

## Searching for TTVs in young transiting systems

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### ABSTRACT

The discovery of young ( $<800$  Myr) transiting planets has provided a new avenue to explore how planets form and evolve over their lifetimes. Mass measurements for these planets would be invaluable, but radial velocity surveys of young systems are often overwhelmed by stellar activity. Transiting timing variations (TTVs) offer an alternative route to masses that are less impacted by signals from the host star. Here we search for TTVs in a sample of 40 young systems hosting 59 transiting planets using data from *Kepler K2* and *TESS*. We recover previously reported TTVs in AU Mic, TOI-2076, and TOI-1227, and identify new TTVs in XXX systems, including the 17 Myr planet HIP 67522 b. We show that these TTVs are not an artifact of spots or other challenges specific to young stars. BB of the systems (name them) have only a single detected transit, motivating a search for additional planets. None of the TTVs detected in multi-transiting systems are sufficient for a measurement of the planets' masses. However, these discoveries should drive more transit observations required to fully characterize the signal and eventually measure the masses.

### 1. INTRODUCTION

A long-standing question in exoplanet research is to understand how planets evolve over their lifetimes. The simplest observational path to answer this question is to compare the properties of planets as a function of age. However, the majority of discovered planetary systems are either old ( $>1$  Gyr) or have unknown ages. Fortunately, the *K2* and *TESS* missions surveying nearby young clusters and associations has led to the discovery of  $> 40$  young (10-700 Myr), transiting planets (Barber et al. 2022; Newton et al. 2022; Mann et al. 2020).

Theoretical models predict that young ( $\ll 1$  Gyr) planets will be larger than their older counterparts due to the retained heat from their formation that causes their atmosphere to expand (Lopez et al. 2012). However, there are a range of physical drivers, and it remains unclear which is the most important. Low-mass, H/He-rich planets can shrink by a factor of  $\simeq 2$  in radius between 50 Myr and 500 Myr due to thermal contraction (Lopez & Fortney 2014). Young planets may also appear

larger because of the presence of photochemical hazes that render their atmospheres opaque (Gao & Zhang 2020). Alternatively, the low surface gravity and high irradiation of most young planets make them vulnerable to atmospheric mass-loss through photo-evaporation (Murray-Clay et al. 2009), driving the planets to smaller radii as material of low mean molecular weight is lost. All these processes operates on a different duration and studying young planets will provide a timescale for changes.

Masses for a sample of the young planets are essential to break these degeneracies and provide a more quantitative test of planetary evolution models. Without a mass, a young planet may appear to have a similar radius as an older planet, but still be significantly inflated if it is less massive. Without accurate mass estimates, it is difficult to interpret the detection of features in transmission spectra, as there are strong degeneracies between surface gravity and composition (Batalha et al. 2017). Further, masses are essential to perform a fair comparison between old and young planetary systems given the complex relation between period, radius, and migration history.

Radial velocity work in young systems has proven to be challenging. The mass detection of the 30 Myr V1298 Tau e from Suárez Mascareño et al. (2021) finds an orbital period that is  $4\sigma$  discrepant with the follow-

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up transit data in [Feinstein et al. \(2022\)](#), and in conflict with more extensive RV data ([Sikora et al. 2023](#); [Blunt et al. 2023](#)). [Zakhochay et al. \(2022\)](#) find a mass of  $8 \pm 1 M_J$  for the 15 Myr Jupiter-radius planet HD 114082 b, but even cold-star models predict a mass below  $1 M_J$  at this age ([Spiegel & Burrows 2012](#)), and the the report of a second *larger* planet in the system ([ExoFOP 2019](#)) likely invalidates the analysis. A number of other systems have been the subject of extensive monitoring campaigns and only yielded upper limits on mass (e.g., [Benatti et al. 2021](#); [Damasso et al. 2023](#)). Similarly concerning is that youngest planets discovered through radial velocities are not consistently recovered (e.g., [Donati et al. 2020](#); [Damasso et al. 2020](#)).

It is possible to estimate the mass of a planet through its transmission spectrum, by taking advantage of the relation between the scale height and the planet’s surface gravity ([de Wit & Seager 2013](#)). Applying this method to small planets is challenging due to degeneracies between metallicity, cloud cover, and surface gravity ([Batalha et al. 2017](#)). The method has worked, however, on young gas giants ([Thao et al. 2024b](#)). Such systems tend to have lower surface gravity than their older counterparts, making it easier to break the degeneracies. This method may still fail for the smallest planets, and measuring masses for a large sample of young planets would require an unrealistic amount of *JWST* data.

An alternative route for precision masses of young planets is Transit Timing Variations (TTVs) – changes in the planet’s transit time due to the gravitational influence of another object. TTVs have provided masses for small planets ([Jontof-Hutter et al. 2015](#)) and a limited set of young stars (e.g. [Masuda 2014](#)). Importantly, young planets are found near mean-motion resonances (MMR) at a much higher rate than for older planets (e.g.,  $86 \pm 13\%$  of multis  $< 100$  Myr; [Dai et al. 2024](#)). Since TTV signals are much larger for planets near MMR, we expect a similarly high fraction of young multi-transiting systems to show TTVs.

Often a detected TTV is insufficient to constrain the full system parameters. It is not possible to break degeneracies between eccentricity and mass in many systems, for example ([Becker et al. 2015](#)). However, such TTVs may still be useful for setting limits on eccentricity and mass, detect additional planets in the system, and motivate future ground-based studies to fully map out the TTV signal.

Here we search for signs of TTVs in young transiting planets with *Kepler K2* and/or *TESS* data. In Section 2 we list the young systems of interest. We describe the light curve data in Section 4. We then detail our method for fitting individual transits and searching for TTVs in Section 5. In Section 6 we overview which systems show significant TTVs and the role of spots on the TTV signal. We conclude in Section 7 with a discussion of which TTVs show the best promise for mass detections in the immediate future.

## 2. TARGET SELECTION

We initially selected all transiting planets with ages  $< 800$  Myr and age uncertainties  $< 100$  Myr. The former cut is roughly Hyades age or younger, where stellar activity can make radial velocities more challenging ([Cochran et al. 2002](#); [Paulson et al. 2004](#); [Brems et al. 2019](#)). The latter is meant to remove targets with highly uncertain ages, many of which are likely to be  $> 1$  Gyr due to a strong bias in favor of older systems in the transiting planet sample. We drew this list from a mix of the NASA exoplanet archive ([Foreman-Mackey et al. 2021](#)) and a search of recent literature (e.g., [Newton et al. 2022](#)).

The sample was finalized in September, 2024. Planets discovered after this date were not included. The exception was IRAS 04125+2902 b, which already included an (identical) TTV analysis to that performed here.

From this list we removed four systems. HD 114082 ([Zakhochay et al. 2022](#)) and HD 283869 ([Vanderburg et al. 2018](#)) are both single-transiting systems, for which TTV detections will not be possible. Kepler-411 has a reported age of 200 Myr ([Sun et al. 2019](#)), but the host star shows no detectable lithium ([Berger et al. 2018](#)) and the 10.5 day rotation period and color puts it in the ‘stalling’ regime ([Curtis et al. 2019](#)). In combination, this suggests an age of at least 600 Myr. TOI-560 has the same problem; no lithium and a rotation period consistent with 0.1–1.4 Gyr. While it is possible these meet our age criteria, they do not meet our age uncertainty criteria, so we opted to remove them.

This left 62 planets orbiting 42 stars. The majority have robust ages derived from membership to a young association, but many have ages derived from a combination of gyrochronology and similar indicators of age (e.g., lithium). We provide a full list in Table 3.

## 3. INPUT LIGHT CURVES

**Table 1.** Overview of Input Light Curves

System	planet	TESS sectors	Other input data (days)	Total Time Span (years)	$N_{\text{transits}}$	Significance $\chi^2/d.o.f$	Parameters
AU Mic	b	1, 27	-	2	5	4.23	Wittrock et al. (2023)
AU Mic	c	1, 27	-	2	3	4.76	Wittrock et al. (2023)
DS Tuc A	b	1, 27, 28, 67, 68	-	5.5	15	3.28	Newton et al. (2019)
HD 110082	b	12, 13, 27, 65, 66, 67	-	4.4	16	0.90	Tofflemire et al. (2021)
HD 63433	b	20, 44, 45, 46, 47, 72	-	2.3	17	1.01	Polanski et al. (2024), Capistrant et al. (2024)
	c	20, 44, 45, 46, 47, 72	-	2.3	8	6.44	Polanski et al. (2024), Capistrant et al. (2024)
	d	20, 44, 45, 46, 47, 72	-	2.3	29	2.30	Polanski et al. (2024), Capistrant et al. (2024)
HD 178085	b	27, 66, 67	-	3.3	6	1.09	Zhou et al. (2022), Mantovan et al. (2022)
HIP 67522	b	11, 38, 64	-	4	10	0.32	Barber et al. (2024)
	c	11, 38, 64	-	4	5	0.63	Barber et al. (2024)
IRAS04125+2902	b	19, 43, 44, 59, 70, 71	-	-	16	0.80	
K2 100	b	44, 45, 46, 72	K2 Campaign 5, 18	4.34	128	0.94	Barragán et al. (2019), Stefansson et al. (2018)
K2 101	b	-	K2 Campaign 5, 16, 18	3.14	13	0.62	Castro-González et al. (2022), Mann et al. (2017)
K2 102	b	-	K2 Campaign 5, 16, 18	3.15	20	0.11	Mann et al. (2017)
K2 103	b	-	K2 Campaign 5, 16, 18	3.3	10	1.50	Castro-González et al. (2022); Dressing et al. (2017)
K2 104	b	-	K2 Campaign 5, 16, 18	3.3	100	0.3	Castro-González et al. (2022); Dressing et al. (2017)
K2 136	b	-	K2 Campaign 13	0.25	8	4.59	Mann et al. (2017)
	c	-	K2 Campaign 13	0.25	4	5.09	Mayo et al. (2023)
	d	-	K2 Campaign 13	0.25	3	1.54	Mayo et al. (2023); Kokori et al. (2023)
K2 233	b	-	K2 Campaign 15	0.25	35	1.08	Mayo et al. (2023); Livingston et al. (2018)
	c	-	K2 Campaign 15	0.25	11	1.12	Lillo-Box et al. (2020)
	d	-	K2 Campaign 15	0.25	3	2.91	Lillo-Box et al. (2020)
K2 25	b	44,70,71	K2 Campaign 15	2.95	37	0.26	Stefansson et al. (2020)
K2 264	b	-	K2 Campaign 16	0.25	13	0.95	Livingston et al. (2019)
	c	-	K2 Campaign 16	0.25	4	6.01	Livingston et al. (2019)
K2 284	b	-	K2 Campaign 13	0.25	12	1.22	David et al. (2018)
Kepler 1627	b	-	Kepler Q1-15	3.01	127	0.55	Morton et al. (2016)
Kepler 1643	b	-	Kepler Q1-17	4.11	252	0.38	Bouma et al. (2022)
Kepler 51	b	-	Kepler Q1-17	7	32	21.5	Masuda (2014); Libby-Roberts et al. (2020)
Kepler 51	c	-	Kepler Q12-17	1.36	6	4.69	Masuda (2014); Libby-Roberts et al. (2020)

**Table 1** *continued*

Table 1 (*continued*)

System	planet	TESS sectors	Other input data (days)	Total Time Span (years)	$N_{\text{transits}}$	Significance $\chi^2/d.o.f$	Parameters
Kepler 51	d	-	Kepler Q1-17	7	10	52.07	Masuda (2014); Libby-Roberts et al. (2020)
Kepler 63	b	14,15,40,41,53,54,55,74,75,80,81,82	Kepler Q2-17	9.2	164	1.06	Sanchis-Ojeda et al. (2013)
Kepler 970	b	-	Kepler Q1-17	4.11	80	0.77	Barber et al. (2022)
Kepler 1928	b	-	Kepler Q1-17	4.11	72	0.13	Barber et al. (2022)
KOI 7913 A	b	-	Kepler Q1-18	4.11	55	0.52	Bouma et al. (2022)
Qatar 3	b	57	-	0.15	9	0.34	Alsubai et al. (2017); Kokori et al. (2023)
Qatar 4	b	57	-	0.15	12	0.49	Alsubai et al. (2017); Kokori et al. (2023)
Qatar 5	b	14,17,57	-	3.15	15	1.05	Alsubai et al. (2017); Kokori et al. (2023)
TOI 1227	b	11, 12, 38, 64, 65	-	4.11	5	5.71	Mann et al. (2022)
TOI 1807	b	22,23,49,76	-	3.56	140	1.88	Polanski et al. (2024); Nardiello et al. (2022)
TOI 2048	b	16,23,24,50,51,77,78	-	3	9	0.53	Newton et al. (2022)
TOI 251	b	1,2,29,69	-	5.5	14	0.36	Zhou et al. (2021)
TOI 451	b	4,5,31	-	2.2	37	0.60	Newton et al. (2021)
	c	4,5,31	-	2.2	8	0.87	Newton et al. (2021)
	d	4,5,31	-	2.2	5	0.84	Newton et al. (2021)
TOI 942	b	5, 32	-	2	11	0.52	Newton et al. (2021)
TOI 942	c	5, 32	-	2	5	0.86	
TOI 1860	b	14,15,16,21,22,23,41,48,49,50,75	-	4.95	307	0.46	Giacalone et al. (2022)
TOI 837	b	10,11,37,38,63,64	-	4.5	19	1.17	Barragán et al. (2024); Bouma et al. (2020)
TOI 1097	b	11,12,38,39,65	-	2	11	-	
TOI 1097	c	11,12,38,39,65	-	2	8	-	
TOI 2076	b	16,23,50,77	-	-	9	3.17	Polanski et al. (2024), Kokori et al. (2023)
TOI 2076	c	16,23,50,77	-	-	3	1.01	Polanski et al. (2024), Hedges et al. (2021)
TOI 2076	d	16,23,50,77	-	-	3	7.97	Polanski et al. (2024), Hedges et al. (2021)
V1298 Tau	b	42,43,44	K2 Campaign 4	1	5	5.18	David et al. (2019), Feinstein et al. (2021)
V1298 Tau	c	42,43,44	K2 Campaign 4	1	15	2.26	David et al. (2019), Feinstein et al. (2021)
V1298 Tau	d	42,43,44	K2 Campaign 4	1	9	10.26	David et al. (2019), Feinstein et al. (2021)
V1298 Tau	e	42,43,44	K2 Campaign 4	1	3	13.15	David et al. (2019), Feinstein et al. (2021), Finocciety et al. (2023)
TOI 1224	b	1-13, 27, 28, 39, 66-68	-	-	-	-	
	c	1-13, 27, 28, 39, 66-68	-	-	-	-	
TOI 1227	b	1-13, 27, 28, 39, 66-68	-	5	50	-	
	c	1-13, 27, 28, 39, 66-68	-	5	50	-	

#### 4. LIGHT CURVES

We used light curves from *Kepler*, *K2* and *TESS*, where possible. While nearly all targets have *TESS* data, many planets detected in *K2* or *Kepler* data orbit stars that are too faint or land in fields too crowded to make full use of the *TESS* data. Further, for our TTV analysis, it is important that each individual transit be detectable to extract a usable transit time. For some smaller planets, the signal is only significant over the full curve, particularly in the *TESS* data. We list what datasets were included for each planet in Table 3.

##### 4.1. *TESS*

For young active stars, the default *TESS* data processing can fail due to complications separating instrumental and stellar signals (e.g., Taaki et al. 2024). We follow the systematics correction to the simple aperture photometry (SAP) from the SPOC pipeline (Jenkins et al. 2016) outlined in Vanderburg et al. (2019). This method has dramatically improved the noise properties of the light curves for young stars (e.g. Barber & Mann 2023; Thao et al. 2024a).

We confirm the superiority of the modified pipeline by analyzing one system (HIP 67522 b and c) with both PDCSAP (Pre-search Data Conditioning SAP) and the Vanderburg et al. (2019) method. While the results were broadly consistent, the fit was better (better reduced  $\chi^2$ ) using the Vanderburg et al. (2019) light curves. The analysis using PDCSAP curves also yielded much smaller uncertainties on the transit times, suggesting timing variations even over just 2-3 consecutive transits.

In total, YY stars have *TESS* data sufficient for our analysis.

##### 4.2. *Kepler*

For XX systems with *Kepler* data, we used the Pre-search Data Conditioning Simple Aperture Photometry (PDCSAP; Smith et al. 2012; Stumpe et al. 2014) light curve produced by SPOC and available through Mikulski Archive for Space Telescopes (MAST)<sup>1</sup>.

In order to ensure data reliability, we only considered data points with DQUALITY=0, indicating that no flags were raised by the SPOC pipeline.

##### 4.3. *K2*

The *K2* mission operated short one reaction wheel, causing the telescope to shift. During the drift and subsequent thruster fire a stellar image moves over the

detector. Combined with variations in the pixel sensitivity this generates changes in estimated flux from a given star as a function of centroid position. To correct for this, we used the light curves from the K2SFF pipeline (Vanderburg & Johnson 2014). Curves from K2SFF have been used widely for the analysis of young systems (Mann et al. 2017,?; Rizzuto et al. 2017).

Stellar variability in young stars can operate on timescales comparable to the telescope drift, which can sometimes cause the extraction to fail. Some analyses have therefore used a simultaneous fit of the variability and the instrumental systematics (e.g., Mann et al. 2018; Thao et al. 2020). Tests with this seemed to have no impact on the transit times for a sample of systems considered here. So, we opted to use the K2SFF light curves without additional corrections.

In total, ZZ systems had usable *K2* data.

#### 5. METHODS

##### 5.1. *Measuring Individual Transit Times*

A summary of our process is:

1. For each planet, we download all available light curve data (see subsections above).
2. We take initial planet parameters from the NASA Exoplanet Archive as noted in Table 3. In some cases, we retrieve parameters directly from the paper.
3. We fit each transit using a BATMAN model (Kreidberg 2015) and a Gaussian Process (GP) to handle stellar variability.
4. We inspect the fits and the TTV residual (O-C). Some fits are removed or adjusted and redone based on this assessment.
5. We characterize the significance of the TTV using a flat-line fit and computing the reduced  $\chi^2$  ( $\chi_n^2 \nu$ ).

For each transit fit (step 3), we locked all parameters to the literature value except the transit midpoint ( $T_0$ ) and three GP parameters. For the GP, we use a simple harmonic oscillator (SHO) as implemented in Celerite (Foreman-Mackey 2018). This includes three free parameters, the standard deviation of the process ( $\sigma$ ), the underdamped period of the oscillator ( $\rho$ ), and the quality factor ( $Q$ ). Tests using simpler polynomials yielded poor fits to the data. Other quasi-periodic kernels worked similarly well, although we preferred the SHO kernel because of a long history of success on young stellar systems (e.g., Thao et al. 2023; Wood et al. 2023; Barber et al. 2024).

<sup>1</sup> <https://mast.stsci.edu/portal/Mashup/Clients/Mast/Portal.html>

**Table 2.** Time of Transit and O-C Posteriors for TOI-1224c

Transit Number	Prior <sup>a</sup>	Posterior	O-C (min)
$T_0$	$\mathcal{U}(2458329.8653, 0.03)$	$2458329.8680^{+0.0015}_{-0.0015}$	$3.92 \pm 2.21$
$T_1$	$\mathcal{U}(2458347.8107, 0.03)$	$2458347.8111^{+0.0024}_{-0.0027}$	$0.63 \pm 4.76$
$T_{19}$	$\mathcal{U}(2458670.8287, 0.03)$	$2458670.8163^{+0.0022}_{-0.0032}$	$-17.78 \pm 4.43$
$T_{40}$	$\mathcal{U}(2459047.6831, 0.03)$	$2459047.6740^{+0.0020}_{-0.0020}$	$-13.04 \pm 6.11$
$T_{41}$	$\mathcal{U}(2459065.6285, 0.03)$	$2459065.6224^{+0.0043}_{-0.0057}$	$-8.77 \pm 7.98$
$T_{42}$	$\mathcal{U}(2459083.5740, 0.03)$	$2459083.5632^{+0.0025}_{-0.0028}$	$-15.48 \pm 4.04$
$T_{58}$	$\mathcal{U}(2459370.7010, 0.03)$	$2459370.6883^{+0.0019}_{-0.0019}$	$-18.41 \pm 3.37$
$T_{59}$	$\mathcal{U}(2459388.6465, 0.03)$	$2459388.6376^{+0.0034}_{-0.0041}$	$-12.84 \pm 5.64$
$T_{99}$	$\mathcal{U}(2460106.4642, 0.03)$	$2460106.4638^{+0.0033}_{-0.0031}$	$-0.61 \pm 7.88$
$T_{101}$	$\mathcal{U}(2460142.3551, 0.03)$	$2460142.3535^{+0.0025}_{-0.0023}$	$-2.30 \pm 4.58$
$T_{102}$	$\mathcal{U}(2460160.3006, 0.03)$	$2460160.2959^{+0.0017}_{-0.0018}$	$-6.75 \pm 2.67$
$T_{103}$	$\mathcal{U}(2460178.2460, 0.03)$	$2460178.2391^{+0.9923}_{-0.0020}$	$-10.04 \pm 3.39$

<sup>a</sup> $\mathcal{U}(a, b)$  indicates a uniform distribution between  $a$  and  $b$ .

The transit fits were done using a Monte Carlo Markov Chain framework with `emcee` (Foreman-Mackey et al. 2013). All parameters evolved under uniform priors. Every transit runs for 10,000 steps with 30 walkers. This was sufficient for convergence in most cases (Goodman & Weare 2010). If the solution had not yet converged, the run was extended for an additional 10,000 steps.

We show an example transit fit in Figure 1. This star has a short rotation period (1.39 days; Heitzmann et al. 2021) creating significant variability on timescales comparable to that of the planets transit duration. However, the GP correctly models the stellar signal and yields a residual consistent with white noise.

We show an example fit posterior in Figure 2. The resulting transit time posteriors were almost universally Gaussian. Those deviating from a Gaussian were those with Gaussian cores with wider tails or slight asymmetry. For simplicity, we opted to convert these to one-dimensional uncertainties when computing the TTV signal.

Using the literature reported period and  $T_0$ , we computed the difference between the expected and measured transit times (the O-C). Some systems showed linear trend or systematic offset from zero, indicating an erroneous period or  $T_0$ . In these cases we fit for a new period and/or  $T_0$  from our data and, when needed, reanalyzed the light curves.

We then compared the resulting O-C points to a flat-line model and compute a reduced  $\chi^2$  ( $\chi_\nu^2$ ). The resulting  $\chi_\nu^2$  are reported in Table 3 for each planet and are the main metric we used for characterizing the likelihood of a TTV.

## 6. RESULTS

We show the histogram of  $\chi_\nu^2$  values in Figure ??.

We observed overfitting for several systems with positive known TTVs, including the system HIP 67522.

HIP 67522 b also showed slightly more significant TTVs using the PDCSAP data rather than the SPOC pipeline. The O-C results from our analysis using the SPOC pipeline were similar with larger uncertainties, driving the  $\chi_\nu^2$  down. Similar observations of overfitting in other systems prompted us to shift our  $\chi_\nu^2$  metric for significance of a TTV from 1 to XX.

We show an example O-C plot in Figure 4.

### 6.1. Can spots explain some TTVs?

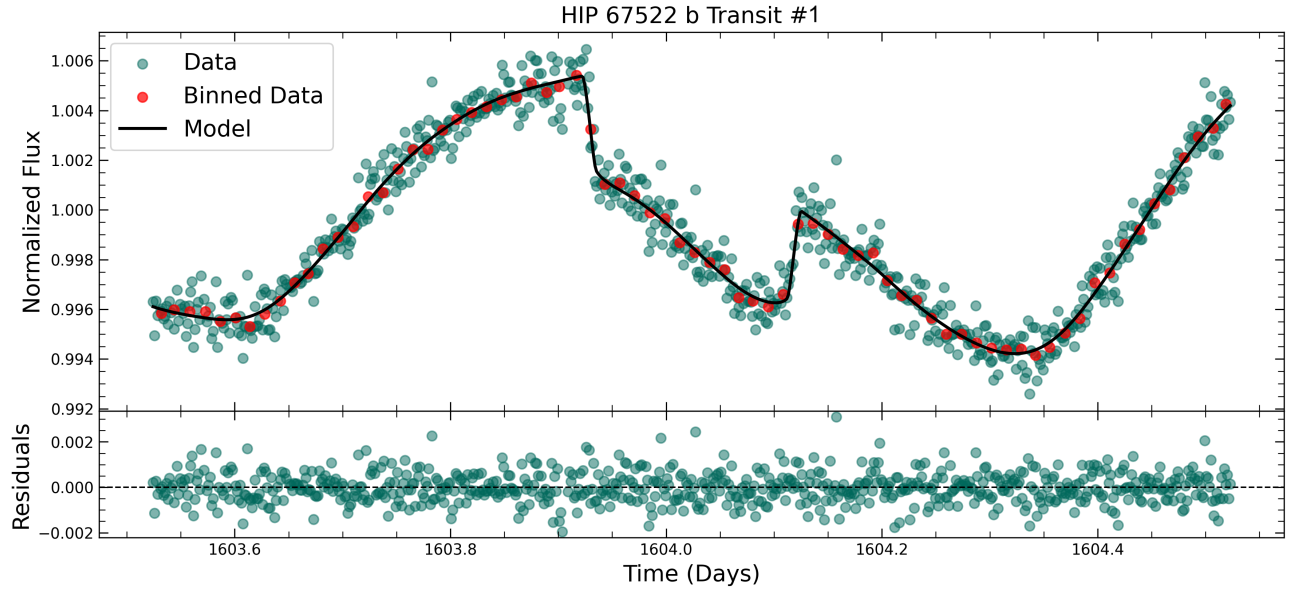
Young stars often exhibit fast rotation (Cody et al. 2017) and significant starspot coverage (Morris 2020; Barber & Mann 2023). If the planet crosses a spot, especially near ingress or egress, it can introduce a TTV due to changes in the shape of the transit. However, the resulting TTV will correlate to the flux derivative (Mazeh et al. 2015), which is detectable in the same dataset. In this way, one can separate TTVs from dynamical interactions versus those from stellar activity (Holczer et al. 2015).

## 7. CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

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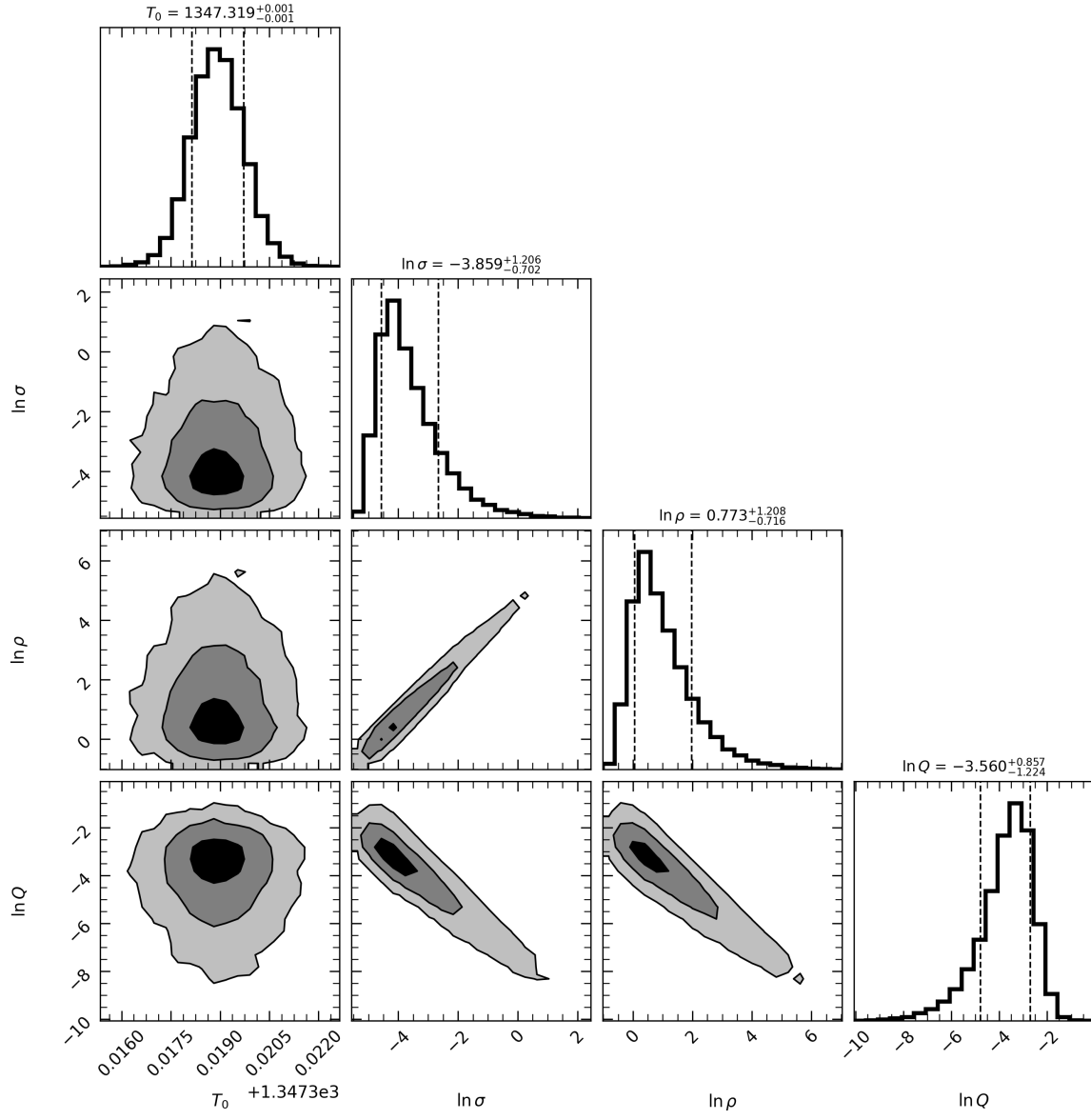


**Figure 1.** The first transit of HIP 67522 b (green points) and the best-fit model (black). For clarity, we also show the data binned to 20 minutes (red points). The bottom panel shows the best-fit residuals, which are generally consistent with white noise and suggest the GP is handling the strong stellar variability well.

This paper includes data collected by the TESS mission. Funding for the TESS mission is provided by the NASA’s Science Mission Directorate.

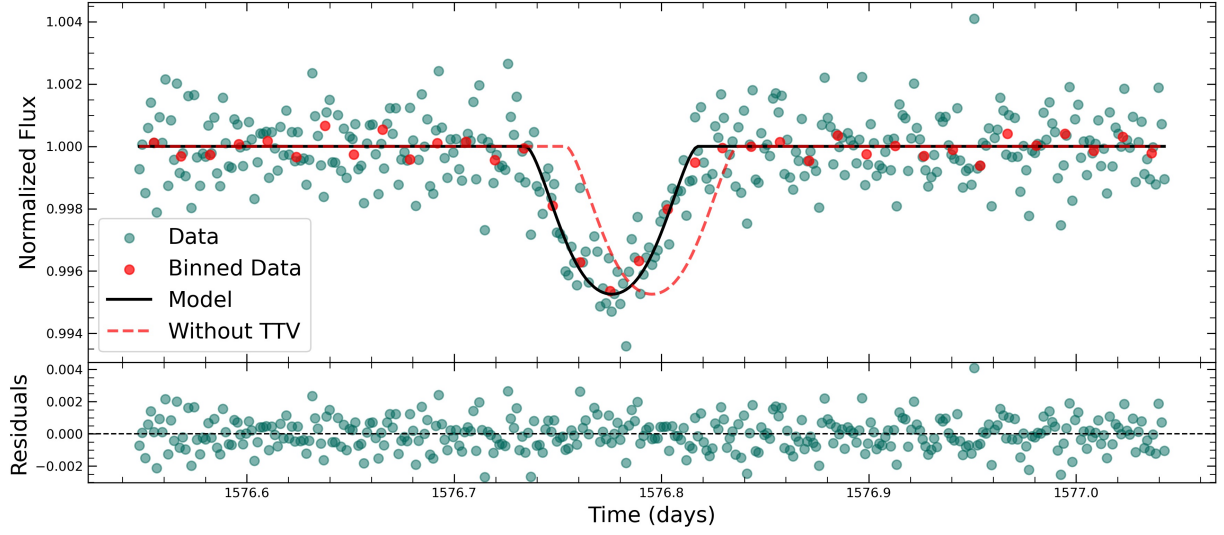
*Software:*

*Facilities:*

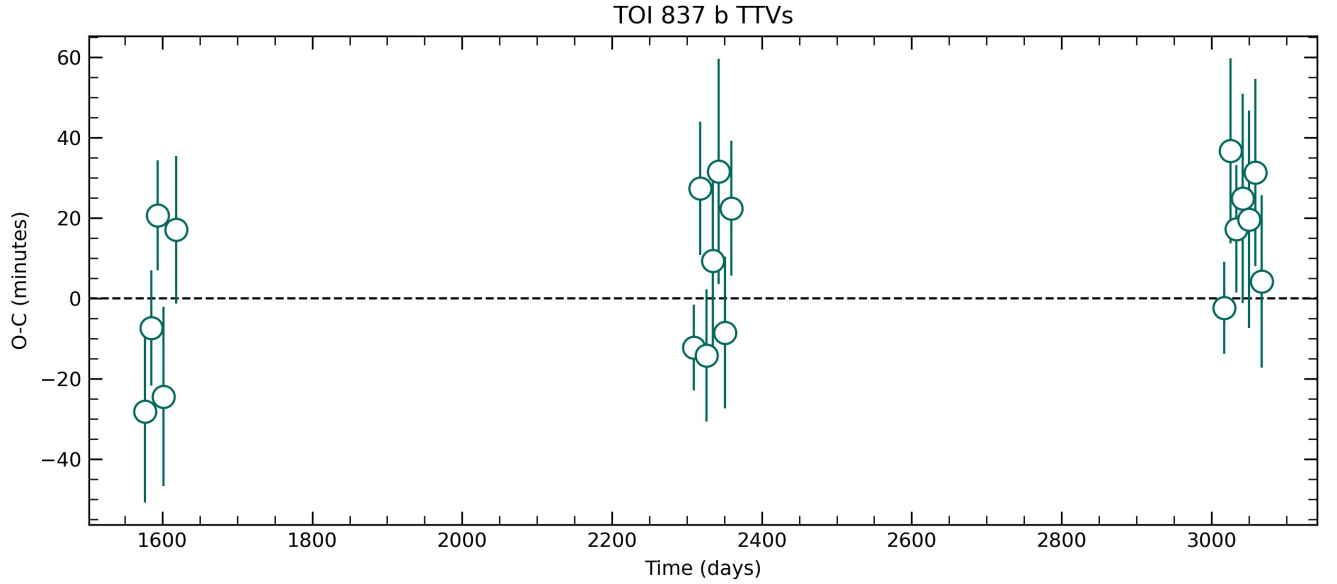


**Figure 2.** Corner plot for the second transit of AU Mic b.

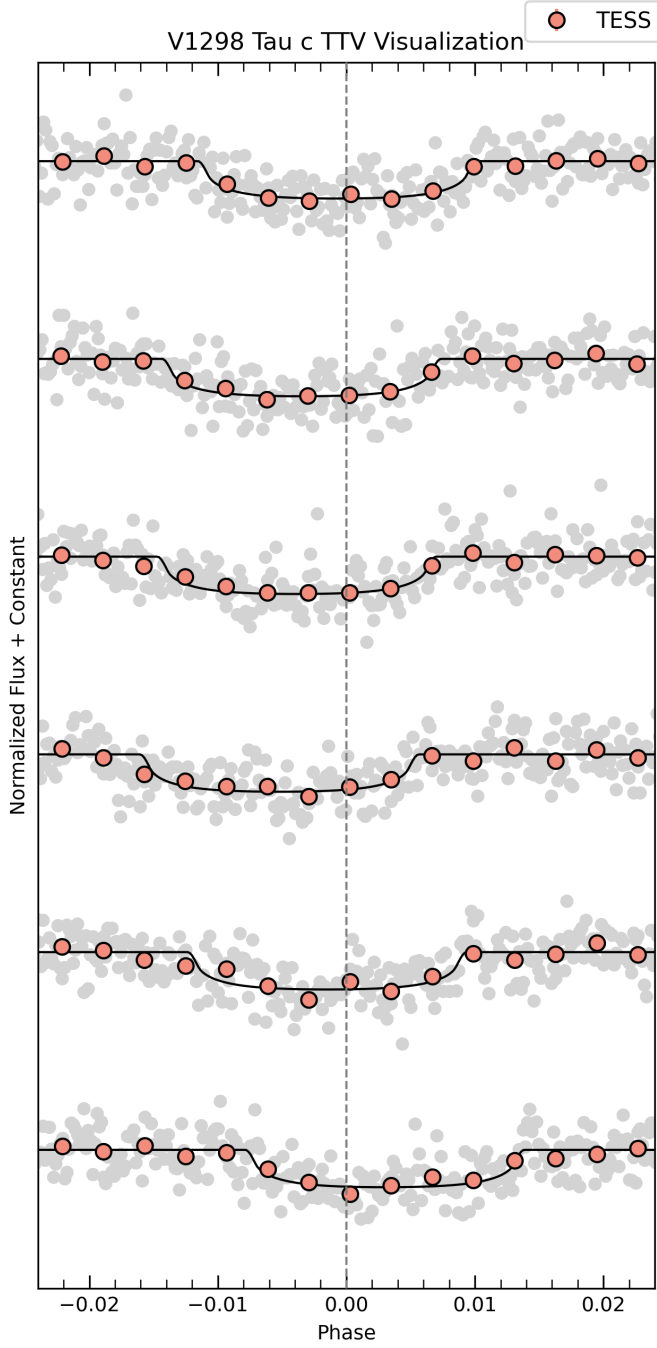




**Figure 3.** First transit of TOI-837 b, with a O-C value of -27.97 minutes. Stellar variability has been removed with the GP model, showing the detrended fit. Red dots represent data binned to 20 minutes.



**Figure 4.** Observed - Calculated (O-C) plot for TOI-837 b, with a  $\chi^2_\nu$  of 1.17.



**Figure 5.** Phase-folded light curve of V1298 Tau c transits taken with *TESS* (orange). Our best-fit model is overlaid in a black line. Circular dots represent data binned into 4.5 minute intervals.

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