

Transits of Known Planets Orbiting a Naked-Eye Star

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ABSTRACT

Some of the most scientifically valuable transiting planets are those that were already known from radial velocity (RV) surveys. This is primarily because their orbits are well characterized and they preferentially orbit bright stars that are the targets of RV surveys. The Transiting Exoplanet Survey Satellite (*TESS*) provides an opportunity to survey most of the known exoplanet systems in a systematic fashion to detect possible transits of their planets. HD 136352 (Nu² Lupi) is a naked-eye ($V = 5.78$) G-type main-sequence star that was discovered to host three planets with orbital periods of 11.6, 27.6, and 108.1 days via RV monitoring with the HARPS spectrograph. We present the detection and characterization of transits for the two inner planets of the HD 136352 system, revealing radii of $1.482^{+0.058}_{-0.056} R_{\oplus}$ and $2.608^{+0.078}_{-0.077} R_{\oplus}$ for planets b and c, respectively. We combine new HARPS observations with RV data from Keck/HIRES and the AAT, along with *TESS* photometry from Sector 12, to perform a complete analysis of the system parameters. The combined data analysis results in extracted bulk density values of $\rho_b = 7.8^{+1.2}_{-1.1} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ and $\rho_c = 3.50^{+0.41}_{-0.36} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ for planets b and c, respectively, thus placing them on either side of the radius valley. The combination of the multi-transiting planet system, the bright host star, and the diversity of planetary interiors and atmospheres means this will likely become a cornerstone system for atmospheric and orbital characterization of small worlds.

Keywords: planetary systems – techniques: photometric – techniques: radial velocities – stars: individual (HD 136352)

1. INTRODUCTION

The discovery of transiting exoplanets has enabled a plethora of science not accessible through other exoplanet detection techniques. Transiting planets orbiting bright stars are especially important in furthering our knowledge of planetary systems since they offer unique windows to comparative exoplanetology. First, they allow for a measurement of both the planetary mass and radius, and thereby to place constraints on the planet interior structure. Second, they are amenable to atmospheric characterisation through transmission spectroscopy (e.g., Sing et al. 2016; Kempton et al. 2018), to secondary eclipse measurements (e.g., Kreidberg et al. 2019), and to orbital geometry characterisation through the Rossiter-McLaughlin effect (e.g., Fabrycky & Winn 2009). In multi-planet systems, they also allow for a deepened understanding of the system architecture through planet-planet dynamics accessible through the modeling of transit timing variations (e.g., Jontof-Hutter et al. 2016).

The Transit Ephemeris Refinement and Monitoring Survey (TERMS) has been operating since 2008 with the primary goal of detecting transits for known radial velocity (RV) exoplanets (Kane et al. 2009). The appeal of transits for known RV planets are that their orbits are already characterized

and their host stars are relatively bright. Well known examples of RV planets later found to transit include HD 209458b (Charbonneau et al. 2000; Henry et al. 2000), HD 189733b (Bouchy et al. 2005), and HD 80606b (Naef et al. 2001; Fossey et al. 2009; Garcia-Melendo & McCullough 2009; Laughlin et al. 2009). Though the TERMS survey successfully discovered new planets (Wang et al. 2012), destroyed old planets (Kane et al. 2016b), characterized numerous host stars (e.g., Dragomir et al. 2012; Hinkel et al. 2015), and ruled out transits (e.g., Kane et al. 2011b,a; Pilyavsky et al. 2011; Henry et al. 2013), the primary science goal was largely impeded due to ground-based observational window functions (von Braun et al. 2009). However, the Transiting Exoplanet Survey Satellite (*TESS*) has observed most of the sky during the primary mission (Ricker et al. 2015), including the known exoplanet hosts. The survey strategy of *TESS* thus provides a space-based means to systematically examine all of the known RV systems for potential transits of their planets that pass through inferior conjunction during the *TESS* observing window (Kane & von Braun 2008; Dalba et al. 2019). This has been demonstrated through the transit detection of an additional planet in the pi Mensae system (Huang et al. 2018) and the known RV planet in the HD 118203 system (Pepper et al. 2020).

HD 136352 (also known as Nu² Lupi, LHS 395, GJ 582, and HIP 75181) is a G-type main-sequence star that was observed for nearly 11 years using the High Accuracy Radial velocity Planet Searcher (HARPS) spectrograph (Pepe et al. 2000). Analysis of the HARPS

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data by [Udry et al. \(2019\)](#) uncovered the signatures of three planets orbiting the star with periods and minimum masses in the range 11–110 days and 5–10 M_{\oplus} respectively. The host star was observed by *TESS* during Sector 12 of the primary mission. A *TESS* Guest Investigator (GI) program designed to monitor the known hosts (PI: Kane) immediately detected transits of the two inner planets (b and c). As of June 9, 2020, the HD 136352 system is one of less than 100 naked-eye exoplanet host stars in the sky, according to data from the NASA Exoplanet Archive ([Akeson et al. 2013](#)). HD 136352 is now also one of only three naked-eye stars to host more than one transiting planet, the other two systems being HD 219134 ([Motalebi et al. 2015](#); [Vogt et al. 2015](#); [Gillon et al. 2017b](#)) and HR 858 ([Vanderburg et al. 2019](#)). In all cases, the measurement accuracy correlates with the stellar magnitude, and therefore the search for transiting planets around bright stars is of paramount importance.

Here we present the detection of transits for the two inner planets of the HD 136352 system from *TESS* photometry, and provide a combined analysis of all available RV and photometric data. In Section 2 we describe the transit probabilities of the planets and the properties of the host star. Section 3 provides details regarding the RV observations of the star and the detrending of the *TESS* photometry. A description of the data analysis is provided in Section 4, including a combined fit for all available data and discussion of the location of the planets with respect to the overall demographics of exoplanets. In Section 5 we present a discussion of the potential for atmospheric characterization of the transiting planets. Suggestions for future work and concluding remarks are provided in Section 6.

2. SYSTEM PROPERTIES

The HD 136352 system is known to host three planets with orbital periods of 11.6, 27.6, and 108.1 days. The planetary orbits are near-circular in nature, and the detailed properties of the new parameters provided by this work may be found in Section 4. Since the planets have short orbital periods, they also have relatively high geometric transit probabilities ([Kane & von Braun 2008](#); [Stevens & Gaudi 2013](#)). We calculate the a priori transit probabilities as 4.88%, 2.77%, and 1.19% for the b, c, and d planets respectively. A detailed analysis of transit probabilities for known RV exoplanets by [Dalba et al. \(2019\)](#) resulted in a prediction of ~ 3 transit detections during the *TESS* primary mission. Our reporting of transits for two of the HD 136352 planets, combined with the detected transit for HD 118203b ([Pepper et al. 2020](#)), brings the total number of RV planets revealed to

be transiting in line with the [Dalba et al. \(2019\)](#) predictions. Note that the *TESS* extended mission will likely lead to further transit detections of known RV planets whose orbital periods are longer than *TESS* observations of their host star during the primary mission.

The host star HD 136352 is a G3/5V star that has been spectroscopically observed dozens of times over the last three decades ([Hinkel et al. 2014](#)). Compiling the observed stellar parameters, to be used as priors in Section 4.1, we found that the median stellar radius $R_* = 1.02 \pm 0.02 R_{\odot}$, $T_{\text{eff}} = 5692 \pm 218$ K, $\log g = 4.39 \pm 0.33$, such that the uncertainties reflect the *spread* or range in all of the measured values. The iron-content, or [Fe/H], ranges from -0.16 dex ([Carretta et al. 2000](#)) to -0.46 dex ([Francois 1986](#)), with a median value of -0.29 ± 0.15 dex, where all observations were solar renormalized to [Lodders et al. \(2009\)](#). Based on the 32 other elemental abundances reported in the Hypatia Catalog ([Hinkel et al. 2014](#)), it is clear that HD 136352 is a relatively metal-poor star, consistent with the star’s thick-disk kinematics. Some of the elements, particularly those in the iron peak and beyond the iron peak nucleosynthetic groups, have abundances that are more dramatically sub-solar, such as [Cr/H] = -0.31 ± 0.14 dex, [Mn/H] = -0.48 ± 0.25 dex, and [Y/H] = -0.34 ± 0.07 dex. On the other hand, the α -elements are closer to solar, such as [O/H] = -0.02 ± 0.15 dex and [Mg/H] = -0.04 ± 0.15 dex. The average of the α -elements, particularly C, O, Mg, Si, S, Ca, and Ti, is $[\alpha/\text{H}] = -0.12$ dex. The C/O molar fraction for HD 136352 is 0.35, where stars with a C/O ratio ~ 0.8 –1.0 are likely to produce geodynamically inactive planets ([Hinkel & Unterborn 2018](#); [Unterborn et al. 2014](#); [Bond et al. 2010](#)).

3. OBSERVATIONS

The observational data of the system considered here include almost 20 years of precision RV measurements, and one sector of *TESS* photometry during Cycle 1. The star is identified in the *TESS* Input Catalog (TIC) as TIC 136916387 ([Stassun et al. 2018, 2019](#)).

3.1. Radial Velocities

The RV data used for this analysis were acquired from three different observing facilities. The first dataset consists of 246 RV measurements obtained over a period of 13.2 years using the HARPS spectrograph, of which 240 measurements were previously published by [Udry et al. \(2019\)](#) when announcing the discovery of the HD 136352 system. The full details of the instrument and observations may be found in [Udry et al. \(2019\)](#) and references therein. Note that the most recent (6)

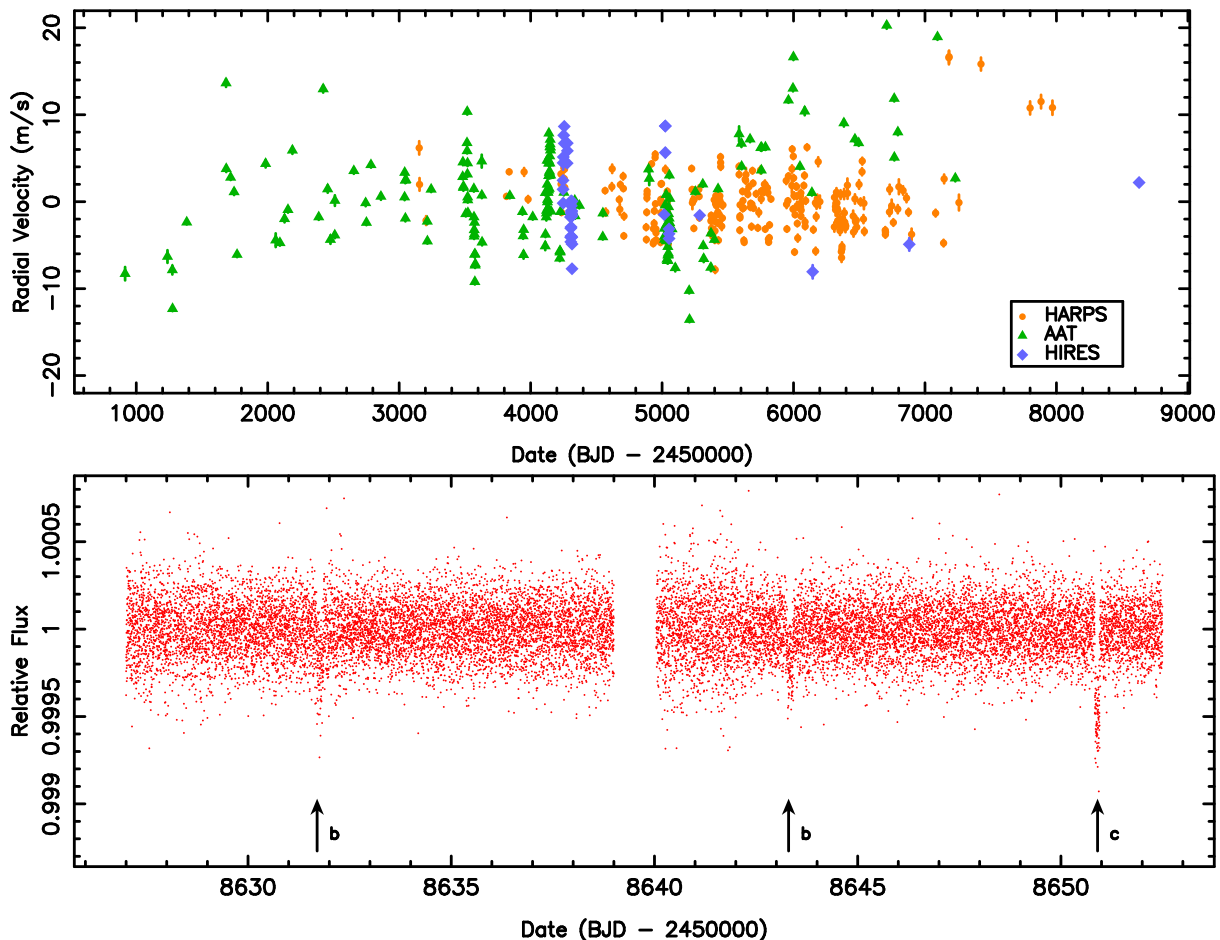


Figure 1. The primary data sources used in this analysis. *Top:* The combined RV data spanning a period of 21 years, acquired using the HARPS (orange circles), AAT/UCLES (green triangles), and Keck/HIRES (blue diamonds) instruments. *Bottom:* The Sector 12 *TESS* photometry, with vertical arrows indicating the location of the two transits for planet b and single transit for planet c.

HARPS measurements were acquired after an instrument upgrade and so were treated as an independent dataset in the combined fit to the data described in Section 4.1. The second dataset consists of 169 RV measurements obtained over a period of 17.3 years using the UCLES high-resolution spectrograph (Diego et al. 1990) on the 3.9m Anglo-Australian Telescope (AAT). The instrument uses an iodine absorption cell to provide wavelength calibration from 5000 to 6200 Å, by embedding iodine absorption lines on the stellar spectrum (Valenti et al. 1995; Butler et al. 1996). The AAT RV observations were conducted as part of the Anglo-Australian Planet Search, described in more detail by Wittenmyer et al. (2020) and references therein. The third dataset consists of 43 RV measurements obtained over a period of 12.0 years using the HIRES echelle spectrograph on the Keck I telescope (Vogt et al. 1994), of which 23 measurements were previously published by Howard & Fulton (2016). The combined RV dataset are

shown in the top panel of Figure 1 and a subset of 10 RVs from each instrument are provided in Table 1. The mean measurement uncertainties are 0.42, 1.27, and 1.17 m/s for the HARPS, AAT, and HIRES datasets respectively. Although the highest of these mean uncertainties is associated with the AAT data, the AAT dataset also has the longest time baseline making it a valuable addition to the analysis.

3.2. *TESS* Photometry

The *TESS* spacecraft observed HD 136352 during Sector 12 of its primary mission between May 21, 2019 and June 18, 2019. Because HD 136352 is a bright, nearby dwarf star, images from pixels surrounding the star were saved and downloaded every two minutes, compared to 30 minute sampling for most of the sky. These images were downlinked from the spacecraft, processed by the Science Processing Operations Center (SPOC) pipeline (based at NASA Ames Research Center) and

Table 1. HD 136352 radial velocities.

Instrument	Date (BJD – 2450000)	RV (m/s)	σ (m/s)
HARPS	3152.7661	6.188	0.770
HARPS	3154.6851	1.984	0.730
HARPS	3204.5378	-2.172	0.520
HARPS	3816.8345	0.609	0.280
HARPS	3836.7974	3.438	0.270
HARPS	3950.5459	3.422	0.460
HARPS	3980.4880	0.281	0.380
HARPS	4230.8179	3.180	0.300
HARPS	4231.7510	2.023	0.360
HARPS	4234.7314	-1.242	0.300
AAT	915.1653	-8.280	1.800
AAT	1237.2321	-6.310	3.380
AAT	1274.2877	-7.850	2.470
AAT	1276.1555	-12.310	3.210
AAT	1384.0170	-2.360	1.840
AAT	1683.0382	13.650	2.100
AAT	1684.1084	3.790	2.000
AAT	1718.0880	2.790	2.100
AAT	1743.9812	1.120	1.840
AAT	1766.8840	-6.080	2.040
HIRES	6145.7617	-8.060	1.288
HIRES	6880.7524	-4.906	1.400
HIRES	5024.8408	5.643	1.286
HIRES	5024.8418	8.699	1.252
HIRES	5024.8428	8.706	1.286
HIRES	5052.8169	-3.129	1.219
HIRES	5052.8184	-4.245	1.199
HIRES	5052.8198	-3.695	1.236
HIRES	4246.9380	1.427	1.239
HIRES	4246.9390	2.457	1.268

The full data set is available online.

searched for transits (Jenkins et al. 2016, 2020). The SPOC transiting planet search algorithm detected a possible transit-like signal when it lined up one transit of HD 136352 b with the single transit of HD 136352 c, but the signal was rejected by an automated classification algorithm because the two transits have significantly different depths. HD 136352 was therefore not alerted as a *TESS* planet candidate host star. We subsequently identified the transits of HD 136352 b and c in a visual inspection of the light curve, which resulted in an allocated *TESS* Object of Interest (TOI) number of 2011.

The light curve of HD 136352 produced by the SPOC pipeline contains residual systematic errors, so we extracted our own custom light curve from the *TESS* pixel data. Our approach is very similar to the one used by Vanderburg et al. (2019) to produce a light curve of another bright star, HR 858. We first extracted light curves of HD 136352 from twenty different photometric apertures. We then removed instrumental systematics by decorrelating each of the 20 light curves with other time series via matrix inversion (while excluding points in-transit from the fit). In particular, we decorrelated against the first and second order time series of the means and standard deviations of the engineering quaternion measurements within each exposure. We also decorrelated against the high-frequency (band 3) common mode systematics in the cotrending basis vectors calculated by the SPOC Pre-search Data Conditioning module (PDC) and the time series of background flux measurements (Smith et al. 2012; Stumpe et al. 2012, 2014). In total, we fit a model with 46 free parameters to the 16,865 out-of-transit datapoints. Finally, we calculated the point to point photometric scatter for each of the 20 light curves and chose the one with the highest precision. This procedure is described in more detail in Section 2.1 of Vanderburg et al. (2019).

The resulting decorrelated light curve still showed low-frequency variability (likely a combination of both slow instrumental drifts and astrophysical variability). We modeled these low-frequency trends with a basis spline, and simultaneously determined the spline function along with the transit model parameters. We introduced discontinuities to the basis spline at the times of spacecraft momentum dumps. We removed the variability by dividing the best-fit spline from the light curve. Note that the amplitude of the low-frequency variability is less than a few hundred ppm with timescales greater than 1 day. Though the variability amplitude is a large fraction of the transit depths described in Section 4, the timescales of the transits are much shorter and we were thus able to effectively remove the variability with negligible effect on the subsequent data analysis. The resulting light curve from our detrending, with both instrumental systematics and stellar variability removed, is shown in Figure 1.

4. DATA ANALYSIS

Here, we describe the extracted properties of the star and planets, as well as their location within the context of the known exoplanet population.

4.1. Extraction of System Parameters

Using the data described in Section 3, we performed our analysis using the EXOFASTv2 tool¹, described in detail by Eastman et al. (2013, 2019). Following previous applications of EXOFASTv2 (e.g., Dalba et al. 2020), we conducted two fits to extract the system parameters. In the first, we fit archival photometry of HD 136352 to modeled spectral energy distributions (SED). We applied normal priors on the parameters R_* , M_* , T_{eff} , and $[\text{Fe}/\text{H}]$ using the values provided in Section 2. We also included a normal prior on parallax (68.164 ± 0.097 mas) based on measurements from the second data release of the *Gaia* mission (Gaia Collaboration et al. 2018) corrected for the systematic offset discovered by Stassun & Torres (2018). Lastly, we included an upper limit on the maximum line-of-sight extinction from the reddening maps from Schlafly & Finkbeiner (2011). This initial, SED-only fit converged upon the following stellar parameters: $R_* = 1.010 \pm 0.018 R_\odot$, $M_* = 0.923 \pm 0.077 M_\odot$, $T_{\text{eff}} = 5851 \pm 110$ K, and $[\text{Fe}/\text{H}] = -0.25 \pm 0.14$ dex. These parameters were then used as priors for a global fit to the transit and RV data. We assessed convergence using the default EXOFASTv2 statistics of T_z (Ford 2006), the number of independent draws of the underlying posterior probability distribution (convergence for $T_z > 1000$ for each parameter), and GR, the well-known Gelman-Rubin statistic (Gelman & Rubin 1992), where convergence is achieved for $\text{GR} < 1.01$ for each parameter. The derived stellar parameters from this global fit are provided in Table 2. The planetary parameters are provided in Table 3. The zeroth-order, RV offsets found by the fit were -68709.038 ± 0.094 , -68697.2 ± 3.0 , 0.17 ± 0.38 , and -0.65 ± 0.64 m/s for the pre-upgrade HARPS, post-upgrade HARPS, AAT, and HIRES datasets respectively. The best-fit transit and RV models are shown in Figure 2 and Figure 3.

Although transits of planets b and c were detected in the *TESS* photometry, we found no evidence of a transit for planet d. The question then is: do the photometric data rule out a transit for planet d or did the planet not pass through inferior conjunction during the *TESS* observing window? Using the derived orbital properties of planet d from Table 3, we found that the nearest predicted inferior conjunction time occurs ~ 21 days prior to the commencement of Sector 12 observations. Thus, planet d may yet be found to also transit the host star with further observations. The inclinations of planets b and c are such that a perfectly coplanar planet d would not be transiting, but even a tiny mutual inclination of

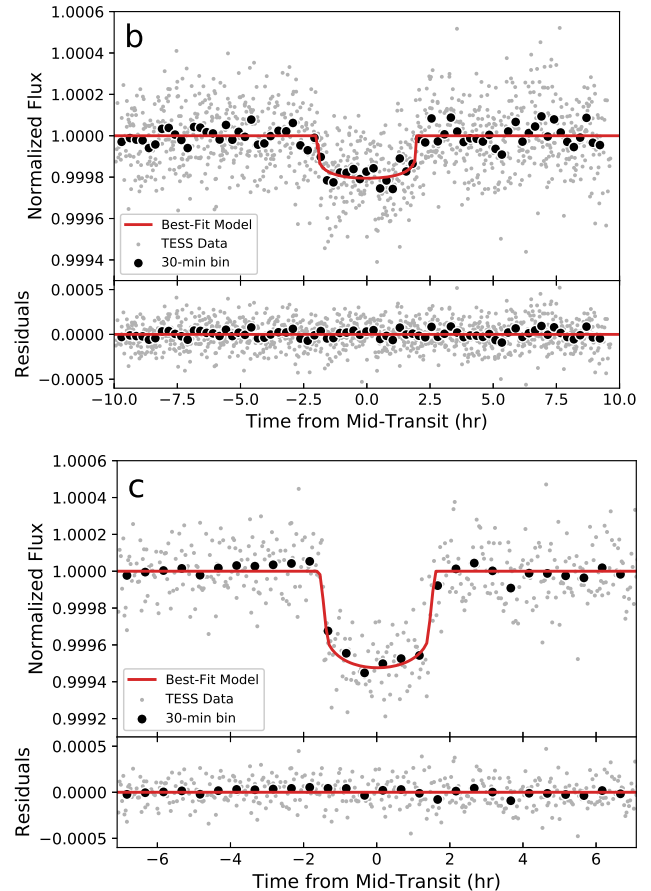


Figure 2. The transit fits to the *TESS* photometry resulting from the EXOFAST analysis, described in Section 4.1. *Top:* Transit of the b planet where both transits have been folded on the orbital period of the planet. *Bottom:* Single transit of the c planet.

$\sim 0.3^\circ$ would allow for a transit. In fact planet d would only be transiting for inclinations between 90° and 89.4° , including grazing configurations, while assuming planet d has a similar radius to planet c. Even so, conditioned on the fact that b and c transit, the probability that d transits is about 20% for typical mutual inclinations of $\sim 1^\circ$.

4.2. Exoplanet Demographics

In Figure 4 (left panel), we show a mass-radius diagram that contains known exoplanets with measured masses (i.e., not $M \sin i$) and radii with uncertainties less than 15%. Figure 4 also includes modeled planetary composition models for rocky planets with or without H_2 envelopes from Zeng et al. (2019). Our data analyses from Section 4.1 show that the inner planet of HD 136352 is relatively small, with a radius of $1.482 R_\oplus$. This, when compared with the mass of $4.62 M_\oplus$ yields

¹ <https://github.com/jdeast/EXOFASTv2>

Table 2. HD 136352 derived stellar parameters.

Parameter	Units	Values
M_*	Mass (M_\odot)	$0.906^{+0.055}_{-0.047}$
R_*	Radius (R_\odot)	1.012 ± 0.018
L_*	Luminosity (L_\odot)	$1.081^{+0.088}_{-0.082}$
ρ_*	Density (cgs)	$1.234^{+0.098}_{-0.086}$
$\log g$	Surface gravity (cgs)	$4.385^{+0.029}_{-0.027}$
T_{eff}	Effective Temperature (K)	5850 ± 100
[Fe/H]	Proxy for metallicity (dex)	-0.25 ± 0.12
[Fe/H] ₀	Proxy for initial metallicity	-0.18 ± 0.11
Age	Age (Gyr)	$8.2^{+3.2}_{-3.1}$
A_V	V-band extinction (mag)	$0.060^{+0.071}_{-0.043}$
σ_{SED}	SED photometry error scaling	$4.3^{+1.9}_{-1.1}$
ϖ	Parallax (mas)	68.159 ± 0.098
d	Distance (pc)	14.672 ± 0.021
Wavelength Parameters:		TESS
u_1	linear limb-darkening coeff	$0.275^{+0.039}_{-0.038}$
u_2	quadratic limb-darkening coeff	0.285 ± 0.035

a bulk density of $7.8^{+1.2}_{-1.1} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ (see Table 3). A comparison to the 5.5 g cm^{-3} bulk density of Earth suggests that planet b has a dense core that is potentially iron dominated. Indeed, the planet b density lies near the peak density for rocky planets based on the empirical predictions of Weiss & Marcy (2014). Planet c, on the other hand, has a significantly larger radius of $2.608 R_\oplus$, yielding a density of only $3.50^{+0.41}_{-0.36} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ which is consistent with a thick hydrogen-helium envelope. This can be explained through the photo-evaporation hypothesis that produces the radius valley in the exoplanet distribution (Owen & Wu 2013; Fulton et al. 2017). According to this hypothesis, planet b would consist of a “bare” core which, due to the proximity to the host star, would have suffered atmospheric stripping within 100 Myr of formation. HD 136352c, on the other hand, received less high-energy radiation and maintained a thick atmospheric envelope. Given the mass and radius for both planets, there are significant constraints for inferences to their interior structures in the context of composition. Namely, the stellar elemental abundances (see Section 2) would need to be measured to a higher precision, 0.02–0.04 dex (Hinkel & Unterborn 2018), necessary to meaningfully constrain the mineralogy (Unterborn & Panero 2019). In addition, fundamental to all of the mass-radius models are critical assumptions regarding the composition of rocky exoplanets and the underlying mineral physics. These assumptions typically cause over- or under-predictions in empir-

ical models (e.g., Zeng et al. 2016) when characterizing ultra-high pressures present in the cores of super-Earths and mini-Neptunes (Unterborn & Panero 2019).

To explore the evaporation hypothesis further, we produced the radius-insolation diagram shown in Figure 4 (right panel), including the planet radius versus stellar irradiation relative to the Earth (S_\oplus) for a sample of well characterized confirmed exoplanets. Starting from all confirmed exoplanets listed on the NASA Exoplanet Archive², we excluded those with a controversial flag, those with only a limit for planet radius, and those with planetary radii with errors greater than 15%. For the remaining planets, we either used the value of S_\oplus provided or we calculated this value using the available stellar and orbital properties. This well characterized sample cleanly displays a gap in the planetary radius distribution (e.g., Fulton et al. 2017). Interestingly, the inner transiting planets orbiting HD 136352 straddle this gap despite differing in stellar irradiation by only a factor of three (at the present time). This bifurcation in planet properties makes the HD 136352 system an excellent laboratory for testing the cause of the radius gap for small planets. Indeed the two planets tend to have approximately the planetary radii suggested by the aforementioned evaporation model by (Owen & Wu 2013): $1.3R_\oplus$ for a “stripped” core and $2.6R_\oplus$ for a mini-Neptune.

² <https://exoplanetarchive.ipac.caltech.edu/>

Table 3. HD 136352 planetary parameters.

Parameter	Units	Values		
		b	c	d
P	Period (days).....	$11.57779_{-0.0011}^{+0.00091}$	$27.5909_{-0.0031}^{+0.0028}$	$107.63_{-0.19}^{+0.18}$
R_p	Radius (R_{\oplus}).....	$1.482_{-0.056}^{+0.058}$	$2.608_{-0.077}^{+0.078}$	–
M_p	Mass (M_{\oplus}).....	$4.62_{-0.44}^{+0.45}$	$11.29_{-0.69}^{+0.73}$	–
T_C	Time of conjunction (BJD _{TDB}).....	$2458631.7672_{-0.0022}^{+0.0023}$	$2458650.8947_{-0.0010}^{+0.0011}$	$2458593.7_{-5.5}^{+5.6}$
T_0	Optimal conjunction Time (BJD _{TDB}).....	$2458631.7672_{-0.0022}^{+0.0023}$	$2458650.8947_{-0.0010}^{+0.0011}$	$2455902.7_{-2.7}^{+3.4}$
a	Semi-major axis (AU).....	$0.0969_{-0.0017}^{+0.0019}$	$0.1729_{-0.0030}^{+0.0034}$	$0.4285_{-0.0076}^{+0.0085}$
i	Inclination (Degrees).....	$88.86_{-0.30}^{+0.54}$	$88.658_{-0.057}^{+0.055}$	–
e	Eccentricity.....	$0.079_{-0.053}^{+0.068}$	$0.037_{-0.026}^{+0.039}$	$0.075_{-0.053}^{+0.085}$
ω_*	Argument of Periastron (Degrees).....	172_{-67}^{+63}	142_{-92}^{+86}	-175_{-87}^{+79}
T_{eq}	Equilibrium temperature (K).....	911 ± 18	682_{-13}^{+14}	$433.3_{-8.5}^{+8.6}$
K	RV semi-amplitude (m/s).....	1.40 ± 0.13	2.55 ± 0.13	1.51 ± 0.14
R_p/R_*	Radius of planet in stellar radii.....	$0.01343_{-0.00045}^{+0.00044}$	0.02363 ± 0.00052	–
a/R_*	Semi-major axis in stellar radii.....	$20.60_{-0.49}^{+0.53}$	$36.76_{-0.87}^{+0.95}$	$91.1_{-2.2}^{+2.3}$
δ	Transit depth (fraction).....	0.000180 ± 0.000012	$0.000558_{-0.000024}^{+0.000025}$	–
$Depth$	Flux decrement at mid transit.....	0.000180 ± 0.000012	$0.000558_{-0.000024}^{+0.000025}$	–
τ	Ingress/egress transit duration (days).....	$0.00260_{-0.00033}^{+0.00043}$	0.0108 ± 0.0011	–
T_{14}	Total transit duration (days).....	$0.1640_{-0.0045}^{+0.0048}$	$0.1337_{-0.0022}^{+0.0024}$	–
T_{FWHM}	FWHM transit duration (days).....	$0.1613_{-0.0046}^{+0.0049}$	$0.1229_{-0.0022}^{+0.0023}$	–
b	Transit Impact parameter.....	$0.41_{-0.20}^{+0.12}$	$0.854_{-0.016}^{+0.013}$	–
b_S	Eclipse impact parameter.....	$0.408_{-0.18}^{+0.077}$	$0.863_{-0.040}^{+0.056}$	–
τ_S	Ingress/egress eclipse duration (days).....	$0.00261_{-0.00020}^{+0.00021}$	$0.0113_{-0.0017}^{+0.0035}$	–
$T_{S,14}$	Total eclipse duration (days).....	$0.166_{-0.014}^{+0.018}$	$0.1321_{-0.020}^{+0.0097}$	–
$T_{S,FWHM}$...	FWHM eclipse duration (days).....	$0.163_{-0.014}^{+0.018}$	$0.121_{-0.024}^{+0.011}$	–
ρ_p	Density (cgs).....	$7.8_{-1.1}^{+1.2}$	$3.50_{-0.36}^{+0.41}$	–
$logg_p$	Surface gravity.....	$3.313_{-0.054}^{+0.053}$	$3.211_{-0.037}^{+0.038}$	–
Θ	Safronov Number.....	$0.0234_{-0.0022}^{+0.0023}$	$0.0581_{-0.0034}^{+0.0035}$	–
$\langle F \rangle$	Incident Flux ($10^9 \text{ erg s}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$).....	$0.155_{-0.012}^{+0.013}$	$0.0490_{-0.0038}^{+0.0040}$	$0.00790_{-0.00062}^{+0.00066}$
T_P	Time of Periastron (BJD _{TDB}).....	$2458622.4_{-1.9}^{+2.1}$	2458626.9 ± 6.6	2458510_{-25}^{+24}
T_S	Time of eclipse (BJD _{TDB}).....	$2458625.63_{-0.57}^{+0.37}$	$2458636.93_{-0.67}^{+0.39}$	$2458536.8_{-7.2}^{+6.6}$
$e \cos \omega_*$	$-0.047_{-0.077}^{+0.050}$	$-0.010_{-0.038}^{+0.022}$	$-0.030_{-0.10}^{+0.049}$
$e \sin \omega_*$	$0.003_{-0.057}^{+0.056}$	$0.004_{-0.027}^{+0.040}$	$-0.002_{-0.058}^{+0.050}$
$M_p \sin i$..	Minimum mass (M_{\oplus}).....	$4.62_{-0.43}^{+0.45}$	$11.28_{-0.69}^{+0.73}$	$10.5_{-1.0}^{+1.1}$
M_p/M_*	Mass ratio.....	0.0000153 ± 0.0000014	0.0000373 ± 0.0000021	$0.0000346_{-0.0000032}^{+0.0000033}$
d/R_*	Separation at mid transit.....	20.4 ± 1.3	$36.5_{-1.6}^{+1.5}$	$90.9_{-5.7}^{+5.5}$

With the host star being similar to the Sun, the known HD 136352 planets lie far interior to the inner boundaries of the Habitable Zone (Kasting et al. 1993; Kopparapu et al. 2013, 2014; Kane et al. 2016a), but do lie within the Venus Zone (Kane et al. 2014). This is mostly relevant to planet b, and other terrestrial planets that may be present within the system, since the exploration of planetary habitability and comparative planetology aims to study the major factors that drive the bifurcation of habitable versus uninhab-

itable environments (Hamano et al. 2013; Kane et al. 2019; Way & Del Genio 2020). Terrestrial planets orbiting close to a bright host star, such as those discussed here, provide the best opportunities to conduct the needed atmospheric studies to inform the diversification processes (Ostberg & Kane 2019).

5. ATMOSPHERIC CHARACTERIZATION

In order to quantify the expected follow-up potential to observe the atmospheres of HD 136352 b and c,

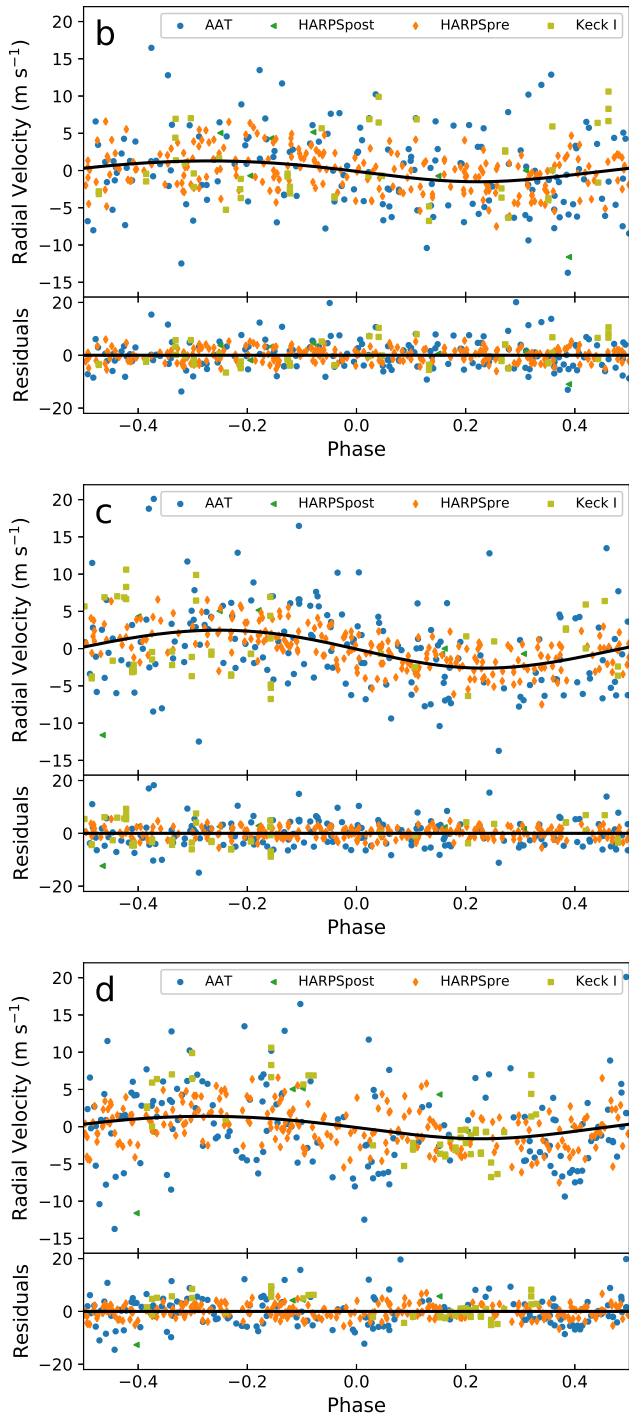


Figure 3. The combined RV dataset after applying the EXOFAST fits described in Section 4.1. The RV data are folded on the orbital period for each planet, including the b (top), c (middle), and d (bottom) planets.

we calculated their estimated transmission spectroscopy signal-to-noise ratios (S/N) using the transmission spectroscopy metric (TSM) developed by [Kempton et al. \(2018\)](#). This metric is dependent on the planet radius, mass, and equilibrium temperature, as well as the stellar radius and apparent J -band magnitude. The TSM method also includes a scale factor that is dependent on the radius of the planet that allows the TSM values to have a 1:1 ratio with simulated Near Infrared Slitless Spectrograph (NIRISS) results produced by [Louie et al. \(2018\)](#), which assumes 10 hours of observations with NIRISS aboard the James Webb Space Telescope (*JWST*). By applying the values for both of the HD 136352 transiting planets obtained through Tables 2 and 3, we find that the estimated TSM values for the b and c planets are 12 and 148, respectively.

To provide context for the estimated atmospheric observability of HD 136352b and c, we compared their TSM values to those of the TRAPPIST-1 planets. Using the stellar and planetary parameters from [Gillon et al. \(2017a\)](#), we calculated the TSM values for TRAPPIST-1b–g to be 44, 21, 24, 23, 27, and 15, respectively. This illustrates that HD 136352b would be expected to require more observation time to achieve the same S/N as the TRAPPIST-1 planets, while HD 136352c would require far less time. The stark difference in estimated S/N between the HD 136352 planets is due to their differences in planetary radii and the expected compositions of their atmospheres. Since the TSM calculation is proportional to the planetary radius to the third power, the larger radius of HD 136352c gives it a steep increase in estimated S/N. Furthermore, HD 136352b is not expected to have a hydrogen-dominated atmosphere, and thus the original simulations of [Louie et al. \(2018\)](#) assume a mean molecular weight that is nearly ten times larger for this type of planet than for planets like HD 136352c ($\mu = 18$ vs. 2.3). This leads to a correspondingly smaller S/N due to the inverse linear dependence of transmission spectrum feature sizes with atmospheric mean molecular weight ([Miller-Ricci et al. 2009](#)). Even so, prospects exist for potential detection of an extended atmosphere for HD 136352c, through mechanisms such as Helium absorption ([Allart et al. 2018](#)).

It should be noted that HD 136352’s K -band magnitude of 4.159 may result in observations by *JWST* being difficult since the saturation limit for spectroscopy is $K \sim 4$ ([Beichman et al. 2014](#)). Therefore, ground-based high resolution transmission spectroscopy using the cross correlation method ([Snellen et al. 2010](#)) may be a more productive avenue to pursue because this technique is ideally suited to planets orbiting very bright host stars. The TSM values we calculated should also

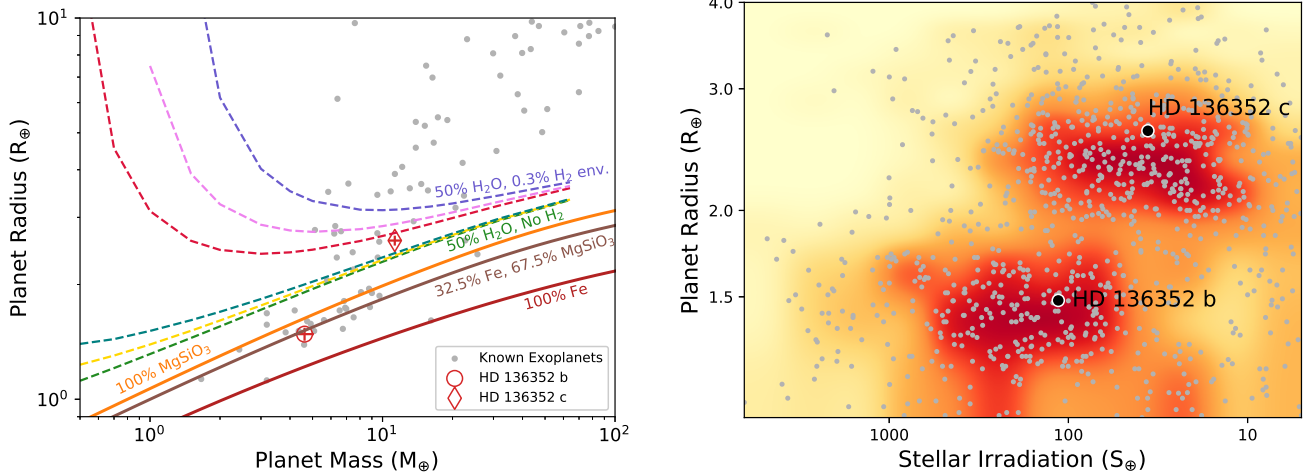


Figure 4. Location of the HD 136352 b and c planets with respect to exoplanet demographic populations. *Left:* Mass-radius diagram including known planets with mass and radius uncertainties less than 15%. The location of the b and c planets are marked as indicated. Also shown are models for planets of various compositions with or without H₂ envelopes (Zeng et al. 2019). *Right:* Planet radius and stellar irradiation for a sample of well characterized confirmed exoplanets (gray points) with better than 15% precision in the measured radius value. The background colors describe the density of data points with darker tones have more points. The inner transiting planets orbiting HD 136352 exist on opposite sides of the small planet radius gap.

be proportional to the S/N expected in the near-infrared with this technique.

6. CONCLUSIONS

RV exoplanet systems are among the best characterized systems in the overall exoplanet inventory. This is because the brightness of the host stars enable significant observational capability and ancillary science, including the study of planetary orbits, architectures, and interactions (Ford 2014; Kane & Raymond 2014; Winn & Fabrycky 2015). The ancillary science includes investigations of the radius gap, evaporation scenarios, and the structure of planets that span the planetary radius gap (Mousis et al. 2020). Furthermore, the relative proximity of the RV systems makes them attractive targets for direct imaging surveys that aim to directly detect the known planets (Kane 2013; Kane et al. 2018; Kopparapu et al. 2018). Thus, when planets in RV systems are also found to transit their host star, they become truly exceptional in the scope of possible science, particularly when multiple planets are found to transit in the same system.

The trajectory of exoplanetary science is leading toward the characterization of planetary atmospheres. In order to fully exploit the potential of transmission spectroscopy techniques, numerous excellent targets are required that orbit bright host stars. The HD 136352 system is now known to harbor two transiting planets and our analysis has determined that the radii of these planets places them on either side of the well-known radius gap. As described in Section 5, the imperative

to understand the atmospheric evolution of such planets makes them attractive follow-up targets for atmospheric studies. We have shown that planet c is an especially promising target in terms of the expected S/N from both transmission and emission spectroscopy observations that could be carried out with *JWST*.

One pressing concern is that, despite long-term constraints from RVs and from the single transit, the period of planet c is still relatively uncertain. Therefore further observations, either during the *TESS* extended mission, or by the *CHEOPS* mission (Broeg et al. 2014), are needed to ensure that the ephemeris of this planet can be refined to enable followed-up observations (Dragomir et al. 2020). As noted in Section 4.1, planet d did not pass through inferior conjunction during the *TESS* observations, and so follow-up photometric campaigns could reveal whether planet d also transits.

As described in Section 1, the transit detection of known RV planets has historically provided some of the most interesting exoplanets over the past two decades. This work demonstrates that this is still true and the advantage of RV observations has enabled us to provide significant mass constraints due to the legacy of RV observations that preceded the transit detections. With the *TESS* mission transitioning into a mode whereby it returns to previous observed parts of the sky, we can expect that there will be further opportunities to uncover new insights into the known exoplanetary systems.

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Software: EXOFAST ([Eastman et al. 2013, 2019](#))

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