Revealing the Mysteries of Venus: The DAVINCI Mission

3	James B. Garvin ¹ , Stephanie A. Getty ¹ , Giada N. Arney ¹ , Natasha M. Johnson ¹ ,
4	Erika Kohler ¹ , Kenneth O. Schwer ¹ , Michael Sekerak ¹ , Arlin Bartels ¹ , Richard S.
5	Saylor ¹ , Vincent E. Elliott ¹ , Colby S. Goodloe ¹ , Matthew B. Garrison ¹ , Valeria
6	Cottini ² , Noam Izenberg ³ , Ralph Lorenz ³ , Charles A. Malespin ¹ , Michael Ravine ⁴ ,
7	Christopher R. Webster 5 , David H. Atkinson 5 , Shahid Aslam 1 , Sushil Atreya 6 ,
8	Brent J. Bos ¹ , William B. Brinckerhoff ¹ , Bruce Campbell ⁷ , David Crisp ⁵ , Justin
9	R. Filiberto ⁸ , Francois Forget ⁹ , Martha Gilmore ¹⁰ , Nicolas Gorius ¹ , David
10	Grinspoon ¹¹ , Amy E. Hofmann ⁵ , Stephen R. Kane ¹² , Walter Kiefer ¹³ , Sebastien
11	Lebonnois 9 , Paul R. Mahaffy 1 , Alexander Pavlov 1 , Melissa Trainer 1 , Kevin J.
12	Zahnle ¹⁴ , Mikhail Zolotov ¹⁵
13	
14	¹ NASA Goddard Space Flight Center, Greenbelt, MD 20771 USA
15	² Agenzia Spaziale Italiana, Rome, Italy
16	³ Applied Physics Lab, Johns Hopkins University, Laurel, MD 20723 USA
17	⁴ Malin Space Science Systems, San Diego, CA 92191 USA
18	5 Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, CA
19	91109
20	⁶ University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109 USA
21	⁷ Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D.C., 20560 USA
22	⁸ NASA Johnson Space Center, Houston, TX 77058 USA
23	⁹ Laboratoire de Météorologie Dynamique/IPSL, Sorbonne Université, ENS, PSL
24	Research University, Ecole Polytechnique, CNRS, Paris France
25	¹⁰ Wesleyan University, Middletown, CT 06459 USA
26	¹¹ Planetary Science Institute, Tucson, AZ 85719 USA
27	¹² University of California Riverside, Riverside, CA 92521 USA
28	¹³ Lunar and Planetary Institute/USRA, Houston, TX 77058 USA
29	¹⁴ NASA Ames Research Center, Moffett Field, CA 94035 USA
30	¹⁵ Arizona State University, Tempe, AZ, 85287 USA
31	
32	

Abstract

2 The Deep Atmosphere Venus Investigation of Noble gases, Chemistry, and Imaging (DAVINCI) mission described herein has been 3 4 selected for flight to Venus as part of the NASA Discovery Program. 5 DAVINCI will be the first mission to Venus to incorporate science-6 driven flybys and an instrumented descent sphere into a unified 7 architecture. The anticipated scientific outcome will be a new 8 understanding of the atmosphere, surface, and evolutionary path of 9 Venus as a possibly once-habitable planet and analog to hot 10 terrestrial exoplanets. The primary mission design for DAVINCI as 11 selected features a preferred launch in summer/fall 2029, two flybys 12 in 2030, and descent sphere atmospheric entry by the end of 2031. 13 The in situ atmospheric descent phase subsequently delivers 14 definitive chemical and isotopic composition of the Venus 15 atmosphere during an atmospheric transect above Alpha Regio. These in situ investigations of the atmosphere and near infrared descent 16 17 imaging of the surface will complement remote flyby observations of 18 the dynamic atmosphere, cloud deck, and surface near infrared 19 The overall mission yield will be at least 60 Gbits emissivity. 20 (compressed) new data about the atmosphere and near surface, as 21 well as **the** first unique characterization of the deep atmosphere 22 environment and chemistry, including trace gases, key stable 23 isotopes, oxygen fugacity, constraints on local rock compositions, 24 and topography of a tessera.

25

1. Introduction

2 The atmosphere of Venus atmosphere holds clues to its origin, evolution, and 3 dynamics and may reflect the history of putative past oceans and active 4 volcanism (Bougher et al. 1997; Crisp et al. 2002; Treiman 2007; Baines et al. 5 2013; Glaze et al. 2017; 2018; Garvin et al. 2020a; 2020b; D'Inecco et al. 2021). The selected DAVINCI mission (Figure 1) described herein responds to 6 7 major lingering questions about Venus, consistently prioritized by Venus 8 Exploration Analysis Group (VEXAG) documents (O'Rourke et al. 2019) and the 9 2012 Planetary Decadal Survey (NRC 2011). The mission consists of a carrier 10 relay imaging spacecraft and a descent sphere that will be dropped into the 11 atmosphere above Alpha Regio, an enigmatic tessera (i.e. mountainous, strongly 12 tectonically deformed highland) terrain whose composition may reflect remnants 13 of ancient continental crust (Hashimoto et al. 2008; Gilmore et al. 2015).



14

1

Figure 1: Context for the DAVINCI mission within a framework of past orbital missions and with connections to future missions. Key science themes are highlighted with connections to questions leftover from past missions, and with new connections to contemporary and future missions and the era of exoplanet science. DAVINCI is viewed as a gateway for Venus as a future astrobiology target in the context of how habitability is both established and lost in our solar system and beyond (e.g. Limaye et al. 2021).

22

Previous Venus exploration has led to significant advancements in our understanding of the bulk atmospheric composition of the planet, its geological history, and its geodynamics (Grinspoon & Bullock 2007; Taylor and Grinspoon 2009; Kane at al. 2019; Way & Del Genio 2019; Lammer et al. 2020). Yet Venus

remains the least understood of the inner planets. With the recent selection 1 2 of multiple Venus missions, this may soon change. The DAVINCI mission will complement contemporary Venus missions, as shown in Figure 1, which feature 3 4 next-generation radar and night-side near infrared (NIR) emission spectrometers for mapping the surface at scales from tens of meters (synthetic aperture radar; 5 6 SAR) to ~100 km (NIR spectroscopy). These payloads will fly on missions in the 7 late 2020s (NASA's VERITAS) and mid-2030s (ESA's EnVision) to determine 8 compositional patterns at regional to global scale for advancing models of 9 Venus's crustal and thermal evolution (Ghail et al. 2018; 2021). In turn, the 10 DAVINCI mission will provide in situ context for these global remote sensing 11 missions by capturing definitive measurements of atmospheric composition, key 12 atmospheric isotope ratios, multi-band descent imaging, and Venus flyby imaging 13 at ultraviolet (UV) and NIR wavelengths to establish new knowledge about the 14 vertically resolved atmosphere and currently poorly understood regions of the 15 surface.

16

17 Venus's thick cloud cover and harsh surface environment in the present day 18 obscure the possibility, supported by recent modeling efforts (e.g. Way & Del 19 Genio 2020), that Venus could have been more Earth-like in the past, possibly 20 even for an extended time period (Figure 2). The hypothesis of a past habitable 21 Venus is supported by accretion models which suggest that Venus and Earth would 22 have had similar initial water inventories (Elkins-Tanton, 2011), by 23 evolutionary climate models (Way et al., 2016), and by the surprisingly elevated 24 ratio of deuterium to hydrogen (D/H) in water in its atmosphere, which is at 25 least 120 times that on Earth. This elevated D/H ratio could result from $H_{2}O$ photolysis following ocean evaporation, with preferential loss of hydrogen to 26 27 space compared to the twice-heavier deuterium (e.g. Donahue et al. 1982; Kasting 28 1988; Donahue et al. 1997). However, other models suggest that Venus never 29 condensed oceans (Hamano et al. 2013; Turbet at al. 2021) and that preferential 30 H loss occurred directly from photolysis of a steam atmosphere. Other possible 31 explanations for the elevated D/H ratio include outgassed water within the past 0.5-1 billion years followed by fractionating escape (Grinspoon 1993). An 32 33 improved understanding of the history of possible past Venusian water requires 34 improved measurements of the D/H ratio: the Pioneer Venus mass spectrometer 35 measured D/H (~0.016, ~100 × the terrestrial value) after its instrument inlet 36 became clogged with droplets of sulfuric acid (Donahue et al., 1982), and did 37 not survey this key parameter from the top of the atmosphere to the near surface. 38 Ground-based measurements have estimated Venus D/H at 0.019 \pm 0.006 or 120 \pm 40 39 × the terrestrial value (De Bergh et al. 1991). More recent Venus Express

measurements may be inconsistent with Pioneer Venus and Earth-based observations 1 2 and imply that the D/H ratio may increase markedly with altitude: Bertaux et al. 2007 measured the bulk lower atmosphere HDO/H₂O at ~0.05, while at 70-95 3 4 km, the measured value reached ~0.12, implying imply D/H values of ~0.025 in the bulk atmosphere and up to -0.06 at 70-95 km. 5

6 DAVINCI will provide D/H measurements with high precision (-1% in 10 ppmv; 7 0.2% in 100 ppmv) to resolve the question of altitude distribution and discriminate between different histories of water loss. D/H measurements in the 8 9 bulk of the troposphere are missing, making DAVINCI's altitude-resolved measurements particularly important. Additionally, D/H precision of 0.2% is 10 11 sufficient to resolve between D/H evolution scenarios modeled in Grinspoon 12 (1993). At least one D/H sample will be obtained above the clouds to help 13 resolve between competing hypotheses for the surprising vertical gradient 14 measured by Venus Express (e.g. Liang and Yung 2009), and at least 5 samples will be obtained below 50 km, including at least one below 15 km. In addition 15 16 to these measurements, hundreds of moderate resolution (20%) mass spectrometer 17 measurements of H₂O and HDO will be obtained from below the clouds to surface 18 touchdown.

19 Estimates of surface composition from DAVINCI may provide additional 20 corroborating evidence for past oceans. On Earth, silica-enriched felsic rocks 21 (specifically granites and granitoids) form from interior continent-building 22 processes with involvement of water (as opposed to mafic magmas and rocks, e.g. 23 basalt, which form more commonly in water-poor mantle regions) (e.g. Campbell 24 & Taylor 1983; Filiberto 2014). On Venus, emissivity signatures consistent with 25 felsic rocks have been reported in certain highland regions (e.g. Hashimoto et al. 2008; Weller & Kiefer 2020), including the DAVINCI descent site, the Alpha 26 27 Regio tessera region (Gilmore et al. 2015).



³⁰ Figure 2. A possible history of water on Venus (e.g. Way et al. (2016); Way and Del Genio (2020)), compared to Earth history. Venus's epoch of surface liquid 31

water may have persisted for over 2 billion years, and DAVINCI measurements can
 help constrain this hypothesis. Evidence also suggests volcanic activity on
 Venus persists to this day (e.g. Smrekar et al. 2010), and DAVINCI noble gas
 measurements will help constrain the history of Venus volcanism.

5

The evolution of Venus's climate is the result of the interplay between the 6 7 conditions of formation, the history of solar insolation, the role of exogenous 8 sources of volatiles, and the effects of volcanism over time. DAVINCI 9 measurements of noble gases will provide new insights into all of these processes because, being non-reactive, once released to the atmosphere, they do 10 11 not react with other material sinks or readily return to the planet's interior. 12 A comparison of noble gases on Venus, Earth, and Mars can provide insights into differences or similarities in the materials that formed each of these planets 13 14 (e.g., Pepin 2006; Baines et al. 2013; Avice & Marty 2020). The late-1970s measurements from Pioneer Venus Large Probe (PVLP) were incomplete and did not 15 16 offer the precision required to sufficiently measure the noble gases, especially 17 xenon and helium (Lammer et al. 2020). To date, only Ne and Ar have been robustly 18 measured on Venus, rendering it difficult to definitively compare the formation 19 of Venus to Earth and Mars. Neon and argon are both much more abundant on Venus 20 than on Earth --- by factors of 30 and 70, respectively --- and are roughly as 21 abundant as they are in chondritic meteorites (Figure 3). Krypton was measured, 22 but the two reported Kr abundances differ by a factor of fifteen (von Zahn et 23 al. 1983). Only upper limits exist for xenon (Figure 3). The chondritic Ne 24 and Ar abundances suggest a meteoritic source and little subsequent escape. 25 The higher Kr abundance is consistent with this, but the smaller Kr abundance 26 instead suggests a solar nebular source.

The noble gas isotope structures should be more telling. Argon can indicate 27 28 atmospheric loss through the ³⁶Ar/³⁸Ar ratio. Source ³⁶Ar/³⁸Ar ratios range from 29 5.3 (chondritic) to 5.50 (solar), but the ³⁶Ar/³⁸Ar is only 4.1±0.1 on Mars 30 (Atreya et al 2013), reflecting a history of atmospheric escape since formation. 31 Neon isotopes can distinguish between nebular and meteoritic sources of the atmosphere. Earth's atmospheric ²⁰Ne/²²Ne is 9.8 (chondritic), but its interior 32 33 ratio is 12.5, and rarely greater, possibly reflecting the solar nebula 34 (Williams and Mukhopadhyay 2019). Venus's ²⁰Ne/²²Ne ratio was reported as 11.8±1.7 35 or 14±3 by two different missions (von Zahn et al. 1983), which together suggest a protoplanetary nebular source for Ne (with solar ratio is 13.9±0.1; Meshik et 36 37 al. 2012) rather than a chondritic source with ratio ~10. Confirmation of a solar ratio would be telling. Note, however, that Viking reported Mars's 38 ³⁶Ar/³⁸Ar ratio as 5.5±1.5, which although correct is also misleading, because 39

the actual ratio hit the bottom of the error bar at 4.1±0.1 (Atreya et al. 1 2 It is difficult for Kr to escape from Venus by any process other than 2013). impact erosion; hence, it is expected that Kr isotopes should preserve the 3 4 fingerprints of the source (chondritic for Earth, solar for Mars). Any deviation from this (e.g., a strong mass fractionation) would be revolutionary. Xenon 5 6 isotopes are the most numerous and have the most potential to see deep into 7 Venus's history. Xenon on Earth and Mars is depleted (i.e., the Kr/Xe ratios 8 are high) and mass fractionated (i.e, the heavy isotopes are relatively more 9 abundant), the latter in particular indicating that, despite its great weight, 10 Xe has escaped. It is hypothesized that Xe escaped as an ion in a photo-ionized 11 magnetically channeled hydrogen wind (Zahnle et al. 2019). In the standard 12 model, Venus lost a great deal of hydrogen to space, probably fairly early in its history, so that early parallel evolution of Earth and Venus might imply 13 that Venus has little or no Xe left. Limited mass fractionation might imply 14 the absence of a planetary magnetic field. A similar isotopic signature in 15 16 non-radiogenic Xe on Venus and Earth would imply similar energetic processing 17 might have occurred on both planets.

18 Radiogenic noble gas isotopes produced by decay of parent radionucleotides in the planetary interior, ⁴⁰Ar, ⁴He, ¹²⁹Xe, and ¹³⁶Xe, will provide constraints 19 20 on volcanic outgassing through time (Figure 2). Measurements of ⁴⁰Ar are 21 diagnostic of the long-term integrated volcanic outgassing rate (Namiki & 22 Solomon 1998; O'Rourke & Korenaga 2015). In concert with ⁴⁰Ar, ⁴He provides 23 constraints on the history of volcanic degassing and escape. Meanwhile, ¹²⁹Xe 24 and ¹³⁶Xe help determine the early and long-term outgassing rate, and also provide information on early impact events. Because the parent of ¹²⁹Xe, ¹²⁹I, has a 15.7 25 Myr half-life, the ¹²⁹Xe abundance is sensitive to the timing of events during 26 accretion. If ¹²⁹Xe is abundant, it would indicate that Venus did not suffer a 27 28 late giant impact resembling the Moon-forming impact on Earth. Because the 29 parent of ¹³⁶Xe, ²⁴⁴Pu, has an 80 Myr half-life, ¹³⁶Xe is more sensitive to events during the first few hundred million years. Information from these noble gases 30 31 that reveal the timing and history of outgassing on Venus will help test different resurfacing models suggested to explain Venus's 0.2-1 billion-year 32 33 average surface age based on its ~950 randomly distributed craters (Schaber et 34 al. 1992; Phillips et al. 1992; McKinnon et al. 1997; Herrick & Rumpf 2011; 35 Bottke et al. 2016).



2 Figure 3. DAVINCI measurements of Kr and its first ever measurements of Xe will 3 resolve questions of differences in the noble gas inventories at Earth (blue 4 curve with triangles), Mars (red curve with circles), and Venus (teal curve 5 with squares, with the Pioneer Venus and Venera range indicated as the filled 6 teal region). For comparison, solar values (orange line with half-circles) and 7 carbonaceous chondrite values (brown curve with squares) are also shown. These 8 differences may imply variation in materials that formed each planet as well as 9 subsequent events during planetary evolution. Figure after Baines et al. (2013). 10

1

11 DAVINCI measurements of chemically active gases will constrain coupled 12 chemical processes and circulation of the sub-cloud atmosphere. The majority of 13 the atmospheric mass (~75%) on Venus is contained below 20 km where the gas 14 composition is poorly constrained. Compounding our uncertainties, the lapse 15 rate (temperature as a function of altitude) is insufficiently constrained and 16 represents a key variable for current models of the deep atmosphere, where 17 dominant CO2 is super-critical (Lebonnois & Schubert 2017). Vertical composition 18 profiles and gradients in the deep atmosphere are needed to constrain abundances 19 of atmospheric volatiles, physical processes (e.g., circulation, predicted CO₂-20 N₂ gas separation, as described in Lebonnois & Schubert, 2017), thermochemical 21 and some photochemical reactions among gases (e.g., Krasnopolsky, 2007, 2013), 22 and the chemical interactions at the atmosphere-surface interface (e.g., Fegley 23 et al. 1997a; Zolotov 2018; 2019). Current data on gas composition above ~10-24 20 km do not indicate chemical equilibration between gases, except possibly a 25 thin near-surface layer (e.g. Krasnopolsky & Pollack 1994; Fegley et al., 1997b; 26 Krasnopolsky, 2007). Concentration gradients have been observed (CO, OCS, H₂SO₄,

SO₃) or suspected (H₂O, SO₂) for some gases (e.g. Bertaux et al. 1996; Mills et 1 2 al. 2007; Marcq et al. 2018). Observed latitudinal anti-correlated of CO and OCS at 33-36 km (e.g. Marcq et al., 2008; Tsang et al., 2008; Arney et al. 3 4 2014), indicates latitudinal and altitudinal gradients as well as chemical transformation of the gases to each other (e.g., Yung et al., 2009), coupled 5 with a global circulation. Elevated temperatures in the deep atmosphere should 6 7 favor formation of OCS from CO and S-bearing gases (Krasnopolsky & Pollack 1994), that suggests increasing OCS abundance towards the surface together with 8 9 decrease in CO content below ~40 km (Krasnopolsky 2007, 2013; Yung et al. 2009). 10 Chemically active gases could react with surface minerals and glasses leading 11 to formation of newly formed solids such ferrous compounds that undergo 12 oxidation by atmospheric CO_2 and in sulfates and sulfides that trap S-bearing gases (e.g., Fegley et al., 1997a; Zolotov, 2018). In addition to compositional 13 changes, these interactions influence such physical properties of surface 14 materials as grain size, density, electrical conductivity, and reflectance that 15 16 all affect detectability of altered materials by remote sensing methods (Gilmore 17 et al., 2017). Better understanding of these gas-solid type interactions will 18 require chemical and physical knowledge of the lowest 12 km of the Venus 19 atmosphere. DAVINCI measurements of H_2O , SO_2 , OCS, CO, H_2S , sulfur allotropes 20 (S_n) , and HCl together with temperature-pressure conditions in the deep 21 atmosphere will constrain the stability of primary and secondary solids and 22 inform the directions of gas-solid type reactions. In particular, redox 23 conditions at the atmosphere-surface interface remain uncertain, with fugacity 24 (f) of O_2 uncertain within almost two orders of magnitude ($\log_{10} fO_2 = 10^{-21.7}$ to $10^{-21.7}$ ^{20.0} bars, Fegley et al., 1997b). In the deepest atmosphere, the redox state will 25 be constrained with DAVINCI measurements of major chemically active gases (CO2, 26 SO_2 , CO, OCS) and fO_2 itself will be directly measured with a DAVINCI student 27 28 collaboration experiment. These measurements will also help determine whether 29 the atmosphere is close to the conditions conducive to varied gas-mineral equilibria (e.g. magnetite-hematite, magnetite-hematite-pyrite), which could 30 assess potential control (buffering) of concentrations of some atmospheric 31 oxidants by surface mineralogy (Figure 4). 32

33 34



Figure 4. DAVINCI measurements of gas mixing ratios could constrain surface mineralogy and chemical state of the near-surface atmosphere. This diagram shows stability fields of iron-bearing minerals at Venus surface conditions. The red quadrangle corresponds to putative gas chemical equilibrium at mixing ratios of CO₂ and SO₂ of 0.965 and 130-185 ppm, respectively. Measuring CO, OCS, SO₂ and CO₂ will determine whether atmospheric gases equilibrate with each other and what minerals are stable. The figure is modified from Zolotov (2015).

1

9

10 Key science questions addressed during the DAVINCI descent are shown in 11 the timeline of Figure 5. DAVINCI fulfills the need for new investigations of 12 the bulk atmosphere by performing measurements of the complete suite of noble 13 gases and confirmation of the D/H ratio in water that together constrain the 14 history of outgassing and atmospheric loss. DAVINCI will conduct definitive in 15 situ analyses of near-surface gases to reveal chemical exchange between the 16 surface and deep atmosphere, and link these in situ investigations to new 17 observations of the topography and near infrared reflectivity of а 18 representative tessera to test hypotheses of water-rock interactions that could 19 have led to aqueous minerals, layered water-deposited sediments, and light-20 colored felsic igneous rocks. Furthermore, the instruments can provide critical 21 compositional context for potential newly discovered species (e.g. PH₃; Greaves 22 et al. 2020) that may be linked to the history of habitability on Venus even 23 today (e.g. Limaye et al. 2021), or possibly to ongoing volcanic activity (Truong & Lunine 2021). DAVINCI will also provide a detailed survey of compounds 24 25 bearing elements critical to life on Earth (e.g., those containing such elements 26 as carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, oxygen, phosphorus, and sulfur). DAVINCI has 27 been designed to provide flexibility and responsiveness to new discoveries about 28 the Venus atmosphere and will provide vital constraints on key chemical cycles

1 such as those involving sulfur as an example (Figure 6). Because Venus-like 2 exoplanets may represent the most readily observable class of terrestrial worlds 3 for the James Webb Space Telescope (Kane et al. 2014; 2019), measurements at 4 Venus may provide ground-truth to guide and constrain interpretations of these 5 distant worlds as discussed in Section 3 (Gillon et al. 2017; Lincowski et al. 6 2018; Arney & Kane 2020).

7

8 DAVINCI Mission Science Objectives

9 In summary, through its comprehensive suite of measurements, DAVINCI will 10 provide answers to the many scientific questions of our neighboring planet via 11 measurements to be completed during the late 2020s and early 2030s:

- 12 1. Atmospheric origin and planetary evolution: What is the origin of Venus's 13 atmosphere, and how has it evolved? Was there an early ocean on Venus, 14 and if so, when and where did it go? How and why is Venus different than 15 (or similar to) Earth, Mars, and exo-Venuses?
- 16 2. Atmospheric composition and surface interaction: Is there any currently 17 active volcanism and what is rate of volcanic activity? How does the 18 atmosphere interact with the surface? What are the chemical and physical 19 processes in the clouds and sub-cloud atmosphere?
- 3. Surface properties: Are there any signs of past processes in surface morphology and reflectance? How do tesserae compare with other major highlands and lowlands?
- 23
- 24



2 Figure 5: Summary of DS vertical descent timeline in the Venus atmosphere with 3 select science **topics** pursued at each altitude band.



Figure 6: DAVINCI detailed measurements will reveal the composition of the Venus atmosphere below ~70 km, providing necessary context to understand key chemical cycles, such as the putative sulfur (S) cycle shown here. SO_2 is the third most abundant gas in the Venus atmosphere after CO_2 and N_2 , so measurements of it and other S-bearing gases are important anchors for Venus atmosphere chemical and physical models. Boxes outlined in blue designate key species targeted by the DAVINCI descent sphere analytical instruments (Section 2.3).

9

2. Mission Design tied to Science Drivers

10 DAVINCI is a multi-element mission concept that delivers both a deep atmosphere descent sphere (DS) (i.e., a "probe") and a flyby remote sensing 11 12 Carrier-Relay-Imaging-Spacecraft (CRIS) to Venus, each carrying sophisticated 13 instruments tailored to the prioritized scientific goals and objectives of the 14 As selected by NASA in June 2021, the primary mission design for mission. 15 DAVINCI features two flybys and an in situ descent phase that would deliver 16 definitive chemical and isotopic composition of the Venus atmosphere during a 17 59-minute transect from ~ 70 km to the surface (Figure 5). This in situ 18 investigation is preceded by remote observations of the dynamic atmosphere, 19 cloud deck, and surface properties during the flybys, prior to the entry-20 descent-science in situ phase involving the DS. As described in Section 1, 21 this "flyby-probe" mission architecture is optimized to produce a set of focused 22 measurements to improve models of Venus's current and past state, its 23 atmospheric and interior evolution, and questions about habitability (e.g. Way 24 & Del Genio 2020; Limaye et al. 2021; Turbet et al. 2021).

25 26

27 2.1 Overall Mission Architecture

28

29 As selected, DAVINCI would nominally launch in June 2029 as shown in Figure 30 7, and after a ~six-month cruise, the spacecraft would fly by Venus for unique 31 remote sensing science that includes dayside UV cloud motion videos, 32 hyperspectral UV imaging spectroscopy, and night side NIR surface emissivity 33 mapping. As currently planned, the trajectory returns nine months later for a 34 second flyby in November 2030 with additional dayside UV observations and 35 nightside surface measurements of key highlands (e.g., tesserae and Maat Mons). The flight system returns to Venus seven months later and delivers the in situ 36 37 descent sphere to Alpha Regio on June 21, 2031 with favorable solar illumination

for descent high-sensitivity NIR imaging under the clouds. DAVINCI's targeted 1 2 entry-descent-imaging site within Alpha Regio has been comprehensively 3 investigated by prior missions and is large enough (nearly twice the size of 4 Texas) such that a precisely controlled descent is not necessary. DAVINCI's 5 touchdown ellipse comfortably fits within this area with large margin, and enables high-resolution descent images to map the local composition-related 6 7 infrared emissivity and local topography of this unique region. Figure 8 8 highlights the descent sphere imaging corridor and its landing error ellipse 9 within Alpha Regio using the Arecibo radio-telescope-based pseudo-topography of 10 this tessera region at sub-km scales.



12 Figure 7: DAVINCI nominal mission timeline from launch in June 2029 through 13 descent sphere release in June 2031. Note that the baseline mission ends in 14 Sept. 2031 after relay of all acquired datasets (descent sphere and flybys) to 15 Earth.

16



2 Figure 8: Alpha Regio at approximately 20 S latitude with up to 3 km of 3 total relief above the adjacent plains. Left-side map view is derived from 4 Arecibo Earth-based radar mapping using 1988 and 2015 datasets controlled by Magellan radar altimetry, with the red "ellipse" being the 3-sigma error ellipse 5 6 that constitutes the imaging descent corridor. The color scaling represents 7 pseudo-topography from low blue (0 km at the mean planetary radius, MPR, of 8 6051.84 km) to dark brown (over 2.5 km above MPR, AMPR). At right is a 9 perspective view of the entry corridor (red ellipse is ~ 310 km in its long-10 axis) atop the ridged mountains of Alpha Regio with over 900m of local relief. 11 Arecibo data analysis and processing by the DAVINCI team.

1

12

13 In June 2031, two days before arrival at Venus, the Probe Flight System (PFS) 14 is released. The spacecraft observes its release, and then conducts a divert 15 maneuver to fly by Venus and communicate with the DS throughout the in situ 16 science mission within the Venus atmosphere. After atmospheric entry and 17 parachute deployment (~70 km altitude), the heat shield is released and the DS 18 instruments begin to collect and return altitude-resolved high fidelity 19 measurements of noble, trace gas, and isotopic abundances; atmospheric temperature, pressure, and winds; and high-resolution broadband (740-1040 nm) 20 21 and narrowband (980-1030 nm) NIR descent images of Alpha Regio. Although not 22 required to land on the Venus surface, the DS has sufficient resources to 23 continue conducting science and relaying data for an additional ~18 minutes 24 from the surface if it survives the 18.7 m/s surface touchdown. After CRIS has

15

1 recorded the required descent sphere data, it turns toward Earth and transmits 2 those data to the Deep Space Network (DSN) via its X-band medium-gain antenna. 3

4 Principal DAVINCI mission flight systems are shown in Figure 9. The Lockheed 5 Martin (LM) spacecraft (CRIS) has high heritage from prior planetary missions 6 with NASA's Jet Propulsion Laboratory (JPL) and Goddard Space Flight Center 7 (GSFC). The PFS includes the integrated DS and Entry System (ES). LM will integrate the DS and ES at its facility near Denver, CO. The ES consists of a 8 9 45° half-angle sphere-cone entry vehicle consisting of a Carbon-Carbon thermal protection system, heat shield, drogue and main parachutes, and a back-shell 10 11 assembly. LM is responsible for the ES, and it has heritage from Genesis and 12 Stardust with additional design aspects from Pioneer-Venus Large Probe (PVLP), 13 Mars Phoenix polar lander, and the Mars Science Laboratory (MSL) rover. The ES 14 encapsulates and protects the DS during its initial Venus atmospheric entry. 15 The DS is a pressure vessel and aero-fairing with **five** science instruments 16 (Figure 9; Section 2.3). The DS benefits from PVLP flight heritage and extensive 17 GSFC prototype, Engineering Test Unit (ETU) and test efforts at relevant Venus 18 conditions. The science instruments carried aboard the DS and their instrument 19 heritages are:

- Venus Mass Spectrometer (VMS) Leverages recent successful mass spectrometer designs, including Mars Science Laboratory Sample Analysis at Mars (MSL/SAM) Quadrupole Mass Spectrometer (QMS) (Mahaffy et al. 2012)
- Venus Tunable Laser Spectrometer (VTLS) Draws flight heritage from
 MSL/SAM Tunable Laser Spectrometer (TLS)
- Venus Atmospheric Structure Investigation (VASI) Design heritage from
 previous atmospheric entry probes for measuring pressure, temperature,
 and acceleration
- Venus Descent Imager (VenDI) Heritage from MSL MastCam/MARDI and
 OSIRIS-Rex NavCams (Ravine et al. 2014; 2016) with large-pixel CCD
 detector for maximal signal to noise
- Venus Oxygen Fugacity Student Collaboration Experiment (VfOx) A
 solid-state nernstian ceramic oxygen sensor with heritage from high
 temperature industrial sensors (e.g. Sato & Wright 1966; Riegel et al.
 2002; Akbar et al. 2006)
- 36 37
- The CRIS spacecraft carries two science instruments:

- Venus Imaging System for Observational Reconnaissance (VISOR) Contains flight-proven components from the OSIRIS-Rex TAGCAMS navigation cameras
 - Compact Ultraviolet to Visible Imaging Spectrometer (CUVIS) A technology demonstration that features new freeform mirror technology and artificial intelligence/machine learning capabilities to enable new ultraviolet hyperspectral and high spectral resolution spectroscopy.



1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

Figure 9: DAVINCI delivers high-priority science using five descent spherebased (DS) instruments, and two remote sensing instruments on the carrierrelay-imaging spacecraft (CRIS), all with robust flight heritage. See Table 2 for instrument details for the *in situ* descent sphere in comparison with previous in situ missions (PVLP).

15

16 2.2 Descent Sphere Design

17

18 The DAVINCI DS is a hermetically sealed titanium pressure vessel with 19 dimensions (0.98 m x 0.85 m; 200 kg) similar to the Pioneer Venus Large Probe 20 (PVLP). It is notable that more recent work in descent sphere design reinforces 21 the importance of maintaining and developing new probe technologies to explore 22 the Venus atmosphere (Lorenz 1998; Hall et al. 2000; Israelavitz & Hall 2020). 23 Inside the DS are two payload decks, one forward and one aft relative to the 24 descent vector. The two decks are joined together with a frustum and attached 25 to the pressure vessel with titanium isolators around the perimeter of the 26 forward deck. The pressure vessel itself consists of two hemispheres, forward and aft, and a mid-ring. Aerodynamic properties of the sphere are trimmed using a titanium faring joined to the forward hemisphere and mid-ring to define the outer mold line, drag plates to limit the descent velocity, and a set of spin vanes around the perimeter of the mid-ring to provide a controlled spin rate as the sphere descends through the Venus atmosphere. The main parachute bridle attaches to points on the mid-ring. **Figure 10** illustrates the outer DS components.



8

9 Figure 10. DAVINCI's descent sphere protects the instruments inside from the10 harsh Venus ambient environment.

11

Three sets of inlet ports provide access to the Venus atmosphere for the VASI, VMS, and VTLS instruments (Figure. 9), and a sapphire window oriented at nadir provides a view to the surface for the VenDI camera. Other pressure vessel penetrations provide feedthroughs for connections to the spacecraft and ES during cruise and descent, an omni-directional antenna on the top of the sphere to relay telemetry to the spacecraft, and a fill/vent port for pressurizing the DS prior to launch.

19 All of the science instruments are mounted on the forward deck. Plumbing 20 connects each atmospheric sensor to its respective port. The VMS and VTLS inlet 21 ports, totaling four inlets, are fitted with break-off caps that are ejected at 22 the appropriate times to allow atmospheric gas ingestion at different altitudes. 23 The aft deck accommodates battery to power the DS after separation from the spacecraft; an adaptive transponder; avionics to execute the descent timeline 24 25 activities, collect, store and forward science data; internal pressure and 26 acceleration sensors; and a small gas re-pressurization system used in the event 27 of pressure decay during cruise.

To protect against external temperatures that increase during descent and reach up to 460°C at the surface, the temperatures of the internal components of the DS are maintained within their operational limits during the descent through the Venus atmosphere using several passive thermal control techniques

refined during GSFC design and test efforts. The DS benefits from over ten years 1 2 of investment and engineering refinement at GSFC including testing in representative Venus environments (Figure 11; Table 1). Test conditions have 3 4 not only reproduced the extremes of relevant temperatures and pressures of the 5 Venus surface, but testing has been conducted under ramped temperature and pressure profiles to reproduce day-in-the-life environmental conditions 6 7 specific to the mission design. A high-emissivity coating on the outer surface 8 of the sphere aids in cold biasing the internal components prior to descent. A 9 combination of insulation types and flexures help protect from radiative and 10 convection effects as well as isolate the decks. In addition, phase change 11 material is utilized around some assemblies that are by necessity near the outer 12 wall. Finally, low-emissivity coatings are used where needed to minimize radiative transfer. All of these measures ensure the extreme environment of 13 Venus does not affect DAVINCI instrument performance. 14

15 The ~1 hour descent sequence is shown in summary in Figure 5 and in detail 16 in Figure 12. Monte Carlo simulations of the sequence have been performed over the past five years using current Venus atmosphere reference models, with 17 results that were independently checked against performance requirements 18 19 throughout the mission proposal review process. The PFS separates from the 20 carrier spacecraft two days before the descent and the SC commences tracking 21 with the High Gain Antenna (HGA) using a two-way S-band link. Entry begins at 22 approximately 145 km altitude at the Atmospheric Entry Interface (AEI) and after 23 a brief blackout period, the pilot chute deploys, the ES back-shell separates, 24 and the main chute is deployed. The ES heatshield is separated and the DS 25 descends while connected to the main parachute. Ingestion ports are open and 26 first VTLS acquires critical samples of the upper atmosphere, then VMS acquires 27 additional samples; both instruments continue to acquire and analyze samples 28 throughout the descent. Approximately 32 minutes after AEI, the main chute 29 separates for the terminal descent and VenDI begins acquiring nadir-oriented NIR images until touchdown with high enough SNR (> 70:1) to observe surface 30 features at meter scales and potentially discern compositional patterns (Garvin 31 32 et al. 2018; 2020) at broader scales (10-100m). Data are continuously 33 transmitted to the overflying CRIS during the descent through touchdown, but 34 the DS is not required to survive the impact at the time of touchdown, and all 35 science goals are met prior to this.



2 Figure 11: Top panel: A DAVINCI half-scale Engineering Test Unit (ETU) descent 3 sphere before a Venus environment test as part of the development of the overall 4 mission concept. Bottom panel: A full-scale DS ETU was tested to Venus 5 temperature profiles in Jan.-Feb. 2021, with successful verification of 6 performance at temperature. Diameter of the sphere is 0.98 m. Cables are 7 related to engineering testing apparatus. This ETU validated the descent 8 timeline temperature profile performance from ~70 km down to the Venus surface 9 during the DAVINCI mission Phase A activities.

- 10
- 11



of events. Surface touchdown occurs at 57.04 to 66.7 minutes at 99% confidence.

The timeline for the reference touchdown at 59.7 minutes is shown here.

/

Table 1:	Descent	Sphere	development	testing
----------	---------	--------	-------------	---------

Test	Pressure	Temperature	Details
	(atm)	(C)	
Hemi-	1	Cold to	Measured thermal blanket performance on
Sphere		460C	unsealed stainless-steel hemisphere
Half-Scale	1 to 118	Ambient to	Successful pathfinder for future DS
descent		450	designs with lessons on seals and
sphere			connectors. (Figure 11). Several tests
			were conducted to various conditions,
			including separate pressure and
			temperature tests, then final combined
			pressure and temperature test.
Descent 1 to 95 20 to 460 Su		20 to 460	Successfully tested individual components:
Sphere			inlet ports, metallic seals, umbilical
Interfaces			connector, RF connector, fill and vent port
Two Piece	1 to 95	20 to 460	Successfully tested combined components on
Ports			a test fixture: larger metallic seal,
			umbilical connector with test harness,
			fill and vent port, VenDI window
VenDI	190	490	Demonstrated window leak rate was within
Window			requirements over 4 thermal cycles
Full Scale	1	20 to 500	Fabricated full-scale titanium sphere,
descent			practiced assembly, and handling. Tested
sphere			at metal foundry heat-treating facility to
			reach temperature. Successfully met
			requirements and correlated thermal model.
			Temperature testing successful.

1

2.3 Descent Sphere Payload

3 4

5 The DAVINCI mission will explore Venus and its atmosphere through a 6 carefully architected *in situ* mission rich in comprehensive measurements. The 7 DAVINCI DS utilizes five instruments to bring a highly capable analytical 8 chemistry laboratory (**Table 2**) that greatly advances beyond the Pioneer Venus 9 Large Probe payload into the Venus atmosphere, in conjunction with a high 10 contrast NIR descent imaging system and an oxygen fugacity sensor to be built 11 as a student collaboration experiment.

2 Table 2: Comparison of DAVINCI descent sphere-based instruments to those of 3 the 1978 Pioneer Venus Large Probe (PVLP) (Donahue 1982), with specific details 4 listed in right-most column (Bougher et al. 1997, Crisp et al. 2002;).

DAVINCI Descent Sphere	Pioneer Venus Large	Comparison of DAVINCI to
	Probe (PLVP)	PLVP
VMS: Venus Mass	NMS: Neutral Mass	DAVINCI offers improved
Spectrometer	Spectrometer	sensitivity to noble
Quadrupole Mass	Magnetic sector mass	gases, from He to Xe, a
Spectrometer for noble	spectrometer	wide mass range for
gas measurements in the	Direct noble gases: Ne,	broad compositional
bulk atmosphere and	Ar, Kr	measurements, improved
composition measurements		inlet design
at 50-200 m cadence in		
altitude		
VTLS: Venus Tunable	GC: Gas Chromatograph	DAVINCI offers tailored
Laser Spectrometer	Discrimination of N_2/CO ,	and targeted analytical
High precision isotope	corroboration of	capabilities to address
ratios for D/H, C-, O-,	atmospheric chemistry	the need for high
and S-bearing species as		precision isotopic
a function of altitude		measurements
VenDI: Venus Descent	No comparable geologic	DAVINCI offers
Imager	study of descent region	unprecedented spatial
Broadband and narrowband		resolution and high
infrared channels for		sensitivity, with modern
tessera imaging beneath		data processing methods,
the cloud deck		to constrain composition
		and morphology
VASI: Venus Atmospheric	Temperature, pressure,	DAVINCI will provide
Structure Investigation	and acceleration sensors	important contextual
High cadence measurement	Established structure of	measurements of
of temperature,	atmosphere, with wind	atmospheric structure,
pressure, wind speed	measurements, evidence	with first lapse rate
acceleration	for wave activity in	measurement in lower
	lower atmosphere	atmosphere

VfOx: Venus Oxygen	No comparable study of	DAVINCI will provide
Fugacity Student	oxygen fugacity	sensitive altitude-
Collaboration Experiment		resolved measurements of
Small ceramic sensor		atmospheric oxygen in
measures oxygen fugacity		the lower atmosphere
in the lower atmosphere		

3 Venus Mass Spectrometer (VMS): VMS is a quadrupole mass spectrometer 4 (QMS) with a gas enrichment system and pumping system that will provide the 5 first comprehensive in situ survey of the planet's noble gases to reveal Venus's 6 origin and evolution. Leveraging heritage from the Mars Science Laboratory 7 (MSL) Sample Analysis at Mars (SAM) QMS (e.g. Mahaffy et al. 2012; Atreya et al. 2013; Webster & Mahaffy 2011) and with a broad mass range from 2-550 Da, 8 9 VMS has the capability to discover new trace gas species. VMS acquires hundreds 10 of trace atmospheric constituent mixing ratio measurements and composition 11 measurements during the descent for understanding present-day chemical 12 processes and cycles in the Venus atmosphere (Figure 6). These trace gases 13 measurements are vital for understanding the origin of Venus's atmosphere and 14 its divergent evolution, compared to Earth's. Measurements will occur every 15 ~200 m or better below 61 km, particularly in the lowest 16 km of the atmosphere (Figure 13). Pressures in the sampling lines are controlled with carefully-16 17 sized restrictors and capillary leaks. Two independent inlets and sampling lines 18 are used during the descent, providing additional range to accommodate the 19 increasing pressure during the descent. Previously, the Pioneer Venus Large 20 Neutral Probe Mass Spectrometer suffered a clog from a sulfuric acid droplet. To avoid this on DAVINCI, VMS incorporates heated inlet tubes to vaporize 21 22 trapped droplets, filters of passivated/sintered metal spheres to capture 23 particles large enough to cause clogs in capillary leaks used for pressure 24 reduction, and the aforementioned second inlet for sampling below the sulfuric 25 acid cloud and haze. Table 3 provides a selection of species VMS (and VTLS) 26 will measure, together with current known values and projected accuracy as of 27 current Phase B.



Figure 13. Representative altitude-sampled measurements of selected key species 2 3 for VMS (high cadence colored points in left panel) and VTLS (lower cadence 4 gray triangular points in right panel) in the lower atmosphere. Averaging of 5 VMS values (left panel) can achieve smaller uncertainties without significant 6 loss of vertical structure information as illustrated with the black points 7 with reduced error bars. Possible gradients near the surface are indicated with 8 dashed lines at altitudes < 10 km in the VMS (left) panel. Additional VTLS 9 measurements beyond the DAVINCI reference mission scenario may be possible, as 10 suggested by the notional white VTLS points in the deepest part of the atmosphere 11 (right panel).

12

1

13 Venus Tunable Laser Spectrometer (VTLS): VTLS consists of a multi-pass 14 Herriott cell with three laser channels at 2.64, 4.8 and 7.4 μ m, specifically 15 targeting key science questions that discriminate chemical processes in the 16 upper clouds and near-surface environment. VTLS draws heritage from the MSL 17 SAM tunable laser spectrometer (e.g. Webster & Mahaffy 2011; Mahaffy et al. 18 2012; Pla-Garcia et al. 2019). A fourth laser channel is the subject of an 19 ongoing trade study to optimize scientific capability without exceeding the as-20 designed engineering envelope of the VTLS instrument. VTLS is specifically 21 tailored to answer critical questions about the Venus atmosphere by providing 22 the first highly sensitive in situ measurements of key gas species containing 23 H, S, C and O, as well as their high precision isotope ratios including D/H. 24 VTLS measures gases from at least one sample ingested in the upper cloud, and 25 at least five vertically distributed measurements below the cloud, including one in the lowest 15 km. The exact number of measurements will be determined by operational parameters, such as descent time and data transmission rates during the mission. Selected VTLS lower atmosphere measurements are shown in Figure 13 and described in Table 3.

- 5
- 6

Table 3. Selected subset of species measured by VMS and VTLS.

Example	Value at	Current	Altitude	DAVINCI	Reference(s)
Species	Venus (best	Uncertainty	Dependent?	projected	
	current			accuracy	
	knowledge)			(as of	
				Phase B)	
H ₂ O	30 ppm (<45	up to 50%	expected	20% [VMS],	Taylor et al. 1997;
	km)			2% [VTLS]	Chamberlain et al.
					2013; Arney et al.
					2014;
D/H in	0.016 (~54	13%	expected	1% in	Donahue et al. 1982;
H ₂ O	km), 0.06			10ppmv,	deBergh et al. 1991;
	(70-95 km)			0.2% in	Bertaux et al. 2007
				100ppmv	
				[VTLS]	
СО	20-40 ppm	up to 60%	expected	2% [VTLS]	Oyama et al. 1980;
	(20-45 km)				Marcq et al. 2006;
					Cotton et al. 2012
OCS	0.44-0.55	up to 29%	expected	20% [VMS],	Pollack et al. 1993;
	ppm (36 km),			2% [VTLS]	Taylor et al. 1997;
	4.4 ppm (33				Marcq et al. 2006;
	km)				Arney et al. 2014
SO ₂	130-150 ppm	up to 40%	expected	15% [VMS],	von Zahn et al. 1983;
	(< 45 km)			2% [VTLS]	Marcq et al. 2008
³² S/ ³³ S/ ³⁴ S	unknown	unknown	expected	1‰ [VTLS]	No measured value
in SO ₂ ,					
OCS					
H_2S	3 ppm (<24	67%	expected	few ppm	Hoffman et al. 1980
	km)			(best	
				effort)	
				[VMS]	

H ₂ SO ₄	8 ppm (~46	unknown	expected	few ppm	Jenkins et al. 2002
	km)			(best	
				effort)	
				[VMS]	
Sn	ppb expected	unknown	expected	few ppb	No measured value
				(best	
				effort)	
				[VMS]	
Не	9 ppm (~100	67%	not	<4% [VMS]	Krasnopolsky and
	km)		expected		Gladstone (2005)
Ne	7 ppm	43%	not	<5% [VMS]	von Zahn et al. 1983
			expected		
Ar	70 ppm	36%	not	<2% [VMS]	von Zahn et al. 1983
			expected		
Kr	50-700 ppm	up to 50%	not	<5% [VMS]	von Zahn et al. 1983
			expected		
Хе	unknown	unknown	not	<5% [VMS]	No measured value
			expected		

3 Venus Atmospheric Structure Investigation (VASI): VASI is a suite of 4 sensors that measure atmospheric pressure, temperature, and dynamics. Dynamics 5 will be measured from DS motions in the Venus atmosphere through entry and 6 descent. These data are used to reconstruct the descent profile and to provide 7 thermodynamic context for each atmospheric sample ingested by VMS and VTLS. 8 Internally mounted accelerometers and gyroscopes combined with Doppler tracking 9 via the Spacecraft-to-DS communications link enables detailed reconstruction of 10 the DS path from the top of the atmosphere to the surface and measurement of 11 the vehicle dynamics in support of NASA's Engineering Science Investigation 12 (ESI) to feed forward into the design of future missions. Temperature and 13 pressure measurements via sensors and Kiel probes on externally mounted booms 14 enable in situ environmental measurements during the descent. VASI aims to 15 determine the temperature profile to better than 1 K to constrain models and to permit improved calibration of emissivity retrievals, which depend on knowing 16 the temperature of the Venus surface. In addition to their high quality, 17 18 atmospheric structure data will be obtained with much higher vertical resolution 19 (<50 m) than previous missions.

20 **Venus Descent Imager (VenDI):** VenDI is a NIR descent imaging system with 21 a nadir orientation and 1024x1024 pixel full-frame CCD detector permitting high

1 SNR imaging from under the clouds and sub-cloud haze (~38 km) to the surface of 2 Venus at spatial scales from 1-200 m. The VenDI camera head is based on the heritage design from MSL/MastCam, MSL/MAHLI, and MSL/MARDI (e.g. Malin et al. 3 4 2017). Its broadband (740-1040 nm) and narrow-band filters (980-1030 nm) will provide images at spatial scales (< 200 m down to 2 m/pixel) not possible from 5 6 orbit. These data will be used to constrain surface composition (i.e., 7 distinguish rocks that are felsic from ones that are mafic) by utilizing band 8 ratios, a technique used effectively with data from various sensors and 9 platforms on many planetary surfaces (e.g., Robinson et al., 2007; Delamere et al., 2010; Gilmore et al., 2008). VenDI will acquire bundles of images from 10 11 which topography can be derived using machine vision algorithms via Structure-12 from-Motion (SfM), a method that employs multiple overlapping images to infer 13 three-dimensional texture (Garvin et al. 2018). Topography with meter-scale vertical precision can be computed from bundles of VenDI descent images acquired 14 in the lower-most 5 km of descent, with horizontal (spatial) resolution of 10m 15 16 and finer. Images from ~1.5 km to the surface will feature spatial resolution 17 less than 1-meter allowing erosional studies relating to the environmental 18 history of Venus. Final VenDI imaging resolutions is expected to be < 50 cm/pixel 19 and as fine as 10 cm/pixel depending on two-way data links between the DS and 20 the overhead CRIS in the last moments before touchdown in June 2031. Figure 14 21 shows an example digital elevation map (DEM) and overlaid band ratio map of the 22 Zagros Mountains on Earth, a terrain with comparable topography to Alpha Regio. 23



24

Figure 14. VenDI simulation utilizing data from the Zagros Mountains in Iran as a tessera analog at scales anticipated during the DS descent (FOV 7 km x 7km). Satellite image data courtesy Maxar WorldView (WV-02) processed by NASA Goddard to produce VenDI-like band-ratio maps and to construct a ~ 3m ground scale distance digital elevation map (DEM), as shown here in a color-scaled perspective view. DAVINCI's VenDI will produce similar datasets for Alpha Regio from altitudes below ~ 7 km, depending on final descent timeline during the 1 actual DS entry-descent-science phase. At left: The SfM-based DEM has been raytraced to be an oblique view to highlight geological structures at 30 m scale for stratigraphic analysis. At right: Band ratio compositional imaging overlain on the DEM will allow potential identification of felsic rocks on Venus in their stratigraphic settings.

7 Venus Oxygen Fugacity Student Collaboration Experiment (VfOx): VfOx is 8 a solid-state nernstian ceramic oxygen sensor that relies on a reference 9 material with known oxygen fugacity, fO_2 (e.g., a gas mixture or solid oxide). 10 The fO_2 differential between the known and unknown sample causes a diffusion of 11 oxygen through the electrolyte, resulting in a small, measurable voltage. VfOx 12 will measure oxygen composition of the lower atmosphere of Venus, with a 13 particular emphasis on informing the oxidation state of surface rocks at our descent location and providing constraints on surface-atmosphere exchange 14 15 chemistry.

16

6

172.4Carrier-Relay-ImagingSpacecraft(CRIS)FlybyRemoteSensing18Payload

19

The DAVINCI CRIS flyby remote sensing payload consists of two instrument packages: (1) Venus Imaging System for Observational Reconnaissance (VISOR); and (2) Compact Ultraviolet to Visible Imaging Spectrometer (CUVIS).

23

24 Venus Imaging System for Observational Reconnaissance (VISOR): VISOR is an 25 integrated system of four cameras and controller unit that provides global 26 dayside coverage of Venus in the ultraviolet and nightside coverage in the NIR 27 (0.93 to 1.03 μ m) and video of the PFS deployment, all with limited resource 28 requirements and with high heritage. VISOR is based on the Malin Space Science 29 Systems (MSSS) Engineering Camera (ECAM) system (Ravine et al. 2014; 2016), a 30 modular spaceflight imaging system that is currently flying on the OSIRIS-Rex 31 mission (TAGCams) to asteroid Bennu and several other missions. Each of the 32 VISOR cameras has a field of view of 11.3° by 8.9° and a format of 2592 by 2048 33 pixels, which can be converted to a spatial sampling scale (resolution) as a 34 function of range to target. One of the VISOR cameras provides global, dayside 35 coverage of Venus in the unknown UV absorber band (355 to 375 nm). During the 36 flybys, the field of view of this UV camera will cover the full disk of the 37 sunlit planet. The scale of these images will range from 10 to 20 km/pixel at 38 80,000 to 200,000 km altitude. The other three VISOR cameras image Venus in three independent NIR bands, from 930 to 938 nm, 947 to 964 nm, and 990 to 1030 nm. These near IR bands are used to correct scattered light, correct for variations in cloud layer opacity, and image thermal emission from highland targets on the nightside of Venus (during the two Venus flybys), respectively, to constrain variations of surface emissivity and its correlation with surface geology at regional scales (~100 km, with the spatial resolution limited by the scattering footprint of the Venus atmosphere).

8 VISOR targets include the DAVINCI descent sphere landing site in Alpha Regio, 9 which will allow comparison of the VISOR results for Alpha Regio with those 10 acquired during descent sphere descent by VenDI from under the cloud deck. In 11 addition, VISOR nightside NIR imaging will target other highlands to enable 12 comparisons with Alpha Regio.

The Compact Ultraviolet to Visible Imaging Spectrometer (CUVIS): This 13 14 technology demonstration option combines high-resolution UV spectroscopy and hyperspectral imaging from the UV to the visible in a compact package made 15 16 possible by novel freeform optics and artificial intelligence/machine learning 17 (AI/ML) on-board data processing. A machine learning algorithm based on 18 Generative Adversarial Network (Goodfellow et al. 2014) will be employed for 19 atmospheric parameter retrievals. This will demonstrate how complex tasks can 20 be performed by an AI-enabled device in the on-board data handling system to 21 analyze data on-board in near real time, generate a reduced dataset to be 22 returned in full, and to help flag and prioritize full resolution data to 23 return. With these new capabilities, CUVIS will obtain spectra that are far 24 better for diagnosing upper cloud composition than has been previously possible. 25 CUVIS will provide new spectral clues to the UV absorber(s) located in the upper cloud deck that are responsible for absorbing half of the solar radiation 26 27 received by Venus. With its hyperspectral imaging capability, CUVIS enables 28 correlation between cloud features, structure, and chemistry in the upper cloud 29 deck. CUVIS will image Venus in full sun during each of the two DAVINCI mission 30 flybys.

31 The DAVINCI payload instruments will work together to comprehensively 32 investigate the Venus environment. Table 4 summarizes how the DAVINCI 33 instruments will address the mission's Key Questions introduced in Section 1. 34

35 Table 4. DAVINCI measurements taken with its suite of seven instruments 36 will address key DAVINCI objectives introduced in Section 1.

37

DAVINCI Key Questions	DAVINCI Measurements

What is the origin of Venus's	VMS determines noble gas abundance
atmosphere, and how has it evolved?	and isotope ratios to test current
Was there an early ocean on Venus,	hypotheses of origin and evolution.
and if so, when and where did it go?	CUVIS and VISOR track UV absorbers
How and why is Venus different than	and clouds, respectively, in the
(or similar to) Earth, Mars, and exo-	upper atmosphere, and their dynamics
Venuses?	on flybys. Both VTLS and VMS address
	exotic chemistry. Measurement
	precision of D/H by VMS and VTLS is
	sufficient to test the history of
	water.
Is there any current volcanism and	VMS, VTLS, and VASI work in concert
what is rate of volcanic activity?	to measure key trace gases near the
How does the atmosphere interact with	surface and their atmospheric
the surface? What are the chemical	context, and oxygen is measured by
and physical processes in the clouds	VfOx down to the surface.
and sub-cloud atmosphere?	Measurements and of radioactive decay
	products determine both the long-term
	average volcanism rate and the
	geologically recent volcanism rate.
Are there any signs of past processes	VenDI images reveal morphology,
in surface morphology and	composition, and weathering states of
reflectance? How do tesserae compare	representative tesserae and pave the
with other major highlands and	way for future surface exploration.
lowlands?	VenDI evaluates IR emissivity of
	tesserae for composition at scales of
	5-200 m. Flyby VISOR 1 µm images
	constrain regional composition of
	diverse geological features at ~100
	km resolution.

1 3. Connecting Venus to Exploration beyond the Solar System

Venus is important to study not only as a deeply mysterious and compelling world of our solar system, but also as an example of a larger class of exo-Venus worlds that will likely be observed beyond the solar system in the upcoming era of the James Webb Space Telescope (JWST). Almost 5,000 exoplanets have been detected over the past several decades through a multitude of efforts. Some of these worlds will soon be observed by JWST, successfully launched in December 2021 with an anticipated mission lifetime greater than 10 years. If DAVINCI launches in 2029 and arrives at Venus in June 2031, there may be of overlap between these two missions, potentially permitting an interplay between DAVINCI in situ measurements and JWST targeted observations of exoplanets.

8 Exoplanets that receive Venus-like insolation levels likely represent the 9 most observable class of terrestrial exoplanets to JWST (Kane et al. 2014). Yet 10 these worlds will be challenging targets to interpret: most of the mass of the 11 Venus atmosphere resides beneath its thick cloud and haze layers, but the 12 transit transmission observations available to JWST cannot penetrate below cloud 13 and haze and will therefore be limited to skimming the rarefied upper 14 atmospheres of these worlds if they are enshrouded like Venus. Consequently, it has been suggested that a planet with a high altitude cloud layer could appear 15 spectrally similar to a very different kind of planet with a thin, clear sky 16 17 atmosphere (Lustig-Yaeger et al. 2019). Statistical trends in observations of 18 such worlds could produce a "mirage" of the cosmic shoreline, the empirical 19 dividing line in insolation-escape velocity space that separates planets with 20 and without atmospheres (Zahnle & Catling 2017). Efficient atmospheric escape 21 processes driven by stellar energy can erode atmospheres of planets orbiting 22 close to their stars, producing increasingly thinner atmospheres at smaller 23 semi-major axes. Nevertheless, the predicted decrease in cloud-top pressure at 24 smaller semi-major axes for planets with thick, Venus-like atmospheres can 25 produce the same apparent trend in observational data. Data from the Venus 26 atmospheric column will help validate and constrain models that can help break 27 this apparent degeneracy. For example, models suggest thermal phase curves could 28 reveal the presence or absence of a thick Venus-like atmosphere, and statistical 29 trends in populations of planets with different insolations could be compared 30 to theoretical behavior predicted from models (Lustig-Yaeger et al. 2019). 31 Additionally, DAVINCI's first Venus flyby in January 2030 and resulting UV spectroscopy at 0.20 nm spectral resolution (CUVIS) may identify specific upper 32 33 atmospheric chemistries for JWST to target in above-cloud transit observations 34 of Venus-like analogues (Jessup et al. 2020).

In a more general sense, given the challenges inherent to exoplanet observations, which will typically have large error bars in even the best case scenarios for near-term observations, the worlds of the solar system including Venus provide valuable "ground truth" to improve our models and interpretations of these distant worlds. Given the particular challenges associated with

1 observing cloudy Venus-like worlds (e.g. Barstow et al. 2016), and given that 2 multiple potential exo-Venus planets at varied ages and stages of evolution are some of the highest priority targets for JWST (e.g., Ostberg & Kane 2019; 3 4 Lustig-Yaeger et al. 2019), DAVINCI offers an opportunity for definitive 5 "atmosphere truth" to inform and constrain studies of Venus-like exoplanets. 6 For instance, planets of the TRAPPIST-1 system will represent a core community 7 observation initiative with JWST (Gillon et al. 2020), and more than one of 8 these worlds may be Venus-like (e.g., Lincowski at al. 2018; Moran et al. 2018). 9 Furthermore, if Venus was habitable in the past, some exo-Venus planets may likewise host habitable conditions, so understanding the mechanisms and 10 11 processes that governed and enabled past Venus habitability may help us to 12 better understand the parameter space in which habitable worlds may be found 13 beyond the solar system, allowing refinement of the habitable zone. Indeed, the 14 inner edge of the classical habitable zone is typically used as a barometer of 15 terrestrial planet habitability limits, as applied to other solar systems, based 16 on our limited knowledge of Venus's evolutionary history (e.g. Kasting et al. 1993; Kopparapu et al. 2013). Thus, improvement in our understanding of the 17 18 current and past chemical and physical states of Venus represents arguably the 19 highest priority synergistic target between the solar system and exoplanet 20 communities for the coming years (Kane et al. 2021).

21 Venus may even help us to better understand how to search for and interpret 22 oxygen as a biosignature (i.e. a remotely observable sign of life) in certain 23 exoplanet atmospheres (e.g. Meadows 2017). Venus currently generates abiotic 24 oxygen through CO₂ photolysis, which can be observed through airglow of excited 25 $(a \, {}^{1}\Delta_{q})$ oxygen on the Venusian nightside at 1.27 mm (Crisp et al. 1996), but the 26 abundance of ground-state oxygen in the Venus atmosphere is highly 27 unconstrained, suggesting rapid removal through chemical processes that can be 28 better understood through DAVINCI measurements of oxygen-bearing species. 29 Additionally, if Venus lost oceans of water to space the past, oxygen would 30 have been generated through the processes of H₂O photolysis, but this oxygen is 31 not observed in the Venus atmosphere today. Exoplanets that lose multiple Earth 32 oceans-worth of water could generate 100s to even 1000s of bars of abiotic O_2 33 through this process (e.g. Luger& Barnes 2015). Understanding the fate of oxygen 34 due to possible past water loss on Venus may help to evaluate the plausibility 35 of such models. These so-called oxygen "false positives" may be particularly 36 relevant to JWST targets because the high activity levels and particular 37 evolutionary histories of the low mass stars JWST will target make them 38 especially vulnerable to generating abiotic oxygen through these processes (e.g. 39 Meadows 2017; Meadows et al. 2018).

1 Beyond JWST, the Astronomy and Astrophysics 2020 decadal survey (NAS 2021) 2 recently recommended a large infrared/optical/ultraviolet flagship observatory capable of observing exoplanets directly in reflected light around sun-like 3 4 stars. Such a telescope would be capable of observing Venus-like planets in 5 solar systems with evolutionary histories that may be similar to our own. 6 Pathways to Discovery in Astronomy and Astrophysics for the 2020s discusses 7 that observations of young Venus analog planets orbiting sun-like stars could 8 help us understand how Venus evolved in our solar system.

9

10

11 4. Conclusions

12 The DAVINCI mission concept builds upon the flyby, landed, and orbital mapping 13 missions of the past (e.g., PVLP, Venera, Vega, Magellan, Venus Express, and 14 Akatsuki) to take the next critical step in Venus exploration: a sophisticated descent sphere-flyby combination (Figure 1). DAVINCI will deliver a chemical 15 16 laboratory capable of revealing the atmospheric chemistry, a descent imager 17 surpassing previous similar instruments on Mars (e.g., with composition and 18 topography), an environmental package to establish context, and flyby imaging 19 (and communications) to connect remote sensing to in situ exploration. The 20 discoveries to be made by DAVINCI will close long-standing gaps in models of 21 atmospheric evolution, Venus's water loss, and surface-atmosphere interactions. 22 There are multiple competing models for the state of early Venus (e.g. Way et 23 al. 2016; Turbet et al. 2021), and a precise measurement of the bulk atmosphere 24 D/H is essential for quantifying the timing and quantity of possible water loss 25 on Venus. Additional information will come from DAVINCI's measurements of the 26 rock types of the tesserae and precise measurements of noble gases, which will 27 provide multiple lines of evidence for interpreting our neighboring planet's The resulting model inputs and constraints would benefit a 28 ancient history. 29 broad community of next-generation scientists to understand how planetary 30 habitability may evolve (Seager at al. 2021; Sousa-Silva et al. 2020; Greaves 31 at al. 2020; Encrenaz et al. 2020) and to pave the way for exoplanetary modeling, 32 observations, and exploration of Venus-like worlds beyond our solar system. 33

34

Acknowledgments

35 The authors gratefully acknowledge Phase A **and Phase B** funding support from 36 the NASA *Discovery* Program, as well as concept development and IRAD effort

1 support from the NASA Goddard Space Flight Center and key partners at Lockheed 2 Martin, Malin Space Science Systems, NASA JPL, and others. A portion of this work was carried out at the Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California Institute of 3 4 Technology, under a contract with the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (80NM0018D0004). Numerous useful contributions and conversations 5 6 with colleagues at Lockheed-Martin, NASA Langley Research Center, and Johns 7 Hopkins University Applied Physics Laboratory are acknowledged by the authors. 8 We are appreciative of the support from Lindsay Hays, Andrea Riley, Brad 9 Zavdosky, Tiffany Morgan, and Thomas Wagner. The authors also gratefully 10 acknowledge concept development contributions from colleagues at NASA Goddard 11 Space Flight Center, including Martin Houghton, David Everett, Steve Tompkins, 12 Julie Breed, Michael Amato, and Brent Robertson. Longstanding support from NASA officials including Lori Glaze, Chris Scolese, Dennis Andrucyk, Christyl 13 Johnson, and Anne Kinney are gratefully acknowledged, as well as the inspiration 14 of Noel Hinners and Sally Ride (deceased). 15 16 17 18 19 20 Acronyms List 21 AMPR: Above Mean Planetary Radius 22 DAVINCI: Deep Atmosphere Venus Investigation of Noble Gases, Chemistry, and 23 Imaging 24 D/H: Deuterium to Hydrogen ratio 25 DS: Descent Sphere 26 DSN: Deep Space Network 27 ECAM: Engineering Camera 28 ES: Entry System 29 ESA: European Space Agency 30 ETU: Engineering Test Unit 31 GSFC: Goddard Space Flight Center JPL: Jet Propulsion Laboratory 32 33 JWST: James Webb Space Telescope 34 LM: Lockheed Martin

- 35 MPR: Mean Planetary Radius
- 36 MSL: Mars Science Laboratory
- 37 MSSS: Malin Space Science Systems
- 38 NIR: Near infrared

1	PLVP: Pioneer Venus Large Probe
2	PFS: Probe Flight System
3	QMS: Quadrupole Mass Spectrometer
4	SAM: Sample Analysis at Mars
5	SC: Spacecraft
6	SfM: Structure from Motion
7	UV: ultraviolet
8	VASI: Venus Atmospheric Structure Investigation
9	VenDI: Venus Descent Imager
10	VEXAG: Venus Exploration Analysis Group
11	VISOR: Venus Imaging System for Observational Reconnaissance
12	VMS: Venus Mass Spectrometer
13	VTLS: Venus Tunable Laser Spectrometer
14	
15	References
16	Arney, G., Meadows, V., Crisp, D., et al. 2014, JGRP, 119, 8
17	Arney, G.N. and Kane, S., 2020. Venus as an analog for hot Earths. Planetary
18	Astrobiology, p.355.
19	Akbar, S., Dutta, P. and Lee, C., 2006. International journal of
20	applied ceramic technology, 3(4), pp.302-311.
21	Atreva, S. K., Trainer, M. G., Franz, H. B., et al. 2013, GRL, 40, 21,
21	5605 doi: 10 1002/2013GL057763
22	5005 401. 10.1002/20136105//05
23	Avice, G. & Marty, B. 2020, SSRv, 216, 3, 1
24	Baines, K. H., Atreya, S. K., Bullock, M. A., et al. 2013, in
25	Comparative Climatology of Terrestrial Planets, ed S. Mackwell et
26	al. (Tucson, AZ: University of Arizona Press)
27	Barstow J. K., Aigrain S., Irwin P. G. J., et al. 2016, MNRAS, 458,
28	2657
29	Bertaux, J-L, Widemann, T., Hauchecorne, at al., 1996, JGR, 101,
30	E5

Bertaux, J-L., Vandele, A-C., Korablev, O., et al. 2007, Nature,
 450, 7170

Bougher, S. W., Hunten, D. M., & Phillips, R. J. 1997, in Venus
II, ed. S. W. Bougher et al. (Tucson, AZ: University of Arizona

Bottke W. F., Vokrouhlicky D., Ghent B. et al. 2016, LPSC, 47, 2036

7 Campbell, I. H. & Taylor, S. R. 1983, GRL, 10, 11, 1061

8 Crisp, D. et al. 1996, JGRP, 101, E2

3

6

Press)

9 Crisp, D., Allen, M. A., Anicich, V. G., et al. 2002, ASP

10 Conference, (San Francisco, CA: ASP), 272, 5

11 De Bergh, C., Bezard, B., Owen, T., et al. 1991, Sci, 251, 4993, 547

12 Delamere, W. A., Tornabene, L. L., McEwen, A. S., et al. 2010, Icar,
13 205, 1, 38

14 D'Incecco, P., Filiberto, J., López, I., et al. 2021, JGRE, 126, doi:
15 10.1029/2021JE006909

16 Donahue, T. M., Hoffman, J. H., Hodges, R. R., et al. 1982, Sci, 216, 17 630

Donahue, T. M. & Russell, C. T. 1997, in Venus II, ed. S. W. Bougher
et al. (Tucson, AZ: University of Arizona Press), 3

20 Elkins-Tanton, L. T. 2011, Ap&SS, 332, 359

Encrenaz, T., Greathouse, T. K., Marcq, E., et al. 2020, A&A, 643,
 L5 doi: 10.1051/0004-6361/202039559

Fegley, B., Klingelhofer, G., Lodders, K., and Widemann, T. 1997a, in
Venus II, ed. S. W. Bougher et al. (Tucson, AZ: University of Arizona
Press), 591

Fegley, B., Zolotov, M. Y., and Lodders, K. 1997b, Icar, 125, 2,
 416439

3 Filiberto J. 2014, Icar, 231, 131

Garvin, J. B., Glaze, L. S., Ravine, M. A., at al. 2018, 49th LPSC,
2287, (The Woodlands, TX: LPI)

Garvin, J. B., Arney, G., Getty, et al. 2020a, 51st LPSC, 2599,
(The Woodlands, TX: LPI)

8 Garvin, J. B., Arney, G. N., Atreya, S., et al. 2020b, arXiv:
9 2008.12821

10 Ghail R. C., Hall D., Mason P. J. et al. 2018, IJAEO, 64, 365

11 Ghail, R. C., 2021, AAS/DPS, 53, 7, 315

Gillon, M., Triaud, A.H., Demory, B.O., Jehin, E., Agol, E., Deck,
K.M., Lederer, S.M., De Wit, J., Burdanov, A., Ingalls, J.G. and
Bolmont, E., 2017. Seven temperate terrestrial planets around the
nearby ultracool dwarf star TRAPPIST-1. *Nature*, 542(7642), pp.456-460.

Gilmore, Martha S., Emily H. Wilson, Nels Barrett, Daniel L. Civco,
Sandy Prisloe, James D. Hurd, and Cary Chadwick *Remote Sensing of Environment* 112, no. 11 (2008): 4048-4060.

19 Gilmore, M., Mueller, N., and Helbert, J. 2015, Icar, 254, 350

Gilmore M., Treiman A., Helbert J. and Smrekar S.
 2017, SSRv, 212, 1511 doi: 10.1007/s11214-017-0370-8

Glaze L. S., Wilson C. F., Zasova L. V., Nakamura M. & Limaye S.
2018, SSRv, 214, 89

Glaze L. S., Garvin J. B., Robertson B. et al. 2017 Proc. IEEE Aerospace Conf. ed E. Nilsen (Piscataway, NJ: IEEE) 1 doi:10.1109/AERO.2017.7943923

- Greaves, J. S., Richards, A. M. S., Bains, W. et al. 2020, NatAs doi:
 10.1038/s41550-020-1174-4
- 3 Grinspoon D. H. 1993, Natur, 363, 428
- Grinspoon D. H. and Bullock M. A. 2007, Geophys. Monogr.
 Ser., 176, 191
- 6 Hall, J.L., MacNeal, P.D., Salama, M.A., et al. 2000, J.7 Spacecraft, 1, 142
- 8 Hamano K., Abe Y. and Genda H. 2013, Natur, 497, 607
- 9 Hashimoto, G. L., Roos-Serote, M., Sugita, S. et
- 10 al. 2008, JGRE, 113, E00B24 doi:10.1029/2008JE003134
- 11 Herrick, R. R. and Rumpf, M. E. 2011, JGRE, 116, E02004
- 12 Israelavitz, J. S., and Hall, J. L. 2020, J. Spacecraft, 57, 683
- 13 Jessup, K. L., Marcq, E., Bertaux, J.-L. et al. 2019, Icar, 335,
 14 113372
- 15 Kane, S. R., Howell, S. B., Horch, E. P., et al. 2014, ApJ, 785, 93
 16 doi: 10.1088/0004-637X/785/2/93
- 17 Kane, S. R., Arney, G., Crisp, D. et al. 2019, JGRE, 124, 2015
- 18 Kane, S. R., Arney, G., Head, J. W., et al. 2021, LPI Contributions,
 19 2628, 8064.
- 20 Kasting, J. F. 1988, Icar, 74, 472
- 21 Kasting, J. F., Whitmire, D. P., & Reynolds, R. T. 1993, Icar, 101, 22 108
- 23 Kopparapu R. K., Ramirez R., Kasting J. F. et al. 2013, ApJ, 765, 131
- 24 Krasnopolsky, V. A. 2007, Icar, 191, 1, 25

Krasnopolsky, V. A. 2013, Icar, 225, 570-580 1 2 Krasnopolsky V. A. and Pollack J. B., 1994, Icar, 109, 58 Lammer, H., Scherf, M., Kurokawa, H., et al. 2020, SSRv, 216, 74, 1 3 4 Lebonnois, S. and Schubert, G. 2017, NatGe, 10, 473 5 Limaye, S. S., Mogul, R., Baines, K. H., et al. 2021, Astrobio, 21, 6 10 7 Lincowski, A. P., Meadows, V. S., Crisp, D. et al. 2018, AJ doi: 8 10.3847/1538-357/aae36a Lorenz, R. D. 1998, J. Spacecraft, 35, 228 9 https://doi.org/10.2514/2.3314 10 Luger, R. and Barnes, R. 2015, AsBio, 15, 119 11 12 Lustig-Yaeger, J., Meadows, V. S. and Lincowski, A. P. 2019, ApJL, 887, L11 13 14 Mahaffy, P. R., Webster, C. R., Cabane, M., et al. 2012, SSRv, 170, 1-15 4, 401 Malin, M. C., Ravine, M. A., Caplinger, M. A., et al. 2017, Earth and 16 17 Space Science, 18 4, 506 doi:10.1002/2016EA000252 Marcq, E., Bézard, B., Drossart, P. et al. 2008, JGRE ,113, E00B07 19 20 Marcq, E., Mills, F. P., Parkinson, C. D. and Vandaele, A. C. 2018, 21 SSRv, 214, 10 McKinnon, W. B., Zahnle, K. J., Ivanov, B. A., and Melosh, H. J. 1997, 22 23 in Venus II, ed. S. W. Bougher et al. (Tucson, AZ: University of Arizona Press), 969 24

1 Meadows, V. S. 2017, AsBio, 17, 10

2 Meadows, V. S., Reinhard, C. T., Arney, G. N. et al. 2018b, AsBio, 3 18, 630

Meshik, A., Hohenberg, C., Pravdivtseva, O., & Burnett, D. 2012, in
Exploring the Solar Wind, ed. M. Lasar, (INTECH Open Access
Publisher, Winchester), 93-120.

Mills, F. P., Esposito, L. W. and Yung, Y. L. 2007, in Exploring
Venus as a Terrestrial Planet, Geophysical Monograph Series,
Vol. 176, ed L. W. Esposito et al. (Washington, DC: American
Geophysical Union), 73

Moran, S. E., Hörst, S. M., Batalha, N. E., Lewis, N. K. and Wakeford,
H. R. 2018, AJ, 156, 252 doi: 10.3847/1538-3881/aae83a

13 Namiki, N. and Solomon, S. C. 1998, JGR, 103, 3655

NAS, 2021, in Pathways to Discovery in Astronomy and Astrophysics
for the 2020s. (Washington, DC: The National Academies Press)
doi: 10.17226/26141

17 O'Rourke, J., Treiman, A., et al. 2019, VEXAG Reports, URL:
18 vexag goi cover-4 090819 (usra.edu)

19 O'Rourke J., and Korenaga J. 2015, Icar, 260, 128

20 Ostberg, C. and Kane, S. R. 2019, AJ, 158, 195

21 Pepin, R. O. and Porcelli, D. 2006, EPSL, 250, 3-4, 470

Phillips, R. J., Raubertas, R. F., Arvidson, R. E., et al. 1992, JGR,
97, E10, 15,923

Pla-Garcia, J., Rafkin, S.C., Karatekin, Ö. and Gloesener, E., 2019,
JGRE, 124, 8, 2141

Ravine, M.A., Schaffner, J.A., and Caplinger, M.A. 2014, 2nd Int. 2 Workshop on Inst. for Planetary Missions, (Greenbelt, MD), 1114 3 Ravine, M. A., Schaffner, J. A., and Caplinger, M. A. 2016, 3rd Int. 4 Workshop on Inst. for Planetary Missions, (Pasadena, CA), 4106 Riegel, J., Neumann, H., and Wiedenmann, H. M. 2002, Solid State 5 6 Ionics, 152, 783-800 7 Robinson, M. S., Hapke, B. W., Garvin, J. B., et al. 2007, GRL, 34, 8 13, L13203 doi:10.1029/2007GL029754 9 Sato, M. and Wright, T.L., 1966. Science, 153(3740), pp.1103-1105. Schaber, G., Strom, R. G., Moore, H. J. et al. 1992, JGR, 97, 13257 10

Seager, S., Petkowski, J. J., Gao, P. et al 2021, AsBio doi: 11 10.1089/ast.2020.2244. 12

Sousa-Silva, C., Seager, S., Ranjan, S. et al. 2020, AsBio, 20, 235 13 14 doi: 10.1089/ast.2018.1954.

15 NRC, 2011, in 2011 Vision and Voyages for Planetary Science in the Decade 2013-2022 (Washington, DC: National Academies Press) 16

17 Taylor, F. and Grinspoon, D. 2009, JGRE, 114, E00B40

Treiman A. H. 2007, GMS, 176, 7 18

1

19 Truong, N. and Lunine, J. I. 2021, PNAS, 118, 2021689118

Tsang, C. C. C., Irwin, P. G. J., Wilson, C. F., et al. 2008, JGRE, 20 113, E00B08 21

Turbet, M., Bolmont, E., Chaverot, G., et al. 2021, Nature, 22 598, 276 doi: 10.1038/s41586-021-03873-w 23

24 von Zahn, U., Kumar, S., Niemann, H., & Prinn, R. 1983, in Venus, eds. 25 D. M. Hunten et al. (Tucson, AZ: University of Arizona Press), 299

Way M. J., Del Genio A., Kiang N. Y., et al. 2016, GRL, 43, 8376 1 doi: 10.1002/2016GL069790 2 3 Way, M. J., and Del Genio, A. 2019, EPSC-DPS Joint Meeting, (Geneva, Switzerland: AAS), 1846 4 Way, M. J. and Del Genio, A. 2020, JGRE, 125, e06276 5 Webster, C.R. and Mahaffy, P.R. 2011, Planet. Space Sci. 59, 271 6 7 Weller, M. B., and Kiefer, W. S., 2020, JGRE, 125 doi: 10.1029/2019JE005960 8 9 Williams, C.D. and Mukhopadhyay, S., 2019, Natur, 565, 7737, 78 10 Yung, Y., L., Liang, M., C., Jiang, X., et al. 2009, JGR, 114, E00B34 Zahnle, K.J. and Catling, D.C., 2017. The Astrophysical 11 12 Journal, 843(2), p.122. 13 Zahnle, K. J., Catling, D. C., and Gacesa, M. 2019, GeCoA, 244, 56 14 Zolotov, M. Y. 2015, in Treatise on Geophysics: Planets and Moons, ed. G. Schubert (Amsterdam, the Netherlands: Elsevier B.V.), 2, 10, 411-15 16 427 Zolotov, M. Y. 2018, RvMG, 84, 351 17 Zolotov M. 2019, Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Planetary 18 Science, ed. P. Read et al (Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press), 146 19

20 doi:10.1093/acrefore/9780190647926.013.146