 1800              | TESS                |
| HAT-P-70   | WASP-North    | 2008 Oct 13–2011 Feb 4  | 19266                  | 351               | WASP Broadband      |
| HAT-P-70   | HAT-9         | 2009 Sep 19–2010 Mar 30 | 9987                   | 224               | r                   |
| HAT-P-70   | TRAPPIST 0.6 m | 2018 Sep 23           | 238                    | 40                | RC                  |
| HAT-P-70   | TRAPPIST 0.6 m | 2018 Nov 5           | 376                    | 40                | RC                  |
| HAT-P-70   | TRAPPIST 0.6 m | 2018 Nov 27          | 231                    | 35                | RC                  |
| HAT-P-70   | TRAPPIST 0.6 m | 2018 Dec 9          | 209                    | 42                | GC                  |
| HAT-P-70   | TESS          | 2018 Nov 15–2018 Dec 10 | 1024                  | 1800              | TESS                |
| HAT-P-70   | KeplerCam 1.2 m | 2019 Feb 21         | 563                    | 18                | i                   |

**Notes.**

\(^a\) Outlying exposures have been discarded.

\(^b\) Median time difference between points in the light curve. Uniform sampling was not possible due to visibility, weather, and pauses.

\(^c\) RC: Red continuum filter centered at 7128 Å with width of 58 Å.

\(^d\) GC: Green continuum filter centered at 5260 Å with width of 65 Å.
trends, as well as discontinuities in flux that occur during momentum dumps.

Given these discontinuities, we split each light curve into small segments separated by momentum dumps and fit a separate polynomial systematics model to each segment. The orders of the polynomials used in the final fit are determined by first fitting each segment individually and minimizing the Bayesian information criterion (BIC), defined as \( \text{BIC} = \chi^2 + k \ln(n) \), where \( k \) is the number of fitted parameters, and \( n \) is the number of data points. After optimizing the polynomial orders, we carry out a joint fit of the full light curve.

For HAT-P-70, we find that the nonastrophysical systematics in the segments are well described by polynomials of second to third order. In the joint fit, we report a marginal 2.4\( \sigma \) secondary eclipse detection of 159 \( \pm \) 65 ppm, while the atmospheric brightness modulation amplitude is consistent with zero. Figure 4 shows the systematics-corrected and phase-folded light curve in the vicinity of the secondary eclipse, along with the best-fit model.

To evaluate the statistical significance of this HAT-P-70 b secondary eclipse detection, we compare the BIC of a joint fit that includes only transits and secondary eclipses (fixing \( B_1 \) to zero) with the BIC of a fit that assumes a flat out-of-transit light curve (fixing \( B_1 \) and \( f_p \) to zero). The difference in BIC is less than 0.1, indicating that the secondary eclipse detection is not formally statistically robust. From an analogous analysis of the HAT-P-69 phase curve, we do not detect any significant secondary eclipse depth or phase curve signal.

2.1.3. Independent Identification by WASP

HAT-P-69 and HAT-P-70 were both independently identified as planet candidates by the WASP survey (Schanche et al. 2019). The northern facility (SuperWASP-North) and the southern facility (WASP-South) both consist of arrays of eight 200 mm /1.8 Canon telephoto lenses on a common mount. Each camera is coupled with 2K \( \times \) 2K detectors, yielding a field of view of 7.8 \( \times \) 7.8 per camera (Pollacco et al. 2006). HAT-P-69 was observed by both WASP-South and SuperWASP-North, producing 25,200 photometric points spanning from 2009 January 14 to 2012 April 23. HAT-P-70 was observed by SuperWASP-North, producing 19,200 observations spanning 2008 October 13 to 2011 February 4. These long baseline observations are plotted in Figure 1 and were included in the global modeling (Section 3.2) to help refine the transit ephemeris.

2.1.4. Ground-based Follow-up Observations

A series of facilities provided follow-up photometry of HAT-P-69 and HAT-P-70 to confirm the transit signal, improve the determination of the planet radius, and increase the precision of the transit ephemeris. A number of transit observations were obtained with the FLWO 1.2 m telescope and KeplerCam, a 4K \( \times \) 4K CCD camera operated with 2 \( \times \) 2 binning, giving a plate scale of 0.0′672 pixel\(^{-1}\). Photometry was extracted as per Bakos et al. (2010). Follow-up photometry was also obtained using the Las Cumbres Observatory (LCO; Brown et al. 2013) network. These observations included transits obtained via the 0.8 m LCO telescope located at the Byrne Observatory at Sedgwick, California, using the SBIG STX-16803 4K \( \times \) 4K camera with a field of view of 16′ \( \times \) 16′. Observations were also obtained using the 1 m LCO telescope at Siding Spring Observatory, Australia, using the Sinistro Fairchild CCD, with a field of view of 27′ \( \times \) 27′ over the 4K \( \times \) 4K detector. Additional photometric follow-up was obtained using the TRAPPIST (TRAnsiting Planets and PlanetesImals Small Telescope) North facility (Jehin et al. 2011; Gillon et al. 2013; Barkaoui et al. 2019) at Oukaimeden Observatory in Morocco. TRAPPIST-North is a 0.6 m robotic photometer employing a 2K \( \times \) 2K CCD with a field of view of 19′8 \( \times \) 19′8 at a plate scale of 0.6′ per pixel.

The dates, cadences, and filters used in these observations are summarized in Table 1. The light curves are made available in Tables 2 and 3 and shown in Figures 5 and 6.

2.2. Spectroscopy

We carried out a series of spectroscopic follow-up observations to confirm the nature of the transiting candidates, constrain the masses, and measure the orbital obliquities of the companions. The observations are listed in Table 4 and summarized below.

The Tillinghast Reflector Echelle Spectrograph (TRES; Fúrész 2008) on the 1.5 m telescope at FLWO, Arizona, was used to obtain dozens of spectra for each system. TRES is a fiber-fed echelle spectrograph with a spectral resolution of \( R = 44,000 \) over the wavelength region of 3850–9100 Å. The observing strategy and data reduction process are described by Buchhave et al. (2012). Each spectrum is measured from the combination of three consecutive observations for optimal cosmic-ray rejection, and the wavelength solution is provided by bracketing ThAr hollow cathode lamp exposures. A series of TRES spectra were obtained at phase quadratures to most efficiently constrain the mass of the planets. For HAT-P-69, relative radial velocities were obtained using a multioorder analysis (Quinn et al. 2012) of the TRES spectra. For HAT-P-70,
we modeled the stellar line profiles derived from a least-squares
deconvolution (LSD; Donati et al. 1997) to derive the absolute
radial velocities of each spectrum. In our experience with rapidly
rotating stars, the best radial velocities are obtained by modeling of
the LSD-derived line profiles. The TRES velocities for HAT-P-69
and HAT-P-70 are listed in Tables 5 and 6 and plotted in Figures 7
and 8, respectively.

Spectroscopic observations were also obtained with TRES
throughout the transits of each planet. These observations allow
us to measure variations in the stellar line profile due to the
partial obscuration of the photosphere of the rapidly rotating
star (Collier Cameron et al. 2010). By measuring the planetary
“shadow” on the line profile of the star, we confirm that the
photometric transit signal is indeed caused by a small body that

Figure 3. TESS light curve of HAT-P-69. Top: raw TESS light curve. Center: detrended light curve. Lower left: detrended light curve phase-folded to the transit ephemeris, showing the transit and associated best-fit model (plotted in red). Lower right: detrended light curve in the region of the secondary eclipse, assuming a circular orbit.

Figure 4. TESS light curve of HAT-P-70. Panel contents as described in Figure 3. The tentative detection of a secondary eclipse with a depth of 159 ± 65 ppm is shown in the lower right panel. The best-fit model is shown in red.
is transiting the bright, rapidly rotating target star, as opposed to
being the diluted signal of a much fainter eclipsing binary
that is spatially blended with the target star in the photometric
aperture. The observing strategy and analysis largely follow the
procedure laid out by Zhou et al. (2016). We observed three
partial transits of HAT-P-69 on 2017 March 8 and 13 and 2019
January 12, with the Doppler shadow of the planet clearly
detected in each individual transit (Figure 9). Two partial
transits of HAT-P-70 were obtained on 2019 February 21 and
March 4. Observations on 2019 February 21 were hampered by
poor weather, but the subsequent transit on 2019 March 4
clearly revealed the planet shadow (Figure 10). These
observations are used in the global analysis (Section 3.2) to
derive the projected spin–orbit angle of the systems.

One additional partial transit of HAT-P-69 b was obtained
via the High Resolution Spectrograph (HRS; Crause et al.
2014) on the Southern African Large Telescope (SALT). HRS
is a fiber-fed echelle spectrograph used in the medium
resolution mode, yielding a spectral resolution of $R = 40,000$
over the wavelength region of 3700–5500 Å over the blue arm
of the spectrograph. Observations from the red arm of the
spectrograph were not used due to the fewer line counts over its
spectral coverage. The observations were obtained covering
the ingress of HAT-P-69 b on 2015 March 6, covering 11 spectra
with integration times of 700 s each. The target star remained
at an altitude of 47°–53° throughout the transit observations.
The spectra were extracted and calibrated using the MIDAS
pipeline (Kniazev et al. 2016, 2017). The spectral line profiles
were extracted via a process similar to that described above.
The average line profile is subtracted, leaving a significant
detection of the planetary transit over ingress (Figure 9).

In addition, a number of spectroscopic resources contributed
to the initial spectroscopic vetting of the targets. Observations
of HAT-P-69 were obtained using the High Resolution Echelle
Spectrometer on the 10 m Keck I at Maunakea Observatory.
Observations were also obtained using the High Dispersion
Spectrograph on the 8.2 m Subaru telescope on Maunakea
Observatory. In both cases, observations were made using the
iodine cell, but did not yield high-precision velocities due to
the rapid rotation of the star. They were not included in the
analysis. We also made use of the CHIRON instrument on
the SMARTS 1.5 m telescope at Cerro Tololo Inter-American
Observatory (CTIO), Chile (Tokovinin et al. 2013), obtaining
four observations of HAT-P-70. Similarly, reconnaissance
observations were obtained with the SOPHIE echelle facility
on the 1.93 m Haute-Provence Observatory, France, as well as
the CORALIE spectrograph on the 1.2 m Euler telescope at
the ESO La Silla Observatory, Chile. Given that the TRES
observations vastly outnumber these reconnaissance observations,
we incorporate only the TRES data in our global modeling.

### 3. Analysis

#### 3.1. Properties of the Host Star

Both HAT-P-69 and HAT-P-70 are classified as rapidly
rotating A stars based on their Two Micron All Sky Survey
(2MASS; Skrutskie et al. 2006) $J − K$ colors and the
reconnaissance spectra from TRES. Rapidly rotating stars have
spectral lines that are blended and unresolved, making standard
spectral classifications more difficult. In addition, the gravity-
darkening effect causes the derived atmospheric parameters,
such as effective temperature, to be dependent on our viewing angle. The same star would appear hotter when viewed pole-on and cooler when viewed along the equator. We adopt the approach described in Zhou et al. (2019) and match the spectral energy distribution (SED) of the star against a grid of synthetic magnitudes computed from the Geneva 2D rotational isochrones (Ekström et al. 2012) for a range of inclination angles. This is performed as part of the global modeling described in Section 3.2, as the transit light curve also contributes to constraining the inclination angle of the system.

The SEDs for both stars are shown in Figures 11 and 12. We find that both stars are late A dwarfs. HAT-P-69 has a mass of $1.648^{+0.058}_{-0.026} M_\odot$, radius of $1.926^{+0.060}_{-0.032} R_\odot$, and effective temperature of $7394^{+360}_{-600}$ K. HAT-P-70 has a mass of $1.890^{+0.010}_{-0.013} M_\odot$, radius of $1.858^{+0.019}_{-0.026} R_\odot$, and effective temperature of $8450^{+540}_{-600}$ K.

We check this rotational SED analysis with an independent fit of the SEDs to Kurucz atmosphere models of nonrotating stars (Kurucz 1992). We find HAT-P-69 to have $T_{\text{eff}} = 7650 \pm 400$ K, $R = 1.88 \pm 0.19 R_\odot$, and reddening of $A(\nu) = 0.01 \pm 0.01$. HAT-P-70 has $T_{\text{eff}} = 8400 \pm 400$ K, $R = 2.08 \pm 0.20 R_\odot$, with reddening of $A(\nu) = 0.30^{+0.04}_{-0.01}$. For both stars, the nonrotational SED analysis agrees well with that from the global modeling detailed above.

As a check on the determination of the stellar parameters, we independently derived the effective temperature and metallicity of each star using the TRES spectra and the Stellar Parameter Classification pipeline (Buchhave et al. 2010). We find HAT-P-69 to have $T_{\text{eff}} = 7557 \pm 52$ K and $[m/H] = +0.05 \pm 0.08$ dex, while HAT-P-70 has atmospheric parameters of $T_{\text{eff}} = 8246 \pm 93$ K and $[m/H] = -0.06 \pm 0.09$ dex. The spectroscopic stellar parameters agree to within $1\sigma$ with those measured from the SED, though the uncertainties are likely underestimated. The rapid rotation of the star causes difficulties in continuum normalization of the spectra, making accurate spectroscopic determination of the stellar parameters and associated uncertainties more difficult. We incorporate the metallicity measurements from spectra as Gaussian priors in the global modeling.

An accurate measurement of the projected stellar rotation rate is crucial for interpreting the Doppler transit data.
constraining the stellar gravity-darkening effect, and constraining the stellar oblateness. To measure the projected rotation velocity, we model the LSD spectral line profiles using a kernel that incorporates the effects of stellar rotation and radial-tangential macroturbulence via a numerical disk integration, and we model the instrument line broadening as a Gaussian convolution. We find HAT-P-69 to have $v \sin i = 77.40 \pm 0.60 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ and a macroturbulent velocity of $v_{\text{mac}} = 5.6 \pm 4.2 \text{ km s}^{-1}$. For HAT-P-70, the results are $v \sin i = 99.87 \pm 0.65 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ and $v_{\text{mac}} = 4.77 \pm 0.86 \text{ km s}^{-1}$.

### 3.2. Global Modeling of System Parameters

We perform a global analysis of the systems to model the large suite of observations available for HAT-P-69 and HAT-P-70. This global model simultaneously incorporates the photometric transit, radial velocities, stellar parameter constraints, Doppler transits, and the effect of photometric gravity darkening on the transit light curve and observed stellar properties.

Our modeling process largely follows that described by Zhou et al. (2019). Rapid rotation distorts the shapes of stars; they become oblate along the equator, causing the poles to be hotter and brighter, while the equator becomes cooler and darker (von Zeipel 1924). This gravity-darkening effect causes both the transit light curve (Barnes 2009) and the observed SED of the star (Brandt & Huang 2015) to depend on the viewing direction. The photometric transit is modeled using the simuTrans package from Herman et al. (2018), which accounts for both the gravity-darkened nonuniform brightness distribution of the stellar disk and the ellipsoidal nature of the rapidly rotating star. The stellar properties are inferred from the Geneva 2D rotational isochrones (Ekström et al. 2012), which incorporate the effects of rotation on stellar evolution and include prescriptions for the oblateness of the stars based on their rotation rates. In the case of an oblique transiting geometry about gravity-darkened stars, the resulting light curve often exhibits asymmetry because of the latitude dependence of the surface brightness distribution. This effect is detected for HAT-P-70 b and explored in greater depth in Section 3.4.

The limb-darkening coefficients are interpolated from the values of Claret & Bloemen (2011) and Claret (2017) for the Sloan and TESS bands. They are constrained by a Gaussian prior of width 0.02 during the global modeling, representing the difference in the limb-darkening coefficients should the stellar parameters be different by 1$\sigma$. To model the transit light curves, we adopt a gravity-darkening coefficient $\beta$ from interferometric observations of Vega ($\beta = 0.231 \pm 0.028$; Monnier et al. 2012). Similar interferometric gravity-darkening coefficients have been measured for other rapidly rotating A stars (e.g., $\alpha$ Cep $\beta = 0.216 \pm 0.021$; Zhao et al. 2009). To account for the uncertainty in the gravity-darkening coefficient, it is modeled in the global fit as a free parameter constrained about the value and uncertainty of Vega reported in Monnier et al. (2012). The model fitting procedure also includes detrending of the ground-based follow-up light curves, via a linear combination of effects, including the pixel position of the target star, air mass, and background count values. We account for the 30 minute cadence of the TESS by supersampling and integrating the model over the exposure time.

The stellar parameters are constrained by the SED of the stars over the Tycho-2 (Høg et al. 2000), APASS (Henden et al. 2016), and 2MASS (Skrutskie et al. 2006) photometric bands, as well as the parallax from Gaia data release 2 (Gaia Collaboration et al. 2018). Local reddening is constrained by the maximum reddening value from the dust maps of Schlafly & Finkbeiner (2011), assuming $A_V = 3.1(E(B-V))$. To account for the uncertainties in our deblending of the TESS light curves, we also include a TESS light curve dilution parameter, closely constrained by a Gaussian prior, with width derived from the reported uncertainties in the TESS band magnitudes of the target and nearby stars from TIC v6.

The Doppler transit signal is simultaneously modeled with the light curve and provides the best constraint on the projected spin–orbit angle $\lambda$ for the orbital plane of the planets. We model variations of the stellar line profiles via a 2D integration of the rotating stellar surface being occulted by the transiting planet, incorporating the effects of differential limb darkening, radial-tangential macroturbulence, and instrument broadening.

To derive the best-fit system parameters and their associated uncertainties, we perform a Markov chain Monte Carlo analysis using the emcee package (Foreman-Mackey et al. 2013). The resulting stellar and planetary parameters are shown in Tables 7 and 8, respectively.

### 3.3. Blending and Astrophysical False-positive Scenarios

Many astrophysical scenarios can mimic the transit signal of a planetary system. False-positive scenarios such as M dwarf companions with radii similar to substellar counterparts are ruled out by the mass constraints imposed by our radial velocity measurements. The possibility that the transit signals are due to fainter eclipsing binaries whose eclipses are diluted by the brighter target stars is more difficult to eliminate. We adopt a number of observations, including diffraction-limited imaging and analysis of the spectroscopic transit, to eliminate this possibility.
To rule out spatially nearby companions, we obtained observations with the NN-explore Exoplanet Stellar Speckle Imager (NESSI; Scott et al. 2018) on the 3.5 m WIYN telescope at Kitt Peak National Observatory, Arizona. Speckle imaging gives a resolution of $\gtrsim 0.04$ in both the $r$-narrow and $z$-narrow bands for both HAT-P-69 and HAT-P-70, corresponding to spatial scales as close to the stars as 14–22 au (at...
562 nm and 832 nm, respectively). The corresponding constraints from NESSI are plotted in Figure 13. In addition, we obtained J- and Ks-band infrared seeing limited imaging HAT-P-69 with the WIYN High-Resolution Infrared Camera (WHIRC; Smee et al. 2011), also finding no visual companions to the target star.

Finally, the Doppler detection of the planetary transit confirms that the transits indeed occur around the rapidly rotating, bright A star hosts, not background stars (e.g., Collier Cameron et al. 2010). The depth of the spectroscopic shadow agrees with the depth observed in the photometric light curves, suggesting that the dilution due to background sources is negligible.

3.4. Detection of an Asymmetric Gravity-darkened Transit for HAT-P-70

A transiting planet crossing a gravity-darkened stellar disk may exhibit an asymmetric transit when the projected spin–orbit angle is misaligned with the stellar rotation axis. The effects specific to gravity darkening are only visible at the parts-per-thousand level, and as such they are difficult to detect with ground-based data. The only previous confirmed instance of asymmetric gravity darkening being observed for a planetary system is for Kepler-13. The asymmetric transit light curves of Kepler-13 were identified and modeled by Szabó et al. (2011), Barnes et al. (2011), and Herman et al. (2018). Subsequent ground-based Doppler transit confirmation of the spin–orbit misalignment was performed by Johnson et al. (2014) and an eventual joint light curve and spectroscopic transit model developed by Masuda (2015).

The TESS light curves of HAT-P-70 exhibit asymmetric transits similar to those seen for Kepler-13. The transit is shallower at ingress and deeper near egress, indicating that the planet traverses a stellar surface that is darker near ingress and brighter near egress. Our global model reproduces such a transit, with the projected spin–orbit misaligned at 21.2$^{+3.6}_{-1.2}$° and the stellar pole inclined to the line of sight by 58.2$^{+3.6}_{-1.2}$° degrees. Figure 14 shows the TESS transit light curve, with the best-fit standard and gravity-darkened transit models overplotted. An asymmetry at the 500 ppm level can be seen in the residuals to the standard transit model, akin to that seen for Kepler-13.

We note that we make use of the bolometric gravity-darkening coefficient β in our light curve modeling. Improvements can be made via a more careful treatment for the band dependence of the gravity-darkening effect (e.g., Espinosa Lara & Rieutord 2011). We note, though, that running the global modeling while allowing β to be free reproduces the same projected obliquity λ value to within uncertainties, and as such the actual adopted gravity-darkening coefficient is not critical to the modeling.

4. Occurrence Rate of Hot Jupiters from TESS

Although hot Jupiters were some of the earliest exoplanets to be discovered, they are not intrinsically common. Radial velocity searches from the Keck, Lick, and Anglo Australia Telescope programs of 1330 FGK stars revealed a hot Jupiter occurrence rate of 1.2 ± 0.2% (<15 $M_{\text{Jup}}$, <0.1 au; Marcy et al. 2005), revised to 1.20 ± 0.38% (>0.1 $M_{\text{Jup}}$, P < 10 days) by Wright et al. (2012) using the California Planet Search sample. Cumming et al. (2008) found an occurrence rate of 1.5 ± 0.6% (>0.3 $M_{\text{Jup}}$, <0.1 au) using the Keck planet search sample. Using the HARPS and CORALIE samples, Mayor et al. (2011) found a hot Jupiter occurrence rate of 0.89 ± 0.36% (>0.15 $M_{\text{Jup}}$, <11 days).

These radial velocity occurrence rates are generally thought to be higher than those offered by the Kepler survey. Studies by Howard et al. (2012) and Fressin et al. (2013) of the early Kepler data found rates of 0.4 ± 0.1% and 0.43 ± 0.05% for hot Jupiters, respectively. Recent analyses with improved stellar properties from Petigura et al. (2018) found that 0.57$^{+0.19}_{-0.12}$% of main-sequence FGK stars (5.0 > log g > 3.9, 4200 < $T_{\text{eff}}$ < 6500 K) host hot Jupiters. The measured giant planet occurrence rate from the CoRoT mission is higher than that from Kepler, finding 21 giant planets ($R_p$ > 5 $R_\oplus$) within
10 day period orbits, corresponding to an occurrence rate of $0.98 \pm 0.26\%$ (Deleuil et al. 2018).

The stars that host hot Jupiters are more metal-rich than random stars of the same spectral class (Santos et al. 2003; Valenti & Fischer 2005; Buchhave et al. 2012; Petigura et al. 2018). Differences between the metallicity distribution of the Kepler stellar sample and those of the radial velocity surveys have been raised as an explanation for the differences in the hot Jupiter occurrence rates (Wright et al. 2012), although Guo et al. (2017) showed that there is minimal difference between the Kepler field star metallicity distribution and that of the California Planet Search sample. Wang et al. (2015) offered a correction for the Kepler sample based on an improved classification of the subgiant population. They suggested that multiplicity or a lower occurrence rate of hot Jupiters around subgiants may be the cause of the disagreement. Later, Bouma et al. (2018) showed that binarity is unlikely to be responsible for any disagreements between the Doppler and Kepler samples.

A radial velocity survey of intermediate-mass subgiants has shown that higher mass stars tend to host more gas giant planets within a few astronomical units (e.g., Johnson et al. 2010; Jones et al. 2014; Reffert et al. 2015; Ghezzi et al. 2018), though caveats regarding the accuracy of the mass measurements of these evolved stars should be noted (e.g., Lloyd 2013; Schlaufman & Winn 2013; Stello et al. 2017). The giant planets around subgiants tend to be found in orbits beyond 0.1 au; there appears to be a paucity of hot Jupiters around evolved stars.

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**Figure 9.** Doppler transits of HAT-P-69 b. Each Doppler map (top panel) shows the intensity of the line profile as a function of both velocity (relative to the line center) and orbital phase. The ingress and egress phases are marked with horizontal lines. The top segment shows the data from all of the observed transits, averaged into phase bins of size 0.003. The middle panel shows the best-fitting model, and the lower panel shows the residuals. A diagrammatic representation of the transit geometry of each system is shown at the top of the figure, with the relative sizes of the star and planet plotted to scale. The gravity-darkening effect is exaggerated to allow it to be easily seen. The left panel shows the Doppler transit signal for HAT-P-69 b, combined from three partial TRES transit observations. The right panel shows the partial transit of HAT-P-69 b via SALT HRS. Phases at which no data were obtained are colored in plain orange.
These studies suggest that hot Jupiters undergo tidal orbital decay when a star begins evolving into a subgiant (Schlaufman & Winn 2013). The planets around these “retired A stars” tend to be in longer period and more circular orbits than those found around main-sequence stars (Jones et al. 2014), although recent discoveries have unveiled numerous hot Jupiters in close-in orbits about evolved stars (Grunblatt et al. 2018). These issues inspired us to look into the hot Jupiter occurrence rate around main-sequence A stars.

In this section, we aim to examine the hot Jupiter occurrence rate via the TESS stellar population, with two key differences from the previous works from Kepler:

1. The TESS stellar population encompasses bright stars covering one-quarter of the sky. This sample is a significantly closer (150 pc for a solar-type main-sequence star) population than that from Kepler. The TESS sample is a closer match to the radial velocity sample of bright nearby stars and should provide another test for any tension in the occurrence rates derived by the two techniques.

2. The TESS sample spans A, F, and G main-sequence stars. By comparing the planet distribution around A and FG samples, we can determine if the paucity of close-in planets around “retired A stars” is due to post-main-sequence stellar evolution. More broadly, we can test...
whether the occurrence rates of hot Jupiters change with stellar mass.

### 4.1. Main-sequence Sample

We restricted our study to main-sequence stars. We did not wish to consider evolved stars because of the problems with selection biases, shallower transit depths, and lack of substantial follow-up observations. We do note, though, that more than half of the TESS stars brighter than 10th magnitude are evolved. Eventually, this will be a rich hunting ground (e.g., Huber et al. 2019; Rodriguez et al. 2019).

Figure 15 shows the color–magnitude diagram (CMD) of the 120,000 stars brighter than $M_\text{mag} = 10$ that were observed by TESS. The $B_P - R_P$ and $G$ values are taken from a cross match against the Gaia DR2 catalog (Gaia Collaboration et al. 2018).

To define the main sequence, we make use of the colors and magnitudes from the MESA Isochrones and Stellar Tracks (MIST; Dotter 2016). We draw an upper and a lower boundary in the $B_P - R_P$ versus $G$ diagram based on the zero-age main sequence (ZAMS) and the terminal-age main sequence (TAMS) points in the solar-metallicity MIST evolution tracks.
As per Dotter (2016), the ZAMS is defined by the criterion that the core hydrogen luminosity of the star is 99.9% of the total core luminosity, while the TAMS is defined by the criterion that the core hydrogen fraction has fallen below $10^{-12}$. The ZAMS and TAMS boundaries are plotted in Figure 15. Between these boundaries, we are left with 47,126 main-sequence stars for this study.

The restriction to stars with $T_{\text{mag}} < 10$ allows us to make use of the TOI catalog available to the TESS follow-up community, which is essentially complete for hot Jupiters. The planet candidates around fainter stars in the FFIs are not fully vetted. We also restrict attention to the data from Sectors 1–7 because the candidates derived from later sectors have not yet received sufficient follow-up observations at the time of writing.

To check our CMD-derived stellar parameters and to estimate the metallicity of the population, we cross-match our field stellar population against the TESS-HERMES DR1 spectroscopic parameters for stars in the TESS southern continuous viewing zone (Sharma et al. 2018). Because the initial data release is restricted to stars within $10 < V < 13.1$, we expect a very limited number of matches. We find 491 stars to have stellar parameters from TESS-HERMES within our sample, of which 301 have rotational broadening velocities $< \sum v I \sin 20 \text{ km s}^{-1}$. Figure 16 shows a comparison between our stellar effective temperature, surface gravity, and stellar mass against the spectroscopically measured values from TESS-HERMES.

The median absolute deviations (MADs) between CMD and spectroscopic parameters are 60 K in $T_{\text{eff}}$, 0.09 dex in $\log g$, and 0.09 $M_\odot$ in mass. However, we notice a systematic offset in our effective temperature and mass estimates for cool stars (dotted line in Figure 16). We correct for this bias by fitting for a polynomial correction to our parameters as follows for temperature:

$$T_{\text{eff}} = 0.49 \, T_{\text{eff,CMD}} + 1958$$

(1)
for stars with $4000 < T_{\text{eff,CMD}} < 6120$ K. We also apply a correction in mass:

$$M_\star = 0.75 M_{\star,\text{CMD}} + 0.23$$

(2)

for $0.60 < M_{\star,\text{CMD}} < 0.92 M_\odot$. Postcorrection, we find that MADs between CMD and spectroscopic parameters are 40 K in $T_{\text{eff}}$ and 0.08 $M_\odot$ in mass. Figure 17 shows the properties of the stellar population included in our sample. The sample is grouped into mass bins roughly corresponding to the A (1.4–2.3 $M_\odot$), F (1.05–1.4 $M_\odot$), and G (0.8–1.05 $M_\odot$) spectral types. We elaborate on the occurrence rates of planets within each mass bin in Sections 4.3 and 4.4.
In particular, the metallicity distributions of the 301 stars with TESS-HERMES measurements are plotted. We note that the population has near-solar metallicity of \( [\text{Fe}/\text{H}] = -0.06 \pm 0.21 \). When subdivided into the mass bins, we find the G star bin to have \( [\text{Fe}/\text{H}] = -0.03 \pm 0.20 \), F stars to have \( [\text{Fe}/\text{H}] = -0.13 \pm 0.19 \), and A stars to have \( [\text{Fe}/\text{H}] = -0.26 \pm 0.15 \). We note that when subdivided into their mass bins, the number of stars per bin becomes very small and may not be representative of the population. We look forward to further fields of the TESS-HERMES being completed, as well as similar surveys of brighter stars, to allow a better examination of the dependence between metallicity and the TESS planet properties.

### 4.2. Candidate Identification

Our planet sample makes use of the candidates (TOIs) released by the TESS Science office from the first seven sectors of TESS data around stars brighter than \( T_{\text{mag}} = 10 \). The TOIs are selected from a list of threshold crossing events (TCEs) by human veters. A TCE requires the signal-to-noise ratio of the planet to be above 7.3 and that at least two transits are detected in the light curve. The human veters reject some false positives based on standard diagnostics. For example, these may include large secondary eclipse/phase variation detections that indicate the eclipsing object is of stellar nature, an obvious centroid offset detection that indicates the eclipsing events happened on a background object, or significant depth variation with the choice of photometric aperture. We also cross-reference the TCEs with known false positive/eclipsing binary catalogs (Triaud et al. 2017; Collins et al. 2018). Although the initial TOIs were generated from two different sources (the 2 minute and the 30 minute data), for uniformity we ensured that all of the TOIs we used in this work are detected as TCEs through the quick-look pipeline, and that all of the TCEs detected by the quick-look pipeline around stars brighter than \( T_{\text{mag}} = 10 \) mag went through the TOI process.

We define our hot Jupiter candidates as TOIs with an orbital period between 0.9 and 10 days, a radius between 0.8 and 2.5 \( R_{\text{Jup}} \), and a transit impact parameter smaller than 0.9. The period lower bound of 0.9 days was adopted to incorporate WASP-18b (Hellier et al. 2009), the shortest-period known hot Jupiter within TESS sectors 1–7 (Shporer et al. 2019), into our sample. A similar minimum period cut-off was also employed by Howard et al. (2012; 0.7 days) and Fressin et al. (2013; 0.8 days). We also note that no hot Jupiter candidates were found with periods <0.9 days within our sample. To ensure a clean sample, we also require candidates to have a signal-to-noise ratio (S/N) larger than 10, although, in practice, none of the giant planet candidates have an S/N between 10 and the traditional value of 7.3. We use the stellar radii interpolated from the Gaia CMD (Section 4.1) to recompute the radius of the planet during the selection.
4.3. Completeness and Signal-to-noise Ratio Estimates

Since the expected noise floor for a typical TESS star at $T_{\text{mag}} = 10$ per 1 hr is 200 ppm (Huang et al. 2018), any giant planet transiting a main-sequence star in our sample should be detected with a high S/N. However, some stars may exhibit large amplitude and short timescale stellar variability, such as stars on the instability strip of the CMD. Strong stellar variability can reduce the sensitivity to transit signals. To estimate our completeness rate more accurately, we measured the per-point MAD $\sigma_{\text{mad}}$ of detrended/deblended light curves for all of the 47,126 stars used in this paper, derived from the FFIs using the quick-look pipeline. A factor of 1.48 is applied to $\sigma_{\text{mad}}$ such that it approximates the standard deviation scatter of the light curves. The S/N of the candidates is then estimated with

$$S/N = \frac{\delta}{1.48 \times \sigma_{\text{mad}}} \left( \frac{T_{\text{dur}}}{0.5} N_r \right)^{0.5},$$

where $\delta$ is the approximate transit depth, $T_{\text{dur}}$ is the full transit duration in hours, and $N_r$ is the number of transits that appeared in the data from TESS Sectors 1–7. We assume any planet with a calculated S/N exceeding 10 was selected as a candidate, and otherwise was not selected. We also assume that the hot Jupiters exhibit a uniform distribution in transit impact parameter between 0 and 0.9. Figure 18 shows the survey completeness for a Jupiter-sized planet with an impact parameter of 0.45, for both 3 and 10 day orbits. The transit duration is calculated under the assumption of a circular orbit. While this assumption may not be valid for planets with periods approaching 10 days, it has been shown that modestly eccentric orbits have a negligible effect on survey completeness (Burke 2008).

4.4. Results

A total of 47,126 stars and 31 TOIs are included in the occurrence rate calculation. The TOIs are composed of 18 confirmed planets, 3 planet candidates, and 10 false positives. The lists of planets, candidates, and false positives are given in the Appendix. To summarize the previous sections, the stellar and planet population is defined within the criteria below:

1. Brighter than $T_{\text{mag}} = 10$.
2. Lying within the solar-metallicity ZAMS and TAMS boundaries on the Gaia $B_p - R_p$ versus $G$ CMD, and thereby classified as main sequence.
3. Planets are detected with BLS $S/R > 10$ and passed the vetting process.
4. Planets with periods $0.9 \leq P \leq 10$ days.
5. Planets with radii $0.8 \leq R_p \leq 2.5 R_{\text{Jup}}$.
6. Transits with impact parameter $b < 0.9$ to avoid grazing transits.

Within this stellar sample, the population is binned by stellar mass into A (1.4–2.3 $M_\odot$), F (1.05–1.4 $M_\odot$), and G (0.8–1.05 $M_\odot$) spectral types. We estimate the occurrence rate $f$ within each stellar mass bin as the conjugate distribution of the binomial distribution (i.e., the beta distribution):

$$P(f) = \text{Beta}(n_{\text{obs}}, n_{\text{trial}} - n_{\text{obs}}),$$

in which $n_{\text{obs}}$ is the number of transiting planets observed in the mass bin, and $n_{\text{trial}}$ is the effective number of times we try to conduct the detection of those transiting planets after accounting for transit probability and completeness. Specifically,

$$n_{\text{obs}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n_p} (1 - \text{FP}) w_i,$$

where $w_i$ is a weight indicating the probability that a planet/candidate falls within a particular mass bin. The probability distribution for the mass of each planet/candidate host star is modeled as a Gaussian distribution centered on the estimated mass, with a dispersion equal to 10% of the value of the estimated mass. The false-positive rate FP is estimated in each stellar mass bin using current follow-up results and is only

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Figure 18: Left: median light curve scatter across the main sequence. Evolution tracks for 0.8, 1.05, 1.4, and 2.3 $M_\odot$ solar-metallicity stars are plotted. The region near $1.6 M_\odot$ exhibits higher levels of scatter than average due to stars in the instability strip. Survey completeness for a 3 day period (center panel) and 10 day period (right) Jupiter-sized planet are plotted. We find that we are 80% complete for 10 day period hot Jupiters across the lower main sequence ($< 1.4 M_\odot$), and 70% complete for such planets around intermediate-mass stars ($1.4 < M_\odot < 2.3 M_\odot$).
applied to the active candidates. For the confirmed planets, the false-positive rate is set equal to zero. The false-positive rate is applied only to the active planet candidates, while \( FP = 0 \) for confirmed planets. The false-positive rate is calculated per stellar mass bin as

\[
FP = \frac{N_{\text{False positives}}}{N_{\text{Confirmed Planets}} + N_{\text{False Positives}}}. \tag{6}
\]

Based on the photometric and spectroscopic observations that have been performed so far by the TESS follow-up program, we find a false-positive rate of 15% for G stars, 41% for F stars, and 47% for A stars. Globally, the false-positive rate for hot Jupiters from TESS within our sample is 35%. Similar false-positive rates for short-period giant planets (29.3%) were reported by Fressin et al. (2013) for the initial Kepler candidates. The uncertainty assumes Poisson errors based on the number of planet candidates and false positives surveyed so far.

We define \( n_{\text{trial}} \) as

\[
n_{\text{trial}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n_a} \int \mathcal{P}_{\text{trans}} \mathcal{P}_{\text{det}} dP dR, \tag{7}
\]

in which \( n_a \) is the total number of observed stars falling in a particular mass bin, and \( \mathcal{P}_{\text{trans}} \) and \( \mathcal{P}_{\text{det}} \) are the probability of a planet with period \( P \) and radius \( R \) transiting and being detected around star \( i \), respectively. The transit probability for a planet with period \( P \) around a star with radius \( r_i \) and mass \( m_i \) is

\[
\mathcal{P}_{\text{trans},i}(P) = 0.9 \left( \frac{2\pi}{P} \right)^{2/3} \left( \frac{G m_i}{r_i} \right)^{-1/3}. \tag{8}
\]

The coefficient of 0.9 is present because we only consider planets and candidates with impact parameters smaller than 0.9. The probability of detection for each star is estimated following Section 4.3, assuming any planet with \( S/N \leq 10 \) has been detected. The final integration is computed using a Monte Carlo method assuming that the intrinsic period distribution of a planet is uniform within the range from 0.9 to 10 days and the radius distribution of a planet is uniform within the range from 0.8 to 1.5 \( R_{\text{Jup}} \).

Figure 19 summarizes the planet sample, search completeness, and field star population within each spectral-class mass bin.

This planet and host star sample yields a total hot Jupiter occurrence rate from TESS of 0.41 \( \pm \) 0.10%. Within each mass bin, we find an occurrence rate of 0.71 \( \pm \) 0.31% for main-sequence G stars, 0.43 \( \pm \) 0.15% for F stars, and 0.26 \( \pm \) 0.11% for A stars. These occurrence rates are presented in Figure 20.

In this analysis, we defined the main sequence as being bound within the solar-metallicity ZAMS and TAMS lines. The actual population should exhibit a dispersion in metallicity, with the effect of stars being brighter at higher metallicity for the same evolutionary state, and vice versa for lower metallicity stars. To test the effect of a more blurred main-sequence boundary, we reperformed the analysis while assuming a \([\text{Fe}/\text{H}] = -0.27\) ZAMS boundary and a \([\text{Fe}/\text{H}] = +0.15\) TAMS boundary, encompassing the 1\( \sigma \) dispersion in metallicity seen in our cross-matched TESS-HERMES stars. The resulting main-sequence sample increased to 52,788 stars and included two additional confirmed planets around F stars, two new candidates about G stars, one new candidate around an F star, and one new candidate around an A star. The net result is no significant change in the occurrence rates within each mass bin, nor any significant change for the whole sample.

Some caution may be necessary when directly comparing our occurrence rate against that derived from Kepler data.
stellar sample is restricted to the main-sequence stars, while the
Kepler sample may contain more evolved stars (Wang et al.
2015). Our definition of the main sequence is also different
from more traditional definitions, which are based on surface
gravity. We do not impose a surface gravity criterion because
stars on the main sequence have different surface gravities at
different masses: an intermediate-age main-sequence K star has
\( \log g \approx 4.5 \), while A stars have \( \log g \approx 3.8 \) at the
same evolutionary stage. Some previous works required \( \log g < 3.9 \)
or 4.0 to define the main sequence, which may remove 10%–
30% of the main-sequence population in the range
6000 < \( T_{\text{eff}} \) < 6500 K (e.g., Howard et al. 2012; Petigura
et al. 2018). We find that if we apply a limit of \( \log g < 4.0 \) to
our sample, we increase the occurrence rates of hot Jupiters
around F and A stars by nearly a factor of 2.

Although TESS is largely complete for hot Jupiters around F
and G stars, the sensitivity is poorer for more evolved early A
stars, for which the stellar radius can be as large as 4 \( R_\odot \). To check
the dependence of our results on the completeness calculations,
we tried drawing a boundary around smaller-radius A stars
(defined by the boundary between \(-0.1 < B_P - R_P < 0.5 \) and
\( G > G_{\text{ZAMS}} - 1.0 \)). For stars within this boundary, the complete-
ness is 80% for hot Jupiters with a period of 10 days. All of the
confirmed cases of hot Jupiters around A stars that were used in
our preceding calculations also reside within this more restricted
sample. We find no significant difference (<1σ) in the occurrence
rates presented above and those obtained within this “near-
complete” box.

Unrecognized binaries in the main-sequence population can
cause systematic errors in occurrence rate estimates. Bouma
et al. (2018) found that systematic biases due to binarity may be
important for small planets, but for Kepler hot Jupiters the bias
is only at the level of \( \sim 5\% \), smaller than our current
uncertainties. Our occurrence rates were also obtained for a
main sequence defined between the ZAMS and TAMS
boundaries, which has the effect of removing some binaries
because they appear overluminous. In testing for the effect of
metallicity on our occurrence rates, we shifted the ZAMS and
TAMS boundaries, but found minimal effect on the resulting
occurrence rates.

A number of caveats still exist. The number of hot Jupiters
around bright stars to be identified or recovered by TESS over
the course of its mission will be at least four times that
presented in this paper. We expect these occurrence rates and
false-positive rates to be revised over the course of the mission.
In particular, the majority of new hot Jupiters from TESS
should be around intermediate-mass stars; the ground-based
transit surveys are the least complete, and the hot Jupiter
follow-up effort is most expensive within this regime. The
uncertainties in our occurrence rates are currently dominated by
Poisson statistics.

5. Conclusions

5.1. Agreement of TESS and Kepler Hot Jupiter Occurrence
Rates

We find good agreement between the occurrence rates of hot
Jupiters derived from the TESS and Kepler surveys. The
occurrence rate from TESS is 0.41 ± 0.10%. From Kepler,
various studies have found occurrence rates of 0.4 ± 0.1% (Howard
et al. 2012), 0.43 ± 0.05% (Fressin et al. 2013),
0.57±0.15% (Petigura et al. 2018), and 0.43±0.07% (Masuda
& Winn 2017).

The number of stars and planets within the TESS sample is
already comparable to that from the Kepler sample and will
soon grow. We make use of 47,126 stars and 18 planets and 3
active candidates. Previously determined occurrence rates of
hot Jupiters were computed from 24 planet candidates around
58,000 stars by Howard et al. (2012), and out of 14 planets
around 37,000 stars by Petigura et al. (2018). The light curve
precision that TESS provides for these bright stars is also
comparable to that for the relatively fainter stars from the
Kepler sample.

Our initial estimates of the sample metallicity, derived from
a cross match of the bright TESS stars against the TESS-
HERMES (Sharma et al. 2018) catalog, suggest that our sample
([Fe/H] = −0.06 ± 0.21) is similar to that of Kepler
(−0.045 ± 0.009; Guo et al. 2017). Future southern spectro-
scopic surveys of bright stars will continue to improve our
understanding of the properties of field stars surveyed by TESS.

The average solar-type star from this TESS sample is located
at 150 pc, while that observed by Kepler would be located at
400 pc (Mathur et al. 2017). Past surveys of more distant fields
around the galactic bulge and disk (Gould et al. 2006; Bayliss
& Sackett 2011) also found occurrence rates of hot Jupiters to
be compatible with the rates derived from Kepler and TESS
data, suggesting that there is not too much variety in the
occurrence of hot Jupiters across the Galaxy.

We also remark on the near-completeness of the ground-
based surveys. Of the 18 confirmed hot Jupiters within our
sample, 13 were already discovered by the WASP (Pollacco
et al. 2006), HATNet (Bakos et al. 2004), and KELT (Pepper
et al. 2012) consortiums. Future studies of hot Jupiter
properties from TESS will continue to capitalize on the
follow-up efforts already made by these surveys.
5.2. No Evident Dependence on Stellar Mass

The occurrence rates of hot Jupiters within our A, F, and G mass bins agree with each other to within 1σ. Hot Jupiters are just as abundant around main-sequence A stars as they are around F and G stars. Radial velocity surveys have reported a paucity of giant planets in close-in orbits about “retired A stars.” Together this seems to support the conclusion that enhanced tidal dissipation within evolved stars accelerates the process of tidal orbital decay of hot Jupiters (Schlaufman & Winn 2013). Post-main-sequence tidal evolution may be strongly dependent on the mass of the planets (e.g., Villaver & Livio 2009; Villaver et al. 2014), and while stringent constraints on the distribution of these main-sequence close-in giant planets may help yield additional clues into the tidal model for hot Jupiters. We note, though, that sample sizes of the Doppler surveys ranged from 166 stars (Jones et al. 2014) to 373 stars (Reffert et al. 2015), small enough that one should only expect ∼1 hot Jupiter to be found even if stellar evolution has no effect on the hot Jupiter occurrence rate. The Doppler surveys also noted an enhanced planet fraction for longer-period gas giants about more massive stars. Ghezzi et al. (2018) notes a 2× increase in planet fraction about 2M⊙ stars compared to solar-mass stars, while Johnson et al. (2010) noted a nearly 3× increase in the planet fraction within the 1–2 M⊙ host mass range. Curiously, the hot Jupiter occurrence rate does not reflect this trend. Hot Jupiters are no more abundant about A stars than they are about F and G stars. Since the planets around early-type stars exhibit a wide distribution of obliquity angles (Albrecht et al. 2012), this may point to a lack of stellar mass preference for the dynamical migration of hot Jupiters.

We thank the referee for their careful reading of the manuscript; the comments significantly improved the quality of the paper. Work by G.Z. is provided by NASA through Hubble Fellowship grant HST-HF2-51402.001-A awarded by the Space Telescope Science Institute, which is operated by the Association of Universities for Research in Astronomy, Inc., for NASA under contract NAS 5–26555. HATNet observations have been funded by NASA grants NNG04GN74G and NNX13AJ15G. Follow-up of HATNet targets has been funded by NASA grants NNG04GN74G and NNX13AJ15G. The observations by the CHIRON spectrograph have been supported by the grant of the Hungarian Scientific Research Fund (OTKA, K-81373) to G.K. WASP-South is hosted by the South African Astronomical Observatory, and we are grateful for their ongoing support and assistance. Funding for WASP comes from consortium universities and from the UK’s Science and Technology Facilities Council. Work by J.N.W. was supported by the Heising-Simons Foundation. This work is partly supported by JSPS KAKENHI grant Nos. JP18H01265 and JP18H05439, and JST PRESTO grant No. JPMJPR1775. Observations in the paper made use of the NN-EXPLORE Exoplanet and Stellar Speckle Imager (NESSI). NESSI was funded by the NASA Exoplanet Exploration Program and the NASA Ames Research Center. NESSI was built at the Ames Research Center by Steve B. Howell, Nic Scott, Elliott P. Horch, and Emmett Quigley. I.W. is supported by a Heising-Simons postdoctoral fellowship. A. K. acknowledges support from the National Research Foundation (NRF) of South Africa. Some of the observations reported in this paper were obtained with the Southern African Large Telescope (SALT).

Facilities: HATNet, FLWO 1.5 m, CTIO:1.5 m, TESS, SALT.

Software: lightkurve (Barentsen et al. 2019), emcee (Foreman-Mackey et al. 2013), simultrans (Herman et al. 2018), Astropy (Astropy Collaboration et al. 2013, 2018), fitsh (Pil 2012).

Appendix

Planets and Planet Candidate

We tabulate here all TOIs that made up the numerator of our occurrence rate calculation. Table 9 presents the confirmed planets, Table 10 shows the planet candidates and their follow-up stats, Table 11 shows the false positives, and Table 12 shows the confirmed giant planets orbiting stars T < 10 that were not included in the sample due to the evolved states of their host stars. The planet and candidate lists are up-to-date as of 2019 June and can be accessed via tev.mit.edu.
| TIC    | TOI   | Name     | Statusa | Period (days) | Depth (ppm) | Gaia G (mag) | Gaia Rp (mag) | Gaia Rp (mag) | Distance (pc) | $T_{\text{eff}}$b (K) | $M_\star$ (M$_\odot$) | $R_\star$ (R$_\odot$) | References                      |
|--------|-------|----------|---------|---------------|-------------|--------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|--------------------------|
| 1129033| 398.01| WASP-77A | P       | 1.4           | 16380       | 10.1         | 10.48         | 9.59          | 105           | 5433            | 0.91            | 0.98            | Maxted et al. (2013)         |
| 25375553| 143.01| WASP-111 | P       | 2.3           | 6939        | 10.11        | 10.36         | 9.73          | 300           | 6305            | 1.3             | 2.03            | Anderson et al. (2014)       |
| 47911178| 471.01| WASP-101 | P       | 3.6           | 12321       | 10.14        | 10.41         | 9.75          | 202           | 6209            | 1.16            | 1.39            | Hellier et al. (2014)        |
| 65412605| 626.01| KELT-25  | P       | 4.4           | 5812        | 9.6          | 9.68          | 9.47          | 442           | 7983            | 1.92            | 2.39            | R. Rodriguez et al. (2019, in preparation) |
| 92352620| 107.01| WASP-94A | P       | 4.0           | 12999       | 10.03        | 10.33         | 9.6           | 212           | 5949            | 1.16            | 1.67            | Neveu-VanMalle et al. (2014) |
| 100100827| 185.01| WASP-18  | P       | 0.9           | 10692       | 9.17         | 9.43          | 8.79          | 123           | 6291            | 1.16            | 1.6            | Hellier et al. (2009)        |
| 144065872| 105.01| WASP-95  | P       | 2.2           | 11836       | 9.94         | 10.29         | 9.46          | 138           | 5627            | 0.99            | 1.28            | Hellier et al. (2014)        |
| 149603524| 102.01| WASP-62  | P       | 4.4           | 14034       | 10.07        | 10.36         | 9.67          | 176           | 6123            | 1.13            | 1.29            | Hellier et al. (2012)        |
| 166836920| 267.01| WASP-99  | P       | 5.8           | 5386        | 9.33         | 9.64          | 8.89          | 159           | 5894            | 1.16            | 1.77            | Hellier et al. (2014)        |
| 170634116| 413.01| WASP-79  | P       | 3.7           | 12455       | 9.97         | 10.2          | 9.63          | 248           | 6571            | 1.38            | 1.65            | Smalley et al. (2012)        |
| 183532609| 191.01| WASP-8   | P       | 8.2           | 15535       | 9.61         | 10.0          | 9.11          | 90            | 5455            | 0.89            | 1.04            | Queloz et al. (2010)         |
| 201248411| 129.01| ….       | P       | 1.0           | 7028        | 10.59        | 11.23         | 9.85          | 61            | 4216            | 0.5             | 0.81            | L. Nielsen et al. (2019, in preparation) |
| 230982885| 195.01| WASP-97  | P       | 2.1           | 13510       | 10.42        | 10.79         | 9.92          | 151           | 5526            | 0.9             | 1.17            | Hellier et al. (2014)        |
| 267263253| 135.01| ….       | P       | 4.1           | 10068       | 9.52         | 9.75          | 9.18          | 197           | 6538            | 1.37            | 1.63            | Jones et al. (2019)          |
| 379929661| 625.01| HAT-P-69 | P       | 4.8           | 7627        | 9.77         | 9.9           | 9.58          | 344           | 7532            | 1.68            | 1.92            | This work                   |
| 399870368| 624.01| HAT-P-70 | P       | 2.7           | 8443        | 9.45         | 9.55          | 9.29          | 333           | 7818            | 1.77            | 2.03            | This work                   |
| 425206121| 508.01| KELT-19A | P       | 4.6           | 10364       | 9.86         | 10.0          | 9.6           | 302           | 7188            | 1.52            | 1.77            | Siverd et al. (2018)         |
| 455135327| 490.01| HAT-P-30 | P       | 2.8           | 10758       | 10.3         | 10.58         | 9.89          | 215           | 6116            | 1.12            | 1.42            | Johnson et al. (2011)        |

Notes.

a P: Confirmed planet.
b Parameters $T_{\text{eff}}$, $M_\star$, and $R_\star$ from isochrone interpolation of the Gaia color–magnitude values. These can deviate from literature values but are consistent with the remainder of the analysis of the field star population.
Table 10

Planet Candidates

| TIC       | TOI   | Statusa | Period (days) | Depth (ppm) | Gaia G (mag) | Gaia Rp (mag) | Distance (pc) | Teff (K) | Ms (M⊙) | Re (R⊙) | Follow-up Status                  |
|-----------|-------|---------|---------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|-----------|---------|---------|----------------------------------|
| 129367892 | 155.01| PC      | 5.4           | 8232        | 9.38         | 9.66         | 8.98         | 188       | 6144    | 1.26   | 1.87                      | Passed spectroscopic vetting |
| 281408474 | 628.01| PC      | 3.4           | 6553        | 10.06        | 10.38        | 9.61         | 179       | 5850    | 1.05   | 1.45                      | Undergoing spectroscopic vetting |
| 293853437 | 629.01| PC      | 8.7           | 2075        | 8.73         | 8.79         | 8.66         | 336       | 8400    | 2.06   | 2.49                      | Undergoing spectroscopic vetting |

Note.

a PC: Active planet candidate.

Table 11

Candidates Determined to Be False Positives

| TIC       | TOI   | Statusa | Period (days) | Depth (ppm) | Gaia G (mag) | Gaia Rp (mag) | Distance (pc) | Teff (K) | Ms (M⊙) | Re (R⊙) |
|-----------|-------|---------|---------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|-----------|---------|---------|
| 7624182   | 412.01| NEB     | 1.1           | 859         | 8.83         | 8.87         | 8.77         | 466       | 8099    | 2.2    |
| 14091633  | 447.01| SB1     | 5.5           | 20670       | 9.2          | 9.46         | 8.83         | 126       | 6316    | 1.17   |
| 49897999  | 416.01| SB1     | 7.0           | 7442        | 8.65         | 8.94         | 8.24         | 132       | 6065    | 1.23   |
| 55452495  | 336.01| NEB     | 8.9           | 4962        | 10.1         | 10.22        | 9.92         | 610       | 7287    | 1.88   |
| 92359850  | 447.01| SB1     | 5.5           | 20670       | 9.2          | 9.46         | 8.83         | 126       | 6316    | 1.17   |
| 129367892 | 155.01| PC      | 5.4           | 8232        | 9.38         | 9.66         | 8.98         | 188       | 6144    | 1.26   |
| 281408474 | 628.01| PC      | 3.4           | 6553        | 10.06        | 10.38        | 9.61         | 179       | 5850    | 1.05   |
| 293853437 | 629.01| PC      | 8.7           | 2075        | 8.73         | 8.79         | 8.66         | 336       | 8400    | 2.06   |

Note.

a NEB: Nearby eclipsing binary; BEB: blended eclipsing binary; SB1: single-lined spectroscopic binary; NPC: transit caused by nearby source that may still be planetary in origin.

Table 12

Confirmed Planets around Evolved Stars with Tmag < 10 Not Included in Occurrence Rate Calculation

| TIC       | TOI   | Name   | Status | Period (days) | Depth (ppm) | Gaia G (mag) | Gaia Rp (mag) | Distance (pc) | Teff (K) | Ms (M⊙) | Re (R⊙) | References |
|-----------|-------|--------|--------|---------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|-----------|---------|---------|------------|
| 20013778  | 123.01| ...    | P      | 3.3           | 3177        | 8.23         | 8.43         | 7.77         | 162       | 6234    | 1.46   | 2.72       |
| 231670397 | 104.01| WASP-73| P      | 4.1           | 3586        | 10.26        | 10.57        | 9.82         | 319       | 5950    | 1.21   | 2.33       |
| 339672028 | 481.01| ...    | P      | 10.3         | 4590        | 9.85         | 10.22        | 9.35         | 180       | 5661    | 0.98   | 1.8        |
| 410214986 | 200.01| DS Tuc | P      | 8.1           | 3576        | 8.32         | 8.7          | 7.81         | 44        | 5466    | 0.93   | 0.92       |
| 452808876 | 453.01| WASP-82| P      | 2.7           | 6400        | 9.9          | 10.18        | 9.49         | 277       | 6126    | 1.27   | 1.51       |

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