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## “Modular Biospheres” – New testbed platforms for public environmental education and research

M. Nelson<sup>\*</sup>, W.F. Dempster, J.P. Allen

*Biospheric Design Division, Global Ecotechnics Corp., 1 Bluebird Court, Santa Fe, NM 87508, USA  
Institute of Ecotechnics, 24 Old Gloucester St., London WC1 3AL, UK*

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### 9 Abstract

10 This paper will review the potential of a relatively new type of testbed platform for environmental education and research because of  
11 the unique advantages resulting from their material closure and separation from the outside environment. These facilities which we term  
12 “modular biospheres”, have emerged from research centered on space life support research but offer a wider range of application. Exam-  
13 ples of this type of facility include the Bios-3 facility in Russia, the Japanese CEEF (Closed Ecological Experiment Facility), the NASA  
14 Kennedy Space Center Breadboard facility, the Biosphere 2 Test Module and the Laboratory Biosphere. Modular biosphere facilities  
15 offer unique research and public real-time science education opportunities. Ecosystem behavior can be studied since initial state condi-  
16 tions can be precisely specified and tracked over different ranges of time. With material closure (apart from very small air exchange rate  
17 which can be determined), biogeochemical cycles between soil and soil microorganisms, water, plants, and atmosphere can be studied in  
18 detail. Such studies offer a major advance from studies conducted with phytotrons which because of their small size, limit the number of  
19 organisms to a very small number, and which crucially do not have a high degree of atmospheric, water and overall material closure.  
20 Modular biospheres take advantage of the unique properties of closure, as representing a distinct system “metabolism” and therefore  
21 are essentially a “mini-world”. Though relatively large in comparison with most phytotrons and ecological microcosms, which are  
22 now standard research and educational tools, modular biospheres are small enough that they can be economically reconfigured to reflect  
23 a changing research agenda. Some design elements include lighting via electric lights and/or sunlight, hydroponic or soil substrate for  
24 plants, opaque or glazed structures, and variable volume chambers or other methods to handle atmospheric pressure differences between  
25 the facility and the outside environment.

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27 *Keywords:* Material closure; Closed ecological system; Modular biosphere; Education; Research; Testbed; Biogeochemical cycles

### 29 1. Introduction

30 A new type of education and research testbed has been  
31 developed in the fields of bioregenerative life support and  
32 biospherics. While previous research in the field has been  
33 mainly focused on the challenge of providing space life sup-  
34 port, these closed ecological system chambers have the  
35 potential of also providing a new type of environmental

education facility, geared either for general public or in 36  
an academic setting for increasing students’ “eco-literacy”. 37  
At the same time, modular biospheres offer researchers 38  
unique research capabilities. 39

The development of materially closed ecological systems 40  
is closely connected to the beginnings of the Space Age 41  
both in Russia and the United States. Research on the 42  
development of such systems to provide renewable sources 43  
of air, water and food began in the late 1950s and early 44  
1960s. The field developed from very simple algal-based 45  
systems to ones including higher crop plants. Research 46  
efforts at several sites extend to ongoing research in those 47  
two countries as well as significant European and Japanese 48

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author. Address: Institute of Ecotechnics, 24 Old Gloucester St., London WC1 3AL, UK. Tel.: +1 505 474 209; fax: +1 505 474 3336.

E-mail address: [nelson@biospheres.com](mailto:nelson@biospheres.com) (M. Nelson).

49 research in the field (Shepelev, 1992; Terskov et al., 1979;  
50 Wheeler et al., 1996; Nitta, 2001; CEEF, 1998; Nelson  
51 et al., in press; Lasseur et al., in press).

52 This paper focuses on the potential of such materially  
53 closed systems as educational and research facilities in  
54 addition to their necessity in space-related activities.  
55 Indeed, the widespread publicity which the Biosphere 2  
56 project elicited demonstrates the high levels of interest  
57 which “real-time” science done in such chambers attracts  
58 from the general public around the world. We also illus-  
59 trate some uses such systems have for advancing a diversity  
60 of scientific disciplines, by taking advantage of the benefits  
61 which material closure afford.

## 62 2. Definition of a modular biosphere

63 A modular biosphere is a reproducible apparatus  
64 which is materially closed (apart from a small and mea-  
65 surable exchange of atmosphere), but energetically and  
66 informationally open (Morowitz et al., 2005; Allen,  
67 1991). It is large enough that a diversity of species can  
68 be supported in planting areas/soil beds. To avoid having  
69 to make the structure itself strong enough to withstand  
70 atmospheric pressure differences with the outside environ-  
71 ment, modular biospheres may include a variable volume  
72 chamber which permits a neutral pressure while the  
73 enclosed atmosphere expands or contracts. The “life  
74 chamber” can include soils (or hydroponic media), plants,  
75 small animals, internal atmosphere, water delivery and  
76 recirculation – and potentially could support humans at  
77 least for limited periods of time. Internal sensors and a  
78 computerized data collection system can be located within  
79 the facility and in an external “mission control” room  
80 where experiments and functioning of the modular bio-  
81 sphere can be monitored and managed. The modular bio-  
82 sphere is outfitted with air-lock doors so that air exchange  
83 can be minimized (and measured) when researchers/man-  
84 agers enter and exit the facility. Systems for collecting air  
85 and water samples can also be incorporated in the modu-  
86 lar biosphere so that such monitoring is done automati-  
87 cally and without necessitating entry into the main  
88 chamber.

89 Future designs of modular biospheres might include a  
90 standardized external interface so that they can be  
91 “plugged in” to a multi-unit configuration without each  
92 unit requiring a separate interface design. This expansion  
93 capability, for example, would allow the connection of  
94 modular biosphere units if they were components of a  
95 space life support system – with each modular biosphere  
96 having somewhat differing light and environmental  
97 parameters chosen to optimize crop growth of the plants  
98 it supports; another modular biosphere could be config-  
99 ured as the human habitat. These units can be engineered  
100 to share atmosphere and water resources continuously or  
101 by activating a program; and such exchanges can be  
102 tracked and analyzed. For research purposes, a configura-  
103 tion of modular biospheres permits running experiments

where desired vector/state elements can be varied, all oth- 104  
ers kept uniform and thus the impact on ecosystem devel- 105  
opment, atmospheric dynamics and other vectors of 106  
interest tracked. This can also be accomplished using 107  
one modular biosphere, in sequential experiments. As an 108  
education resource for students or general public, these 109  
iterative/sequential experiments, e.g., by deliberately 110  
changing initial conditions or one of the state variables, 111  
would have some of the elegance but not the speed, of 112  
computer simulations, but instead of merely seeing theo- 113  
retical or predicted results, real-time changes could be 114  
tracked. 115

## 3. Origins of modular biospheres 116

### 3.1. Laboratory ecospheres 117

The emergence of research using ecological systems with 118  
material closure can be traced to studies using small labo- 119  
ratory-sized flasks, which we might term “ecospheres” 120  
because of the relative simplicity of the ecosystems able 121  
to be studied. These studies begin in 1967 when Folsome 122  
initiated experiments with sealed small (100 ml–5 l) aquatic 123  
solutions containing a range of microbial communities and 124  
air in a laboratory flask, and exposed them to artificial light 125  
or indirect sunlight. These flasks were materially closed, 126  
i.e., there was no exchange of air or nutrients with the out- 127  
side, but they were energetically open to light energy. They 128  
were also informationally open as Folsome developed non- 129  
intrusive ways of conducting measurements. These closed 130  
ecological systems, or laboratory “ecospheres,” exhibited 131  
surprising properties. As long as the initial sample con- 132  
tained a full functional representation of microbes, i.e., ful- 133  
filling the entire range of metabolic functions from 134  
biosynthesis to detritus-feeding, they proved to be indefi- 135  
nitely persistent. Ecospheres initiated in 1967–1968 are still 136  
alive, exhibiting periodic changes in microbial content 137  
(Folsome, 1985). Subsequent ecosphere experiments with 138  
single-culture starts demonstrated a progressive failure to 139  
recycle elements and eventual death; underlining the 140  
importance of natural microbial diversity. Folsome was 141  
joined by other pioneers in this field of laboratory closed 142  
ecological systems, such as Maguire, Taub, and Hanson 143  
(Folsome and Hanson, 1986). 144

These laboratory ecosphere experiments demonstrated: 145  
(1) some closed ecological systems persist, (2) they have 146  
measurable properties, (3) replicate systems can be created, 147  
and (4) the complex and difficult challenges inherent in 148  
even the simplest of closed ecosystems, laboratory eco- 149  
spheres, and (5) the important role microbes play in ele- 150  
mental cycles. This research, which initiated the study of 151  
materially closed ecosystems suggests “that almost any rea- 152  
sonably diverse assemblage of biota and inorganic materi- 153  
als will sustain some level of balanced redox metabolism 154  
indefinitely when kept under adequate materials-closure, 155  
and within energy-fluxes that are normally tolerable by 156  
some life-forms. . .these systems offer a multitude of poten- 157

158 tial miniature worlds which might closely model or might  
159 depart from the one world that is our Biosphere. . . and  
160 because of their rigorous material boundaries and resultant  
161 constant elemental make-up, they offer research opportuni-  
162 ties which are qualitatively different from those of non-  
163 materially closed microcosms” (Folsome and Hanson,  
164 1986).

### 165 3.2. Russian Research – Bios-3 facility

166 Earliest research with bioregenerative life support and  
167 closed ecological system research targeted for space appli-  
168 cations concentrated on very simple algae-based systems,  
169 both in the United States and Russia (Shepelev, 1972).  
170 At the Institute of Biophysics at Krasnoyarsk, a test cham-  
171 ber incorporating higher plants as well was developed –  
172 Bios-3. From 1972 to 1984, experiments were conducted  
173 including closures of up to six months with two and three  
174 person crews with near complete air and water regenera-  
175 tion, and with considerable food production. Bios-3, is a  
176 stainless steel welded structure with dimensions  
177 14.9 m × 9 m × 2.5 m tall, a volume of 335 m<sup>3</sup>. It is divided  
178 by airtight divisions into four internal compartments which  
179 can be variously linked or decoupled from the system  
180 (Fig. 1) The facility contains two phytotrons, for the  
181 growth of the higher plant crops, each with a hydroponic  
182 growing area of about 20.5 m<sup>2</sup>, an algae compartment with  
183 provisions for three algae culture tanks for the production  
184 of chlorella and a living compartment for the crews of two  
185 to three people (Gitelson et al., 2003).

186 Illumination for the higher plants is provided by water-  
187 cooled xenon lamps with an irradiation level of 140–  
188 180 W/m<sup>2</sup>. During various experiments, some 11 plant spe-  
189 cies were grown as food crops, including wheat (harvested  
190 and processed into bread inside the complex), potato, chu-  
191 fa (for vegetable fat), radishes, lettuce, carrots, beets, kale,  
192 onions, and dill. The system included no animals, and meat

was imported to supply needed protein. Generally 30–50%  
of food needs were met by production during the closures  
(Terskov et al., 1979).

The water cycle was almost completely closed within  
Bios-3. Sanitary/general purpose water was re-used in both  
phytotrons and algae tanks. Water transpired by the algae  
and plants was condensed, run through a purifying filter,  
boiled, and used as drinking water. Water contained in  
feces was recovered externally and returned to the cham-  
ber. The solid wastes were not treated or recycled. Urine  
was added to algae tanks and, during the course of these  
experiments, caused no apparent problems. The atmo-  
sphere of Bios-3 also approached closure, but problems  
with higher plants were reported in several trials which  
linked the algae tanks’ air system directly with that of the  
phytotrons. Build-up of potentially toxic trace gases  
required a catalytic burner to oxidize these substances.  
The source of this toxin was not determined, although it  
is known that man himself produces many gases, including  
hydrogen sulfide, methane, mercaptans, aldehydes, nitro-  
gen oxides, hydrogen, and carbon monoxide. Higher plants  
and their associated microbes, algae, and also technogenic  
out-gassing from the structure and equipment of the cham-  
bers may have also contributed. The phytotrons produced  
about 1800–2000 l of oxygen daily, sufficient for supplying  
the crew. About 600 g of the inedible portion of the grown  
biomass was periodically burned, producing ash, water,  
and CO<sub>2</sub>. Manipulations of this oxidation maintained  
CO<sub>2</sub> levels in the living compartment between 300 and  
1400 ppm, with short-term levels of up to 2000 ppm  
(0.2%). The remaining inedible biomass (generally about  
300 g/day) was dried and removed from the system (Gitel-  
son et al., 2003).

The Bios-3 facility, a landmark in the development of  
closed ecological systems, was the first to include human  
inhabitants as active managers of its internal living and  
mechanical systems.

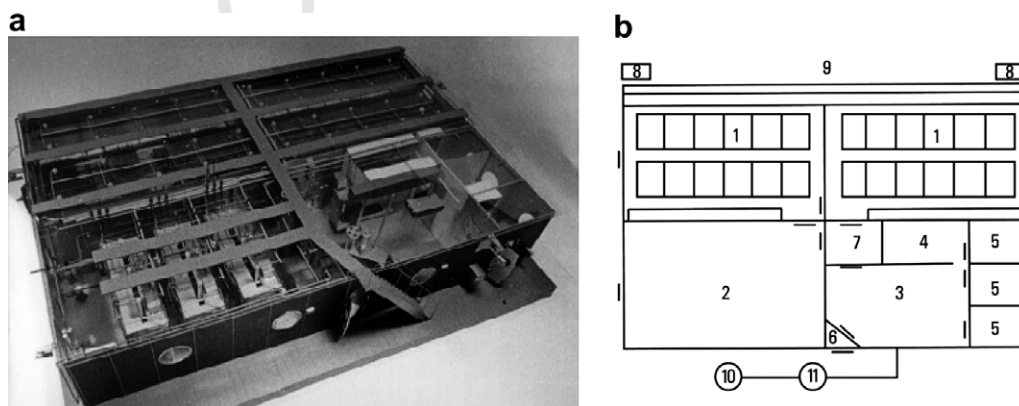


Fig. 1. (a) General view of Bios-3 (model with transparent roof). Front left, algal compartment; right, crew compartment; back, two higher-plant compartments. Light sources are mounted on the roof and ladders and gangways on the roof are for servicing light sources. On the front wall, to the right – entrance of one of crew’s cabins. To the right and left of it – airlock doors for import/export. (b) Bios-3 schematic: 1, phytotrons; 2, algal cultivator compartment; 3, living quarters; 4, kitchen–dining-room; 5, cabins; 6, toilet; 7, vestibule; 8, pumps for the cooling system for light sources; 9, watering collector of the heat exchange wall of phytotrons; 10, pressurization compressor; 11, bacterial filter (Gitelson et al., 2003).

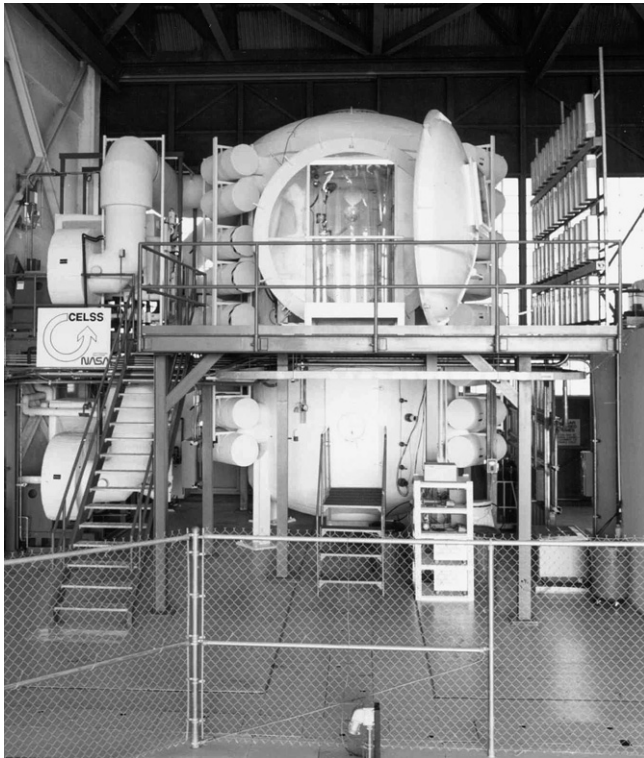


Fig. 2. Breadboard Plant Chamber at Hangar L at KSC, FL (front view, 1986). The chamber provided a closed atmospheric volume of about  $113 \text{ m}^3$  (including air ducting) with  $20 \text{ m}^2$  of crop growing area. External nutrient solution tanks were not in place at the time of this photo (Wheeler et al., 2003).

### 3.3. NASA CELSS (Controlled Environmental Life Support System) Research

In 1986, the Breadboard Project (Fig. 2) was begun at Kennedy Space Center with the goal of demonstrating the scaling-up from previous laboratory-sized research study into the production of food for human life support, water recycling, and atmospheric gas control in its biomass production chamber. The Biomass Production Chamber (BPC) is a renovated cylindrical steel hyperbaric facility approximately 3.5 m diameter by 7.5 m high modified for plant growth by the creation of two floors with eight plant racks and the installation of high pressure sodium lamps. Ventilation of the chamber is accomplished by ducts which lead into an external air-handling system including filters. Temperature and humidity are controlled by a chilled water system and through atomized water injection. A compressed gas delivery system is used in the manipulation of atmospheric carbon dioxide and oxygen. The best leak rate achieved in the Breadboard BPC was 5% of its volume per day. The configuration of growing areas inside yields a total plant area of  $20 \text{ m}^2$ . Many years of experimentation involved many of the prime candidate food crops for space life support, along with analysis of atmospheric dynamics inside the closed system (Wheeler et al., 2003, 1996).

In addition, a number of NASA-funded contractors and scientists have been carrying out intensive studies of indi-

vidual potential food crops for space life support systems, including wheat, potatoes, soybeans, lettuce, and sweet potatoes. Advances have been made in understanding the physiology of food crops and developing methods of optimizing production with intensive planting, intracanopy lighting, and phasic environmental controls during the stages of plant development (e.g. Bubgee and Salisbury, 1988). Studies of community gas exchange were able to show distinctive features of uptake of  $\text{CO}_2$  in the light and production of  $\text{CO}_2$  in the dark (Barta and Henderson, 1998; Wheeler, 1992; Wheeler et al., 1993; Monje and Bugbee, 1997; Wheeler, 1996).

More recently a series of experiments were conducted with the Advanced Life Support System Test Bed (ALS-STB) at the Johnson Space Center. The system is the largest of the NASA life support test systems, and the first in the US to involve humans in a system based on technology using both bioregenerative and physicochemical methods. This facility consists of two large scale plant growth chambers, each with approximately  $11 \text{ m}^2$  growing area. The root zone in each chamber is configurable for hydroponic or solid media plant culture systems. One of the two chambers, the Variable Pressure Growth Chamber (VPGC), is capable of operating at lower atmospheric pressures to evaluate a range of environments that may be used in a planetary surface habitat; the other chamber, the Ambient Pressure Growth Chamber (APGC) operates at ambient atmospheric pressure (Barta and Henninger, 1996).

### 3.4. Japanese CEEF (Closed Ecological Experimental Facility)

CEEF consists of a connected series of different subsystems: (1) for the cultivation of plants: Closed Plantation Experiment Facility, (2) for domestic animals, the Closed Animal Breeding (3) for the crew of two, the Habitat Experiment Facility, and (4) a Closed Geo-Hydrosphere Experiment Facility (Fig. 3). The material circulated in CEEF is strictly controlled in the materially sealed closed system by air-conditioners and material processing subsystems. Only energy and information are exchanged with the outside. Each facility can be independently operated or

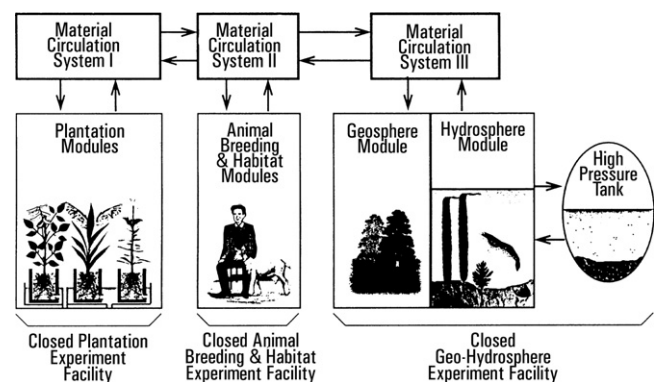


Fig. 3. Closed ecology experimental facility (CEEF) (Nitta, 2001).

296 linked with another facility. The subsystems of CEEF are a  
 297 unique tool for the environmental sciences and other fields  
 298 of research such as test beds for life support systems for  
 299 human and Mars base application, the global climate  
 300 change problem and furthering the solutions for a pollu-  
 301 tion-free or “zero-emission society” (CEEF, 1998; Nitta,  
 302 2001).

303 A physicochemical subsystem was designed to form a  
 304 closed loop of the material circulation of biological pro-  
 305 cesses via the mineralization of wastes and end-products  
 306 to return the elements for biological recycling. These tech-  
 307 nologies are termed the Artificial Material Processing  
 308 Equipment of CEEF.

309 There are two basic objectives for the CEEF facility.  
 310 One is the topical problem of thorough investigation of  
 311 the migration of radioactive elements by the metabolic  
 312 pathways in ecosystems. Another objective is to model glo-  
 313 bal change, specifically the ecological consequences of glo-  
 314 bal warming. Thus, closed ecological systems, modular  
 315 biospheres, are beginning to be increasingly perceived not  
 316 only as a means to support human life in a hostile environ-  
 317 ment – in space – but primarily as a tool for the experimen-

tal investigation of mechanisms of the Earth’s biosphere 318  
 (CEEF, 1998; Nitta, 2001). 319

### 3.5. Biosphere 2 Test Module 320

Two other examples of modular biospheres are the Bio- 321  
 sphere 2 Test Module, constructed in 1985–1986 at Oracle, 322  
 Arizona and the “Laboratory Biosphere” facility, con- 323  
 structed in 2001 near Santa Fe, New Mexico (Nelson 324  
 et al., 1991; Dempster et al., 2004). Their differences illus- 325  
 trate some of the major design choices which can guide 326  
 their application for education and research – for example, 327  
 whether they are predominantly glass with sunlight the 328  
 major driver of photosynthesis; or an opaque chamber with 329  
 electric lighting. The scale of the system will also determine 330  
 possibilities – whether the focus is on human life support 331  
 including food production, ecosystem studies, genetic or 332  
 physiological studies, or growth of targeted crops and 333  
 plants. 334

The Biosphere 2 Test Module is a sealed glass and space- 335  
 frame structure, with ambient light provided by incident 336  
 sunlight (Fig. 4). This testbed has a floor area approxi- 337

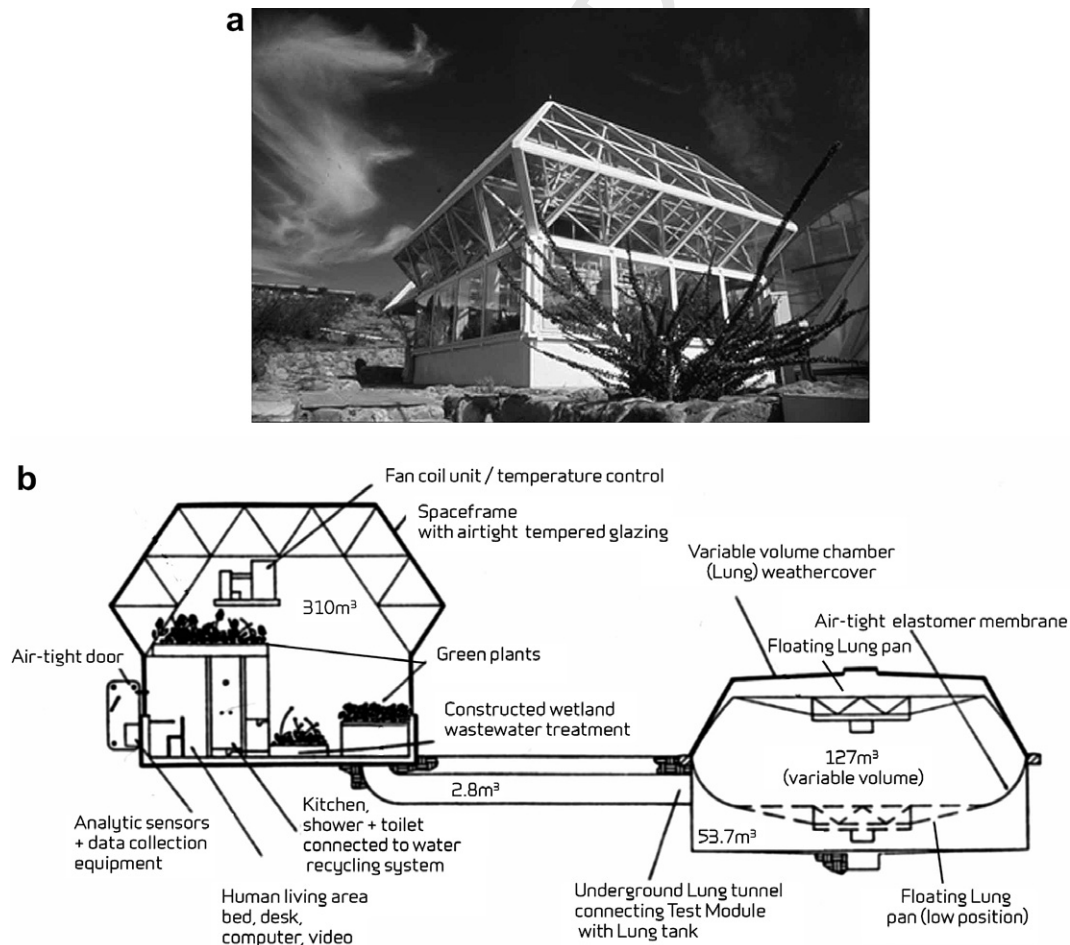


Fig. 4. (a) Biosphere 2 Test Module, Oracle, Arizona, a 480 cubic metre volume, glass and spaceframe structure functioned as an experimental facility from 1986 to 1993. (b) Configuration of the subsystems within the facility during human closure experiments 1988–1989. The engineering and ecological research program included air-tight sealing techniques, the feasibility of a variable volume chamber to alleviate stress on the structure, the efficacy soil bed reactors, constructed wetlands for wastewater recycling and the response of a variety of plants and human beings in closed ecological system conditions.

mately 6.1 m × 6.1 m, 6 m tall, and with a total variable volume of 360–480 cubic meters depending on degree of inflation of the “lung”. The structure is open to sunlight and connected by air ducting to a variable volume chamber (lung). The Biosphere 2 Test Module was used to test materials out-gassing, operation of the variable volume chamber, sealing techniques, and for evaluation of various ecosystem configurations. The results from over four years of research in this facility were an important input into technology and sensor selection for Biosphere 2, and facilitated experience in the real-time management of bioregenerative systems capable of full human life support (Nelson et al., 1991).

The Biosphere 2 Test Module was the first closed ecological system that employed a variable volume chamber (“lung”). With increased temperature in the Test Module or decreased barometric pressure in the outside environment, the variable chamber expands; with a decrease in temperature or an increase in pressure, the chamber contracts. The lung provides an effective means to prevent the possibility that the Test Module will implode or explode when subjected to these forces thus permitting a less reinforced and more sunlight-admitting structure to be utilized. While it is possible that this problem can be designed around with strength of physical structure housing the closed ecological system, the “lung” offers other advantages. By equilibrating the internal and external pressure through volume variation, leakage can be minimized; or by maintaining a small positive pressure, air leakage will only flow out of the facility. Leak rates can also be determined by measuring the difference in level between where the variable volume should be as a result of temperature and pressure and where it actually is. A glazing design provided a tight air-seal for the glass/steel spaceframe structure and underneath, an air-tight welded steel liner provided the ground seal in both biochamber and lung. The Biosphere 2 Test Module achieved tight closure, with a leak rate of about 24% per year – or 2% per month; a previously unprecedented degree of atmospheric closure. These same methods led to the Biosphere 2 achievement of air-exchange of less than 10% per year (Dempster, 1997; Dempster, 1994).

Ecological systems experiments in the Biosphere 2 Test Module with plants, animals (including insect populations), and soils examined the regeneration of atmospheric gases, plant growth and photosynthetic efficiencies in closed systems (Alling et al., 1991; Alling et al., 1989; Nelson et al., 1991). The system had an active research program for about three years from 1986 to 1989. Following the structural research, at the end of 1986, the first of a series of three ecological experiments commenced which lasted up to three months in duration. The next two years of research focused on studies of higher plants and soils and their interaction with the atmosphere, light levels, temperatures and community structure. In addition the overall dynamics of plant/soil systems in a closed ecological environment



Fig. 5. John Allen during the first three-day human closure experiment in the Biosphere 2 Test Module, 1988.

was studied to assist simulation models and resolve questions for the design of Biosphere 2.

The first closed system experiment involving a human in the Test Module took place in September 1988 (Fig. 5). This experiment had two phases: a three day period in which the person occupied the Test Module along with representative plants from the Biosphere 2 biomes, followed by a 17-day period in which closure was maintained and systems studied to see how they continued to respond in the absence of the person. Further one-person closures of five days in March 1989 and 21 days in November 1989 were conducted (Allen, 1991).

To facilitate human closure experiments, and to develop and test prospective systems for Biosphere 2, the Biosphere 2 Test Module had a number of components designed to close the loops in nutrient recycling and to provide food as well as air and water regeneration. A prime challenge of the life support systems in the Biosphere 2 Test Module was to achieve enough uptake of carbon dioxide to compensate for the carbon dioxide exhaled by a person each day, to provide water purification through evapotranspiration, and to provide a variety of food crops to supply balanced nutrition for meeting human nutritional needs for closures of days to weeks. The balance between soil and human respiration, plant photosynthesis (and nighttime phytorespiration) is a major challenge of modular biospheres – and can provide dramatic educational displays because the daily fluctuations of carbon dioxide are so much greater than in our Earth’s biosphere. Typical diurnal variation in CO<sub>2</sub> usually exceeds 1000 ppm. Even what are normally considered “minor” effects, such as the passage of clouds between the modular biosphere and the Sun are reflected immediately in a change of rate of photosynthesis; or the disturbance of the soil by cultivation or even harvesting a root crop will produce a spike of CO<sub>2</sub> release, which can be seen in the sensors and daily atmospheric graphs (Alling et al., 1993, 1990; Nelson et al., 1994, 1991).

Tight air-sealing is an engineering challenge for modular biospheres, because unless tightly sealed, they are little

434 more than ecological mesocosms. It is the material closure  
 435 that enables them to be studied as independent living sys-  
 436 tems. But this condition also makes air purification, espe-  
 437 cially of trace gases of prime importance since they may  
 438 accumulate and increase in the relatively small atmosphere.  
 439 The tremendous concentration and diversity of microbial  
 440 function that soil bacteria provide was one of the consider-  
 441 ations which led the designers of both the Biosphere 2 Test  
 442 Module and Laboratory Biosphere decided to make both  
 443 these modular biospheres soil-based systems. Soils, as on  
 444 the Earth, are a vital bioregenerative system both through  
 445 natural diffusion of the internal atmosphere through the  
 446 soil, and by accelerating that function through the use of  
 447 the soil bed reactor (SBR) method of air purification (Carl-  
 448 son and Leiser, 1966; Bohn, 1972; Bohn and Bohn, 1986).  
 449 A soil bed reactor operates by pumping the chamber's air  
 450 volume through the soil, facilitating microbial metabolism  
 451 of potentially dangerous trace gases from technogenic, bio-  
 452 genic, and anthropogenic off-gassing. A series of experi-  
 453 ments in the Biosphere 2 Test Module were dedicated to  
 454 examining the uptake of introduced gases like methane  
 455 and ethylene by SBRs and the effects of air pumping on soil  
 456 respiration levels. Trace organic gases and potential toxic  
 457 gases were kept within acceptable concentrations during  
 458 these human closure experiments (Alling et al., 1990; Hod-  
 459 ges and Frye, 1990).

460 A major challenge in "bioregenerative" life support is  
 461 designing systems that close all vital cycles and thus can  
 462 function long-term. This, of course, provides excellent  
 463 analogies with the challenges we face on an Earth facing  
 464 global warming and unprecedented impact by human tech-  
 465 nologies (Nelson et al., 2003a). One of the prime challenges  
 466 is recycling "waste" products (e.g., Wignarajah and Bub-  
 467 heim, 1997) – a necessity obvious for a small system where  
 468 all resources must be maintained and recycled. For com-  
 469 plete nutrient recovery from human sewage, a small con-  
 470 structed wetland was included in the Biosphere 2 Test  
 471 Module where anaerobic/aerobic bacteria and wetland

472 plants purified the wastewater and produced lush stands  
 473 of vegetation. Nutrients from this system were fed into  
 474 the irrigation supply for other plant stands in the facility  
 475 (Wolverton, 1990; Nelson et al., 1991; Nelson et al.,  
 476 1999; Nelson et al., 2002). The water recycling system in  
 477 the Biosphere 2 Test Module consisted of three subsystems:  
 478 potable water, wastewater recycling from the habitat, and  
 479 plant irrigation water. This waste processing system was  
 480 designed to clean 20–60 l of effluent per day, and during  
 481 all the Test Module human closures, the 2.6 m<sup>2</sup> system  
 482 operated effectively and without malodor. The potable  
 483 water system operated by condensing moisture from the  
 484 atmosphere by two dehumidifiers. This water is highly  
 485 purified because it is largely a product of plant evapotrans-  
 486 piration. An ultraviolet system was available if needed for  
 487 complete disinfection. Irrigation water included all run-off  
 488 water from life systems, the end-product of waste process-  
 489 ing, and excess potable water (Alling et al., 1990; Nelson  
 490 et al., 1991).

### 3.6. Laboratory Biosphere: Opaque modular biosphere prototype

493 The Laboratory Biosphere (Fig. 6a) is an example of a  
 494 smaller dimension and volume, opaque modular biosphere  
 495 system where lighting is provided artificially for plant  
 496 growth. This allows closer control and management of  
 497 light cycles and intensity; since day/night ratios can be  
 498 manipulated and light levels can exceed that supplied in a  
 499 glass-spaceframe structure where internal shading and light  
 500 loss reduces incident light to about 50% of ambient levels.  
 501 Supplemental lighting can be installed in a glass space-  
 502 frame type of modular biosphere if desired. Table 1 shows  
 503 the volume of the various components of the Laboratory  
 504 Biosphere and Fig. 6b shows its internal layout (Dempster  
 505 et al., 2004).

506 A series of experiments have been conducted in the Lab-  
 507 oratory Biosphere facility since 2002 focused on response

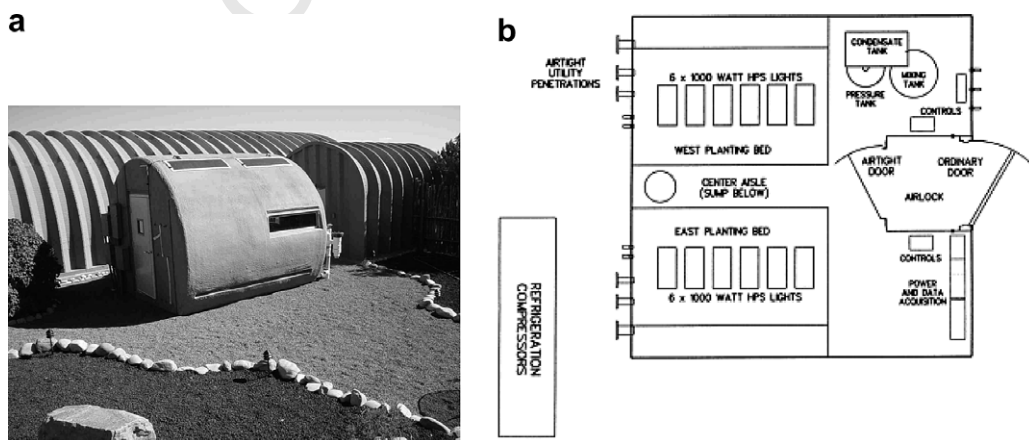


Fig. 6. (a) The Laboratory Biosphere, an opaque modular biosphere with side viewing windows, Santa, Fe, New Mexico. The steel cylindrical chamber in front houses the living systems, while the one in the rear contains the variable volume chamber. In the rear, a support workshop and laboratory/computer control rooms. (b) Plan view schematic of the facility (Dempster et al., 2004).

Table 1  
Component volume and mass of Laboratory Biosphere closed ecological facility, Santa Fe, New Mexico (Dempster et al., 2004)

Component	Volume (m <sup>3</sup> )	Mass (kg)
Fixed air	33.6	32
Variable air (lung)	0–9	0–8
Soil (dry)	1.46	1650
Water	0.3–0.5	300–500
Plants (variable)	0–0.02	0–20 (depending on stage of growth)

of candidate life support crops (soybean, wheat, sweet potato, cowpea, pinto bean, and peanut) to manipulation of lighting, temperature and other environmental parameters (Nelson et al., 2003b; Nelson et al., 2005; Silverstone et al., 2005). Because of the tight air-sealing of the facility, research has also been done on accumulation and control of trace gases. Currently planned future research will investigate alternative lighting sources (e.g., LED lights), amending of Mars simulant soils to create viable growing media, development of improved composting and other methods of return of inedible biomass to the soil, and other studies useful for modeling and planning for full-size Mars/space life support systems (Silverstone et al., 2003; Allen and Alling, 2002).

In the Biosphere 2 Test Module, a prime challenge was balancing carbon dioxide uptake and release. The inclusion of a human in a small closed system means in addition to soil and phytorespiration, there is approximately 900 g (37 g/h) carbon dioxide exhaled by a person each day. In a modular biosphere the size of the Laboratory Biosphere, while people can enter for research or maintenance requirements, there is not the capacity to balance carbon dioxide on a continuing basis. Indeed, the opposite issue – the strong drawdown of carbon dioxide by the plants in the chamber necessitate a system for input of carbon dioxide. This allows the chamber to serve as a laboratory each day for the measurement of photosynthetic action of the plant community – and to make observations on rates of fixation at differing carbon dioxide levels. This makes the chamber an excellent teaching as well as research device because the changes in the stages of crops, from germina-

tion and early growth when soil respiration dominates, through the major growth period when photosynthetic rate maximizes, then a decline as the crops mature and senesce can be closely studied (Fig. 7). Conversely, there is a potential for increase of oxygen during the crop cycle, and a device for removing excess oxygen was incorporated into the design of this unmanned modular biosphere (Dempster et al., 2005; Dempster, in press).

#### 4. Modular biospheres for environmental education and research

##### 4.1. Real-time display of data

Depending on educational and research needs, a wide variety of sensors, software for computer control and display, automatic data acquisition, analysis, trending and alarm systems, multi-point sampling, and automatic calibration systems can be designed for the modular biosphere. For example, for the Biosphere 2 Test Module and Biosphere 2, automatic systems were developed to sample and analyze air and water quality on a periodic basis as a safety measure as well as for research data. In addition to automated periodic sampling and sensor operation, samples of soil, plant tissue, water, and air can be exported through the airlock to be analyzed in the laboratory. Modern computer software and integrated data acquisition and display capabilities mean that real-time data can be accessed and displayed for both research and education/public participation.

Because of its scale, a modular biosphere, while it is being used for cutting edge eco-system/and or extreme conditions and related research on habitation, makes an ideal real-time educational tool. Real time because a proper viewing station as well as computer readouts give students or public visitors (if used in a edutourism fashion) access to exactly the same data as the operating scientists themselves are using. It has been found that modular biospheres produce very interesting and instructive experiences for all age groups from nine on up; and for all classes of professionals interested in the interactions of ecology and humanity, including geologists, anthropologists, ecologists, artists, teachers, politicians, environmentalists, corporate executives, and the media.

##### 4.2. Rapidity of cycling: research and educational opportunities

New environmental education and research opportunities arises from the fact that each modular biosphere represents a separate metabolic and cycling system. Each modular biosphere creates a mini-world system which can be intensively studied, modified and analyzed to give insight into the basic processes and cycles which operate at far slower speed and with so much more complexity in natural ecosystems and our global biosphere. Inevitably, modular biospheres have different and much higher ratios of soil

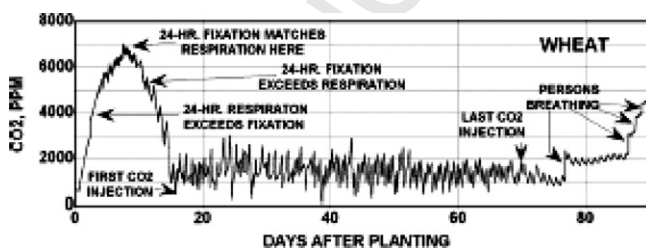


Fig. 7. Atmospheric carbon dioxide dynamics in the Laboratory Biosphere during a 2003 experiment with wheat (Dempster et al., 2005). Early rise in CO<sub>2</sub> was from soil respiration exceeding uptake by young plants; the rise at the end reflected human respiration during the process of wheat harvest operations. During the main growing period, CO<sub>2</sub> was injected as needed and drawn down by the wheat crop during hours of light by the crop.

Table 2

Estimates of carbon ratios in biomass, soil and atmosphere in the Earth's biosphere, Biosphere 2, and the Laboratory Biosphere facility and an estimate of carbon atmospheric residence time as a consequence

	Earth	Biosphere 2	Laboratory Biosphere
Ratio of biomass C:atmospheric C	1:1 (at 350 ppm CO <sub>2</sub> )	100:1 (at 1500 ppm CO <sub>2</sub> )	240–700:1 (mature crop to atmosphere at 1500 ppm CO <sub>2</sub> )
Ratio of soil C:atmospheric C	2:1	5000:1	1500:1 (atmosphere at 1500 ppm CO <sub>2</sub> )
Estimated carbon passage time (residence in atmosphere)	3 years	1–4 days	0.5–2 days

Data was taken from Schlesinger (1991), Nelson et al. (1993), Bolin and Cook (1983), Dempster et al. (2004), and Nelson et al. (2003a). Values will vary somewhat depending on type of crop in the facility and stage of growth. Such a system with hydroponic plant growth media will have different carbon ratios and residence/cycling times.

591 and living biomass carbon to atmosphere. This results in a  
592 rapid passage of CO<sub>2</sub> through the atmospheric compart-  
593 ment, and a vastly accelerated cycling time. Table 2 shows  
594 comparative ratios and carbon cycle times for the Earth's  
595 biosphere, Biosphere 2, and the Laboratory Biosphere, as  
596 an example of a modular biosphere. This acceleration of  
597 cycling justifies the analogy made that modular biospheres  
598 and other closed ecological systems are essentially "cyclo-  
599 trons for the life sciences" (Allen, 1991). This means that  
600 a year of experimentation offers the possibility for hun-  
601 dreds of cycles of carbon residence in the atmosphere and  
602 for changes in state variables to manifest results and  
603 impacts in a much faster and more pronounced way than  
604 in our natural ecosystems and biosphere. This rapid set  
605 of changes makes for research challenge and opportunities  
606 at the same time that it makes modular biospheres excellent  
607 teaching and public education tools.

#### 608 4.3. Other examples of research opportunities

609 Because modular biospheres are materially isolated  
610 mini-worlds, they offer opportunities for the testing of  
611 genetically engineered organisms with far less risk to the  
612 environment than experiments conducted in materially  
613 open systems or in natural open air settings. Putting these  
614 experimental life forms into modular biospheres where a  
615 diversity of plants, soils and where environmental condi-  
616 tions can be readily manipulated offers better opportunities  
617 for seeing unexpected interactions than laboratory or phy-  
618 totron studies offer. Such tests, in tightly sealed and con-  
619 trolled modular biospheres, should precede field studies  
620 where escape and unintended consequences of the propaga-  
621 tion of genetically modified organisms might result.

622 Modular biospheres make an ideal research module for  
623 study of ecosystem behavior since basic state conditions  
624 can be exactly specified and precisely followed over differ-  
625 ent time periods. Specific cycles in ecosystem behavior  
626 can be studied by adjusting their variables while holding  
627 the others constant: atmospheric cycles and composition  
628 (of the utmost importance and interest today); water cycle  
629 and composition; changes in total biomass as well as  
630 changes in individual organisms and species; changes in  
631 soils with cyclic or discontinuous changes in life forms;  
632 total system effects of changing variables such as tempera-

ture, humidity, radiation, light, introduction of a new spe- 633  
cies, introduction of a specific pollutant. 634

The early development of laboratory sized "ecospheres" 635  
had shown the power of such microbial/algal systems if 636  
sufficiently diverse to continue indefinite operation given 637  
a source of incident energy (Folsome and Hanson, 1986). 638  
The scale of modular biospheres offers a supra-microbial 639  
testbed and laboratory for ecosystem studies and for study 640  
of the integration of bioremediation and environmental 641  
technologies to complete cycles and mitigate negative 642  
impacts of human technology. 643

For example, to demonstrate air and water purification, 644  
a modular biosphere experiment could be started with pol- 645  
luted water or specific air pollutants, and methods of 646  
cleanup by and/or impact on plant and soil communities 647  
studied. As Biosphere 2 demonstrated, small "biospheric 648  
systems" will have surprises (e.g., the decline in atmo- 649  
spheric oxygen or the self-organization of the desert biome 650  
into a community with different dominants than originally 651  
anticipated, see Nelson and Dempster, 1996; Allen and 652  
Nelson, 1999; Severinghaus et al., 1994) but offer a suffi- 653  
ciently small laboratory that sinks, sources and causative 654  
agents can be identified and altered for better long-term 655  
functioning. The oxygen decline at a constant atmospheric 656  
pressure in Biosphere 2 also demonstrates that some vari- 657  
ables usually conjoined in natural Earth conditions can 658  
be separated for study. To give examples of some of unique 659  
research opportunities which Biosphere 2 afforded: the 660  
response of a rainforest or coral reef grown in seasonal 661  
light conditions and at elevations or latitudes not encoun- 662  
tered in their usual geographical locations; the response 663  
of a coral reef to very high CO<sub>2</sub> atmosphere and lowering 664  
of ocean pH, or the metabolic response of humans to low- 665  
ered oxygen without a corresponding decline in atmo- 666  
spheric pressure, two factors normally conjoined at high 667  
altitude and which results in physiological adjustments in 668  
such mountain conditions (Paglia and Walford, 2005). 669

#### 5. Conclusion: the impact of closure and the opportunities for 670 new educational and research applications 671

The challenge of making modular biospheres healthy 672  
and sustainably functioning, leads to developing new 673  
approaches to ecosystem studies and ecological engineering. 674

675 Even in the design phase, engineers and ecologists must dia-  
676 logue since every material and machine used in the system is  
677 measured for out gassing, and their byproducts evaluated  
678 for their integration with a living system with rapid cycling  
679 and small buffer sizes. Agricultural systems must be devel-  
680 oped which do not need toxic chemicals and which sustain  
681 soil fertility. In short, these challenges to researchers and  
682 public education platforms offer ways for dealing with  
683 many of the challenges which we confront in our global bio-  
684 sphere – how to make the transition to renewable use of nat-  
685 ural resources, integration of human technology and  
686 economy, and the sustainability of our civilization.

687 Modular biosphere experiments can yield valuable  
688 insights on the interactions between natural ecosystems  
689 and global technical systems. Their primary purpose and  
690 previous application has been to test systems for long-term  
691 space stations, travel, and space settlements where inhabit-  
692 ants must operate bioregenerative and technical systems as  
693 a synergy. But, modular biospheres offer great potential  
694 for advancing both student and public understanding of fun-  
695 damental environmental realities and problems. Learning to  
696 integrate advanced technical systems with complex life sys-  
697 tems can be of immense educational value, both in hands-  
698 on training of a managerial corps for complex projects, a  
699 corps able to handle the difficulties of contemporary life  
700 and in providing general principles for the general public  
701 by outreach education. Another use is to take advantage  
702 of the isolation of biospheric systems for conducting poten-  
703 tially dangerous experiments on new chemicals, pollutants  
704 or genetically modified life forms to see their impact on com-  
705 plex ecosystems. This potentially integrated world – the syn-  
706 ergy of the human technosphere with the biosphere – has  
707 been called by Vernadsky and others a noosphere, or a world  
708 of intelligence (Vernadsky, 1985). Modular biospheres, a  
709 child of space life support research, may have a significant  
710 role to play in this historic endeavor both through new kinds  
711 of research and by inspiring and educating the public.

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