

Interaction between plant species and substrate type in the removal of CO₂ indoors

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Accepted Version

Gubb, C., Blanusa, T., Griffiths, A. and Pfrang, C. (2019) Interaction between plant species and substrate type in the removal of CO₂ indoors. *Air Quality, Atmosphere & Health*, 12 (10). pp. 1197-1206. ISSN 1873-9326 doi: 10.1007/s11869-019-00736-2 Available at <https://centaur.reading.ac.uk/85876/>

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To link to this article DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11869-019-00736-2>

Publisher: Springer

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1 **Interaction between plant species and substrate type in the removal of CO₂ indoors**

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15 **Acknowledgments**

16 This work was supported by the Royal Horticultural Society (RHS) and the Engineering and Physical Sciences

17 Research Council (EPSRC). The authors would also like to thank Dr Dalila Touhami, Rob Stirling, Kaan Alkan, David

18 Tubbs, Nicholas Davidson, Val Jasper, Matthew Richardson, Liam Doherty, Will Johnson and Michael Dawes for their
19 practical guidance and support.

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1 **Highlights**

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3 Substrate type has a significant impact on the ability of indoor plants to remove CO₂

4 Plants were unable to reduce the 1000 ppm CO₂ at typical indoor light levels

5 Plants were able to remove 1000 ppm CO₂ at a light level of 22200 lux

6 Respiration was deemed negligible in comparison to human contributions

7

1 **Abstract**

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Elevated indoor concentrations of carbon dioxide [CO₂] cause health issues, increase workplace absenteeism and reduce cognitive performance. Plants can be part of the solution, reducing indoor [CO₂] and acting as a low-cost supplement to building ventilation systems.

Our earlier work on a selection of structurally and functionally different indoor plants identified a range of leaf-level CO₂ removal rates, when plants were grown in one type of substrate. The work presented here brings the research much closer to real indoor environments by investigating CO₂ removal at a whole-plant level and in different substrates. Specifically, we measured how the change of growing substrate affects plants' capacity to reduce CO₂ concentrations. *Spathiphyllum wallisii* 'Verdi', *Dracaena fragrans* 'Golden Coast' and *Hedera helix*, representing a range of leaf types and sizes and potted in two different substrates, were tested. Potted plants were studied in a 0.15 m³ chamber under 'very high' (22000 lux), 'low' (~ 500 lux) and 'no' light (0 lux) in 'wet' (> 30 %) and 'dry' (< 20 %) substrate.

At 'no' and 'low' indoor light, houseplants increased the CO₂ concentration in both substrates; respiration rates, however, were deemed negligible in terms of the contribution to a room-level concentration, as they added ~ 0.6% of a human's contribution. In 'very high' light *D. fragrans*, in substrate 2, showed potential to reduce [CO₂] to a near-ambient (600 ppm) concentration in a shorter timeframe (12 hrs, e.g. overnight) and *S. wallisii* over a longer period (36 hrs, e.g. weekend).

1 **Keywords**

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3 Indoor air quality, houseplants, indoor light, *Dracaena*, *Spathiphyllum*, *Hedera*

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1 **Abbreviations:**

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3 **ASHRAE:** The American society of heating, refrigeration and air-conditioning engineers

4 **SMC:** Substrate moisture content ($\text{m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$)

5 **VOCs:** Volatile organic compounds

6 **ANOVA:** Analysis of variance

7 **SEM:** Standard error of the mean

1 1 Introduction

2 Elevated indoor concentrations of CO₂ (> 600 ppm) are harmful to human health, increase absenteeism and
3 reduce cognitive performance (Seppanen *et al.*, 1999; Erdmann and Apte, 2004; Shendell *et al.*, 2004; Shaughnessy
4 *et al.*, 2006; Gaihre *et al.*, 2014; Zhang *et al.*, 2017). Traditional building ventilation systems are designed to keep CO₂
5 concentrations near-ambient with outdoor air infiltration, albeit increasing building energy consumption (Perez-
6 Lombard *et al.*, 2008). Indoor plants can act as a simple low-cost form of ventilation, reducing indoor ventilation
7 requirements (by ~ 6%) with CO₂ removal and consequently providing a reduction in building energy consumption,
8 but only under certain environmental conditions i.e. a very high light level (~ 22000 lux) – as confirmed by several
9 previous studies (Torpy *et al.*, 2014; Torpy *et al.*, 2017; Gubb *et al.*, 2018).

10 Numerous health guidelines exist for maximum safe CO₂ concentrations, the lowest of these being 1000 ppm
11 produced by the American society of heating, refrigeration and air-conditioning engineers (ASHRAE) – a
12 concentration often exceeded indoors (Shendell *et al.*, 2004; Gaihre *et al.*, 2014; Torpy *et al.*, 2014; Torpy *et al.*,
13 2017). Concentrations indoors are typically less than 2000 – 2500 ppm, but can rise as high as 5000 ppm, with the
14 main source of CO₂ indoors being humans themselves (Zhang *et al.*, 2017).

15 Elevated CO₂ concentrations (> 600 ppm) can cause an array of health issues including eye irritation, mucus
16 membrane symptoms (i.e. sore/dry throat, dry eyes and sneezing) and respiratory problems (i.e. tight chest,
17 wheezing/coughing and shortness of breath) (Seppanen *et al.*, 1999; Erdmann and Apte, 2004; Tsai *et al.*, 2012).
18 Additionally, elevated concentrations have been associated with declines in cognitive function (at ~ 950 ppm);
19 absenteeism, with increases of 100 ppm associated with a reduced annual attendance of half a day per annum and
20 reductions in cognitive performance, with concentrations of 600 – 1000 ppm found to significantly reduce decision
21 making ability (Shaughnessy *et al.*, 2006; Satish *et al.*, 2012; Gaihre *et al.*, 2014; Vehvilainen *et al.*, 2016; Allen *et al.*,
22 2016).

23 Several studies have shown that light levels significantly influence a plants ability to remove CO₂ via their
24 impact on stomata as a main pathway for CO₂ uptake (Pennisi and van Iersel, 2012; Torpy *et al.*, 2014; Torpy *et al.*,
25 2017; Gubb *et al.*, 2018). Indoors, the light level is typically between 0 – 500 lux, but can be as high as 3000 lux in
26 certain workplace environments (Boyce and Raynham, 2009; Lai *et al.*, 2009; Hawkins, 2011; Huang *et al.*, 2012).
27 Often, supplementary lighting is required to support specific plant installations such as a green wall, where higher
28 light levels are utilised above the installation and not throughout the entire room – this supplementary light can be
29 engineered at least as high as 22200 lux (Gubb *et al.*, 2018). Plants' under- or over-watering also affects a plant's
30 ability to remove CO₂ (Sailsbury and Ross, 1991) but our previous work showed that indoor light level was the
31 primary driver of CO₂ uptake and the soil drying had smaller impact (Gubb *et al.*, 2018).

32 Plants remove airborne pollutants via four different pathways: the aboveground plant part (by
33 photosynthesis, deposition and/or diffusion through the waxy layer), the roots (by deposition and/or direct uptake),
34 and two of which directly involve the substrate - namely, sorption by the substrate itself, along with breakdown by
35 the microbial activity within the substrate (Cruz *et al.*, 2014). It can therefore be expected that both the type and

condition (wet/dry) of the substrate will affect plants CO₂ removal ability. Experiments investigating the ability of plants to remove volatile organic compounds (VOCs) have found that the removal of VOCs is predominately associated with the microflora in the substrate, plants themselves are only utilised indirectly to maintain and support substrate microorganisms (Wood *et al.*, 2002; Orwell *et al.*, 2004; Kim *et al.*, 2008; Cruz *et al.*, 2014; Irga *et al.*, 2018; Kim *et al.*, 2018); these microorganisms – especially those associated with the root system – have been shown to metabolise an array of different pollutants (Weyens *et al.*, 2015).

Various substrates are available in the UK for growing indoor plants, including various types of peat and peat-free (Barrett *et al.*, 2016). Peat – an organic material – is a limited resource, hence attempts by the UK government for voluntary phasing out of peat by 2030 (Defra, 2018). Despite this peat-based substrates are still commonly used across the UK because of their uniformity, providing easier water management (Schmilewski, 2008; Alexander *et al.*, 2013). Peat has been shown to have higher water-holding capacity compared to some alternatives such as coir, sand and wood fibres (Schmilewski, 2008). As several studies have linked soil moisture to microbial respiration, an investigation into substrates moisture content is of significance to CO₂ removal (Cook *et al.*, 1985; Manzoni, 2012). Furthermore, with different substrate types able to support different microorganisms (Zhang *et al.*, 2013) it was hypothesised that differences in removal would be measured between our chosen substrates. Therefore, two different substrates (peat free and peat) –referred to as Substrate 1 and Substrate 2, respectively, within this paper – were chosen for this experiment to determine to what extent they affected plants' ability to remove CO₂ within test chambers. We hypothesised that growing the same taxa in differing substrates might provide differing CO₂ removal abilities.

If houseplants are to reduce elevated CO₂ concentrations, they must be functioning optimally i.e. experience appropriate light levels, feeding and watering (i.e. substrate moisture content - SMC). A few studies have investigated these issues in part, testing various plants potted in different peat-free substrates (Irga *et al.*, 2013; Torpy *et al.*, 2014; Torpy *et al.*, 2017; Gubb *et al.*, 2018)

Torpy *et al.*, 2014 determined the light response curves of eight common plants potted a peat-free substrate consisting of composted hardwood, sawdust, composted bark fines, and coarse river sand (2:2:1). These authors suggested that in typical 'low' indoor light some CO₂ removal could be expected but, moderately increasing light levels would mean the studied plants could be effectively utilised in a built environment setting. (Torpy *et al.*, 2017) also investigated the ability of two taxa (*Chlorophytum comosum* and *Epipremnum aureum*) potted in a peat-free substrate comprising of coconut fibre – as part of an active green-wall – to remove 1000 ppmv of CO₂ at light levels of 50 and 250 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. The study found removal was much more effective at 250 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ and found that removal from a 5 m² wall of *C. comosum* could balance the respiratory emissions of a full-time occupant.

Our research aims to test which houseplants together with the substrate they are grown in (from now on referred to as houseplants or taxa) can best reduce a CO₂ concentration of 1000 ppm under differing environmental and growing conditions. Specifically we tested the selected taxa:

- Under three light levels: 'very high' (~ 22000 lux), typical 'low' light (~ 500 lux) and 'no' indoor light (0 lux);
- In 'wet' (SMC > 30 %, 0.3 m³ m⁻³) and 'dry' (SMC < 20 %, 0.2 m³ m⁻³) substrate moisture conditions;

- With two different substrate types.

Zero lux ($0 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) was chosen to investigate CO_2 assimilation/respiration in the dark; ~ 500 lux ($\sim 7 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) was chosen to represent typical office conditions; 22000 lux ($\sim 300 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) was chosen to represent the highest technically feasible light level which could be engineered indoors (with supplementary artificial lighting) (Torpy *et al.*, 2017).

This experiment was undertaken on a whole plant/substrate scale as opposed to leaf-level experiments investigated in prior work (Gubb *et al.*, 2018). It was hypothesised that experiments on this larger scale would provide more accurate estimations for how plants can influence 'room-scale' concentrations of CO_2 . Additionally, this study looks to highlight if substrate type can make a difference to the CO_2 removal ability of taxa and justify the need for further research with a more extensive range of appropriate substrates in subsequent studies.

2 Material and Methods

2.1 Plant material

Three common houseplant taxa (*Dracaena fragrans* 'Golden Coast', *Hedera helix* and *Spathiphyllum wallisii* 'Verdi') which were shown in our previous study to have a range of CO_2 removal capacities were selected for this study. They represented a range of leaf types (succulent and herbaceous) and plant sizes (Table 1). Plants were maintained in either 'Substrate 1- peat-free substrate i.e. Sylvamix growing medium (Melcourt, Tetbury, Gloucestershire, UK; 6:2:2 sylva fibre: growbark pine: coir; air-filled porosity, 21%; moisture content by weight, 60%) or in 'Substrate 2' - peat substrate i.e. Clover professional pot bedding substrate (100% Irish Moss Peat; Clover, Dungannon, Co. Tyrone, UK). Plants were maintained in 3 L containers, with a slow release fertiliser feed (6-9 months, Osmocote, Marysville, OH, USA). Plants were purchased in Summer 2016 (apart from *Dracaena fragrans* 'Golden Coast' in Substrate 2, which was purchased in Spring 2018). Prior to experimentation (for > 90 days) plants were kept at room temperatures ($17 - 22^\circ \text{C}$) and 'low' light levels (~ 500 lux) in an indoor office environment within the Crops Laboratory in the Glasshouse Complex of the School of Agriculture, Policy and Development, at the University of Reading (UK). *Hedera helix* could not be successfully grown in the Substrate 2 and was omitted from the study in this substrate after several failed attempts.

Table 1: Characteristics of the houseplant taxa chosen for experiments in both substrates. Leaf area ($n = 3$) and plant height ($n = 5$) are means \pm SEM. Species' botanical Latin name is given in italic and cultivar, where applicable, follows.

Taxa – Substrate 1	Family	Metabolism	Leaf area (cm^2)	Plant height (cm)
<i>Dracaena fragrans</i> 'Golden Coast'	<i>Asparagaceae</i>	C3	4057 ± 337	83 ± 1
<i>Hedera helix</i>	<i>Araliaceae</i>	C3	1542 ± 122	8 ± 1
<i>Spathiphyllum wallisii</i> 'Verdi'	<i>Araceae</i>	C3	6033 ± 128	38 ± 1
Taxa – Substrate 2	Family	Metabolism	Leaf area (cm^2)	Plant height (cm)
<i>Dracaena fragrans</i> 'Golden Coast'	<i>Asparagaceae</i>	C3	1417 ± 112	48 ± 1

2.2 CO₂ Chamber experiments

Experiments were carried out in an experimental laboratory with a non-bypass fume hood at the University of Reading (UK). The experimental setup (Figure 1) consisted of a ~150 L (45 x 45 x 75 cm, 0.15 m³) Perspex chamber (The plastic people, Leeds, West Yorkshire, UK) connected to a CO₂ cylinder (CO₂ > 99% purity, Air Liquide, Coleshill, West Midlands, U.K) with a combination of Teflon tubing (¼ inch diameter) and Swagelok's (Swagelok, Bristol, South Gloucestershire, UK). Enclosed inside the Perspex chamber was a HOBO MX1102 CO₂ logger (Onset Computer Corporation, Bourne, MA, U.S.A), a 12 V DC brushless fan (RS Components, Corby, Northants, UK), 500 g of silica gel (Sigma – Aldrich Company Ltd, Gillingham, Dorset, U.K) and a calibrated (20 – 90 % RH, 0 – 40 °C) Tinytag RH/temperature logger (Gemini data loggers, Chichester, West Sussex, UK). The external RH/temperature surrounding the chamber was also monitored with another, identical Tinytag logger. Inside the chamber 'no' (0 lux, 0 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹) light was achieved by undertaking at experiments at night; 'low' (~ 500 lux, ~ 7 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹) light levels were achieved in the usual lighting conditions of the room (four fluorescent ceiling lights, Osram, Munich, Germany lighting a floor area of 11 m²); 'very high' levels were achieved with two LED lights (V-TAC Europe Ltd, Sofia, Bulgaria) which were positioned on stands externally, one at an ~ 30 cm height above the chamber and another ~ 30 cm from the side of the chamber. Colour temperature of those lights was 6000k and both lights combined produced a 'very high' (~ 22000 lux, ~ 300 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹) light level inside the chamber — all three levels were measured with a calibrated light sensor (SKP 200, Skye instruments, Llandrindod Wells, Wales, UK). This 'very high' light level approximately corresponds to the light saturation for the studied species on a light response curve (Gubb *et al.*, 2018) and was chosen to represent the highest feasible light level which could be engineered (with supplementary artificial lighting) in an indoor environment.

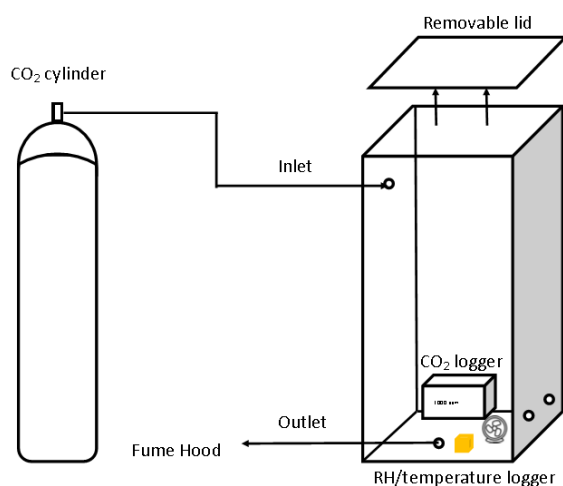


Figure 1: Schematic diagram (A) and image (B) of the CO₂ chamber experimental setup

Measurements of the ability of studied taxa to reduce CO₂ concentrations of 1000 ppm (ASHRAE recommended maximum 8 hr exposure guideline taken from Torpy *et al.*, 2014; Torpy *et al.*, 2017) were undertaken on either three ('no' and 'low' light) or five ('very high' light) plants per taxon. Taxa were prepared for experiments with substrate moisture at the container capacity (SMC > 30%) and plants were thus considered optimally watered on the commencement of each experiment (Vaz Monteiro *et al.*, 2016). Measurements were also made on each houseplants 'dry' substrate (SMC < 20%) after a period of drying – the length of which was dependent on the type of plant and its inherent evapo-transpiration rate (Gubb *et al.*, 2018). To ascertain when each taxon was 'dry' SMC was measured prior to experimentation for each plant, in two locations per container using a SM300 capacitance-type probe connected to a HH2 Moisture Meter (Delta-T Devices, Cambridge, Cambridgeshire, UK; 0–100% range and an accuracy of $\pm 2.5\%$). Experiments were made on one whole 'plant – substrate system' (i.e. potted plant, with uncovered substrate) enclosed inside the Perspex chamber at a CO₂ concentration of 1000 ppm ($\pm 10\%$). Experiments were for a duration of 1 hr with the CO₂ concentration logged every second. Appropriate 'control' measurements were run at all three light levels on both the empty chamber and pot with substrate, but no plant (in both 'wet' and 'dry' SMC). The number of runs with only substrate and pot were either three for 'no' and 'low' light or five for 'very high' light.

Experimental parameters for each lighting treatment were as follows: 'no' light, ambient (CO₂ < 500 ppm; Temperature 17 – 26 °C; RH 23 – 64 %) and inside chamber (Temperature 17 – 26 °C; RH 31 – 90 %, average 61%); 'low' light, ambient (CO₂ < 500 ppm; Temperature 13 – 23 °C; RH 24 – 61 %) and inside chamber (Temperature 13 – 24 °C; RH 36 – 90 %, average 68%); and high light, ambient (CO₂ < 500 ppm; Temperature 15 – 22 °C; RH 21 – 60 %) and inside chamber (Temperature 15 – 24 °C; RH 32 – 90 %, average 64%). The chamber was also analysed for leakage prior, during and after experimentation; leakage was found to be < 5% of the starting concentration over the test period. All results were corrected for leakage. This was achieved – for 'no' and 'low' light - by adding the average CO₂ concentration lost through leakage (ppm) to the amount of CO₂ respired by each taxon (ppm) – correcting for the fact that each taxon would have measured a greater concentration of CO₂ if the chamber was airtight. The opposite was done for 'very high' light, correcting for the fact that each taxon would have removed more CO₂ if the chamber was airtight.

Based on the findings of our previous leaf-level work with the same taxa (Gubb *et al.*, 2018) we hypothesised that at 'no' and 'low' indoor light levels taxa would increase CO₂ concentrations within the enclosure. The CO₂ concentration (ppm hr⁻¹) removed by each taxon were calculated with the data measured directly every second by the appropriate logger and divided by the leaf area in m² presented in Table 1 to give a unit of ppm m⁻² h⁻¹.

2.3 Statistical analysis

Experimental data (CO₂ concentrations) were analysed using GENSTAT (17th Edition, VSN International, Hemel Hempstead, Hertfordshire, UK). An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to compare means for each measured parameter between different taxa and/or over time. Variance levels were checked for homogeneity and

1 values were presented as means with either associated least significant differences (lsd) at a 5% significance level,
2 standard error of the mean (SEM) or as Tukey's 95% confidence intervals for multiple comparisons. Where a lsd or
3 Tukey's confidence interval has been used for data comparison, the associated p-value is presented. Where this is
4 not displayed SEM has been used.

5

6 **3 Results**

7 **3.1 CO₂ chamber experiments – 'no' light**

8 At 'no' indoor light no taxa reduced CO₂ from the initial 1000 ppm concentration, and the CO₂ concentration
9 inside the chamber increased with all treatments; no statistically significant differences in concentration were
10 measured within taxon between 'dry' or 'wet' conditions (Table 2). Additionally, statistical differences were
11 measured between the Substrates 1 and 2 for *Dracaena fragrans* 'Golden Coast' in both 'dry' (331 and 138 ppm m⁻²
12 hr⁻¹, respectively; Table 2) and 'wet' conditions (332 and 151 ppm m⁻² hr⁻¹, respectively; Table 2).

13

1 **Table 2:** Mean CO₂ increase in the chamber per m² of leaf area for each taxon potted in the two substrates at 'no' (0
2 lux, 0 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹) indoor light in 'wet' (SMC > 30 %, 0.3 m³ m⁻³) and 'dry' (SMC < 20 %, 0.20 m³ m⁻³) conditions. Data
3 are a mean of three plants per taxon ± SEM.

Taxa – Substrate 1	Mean CO ₂ increase at 'no' light ppm m ⁻² hr ⁻¹	
	'Wet' (> 30 % SMC)	'Dry' (< 20 % SMC)
<i>Dracaena fragrans</i> 'Golden Coast'	332 ± 24	331 ± 18
<i>Hedera helix</i>	745 ± 189	408 ± 148
<i>Spathiphyllum wallisii</i> 'Verdi'	177 ± 30	155 ± 15

Taxa – Substrate 2	Mean CO ₂ increase at 'no' light ppm m ⁻² hr ⁻¹	
	'Wet' (> 30 % SMC)	'Dry' (< 20 % SMC)
<i>Dracaena fragrans</i> 'Golden Coast'	151 ± 78	138 ± 67
<i>Spathiphyllum wallisii</i> 'Verdi'	228 ± 42	185 ± 18

5

6 **3.2 CO₂ chamber experiments – ‘low’ light**

7 At ‘low’ indoor light *Spathiphyllum wallisii* 'Verdi' potted in the Substrate 2 reduced the concentration of CO₂

8 from the initial 1000 ppm concentration (‘dry’ and ‘wet’, 43 and 1 ppm m⁻² hr⁻¹, respectively; Table 3). All other

9 plant/substrate combinations increased the CO₂ concentration. Statistically significant differences were measured

10 within taxon between ‘dry’ and ‘wet’ conditions for *Hedera helix* in the Substrate 1 (379 and 518 ppm m⁻² hr⁻¹,

11 respectively; Table 3). Additionally, statistical differences in removal were measured between the two substrates for

12 *Spathiphyllum wallisii* 'Verdi' in ‘wet’ conditions (227 and -1 ppm m⁻² hr⁻¹, respectively; p = 0.03; Table 3) but not

13 ‘dry’ (192 and -43 ppm m⁻² hr⁻¹, respectively, p = 0.126; Table 3) and for *Dracaena fragrans* 'Golden Coast' in ‘dry’

14 conditions (147 and 7 ppm m⁻² hr⁻¹, respectively, Table 3).

Table 3: Mean CO₂ increase in the chamber per m² of leaf area for each taxon potted in the two substrates at 'low' (~ 500 lux, ~ 7 μmol m⁻²s⁻¹) indoor light in 'wet' (SMC > 30 %, 0.3 m³ m⁻³) and 'dry' (SMC < 20 %, 0.20 m³ m⁻³) conditions. Data are a mean of three plants per taxon ± SEM, (-) values signify CO₂ assimilation (i.e. CO₂ uptake by the plant thus its removal from the chamber).

Taxa – Substrate 1	Mean CO ₂ increase at 'low' light ppm m ⁻² hr ⁻¹	
	'Wet' (> 30 % SMC)	'Dry' (< 20 % SMC)
<i>Dracaena fragrans</i> 'Golden Coast'	142 ± 8	147 ± 13
<i>Hedera helix</i>	518 ± 42	379 ± 54
<i>Spathiphyllum wallisii</i> 'Verdi'	227 ± 57	192 ± 104

Taxa – Substrate 2	Mean CO ₂ increase at 'low' light ppm m ⁻² hr ⁻¹	
	'Wet' (> 30 % SMC)	'Dry' (< 20 % SMC)
<i>Dracaena fragrans</i> 'Golden Coast'	66 ± 68	7 ± 52
<i>Spathiphyllum wallisii</i> 'Verdi'	-1 ± 38	-43 ± 64

3.3 CO₂ chamber experiments – ‘very high’ light

At ‘very high’ indoor light all treatments reduced the concentration of CO₂ from the initial 1000 ppm. Significant differences were measured in CO₂ reduction between all taxa, under both ‘dry’ and ‘wet’ conditions and between the two substrates (Figure 2). The range of removal rates was the smallest at 15 mins and the largest at 60 mins in both ‘wet’ and ‘dry’ conditions. After 15 minutes, no statistically significant differences in CO₂ reduction were measured within the same taxon in either substrate between ‘dry’ and ‘wet’ conditions. After 60 minutes, statistically significant differences were measured in both *Spathiphyllum* and *Dracaena* potted in the Substrate 2 between ‘dry’ and ‘wet’ conditions, but not in the Substrate 1 (Figure 2).

In ‘wet’ conditions after 15 minutes, no statistically significant differences were measured between any studied taxa in either substrate (Figure 2, p = 0.550). After 60 minutes, *Dracaena fragrans* 'Golden Coast' in the Substrate 2 reduced statistically the largest amount of CO₂ from the initial 1000 ppm concentration (1420 ppm m⁻² hr⁻¹; p < 0.001). No statistically significant differences in CO₂ removal were measured between *Spathiphyllum wallisii* 'Verdi' (623 ppm m⁻² hr⁻¹) in Substrate 2 or any of the taxa potted in Substrate 1 - *Hedera helix*, *Spathiphyllum wallisii* 'Verdi' and *Dracaena fragrans* 'Golden Coast' (541, 436 and 463 ppm m⁻² hr⁻¹, respectively; p < 0.001; Figure 2).

In ‘dry’ conditions after 15 minutes, no statistically significant differences were measured between any studied taxa in either substrate (Figure 2, p = 0.221). After 60 minutes, *Dracaena fragrans* 'Golden Coast' in Substrate 2 reduced statistically the largest amount of CO₂ from the initial 1000 ppm concentration (1703 ppm m⁻² hr⁻¹ p < 0.001). A statistically significant difference was measured between *Spathiphyllum wallisii* 'Verdi' (820 ppm m⁻² hr⁻¹) in Substrate 2 and *Hedera helix* in the Substrate 1 (401 ppm m⁻² hr⁻¹; p < 0.001). No statistically significant differences were measured between other studied taxa i.e. *Spathiphyllum wallisii* 'Verdi' and *Dracaena fragrans* 'Golden Coast' (524 and 470 ppm m⁻² hr⁻¹, respectively; p < 0.001; Figure 2).

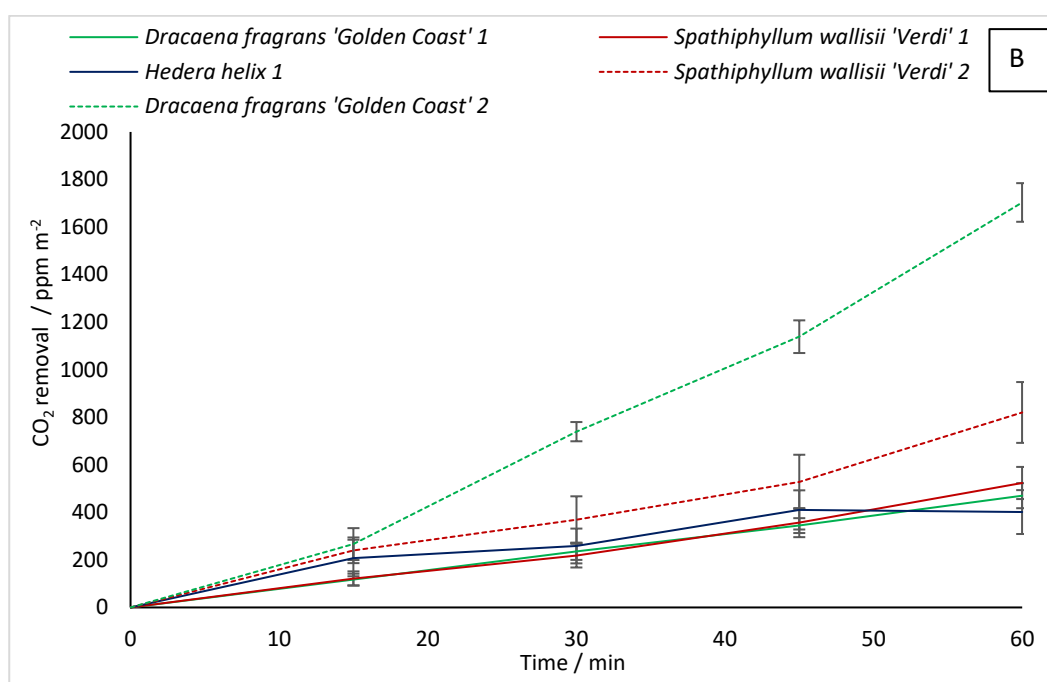
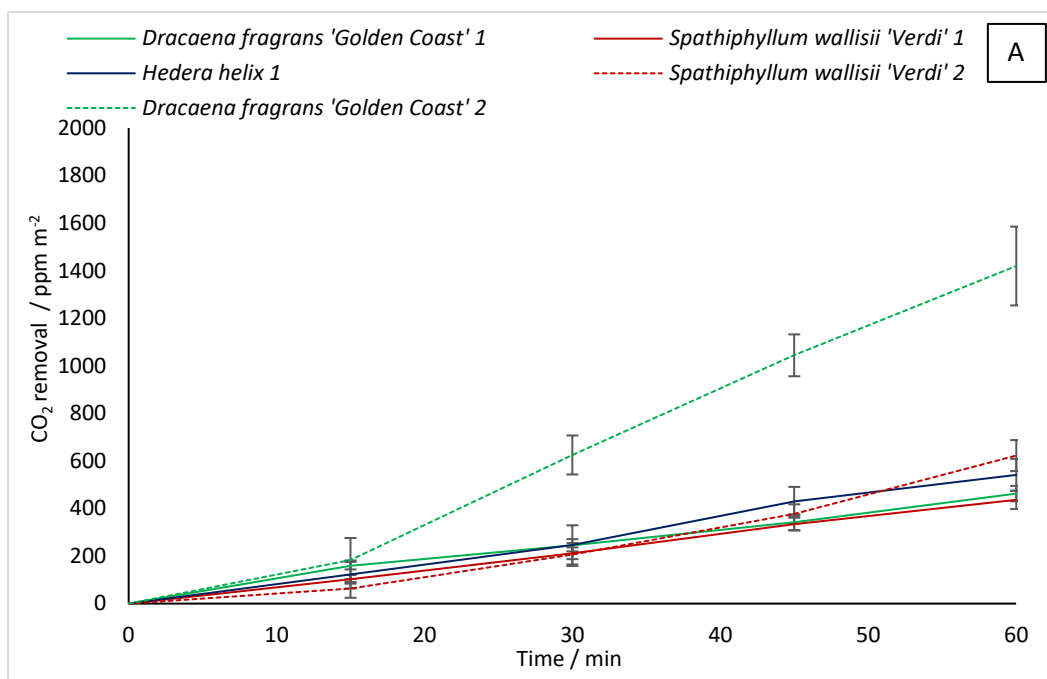


Figure 2: Mean CO₂ removal by each taxon in substrates 1 and 2 at 'very high' indoor light (~ 22000 lux, ~ 300 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹) per m² of leaf area in 'wet' (SMC > 30 %, 0.3 m³ m⁻³) (A), and 'dry' (SMC < 20 %, 0.20 m³ m⁻³) (B) conditions over a 60 min period. Data are a mean of five plants per taxa – error bars represent SEM.

1 4 Discussion

2 This work investigates how potting common houseplants in two differing substrates influenced their ability
3 to reduce a harmful CO₂ concentration of 1000 ppm at a whole plant/substrate scale.

4 In this study we demonstrated that at 'low' light in 'dry' substrate conditions assimilation occurred with
5 *Spathiphyllum wallisii* 'Verdi' potted in Substrate 2 (- 43 ppm m⁻² hr⁻¹) but not in Substrate 1 (192 ppm m⁻² hr⁻¹),
6 contrary to the initial hypothesis where an increase in CO₂ concentration was expected from all studied taxa (Gubb
7 *et al.*, 2018). Similarly, the study found that *Dracaena fragrans* 'Golden Coast' was the most effective taxon at
8 reducing high concentrations of CO₂ at 'very high' indoor light levels when potted in the Substrate 2 (1703 ppm m⁻²
9 hr⁻¹). When the same taxon was maintained in the Substrate 1, CO₂ removal was statistically significantly lower (470
10 ppm m⁻² hr⁻¹). Although less strongly, there was a suggestion in our measurements that *S. wallisii* 'Verdi' in high light
11 removed more CO₂ by the end of a 60 minute period, when potted in Substrate 2 compared to Substrate 1.

12 These measurements suggest that differing substrate types may be able to influence CO₂ assimilation. A
13 taxon may grow more effectively and be more physiologically active in a particular substrate, facilitating a stronger
14 CO₂ removal ability. Peat has long been cited as a substrate which supports good plant growth, having good air-filled
15 porosity, high water-holding capacity and a relatively pest- and pathogen-free environment (Schmilewski, 2008).
16 Moreover, peat contains a carbon concentration in the range of 30 -70 kg/m³ (18 -60%) whereas, for other mineral
17 soils this concentration is typically < 20% (Agus *et al.*, 2011), this additional carbon might be a possible reason for
18 greater CO₂ sequestration in our Substrate 2. Alternatively, the substrate and plant combined may support differing
19 microorganisms, which in turn could provide a superior removal ability (Zhang *et al.*, 2013). This however, would
20 need to be explored further by evaluation of the differing microorganisms in both substrates and additional
21 inoculation experiments with the microorganism species in question (De Kempeneer *et al.*, 2004). Moreover, studies
22 have also found differences in CO₂ removal between species grown in traditional potting mix and hydroculture (Irga
23 *et al.*, 2013). Clearly, the substrate type is of importance in terms of CO₂ removal, and this should be further
24 investigated in subsequent studies. Additionally, this needs to be kept in context of the fact that overall capacity of
25 individual plants to remove CO₂ indoors is small (Pennisi and van Iersel, 2012; Irga *et al.*, 2013; Torpy *et al.*, 2014;
26 Torpy *et al.*, 2017; Gubb *et al.*, 2018). Furthermore, while we have expressed our CO₂ removal data per unit leaf area
27 (thus taking differences in plant size into the account), we cannot exclude possible impact of age differences
28 between the plants. We made every effort to source the plants simultaneously, but their lifecycle and management
29 prior to reaching us were beyond our control. Moreover, the authors acknowledge that photosynthetic activity can
30 be reduced at high RH (Sailsbury and Ross, 1991) , and therefore the results may have underestimated the CO₂
31 removal in some treatments.

32 At 'no' and 'low' light levels typically experienced in indoor environments (Hawkins, 2011), most of the
33 studied taxa would increase the concentration of CO₂ in indoor environments as measured in our earlier leaf-level
34 work (Gubb *et al.*, 2018). However, *Hedera*, the taxon which potted in a Substrate 1 respired most, increased the CO₂
35 concentration by 115 ppm hr⁻¹ (i.e. 0.2 g m⁻³ hr⁻¹); comparatively, each person contributes 36 g hr⁻¹ of CO₂ in an office
36 environment (Persily and de Jonge, 2017). The contribution of plants to CO₂ concentration increases can therefore

be considered negligible in comparison to human contributions indoors at ~ 0.6 % of a humans contribution, in agreement with prior experiments (Gubb *et al.*, 2018).

Our study clearly suggests that increasing the lighting levels indoors – made possible with targeted lighting installations – would allow taxa to significantly reduce CO₂ concentration. This agrees with other similar studies, which show that light is the limiting factor for CO₂ reduction indoors (Pennisi and van Iersel, 2012; Gubb *et al.*, 2018) and that houseplants can be expected to aid ventilation systems – by providing additional CO₂ removal - but not replace them completely (Torpy *et al.*, 2014).

The results of the current study allow us to estimate the number of houseplants required to reduce CO₂ concentrations to a safe acceptable indoor level – literature suggests that concentrations of 600 ppm and below cause fewer health issues than elevated CO₂ concentrations (Seppanen *et al.*, 1999; Erdmann and Apte, 2004; Allen *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, for a small office of 15 m³ (11 m³ is the minimum space required per person; HSE, 1992), we calculated the time required for a 'dry' *Dracaena fragrans* 'Golden Coast' potted in the Substrate 2 (as this plant/substrate combination led to most CO₂ removal under our experimental conditions) to remove 400ppm of CO₂ (i.e. reduce CO₂ concentration from 1000 to 600 ppm), at a 'very high' light level assuming a sealed environment with no other sources of CO₂ (Equation 1).

$$\text{Time per m}^2 \text{ of LA (hr)} = \text{Concentration of CO}_2 \text{ to remove (ppm)} / \text{Rate of CO}_2 \text{ removal (ppm m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}) \times 1/100 \quad (1)$$

Taking into account volumetric loading differences (Girman, 1992) between the test chamber (0.15 m³) and the small office (15 m³), the rate of CO₂ removal is reduced by a factor of 100. Consequently, from the results in Figure 2 we estimate 2 m² of *Dracaena fragrans* 'Golden Coast' (equating to 14 plants) in 'dry' conditions would require 12 hr to remove 400 ppm of CO₂ in the office as per the above stipulated conditions.

Differences in removal between 'dry' and 'wet' conditions across taxa at all light levels and substrates was deemed negligible in agreement with (Gubb *et al.*, 2018). This indicates that if plants are left to dry out – anecdotally a common occurrence – the impact on a room scale CO₂ flux is small, although on a leaf level there are differences in CO₂ assimilation. Additionally, at 'no' and 'low' light levels most taxa (i.e. the overall system) were respiring. Our study suggests that although at typical 'no' indoor light all studied taxa added CO₂ to the indoor environment, the highest increase was approximately half the CO₂ concentration removed at 'very high' light levels. This current work therefore confirms that placing a number of the studied houseplants in a typical home/office environment would not significantly damage health by increasing CO₂ concentrations indoors under either 'wet' or 'dry' substrate conditions.

Even at 'very high' light levels, both *Spathiphyllum wallisii* 'Verdi' and *Hedera helix* would require an unrealistic number of plants in both substrates to reduce CO₂ concentrations from 1000 ppm to a near-ambient level. This is in contrast with plants' pronounced benefits in health and productivity terms (Park and Mattson, 2008; Park and Mattson, 2009; Shibata and Suzuki, 2002; Shibata and Suzuki, 2004).

Our findings support the notion that the light level significantly impacts CO₂ removal, as suggested in previous studies (Pennisi and van Iersel, 2012; Torpy *et al.*, 2014; Torpy *et al.*, 2017; Gubb *et al.*, 2018). Other previous work had also determined that unrealistic numbers of plants (> 200) are required to remove a significant amount of CO₂ in indoor environments (Pennisi and van Iersel, 2012; Torpy *et al.*, 2014). These studies, however, did not take into account substrate moisture differences, or ambient CO₂ concentrations (Pennisi and van Iersel, 2012). Other studies did not specify which, or how many taxa provided any CO₂ removal (Lim *et al.*, 2009; Pegas *et al.*, 2012), or only considered one light level (Oh *et al.*, 2011).

Torpy *et al.*, 2017 estimated that a 2 m² active green wall of *Chlorophytum comosum* (where substrate is actively ventilated by pushing air through it) in peat-free substrate would be capable of removing 11 g of CO₂ per hour in a 16 m³ room. Our previous work estimated that 2 m² (of leaf area) of *Spathiphyllum wallisii* 'Verdi' in unventilated peat-free substrate removed 0.75 g of CO₂ per hour at a comparable light level (Gubb *et al.*, 2018). This current work estimated that 2 m² (of leaf area) of *Dracaena fragrans* 'Golden Coast' at a light level comparable to both of the previous removes 3 g per m³ of CO₂ per hour in a 15 m³ room, clearly highlighting the benefits of 'active' walls (i.e. substrate ventilation) opposed to traditional 'passive' houseplants.

We support the notion that any future work should focus on green walls (Pettit *et al.*, 2017; Torpy *et al.*, 2017) (especially 'active' walls) which yield more effective removal due to an increased LA of taxa and increased substrate airflow. Additionally, taxa which have performed well in removing other indoor pollutants at high indoor light levels i.e. *Osmunda japonica* (Kim *et al.*, 2010) should be further examined. Furthermore, more substrate types should also be investigated. This study has shown that the ability of plants to remove CO₂ at typical indoor light levels may be maximised with certain substrate types and moisture conditions, therefore lower – more realistic – numbers of plants may be required to reduce harmful concentrations of CO₂. Additionally, as 'active' walls – which are clearly superior removers – place extra emphasis on the substrate, removal differences between substrate types will likely be further highlighted.

5 Conclusion

The study confirmed that growing the same taxa in differing substrates significantly influenced removal ability in most of the studied species – highlighting the key role substrate types play. The results from the current work indicates that 2 m² of *Dracaena fragrans* 'Golden Coast' would require 12 hr at a 'very high' light level (~ 22000 lux) in 'dry' conditions to reduce 1000 ppm of CO₂ – the ASHRAE recommended maximum 8 hr exposure guideline – to a 600 ppm concentration in a 15m³ closed environment (i.e. small office) with no other sources of CO₂. Other studied taxa (*Spathiphyllum wallisii* 'Verdi' and *Hedera helix*) were found to require an unrealistic number of plants at the same 'very high' light level.

At typical 'no' and 'low' indoor light levels most studied houseplants increased CO₂ concentrations albeit, for the highest respiring taxa at approximately half the concentration removed at 'very high' light. Therefore, none of the studied houseplants would significantly elevate CO₂ concentrations indoors and thus, cause detrimental health effects. Differences between 'dry' and 'wet' substrates in their capacity for CO₂ removal at either 'no', 'low' or 'very

- 1 high' light can be considered negligible. Our findings support the notion that raising the light level indoors is
- 2 paramount for studied taxa to remove CO₂.
- 3

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