Physical properties and transmission spectrum of the WASP-74 planetary system from multiband photometry


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ABSTRACT

We present broad-band photometry of 11 planetary transits of the hot Jupiter WASP-74 b, using three medium-class telescopes and employing the telescope-defocusing technique. Most of the transits were monitored through I filters and one was simultaneously observed in five optical (U, g′, r′, i′, z′) and three near-infrared (J, H, K) passbands, for a total of 18 light curves. We also obtained new high-resolution spectra of the host star. We used these new data to review the orbital and physical properties of the WASP-74 planetary system. We were able to better constrain the main system characteristics, measuring smaller radius and mass for both the hot Jupiter and its host star than previously reported in the literature. Joining our optical data with those taken with the HST in the near infrared, we built up an observational transmission spectrum of the planet, which suggests the presence of strong optical absorbers, as TiO and VO gases, in its atmosphere.

Key words: techniques: photometric – stars: fundamental parameters – stars: individual: WASP-74 – planetary systems.

1 INTRODUCTION

Transiting hot Jupiters form a class of exoplanets that has been extensively studied, especially those orbiting bright (V < 14 mag) stars. Because of their large size (R_p ≈ 1 R_Jup) and short orbital periods (P_orb < 10 d), hot Jupiters are more easily detected in transit, even by ground-based surveys with small telescopes or telephoto lenses. Indeed, their transits are very frequent and their large sizes imply light curves with transit depths at the percent level (see e.g. Cameron 2016). Moreover, the possibility to measure both their mass and radius with exquisite precision makes them excellent objects for a number of theoretical and observational investigations (e.g. formation, evolution, dynamics, star–planet and planet–planet interaction, orbital migration, internal structure, etc.). The great effort made by astronomers to find these exoplanets is still continuing (we currently know more than 350 well-studied transiting hot Jupiters1) and is revealing an incredible diversity in terms of physical characteristics and planetary architectures (see e.g. Winn et al. 2015).

Hot Jupiters are also particularly suitable for atmospheric investigation, which is one of the most fascinating perspectives. By monitoring their transit events with large-class telescopes, one can perform the transmission-spectroscopy method, i.e. measure their transit depths at multiple wavelengths, and constrain the chemical composition at the terminator of their atmosphere. It is thus possible to search for the presence of several molecules (e.g. H_2O, CO, CO_2, CH_4) at infrared (IR) wavelengths and atoms (e.g. Na and K) and other inorganic chemical compounds (TiO and VO) at the optical wavelengths.

Data taken from the Transiting Extrasolar Planet Catalogue (TEPCat), which is available at http://www.astro.keele.ac.uk/jkt/tepcat/ (Southworth 2011).

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wavelengths (see e.g. Nikolov et al. 2018 or the recent reviews by Sing 2018 and Fortney 2018).

Even though transmission spectroscopy is by now a common observational technique and is performed both from ground and space, it is still very challenging, because the required ultrahigh-precision spectroscopic measurements are plagued by systematic effects that are gradually becoming understood and correctable to the required level. Significant progress in this field have been obtained in the last years and the resulting transmission spectra of a small group of hot Jupiters have revealed an unexpected diversity of their atmospheres and different amounts of aerosols at observable pressure levels (e.g. Sing et al. 2016). Yet, discrepancies between the results found by different instruments and between ground-based and space observations continue to emerge (e.g. Sedaghati et al. 2017; Gibson et al. 2018; Parvianen et al. 2018), also suggesting a degeneracy of the transmission-spectrum slope with orbital inclination and $R_\text{p}/a$ (Alexoudi et al. 2018).

Probing exoplanetary atmospheres with photometric observations represents an alternative approach. The transmission-photometry technique has the clear disadvantage of a lower spectral resolution, but it is generally less affected by telluric contamination and systematics, and can be performed from the ground with smaller-aperture telescopes, which are, generally, more easily accessible than larger facilities. Moreover, multiband photometry allows us to probe the atmosphere of exoplanets hosted by relatively faint stars ($V \lesssim 13\text{ mag}$), which are generally very arduous for spectroscopy.

In the last decade, we have undertaken a large observational program to obtain high-quality transit light curves for many known transiting exoplanets. For this purpose, we have used an array of medium-sized telescopes, located in both hemispheres, and pioneered the defocusing technique and other observational strategies, like the simultaneous two-telescope and multiband observations. Besides reviewing the orbital and physical parameters of these planetary systems in a homogeneous way, which is the main aim of our project, we have also used multiband imaging cameras to perform transmission photometry for probing planetary atmospheres (e.g. Mancini et al. 2016a, b; Southworth et al. 2017; Tregloan-Reed et al. 2018).

Here we present a study of the transiting planetary system WASP-74 (Hellier et al. 2015), which hosts an inflated hot Jupiter, WASP-74 b ($M_p \approx 1.1 M_{\text{Jup}}; R_p \approx 1.5 R_{\text{Jup}}; T_{\text{eq}} \approx 1900\text{ K}$), orbiting an F9 V star every 2.1 d. WASP-74 b was included in the sample of 30 hot Jupiters observed with the HST/WFC3 camera by Tsiaras et al. (2018) for measuring transmission spectra between 1.1 and 1.7 $\mu$m. Their results for WASP-74 b are not conclusive, but indicate high-altitude cloud cover or a water-depleted atmosphere. Joining these data with our observations, mostly covering the optical band (386–976 nm), we obtained a transmission spectrum of this exoplanet with much wider spectral coverage.

### 2 Observation and Data Reduction

#### 2.1 Photometry

Having declination $\delta \approx -1^\circ$, WASP-74 can be observed from both hemispheres. In 2015, we monitored seven (six complete and one partial) transits of WASP-74 b through a Bessell-$I$ filter with the Danish (DK) 1.54 m Telescope at the ESO Observatory in La Silla. In the same observing season, another two transits were remotely observed with the Zeiss 1.23 m telescope at the Calar Alto Observatory; the first was completely covered through a Cousins-$I$ filter, while the second was only partially covered through a Johnson-$B$ filter.

Another transit event was recorded in 2016 with the MPG 2.2 m telescope, also located in La Silla, using the GROND instrument to simultaneously observe in four optical (similar to Sloan $g', r', i', z'$) and three near-IR (NIR) bands ($J, H, K$). More information about these telescopes and instruments is available in previous papers (e.g. Mancini et al. 2018). The same transit was also observed with the Danish telescope using a Bessell-$U$ filter, in order to have a wavelength coverage in the near-ultraviolet as well. The quality of the $U$-band light curve is low, but showed a transit deeper (2 per cent versus 0.9 per cent) and longer (2.8 h versus 2.4 h) than those taken with GROND, see Fig.1. A possible interpretation of this fact is planetary mass-loss, i.e. WASP-74 b may be evaporating under the radiation pressure of its host star. In order to confirm this hypothesis, another transit was observed with the Danish Telescope in 2017 August, again through a Bessell-$U$ filter, which did not confirm the longer duration of the WASP-74 b transits in the blue band.

The observations, which we reported above, were all carried out by autoguiding and defocusing the telescopes for increasing the photometric precision.

The reduction of the optical data was performed using the DEFOT pipeline (Southworth et al. 2014); master bias and master flat-field frames were produced by median-combining individual calibration images, and used to calibrate the scientific images. A reference image was selected and the target and a set of non-variable comparison stars were identified in it. Pointing variations were measured by a cross-correlation process. Aperture photometry of the target and reference stars was then performed using the APER routine, and the aperture radii were chosen to obtain the lowest scatter versus a fitted model. The differential photometry light curves were normalized to zero magnitude by fitting a straight line to the out-of-transit data, but with a second-order polynomial for the $U$-band data.

The quality of the photometry of both the $U$-band light curves is low because of non-optimal (thin clouds) and non-stable (continuous variation of seeing concurrently with humidity, temperature, and wind speed) weather conditions and a lack of good comparison stars as well. Moreover, $U$-band data are also affected by low throughput of the CCD and $U$-band filter. The resulted light curves are severely

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This work is part of the ASTROLIB subroutine library distributed by NASA.
affected by systematics, which caused larger transit depth in both cases and, for the first transit, an artificial longer transit duration.

Data reduction of the GROND NIR bands followed the methodology detailed in Mancini et al. (2013) and Chen (2014). After dark subtraction and flat correction, aperture photometry was performed using the IDL/DAOPHOT package. The choice of aperture and annulus sizes and combination of comparison stars were determined by the light-curve fitting that results in the least scatter. Before the light-curve fitting, variations of star location and full width at half-maximum (FWHM) of the point spread function (PSF) were recorded, which will be used to identify the correlated noise. Unfortunately, the pointing jumped three times during the observation. Considering that NIR photometry is strongly location dependent, this excluded the data points before the gap as seen in the optical light curves and a few other data points at the end of the observation. All the times of the observations were converted into the BJD (TDB) system using routines from (Eastman, Siverd & Gaudi2010).

Light curves were modelled using the JKTEBOP code (Southworth 2013). We assumed a circular orbit (Hellier et al. 2015) and the following parameters of the light curves were fitted using the Levenberg–Marquardt optimization algorithm: the sum and ratio of the fractional radii $r_a + r_b$ and $k = r_b/r_a$, the time of transit midpoint ($T_i$), the orbital period and inclination ($P$ and $i$).

We used a quadratic law to model the limb darkening (LD) of the star, using the LD coefficients provided by Claret (2004). As in previous papers (e.g. Mancini et al. 2016a), we fit for the linear coefficient and fixed the non-linear one; this choice is dictated by the fact that the LD coefficients are very strongly correlated (e.g. Southworth, Bruntt & Buzasi 2007). We included the coefficients of a linear polynomial versus time in the fits in order to take into account the uncertainty in the detrending of the light curves. Finally, we rescaled the uncertainty of the light curve points generated by our reduction pipeline by multiplying them by the square root of the reduced $\chi^2$ of the fit. The best fits to the light curves are shown in Figs 2, 3, and 4. The parameters of the fits are reported in Table 3. The uncertainties of the parameters were estimated for each solution from 10 000 Monte Carlo simulations and through a residual-permutation algorithm. The larger of the two error bars was adopted in each case. The final photometric parameters were calculated as the weighted mean of the results in Table 3. We also show the values obtained by Hellier et al. (2015) for comparison.

### 3 LIGHT-CURVE ANALYSIS

#### 3.1 Photometric parameters

The optical light curves were modelled using the JKTEBOP code (Southworth 2013). We assumed a circular orbit (Hellier et al. 2015) and the following parameters of the light curves were fitted using the Levenberg–Marquardt optimization algorithm: the sum and ratio of the fractional radii $r_a + r_b$ and $k = r_b/r_a$, the time of transit midpoint ($T_i$), the orbital period and inclination ($P$ and $i$).

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#### 2.2 Spectroscopy

On 2017 June 3, we acquired three high-resolution spectra using the FEROS échelle spectrograph (Kaufer & Pasquini 1998), and used them to refine the stellar parameters of WASP-74. The three spectra were co-added and the stellar atmospheric parameters were estimated using ZASPE (Brahm et al. 2017). ZASPE determines $T_{\text{eff}}$, log $g$, [Fe/H], and $v\sin i$ via least-squares minimization against a grid of synthetic spectra in the spectral regions most sensitive to changes in the parameters ($5000\,\text{Å}$ and $6000\,\text{Å}$). We found the following parameters: $T_{\text{eff}} = 5984 \pm 57\,\text{K}$, log $g = 4.12 \pm 0.12\,\text{dex}$, [Fe/H]$=+0.34 \pm 0.02\,\text{dex}$, and $v\sin i = 6.03 \pm 0.19\,\text{km\,s}^{-1}$.

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*http://cdsweb.u-strasbg.fr/*
Physical properties of WASP-74 b

Figure 3. Left-hand panel: simultaneous optical and NIR light curves of one transit event of WASP-74 b observed with GROND. The best-fitting models are shown as solid lines for each optical data set. The passbands are labelled on the left of the figure and their central wavelengths are given on the right. Right-hand panel: the residuals of each fit.

Figure 4. Light curves of two transit events of WASP-74 b observed with the CA 1.23 m telescope. They are plotted versus orbital phase and are compared to the best-fitting models. The residuals of the fits are shown at the base of the figure. The labels indicate the observation date and the filter that was used for each data set.

Figure 5. Light curves of two transit events of WASP-74 b observed with the DK 1.54 m telescope through a Bessell-U filter, shown in date order. They are plotted versus orbital phase and are compared to the best-fitting models. The residuals of the fits are shown at the base of the figure and are preceded by the first DK light curve taken through a Bessell-I filter, which was shown here for comparison.
Table 1. Details of the transit observations presented in this work. $N_{\text{obs}}$ is the number of observations, $T_{\text{exp}}$ is the exposure time, $T_{\text{obs}}$ is the observational cadence, and ‘Moon illum.’ is the geocentric fractional illumination of the Moon at midnight (UT). The aperture sizes are the radii of the software apertures for the star, inner sky, and outer sky, respectively. ‘Scatter’ is the $rms$ scatter of the data versus a fitted model. ‘Bin’ refers to if we have binned the data or not. ‘Compl.’ specifies if the transit was completely observed or not.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Telescope</th>
<th>Date of first obs (UT)</th>
<th>Start time (UT)</th>
<th>End time (UT)</th>
<th>$N_{\text{obs}}$</th>
<th>$T_{\text{exp}}$ (s)</th>
<th>$T_{\text{obs}}$ (s)</th>
<th>Filter</th>
<th>Airmass</th>
<th>Moon illum.</th>
<th>Aperture radii (px)</th>
<th>Scatter (mmag)</th>
<th>Bin</th>
<th>Compl.</th>
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<td>DK 1.54 m</td>
<td>2015-05-31</td>
<td>06:33</td>
<td>10:41</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>Bessell I</td>
<td>1.31 → 1.13 → 1.34</td>
<td>94 per cent</td>
<td>28, 36, 60</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>n y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DK 1.54 m</td>
<td>2015-06-15</td>
<td>06:36</td>
<td>10:29</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>Bessell I</td>
<td>1.17 → 1.13 → 1.56</td>
<td>2 per cent</td>
<td>28, 37, 70</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>n y</td>
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</tr>
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<td>2015-06-30</td>
<td>05:31</td>
<td>09:25</td>
<td>484</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>Bessell I</td>
<td>1.18 → 1.13 → 1.53</td>
<td>96 per cent</td>
<td>17, 26, 50</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>y y</td>
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<tr>
<td>DK 1.54 m</td>
<td>2015-07-15</td>
<td>04:07</td>
<td>08:38</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>Bessell I</td>
<td>1.23 → 1.13 → 1.60</td>
<td>1 per cent</td>
<td>25, 35, 60</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>y y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DK 1.54 m</td>
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<td>01:52</td>
<td>04:22</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>Bessell I</td>
<td>1.16 → 1.13 → 1.17</td>
<td>100 per cent</td>
<td>23, 32, 60</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>n n</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DK 1.54 m</td>
<td>2015-09-13</td>
<td>01:52</td>
<td>05:41</td>
<td>627</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Bessell I</td>
<td>1.16 → 1.13 → 2.27</td>
<td>0 per cent</td>
<td>20, 30, 60</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>y y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DK 1.54 m</td>
<td>2015-09-28</td>
<td>00:10</td>
<td>04:07</td>
<td>576</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Bessell I</td>
<td>1.14 → 1.13 → 1.83</td>
<td>100 per cent</td>
<td>20, 30, 60</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>y y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CA 1.23 m</td>
<td>2015-07-27</td>
<td>22:56</td>
<td>04:06</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>Cousins I</td>
<td>1.37 → 1.15 → 2.37</td>
<td>85 per cent</td>
<td>37, 50, 100</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>n y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CA 1.23 m</td>
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<td>19:19</td>
<td>01:25</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>Johnson B</td>
<td>1.50 → 1.15 → 2.45</td>
<td>91 per cent</td>
<td>30, 40, 80</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>n n</td>
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<td>2016-07-06</td>
<td>04:02</td>
<td>08:39</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>Sloan $\gamma'$</td>
<td>1.35 → 1.13 → 1.41</td>
<td>4 per cent</td>
<td>55, 70, 200</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>n y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MPG 2.2 m</td>
<td>2016-07-06</td>
<td>04:02</td>
<td>08:39</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>Sloan $\gamma''$</td>
<td>1.35 → 1.13 → 1.41</td>
<td>4 per cent</td>
<td>50, 70, 150</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>n y</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>MPG 2.2 m</td>
<td>2016-07-06</td>
<td>04:02</td>
<td>08:39</td>
<td>262</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>Sloan $\delta'$</td>
<td>1.35 → 1.13 → 1.41</td>
<td>4 per cent</td>
<td>60, 75, 150</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>n y</td>
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<tr>
<td>MPG 2.2 m</td>
<td>2016-07-06</td>
<td>04:02</td>
<td>08:39</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>Sloan $\delta''$</td>
<td>1.35 → 1.13 → 1.41</td>
<td>4 per cent</td>
<td>60, 80, 200</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>n y</td>
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<td>MPG 2.2 m</td>
<td>2016-07-06</td>
<td>04:02</td>
<td>08:39</td>
<td>421</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>$J$</td>
<td>1.35 → 1.13 → 1.41</td>
<td>4 per cent</td>
<td>18, 18, 25</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>n y</td>
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<td>MPG 2.2 m</td>
<td>2016-07-06</td>
<td>04:02</td>
<td>08:39</td>
<td>421</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>$H$</td>
<td>1.35 → 1.13 → 1.41</td>
<td>4 per cent</td>
<td>17, 17, 25</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>n y</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>MPG 2.2 m</td>
<td>2016-07-06</td>
<td>04:02</td>
<td>08:39</td>
<td>421</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>$K$</td>
<td>1.35 → 1.13 → 1.41</td>
<td>4 per cent</td>
<td>17, 25, 31</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>n y</td>
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<td>DK 1.54 m</td>
<td>2016-07-06</td>
<td>04:21</td>
<td>09:04</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>Bessell $U$</td>
<td>1.35 → 1.13 → 1.41</td>
<td>4 per cent</td>
<td>09, 19, 25</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>n y</td>
<td></td>
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<td>DK 1.54 m</td>
<td>2017-08-27</td>
<td>01:19</td>
<td>04:53</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>Bessell $U$</td>
<td>1.30 → 1.14 → 1.42</td>
<td>29 per cent</td>
<td>11, 22, 35</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>n y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As concerns the two \textit{U}-band light curves, we proceeded as in the previous cases, but, we used a linear law (the \textit{U}-band LD is quite close to linear so there is no real need for more complex LD laws).

The best-fitting values for \( k \) resulted to be \( 0.1168 \pm 0.0033 \) and \( 0.1220 \pm 0.0066 \), for the first and second light curve, respectively, which are not consistent with the values obtained from the fits of all the other light curves in the redder bands, see Table 3. Moreover, the duration of first \textit{U}-band transit is longer (2.8 h versus 2.4 h) than the others, see Fig. 5. For these reasons, we did not use these two light curves hereinafter.

The NIR light curves were fit by the Mandel & Agol (2002) transit model multiplied by a systematics detrending baseline function (BF). We extensively tested BF composed of different combination of state vectors, including star locations \((x, y)\) and FWHM \((s_x, s_y)\), airmass \((z)\), time sequence \((t)\). The final adopted BF was selected as the one with the lowest Bayesian information criterion (BIC) value, as listed below:

\[
BF(J) = c_0 + c_1 \ast y + c_2 \ast s_x + c_3 \ast z
\]

\[
BF(H) = c_0 + c_1 \ast x
\]

\[
BF(K) = c_0 + c_1 \ast t.
\]

To account for the remaining correlated noise, we first rescaled the light-curve uncertainties so that the best-fitting results have a reduced chi-square of unity. Then we inflated the rescaled uncertainties by a beta factor based on the time-averaging method together the measured parameters from the light curves (\(r_A + n_b\), e.g. Winn et al. 2008). The light-curve modelling was performed again with the new uncertainties. The best-fitting values of the parameters are reported in in Table 3. Similar to our previous use of the GROND camera, the NIR light curves have stronger correlated noise than the optical light curves, and thus the measured transit depths are less precise.

3.2 Orbital period determination

We used the new optical light curves for refining the orbital ephemeris of WASP-74 b. By modelling each light curve with \textit{jktebop}, we estimated the mid-transit times and their uncertainties employing a Monte Carlo approach. We did not use the two \textit{U} band and the two incomplete light curves as these gave less reliable timings (Gibson et al. 2009). We also combined the four timings measured by GROND in the optical bands into one more precise measurement. These mid-transit timings are reported in Table 2.

We then chose the reference epoch to be that related to our first transit observation and fitted all mid-transit timings with a straight line, obtaining the following orbital ephemeris:

\[
T_0 = BJD(TDB) = 2457173.87198(18) + 2.13774453(77) E,
\]

where \( E \) is the number of orbital cycles after the reference epoch, and the quantities in brackets denote the uncertainty in the final digit of the preceding number. We found that the orbital period is 0.475 s (2.5\tau) smaller than the value of 2.137750(1) reported by Hellier et al. (2015), see Table 4. The fit has \( \chi^2 = 2.49 \), indicating that the linear ephemeris is not a very good match to the observations (the above uncertainties have been increased to account for this). However it is hard to interpret this as an indication of a transit time variation as our timings comprise only eight epochs. Many more transit observations are needed to get a clear picture.

4 PHYSICAL PROPERTIES

We redetermined the physical properties of the WASP-74 planetary system following the \textit{Homogeneous Studies} approach (see Southworth 2012 and references therein). In brief, we combined together the measured parameters from the light curves \((r_A + n_b, \delta\rho)\) and the parameters from the \textit{Kepler} observatory. The details are given in Table 3.
Table 4. Physical parameters of the planetary system WASP-74 derived in this work, compared with those from Hellier et al. (2015). Where two error bars are given, the first refers to the statistical uncertainties, while the second to the systematic errors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quantity</th>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>This work</th>
<th>Hellier et al. (2015)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stellar parameters</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effective temperature</td>
<td>$T_{\text{eff}}$</td>
<td>K</td>
<td>5984 ± 57</td>
<td>5990 ± 110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metallicity</td>
<td>[Fe/H]</td>
<td>dex</td>
<td>+0.34 ± 0.02</td>
<td>+0.39 ± 0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Projected rotational velocity</td>
<td>$\sin i_a$</td>
<td>km s$^{-1}$</td>
<td>6.03 ± 0.19</td>
<td>4.1 ± 0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mass</td>
<td>$M$</td>
<td>$M_\odot$</td>
<td>1.191 ± 0.023 ± 0.003</td>
<td>1.48 ± 0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radius</td>
<td>$R$</td>
<td>$R_\odot$</td>
<td>1.536 ± 0.022 ± 0.013</td>
<td>1.64 ± 0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surface gravity</td>
<td>$g_s$</td>
<td>cgs</td>
<td>4.141 ± 0.011 ± 0.004</td>
<td>4.180 ± 0.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Density</td>
<td>$\rho$</td>
<td>$\rho_\odot$</td>
<td>0.329 ± 0.012</td>
<td>0.338 ± 0.018</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Age | $\tau$ | Gyr | 4.2$^{+0.4}_{-0.4}$ | 2.0$^{+1.6}_{-1.0}$ | \(a\)

| **Planetary parameters** | | | | |
| Mass | $M_p$ | $M_{\text{Jup}}$ | 0.826 ± 0.015 ± 0.014 | 0.95 ± 0.06 |
| Radius | $R_p$ | $R_{\text{Jup}}$ | 1.404 ± 0.018 ± 0.012 | 1.56 ± 0.06 |
| Surface gravity | $g_p$ | m s$^{-2}$ | 10.38 ± 0.26 | 8.91 ± 0.41 |
| Density | $\rho_p$ | $\rho_{\text{Jup}}$ | 0.2788 ± 0.0098 ± 0.0023 | 0.25 ± 0.02 |
| Equilibrium temperature | $T_{\text{eq}}$ | K | 1926 ± 21 | 1910 ± 40 |
| Safronov number | $\Theta$ | | 0.03396 ± 0.00060 ± 0.00029 | – |

| **Orbital parameters** | | | | |
| Time of mid-transit | $T_0$ | BJD(TDB) / HJD\(^c\) | 2.457 173.87198 ± 0.00018 | 2.456 506.8918 ± 0.0002 |
| Period | $P_{\text{orb}}$ | d | 2.1377445 ± 0.0000018 | 2.137750 ± 0.000001 |
| Semimajor axis | $a$ | au | 0.03443 ± 0.00022 ± 0.00029 | 0.037 ± 0.001 |
| Inclination | $i$ | deg | 79.86 ± 21 | 79.81 ± 24 |

\(a\)Our estimate of the stellar age was derived from theoretical models, and that from the discovery paper was obtained from gyrochronology.

\(b\)The Safronov number represents the ratio of the escape velocity to the orbital velocity of the planet and indicates the extent to which the planet scatters other bodies.

\(c\)Our measurement of the time of mid-transit is given in BJD (TDB), while that from Hellier et al. (2015) is in HJD.

5 VARIATION OF THE PLANETARY RADIUS WITH WAVELENGTH

Hot Jupiters can show transmission spectra with absorption features at particular wavelengths, like sodium at \(\approx 590\) nm, potassium at \(\approx 770\) nm, and water vapour at \(\approx 950\) nm. However, some of them can be mostly flat, suggesting a planetary atmosphere with high-altitude clouds with large-sized (\(\sim \mu\)m) particles, or, in other cases, it is possible to measure a slope due to the presence of small particles (\(<1\mu\)m) clouds, often referred to as hazes. There are also planets showing both clouds and hazes.

As WASP-74 b is an inflated planet, we estimated the expected signal of its transmission spectrum, by calculating the contrast in area between the annular region of the atmosphere observed during transit and that of the star. This can be obtained from the characteristic length-scale of the atmosphere, which is given by the...
Early Release Science (ERS) program (Bean et al. 2018). WASP-7 b, a nominal and a back-up target, respectively, for the JWST expected S/N, is comparable to that of WASP-79 b and KELT-74 b, in terms of the other transiting exoplanets (data taken from TEPCat). Therefore, the absorption signal of the annular area of one atmospheric scale height H during transit can be approximated as (Bento et al. 2014)

$$A = \frac{2 R_p H}{R_e^2}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

In Fig. 7 we plotted A against the magnitude of the host stars to compare the relative signal-to-noise of WASP-74 b with those of the other transiting exoplanets (data taken from TEPCat). The expected atmospheric transit signal for WASP-74 b, in terms of expected S/N, is comparable to that of WASP-79 b and KELT-74 b, a nominal and a back-up target, respectively, for the JWST Early Release Science (ERS) program (Bean et al. 2018). WASP-74 b is therefore an interesting giant planet for investigating the atmospheric composition via transmission-spectroscopy.

The transmission spectrum of WASP-74 b was recently studied with the HST/WFC3 at NIR wavelengths (1.1–1.7 µm) by Tsiraos et al. (2018). Joining this set of data with those coming from the previous studies (e.g. Mancini et al. 2014; Southworth et al. 2015; Tregloan-Reed et al. 2018), we made a new fit of the light curves to estimate the ratio of the radii, k, but fixing the other photometric parameters to their best values (Tables 3 and 4). The uncertainties of k were estimated by performing 20 000 Monte Carlo simulations.

$$H = \frac{k B T_{eq}}{\mu m g_p},$$  \hspace{0.5cm} (1)

where k_B is Boltzmann’s constant and \( \mu_m \) is the mean molecular weight, which for an atmosphere dominated by H_2 and He is approximately 2.3 amu (Lecavelier des Etangs et al. 2008). Therefore, the grey shaded region indicates the region of the diagram in which exoplanetary atmospheres are unobservable due to low S/N. The positions of some giant exoplanets are marked.
Figure 8. Measurements of the planetary radius compared to the theoretical models from the petitCODE. The black points show the measured $R_p/R_*$ from this work, while the green points are from Tsiaras et al. (2018). We marked the DK $I$-band value with a purple point to highlight its high precision. The vertical error bars represent the relative uncertainty and the horizontal error bars represent the FWHM of the corresponding passband. Clear models are represented separately in each plot (see Table 6): fiducial (light blue), TiO/VO (grey), metallicity 10 times more (red), metallicity 10 times less (yellow), twice solar C/O ratio (dark blue), half solar C/O ratio (orange).

Figure 9. Measurements of the planetary radius compared to the theoretical models from the petitCODE. The black points show the measured $R_p/R_*$ from this work, while the green points are from Tsiaras et al. (2018). We marked the DK $I$-band value with a purple point to highlight its high precision. The vertical error bars represent the relative uncertainty and the horizontal error bars represent the FWHM of the corresponding passband. The cloud models from Mollière et al. (2017) are represented separately in each plot (see Table 6): model 1 (light blue), model 2 (grey), model 5 (red), model 6 (yellow), model 7 (dark blue), model 8 (orange), and model 9 (cyan). We excluded from the analysis the $B$-band data set, because the monitoring of this transit event was incomplete and the two $U$-band data sets because of their low quality. Finally, we refitted the light curves from Tsiaras et al. (2018) using the geometric parameters obtained in this work. This step is necessary to avoid possible systematic offsets between our and their data. The resulting transmission spectrum shows a large absorption in the $r$ band that, even though it is not significant ($<3\sigma$), could be an indication of TiO absorption. The values of $k$, which were obtained from the new fits, are reported in Table 5 and plotted in Figs 8 and 9, in which the vertical and the horizontal bars represent the relative errors in the measurements and the full widths at half-maximum transmission of the passbands, respectively. We compared our results with several synthetic spectra, which were obtained with the petitCODE, a self-consistent 1D code for calculating atmospheric structures and spectra (Mollière et al. 2015, 2017).

Using the method described in section 4.1 of Mollière et al. (2017), we calculated various self-consistent clear and cloudy atmospheric structures and transmission spectra. We adopted the system parameters listed in Table 4 and assumed a fiducial atmosphere with solar C/O and atmospheric enrichment of [Fe/H] = 1.05 for WASP-74 b. Models of varying metallicity ($0.1 \times$ or $10 \times$ that of the fiducial case), C/O ratio (solar, twice solar, half solar), with or without TiO/VO opacities, and models of various cloud set-ups were investigated. They are summarized in Table 6, where the cloud model number corresponds to table 2 in Mollière et al. (2017).

6A gas with solar metallicity has a carbon-to-oxygen (C/O) ratio equal to 0.54 (Asplund et al. 2009).
Following Tregloan-Reed et al. (2018), for each model we calculated the respective $\chi^2$ using an MCMC routine to fit the models to radius ratio $k = R_p/R_\star$. We first calculated the passband averages for the models and compared them to the $k$ measurements in those bands. We then fitted for a single parameter, a $y$-axis (radial) offset to shift the model up or down to get a best fit. Finally, the $\chi^2$ was obtained by summing over all the $k$ measurements. The reduced chi squared, $\chi^2_\nu$, from fitting the 13 theoretical transmission spectra to $k$ measurements, are reported in Table 6.

Scenarios with the fiducial model and the corresponding models obtained varying metallicity and C/O ratio appear to be ruled out, as well as those with very cloudy atmospheres. The best model resulted to be that with absorption from Titanium and Vanadium oxides. However, the quality and the wavelength coverage of the data do not allow us to obtain a good constraint of the chemical composition of the atmosphere of WASP-74 b. So, our results are not conclusive, but represent a first probe of the atmosphere of WASP-74 b, and could be used together with new data.

## 6 SUMMARY

We reported new broad-band photometric light curves of 11 transit events in the WASP-74 exoplanetary system, which is composed of an F star and an inflated hot Jupiter. Most of the transits were observed with the Danish 1.5 m telescope through a Bessell-I filter. Another transit was observed with the GROND instrument, mounted on the MPG 2.2 m telescope, which allows observations in four optical and three NIR bands simultaneously. Finally two transits were observed in Cousins-I and Johnson-B filters with the CA 1.23 m telescope, and other two with the Danish 1.5 m telescope through a Bessell-U filter. In all the cases the defocusing technique was performed. New spectra of the star were acquired with Feros at the MPG 2.2 m telescope and analysed with ZASPE, updating the stellar atmospheric parameters. We modelled the light curves using the JKTEBOP code and reviewed the orbital ephemeris and the main physical parameters of the WASP-74 planetary system. Our estimations are more precise than those reported by Hellier et al. (2015), pointing towards smaller and less massive planet and star (see Table 4 and Fig. 6). In particular, we obtained $R_p = 1.404 \pm 0.022 R_{\text{Jup}}$ versus $1.56 \pm 0.06 R_{\text{Jup}}$; $M_p = 0.826 \pm 0.021 M_{\text{Jup}}$ versus $0.95 \pm 0.06 M_{\text{Jup}}$; $R_\star = 1.536 \pm 0.026 R_{\odot}$ versus $1.64 \pm 0.05 R_{\odot}$; $M_\star = 1.191 \pm 0.038 M_{\odot}$ versus $1.48 \pm 0.12 M_{\odot}$.

We used these new photometric multiband observations of WASP-74 b transits to obtain wavelength-dependent measurements of $k$, that is the ratio between the planetary radius and the stellar radius, in the optical window (384–972 nm) and in some NIR windows. These measurements were used in combination with HST data (Tsiaras et al. 2018) to assemble an optical-to-NIR transmission spectrum of the planet in order to probe the terminator of the atmosphere of WASP-74 b. We measured an $r$-band radius ratio higher than in the other bands, but with a non-significant level of confidence. The observed transmission spectrum was compared with theoretical expectations coming from different models for the chemistry of the planetary atmosphere using the petitCODE (see Figs 8 and 9). The comparison of $k$ from each passband to the individual theoretical atmospheres indicates that the model that gives the best match to the data is the one with TiO and VO opacity. More accurate data, especially at the optical wavelengths, are required to confirm this indication and therefore obtain a clearer picture of the atmospheric composition of WASP-74 b.

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Based on data collected by MINDSTEp with the Danish 1.54 m telescope at the ESO La Silla Observatory.

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