

Abstract

Jupiter possesses the strongest magnetic field of all planets in the solar system. Modelling and interpreting this field gives essential information about the dynamo process acting at some depth inside Jupiter. Here we use the fluxgate magnetometer measurements acquired during the first four years of the Juno mission to derive an internal magnetic field and secular variation model using spherical harmonic functions. We compute an internal field model to degree 13, and a secular variation model to degree 8. The power spectrum of the field model is used to infer that the dynamo convective region has an upper boundary at 0.845 ± 0.015 Jupiter radius, confirming that the transition layer plays a role in the field generation inside Jupiter. The secular variation timescales indicate that the dynamo is dominated by advective effects while the secular variation pattern suggests that the flow at the interior is complex and involves non-zonal features.

Plain Language Summary

The interior of Jupiter can be described broadly as a dense core surrounded by fluids, dominantly hydrogen and helium. The hydrogen rich metallic fluid generates the strongest planetary magnetic field in the Solar System. Modelling and interpreting this field gives essential information about the dynamo process inside Jupiter. We use the Juno mission data throughout four years to derive an internal magnetic field and secular variation (SV) model using spherical harmonic functions. We take the fluxgate magnetometer measurements acquired during the first 28 orbits to compute a magnetic field model to degree 13, and model its temporal variation to degree 8. The power spectrum of the magnetic field model is used to investigate the radius of the dynamo region. Using the non-zonal and quadrupole family spectra, we infer that the convective region has an upper boundary at 0.845 ± 0.015 Jupiter radius. The slope of the SV timescales indicates that the dynamo is dominated by advective effects. The SV displays a maximum near the equator with a bi-polar structure in agreement with zonal drift of the Great Blue Spot. However, numerous small scale SV structures suggest that the flow at the interior is complex involving both zonal and non-zonal features.

1 Introduction

The interior of the giant planets of our Solar System can be described in simple terms as consisting of a core of unknown composition surrounded by fluid envelopes (Guillot, 2005). For Jupiter, the core could be small and dense, but also large and dilute (Wahl et al., 2017). The overlying envelopes consist of an inner layer of metallic hydrogen and an outer one of molecular hydrogen. Recent experimental results describe a transition H-He demixing layer, suggesting Helium rain between depths 0.68 and $0.84 R_J$ (Jupiter's equatorial radius, $1 R_J = 71,492$ km) (Brygoo et al., 2021). The high temperature and pressure inside the planet renders it electrically conducting. Convection in the electrically conductive metallic hydrogen generates the strong Jovian magnetic field (Jones, 2011, 2014). In contrast to rocky bodies, Jupiter does not have an abrupt change between its metallic hydrogen (magnetic source) and molecular hydrogen (source free) regions. The change is expected to be gradual. The electrical conductivity profile of the different hydrogen layers at different depths from an ab-initio simulation (French et al., 2012) does not indicate a clear value of the dynamo region radius. Previous attempts to constrain this radius using the magnetic energy spectrum place it somewhere between 0.80 and $0.90 R_J$ (Langlais et al., 2014; Tsang & Jones, 2020; Connerney et al., 2022).

Jupiter's magnetic field has been measured by various flybys and orbiting satellites. The observations made by the flybys of Pioneer 10 and 11, Voyager 1 and 2 (during the seventies) and the Ulysses probe (early nineties) gave some initial information about the planet (Smith et al., 1974; Ness et al., 1979; Balogh et al., 1992). The first orbiting satellite, Galileo, was launched in 1989. It provided measurements from Jupiter and its moons

64 from 1995 to 2003. Although these magnetic observations are spread over long periods
 65 of time, there have been only a few attempts to constrain or estimate the temporal vari-
 66 ation of the field (Connerney et al., 1982; Yu et al., 2010; Ridley & Holme, 2016). Out
 67 of these studies, only Ridley and Holme (2016) co-estimated the secular variation (SV)
 68 with the main field (MF) using magnetic field measurements made between 1973 and
 69 2003. However, due to the inhomogeneous temporal and geographical data distribution,
 70 most of the selected observations were from the Galileo mission at low latitudes. Ridley
 71 and Holme (2016) computed two models, one with only MF time averaged Gauss coef-
 72 ficients and one with time dependent MF and SV coefficients. The latter model was con-
 73 sidered better because of its lower residuals and greater smoothness. Nevertheless, they
 74 considered their SV model to be reliable only up to degree 2.

75 None of these spacecrafts provided data near the poles. This was overcome by the
 76 recent Juno measurements. Juno space probe was launched on August 5th, 2011 and en-
 77 tered Jupiter’s orbit in July 2016. Its magnetic measurements have already been used
 78 to propose new models of the Jovian field. Connerney et al. (2018) provided a spheri-
 79 cal harmonic (SH) internal field model up to degree 10 using the initial 9 orbits. This
 80 initial model was improved by Connerney et al. (2022) who calculated a model up to de-
 81 gree 30 for internal and degree 1 for external, using the first 33 orbits. They state that
 82 the Gauss coefficients are well resolved until degree 13 though useful information can be
 83 retained until degree 18 for some coefficients. Jupiter’s internal field is characterized by
 84 a very high magnitude, showing both dipole and non-dipole parts. The non-dipole field
 85 is dominantly observed in the northern hemisphere. Field change over a 45-year time span
 86 was observed and zonal drift was invoked to explain the temporal change of an intense
 87 magnetic flux patch near the equator (Moore et al., 2018, 2019). An updated external
 88 field magnetodisk model for Juno is also available (Connerney et al., 2020). None of the
 89 existing models based on Juno data attempt to model the current global temporal vari-
 90 ation of the field.

91 In this study, we take advantage of the high quality Juno measurements to derive
 92 a high-resolution SH model of the Jovian field, simultaneously describing its MF and SV
 93 up to SH degrees 13 and 8 respectively. Section 2 details the data and the selection cri-
 94 teria we use for this study. Section 3 describes the method used to derive the models and
 95 their spectra. In Section 4 we analyze the model and discuss our results. We first de-
 96 termine the dynamo radius assuming white spectrum of specific parts of the field. We
 97 also calculate the SV correlation times of the Jovian field. We finally downward continue
 98 the field into Jupiter’s interior and infer kinematic properties. We conclude in Section
 99 5.

100 2 Data

101 Juno has a near polar, highly elliptical orbit with apojove exceeding over 100 Jupiter
 102 radii. The prime mission lasted five years and provided data for 33 orbits with one com-
 103 plete orbit taking about 53 days. The space probe was initially planned to undergo a re-
 104 duction maneuver for achieving 14-day science orbits but Juno entered safe mode for its
 105 second orbit, thereby remaining in its initial 53-day capture orbit for the entire mission.
 106 The spacecraft aims to obtain a global coverage of the planet. For the first eight orbits,
 107 the shift between successive orbits was 45 degrees in longitude. The subsequent shifts
 108 reduce the longitudinal spacing by half to obtain data from the gaps left previously.

109 Juno uses two fluxgate magnetometers, located on one of the three solar arrays to
 110 measure the vector magnetic field. Magnetic field measurements acquired by Juno are
 111 available under two versions. The version 1 data provides measurements across the en-
 112 tire orbit, whereas the version 2 data gives only near planet measurements from the or-
 113 bit, denoted as perijove hereafter. Both version 1 and 2 data are provided in three Carte-
 114 sian coordinate systems - planetocentric, sun-state and payload. Since planetocentric sys-

115 tem is body-fixed, it is the most appropriate to study the internal field. We use the ver-
 116 sion 2 one-second data in planetocentric coordinates from the first 28 perijoves (data avail-
 117 able for only 27 perijoves, excluding the second one). As discussed later, adding more
 118 orbits leads to an increase in polar gaps that degrades the model. Perijove 19 was also
 119 dismissed because spurious oscillations were later observed.

120 The periapsis reaches altitude as low as 2500 km, or radius 1.03 R_J, and precesses
 121 about 1° in latitude northward, starting from the equator, after each orbit. In order to
 122 minimize external field contributions, we choose measurements near the planet’s surface,
 123 i.e., all vector data below an arbitrarily chosen altitude of 300,000 km (or radius ~5.2
 124 R_J). The vector data range from August 2016 to July 2020 giving 628,828 data loca-
 125 tions, that are plotted in Supporting Figure S1. Minimum measured field intensity is of
 126 the order of 3000 nT at maximum altitude, well above the 25 nT resolution of the mag-
 127 netometer experiment, while the maximum intensity reaches above 10⁶ nT.

128 3 Methodology

129 The magnetic field in a source free location can be expressed as the gradient of a
 130 scalar potential V that satisfies the Laplace equation:

$$131 \quad \nabla^2 V = 0 \quad (1)$$

132 The potential for internal and external sources can be written as an expansion of SH func-
 133 tions:

$$134 \quad V(r, \theta, \phi, t) = a \sum_{n=1}^{n_{max}} \sum_{m=0}^n \left\{ \left(\frac{a}{r} \right)^{n+1} (g_n^m(t) \cos m\phi + h_n^m(t) \sin m\phi) P_n^m(\cos \theta) \right\}$$

$$135 \quad + a \sum_{n=1}^{n_{max}} \sum_{m=0}^n \left\{ \left(\frac{r}{a} \right)^n (q_n^m(t) \cos m\phi + s_n^m(t) \sin m\phi) P_n^m(\cos \theta) \right\} \quad (2)$$

136 where (r, θ, ϕ, t) are the planetocentric spherical coordinates (radius, co-latitude and lon-
 137 gitude) and time, respectively. a is the reference radius equal to Jupiter’s equatorial ra-
 138 dius (71,492 km). $g_n^m(t)$ and $h_n^m(t)$ are the time-dependent internal field Gauss coeffi-
 139 cients of degree n and order m while $q_n^m(t)$ and $s_n^m(t)$ are the external field coefficients.
 140 P_n^m are the Schmidt quasi-normalised associated Legendre functions.

141 The choice of data near the surface allows to minimise the external field contribu-
 142 tion and restrict its description up to degree 2. To calculate the SH coefficients, we ap-
 143 ply a standard least-square inversion approach to the data that aims to minimise the dif-
 144 ferences between the measurements and the predictions by the model. We use constant
 145 weights, set to the magnetometer resolution of 25 nT. The temporal variation of the in-
 146 ternal field is calculated using B-splines of order 2. B-splines are piecewise polynomials
 147 that calculate derivatives using augmented knots, which are the pieces that are produced
 148 in the polynomial. We define two boundary knots using the time interval of our data and
 149 augment the knot sequence using the mean. Details of the method and tests applied on
 150 the dataset are provided in the Supporting Information.

151 The Lowes-Mauersberger spectrum represents the magnetic field power spectrum
 152 per SH degree (Mauersberger, 1956; Lowes, 2007). For a given time, and at a given ra-
 153 dius r , it can be defined as

$$154 \quad \mathcal{R}_n = (n+1) \left(\frac{a}{r} \right)^{(2n+4)} \sum_{m=0}^n [(g_n^m)^2 + (h_n^m)^2] \quad (3)$$

155 at SH degree n . Similarly, for the SV, it can be defined as

$$156 \quad \mathcal{S}_n = (n+1) \left(\frac{a}{r}\right)^{(2n+4)} \sum_{m=0}^n [(\dot{g}_n^m)^2 + (\dot{h}_n^m)^2] \quad (4)$$

157 where \dot{g}_n^m and \dot{h}_n^m are the Gauss coefficients of the SV.

158 The main field and its spectrum \mathcal{R}_n can be upward or downward continued, pro-
 159 vided there are no magnetic field sources present in between. This property has been used
 160 to derive estimates of the radius of the dynamo region, or of the liquid core in the case
 161 of the Earth. This is also known as the white noise hypothesis: immediately outside the
 162 dynamo region, the part of the magnetic spectrum associated with the dynamo becomes
 163 flat, and the depth to the dynamo can thus be grossly estimated (Lowe, 1974). How-
 164 ever some terms ($n=1$ and $n=2$) have to be removed or ignored in order for this approx-
 165 imation to match the radius of the Earth's core (Cain et al., 1989; Voorhies, 2004). Langlais
 166 et al. (2014) found that certain parts of the spectrum \mathcal{R}_n , the non-zonal and quadrupole
 167 family, are independent of n at some radius r (see Supporting Information for details).
 168 On Earth, these more rigorous approaches return the value of the core or dynamo ra-
 169 dius with a combined relative error lower than 0.3%. In the following, we refer to this
 170 radius as \mathbf{R}_{sf} . It can be interpreted as the radius of the top of the source region, or the
 171 bottom of the source free region.

172 Finally, the correlation times as a function of degree n can be defined, combining
 173 the quantities \mathcal{R}_n and \mathcal{S}_n . The correlation times, also referred to as the SV timescales,
 174 give a measure of how long it takes for the field of a particular degree to get reorganized,
 175 or become uncorrelated to its former state at that degree (Hulot & Le Mouél, 1994; Chris-
 176 tensen & Tilgner, 2004; Amit et al., 2018). It is expressed as

$$177 \quad \tau_n = \sqrt{\frac{\mathcal{R}_n}{\mathcal{S}_n}} \quad (5)$$

178 4 Results and Discussion

179 We calculate the main field model up to degree 20 and the SV to degree 8. The
 180 external field is estimated up to degree 2. The power spectrum of the main field at Jupiter's
 181 surface decreases up to $n = 13$ (Figure 1a). We notice an increase from $n = 13$ to 16
 182 possibly due to data distribution and aliasing as suggested by our synthetic analyzes (see
 183 Supporting Information). With increasing orbits, the satellite goes lower in altitude near
 184 the north pole while increasing the size of a gap at similar latitude over the south pole
 185 area. This results in high degree, low order terms not being well resolved (i.e., zonal and
 186 near zonal terms). This effect can be seen in the south polar cap. Hence, we truncate
 187 our field model at $n_{max} = 13$ while retaining $n_{max} = 8$ for the SV model. The un-
 188 weighted misfits, given by the root mean square of the residuals for the different com-
 189 ponents for our model and a model calculated without SV are given in Supporting Ta-
 190 ble S1. They indicate that the model with SV is superior since the misfit for the field
 191 intensity decreases by 2.6%. The Supporting Figure S2 shows the misfits for our model,
 192 a model calculated without SV and the model by Connerney et al. (2022). All values and
 193 figures presented are calculated at the central epoch of the data (August 2018).

194 4.1 Inferences on the internal structure

195 Using the power spectrum, we calculate \mathbf{R}_{sf} for varying n_{max} . The radius notably
 196 remains stable until $n_{max} = 13$ while it starts to increase from $n_{max} = 14$ (see Sup-
 197 porting Information). This confirms our maximal reliable degree choice for the main field
 198 model. We use the mean of the radius values obtained from the non-zonal ($m \neq 0$) and
 199 quadrupole family ($n+m$ even) terms up to degree 13 as defined by Langlais et al. (2014).

200 The value from the non-zonal field is $0.851 R_J$ and that from the quadrupole family is
 201 $0.839 R_J$, which together give a mean of $0.845 R_J$ with a standard deviation of 0.015
 202 R_J . Previous results give similar values. Connerney et al. (2018) estimate the dynamo
 203 radius ‘near $0.85 R_J$ ’ while Connerney et al. (2022) estimate it to $0.81 R_J$. Tsang and
 204 Jones (2020) estimate it between 0.82 and $0.87 R_J$ using a numerical model. However,
 205 all these studies use the white noise hypothesis as discussed above, which ignores the $n =$
 206 1 and even $n = 2$ terms. Our result $\mathbf{R}_{sf} = 0.845 R_J$ is more accurate and offers more
 207 robust constraints on the interior and dynamics of Jupiter.

208 For a dynamo to exist in a planet, two main criteria are required: an electrically-
 209 conducting fluid and an energy source, which is often convection within a spherical shell
 210 in rotation. For Jupiter, the metallic hydrogen is the fluid, and its convective motion drives
 211 the dynamo. Convection can also take place in the source free region, without contribut-
 212 ing to the dynamo. Wicht and Gastine (2020), through numerical simulations, suggested
 213 the possibility of two distinct dynamo regions inside Jupiter. The primary region would
 214 be at depth, and is responsible for the dipole dominated field geometry. The secondary
 215 one would be shallower, and operates where the equatorial jets encounter conductive ma-
 216 terial in the transition layer. However, surface jets motion decays rapidly with depth and
 217 are unlikely to extend at depths larger than about $3,000$ - $3,500$ km or $\sim 0.95 R_J$ (Kaspi
 218 et al., 2018; Guillot et al., 2018). Christensen et al. (2020) suggested that a stratified layer,
 219 close to the surface, could quench the jets at depth and play a role in the secondary dy-
 220 namo. Our study points towards a source free region extending deeper, with a radius placed
 221 at $0.845 R_J$. This radius could correspond to the upper limit of the dynamo region. We
 222 note that it also matches well the radius of the transition layer in between the metal-
 223 lic and molecular hydrogen (Brygoo et al., 2021), rendering this layer part of the dynamo
 224 region (Figure 2). Our results do not provide constraints on the bottom radius of the
 225 dynamo and do not indicate a shallower secondary dynamo (Gastine & Wicht, 2021) above
 226 $0.845 R_J$.

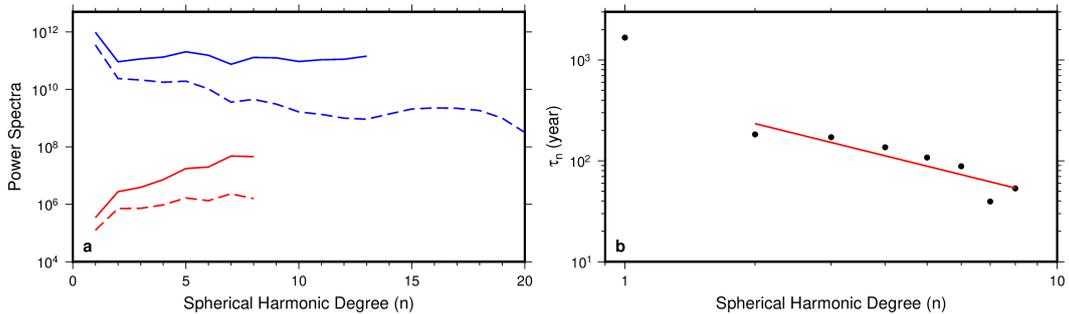


Figure 1. (a) The power spectra of the main field (shown in blue, units - nT^2) and secular variation (shown in red, units - $(nT/year)^2$) of the model at the surface (dashed line) and at \mathbf{R}_{sf} (solid line). The main field terms for $n > 13$ are not downward continued to \mathbf{R}_{sf} . (b) The secular variation timescales of the model. The red line in (b) is the linear best fit to the non-dipole part.

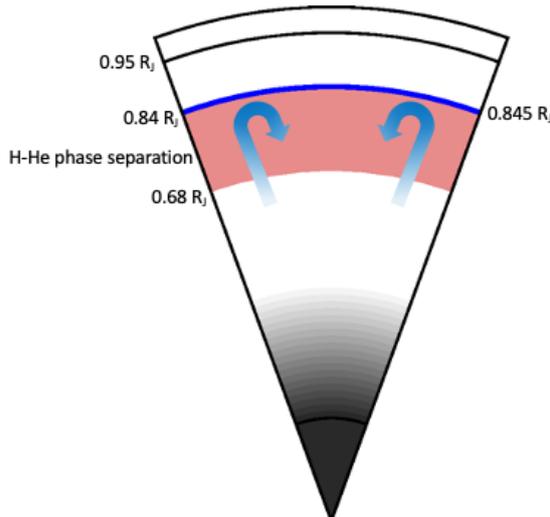


Figure 2. Schematic view of the interior of Jupiter. The blue line depicts our result \mathbf{R}_{sf} . The grey area depicts the core ($0.2 R_J$) and the possible dilute core region (Wicht & Gastine, 2020; Wahl et al., 2017). The red area depicts the H-He phase separated layer (Brygoo et al., 2021). The $0.95 R_J$ depicts the depth where the jets decay down to the minimum (Kaspi et al., 2018). The arrows represent possible convection area with unknown origin depth.

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4.2 SV Timescales

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The SV timescales are shown in Figure 1b. For the Earth, the correlation time for the dipole is around 1000 years and the lowest value at $\sim n_{max} = 13$ is of the order of 10 years. Field models and numerical dynamo simulations indicate that the non-dipole SV timescales are inversely proportional to the SH degree (e.g., Lhuillier et al., 2011; Bouligand et al., 2016). For Jupiter, the correlation time for the dipole (τ_1) is 1667 years while the lowest value we obtain is 40 years for degree 7. We observe similar inverse proportionality for the Jovian SV timescales. The best fit slope for $n = 2 - 8$ is -1.06 with a standard deviation of 0.23 . According to the scaling theory of the magnetic induction equation, a slope of -1 corresponds to advective SV, whereas -2 indicates diffusive SV (Christensen et al., 2012; Holme & Olsen, 2006). A -2 slope for our model is well outside 2 standard deviations and can be excluded. Therefore, our best fit value -1.06 ± 0.23 suggests that the field change is dominated by advective effects, as is the case for Earth (Lhuillier et al., 2011; Christensen et al., 2012).

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In addition, the overall similarity between the non-dipole SV timescales of Jupiter and Earth suggests a similar magnetic Reynolds number (Christensen & Tilgner, 2004), i.e. $Rm_J \sim 1000$. In contrast, Wicht et al. (2019) concluded that diffusive effects might govern the dynamo in the transition layer. Though their transition region starts above \mathbf{R}_{sf} , the SV timescales we compute are independent of the radius, hence challenging the importance of diffusion. It thus remains an open question as to what phenomenon drives the observed SV of Jupiter.

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4.3 Implications to Jupiter's dynamo

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Using the four morphological criteria defined in Christensen et al. (2010) for Earth-like dynamo models at the CMB, we compare our results with the geodynamo. For com-

251 parison purposes, we set $n_{max} = 8$ to calculate the different criteria, i.e. smaller than
 252 that shown in Figure 3(a-f). The relative axial dipole power for our model is 0.99 at \mathbf{R}_{sf}
 253 while the standard value for Earth is 1.4, though the present-day value is about 1. This
 254 indicates that Jupiter’s dynamo is either less dipolar or comparable to Earth’s (Figures
 255 3a and 3b). The equatorial anti-symmetry for Earth is 1.0, whereas our model provides
 256 a value of 0.54. A random equipartitioned non-dipole field ratio would give an equato-
 257 rial anti-symmetry of 0.83 (Christensen et al., 2010). Thus, Jupiter’s non-dipole field is
 258 more symmetric with respect to the equator than Earth’s (Figures 3c and 3d). The zonal
 259 to non-zonal ratio for a random equipartitioned field is 0.10 (Christensen et al., 2010).
 260 For Earth, the value is 0.15, while for our model the value is 0.19, which indicates a stronger
 261 zonal contribution (Figures 3e and 3f). Lastly, the flux concentration for a purely dipole
 262 field is 0.8 and that for the geomagnetic field is 1.50 (Christensen et al., 2010). The flux
 263 concentration is considered low when flux exits one hemisphere and enters through the
 264 other uniformly. Conversely, it is large when it exits from a concentrated spot and en-
 265 ters the rest of the sphere uniformly. The concentration value for our model is 4.0. This
 266 very large value reflects the dominance of the large intense flux patch in the northern
 267 hemisphere.

268 Figure 4 shows the radial magnetic field and SV maps calculated using the model
 269 at Jupiter’s surface and at \mathbf{R}_{sf} . The large positive radial field patch in the northern hemi-
 270 sphere and the intense negative patch near the equator (the Great Blue Spot) become
 271 more concentrated with depth. SV is of the order of 10^4 nT/year at the surface. This
 272 corresponds to a 2.4% change over the course of four years of the dataset used, compared
 273 to the 1.4% change over a similar duration for the Earth’s magnetic field. As for the Earth’s,
 274 it should not be ignored when modelling the magnetic field over periods exceeding a few
 275 years.

276 The spatial pattern of temporal variation of the field brings further dynamical con-
 277 straints. The power spectrum of the SV calculated at \mathbf{R}_{sf} increases with degree (Fig-
 278 ure 1a). Indeed, the SV reveals intense small scale structures (Figure 4). The strong neg-
 279 ative radial field patch immediately south of the equator (Figure 4b) coincides with a
 280 pair of SV structures (Figure 4d), suggesting eastward drift (Amit, 2014; Livermore et
 281 al., 2017). This is opposite to the westward drifting low- and mid-latitude patches ob-
 282 served with Earth’s SV (Bullard et al., 1950; Finlay & Jackson, 2003; Aubert et al., 2013).
 283 This eastward drift could relate to the zonal winds observed at the surface or until 0.95
 284 R_J (Moore et al., 2019). However, our model presents also other prominent SV struc-
 285 tures which cannot be explained by zonal winds. There is some suggestion for a weak
 286 eastward drift near 45°N latitude, which is the centre of the large positive radial field
 287 patch (Figure 4b). But, it is not associated with particularly strong SV for most of its
 288 structure, possibly indicating a region with dominantly field-aligned flow (Finlay & Amit,
 289 2011). Livermore et al. (2017) gave similar explanation for the absence of strong SV at
 290 southern high latitudes of Earth. Bearing in mind that the model is less constrained at
 291 the south pole, the opposite signs of B_r and \dot{B}_r (Supporting Figure S3) suggest local fluid
 292 upwelling (Amit, 2014), similar to the field and SV below Earth’s poles and in agreement
 293 with a classic meridional circulation inside the tangent cylinder (Olson & Aurnou, 1999;
 294 Cao et al., 2018). In addition, the southern hemisphere has many alternating sign SV
 295 patches (Figure 4d) which are not correlated with particularly strong field structures (Fig-
 296 ure 4b). We note that the radial field and its SV from \mathbf{R}_{sf} to the surface are weakly sen-
 297 sitive to depth (Figure 4), making these kinematic interpretations robust.

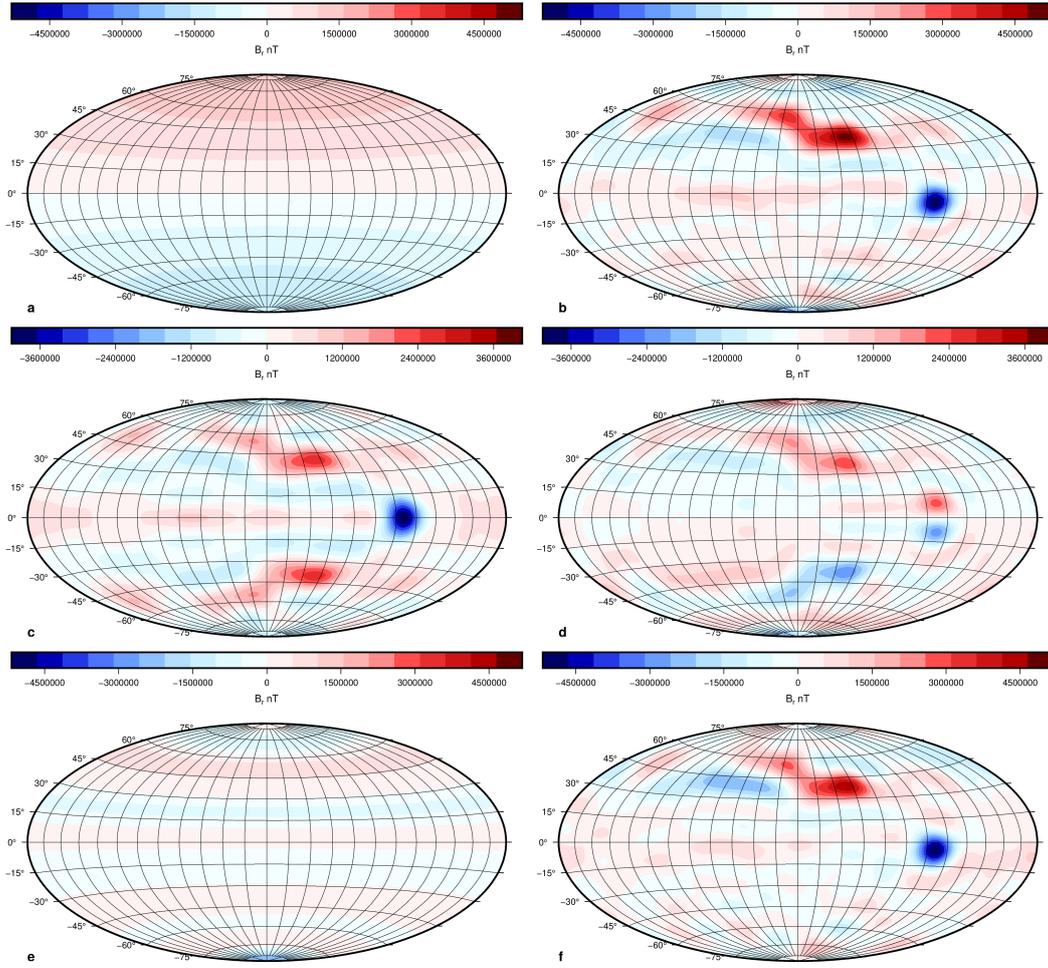


Figure 3. The radial field at R_{sf} . (a) Axial dipole field. (b) Non axial dipole field. (c) Non-dipole symmetric field. (d) Non-dipole anti-symmetric field. (e) Non-dipole zonal field. (f) Non-dipole non-zonal field.

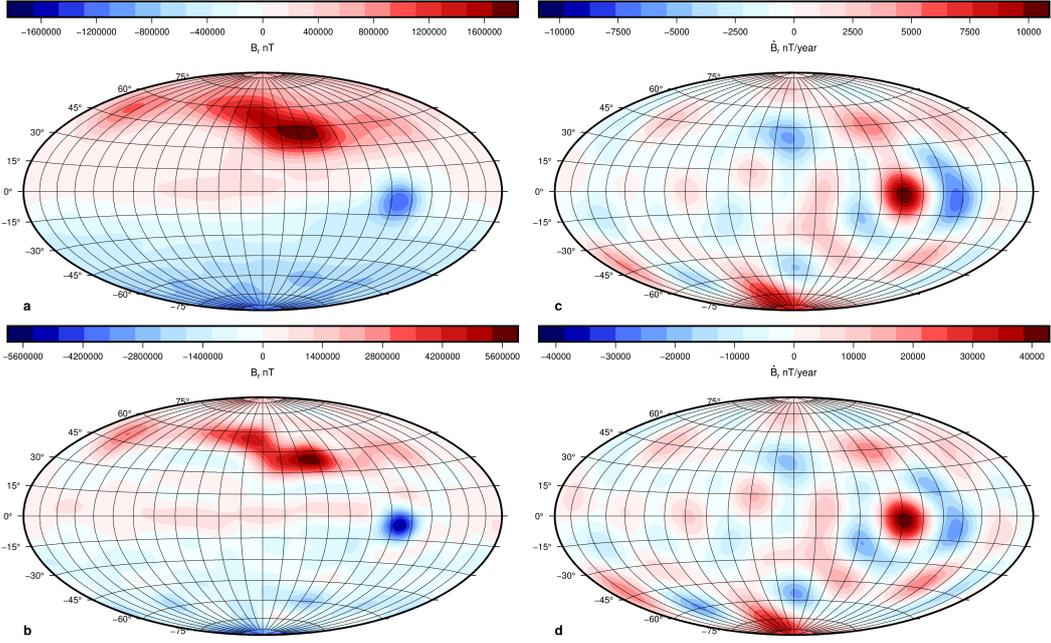


Figure 4. The (a, b) radial field and (c, d) its secular variation at (top) Jupiter’s surface and (bottom) \mathbf{R}_{sf} .

5 Concluding remarks

We present a magnetic field model robust up to degree 13 and secular variation up to degree 8. The dynamo radius of $0.845 R_J$ is more precise considering the method used and indicates that the transition region is part of the dynamo generation. The dominance of advective SV and the relative level of axial dipolarity of Jupiter exhibit similarity with the geodynamo. We find that the global secular variation is not weak enough to be neglected and the flow deep inside Jupiter involves zonal as well as complex non-zonal structures.

More insights into the dynamo regime could be gleaned by inferring the flow at Jupiter’s deep interior. Our field and SV model can be inverted for the flow at \mathbf{R}_{sf} . Such an inversion, which is commonly performed for the flow at the top of Earth’s core (Holme, 2015), was performed for Jupiter by Ridley and Holme (2016), but using a very low resolution SV model. More data are also needed to increase the resolution of the field model and to confirm the temporal variation observed during the last four years. This will come from Juno during the upcoming extended mission, but also when the ESA’s JUICE mission enters Jupiter’s orbit at the end of this decade.

Open Research

All Juno magnetometer data used here are publicly available on NASA’s Planetary Data System (PDS) at Planetary Plasma Interactions (PPI) node at
<https://pds-ppi.igpp.ucla.edu/search/?sc=Juno&t=Jupiter&i=FGM>.
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550 **6 References for Supporting Information**

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