

Warm Jupiters in TESS full-frame images

Dong, Jiayin; Huang, Chelsea X.; Dawson, Rebekah I.; Foreman-Mackey, Daniel; Collins, Karen A.; Quinn, Samuel N.; Lissauer, Jack J.; Beatty, Thomas G.; Quarles, Billy; Sha, Lizhou; Shporer, Avi; Guo, Zhao; Kane, Stephen R.; Abe, Lyu; Barkaoui, Khalid; Benkhaldoun, Zouhair; Brahm, Rafael A.; Bouchy, Francois; Carmichael, Theron W.; Collins, Kevin I.

DOI:

[10.3847/1538-4365/abf73c](https://doi.org/10.3847/1538-4365/abf73c)

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Document Version

Peer reviewed version

Citation for published version (Harvard):

Dong, J, Huang, CX, Dawson, RI, Foreman-Mackey, D, Collins, KA, Quinn, SN, Lissauer, JJ, Beatty, TG, Quarles, B, Sha, L, Shporer, A, Guo, Z, Kane, SR, Abe, L, Barkaoui, K, Benkhaldoun, Z, Brahm, RA, Bouchy, F, Carmichael, TW, Collins, KI, Conti, DM, Crouzet, N, Dransfield, G, Evans, P, Gan, T, Ghachoui, M, Gillon, M, Grieves, N, Guillot, T, Hellier, C, Jehin, E, Jensen, EL, Jordan, A, Kamler, J, Kielkopf, J, Mekarnia, D, Nielsen, LD, Pozuelos, FJ, Radford, DJ, Schmider, F-X, Schwarz, RP, Stockdale, C, Tan, T-G, Timmermans, M, Triaud, AH, Wang, G, Ricker, GR, Vanderspek, R, Latham, DW, Seager, S, Winn, JN, Jenkins, JM, Mireles, I, Yahalomi, D, Morgan, EH, Vezie, M, Quintana, EV, Rose, ME, Smith, JC & Shiao, B 2021, 'Warm Jupiters in TESS full-frame images: a catalog and observed eccentricity distribution for year 1', *Astrophysical Journal. Supplement Series*, vol. 255, no. 1, 6. <https://doi.org/10.3847/1538-4365/abf73c>

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










































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Warm Jupiters in *TESS* Full-Frame Images: A Catalog and Observed Eccentricity Distribution for Year 1

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(Received January 25, 2021; Revised April 2, 2021; Accepted)

Submitted to AAS Journals

ABSTRACT

Warm Jupiters – defined here as planets larger than 6 Earth radii with orbital periods of 8–200 days – are a key missing piece in our understanding of how planetary systems form and evolve. It is currently debated whether Warm Jupiters form in situ, undergo disk or high eccentricity tidal migration, or have a mixture of origin channels. These different classes of origin channels lead to different expectations for Warm Jupiters’ properties, which are currently difficult to evaluate due to the small sample size. We take advantage of the *TESS* survey and systematically search for Warm Jupiter candidates around main-sequence host stars brighter than the *TESS*-band magnitude of 12 in the Full-Frame Images in Year 1 of the *TESS* Prime Mission data. We introduce a catalog of 55 Warm Jupiter candidates, including 19 candidates that were not originally released as *TESS* Objects of Interest (TOIs) by the *TESS* team. We fit their *TESS* light curves, characterize their eccentricities and transit-timing variations (TTVs), and prioritize a list for ground-based follow-up and *TESS* Extended Mission observations. Using hierarchical Bayesian modeling, we find the preliminary eccentricity distributions of our Warm-Jupiter-candidate catalog using a Beta distribution, a Rayleigh distribution, and a two-component Gaussian distribution as the functional forms of the eccentricity distribution. Additional follow-up observations will be required to clean the sample of false positives for a full statistical study, derive the orbital solutions to break the eccentricity degeneracy, and provide mass measurements.

Keywords: exoplanet catalogs (488)–transit photometry (1709)

1. INTRODUCTION

We do not yet understand the formation of Warm Jupiters. Although intrinsically uncommon relative to other planetary demographics (e.g., Jones et al. 2003; Udry et al. 2003; Wittenmyer et al. 2010; Santerne et al. 2016), they are a result of physical processes that likely sculpt many planetary systems and are excellent test cases for theories inspired by the more frequently-detected hot Jupiters (i.e., gas giants with orbital periods less than 8 days) and Warm mini-Neptunes/super-Earths (i.e., planets between the sizes of Earth and Neptune with orbital periods of 8–200 days). It is currently debated

whether Warm Jupiters form in situ (e.g., Lee et al. 2014; Lee & Chiang 2016; Batygin et al. 2016; Boley et al. 2016) or undergo disk migration (e.g., Goldreich & Tremaine 1980; Lin & Papaloizou 1986; Lin et al. 1996; Ida & Lin 2008; Baruteau et al. 2014) or high-eccentricity tidal migration (e.g., Rasio & Ford 1996; Wu & Lithwick 2011; Petrovich 2015; see Section 4.3 Dawson & Johnson 2018 for a comprehensive review). Three proposed origin channels lead to different expectations for Warm Jupiters’ masses (e.g., Ida & Lin 2008; Lee et al. 2014; Lee & Chiang 2016), eccentricities (e.g., Duffell & Chiang 2015; Petrovich & Tremaine 2016; Anderson et al. 2019; Freikh et al. 2019), host star obliquities (e.g., Naoz et al. 2012; Li & Winn 2016; Petrovich & Tremaine 2016) and metallicities (e.g., Dawson & Murray-Clay 2013; Tsang et al. 2014), and the presence and prop-

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erties of other planets in the system (e.g., Dong et al. 2014; Huang et al. 2016). Recently, the diversity in these properties has inspired the hypothesis that multiple origin channels contribute substantially to the Warm Jupiter population (e.g., Dawson & Johnson 2018).

The *Transiting Exoplanet Survey Satellite* (*TESS*; Ricker et al. 2015) provides an excellent opportunity to examine these hypotheses for Warm Jupiters’ origins. Using *TESS* data, a handful of Warm Jupiter systems (e.g., TOI-172, TOI-216, TOI-481, TOI-677, TOI-1130; Rodriguez et al. 2019; Dawson et al. 2019; Kipping et al. 2019; Brahm et al. 2020; Jordán et al. 2020; Huang et al. 2020a) have been discovered and characterized, allowing us to examine whether multiple properties of the system tell a consistent story about the system’s origin (i.e., whether each property is consistent with the same origin theory). More generally, *TESS* is discovering a large sample of Warm Jupiters in the Full-Frame Images (FFIs) that allows for a statistical study of the Warm Jupiter population. Origin theories make different predictions for the eccentricity distribution and occurrence rates of Warm Jupiters (e.g., Petrovich & Tremaine 2016), which are currently difficult to evaluate due to their small sample size.

In this work, we describe a systematic search for Warm Jupiters, defined here as planets larger than 6 Earth radii with orbital periods of 8–200 days, around stars brighter than 12th *TESS*-band magnitude (T_{mag}) in the FFIs in the first year of *TESS* data. We note that the Warm Jupiters here can be more accurately termed warm, *large* planet candidates since we do not have their mass measurements. Planets larger than 6 Earth radii are likely to be gas giants, although we cannot rule out the possibility of super-puffs (i.e., large planets with low densities) which likely have different formation processes. We construct a southern ecliptic hemisphere catalog of Warm Jupiter candidates in Year 1 of the *TESS* FFIs; prioritize a list of Warm Jupiter candidates showing evidence of strong transit-timing variations (TTVs) and high eccentricities for ground-based follow-up and the *TESS* Extended Mission; derive the eccentricity distribution of our Warm Jupiter candidate catalog using hierarchical Bayesian modeling to compare to expectations of different origin theories.

In Section 2, we describe our pipeline for discovering Warm Jupiter candidates in *TESS* FFIs. In Section 3, we present our fitting model for *TESS* light curves and post fitting analysis. In Section 4, we catalog the resulting Warm Jupiter candidates discovered in Year 1 of the *TESS* FFIs and highlight candidates showing possible TTV signals and evidence of high eccentricities. In Section 5, we infer the eccentricity distribution of the catalog using hierarchical Bayesian modeling. We put our work in the context of *TESS* Extended Mission and ground-based follow-up observations and discuss the implications of our results for origins of Warm

Jupiters in Section 6. We summarize our findings in Section 7.

2. TRANSIT SEARCH

During the first year of the *TESS* Prime Mission (July 25, 2018 – July 18, 2019), *TESS* surveyed almost the entire southern ecliptic hemisphere (Ricker et al. 2015). The Year 1 Prime Mission was divided into thirteen *TESS* sectors (Sector 1–13) with each sector monitoring a fraction of sky for ~ 27 days. The *TESS* data release includes 30-minute cadence FFIs and 2-minute cadence for $\sim 200,000$ pre-selected target stars. Given the long orbital periods and low occurrence rates of Warm Jupiters, we should expect only a dozen or so Warm Jupiter candidates on the pre-selected list. Here we systematically search for Warm Jupiter candidates in *TESS* FFIs, which includes over a million stars brighter than T_{mag} of 12. Warm Jupiters’ large transit depths ($\sim 10^4$ ppm) make them readily detected in FFIs.

2.1. Identifying Threshold-Crossing Events

We identify Threshold-Crossing Events (TCEs) in *TESS* Sector 1–13 that would correspond to transits of objects with radii 6–20 R_{\oplus} , orbital periods 8–200 days, and transit signal-to-noise ratios (SNRs) greater than 9 (see the definition of SNRs in Hartman & Bakos 2016). We focus on TCEs with host stars brighter than the T_{mag} of 12 to produce a catalog feasible for ground-based follow up. The T_{mag} and parameter cut off here are based on *TESS* Input Catalog v7 (TICv7; Stassun et al. 2018). The TICv8 catalog (Stassun et al. 2019) was not yet published when we made the target selection. All the TCEs are required to receive a `triage` score > 0.09 (Yu et al. 2019), which is the threshold from the deep learning algorithm to distinguish eclipse-like signals (e.g., planet candidates and eclipsing binaries) from stellar variability and instrumental noise. After applying these selection criteria, we identify ~ 2000 TCEs.

2.2. Vetting TCEs

We further vet the ~ 2000 TCEs to remove false positives (e.g., obvious eclipsing binaries, stellar variability, and instrumental artifacts) that were not identified by `triage`, and single-transit events.¹ The procedures are similar to standard vetting procedures applied to *TESS* Objects of Interests (TOIs) (Guerrero et al. 2021). This process truncates our sample to ~ 500 Warm Jupiter candidates. For the remaining ~ 500 Warm Jupiter candidates, we examine more closely each candidate to identify those with signatures of false positives. We remove the target from our sample if it shows

¹ A list of single-transit events is available from J.D. upon request, although we note that our detection pipeline (i.e., a Box-Least Squares search) is not optimized for single transit events.

- detectable motion of the center of the light during fading events
- $> 3\sigma$ secondary eclipse detection at any phase
- $> 3\sigma$ transit depth difference detection between a large aperture (3.5-pixel) and a nominal aperture (2.5-pixel)
- transit signal synchronized with stellar variability
- matching any known eclipsing binary catalogs (Collins et al. 2018)
- impact parameter $b > 0.9$

For giant planets with a typical planet-star radius ratio of ~ 0.1 , an impact parameter greater than 0.9 may lead to difficulty in constraining the planet-star radius ratio and impact parameter from their light curves. To minimize the contamination of eclipsing binaries in our sample, we remove these targets. The impact-parameter cutoff has a trade off between false positives and real planets with high impact parameters. At the time of this writing, we notice the confirmation of a high-impact-parameter Warm Jupiter, TIC 237913194 (Schlecker et al. 2020), which is not identified in our catalog due to the impact-parameter cutoff. One may also concern that the impact-parameter cutoff will result in removing candidates on highly elliptical orbits because of their short transit durations. Since giant planets usually have large transit depths and well-resolved transit shapes, we do not expect the cutoff will strongly affect planets with high eccentricities. Lastly, we remove about 15 targets that have been labeled as false positives by *TESS* Follow-up Observing Program at the time of vetting. See Section 2.3 for more details.

Our study focuses on host stars that are on or near the main sequence and have TCEs around substantially evolved stars removed (i.e., $R_* > 3R_\odot$ or $\log g < 3.5$). We derive posteriors for stellar parameters (including ρ_* and R_*) from isochrone fitting with the Dartmouth (Dotter et al. 2008) stellar evolution models. We use the approach described by Dawson et al. (2015) to fit the stellar effective temperature, metallicity (when available), *Gaia* DR2 parallax, and *Gaia* apparent g magnitude (Gaia Collaboration et al. 2016, 2018). We apply the systematic correction to *Gaia* parallaxes from Stassun & Torres (2018). The stellar temperature, metallicity, and uncertainties are taken from the TICv8 catalog (Stassun et al. 2019).

After this step, we have left with a sample of 197 Warm Jupiter candidates with 12 candidates on the pre-selected target list.

2.3. TFOP WG Follow-up

Several candidates that survived vetting have already been dispositioned as false-positives (FPs) or false-alarms (FAs)

by *TESS* Follow-up Observing Program (TFOP)² Sub Group 1 (SG1) using *Seeing-Limited Photometry* and Sub Group 2 (SG2) using *Recon Spectroscopy*. As ground-based follow-up observations progress, we will continue to drop newly discovered FPs and FAs from the catalog. Table 6 lists the 15 FPs and FA that survived our vetting and 15 FPs that were removed during the TCE vetting discussed in previous subsection.

The SG1 follow-up observations attempt to (1) rule out or identify nearby eclipsing binaries (NEBs) as sources of the *TESS* data detection, (2) detect the transit-like event on-target to confirm the event depth and thus the *TESS* photometric deblending factor, (3) refine the *TESS* ephemeris, (4) provide additional epochs of transit center time measurements to supplement transit timing variation (TTV) analysis, and (5) place constraints on transit depth differences across optical filter bands. We used the *TESS* Transit Finder, which is a customized version of the *Tapir* software package (Jensen 2013), to schedule SG1 transit observations.

The SG2 follow-up observations attempt to provide spectroscopic parameters that will more precisely constrain the masses and radii of planet host stars, to detect false positives caused by spectroscopic binaries (SBs), and to identify stars unsuitable for precise RV measurements, such as rapid rotators.

Joint analysis of ground-based and *TESS* data for planet candidates in our catalog that have been verified to be on-target is beyond the scope of this work. The ground-based data will be presented in follow-up statistical validation or radial velocity confirmation publications. However, in the process of following-up these candidates, we identified several nearby eclipsing binaries (NEBs) that are the cause of their corresponding signals in the *TESS* data. We also identified a few systems with strong transit depth chromaticity, which we interpret as a blended eclipsing binary (BEB) in the follow-up photometric aperture. We also identified one candidate that is an FA after it was not detected on or off target in the ground-based follow-up data. Further analysis of the *TESS* data led us to conclude that the apparent signal in the *TESS* data is a detrending residual due to high scattered light near the beginning of the two corresponding *TESS* orbits. The follow-up light curve data are available at ExoFOP-*TESS*³. Table 1 lists observatories that have participated in SG1 follow-up observations of these targets.

3. LIGHT CURVE CHARACTERIZATION

TESS light curves are obtained from the MIT Quick Look Pipeline (QLP; Huang et al. 2019, 2020b,c). To reduce the computational effort for light curve fitting, we trim the light

² <https://tess.mit.edu/followup>

³ <https://exofop.ipac.caltech.edu/tess>

Table 1. Facilities used for SG1 Follow-up Observations

Observatory	Location	Aperture (m)	Pixel scale (arcsec)	FOV (arcmin)
Antarctic Search for Transiting Exoplanets (ASTEP)	Concordia Station, Antarctica	0.4	0.93	63×63
Brierfield Private Observatory	Bellingen, New S. Wales, Australia	0.36	1.47	50×50
Chilean-Hungarian Automated Telescope (CHAT)	Las Campanas Observatory, Chile	0.7	0.6	21×21
Evans Private Telescope	El Sauce Observatory, Chile	0.36	1.47	19×13
Hazelwood Private Observatory	Churchill, Victoria, Australia	0.32	0.55	20×14
Hungarian Automated Tel. Network-South (HATS)	Chile, Namibia, Australia	0.18	3.7	492×492
Las Cumbres Observatory Global Telescope (LCOGT)	Chile, South Africa, Australia	1.0	0.39	26×26
MEarth-South	La Serena, Chile	0.4	0.84	29×29
Perth Exoplanet Survey Telescope (PEST)	Perth, Australia	0.3	1.2	31×21
TRAPPIST-North	Oukaimeden Observatory, Morocco	0.6	0.60	20×20
TRAPPIST-South	La Silla, Chile	0.6	0.64	22×22
Wide Angle Search for Planets-South (WASP-South)	Sutherland, South Africa	0.1	13.7	468×468

References—TRAPPIST (Jehin et al. 2011)

curves around each transit to roughly 6 times the transit duration. We generally use the QLP detrended light curves (i.e., KSPSAP_FLUX), which are corrected for systematics using Kepler splines (Shallue & Vanderburg 2018). However, we identify some KSPSAP_FLUX light curves showing over-detrended transit signals (e.g., transit signals being washed out due to the correction). In such cases, we switch to the Simple Aperture Photometry (SAP) light curves. We also notice that transit signals could be masked by the TESS quality flag if they are close to momentum dumps. To avoid missing any transit data, we do not apply the TESS quality flag to produce the trimmed light curves. Instead, we manually remove truly abnormal data points (e.g., a sudden 10% flux deviation on a single data point) in the trimmed light curves.

For the pre-selected targets with 2-minute cadence data available, we obtain their TESS light curves processed with the Science Processing Operations Center (SPOC) pipeline (Jenkins et al. 2010). The SPOC pipeline is a descendant of the Kepler mission pipeline based at the NASA Ames Research Center (Jenkins et al. 2002, 2010), analyzing target pixel postage stamps that are obtained for pre-selected target stars. We download the publicly available data from the Mikulski Archive for Space Telescopes (MAST) using the `lightkurve` package (Lightkurve Collaboration et al. 2018). Similar to FFI light curves, we use PDCSAP light curves in most cases but switch to SAP light curves if the PDCSAP light curves are over-detrended.

3.1. Light curve modeling

We use a quadratic limb darkening transit model (Mandel & Agol 2002), along with a Gaussian process (GP) likelihood function, to infer planet properties from TESS

light curves. The free parameters in our transit model are $\{\rho_{\text{circ}}, b, r_p/r_*, P, T_0, u_0, u_1\}$, where ρ_{circ} is the stellar density assuming a circular orbit, b is the impact parameter of the transiting planet, r_p/r_* is the planet-star radius ratio, P is the planet orbital period, T_0 is the mid-transit time of the first observed transit, and u_0 and u_1 are the quadratic limb darkening coefficients (Kipping 2013). We note that we fit our candidates’ stellar densities, ρ_{circ} assuming they have circular orbits. We later compare the marginalized ρ_{circ} to ρ_* , the “true” stellar densities derived from the isochrone fitting, to constrain the candidates’ eccentricities (Section 3.2). To allow transit-timing variation (TTV) characterization, we adopt a slightly different approach for candidates with 3+ transits. Instead of fitting the orbital period and mid-transit time, we fit mid-transit times for each transit (i.e., $T_{1..N}$). We take the orbital period as a fixed value in the fitting and it is only involved in the computation of the transit duration. Since the orbital period is known with much greater precision than the precision with which the transit duration can be determined, and since the transit duration has a weak scaling with the orbital period ($\tau \propto P^{1/3}$), fixing the orbital period for light curve modeling and computing it later from a linear fit to mid-transit times does not significantly affect the inference on any of the parameters. Lastly, to account for correlated noise in the light curves, we adopt a GP kernel including a diagonal jitter term (s_{gp}) to characterize the light curve white noise and a Matern-3/2 term (σ_{gp} for the amplitude and ρ_{gp} for the timescale) to take account photometric variability (Foreman-Mackey et al. 2017; Foreman-Mackey 2018). In Table 2, we list the priors we put on the free parameters described above. For the pre-selected targets with both 2-minute and 30-minute cadence data, we perform a

Table 2. Summary of priors used for the light curve fits.

Parameter	Description	Distribution
Transit model		
ρ_{circ}	Stellar density assuming a circular orbit (g/cm^3)	$\log\text{Uniform}(10^{-3}, 10^3)$
b	Impact parameter	$\text{Uniform}(-2, 2)$
r_p/r_*	Planet-star radius ratio	$\log\text{Uniform}(\text{testval}-5, \text{testval}+5)$
P	Orbital period (days)	$\text{Uniform}(\text{testval}-5, \text{testval}+5)$ or <i>constant</i>
$T_{1..N}$	Mid-transit times (BJD-2457000)	$\text{Uniform}(\text{testval}-5, \text{testval}+5)$
u_0, u_1	Quadratic limb-darkening coefficients	Adopted from Kipping (2013)
Gaussian Process model		
s_{gp}	Photometric jitter	$\log\text{Uniform}(30 \times 10^{-6}, 1)$
ρ_{gp}	Amplitude of the Matern-3/2 kernel	$\log\text{Uniform}(30 \times 10^{-6}, 1)$
σ_{gp}	Timescale of the Matern-3/2 kernel	$\log\text{Uniform}(0.001, 1000)$

NOTE—*testval*: test values; The absolute value of the impact parameter is used when computing light curves.

joint fit of parameters $\{\rho_{\text{circ}}, b, r_p/r_*, T_{1..N}, u_0, u_1\}$, but give each dataset a different set of GP-kernel parameters to treat the difference on time sampling.

The light curve fits use the `exoplanet` package ([Foreman-Mackey et al. 2019](#)) that implements the quadratic limb darkening transit model using `starry` ([Luger et al. 2019](#); [Agol et al. 2020](#)) and the Matern-3/2 GP model in `celerite` ([Foreman-Mackey et al. 2017](#)). The light curve model is averaged into 30-minute bins over 15 evaluations per bin (i.e., `texp = 0.02083`, `oversample = 15`) for the 30-minute cadence light curves and averaged into 2-minute bins over 8 evaluations per bin (i.e., `texp = 0.00139`, `oversample = 8`) for the 2-minute cadence light curves. For each set of light curves, we sample 4 chains using the Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) technique with gradient-based proposals ([Neal 2012](#); [Hoffman & Gelman 2011](#); [Betancourt 2017](#)). Each chain contains 5000 tuning steps and 3000 sampling steps. We set the target accept rate universally to 0.99 to reduce divergences caused by the degeneracy between ρ_{circ} and b for some v -shaped light curves. We assess MCMC convergence using the Gelman-Rubin diagnostic (i.e., $\hat{\mathcal{R}} < 1.1$ for convergence), trace plots, and corner plots ([Foreman-Mackey 2016](#)) of the marginal joint distributions. We combine all four chains to get the posterior distribution. For a typical Warm Jupiter candidate with three transits (e.g., TOI-172b; [Rodriguez et al. 2019](#)), it takes ~ 30 minutes to analyze the light curves, benefiting from the efficiency of gradient-based proposals and No U-Turns (NUTs) sampling ([Hoffman & Gelman 2011](#)).

3.2. Post light curve analysis

Our light curve fitting identifies a large group of Warm Jupiter candidates (~ 100) with grazing orbits that were not previously identified in Section 2. Their impact parameter posteriors have a mode centered around $b = 1$ with large uncertainties (e.g., $\sigma_b = 0.3\text{--}0.5$). We remove these candidates from our catalog because we cannot constrain their planet-star radius ratios due to poorly constrained impact parameters. The range of possible radii extends to the stellar companion regime in many cases.

We assess TTVs for Warm Jupiter candidates with 3+ transits. We calculate a best-fit linear ephemeris to the mid-transit times using the medians and uncertainties on mid-transit time posteriors from light curve fitting. We perform a least-square fitting to

$$T_n = T_c + nP, \quad (1)$$

where T_n is the mid-transit time for the n -th transit, T_c is the conjunction time for reference, and P is the orbital period of the planet. To compute the $O-C$ (Observed-minus-Calculated) times, we subtract the linear ephemeris T_n from the observed mid-transit times. To evaluate the significance of the TTV signal, we find the absolute difference between every pair of $O-C$ data points and normalize it by their uncertainties (i.e., the quadratic error in the two mid-transit times). For example, for a pair of mid-transit data points T_x and T_y with $O-C$ s of $(O-C)_x$ and $(O-C)_y$ and uncertainties of σ_{T_x} and σ_{T_y} , respectively, their TTV significance $\sigma_{\text{TTV}|x,y}$ is calculated as

$$\sigma_{\text{TTV}|x,y} = \frac{|(O-C)_x - (O-C)_y|}{\sqrt{\sigma_{T_x}^2 + \sigma_{T_y}^2}} \quad (2)$$

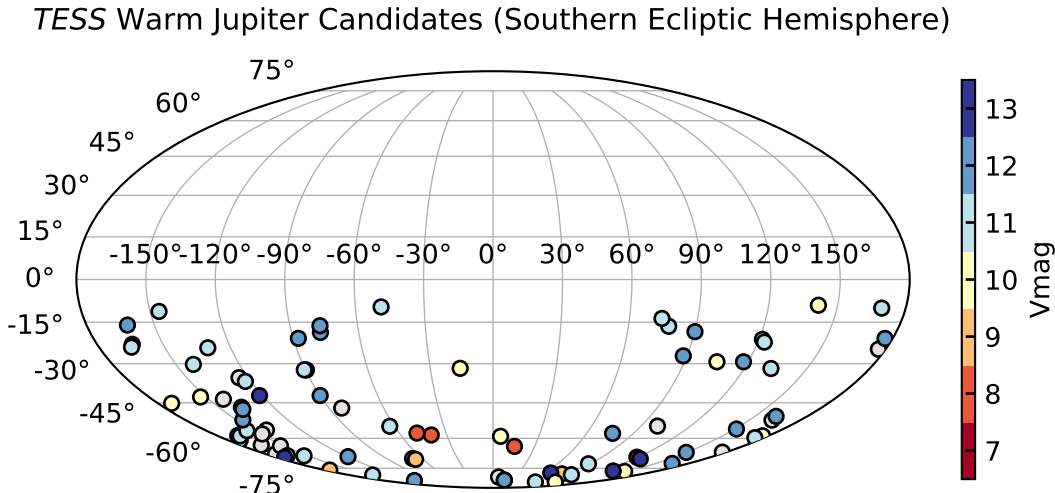


Figure 1. Warm Jupiter candidates discovered in Year 1 *TESS* Full-Frame Images around main-sequence host stars brighter than *TESS*-band magnitude of 12. The candidates are plotted in ecliptic coordinates (λ , β), where λ is the ecliptic longitude and β is the ecliptic latitude. The 55 candidates with well-constrained parameters, along with 11 candidates with well-fitted light curves but undetermined orbital periods and/or missing stellar parameters, are colored in their V-band magnitudes. The 19 *possible* candidates with unconstrained impact parameters and radii are colored in grey. Most of our targets are bright enough for ground-based follow-up observations.

We take the maximum value of the TTV significance of every pair of the mid-transit times as the significance level of the TTV detection of the system.

The orbital eccentricity of a planet can be inferred from its transit light curve, sometimes termed the “photoeccentric” effect, although the solution is degenerate with the planet’s argument of periape. Using the posterior distribution of ρ_{circ} from light curve fitting and the posterior distribution of ρ_{\star} from the isochrone fitting, we compute a joint posterior distribution for (e, ω) following Dawson & Johnson (2012).

4. CANDIDATE CATALOG

Our vetting process results in a catalog of 55 Warm Jupiter candidates in the FFIs in Year 1 of the *TESS* Prime Mission data. Due to the depth of our survey (i.e., $T_{\text{mag}} < 12$), 19 of our candidates have not yet been identified as TOIs. We present their light curves in Appendix A. A complete figure set (19 figures) of the FFI light curves of non-TOI candidates is available in the online journal. In Section 4.1, we tabulate our candidates with their host star and planet properties and present their TTV and eccentricity analysis. In Section 4.2, we introduce 11 additional Warm Jupiter candidates with undetermined orbital periods and/or missing stellar parameters and list 19 more *possible* Warm Jupiter candidates with unconstrained impact parameters.

4.1. A catalog of Warm Jupiter candidates

We present 55 Warm Jupiter candidates discovered in *TESS* Sectors 1–13 in FFIs around main-sequence host stars brighter than *TESS* magnitude of 12. In Figure 1, we display our candidates in ecliptic coordinates and color them by their V-band magnitude. In Table 4, we tabulate the 55 candidates

with their planet and host star properties. A detailed description of each column can be found in the table caption. The 19 candidates that were not originally released as TOIs by the *TESS* team can be identified from the “TOI Name” column (Column 2) with no TOI names listed. Some of the non-TOI targets have been independently vetted by other groups (e.g., Montalto et al. 2020) and reported as Community TOIs (CTOIs), labeled in Column 17.

In Figures 2 and 3, we present the TTV analysis for the 35 Warm Jupiter systems with 3+ transits. In each panel, we show the *O-C* diagram (i.e., the observed mid-transit times with the calculated mid-transit times subtracted) of the planet candidates in the system. The panels are sorted by the TTV significance. About half of the systems are observed in multiple *TESS* Sectors. One of the most prominent TTV systems is TOI-216 (TIC-55652896; Dawson et al. AJ in press; Dawson et al. 2019; Kipping et al. 2019) with an outer Warm Jupiter (labeled as open circles) in 2:1 mean-motion resonance with the inner Warm Neptune (labeled as black dots). The system has a TTV significance level of 27.1 using our metric discussed in Section 3.2. We do not identify any other systems with TTV signals as significant as TOI-216’s in the rest of the catalog. TOI-1130 (TIC-254113311; Huang et al. 2020a) is another *TESS* multi-transiting-planet system with an outer 8.4-day Warm Jupiter (TOI-1130c) and an inner 4.1-day hot Neptune (TOI-1130b). Our TTV analysis on the system shows that TOI-1130c (i.e., black dots) has no obvious TTV signals, and TOI-1130b (i.e., open circles) has some tentative TTV signals. We might be able to detect the TTV signals of TOI-1130c when combined with the *TESS* Extended Mission data. Meanwhile, the system demonstrates

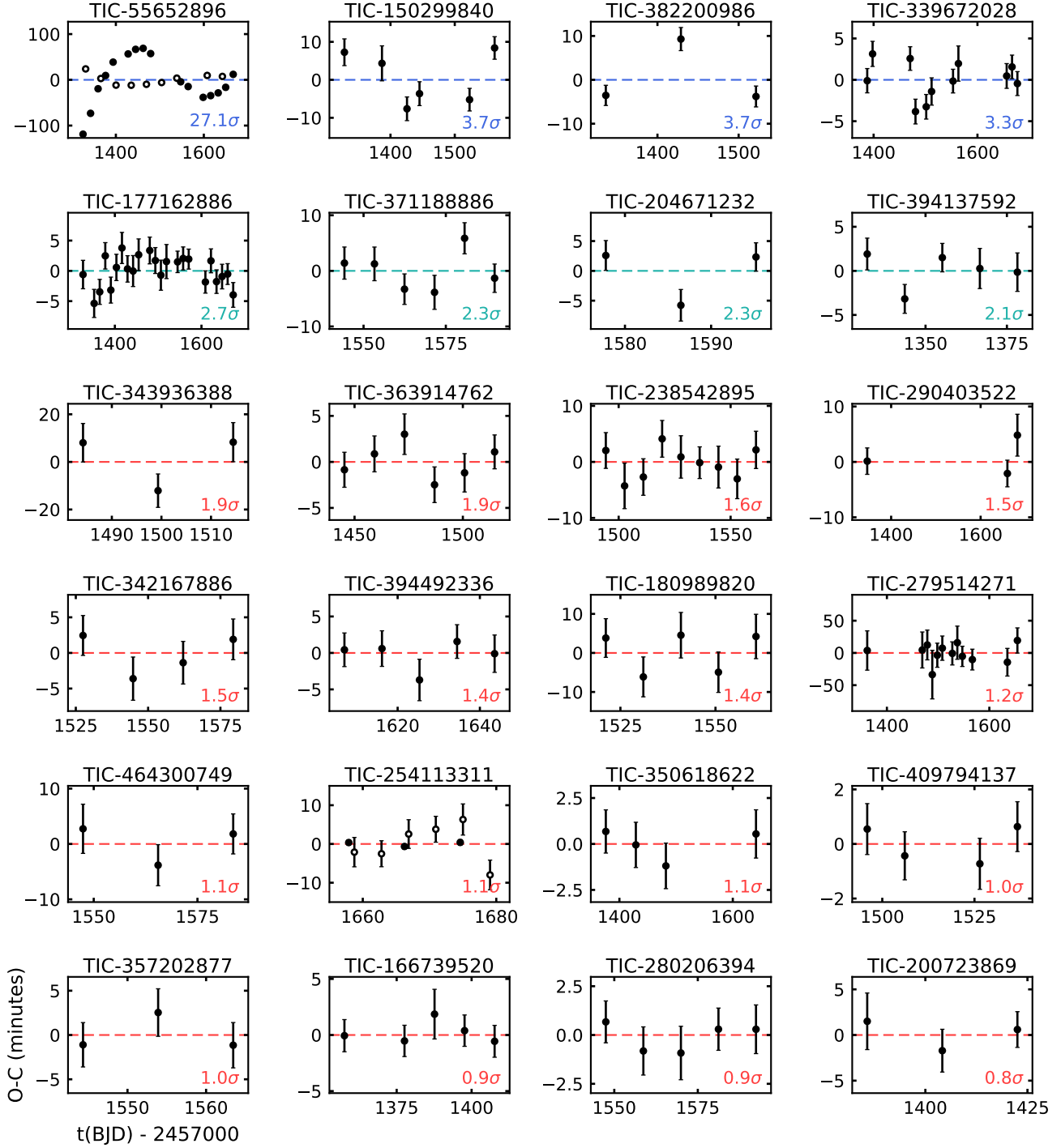


Figure 2. TTV analysis for Warm Jupiter candidates with 3+ transits (Part 1). In each panel, we show the $O-C$ diagram (Observed-Computed of mid-transit times versus time in BJD-2457000) for one candidate. We include a horizontal dashed line centered at zero in each panel for reference. The significance levels of the TTV detections are calculated using Equation (2) by taking the absolute differences between every pair of $O-C$ data points normalized by their quadratic errors. We report the maximum TTV significance level in each panel. Candidates with $> 3\sigma$ TTV detections are colored in lavender; with $2-3\sigma$ detections are colored in green; with $< 2\sigma$ detections are colored in coral. For two-planet systems (i.e., TIC-55652896 and TIC-254113311), we plot one planet using closed circles and the other using open circles.

that even with a nearby companion, a target can still show no significant TTV signals due to the short observing baseline.

As shown in Figure 2 and 3, we evaluate the significance of the TTV signals (i.e., $> 3\sigma$, $2-3\sigma$, and $< 2\sigma$) for each system. 4/35 ($\sim 11\%$) systems show a $> 3\sigma$ TTV detection, colored

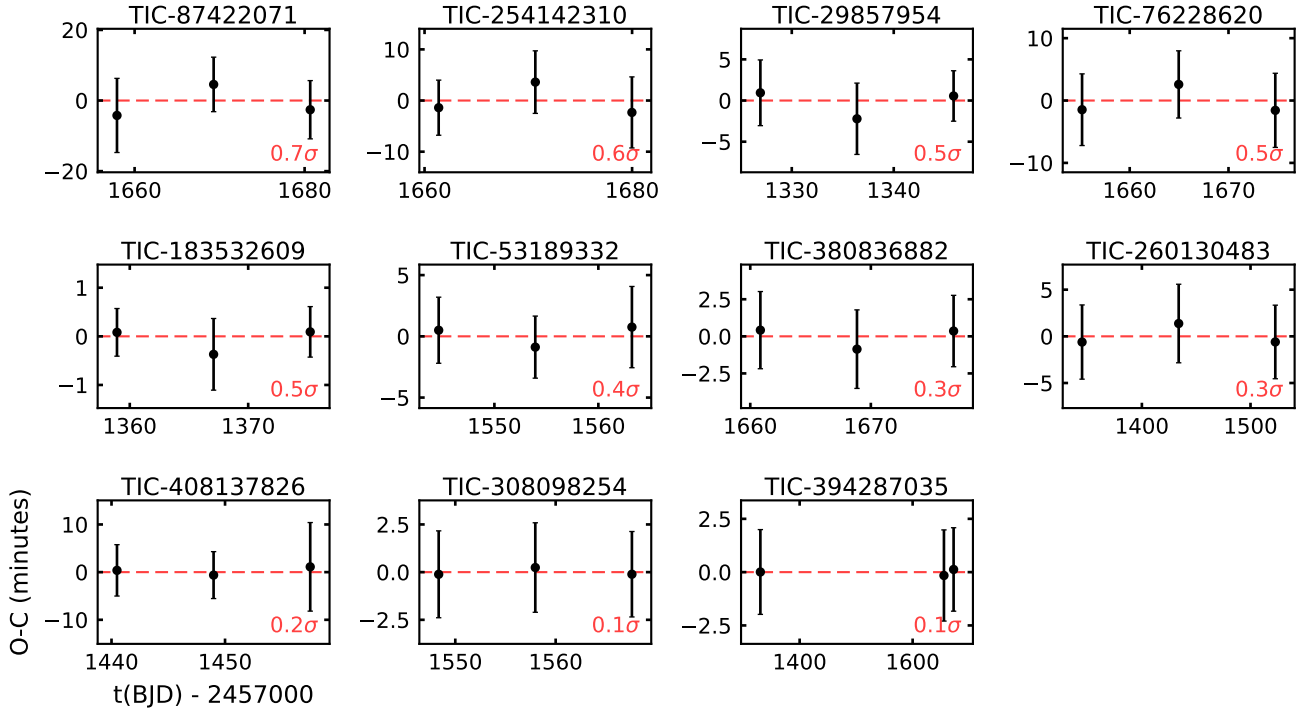


Figure 3. Same as Figure 2.

and labeled in lavender; 4/36 (~11%) candidates show 2–3σ TTV detection, colored and labeled in green; and 27/35 (77%) systems show less than 2σ TTV signals, colored and labeled in coral. The horizontal dashed line in each panel is centered at zero for reference. Although they do not have the strongest TTV detections, a few systems show TTV patterns that could be sinusoidal, e.g.,

- TIC-150299840
- TIC-382200986
- TIC-371188886
- TIC-343936388,

which might be worthwhile to explore further. Many of the systems (i.e., systems colored in coral) show no significant TTV signals. The lack of detected TTVs does not rule out the presence of other planets and may be due to the lack of precision of mid-transit times (i.e., demonstrated by error bars in Figure 2 and 3) and/or short observing baselines. With the TESS Extended Mission observation, which will provide a longer observing baseline and finer cadence data, we expect to improve the TTV analysis for many of the Warm Jupiter systems.

We characterize the eccentricities of 55 Warm Jupiter candidates using the “photoeccentric” effect discussed in Section 3.2. Given the asymmetrical distribution of the eccentricity posteriors and the bimodal distribution of the argument-of-periapse posteriors, we report their modes and the 68% high-

est posterior density (HPD) intervals instead of the medians and 68% quantiles. In Figure 4, we present the eccentricity-versus-orbital period of these candidates. Each candidate is labeled by the mode of its eccentricity posterior and the grey errorbar indicates the 68% HPD. As shown in Figure 4, we identify a collection of Warm Jupiter candidates that are possibly on highly elliptical orbits and have them colored in orange. To identify these high-*e* candidates, we use the criterion of whether the lower bound of the 95% HPD of the eccentricity posterior is greater than 0.2. The criterion here is not driven by theoretical models but to prioritize a list of targets for ground-based follow-up observations. The 10 targets are

- TIC-350618622 (TOI-201.01; Hobson et al. submitted)
- TIC-130415266 (TOI-588.01)
- TIC-280206394 (TOI-677b; Jordán et al. 2020)
- TIC-147660886 (TOI-2005.01)
- TIC-24358417 (TOI-2338.01)
- TIC-290403522
- TIC-395113305
- TIC-180989820
- TIC-464300749

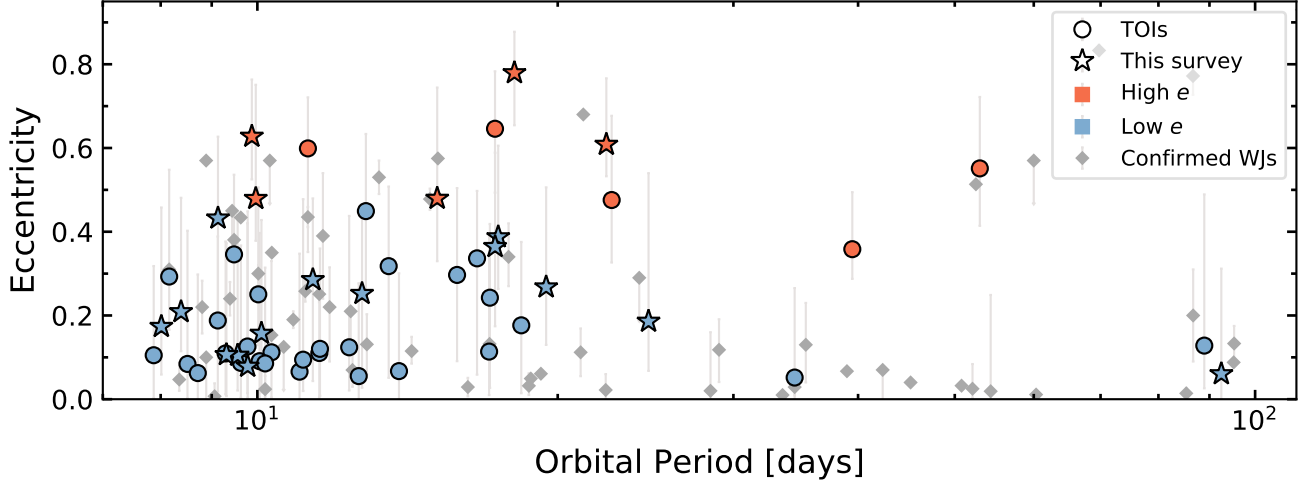


Figure 4. Eccentricity versus orbital period of the 55 Warm Jupiter candidates discovered in Year 1 *TESS* FFIs around host stars brighter than T_{mag} of 12. The eccentricities are inferred from the candidates’ stellar densities and presented by their posterior modes and the 68% highest posterior density (HPD) intervals. TOIs are labeled with circles and unique targets yield from our survey are labeled with stars. If the lower bound of the 95% HPD interval of the eccentricity is greater than 0.2, we identify the planet as a high- e planet and have it colored in orange; otherwise, we have it colored in blue. We have 10 candidates identified as high- e planets. All 79 confirmed Warm Jupiters (defined here as planets larger than 6 Earth radii with orbital periods of 8–200 days) are plotted in grey dots, as of March 2021 from NASA Exoplanet Archive.

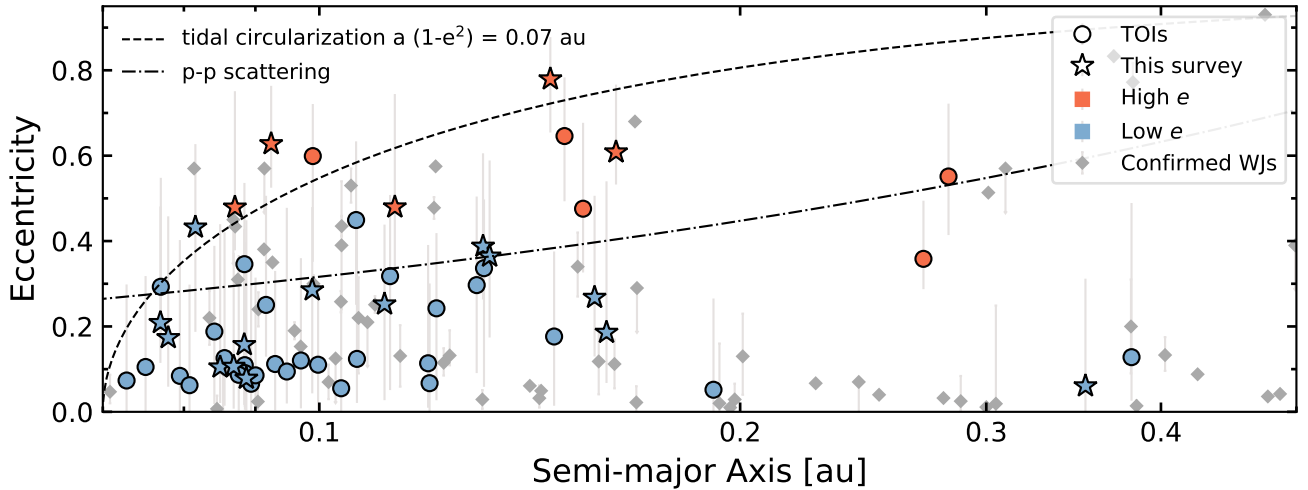


Figure 5. Eccentricity versus semi-major axis of the 55 Warm Jupiter candidates discovered in Year 1 *TESS* FFIs around host stars brighter than T_{mag} of 12. The eccentricities are inferred from the candidates’ stellar densities and presented by their posterior modes and the 68% highest posterior density (HPD) intervals. We color a collection of candidates that are possibly on highly elliptical orbits in orange, according to their eccentricities and HPD intervals (similar to Figure 4). We present two reference curves to demonstrate possible Warm Jupiter origin channels. The tidal circularization line (i.e., the dashed line; $a_{\text{final}} = a(1 - e^2) = 0.07$ au) illustrates one possible formation pathway of a Warm Jupiter under high- e migration. Above the line, the planet’s orbit will shrink to a semi-major axis of 0.07 au or smaller. The planet-planet scattering line (i.e., the dot-dash line) demonstrates the approximate maximum eccentricity to which a planet could be excited by nearby companions without undergoing collisions and having its eccentricity damped. The line can be understood as the maximum eccentricity one would expect for multiple Warm Jupiters formed in situ.

- TIC-343936388.

In Figure 5, we plot the eccentricity versus the semi-major axis of the candidates to demonstrate possible Warm Jupiter formation pathways. If Warm Jupiters are formed at large semi-major axis and migrate inwards via high-eccentricity tidal migration, they will follow a tidal circularization track

of constant angular momentum, such as the dashed line shown in Figure 5. During the process of the high- e migration, the planet loses orbital energy ($E_p = -GM_\star m_p/2a$) due to the tidal dissipation in the planet and thus shrinks its orbit. The angular momentum ($L_p = m_p \sqrt{GM_\star a(1 - e^2)}$), however, stays roughly the same. As a result, the planet

reduces its eccentricity as its semi-major axis gets smaller, following an evolution track of $a_{\text{final}} = a(1 - e^2)$, where a_{final} is a constant and the semi-major axis the planet ends up with by the end of the migration (considering tidal dissipation in the planet only). The tidal circularization timescale has a strong dependence on a_{final} (i.e., $\tau \propto a_{\text{final}}^8$; Eggleton et al. 1998). Generally, planets with $a_{\text{final}} < 0.05$ au are likely to get circularized in a star’s lifetime, whereas planets with $a_{\text{final}} > 0.1$ au are unlikely to do so. Because of the uncertainty in the tidal dissipation efficiency and thus on the tidal circularization timescale, some of our shortest period, circular-orbit warm Jupiters could have undergone complete tidal circularization. The dashed line in Figure 5 has a final semi-major axis of 0.07 au, an illustrative value for the critical final semi-major axis. Warm Jupiter on and above the dashed line are experiencing high- e migration and will have their final orbits shrunk to semi-major axes of 0.07 au or smaller. Planets below the dashed line could also experience high- e migration if they are coupled to outer companions and undergo eccentricity oscillations (Socrates et al. 2012; see Jackson et al. 2019 for a case study and Kane & Raymond 2014 for an investigation of secular oscillations in radial-velocity discovered giant planet systems). If Warm Jupiter are instead formed in situ or arrived via disk migration, we expect to observe them at low eccentricities. The dot-dashed line in Figure 5 presents the approximate maximum eccentricity for which a planet could be excited via in situ planet-planet scattering (Equation 10 in Dawson & Johnson 2018; Petrovich et al. 2014; Anderson et al. 2020). We assume a mass of $0.5 M_{\text{Jup}}$ and a radius of $2 R_{\text{Jup}}$ as illustrative values for young planets. Planets below the dot-dashed line are consistent with in situ formation and disk migration. However, Anderson & Lai (2017) pointed out Warm Jupiters formed with low eccentricities could have their eccentricities excited by outer companions via secular interactions. In such scenarios, Warm Jupiters formed in situ or via disk migration can be observed above the dot-dashed line.

We investigate possible correlations between planets’ radii and eccentricities, as shown in Figure 6. We find the majority of Warm Jupiter candidates on highly elliptical orbits have a size between 8 and 13 Earth radii (for reference, Jupiter is $\sim 11 R_{\oplus}$). For both small (i.e., $R_p < 8R_{\oplus}$) and large ($R_p > 12R_{\oplus}$) planets, we identify a lack of high- e planets. One possible explanation of the lack of high- e planets for the large planets ($R_p > 12R_{\oplus}$) is that they are inflated by some heating sources, such as tidal heating from the planetary tidal dissipation (e.g., Bodenheimer et al. 2001), stellar heating from the stellar irradiation (e.g., Guillot & Showman 2002), and thermal tides caused by asynchronous rotation and orbital eccentricity (e.g., Arras & Socrates 2010), and then tidally circularized by their host stars. However, all these theories require a small periastron of the planet, whereas

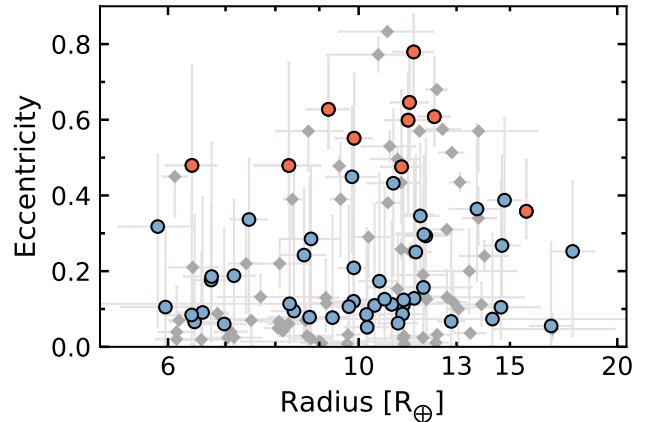


Figure 6. Eccentricity versus planet radius in Earth radii for the 55 Warm Jupiter candidates. The eccentricities are inferred from the candidates’ stellar densities and presented by their posterior modes and the 68% highest posterior density (HPD) intervals. The candidates are categorized into a high- e population colored in orange and a low- e population colored in blue, given their eccentricities and HPD intervals (similar to Figure 4 and 5). The major of the high- e candidates (colored in orange) have a planetary size of 8–13 Earth radii.

many of our large Warm Jupiters have long orbital periods ($P > 8$ days; some even have $P > 15$ days) and low eccentricities. Other possibilities are that the stellar radii could have errors unaccounted for in the uncertainties or the large planets could instead be low mass stars, which might have a different dynamical history and/or circularization distance. For the small planets (i.e., $R_p < 8R_{\oplus}$), without a proper mass measurement, we cannot tell whether or not they are giant planets or super puff planets. If they are super puff planets instead, the lack of high- e planets could be explained by a different origin channel(s) for low mass planets. Our observations could suffer from small number statistics since only 6/55 candidates have a mode eccentricity greater than 0.5. Moreover, astrophysical false-positives, e.g., eclipse binaries and brown dwarfs, could contaminate our sample of warm Jupiters and compromise our interpretations. More investigation, especially mass measurements of small and large planets, is required to draw any firm conclusions about the apparent correlation with planet size.

4.2. Additional candidates

In Table 5, we introduce 11 additional Warm Jupiter candidates that are not included (i.e., Table 4) due to unconstrained ephemerides and eccentricities. The missing information is itemized in Table 5. Eight of these candidates have unconstrained orbital periods due to observation gaps in the *TESS* data. Ground-based follow up or the *TESS* Extended Mission is likely to resolve their orbital period degeneracy. Four of them have missing stellar parameters and/or *Gaia* parallax

according to the TIC-v8 catalog. The missing stellar parameters lead to unconstrained planet eccentricity.

In addition, we list 19 more *possible* Warm Jupiter candidates that are not included due to poorly constrained impact parameters and thus the planet-star radius ratios. The transit duration of these candidates is short and their light curves are usually v -shaped. The posterior distributions of the impact parameter show a flat distribution between 0 and 1 with a long tail above 1. Because of the existence of the $b > 1$ solution, planet radii could approach the substellar object regime for these candidates. We do not include these candidates in our catalog to minimize false positives. Still, we list their TIC IDs here:

- 4588737
- 38815574
- 76761591
- 117817010
- 304418238
- 305345992
- 359271114
- 359732062
- 379717270
- 381982417
- 384164973
- 410395660
- 412484721
- 460205581 (TOI-837.01; [Bouma et al. 2020](#))
- 461968320
- 462162948 (TOI-684.01)
- 464124454
- 467807015
- 467807116.

Finer cadence photometric observations (e.g., from the *TESS* Extended Mission) may improve the constraints on the impact parameters and make some of the candidates qualified for the catalog.

5. THE ECCENTRICITY DISTRIBUTION

Different origin channels (i.e., in situ formation, disk/high- e migration) make different predictions for Warm Jupiters' eccentricities. To shed light on which one or more origin channels predominantly contribute to the Warm Jupiter population, we characterize the eccentricity distribution of our catalog using hierarchical Bayesian modeling (HBM). The philosophy of HBM is that each Warm Jupiter is a member of a specific population, and that members of each population share properties in common. Consequently, individual members reflect the properties of the population and the population helps to make better inferences of the properties of individual members. Studying warm Jupiters as a catalog both provides information on the eccentricity distribution and improves the inference of the eccentricity of a single planet.

Transit durations can serve as proxies for the eccentricities of transiting planets and can be used to infer a population-wide eccentricity distribution under the assumption of a uniform distribution of impact parameters (e.g., as performed by studies such as [Moorhead et al. 2011](#); [Kane et al. 2012](#) for *Kepler* planet candidates). For planets with large SNR transits, transit shapes are well resolved and we may constrain the impact parameters and their ρ_{circ} assuming circular orbits. With both well-constrained ρ_{circ} and ρ_* (the true stellar density), we can constrain the planets' individual eccentricities using the “photoeccentric” effect ([Kipping 2014a](#)). For example, [Dawson et al. \(2015\)](#) applied the approach to search for super-eccentric Warm Jupiters in the *Kepler* sample and [Van Eylen et al. \(2019\)](#) used the approach to constrain the eccentricity distribution of small *Kepler* planets. Here we apply the method to a large sample of *TESS* Warm Jupiters. We note one caveat of this study is that although we have removed several targets that have been dispositioned as FPs by TFOP groups, many targets in our sample are still planet candidates that have not yet been confirmed. The contamination of astrophysical FPs could compromise our interpretation of Warm Jupiters' eccentricity distribution.

We examine three functional forms of the eccentricity distribution, including a Beta distribution, a Rayleigh distribution, and a mixture distribution with two Gaussian components. Both the Beta distribution and the Rayleigh distribution have been broadly used in exoplanet eccentricity distribution studies (e.g., [Kipping 2013](#) on all radial-velocity discovered planets; [Fabrycky et al. 2014](#) and [He et al. 2019](#) on *Kepler* systems; [Shabram et al. 2016](#) on short-period *Kepler* planet candidates). The Beta distribution is known for its flexibility in shape and is bounded in $[0, 1]$, which can be conveniently adopted for the eccentricity distribution. The Rayleigh distribution is motivated by the planet-planet scattering origin of Warm Jupiters. [Ida & Makino \(1992\)](#) find the Rayleigh distribution is a good descriptor for the eccentricity distribution generated by planet-planet scattering.

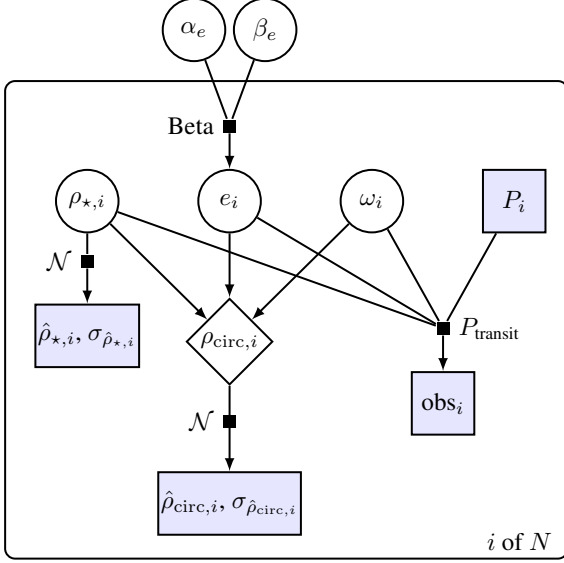


Figure 7. Graphic model of the hierarchical Bayesian model using the Beta distribution as the functional form of the eccentricity distribution. Outside the plate, we have hyperparameters, α_e and β_e , describing the eccentricity distribution of the Warm Jupiter population. Inside the plate, we have individual parameters for each of the N planets. Each planet i has parameters, $\rho_{*,i}$, e_i and ω_i , to be inferred from the model, labeled in circles. $\rho_{\text{circ},i}$ is a deterministic parameter that can be directly calculated from $\rho_{*,i}$, e_i and ω_i and is labeled in diamond. The observed parameters, $\hat{\rho}_{\text{circ},i}$, $\sigma_{\hat{\rho}_{\text{circ},i}}$, $\hat{\rho}_{*,i}$, $\sigma_{\hat{\rho}_{*,i}}$, and obs_i , are labeled in lavender boxes. The planet orbital period, P_i , is an input parameter and taken as a constant in the model, similar to the other observed parameters.

We also introduce the two-component mixture distribution, inspired by the low- e and high- e populations predicted by Warm Jupiter’s origin theories. The disk migration and in situ origin channels predict Warm Jupiters on circular or moderately elliptical orbits, whereas the high- e tidal migration origin channel predicts a group of Warm Jupiters on highly elliptical orbits. The two-component model is flexible enough to learn the fractions and expected eccentricities of the low- e and high- e populations of the sample.

We first introduce our HBM framework using the Beta distribution. The frameworks for the Rayleigh and mixture distributions are similar except with minor changes on hyperparameters. Using the Beta distribution as the functional form of the eccentricity distribution, we build the hierarchical model by introducing two hyperparameters, α_e , and β_e . The probability distribution follows

$$p(e|\alpha_e, \beta_e) = e^{\alpha_e - 1} (1 - e)^{\beta_e - 1} / B(\alpha_e, \beta_e), \quad (3)$$

where $B(\alpha_e, \beta_e) = \Gamma(\alpha_e)\Gamma(\beta_e)/\Gamma(\alpha_e + \beta_e)$ and Γ is the Gamma function. In Figure 7, we display the Bayesian model using a directed factor graph. As shown in Figure 7, the hyperparameters α_e and β_e are outside the plate. Inside the plate, we have N planets and each planet has one set of the

parameters listed in the graph. For each Warm Jupiter, we have two sets of observed parameters from previous analysis, the posterior distributions of stellar densities from isochrone fitting ρ_* and the posterior distributions of stellar densities from light curve fitting ρ_{circ} , assuming all planets have circular orbits. The stellar density posteriors and the transit probabilities are observed parameters, colored in lavender and labeled in boxes in Figure 7. We approximate the stellar density posteriors as normal distributions to simplify the model and reduce the computational effort. To relieve the concern that some stellar density posteriors are not nearly Gaussian, we compare the inferred eccentricities (and argument of periapsis) of individual targets using Gaussian-approximated posteriors to the inferred eccentricities using the “true” posteriors (e.g., Ford & Rasio 2008; Kipping et al. 2012; see Dawson & Johnson 2012 for a detailed description of the method). The values inferred using two types of posteriors are in good consistency with differences well below 1σ uncertainties. The planet’s orbital period P_i is also taken as an observed parameter in the model to calculate the transit probability. The relationship between $\rho_{\text{circ},i}$ and $\rho_{*,i}$, e_i , ω_i is deterministic, so we label it using a diamond. We write down the posterior distribution of our hierarchical model as

$$\begin{aligned} p(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\beta} | \mathbf{X}) &\propto p(\mathbf{X} | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) p(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \boldsymbol{\beta}) p(\boldsymbol{\beta}) \\ &\propto \prod_{i=1}^N \left\{ p(\hat{\rho}_{\text{circ},i}, \sigma_{\hat{\rho}_{\text{circ},i}} | \rho_{\text{circ},i}) p(\hat{\rho}_{*,i}, \sigma_{\hat{\rho}_{*,i}} | \rho_{*,i}) \right. \\ &\quad \left. p(\text{obs}_i | \rho_{*,i}, e_i, \omega_i, P_i) \right\} \\ &\times \prod_{i=1}^N \left\{ p(e_i | \alpha_e, \beta_e) p(\rho_{*,i}) p(\omega_i) \right\} \\ &\times p(\alpha_e) p(\beta_e), \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

where $\mathbf{X} = \{\hat{\rho}_{\text{circ},i}, \sigma_{\hat{\rho}_{\text{circ},i}}, \hat{\rho}_{*,i}, \sigma_{\hat{\rho}_{*,i}}, \text{obs}_i\}$ for the observed parameters, $\boldsymbol{\theta} = \{\rho_{\text{circ},i}, \rho_{*,i}, e_i, \omega_i\}$ for the individual parameters of each planet, and $\boldsymbol{\beta} = \{\alpha_e, \beta_e\}$ for the hyperparameters of the population. P_{transit} in the model describes the transit probability of a planet given its $\rho_{*,i}$, e_i , ω_i , P_i . The planet’s orbital period P_i is taken from the light curve modeling as a fixed value. Here we list the probability distributions

that we assume for the hierarchical Bayesian model.

$$\begin{aligned}
p(\hat{\rho}_{\text{circ},i}, \sigma_{\hat{\rho}_{\text{circ},i}} | \rho_{\text{circ},i}) &\sim \mathcal{N}(\rho_{\text{circ},i} | \hat{\rho}_{\text{circ},i}, \sigma_{\hat{\rho}_{\text{circ},i}}^2) \\
p(\hat{\rho}_{\star,i}, \sigma_{\hat{\rho}_{\star,i}} | \rho_{\star,i}) &\sim \mathcal{N}(\rho_{\star,i} | \hat{\rho}_{\star,i}, \sigma_{\hat{\rho}_{\star,i}}^2) \\
p(\text{obs}_i | \rho_{\star,i}, e_i, \omega_i, P_i) &\sim \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\rho_{\star,i}^{1/3} P_i^{2/3}} \frac{1+e_i \sin \omega_i}{1-e_i^2} & \text{if } e_i < e_{\text{max},i} \\ 0 & \text{if } e_i \geq e_{\text{max},i} \end{cases} \\
p(e_i | \alpha_e, \beta_e) &\sim \text{Beta}(e_i | \alpha_e, \beta_e) \\
p(\rho_{\star,i}) &\sim \mathcal{N}(\hat{\rho}_{\star,i}, \sigma_{\hat{\rho}_{\star,i}}^2) \\
p(\omega_i) &\sim \text{Uniform}(0, 2\pi) \\
p(\alpha_e) &\sim \text{Uniform}(0, 10) \\
p(\beta_e) &\sim \text{Uniform}(0, 10) \tag{5}
\end{aligned}$$

\mathcal{N} indicates a Normal distribution. The $e_{\text{max},i}$ is the maximum eccentricity a planet can reach without getting tidally disrupted (i.e., $e_{\text{max},i} = 1 - R_{\star,i}/a_i$). The $p(\text{obs}_i | \rho_{\star,i}, e_i, \omega_i, P_i)$ is the transit probability to correct the observation biases in the eccentricities of transiting planets (Equation 9 in Winn 2010; Burke 2008; Kipping 2014b).

Two more functional forms of the eccentricity distribution are examined: the Rayleigh distribution and the mixture distribution. The Rayleigh distribution can be written as

$$p(e|\sigma_e) = \frac{e}{\sigma_e} \exp(-e^2/2\sigma_e^2), \tag{6}$$

where σ_e is a free hyperparameter.⁴ We use $p(\sigma_e) \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 10/\sqrt{2})$ as the hyperprior for σ_e . For the mixture distribution, we use two Gaussian distributions to describe the low- e and high- e populations of Warm Jupiters, respectively. The probability distribution can be written as

$$\begin{aligned}
p(e|f_1, f_2, \mu_1, \mu_2, \sigma_1, \sigma_2) = \\
f_1 \mathcal{N}(e|\mu_1, \sigma_1^2) + f_2 \mathcal{N}(e|\mu_2, \sigma_2^2), \tag{7}
\end{aligned}$$

where f_1 and f_2 present the fractions of two distributions and have the sum of 1. For both the Rayleigh distribution and the mixture distribution, we bound the eccentricity distribution between 0 to 1. In the mixture model, we require both f_1 and f_2 to be greater than 0.05 to avoid divergence of the model. We restrict μ_1 and μ_2 to be ordered to avoid swaps between modes (i.e., label switching). A full description of the hyper-

⁴ The Rayleigh distribution is a special form of the Weibull distribution, $f(e|\alpha, \beta) = \alpha e^{\alpha-1} \exp(-(e/\beta)^\alpha)/\beta^\alpha$, where $\alpha = 2$ and $\beta = \sqrt{2}\sigma_e$.

Table 3. Summary of the posteriors of the hyperparameters for hierarchical Bayesian models.

Distribution	Hyperparameter posteriors		
Beta	α_e	β_e	
	1.776 ^{+1.385} _{-0.771}	4.082 ^{+2.647} _{-1.634}	
Rayleigh	σ_e		
	0.259 ^{+0.032} _{-0.029}		
Mixture	f_1	μ_1	σ_1
	0.530 ^{+0.227} _{-0.209}	0.174 ^{+0.114} _{-0.088}	0.059 ^{+0.072} _{-0.043}
	f_2	μ_2	σ_2
	0.470 ^{+0.209} _{-0.227}	0.484 ^{+0.107} _{-0.095}	0.135 ^{+0.063} _{-0.071}

NOTE—We report the medians and 68% credible intervals of the posteriors.

priors in the mixture model is shown below:

$$\begin{aligned}
p(f_1) &\sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1) \\
p(f_2) &= 1 - f_1 \\
p(\mu_1), p(\mu_2) &\sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1) \\
p(\sigma_1), p(\sigma_2) &\sim \text{HalfCauchy}(1) \\
p(\text{prior1}|f_1, f_2) &= \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } f_1, f_2 < 0.05 \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\
p(\text{prior2}|\mu_1, \mu_2) &= \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \mu_1 > \mu_2 \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\
p(\text{prior3}|\sigma_1, \sigma_2) &= \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \sigma_1, \sigma_2 \notin [0, 1] \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\
p(\text{prior4}|\mu_1, \sigma_1) &= \text{CDF}[\mathcal{N}(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2) = 1, \mathcal{N}(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2) = 0] \\
p(\text{prior5}|\mu_2, \sigma_2) &= \text{CDF}[\mathcal{N}(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2) = 1, \mathcal{N}(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2) = 0], \tag{8}
\end{aligned}$$

where $\text{CDF}[a, b] = \text{CDF}[a] - \text{CDF}[b]$. Prior 1 avoids the fraction of either Gaussian components to be zero to cause divergence. Prior 2 sets μ_1 and μ_2 to be ordered. Prior 3 bounds σ_1 and σ_2 between 0 and 1. Lastly, prior 4 and 5 bound the eccentricity distribution between 0 to 1.

We build the hierarchical Bayesian models and sample posteriors using PyMC3 (Salvatier et al. 2016).⁵ We sample 4 parallel chains, each chain with 40,000 tuning steps and 10,000 draws. A target accept rate of 0.99 is used to avoid divergences. The MCMC convergence is evaluated by the Gelman-Rubin diagnostic (i.e., $\hat{\mathcal{R}} < 1.1$ for convergence),

⁵ All codes used in this project are available from J.D. upon request.

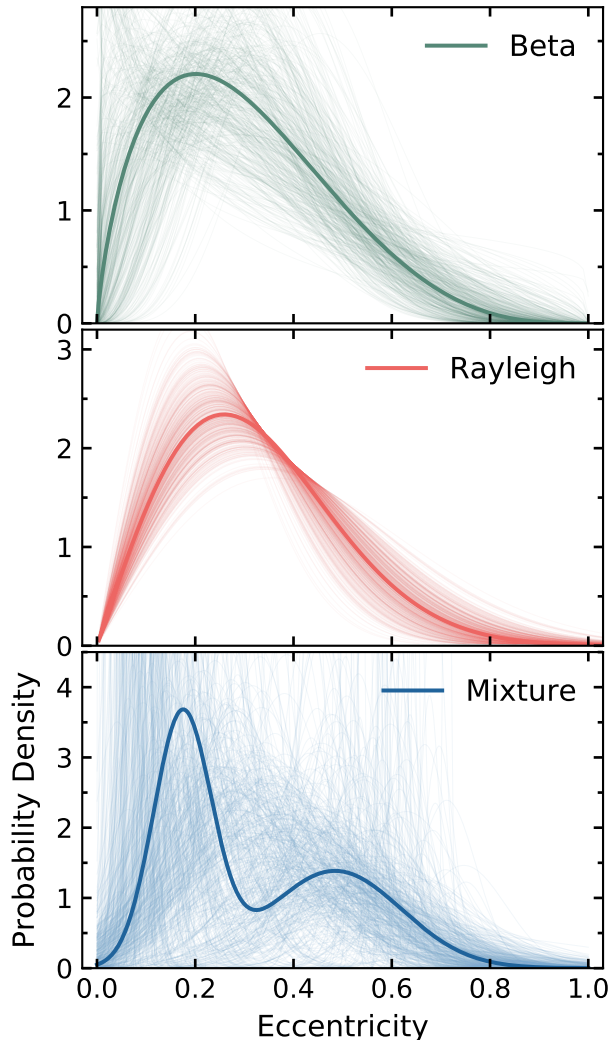


Figure 8. The eccentricity distributions of the catalog of 55 Warm Jupiter candidates discovered in Year 1 *TESS* FFIs (Table 4). The eccentricity distributions are inferred using hierarchical Bayesian modeling with the Beta distribution (upper panel), the Rayleigh distribution (middle panel), and the two-component mixture distribution (lower panel) as the functional forms. Planets’ eccentricities inferred from the Beta distribution are generally lower than the eccentricities inferred from the Rayleigh distribution. The mixture model splits roughly 55% of the candidates into a low- e population centered at 0.16 and the rest 45% into a high- e population centered at 0.49.

trace plots, and corner plots (Foreman-Mackey 2016) of the marginal joint distributions. The posterior distributions and covariances of the hyperparameters for the Beta-distribution and the mixture model can be found in Figure B1 and B2. A summary of best fit models is shown in Table 3.

The eccentricity distributions assuming the three functional forms discussed above are shown in Figure 8. In each panel, we plot the best-fitting model in dark line by calculating the distribution using the medians of the posteriors of

the hyperparameters, along with 500 draws from the posteriors. Comparing to the Rayleigh distribution, the Beta distribution infers lower eccentricities for the population. A similar distinction was also found by Shabram et al. (2016) when the author did a comparison of the Beta and Rayleigh distribution for their sample of Kepler hot Jupiters. The reason might be the Beta distribution has more flexible shapes compared to the Rayleigh distribution. For our sample of *TESS* warm Jupiters, the eccentricity distribution spreads between 0 and 0.8 and peaks at ~ 0.19 for the Beta distribution, whereas it peaks at ~ 0.26 for the Rayleigh distribution. For the two-component mixture model, the eccentricity distribution is well constrained by a low- e population centered at $\bar{e} = 0.174^{+0.114}_{-0.088}$ and a high- e population centered at $\bar{e} = 0.484^{+0.107}_{-0.095}$. About $53 \pm 20\%$ of the systems fall into the low- e population and $47 \pm 20\%$ of the systems fall into the high- e population. The corresponding widths of two distributions are $\sigma_1 = 0.059^{+0.072}_{-0.043}$ for the low- e population and $\sigma_2 = 0.135^{+0.063}_{-0.071}$ for the high- e population. Naively speaking, the fraction of the systems categorized into the low- e population ($\sim 53\%$) could indicate the fraction of Warm Jupiters originated from the disk migration and in situ formation; the fraction of the systems categorized into the high- e population ($\sim 47\%$) could indicate the fraction of Warm Jupiters originated from the high-eccentricity tidal migration. However, such a conclusion overlooks the evolution of Warm Jupiters’ eccentricities, as discussed in Section 4. To correctly interpret the eccentricity distribution of a two-component mixture model, we will have to compare it with population predictions from different theorized origin channels of Warm Jupiters.

While we tested three functional forms for this distribution, we do not make any strong quantitative claims about the relative performance of each. Each model is qualitatively consistent with the others within the uncertainties and, given the size of the dataset and the dimensionality of the model, a formal model comparison (e.g., using the nested sampling algorithm employed by Kipping 2014b to characterize the eccentricity distribution of radial velocity planets) would be computationally expensive and may not provide strong evidence for one model. We do find that the weights for each component of the mixture model are significantly inconsistent with zero, providing weak evidence that the two-component model is required to capture the distribution. Lastly, as a robustness test for the eccentricity distribution, we tried randomly dropping 30% of the targets from our sample and conduct the same analysis to the new sample. We found the results are consistency within $1-\sigma$ uncertainties.

6. DISCUSSION

Here we discuss our Warm-Jupiter-candidate catalog in the context of the *TESS* Extended Mission and ground-based

follow-up observations. We also discuss the implication of our study on Warm Jupiter origins.

6.1. *TESS Extended Mission*

We identified 55 Warm Jupiters candidates in the Year 1 *TESS* FFIs. Many of these candidates will be revisited (at the time of this writing) during the *TESS* Extended Mission (e.g., in Year 3 data). The longer observing baseline will help with the TTV analysis and identify any additional planets in the system. About 20 out of the 55 candidates only have two transits observed during the *TESS* Prime Mission. The *TESS* Extended Mission will likely catch two more transits on these targets to allow some preliminary TTV analysis. There is also a group of candidates with possible TTV signals (Figure 2 and 3). The extended mission data will allow us to examine the robustness of these signals. Besides, the finer observing cadence of the extended mission data (i.e., from 30-minute to 10-minute) will improve the impact parameter characterization and the eccentricity analysis. Particularly, the 19 *possible* Warm Jupiter candidates that are not selected in our catalog could be included if we can rule out the $b > 1$ solution with the fine-cadence data. We also identify 8 candidates with degenerate orbital periods listed in Table 5. The *TESS* extended mission data is likely to break the degeneracy of the orbital periods.

Most of our Warm Jupiter candidates have orbital periods less than 20 days due to their short observing baselines (i.e., 27 or 54 days). Combing the *TESS* Prime and Extended Mission data will allow the discovery of Warm Jupiters in the longer orbital period range, especially the targets identified as single-transit events in the Year 1 data.

6.2. *Ground-based follow-up observations*

Ground-based follow-up observations are essential to validate planet candidates in our catalog. Due to the coarse angular resolution of *TESS*, ground-based photometric follow-up will be required to confirm on-target transits. If the target has no aperture contamination, radial velocity follow-up will further rule out brown dwarfs or low-mass stars. As discussed in Section 2.3, the *TESS* community has already made great progress on validating planet candidates and ruling out FPs in our catalog.

Here we propose a follow-up strategy for the Warm Jupiter candidates. First, we propose to prioritize follow-up of candidates showing evidence of high eccentricities. The high- e planets play an important role in constructing the eccentricity distribution. Validation will ensure that their contribution to the population-wide eccentricity distribution is real and, moreover, confirm or rule out the high-eccentricity tidal migration scenario as one of the predominant origin channels contributing to the Warm Jupiter population. Radial velocity follow-up will further break the degeneracy between eccentricity and argument of periape. A list of high- e candidates

that have not yet been confirmed (130415266, 147660886, 24358417, 290403522, 395113305, 180989820, 464300749, 343936388) can be found in Section 4 and Table 4. Second, we propose to prioritize candidates showing possible TTV signals. The large transit depths of our candidates (i.e., several parts per thousand) make them feasible for ground-based photometric follow-up observations. For example, in the case of TRAPPIST telescopes, transit events with depths greater than 2.5 parts per thousand will readily be detected. In general, candidates with $> 2\sigma$ TTV detections are worthwhile to follow up (see Figure 2). We also listed four targets (150299840, 382200986, 371188886, 343936388) showing possible sinusoidal TTV signals in Section 4. Extensive transit follow-up will help to detect any non-transiting, nearby planets, and shed light on the dynamical history of the system. Lastly, we recommend to prioritize the remaining targets given their transmission spectroscopy metric (TSM; Kempton et al. 2018) for follow-up atmospheric characterization observations. In Table 4 Column 13, we calculate a TSM score using the empirical mass–radius relationship of Chen & Kipping (2017) for each target on a scale of 1 to 100, with 100 being most favorable. The confirmation of these targets will help to select ideal candidates for Warm Jupiter atmospheric characterization for future missions (e.g., *JWST*).

Follow-up observations on candidates with missing information listed in Table 5 are also important. Photometric and radial velocity follow-up observations will help to break the orbital period degeneracy due to *TESS* observation gaps. Characterization on stellar densities will allow the photoeccentric analysis.

6.3. *Implication of the eccentricity distribution*

We identified a large sample of Warm Jupiter candidates to conduct a preliminary eccentricity distribution study of the population using the “photoeccentric” approach to constrain the eccentricity from the transit light curve. There are several caveats to our results. Although we have incorporated uncertainties in stellar density, systematic errors in stellar parameters could impact our inference of eccentricities. Since many of the candidates have not yet been statistically validated, our interpretation of the eccentricity distribution could also be compromised by astrophysical false-positives, e.g., binaries and brown dwarfs, which may have different dynamical histories and thus different eccentricity distributions from Warm Jupiters’. Due to the short *TESS*-sector observing baseline, most of our candidates have orbital periods less than 20 days. The eccentricity distribution of longer period Warm Jupiters is not well addressed in this work.

In our preliminary study, we found both single-component models (i.e., the Beta distribution and the Rayleigh distribution) and a two-component model could be used as the functional forms of the eccentricity distribution. Our

two-component model is flexible enough to describe both single-component and two-component distributions, benefiting from its five free parameters. The two-component eccentricity distribution showed that slightly more than half of the Warm Jupiters have nearly circular orbits in support of the disk migration and in situ origin scenarios; slightly less than half of the Warm Jupiters have moderately to highly elliptical orbits in support of high-eccentricity tidal migration. However, as discussed in Section 5, evolution of planetary eccentricities could modify the shape of the distribution. A statistical study on a *clean* Warm Jupiter catalog will require extensive ground-based follow-up observations and is deferred to future work. In future studies, the eccentricity distribution can be compared more directly with predictions from different origin theories (e.g., Anderson et al. 2020) to shed light on one or more origin channels that predominantly contribute to the Warm Jupiter population.

Benefiting from the extensive follow-up observations, a dozen of Warm Jupiter candidates in the catalog have been confirmed. In Appendix C, we demonstrate one approach to incorporate eccentricity measurements from different sources. However, as to be discussed in Appendix C, further experiments would be necessary to robustly account for variations in selection effects.

We note the eccentricity distributions we found here are the *observed* eccentricity distributions of a sample of *transiting* Warm Jupiter candidates. While we have taken account of the transit probability to correct the observation biases for the eccentricity inferences, the detection efficiency of the transit search will also be a function of the eccentricity (e.g., targets with high eccentricities will have a better chance to transit; Kipping 2014b). To find the *intrinsic* eccentricity distribution, we will need to weight planets differently in the hierarchical Bayesian model according to their detection efficiency which will depend on its ρ_* , e , ω , and P . To more directly compare a model to the observations, in future work we can forward model the detection efficiency to characterize the eccentricity distribution of simulated detected transiting planets. The vetting efficiency is less of a concern since the large transit SNRs of giant planets make them readily vetted, and they are readily detected around our bright targets even if a high eccentricity shortens their transit duration.

It will also be interesting to see how the eccentricity distribution varies as a function of semi-major axis. In a preliminary study, we separated our candidates into two groups, $a < 0.1$ au (29 candidates) and $a > 0.1$ au (26 candidates), and inferred their eccentricity distributions. We found planets with greater semi-major axes have a higher median eccentricity compared to that of planets with smaller semi-major axes. This finding is consistent with theories since both the in-situ formation scenario that leads to planet-planet scattering and the high- e migration scenario predict an increase of

eccentricity as the semi-major axis increases. However, the tidal circularization effect also needs to be taken into account here since with $a < 0.1$ au, some planets could have been circularized in their systems’ lifetime. The issue can be solved by increasing the number of semi-major axis bins if more Warm Jupiters at large semi-major axes are detected.

7. SUMMARY

We systematically searched for Warm Jupiter candidates, i.e., planets greater than 6 Earth-radii with orbital periods of 8–200 days, around host stars brighter than T_{mag} of 12 in Year 1 TESS Full-Frame Images (Figure 1). We characterized each candidate’s TESS light curve with a quadratic limb darkening transit model along with Gaussian processes. For candidates with more than 2 transits, we analyzed their transit-timing variations (Figure 2 and 3). We inferred each planet’s eccentricity using the “photoeccentric” effect (Figure 4 and 5). In Table 4, we tabulate the catalog of Warm Jupiter candidates with their host star and planet properties. Furthermore, we derived the preliminary eccentricity distribution of the Warm-Jupiter-candidate catalog using hierarchical Bayesian modeling (Figure 7). We investigated three functional forms for the eccentricity distribution, the Beta distribution, the Rayleigh distribution, and the mixture distribution, and found a set of well-constrained hyperparameters for each functional form (Figure 8 and Table 3). Extensive ground-based follow-up observations will be required to identify FPs in the sample and to construct a clean Warm Jupiter catalog. We proposed a follow-up strategy in Section 6.2. In future studies, the eccentricity distribution can be directly compared with predictions from different origin theories, with detection effects accounted for, to shed light on origin channels that predominantly contribute to the Warm Jupiter population.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This research made use of `exoplanet` (Foreman-Mackey et al. 2019) and its dependencies (Agol et al. 2020; Astropy Collaboration et al. 2013, 2018; Foreman-Mackey et al. 2019; Foreman-Mackey et al. 2017; Foreman-Mackey 2018; Kipping 2013; Luger et al. 2019; Salvatier et al. 2016; Theano Development Team 2016). This research made use of `Lightkurve`, a Python package for *Kepler* and TESS data analysis (Lightkurve Collaboration et al. 2018). This research made use of `astroquery` (Ginsburg et al. 2019). Computations for this research were performed on the Pennsylvania State University’s Institute for CyberScience Advanced CyberInfrastructure (ICS-ACI). This content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the views of the Institute for CyberScience.

This work has made use of data from the European Space Agency (ESA) mission *Gaia* (<https://www.cosmos.esa.int/gaia>), processed by the *Gaia* Data Processing and Analysis Consortium (DPAC, <https://www.cosmos.esa.int/web/gaia/dpac/consortium>). Funding for the DPAC has been provided by national institutions, in particular the institutions participating in the *Gaia* Multilateral Agreement.

We acknowledge the use of TESS High Level Science Products (HLSP) produced by the Quick-Look Pipeline (QLP) at the TESS Science Office at MIT, which are publicly available from the Mikulski Archive for Space Telescopes (MAST). Funding for the TESS mission is provided by NASA’s Science Mission directorate.

This paper includes data collected by the *TESS* mission, which are publicly available from the Mikulski Archive for Space Telescopes (MAST). Resources supporting this work were provided by the NASA High-End Computing (HEC) Program through the NASA Advanced Supercomputing (NAS) Division at Ames Research Center for the production of the SPOC data products.

This research has made use of the NASA Exoplanet Archive, which is operated by the California Institute of Technology, under contract with the National Aeronautics and Space Administration under the Exoplanet Exploration Program.

This work makes use of observations from the LCOGT network (proposal IDs: 2020B-0189, 2020B-0202).

The research leading to these results has received funding from the ARC grant for Concerted Research Actions, financed by the Wallonia-Brussels Federation. TRAPPIST is funded by the Belgian Fund for Scientific Research (Fond National de la Recherche Scientifique, FNRS) under the grant FRFC 2.5.594.09.F, with the participation of the Swiss National Science Foundation (SNF). TRAPPIST-North is a project funded by the University of Liege (Belgium), in collaboration with Cadi Ayyad University of Marrakech (Morocco) MG and EJ are F.R.S.-FNRS Senior Research Associate. This publication benefits from the support of the French Community of Belgium in the context of the FRIA Doctoral Grant awarded to MT.

This research received funding from the European Research Council (ERC) under the European Union’s Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme (grant agreement n° 803193/BEBOP), and from the Science and Technology Facilities Council (STFC; grant n° ST/S00193X/1).

RB acknowledges support from FONDECYT Project 11200751, CORFO project N°14ENI2-26865. RB and AJ acknowledge support from ANID – Millennium Science Initiative – ICN12_009. AJ acknowledges additional support from FONDECYT project 1210718.

This work has been carried out within the framework of the NCCR PlanetS supported by the Swiss National Sci-

ence Foundation. We made use of PlanetS’ Data & Analysis Center for Exoplanets (DACE), which is available at <https://dace.unige.ch>.

This research has made use of the Exoplanet Follow-up Observation Program website, which is operated by the California Institute of Technology, under contract with the National Aeronautics and Space Administration under the Exoplanet Exploration Program.

We gratefully acknowledge support by NASA XRP NNX16AB50G, NASA *TESS* GO 80NSSC18K1695, and the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation’s Sloan Research Fellowship. The Center for Exoplanets and Habitable Worlds is supported by the Pennsylvania State University, the Eberly College of Science, and the Pennsylvania Space Grant Consortium. JD gratefully acknowledges support and hospitality from the pre-doctoral program at the Center for Computational Astrophysics, Flatiron Institute. Research at the Flatiron Institute is supported by the Simons Foundation. J.D. thanks the Flatiron Astronomical Data Group and Planet Formation Group for helpful discussions. J.D. gratefully acknowledges Angie Wolfgang and Tom Loredo for inspiring lectures on Bayesian statistics. J.D. thanks Eric Ford, Cassandra Anderson, Juliette Becker, Vincent Van Eylen, Matthias He, Sarah Millholland, Ruth Murray-Clay, Cristobal Petrovich, and Keivan Stassun for helpful discussions.

Software: ArviZ (Kumar et al. 2019), AstroImageJ (Collins et al. 2017), astropy (Astropy Collaboration et al. 2013, 2018), astroquery (Ginsburg et al. 2019), celerite (Foreman-Mackey et al. 2017; Foreman-Mackey 2018), exoplanet (Foreman-Mackey et al. 2019), Jupyter (Kluyver et al. 2016), lightkurve (Lightkurve Collaboration et al. 2018), Matplotlib (Hunter 2007; Droettboom et al. 2016), NumPy (van der Walt et al. 2011; Harris et al. 2020), pandas (Wes McKinney 2010), PyMC3 (Salvatier et al. 2016), SciPy (Virtanen et al. 2020), starry (Luger et al. 2019), TAPIR (Jensen 2013), Theano (Theano Development Team 2016)

Facilities: *TESS*, *Gaia*, LCOGT, Exoplanet Archive

APPENDIX

A. LIGHT CURVES OF NON-TOI CANDIDATES

We present the FFI light curves of non-TOI candidates obtained from the QLP. In each figure, we plot the target’s full light curve in grey dots, the trimmed light curves in black dots, and the best-fitted light curve models in blue lines. See Figure A1 for demonstration. The complete figure set for all non-TOI candidates (19 figures) is available in the online journal.

Fig. Set 1. Light curves of non-TOI candidates

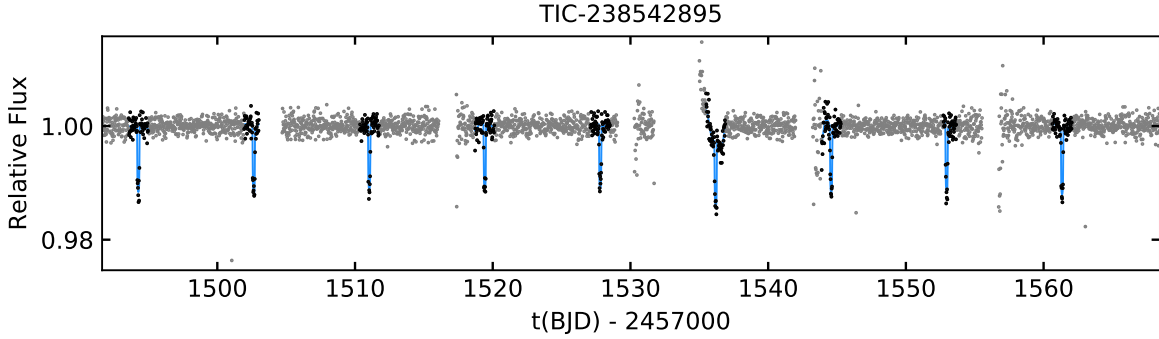


Figure A1. TESS Full-Frame-Image light curves of TIC-238542895 processed by the Quick Look Pipeline. A full light curve is plotted as grey dots, the trimmed light curves used for modeling are colored in black, and the best-fitted light curve models are shown as blue lines. The complete figure set (21 figures) is available in the online journal.

B. HYPERPARAMETER POSTERIOR DISTRIBUTIONS

Corner plots for the posterior distributions of the hyperparameters assuming the Beta distribution as the functional form of the eccentricity distribution (Figure B1) and the two-component mixture distribution as the functional form (Figure B2). See Section 5 for more details.

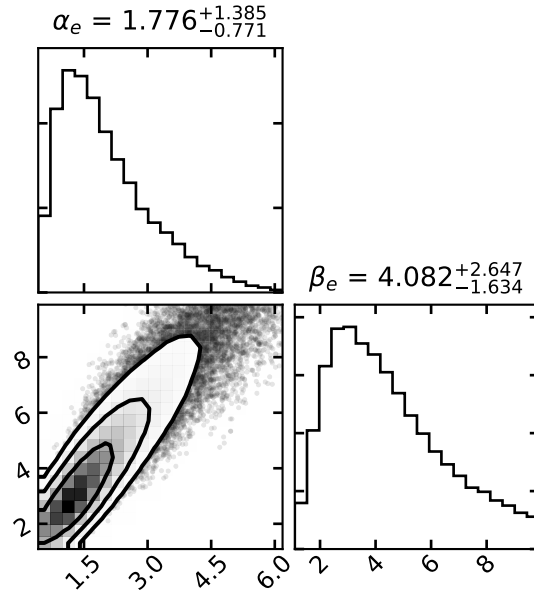


Figure B1. Posterior distributions of hyperparameters using the Beta distribution as the functional form of the eccentricity distribution. The probability distribution follows $p(e|\alpha_e, \beta_e) = e^{\alpha_e-1}(1-e)^{\beta_e-1}/B(\alpha_e, \beta_e)$ where $B(\alpha, \beta) = \Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)/\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)$ and Γ is the Gamma function.

Table 5. Warm Jupiter candidates with missing information.

TIC ID	TOI name	Missing Information
149601557	TOI-1033.01	$\sigma_{T_{\text{eff}}}$
296863792	-	$T_{\text{eff}}, \sigma_{T_{\text{eff}}}, \text{Gmag}, \sigma_{\text{Gmag}}$
306919690	-	$T_{\text{eff}}, \sigma_{T_{\text{eff}}}, \text{plx}, \sigma_{\text{plx}}$
270341214	TOI-173.01	14 possible orbital periods*
262746281	TOI-603.01	P : 8.09 or 16.18 days*
308994098	TOI-790.01	P : 99.77 or 199.55 days
437329044	TOI-1982.01	P : 8.58 or 17.16 days
39218269	TOI-2366.01	P : 8.60 or 17.19 days
99133239	-	P : 9.17 or 18.34 days
398466662	-	P : 8.77 or 17.54 days
412635642	-	$\sigma_{T_{\text{eff}}}, \text{plx}, \sigma_{\text{plx}}, P$: 8.71 or 17.42 days

* Unique orbital period is later determined by ground-based follow-up observations.

NOTE—Gmag and plx stand for *Gaia* DR2 apparent G magnitude and parallax. P stands for orbital period, which is unconstrained due to observation gaps.

C. INCORPORATING ECCENTRICITY MEASUREMENTS FROM DIFFERENT SOURCES

Benefiting from the extensive follow-up observations of *TESS* planet candidates, 12 targets in our catalog have been confirmed. These confirmed planets have radial-velocity or transit-timing-variation constrained eccentricities that can be used for the eccentricity distribution inference. Here we conduct the hierarchical Bayesian modeling using a similar framework as the one shown in Section 5 but include the information of planets with better constrained eccentricities. In Figure C1, we present the graphic model of the extended hierarchical Bayesian model. Planets are separated into two panels: the left panel is for the ones without further constrained eccentricities, so we continue to adopt the photoeccentric approach (similar to Figure 7); the right panel is for the ones with further constrained eccentricities from ground-based follow-up observations. The median and 1σ uncertainty of eccentricities are extracted from literature (see Table 4 Column 17 for references) to construct the observed parameters \hat{e}_j and $\sigma_{\hat{e}_j}$. Planets that have been followed up have much smaller eccentricity uncertainties ($\sigma_e \sim 0.01$) compared to the ones that have only been analyzed from their light curves ($\sigma_e \sim 0.2$). The inclusion of these precise eccentricity measurements risks biasing the inferred eccentricity distribution, since they are likely to be drawn from a different underlying population than the full sample, and this subset will be censored by different selection effects. Furthermore, there exist more recently discovered likely high- e planets that have yet to be followed up. This model is a demonstration of a method for incorporating eccentricity measurements from different sources, but further experiments would be necessary to robustly account for variations in selection effects.

In Figure C2, we show the eccentricity distributions using three different functional forms inferred from the extended model. Comparing to the eccentricity distributions inferred without including these information (i.e., Figure 8), the Rayleigh distribution is consistent with the previous distribution within 1σ uncertainty of the hyperparameter. For the Beta distribution, however, it is more right-skewed and has a mode eccentricity close to zero. For the mixture model, a single-component distribution is favored over the two-component distribution. As shown in Figure C3, the joint and marginal posterior distributions of hyperparameters are bimodal but have a strong preference to a single-component model. The best-fitted mixture distribution now has a shape similar to the Rayleigh distribution. The changes on the eccentricity distributions are likely caused by the small eccentricity uncertainties of the confirmed planets, as discussed earlier. To examine the statement, we modify the eccentricity uncertainties of the confirmed planets to the typical eccentricity uncertainties from the photoeccentric analysis (i.e., $\sigma_e \sim 0.2$) and redo the analysis. We find the inferred eccentricity distributions are consistent with the ones shown in Figure 8.

Table 6. False-Positives (FPs) and False-Alarms (FAs) identified by TFOP WG SG1 and SG2

TIC ID	TOI name	SG1/2 Disposition	Comments/Reference
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
207081058	TOI-121.01	SB1	-
281710229	TOI-308.01	BEB	-
167418898	TOI-383.01	NPC, BD/SB1	-
271900960	TOI-389.01	NEB	-
123482865	TOI-569b	BD	Carmichael et al. (2020a)
196286587	TOI-592.01	SB1	-
101395259	TOI-623.01	SEB1	-
293853437	TOI-629.01	BD	Carmichael et al. 2021 in prep
151681127	TOI-671.01	SB1	-
151959065	TOI-673.01	SEB1	-
308050066	TOI-679.01	SB1	-
55383975	TOI-694b	SB1	Mireles et al. (2020)
309402106	TOI-710.01	SEB1	-
131081852	TOI-758.01	SB2	-
294780517	TOI-792.01	NEB	-
143526444	TOI-803.01	NEB	-
100757807	TOI-811b	BD	Carmichael et al. (2020b)
461271719	TOI-838.01	SB1	-
216935214	TOI-902.01	SB2	-
399144800	TOI-1213.01	SEB1	-
231736113	TOI-1406b	BD	Carmichael et al. (2020a)
235067594	-	NEB	CTOI; Montalto et al. (2020) ; actual star TIC-235067595
23733479	-	NEB	actual star TIC-23733473
92833442	-	NEB	actual star TIC-92833424
140344868	-	NEB	actual star TIC-140344846
177350401	-	NEB	actual star TIC-177350397
308885493	-	BEB	actual star TIC-308885490
394662124	-	NEB	actual star TIC-394662125
418883593	-	NEB	actual star TIC-414477523
425170378	-	FA	-

NOTE—**Photometric Dispositions** EB: Eclipsing Binary; BEB: Blended EB; NEB: Nearby EB; NPC: Nearby planet candidate; FA: False Alarm; **Spectroscopic Dispositions** SB: Spectroscopy Binary; SB1: Single-lined spectra showing RV variation too large to be caused by a planet; SEB1: SB1 with orbital solution; SB2: Double-lined SB moving in phase with the photometric orbit; BD: Brown Dwarf

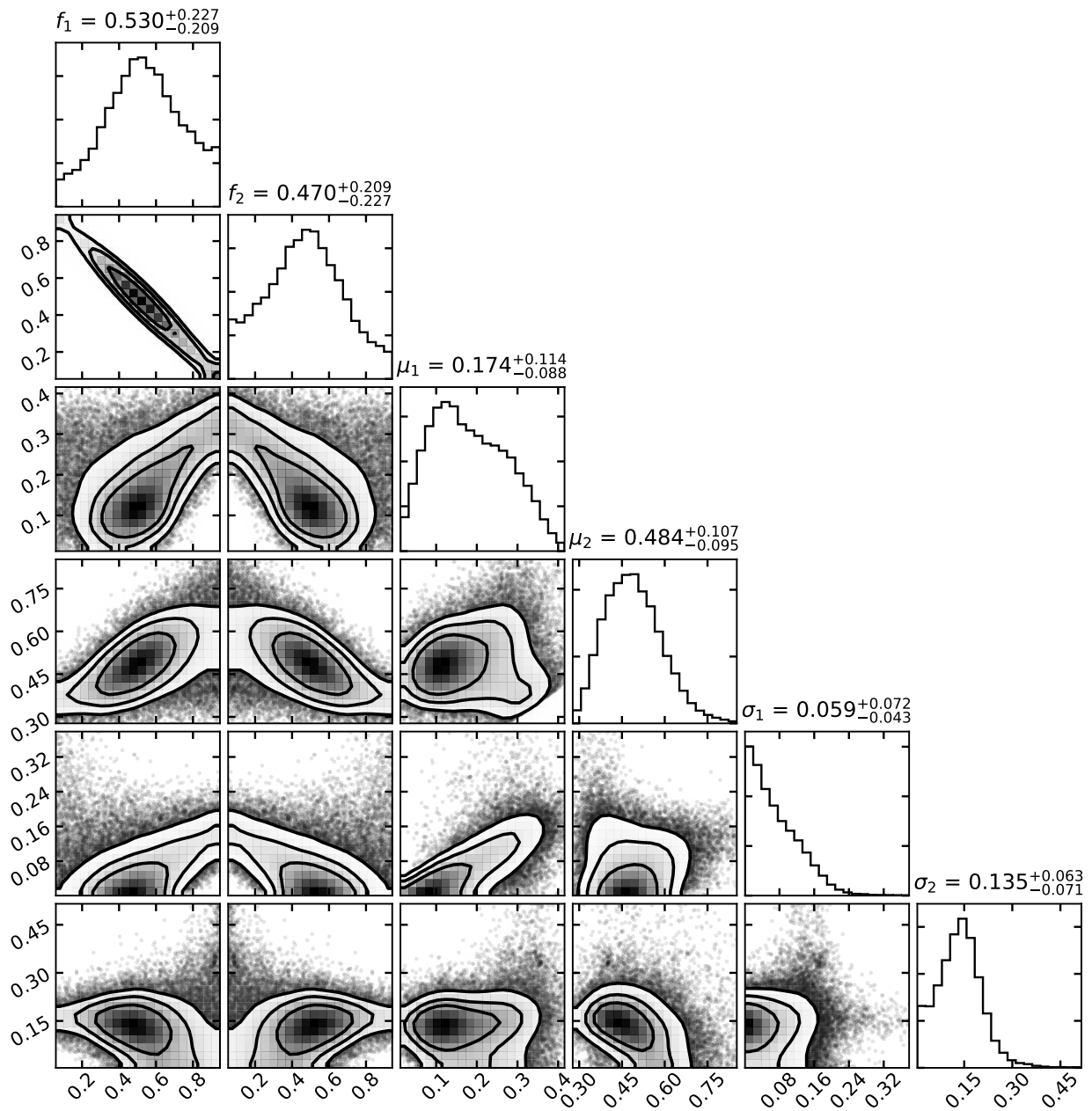


Figure B2. Posterior distributions of hyperparameters using the two-component mixture distribution as the functional form of the eccentricity distribution. The probability distribution follows $p(e|f_1, f_2, \mu_1, \mu_2, \sigma_1, \sigma_2) = f_1 \mathcal{N}(e|\mu_1, \sigma_1^2) + f_2 \mathcal{N}(e|\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$ where \mathcal{N} is the Normal distribution.

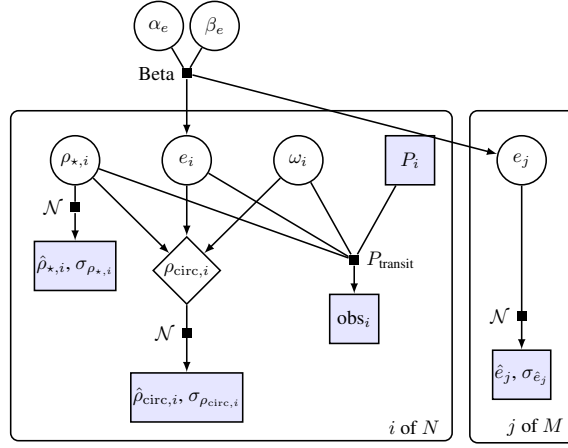


Figure C1. Graphic model of the extended hierarchical Bayesian model. The model is an extension of the model shown in Figure 7. Since a few planets in our catalog have further constrained eccentricities from ground-based follow-up observations, we adopt their eccentricity posteriors to evaluate the eccentricity distribution directly. For planets without further constrained eccentricities, we continue to adopt the photoeccentric approach.

Table C1. Summary of the posteriors of the hyperparameters for the extended hierarchical Bayesian models.

Distribution	Hyperparameter posteriors	
Beta	α_e	β_e
	$1.053^{+0.379}_{-0.285}$	$2.771^{+1.036}_{-0.778}$
Rayleigh	σ_e	
	$0.243^{+0.028}_{-0.025}$	
Mixture	Mode	68% HPD intervals
f_1	0.947, 0.228	[0.742, 1.000], [0.078, 0.411]
μ_1	0.271, 0.016	[0.150, 0.330], [0.013, 0.019]
σ_1	0.148, 0.011	[0.074, 0.193], [0.009, 0.013]
f_2	0.053, 0.772	[0.000, 0.258], [0.589, 0.922]
μ_2	0.350	[0.283, 0.478]
σ_2	0.159	[0.091, 0.224]

NOTE—We report the medians and 68% credible intervals of the posteriors for the Beta and Rayleigh distributions. For the mixture model, the posterior distributions are bimodal, as shown in Figure C3. We instead report the modes and the 68% highest posterior density intervals.

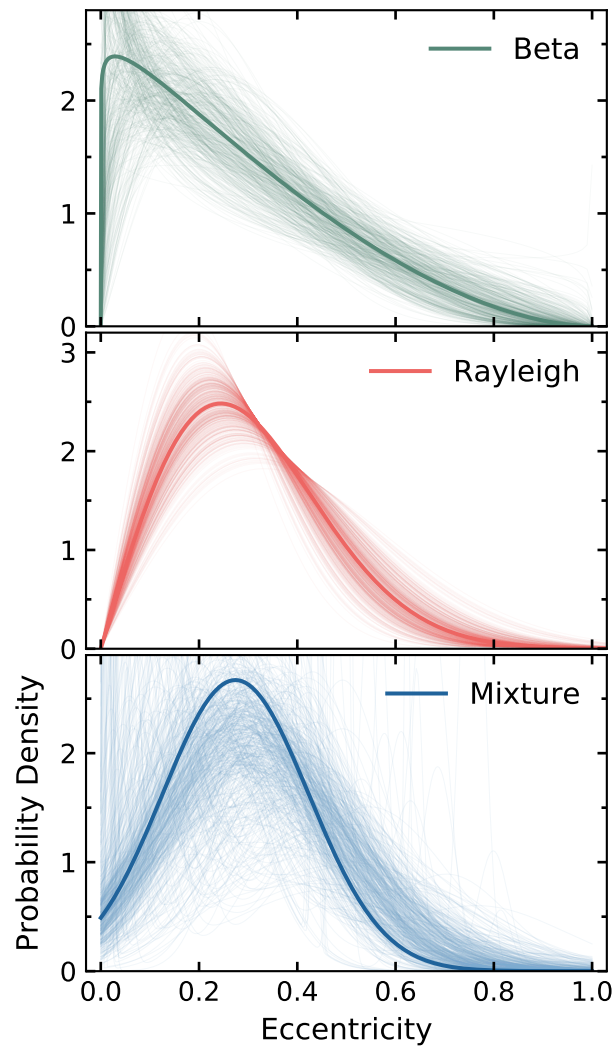


Figure C2. The eccentricity distributions inferred from the extended hierarchical Bayesian model shown in Figure C1. The extended model includes the information of confirmed planets with further constrained eccentricities. Comparing to the eccentricity distributions inferred without including these information (i.e., Figure 8), the Rayleigh distribution is consistent with the previous distribution (i.e., the hyperparameter is consistent within 1σ), whereas both the Beta distribution and the mixture distribution present obvious changes on the distributions. The Beta distribution becomes more right-skewed. The mixture distribution is composed of a single component instead of two and now has a similar shape to the Rayleigh distribution.

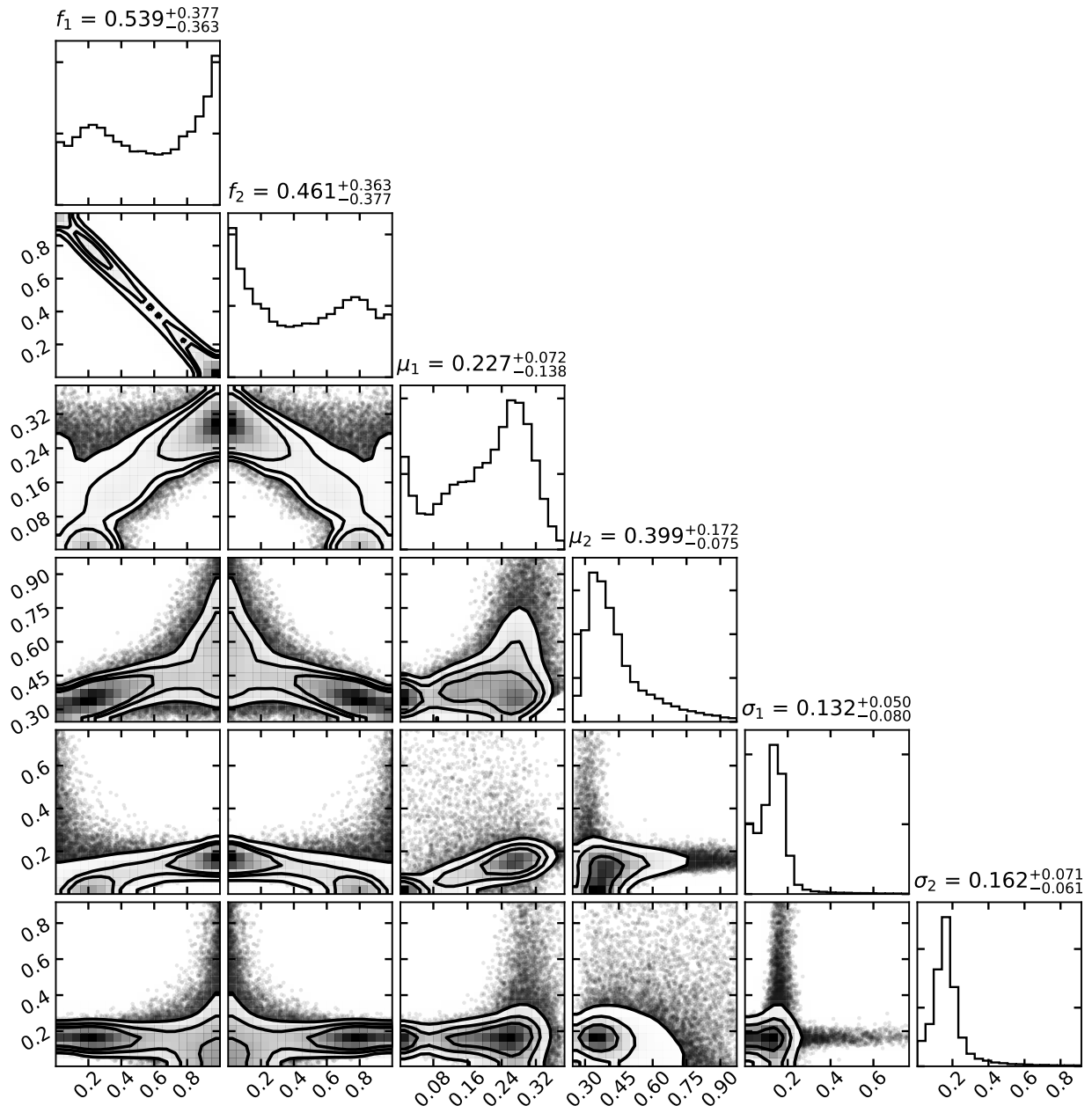


Figure C3. Posterior distributions of hyperparameters using the mixture distribution as the functional form of the eccentricity distribution for the extended hierarchical Bayesian model. The distributions are bimodal with a preference of a single-component Normal distribution.

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