

Removal of Trimethylamine from Indoor Air Using Potted Plants under Light and Dark Conditions

Tatiya Wannomai^{1#}, Patiya Kemacheevakul^{1,2,*}, and Paitip Thiravetyan³

¹Department of Environmental Engineering, Faculty of Engineering, King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi, Bangkok 10140, Thailand.

²Center of Excellences on Hazardous Substance Management (HSM), Bangkok 10330, Thailand.

³School of Bioresources and Technology, King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi, Bangkok 10150, Thailand.

Abstract

A phytoremediation was selected to mitigate fishy odor or trimethylamine (TMA) that occurs from seafood industry or fresh market. A synthetic TMA chemical was used for fishy odor. For this research, eight types of potted plants (*Prickly pear cactus*, *Dracaena sanderina* Sander, *Dieffenbachia camilla*, *Tradescantia spathacea*, *Peperromia magnoliifolia*, *Cholorophytum comosum*, *Cereus hexagonus* (L.) Mill, and *Scindapsus aureus*) were selected as the representative of potted plant to remove TMA under light and dark conditions. The results showed that *S. aureus* had the highest TMA removal efficiency under light conditions at 72 h (> 95%). However, it had very low efficiency under dark conditions. This implied that *S. aureus* should be applied in the places having light sources all day. On the other hand, cactus type (*C. hexagonus* (L.) Mill. and *Prickly pear cactus*) had high TMA removal efficiency under both light and dark conditions at 72 h (> 90%). These plants might be more suitable to apply in a real system containing light and dark conditions.

Keywords: Fishy odor; Phytoremediation; Trimethylamine; Potted plant; Light conditions

* Corresponding author. Tel: 66(0)-2-470-9360; Fax: 66(0)-2-470-9165; E-mail: patiya.kem@kmutt.ac.th

#Current address: Department of Transdisciplinary Science and Engineering, School of Environment and Society, Tokyo Institute of Technology, Tokyo 152-8552, Japan

30 INTRODUCTION

31

32 Trimethylamine (TMA, $N(CH_3)_3$) is a gaseous organic compound at room temperature (Chung
33 and Lee, 2009). It is a colorless gas with a fishy odor at low concentrations and can change to
34 ammonia-like odor at higher concentrations (Boraphech and Thiravetyan, 2015; OSHA, 1994;
35 Kim et al., 2011). Degradation of plants and animal residuals by microorganisms, especially
36 rotting marine animals, produce TMA (Chung and Lee, 2009; Chien et al., 2000; Chang et al.,
37 2004; Zhu et al., 1997). The offensive odor can affect human's health when they live in
38 unpleasant smell area for a long period. The major adverse health impacts from inhalation
39 exposures are breathing difficulty, irritation of upper respiratory tract, coughing, and even death
40 (Chien et al., 2000). Exposure dose is one of the factors, which affects human health (Geraets et
41 al., 2014). The National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) recommended that
42 10 ppm is a recommended exposure limit (REL) for TMA (NIOSH, 1981). TMA is one of air
43 pollution problem because it causes unpleasant smell at low concentrations (Ding et al., 2007;
44 Sintermann et al., 2014; Wolverton et al., 1989). Hence, mitigation of odor problem can help to
45 improve human's life. There are many methods to eliminate or reduce the odor problem, such as
46 absorption, biofiltration, and phytoremediation. Phytoremediation is a good alternative method to
47 solve this problem (Ding et al., 2007) because this method is not expensive, environmentally
48 friendly, highly efficient, and acceptable (Wolverton et al., 1989; Nobel et al., 1999; Wolverton
49 et al., 1996; Wood et al., 2001)

50 Since the 1990s, purification of offensive odor chemicals using houseplants has been studied
51 by National Aeronautics and Space Administration or NASA (Oyabu et al., 2003). After NASA's
52 experiments, purification of these chemicals using houseplants has emerged as a well-known
53 method. Wolverton et al., (1993) mentioned that these offensive odor chemicals, such as
54 formaldehyde, xylene, and ammonia, in an indoor environment were removed by plant and soil

55 microorganisms. Oyabu et al., (2001) also reported that toluene, formaldehyde, and xylene were
56 cleaned from ambient air by plants. Moreover purification of contamination in soils, sludge,
57 sediments, surface water, or ground water can be done by a phytoremediation process (USEPA,
58 1999). Phytoremediation is a natural process which consists of several mechanisms such as
59 phytoextraction, rhizofiltration, biosorption, phytostabilization, phytovotalyzation,
60 phytodegradation, and phytostimulation (Torok et al., 2015). The treatment efficiency of each
61 mechanism depends on the properties, and physical, chemical, and biological characteristics of
62 each pollutant (USEPA, 1999; Torok et al., 2015; Turker et al., 2013).

63 Plants play the major role in phytoremediation process. Normally, plants are living things
64 which produce their food by photosynthesis process. Green plants transform solar energy to
65 chemical energy through this process. Therefore, the photosynthesis is a main process for plants,
66 which can be affected by various kinds of light sources (Taiz et al., 1998). The sun light and
67 lamps can be the representative of light sources. Moreover, the different wave lengths of light
68 sources can be applied for plants (Morh and Browese, 1995). Light-emitting diode (LED) lamp is
69 a good alternative of light source (Chung et al., 2010; Nhut et al., 2003; Lin et al., 2013; Yurio et
70 al., 2011). It is probable that under LED conditions, plants will increase the purification
71 efficiency of odor chemicals (Chen et al., 2014).

72 Several research studies have reported the removal of odorous chemicals and volatile
73 pollutants (Torok et al., 2015; Turkey et al., 2013; Drozdova et al., 2001; Yang et al., 2009).
74 However, a few researchers have studied TMA. Therefore, the aim of this research was to
75 remove TMA from indoor air using potted plants at different light conditions. The light
76 conditions were separated into 2 conditions which are light and dark conditions. In terms of light
77 conditions, fluorescent and LED lamps were used. The concentration of TMA was continuously
78 measured using gas chromatography (GC).

79 METHODS

80

81 *Preparation of plants and reactors*

82 Eight species of potted plants were selected for this research, which were *Prickly pear cactus*,
83 *D. sanderina* Sander, *S. aureus*, *Dieffenbachia camilla*, *T. spathacea*, *Peperromia magnoliifolia*,
84 *Cholorophytum comosum*, and *C. hexagonus* (L.) Mill. Two species among eight plants were
85 cactus (*Prickly pear cactus* and *C. hexagonus* (L.) Mill) with others as leaf plants. Eight species
86 of potted plants were selected based on the removal rate of ammonia and size of potted plants. In
87 these experiments, the efficiency of TMA removal by aerial parts of plants was investigated.
88 Therefore, root parts were covered by aluminum foil. The surface area of leaves was selected
89 around 130-150 cm² for each plant (Boraphech and Thiravetyan, 2015; Treesubstorn and
90 Thiravetyan, 2012).

91 The glass desiccators were selected as the reactors for indoor air condition. The volume of
92 each desiccator was 15.6 L with cover lid (Fig. 1). The cover lid was used to control TMA
93 concentration and take the samples. Gas sampling was sucked by glass syringe through the
94 septum on top of the cover lid. Moreover, greases and parafilm were applied for gas leak
95 protection (Boraphech and Thiravetyan, 2015).

96

97 *Preparation of TMA*

98 TMA is a fishy odor. The critical concentration for living organism is 150 ppm in 30 min
99 (Boraphech and Thiravetyan, 2015; Ruijten, 2005; EPA, 2016). Hence, the concentration of
100 TMA which was used in this research was 150 ppm. TMA (40% aqueous solution) was obtained
101 from Sigma Aldrich. The volume of TMA solution was calculated from Eqs. (1-3):

102

$$103 \text{ ppm} = 10^6 \times \frac{W}{M_w} \times \frac{M_c}{V} \quad (1)$$

104 $M_c = 24.47 \times \frac{760}{P} \times \left(\frac{T+273.15}{298.15}\right)$ (2)

105

106 $\rho = \frac{W}{V_g}$ (3)

107

108 Where ρ is the density of TMA (1.88 g/mL), V_g (mL) is TMA volume, M_w (g/mole) is molecular
109 weight of TMA, M_c is mole concentration, V is volume of glass chamber (15.6 L), P is pressure
110 (mmHg), T is temperature ($^{\circ}$ C), and W is TMW weight (g).

111 From equation 4, the TMA which uptake by plant leaves was calculated by using plant leaf
112 area. Therefore, the molar concentration is expressed as nmol/ unit area (Wararat et al., 2014):

113

114 TMA removal per leaf area (nmol/cm²) = $\frac{C_i - C_f}{A}$ (4)

115

116 Where C_i is initial concentration (nmol), C_f = final concentration (nmol), and A = total leaf area
117 (cm²)

118

119 ***TMA removal experiments under different light conditions***

120 Three conditions were set in these experiments, which were light and dark conditions (Boraphech
121 and Thiravetyan, 2015). For light conditions, LED lamp (200 lux) which was daylight 6500K. It
122 was 6-watt lamp with 50/60 Hz and 45mA was selected as a kind of light source because this
123 type of light source is suitable for plants and uses less electricity than other types (Taiz et al.,
124 1998; Tang et al., 2010; Yorio et al., 2011). The second condition was fluorescent condition.

125 Both sources are common light sources in an indoor condition such as houses and offices. The

126 last condition was dark conditions. The experiments were conducted under dark condition. Each
127 desiccator was covered by 2 black bags for light protection.

128 The selected plants were placed in each desiccator. TMA was injected into the foil cup near
129 the selected plant. The experiments at different conditions were testes for 72 h at $25\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 2\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$.
130 The duplicate experiments were conducted for accuracy of results. Air samples were analyzed at
131 0, 2, 4, 8, 12, 24, 48, and 72 h. The concentration of TMA was measured by using GC
132 (Boraphech and Thiravetyan, 2015).

133 134 ***Gas chromatography analysis***

135 The CP-Volamine GC Column (Agilent Model) was used to analyze TMA concentration by
136 GC (Chung and Lee, 2009). The model number of GC was GC-6890N by Agilent. The condition
137 of GC is shown in Table 1. A flame ionization detector (FID) was selected as a gas detector
138 because TMA solution was a substance that can be burnt by flame (Chien et al., 2000)

139 140 ***Cuticle wax extraction***

141 The amount of cuticle wax of all eight potted plants was determined. The leaves of each type
142 of plants were cut into small pieces ($1 \times 1\text{ cm}^2$) and put into glass bottles. The total surface area of
143 leaves for each type of plants was around 130 cm^2 . The method of cuticle wax extraction was
144 adopted from Richardson method (Boraphech and Thiravetyan, 2015; Richardson et al., 2005).
145 Methanol and chloroform were used as the solvents for extraction at ratio of 1:1 by volume.
146 Methanol (30 mL) and chloroform (30 mL) were poured into the bottle of each sample. In order
147 to completely extract the wax, the prepared samples were shaken at 240 rpm for 8 h. After
148 shaking process, the solvents were evaporated in each bottle around 12-16 h in fume hood. The
149 remaining part was only wax.

150

151 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

152

153 *TMA removal efficiency by plants under different light conditions*

154 Eight species of plants with different characteristics, such as thickness and roughness of leaves,
155 and quantity of wax in leaves were screened (Boraphech and Thiravetyan, 2015; Ruijten, 2005).
156 The photos and characteristics of selected plants are shown in Table 2. The experiments were
157 conducted in the desiccators. Therefore, the height of plants could not exceed 20 cm. The
158 duration time for each experiment was 72 h.

159

160 *1. TMA removal by plants under LED condition*

161 Eight species of potted plants were placed in desiccators with TMA at 150 ppm under LED
162 conditions. The results in Fig. 2(a) show that *C. hexagonus* (L.) Mill. and *S. aureus* had high
163 TMA removal efficiency. Both types of plants could decrease TMA concentration in desiccators,
164 which was more than 80% within 8 h. After 72 h of experiments, *S. aureus* was the best species
165 for TMA removal ($95.4\% \pm 4.6$) and the second one was *C. hexagonus* (L.) Mill. ($93.6\% \pm 1.3$)
166 as shown in Fig. 2(a). It implied that both potted plants could uptake TMA at a higher rate
167 compared to other plants. Moreover, *S. aureus* is well known as a plant which can treat pollutants
168 including ammonia in offices and restrooms. On the other hand, *C. comosum*, *D. camilla*, and *P.*
169 *magnoliifolia* had low TMA removal efficiencies which were less than 41% within 8 h. However,
170 the removal efficiency of these three plants increased continuously (more than 80% within 72 h).

171 The results indicated that light sources (LED lamp) affected photosynthesis of plants (Morh
172 and Browese, 1995; Chung et al., 2010; Nhut et al., 2003) and resulted in decreasing TMA
173 concentrations. In addition, the removal efficiency of TMA of each plant also depends on plant
174 species and their waxes. Normally, sunlight is a suitable light source for plants. It was quite
175 similar to LED lamp conditions because of its wavelength. LED lamp has vital rays for plant
176 growth at 450 nm (blue light), and 650 nm (red light) as sunlight conditions. Comparison among

177 fluorescent lamp, LED lamp, and incandescent lamp, the proper light source which is good for
178 growing plants is LED lamp (Taiz et al., 1998; Morh and Browese, 1995). In terms of
179 incandescent lamp, its spectrum is quite fit for plant growth (blue and red light). However,
180 incandescent lamp consumes much electric power and it is too hot when it is used for a long time
181 (Morh and Browese, 1995).

182

183 2. TMA removal by plants under fluorescent condition

184 From the results in the Fig. 2(b), *Prickly pear cactus*, *S. aureus*, *T. spathacea*, *C. hexagonus*
185 (*L.*) Mill, and *D. sanderina* Sander could decrease TMA concentration which was more than 50%
186 within 8 h. After 24 h of experiments, *Prickly pear cactus* was the best species for TMA removal
187 (100% \pm 0). Moreover, after 72 h of experiments (Fig. 2(b)), plants which could reach 100%
188 removal were *Prickly pear cactus*, *Peperromia magnoliifolia*, *C. hexagonus (L.)* Mill., *S. aureus*,
189 and *T. spathacea*. So, the result implied that *Prickly pear cactus* which is grouped in CAM plant
190 was the best plant to remove TMA concentration in this condition. The rate of TMA removal at 8
191 h under fluorescent condition was lower than the rate of TMA removal under LED condition.

192

193 3. TMA removal by plants under dark condition

194 Fig. 2(c) shows removal of TMA in the desiccators after treatment by eight potted plants
195 under dark conditions for 72 h. The result showed that *C. hexagonus (L.)* Mill. and *Prickly pear*
196 *cactus* were the suitable potted plants for TMA removal under dark conditions among the eight
197 species. Both types of plants could remove TMA concentration, which was between 50% and
198 65% within 8 h. CAM is good at adapting itself in a condition which has no light. The efficiency
199 was not different when compared to the potted plants under light conditions. However, the
200 efficiencies of both plants trended to increase after 72 h of experiments which were 87.9% \pm 2.7

201 and $90.9\% \pm 0.1$ for *Prickly pear cactus* and *C. hexagonus (L.)* Mill, respectively. Both plants
202 had high removal efficiency under dark conditions. The reason was *Prickly pear cactus* and *C.*
203 *hexagonus (L.)* Mill (CAM plant) open stomata at night and absorb TMA. Moreover, they had
204 fleshy pads which look like leaves and have several functions such as water storage,
205 photosynthesis and flower production (Boraphech and Thiravetyan, 2015; Taiz, 1998). On the
206 other hand, *S. aureus* had the lowest TMA removal efficiency at 72 h ($57.2\% \pm 1.9$). It indicated
207 that *S. aureus* preferred light for its activity because it had the highest TMA removal efficiency at
208 72 h under light conditions.

209 **Quantity of cuticle wax**

211 The cuticle wax quantities of eight kinds of potted plants were studied by using Richardson
212 method (Boraphech and Thiravetyan, 2014; Richardson et al., 2005). The result showed that *D.*
213 *sanderiana* Sander had the highest wax concentrations (7.06 mg/cm^2) as shown in Fig. 3. The
214 second and third plants were *Prickly pear cactus* (2.86 mg/cm^2) and *C. hexagonus (L.)* Mill (1.17
215 mg/cm^2). The remaining potted plants (*T. spathacea*, *C. comosum*, *D. camilla*, and *S. aureus*) had
216 low wax concentrations which were lower than 1 mg/cm^2 with the lowest wax concentrations for
217 *S. aureus* (0.56 mg/cm^2).

218 Considering wax quantities of eight plants under dark conditions at 8 h, the results showed
219 that quantity of wax had a significant effect on TMA removal efficiency (Boraphech and
220 Thiravetyan, 2015). Two plants (*Prickly pear cactus*, and *C. hexagonus (L.)* Mill) with high
221 amounts of wax in the leaves had the highest TMA removal efficiency. It was consistent with the
222 study by Treesubsuntorn et al. (2012) who reported that 46% of total benzene uptake was by
223 crude wax of *D. sanderiana* Sander at 72 h. The results suggested that the crude wax could act as
224 a biosorbent. The crude wax can be one important factor for adsorbing air pollutants
225 (Treesubsuntorn and Thiravetyan, 2012). Moreover, a previous study from Treesubsuntorn et al.,

226 (2015) suggested that not only the quantity of wax but also the composition of wax affects
227 pollutant adsorption.

228
229 ***Comparison of TMA removal by plants under light and dark conditions***

230 Based on the results from previous sections, the selected plants could be divided into two
231 groups: (i) high removal efficiency under light conditions, and (ii) high removal efficiency under
232 light and dark conditions.

233
234 ***1. High removal efficiency under light conditions***

235 The plants in this group (C_3 plants), which were *C. comosum*, *D. camilla*, *P. magnoliifolia*,
236 and *S. aureus*, had high removal efficiency under light conditions but had low removal efficiency
237 under dark conditions. The results showed that they had a very high TMA removal efficiency
238 under light conditions at 72 h ($> 80\%$ removal), especially *S. aureus* had the highest removal
239 efficiency ($95.4\% \pm 4.6$), as shown in Fig. 2 and Table S.1. However, they had quite low removal
240 efficiency under dark conditions ($< 60\%$ at 24 h) as shown in Fig. 4.

241 It indicated that these plants need light source for their photosynthesis (Wolverton et al., 1989;
242 Yang et al., 2009) and enhanced TMA removal. The stomata were observed close under dark
243 conditions for C_3 plants. Therefore, TMA was mainly removed by stomata during day time (light
244 conditions). Moreover, the amount of wax may be another factor which decreased the
245 concentration of TMA (Boraphech and Thiravetyan, 2015; Treesubuntorn and Thiravetyan,
246 2012). As mentioned in the previous section, *S. aureus* had the lowest amount of waxes including
247 epicuticular and cuticular wax. Thus, these waxes and the physical structure of the wax of *S.*
248 *aureus* had low TMA removal efficiency under dark condition. It implied that these plants might
249 be suitable for application only under light conditions.

250 Moreover, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine whether the differences
251 between the species of plants and light conditions for TMA removal. According to Fig. 4, the
252 results from ANOVA with 95% confidence showed that different species of C₃ plants including *C.*
253 *comosum*, *D. camilla*, *P. magnoliifolia*, and *S. aureus* have no effect on TMA removal. However,
254 different light conditions (i.e. LED, fluorescent, and dark conditions) have had a significant
255 impact on TMA removal at 24 h.

256 257 2. High removal efficiency under light and dark conditions

258 The plants in this group (C₃ and CAM plants), which were *C. hexagonus* (L.) Mill, *Prickly*
259 *pear cactus*, and *D. sanderina* Sander, and *T. spathacea*, had high removal efficiency under light
260 and dark conditions. The result showed that TMA removal efficiency for these four plants under
261 light and dark conditions were quite similar, especially at 72 h (> 90% removal). It indicated that
262 light sources did not have a significant effect on these plants. For TMA removal, CAM plants (*C.*
263 *hexagonus* (L.) Mill and *Prickly pear cactus*) open stomata at night and absorb TMA. Therefore,
264 CAM plants can reduce TMA under dark condition. Moreover, there are some species of C₃ and
265 C₄ plants which can under stress conditions switch to the CAM system (facultative CAM). *T.*
266 *spathacea* (C₃ plant) is included in facultative CAM. In case of *D. sanderina* Sander, it had the
267 highest amount of waxes including epicuticular and cuticular wax. Thus, these waxes and the
268 physical structure of the wax may help for TMA removal under dark condition.

269 In addition, the results from ANOVA with 95% confidence showed that different species of
270 plants including *C. hexagonus* (L.) Mill, *Prickly pear cactus*, and *D. sanderina* Sander, and *T.*
271 *spathacea* and light conditions have no effect on TMA removal. It indicated that these 4 plants
272 could remove TMA under dark and light conditions.

273

274 CONCLUSIONS

275
276 The results showed that the selected plants could be divided into two groups: (i) plants with high
277 removal efficiency under light conditions, and (ii) plants with high TMA removal efficiency
278 under light and dark conditions. For the first group, the highest TMA removal efficiency was *S.*
279 *aureus*. The main mechanism in this group (C_3 plant) was plant uptake via photosynthesis and
280 open stomata during light conditions. For the second group, cactus type (*C. hexagonus* (L.) Mill
281 and *Prickly pear cactus*) had high removal efficiency under light and dark conditions. These
282 plants (CAM) open stomata at night and absorb TMA. Moreover, the result of ANOVA with
283 95% confidence could confirm that different species of plant (8 types) and light conditions (i.e.
284 LED, fluorescent, and dark conditions) have had a significant impact on TMA removal at 24 h.

285

286 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

287

288 This research was financially supported by the KMUTT Research Fund and Research
289 Strengthening Project of Faculty of Engineering, King Mongkut's University of Technology
290 Thonburi. The authors thank staffs from Environmental Engineering Department. The authors
291 also thank Dr. Chairat Treesubsuntorn and Dr. Phattara Boraphech for their helps.

292

293 **REFERENCES**

294

295 Boraphech, P. and Thiravetyan, P. (2015). Trimethylamine (Fishy odor) adsorption by
296 biomaterials: Effect of fatty acids, alkanes, and aromatic compounds in waxes. *J. Hazard.*
297 *Mater.* 284:277-269.

298 Chang, C.T., Chen, B.Y., Shiu, I.S. and Jeng, F.T. (2004). Biofiltration of trimethylamine-
299 containing waste gases by entrapped mixed microbial cells. *Chemosphere* 55:756-751.

300 Chen, X.L., Guo, W.Z., Xue, X.Z., Wang, L.C. and Qiao, X.J. (2014). Growth and quality
301 responses of 'GreenOak Leaf' lettuce as affected by monochromic or mixed radiation
302 provided by fluorescent lamp (FL) and light - emitting diode (LED). *Sci. Hortic-Amsterdam*
303 172: 175-168.

304 Chien, Y.C., Uang, S.N., Kuo, C.T., Shih, T.S. and Jen, J.F. (2000). Analytical method for
305 monitoring airborne trimethylamine using solid phase micro-extraction and gas
306 chromatography-flame ionization detection. *Anal. Chim. Acta* 419:79-73.

307 Chung, J.P., Huang, C.T. and Dai, T.E. (2010). Spectral effects on embryogenesis and plant-let
308 growth of *Oncidium* 'Gower Ramsey'. *Sci. Hortic.* 124: 516-511.

309 Chung, K.H. and Lee, K.Y. (2009). Removal of trimethylamine by absorption over zeolite
310 catalysts and deodorization of fishy oil. *J. Hazard. Mater.* 172:922-927.

311 Ding, Y., Shi, J.T., Wu, W.X., Yin, J. and Chen, Y.X. (2007). Trimethylamine (TMA)
312 biofiltration and transformation in biofilters. *J. Hazard. Mater.* 143:348-341.

313 Drozdova, I.S., Bondar, V.V., Bukhov, N.G., Kotov, A.A., Kotva, M.M., Maevskaya, S.N. and
314 Mokronosov, A.T. (2001). Effects of light spectral quality on morphogenesis and source-
315 sink relations in radish plant, Russ. *J. Plant Physiol.* 48: 420-415.

316 EPA (2016). Method 8260C volatile organic compound by gas chromatography/mass
317 spectrometry (GC/MS) <http://www.epa.gov/osw/hazard/testmethods/pdf/8260c.pdf>.

318 Geraets, L., Bessems, J.G., Zeilmaker, M.J. and Bos, P.M. (2014). Human risk assessment of
319 dermal and inhalation exposures to chemicals assessed by route-to-route extrapolation: The
320 necessity of kinetic data. *Regul. Toxicol. Pharm.* 70:62-54.

321 Ho, K.L., Chung, Y.C., Lin, Y.H. and Tseng, C.P. (2008). Biofiltration of trimethylamine,
322 dimethylamine, and methylamine by immobilized *Paracoccus* sp. CP2 and *Arthrobacter* sp.
323 CP.1 *Chemosphere* 72:256-250.

324 Kim, S.G., Bae, H.S. and Lee, S.T. (2011). A novel denitrifying bacterial isolate that degrades
325 trimethylamine both aerobically and anaerobically via two different pathways. *Arch.*
326 *Microbiol.* 176:277-271.

327 Lin, K.H., Huang, M. Y., Huang, W.D., Hsu, M.H., Yang, Z.W. and Yang, C.M. (2013). The
328 effects of red, blue, and white light-emitting diodes on the growth, development, and edible
329 quality of hydroponically grown lettuce (*Lactuca sativa* L. var. *capitata*). *Sci. Hort.* 150:86-
330 91.

331 Morh, H. and Browese, J. (1995), *Plant Physiology*. Springer, Berlin.

332 Nhut, D.T., Hong, L.T.A., Watanabe, H., Goi, M. and Tanaka, M. (2003). Growth of banana
333 plantlets cultured in vitro under red and blue light-emitting diode (LED) irradiation source.
334 *Acta Hortie.* 575: 124-117.

335 NIOSH (1981). *Occupational Health Guidelines for chemical Hazards*. DHHS (NIOSH)
336 Publication, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, Ohio.

337 Nobel, P.S. (1999). *Physicochemical & Environmental Plant Physiology*, 2nd edn. Academic
338 Press, San Diego.

339 OSHA (1994). *Occupational Safety and Health Guideline for Trimethylamine, Computerized*
340 *information system, Occupational Safety and Health Administration*. Department of Labor,
341 Washington DC.

342 Oyabu, T., Onodera, T., Kimura, H. and Sadaoka, Y. (2001). Purification ability of interior plant
343 for removing of indoor-air polluting chemicals using a tin oxide gas sensor, *J. Jpn. Soc.*
344 *Atmos. Environ.* 34: 319–325.

345 Oyabu, T., Ayako, S., Onodera, T., Tanaka, K. and Wolverton, B.C.)2003(. Characteristics of
346 potted plants for removing offensive odors. *Sens. Actuators B.* 89: 136-131.

347 Richardson, A., Franke, R., Kersriens, G., Jarvis, M., Schreiber, L. and Fricke, W. (2005).
348 Cuticular wax deposition in growing barley (*Hordeum vulgare*) leaves commences in
349 relation to the point of emergence of epidermal cells from the sheaths of older leaves.
350 *Planta* 222: 472-483.

351 Ruijten, M. (2005). *Personal Communication from Dr. Marc Ruijten*, National Institute of Public
352 Health and Environment (RIVM), AEGL-2 Committee Member, The Netherlands.

353 Sintermann, J., Schallhardt, S., Kajos, M., Jocher, M., Bracher, A., Munger, A., Johnson, D.,
354 Neftel, A. and Ruuskanen, T. (2014). Trimethylamine emissions in animal husbandry.
355 *Biogeosciences* 11:5073-5085.

356 Sriprapat, W., Boraphech, P. and Thiravetyan, P. (2014) Factors affecting xylene-contaminated
357 air removal by the ornamental plant, *Zamioculcas zamiifolia*, *Environ Sci and Pollut Res*,
358 21: 2603-2610.

359 Taiz, L. and Zeiger, E. (1998). *Plant Physiology*, 2nd edn. Sinauer Associates, Inc., Publishers,
360 Massachusetts.

361 Torok, A., Gulyas. Z., Szalai, G., Kocsy, G. and Majdik, C. (2015). Phytoremediation capacity of
362 aquatic plants is associated with the degree of phytochelatin polymerization. *J. Hazard.*
363 *Mater.* 299: 371-378.

364 Treesubsuntorn, C. and Thiravetyan, P. (2012). Removal of Benzene from indoor air by *Dracaena*
365 *sanderiana*: Effect of wax and stomata. *Atmos. Environ.* 57: 321-317.

366 Turker, O.C., Bocuk, H. and Yakar, A. (2013). The phytoremediation ability of a polyculture
367 constructed wetland to treat boron from mine effluent. *J. Hazard. Mater.* 252-253: 132-141.

368 USEPA (1999). *Phytoremediation Resource Guild*. Environmental management support, Inc.,
369 Maryland.

370 Wolverton, B.C., Johnson, A. and Bounds, K. (1989). *Interior Landscape Plants for indoor Air*
371 *Pollution Abatement*. Final Report. NASA Stennis Space Centre, Mississippi.

372 Wolverton, B.C. and Wolverton, J.D. (1993). Plants and soil microorganisms, removal of
373 formaldehyde, xylene, and ammonia from the indoor environment. *J. Miss. Acad. Sci.* 38:
374 15-11.

375 Wolverton, B.C. (1996). *How to grow Fresh Air*. Penguin book, New York.

376 Wood, R.L., Orwell, R.L., Tarran, J. and Burchett, M.D. (2001). Pot-plants really do clean indoor
377 air. *The Nursery Papers* 4-1.

378 Yang, D.S., Pennisi, S.V., Son, K., Kays, S.J.) 2009(. Screening indoor plants for volatile organic
379 pollutant removal efficiency. *HortScience* 44: 1381-133.

380 Yorio, N.C., Goins, G.D., Kagie, H.R., Wheeler, R.M. and Sager, J.C. (2011). Improving
381 spinach, radish, and lettuce growth under red light-emitting diodes (LED) with blue light
382 supplementation, *HortScience* 36: 383-380.

383 Zhu, J., Bundy, D.S., Li, X.W. and Rashid, N. (1997). Reduction of order and volatile substances
384 in pig slurries by using pit additives. *J. Environ. Sci. Heal. A* 32:619-605.

385

386

387

388

389

Table Captions

390

391 **Table 1.** Condition of GC instrument.

392 **Table 2.** Details and characteristic of selected plants.

393

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

394 **Table 1.** Condition of GC instrument.

Inlet	Temp.	200 °C
	Total flow	40 mL/min
	Split ratio	5:1
Column	Carrier gas	He
	Column flow	3 mL/min
	Temp.	200 °C
Detector	Detector	FID detector
	Temp.	240 °C
	Flaming gas	
	-H ₂	35 mL/min
	-Air zero	400 mL/min
	Make up gas (N ₂)	20 mL/min

395

396

397

398

399









400

401

402

403

404 **Table 2.** Details and characteristic of selected plants.

Image	Species	Family name	Outlook characteristics
	<i>Prickly pear cactus</i>	<i>Opuntia</i>	Desert flora
	<i>Cereus hexagonus (L.) Mill.</i>	<i>Cactaceae</i>	Desert flora
	<i>Dracaena sanderiana</i> Sander.	<i>Asparagaceae</i>	Leaf plant
	<i>Tradescantia spathacea</i>	<i>Commelinaceae</i>	Leaf plant
	<i>Dieffenbachia camilla</i>	<i>Araceae</i>	Leaf plant
	<i>Cholorophytum comosum</i>	<i>Liliaceae</i>	Leaf plant
	<i>Scindapsus aureus</i>	<i>Araceae</i>	Leaf plant
	<i>Peperromia magnoliifolia</i>	<i>Piperaceae</i>	Leaf plant

406 **Figure Captions**

407

408 **Fig. 1.** Reactor for indoor air condition.

409 **Fig. 2.** Removal of TMA by various potted plants under (a) LED condition, (b) fluorescent
410 condition, and (c) dark condition (C_0 = initial TMA concentration (ppm), C = remaining TMA
411 concentration at different time (ppm)).

412 **Fig. 3.** Amount of cuticle wax per leaf area of various potted plants.

413 **Fig. 4.** TMA removal efficiency of 8 species of plant at 24 h.

414

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

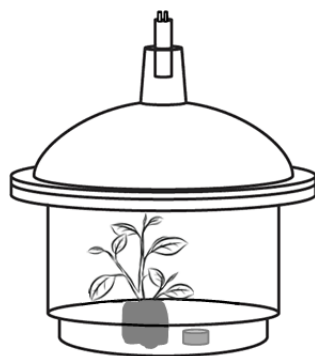


Fig. 1. Reactor for indoor air condition.

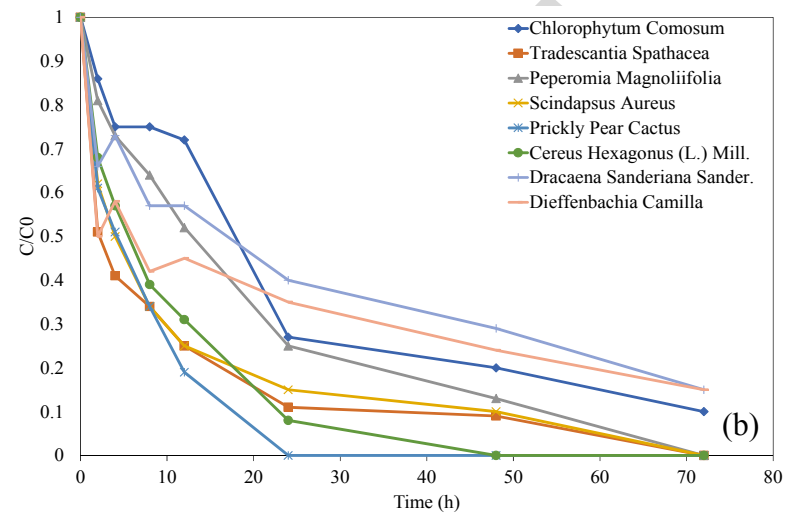
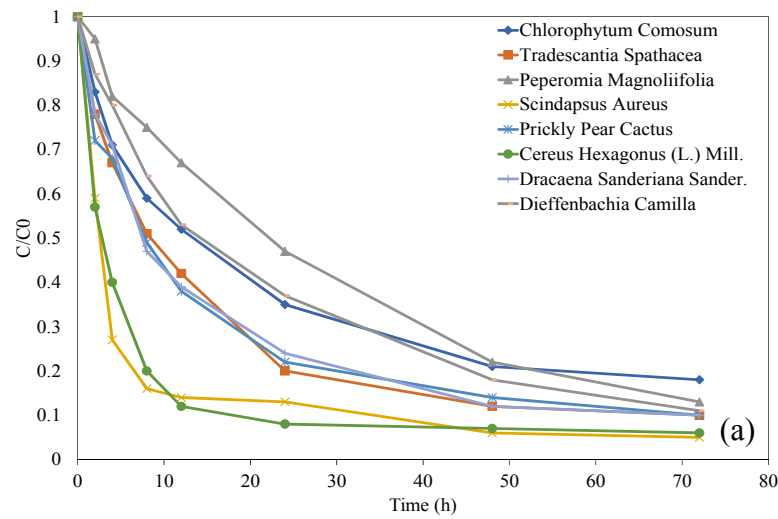
415

416

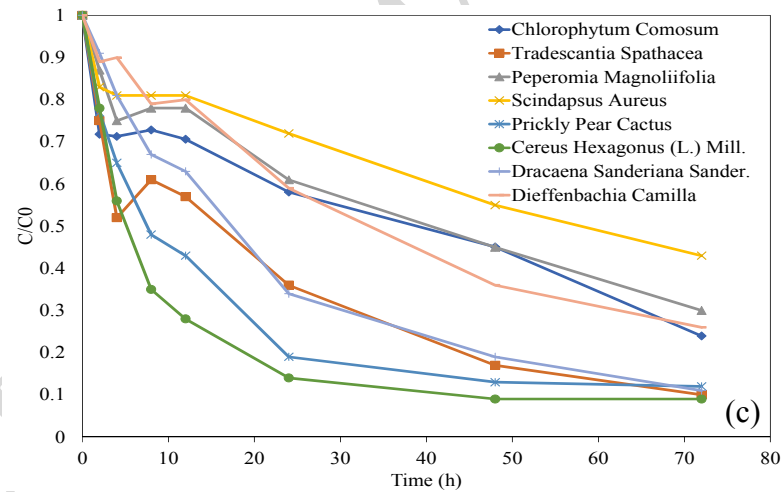
417

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

418



419



420 **Fig. 2.** Removal of TMA by various potted plants under (a) LED condition, (b) fluorescent condition, and (c) dark condition (C_0 = initial
421 TMA concentration (ppm), C = remaining TMA concentration at different time (ppm)).

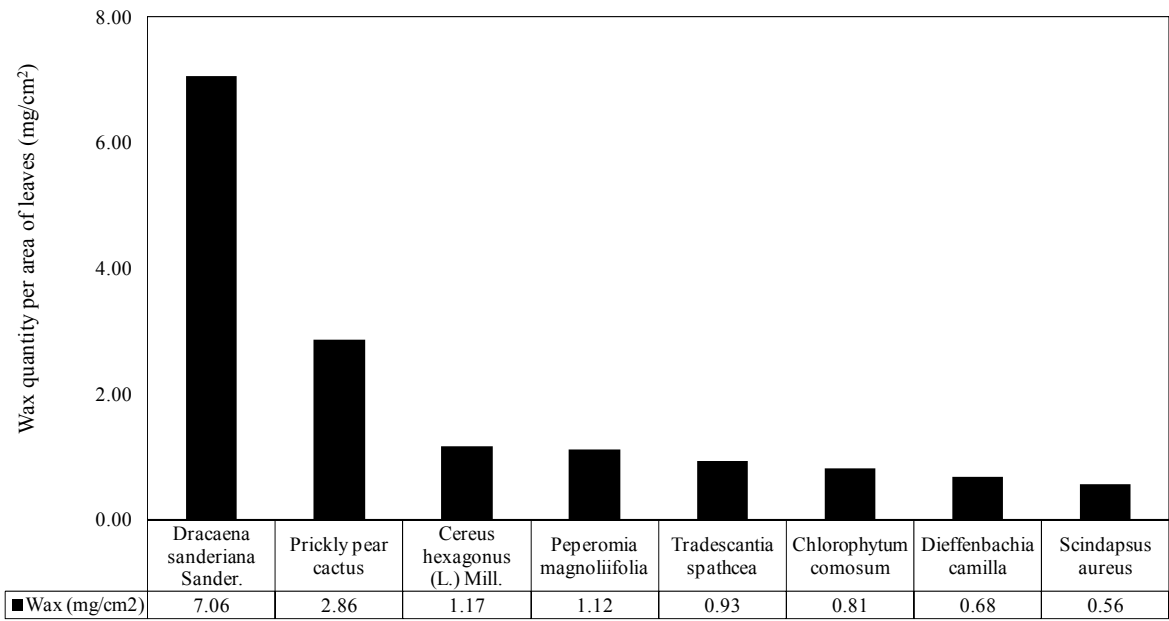


Fig. 3. Amount of cuticle wax per leaf area of various potted plants.

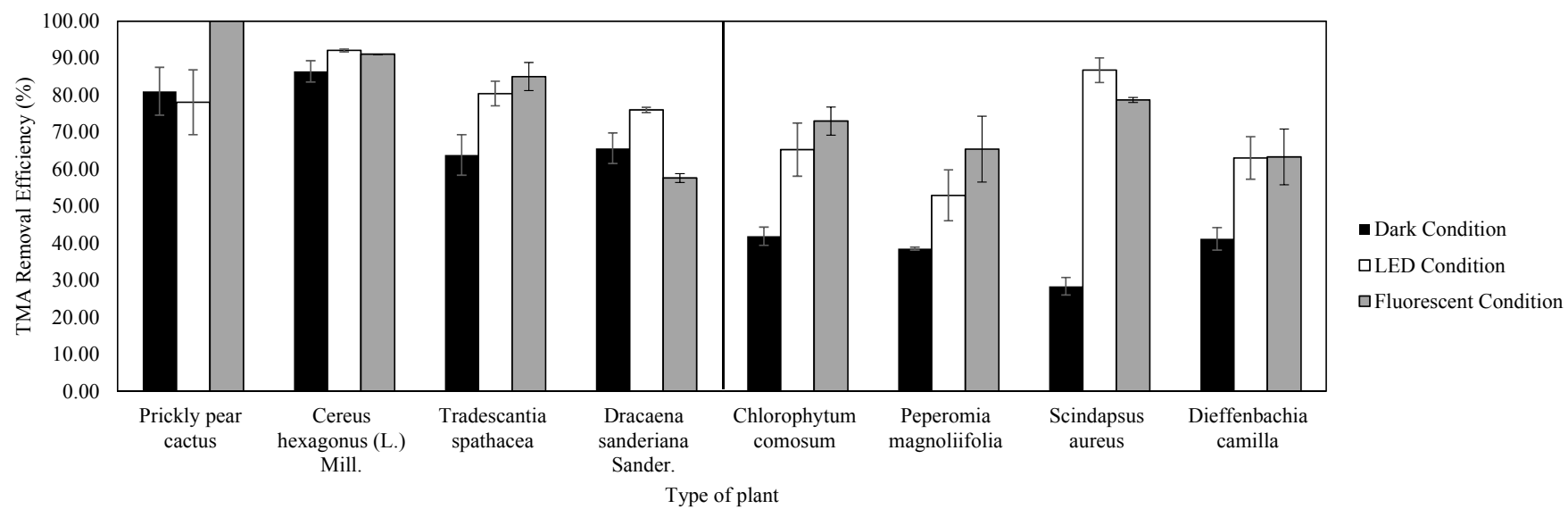
422

423

424

425

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT



426
427

Fig. 4. TMA removal efficiency of 8 species of plant at 24 h.

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT