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note finali coverage

(Article begins on next page)

# 1 FTIR SPECTROSCOPY FOR DETERMINATION OF THE RAW MATERIALS

## 2 USED IN WOOD PELLET PRODUCTION

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9

10 Keywords: biomass, infrared spectroscopy, densified solid biofuel, clustering analysis, ISO 17725 standards.

11

## 12 **Abstract**

13 The research investigates the possibility of distinguishing pellet wood fuels using infrared spectroscopy. It has been  
14 applied Attenuated Total Reflectance - Fourier Transform InfraRed (ATR-FTIR) spectroscopy, deemed an analysis  
15 technique appropriate for detecting the chemical composition of materials, to determine woody components make up  
16 a wood pellet. Considering the large quantities of this solid biofuel on the market, it is necessary to guarantee the safety  
17 and traceability aspects of the product, as its origin and source, in addition to the quality parameters indicated by the  
18 ISO 17225-2 standards. In this study, a total of 98 samples of the most common wood used for European pellet  
19 production, have been selected and collected. This set of samples include also materials coming from the wood industry,  
20 as residues of the chemical process. Through clustering analysis Principal component Analysis (PCA) and Hierarchical  
21 Cluster Analysis (HCA) techniques applied to spectroscopic analyzer data, it has been seen that ATR-FTIR results provide  
22 information on wood pellet typology, hardwood and softwood, and pellet made by woody materials containing high  
23 quantity of chemical products like glues.

24

## 25 **1. Introduction**

26

27 The European Union has recently proposed a new and stricter package of proposals fit for reducing net greenhouse gas  
28 emissions by at least 55% by 2030 and aspires to world leadership in the fight against climate change. This recent  
29 decision has also produced effects on the new targets for the share of renewable energy established by the Renewable  
30 Energy Directive II, moving them from 32 to 40% by 2030 [1]. To fulfil the EU's climate and energy goals, the heating,  
31 and cooling sector must sharply reduce its energy consumption and cut its use of fossil fuels [2]. Currently, this energy  
32 sector contributes over 70% of energy consumption [3]. Half of the heat produced from biomass is consumed by the  
33 residential and service sector (school, hospitals, hotels...) and this is also evident from the great number of small and  
34 medium installations producing bioheat in Europe [3]. The contribution of solid biomass to the achievement of EU  
35 objectives can be significant, especially from wood pellets whose production [4] has increased from about 12 million  
36 metric tons in 2008 to 56 million metric tons in 2018. More than 27 million metric tons of wood pellets were consumed  
37 in Europe in 2018, more than 45% of them for industrial purposes [5] mainly to produce heat for heating or process heat  
38 [3]. The global pellet market is expanding and by 2050, is likely to exceed 60 Mt yr<sup>-1</sup> [6]. Primarily produced with the  
39 residues of the wood processing chain, wood pellets are regulated by ISO 17225-2 and which currently identifies three  
40 quality classes for domestic heating, A1, A2, B, and three industrial-type classes (I1, I2, and I3). In Italy, class I4 has  
41 recently been defined by means of UNI / TS 11765: 2019. It is important to point out how the regulations have helped  
42 to support the growth of this fuel in the past years by ensuring the achievement of high-quality levels also through  
43 certification schemes and correct environmental performance [7]. The quality classes defined in the technical  
44 specifications establish the maximum and minimum levels of physico-chemical parameters and the origin and source of  
45 the material based on hierarchical classification made in ISO 17225-1. The latter, in addition to implicitly conditioning  
46 the quality level of the pellet, differentiating the type of wood (eg wood from whole trees with or without roots, wood  
47 with or without bark, wood from gardens vineyard, and so on ...) also signals the presence of matrices not allowed by  
48 the legislation of some countries. For example, in Italy the chemically treated wood by-products, residues, fibers and  
49 wood constituents (1.2.2), referring to the residues of wood processing residues, namely glue-laminated wood, oriented  
50 strand board (OSB), plywood, and chipboard [8], and used wood (1.3) are not allowed as fuel biomass for powering  
51 domestic systems. Finally, the knowledge of the origin and source of the solid biomass contributes on evaluating the  
52 traceability and sustainability of the pellet or in general of solid biofuel. Currently, this information is always declared  
53 by the pellet manufacturer and cannot be detected through a simple visual evaluation as the starting raw material is  
54 deconstructed through grinding during the pelletizing process, thus losing the macroscopic characteristics of the original

55 product. Traditional methods of recognizing woody materials are based on costly and time-consuming analysis  
56 techniques, such as scanning electronic microscopy (SEM). However, methods of analysis using infrared spectroscopy  
57 have been proposed for some years [8, 9 and 10]. Particularly, NIR spectroscopy has been introduced as a promising  
58 method for the prediction of wood properties. This technique is a sample task with no chemical destruction and easy  
59 preparation of samples [11-13] Many studies have already suggested the use of time-saving analytical models based on  
60 NIR spectroscopy. This allows moisture, cellulose, lignin, and extractive contents in wood or biomass to be measured  
61 automatically [14-15] It was demonstrated that the FT-NIR is sensitive enough to detect minor differences in the  
62 chemical composition in trees of the same species, but growing in various locations [16] FT-NIR spectroscopy can be  
63 considered valid pre-screening tool for analyzing large volumes of biomass, overcoming the sampling problem and  
64 allowing a total quality control if used for industrial in-line applications [17]. Near infrared energy is strongly absorbed  
65 by water molecules and corresponding OH bonds. NIR spectra of biomaterials may be dominated therefore by “water  
66 peaks” at ~1450 nm and ~1890 nm, which is especially noticeable in samples with higher moisture contents. In that case  
67 the spectrum contains only a few strong, broad absorption bands, masking peaks due to other wood constituents [18].  
68 Band assignments can be of particular importance in quality control, because control charting methods can be utilized  
69 to determine when the process is out of control based on shifts in functional groups or principal components that  
70 represent key functional groups [19-20]. Any shift in the functional groups could be an indication of a change in  
71 feedstock quality. Mid Infrared Spectroscopy (MIR-FTIR) is now receiving increased attention because of the availability  
72 of the ATR-diamond reflectance method that has made it possible for the spectra of solid samples to be acquired in  
73 seconds. In addition, the peaks of FTIR spectra are more interpretable, resulting in easier qualitative analysis [21]. One  
74 hurdle for using FTIR spectroscopy on solid wood samples could be the cellular orientation in wood and its effect on  
75 reflectance, absorbance, and/or transmission of light [22]. Attenuated Total Reflectance - Fourier Transform InfraRed  
76 (ATR-FTIR) spectroscopy is a valuable analytical tool, which let achieve relevant information on the chemical  
77 composition of organic, inorganic and biological compounds, by analyzing the interaction between matter and the  
78 electromagnetic radiation in the infrared range. This technique needs a very small amount of pure sample powder  
79 (usually < 1 mg); it is based on the study of the evanescent wave generated by the incoming IR radiation at the  
80 interface between the sample and a crystal with high refractive index. Unlike the other common techniques, FTIR-  
81 ATR spectroscopy does not require laborious sample preparation steps and the interpretation of the analysis is  
82 rather simple [23].

83 The results of these works seem to be so comforting that a technical specification has been drawn up in Italy - UNI/TS  
 84 11765:2019 (Solid biofuels - Guidelines for the determination of the quality by near infrared spectrometry) - which  
 85 allows the determination of some properties of solid biofuels by NIRS. However, the application of near infrared  
 86 spectroscopy still has room for improvement and requires the experience of specific applications. Therefore, the authors  
 87 found it useful to evaluate the possibility of using mid-infrared spectroscopic analysis to recognize and characterize the  
 88 woody raw material of pellets compliant with UNI EN ISO 17225-2. The research objectives concern the possibility of  
 89 distinguishing softwood from hardwood pellets and untreated and chemically treated wood pellets.

90

## 91 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 92 **2.1 Sample Collection and Preparation**

93 In this study, a total of 98 samples of hardwood and softwood of the most common European species in the energy  
 94 pellet sector, have been selected and collected. The wood samples were classified as following: 23 virgin softwood,  
 95 3 laminated softwood, 61 virgin hardwood, 3 laminated hardwood and 8 chemically treated blends (Table 1).

96 The material was first of all stabilized at 45 °C for 24 h; in this way, all of the samples have reached the same  
 97 moisture content of 6–7%. Subsequently, the samples were ground by means of a cutting mill (model SM 2000,  
 98 Retsch), sieved below 0.25 mm, stored in plastic containers, and analyzed in medium infrared wavelength.

99

100 **Table 1.** Dataset of virgin (V), laminated (L) and chemically treated wood samples

Softwood	Data set	Hardwood	Data set	Blends of chemically treated woods	Data set
Pine ( <i>Pinus spp.</i> ) (V)	11	Beech ( <i>Fagus sylvatica</i> ) (V)	10	Medium-density fibreboard (MDF)	2
Fir ( <i>Abies spp.</i> ) (V)	11	Walnuts ( <i>Juglans regia</i> ) (V)	10	Oriented Strand Board (OSB)	4
Larch ( <i>Larix decidua</i> ) (V)	1	Oak ( <i>Quercus petraea</i> ) (V)	10	Chipboard	2
Pine ( <i>Pinus spp.</i> ) (L)	3	Chestnut ( <i>Castanea sativa</i> ) (V)	10		
		Ash ( <i>Fraxinus excelsior</i> ) (V)	10		
		Maple ( <i>Acer pseudoplatanus</i> ) (V)	10		
		Turkey oak ( <i>Quercus cerris</i> ) (V)	1		
		Ash ( <i>Fraxinus excelsior</i> ) (L)	3		

101

### 102 **2.2 ATR-FTIR analysis**

103 All samples were analyzed by using a PerkinElmer Spectrum GX1 spectrometer (PerkinElmer, Inc, Waltham, MA,  
104 USA), equipped with the ATR accessory consisting of a crystal of ZnSe (FTIR-ATR) (Pike Technologies Miracle Universal  
105 ATR) for the analysis of solid samples in reflectance mode. On each wood sample, ten IR spectra were acquired (64  
106 scans, spectral resolution  $4\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) in reflectance mode in the  $4000\text{-}500\text{ cm}^{-1}$  spectral range and the average spectrum  
107 was reported. To perform the analysis, a small amount of sample (0.2–0.3 g) was pressed onto the crystal using a  
108 high-pressure tower. A background spectrum was collected before each sample acquisition to exclude the signals not  
109 associated with the sample (e.g., environment).

110 All raw IR spectra were converted in absorbance, interpolated in the  $1800\text{-}900\text{ cm}^{-1}$  spectral interval, baseline  
111 corrected, and vector normalized in the same range (Spectrum 10.6.1 software, Perkin-Elmer).

112 The above-described spectral parameters of each sample were submitted to Hierarchical Component Analysis (HCA)  
113 and Principal Component Analysis (PCA), to evaluate similarities among samples.

114

## 115 **2.3 Clustering Analysis**

116 Principal component Analysis (PCA) is an algorithm used to extract relevant information from confusing data sets  
117 highlighting similarities and differences. The original data set of variables is reduced to smaller number of orthogonal  
118 variables called the principal components (PCs). In the analysis of FTIR spectra by PCA the scores report the contribution  
119 of each spectrum related to the selected principal component and the corresponding loadings show which wavenumber  
120 is responsible for such contribution. In this work the PCA was carried out on all spectra of wood samples extracted by  
121 Hierarchical Cluster Analysis (HCA) in order to discriminate between the two classes of virgin wood (hardwood and  
122 softwood) and between the virgin samples and the corresponding chemically treated ones.

123 Before PCA computation, the spectral database was subjected to different pretreatments, such as Hierarchical Cluster  
124 Analysis (HCA), Standard Normal Variate (SNV) to reduce the scatter effect and spectral average of replicates in the  
125 same spectral range ( $1100\text{-}1800\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) because it contained high spectral information. PCA and all pretreatments were  
126 performed by means Pirouette 4.5.

127 The various clusters generated by the chemometric analysis were used as a reference model to test unknown samples.

128 The goal was to place the unknown samples in their respective clusters. Woods with a marked chemical treatment  
129 would have to be placed in the treated woods clusters, while untreated samples would have to be placed in the virgin  
130 woods clusters. To validate the PCA model, six new wood samples were added to those of the full data and subjected

131 to chemometric analysis again. New samples were the following: n°1 oriented strand board (OSB), n°1 chipboard, n°1  
132 medium density fiberboard, n°1 laminated pine, n°1 virgin Turkey oak, n°1 virgin ash.

133

134

### 135 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

136

#### 137 3.1. ATR-FTIR spectral analysis

138

139 The average spectra of pure softwood and hardwood samples together with the corresponding laminated and the  
140 chemically treated ones are compared in Figure 1. Spectral differences between hardwood and softwood are evident.  
141 The discriminating elements between the two groups are mainly due to lignin, cellulose and hemicellulose, which are  
142 different in chemical composition. The most relevant wavenumbers are reported in Table 2, according to literature [24].  
143 There are no significant spectral differences between pure woods and the corresponding laminated samples. Due to the  
144 high quantity of glue, however, some spectral differences are evident in the chemically treated samples (MDF, OSB and  
145 chipboard) in the range between 1450 and 1800  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . Table 2 shows the band allocations in the ATR-FTIR continuum of  
146 wood together with the corresponding types of vibration.

147 **Table 2.** Infrared bands and related molecular bond assignments

Band ( $\text{cm}^{-1}$ )	Band assignments
805	Vibration of mannan in hemicellulose and CH out of plane bending in phenyl rings
825	CH out of plane bending in guaiacyl units
860	C-H out of plane in position 2, 5, and 6 of guaiacyl units
900	CH deformation of beta-glycosidic linkages in cellulose
945	O-H out of plane deformation in carboxylic acid
960	CH out of plane deformation in lignin
985	CO stretching in cellulose
1005	C-O stretch in cellulose
1025	C-O stretching in primary alcohols in cellulose
1055	C-O stretching of secondary alcohols
1105	C-O-C stretching in cellulose and hemicellulose
1155	C-O-C asymmetric stretching in cellulose and hemicellulose
1185	C-O stretching in cellulose
1225	OH vibration in guaiacyl ring, C-C, C-O, and C=O stretches in lignin
1265	C-O vibration in guaiacyl rings

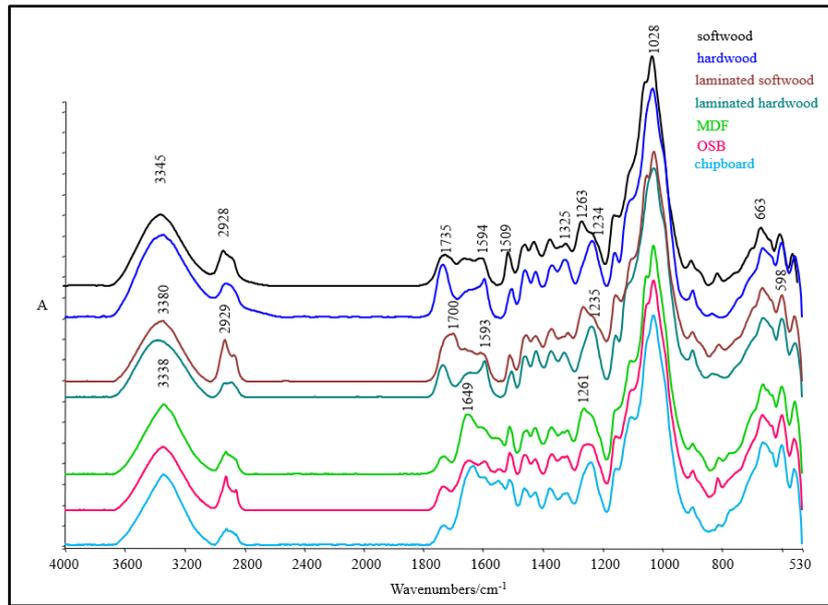
1315	CH <sub>2</sub> wagging in crystalline cellulose
1335	CH of methyl groups in methoxy in amorphous cellulose
1360	C–H deformation in cellulose and hemicelluloses
1385	C–O stretching in cellulose and hemicellulose
1405	C=O in carboxylic groups in carboxylic acid, ester
1425	C–H asymmetric deformation in methoxyl, aromatic skeletal vibrations, lignin
1465	C–H asymmetric deformation in methoxyl for lignin, asymmetric in—CH <sub>3</sub> and CH <sub>2</sub> in pyran for hemicellulose
1510	C=C stretching of the aromatic ring, C=O bond vibrations in extractive compounds
1590	Skeletal vibrations from the C–C
1610	C=O stretching conjugated to the aromatic ring, and in carboxylic groups in lignin, carboxylic acid, ester compounds
1635	Absorbed O–H and conjugated C–O in polysaccharides
1655	Absorbed O–H and conjugated C–O in polysaccharides
1690	C=O vibration in carboxylic group in resin acid
1730	C=O carbonyls in ester groups and acetyl groups in xylan

148

149

150 All samples show a broadband to  $\approx 3300\text{ cm}^{-1}$  corresponding to O-H stretching vibration from water, cellulose,  
151 hemicellulose and lignin and two peaks at 2919 and 2858  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  assigned to C-H vibrations of polysaccharides  
152 (glucomannans and arabinogalactan) and lignin [25]. In particular, lignin has a different composition in the two plant  
153 species: in softwood, is a polymer composed mostly of guaiacyl units, with a small amount of *p*-hydroxyphenyl and  
154 syringil units, while in hardwood is composed of syringil and guaiacyl units, with a small amount of *p*-hydroxyphenil  
155 units. Absorption bands referred to syringil units (1594, 1326 and 1234  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) are easily detected in hardwood spectra,  
156 while the characteristic guaiacyl unit absorption band at 1264  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  is more evident in softwood. The bands at about  
157 1740 (stretching of acetyl group) and 1240  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  (stretching of C-O group) assigned to hemicelluloses, are more intense  
158 in hardwoods than softwoods, due to their different chemical composition. A shift of carbonyl spectral absorption to a  
159 lower wavenumber could be primarily due to the higher concentration of lignin in softwood than hardwood [25].  
160 Furthermore, softwood shows a characteristic peak at 807  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  (glucomann absorption) which is not evident in  
161 hardwood spectra [27]. The band at 1509  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  is referred to stretching C=C of aromatic ring and is well evident both in  
162 softwood and hardwood samples [28]. As mentioned above, the spectra of laminated softwood and hardwood does not  
163 show meaningful spectral differences compared to the corresponding virgin samples. On the contrary, the wood  
164 samples treated with a high quantity of glue (MDF, OSB and chipboard) show evident spectral differences especially in  
165 the region between 1500 and 1800  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , due to the presence of higher concentration of glue.

166



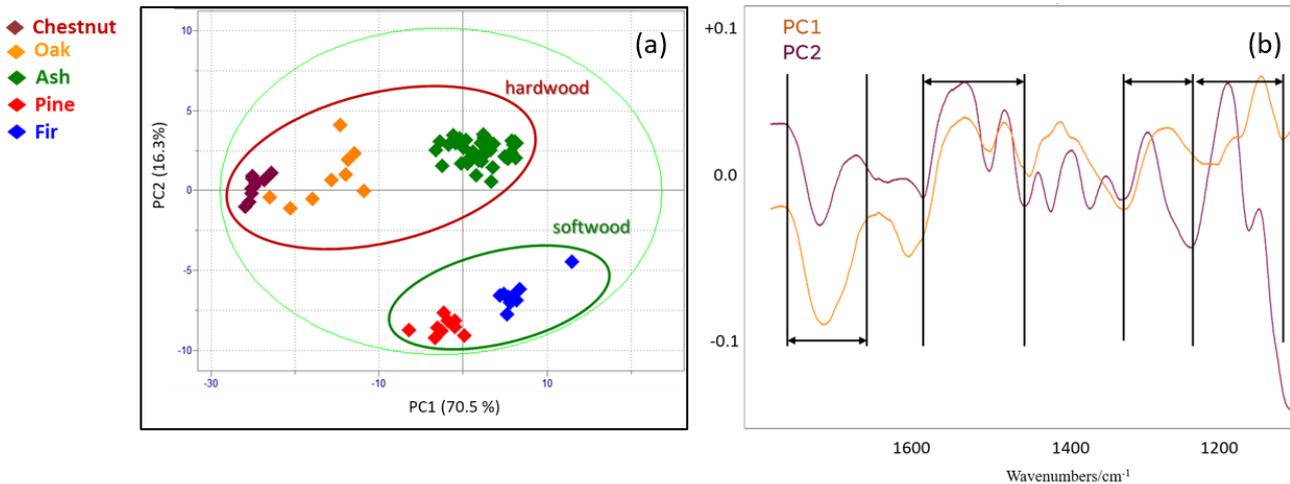
167

168 **Figure 1.** Infrared average spectra of hardwood, softwood, laminated hardwood, laminated softwood and chemically  
 169 treated woods: MDF, OSB, chipboard in the spectral range 4000-530  $\text{cm}^{-1}$

170

### 171 **3.2 Chemometrics analysis**

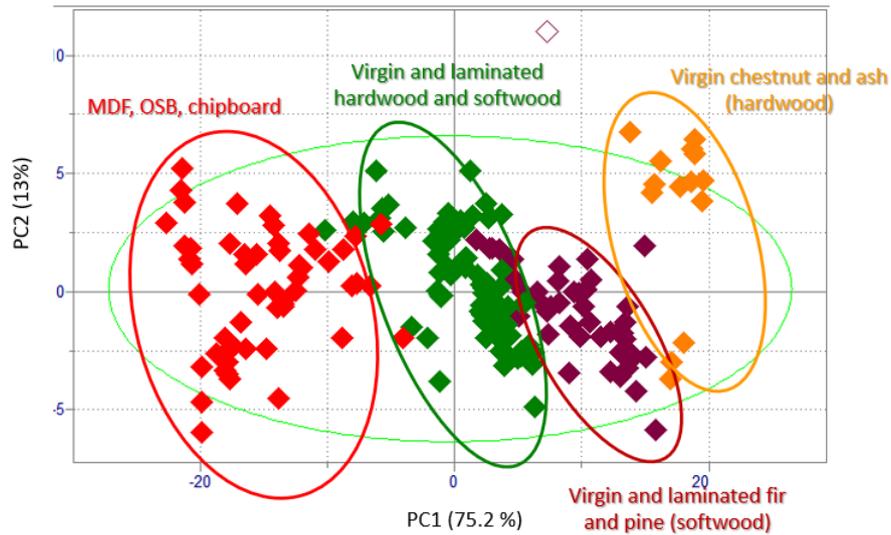
172 PCA was performed on the spectral database to investigate the possibility of discriminating both between virgin  
 173 hardwood and softwood (Figure 2) and between virgin species and the corresponding chemically treated ones with  
 174 small (laminated softwood and hardwood) or very significant quantities of glue (MDF, OSB and chipboard) (Figure 3).



175

176 **Figure 2.** (a) Score plots of the two first PCs about hardwood and softwood; (b) Loading spectra for principal  
 177 components PC1 and PC2

178 The spectra from all the wood samples analyzed by ATR-FTIR and divided into clusters through the HCA were subjected  
179 to chemometric analysis. The spectral region between 1100-1800  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  was selected. Accounting for 86.8% of the total  
180 initial variability, the two first principal components (PCs) were considered for further elaborations. The scores plot of  
181 the first two PCs shows that hardwood and softwood samples are well-separated along PC2; softwoods have negative  
182 PC2 scores, whereas hardwoods have positive PC2 scores. It is also possible to observe a separation between the  
183 different species along PC1. In softwood fir woods have positive PC1 scores while pine woods have negative PC1 scores  
184 (Figure 2a). The methodology guaranteed an excellent separation between the different species both along PC1 and  
185 PC2, even within the same group, and could be effective in laying the foundations for the development of a laboratory  
186 method for an early assessment of the type of biomass used in the production of pellets. For this reason, could be used  
187 in any quality control application when the same hardwood and softwood species are used. The loading spectra of PC1  
188 and PC2 showed that the PCA plots were strongly contributed by the ranges of 1680–1780  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , 1600–1450  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and  
189 1350–1150  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  (Figure 2b). In these wavenumber ranges, absorption caused by C=O stretching vibrations (ca. 1740  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ )  
190 <sup>1</sup>, C=O stretching conjugated to the aromatic ring (ca. 1610  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ), the breathing of the aromatic ring. (ca. 1510  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ )  
191 and the stretching of the C-O group (ca. 1223  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) were reported. This measuring procedure might be helpful in  
192 confirming that differences in the composition and structures of cellulose, hemicellulose and lignin are well recognized  
193 between softwood and hardwood and that the vibrations of the chemical bonding from these chemical compositions  
194 are possibly the key to the separation of softwood and hardwood PCs. The same method was applied to investigate the  
195 separation between virgin and chemically treated woods. In this case, HCA classified the spectra of all samples in four  
196 clusters, where separation between hardwood and softwood was still maintained. Samples with higher amount of glue  
197 (chipboard, MDF and OSB) were isolated in a single cluster. The method was not able to separate the laminated woods  
198 from the virgin ones for the low glue content (<0,5% w/w). So, this type of analysis considers virgin wood equal to  
199 laminated wood. The results were confirmed by the PCA (Figure 3).



200

201

**Figure 3.** Score plots of the two first PCs about virgin and chemically treated woods

202

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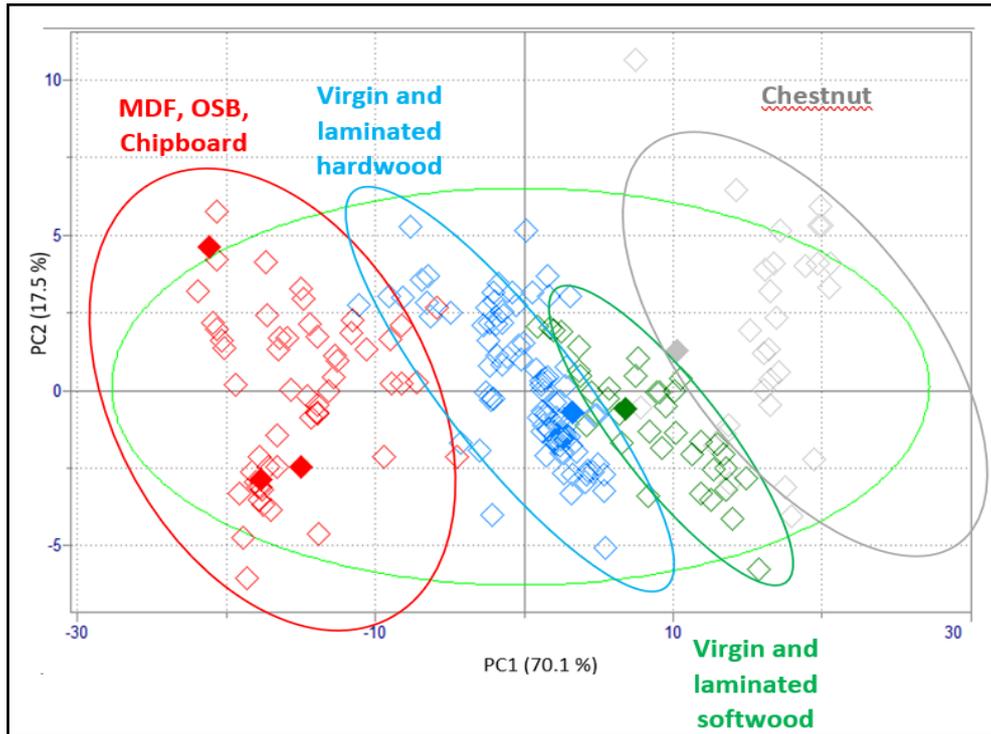
Figure 3 highlights a good separation along PC1, probably resulting from the presence of chemicals. PC1 scores are negative in chemically treated woods while they are positive in most virgin ones. Virgin and laminated woods are not well separated. This model could be used in any quality control application to distinguish samples with a high glue content. It allows you to evaluate the presence of materials unrelated to the woody nature, thus providing more details for their origin and provenance. It could also be used for the analysis of woods with preservatives or other chemical components. The six new wood samples, used to validate the PCA model, were analyzed in triplicate and subjected to the same pretreatments as above. As expected, using the PCA model developed from the reference samples, the spectra of the new wood samples were correctly entered into the corresponding clusters confirming the validity of the pattern.

211

(Figure 4).

212

213



214

215 **Figure 4.** Score plots of the two first PCs about virgin wood and chemically treated wood. The colored symbols  
 216 represent the 6 new samples used for validation of the model and placed inside the different clusters (red: MDF, OSB  
 217 and chipboard; blue: virgin turkey oak; green: laminated pine ang; grey: virgin ash).

218

219

## 220 4. CONCLUSIONS

221 The FTIR technique together with the development of suitable chemometric models provides useful information able  
 222 to differentiate the woody materials with which the pellet is made. Because IR spectra contain robust information about  
 223 chemical bonds, compositional information is not directly available from their results [29]; thus, chemometric  
 224 techniques, such as multivariate models, are necessary for spectra analysis. By reducing the large amount of spectral  
 225 data in several latent variables, the statistical methods/models could build a relationship between spectral features and  
 226 chemical components/bonds [13]. The analysis can be applied to any solid sample and does not require pre-treatment  
 227 except drying for samples with a high moisture content. This allows to evaluate the origin and the species, as required

228 by the specifications on solid biofuels, by means of a rapid and economical laboratory analytical method and potentially  
229 implementable in a qualitative pre-screening system for wood pellets.

230 The application of FTIR can support commodity problems through the distinction between woody groups, such as  
231 softwoods and hardwoods, with good prospects also for identifying specific wood species. Furthermore, the ability to  
232 recognize wood materials subject to chemical treatment, such as residues of the wood industry, is of interest to assess  
233 the compliance of the product with the law and increase the guarantee of compliance with environmental aspects  
234 related to the use of wood pellets in combustion. However, it should be noted that this analysis technique fails to detect  
235 the presence of low quantities of chemically treated wood, as in the case of laminated ones, whose physical and  
236 chemical properties are potentially in line with the ISO 17225-2 class A1 specifications and A2. This aspect leads us to  
237 reflect on the possibility of considering this specific wood raw material for producing pellets for domestic use.

238 Considering the prospects deriving from mid-infrared spectroscopy, it could be useful to strengthen the research by  
239 expanding the wood materials casuistry of interest to the wood pellet sector, as mixtures consisting of different  
240 essences. Thus, providing the basis for proposing a specific technique to supplement the existing one - UNI / TS 11765 -  
241 which applies near infrared spectroscopy.

242

243

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