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### **Abstract**

 A major challenge of the 21st century will be to generate transportation fuels using feedstocks such as lignocellulosic waste materials as a substitute for existing fossil and nuclear fuels. The advantages of lignocellulosics as a feedstock material are that they are abundant, sustainable and carbon-neutral. To improve the economics of producing liquid transportation fuels from lignocellulosic biomass, the development of value-added products from lignin, a major component of lignocellulosics, is necessary. Lignins produced from black liquor through the fractionation of sugarcane bagasse with soda and organic solvents have been characterised by physical and chemical means. The soda lignin fractions have different physico-chemical properties from each other, and have been compared to bagasse lignin extracted with aqueous ethanol.

## **1 Introduction**

 In the last century, energy sources have been derived from petroleum (30 %), natural gas (23 %), coal (22 %), renewable (19 %) and nuclear (6 %) (Song., 2002). In the chemical industry, 4 % of crude oil and 31 % of natural gas are used in the manufacture of platform chemicals and composite materials. The state of the oil market (\$US 40-\$US100 per barrel) is unpredictable because of economic and political pressures, and the ever increasing oil demand from developing Asian countries will probably maintain the current high price of crude oil. There is the ongoing debate among geologists as to the time frame when oil reserves will be depleted. There is also the strong push towards reduced greenhouse gas (GHG) emission. Fossil fuels used in transportation contribute over 25 % of GHG. It has been estimated that the utilisation of plant/crop-based feedstock for the production of chemicals in the European Union could deliver GHG reductions of over 6 M tonnes per annum in the next decade. As a consequence of these events, there has been  coordinated R&D strategy across the globe for the utilisation of plant/crop-based products.

 The International Energy Agency, Energy Outlook in November 2006 said, "Rising food demand, which competes with biofuels for existing arable and pasture land, will constrain the potential for biofuels production using current technology". Such a constraint causes feedstock price increases for both food and fuel. So the challenge we now have is to be able to produce transportation fuels from non-food sources e.g., bagasse, wheat straw, rice stalk, cotton linters, agricultural wastes, and forest thinning, at an economically competitive price without government subsidies. To bring down production cost of biofuels, developing a market for lignin products which have equivalent properties as the petroleum-based products is necessary.

 In 2006, the world produced 1.4 billion tonnes of sugarcane (FAO, 2008). This equates to ~400 million tonnes of bagasse. Currently, a vast majority of bagasse is used to produce low value co-generation of power, manufacture of pulp and paper products and furfural production. However, with continuing improvements in energy efficiencies of sugar factories, more and more bagasse will be available for other applications, such the production of cellulosic ethanol. The advantage bagasse has over other non-food sources is that it is located centrally due to existing transportation infrastructure. So, co-location of a cellulosic ethanol plant to a sugar factory gives the opportunity to share production systems but also to share processing facilities.

 Bagasse, an non-wood consist mainly of cellulose (50 %), hemicellulose (30%) and lignin (20%). Lignin is an amorphous large, cross-linked, macromolecule with molecular masses in the range 1000 g/mol to 20,000 g/mol. The degree of polymerisation in nature is difficult to measure, since it is fragmented during extraction and the molecule consists of various types of substructures which appear to repeat in a haphazard manner. There are three monolignol monomers, methoxylated to various degrees: p-coumaryl alcohol, coniferyl alcohol, and sinapyl. Despite improvements in structure elucidation, the exact structure of lignin is still unknown. The consensus by a number of workers (Adler, 1980; Sjostrom, 1981; Chen, 1991; Ede and Kilpelaeinen, 1995; Karhunren et al., 1995a; Karhunen et al., 1995b) is that the two commonest linkages is ether and carbon-carbon bonds. The phenylpropane β-aryl ether linkages constitute the largest proportion of the different linkages

 connecting the monomeric units. These linkages need to be broken for effective lignin fractionation from biomass.

 The processes used in the extraction of lignin from woody plants are conducted under conditions were lignin is progressively broken down to lower molecular weight fragments resulting to changes to its physico-chemical properties. Thus, apart from the source of the lignin, the solvating ability of the solvent to either lignin or the cellulose, or both, the properties of the solvent to inhibit to C-C bond formation, the solution pH and the method of extraction influences the chemical and functional group composition of lignin. Gosselink et al. (2004) have reported that lignin composition is different not only among plants but also different between parts of the same plant. The structural heterogeneity of lignin has also been studied by various methods in a number of investigations. In several of these studies the lignin was subjected to fractionation prior to the analysis (Robert et al., 1984; Moerck et al., 1986; Vanderlann and Thring, 1998; Wallberg et al., 2003). These fractionations were analysed for functional groups, elemental composition and molecular weight. The results of these investigations showed that the fractionation process separated the lignin into distinct molecular weights and that there were differences in the carboxylic acids, phenolic hydroxyl and methoxyl contents The properties of the materials produced were dependent on these structural properties

 As our research goals are to produce cellulosic ethanol from bagasse via pretreatment with soda and add value to soda lignin, we have undertaken a characterisation exercise on soda lignin and examined its heterogeneity through sequential extraction in order to target products based on structure-property relationships. Where possible we have compared the results to that of bagasse lignin obtained through aqueous ethanol extraction, as the lignin obtained by this process is generally regarded to be of good quality.

### **2 Materials and methods**

### *2.1 Lignin extraction*

 Bagasse was obtained from a Mackay Sugar Mill, Queensland Australia. It was wet depithed and then air dried. Lignin was extracted from bagasse by the soda process using a 20 L Parr reactor. In this method, 1 kg of bagasse is cooked with about 10.5 L

96 of 0.7 - 1 M NaOH. Once the reactor reaches the operating temperature of 170 $C$ , it is maintained for 1.5 h. After cooling, the liquid (black liquor) was removed from the bottom of the reactor and sieved to remove fibrous material. To the black liquor, dilute sulphuric acid was slowly added with stirring to pH 5.5. Near pH 5.5 an obvious change in the appearance of the solution occurs; from black to murky brown. This change is due to the initial stages of lignin precipitation. The mixture was stirred for 10-15 min after which acidification is continued to pH 3. It was then transferred to a 65 °C water bath and stirred using an overhead stirrer for 30 – 45 min. The mixture was then vacuum filtered to recover the lignin. The lignin was repeatedly washed with hot water until all signs of foaming have subsided. It was then left to air- dry before being further dried in a vacuum oven at 45 °C overnight. This procedure increases the purity of lignin by reducing the inclusion of ash and carbohydrate components. It is different from other procedures reported in the literature because it is based on a two-stage acid precipitation process. The initial precipitation process at pH 5.5 produces lignin particles of high purity which are then allowed to grow to larger sizes before proceeding to the second precipitation stage where the proportion of impurities is highest.

 Organosolvo lignin (OL) was obtained through precipitation of the black liquor into a 114 dilute  $H_2SO_4$  solution. The black liquor was obtained by the delignification of bagasse with 50 % aqueous ethanol solution in the 20 L Parr reactor. Crude lignin 116 was dissolved in 0.1 M NaOH equilibrated and precipitated with  $H_2SO_4$  at pH 3. The slurry was filtered hot and the residue was washed with water until the filtrate became colourless. The lignin was air dried and further dried at 45°C and 100°C, consecutively.

#### *2.2 Lignin fractionation*

 Soda lignin is a complex and heterogeneous mixture with a rather broad molecular weight distribution. Sequential fractionation has been carried out to separate the lignin into three fractions of distinct molecular weight/size and chemical functionality. Ether and methanol are the solvents used in this study as was used by Thring et al. (1996) to fractionate ALCELL lignin.

 To fractionate soda lignin, ~ 100 g and 250 mL diethyl ether are added to a large 127 Schott bottle (1 L) or beaker (1 L). The container is covered and the contents are then  stirred for 20 min before being left to settle for 10 min. The diethyl ether is then decanted off into another container. The remaining solid is then subjected to the same treatment. This is repeated until the supernatant diethyl ether is a light yellow colour when decanted off. The lignin residue is allowed to dry before this process is repeated using methanol in place of ether. The diethyl ether fraction (L1) and methanol fraction (L2) are either recovered using the rotary evaporator to evaporate off the solvent, or acid is used to precipitate the lignin, followed by filtration to recover the solid lignin. All 3 fractions of lignin (L1, L2 and the remaining residue, L3) are then dried and weighed.

The OL was not fractionated in this study.

#### *2.3 Lignin characterisation methods*

#### **2.3.1 Elemental analysis**

 Elemental analysis was performed on the three lignin fractions as well as the starting lignin material using a FLASHEA 1112 Elemental Analyser instrument. In preparing the samples for analysis, first they were dried at 100°C overnight, to remove any moisture. To measure carbon, hydrogen and nitrogen contents, 2 to 4 mg samples were encapsulated in a tin container, and for measuring oxygen content 2 to 4 mg samples were encapsulated in a silver container. The analysis results were obtained via gas chromatography, and compared with those of standard materials.

#### **2.3.2 Ash analysis**

 Crucibles were pre-dried to constant weight in a muffle furnace at 575°C. Lignin samples (0.5 g - 2 g) were weighed into the crucibles and heated to 105°C to remove moisture. The crucibles were then heated at 575°C to constant weight. The weight of ash remaining was calculated as a percentage of the original dry weight of sample (Sluiter et al., 2008a).

#### **2.3.3 Sugar analysis**

 Aliquots of 3 mL of 72 % H2SO4 were added to 0.3 g samples of lignin in pressure tubes. The tubes were placed in a water bath at 30°C for 1 h and stirred intermittently to completely wet the lignin sample. The acid was then diluted to 4 % through the  addition of water and the samples were autoclaved in pressure tubes at 121°C for 1 h (Sluiter et al., 2008b). The samples were filtered with porcelain crucibles to remove solids and the liquid fraction was analysed by HPLC for glucose, xylose and arabinose.

#### **2.3.4 Purity analysis**

 The purity of the lignin samples was calculated from the sum of ash and sugar results. Due to the nature of the pulping and precipitation techniques, a significant amount of ash and sugars may be present if the sample is not copiously washed with distilled water.

#### **2.3.5 Characterisation of functional groups**

 To predict the properties of lignin and its fractions, different functional group analyses were performed. The functional groups quantified were the methoxyl group, carboxylic acid functional group, phenolic hydroxyl group and total hydroxyl group contents.

#### **2.3.6 Methoxyl content method**

 The classical method for methoxyl determination of lignins uses hydroiodic acid to promote demethylation and gas chromatography to determine the methoxy content (Girardin et al., 1983). A less tedious method involves the use of proton NMR (Dos Santos and Aberi, 1995). This was used in this project. Prior to NMR analysis, the lignins were acetylated. The signals of syringyl protons are registered between 6.28 177 ppm and 7.00 ppm, while the signals of guaiacyl protons are registered between 7.00 ppm and 8.00 ppm (see Figure 1). The theoretical ratios between aromatic and methoxyl protons of guaiacyl and syringyl are 1.00 ppm and 0.33 ppm respectively. Measuring the ratios from the NMR spectra of acetylated lignins in deuterated chloroform and submitting the data to a statistical linear regression analysis, the % 182 methoxyl (OCH<sub>3</sub>) content can be obtained from the equation (1):

 $184 \quad % \text{OCH}_3 = 28.28436 - 19.750047 \text{x}$  (1)

185 where;  $x = H(aromatic)/H(methoxyl)$ 

#### **[Insert Figure 1 here]**

#### **2.3.7 Carboxylic acids and phenolic hydroxyl groups method**

 Carboxyl groups are believed to be present in native lignin, in extremely low concentrations. However, when native lignin is subjected to chemical or biological treatments, carboxyl groups are frequently detected in significant quantities. Therefore, quantitative measurements of carboxyl groups may provide information regarding the degree to which the lignin has been degraded or modified as a result of treatment.

 A titration method was used in this work (Dence, 1992). The saturated KCl electrolyte generally used in calomel electrodes was replaced by a 1 M aqueous solution of tetra-n-butylammonium chloride (TnBACl). The titrant (0.05M TnBAH) was standardised through titration of benzoic acid in N,N' dimethylformamide (DMF) to a sharp inflection break.

 The lignin sample and p-hydroxybenzoic acid were dissolved in a solution of distilled water, concentrated HCl and DMF. The solution was then titrated with 0.05 M TnBAH. There were three inflections in the titration curve. These correspond to: excess HCl and strong acids present in the sample, carboxylic acids, and phenolic hydroxyl groups, respectively.

 A blank was also run on a solution of p-hydroxybenzoic acid, distilled water, HCl and DMF.

#### **2.3.8 Total hydroxyl groups by acetylation method**

 The amount of total hydroxyl group in lignin was determined by potentiometry (Gosselink et al., 2004). The acetylation procedure given by Gosselink and co- workers (2004) is known to be unreliable because the acetylation of lignin is not complete. Therefore the procedure was slightly modified and the heating time extended from 1 h to 24 h. Approximately 0.5 g - 0.8 g of air-dried lignin was added to 10 mL of an acetic anhydride: pyridine (1:4 v/v) mixture. This was heated overnight in an oil bath at 90°C. After adding 2 mL water and 5 min stirring, 50 mL ethanol was added. Subsequently, the acetylated lignin was potentiometrically titrated with a standardised 0.1 M NaOH in ethanol.

#### **2.3.9 Molecular weight determination**

 As lignin from different crops or treatments can be extremely diverse in structure, it is necessary to determine these differences through analytical methods. The molecular weight of a polymer can be a good indication of its strength as well as other physical properties. Size exclusion chromatography is a simple technique that can be utilized to determine the molecular weight of lignin.

222 Lignin samples were prepared in eluent  $(0.1M$  NaOH) at  $0.2 \text{ mg.mL}^{-1}$  just prior to analysis and filtered through a 0.45 µm syringe filter before running. Sodium 224 polystyrene sulphonate standards of molecular weights  $4,950$  g.mol<sup>-1</sup>, 16,600 g.mol<sup>-1</sup>, 225 57,500 g.mol<sup>-1</sup>, 127,000 g.mol<sup>-1</sup>, 505,100 g.mol<sup>-1</sup> and 1,188,400 g.mol<sup>-1</sup> used to 226 prepare a standard calibration curve. Lignin weight average molecular weight  $(M_w)$ 227 and number average molecular weight  $(M_n)$  were calculated using the equation obtained from the trend line of the standard curve.

#### **2.3.10 Particle size distribution**

 A Malvern Mastersizer was used to determine the particle size distribution of lignin. The lignin was dispersed in water and ultrasonicated before a laser beam was shown through the solution.

#### **2.3.11 Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA)**

 Approximately 10 mg of sample was weighed into an aluminium pan and placed in 235 the thermogravimetric analyser (TGA). Heating was at a rate of  $10^{\circ}$ C.min<sup>-1</sup> and was 236 performed from room temperature to approximately  $800^{\circ}$ C. The test was performed 237 in an atmosphere of nitrogen, which was injected at a flow rate of 15 mL min<sup>-1</sup>. A curve of weight loss against temperature was constructed from the data obtained by the instrument. A derivative of this curve (dTG) was produced to indicate the temperatures at which maximum rates of weight loss occurred.

#### **2.3.12 Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC)**

 Approximately 10 - 15 mg of lignin was precisely weighed and then encapsulated in an aluminium pan. The pan was then placed in a DSC-Q100 instrument and heated 244 from 0 $^{\circ}$ C to 200 $^{\circ}$ C at a heating rate of 10 $^{\circ}$ C.min<sup>-1</sup> (cycle 1). The test was performed 245 in an atmosphere of nitrogen, which was injected at a flow rate of 15 mL.min<sup>-1</sup>. 246 Samples were then cooled down at a rate of  $30^{\circ}$ C.min<sup>-1</sup>, to -10°C (cycle 2). Samples 247 were then reheated to 200 $^{\circ}$ C at a rate of 10 $^{\circ}$ C.min<sup>-1</sup> (cycle 3). The plot obtained from 248 this second heating run shows the  $T_g$  as a step transition.

## **3 Results**

#### *3.1 The fractionation process*

 Only a very small portion of the original lignin sample, ~8%, was recovered using 252 diethyl ether (L1). The major proportion,  $\sim 68\%$ , methanol soluble (L2), and the residual lignin make up the remaining 24% (L3). Similar fractional yields (within 1 %) were obtained in repeat experiments, demonstrating the reproducibility of the fractionation procedure. The results clearly show the heterogeneity of bagasse soda lignin. For the OL, values of 24% for L1, 50% for L2 and 23% for L3 were obtained. Thring et al. (1996) using a similar fractionation procedure obtained values of 27% for L1, 53% for L2 and 18% for L3 for an ALCELL lignin extracted from mixed hardwood. Based solely on the fractionation data, it appears that the organosolvo or ALCELL lignin is more polydispersed than the soda lignin produced in this project.

#### *3.2 Elemental analysis results*

 The elemental analysis results of the lignin and its three fractions are shown in Table 1 as well as bagasse OL lignin. The data show that carbon and hydrogen contents decreases from L1 to L3. The hydrogen content is highest with L2. The nitrogen contents of the soda lignin and its fractions are similar to that of OL, the value for OL is slightly higher. The protein contents in the soda lignin are in the range 0.6% to 2.5% if a conversion factor of 6.26 is used. The protein content is low in soda lignin because proteins are alkaline soluble and are easily removed during the lignin recovery process.

## **[Insert Table 1 here]**

 Atomic ratios are calculated using values in Table 1, neglecting the nitrogen contents, to give the empirical formulae of the different lignins (Table 2). In lignin chemistry  the empirical formula of the macromolecule is commonly given as a hypothetical 276 hydroxyphenyl structural unit. This is known as the  $C_9$ -formula, with six carbon atoms in the benzene ring plus three carbon atoms making up the propyl side-chain. 278 The results are shown in Table 2. Worth noting, though not surprising, is that the  $C_9$ formula of L2 is similar to that of OL.

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# **[Insert Table 2 here]**

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- *3.3 Sugar analysis results*

 The sugar and ash contents of lignin and its fractions are shown in Table 3. The purity of the original soda lignin, L1 and L2 are comparable to OL. The low purity of L3 is related to the high ash, xylan and glucan values. For all these samples lignin and xylan seem to be most strongly associated with the phenolic residie since xylan is present in each lignin type.

 Energy dispersive spectroscopy indicated that the main element (>90%) in the ashed lignin samples is silicon. This is expected since sugarcane bagasse (from which the lignins were extracted) contains high silica content. Minor amounts of sodium, iron and potassium were also detected.

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### **[Insert Table 3 here]**

### *3.4 Molecular weight and functional groups*

297 Table 4 shows  $M_n$  and  $M_w$  results of the soda lignins and OL. The molecular weight of the soda lignins increases from L1 to L3. For these lignins, their polydispersity are similar, with values around 1.1. This indicates that each fraction essentially contains lignin of the same chain length.

 As shown in Table 4, the methoxyl content of the OL is higher than that of the soda lignins. This means that for bagasse, lignin is demethoxylated to a greater extent  during the soda extraction process (Thring et al., 1996) compared to the organosolvo process.

 The methoxyl group content of the soda lignin fractions increases with molecular weight. This increase is not related to molecular weight but related to the insolubility of syringal dominated lignin macromolecule in the ether and methanol solvents used in the sequential fractionation process (Thring et al., 1996).

## **[Insert Table 4 here]**

 The hydroxyl and carboxylic acid contents were highest with the ether-soluble L1. Soda pulping generally increases the carboxylic acid contents of lignins relative to organosolv pulping (Gosselink et al., 2004).

*3.5 TGA results*

 The results for the thermal decomposition of soda lignin, soda lignin fractions (i.e. L1, L2 and L3), and OL are in Figures 2 – 5. The decomposition profiles of L2 and the starting lignin material are similar. The TGA/dTG curves of all the samples predominantly show a two-step (neglecting water loss) thermal decomposition process, though L2, L3 and the original lignin material in addition, have shoulders at higher temperatures. The two-stage decomposition process is more prominent the thermograms for L1 and L3.

323 The first weight loss occurring at  $\sim$ 175 $\degree$ C is associated with water loss. The second weight loss (i.e. the first decomposition stage) with a peak temperature of  $300^{\circ}$ C - 310°C is mainly associated with hemicellulose (i.e. xylan) decomposition. The second 326 stage (peak temperature  $> 330^{\circ}$ C) is due to cellulose (i.e. glucan) and lignin decomposition (Garcìa-Pèreza et al. 2001). The maximum decomposition temperature of L1 is 380°C. For L2, L3 and the starting lignin material, although 75% decompose at temperatures lower than 380°C, the reminder 25% decompose at 330 temperatures  $> 400^{\circ}$ C.

 In summary, the TGA results clearly show that that lignin starts to degrade at around 200°C and so in the preparation of lignin-based blends, the working temperatures 333 should not exceed 200°C to 250°C.



fraction obtained with methanol i.e. L2 and the organosolvo lignin, OL.

 The high purity of L1 and L2 suggests that they can be used in applications were organosolvo lignin have been used.

 With the highest phenolic hydroxyl group, L1 has the highest potential to react with oxyalkylating modification reagents such as ethylene oxide and propylene oxide. This would improve the compatibility between lignin and polyolefins and improve the dispersion of lignin in the polyolefin network. Also with its lowest methoxy content, it possesses additional sites that can aid the ease of lignin functionalisation.

 The high phenolic nature of the starting material and L1 (and to a lesser extent L2) translates into good reactivity with formaldehyde in phenol formaldehyde and epoxy resins. L3, though with a high ash content, will also be suitable for making phenol formaldehyde resins because of its high sugar content (glucan and xylan).

 The high phenolic and carboxylic acid groups in L1 and L2 translate to an increase in elastic character through hydrogen-bond structuring necessary for making paints.

 For lignin to be used in free radical polymerisation reactions for the syntheses of resins and paints, its solubility can be improved in monomers such as styrene and methyl methacryalate by reacting the hydroxyl groups with acid anhydrides. Fractions L1 and L2 which are high in phenolic hydroxyl groups will readily react to form the desired ester, and because of the presence of high carboxylic acid content there is greater probability of increase in elastic character of the product through hydrogen-bond structuring.

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# **Attachments of Chemical and Thermal Properties of Bagasse Soda Lignin**



Figure 1 NMR spectrum of an acetylated lignin fraction (L2)

Sample	$\overline{N}$	C	H	
<b>Starting lignin</b>	0.4	63.7	5.7	22.9
L1	0.1	77.7	7.0	18.2
L2	0.3	59.8	5.7	26.8
L <sub>3</sub>	0.3	47.1	4.9	25.7
<b>OL</b>	0.5	62.1	6.2	29.0

Table 1 Elemental analysis of lignins (wt%)

Sample	Empirical formula	$C_9$ formula
Starting lignin	$C_{5,31}H_{5,66}O_{1,43}$	$C_9H_{9.59}O_{2.42}$
L1	$C_{6.47}H_{6.94}O_{1.14}$	$C_9H_{9.65}O_{1.59}$
L2	$C_{4.95}H_{5.65}O_{1.67}$	$C_9H_{10.27}O_{3.04}$
L <sub>3</sub>	$C_{3.92}H_{4.86}O_{1.60}$	$C_9H_{11,16}O_{3,67}$
OL	$C_{5.18}H_{6.18}O_{1.78}$	$C_9H_{10.73}O_{3.15}$

Table 2 Lignin formulae

Sample	Ash	Glucan	Xylan	Arabinan	Purity
	$(\%$ wt)				
Starting lignin	2.0	0.2	1.6	< 0.1	96.3
L1	0.2	0.0	0.2	< 0.1	99.6
L2	1.0	0.1	0.5	< 0.1	98.4
L <sub>3</sub>	9.5	3.9	10.0	0.37	67.0
<b>OL</b>	0.4	1.4	0.6	< 0.1	97.6

Table 3 Purity of lignins

Sample	$M_n$	$M_{\scriptscriptstyle W}$	Methoxy	Phenolic OH RCOOH		Total OH
	$(g.mol^{-1})$	$(g.mol-1)$	(%)	$(meq.g^{-1})$	$(meq.g^{-1})$	$(meq.g^{-1})$
<b>Starting</b>	2410	2160	10.9	3	3.1	8.5
lignin						
L1	500	560	3.1	2.5	7.7	16.1
L2	2 3 8 0	2670	11.7	0.9	4.8	9.0
L3	5 3 5 0	5 9 9 0	12.5	0.2	1.4	4.3
<b>OL</b>	2 0 0 0	2 3 0 0	15.1			

Table 4 Molecular weight averages and function groups



Figure 2 TGA/dTG curve of L1 performed under nitrogen atmosphere



Figure 3 TGA/dTG curve of L2 performed under nitrogen atmosphere





Figure 5 TGA/dTG curve of the starting soda lignin performed under nitrogen atmosphere



Sample	$T_g$ (°C)
<b>Starting lignin</b>	130
L1	51
L2	130
L3	154
<b>OL</b>	130

Table 5  $T_g$  of lignin and fractions