

# LUNAR BASE CELSS— A BIOREGENERATIVE APPROACH N 9 3 - 1 3 9 9 3

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*During the twenty-first century, human habitation of a self-sustaining lunar base could become a reality. To achieve this goal, the occupants will have to have food, water, and an adequate atmosphere within a carefully designed environment. Advanced technology will be employed to support terrestrial life-sustaining processes on the Moon. One approach to a life support system based on food production, waste management and utilization, and product synthesis is outlined. Inputs include an atmosphere, water, plants, biodegradable substrates, and manufactured materials such as fiberglass containment vessels from lunar resources. Outputs include purification of air and water, food, and hydrogen (H<sub>2</sub>) generated from methane (CH<sub>4</sub>). Important criteria are to (1) minimize resupply from Earth and (2) recycle as efficiently as possible.*

## INTRODUCTION

On the Earth, we exist within a dynamic life support system. Our atmosphere is maintained at static concentrations of certain gases by exchange with living organisms and physiochemical processes. Our water is continually being purified by evapotranspiration and by nature's filtering system, the soil. Nutrients, essential ions and compounds necessary for life, are immobilized by living organisms. Geochemical mineralization and decomposition of natural or synthetic biodegradable organic substrates are sources of nutrient availability. When nutrient deficiencies exist, chemical fertilizers, inorganic or organic, are applied by man to optimize biological and chemical relationships within the ecosystem.

Human habitation of the Moon will require environmental conditions similar to those on Earth where man evolved. Before bioregenerative closure within a lunar base, a synthetic atmosphere appropriate for human respiration must be prepared. Water, in quantities adequate for system function, must be synthesized. Higher plants must be included within the system for recycling purposes. Hardware, such as fiberglass containment vessels, can be manufactured from lunar regolith.

After preliminary development, implementation of a bioregenerative system composed of interdependent components of food production, waste management and utilization, and product synthesis will aid in the generation of a lunar ecosystem capable of supporting human life. Food will be produced from higher plants. Solid, liquid, and gaseous wastes must be managed to prevent disease or toxic compound release into the environment. These wastes will also be recycled since they contain vital components within a bioregenerative system. From waste recycling, essential products can be generated. Total system closure will only occur within a well-established lunar base after

preliminary construction and development phases. Assuming an established lunar base, we will herein discuss some crucial aspects of a bioregenerative system. The oxygen cycle will not be discussed since regenerative oxygen extraction methods from ilmenite or magma electrolysis have been developed, and oxygen should not be limiting.

## FOOD PRODUCTION— "FARMING" LUNAR SOIL

During the primary stages of lunar base construction and development, which might include 8 to 10 occupants, hydroponic systems may be used to grow plants for both food and partial gas exchange. Research is currently being conducted at the Kennedy Space Center (KSC) to develop and study hydroponic plant production systems for space habitats. Automated hydroponic systems would most efficiently utilize both area and mission specialists' time. However, as the size and number of occupants increases by an order(s) of magnitude during developmental phases (Duke *et al.*, 1985; Burden and Angelo, 1985) and total bioregenerative enclosure is required, lunar soil may be utilized for growing plants and as a deposition site for anaerobically digested residues. Although somewhat different from terrestrial rock and soil in composition and mode of formation, lunar soil possesses the precursor primary minerals of terrestrial soils. Major lunar minerals are olivine, pyroxene, and plagioclase feldspars (Williams and Jadwick, 1980). Since chemical weathering has not occurred on the Moon, mineral transformations to secondary products with greater stability have not occurred. Physical weathering induced by meteorite impacts has altered the mineralogy by forming glass and agglutinate (minerals in glass matrix) fractions. Olivines, pyroxenes, and volcanic glasses are some of the most soluble minerals in a chemical weathering environment on the Earth. Although relatively insoluble in water, their solubility is enhanced in the acidic environment produced during cropping.

Sources of acidity associated with the soil-plant system to promote mineral dissolution include (1) humification of residues, (2) plant root exudation, (3) acid-forming fertilizers, (4) hydration of Al, Fe, and to a lesser extent Mn ions, and (5) carbonate equilibria. Approximately 10% by weight of Apollo sample 12070

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was dissolved in weak acid (0.6-g sample in 350 ml 0.01 M salicylic acid) while 0.25% was dissolved in water during an 81-day incubation study (Keller and Huang, 1971). Ions essential for plants that dissolved from lunar soil include Mg, Fe, Ca, and low concentrations (approximately  $10 \mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$  in acidic media) of K. In another study to determine the influence of lunar soil on higher plants, chlorophyll concentration was increased by 21-35% in tobacco callus as a result of enhanced Mg and Fe availability when compared to control treatments (Weete and Walkinsbaw, 1972).

Essential nutrients that might be deficient in lunar soil include N, P, K, and some micronutrients. The small quantities of micronutrients required by plants may make it cost effective to import them from Earth, but macronutrients are required in large quantities. Lunar base fertilizers might, therefore, have to be produced for either soil or hydroponic plant-growing systems (see section on product synthesis).

A possible deterrent to usage of lunar soil for cropping might be the release of heavy metals, especially Ni and Cr, into the bioregenerative system. Constant cropping could also lower lunar soil pH to where  $\text{Al}^{3+}$  could reduce plant yield. In the soil pH range of 6.0-7.0, the dominant Al solution species would be the nontoxic  $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3^0$  rather than  $\text{Al}^{3+}$  (Lindsay, 1979). Liming the soil with lunar fine soil fractions may be one solution. Lunar soil pH in water has never been determined by accepted soil testing methods, but the best available lunar soil simulants have a pH near 8.0. Therefore, the buffering capacity of the lunar fine soil fractions might maintain an adequate pH for cropping and secondary mineral neogenesis.

As on Earth, higher plants would assimilate  $\text{CO}_2$ . All plants that would be of interest occur in two groupings based on mechanism of  $\text{CO}_2$  assimilation. At normal atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  levels ( $340 \text{ mg l}^{-1}$ ), C-4 plants like corn fix  $\text{CO}_2$  most efficiently, while at elevated  $\text{CO}_2$  levels ( $1200 \text{ mg l}^{-1}$ ), C-3 plants like beans would have the advantage in  $\text{CO}_2$  fixation due to reduced  $\text{CO}_2$  loss via photorespiration (Black, 1986).

Initially,  $\text{N}_2$  will have to be imported from Earth for generation of an atmosphere. It might be cost effective to generate the majority of plant-available  $\text{N}_2$  by symbiotic  $\text{N}_2$  fixation. Leguminous species fix atmospheric  $\text{N}_2$  when infected with *Rhizobium*. These symbiotic bacteria use plant photosynthate for energy. Symbiotic  $\text{N}_2$  fixation was increased fivefold when  $\text{CO}_2$  was enriched to  $1200 \text{ mg CO}_2 \text{ l}^{-1}$  as compared to fixation at ambient  $\text{CO}_2$  levels (Hardy and Havelka, 1975). Growing legumes would promote greater usage of the  $\text{CO}_2$  available from waste recycling (see section on waste management and utilization), as well as increase the  $\text{N}_2$  availability in the soil for subsequent nonlegume crops. Since the volume of  $\text{N}_2$  in the lunar base atmosphere is minute when compared to the terrestrial atmosphere,  $\text{N}_2$  will have to be added as microorganisms reduce its concentration. Adsorbed on lunar soil surfaces are sources of  $\text{N}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2$ . As  $\text{H}_2$  is collected for ilmenite reduction,  $\text{N}_2$  might be collected to supplement the lunar base atmosphere.

### Implementation

A hypothetical 100 inhabitants would use at least 2100 liters of water daily (Spurlock and Modell, 1979), and require a minimum of  $600 \text{ m}^2$  of hydroponic food production area (Salisbury and Bugbee, 1985). Estimates of food production from lunar soil will not be available until a high-fidelity lunar simulant is available for research. Waste water (water used for all purposes but toilets) could be stored in a fiberglass vessel manufactured from lunar

regolith (Ho and Sobon, 1979) and supplied to plants growing in lunar soil through a drip irrigation system.

To prevent water loss, lunar soil will have to be confined within a fiberglass containment structure. Lunar minerals are anhydrous and would initially require substantial water. Without containment, water should disperse throughout the soil. Since 85% of crop plant roots are in the top 0.15 m of soil, container depths of 0.6 m should be sufficient for total root proliferation. On the soil surface,  $\text{CO}_2$  could be applied through vented piping to maintain at least 1200 and  $340 \text{ mg CO}_2 \text{ l}^{-1}$  within the C-3 and C-4 crop canopies, respectively. Approximately 100 kg of  $\text{CO}_2$  will be respired per 100 occupants per day in the lunar base (MacElroy et al., 1985). Maximally, C-3 plants can fix  $60 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ sec}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-2}$  when neither light nor  $\text{CO}_2$  is limiting (Challa and Schapendonk, 1986). This translates to 136 kg of  $\text{CO}_2$  fixed per day per  $600 \text{ m}^2$ . Calculations indicate that  $600 \text{ m}^2$  of mature crops, photosynthesizing at theoretical maximum limits, could recycle the  $\text{CO}_2$  produced by 100 occupants. Assuming a one-to-one relationship between  $\text{CO}_2$  fixation and plant dry weight, and a per person food requirement of  $0.6 \text{ kg day}^{-1}$  (MacElroy et al., 1985), then daily respiration from 100 occupants plus the average daily  $\text{CO}_2$  generated from waste recycling, would supply the minimum food requirements if the crop harvest index is at least 34%. Plant species, planting density, and crop stress levels will of course influence these calculations.

Anaerobically digested plant biomass and sewage sludge residues (see section on waste management and utilization) will be applied to the soil to aid in moisture retention, increase particle aggregation and soil structuring, and subsequently soil gaseous exchange. Select groups of introduced heterotrophic microorganisms could aid in the mineralization of N, P, and micronutrients from organic substrates. Introduced chemoautotrophic microbes could aid in the conversion of ions to a more plant-preferred ionic species. Algae could be applied to the soil surface to reduce gaseous N losses (Alexander, 1977).

Soil-water relationships will be of extreme importance. The approximate bulk density of lunar soil is  $1.5 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$  (Carrier et al., 1973). With a cropping area of  $600 \text{ m}^2$  and a depth of 0.6 m, the soil would weigh 540,000 kg by terrestrial standards. Terrestrial basalt, ground to approximate particle size of lunar samples, has a water holding capacity of 4.3% at 0.33 bar as determined by the pressure membrane extraction technique (G. W. Easterwood, unpublished data, 1988). Assuming the same water-holding capacity, lunar soil by weight could contain at least 23,220 liters of water, equivalent to the waste water of 100 occupants for 10 days. Soil moisture content could be monitored with a neutron probe at various depths to ensure optimal moisture and aeration for plant roots.

Most of the water applied to the cropping area will be transpired into the atmosphere, reclaimed by condensation, distilled for purification, and stored directly in the potable water storage tank. Plants transpire approximately 225 kg of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  per kilogram dry weight biomass produced (Salisbury and Ross, 1978). Wheat, for example, with a life cycle of 60 days and biomass production of 3120 kg on  $600 \text{ m}^2$  of cropping area (Salisbury and Bugbee, 1985), would transpire an average of 11,700 liters of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  per day.

Crops transpire more than three times the occupant water requirements, leaving surplus potable water that could be used for fish production. With intensive aquacultural practices, it is possible to produce 200 kg of fish  $\text{m}^{-3}$  of water per year (Balarin and Haller, 1983). A tank containing 8400 liters of water (11,700

total from plant transpiration—3000 for occupants, 300 for solid waste transportation) could produce 16,800 kg of fish annually. Fish, like tilapia (*Tilapia aurea*), can feed on processed plant biomass. Possibly some of the crop biomass or residual solid from the anaerobic digestion process could be processed for fish food (Degani et al., 1983). To reduce the buildup of toxic compounds from fish excrement, waste water can be recycled through the soil system providing supplemental N<sub>2</sub> fertilization to growing plants. Solid wastes may be removed from the water and combined with the human biological wastes.

## WASTE MANAGEMENT AND UTILIZATION

Wastes, defined as biomass from crops and the solid, liquid, and gaseous biological wastes from the occupants, will be important sources of recycled CO<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, P, K, and energy within the lunar base ecosystem. Of the wastes that will be produced, gases such as CO<sub>2</sub> will be removed during atmospheric recycling through the crop growing area. Waste water will be recycled by transpiration through the soil-plant system. Daily production of occupant solid waste will average 109 g dry weight of feces per person (MacElroy et al., 1985), and 2340 kg of dry weight inedible plant biomass per 60 days on 600 m<sup>2</sup> of growing area, assuming wheat production of 1.3 kg seed m<sup>2</sup> with a harvest index of 0.25 (Salisbury and Bugbee, 1985).

Solids will be recycled by biological conversion processes. Biological conversion of solid wastes will be more suitable for energy extraction and nutrient recycling than will thermal conversion (Chynoweth, 1987). Anaerobic digestion of the biomass will produce CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> gases, and a residual concentration of N, P, and K in the digestion effluent. Utilizing the latest technology in anaerobic digestion design, 92% conversion of biodegradable substrates (1:1 ratio of sludge:plant biomass) into gaseous products may be obtained with a loading rate of 91 g of dry weight biomass per 28.32 liters of digester volume per day. Total gas yield is 780 liters per kilogram of dry weight volatile solids (Gas Research Institute et al., 1986).

### Implementation

Sewage plumbing will be independent from waste water plumbing. Following a toilet discharge, sewage will pass through a macerator to reduce particle size prior to storage. Small biomass particle size lowers retention time within the anaerobic digester and facilitates greater degradation. Inedible crop biomass can also be milled and stored separately for future anaerobic decomposition.

Optimal ratios of sewage to plant biomass will be pumped from the storage tanks and combined within an anaerobic digester(s) for degradation of materials and generation of gases and nutrients. Products of the anaerobic digestion are gases (64% CH<sub>4</sub> and 36% CO<sub>2</sub> per unit volume) and liquid effluent containing N, P, and K. Approximate nutrient concentrations in the effluent after digestion of water hyacinths, for example, were 289 mg NH<sup>4+</sup> l<sup>-1</sup>, 12 mg P l<sup>-1</sup>, and 123 mg K l<sup>-1</sup> (Reddy, 1988). Gases will be separated and stored. Residual solids can be applied to amend the soil or used as fish feed (Degani et al., 1983). Solid-free digestion effluent that emerges from the digester essentially sterile (National Academy of Sciences, 1977) may be mixed with waste water to produce a suitable fertilizer for crops through the drip irrigation system.

## PRODUCT SYNTHESIS

The major products that must be produced on the Moon are oxygen and water. Water could be generated from the reduction of ilmenite with H<sub>2</sub>, and O<sub>2</sub> produced from sequential electrolysis (Gibson and Knudsen, 1985; Williams, 1985). Since a hydrogen sink exists in water production, resupply of H<sub>2</sub> will be imperative. Methane from anaerobic digestion may be processed to produce H<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub>. Direct reduction of ilmenite with methane has also been studied by Russian scientists (Reznichenko et al., 1983).

During crop production on the Moon, a phosphate sink may develop that would require input into the system. Orthophosphate ions are very reactive and relatively immobile in soils. Once applied, orthophosphate may be adsorbed to mineral surfaces and/or precipitated from solution as an insoluble Ca, Fe, or Al phosphate (Tisdale and Nelson, 1975). In extremely unfavorable environments, up to 90% of applied fertilizer H<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> is unavailable to plants from "fixation" mechanisms (Stevenson, 1982). Trace quantities of apatite and whitlockite minerals exist within the lunar regolith (Williams and Jadwick, 1980) and may provide the balance of deficient quantities of orthophosphate. Mining these minerals for P may be as essential to lunar agriculture as mining ilmenite will be for water and oxygen production. To produce water-soluble fertilizers, however, strong acids will have to be produced. Complex fertilizer technology for processing lunar regolith could only exist within a well-established and self-sustaining lunar base.

### Implementation

Methane, produced from the anaerobic digestion process, will have to be separated from CO<sub>2</sub> for generation of H<sub>2</sub> or direct reduction of ilmenite with CH<sub>4</sub>. Conventional separation of CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S from CH<sub>4</sub> may be accomplished by the Girbotol or Monoethanolamine process (Sbreve, 1967). Concentrations of less than 0.01% CO<sub>2</sub> by volume in the H<sub>2</sub> gas may be obtained by this regenerative method. Hydrogen gas may be synthesized by the Steam-Hydrocarbon Reforming process (Sbreve, 1967), which chemically processes CH<sub>4</sub> into CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>. Again, the Girbotol process could be employed to remove CO<sub>2</sub>. Since temperatures fluctuate between 102K and 384K during the 14-Earth-day lunar day and 14-Earth-day lunar night, cryogenic methods of gas separation may provide a low-energy alternative compared to chemical methods.

From sewage and crop biomass, approximately 18,018 kg (14,040 kg from 6 cropping periods on 600 m<sup>2</sup> and 3978 kg from feces of 100 occupants) of dry weight wastes should be generated per year. With a 92% solid waste bioconversion efficiency, and 780 liters of gas generated per kilogram of solid, with 64% of the gas CH<sub>4</sub>, approximately 8,275,018 liters of CH<sub>4</sub> would be produced annually. Assuming 100% efficiency during the steam-hydrocarbon reforming process, and reduction of ilmenite without any losses or inputs into either process, approximately 13,400 liters of water could be produced. Direct reduction of ilmenite with CH<sub>4</sub> might reduce the number of intermediate steps and energy requirements.

## INTEGRATING A SYSTEM: FARMING, WASTE MANAGEMENT, AND PRODUCT SYNTHESIS

This paper attempts to integrate the interdependent components of food production, waste management and utilization, and



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