Assessing the impact of indoor plants towards physical indoor office building environment in hot and humid climates

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Abstract

Several studies have shown that plants with a variety of performance categories can improve indoor air quality (IAQ). In addition, it has positive impacts on occupants' concentration ability, work efficiency, job satisfaction, mental health, stress reduction, and sense of well-being. However, there is few research that have focused on the impact of indoor plants towards physical indoor environment. Therefore, this study performs several experiments to examine the impacts of indoor plants on physical indoor environment in Malaysia. This study further observes the use of five different species of potted plants and its effects on the IAQ concerning the physical parameters of air temperature and relative humidity in a classroom and an office room setting environment. Moreover, this paper explores the function of plants as a natural air purifying agent and temperature regulation, as it helps to cool down the internal temperature of a building while providing areas of the building with an aesthetic element. This study involves the assessment of plant and indoor space benefit studies, as well as the description of plant varieties and characteristics. Finally, the overall findings from several experiments show significant differences in relative humidity and total target volatile organic compound (TVOC) in the room. With intervention, it can be concluded that the inclusion of potted plants in a room have improved all parameters measured compared with that in normal condition. For future works, it is proposed that further study is done on the form of species, including the importance of understanding the need for positioning the potted plants in indoor environments.

Keywords: Indoor environment; indoor environmental quality; potted plants; plant species; relative humidity.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Numerous studies have found that plants in a variety of performance categories have a positive impact on people. For example, the appearance of attractive foliage has been found to improve the general impression of building environments, value, and quality. NASA's pioneering experiments in the 1980s have successfully shown that plants can eliminate the ambient concentration of numerous total volatile organic compounds (TVOCs); however, these results are based on a simplified experimental approach by Wolverton B.C., Mcdonald R.C. [1]. Typically, indoor plants are selected based on their aesthetic and attractive characteristics rather than functional criteria, which reflect their ability to remove air pollutants [2]. Moreover, indoor plants also oxygenate the atmosphere [3, 4], thus increasing the attractiveness of the environment [5].

Over several decades, the impacts of indoor plants on humans have been thoroughly studied. The results are mostly similar, where plants are observed to be useful in terms of taskperformance-related indicators or (e.g., concentration ability, work efficiency, job satisfaction), health (e.g., mental/happiness or stress reduction), and sense of well-being. With regard to job- and performance-related indicators, Lohr, Pearson-Mims [6] conducted an experiment involving reaction-time measurement, in which it was found that the reaction times were 12% quicker when participants were introduced to indoor plants, suggesting that indoor plants could improve the efficiency of office workers in a windowless environment. In a more recent study on windowless underground environment, indoor plants were found to improve perceptions along the semantic differential scales "Artificial-Natural", "Unsuitable for a task-Suitable for a task" and "Monotonous-Diverse"; hence, it is deemed to be able to reduce the response time in the task given [7].

Additionally, when a cross-sectional study of 385 Norwegian office workers was conducted by Bringslimark, Hartig [8], the numbers of plants placed close to each worker were found to be negatively correlated with sick leaves and positively associated with increased productivity. In a controlled laboratory experiment, the focus ability of the participants with respect to the plant condition is seen to increase, showing a positive relationship between indoor plants and job-related measures [9], as well as level of job satisfaction [10].

In relation to health, Dijkstra, Pieterse [5] conducted an experiment involving indoor plants portraying a picture of an outdoor landscape in an artificial window, and found the indoor plants managed to lower the stress level. In another hospital setting, Park and Mattson [11] observed that both flowering and foliage plants improved pain tolerance for patients following treatment, suggesting that plants could be a cost-effective and efficient in healing process. In addition, Whear, Coon [12] did a study on dementia-related behaviours in response to time in a garden or engaged in horticultural activities from at least 17 research findings. It was found that rehabilitation services in parks with walking trails, non-toxic trees and shrubs, grass fields, raised beds, gazebos, fish ponds, and benches could reduce anxiety. Dementia, fall reduction, and functional ability with elderly populations were also reported to improve after greenspace interventions were carried out [13]. Apart from research in hospital settings, numerous experiments of office environments have been performed with regard to indoor plants. For example, in the reduction of neuropsychological and mucous membrane symptoms, Fjeld T. [14] found that foliage plants in the office environment help in increasing the health of employees.

The ability to function physically is a key indicator of any person to perform daily activities, not only of elderly population [15, 16], but also with the younger generation [17, 18]. The relationship between physical activity levels and executive control functioning (i.e., those processes involving working memory, inhibition, and mental flexibility) was seen to be highly significant [17], leading to productivity and comfort in an indoor environment. Research on the direct and indirect effects of indoor performance on the productivity of its occupants can be traced back to the 1930s when Vernon and Bedford [19] and Maslow [20] published their work on the environment and needs of the workplace. To date, there are still many researches highlighting on the influence

of the physical indoor environment on the productivity of its occupants in the workplace environment. Various methods were established to enhance productivity [21], happiness [22], health and well-being [23, 24], thermal comfort [25, 26], visual comfort [27, 28], energy savings [29, 30], and indoor air quality [31, 32], among others. However, studies on the effect of indoor plants towards the physical indoor environment are still very limited.

2.0 BACKGROUND

Plants can improve indoor air quality (IAQ) by continuously removing carbon dioxide (CO_2) and releasing oxygen (O_2) via light-dependant photosynthesis and by increasing air humidity by water vapour from the leaves through microscopic pores of the leaf called stomata. [33]. A more reliable experiments by Fares, Paoletti [34] simulating long-term foliage exposure to typical indoor air pollutant concentrations have shown that stomatal (dependent) absorption is 30-100 times higher than that passively adsorbed through nonstomatal deposition. Plants are highly recommended for indoor workplace emissions control for refreshments. aesthetic enhancement, and emotional assistance for indoor users. The selection of pollution sensitive plants is recommended as the early warning system to indicate indoor air pollutions with the purpose of keeping the user safe from Sick Building Syndrome (SBS).

Potted plants are able to reduce dust levels [35], stabilise humidity and temperature, and lower noise levels [36]. There is also a growing body of evidence that show the direct measured benefits to the health and well-being of building occupants, which seemed to be the result of the capacity of pot-plants to produce cleaner air [37, 38], as well as their ability to provide feelings of pleasure, calm, and relief from attention fatigue [39]. Most of the reviewed studies found that the presence of plant in the building had a positive effect on the occupant. Conducted a one-week room test to measure the signs of well-being and discomfort among 120 junior high school students with three interventions in three standard classrooms [40]. The study result found a lower mean score

of 21% for health symptoms in plant-based classrooms, while a more positive evaluation describing it as more beautiful, brighter, and more comfortable. In addition, Shibata and Suzuki [41] performed a randomised study with repeated tests on a total of 70 students under a simulated office environment without windows and found that there is a higher response rate with plants and no major mood or fatigue effects were detected in a room with plants.

Another study by Khan, Younis [4] adopted and measured a method using quasiexperiment with a single post-test on a total of 222 Master's and graduate students, as well as 28 teachers at a college, by introducing potted plants in the classrooms of the college. Based on the findings, majority reported that the plants had helped to improve air quality, increase pleasantness, and enhance their performance. Other than that, a study conducted by Burchett demonstrated et al. (2011)potential contributions of several indoor plant species to lower CO₂ indoor levels. The results found that this situation normally occurred in workplace with low light intensity. This low efficiency in CO₂ removal resulted in the breathing of nongreen plant tissues and the potting mix of microorganisms producing CO₂ emissions that counterbalanced leaf uptake in order to achieve no net CO₂ reduction. The light intensity was suggested to be increased together with the reduction of potting mix microorganisms for potted plants to be a viable instrument in reducing indoor CO₂ loads. In addition to reducing potting mix microorganisms for potted plants, it was recommended that the light frequency be increased as a feasible method for reducing indoor CO₂ loads. Furthermore, indoor plants with Taiwanese junior high school students have been shown to be effective in terms of hours of sick leave and misbehaviour (e.g., punishment record) [42]. In this study, six plants were placed at the back of the classroom, and the finding shows immediate, significant, and stronger feelings of preference, comfort, and friendliness, compared with that of the control group.

The selection of plants in a building to mitigate air pollution depends not only on their ability to clean the air, but also on their growth habit, their ease of growing and maintaining, and their light requirements. Plants are thought to have a profound influence on the psychological well-being and serenity of the people in the building. In addition, it has been shown that plants have a measurable beneficial effect on individuals in living and working spaces. The presence of plants in the workplace has documented numerous benefits, including improved employee morale, increased productivity, and reduced absenteeism. Research has found that, in addition to plants bringing charm to a room and making it an attractive place to live or work, people tend to feel relaxed and calm when they are close to the plants. For indoor elimination of air pollution, many foliage plants have been shown to reduce volatile organic compounds (TVOCs) [37, 43-45], particulate matter [46, 47], ozone [48], carbon dioxide [49, 50], carbon monoxide, and nitrogen dioxide [51]. On the contrary, Priyamvada, Priyanka [52] found that human

occupancy and potted plants are the main contributors to the high concentrations of indoor bacteria (> 800 CFU m⁻³). Fine-tocoarse bioaerosol fractions implied the abundant presence of coarse mode bacteria and fungi representing more than 80% of the total cultivable bioaerosol load across all sites. *Bacilli* and *Gammaproteobacteria* dominated the bacterial aerosols, while *Cladosporium* and *Aspergillus* dominated the fungal aerosols.

Hence, not all plant species have been proven to be equally effective and it cannot be concluded that all indoor plants can remove harmful pollutants. The table below summarises the characteristics used in previous studies on the selection of indoor plants. According to the information provided in Table 1.0, two family plant species known as Araceae and Asparagaceae are mostly used and justified.

Species of	A	B	С	D	_		TVOC Removal	Reference			
plants											
Acanthaceae	V	\checkmark	\checkmark				Benzene, octane, α pinene, toluene, trichloroethylene	Kim, Yoo [53], Kim, Cha [7], Yang, Pennisi [54], Yoo, Kwon [55]			
Apocynaceae		\checkmark	\checkmark				Formaldehyde, Toluene, Trichloroethylene, Tetrachloroethylene, Benzene, octane, α- pinene	Kim Kwang Jin. and Kim Hyoung Deug. [56], Kim, Kil [57] Kim K., Jeong M. [58], Kim, Yoo [53], Kondo, Hasegawa [59] Yang, Pennisi [54]			
Aquifoliaceae		\checkmark	\checkmark				Toluene	Kim, Yoo [53], Sriprapat, Suksabye [45]			
Araceae	N		\checkmark	V	V	V	Formaldehyde, acetone, xylene, benzene, toluene	Aydogan and Montoya [60], Baosheng, Shibata [61], Kim Kwang Jin. and Kim Hyoung Deug. [56], Kim, Kil [57] Orwell, Wood [43], Oyabu, Onodera [62], Oyabu, Sawada [38], Sawada, Yoshida [63], Sawada and Oyabu [64], Tani and Hewitt [65], Tani, Kato [66], Treesubsuntorn and Thiravetyan [44], Xu, Wang [67], Yang, Pennisi [54], Chun, Yoo [68], Wolverton B.C., Mcdonald R.C. [1], Wolverton B. C. and Wolverton J. D. [69], Zhou, Qin [70], Orwell Ralph L, Wood Ronald A [71],			
Araliaceae	V	\checkmark	\checkmark				Formaldehyde, toluene, xylene	Aydogan and Montoya [60], Wolverton B. C. and Wolverton J. D. [69], Wolverton B.C., Mcdonald R.C. [1]			

Table 1.0 List of family plant species.

Acromogogogo					1		Formaldehyde,	Kim Kwang Jin. and Kim Hyoung	
Asparagaceae	1	V	N	N	N	V	benzene, xylene,	Deug. [56], Oyabu, Sawada [38],	
							Toluene, m-xylene,	Themanson, Pontifex [18],	
							1010010, 111 11,10110,	Wolverton B.C., Mcdonald R.C.	
								[1], Wolverton B. C. and	
								Wolverton J. D. [69], Yang,	
								Pennisi [54], Zhou, Qin [70],	
								Orwell, Wood [43], Orwell Ralph	
								L, Wood Ronald A [71], Godish	
								and Guindon [72]	
Asphodelaceae							Formaldehyde, xylene,	Wolverton B. C. and Wolverton J.	
							Benzene,	D. [69], Wolverton B.C.,	
	1	1					trichloroethylene	Mcdonald R.C. [1], Xu, Wang [67]	
Asteraceae		\checkmark			\checkmark		Formaldehyde,	Aydogan and Montoya [60], Liu,	
							benzene, trichloroethylene,	Mu [73], Wolverton B. C. and Wolverton J. D. [69], Wolverton	
							toluene, xylene	B.C., Mcdonald R.C. [1], Kim,	
							toluelle, xylelle	Yoo [53], Wood, Orwell [74]	
Begoniaceae							Toluene	Kim, Yoo [53], Kim and de Dear	
Desonaceae	V	V	V		V	V		[75]	
Bromeliaceae							Formaldehyde, xylene,	Wolverton B. C. and Wolverton J.	
							Benzene, octane, α-	D. [69], Yang, Pennisi [54],	
							pinene, toluene,		
							trichloroethylene		
Commelinacea							Benzene, pentane,	Yang, Pennisi [54], Yoo, Kwon	
e	1	1				1	toluene	[55]	
Convolvulacea e		V					Formaldehyde	Wolverton B.C., Mcdonald R.C. [1],	
Crassulaceae							Benzene, pentane,	Cornejo, Muñoz [76]	
						'	toluene	Comejo, Manoz [70]	
Davalliaceae							Toluene	Kim, Yoo [53]	
Ericaceae			\checkmark				Toluene,	De Kempeneer, Sercu [77],	
							Formaldehyde, xylene	Wolverton B. C. and Wolverton J.	
							<u> </u>	D. [69], Kim, Yoo [53]	
Euphorbiaceae	$$	\checkmark				V	Formaldehyde, xylene,	Wolverton B. C. and Wolverton J.	
							Benzene, octane, α-	D. [69], Yang, Pennisi [54],	
							pinene, toluene, trichloroethylene		
Fern						2	Formaldehyde,	Oyabu, Sawada [38], Wolverton B.	
I'UIII	V		V	V		N	benzene, xylene	C. and Wolverton J. D. [69], Liu,	
							conzene, xyrene	Mu [73], Barboni, Leonelli [78]	
Geraniaceae							Benzene, pentane,	Kim, Yoo [53], Cornejo, Muñoz	
			'		'	'	toluene, octane, α -	[76] Yang, Pennisi [54]	
							pinene, toluene,		
							trichloroethylene		
Herbaceous	\checkmark						Formaldehyde, xylene,	Wolverton B. C. and Wolverton J.	
							benzene, toluene	D. [69], Yang, Pennisi [54], Zhou,	
								Qin [70],	
Hydrangeacea	$$						Benzene	Liu, Mu [73]	
e Lomiococo		. 1	.1				Formaldahuda Talaan	<i>V</i> im Voc [52]	
Lamiaceae Lauraceae			$\sqrt{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}}$				Formaldehyde, Toluene Toluene	Kim, Yoo [53] Kim, Yoo [53]	
Liliaceae		$\frac{}{}$							
Linaceae		γ	ν		γ		Formaldehyde, xylene	ylene Wolverton B. C. and Wolverton J. D. [69], Zhou, Qin [70],	
Malvaceae							Benzene, toluene, m/p-		
			·		_ `		xylene, o-xylene		
Marantaceae							Benzene, octane, α-	Yang, Pennisi [54]	
							pinene, toluene,		
							trichloroethylene		
							aremorocuryicite		

Moracae			\checkmark			Formaldehyde, xylene, benzene	Kim, Kil [79], Wolverton B. C. and Wolverton J. D. [69], Wolverton B.C., Mcdonald R.C. [1], Yang, Pennisi [54]
Musaceae			\checkmark			Benzene, formaldehyde, trichloroethylene	Wolverton B.C., Mcdonald R.C. [1],
Oleaceae						Toluene	Kim, Yoo [53]
Orchidaceae	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark		\checkmark	Formaldehyde, Benzene, xylene	Kim Kwang Jin. and Kim Hyoung Deug. [56]. Liu, Mu [73], Wolverton B. C. and Wolverton J. D. [69]
Pentaphylacac eae						Toluene	Kim, Yoo [53]
Pinaceae						Toluene	Kim, Yoo [53]
Piperaceae			\checkmark	\checkmark		Benzene, octane, α- pinene, toluene, trichloroethylene	Yang, Pennisi [54]
Pittosporaceae						Toluene	Kim, Yoo [53]
Primulaceae	1	\checkmark	\checkmark			Benzene,pentane,toluen e, formaldehyde, xylene	Cornejo, Muñoz [76], Kim Kwang Jin. and Kim Hyoung Deug. [56], Kim, Yoo [53], Wolverton B. C. and Wolverton J. D. [69]
Rubiaceae		\checkmark			\checkmark	Formaldehyde, Benzene	Treesubsuntorn and Thiravetyan [44], Kim, Kil [57]
Ruscaceae		\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	Formaldehyde, Benzene	Treesubsuntorn and Thiravetyan [44], Zhou, Qin [70],
Rutaceae						Benzene	Liu, Mu [73]
Saxifragaceae	\checkmark	·			\checkmark	Benzene, pentane, toluene	Cornejo, Muñoz [76]
Solanaceae		\checkmark	\checkmark		V	Benzene, chloroform, perchloroethylene, toluene, trichloroethylene, vinyl chloride, Formaldehyde, styrene, xylene	Sawada and Oyabu [64]
Urticaceae	\checkmark					Toluene	Kim, Yoo [53]
Verbenaceae	\checkmark					Toluene	Kim, Yoo [53]
Vitaceae	\checkmark					Formaldehyde, xylene, Benzene	Yoo, Kwon [55], Wolverton B. C. and Wolverton J. D. [69]

Note: A: Non-woody foliage stem; B: Aesthetic effect: conspicuous and attractive flower; C: Climatic suitability (especially suitable in tropic climate); D: Minimum care: Low water and sun requirement; E: Growth pattern: household plants, not climbing; F: Height and spread: (prefer plants that are not too big and tall); G: TVOC removal.

3.0 MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1. Study area

Malaysia is located between latitude 1°N and 7°N and longitude 0° and 119°E in the equatorial region of Southeast Asia. The climate is described as hot and humid with minor temperature fluctuations throughout the year. The Köppen-Geiger climate classification of this region is an Af, Tropical Rainforest climate. The region is also characterised by heavy rains during monsoon seasons. A study of the Malaysian climate by Mahmud, M [80] shows the average wind speed is less than 1.5 m/s throughout the year. This confirms that light winds and calm conditions occur across all states in the region, including Kuala Lumpur, for approximately 40% of the time in a year.

Although Malaysia does not experience extreme temperatures, the temperature is relatively high all year round. This is mainly due to its insularity and moderate relief. All parts of the country are within 80 miles of the sea and the entire country is permanently bathed in the warm moist tropical maritime air. In general, the temperature seldom rises above 36°C or falls below 20°C. The annual mean temperature varies between 1°C-3°C of the mean shade air temperature of 27°C. Another specification of the Malaysian climate is the high relative humidity rate throughout the day and night with an average annual mean relative humidity of 85%. However, the trend of humidity change is reversed when compared to the trend of temperature change, as the relative humidity during the day is lower than that at night. During the day, the relative humidity varies between 55% and 70%, whereas at night, it rises above 95%, which often leads to evaporation and makes sleeping difficult.

Daghigh R., Adam [81] investigated the thermal comfort range of eleven airconditioned offices in Malaysia. The results showed that the comfort range for these building types ranged from 20.8°C to 28.6°C. An overview of the research on thermal comfort range in office buildings in tropical climates reveals that the upper limit of the comfort range fluctuates between 27.5°C and 28.6°C for airconditioned offices in Malaysia [82], and 30.5°C for naturally ventilated and airconditioned office spaces in Bangkok [83]. The unsatisfactory of thermal comfort proportionately linked to the condition of the IAQ in Malaysian's indoor environment. Air Movement, Ventilation, and Freshness were seen to be of poor quality due to the high occupancy density in classrooms [84]. Relative humidity in Malaysia generally decreases with higher air temperature. This means that the relative humidity is low when the air temperature is high, but the thermal sensation of the occupants increases because the air temperature has more effect on the thermal sensation of the occupant rather than the effect of relative humidity. The IAQ in classrooms is also often seen to be inadequate and often much worse than in office buildings. One of the main reasons for this difference is that occupancy in classrooms is generally denser.

3.2 Initial study on indoor environment intervention with potted plants

А classroom setting with an intervention was carried out with four small potted plants placed at each four corners of the classroom. Prior to this intervention. measurement on the physical parameters, i.e., indoor and outdoor air temperature, relative humidity and air velocity were taken. Total Volatile Organic Compound (TVOC) and CO2 were also monitored. Three poles holding devices for the physical parameter's measurement were located in the middle (Pole C) and at the back (Poles A and B) of the classroom at the height of 1.1 m. A device measuring both TVOC and CO₂ was located in the middle of the class at the same height devices at Pole C. Based on the experimental setup in this classroom carried out by Jamaludin, Mahyuddin [85], several parameters were seen to be improved significantly when the intervention was introduced.



Figure 1.0. Comparison of relative humidity in a classroom in a normal classroom and that with intervention.

The comparison of relative humidity between normal condition and the intervention in Figure 1.0 shows that the relative humidity level has dropped quite substantially when plants were placed in the classroom. It can be noted that the level of RH measured at Pole C (middle of the classroom) has similar pattern of distribution in both situations. However, readings in both Poles A and B, which are located near to the potted plants, were seen to be declining throughout the measuring period. The level of relative humidity at Pole B appears to be below the recommended threshold limit value set by DOSH and Malaysian Standard, as listed in 1.0. The US EPA recommends Table

maintaining indoor relative humidity between 30% and 60% [86], while ASHRAE Standard 62.1-2016 [87] recommends that relative humidity in occupied spaces be controlled to less than 65% to reduce the likelihood of conditions that can lead to microbial growth. High humidity environment can also affect the perceptibility of air quality [88] and induce mould growth, leading to breathing discomfort and allergies [89, 90]. Low humidity environment below 30% RH, on the other hand, is associated with skin and throat dryness, mucous membrane, sensory irritation of eyes [91-93], as well as static electricity [94].

 Table 1.0: Recommended relative humidity parameter in an air-conditioned space for comfort

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cooning.										
Standard	ASHRAE standard	DOSH (ICOP IAQ) -	Malaysia Standard							
	[87]	2010 [95]	(MS 1525) - 2014 [96]							
Relative Humidity (RH)	40%-60%	40%-70%	50%-70%							

The overall findings from this experiment demonstrate significant differences in the relative humidity and the TVOC in the classroom with intervention, as recorded in Table 2.0. It can be concluded that the presence of potted plants in the classroom has improved all parameters measured, compared with normal condition i.e., with no potted plants. Although the outdoor environment could not be controlled, but in relation to the indoor-outdoor ratio, the intervention classroom is of better quality. Owing to the significant decline in the relative humidity readings, it is observed that the number of potted plants placed in an enclosed environment could possibly be the main cause. In addition to this, another possible argument is that the temperature during the test day with intervention was higher than the normal condition test day with approximately 2°C and 4°C temperature differences indoor and outdoor, respectively. For a classroom with high temperature, i.e., hot, there is a possibility that vapour is absorbed by the soil from the potted plants. Moreover, air movement was also

found to be almost stagnant within the classroom [85], which reduces the level of relative humidity significantly. Hence, further investigation was carried out to further justify the results of fluctuations in RH when potted plant was used this study.

	Average value (9.00 a.m. to 5.00 p.m.)								
	Temper	ature	Relative	Humidity	Carbon	TVOC			
Parameters	(°C)	(%	6)	Dioxide	(ppm)			
					(ppm)				
	Outdoor	Indoor	Outdoor	Indoor	9.00 a.m. to 5.00 p.m.				
Normal Classroom	28.3	27.9	76.4	61.6	1084	11.7			
Intervention Setting	33.3	29.7	71.5	43.8	781.89	1.5			

Table 2.0 Summary of measurement results in both normal and intervened classrooms

3.3 Case study

This study aims to investigate the indoor air quality of an office room with potted plants. The quantity and the selection of indoor plants species will be carried to elaborate further on the suitability of having potted plants in an indoor environment with regard to the reduction of TVOC, as well as the air temperature and relative humidity. In this study, an air freshener is used as the intermediate material (sources of TVOC) for an intervention setting (simulated office setting). The office selected for the purpose of this study is located in Kuala Lumpur, and the area of the room is 4.5×4.03 m, as shown in Figure 2.0. The room mainly consisted of wooden furniture, which included desks cabinets and chairs. The room was ventilated by a single unit air-conditioning and glazing window along one side of the walls. For the purpose of this study, the room was unoccupied throughout the experiment in order to monitor the decay of the air freshener that was sprayed at constant interval rate.

Fieldwork measurement method is adopted in this research using several devices for the purpose of data collection. The indoor air quality (IAQ) device, YESAIR and YESDUST is used to measure carbon dioxide (CO₂), Total Volatile Organic Compounds (TVOC), and Particulate Matters (PM₁₀). YESAIR is an equipment used to measure the indoor air quality, as well as the temperature. It functions as a portable information recording device, which is designed for the purpose of intermittent or continuous operation.

Consequently, HOBO data logger is used to monitor the air temperature, relative humidity (RH), and air velocity with an interval of 5 minutes from 9.00 a.m. to 5.00 p.m. to ascertain the indoor thermal performance and ventilation effectiveness. Meanwhile, the measurements of the outdoor environmental condition will be based at the Kuala Lumpur meteorological weather data station. Table 3.0 illustrates the specification of all devices used.

Instrument	Variable	Measurement range	Accuracy
YESAIR	Temperature	-5°C-55°C	0.1°C @ 25°C
AND	Relative Humidity	0%-100%	2%RH
YESDUST	Carbon Dioxide	0–5000 ppm	+2% full scale @ 20°C (68°F), 1 bar
	(CO ₂)		pressure, applied gas, 2.5% volume
			CO ₂
	Total Volatile	0–30 ppm	0.02 ppm
	Organic		
	Compound		
	(TVOC)		
	PM ₁₀	1–10 microns	250 particulate/ cubic foot
Hobo Data	Temperature	Range: -20° to 70°C (-	\pm 0.35°C from 0° to 50°C (±
Logger		4° to 158°F)	0.63°F from 32° to 122°F)
		Resolution: 0.03°C at	
		25°C (0.05°F at 77°F)	
	Relative Humidity	Range: 5% to 95% RH	\pm 2.5% from 10% to 90% RH
		Resolution: 0.05% RH	
HOBO air	Air velocity	Range: 0.15–5 m/s	Greater of 10% of reading or +/-
velocity			0.05 m/s or 1% full-scale

Table 3.0: Measured variables and equipment

3.4 Selection of indoor plants

Table 4.0 shows the 9-month old specimens of the selected indoor plants that were used in a standard potting mix, which consisted of composed earth, composed coarse river sand, and fertiliser. Five selected plants with the same condition, i.e., similar type of pot, soil, and fertiliser, were used to avoid unstable figure in order to carry out precise measurement. Table 4.0 below shows the comparison of each selected plant with respect to their characteristics. The five types of indoor plants were selected based on the most cited family species of Araceae and Asparagaceae, as mentioned earlier in this paper. Figure 2.0 illustrates the picture of each plant.

	Characteristics									
NAME OF PLANT	Family	Туре	Height (m)	Spread (m)						
GOLDEN PHOTOS	Araceae	Vine	0.29	0.26						
(Epipremnum Aureum)										
PEACE LILY	Araceae	Vine	0.33	0.24						
(Syngonium podophyllum)										
SWEET CHICO	Araceae	Herbaceous	0.38	0.24						
(Spathiphyllum)		Perennial								
SPIDER PLANT	Asparagaceae	Herbaceous	0.25	0.30						
(Chlorophytum comosum)		Perennial								
JANET CRAIG	Asparagaceae	Shrub	0.27	0.22						
(Dracaena eremensis)										
		athypillum cet Chico	r plant	Janet Craig						

Table 4.0: Characteristics of the selected indoor plants

Figure 2.0. Different types of plant characteristics

3.5 Experimental design

Continuous fieldwork monitoring will be carried out in a controlled environment with several cases applied. The first case is normal condition without any plants, named as C1; the remaining cases are with the intervention of potted plants in the room. With the intervention cases, there will be two phases, where Phase 1 involves the selection of indoor plants and Phase 2 further investigates on the quantifying of number of potted plants suitable for a space. Table 5.0 demonstrates a list of cases carried out in this study (Table 5.0). In order to monitor the decay of TVOCs in the room, an air freshener (chemical solvent of ethanol 99.99% purity of phenol, benzene, and hexanediol) packed in a non-pressurised finger operated spray bottle was used to elevate the level of TVOCs before decay measurements were taken. A number of 60 shots were injected into the room continuously to produce approximately 4.0 ppm concentration of TVOCs.

Phase 1									
Indoor setting	Normal co TVOCs	Normal condition of an office room without air-conditioning with 60 shots of TVOCs							
Cases (C)	Control	Control C1 C2 C3 C4 C5							
Plant species	No plant	Golden Photos	10		Peace Spider Lily/Sweet Plant Chico				
			Phase 2						
Indoor setting	Normal co	ndition of	an office room with	out air-condit	ioning				
Number of potted	Pot 1]	Pot 2	Pot 3	Pot 3				
plants identified from Phase 1	1 pot		2 pots	3 pots	3 pots				

In Phase 1, two pots of each species will be placed in the centre of the office on each of the test day, as illustrated in Figure 3.0. Instruments (YESAIR and YESDUST) and Graywolf probe sensors were placed at a height of 1.1 m from the ground for the purpose of simulating the working height of an occupant seated on a chair. In Phase 2, the quantity of the potted plant will be changed each test day from 1 pot to 4 pots, as illustrated in Figure 4.0. At this point, the levels of TVOCs and relative humidity were monitored to evaluate the effectiveness of TVOC decay and to prevent any excessive moisture content in the air.



Figure 3.0. Experimental setup in an office with two potted plants and measuring device.



(a)





Figure 4.0. Example of: (a) two potted plants; and (b) three potted plants in Phase 2 experimental setup.

4.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Phase 1 – Selecting indoor plant species

In Phase 1, five species of potted plants were monitored to study on its effect on the indoor environment. Concerning the physical parameters of air temperature and relative humidity, the indoor and outdoor (I/O) ratios were monitored. Since Malaysia is a hot and humid country, the external environment is always higher than the indoor environment at most of the time especially during the day. Therefore, the differences will be calculated using outdoor-to-indoor (O/I) ratio, leading to lower air temperature and relative humidity in the indoor environment if it is a positive value. Figure 5.0 illustrates the comparative studies on the O/I ratio of temperatures in different cases (i.e., different potted plant species).





Based on the Figure 5.0, C3 Sweet Chico or better known as Peace Lily consistently improved the indoor thermal condition, as compared with other species. This can be observed in the red line that demonstrates higher ratio value, indicating high temperature differences based on an indoor-outdoor environment. The O/I ratio pattern in C5 (Janet Craig plant) was be observed to be similar with that in C3 but with slightly lower differences. On the other hand, both C1 (Golden Photos) and C2 (Syngonium podophyllum) appeared to have similar fluctuation pattern with temperature differences throughout the day. The highest indoor-outdoor difference can be seen in C4 (Spider plant) at 15.00 due to the increase of outdoor temperature (32.9°C), while the rest of the results in this case were at the lower range. Based on Figure 5.0, most of the results shows

a decline after 14:00, where the outdoor temperature decreased and three cases (C1, C2, and Control) were observed to experience higher indoor temperature (negative results in the ratio).

The insert of outdoor temperature (data taken from one of the test days) illustrates the trend of typical outdoor temperature (with no rainfall) throughout the day. Therefore, if the indoor environment setting could maintain or is able to have a substantial difference between outdoor, indoor and extensive energy consumption in terms of cooling the indoor space further may not be needed. This can be seen in the test day during normal condition (control-chart line in brown), the difference of O/I ratio is minimal compared with the rest of the cases, indicating that the indoor and outdoor temperatures are almost similar.



Figure 6.0. Comparison of air temperature differences among different types of plant species.

Corresponding to the findings in Figure 5.0, C3 (Peace Lily plant) consistently marked higher O/I ratio of relative humidity, preserving lower indoor relative humidity level throughout the day (see Figure 6.0). The control environment without any plants showed lower O/I ratio result throughout the day, except at the end of the day when the temperature drops and outdoor relative humidity rise similar to C2. Most cases have low ratio during midday and afternoon between 13:00 and 14:00 when the temperature is increasing, causing marginal ratio of indoor-outdoor relative humidity. In all cases except for C3 and C2, the indoor relative humidity is observed to be higher than that of the outdoor. When the temperature increases,

the plant itself tends to cool the surrounding by releasing vapour through the opening of the stomata. Similar trend lines of O/I ratio can be seen in C2, C3, and C4, with bigger margin throughout the day, as compared with other species (Figure 4.0). The O/I pattern (brown line) in the control setting appeared to be in line with that of C2, C3, and C4 but with low difference in the ratio.

Conversely, the O/I ratio was observed to have low variation of indoor-outdoor relative humidity. The insert of outdoor relative humidity (yellow line) measurement throughout the day shows the inversed pattern to that of outdoor air temperature in Figure 3.0, which supported the earlier statement by [15] that higher temperature will lead to a stronger cooling effect. However, at this juncture, the role of plants in indoor environment remains unclear. It is a fact that water will continuously evaporating from the surface of leaf cells exposed to air, which gives a cooling effect to the indoor environment when the surrounding temperature increases, but the number of plants needed to be determined so that the indoor relative humidity will not go beyond the recommended threshold value.

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SAMPLING DURATION	0	100	200	300	400	500	AVG. REMOVAL RATE OF TVOC PER MINUTE
CONTROL CONDITION (PPM)	4.04	2.32	1.8	1.46	1.25	1.1	0.009
C1 (PPM)	4.28	2.49	1.93	1.30	0.94	0.67	0.0128
C2 (PPM)	4.05	1.94	1.44	1.06	0.8	0.65	0.0116
C3 (PPM)	4.28	1.92	1.32	0.96	0.68	0.59	0.0132
C4 (PPM)	4.24	1.9	1.3	0.96	0.75	0.60	0.0129
C5 (PPM)	4.19	1.84	1.36	1.00	0.81	0.69	0.0127

Table 6.0. Rate of TVOC decay in different plant species.

In Phase 1, TVOCs, which acts as the source of pollutant in the office, were sprayed constantly and the decay throughout the day were monitored in each case. Table 6.0 shows the distribution of TVOC in a room for 500 minutes. The decay in each case can be seen instantly at 100 minutes and gradually decreases at different rate for each case. The highest average of TVOC removal rate per minute was C3 with Peace Lily plant, followed by C4, C1, C5, and C2. The TVOC decay in the control room was the lowest, which further verifies the effectiveness of plants in removing TVOC although not extensively.

4.2 Phase 2 – Quantifying number of potted plants

Following the findings in Phase 1, Sweet Chico or better known as Peace Lily species that was placed in an office (Case C3) was found to be the most effective plant in improving the indoor environment of the office. Hence, this plant is used to further investigate on the number of potted plants required in a room to obtain better air quality. Similar method of analysis used in Phase 1 was used in this phase. Table 7.0 shows the variation of indoor-outdoor relative humidity with different quantity of potted plants.



Figure 7.0. Relative humidity in the office with varying quantity of potted plants.

As illustrated in Figure 7.0, the distribution of relative humidity throughout the sampling duration shows a correlation between the value of relative humidity with the number of potted plants in the office. More plants in a room increases the level of humidity. Pot 3 and Pot 4 were observed to upraise the level of relative humidity in the room reaching to a level above recommended threshold value. Corresponding to the size of the test room area of 18 m^2 , it is recommended that not more than two pots can be in a room at one time to prevent further inclination of humidity, which could create discomfort to the user, thus leading to the formation of mould and fungus. However, this result contradicts the results obtained in the initial study, where relative humidity dropped significantly when the plants were placed in a classroom.

Consequently, it can be concluded that the low relative humidity in the classroom at that point of study could be attributable to the supply of dry air into the classroom via the airconditioning system. It was also noted that although there were 2 air-conditioning system operated in the classroom, the air temperature was still very high (29.7°C), in addition to the very low air movement (< 0.14 m/s) creating the room even more dryer. Hence, the assumption that the low relative humidity may be due to the existence of potted plants is erroneous. Nevertheless, if the number of plants in that classroom were to increase, the relative humidity could possibly affect the indoor environment. The justification to this statement is that the potted plants used in the classroom were one size smaller than the potted plants used in this study. Furthermore, as recommended in the results of this study, two potted plants were proposed for a room size of $< 20 \text{ m}^2$. Therefore, for a classroom sized approximately 50 m², it is projected that four medium-sized potted plants or more are needed to improve the indoor environment in the said space.

5. CONCLUSION

This paper presents the technique to assessing the effects of the indoor plants on occupant in an office setup in Malaysia via several experimental methods. Different types of plants were used, and results were compared to establish their best impacts in a physical indoor environment. Since Malaysia is a hot and humid country, the external environment is always higher than the indoor environment most of the time, especially during the day. Therefore, the differences were calculated using outdoor-to-indoor (O/I) ratio, leading to lower air temperature and relative humidity in the indoor environment in the case of positive value.

two-phase experiment Α was conducted; Phase 1 involved the selection of indoor plants, while Phase 2 further examined the quantifying number of potted planets needed for the classroom or an office. During both phases, the level of TVOCs and humidity were monitored. The results show that if the number of plants in the classroom were increased, the relative humidity could possibly affect the indoor environment. This is because as the number of potted plants increases, the relative humidity that surpassed high ASHRAE's normal standards (60%-70%) is subsequently induced. Increased number of potted plants has a positive effect on TVOC reading, as TVOC reading begins to decline. It is recommended that two potted plants are used for a room size of smaller than 20 m². Hence, it is evident that indoor plants have a positive impact on the IAQ, resulting in positive effects on the health and well-being of occupants. Acknowledgement

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