

ABSTRACT

We propose a new gravity inversion method for jointly estimating the basement and Moho reliefs along a profile crossing a passive rifted margin. We approximate the subsurface by an interpretation model composed of adjacent columns, each one formed by vertically stacked prisms having constant and known density contrasts. Our method consists in solving a nonlinear inverse problem to estimate the thickness of specific prisms defining the basement and Moho geometries, as well as a constant thickness defining the maximum depth of our interpretation model. This maximum depth represents a planar reference Moho. To obtain stable solutions, we impose smoothness on the basement and Moho relief, force them to be close to known depths along the profile and also impose isostatic equilibrium according to the Airy-Heiskanen model. Our method imposes isostatic equilibrium by constraining the lithostatic stress exerted by the interpretation model at a given constant depth, below which there are no lateral density variations. This isostatic constraint introduces the information that the lithostatic stress is mostly smooth, except at some isolated regions, where it can present abrupt variations. At these regions, our method enables the interpretation model to deviate from the isostatic equilibrium. Tests with synthetic data show the good performance of our method in determining the basement and Moho geometries at regions with pronounced crustal thinning, which is typical of passive volcanic margins. Results obtained by our method at the Pelotas basin, considered a classical example of passive volcanic margin at the southern of Brazil, agree with a previous interpretation obtained independently by using ultra-deep seismic data. The applications to synthetic and real data show that our method is a promising tool for interpreting gravity data on passive rifted margins.

INTRODUCTION

Several methods have been proposed for using gravity data to estimate the boundaries of juxtaposed sedimentary layers, the relief of basement and the Mohorovicic discontinuity (or simply Moho). These geophysical discontinuities represent, in such methods, surfaces having density contrasts in subsurface. All these methods suffer from the inherent ambiguity (Skeels, 1947; Roy, 1962) in determining the true physical property distribution that produces a discrete set of observed gravity data. It is well known that, by using different density contrasts, it is possible to find different surfaces producing the same gravity data. To partially overcome this problem and obtain meaningful solutions, the interpreter must commonly use a priori information obtained from seismic data and/or boreholes in order to constrain the range of possible models. Here, we consider methods that approximate the subsurface by a set of layers that have constant or depth-dependent density contrast and are separated by surfaces representing the geophysical discontinuities. In such methods, the geometry of the discontinuities are directly determined by estimating the geometrical parameters defining the surfaces.

Different criteria can be used to classify the methods that directly estimate the geometry of geophysical discontinuities. Those applied over a sedimentary basin, for example, can be considered local scale methods, whereas those applied over a continent or country can be considered regional scale methods and those applied over the whole globe can be considered global scale methods. They can also be classified according to the number of geophysical surfaces to be estimated. By using these criteria, it is possible to define a first group of methods estimating the geometry of a single surface. In this group, there are local scale methods in the space domain (e.g., Bott, 1960; Tanner, 1967; Cordell and Henderson,

1968; Dyrelus and Vogel, 1972; Pedersen, 1977; Richardson and MacInnes, 1989; Barbosa et al., 1997; Condi et al., 1999; Barbosa et al., 1999b,a; Silva et al., 2006; Chakravarthi and Sundararajan, 2007; Martins et al., 2010; Silva et al., 2010; Lima et al., 2011; Martins et al., 2011; Barnes and Barraud, 2012; Silva et al., 2014; Silva and Santos, 2017), and the Fourier domain (e.g., Oldenburg, 1974; Granser, 1987; Reamer and Ferguson, 1989; Guspí, 1993). Most of these methods were applied to estimate the relief of basement under a sedimentary basin. There are also regional scale methods for estimating a single surface representing the Moho in the space domain (e.g., Shin et al., 2009; Bagherbandi and Eshagh, 2012; Barzaghi and Biagi, 2014; Sampietro, 2015; Uieda and Barbosa, 2017) and in the Fourier domain (e.g., Braitenberg et al., 1997; Braitenberg and Zadro, 1999; van der Meijde et al., 2013). Additionally, there are some global scale methods for estimating the Moho in the space domain (e.g., Sünkel, 1985; Sjöberg, 2009).

The second group of methods is formed by those estimating multiple surfaces separating layers with constant or depth-dependent density distribution (e.g., Condi et al., 1999; Camacho et al., 2011; Salem et al., 2014; Ferderer et al., 2017; García-Abdeslem, 2017; Salem, 2017). All these methods have been applied at local scale, to characterize a single sedimentary basin. It is known that these methods suffer from a greater ambiguity if compared with those estimating the geometry of a single surface. As a consequence, they require more a priori information to decrease the number of possible solutions. To reduce this inherent ambiguity, these methods followed different approaches for combining gravity data with seismic and isostasy to determine the geometries of basement and Moho surfaces, which are important constraints on the amount of extension and heat flow at a margin during rifting (Watts and Fairhead, 1999).

Condi et al. (1999) proposed a nonlinear gravity inversion for estimating the offshore

deep structures of a rifted margin. They approximate the margin by using multiple irregular polygons, each having a uniform density and fixed horizontal position of their vertices. The polygons represent four homogeneous layers: water, sediments, crust and mantle. The parameters to be estimated are the constant densities of each polygon and the vertical positions of the vertices separating adjacent layers. The parameters are estimated by using a globally convergent Newton method together with an algorithm for solving sparse linear systems. Their method uses local isostasy and uniform extension for directly constraining the geometries of the shallow and deeper parts of their model, without necessarily forcing it to be in a perfect isostatic equilibrium.

Salem et al. (2014) presented a nonlinear gravity inversion for estimating the surfaces representing basement and Moho on an onshore rifted basin. They approximate the rifted basin by using three homogeneous layers: sediments, crust and mantle. The layers are also described in terms of irregular polygons having constant density contrasts. The horizontal positions of the polygon vertices are fixed and the vertical positions of the vertices associated with basement and Moho are the parameters to be estimated by inversion. The position of the vertices associated with basement are estimated by using an iterative approach similar to that presented by Bott (1960) and Cordell and Henderson (1968). The difference is that, at each iteration, the Airy-Heiskanen model (Heiskanen and Moritz, 1967) for local isostatic equilibrium is used to subsequently update the Moho geometry, forcing the model to be in perfect isostatic equilibrium according to the Airy-Heiskanen model. Notice that their method does not estimate the geometries of basement and Moho simultaneously. As properly pointed out by Silva et al. (2014), Bott's method does not define optimal step sizes at the iterative corrections, does not impose constraints for obtaining stable solutions, nor use an objective stopping criterion. Consequently, the method presented by Salem et al.

(2014) is also susceptible to these limitations.

García-Abdeslem (2017) presented a method for estimating the geometries of basement and Moho on the Montage Basin, located between Mexico and USA. He uses an approach based on flexural isostasy to estimate the Moho and compute a regional gravity field, which is subsequently subtracted from the observed gravity data to obtain a residual gravity field. His method consists in solving a nonlinear inverse problem for estimating the basement geometry explaining the residual gravity field.

Salem (2017) presents a general framework for estimating the surfaces associated with basement and Moho on a rifted continental margin. He also approximates the margin by using a set of irregular polygons representing water, sediments, crust and mantle. The density contrasts of these layers are considered to be known functions of the horizontal position along the profile. His method is based on an empirical logistic function that acts as a gain control of the Moho uplift. Similarly to Salem et al. (2014) and García-Abdeslem (2017), the method presented by Salem (2017) does not estimate the surfaces of basement and Moho simultaneously. The Moho surface is estimated in a first step and then used to estimate the basement surface.

Ferderer et al. (2017) proposed a “general local isostasy” approach, which consists in combining the Airy-Heiskanen and Pratt-Hayford models (Heiskanen and Moritz, 1967) so that the crust density and geometry may vary laterally in order to maintain the local isostatic equilibrium on a profile crossing a rifted margin. Their approach also uses local isostasy to directly link the geometries of shallow and deeper structures with the purpose of reducing the range of possible solutions. They approximate the margin by using a set of irregular polygons and propose a method for estimating their shapes and density contrasts

by using a grid-search technique (Sen and Stoffa, 2013). Such techniques involve the systematic search for model parameters producing the best data fit and may be far from being practical in geophysical applications for the cases in which the model space is very large and the forward problem is slow.

We present a new local scale method for estimating the geometries of basement and Moho along a profile crossing a rifted margin. We approximate the margin by an interpretation model formed by four adjacent layers. Layers 1 and 4 represent, respectively, water and mantle with constant density contrasts. Layer 2 can have an arbitrary number of sub-layers with constant density. These sub-layers are predefined by the interpreter according to the complexity of the study area and the available priori information. Finally, Layer 3 represents the crust with a predefined density distribution varying along the profile. Our method is formulated, in the space domain, as a nonlinear gravity inversion based on the Levenberg-Marquardt method (Silva et al., 2001; Aster et al., 2005), by following a strategy similar to Barbosa et al. (1999b). The parameters to be estimated by inversion define the geometries of basement, which separates Layers 2 and 3, and Moho, which separates Layers 3 and 4. The remaining surfaces are fixed. At each iteration, our method estimates corrections for the geometries of basement and Moho simultaneously. In order to produce stable solutions, we use different constraints imposing smoothness on basement and Moho surfaces, as well as force them to be close to some known depths along the profile.

Similarly to Ferderer et al. (2017), we combine the Airy-Heiskanen and Pratt-Hayford models to impose local isostatic equilibrium. Differently from previous methods, we do not use local isostasy to directly link the geometries of basement and Moho. Rather, we impose smoothness on the lithostatic stress exerted by the interpretation model on a constant compensation depth, below which there is no lateral density variations. This information is

directionally consistent with the basic principle of local isostatic equilibrium according to the Airy-Heiskanen and Pratt-Hayford models. Our constraint, which we conveniently call the *isostatic constraint*, introduces the information that the lithostatic stress must be mostly smooth along the entire profile, except at some isolated regions, where it can present abrupt variations. At these regions, our method enables the estimated model to deviate from the isostatic equilibrium. As a consequence, our method does not estimate a model in perfect isostatic equilibrium, but a model as close as possible to the local isostatic equilibrium.

Tests with synthetic data show the good performance of our method in simultaneously retrieving the geometry of basement and Moho of a simulated volcanic margin model. We also applied our method to invert gravity data on a profile over the Pelotas basin (Stica et al., 2014). This basin is located at the offshore southern of Brazil and is considered a classical example of volcanic passive margin (Geoffroy, 2005). We inverted gravity data provided by the combined global gravity field model EIGEN-6C4 (Förste et al., 2014), one of the latest releases of the “European Improved Gravity model of the Earth by New techniques” series, containing the complete gravity gradient data of the GOCE-Mission. Our results are very consistent with a previous interpretation presented by Zalán (2015), who used ultra-deep seismic data. These results show that, combined with a priori information, our method can be very effective in areas with abrupt crustal thinning, which is typically the case along volcanic passive margins.

METHODOLOGY

Forward problem

Let \mathbf{d}^o be the observed data vector, whose i -th element d_i^o , $i = 1, \dots, N$, represents the observed gravity disturbance at the point (x_i, y_i, z_i) , on a profile located over a rifted passive margin. The coordinates are referred to a topocentric Cartesian system, with z axis pointing downward, y -axis along the profile and x -axis perpendicular to the profile. In local- and regional-scale studies, the gravity disturbance (Heiskanen and Moritz, 1967) represents the vertical component of the gravitational attraction exerted by the gravity sources. It is more appropriated for geophysical applications (Li and Götze, 2001; Fairhead et al., 2003; Hackney and Featherstone, 2003; Hinze et al., 2005; Vajda et al., 2006, 2007) and is numerically similar to the classical free-air anomaly.

The density distribution in a rifted margin can be very complex. In volcanic margins, for example, the crust can be heavily intruded with flood-basalts and tuffs, which are commonly imaged as Seaward Dipping Reflectors (SDR). Underneath this intruded crust, high-velocity seismic zones are usually interpreted as bodies of underplated mafic to ultra-mafic magma (Geoffroy, 2005). We assume that the actual mass distribution in a rifted passive margin can be schematically represented according to Figure 1. In this model, the subsurface is formed by four layers. Layer 1 is the shallowest and represents a water layer with constant density $\rho^{(w)}$. Layer 2 is formed by Q vertically adjacent sub-layers representing sediments, salt or volcanic rocks. In our example, this layer is formed by two sub-layers with constant densities $\rho^{(q)}$, $q = 1, 2$. Different models can be created by changing the number Q according to the complexity and available a priori information at the study area. In many cases, seismic data can be used to constrain the geometry of these shallow structures. Layer 3 represents

the crust and we presume that its density ρ^c varies horizontally along the profile, according to a predefined function. In Figure 1, we consider that crust density assumes two possible values. It can be equal to $\rho^{(cc)}$, which represents the continental crust, or equal to $\rho^{(oc)}$, which represents the oceanic crust. However, more complex functions representing the crust density distribution can be specified according to interpreter’s knowledge about the geology at study area. This approach presumes that bulk values can be used to approximate the real density distribution at the deeper parts of crust. Finally, Layer 4 represents a homogeneous mantle with constant density $\rho^{(m)}$. The surface separating the Layers 1 and 2 defines the basement relief whereas that separating Layers 3 and 4 defines the Moho. These surfaces are represented as dashed-white lines in Figure 1.

In order to define the anomalous mass distribution producing the observed gravity disturbance, we presume a reference mass distribution formed by two layers. The shallowest represents a homogeneous crust with constant density $\rho^{(r)}$. Its thickness is schematically represented in Figure 1. The deepest layer in the reference mass distribution represents a homogeneous mantle with constant density $\rho^{(m)}$. Notice that the mantle in the reference mass distribution has the same density as the mantle in our rifted margin model (Figure 1). The surface separating the crust and mantle in the reference mass distribution is conveniently called *reference Moho* (Figures 1 and 2). The reference model can be thought of as the outer layers of a concentric mass distribution producing the normal gravity field. In a local scale, this concentric mass distribution can be approximated by a stack of two Bouguer slabs.

We consider that the anomalous mass distribution producing the observed data is defined as the difference between the rifted margin model and the reference mass distribution (Figure 1). As a consequence, the anomalous mass distribution is characterized by re-

gions with constant density contrasts. This anomalous distribution is approximated by an interpretation model formed by N columns of vertically stacked prisms (Figure 2). For convenience, we presume that there is an observed gravity disturbance over the center of each column. We consider that the prisms in the extremities of the interpretation model extend to infinity along the y axis in order to prevent edge effects in the forward calculations. The i -th column is formed by vertically stacked prisms having infinite length along the x -axis and locally approximates the four layers of our rifted margin model (Figure 1).

Layer 1 is defined by a single prism, has thickness $t_i^{(w)}$ and a constant density contrast $\Delta\rho^{(w)} = \rho^{(w)} - \rho^{(r)}$. Layer 2 is defined by the interpreter, according to the complexity of the study area and the available a priori information, by a set of Q vertically stacked prisms, each one with thickness $t_i^{(q)}$ and constant density contrast $\Delta\rho^{(q)} = \rho^{(q)} - \rho^{(r)}$, $q = 1, \dots, Q$. Layer 3 represents the deeper part of the crust, it is also formed by a single prism, has thickness $t_i^{(c)}$ and density contrast $\Delta\rho_i^{(c)} = \rho_i^{(c)} - \rho^{(r)}$, with $\rho_i^{(c)}$ being the crust density at the coordinate y_i , $i = 1, \dots, N$, along the profile. According to Figure 2, the crust density contrast $\Delta\rho_i^{(c)}$ may assume two possible values, depending on its position with respect to the y_{COT} . More complex models can be set by the interpreter according to the available a priori information at the study area. The top and bottom of this layer define, respectively, the basement and Moho. Finally, Layer 4 representing the mantle is divided into two sub-layers, each one formed by a single prism having the same constant density contrast $\Delta\rho^{(m)} = \rho^{(m)} - \rho^{(r)}$. The shallowest sub-layer has thickness $t_i^{(m)}$. Its top and bottom define, respectively, the depths of Moho and the compensation depth S_0 . The deepest sub-layer has thickness ΔS , top at S_0 and bottom at $S_0 + \Delta S$, which defines the reference Moho.

Given the density contrasts, the COT position y_{COT} , the compensation depth S_0 , the thickness $t_i^{(w)}$ of the prisms defining Layer 1 and also the thickness $t_i^{(q)}$, $i = 1, \dots, N$, of

the prisms forming the upper $Q - 1$ sub-layers of Layer 2, it is possible to describe the interpretation model in terms of an $M \times 1$ parameter vector \mathbf{p} , $M = 2N + 1$, defined as follows:

$$\mathbf{p} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{t}^Q \\ \mathbf{t}^m \\ \Delta S \end{bmatrix}, \quad (1)$$

where \mathbf{t}^Q and \mathbf{t}^m are $N \times 1$ vectors whose i -th elements t_i^Q and t_i^m represent the thickness of the prisms forming, respectively, the base of Layer 2 and the top of Layer 4. Notice that t_i^Q and t_i^m , $i = 1, \dots, N$, approximate, respectively, the geometries of basement and Moho and ΔS defines the depth of the reference Moho (Figure 2). In this case, the gravity disturbance produced by the interpretation model (the predicted gravity disturbance) at the position (x_i, y_i, z_i) can be written as the sum of the vertical component of the gravitational attraction exerted by the L prisms forming the interpretation model as follows:

$$d_i(\mathbf{p}) = k_g G \sum_{j=1}^L f_{ij}(\mathbf{p}), \quad (2)$$

where $f_{ij}(\mathbf{p})$ represents an integral over the volume of the j -th prism. Here, these volume integrals are computed with the expressions proposed by Nagy et al. (2000), by using the open-source Python package *Fatiando a Terra* (Uieda et al., 2013).

Inverse problem formulation

Let $\mathbf{d}(\mathbf{p})$ be the predicted data vector, whose i -th element $d_i(\mathbf{p})$ is the vertical component of the gravitational attraction (equation 2) exerted by the interpretation model at the position (x_i, y_i, z_i) on the profile. We estimate a particular parameter vector producing a predicted

data $\mathbf{d}(\mathbf{p})$ as close as possible to the observed data \mathbf{d}^o by minimizing the goal function

$$\Gamma(\mathbf{p}) = \Phi(\mathbf{p}) + \sum_{\ell=0}^3 \alpha_{\ell} \Psi_{\ell}(\mathbf{p}), \quad (3)$$

subject to the inequality constraint

$$p_j^{min} < p_j < p_j^{max}, \quad j = 1, \dots, M, \quad (4)$$

where p_j^{min} and p_j^{max} define, respectively, lower and upper bounds for the j -th element of \mathbf{p} .

In equation 3, α_{ℓ} is the weight assigned to the ℓ -th regularizing function $\Psi_{\ell}(\mathbf{p})$, $\ell = 0, 1, 2, 3$, and $\Phi(\mathbf{p})$ is the misfit function given by

$$\Phi(\mathbf{p}) = \frac{1}{N} \|\mathbf{d}^o - \mathbf{d}(\mathbf{p})\|_2^2, \quad (5)$$

where $\|\cdot\|_2^2$ represents the squared Euclidean norm. Notice that our method estimates the parameter vector \mathbf{p} (equation 1), which contains the geometries of basement and Moho, as well as the thickness ΔS defining the depth of the reference Moho (Figure 2). The geometries of Layer 1 and of the upper sub-layers forming Layer 2, as well as the compensation depth S_0 (Figure 2) are predefined by using the bathymetry and the available a priori information. These predefined quantities remain fixed during the inversion. Details about the regularizing functions $\Psi_{\ell}(\mathbf{p})$, $\ell = 0, 1, 2, 3$ and the numerical procedure to solve this nonlinear inverse problem are given in the following sections.

Isostatic constraint

Consider that no vertical forces are acting on the lateral surfaces of each column forming the model (Figure 2). In this case, the lithostatic stress (pressure) exerted by the i -th column at the surface S_0 can be computed according to the Archimedes' principle as follows:

$$t_i^{(w)} \rho^{(w)} + t_i^{(1)} \rho_i^{(1)} + \dots + t_i^{(Q)} \rho_i^{(Q)} + t_i^{(c)} \rho_i^{(c)} + t_i^{(m)} \rho^{(m)} = \tau_i, \quad (6)$$

where τ_i is the ratio of lithostatic stress to the mean gravity value on the study area. By rearranging terms in equation 6 and using the relation

$$S_0 = t_i^{(w)} + t_i^{(1)} + \dots + t_i^{(Q)} + t_i^{(c)} + t_i^{(m)}, \quad (7)$$

it is possible to show that:

$$\Delta\tilde{\rho}_i^{(Q)} t_i^{(Q)} + \Delta\tilde{\rho}_i^{(m)} t_i^{(m)} + \Delta\tilde{\rho}_i^{(w)} t_i^{(w)} + \Delta\tilde{\rho}_i^{(1)} t_i^{(1)} + \dots + \Delta\tilde{\rho}_i^{(Q-1)} t_i^{(Q-1)} + \rho_i^{(c)} S_0 = \tau_i, \quad (8)$$

where $\Delta\tilde{\rho}_i^{(\alpha)} = \rho_i^{(\alpha)} - \rho_i^{(c)}$, $\alpha = w, 1, \dots, Q-1, Q, m$. In order to describe the lithostatic stress exerted by all columns forming the interpretation model on the surface S_0 , equation 8 can be written as follows:

$$\mathbf{M}^{(Q)}\mathbf{t}^{(Q)} + \mathbf{M}^{(m)}\mathbf{t}^{(m)} + \mathbf{M}^{(w)}\mathbf{t}^{(w)} + \mathbf{M}^{(1)}\mathbf{t}^{(1)} + \dots + \mathbf{M}^{(Q-1)}\mathbf{t}^{(Q-1)} + \boldsymbol{\rho}^{(c)}S_0 = \boldsymbol{\tau}, \quad (9)$$

where $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ is an $N \times 1$ vector whose i -th element is the τ_i (equation 6) associated with the i -th column; $\mathbf{t}^{(\alpha)}$, $\alpha = w, 1, \dots, Q-1, Q, m$, is an $N \times 1$ vector with i -th element defined by the thickness $t_i^{(\alpha)}$ of a prism in the i -th column; $\mathbf{M}^{(\alpha)}$ is an $N \times N$ diagonal matrix whose elements are defined by the density contrasts $\Delta\tilde{\rho}_i^{(\alpha)}$, $i = 1, \dots, N$, of the prisms in a layer and $\boldsymbol{\rho}^{(c)}$ is an $N \times 1$ vector containing the densities of the prisms representing the crust.

Let us now use an approach similar to that presented by Ferderer et al. (2017) to combine the Airy-Heiskanen and Pratt-Hayford models (Heiskanen and Moritz, 1967) in order to impose local isostatic equilibrium. We impose this condition by varying both density and geometry of the crust along the rifted margin. In this case, the lithostatic stress exerted by the interpretation model must be constant at the compensation depth S_0 (Figure 2). Differently from previous approaches in literature, we impose isostatic equilibrium by forcing the lithostatic stress to be smooth at S_0 . We apply the first-order Tikhonov regularization

(Aster et al., 2005) to the vector $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ (equation 9), obtaining the following expression:

$$\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{C}\mathbf{p} + \mathbf{D}\mathbf{t}) = \mathbf{0}, \quad (10)$$

where $\mathbf{0}$ is a vector with null elements and the remaining terms are given by:

$$\mathbf{C} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{M}^{(Q)} & \mathbf{M}^{(m)} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}_{N \times M}, \quad (11)$$

$$\mathbf{D} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{M}^{(w)} & \mathbf{M}^{(1)} & \dots & \mathbf{M}^{(Q-1)} & \boldsymbol{\rho}^{(c)} \end{bmatrix}_{N \times (QN+1)}, \quad (12)$$

$$\mathbf{t} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{t}^{(w)} \\ \mathbf{t}^{(1)} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{t}^{(Q-1)} \\ S_0 \end{bmatrix}_{(QN+1) \times 1}, \quad (13)$$

and \mathbf{R} is an $(N-1) \times N$ matrix, whose element ij is defined as follows:

$$[\mathbf{R}]_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & , \quad j = i \\ -1 & , \quad j = i + 1 \\ 0 & , \quad \text{otherwise} \end{cases}. \quad (14)$$

Finally, from equation 10, it is possible to define the regularizing function $\Psi_0(\mathbf{p})$ (equation 3):

$$\Psi_0(\mathbf{p}) = \|\mathbf{W}\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{C}\mathbf{p} + \mathbf{D}\mathbf{t})\|_2^2, \quad (15)$$

where \mathbf{W} is an $(N-1) \times (N-1)$ diagonal matrix having constant elements $0 < w_{ii} \leq 1$, $i = 1, \dots, N-1$. Function $\Psi_0(\mathbf{p})$ defines the *Isostatic constraint*.

Notice that, by minimizing the function $\Psi_0(\mathbf{p})$ (equation 15), the method imposes smoothness on the lithostatic stress exerted by the interpretation model on the compensation depth S_0 . Matrix \mathbf{W} controls the relative amount of isostatic equilibrium imposed

along the profile. In the particular case in which all diagonal elements w_{ii} have the same constant value, the same amount of isostatic equilibrium is imposed along the whole profile. On the other hand, different amounts of isostatic equilibrium can be imposed along the profile by varying the values of these elements. Elements $w_{ii} \approx 1$ impose a smooth lithostatic stress curve at the transition between columns i and $i + 1$ of the interpretation model. Elements $w_{ii} \approx 0$ allow abrupt variations in the lithostatic stress curve between columns i and $i + 1$ of the interpretation model. By using all elements $w_{ii} = 1$, we impose full isostatic equilibrium along the entire profile. Alternatively, we may enable the interpretation model to deviate from the isostatic equilibrium by conveniently decreasing the numerical values assigned to the elements w_{ii} at specific regions along the profile. The strategy used to define the elements w_{ii} is presented in the specific section describing the computational procedures for solving the inverse problem.

Smoothness constraint

This constraint imposes smoothness on the adjacent thickness of the prisms forming the base of Layer 2 and the top of Layer 4. This information is introduced by applying the first-order Tikhonov regularization (Aster et al., 2005) to the vectors $\mathbf{t}^{(Q)}$ and $\mathbf{t}^{(m)}$ (equation 1). Mathematically, this constraint is represented by the regularizing function $\Psi_1(\mathbf{p})$ (equation 3):

$$\Psi_1(\mathbf{p}) = \|\mathbf{S}\mathbf{p}\|_2^2, \quad (16)$$

where \mathbf{S} is an $2(N - 1) \times M$ matrix given by:

$$\mathbf{S} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{R} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{R} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}, \quad (17)$$

where \mathbf{R} is defined by equation 14 and $\mathbf{0}$ are matrices with all elements equal to zero.

Equality constraints

In order to incorporate a priori information at isolated points on the basement and Moho surfaces, we use an approach similar to those proposed by Barbosa et al. (1997) and Barbosa et al. (1999a).

Equality constraint on vector \mathbf{t}^Q

Let \mathbf{a} be a vector whose k -th element a_k , $k = 1, \dots, A$, is the difference between a known basement depth and the sum of the thickness of the upper parts of the interpretation model (water layer and the upper sub-layers of Layer 2), all at the same horizontal coordinate y_k^A of the profile. These differences, which must be positive, are used to define the regularizing function $\Psi_2(\mathbf{p})$ (equation 3):

$$\Psi_2(\mathbf{p}) = \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{a}\|_2^2, \quad (18)$$

where \mathbf{A} is an $A \times M$ matrix whose k -th line has one element equal to one and all the remaining elements equal to zero. The location of the single non-null element in the k -th line of \mathbf{A} depends on the coordinate y_k^A of the known thickness a_k . Let us consider, for example, an interpretation model formed by $N = 10$ columns. Consider also that the thickness of the deepest sub-layer of Layer 2 at the coordinates $y_1^A = y_4$ and $y_2^A = y_9$ are equal to 25 and 35.7 km, respectively. In this case, $A = 2$, \mathbf{a} is a 2×1 vector with elements $a_1 = 25$ and $a_2 = 35.7$ and \mathbf{A} is a $2 \times M$ matrix ($M = 2N + 1 = 21$). The element 4 of the first line and the element 9 of the second line of \mathbf{A} are equal to 1 and all its remaining elements are equal to zero.

Equality constraint on vector \mathbf{t}^m

Let \mathbf{b} be a vector whose k -th element b_k , $k = 1, \dots, B$, is the difference between the compensation depth S_0 and the known Moho depth at the horizontal coordinate y_k^B of the profile. These differences, which must be positive, define known thickness values of the upper part of Layer 4. These values are used to define the regularizing function $\Psi_3(\mathbf{p})$ (equation 3):

$$\Psi_3(\mathbf{p}) = \|\mathbf{B}\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{b}\|_2^2, \quad (19)$$

where \mathbf{B} is a $B \times M$ matrix whose k -th line has one element equal to one and all the remaining elements equal to zero. This matrix is defined in the same way as matrix \mathbf{A} (equation 18).

Computational procedures for solving of the inverse problem

The parameter vector \mathbf{p} (equation 1) minimizing the goal function $\Gamma(\mathbf{p})$ (equation 3), subjected to the inequality constraint (equation 4), is estimated in three steps. At each step, the goal function is minimized by using the Levenberg-Marquardt method (Silva et al., 2001; Aster et al., 2005) and the inequality constraint (equation 4) is incorporated by using the same strategy employed by Barbosa et al. (1999b). All derivatives of the misfit function $\Phi(\mathbf{p})$ (equation 5) with respect to the parameters are computed by using a finite difference approximation.

General description of Step 1 (S1)

Step 1 consists in solving the inverse problem without imposing the isostatic constraint, by using $\alpha_0 = 0$ (equation 3). For this step, the interpreter must set:

- Parameters defining the interpretation model (Figure 2): density contrasts $\Delta\rho^{(\alpha)}$, $\alpha = w, 1, \dots, Q, cc, oc, m$, of the four layers, COT position y_{COT} and isostatic compensation depth S_0 . Figure 2 illustrates the case in which the second layer is formed by $Q = 2$ parts. This number, however, can be changed according to the study area.
- Parameters for the inversion: weights α_ℓ , $\ell = 1, 2, 3$ (equation 3), associated to the smoothness and equality constraints (equations 16, 18 and 19), lower and upper bounds p_j^{min} and p_j^{max} (equation 4), $j = 1, \dots, M$, for the parameters to be estimated, vectors **a** (equation 18) and **b** (equation 19) containing known thickness values and an initial approximation $\mathbf{p}^{(0)}$ for the parameter vector **p** (equation 1). The initial approximation $\mathbf{p}^{(0)}$ must satisfy the inequality constraints (equation 4).

The estimated parameter vector obtained at the end of this first step is conveniently called $\mathbf{p}^{(1)}$. The main goal in this step is finding suitable values for the parameters defining the interpretation model and those used for inversion. Several trials may be necessary to find suitable values for these parameters.

General description of Step 2 (S2)

Step 2 consists in obtaining an estimated parameter vector $\mathbf{p}^{(2)}$ by imposing full isostatic equilibrium on the interpretation model along the entire profile. In this step, the interpreter must use the same initial approximation $\mathbf{p}^{(0)}$ of the previous step. Additionally, the interpreter must set the matrix **W** equal to the identity and find a suitable value for the weight α_0 (equation 3) controlling the isostatic constraint (equation 15). We presume that, by imposing full isostatic equilibrium along the entire profile, the estimated parameter vector $\mathbf{p}^{(2)}$ will produce a mostly good data fit, except at some isolated regions. We assume that,

at these regions, the passive margin to deviate from the isostatic equilibrium described by the Airy-Heiskanen model.

General description of Step 3 (S3)

Step 3 consists in obtaining an estimated parameter vector $\mathbf{p}^{(3)}$ by imposing different amounts of isostatic equilibrium on the interpretation model along the profile. At this step, the interpreter must compute the diagonal elements w_{ii} of the matrix \mathbf{W} (equation 15) in order to enable the interpretation model to deviate from isostatic equilibrium in the regions presenting large residuals. The elements of \mathbf{W} are computed as follows:

$$w_{ii} = \exp \left[-\frac{\left(r_i^{(2)} + r_{i+1}^{(2)} \right)^2}{4\sigma} \right], \quad (20)$$

where σ is a positive constant, $\mathbf{p}^{(2)}$ is the estimated parameter vector obtained in the previous step and the variables $r_i^{(2)} = d_i^o - d_i(\mathbf{p}^{(2)})$ and $r_{i+1}^{(2)} = d_{i+1}^o - d_{i+1}(\mathbf{p}^{(2)})$ represent, respectively, the residuals between observed and predicted data (equation 2) at the positions (x_i, y_i, z_i) and $(x_{i+1}, y_{i+1}, z_{i+1})$. Notice that equation 20 defines elements w_{ii} in the interval $]0, 1]$. Additionally, this equation results in $w_{ii} \approx 1$ at regions where the residuals are close to zero and $w_{ii} \approx 0$ at regions presenting large residuals. The positive constant σ controls the deviation from isostatic equilibrium.

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Small σ values allow small deviations from isostatic equilibrium, resulting in estimated models close to that obtained at Step 1. Large σ values allow small deviations from isostatic equilibrium, resulting in estimated models close to that obtained at Step 2.

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This strategy to define the elements of matrix \mathbf{W} (equation 15) presumes that the isostatic constraint may produce large residuals at some regions along the profile. To counteract this problem, our method enables the interpretation model to deviate from isostatic equilibrium at these regions. This idea is in agreement with the fact that the isostatic equilibrium at passive rifted margin cannot be totally explained by local models.

Considerations about the weights α_0 , α_1 , α_2 and α_3

Other important aspect of our method is related to the values attributed to the weights α_ℓ (equation 3). Their values can be very dependent on the particular characteristics of the interpretation model and there is no analytical rule to define them. To overcome this problem, we normalize the α_ℓ values as follows:

$$\alpha_\ell = \tilde{\alpha}_\ell \frac{E_\Phi}{E_\ell}, \quad \ell = 0, 1, 2, 3, \quad (21)$$

where $\tilde{\alpha}_\ell$ is a positive scalar and E_Φ/E_ℓ is a normalizing constant. In this equation, E_ℓ represents the median of the elements forming the main diagonal of the Hessian matrix of the ℓ -th constraining function $\Psi_\ell(\mathbf{p})$ (equations 15, 16, 18 and 19). The constant E_Φ is defined in a similar way by using the Hessian matrix of the misfit function $\Phi(\mathbf{p})$ (equation 5) computed with the initial approximation $\mathbf{p}^{(0)}$ for the parameter vector \mathbf{p} (equation 1) at the first step. According to this empirical strategy, the weights α_ℓ are defined by using the positive scalars $\tilde{\alpha}_\ell$ (equation 21), which are less dependent on the particular characteristics of the interpretation model.

Summarized version of our algorithm

- (S1) Use $\tilde{\alpha}_0 = 0$ and set non-null values for $\tilde{\alpha}_1$, $\tilde{\alpha}_2$ and $\tilde{\alpha}_3$ (equation 21) (see the subsection *Practical considerations*). Define p_j^{min} , p_j^{max} (equation 4), \mathbf{a} (equation 18) and \mathbf{b} (equation 19). Define an initial approximation $\mathbf{p}^{(0)}$ satisfying the inequality constraint (equation 4). Use $\mathbf{p}^{(0)}$ to compute the Hessian matrix of the misfit function $\Phi(\mathbf{p})$ (equation 5). Compute the Hessian matrices of the constraining functions $\Psi_\ell(\mathbf{p})$, $\ell = 1, 2, 3$ (equations 16, 18 and 19). Compute E_Φ , E_ℓ and α_ℓ (equation 21), $\ell = 1, 2, 3$. Estimate a parameter vector $\mathbf{p}^{(1)}$ minimizing $\Gamma(\mathbf{p})$ (equation 3), subject to the inequality constraint (equation 4).
- (S2) Use the same initial approximation $\mathbf{p}^{(0)}$ of the previous step. Set \mathbf{W} (equation 15) equal to identity. Set a non-null value for $\tilde{\alpha}_0$ (equation 21) (see the subsection *Practical considerations*). Compute the Hessian matrix of the constraining function $\Psi_0(\mathbf{p})$ (equation 15). Compute E_0 and α_0 (equation 21). Estimate a parameter vector $\mathbf{p}^{(2)}$ minimizing $\Gamma(\mathbf{p})$ (equation 3), subject to the inequality constraint (equation 4).
- (S3) Use $\mathbf{p}^{(2)}$ as initial approximation. Set the positive constant σ (see the subsection *Practical considerations*) and compute the diagonal elements w_{ii} (equation 20), $i = 1, \dots, N-1$. With the new \mathbf{W} , compute the Hessian matrix of the constraining function $\Psi_0(\mathbf{p})$ (equation 15). Estimate a parameter vector $\mathbf{p}^{(3)}$ minimizing $\Gamma(\mathbf{p})$ (equation 3), subject to the inequality constraint (equation 4).

Practical considerations

Our algorithm depends on several parameters that significantly impact the estimated models and cannot be automatically set without the interpreters judgment. They are the parame-

ters $\tilde{\alpha}_1$, $\tilde{\alpha}_2$ and $\tilde{\alpha}_3$ (set at Step 1), $\tilde{\alpha}_0$ (set at Step 2) and σ (set at Step 3). Based on our practical experience, we suggest some empirical procedures for setting these parameters at each step of our algorithm.

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At Step 1, set $\tilde{\alpha}_1 = 0$ and try different positive values for $\tilde{\alpha}_2$ and $\tilde{\alpha}_3$. These two parameters control the equality constraints (equations 18 and 19) imposing a priori information at isolated points on the basement and Moho surfaces. Good guesses are, respectively, 10^1 and 10^2 . Normally, $\tilde{\alpha}_3$ is one order of magnitude greater than $\tilde{\alpha}_2$. The values of $\tilde{\alpha}_2$ and $\tilde{\alpha}_3$ must be the smallest positive numbers resulting in an estimated model with basement and Moho surfaces close to the values provided by the a priori information at some isolated points. Notice that this estimated model must be obtained by using only the equality constraints. Consequently, there must be some pinnacles around the points associated with the a priori information. This effect has already been observed by Barbosa et al. (1997). By using the chosen values for $\tilde{\alpha}_2$ and $\tilde{\alpha}_3$, try different positive values for $\tilde{\alpha}_1$. This parameter controls the smoothness of basement and Moho surfaces (equation 16). A good guess is 10^1 . This parameter must be smallest positive number producing an estimated model satisfying the following criteria: (i) the data fit must be good along the entire profile and (ii) the pinnacles must be removed.

At Step 2, try different positive values for $\tilde{\alpha}_0$ (equation 15). This parameter controls the smoothness of the lithostatic stress exerted by the interpretation model at the compensation depth S_0 . A good guess is 10^2 . Generally, $\tilde{\alpha}_0$ is one order of magnitude greater than $\tilde{\alpha}_1$. Large values produce a poor data fit along the profile. This parameter must be the largest positive number resulting in an estimated model satisfying two criteria: (i) the lithostatic

stress curve must be smooth along the entire profile and (ii) there must be a good data fit along the entire profile, except at some isolated regions presenting relatively large residuals.

Finally, at Step 3, try different positive values for σ (equation 20). This parameter controls the deviations of the interpretation model from the isostatic equilibrium at regions presenting large residuals. Small values produce estimated models close to that obtained at Step 1. On the other hand, large values produce estimated models close to that obtained at Step 2. This parameter must be set as the largest positive number producing a good data-fit along the entire profile. A good practice is generate a set of estimates by using different values for σ .

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APPLICATIONS TO SYNTHETIC DATA

We have simulated a simple volcanic margin model formed by four layers: water, sediments + seaward dipping reflectors, crust (continental and oceanic) and mantle. Parameters defining this model are shown in Table 1. By following the algorithm described in the previous section, we applied our method to invert the synthetic gravity disturbance data produced by our volcanic margin model.

Figure 3 shows the results obtained at Step 1 of our algorithm. The interpretation model was defined by using the parameters shown in Table 1. The parameters $\tilde{\alpha}_1$, $\tilde{\alpha}_2$ and $\tilde{\alpha}_3$ (equation 21) used to estimate a parameter vector $\mathbf{p}^{(1)}$ have values 10^1 , 10^1 and 10^2 , respectively. It is worth stressing that this estimate was obtained without imposing the isostatic constraint, by using $\tilde{\alpha}_0 = 0$. As we can see, the predicted gravity disturbance and lithostatic stress shows a good data fit and the estimated Moho is very close to the true

one. On the other hand, the estimated basement is very smooth and does not retrieve the true one along the first 200 km of the profile.

Figure 4 shows the estimated model obtained at the end of Step 2, by using $\tilde{\alpha}_0 = 10^2$ (equation 21). In comparison to the estimated model obtained at Step 1 (Figure 3), this result shows a very smooth lithostatic stress curve as a consequence of the isostatic constraint. The use of the isostatic constraint has produced a worse estimated Moho, but has improved the estimated basement. The main improvement occurs along the first ≈ 100 km on the profile, where the true model exhibits a pronounced crustal thinning. The region between 100 and 200 km, however, shows large differences between the estimated and true basement. At this region, we can also notice the presence of large differences between the simulated and predicted gravity disturbances.

Figure 5 shows the estimated model obtained at the Step 3 of our algorithm, by using $\sigma = 21$ (equation 20). In comparison with the estimated model obtained at Step 2 (Figure 4), the new estimated model produces a very good data fit along the whole profile. Additionally, it shows an estimated Moho that, regardless of the small artifact at the position ≈ 150 km, is closer to the true one. The estimated basement relief is worse than that obtained at Step 2 (Figure 4), but it is still much better than that obtained at Step 1 (Figure 3). It is worth noting that the new lithostatic stress curve contains an abrupt variation at the region located between 100 and 200 km, showing that our method was able to successfully enable the interpretation model to deviate from the isostatic equilibrium at an isolated region. This region coincides with that presenting the large absolute differences between the simulated and predicted gravity data in Figure 4.

The estimated model obtained at Step 3 (Figure 5) by using the isostatic constraint is

superior than that obtained at Step 1 (Figure 3), without using the isostatic constraint. It is also possible to obtain a good estimated model without using the isostatic constraint, but it requires a great number of known depths along the profile. This can be verified by comparing the estimated models shown in Figures 6 and 7. The first one shows an estimated model obtained in the same way as that shown in Figure 3, but by using a great number of additional known depths at basement. As we can see, the additional known depths improve the estimated basement relief. In practical situations, however, the amount of available a priori information on the study area is limited. Figure 7 shows an estimated model obtained in the same way as that shown in Figure 5, but by using a limited number of additional known depths at basement. Notice that the number of additional known depths is smaller than that used in Figure 6. Notwithstanding the artifact shown at ≈ 150 km, this result points that the isostatic constraint can be very effective in retrieving the basement relief and Moho by using a limited amount of a priori information.

APPLICATION TO REAL DATA

We applied our method to interpret the gravity disturbance data provided by the EIGEN6C4 model (Förste et al., 2014) on a profile located over the Pelotas basin (Stica et al., 2014), southern of Brazil. This basin is considered a classical example of volcanic margin (Geoffroy, 2005).

Figure 8 shows the estimated model obtained at Step 3 of our algorithm, by using $\sigma = 58$ (equation 20), $\tilde{\alpha}_0 = 10^2$, $\tilde{\alpha}_1 = 10^1$, $\tilde{\alpha}_2 = 10^1$ and $\tilde{\alpha}_3 = 10^2$ (equation 21). Parameters defining the interpretation model are the same used to define our volcanic margin model (Table 1). The initial approximation used in Steps 1 and 2 (not shown) was obtained by interpreting a seismic section presented by Stica et al. (2014). As we can see, the estimated

model produces a very good data fit along the whole profile. Our estimated model is very close to that proposed independently by Zalán (2015) (dashed-white lines in Figure 8), by interpreting ultra-deep seismic data. The larger differences (≈ 10 km) occur at the basement, along the first 100 km of the profile. At this region, Zalán proposes a steep variation in basement relief, which shows a maximum depth ≈ 30 km. On the other hand, our result shows a smooth variation in basement relief. Despite these large differences, Figure 8 shows that our model produces a very good data fit at this region. It means that, by considering a SDR with small density contrast (Table 1), the steep variation proposed by Zalán in the basement relief cannot be determined by using only gravity data. The estimated lithostatic stress curve contains abrupt variations at an isolated region close to 150 km and is very smooth on the remaining parts of the profile. This result suggests that the margin is mostly in isostatic equilibrium according to the Airy-Heiskanen model, except at the region ≈ 150 .

Figure 9 shows an estimated model obtained in the same way as that shown in Figure 8, but by using additional known depths at basement. Similarly to that shown in Figure 8, the new model (Figure 9) produces a very good data fit and deviates from the isostatic equilibrium at the position ≈ 150 km. Notice that, by using the additional known depths, the differences between our model and that obtained by Zalán (2015) decrease considerably without producing significant changes in the predicted data. It is worth stressing that our results were obtained by using gravity data provided by the global gravity model EIGEN6C4 (Förste et al., 2014), whereas Zalán (2015) obtained his result by interpreting ultra-deep seismic sections available to the petroleum industry.

CONCLUSIONS

We present a new gravity inversion method for simultaneously estimating the geometries of basement and Moho on a profile crossing a passive rifted margin. Our method approximates the subsurface by a set of adjacent columns, each one divided into four layers. The first one represents water; the second is formed by vertically stacked parts, according to the complexity of the study area; the third and fourth represent, respectively, the crust and mantle, being the last one formed by two parts. The planar surface separating these two parts represents the isostatic compensation depth, below which there are no lateral density variations. The surfaces defining the top and bottom of the third layer represent, respectively, the basement and Moho in our model. We assume that the Continent-Ocean Transition (COT) can be represented by an abrupt and vertical interface. The layers representing water and mantle have constant density contrasts. In the second layer, each part has a constant density contrast. The density contrast in the third layer assumes two possible values representing the continental crust, before the COT, and oceanic crust, after the COT.

Our method presumes the knowledge of the COT position, the compensation depth, all density contrasts and the geometry of all layers above the basement. In practical situations, seismic data commonly constrain the geometry of these shallow layers. The method is formulated as a nonlinear inverse problem. The parameters to be estimated are the thickness of the deeper part forming the second layer, which defines the basement, the thickness of the upper part forming the fourth layer, which defines the Moho, and the constant thickness of the deeper part forming the fourth layer, which defines the reference Moho. Because all parameters represent thickness, we force them to be positive. In order to obtain

stable solutions, we enforce the estimated basement and Moho to be smooth and close to some points having known depths along the profile. We also impose isostatic equilibrium according to the Airy-Heiskanen model. This information is introduced by constraining the lithostatic stress exerted by the model on a constant compensation depth. The constraint forces the lithostatic stress to be mostly smooth, except at some isolated regions, where it can present abrupt variations.

Tests with synthetic data show that the isostatic constraint can considerably improve the estimated model at regions showing pronounced crustal thinning, which are typical of volcanic passive margins. Applications to real data over the Pelotas basin, considered a classical volcanic margin at the southern of Brazil, produced results in agreement with a previous interpretation obtained independently by using ultra-deep seismic data. These results show that our method can be a useful tool for interpreting gravity data on rifted margins. Further research could be conducted to generalize our method to estimate three dimensional models and also include lateral density variations in mantle and crust.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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LIST OF TABLES

1 Properties of the volcanic margin model. The model extends from $y = 0$ km to $y = 383$ km, the Continent-Ocean Transition (COT) is located at $y_{COT} = 350$ km and the reference Moho is located at $S_0 + \Delta S = 43\,200$ km, where $\Delta S = 2\,200$ km (Figures 1 and 2). The density contrasts $\Delta\rho^{(\alpha)}$ are defined with respect to the reference value $\rho^{(r)} = 2870$ kg/m³, which coincides with the density $\rho^{(cc)}$ attributed to the continental crust.

LIST OF FIGURES

1 Rifted margin model formed by four layers. Layer 1 represents a water with constant density $\rho^{(w)}$. Layer 2 is split into Q sub-layers according to the complexity of the study area. In this example, $Q = 2$. These sub-layers represent sediments, salt or volcanic rocks and have constant densities $\rho^{(q)}$, $q = 1, \dots, Q$. Layer 3 represents the crust. In this example, its density $\rho(c)$ assumes two possible values $\rho^{(cc)}$ and $\rho^{(oc)}$ representing, respectively, continental and oceanic crust. More complex models can be generated by using a function describing the lateral density variations within the crust. Finally, Layer 4 represents a homogeneous mantle with constant density $\rho^{(m)}$. Basement and Moho are represented by the dashed-white lines. The continuous black line represents the reference Moho. The reference mass distribution is formed by an upper layer with constant density $\rho^{(r)}$ and base at the reference Moho. Below this layer, we presume a reference distribution with the same constant density $\rho^{(m)}$ of the mantle.

2 Interpretation model formed by N columns of vertically stacked prisms. Each column is formed by four layers of prisms and locally approximates the rifted margin model shown in Figure 1. Each prism has a constant density contrast defined as the difference between its corresponding density at the rifted margin model and the constant density $\rho^{(r)}$ of the shallowest layer forming the reference density distribution (Figure 1). Basement, Moho and the reference Moho are represented by dashed-white lines. The continuous black line represents the compensation depth at S_0 . The reference Moho is located at $S_0 + \Delta S$.

3 Application to synthetic data. Results obtained in Step 1. (Bottom panel) Estimated and true surfaces, initial basement and Moho used in the inversion (initial guess) and known depths at basement and Moho. (Middle panel) True and estimated lithostatic stress curves computed by using equation 6. The values are multiplied by a constant gravity

value equal to 9.81 m/s^2 . (Upper panel) Gravity disturbance data produced by the volcanic margin model (simulated data), by the estimated model (predicted data) and by the model used as initial guess in the inversion (initial guess data). The contour of the prisms forming the interpretation model were omitted. The density contrasts were defined according to Table 1.

4 Application to synthetic data. Results obtained in Step 2. The remaining informations are the same shown in the caption of Figure 3.

5 Application to synthetic data. Results obtained in Step 3 by using $\sigma = 21$ (equation 20). The remaining informations are the same shown in the caption of Figure 3.

6 Application to synthetic data. Results obtained in Step 1 by using additional known depths at basement (purple symbols). The remaining informations are the same shown in the caption of Figure 3.

7 Application to synthetic data. Results obtained in Step 3 by using $\sigma = 21$ (equation 20) and additional known depths at basement (purple symbols). The remaining informations are the same shown in the caption of Figure 3. Notice that, in comparison with the estimated model shown in Figure 6, the number of additional known depths is small.

8 Application to real data on Pelotas basin, Brazil. Results obtained in Step 3 by using $\sigma = 58$ (equation 20). (Bottom panel) Estimated surfaces, initial basement and Moho used in the inversion (initial guess) and known depths at basement and Moho. The dashed white lines represent an alternative interpretation obtained by Zalán (2015) at the same study area. (Middle panel) Estimated lithostatic stress curve computed by using equation 6. The values are multiplied by a constant gravity value equal to 9.81 m/s^2 . (Upper panel) Observed gravity disturbance data, data produced by the estimated model (predicted data) and data produced the by model used as initial guess in the inversion (initial guess

data). The contour of the prisms forming the interpretation model were omitted. The density contrasts were defined according to Table 1.

9 Application to real data on Pelotas basin, Brazil. Results obtained in Step 3 by using $\sigma = 58$ (equation 20) and additional known depths at basement. The remaining informations are the same shown in the caption of Figure 8.

Geological meaning	$\rho^{(\alpha)}$ (kg/m ³)	$\Delta\rho^{(\alpha)}$ (kg/m ³)	α
water	1030	−1840	<i>w</i>
sediments	2350	−520	1
SDR	2855	−15	2
continental crust	2870	0	<i>cc</i>
oceanic crust	2885	15	<i>oc</i>
mantle	3240	370	<i>m</i>

Table 1: Properties of the volcanic margin model. The model extends from $y = 0$ km to $y = 383$ km, the Continent-Ocean Transition (COT) is located at $y_{COT} = 350$ km and the reference Moho is located at $S_0 + \Delta S = 43\,200$ km, where $\Delta S = 2\,200$ km (Figures 1 and 2). The density contrasts $\Delta\rho^{(\alpha)}$ are defined with respect to the reference value $\rho^{(r)} = 2870$ kg/m³, which coincides with the density $\rho^{(cc)}$ attributed to the continental crust.

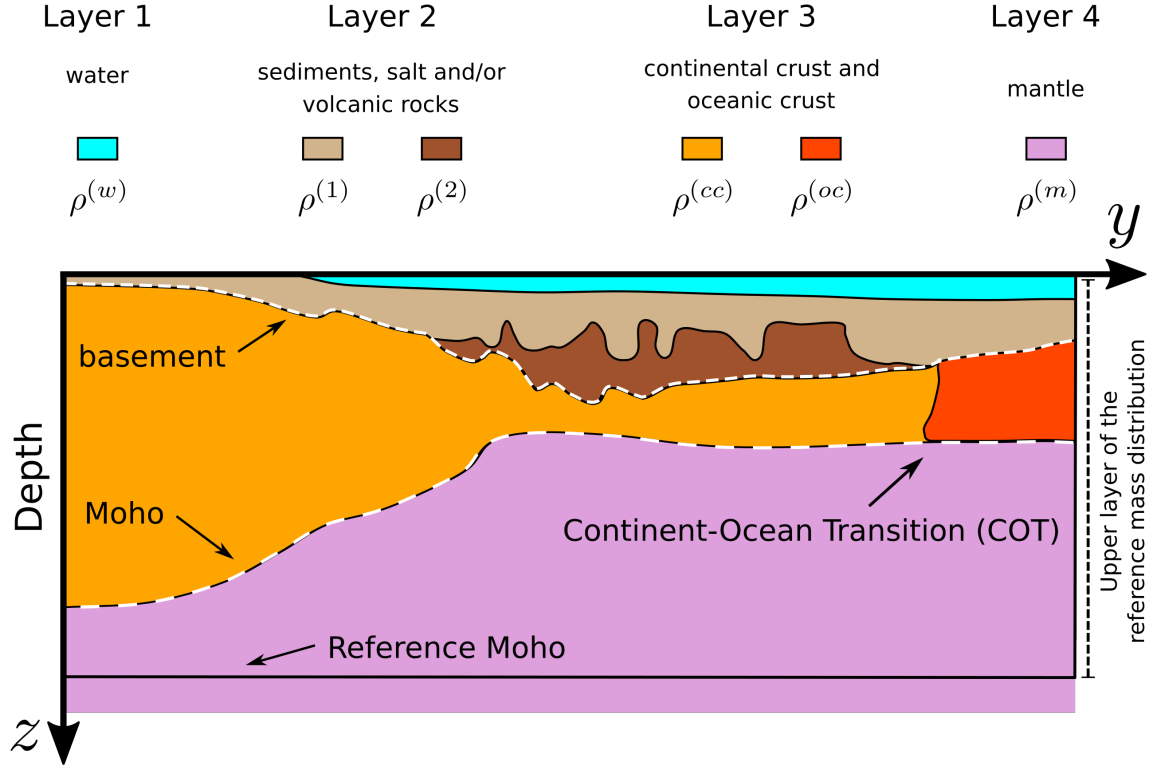


Figure 1: Rifted margin model formed by four layers. Layer 1 represents a water with constant density $\rho^{(w)}$. Layer 2 is split into Q sub-layers according to the complexity of the study area. In this example, $Q = 2$. These sub-layers represent sediments, salt or volcanic rocks and have constant densities $\rho^{(a)}$, $q = 1, \dots, Q$. Layer 3 represents the crust. In this example, its density $\rho(c)$ assumes two possible values $\rho^{(cc)}$ and $\rho^{(oc)}$ representing, respectively, continental and oceanic crust. More complex models can be generated by using a function describing the lateral density variations within the crust. Finally, Layer 4 represents a homogeneous mantle with constant density $\rho^{(m)}$. Basement and Moho are represented by the dashed-white lines. The continuous black line represents the reference Moho. The reference mass distribution is formed by an upper layer with constant density $\rho^{(r)}$ and base at the reference Moho. Below this layer, we presume a reference distribution with the same constant density $\rho^{(m)}$ of the mantle.

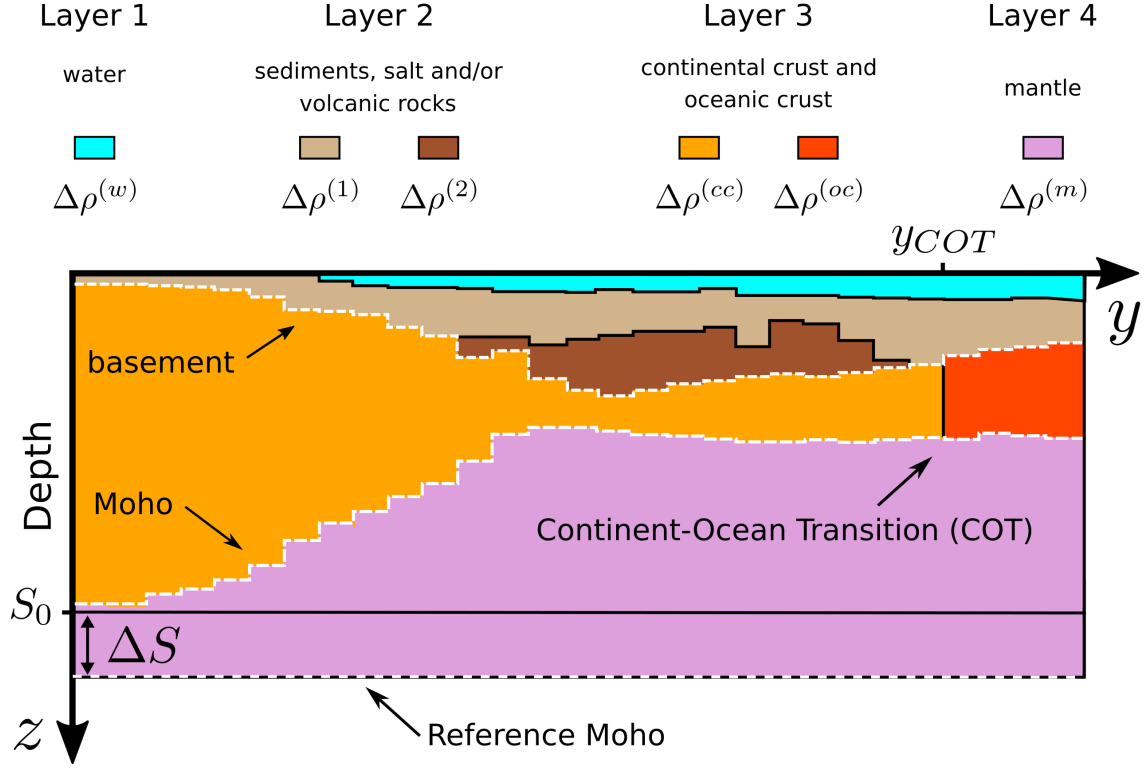


Figure 2: Interpretation model formed by N columns of vertically stacked prisms. Each column is formed by four layers of prisms and locally approximates the rifted margin model shown in Figure 1. Each prism has a constant density contrast defined as the difference between its corresponding density at the rifted margin model and the constant density $\rho^{(r)}$ of the shallowest layer forming the reference density distribution (Figure 1). Basement, Moho and the reference Moho are represented by dashed-white lines. The continuous black line represents the compensation depth at S_0 . The reference Moho is located at $S_0 + \Delta S$.

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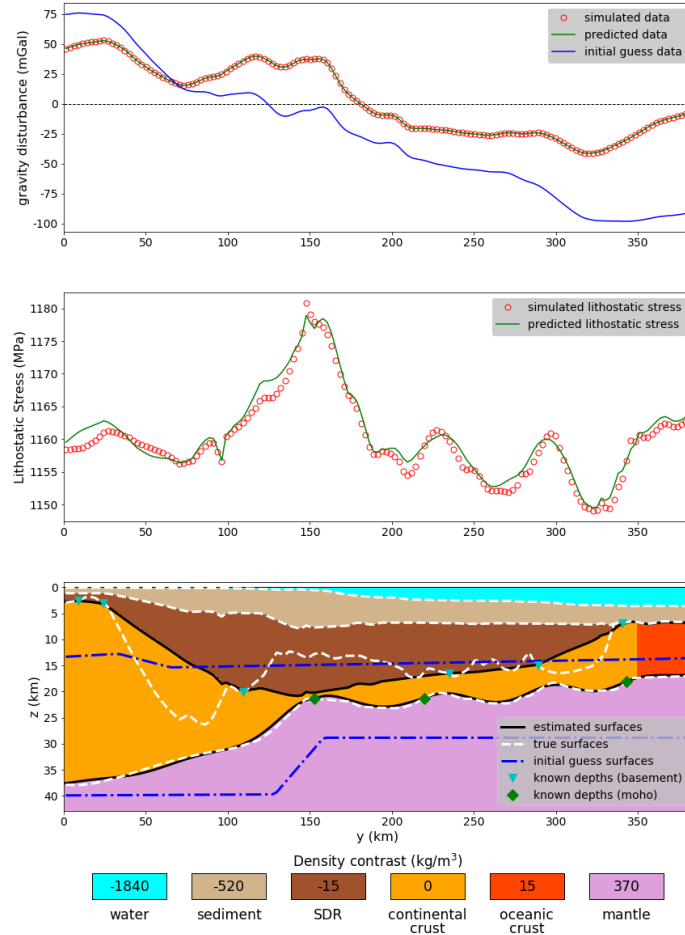


Figure 3: Application to synthetic data. Results obtained in Step 1. (Bottom panel) Estimated and true surfaces, initial basement and Moho used in the inversion (initial guess) and known depths at basement and Moho. (Middle panel) True and estimated lithostatic stress curves computed by using equation 6. The values are multiplied by a constant gravity value equal to 9.81 m/s^2 . (Upper panel) Gravity disturbance data produced by the volcanic margin model (simulated data), by the estimated model (predicted data) and by the model used as initial guess in the inversion (initial guess data). The contour of the prisms forming the interpretation model were omitted. The density contrasts were defined according to Table 1.

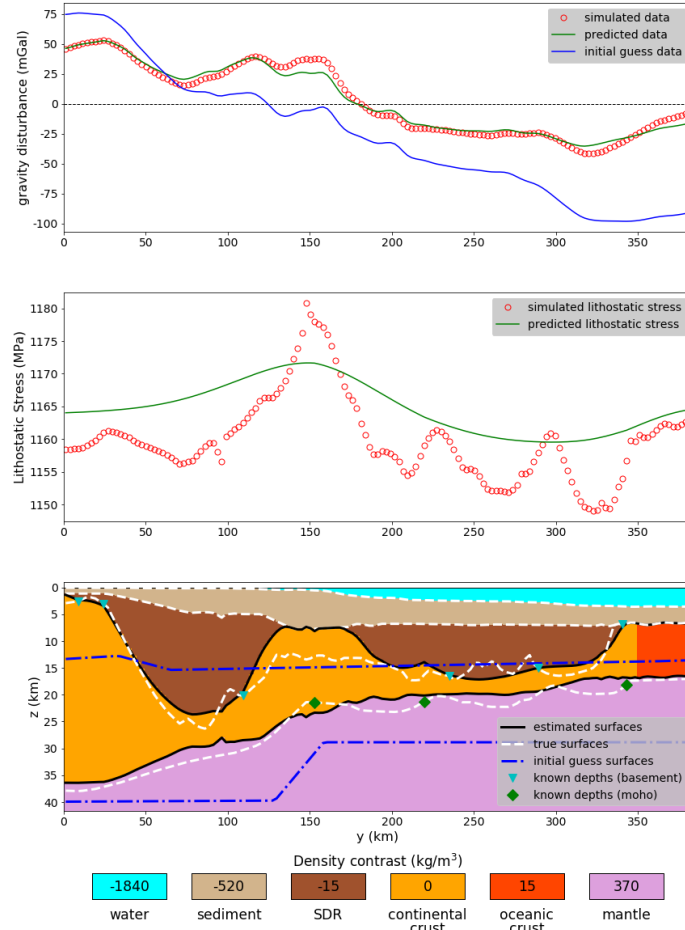


Figure 4: Application to synthetic data. Results obtained in Step 2. The remaining informations are the same shown in the caption of Figure 3.

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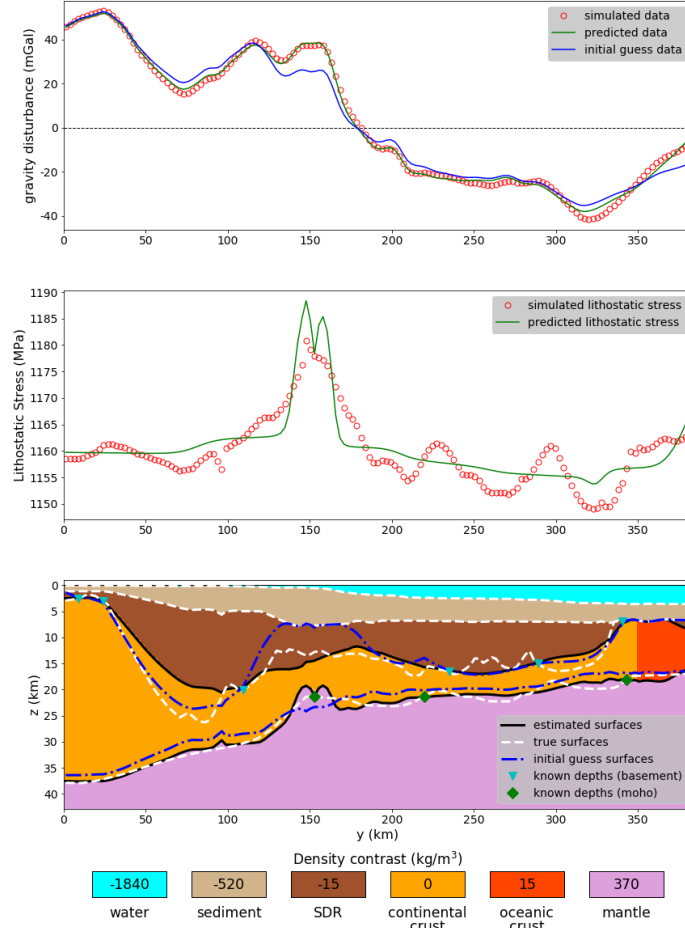


Figure 5: Application to synthetic data. Results obtained in Step 3 by using $\sigma = 21$ (equation 20). The remaining informations are the same shown in the caption of Figure 3.

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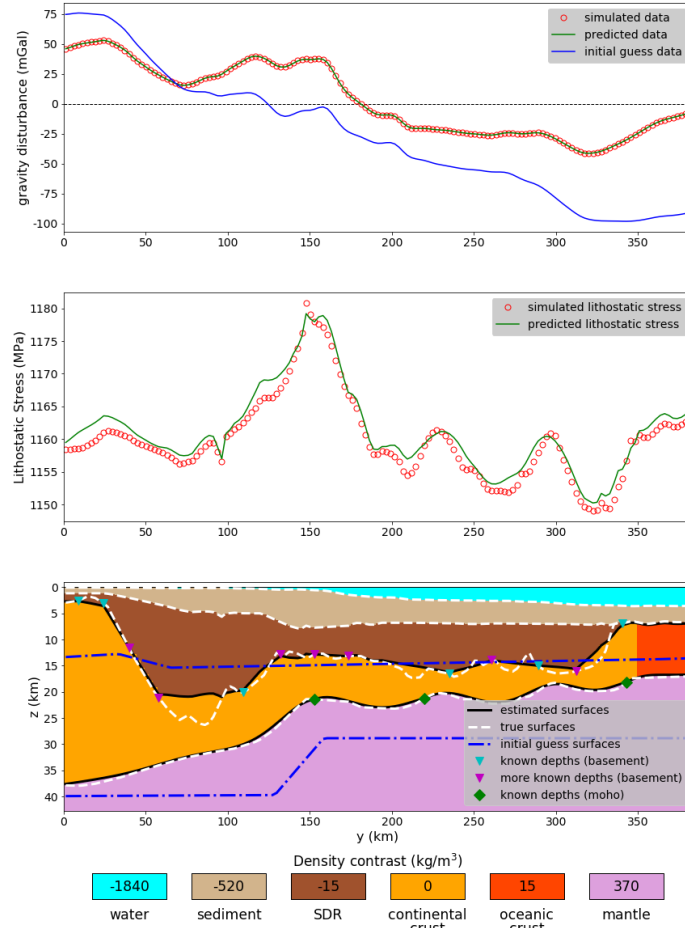


Figure 6: Application to synthetic data. Results obtained in Step 1 by using additional known depths at basement (purple symbols). The remaining informations are the same shown in the caption of Figure 3.

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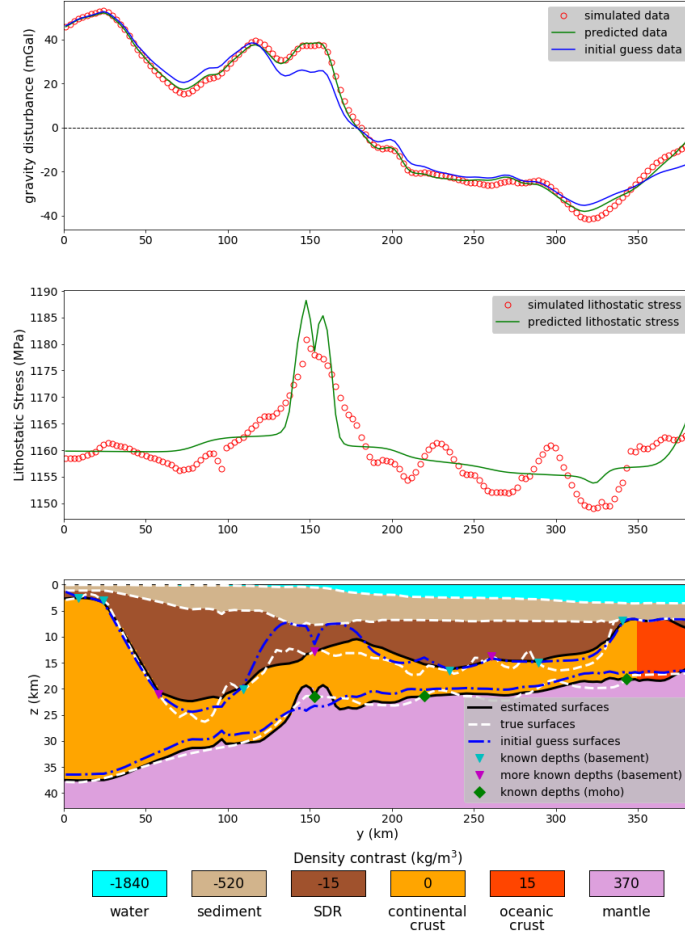


Figure 7: Application to synthetic data. Results obtained in Step 3 by using $\sigma = 21$ (equation 20) and additional known depths at basement (purple symbols). The remaining informations are the same shown in the caption of Figure 3. Notice that, in comparison with the estimated model shown in Figure 6, the number of additional known depths is small.

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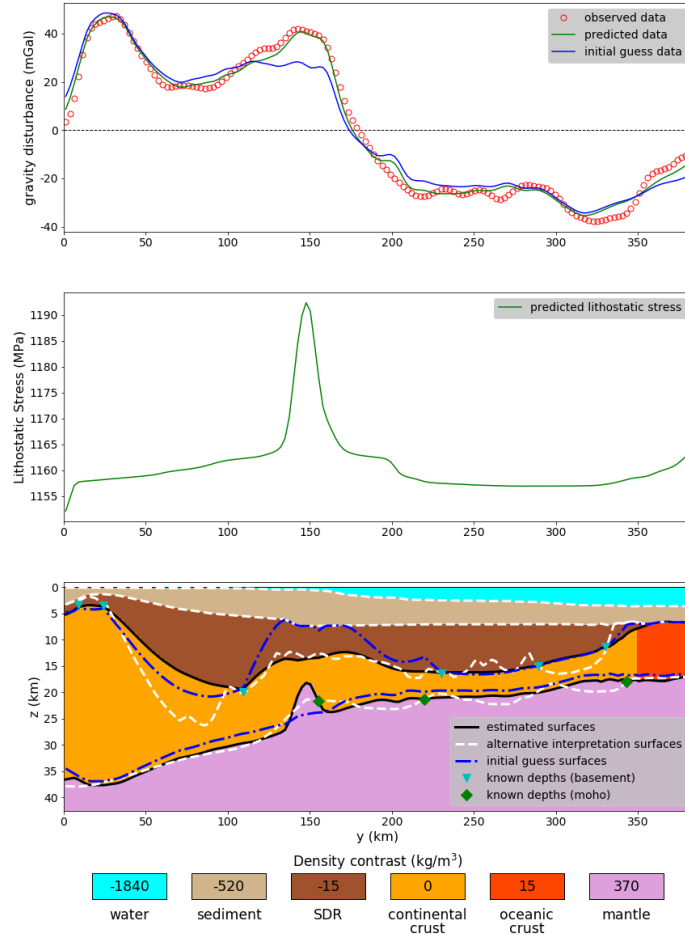


Figure 8: Application to real data on Pelotas basin, Brazil. Results obtained in Step 3 by using $\sigma = 58$ (equation 20). (Bottom panel) Estimated surfaces, initial basement and Moho used in the inversion (initial guess) and known depths at basement and Moho. The dashed white lines represent an alternative interpretation obtained by Zalán (2015) at the same study area. (Middle panel) Estimated lithostatic stress curve computed by using equation 6. The values are multiplied by a constant gravity value equal to 9.81 m/s^2 . (Upper panel) Observed gravity disturbance data, data produced by the estimated model (predicted data) and data produced the by model used as initial guess in the inversion (initial guess data). The contour of the prisms forming the interpretation model were omitted. The density contrasts were defined according to Table 1.

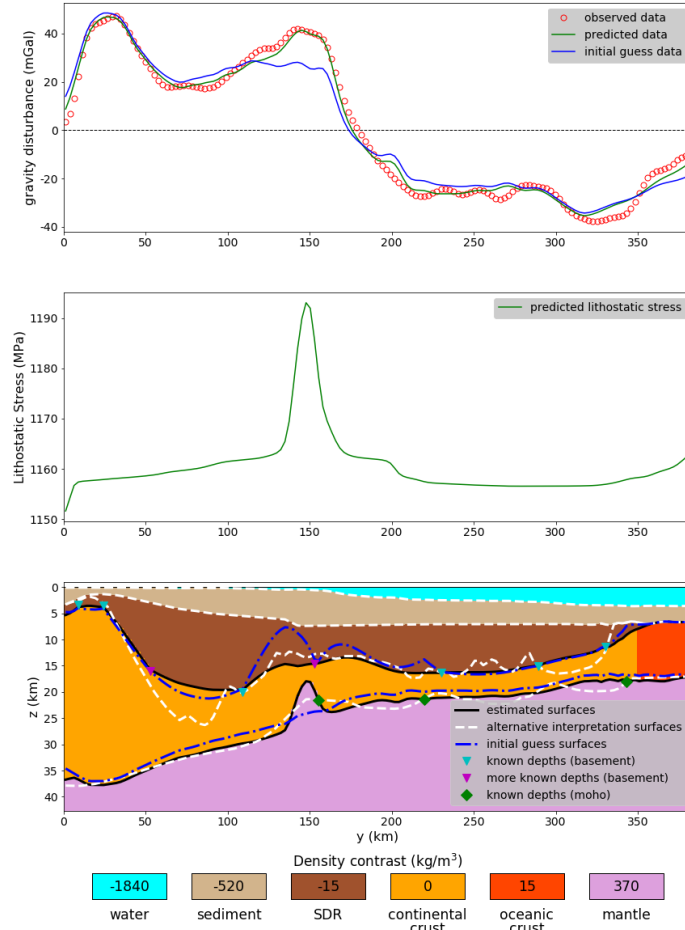


Figure 9: Application to real data on Pelotas basin, Brazil. Results obtained in Step 3 by using $\sigma = 58$ (equation 20) and additional known depths at basement. The remaining informations are the same shown in the caption of Figure 8.

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