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¹ Updated Europa Gravity Field and Interior ² Structure from a Reanalysis of Galileo Tracking

3 Data

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14 Abstract

- 15 The Galileo radio tracking data were reanalysed exploiting the new knowledge of Jupiter obtained by the
- 16 Juno mission, together with modern orbit determination techniques developed for the Cassini data analysis.
- 17 Using Doppler data acquired during six encounters of Europa an updated gravity field of the moon was
- 18 obtained, resulting in a value of C₂₂ statistically different from the available literature. The new value suggests
- 19 a thinner ice-water shell and a less dense interior.
- 20 Keywords: Europa, Interiors, Orbit determination, Jupiter, satellites, Geophysics

21 **1. Introduction**

- 22
- The Galileo mission studied the Jovian system for eight years, from December 1995 to September 2003. One
- 24 of the main mission objectives was the study of Europa, the smallest of the Jovian moons discovered by
- 25 Galileo Galilei in 1610, and the sixth biggest moon of the entire solar system. Before the arrival of the Galileo
- 26 spacecraft to the Jovian system, very little was known about Europa. The mission provided plenty of data © 2021. Licensed under the Creative Commons CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 <u>http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/</u>

which dramatically increased our knowledge of the moon and resulted in the discovery of a subsurface ocean
of liquid water (Carr et al., 1998; Kivelson et al., 2000; Zimmer et al., 2000), with important implications for
its habitability.

30 The gravity field of a celestial body is crucial to understand its interior structure and composition. Using 31 Galileo data, three different analyses of Europa's gravity field were performed. The first gravity field analysis, 32 (Anderson et al., 1997), analysed independently the non-coherent radiometric data acquired during E4 (December 1996) and E6 (February 1997), according to the numbering scheme used by the Galileo project, 33 34 providing a weighted mean of the single orbital fits in which the hydrostatic equilibrium constraint $(J_2/C_{22} =$ 35 10/3 for a relaxed, synchronously rotating, satellite) was applied. From the Radau relation the moment of 36 inertia (MoI) factor was retrieved directly from the degree-2 gravity field coefficients, obtaining a MoI = 0.330 37 \pm 0.014. This analysis concluded that the measurements were compatible with a metallic core surrounded by 38 a water ice-liquid outer shell. Subsequently (Anderson et al., 1998), performed a global fit using four Europa 39 flybys, adding E11 (November 1997) and E12 (December 1997) to the previous solution, along with ground-40 based astrometric data and optical navigation observables from both Voyager and Galileo, applying the 41 hydrostatic equilibrium as an a priori constraint. The analysis provided evidence that the Galilean moon is 42 most likely differentiated into a metallic core surrounded by a rock mantle and a water outer shell in liquid 43 or solid state. Finally, (Jacobson et al., 1999) reported on the reconstruction of Galileo's orbit during the 44 prime mission and the estimation of Jupiter's satellite ephemerides by means of a global fit. The analysis 45 used an extensive data set comprising Earth-based astrometry, Pioneer and Voyager radiometric and optical 46 data, and Galileo radiometric data up to E19 (February 1999), also introducing the a priori equilibrium 47 constraint between J_2 and C_{22} . The estimated J_2 and C_{22} coefficients were substantially smaller than those 48 published in the last reference work (Anderson et al., 1998).

The entire Galileo mission included 11 encounters of Europa, 8 of which were close enough to provide information about its mass and gravity field. In this work, only the best 6 encounters, in terms of data quality and availability, are used. The main characteristics of Galileo's flybys of Europa are summarized in Table 1,



while Figure 1 shows the corresponding ground tracks. Unfortunately, all the encounters were nearly equatorial, so we do not expect a good accuracy in the determination of the J₂ gravity coefficient (which is longitudinally symmetric). As can be seen in Table 1, the orbital distribution of the flybys in terms of mean anomaly of Europa around Jupiter, together with the non-negligible eccentricity of the Galilean satellite, suggest that in principle the tidal response to Jupiter could be inferred.

In this paper we present the reanalysis of Galileo tracking data acquired during the different encounters with the Galilean moon motivated by the future ESA's JUICE (Grasset et al., 2013) and NASA's Europa Clipper (Phillips et al., 2014) missions, which will study Ganymede, Europa, and Callisto, and by recent advancements in the knowledge of the Jupiter system.

First, NASA's Juno mission recently provided a new estimation of the gravity field of Jupiter, which drives the orbital motion of the moons, to an unprecedented level of accuracy (Folkner et al., 2017; less et al., 2018; Serra et al., 2019, Durante et al., 2020). The zonal harmonic coefficients up to degree 10 were determined up to 50 times more accurately than before and, for the first time, non-zero values for the odd zonal harmonic coefficients up to degree 9 were observed and related to Jupiter's wind dynamics (Kaspi et al., 2018, Guillot et al., 2018).

In addition, Juno provided new observations of the Io Plasma Torus (IPT), a toroidal cloud of plasma that orbits Jupiter (less et al., 2018), from which new models were derived (Phipps et al., 2018). The IPT introduces a non-dynamical, dispersive signal on the radiometric observables and becomes a source of bias in the gravity estimations, if not properly accounted for. The effect on the gravity analysis of the Galileo mission is critical, since the probe had to use the S-band, more affected by this dispersive phenomenon than higher frequency radio links currently used.

During the last years, several authors reported evidence of water plumes emerging from Europa (Roth et al.,
2014; Sparks et al., 2016). More recently, (Jia et al., 2018) performed a reanalysis of Galileo magnetometer
data acquired during E12, suggesting the presence of a plume, localized around 245° W and 5° S, in a region



with high surface temperature (Spencer et al., 1999). This plume may have influenced the motion of the
Galileo spacecraft during the encounter, potentially biasing the gravity field analysis.

Moreover, the current analysis is performed using new orbit determination codes and techniques extensively
 used for the Cassini radio science experiment, in order to provide an update on the gravity field of the moon
 and report on its internal structure implications.

This manuscript is organised as follows: Section 2 describes the data analysis; Section 3 provides the gravity field results; Section 4 details the implications on the interior structure of Europa; finally, Section 5 summarizes the main conclusions of this work.

84 **2. Data Analysis**

85

The gravity field of Europa can be estimated through reconstruction of Galileo's trajectory during encounters with the moon, exploiting the Doppler shift of a highly stable microwave signal induced by the relative motion between the tracking stations of the Deep Space Network (DSN) and the Galileo spacecraft.

During the different flybys of the Galileo probe with Europa, Doppler data at S-Band (2.3Ghz) were acquired by the 70-m antennas at the DSN complexes of Goldstone, Madrid and Canberra. The Galileo spacecraft operated using only the low-gain antenna at S-band, because Galileo's umbrella-like High Gain Antenna (HGA), which supported X-band, failed to correctly deploy. Therefore, the spacecraft downlink data rate was significantly reduced, limiting the mission science return, and the spacecraft tracking was carried out using the S-band link, which has larger noise and thus lower performances (less et al., 2012).

From all the available data (E4, E6, E11, E12, E14, E16, E19, and E26) we only used the 6 flybys that had
accessible both tropospheric and ionospheric calibrations, leaving E4 and E26 out of the analysis. The actual
length of each arc is determined by the available data in the vicinity of each encounter (Table 1).



Data selection was performed by preferring two-way data over three-way, if an overlap occurs. During E19 we used also one-way data acquired during the closest approach, due to the large sensitivity to the gravity field and the exceptional observed data quality of the obtained residuals. To account for a possible drift of the on-board clock, we estimated a constant bias and linear drift during the one-way tracking pass. Moreover, an additional solution was generated without using one-way data to assess the stability of the retrieved results, obtaining a compatible solution within 1-σ.

Data acquired with an elevation angle, as viewed from the DSN complex, lower than 15° were discarded to
 avoid potential biases coming from incorrect troposphere or ionosphere calibrations.

106 The HGA failure prevented the use of multi-frequency link calibration systems (Bertotti et al., 1993; Mariotti 107 et al., 2013), which could have been used to remove the systematic signal due to dispersive media. Since S-108 band data are significantly affected by dispersive noise, we studied in detail two sources of dispersive noise, 109 the ionosphere of Europa and the IPT, that potentially could have introduced a bias in the gravity results. To 110 do so, we generated the expected Doppler shift induced by these dispersive sources using reference models 111 (Kliore et al., 1997; Phipps et al., 2018), finding that the ionosphere could have corrupted the one-way data 112 acquired during the closest approaches of E4, E6, and E26, and that the IPT could explain some strong 113 signatures found in the two-way tracking data of E26. Since the models cannot be used to calibrate the 114 observables at the required level of accuracy, we decided to remove from the analysis about 12 minutes of 115 possibly corrupted, non coherent, data of E6, whereas E4 and E26 were not used at all, to prevent errors in 116 the gravity solution.

	Date of C/A	Altitude	Rel.	Inclin. (°)	Mean	SEP (°)	Number	RMS at 60
		(km)	Velocity		anomaly		of points	s (mm/s)
			(km/s)		(°)			
E4	19 Dec. 1996	693.0	5.75	178	-137	25	N/A	N/A
E6	20 Feb. 1997	587.0	5.77	162	-142	25	2189	0.869



E11	06 Nov. 1997	2044.6	5.72	26	41	89	1324	0.317
E12	16 Dec. 1997	201.9	6.27	9	127	55	1309	0.509
E14	29 Mar. 1998	1644.9	6.42	12	-149	26	1506	0.871
E16	21 Jul. 1998	1835.2	6.22	26	-63	120	1285	0.165
E19	1 Feb. 1999	1440.5	5.83	149	36	46	994	0.334
E26	3 Jan. 2000	351.3	11.3	133	-143	103	N/A	N/A

117

118**Table 1**: Main characteristics of the different Galileo encounters of Europa. The table reports on the date of the119closest approach (C/A), the minimum altitude, the relative velocity of the spacecraft, the orbital inclination, the120mean anomaly in Europa's orbital frame, the Sun-Earth-Probe (SEP) angle, the number of Doppler points used, and121the Root Mean Square (RMS) of the Doppler residuals at 60 s. Note that E4 and E26 data were not used in the122analysis.



Figure 1: Ground tracks of Galileo during the different Europa encounters 15 minutes before and after the C/A. The
C/A is indicated by a circle and the separation between the different markers is equal to 60 s. The equatorial region
of the moon is well sampled, while the higher latitudes are not covered. The ground tracks are represented over a
map of Europa produced by Björn Jónsson (Planetary Society) using Galileo and Voyager images (NASA, JPL).

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The range-rate data were compressed at 60 second integration time, as a balance between spatial resolution and numerical considerations (Zannoni and Tortora, 2013), and were weighted on a pass-by-pass basis, using the root mean square of their residuals. The data were analysed with JPL's orbit determination code MONTE (Evans et al., 2018), which adopts a Batch-Weighted Least Squares information filter (Bierman 1977), that allows to generate iterative corrections to an a-priori dynamical model.

134 The dynamical model included the gravitational acceleration due to the Sun and the planets of the Solar system, including Jupiter and its Galilean satellites. For Jupiter, we used the latest gravity solution obtained 135 136 by the Juno gravity team up to the 10th degree (less et al., 2018), while for the other Galilean satellites we 137 used the 2nd degree and order gravity fields reported by the Radio Science Team and summarized in 138 (Schubert et al., 2004). For Europa, we adopted a perfectly-synchronous rotational model, in which the 139 moon's long axis points to the empty focus of the orbit, and set the obliquity equal to zero. The diurnal 140 libration on Europa is expected to be ~150 m (Van Hoolst et al. 2013), or 0.005°, and the librations related to 141 deviations from a Keplerian orbit can be of the order of 0.05° (Rambaux et al. 2011). The obliquity is predicted 142 to be 0.05° (Baland et al. 2012, Chen et al. 2014). These angles are much smaller than the retrieved 143 uncertainty on the misalignements between the body-fixed frame and the inertia axes and neglecting them 144 does not affect our conclusions in a detectable way. For Jupiter we used the rotational model used to 145 generate the JUP310 ephemerides (The satellite ephemerides of Jupiter can be retrieved from 146 ftp://ssd.jpl.nasa.gov/pub/eph/). We included the non-gravitational acceleration due to Solar Radiation 147 Pressure (SRP) acting on the spacecraft, estimated to be around 3.3 nm/s² during the Jupiter approach phase 148 (Antreasian et al., 1997). In addition, as a stability test, we introduced the possible drag produced by a plume 149 during E12 (discussed in Section 3), and the non-isotropic acceleration of the Radioisotope Thermal 150 Generators (RTG's), modelled using an exponential acceleration.

To analyse the data, we adopted a multi-arc approach (Milani et al., 2010), a well-known technique used in
the analyses of radio science data of several deep space missions (less et al., 2012; less et al., 2014; Modenini
& Tortora, 2014; Tortora et al., 2016; less et al., 2019; Durante et al., 2019; Zannoni et al., 2018, Zannoni et



al., 2020, Lainey et al., 2020), in which radiometric data obtained during non-contiguous orbital segments,
called arcs, are jointly analysed to produce a single solution of a set of global parameters, which affect all the
arcs, and a set of local parameters that influence only one single arc.

In some of these previous analyses, the orbit of the moon under study was integrated for the entire time span of the data, in order to ensure the coherency of the observed data with the satellite trajectory. However, Durante et al. (2019), highlighted that this kind of analysis is sensitive to errors, mis-modelling or missing models in the ephemeris integration. Since the generation of a coherent Europa ephemeris set was beyond the scope of this work, the state of Europa was treated as a local parameter, updating the orbit of the moon for each encounter, as done in (Durante et al., 2019; Zannoni et al., 2020). This introduces an overparametrization that can absorb the modelling errors of the ephemerides, avoiding biases in the gravity field.

Our global parameters included Europa's mass and the full gravity field of degree 2, while our local 164 165 parameters included the initial state vectors of Galileo and Europa. The a priori values of Galileo's state 166 vectors were taken from the last reconstruction of the Galileo navigation team (Retrieved from 167 https://naif.jpl.nasa.gov/pub/naif/GLL/kernels/spk/) with an a priori uncertainty large enough to not 168 constrain the solution. The a priori values of Europa's state vector were retrieved from the latest available 169 Jupiter system ephemerides (JUP310), using a conservative approach for the a priori uncertainty. In addition, 170 we estimated a scale factor for the SRP acceleration for each arc, Doppler biases for three-way data (caused 171 by asynchronous clocks at the transmitting and receiving stations), and a Doppler bias and a drift for the one-172 way pass of E19. There were not enough data to estimate the rotational parameters of Europa, thus the rotational model is supposed perfectly known. 173

174 **3. Gravity field results**

- 175
- 176 The estimated set of parameters was sufficient to fit the data to the noise level (Figure 2). Table 2 reports 177 the estimated gravity field coefficients of Europa for two interesting cases. SOL-A represents the
- unconstrained solution, obtained without imposing the hydrostatic equilibrium ratio J₂/C₂₂ = 10/3. The
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solution is compatible with a body in hydrostatic equilibrium within 1-σ, but the uncertainty in J₂ is very large,
due to the poor latitudinal coverage of the flybys. Hence, solution SOL-B was generated applying the
hydrostatic equilibrium constraint. We note that this is an assumption, which may or may not turn out to be
correct; the main reason for doing so is to allow comparison with previous works, all of which made the same
assumption.

For the same reason, we imposed the hydrostatic equilibrium constraint equal to the classical value of 10/3,
as in the previous solutions available in literature. However, using the more correct value of 3.324, adopted
in Section 4, which takes into account the relatively rapid rotation of Europa (Tricarico 2014), the estimated
quadrupole coefficients change by less than 0.02-σ.





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Figure 2: Range-rate residuals around the closest approach of E06, E11, E12, E14, E16 and E19 encounters
(vertical line), in mm/s. Range-rate residuals are obtained scaling the Doppler residuals by the coefficient
136.27 mm/s x 1/Hz.

192

- 193 As shown in Figure 3, both solutions are compatible within $1-\sigma$, but SOL-B has smaller uncertainties (as
- 194 expected, due to the hydrostatic constraint), up to about 1 order of magnitude for J_2 and by 3.7 % for C_{22} .
- 195 Given the estimated values of C_{21} , S_{21} and S_{22} and following MacCullagh's theorem we can extract the
- 196 misalignment between the Europa body fixed frame and its principal axes of inertia. The obtained values



197 correspond to rotations of $-3.1 \pm 5.0^{\circ}$ and $0.1 \pm 1.2^{\circ}$ around the x and y axes, respectively. Both are compatible 198 with zero within 1- σ . On the other hand, S₂₂ translates to a misalignment of the minimum inertia axis with 199 respect to prime meridian of $1.3 \pm 0.6^{\circ}$, that vanishes within $2.1-\sigma$.

Coefficient (x 10 ⁶)	(Anderson et al.,	(Jacobson et al.,	SOL-A	SOL-B (Hydrostatic
	1998; Schubert et	1999)	(Unconstrained)	eq.)
	al ., 2004)			
J ₂	435.50 ± 8.2	417.0 ± .6.0	437.59 ± 77.47	461.39 ± 7.84
C ₂₁	-1.4 ± 6.0	-1.3 ± 3.8	1.26 ± 15.21	4.25 ± 11.73
S ₂₁	14 ± 12	11.0 ± 10.0	9.01 ± 11.38	7.425 ± 10.16
C ₂₂	131.5 ± 2.5	125.0 ± 2.0	138.62 ± 2.44	138.42 ± 2.35
S ₂₂	-11.9 ± 2.9	-10.0 ± 2.0	-6.21 ± 2.90	-6.65 ± 2.51
J ₂ /C ₂₂	3.3118 ± 0.0097	10/3	3.16 ± 0.57	10/3
μ	0.993	1.0	-0.17	1.0

200

Table 2: Europa's unnormalized gravity field coefficients and its associated 1- σ uncertainty, corresponding to a reference radius of 1565 km, estimated using two different approaches. SOL-A corresponds to the unconstrained solution, while in SOL-B the hydrostatic equilibrium constraint was applied. In addition, the table shows both previous reference solutions, the J₂/C₂₂ ratio and the correlation (μ) between both J₂ and C₂₂ coefficients.

The retrieved uncertainties in all the coefficients, except J_2 for SOL-A, are comparable to the ones obtained in the old solutions (Anderson et al., 1998; Jacobson et al., 1999). The difference in the J_2 uncertainty in SOL-A comes from the fact that the hydrostatic equilibrium constraint was not applied. This large uncertainty was expected since the encounters were nearly equatorial (see Figure 1).

209 The analysis provides a C₂₂ coefficient significantly larger than the one retrieved in the old solutions and

shown in Figure 3. The differences are 2.84-σ with respect to (Anderson et al., 1998) and 5.58-σ with respect



to (Jacobson et al., 1999). These differences may come from the use of a different data pre-processing and
data-selection and the different orbit determination techniques used in this work, such as the use of MONTE
or the local ephemeris update. For example, a detailed inspection of the residuals published in (Jacobson et
al., 1999) showed that previous analyses used all the available data without removing the measurements at
low elevation angles. Following the same approach, we obtained a value of C₂₂ compatible with (Anderson
et al., 1998) within 0.8-σ. This is an indication that the previous published solutions might be biased due to
the wrong calibration of the Earth's atmosphere and ionosphere at low elevation angles.

Among the Galilean satellites, Europa has the highest eccentricity. This fact together with the good coverage of Galileo's flybys along Europa's orbital frame supported the addition of the tidal parameter k_2 to the estimated parameters set. We found $k_2 = 0.29 \pm 0.46$ (SOL-A) and $k_2 = 0.15 \pm 0.28$ (SOL-B), 1- σ uncertainties. In both cases the retrieved uncertainty is too large to extract any conclusions and only provides upper limits to Europa's tidal response.

223 A full degree 2 gravity field was sufficient to fit the data. Higher degrees cannot be determined with enough 224 accuracy, but the addition of the full degree 3 and 4 coefficients to the estimated parameters did not bias 225 the solution. The a priori uncertainties of the degree 3 and 4 normalized coefficients were set using the 226 Kaula's rule, K/l² (Kaula, 1963), that describes the gravity power spectra of terrestrial planets. The K factor, 227 obtained fitting Titan's gravity field (Durante et al., 2019), was scaled to Europa using the scaling law provided 228 by (Bills et al., 2014), retrieving $K = 2 \cdot 10^{-5}$. Since there is no evidence that the Kaula's rule can be applied to 229 ocean worlds, to assess the stability of the solution we generated other solutions setting the a priori 230 uncertainty of the degree 3 and 4 using 0.1·K and 10·K. The obtained solutions were always compatible within 231 1-σ.

The possible plume emerging from Europa during the E12 encounter, reported in (Jia et al., 2018), could have perturbed the motion of the Galileo probe, inducing a bias in the solution. For this reason, following a similar approach used for Cassini's flybys close to Enceladus's plumes (less et al., 2014), we modelled the perturbation of a plume as an impulsive change in velocity of the spacecraft at the C/A, estimating the three © 2021. Licensed under the Creative Commons CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0

components of this impulse, using an a priori uncertainty of 5 mm/s. The retrieved component along Galileo's velocity is Δ Vplume =0.22±4.93 mm/s (SOL-A) and Δ Vplume = 0.19±4.93 mm/s (SOL-B), showing that the plume cannot be estimated using the radio tracking data and that therefore it does not represent a bias in the solution.



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Figure 3: Obtained J₂ and C₂₂ and its 1-σ associated error ellipses of SOL-A (unconstrained) and SOL-B (applying the
hydrostatic equilibrium). In addition, the figure shows both the solutions of (Anderson et al., 1998) and (Jacobson
et al., 1999), for comparison purposes. The previous published solutions are not compatible with the gravity update
within 1-σ.

245 4. Interpretation

246



Given a measurement of either J₂ or C₂₂ and assuming hydrostatic equilibrium, the gravity coefficients can then be used to directly infer the MoI of the body (e.g. Schubert et al., 2004). Below we will compare the MoI results obtained from the three different gravity measurements of C₂₂ using the hydrostatic assumption. First we will briefly digress to discuss the assumption itself.

251 If Europa is hydrostatic, then C₂₂ can be converted directly to a Mol via the Radau equation (e.g. Schubert et 252 al. 2004). However, we do not know that Europa is hydrostatic, because we do not have an independent 253 measurement of J₂. Without further observations, it is unclear whether Europa is likely to be hydrostatic or 254 not. However, the icy moon Titan provides a useful example. Titan's gravity is well-determined (less et al. 255 2010) and the deviation of the ratio J_2/C_{22} is only 2-4% away from the expected hydrostatic ratio. Europa is 256 likely to be more hydostatic than Titan, being more strongly tidally-heated and having a thinner ice shell. We 257 thus regard the hydrostatic assumption as reasonable, though we caution the reader that future gravity 258 measurements may prove it to be incorrect.

Table 3 presents the inferred MoI derived from the three independent solutions. Here we have taken into account the small correction required by Europa's relatively rapid rotation (Tricarico, 2014), the result of which is to modify the ratio J_2/C_{22} from 10/3 to 3.324. The effect of the slightly larger C_{22} coefficient we estimate is to yield a slightly higher MoI, indicating a less differentiated Europa.

Quantity	(Anderson et al.,	(Jacobson et al., 1999)	This Work
	1998; Schubert		
	et al ., 2004)		
C ₂₂ (x10 ⁶)	131.5 ± 2.5	125.0 ± 2.0	138.42 ± 2.35
Mol	0.3475 ±0.0026	0.3405 ± 0.0022	0.3547 ± 0.0024
H ₂ O thickness (1 g/cm ³) (km)	161.8 ± 8.4	184.5 ± 7.2	138.7 ± 7.7
H ₂ O thickness (0.95 g/cm ³) (km)	157.7 ± 8.2	179.7 ± 7.0	135.2 ± 7.5
Core density (g/cm ³)	3.790 ± 0.049	3.928 ± 0.046	3.658 ± 0.043



H ₂ O mass fraction (%)	8.6 ± 0.4	9.7 ± 0.4	7.5 ± 0.4

Table 3. Geophysical parameters derived from C_{22} measurements (see text). Thicknesses and densities are derived assuming a two-layer Europa with a bulk density of 3.013 g/cm³. The final two rows assume an H₂O density of 0.95 g/cm³.

266 With the known bulk density of Europa (3.013 g/cm³) and a measurement of its MoI, we can place constraints 267 on its internal structure (e.g. Schubert et al. 2004). The simplest approach is to assume a two-layer structure, 268 with an H₂O layer (ice or water) above a rock/iron core. For an assumed H₂O density (which should be 269 intermediate between that of water and ice), we can deduce the H₂O layer thickness, which is also tabulated 270 in Table 3. While this is undoubtedly an oversimplified model of the real Europa, the point of these 271 calculations is to illustrate how differences in the measured C_{22} value translate into differences in the 272 structures inferred. The higher MoI results in an H₂O layer that is thinner by ~20-40 km than previous 273 estimates. Figure 4 presents these same results graphically, showing how the measured C_{22} values can be 274 mapped to MoI and H₂O layer thickness values.

275 The same analysis also yields estimates of the core density and H_2O mass fraction (Table 3). Our density is 276 lower than the previous estimates, suggesting a smaller and/or less dense iron component of the rock/iron 277 core. Similarly, the total H₂O mass fraction is a little lower. Although none of these differences are very large, 278 a thinner H₂O layer, as suggested here, would slightly increase the gravitational effect of the mantle, and 279 could in principle slightly shift the characteristic period of tidally-driven resonant oscillations (Matsuyama et 280 al. 2018). The upper-bound SOL-B solution on k₂ of 0.43 is not diagnostic: estimates of Europa's k₂ are typically 281 0.26 or less (Moore & Schubert 2000). Such a high value would require an ocean density of at least 1500 282 kg/m^3, if resonant enhancement of tidal flow in the ocean is neglected (e.g. Matsuyama et al. 2018).

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Figure 4. Inferred H_2O layer thickness as a function of C_{22} gravity coefficient (see text), for two different assumed H_2O layer densities. Shaded regions denote coefficient estimates made by three different groups.

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288 While more complicated (e.g. three-layer) models can be produced (e.g. Schubert et al. 2004), they require 289 additional assumptions to be made. As an example, models which include an iron core or allow an ocean 290 denser than the ice typically result in H₂O thicknesses that are lower than in Table 3 by up to several tens of 291 kilometers. The main point of Table 3 and Figure 4 is to illustrate how different estimates of the gravity 292 coefficients map into different internal structures. The relative differences in, for example, H₂O thickness 293 between the different gravity models will be preserved, even if more complex structures are invoked.

294

295 **5. Conclusions**

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297 In view of the future missions JUICE and Europa Clipper and motivated by the new knowledge of the Jupiter 298 system given by Juno, we reanalysed the radio tracking data of Galileo acquired during the Europa flybys. The 299 analysis considered effects neglected in previous analyses, such as the IPT, Europa's ionosphere, and the 300 recently detected plume of E12, that may have affected the retrieved gravity field. In addition, this work 301 adopted modern orbit determination techniques previously used in the gravity analyses of Cassini and Juno. 302 We obtained a satisfactory fit of the Doppler data, estimating a full degree and order 2 gravity field. The 303 retrieved gravity field is compatible with the hydrostatic equilibrium without imposing the a priori hydrostatic 304 equilibrium constraint $(J_2/C_{22} = 10/3)$, as done in the past in the reference analyses. The obtained C_{22} 305 coefficient is slightly different from previous results and suggests a thinner water ice shell and a less dense 306 core, that could have implications on the characteristic period of tidally-driven resonant oscillations.

Three research groups obtained contrasting solutions of the gravity field of the Galilean satellite using unequal data sets and orbit determination techniques, with slightly different implications on Europa's internal structure. Further insights into Europa's structure and evolution will come from the gravity measurements of the incoming Europa Clipper and JUICE missions. Both of them will allow to estimate the gravity field and the love numbers of the icy moon up to an unprecedented level, shedding light on the interior structure of this body.

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