

Plants in Space

Activity: How Does Light Affect Root Growth?

by

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RESOURCES

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Gardening in space has been part of the International Space Station (ISS) from the beginning. Understanding photosynthesis and plant development is a critical component of future long-duration space missions. By generating oxygen, removing carbon dioxide and purifying water, living plants could help maintain a healthy spacecraft atmosphere and reduce the costs of air and water resupply. Plant research also will have direct application to future production of crops that the ISS crew could eat.

Shown above, astronaut Peggy A. Whitson, Expedition 5 NASA ISS Science Officer, holds the Advanced Astroculture soybean plant growth experiment in the Destiny laboratory on the ISS. Photo courtesy of NASA.

Complete image citations, including URLs, are available at the front of this guide.

Introduction

On May 16, 2011, Space Shuttle *Endeavour* began its final mission, a trip to the International Space Station (ISS). In addition to its primary payload, the Shuttle carried two small-scale investigations that invite student participation. The first investigation involved the behavior of orb-weaving spiders, *Nephila clavipes*, in microgravity. The second examines plant root growth in space. This investigator's manual describes the plant root growth investigation and provides the details necessary for students and teachers to collect and analyze data while conducting their own parallel investigations.

Any classroom or individual around the world is invited to participate in this project. Each participant (or group) must set up an Earth-based growing chamber with plants to compare to those growing on the ISS. Once the investigation begins in the fall of 2011, a steady stream of ISS plant images will be made available for viewing on the BioEd Online (www.bioedonline.org) and K8 Science (www.k8science.org) websites. These images will provide many opportunities for creative studies that compare root growth in normal gravity with growth in microgravity.

This manual begins with a primer on plant roots and plant tropisms (growth movements in response to a stimulus). Later sections provide full details on setting up a ground chamber and growing the plants.

The guide does not present a formal research plan. This investigation allows—and requires—participants to ask their own questions about plant

root growth in microgravity and on Earth, and to collect the data needed to answer their questions.

PREREQUISITES

While anyone can participate in the investigation, it is suggested that prior to beginning, each investigator become familiar with fundamental aspects of the microgravity environment of space and with basic research techniques. The following supplemental guides, available free of charge on BioEd Online and K8 Science, offer useful background information.

- *Designing Your Investigation*
- *Keeping a Naturalist Journal*
- *Scientific Image Processing*

PLANTS ON EARTH

Plants are found virtually everywhere on Earth's surface, from deserts to tropical rainforests to high mountains. Scientists have identified about 300,000 different species of plants, which are among the most adaptable of Earth's organisms. Plants can range in size from microscopic to the largest known living things. Like other living organisms, plants need energy, nutrients, air and water. They produce offspring, are made of cells, react to their surroundings, grow and die.

Plants' characteristic green color comes from the pigment, chlorophyll, which also is found in algae (close relatives of plants). Chlorophyll enables plants to capture light energy and convert it into chemical energy through a process called photosynthesis. Photosynthetic organisms (green plants and their relatives) are Earth's primary

primary recycling system. During photosynthesis, leaves extract carbon dioxide gas from the atmosphere and use it to store energy that enables plants to live and grow. At the same time, plants release the oxygen that enables our atmosphere to sustain life. In addition, plants are the first link in almost all food chains, upon which all animals and other consumers depend. They also are an important source of fiber, fuels and many medicines.

Land plants include tiny mosses, ferns, pines and flowering plants. Of these, flowering plants, or Angiosperms, are most numerous, with close to 250,000 species. Angiosperms typically are made up of roots, stems, leaves and flowers. Roots anchor the plant and absorb essential nutrients and water. Stems provide support, raising leaves and flowers above the ground, and serve as conduits through which nutrients, food molecules and water travel between roots, leaves and other parts. Leaves expand a plant's green surface area to maximize the capture of solar energy. Pores in leaves enable the exchange of gases, particularly oxygen and carbon dioxide, between plants and the atmosphere.

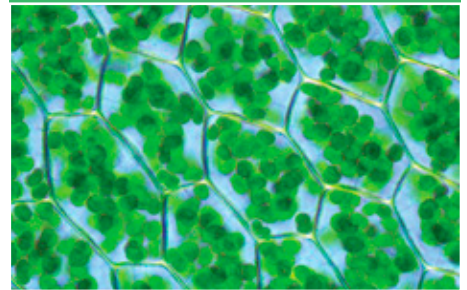
Flowers contain the reproductive parts of a plant, the anthers (produce pollen) and the pistil or carpel (contains ovules, which become seeds after fertilization). Some flowers have showy petals or fragrance, which serve to attract animal pollinators, such as insects or birds. Plants with small, inconspicuous flowers, such as those found in grasses, typically rely on wind to carry pollen from one flower to another.

Successful pollination leads to seed formation inside the ovary or base of the pistil or pistils. After pollination, the ovary expands and becomes fleshy or hard, and begins to form the fruit. Sometimes, other flower parts become part of the fruit as well. In non-technical usage, "fruit" means a fleshy, sweet, edible seed-containing structure, such as an apple, orange, grape, etc. However, biologists consider any seed-containing plant structure to be a fruit. There are many kinds of fruits: pea pods, acorns, tomatoes and even corn kernels are just a few examples. Fruits serve important roles in seed dispersal. Some, such as coconuts, float to new environments; others, such as berries, are eaten along with their seeds, which are transported by animals to new locations.

Plants' atmospheric recycling and food production properties make them very important to planners of space missions. Voyages to the planets will require continuous replenishment of food, water and atmosphere. Plants could provide the basis for a closed, self-sustaining system that requires only the input of solar energy. ■



A leaf is an above-ground plant organ specialized for the process of photosynthesis. The internal organization of most leaves has evolved to maximize exposure of chloroplasts to light, and to increase the absorption of carbon dioxide. Photo © Jon Sullivan, released into the public domain on Wikipedia.



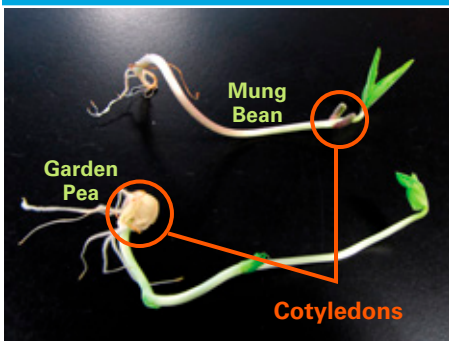
This microscopic image of *Plagiomnium affine*, (a Many-fruited Thyme-moss), reveals its chloroplasts. Chloroplasts in plants capture radiant light energy from the sun and convert it into chemical energy. Oxygen is released as a waste product. Photo © Kristian Peters, Wikipedia Creative Commons 3.0.

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Sunflower seedlings, photographed three days after planting. Notice the initial curvature of the seedling stem, the two cotyledons emerging from the remnants of each seed coat, and the hairs on the developing primary root.

Photo © Bluemoose, Wikipedia Creative Commons 2.0.



Cotyledons may be carried above ground during germination or remain underground. The mung bean seedling (top) shows cotyledons that have been carried above ground. The green pea seedling's cotyledons remained encased in its seed coat, which acted as an underground storage organ.

Photo © Annkatrin Rose, Ph.D.

Seeds and Germination

The seeds of flowering plants consist of a protective coat, an embryo and stored food. The embryo, which is a tiny new plant, remains dormant and protected until favorable conditions arise. One end of the embryo, the radicle, develops into the plant's root system. The other end of the embryo, called the hypocotyle, forms the initial stem and leaves. Most seeds also contain stored food to fuel development until the young plant begins to produce its own food through photosynthesis. Sometimes, the food is contained within the seed leaves or cotyledons. In other cases, the food surrounds the embryo as a starch reserve, known as endosperm.

When external conditions are satisfactory, the seed and embryo take in water. In a process called germination, the tiny new plant consumes its food reserves and begins to grow. Sometimes, germination also requires an additional environmental signal, such as light of the correct wavelengths or a series of days at a particular temperature.

During germination, the young plant sends out a single root, the radicle, to begin capturing water and serve as an anchor. Eventually, the growing radicle becomes the primary root. The primary roots of all land plants look much alike, but later development differentiates them. For example, carrots and radishes form fat taproots, consisting of the primary root with many thin, lateral branching roots. In other plants, such as grasses, the primary root is short-lived and is replaced by a new, fibrous root system that originates near the base of the stem.

Shortly after the radicle emerges, the shoot pushes through the seed coat. Often, the embryo stem curves and pushes through the soil as a hook to avoid damaging the delicate shoot tip. In some cases, the cotyledons emerge through the soil. In other cases, such as in pea plants, the cotyledons remain buried; only the new shoot tip is visible above ground.

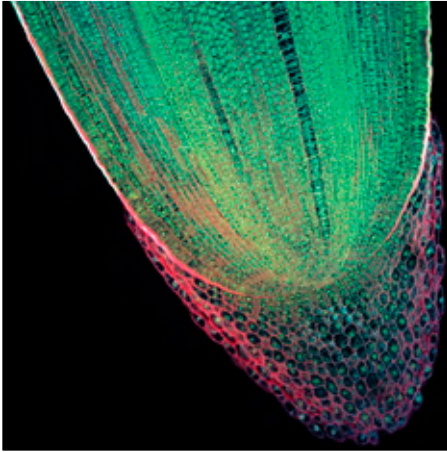


Cucumber seedling showing two oval-shaped cotyledons, a leaf (top) and emerging new leaves (center). Photo © Peter Chastain, Wikipedia Creative Commons 3.0.

The early leaves expand and begin the process of photosynthesis. The number of cotyledons present is a characteristic used to distinguish between the two major groups of flowering plants. Monocotyledonous plants ("monocots") have one seed leaf and dicotyledonous plants ("dicots") have two. Grasses are monocots. Beans and mustard plants (such as the Wisconsin Fast Plants® *Brassica rapa*, used for the Plants in Space investigation) are dicots. Similar to animal development, plant germination, growth, reproduction, and responses to the external environment are regulated by internal signaling pathways and hormones. ■

3

A Closer Look at Roots and Stems



This microscopic photo of the tip of a maize root reveals the structure of its protective root cap. Photo by Jim Haseloff © Wellcome Images.



Brassica rapa seedlings shown with stems growing toward a light source. Photo by Travis Kelleher © Baylor College of Medicine.

Roots can do more than anchor a plant in soil and absorb water and nutrients. Thick roots, such as those of beets and carrots, are modified to store food supplies. Others, particularly those of legumes (beans, peanuts and their relatives), house bacteria that take in nitrogen from air and make it available in a different chemical form for use by the host plant.

A plant's first root, usually called the primary root, originates with the embryo. In dicots and gymnosperms (pine trees and their relatives), the primary root grows downward and forms a large taproot with lateral branches. In monocots, such as grasses, the primary root usually disappears and is replaced by a fibrous network of roots that form at the base of the stem.

Most roots grow continuously and follow the path of least resistance through the soil. The availability of oxygen (contained in spaces between soil particles), water and nutrients also influences the direction and proliferation of roots. Roots grow by adding cells at their tips. A layer of cells, collectively called the root cap, protects the rapidly dividing and expanding cells of the root tip (see image, upper left). As the root pushes its way through soil, cells on the outer surface of the root cap are sloughed off and replaced.

New and growing roots absorb water and nutrients through cellular tubes, called "root hairs," located just behind the root tip. These tiny hairs greatly increase the amount of surface area through which water and dissolved nutrients can pass into the root system.

Water and nutrients are transported efficiently throughout the rest of plant through the vascular system. Unlike vertebrate animals, which have a single closed circulatory system, plants have one network of tubules (called xylem) to transport water and mineral nutrients, and a separate set of conduits (called phloem) to carry products of photosynthesis.

Not all stems serve as plant support structures. Some stems, such as the underground tubers we call potatoes, are important for food storage. In other plants, stems are modified to facilitate climbing or twining (vines) and water storage (succulents, such as cacti).

The stems of many trees and woody shrubs are reinforced over time through the development of wood and bark. Known as secondary growth, this process enables plants to survive and grow for many years, and it leads to a gradual increase in the diameter and strength of stems, branches and roots.

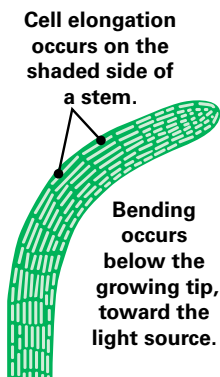
ORIENTING STEMS AND ROOTS

Generally, leaves and stems grow upward, toward light sources, while roots grow downward. But plants do not have nervous systems or sensory organs—no eyes, ears, or vestibular system like animals have. So, how do plants "know" which way is up?

Plants sense and respond to their environments in a number of ways. Receptor molecules within plant cells perceive changes in external conditions, such as light, and initiate internal signaling pathways that enable the plant to react. Communication inside plants occurs

PHOTOTROPISM

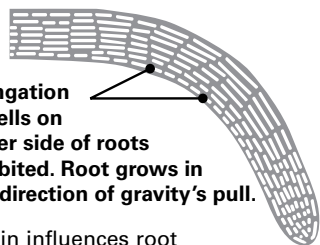
Auxins are plant hormones with important roles in plant growth and development. In light responses (phototropism), auxin causes cells on the shaded side of a stem to elongate more



than cells on the lighted side, thereby bending the stem toward the light source. Illustration by M.S. Young
© Baylor College of Medicine.

GRAVITROPISM

Elongation of cells on lower side of roots inhibited. Root grows in the direction of gravity's pull.



Auxin influences root orientation in response to gravity (gravitropism). If a plant is turned on its side, elongation of cells on the lower side of roots is inhibited, thereby bending the growing root downward. Illustration by M.S. Young
© Baylor College of Medicine.

through hormones, chemical substances produced in one part of the plant that have a developmental or physiological effect elsewhere in the plant. There are seven major kinds of plant hormones, and one, auxin, is primarily responsible for directional growth responses.

Light is important for plant development, including flowering and seed germination. It also is essential for photosynthesis, and can stimulate plant growth in a particular direction (toward or away from a certain wavelength of light). A plant's growth response to light is called phototropism, from the Greek words *trope* (for "turn") and *photo* (for "light"). A phototropic response involves the detection of a light wavelength by receptor molecules in plant cells, and transduction (i.e., conversion) of that signal into biochemical responses that lead to altered growth patterns.

Charles Darwin, the great evolutionary biologist, investigated grass seedlings' growth responses to blue light (about 460 nanometers in wavelength) as early as 1881. He already knew that growing plants would bend toward light coming from a single direction. However, he found that when he covered the tips of grass seedlings with a foil cap, the seedlings no longer tilted toward the light source. Normal bending occurred when he covered the seedling tips with a glass tube and when he covered the stem below the tip with an opaque collar. Darwin and his coinvestigator son, Francis, proposed that the seedlings were bending toward light in response to an "influence" that was transported down the stem from the growing tip.

In 1926, Fritz Went, a Dutch scientist, identified the chemical messenger that causes cells on the shaded side of a shoot to elongate and grow faster than cells on the lighted side, thereby bending the stem toward the light source.

He called this messenger hormone auxin. Today, synthetic auxins play important roles in agriculture as weed killers, and in preventing fruit from dropping off trees and bushes before it can be harvested.

Because stems grow toward a source of blue or white light (which, of course, contains wavelengths of light in the blue range), they are said to have a "positive" phototropic response. Conversely, roots have a weak response in the opposite direction. Because they grow away from a source of blue or white light, roots are said to have a "negative" phototropic response.

Plants also respond to red light, which can stimulate or inhibit seed germination, and sometimes has a role in the timing of flowering. These responses involve different receptor and signaling pathways than those related to phototropism. The roots of some plant species show a positive phototropic response to red light. Phototropism is an area of active investigation, with *Arabidopsis thaliana* mustard plants being studied in experiments on Earth and the International Space Station.

Gravity provides a much stronger stimulus than light does for root orientation, and also influences the direction of stem growth. If you place a plant seedling on its side in the dark, the stem still will curve upward and the roots will bend downward. This response to gravity is called gravitropism. Stems are negatively gravitropic and roots are positively gravitropic. Like phototropism, gravitropism involves auxin and different rates of cell elongation on the sides of the root or shoot. Special starch-containing structures, called amyloplasts, are believed to have a role in detecting gravity. Amyloplasts inside cells sink toward the direction of gravity's pull. ■

4



Wisconsin Fast Plants®, also known as a “rapid cycling *Brassica*,” are especially fast-growing, easily maintained varieties of *Brassica rapa* (field mustard, rapeseed, canola). While the species has long been cultivated for its oil, these varieties, which grow from seed to seed in just one month under constant illumination, are extensively used in schools to demonstrate flowering plant life cycles, Mendelian genetics and plant physiology. These flowers (above) were photographed on a two-week old plant. Photo © Robert A. Klips, Ph.D.

Find out more about Wisconsin Fast Plants® at www.fastplants.org. The site includes growing tips, downloadable explanations of the Fast Plants™ life cycle, and teaching resources and lessons for all grade levels.

Plants in Space Investigation: *Brassica rapa*

The Plants in Space investigation will focus on root growth in *Brassica rapa*, a member of the crucifer, or mustard, family of plants (which also includes cabbage, turnips, and broccoli). *Brassica rapa*, also known as Wisconsin Fast Plants® or rapid cycling *Brassica*, were developed over 30 years at the University of Wisconsin. This is an ideal plant for student study, and for an investigation of plant root growth in microgravity. First, its complete life cycle, starting with germination of a seed and ending with the production of new seeds, takes approximately 30 days. Substantial root growth occurs in just a few days. Second, other than continuous light and water, little care is needed to grow these plants through a complete life cycle.

To send astronauts to distant locations in space, we must be able to grow plants to produce food and oxygen, and to process waste. The experiment onboard the International Space Station (ISS) will include 72 *Brassica rapa* plants, started 18 at a time, in a total of four planting sessions. For each session of the flight investigation, seeds will be germinated in a clear gel and allowed to grow for five days before being replaced by new seeds. The investigation will conclude after 28 days. The gel, a variant of agar, will provide moisture for seed germination and the production of roots. Plants both in microgravity and on Earth will be provided with artificial lighting (blue-enriched white light) and will be germinated in the same manner.

The primary variable in the investigation will be the effects of gravity. In space, plants will not sense the direction of gravity, and therefore, will not be impacted by gravitropism. Plants on Earth, however, will show typical gravitropic responses (roots growing in the direction of gravitational pull). What will happen to plants grown in space aboard the ISS, where the effects of gravity are greatly reduced? How will the roots grown in microgravity compare with those of the same type of seeds in normal gravity on Earth? Will the lights in the plants’ growing chambers help roots to grow and orient themselves normally?

Students and other investigators will be able to download daily images from the ISS, showing primary and secondary root growth for comparison and study. Because these images will be available permanently on the BioEd Online website (www.bioedonline.org), teachers and students will have the option of delaying the start of their classroom investigations until a convenient point in the school year. The investigation does not depend upon calendar-coordinated observations, or even being conducted while the plants are on ISS. In fact, it is possible to use this module at any time. As long as images of the space plants are paired with those of Earth-based plants at the same elapsed growth time, the comparison and activities will be successful. ■

5



Media in flasks for experiments conducted on the Space Station, like the one above contain a professional grade, agar-like medium called gellan gum, sold commercially as Phytigel™

The germination flask above contains two different densities of Phytigel™. The higher density layer of media is visible about halfway down the flask.

Each flask is labeled with a serial number (S/N) and a color coded label to indicate different treatments. Gridlines on the flask are in 1/8-inch increments. Photo courtesy of BioServe Space Technologies.



NASA researchers experiment with different types of growth media. In a hydroponics chamber at Kennedy Space Center (above), plant physiologist Ray Wheeler checks onions grown using a mineral nutrient solution in water instead of soil. Bibb lettuce is growing to his left and radishes to his right. Photo courtesy of NASA.

Preparing Plant Growth Media and Flasks

Both agar agar and clear gelatin make excellent growing media to study plant root growth. When prepared, both types of media form clear gels that permit observation of the root formation process. Seeds inserted into these media will germinate using water locked within the gel.

Neither material provides nutrients for extended plant growth. But both agar agar and gelatin provide satisfactory nutrients for growth of at least five days, so there will be no need to add other nutrients.

MATERIALS

- 1,000 ml beaker (or pot)
- 30-ml, flat-sided flasks (available from science supply companies) OR clear, 8-dram pill bottles, (available from pharmacies)
- 2 level teaspoons of agar agar powder or flakes (to make low-density agar agar)
- Cup of distilled water
- Cooking thermometer
- Small funnel
- Hotplate
- Oven or heat-resistant gloves
- Safety goggles
- Spoon (to stir solution)
- Latex or non-latex glove (optional, to avoid cross contamination of flasks)

SETUP

Clear, 8-dram pill bottles may be substituted for flasks. The bottles are available from biological or pharmaceutical supply companies, and at most pharmacies.

Agar agar flakes or powder can be

purchased at some grocery and health food stores, or online at www.edenfoods.com, www.amazon.com, etc.

To create high-density agar agar, use one level tablespoon of agar agar powder or flakes per one cup of water.

Two packages of clear gelatin per one cup of distilled water may be substituted for the low-density agar agar. To make high density gelatin, use four packets of dry gelatin per one cup of water. Clear, dry gelatin packages are readily available at most grocery stores.

SAFETY ISSUES

Wear eye protection and handle the beaker with heat-resistant gloves or oven mitts to prevent scalding of the skin. Clean work areas with disinfectant and wash hands before and after this activity.

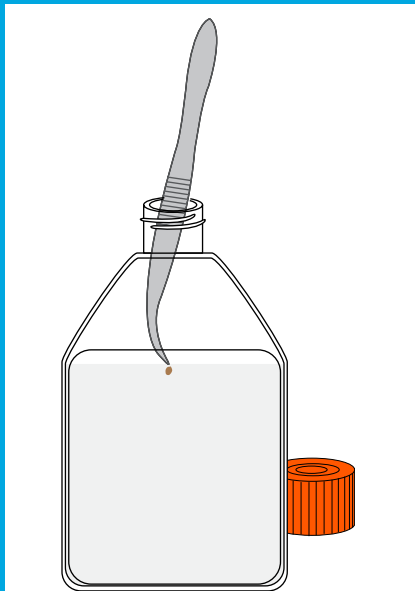
PROCEDURE

1. Heat one cup of water in a pan to the boiling point.
2. Add two level teaspoons of agar agar or gelatin mix to water and stir. When the water begins to boil, reduce the heat and simmer. Stir occasionally, until the flakes or powder are completely dissolved (about 5 minutes).
3. Allow the solution to cool for a few minutes before filling the flasks.
4. After the agar agar or gelatin cools completely, cap the flasks and store in a dark area until they are needed. With careful, antiseptic handling, the prepared media will remain usable for two to three weeks. ■

6



Demonstration of how an astronaut on the Space Station would insert a balsa wood strip with attached seeds into a prepared flask. Photo courtesy of BioServe Space Technologies.



Gently push the seed into the medium (about 1–2 mm). Illustration by G.L. Vogt © Baylor College of Medicine.

Note: See “Preparing Flasks with Plant Growth Media,” page 7, and “Controlled-Lighting Seed Growth Chambers,” page 9, prior to conducting this activity.

Inserting Seeds into Media-Prepared Flasks

A *Brassica rapa* seed has a small indentation on it, from which the radicle, (embryonic root), will emerge. Seed orientation in experiments conducted in microgravity are very important because gravity, and thus, gravitropism, is not at work. In an experiment on the ISS, (photo to the left), three seeds were glued to a small strip of balsa wood. The strip was inserted into the flask, and pushed slightly into the growth medium so the seeds could begin to germinate. Four strips of seeds were used, with three seeds per strip. The seeds on strip “A” were oriented with the root area in the “down,” position, seeds on strip “B” oriented “sideways,” and seeds on strip “C” oriented “up.” The same orientation structure would apply if using flasks filled with different density layers of media (strip “D” seeds were in the “down” position).

On Earth, plant seeds do not have to be oriented in any particular direction for most plant experiments because gravitropism ensures roots of plants will always grow downward and stems upward. The exception to this is when using a clinostat to simulate microgravity for experiments.

MATERIALS

- Wisconsin Fast Plants® *Brassica rapa* seeds, or other seeds, one per flask (available from Carolina Biological Supply Company, Nasco Science or other biological supply companies)
- Prepared flasks (see page 7)
- Prepared controlled-lighting seed growth chamber (see page 9)

- Logbook
- Marker pen
- Metric ruler (mm)
- Pencil with eraser tip
- Petri dish (or shallow container)
- Tweezers or forceps

SAFETY ISSUES

Clean work areas with disinfectant and wash hands before and after this activity.

PROCEDURE

1. Using the marker pen, give each seed flask its own number or other code. Record this identifying number or code in a logbook, along with the date and time the seed was planted, and the density (or density layers) of the growth medium in the flask.
2. Open the seed packet and gently pour some of the seeds into the Petri dish. Avoid touching the seeds with fingers and skin.
3. Carefully pick up a seed with the tweezers and place it, centered and on top of the growth medium in a flask (see illustration, lower left).
Note: More than one seed may be placed in a flask.
4. Using the pencil eraser, gently press the seed one or two millimeters into the growth medium.
5. Seal the flask with its lid and place it inside of a plant growth experiment chamber. ■

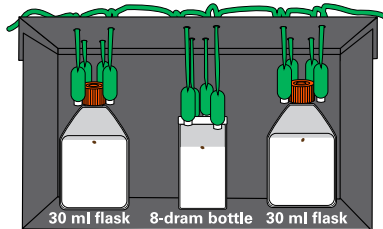
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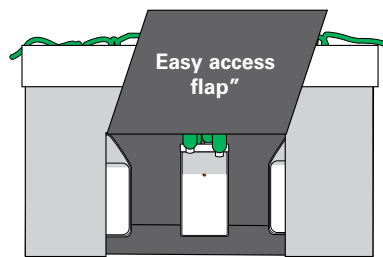
Photo of 30-ml flask viewed through an easy access “window” opening in a growth chamber created from a shoebox and white LED holiday lights.

Photo by Travis Kelleher © Baylor College of Medicine.

EXPERIMENT CHAMBER



Chamber interior, shown with one side of shoebox and one side of lid removed.



Closed chamber with viewing access flap raised. Not to scale.

Illustrations by G.L. Vogt and M.S. Young © Baylor College of Medicine.

Making a White-Light Seed Growth Chamber

There is no single blueprint for creating a controlled-lighting seed growth chamber. Students may design and construct chambers according to their own plans. However, for the investigation to work, all experiment chambers must provide the following.

- LED lights and mechanism to support four LED lights clustered near each seed flask or seed container.
- Dark enclosure that blocks all outside light from reaching inside the growth chamber. (Plants should be exposed to outside light only very briefly, and only during observation and data collection. Observations should be made in dim light or red light to minimize the effects on the outcomes of the experiment.)
- Easy access opening with flap to examine plants and collect data (Complete examinations and data collection as quickly as possible to minimize the amount of light entering the chambers.)

Some plant experiments on the Space Station have been conducted using white light enriched with blue light (blue wavelengths range from 400–490 nm). White holiday LED lights are a suitable, low-cost alternative for the classroom. Illustrations of a chamber made using a shoe box and white LED holiday lights are provided to the left.

MATERIALS

- Standard-size cardboard shoe box with removable lid
- Black tape (to hold lights in place on the lid and cover insertion holes to

keep out external light sources)

- Pair of scissors or knife
- Ruler
- White LED holiday light string (see “Safety Issues”)
- Access to electrical outlets

SETUP

If boxes and lids do not have dark interiors, cover the interior with black construction paper or black paint.

Optional: If a chamber is made from other materials, such as a clear soft drink bottle, the bottle will need to be covered with a black box.

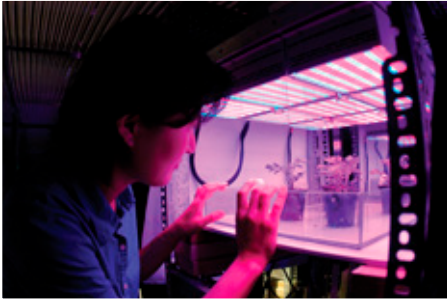
SAFETY ISSUES

Be sure to use LED holiday lights, not incandescent holiday bulbs. Incandescent lights produce heat that may become a fire hazard, injure the growing plants and/or soften the agar agar or gelatin. LED lights do not produce heat and are safe for the plants.

PROCEDURE

1. Use scissors to poke 12 holes in one end of the shoe box lid to accommodate 4 LED lights per flask (see top illustration). Insert LED lights into the holes.
3. On one end of the shoe box, cut out a squared U-shaped access flap to allow for viewing plants without exposing them to exterior lighting.
3. Cover the shoe box with the lid, with lights on the opposite end of the access flap.
4. Set chambers near an electrical outlet and away from windows. ■

8



In addition to testing different growth media, NASA scientists also investigate plants using different CO₂ concentrations and temperatures. Pictured above, Dr. Hyeon-Hye Kim checks plants in a chamber designed to test various light conditions. Such research is vital for long-term human habitation away from Earth. Photo courtesy of NASA.

REPEATING THE EXPERIMENT

The Plants in Space experiment on the ISS repeated four times, with each session running seven days. After each session, new seeds were started. The investigation ended after all four sessions had been completed. In total, the experiment aboard the ISS used 72 plants (18 plants per session for four sessions).

You may wish for students to consider how many times they will repeat their Earth-based experiments, and how many seeds they will include in each repetition.

COMPARISON DATA

All photographs of the experiments on the ISS are labeled by date and time, and made available on BioEd Online (www.bioedonline.org).

How Does Light Affect Root Growth?

Plant stems have a “positive” phototropic response to light because normally, they grow toward a source of blue or white light. Conversely, roots have a weak or “negative” phototropic response because they grow away from blue or white light.

MATERIALS

- *Brassica rapa* seeds (Wisconsin Fast Plants®)
- Prepared flasks with media (p. 7)
- Prepared experiment chambers (p. 9)
- Logbook (class or individual)
- Marker pens
- Metric rulers (mm)
- Pencils with eraser tip
- Petri dishes (or shallow containers)
- Tweezers or forceps
- Access to electrical outlets, away from windows, if possible.

SETUP

Wisconsin Fast Plants® germinate within 24 hours, so schedule student investigations accordingly. (Planting on a Monday might be advisable, unless students have access over the weekend.)

Plant seeds do not have to be oriented in any particular direction for lighting experiments on Earth since the roots will grow downward because of gravitropism.

Prepare media, flasks and experiment chambers (see pages 7 and 9). If grade-level appropriate, have students prepare media, flasks and build chambers.

SAFETY ISSUES

Clean work areas with disinfectant and wash hands before and after this activity.

Avoid touching seeds with fingers or skin. Follow all school district and school science laboratory safety rules.

PROCEDURE

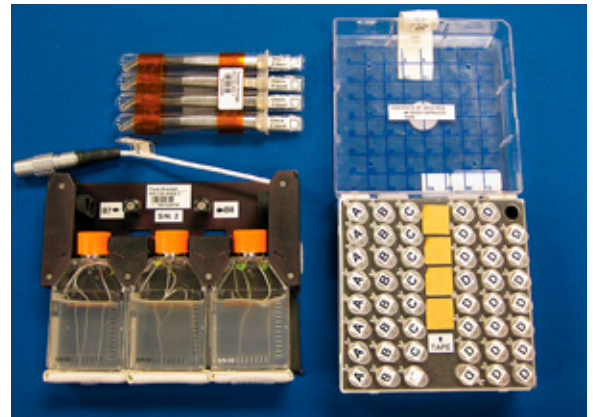
1. Provide opportunities for students to learn about *Brassica rapa* plants.
2. Have students design their experiments (type of media and density used, number of seeds per flask, number of flasks, codes used to identify flasks, number of experiment repetitions, etc.; see “Repeating the Experiment,” left.)
3. Instruct students to code the flask lids, and record flask codes, medium density (or densities if layered), date/time seeds are planted, etc., in a logbook.
4. Tell students to gently pour *Brassica rapa* seeds into the Petri dish.
5. Instruct students to pick up one seed with tweezers and place it centered and on top of the medium in a flask. Have them use the eraser end of the pencil to gently press the seed one or two millimeters into the medium (repeat if more than one is desired).
6. Have students seal the flask with its lid, place it inside of an experiment chamber, cover the chamber with its lid (lights over flasks), then turn on the LED lights.
7. Have students record observations once or twice per day for five to seven days (or more).
8. Have students compare their results with those of STS-134, available online at www.bioedonline.org/. ■

STS-134 Protocol for *Brassica rapa*

Brassica rapa, or Wisconsin Fast Plants® are flowering plants that belong to the mustard family. These plants have a very quick life cycle of about a month, and in Earth's gravity environment, germination typically takes place after 1 to 2 days. By day 4, the stem will begin to experience significant growth toward the source of lighting, while the roots grow in the opposite direction to anchor the plant. Flowering of the plant takes place around day 14. Around day 35 (5 weeks), the plant begins to wilt and die.

The science objective of this mission is to examine the growth of *Brassica roots* in microgravity when grown under continuous white light (phototropism) and when the seeds are intentionally planted in different orientations.

- Preflight:** A seed box holding 27 balsa wood seed sticks mounted with *Brassica rapa* seeds (3 seeds per stick) inserted into individual seed stick tubes, two flask brackets to hold germination flasks (3 flasks per bracket), a storage box of tweezers, light barrier and stow bag insert will be assembled into flight configuration and shipped to NASA Kennedy Space Center (KSC) prior to launch.
- Five days prior to launch:** Phytigel™ (water-based medium) will be prepared and poured into seed germination flasks. The flasks will contain labels on the face, 1/8-inch gridlines and serial numbers which will either be black on clear ("light" condition) or white on clear "dark" condition) for visibility in both lighting conditions. Final assembly of the germination flasks will take place at KSC.
- Launch and Delivery:** The stow bag will be handed over 36 hours prior to launch of STS-134, for delivery and transfer of experiment components to the International Space Station (ISS).
- Aboard the ISS:** Temperature on the ISS will be about 25°C. *Brassica* growth is at its highest in a moist environment. Due to conditions on the ISS, the *Brassica* will be kept in an environment with 50% humidity.
- Lighting:** Proper lighting is crucial to this experiment. The bracket to hold the germination flasks is equipped to provide white light and infrared (IR) light to each individual flask from two separate downward angles, as well as backdrop lighting near the top of the flask. The "light" condition will utilize only the white lights. The "dark" configuration will utilize the IR lights, which are turned on only when photos are taken. Half of the plants will experience only the dark conditions. The other half will experience 24 hours of light.
- Planting:** A total of four separate plantings will occur. *Brassica* seed sticks will be inserted into flasks pre-filled with Phytigel™.
 - Installation and Seed Planting** A crewmember transfers 1 seed stick into each germination flask, inserts the flasks into the two brackets and installs both brackets and two camera modules into the CGBA Science Insert. Historical video will be captured of the planting activity for documentation.
 - Seed Planting 2–4:** A crewmember replaces the germination flasks with new seed sticks and germination flasks, and inserts flasks into the brackets.
- Measurements and observations:** Daily observations will be made of each flask during the experiment and



Sample of experiment components. Photo courtesy of BioServe Space Technologies.

results documented.

- Plant growth will be measured via units placed on the growth container at 1/8-inch increments. Images will be taken every 30 minutes during all 24 hours of each day. For each time lapse between images taken, the growth can be estimated to obtain a growth rate of both the roots and stems of the *Brassica* plant.
- As the experiment progresses, the Phytigel™ will begin to warp and decrease in volume as nutrients are consumed by the plants. Measuring the change in height of the Phytigel™ over time will help determine if this change is correlated with growth rates in the plants. Notes can also be made about whether the Phytigel™ has begun to pull away from the sides of the flask and if it is breaking up into small pieces.
- Other observations can be made, such as whether contamination has occurred within the plant flask, and the stage that the plant is currently in (germination, flowering, etc.). These observations may be key when comparing a generally accepted life cycle for *Brassica* plants with outcomes in microgravity. ■

Teaming with Benefits

by Jeffrey P. Sutton, M.D., Ph.D., Director, National Space Biomedical Research Institute (NSBRI)

Space is a challenging environment for the human body. With long-duration missions, the physical and psychological stresses and risks to astronauts are significant. Finding answers to these health concerns is at the heart of the National Space Biomedical Research Institute's program. In turn, the Institute's research is helping to enhance medical care on Earth.



Dr. Jeffrey P. Sutton

NSBRI, a unique partnership between NASA and the academic and industrial communities, is advancing biomedical research with the goal of ensuring a safe and productive long-term human presence in space. By developing new approaches and countermeasures to prevent, minimize and reverse critical risks to health, the Institute plays an essential, enabling role for NASA. NSBRI bridges the research, technological and clinical expertise of the biomedical community with the scientific, engineering and operational expertise of NASA.

With nearly 60 science, technology and education projects, NSBRI engages investigators at leading institutions across the nation to conduct goal-directed, peer-reviewed research in a team approach. Key working relationships have been established with end users, including astronauts and flight surgeons at Johnson Space Center, NASA scientists and engineers, other federal agencies, industry and international partners. The value of these collaborations and revolutionary research advances that result from them is enormous and

unprecedented, with substantial benefits for both the space program and the American people.

Through our strategic plan, NSBRI takes a leadership role in countermeasure development and space life sciences education. The results-oriented research and development program is integrated and implemented using focused teams, with scientific and management directives that are innovative and dynamic. An active Board of Directors, External Advisory Council, Board of Scientific Counselors, User Panel, Industry Forum and Academic Consortium help guide NSBRI in achieving its goals and objectives.

It will become necessary to perform more investigations in the unique environment of space. The vision of using extended exposure to microgravity as a laboratory for discovery and exploration builds upon the legacy of NASA and our quest to push the frontier of human understanding about nature and ourselves.

NSBRI is maturing in an era of unparalleled scientific and technological advancement and opportunity. We are excited by the challenges confronting us, and by our collective ability to enhance human health and well-being in space, and on Earth.

NSBRI RESEARCH AREAS

CARDIOVASCULAR PROBLEMS

The amount of blood in the body is reduced when astronauts are in microgravity. The heart grows smaller and weaker, which makes astronauts feel dizzy and weak when they return to Earth. Heart failure and diabetes, experienced by many people on Earth, lead to similar problems.

HUMAN FACTORS AND PERFORMANCE

Many factors can impact an astronaut's ability to work well in space or on the lunar surface. NSBRI is studying ways to improve daily living and keep crew members healthy, productive and safe during exploration missions. Efforts focus on reducing performance errors, improving nutrition, examining ways to improve sleep and scheduling of work shifts, and studying how specific types of lighting in the craft and habitat can improve alertness and performance.

MUSCLE AND BONE LOSS

When muscles and bones do not have to work against gravity, they weaken and begin to waste away. Special exercises and other strategies to help astronauts' bones and muscles stay strong in space also may help older and bedridden people, who experience similar problems on Earth, as well as people whose work requires intense physical exertion, like firefighters and construction workers.

NEUROBEHAVIORAL AND STRESS FACTORS

To ensure astronaut readiness for space flight, preflight prevention programs are being developed to avoid as many risks as possible to individual and

group behavioral health during flight and post flight. People on Earth can benefit from relevant assessment tests, monitoring and intervention.

RADIATION EFFECTS AND CANCER

Exploration missions will expose astronauts to greater levels and more varied types of radiation. Radiation exposure can lead to many health problems, including acute effects such as nausea, vomiting, fatigue, skin injury and changes to white blood cell counts and the immune system. Longer-term effects include damage to the eyes, gastrointestinal system, lungs and central nervous system, and increased cancer risk. Learning how to keep astronauts safe from radiation may improve cancer treatments for people on Earth.

SENSORIMOTOR AND BALANCE ISSUES

During their first days in space, astronauts can become dizzy and nauseous. Eventually they adjust, but once they return to Earth, they have a hard time walking and standing upright. Finding ways to counteract these effects could benefit millions of people with balance disorders.

SMART MEDICAL SYSTEMS AND TECHNOLOGY

Since astronauts on long-duration missions will not be able to return quickly to Earth, new methods of remote medical diagnosis and treatment are necessary. These systems must be small, low-power, noninvasive and versatile. Portable medical care systems that monitor, diagnose and treat major illness and trauma during flight will have immediate benefits to medical care on Earth.

For current, in-depth information on NSBRI's cutting-edge research and innovative technologies, visit www.nsbri.org.