

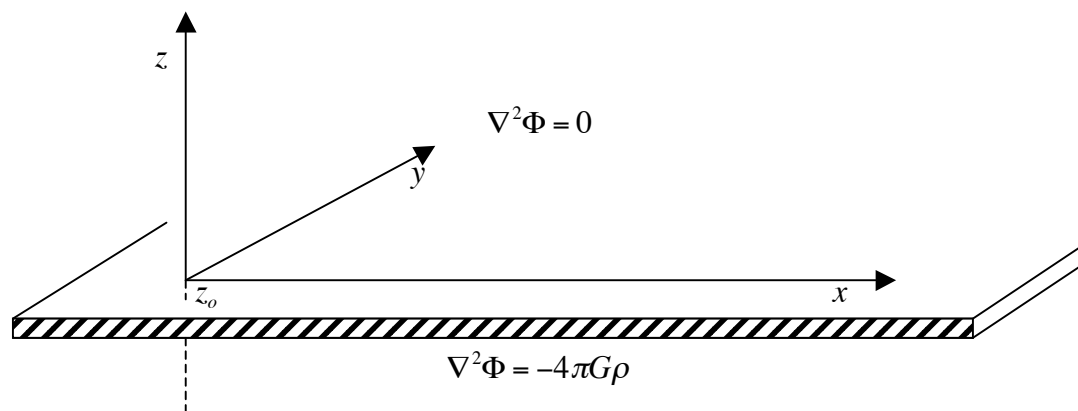
Poisson's Equation in Cartesian Coordinates

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As in the lecture on Laplace's equation, we are interested in anomalies due to local structure and will use a flat-earth approximation. However unlike the last lecture, the emphasis is on generating models of the disturbing potential and its derivatives from a 3-D model of the variations in density and topography of the earth. In a following lecture we'll combine this Fourier-approach to calculating gravity models with the models for isostasy and flexure to develop a topography to gravity transfer function. Consider the disturbing potential

$$\begin{array}{l} \Phi \\ \text{disturbing} \\ \text{potential} \end{array} = \begin{array}{l} U \\ \text{total} \\ \text{potential} \end{array} - \begin{array}{l} U_o \\ \text{reference} \\ \text{potential} \end{array} \quad (1)$$

where, in this case, the reference potential comprises the ellipsoidal reference Earth model plus the reference spherical harmonic model. The disturbing potential satisfies Laplace's equation for an altitude, z , above the highest mountain in the area while it satisfies Poisson's equation below this level as shown in the following diagram.



$\Phi(x,y,z)$ -- disturbing potential (total - reference)

G -- gravitational constant

ρ -- density anomaly (total - reference)

First consider a density model consisting of an infinitesimally-thin sheet at a depth z_0 having a surface-density of $\sigma(x,y)$ (units of mass per unit area). Later we'll construct a more complicated 3-D structure from a stack of many layers. Poisson's equation is an inhomogeneous second-order partial differential equation in three dimensions.

$$\frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial z^2} = -4\pi G \sigma(\mathbf{x}) \delta(z - z_o), \quad (2)$$

Six boundary conditions are needed to develop a unique solution. Far from the region, the disturbing potential must go to zero; this accounts for 5 of the boundary conditions

$$\lim_{|x| \rightarrow \infty} \Phi = 0, \quad \lim_{|y| \rightarrow \infty} \Phi = 0, \quad \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \Phi = 0 \quad (3)$$

The sixth condition is prescribed by the density model. To solve this differential equation, we'll use the 2-D fourier transform again where the forward and inverse transform are

$$F(\mathbf{k}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\mathbf{x}) e^{-i2\pi(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x})} d^2 \mathbf{x} \quad (4)$$

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(\mathbf{k}) e^{i2\pi(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x})} d^2 \mathbf{k}$$

where $\mathbf{x} = (x, y)$ is the position vector, $\mathbf{k} = (1/\lambda_x, 1/\lambda_y)$ is the wavenumber vector, and $(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x}) = k_x x + k_y y$. Fourier transformation reduces Poisson's equation and the surface boundary to

$$-4\pi^2 (k_x^2 + k_y^2) \Phi(\mathbf{k}, z) + \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial z^2} = -4\pi G \sigma(\mathbf{k}) \delta(z - z_o) \quad (5)$$

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \Phi(\mathbf{k}, z) = 0, \quad (6)$$

Next take the fourier transform with respect to z .

$$\pi (k_x^2 + k_y^2 + k_z^2) \Phi(\mathbf{k}, k_z) = G \sigma(\mathbf{k}) e^{-i2\pi k_z z_o} \quad (7)$$

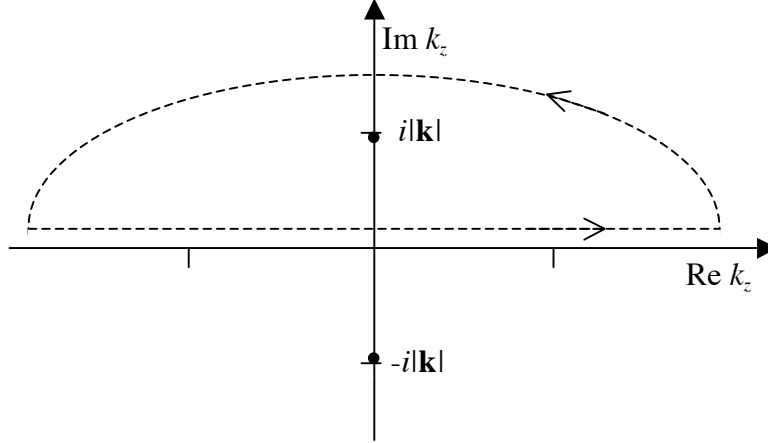
We have used the definition of the delta function $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(z - z_o) e^{-i2\pi k_z z} dz = e^{-i2\pi k_z z_o}$. Next we solve the differential equation for Φ and take the inverse fourier transform with respect to k_z .

$$\Phi(\mathbf{k}, z) = \frac{G \sigma(\mathbf{k})}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{i2\pi k_z (z - z_o)}}{k_z^2 + (k_x^2 + k_y^2)} dk_z \quad (8)$$

Use Calculus of residues to do the integration. The denominator can be factored as follows.

$$k_z^2 + (k_x^2 + k_y^2) = (k_z + i|\mathbf{k}|)(k_z - i|\mathbf{k}|) \quad (9)$$

where $|\mathbf{k}| = (k_x^2 + k_y^2)^{1/2}$. If $z > z_o$, then to satisfy the boundary condition as $z \rightarrow \infty$, one must integrate around the $i|\mathbf{k}|$ -pole.



The result is

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{i2\pi k_z(z-z_o)}}{(k_z + i|\mathbf{k}|)(k_z - i|\mathbf{k}|)} dk_z = 2\pi i \frac{e^{-2\pi|\mathbf{k}|(z-z_o)}}{2i|\mathbf{k}|} \quad (10)$$

The solution for the potential for $z > z_o$ is

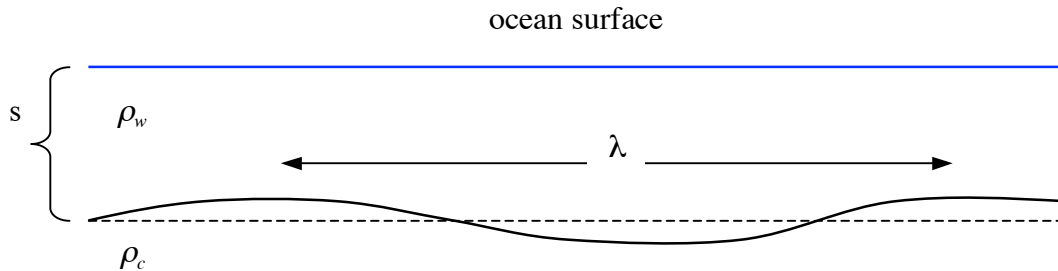
$$\Phi(\mathbf{k}, z) = G\sigma(\mathbf{k}) \frac{e^{-2\pi|\mathbf{k}|(z-z_o)}}{|\mathbf{k}|}. \quad (11)$$

The gravity anomaly is

$$\Delta g(\mathbf{k}, z) = -\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial z} = 2\pi G\sigma(\mathbf{k}) e^{-2\pi|\mathbf{k}|(z-z_o)}. \quad (12)$$

Example - Gravity due to seafloor topography

Consider topography on the ocean floor $t(\mathbf{x})$ where the maximum amplitude of the topography is much less than the mean ocean depth, s as shown in the following diagram.



Because the topography has low amplitude we can replace the surface density in equation (12) with the topography times the density contrast across the seafloor.

$$\Delta g(\mathbf{k}) = 2\pi G(\rho_c - \rho_w)T(\mathbf{k})e^{-2\pi|\mathbf{k}|s} \quad (13)$$

The result shows that, to a first approximation, the relationship between gravity and topography is linear and isotropic. The ratio of gravity to topography is equal to

$$\frac{\Delta g}{T} = 2\pi G(\rho_c - \rho_w)e^{-2\pi|\mathbf{k}|s} \quad (14)$$

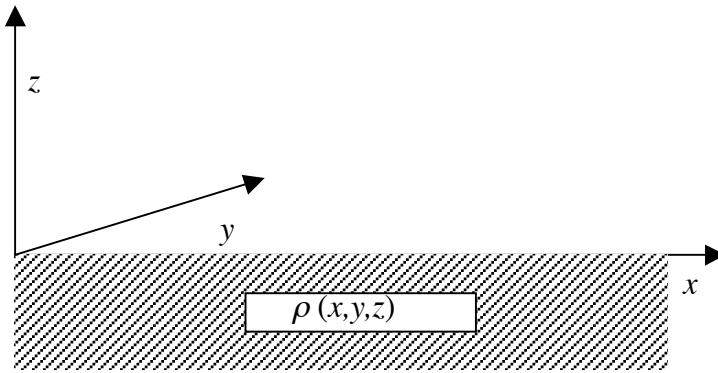
At long wavelength, $|\mathbf{k}| \rightarrow 0$ so the exponential upward continuation term is 1 and the gravity/topography ratio is simply the Bouguer correction term.

$$\frac{\Delta g}{T} = 2\pi G(\rho_c - \rho_w) = 75mGal/km \quad (15)$$

Suppose the wavelength of the topography is equal to the ocean depth. In this case the exponential, upward-continuation reduces the gravity measured on the ocean surface by a factor of $e^{-2\pi} = 0.0017$. Because of this upward-continuation, topography having wavelength less than the ocean depth become increasingly-difficult to observe in the gravity field at the ocean surface.

Gravity anomaly from 3-D density model

Using this formulation, one can stack, or integrate, these surface density layers over a range of depths to construct the gravity field due to a full 3-D density model.



$$\Phi(\mathbf{k}, z) = G \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \rho(\mathbf{k}, z_o) \frac{e^{-2\pi|\mathbf{k}|(z-z_o)}}{|\mathbf{k}|} dz_o \quad (16)$$

The equivalent expression in the space domain is

$$\Phi(\mathbf{x}, z) = G \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \rho(x_o, y_o, z_o) \left[(x-x_o)^2 + (y-y_o)^2 + (z-z_o)^2 \right]^{1/2} dz_o dy_o dx_o \quad (17)$$

Indeed this is just a statement of the convolution theorem where

$$\mathfrak{F} \left[(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{-1/2} \right] = \frac{e^{-2\pi|\mathbf{k}|z}}{|\mathbf{k}|}. \quad (18)$$

Computation of geoid height and gravity anomaly

The following table provides the two approaches for calculating geoid height and gravity anomaly from a 3-D density model. The fourier approach involves, 2-D fourier transformation of each layer, adding the upward-continued contribution from each layer, and inverse fourier transformation of the sum. The space-domain approach involves a 3-D convolution of the density model with the $1/r$ (geoid) or z/r^3 (gravity) kernel. For a model with 1024 points in both horizontal directions the fourier approach will be about 50,000 times faster to compute than the space-domain convolution. Moreover the fourier approach will have higher numerical accuracy. because there are fewer additions and subtractions.

space domain	wavenumber domain
$N(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{G}{g} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_0^o \frac{\rho(x_o, y_o, z_o)}{[(x - x_o)^2 + (y - y_o)^2 + z_o^2]^{3/2}} dz_o dy_o dx_o$	$N(\mathbf{k}) = \frac{G}{g} \int_{-\infty}^o \rho(\mathbf{k}, z_o) \frac{e^{2\pi \mathbf{k} z_o}}{ \mathbf{k} } dz_o$
$\Delta g(\mathbf{x}) = G \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_0^o \frac{\rho(x_o, y_o, z_o) z_o}{[(x - x_o)^2 + (y - y_o)^2 + z_o^2]^{3/2}} dz_o dy_o dx_o$	$\Delta g(\mathbf{k}) = 2\pi G \int_{-\infty}^o \rho(\mathbf{k}, z_o) e^{2\pi \mathbf{k} z_o} dz_o$

Gravity anomaly for a slab of thickness H and a density of ρ_o .

The equation relating gravity to the 3-D density anomaly in the wavenumber domain can be used to calculate the gravity anomaly due to a slab of thickness H and a density of ρ_o . This is used for the Bouguer correction in land gravity surveys. The 3-D density is

$$\rho(\mathbf{x}, z) = \begin{cases} \rho_o & -H < z < 0 \\ 0 & z < -H, z > 0 \end{cases} \quad (19)$$

The fourier transform of this density is

$$\rho(\mathbf{k}, z) = \begin{cases} \delta(k_x)\delta(k_y)\rho_o & -H < z < 0 \\ 0 & z < -H, z > 0 \end{cases} \quad (20)$$

The gravity anomaly integral simplifies to

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta g(\mathbf{k}) &= 2\pi G \rho_o \delta(k_x)\delta(k_y) \int_{-H}^o e^{2\pi|\mathbf{k}|z_o} dz_o \\ &= 2\pi G \rho_o \delta(k_x)\delta(k_y) \frac{1}{2\pi|\mathbf{k}|} (1 - e^{-2\pi|\mathbf{k}|H}). \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

Since only the zero wavenumber component is extracted by the delta function, we expand (23) in a Taylor series about $|\mathbf{k}|$ and take the limit as $|\mathbf{k}| \rightarrow 0$.

$$\lim_{|\mathbf{k}| \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{2\pi|\mathbf{k}|} \left[1 - 1 + 2\pi|\mathbf{k}|H - \frac{(2\pi|\mathbf{k}|H)^2}{2!} + \dots \right] = H \quad (22)$$

The result in the wavenumber domain is

$$\Delta g(\mathbf{k}) = 2\pi G\rho_o \delta(k_x)\delta(k_y)H. \quad (23)$$

The inverse fourier transform provides the gravity field due to an infinite slab

$$\Delta g(\mathbf{x}) = 2\pi G\rho_o H. \quad (24)$$

Bouguer gravity anomaly

Over the ocean one measures the total acceleration of gravity and subtracts the International Gravity Formula (IGF) to obtain free-air gravity anomaly. Indeed, the free-air anomaly is defined on the geoid which is closely-approximated by the ocean surface. Therefore no corrections are needed for marine gravity measurements.

In contrast, over the land one measures total gravitational acceleration at some elevation h above the geoid; assume this elevation is known from leveling. To reduce these gravity measurements to the geoid, two corrections are commonly applied.

- (1) The free-air correction accounts for the decrease in gravity because the observation point is further from the center of the Earth.
- (2) The Bouguer correction uses the infinite-slab approximation to account for the gravitational attraction of the rock between the measurement point and the geoid. Note unless the topography is very flat over a large area, this infinite-slab approximation may not be very accurate and a more accurate terrain correction should be applied.

Δg_B	=	g_t	-	$2\pi G\rho_o h$	+	$\frac{2GM_e}{R_e^3}h$	-	$\gamma_o(\theta)$
Bouguer gravity		measured gravity		slab correction		free - air correction		International Gravity Formula
				(-0.1118 mGal/m) ($\rho_o = 2670 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$)		(0.3086 mGal/m)		