Ballooning for Biologists: Mission Essentials for Flying Life Science Experiments to Near Space on NASA Large Scientific Balloons

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ABSTRACT

Despite centuries of scientific balloon flights, only a handful of experiments have produced biologically relevant results. Yet unlike orbital spaceflight, it is much faster and cheaper to conduct biology research with balloons, sending specimens to the near space environment of Earth’s stratosphere. Samples can be loaded the morning of a launch and sometimes returned to the laboratory within one day after flying. The National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) flies large unmanned scientific balloons from all over the globe, with missions ranging from hours to weeks in duration. A payload in the middle portion of the stratosphere (~25 km above sea level) will be exposed to an environment similar to the surface of Mars—temperatures generally around -36°C, atmospheric pressure at a thin 1 kPa, relative humidity levels <1%, and harsh illumination of ultraviolet (UV) and cosmic radiation levels (about 100 W/m² and 0.1 mGy/d, respectively)—that can be obtained nowhere else on the surface of the Earth, including environmental chambers and particle accelerator facilities attempting to simulate space radiation effects. Considering the operational advantages of ballooning and the fidelity of space-like stressors in the stratosphere, researchers in aerobiology, astrobiology, and space biology can benefit from balloon flight experiments as an intermediary step on the extraterrestrial continuum (i.e., ground, low Earth orbit, and deep space studies). Our review targets biologists with no background or experience in scientific ballooning. We will provide an overview of large balloon operations, biology topics that can be uniquely addressed in the stratosphere, and a roadmap for developing payloads to fly with NASA.

INTRODUCTION

In 1783, a hydrogen balloon lifted off from Paris, France, starting the era of scientific ballooning. Since then, the technology has been refined and adapted for a wide range of applications, including meteorological research, military surveillance, and most recently, life science experiments.
Summary

Unlike orbital spaceflight, it is much faster and cheaper to conduct biology research with balloons, sending specimens to the near space environment of Earth’s stratosphere. Samples can be loaded the morning of a launch and sometimes returned to the laboratory within one day after flying. The National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) flies large, unmanned scientific balloons from all over the globe, with missions ranging from hours to months in duration.

A payload in the middle portion of the stratosphere (~35 km above sea level) will be exposed to an environment similar to the surface of Mars: temperatures generally around -36 °C, atmospheric pressure at a thin 1 kPa, relative humidity levels < 1%, and a harsh illumination of ultraviolet (UV) and cosmic radiation levels (about 100 W/m² and 0.1 mGy/d, respectively) that can be obtained nowhere else on the surface of the Earth, including environmental chambers and particle accelerator facilities attempting to simulate space radiation effects.

Considering the operational advantages of ballooning and the fidelity of space-like stressors in the stratosphere, researchers in the NASA Human Research Program can benefit from balloon flight experiments as an intermediary step on the extraterrestrial radiation continuum that includes low Earth orbit and deep space studies.
Big picture: NASA wants to understand how life responds to space radiation. The stratosphere is Near Space. It is part of a radiation continuum (Ground < Near Space < Low Earth Orbit < Deep Space)

Near Space is on the Radiation Continuum

This is where balloons fly (Near Space radiation)

This is where most NASA radiation research occurs (low Earth orbit)

This is where we want to go (deep space radiation)

Ground radiation simulations
Limitation of ground based facilities

- While hypobaric chambers and particle accelerating facilities may also be used to measure the effects of space-like environments on biology, ground simulations are often (1) expensive to perform, (2) volume limited, and (3) unable to accurately mimic dynamic sunlight levels.

- Consequently, ground-based experiments tend to be short-lasting, small in size, and limited by artificial doses of radiation. In contrast, the stratosphere naturally produces a fuller suite of biological stressors expected in space – including real high energy particles (and secondary scattering difficult to simulated in ground facilities).

- In order to study the effects of GCR and solar particle events on both biology and physics, NASA has developed a specialized radiation exposure facility at Brookhaven National Laboratory (https://www.bnl.gov/nsrl/). The NASA Space Radiation Laboratory (NSRL) is capable of generating a range of ions from protons to uranium at relevant energies observed beyond LEO (from 50 MeV to 1000 MeV, depending on the ion). Beam target size is limited to about 20 x 20 cm$^2$ which can be a limitation for experiments requiring large hardware for biological samples. Current beamline developments should permit more complex mixed ion exposures in the future; but the need to perform studies at very low dose rates to replicate the space environment is not always practical at NSRL due to access limitations and cost.

Figures courtesy of BioSentinel science team
Earth’s Atmosphere

Using the stratosphere as a Mars analog environment
Overview of Near Space Conditions

There are two sources of cosmic rays: (1) the ever-present galactic cosmic rays (GCR), with origins outside the solar system and (2) the transient solar energetic particles (SEP) (or solar cosmic rays).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>UVB Total (W m⁻²) 280-315 nm</th>
<th>UVC Total (W m⁻²) 100-280 nm</th>
<th>Ionizing Radiation (mGy/d)</th>
<th>Pressure (kPa)</th>
<th>Temp (°C)</th>
<th>RH (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New Mexico</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>0.066</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>-30</td>
<td>&lt; 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(35 km ASL)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mars</td>
<td>8.38</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>0.200</td>
<td>0.700</td>
<td>-53</td>
<td>&lt;&lt; 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(surface)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Energetic particle radiation from space continuously bombards the Earth’s atmosphere. Cosmic radiation has sufficient energy to penetrate deep within the atmosphere and adversely affect biology.

*Values averaged from Nicholson et al. (2002), Hassler et al. (2014), Mertens et al. (2017), Khodadad et al. (2017)
Background

• Another way of looking at Near Space radiation

• Note: at the altitudes where balloons fly (35-40 km ASL) collisions between cosmic radiation and the atmospheric aerosols/gases can generate **secondary radiation through nuclear fragmentation processes**

• Some spacecraft shielding materials may give rise to secondary fragmentation products that could be more damaging than the primary radiation field (NCRP, 2006).

Figure adapted from Mertens et al. (2017)
In a recent NASA balloon flight experiment launched September 2015 (Flight #666N from Ft. Sumner, NM), the Radiation Dosimetry Experiment (RaD-X) was sent to 36.6 km ASL to test an ionizing radiation instrument suite. Average dose rates in the stratosphere were approximately 0.064 mGy/d (Mertens et al., 2016); slightly lower than recent measurement by the MSL rover on the surface of Mars, 0.18 to 0.225 mGy/d (Hassler et al., 2014). The average linear energy transfer (density of ionizations per unit length) was found to increase as altitude increased from 24.3 to 36.7 km (Mertens et al., 2017) probably due to heavy ions (Z = 6-28) (NCRP, 1995).

Neutrons are the most hazardous radiation for multicellular biological studies in the stratosphere (Schimmerling, 2011).
Overview of Near Space/Stratosphere Conditions (more on ionizing radiation dose – recently measured by RaD-X mission)

Table 2. Comparison of the Dose Rate in Tissue Calculated Using the Three GCR Models to RaD-X TEPC Dose Rate Measurements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Altitude (km)</th>
<th>Pressure (hPa)</th>
<th>TEPC Dose Rate (µGy/h)</th>
<th>BO2014 Dose Rate (µGy/h)</th>
<th>DLR Dose Rate (µGy/h)</th>
<th>ISO Dose Rate (µGy/h)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>24.3</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>3.05 ± 0.48</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>2.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>2.58 ± 0.41</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>2.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table and figures from Norman et al. (2017)

Figure 7. The percent contribution to (left) dose and (right) dose equivalent by different particle groups as a function of altitude for the RaD-X flight (25–26 September 2015) from the three GCR models. Horizontal dashed lines correspond to average altitude for Regions B and A for reference.

Figure 4. Dose rate in tissue as a function of altitude for the RaD-X flight (25–26 September 2015) from the three GCR models compared to RaD-X TEPC dose rate measurements. (left) Calculated with a vertical cutoff rigidity of 3.52 GV, which corresponds to the average value, while RaD-X was in Region B (> 32.5 km). (right) Calculated with a vertical cutoff rigidity of 3.81 GV, which is the average value during Region A (21–27 km).
Dose rate is largest at high magnetic latitudes (polar regions)

- Bottom line: recent RaD-X measurements show dynamic low dose of radiation in Near Space; demonstrates potential for long duration, low dose rate ionizing radiation experiments
- Important point: RaD-X was a mid-latitude flight. Polar balloon flights (NASA launches 1-2 per year) would provide more high particle radiation to due to the magnetic field window at latitudes above 70°.
- Most cosmic radiation particles are deflected around the Earth by its magnetic field. However, solar and deep space particles do penetrate through the magnetic north and south poles.
Examples of existing ISS or ground-based biology hardware that could easily be flown on balloons.
The NASA Balloon Program Office (BPO) is located at Goddard Space Flight Center’s Wallops Flight Facility (WFF) at Wallops Island, Virginia (https://sites.wff.nasa.gov/code820/). It oversees operations for a portfolio of 10 to 16 annual missions sponsored and approved by NASA’s Science Mission Directorate (SMD).
EXAMPLE GONDOLA CONFIGURATION
Launch Vehicle

A large crane-like vehicle labeled "BIG BILL" is being used to lift a structure onto a flat, open field. The sky is clear and blue, suggesting good weather conditions for launch operations.
ROLLOUT TO LAUNCH / LATE LOAD
INFLATION
EXAMPLE FLIGHT PATH FROM FT. SUMNER LAUNCH SITE
PAYLOAD RECOVERY
We know microbes are traveling to Mars on NASA spacecraft. Will they survive once reaching the Red Planet?

Ground simulations suggested...

- *Bacillus pumilus* SAFR-032, would not be able to withstand the combined effects of Mars-like temperature, pressure, desiccation, and irradiation after direct exposure to such conditions for up to 8 hours.

- Our hypothesis was testable by sending known quantities of monolayered bacteria into the Earth’s stratosphere on a long duration balloon flight while collecting pertinent environmental data.

http://www.nasa.gov/ames/research/space-biosciences/e-mist-2015
UV light could easily kill microbial stowaways to Mars

By Joshua Sokol
Mar. 28, 2017, 2:15 PM
Next E-MIST Launch: South Pole, December 2017

• Piggyback payload on SuperTIGER II LDB (PI Bob Binns, Washington University)

• SuperTIGER I mission floated for 55 days in 2013

• 5 NASA-relevant microbes will be flown: shaded and unshaded treatments

E-MIST mounted on continuously sunlit side of gondola
New Commercial Carriers on the Horizon
(in addition to what NASA BPO already offers)

http://www.worldview.space/

Crewed flights (*planned*) could offer more HRP opportunities and hands-on experiment time

http://nsc.aero/
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>ISS</th>
<th>Balloons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Planning time req’d before a flight</td>
<td>1+ year and often much longer</td>
<td>&lt; 1 year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost to Fly</td>
<td>Multiple million$ per experiment</td>
<td>Tens of thousand$ per experiment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency of Flights</td>
<td>Rare</td>
<td>Available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payload weight capacity</td>
<td>Usually &lt; 100 lbs per experiment</td>
<td>Payload usually has 3,000 lbs to spare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payload power capacity</td>
<td>Power demands highly regulated</td>
<td>Unlimited power (solar cells)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handover lead time</td>
<td>Up to 6 months</td>
<td>&lt; 1 hr prior to launch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recovery lag time</td>
<td>Days to weeks</td>
<td>&lt; 24 hrs samples back in laboratory</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Available space-relevant exposures | • + ionizing rad  
• − UV rad  
• + microgravity | • + ionizing rad  
• + UV rad  
• − microgravity |
| Crew available for manual ops | Yes                                | No (experiments must be automated)                |
Take Home Messages

• *Why should you care/listen:* The near space environment can be used as a high fidelity research location for microbiological experiments examining responses to space radiation. Balloon experiments are cheap and fast to fly.

• *Why not just keep flying ISS experiments?* Pace is slow, costs a lot of money, and some questions can be examined (and with better statistical power) using balloon flights.

• *Why not just use ground-based radiation simulation facilities?* There’s no substitute for real sunlight and high energy particles from space. Naturally available in the stratosphere using balloons. Low dose rate, long duration exposures unique to Near Space environment.
Acknowledgements

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Backup
E-MIST Balloon Payload

Position on gondola

Launch vehicle
E-MIST October 2015 Flight – Experiment Initiation
E-MIST October 2015 Flight – Experimental Time Series

Khodadad et al. (2017)
E-MIST 2015 Flight Results

Most Probable Number of Viable Endospores vs Time Elapsed in Stratosphere (min)

Khodadad et al. (2017)