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Reliable Euler deconvolution solutions of gravity data throughout the β -VDR and THGED methods: Application to mineral exploration and geological structural mapping

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ABSTRACT

Euler deconvolution (ED) is mainly used to estimate the locations and depths of magnetic bodies. This technique can also be applied to gravity anomalies but requires caution, as Euler solutions directly obtained from gravity anomalies may provide misleading results. In addition, the traditional Euler deconvolution generates many spurious solutions and is noise-sensitive. This research presents an improved method for the ED of gravity anomalies. This method is based on a finite-difference method (β-VDR) that provides robust vertical derivatives of gravity anomalies, and the total horizontal gradient-based edge detection method (THGED) used to select the Euler solutions, filtering out spurious solutions. Our method is exemplified with two synthetic gravity models and two real datasets from the Voisey's Bay deposit (Canada) and the Hanoi basin (Vietnam). The advantage of the proposed method is that it can provide the depths more accurately and is less sensitive to noise than some modified ED methods.

Keywords: Edge detection, stable finite difference, gravity data, Euler deconvolution.

1. Introduction

Euler deconvolution (ED) is one of the most popular quantitative interpretation methods for magnetic anomalies (Florio et al., 2006). The horizontal location and depth of sources are obtained from the ED without an assumption on magnetization intensity (Ekinci

et al., 2014). The ED was introduced by Thompson (1982) for 2D sources and extended for 3D sources by Reid et al. (1990). The popularization of the ED is mainly due to its incredible simplicity of implementation and use, providing an excellent choice for a rapid initial interpretation. The ED has successfully outlined contacts, faults, trends, tectonic blocks, and basements from magnetic

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data (Zhang et al., 2015). Some comprehensive estimations of this technique are presented by Jekeli (2009), Reid et al. (2014), and Pašteka and Kušnirák (2020).

The ED involves passing a user-defined window over the grid, and the depth of sources is computed by solving linear leastsquares problems within windows. Since this method scans the whole data to obtain the depths, it typically produces many false solutions (Catalán and Martín Davila, 2003; Castro et al., 2020). Spurious solutions may also result from noise in the field, which is amplified when derivatives of the field are computed (Cooper, 2004; Pašteka and Richter, 2005). Some criteria have been introduced to (1982)constrain solutions. Thompson proposed using a tolerance value to remove normalized depth solutions smaller than this value. Barbosa et al. (1999) suggested an acceptance criterion that removes solutions with residual norms less than a specified maximum. Chen et al. (2014) proposed retaining only highly clustered solutions. An alternative approach taking advantage of edge filters (Pal et al., 2016a, b; Narayan et al., 2016; 2021; Nasuti et al., 2019; Sahoo et al., 2022a, b; Jorge et al., 2023; Pham and Prasad, 2023; Alvandi and Ardestani, 2023; Alvandi and Ghanati, 2023; Oliveira et al., 2023; Pham 2023, 2024a, b, c; Kafadar and Oksum, 2024) is to compute ED inside areas determined by source edge locations, for example, the total horizontal gradient (ED-THG) (Fairhead et al., 1994; Huang et al., 2022), total gradient (ED-TG) (Catalán and Martín Davila, 2003; Ruppel et al., 2018), normalized total horizontal gradient (Alamdar et al., 2015), combined tilt derivative filters (Castro et al., 2018; 2020), and enhanced total horizontal gradient (Pham et al., 2024a).

The ED has been extended to gravity sources (e.g., Marson and Klingele, 1993; Zhang et al., 2000; Reid et al., 2003; Son et al., 2005; Beiki, 2010) and has been applied to interpret gravity anomalies in some geological scenarios (Saadi et al., 2008; Kumar et al., 2020; Ganguli et al., 2021; Aprina e al., 2024). Unlike magnetic data, the ED is routinely applied to the vertical derivative of gravity anomalies. This technique has also been applied to gravity anomalies (El Gout, 2010; Kumar et al., 2018, 2022; EL-Badrawy et al., 2021; Melouah et al., 2023). The latter approach may be pursued by a suitable modification of the structural index, but it leads to theoretical difficulties in the case of the contact model (Reid et al., 2003).

In this study, we review the ED for the gravity case and propose an improved version (ED-THGED) where we constrain solutions by using moving windows determined by the peaks of THGED, a total horizontal gradient-based edge detection method (Pham et al., 2024b). We also use a stable vertical derivative calculation method (Oliveira and Pham, 2022) to reduce spurious solutions. The efficacy of the proposed algorithm is exemplified with two gravity models and two real datasets from the Voisey's Bay deposit (Canada) and the Hanoi basin (Vietnam).

2. Methodology

The locations of geological structures can be estimated from their magnetic anomalies using the ED (Thompson, 1982; Reid et al., 1990). This algorithm finds magnetic source locations (x_0, y_0, z_0) , which we refer to as solutions by solving a least-squares system given by Euler's homogeneity equation,

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$$(x - x_0)\frac{\partial \Delta T}{\partial x} + (y - y_0)\frac{\partial \Delta T}{\partial y} + (z - z_0)\frac{\partial \Delta T}{\partial z} = -N\Delta T \tag{1}$$

over the point (x, y, z) of a moving window that scans the entire grid.

The operators $\partial \Delta T/\partial x$, $\partial \Delta T/\partial y$, and $\partial \Delta T/\partial z$ denote derivatives in the x, y, and z directions. Moreover, N denotes the structural index,

$$(x - x_0)\frac{\partial^2 \Delta g}{\partial z \partial x} + (y - y_0)\frac{\partial^2 \Delta g}{\partial z \partial y} + (z - z_0)\frac{\partial^2 \Delta g}{\partial z^2} = -N\frac{\partial \Delta g}{\partial z},\tag{2}$$

gravity

Klingele, 1993), i.e.,

where $\partial \Delta g/\partial z$ is calculated using the β -VDR method, balancing accuracy and stability.

According to Oliveira and Pham (2022), the vertical derivative $\partial \Delta g/\partial z$ is given by:

For the gravity case, the magnetic data ΔT

(Marson

is replaced by the vertical derivative of the

which identifies the source geometry.

anomaly $\partial \Delta g/\partial z$

$$\frac{\partial \Delta g}{\partial z} = \frac{c_1 \Delta g(h_1) + c_2 \Delta g(h_2) + c_3 \Delta g(h_3) + c_4 \Delta g(h_4) + c_5 \Delta g(h_5)}{\Delta h}$$
(3)

with c_1 , ..., c_5 are given by:

$$\begin{cases} c_1 = (2\beta^3 + 15\beta^2 + 35\beta + 25)/12, \\ c_2 = (-8\beta^3 - 54\beta^2 - 104\beta - 48)/12, \\ c_3 = (12\beta^3 + 72\beta^2 + 114\beta + 36)/12, (4) \\ c_4 = (-8\beta^3 - 42\beta^2 - 56\beta - 16)/12, \\ c_5 = (2\beta^3 + 9\beta^2 + 11\beta + 3)/12, \end{cases}$$

and $\Delta g(h_i)$ is an upward continuation anomaly at $h_i = -\beta \Delta h - (i-1)\Delta h$, Δh is the spacing increment, and β is the stabilizing parameter. We can use $\Delta h = 1/100$ or 1/10 of grid spacing (Oliveira and Pham, 2022; Pham et al. (2024a), while β is between 20 and 60 (Oliveira and Pham, 2022; Pham, 2024b).

The horizontal derivatives of $\partial \Delta g/\partial z$ in Eq (2) are calculated by standard finite differences (Ekinci and Yiğitbaş, 2012, 2015), while the Laplace equation is used to obtain the second-order vertical derivative,

$$\frac{\partial^2 \Delta g}{\partial z^2} = -\frac{\partial^2 \Delta g}{\partial x^2} - \frac{\partial^2 \Delta g}{\partial y^2}.$$
 (5)

As well known from the literature, the ED algorithm usually generates many spurious solutions, and one or more strategies are usually employed to filter them out (FitzGerald et al., 2004). Herein, we adopt the following strategies:

- ✓ Negative depth values are discarded;
- ✓ Isolated solutions are discarded;
- ✓ The moving window is restricted to a few grid points.

We regard a solution as isolated if its distance from the other solutions is more significant than a prescribed value d_{min} . Moreover, we designed a constraining mask with points that serve as the centers of the moving windows (Castro et al., 2020). This mask is composed of all grid points such that THGED > tol, where tol is a prescribed tolerance, and THGED is the following edgedetection filter (Pham et al., 2024b):

$$THGED = atan \frac{\frac{\partial THG}{\partial z} - \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial THG}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial THG}{\partial y}\right)^2}}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial THG}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial THG}{\partial y}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial THG}{\partial z}\right)^2}},$$
(6)

where *THG* is given by (Cordell, 1979):

$$THG = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial \Delta g}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial \Delta g}{\partial y}\right)^2}.$$
 (7)

3. Results

The effectiveness of the proposed method (ED-THGED) is demonstrated with two synthetic models and two field datasets from the Voisey's Bay deposit (Canada) and Hanoi basin (Vietnam). The ED-THGED performed using windows with a popular size of 10×10 observation points (Castro et al., 2020) and a structural index of 0 for contacts, as Marson and Klingele (1993) recommended. In this study, we used $\Delta h = 0.1$ of grid spacing and $\beta = 40$ for all examples. The results of the ED-THGED are also compared to those of the improved Euler deconvolution versions based on the total horizontal gradient (ED-THG) and total gradient (ED-TG) with THG is given by Eq. (7) and TG is defined by (Roest et al., 1992; Ekinci et al., 2013):

$$TG = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial \Delta g}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial \Delta g}{\partial y}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial \Delta g}{\partial z}\right)^2}.$$
 (8)

Like the THG and THGED, the TG uses maxima to outline the edges. The ED-THG and ED-TG also discarded isolated solutions and solutions where $THG < \frac{\max(THG)}{100}$ or $TG < \frac{\max(TG)}{100}$.

3.1. Theoretical examples

The first model includes a prismatic source with a 100 kg/m³ density contrast. The prism is $300 \times 300 \text{ m}^2$ with a depth of 30 m. Figs. 1a and 1b show the model and its gravity anomaly. Figs. 2a-c show the THG, TG, and THGED of the anomaly, respectively. We can see that the peaks in the THG and THGED maps are positioned close to the actual edges, while the peaks of the TG are not. The locations of these THG and TG peaks are obtained using the Blakely and Simpson (1986) method and are then used for the ED-THG and ED-TG methods. As the THGED is a normalization detector, we used the locations of the values greater than or equal to 0.3 for the presented technique ED-THGED (i.e., tol=0.3). Figs. 2d-f depict the depths from applying the ED-THG, ED-TG, and ED-THGED, respectively. The histograms of these depths are shown in Figs. 2g-i, respectively. The average depths in Figs. 2d-f are 29.1, 11, and 29.5 m, respectively. The ED-THGEDs bring better depth estimates than the ED-THG and ED-TG.

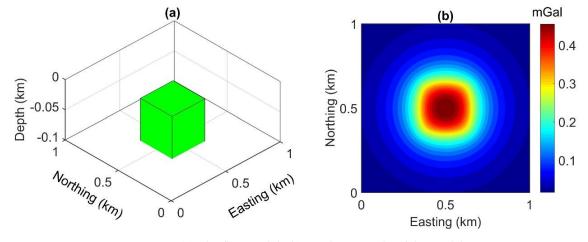


Figure 1. (a) The first model, (b) gravity anomaly of the model

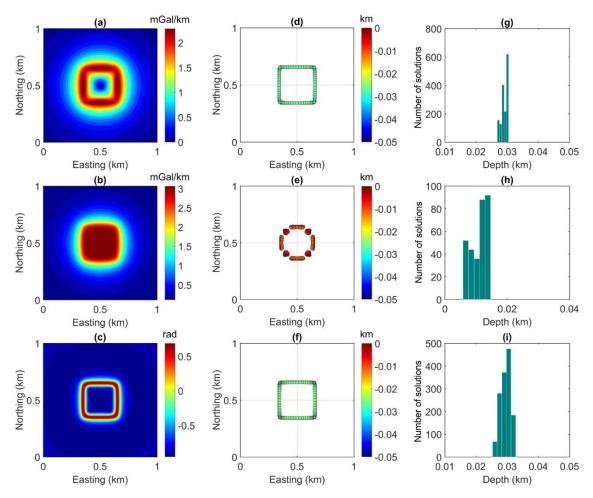


Figure 2. Results for the data in Fig. 1b: (a) THG, (b) TG, (c) THGED, (d) ED-THG, (e) ED-TG, (f) ED-THGED, (g) Histogram of the ED-THG solutions, (h) Histogram of the ED-THGED solutions

In the second one, we consider a more extensive scale model with geometric parameters listed in Table 1. This model includes two prismatic sources, A and B, with 200 and 120 kg/m³ density contrasts, respectively. Figs. 3a and 3b depict the model and its gravity anomaly. Figs. 4a-c present the THG, TG, and THGED of the anomaly, respectively. We can see that the THG and THGED generate maximum values close to both bodies' actual edges. However,

the TG does not provide the peaks over the edges of the body B. Like the first example, the Blakely and Simpson (1986) method was used to find the THG and TG peaks, and then the peak locations were used to select the windows for the ED-THG and ED-TG. Since the THGED creates balanced anomalies for the edges of the bodies located at different depths, a threshold value of 0.3 was used to detect the edge locations, as the first example. Figs. 4d-f present the depths

estimated by the ED-THG, ED-TG, and ED-THGED, respectively. Figs. 4g-i depict the histograms of the ED-THG, ED-TG, and ED-THGED solutions. One can see that the ED-THG is effective in estimating the depth of body A, but it cannot determine all the

locations and depths of body B. The ED-TG is less effective in mapping both bodies. The solutions from the proposed method ED-THGED show all the bodies closer to the actual depths than those estimated by the ED-THG and ED-TG.

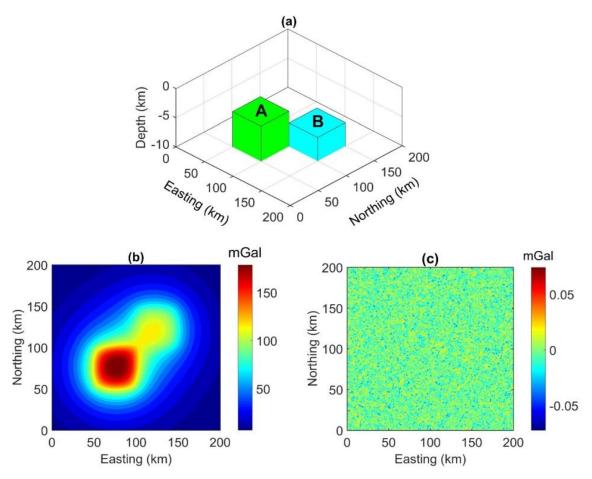


Figure 3. (a) The second model, (b) gravity anomaly of the model, (c) Gaussian noise

Table 1. Geometric parameters of the second model

Parameters	A	В
x-coordinate of center (km)	75	125
y-coordinate of center (km)	75	125
Width (km)	50	50
Length (km)	50	50
Top depth (km)	4	6

To test the stability of the ED-THGED technique, anomalies of Fig. 3b were contaminated with noise having an amplitude of 0.01% of anomaly maximum (Fig. 3c). Figs. 5a-c present the maps of the THG, TG, and THGED of noisy data. The peaks in the THG, TG, and THGED maps continue to be

used in the Euler deconvolution methods. Figs. 5d-f depict the depths obtained from applying the ED-THG, ED-TG, and ED-THGED, respectively. The histograms of the ED-THG, ED-TG, and ED-THGED solutions are shown in Figs. 5g-i, respectively. In the presence of noise, many less significant peaks appear in the THG and TG outputs, bringing

many spurious windows for the ED. Thus, the ED-THG and ED-TG generate many false solutions (Figs. 5d and e). In this case, the solution distribution in Fig. 5f suggests that the ED-THGED is less noise-sensitive than the ED-THG and ED-TG. The calculated depths from the ED-THGED are close to the actual values.

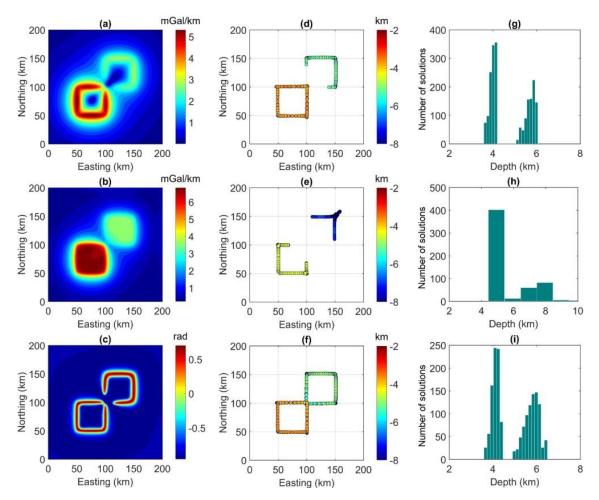


Figure 4. Results for the data in Fig. 3b: (a) THG, (b) TG, (c) THGED, (d) ED-THG, (e) ED-TG, (f) ED-THGED, (g) Histogram of the ED-THG solutions, (h) Histogram of the ED-THGED solutions

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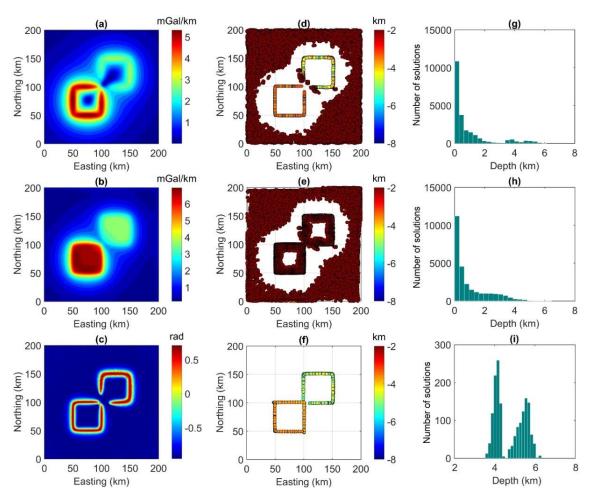


Figure 5. Results for the data in Fig. 3b after adding noise: (a) THG, (b) TG, (c) THGED, (d) ED-THG, (e) ED-TG, (f) ED-THGED, (g) Histogram of the ED-THG solutions, (h) Histogram of the ED-THGED solutions

3.2. Real applications

3.2.1. The Voisey's Bay Ni-Cu-Co deposit

The practical application of the proposed method ED-THGED was estimated by mapping the massive sulfide ore deposit from actual gravity data of Voisey's Bay, Canada. The Voisey's Bay Ni-Cu-Co deposit (Fig. 6) is one of Canada's most significant mineral discoveries in the 20th Century (Farquharson et al., 2008). The troctolite to gabbroic rocks host this deposit, which is emplaced along the

tectonic contact between the Archean rocks of the Nain province and the Paleoproterozoic rocks of the Churchill province (Fig. 6). The deposit is not visible on the surface except for a small gossan (Wilton et al., 2021). Geophysical surveys and diamond drilling revealed the Void ore body buried under 20 meters of till (Wilton et al., 2021). Fig. 7 displays the Bouguer gravity data of the deposit after digitizing and interpolating into a regular grid with 20 ×24 grid points (King, 2007).

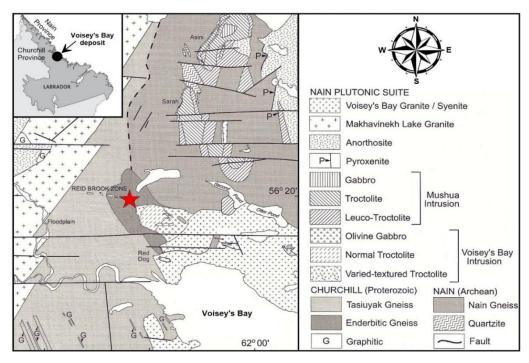


Figure 6. Geology map of the Voisey's Bay area showing the location of the Voisey's Bay Ni-Cu-Co deposit (red star) (Li and Naldrett, 1999)

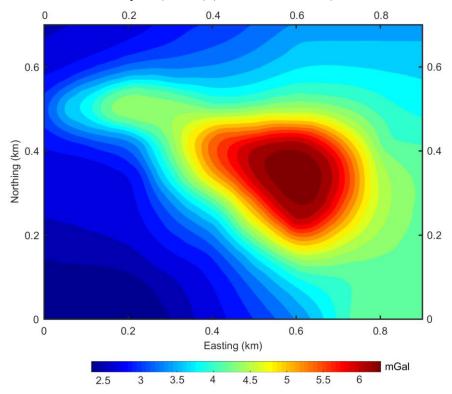


Figure 7. Bouguer data map over the Voisey's Bay Ni-Cu-Co deposit

Figs. 8a-c show the THG, TG, and THGED of anomalies in Fig. 7, respectively. The high amplitude anomalies dominate the THG and TG outputs, while the THGED can determine all edges more clearly. Figs. 8d-f show the results from applying the ED-THG, ED-TG, and ED-THGED to data in Fig. 7 and using the window locations determined by the maxima of the THG, TG, and THGED, respectively. The histograms of

these results are shown in Figs. 8g-8i, respectively. We can see that the ED-THG and ED-TG results are noisy, especially since the ED-TG brings many spurious solutions. The presented method is less susceptible to noise than the ED-THG and ED-TG, and it can provide a more continuous body compared to other methods. Most of the depths from the ED-THGED method range from 10 to 30 m.

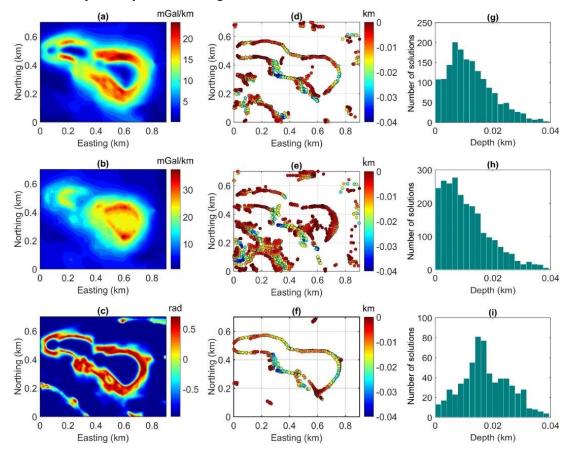


Figure 8. Results for the data in Fig. 7 (a) THG, (b) TG, (c) THGED, (d) ED-THG, (e) ED-TG, (f) ED-THGED, (g) Histogram of the ED-THG solutions, (h) Histogram of the ED-THGED solutions

3.2.2. The Hanoi basin

We further estimated the practical application of the improved algorithm ED-THGED by interpreting Bouguer anomalies from the Hanoi basin (Fig. 9). The region is between the Cenozoic Indochina block and the

South China block in northern Vietnam. The region has over Quaternary sediments and some northwest-southeast trending faults (Koszowska et al., 2007; Phach et al., 2020). The gravity dataset of the basin was collected by the Geophysical Division of Vietnam and is displayed in Fig. 10.

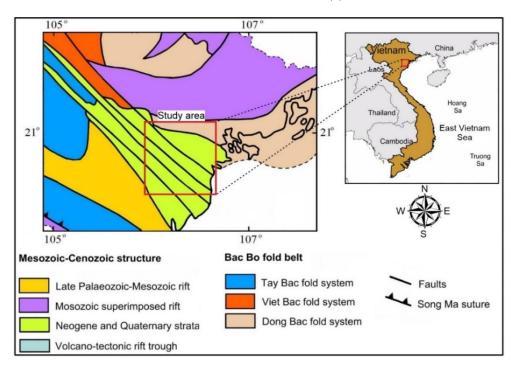


Figure 9. Geology map of Northeast Vietnam showing the location of the Hanoi basin

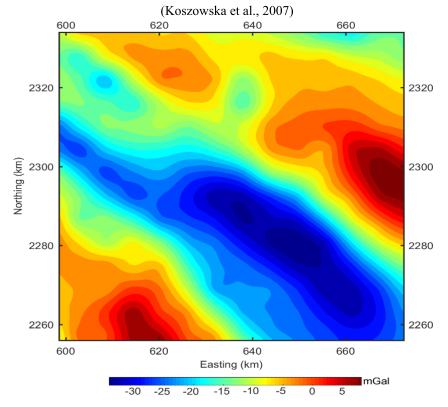


Figure 10. Bouguer data map of the Hanoi basin

Figures. 11a-c display the THG, TG, and THGED of Bouguer data in Fig. 10. The northwest-southeast trending structures dominate the THG, while isolated sources dominate the AS. Again, the THGED effectively determines all structures' boundaries with different anomalies. Using the window locations determined by the maxima of the THG, TG, and THGED, the depths of structures were computed by the ED-THG, ED-TG, and ED-THGED.

Figs. 11d-f show the results of ED-THG, ED-TG, and ED-THGED. The histograms of these results are shown in Figs. 11g-11i, respectively. The determined structures from the ED-THG and ED-THGED are generally located at depths from 0.5 to 3.5 km, while most sources in the ED-TG map are less than 2 km. In this case, the ED-THGED still provides a continuous structure compared to other methods.

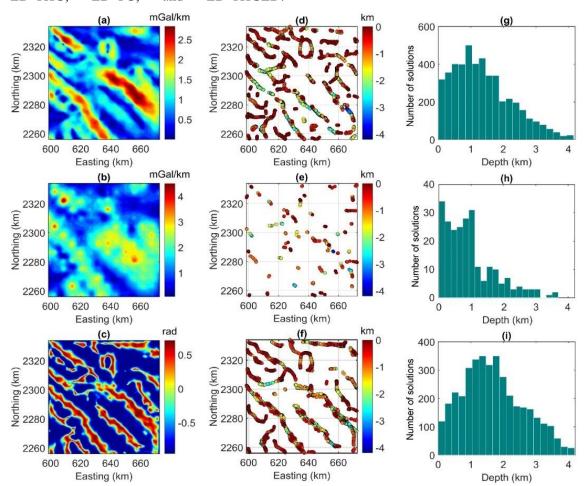


Figure 11. Results for the data in Fig. 10: (a) THG, (b) TG, (c) THGED, (d) ED-THG, (e) ED-TG, (f) ED-THGE, (g) Histogram of the ED-THG solutions, (h) Histogram of the ED-THGED solutions

4. Discussions

The first model with one prism is not affected by interference between anomalies.

Hence the solutions obtained from the ED-THG and ED-TG methods are observed to converge at the body location, like the ED-

THGED. However, the ED-THG and ED-THGED bring better depth estimates than the ED-TG. The reason is that the use of the THG and THGED creates more accurate boundaries than the TG; hence, they bring better windows for the ED. In addition, we note that the solutions from the ED-THGED are closer to the actual depth than those estimated by the ED-THG. In the second model, the THG and TG are dominated by significant amplitude anomalies of the shallow body, as Kamto et al. (2023) and Alvandi et al. (2023) reported. For this reason, the ED-THG and ED-TG methods cannot determine all the source locations. produces Since **THGED** balanced anomalies for the edges of the different bodies, the ED-THGED has an improved performance compared with the ED-THG and ED-TG. The noise in the third synthetic example generates many artifacts in the ED-THG and ED-TG maps. However, we can minimize the noise and detect density sources more precisely by using the vertical gradient calculated by the β-VDR and the window locations determined by the THGED maxima

For a real example from the Voisey's Bay Ni-Cu-Co deposit, the **ED-THGED** performs better than the ED-THG and ED-TG. The ED-THGED result reveals the presence of a massive sulfide deposit in the region more clearly, which is known as an ovoid ore body as reported by some other authors (e.g., Huminicki et al., Farquharson et al., 2008; Lelievre et al., 2012). Most of the depths from the ED-THGED method range from 10 to 30 m, which agrees with the results from drill holes (i.e., Farquharson et al., 2008; Lelievre et al., 2012). In the second real example, the ED-THG does not provide continuous linear structures in the Hanoi basin since the maxima locations in the THG map are not entirely determined by the peak detection method (Pham et al., 2021). In addition, ED-THG brings more solutions than ED-THGED, which may relate to the noise issue, as reported in the model study. According to Paoletti et al. (2014), the TG often creates a single bell-shaped signal over the source center; hence, the structures determined by the ED-TG are discontinuous. The ED-THGED helps map a wide range of density boundaries of the Hanoi basin. These structures correlate well with northwest-southeast trending faults in the Hanoi basin. The solutions of the ED-THGED also agree very well with the lineaments of previous gravity studies (i.e., Son et al., 2005 and Pham et al., 2021) using the peak detection technique. The determined structures are generally located at depths from 0.5 to 3.5 km (Fig. 11f), obscured by the basin's sedimentary rocks. This agrees with the results reported by Son et al. (2005), which showed that most of the source depths in the basin are less than 3.5 km. By comparing the findings in Fig. 11, we can say that the ED-THGED method can determine more density structures than the ED-THG and ED-TG. The ED-THGED generates more continuous linear northwest-southeast trending structures that can be utilized to enhance the current geology map. Although we did not focus on geological and tectonic interpretations of the Hanoi basin, the result obtained from the improved method ED-THGED can be helpful for further studies on the geology and tectonics of this basin.

5. Conclusions

We have improved the ED algorithm for the gravity case by using the vertical gradient calculated from the β -VDR technique and the window detected from the maxima of the THGED. We compared the presented technique (ED-THGED) with other ED methods based on the THG (ED-THG) and TG (ED-TG) and showed that the ED-THGED could provide structure locations more clearly and with higher precision. In addition, the synthetic examples showed that the proposed algorithm is less susceptible to

noise and does not provide spurious solutions. The ED-THGED was applied to interpret real datasets from the Voisey's Bay deposit and the Hanoi basin. Our findings showed that the proposed method is effective in clearly mapping the deposits and structures that are obscured by sedimentary rocks.

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