

The seismic technique for obtaining white dwarf fundamental parameters

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ABSTRACT

We present a new statistical technique that utilizes the synergy of precision astrometry and time series photometry from modern space missions to obtain reliable physical parameters of pulsating white dwarf stars. We compute a grid of white dwarf structural models that span the helium-atmosphere pulsating white dwarf (DBV) instability strip, showing that mean period spacings between adjacent pulsation modes and absolute magnitudes derived from *Gaia* astrometry vary monotonically and in opposing directions across parameter space. While most efforts in white dwarf asteroseismology to directly fit individual pulsation periods to stellar models result in degenerate and poorly resolved solutions, the “seismic technique” produces unique and reliable seismic solutions for global parameters of mass and effective temperature when a reliable mean period spacing is detected. Our models sample various plausible interior chemical composition profiles to propagate uncertainty from the precise structures of actual stars. Once the global stellar parameters are tightly constrained, seismically resolving white dwarf interior structures becomes more computationally tractable, and degeneracies can be resolved. This new seismic technique is largely insensitive to the precise absorption line profiles interpreted by the widely used spectroscopic technique, and therefore provides complementary constraints that can be used to test spectroscopic models. We demonstrate the method for the pulsating helium-atmosphere white dwarf WD 0158–160 observed by TESS, obtaining $T_{\text{eff}} = 24584 \pm 971$ K and $M_{\star} = 0.608 \pm 0.013 M_{\odot}$.

Keywords: Asteroseismology (73) — Astrometry (80) — Fundamental parameters of stars (555) — White dwarf stars (1799)

1. INTRODUCTION

One of the most widely relied upon techniques for determining the physical parameters of white dwarf stars is the “spectroscopic technique,” by which measured absorption line profiles are fit against a grid of simulated model atmospheres to determine effective temperatures and surface gravities. These can be compared with structural and evolutionary models to infer white dwarf masses, radii, and cooling ages. This method was first employed to determine the atmospheric properties of a handful of pulsating hydrogen-atmosphere white dwarf stars by P. Bergeron & J. T. McGraw (1990) and D. Daou et al. (1990), and later extended by P. Bergeron et al. (1992) to measure the mass distribution of hydrogen-atmosphere white dwarfs more broadly. The spectroscopic technique has since become the pre-

ferred method for obtaining precision parameters for all types of white dwarfs, with wholesale application to, e.g., Sloan Digital Sky Survey spectra ($> 30,000$ white dwarfs spectroscopically characterized; S. O. Kepler et al. 2019).

Even for the simplest case of white dwarfs with pure-hydrogen atmospheres, there are several reasons to be skeptical of the accuracy of parameters derived with the spectroscopic method. For one, different treatments of the atomic physics yield inconsistent results, prompting continual improvement of the physical models. Recent advancements include the improved treatment of Stark broadening (P. E. Tremblay & P. Bergeron 2009; T. A. Gomez et al. 2017) and 3D simulations of convection (P. E. Tremblay et al. 2013; E. Cukanovaite et al. 2018), though systematic offsets between spectroscopi-

58 cally derived parameters and values obtained by other
 59 means persist (e.g., gravitational redshift, R. E. Falcon
 60 et al. 2010; the multi-color photometric technique, C.
 61 Genest-Beaulieu & P. Bergeron 2019; P.-E. Tremblay
 62 et al. 2019). Fitting modern theoretical line profiles
 63 to absorption spectra measured at white dwarf photo-
 64 spheric conditions in laboratory experiments also yields
 65 inconsistent electron densities (M. A. Schaeuble et al.
 66 2019). In addition, the details of how the white dwarf
 67 spectra are obtained, reduced, and compared to models
 68 can significantly influence the inferred parameters. J. T.
 69 Fuchs (2017, Section 4.5) quantified ten such sources of
 70 systematics for white dwarf spectra obtained with the
 71 same instrumental setup, including how they are flat
 72 fielded, where around the absorption lines the spectra
 73 are continuum normalized, and which spectral lines are
 74 included in the fits.

75 There are numerous other methods for constraining
 76 white dwarf parameters that are often used in combina-
 77 tion with the spectroscopic method. Among these are
 78 astrometry and asteroseismology. In this work, we con-
 79 nect these two approaches directly to develop the “seis-
 80 mic technique” for deriving white dwarf parameters that
 81 is largely independent of the spectroscopic technique.
 82 This statistical seismic technique is expected to pro-
 83 duce more accurate measurements of white dwarf mass
 84 and effective temperature, due to the relative simplic-
 85 ity of interpreting the relevant observables (compared
 86 to spectral line profiles), and with reported errors prop-
 87 agated from uncertainty on the precise white dwarf in-
 88 terior structure. The results can therefore be used to
 89 calibrate model atmosphere physics and fitting methods
 90 to improve the accuracy of the spectroscopic technique,
 91 which is applicable to a much larger sample of (mostly
 92 non-pulsating) white dwarfs.

93 Distance constraints from astrometric parallaxes en-
 94 able the conversion from apparent to absolute mag-
 95 nitudes. A measured absolute magnitude constrains
 96 radius as a function of effective temperature, since a
 97 smaller, hotter star could have the same magnitude as a
 98 larger, cooler star. White dwarfs follow a mass-radius re-
 99 lationship where more massive white dwarfs are smaller,
 100 so astrometric constraints present as a trend line in the
 101 mass-effective temperature plane. One recourse to fur-
 102 ther determine the mass is to constrain temperatures
 103 with multi-band photometric colors (the photometric
 104 technique; e.g., P. Bergeron et al. 1997; M. A. Hollands
 105 et al. 2018; C. Genest-Beaulieu & P. Bergeron 2019; P.
 106 Bergeron et al. 2019). Our seismic technique instead
 107 relies on observed pulsations to break this degeneracy.

108 The properties of pulsating white dwarf stars can
 109 be analyzed using the tools of asteroseismology (D. E.

110 Winget & S. O. Kepler 2008; A. H. Córscico et al. 2019;
 111 K. J. Bell 2026). Stellar pulsations oscillate as stand-
 112 ing waves within a star at eigenfrequencies tuned by the
 113 precise stellar interior. These pulsations cause bright-
 114 ness variations at stellar resonant frequencies, which can
 115 be measured from time series photometry. Compari-
 116 son of the pulsation frequencies to values calculated for
 117 stellar models can, in principle, be used to constrain
 118 the precise radial chemical profile of a star. In prac-
 119 tice, asteroseismic analyses often admit degenerate so-
 120 lutions (due to uncertainty on which pulsation modes
 121 are observed, or from effects like core/envelope symme-
 122 try; M. H. Montgomery et al. 2003), and some pulsating
 123 white dwarfs exhibit fewer modes than the number of
 124 independent free parameters in the models. In many
 125 asteroseismic analyses of pulsating white dwarfs, the so-
 126 lution space is not sufficiently resolved to yield reliable
 127 mass and temperature determinations (A. Dublin et al.,
 128 in prep.). These issues do not affect the comparison
 129 of the mean spacing between pulsation periods of grav-
 130 ity modes with consecutive radial orders to the asymp-
 131 totic spacing calculated from models, which for helium-
 132 atmosphere white dwarfs is most sensitive to effective
 133 temperature and stellar mass (M. Tassoul et al. 1990).
 134 For a white dwarf, the mean period spacing typically
 135 increases as the star cools. More massive white dwarfs
 136 exhibit pulsation spectra with smaller period spacings.

137 The astrometric and mean period spacing trends cross
 138 diagonally in the mass versus effective temperature
 139 plane. Combined, they enable us to establish global pa-
 140 rameters of pulsating white dwarfs that are largely in-
 141 dependent of the spectroscopic technique. This seismic
 142 technique provides another angle for characterizing the
 143 global parameters of individual pulsating white dwarfs
 144 that exhibit a clear sequence of radial overtones. We
 145 establish this methodology in this work, demonstrat-
 146 ing how we constrain the mass and effective temper-
 147 ature of the pulsating helium-atmosphere white dwarf
 148 star WD 0158–160 that has had its pulsation frequen-
 149 cies precisely measured (K. J. Bell et al. 2019) from data
 150 from the Transiting Exoplanet Survey Satellite (*TESS*;
 151 G. R. Ricker et al. 2014). The methodology attempts
 152 to achieve realistic uncertainties by propagating errors
 153 from multiple potential sources, including uncertainty
 154 on the precise interior structure of the star. Employ-
 155 ing this technique on a larger sample of pulsating white
 156 dwarfs will help to calibrate the spectroscopic method,
 157 as well as enable more accurate asteroseismic constraints
 158 of white dwarf internal structures.

2. THE DATA

The seismic technique for the statistical determination of masses and effective temperatures for pulsating white dwarfs relies on the interpretation of two key observables: measured mean period spacings within a radial overtone series of gravity-mode pulsations ($\Delta\Pi_1^a$) and absolute magnitudes established with astrometry (M_G). This paper demonstrates the methodology for analyzing the bright helium-atmosphere pulsating white dwarf (DBV) star WD 0158–160 (D. Kilkeny 2016), for which suitable measurements are available. This $V = 14.5$ mag star is also known as G 272-B2A and EC 01585-1600 and is located at Right Ascension 30.23689 deg, Declination -15.76923 deg.

WD 0158–160 was the subject of a TESS first-light paper from Working Group 8 (compact pulsators) of the TESS Asteroseismic Research Consortium⁴ (K. J. Bell et al. 2019). It is assigned the identifier TIC 257459955 in the TESS Input Catalog (K. G. Stassun et al. 2019). This target was featured for its particularly rich set of nine independent pulsation modes detected in the 2-minute cadence TESS light curve from Sector 3. Many of these pulsation signals appear to align with a regular spacing in period. This is the signature of a radial overtone sequence (labeled⁵ as radial order k) for gravity modes of the same spherical degree (ℓ) in the asymptotic limit ($k \gg \ell$, for an overview of white dwarf pulsation characteristics see K. J. Bell 2026). Multiple statistical tests point to the modes with periods longer than 485 s ($k \gtrsim 10$) belonging to a sequence with a mean period spacing of 38.1 s (K. J. Bell et al. 2019). This is consistent with the expected spacings of $\ell = 1$ modes, and these are also the modes that are expected to be most visible in disc-integrated light due to having low geometric cancellation (W. Dziembowski 1977). Modes of given ℓ and k can be split into a maximum of $2\ell + 1$ frequency multiplets by rotation (each with different azimuthal order, m); however, in the TESS data on WD 0158–160 we only observe one arbitrary m component for all but one of these signals. Because the mean period spacing is most robustly determined from the central ($m = 0$) components of the multiplets, the specific components observed could affect the slope of the best-fit line to the periods versus relative overtone number. To propagate the error from the unknown m identifications of the detected modes in WD 0158–160, K. J. Bell et al. (2019) randomly sample from potential m values for each mode

to determine a measured mean period spacing with uncertainty 38.1 ± 1.0 s.

In addition to the seismic mean period spacing, our method requires an absolute magnitude determined from astrometry. Pulsating white dwarfs that are bright enough for precision high-speed photometry from *Kepler*, *TESS*, or the ground, are nearby enough to have precisely measured *Gaia* parallaxes. The parallax value measured for WD 0158–160 (*Gaia* DR3 source_id 5147930591051748480), for instance, is $\varpi = 14.5715 \pm 0.0373$ mas. The re-normalised unit weight error (RUWE) value for this target is 1.049, implying that the single-star model is a good fit to the astrometry (K. El-Badry 2024). We subtract a zero-point correction of -0.02933 mas based on L. Lindegren et al. (2021, as calculated by N. P. Gentile Fusillo et al. 2021). For a nearby star with small fractional error on parallax, the simple distance estimate based on the Taylor expansion of $d = 1000/\varpi \pm 1000 \times \sigma_\varpi/\varpi^2$ pc is valid. This yields $d = 68.49 \pm 0.18$ pc for WD 0158–160, in close agreement with the estimate from C. A. L. Bailer-Jones et al. (2021) report $68.52_{-0.20}^{+0.19}$ pc that uses a smooth distance prior based on a model of the Galaxy.

Gaia DR3 cataloged a very precise mean G -band magnitude for WD 0158–160 of 14.6567 ± 0.0011 mag. The distance modulus is applied to obtain the extincted absolute G -band magnitude: $G - 5 \log_{10} d + 5 = 10.479 \pm 0.006$ mag, with errors propagated from both distance and apparent magnitude. To obtain an absolute magnitude that is comparable with stellar models, we must apply an extinction correction; the effect of extinction to cause a star to appear fainter is degenerate with the star being cooler or smaller. N. P. Gentile Fusillo et al. (2021) use the 3D extinction maps of J. L. Vergely et al. (2022) to calculate an extinction correction for WD 0158–160 of $A_V = 0.010$ with negligible reported uncertainty. In the following analysis, we use the value $M_G = 10.469 \pm 0.006$ mag for the absolute G -band magnitude of WD 0158–160.

3. THE MODELS

The seismic technique compares the observables of mean period spacing ($\Delta\Pi_1^a$) and absolute G -band magnitude (M_G) to values calculated for a grid of stellar models. These observables are the focus of the seismic technique because they vary monotonically across the parameter space of mass (M_\star) and effective temperature (T_{eff}), so that values can be reliably interpolated between points on the model grid. We use the White Dwarf Evolution Code (WDEC; A. Bischoff-Kim & M. H. Montgomery 2018) to generate structural models that span the parameter space of the DBV instability

⁴ <https://tasoc.dk/>

⁵ Often labeled as n , especially for other types of pulsating star.

strip relevant to the analysis of WD 0158–160. We sample M_\star in the range 0.45–0.90 M_\odot in steps of 0.05 M_\odot , and T_{eff} from 20,000–30,000 K in steps of 500 K.

To propagate uncertainty from the unknown interior structure of WD 0158–160 to our final results, we consider models with a range of interior structures. WDEC generates structural models with user-specified parameterized core and envelope compositions (A. Bischoff-Kim & M. H. Montgomery 2018). While the global parameters of M_\star and T_{eff} are the primary influences on $\Delta\Pi_1^a$ and M_G , the interior composition does have some effect on the observables. At each grid point of M_\star and T_{eff} , we compute a set of models with interior structures that span a range of configurations that are physically plausible based on the results of fully evolutionary stellar model calculations. The details of interior structures modeled in this work are provided in Appendix A. By sampling parameters at the extremes of what is likely to be relevant to an actual DBV pulsator, we obtain histograms of observables $\Delta\Pi_1^a$ and M_G from which we can measure medians and standard deviations. These characterize the distributions of observables that are compatible with models of different masses and effective temperatures for our comparison statistics.

The mean period spacings are calculated for each model as the slope of the best-fit line to the $\ell = 1$ modes versus radial order. The periods are expected to be distributed about an even spacing in period on average in the asymptotic limit where $k \gg \ell$ (M. Tassoul et al. 1990). Based on visual inspection of plots of period versus k , we determined that modes with $k \geq 10$ are safely in the asymptotic limit, and we fit the line to only those modes. In addition, the code that calculates the asymptotic period spacings performs a test of linearity, outputs residuals, and flags highly non-linear curves. The period lists used to compute the period spacings include modes from $k = 1$ up to modes with periods of 1500 s. That upper limit is set based on observed period spectra of g-mode average mass pulsating white dwarfs, where observed periods rarely exceed that upper limit.

To compute absolute G band magnitudes for the WDEC models, we reference synthetic magnitudes computed for the Gaia DR3 G bandpass from white dwarf atmosphere models available online.⁶ The magnitudes are computed following the methodology of J. B. Holberg & P. Bergeron (2006) for the DB model atmospheres of P. Bergeron et al. (2011), with masses determined based on the evolutionary sequences of A. Bédard et al. (2020). The structures of the models used to

compute the synthetic magnitudes will generally differ from the variety of model structures we computed with WDEC, resulting in slight differences in model radii. The absolute magnitude is sensitive to stellar radius, R_\star , as the stellar luminosity scales as $L_\star \propto R_\star^2 T_{\text{eff}}^4$. It is the subtle effect of interior structure on radius (at the 0.3% level) that produces a distribution of model absolute magnitudes at each point of M_\star and T_{eff} in our grid. We interpolate the synthetic photometry models for values of G -band absolute magnitude, $M_{G,\text{Bergeron}}$, and corresponding reference radius, R_{Bergeron} , at the effective temperature and surface gravity of every model in our grid. The model magnitude $M_{G,\text{Bergeron}}$ represents the emergent spectrum expected from these models, but we must scale the absolute magnitude to account for the radius of each WDEC model, R_{WDEC} , as

$$M_G = M_{G,\text{Bergeron}} - 2.5 \log \left(\frac{R_{\text{WDEC}}}{R_{\text{Bergeron}}} \right)^2. \quad (1)$$

Not all of our WDEC models converged or produced models with the expected profiles. For the most successful combinations of M_\star and T_{eff} , there are at most 315 models with different interior structures that converged. In the worst cases, there are as few as 278 converged models. The median number of models per M_\star, T_{eff} point is 309. There are systematics in where models converge, as we have fewer successful models for less massive white dwarfs. In particular, the less massive models that fail are those with deeper, pure-helium envelopes. To assess the impact of these failed models on our distributions of observables, we compare the medians and standard deviations of the most successful grid points at high mass to the results if we drop the combinations of interior structures that fail at lower mass. Omitting these models from the distributions has a practically negligible effect on standard deviation ($< 10\%$), but small systematic effects on the medians: the median mean period spacing increases by less than 0.1 s on average, and the absolute magnitudes decrease by $\lesssim 0.0004$ mag. These are universally smaller than the associated errors from the standard deviation of model observables and should have minimal impact on our final results. In addition, fewer than 3% of the models that converged showed anomalous mean period spacing values that resulted from nonphysical chemical profiles; these models are excluded from our analysis by clipping all period spacing values more than 4σ from the median when measuring the standard deviations.

We interpolate medians and standard deviations onto a finer grid to resolve solutions. Essentially, we only need the models to sample mass and temperature finely enough to resolve important features in the dependence

⁶ <https://www.astro.umontreal.ca/~bergeron/CoolingModels/>

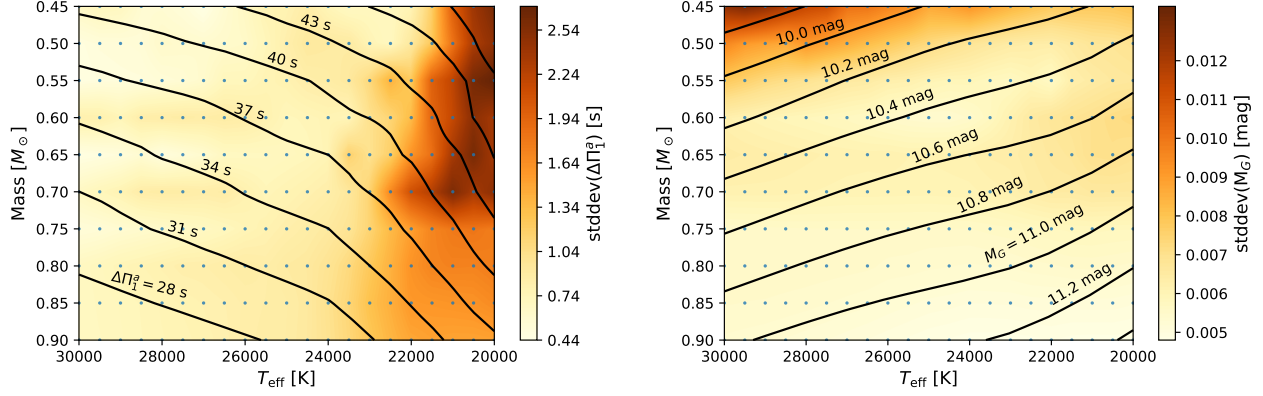


Figure 1. Contours indicating how the distributions of mean period spacings of $\ell = 1$ modes (left) and absolute G -band magnitudes (right) vary across the mass–effective temperature space of our DBV model grid. The grid of dots indicates the combinations of mass and T_{eff} where we computed a set of stellar models with a range of plausible interior structures. The solid contour lines trace the interpolated medians of these distributions for the observables, and the color contour background represent the standard deviations of these distributions (values given in the color bars). The opposing directions of the contours of constant period spacing and absolute magnitude are synergistic for constraining global stellar parameters of mass and T_{eff} .

of the observables. The monotonic trends of these observables across M_{\star} and T_{eff} make them straightforward to interpolate onto an arbitrarily fine grid. We interpolate with step sizes that cause changes in observables that are smaller than our measurement uncertainties. Contour plots indicating the response of $\Delta\Pi_1^a$ and M_G distributions to changes in M_{\star} and T_{eff} are shown in Figure 1. The solid contour lines represent the medians of the distributions, and the color contours in the background represent the standard deviations. The fact that the contours of constant $\Delta\Pi_1^a$ and M_G vary across the parameter space of M_{\star} and T_{eff} in opposite directions demonstrates their synergy for uniquely constraining these properties of pulsating white dwarf stars.

4. ANALYSIS

We compare the distributions of median $\Delta\Pi_1^a$ and M_G and their associated standard deviations across our model grid to the measurements for WD 0158–160 ($\Delta\Pi_1^a = 38.1 \pm 1.0$ s, $M_G = 10.469 \pm 0.006$ mag) to constrain its mass and effective temperature. At each $(M_{\star}, T_{\text{eff}})$ point in the interpolated model grid, we assess the relative likelihood of the measurements being compatible with the model distributions as

$$L_{ij} \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{\sigma_{\Delta\Pi,ij}^2 + \sigma_{\Delta\Pi,obs}^2}} \exp\left[-\frac{(\Delta\Pi_{obs} - \overline{\Delta\Pi_{ij}})^2}{2(\sigma_{\Delta\Pi,ij}^2 + \sigma_{\Delta\Pi,obs}^2)}\right] \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{\sigma_{M_G,ij}^2 + \sigma_{M_G,obs}^2}} \exp\left[-\frac{(M_{G,obs} - \overline{M_{Gij}})^2}{2(\sigma_{M_G,ij}^2 + \sigma_{M_G,obs}^2)}\right], \quad (2)$$

where i and j represent one point in the $(M_{\star}, T_{\text{eff}})$ grid, $\overline{\Delta\Pi_{ij}}$ and $\overline{M_{Gij}}$ are median values of the distributions

at each grid point with associated standard deviations $\sigma_{\Delta\Pi,ij}$ and $\sigma_{M_G,ij}$, and $\Delta\Pi_{obs}$ and $M_{G,obs}$ are the measurements for WD 0158–160 with associated uncertainties $\sigma_{\Delta\Pi,obs}$ and $\sigma_{M_G,obs}$. We assume Gaussian statistics in this formulation. We treat the likelihood distribution as a probability distribution for the parameters M_{\star} and T_{eff} by normalizing it as

$$P(M_i, T_{\text{eff},j}) = \frac{L_{ij}}{\sum L_{ij}}, \quad (3)$$

where $\sum L_{ij}$ is the sum of relative likelihoods across the grid. This amounts to an assumption that this pulsating white dwarf star has M_{\star} and T_{eff} contained by the grid of models. Our model grid spans most of the DBV instability strip and encompasses the majority of the white dwarf mass distribution (S. O. Kepler et al. 2019). The monotonous behavior of our observables across parameter space permits a single solution, and we confirm by inspection that the solution for WD 0158–160 is fully encompassed by our grid.

Figure 2 displays contour plots depicting the probability distributions for WD 0158–160 constrained through our model grid when considering only $\Delta\Pi_1^a$ (top panel), when considering only the M_G constraint (middle panel), and their combined constraint (bottom panel). The first two panels consider the two terms in Eq. 2 separately, and the constraints trace the contours of constant $\Delta\Pi_1^a$ and M_G that were seen in Figure 1. The constraint from mean period spacing appears to have lower amplitude at low temperatures because of the increased sensitivity on interior structure in the models producing broader distributions in this region of the grid (Figure 1). The third panel of Figure 2 is the full normalized

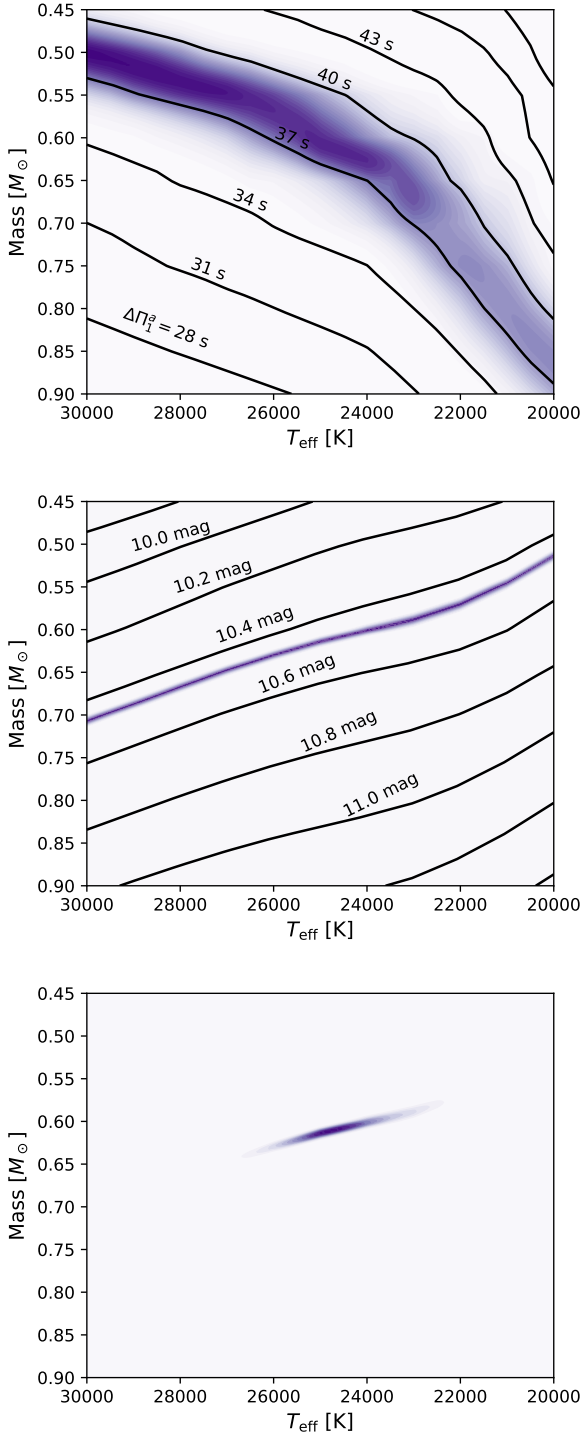


Figure 2. Purple contours show the relative likelihood distribution across mass- T_{eff} space for the DBV pulsator WD 0158–160 constrained by the measured mean period spacing (top; $\Delta\Pi_1^a = 38.1 \pm 1.0$ s), absolute G -band magnitude (middle; $M_G = 10.469 \pm 0.006$ mag), and both measurements combined (bottom). The solid contour lines trace the medians of distributions for these observables interpolated across our model grid from Figure 1.

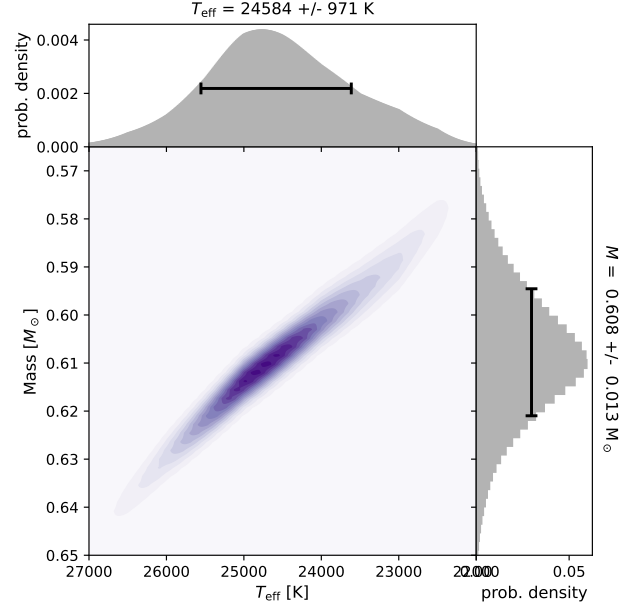


Figure 3. The probability distribution for mass and effective temperature of WD 0158–160 constrained by the seismic technique. The top and right panels display our constraints on each parameter after marginalizing over the other. Error bars mark the 1σ range surrounding the median of each marginalized distribution. The unique solution for this DBV star is fully resolved and contained by our grid, and the covariance between parameters is apparent in the angle of the two-dimensional distribution.

414 result of Eq. 3, revealing a single resolved solution for
 415 the mass and effective temperature of WD 0158–160.
 416 Figure 3 shows a zoomed-in view of this solution, along
 417 with the marginalized distributions. The constraints
 418 are strongly correlated, with correlation coefficient 0.972
 419 estimated from the covariance matrix. We character-
 420 ize our combined mass and effective temperature con-
 421 straints as the median of the marginalized distributions
 422 with uncertainties taken as half the 68% interpercentile
 423 range. Our final constraints are $T_{\text{eff}} = 24584 \pm 971$ K
 424 and $M_{\star} = 0.608 \pm 0.013 M_{\odot}$.

425 5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

426 We have demonstrated a consistent statistical treat-
 427 ment for interpreting seismic mean period spacings
 428 alongside astrometric data for the pulsating helium-
 429 atmosphere white dwarf WD 0158–160. By analogy to
 430 the spectroscopic technique (P. Bergeron et al. 1992)
 431 that has been used to estimate white dwarf effective
 432 temperatures and masses (via surface gravity inter-
 433 preted through models), we refer to our complemen-
 434 tary approach for rich pulsators as the seismic technique.
 435 We argue that the observables of mean period spacing
 436 and absolute magnitude are more reliably interpretable

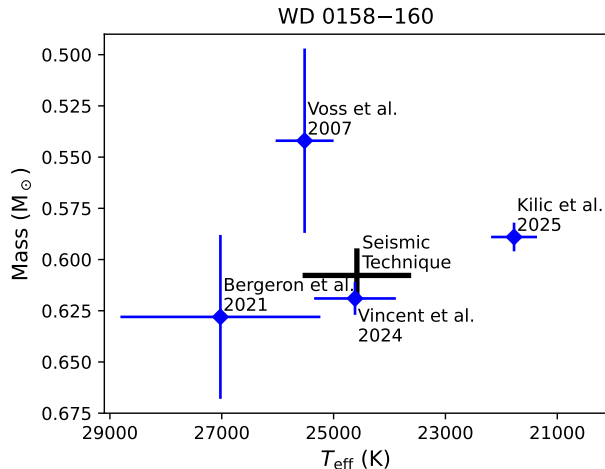


Figure 4. Comparison of mass and effective temperature determinations for WD 0158–160 from ours and other works. See text for discussion.

through our models than the precise absorption line profiles that are fitted by the spectroscopic technique, which can be quite sensitive to modeling and observational systematics. However, while the spectroscopic technique can be applied to many white dwarf spectra, the seismic technique is limited to a handful of resolved white dwarfs that not only pulsate, but exhibit a clear sequence of radial overtones. For these stars, parameters obtained with the seismic technique provide valuable benchmarks for testing the performance of spectroscopic and other methods for characterizing white dwarfs.

We compare our results to four other sets of mass and temperature measurements for WD 0158–160 that are included on the Montreal White Dwarf Database (P. Dufour et al. 2017). B. Voss et al. (2007) fit DB atmosphere models to spectra obtained by the Supernova Ia Progenitor Survey (SPY; R. Napiwotzki et al. 2003), obtaining best-fit values of $M_{\star} = 0.542 M_{\odot}$ and $T_{\text{eff}} = 25518 \text{ K}$. They find mean differences between pairs of best-fit parameters for targets that were observed multiple times by the survey (after rejecting outliers) of $\Delta T_{\text{eff}}/T_{\text{eff}} = 2.03\%$ and $\Delta \log g = 0.058 \text{ dex}$ (B. Voss et al. 2007), which we plot as the typical 1σ errors. Assuming a simple analytical mass-radius relationship for typical white dwarfs of $M_{\star} \propto R_{\star}^{-3}$, this $\log g$ error corresponds to a mass error or $\Delta M_{\star}/M_{\star} = 8.3\%$. P. Bergeron et al. (2021) apply the spectroscopic technique to spectra from the Montreal-Cambridge-Tololo colorimetric survey (S. Demers et al. 1986), obtaining $T_{\text{eff}} = 27,020 \pm 1788 \text{ K}$ and $M_{\star} = 0.63 \pm 0.04 M_{\odot}$. M. Kilic et al. (2025) apply the photometric technique (P. Bergeron et al. 2019), fitting models to the spectral energy distribution of archival survey photome-

try with astrometric constraints from *Gaia*, obtaining $T_{\text{eff}} = 21773 \pm 410 \text{ K}$ and $M_{\star} = 0.589 \pm 0.007 M_{\odot}$. O. Vincent et al. (2024) integrate low-resolution *Gaia* XP spectra over photometric filter curves and apply the photometric technique to obtain $T_{\text{eff}} = 24617 \pm 731 \text{ K}$ and $M_{\star} = 0.619 \pm 0.008 M_{\odot}$. Figure 4 compares the results of our work to these other estimates of mass and effective temperature for WD 0158–160. Our results are in excellent agreement with the photometric constraints of O. Vincent et al., and within 3σ of M. Kilic et al.. Application of the seismic technique to a larger sample of stars will allow for the characterization of any systematics between methods (as in L. M. Calcaferro et al. 2024).

The photometric technique results of O. Vincent et al. (2024) and M. Kilic et al. (2025) are not independent of our findings, as they also interpret the *Gaia* parallax and photometry. Those three results are aligned near a contour of constant absolute magnitude that is strongly constrained by parallax. These works utilize the wavelength dependence of different spectroscopic or photometric data sets to essentially position the star along the astrometry-constrained track through M_{\star} – T_{eff} space, while our technique uses asteroseismology.

A crucial idea behind the seismic technique is the propagation of uncertainties from the unknown interior structure of the white dwarf. We generate distributions of observable $\Delta \Pi_1^a$ and M_G values that could arise from plausible interior structures. Parameterized structural models from codes like WDEC are capable of producing physically unlikely configurations; we restrict our exploration of interior structures that span a range of profiles produced by full evolutionary calculations (especially those that explore different plausible implementations of physics, e.g., F. C. De Gerónimo et al. 2019). Our scheme for sampling interior structures relevant to DBV stars for this work is detailed in Appendix A.

Relating a readily measurable seismic metric like mean period spacing to global stellar parameters is one of the most robust and widely applied approaches in asteroseismology. The period-luminosity relationship for Cepheid variables established their utility as standard candles (H. S. Leavitt 1908; J. D. Fernie 1969), for example. Ratios of the dominant periods in high-amplitude pulsators place them on Petersen diagrams (J. O. Petersen 1973), and can be used to further constrain metallicity of Cepheids (B. Lemasle et al. 2018) and high-amplitude δ Scuti variables (J. O. Petersen & J. Christensen-Dalsgaard 1996). For solar-like oscillations stochastically driven by turbulence in an outer convection zone, scaling relations allow masses and radii to be estimated directly from measurements of the frequency of max-

522 inum oscillation power and the large frequency separation
 523 between adjacent pressure-mode overtones (S.
 524 Hekker 2020). The seismic technique presents a similar
 525 opportunity to pin down global stellar parameters for
 526 white dwarf stars from the mean period spacing, which
 527 is the gravity-mode analog to the large frequency separation.
 528

529 Having demonstrated the methodology of the seismic
 530 technique, we plan to apply it to roughly a dozen
 531 richly pulsating white dwarfs exhibiting clear mean period
 532 spacings (e.g., A. Bischoff-Kim & K. J. Bell 2024) in
 533 future work. We will extend our modeling effort to cover
 534 the ZZ Ceti instability strip containing the hydrogen-atmosphere
 535 pulsating white dwarfs (DAVs). For DAVs, the hydrogen layer
 536 mass has a significant impact on the radius (A. D. Romero et al.
 537 2019) and period spectrum (A. Bischoff-Kim 2023) and will
 538 need to be sampled.

539 A further goal of white dwarf asteroseismology is to
 540 study white dwarf interior structures by fitting individual
 541 measured frequencies to stellar models (e.g., N. Giammichele
 542 et al. 2022). Doing so with parameterized models like those
 543 from WDEC is computationally expensive, as it requires
 544 resolving solutions in a high-dimensional parameter space.
 545 Using the seismic technique to considerably narrow the region
 546 of $M_{\star}-T_{\text{eff}}$ space

547 consistent with astrometry and a measured mean period
 548 spacing can greatly increase efficiency by informing what
 549 models to compute. The seismic technique may help
 550 realize the promise of white dwarf asteroseismology to
 551 reliably map white dwarf interior structures.

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569 APPENDIX

570 A. INTERIOR STRUCTURE PARAMETERS FOR THE MODEL GRID

571 We construct a grid of WDEC (A. Bischoff-Kim & M. H. Montgomery 2018,
 572 version 20) models spanning the DBV instability strip with a variety
 573 of interior structures. The goal is to sample the distributions of
 574 mean period spacings and absolute G -band magnitudes that we could
 575 reasonably expect to exist in nature, informed by the results of
 576 stellar evolutionary models. We only need enough models to robustly
 577 estimate the medians and standard deviations of these distributions
 578 for use in our likelihood statistics (Eq. 2).

579 WDEC generates structural models with interior profiles parameterized
 580 to specify the core oxygen composition profile and the helium profile
 581 (details in A. Bischoff-Kim & M. H. Montgomery 2018 and A. Bischoff-Kim
 582 2018). There is also one parameter tied to any hydrogen in the model,
 583 the mass of the hydrogen layer; for DBVs, that last parameter is
 584 set to a numerical zero. Instead of considering single interior
 585 structures that one might expect from evolutionary calculations, we
 586 sample parameters sparsely through physically plausible ranges of
 587 combinations to convolve their effects together into distributions of
 588 observables. We characterize those distributions with measured
 589 medians and standard deviations. Varying some of these parameters
 590 has a noticeable affect on the mean period spacing of $\ell = 1$ modes
 591 or on the absolute magnitude (by affecting the radius), while others
 592 are practically negligible. Constructing a distribution of observables
 593 from models with a range of interior structures allows us to essentially
 594 marginalize over these effects for reasonable error propagation.

595 To determine which parameters have a significant effect on the
 596 observables, we sampled each through a range that appears achievable
 597 for DBVs through fully evolutionary calculations (L. G. Althaus et al.
 598 2010; F. C. De Gerónimo et al. 2019, e.g.). For each varied
 599 parameter, we perform Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) tests on the
 600 distributions of model mean period spacing and radii that result from
 601 different values of the parameter to determine which are most
 602 important. We choose to sample in our model grid all parameters
 603 that cause a K-S statistic anywhere across our grid to exceed 0.3
 604 in our initial tests of parameter sensitivity. At a given mass and
 605 effective temperature, the most impactful parameters are the mixing-
 606 length theory (MLT) α and pure helium layer depth (M_{He} ; more
 607 helium results

h1	h2	h3
0.650	0.325	0.228
0.650	0.325	0.276
0.650	0.585	0.410
0.650	0.585	0.49725
0.900	0.450	0.315
0.900	0.450	0.3825
0.900	0.810	0.567
0.900	0.810	0.6885

Table 1. Combinations of parameters for the fractional oxygen abundance at different regions of the core profile as parameterized in WDEC version 20 (A. Bischoff-Kim 2018). Models with each parameter combination are computed for each M_\star, T_{eff} point in our grid.

in a larger atmosphere). α affects the depth of the convection zone, and that is the outer turning point for the longer period modes. Other parameters that set the shape of the helium envelope also have a notable impact: M_{env} (the location of the base the helium envelope, where the helium abundance first begins to become non-zero when moving outward from the core), as does α_1 (a diffusion parameter, though α_2 is negligible) and X_{He} (the helium abundance in the mixed C/He region). For the core oxygen profile, the abundances in different regions are important in the context of this work (h_1, h_2, h_3) but not the locations of their transitions (w_1, w_2, w_3, w_4).

For mixing length parameter α (ML2; K. H. Bohm & J. Cassinelli 1971), we consider the range of values advanced by various studies as being relevant to modeling the convection zones of DBVs. A. Bischoff-Kim (2015) explored the effect of the mixing length parameter on the fitting of DBVs, finding that α affects the modes particularly for cool pulsators that tend to exhibit longer-period modes that are bounded by the base of the convection zone. J. L. Provencal et al. (2015) report results for MLT α between 0.67–1.24 derived from fitting DBV light curves with models of nonlinear interactions between pulsations and the convection zone (see Table 2 of A. Bischoff-Kim & M. H. Montgomery 2018). E. Cukanovaite et al. (2019) calibrate values of mixing length α that match results of 3D hydrodynamic simulations of convection in DB white dwarfs (E. Cukanovaite et al. 2018). Values of α in the range 0.4-1.2 appear relevant to the DBV instability strip with effective temperatures in the range $\approx 20,000 - 30,000$ K. We sample WDEC models with values of $\alpha = [0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 1.0, 1.2]$ at each grid point to not overconstrain our results by assuming a specific convective efficiency.

In WDEC, the envelope profile is parameterized in terms of the mass coordinate $q(M_r) = \log_{10}(1 - M_r/M_\star)$, where M_r is the mass contained within radius r . This mass coordinate is chosen because helium and hydrogen layers on white dwarfs are very thin (constituting the outer $\sim 1\%$ of the model by mass) and q conveys structure in the envelope better. In what follows, q shall denote transitions occurring in the helium envelope. The first one is the base of the envelope itself, q_{env} . The second is q_{He} , the mass coordinate where the helium abundance rises to 1 (thickness of the pure helium layer). Between these points is a plateau with fractional helium abundance X_{He} .

M. E. Camisassa et al. (2017) calculated evolutionary model sequences for DB white dwarfs, reporting total helium layer masses in their Table 1. These total layer masses are comparable with q_{env} . The numbers however, while similar, do not translate exactly, and so in order to reproduce the M. E. Camisassa et al. models, we ran WDEC models with varying values of q_{env} until we obtained a match in helium layer profiles. In M. E. Camisassa et al. (2017), less massive DBs with $M_\star \approx 0.5 M_\odot$ have $q_{\text{env}} \approx -1.4$, while more massive DBs with $M_\star \approx 0.9 M_\odot$ have $q_{\text{env}} \approx -3$. The seismic solution of N. Giammichele et al. (2018) for a parameterized structure model of a $0.570 M_\odot$ DBV had $q_{\text{env}} \approx -4$; F. C. De Gerónimo et al. (2019) explored the physical plausibility of this result by modifying the physics of evolutionary models, obtaining such small values only for massive DBs of $\approx 1 M_\odot$.

F. C. De Gerónimo et al. (2019) explore what they claim to be a realistic range of diffusion efficiencies, which affects the depth of the pure-He layer mass and the helium abundance in the homogeneous carbon/helium region of the model. For very inefficient diffusion, there would be no pure-He layer, and this would not present spectroscopically as a DB. For somewhat inefficient diffusion, the pure-He layer would be very thin, perhaps $q_{\text{He}} = -7$, and for efficient diffusion the He envelope is essentially pure, with $q_{\text{env}} = q_{\text{He}}$. Based on that work, we consider values of $q_{\text{env}} = [-1.4, -3.0]$. For $q_{\text{env}} = -1.4$, we use both $q_{\text{He}} = -7.0$ and -1.4 . For $q_{\text{env}} = -3.0$, we use both $q_{\text{He}} = -7.0$ and -3.0 . All of their DBV profiles have values of $X_{\text{He}} \approx 0.4$ in the C/He transition region, and we fix this parameter to 0.4 in our models. We

sample the WDEC diffusion parameter that determines the sharpness of the chemical profile at the base of the helium envelope (α_1), using two values of 4 and 16, spanning most of the range found by A. Bischoff-Kim (2023) to match evolutionary profiles from L. G. Althaus et al. (2010).

For h1 (the central oxygen abundance), N. Giammichele et al. (2022) evolve models with resolved “breathing pulses” that can yield values of h1 as large as 0.92. F. C. De Gerónimo et al. (2019) explore how different values of the overshooting parameter used to evolve DB WD cores can result in different central oxygen abundances, finding values for h1 in the approximate range 0.65 to 0.72. To represent our uncertainty on how h1 could affect the observables, sampling two values for h1 at 0.65 and 0.90 seems reasonable.

For h2 and h3, we can sample the ends of the “Reasonable Ranges” described in A. Bischoff-Kim (2023) that produce core profiles consistent with the evolutionary models of L. G. Althaus et al. (2010): h2 at 0.5 and 0.9 and h3 at 0.7 and 0.85. These were quoted for a version of WDEC that defined h2 and h3 and a fraction of h1 and h2, respectively. We convert to the absolute height parameters that WDEC v20 uses, resulting in eight combinations of h1, h2, and h3 given in Table 1 that we generate for each combination of other varied WDEC parameters.

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