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Abstract

Soluble extractives in wood function to protect living trees from destructive agents and also contribute to wood color and fragrance. Some extractive components have biological activities with medical applications. They also play important roles in wood processing and related applications. To increase the knowledge of wood chemistry, maple and oak were extracted by water. Ultraviolet/visible (UV/vis) spectroscopy indicated the presence of a phenolic compound, resorcinol, in maple extractives having higher molecular mass and more aromatic components than oak extractives. Negative and positive electrospray ionization Fourier transform ion cyclotron resonance mass spectrometry (ESI FT-ICR-MS) identified thousands of formulas in the two samples in the m/z range of 200-800. They mainly fall into the lignin-, carbohydrate- and tannin-like compound categories. The top 25 peaks (i.e., formulas) with the highest relative magnitude in negative ESI represented nearly 50% of the summed total spectral magnitude of all formulas assigned in the maple and oak extractives. Furthermore, the base peak (i.e., most abundant peak) accounted for about 14% of the total abundance in each wood sample. Literature comparisons identified 17 of 20 formulas in the top 5 peaks of the four spectra as specific bioactive compounds in trees and other plants, implying the potential to explore utilization of maple and oak extractives for functional and medicinal applications. The various profiling of the top 25 peaks from the two samples also suggested the possible application of FT-ICR-MS for detecting chemical markers useful in profiling and identification of wood types and sources.

Keywords: Fourier transform ion cyclotron resonance mass spectrometry, maple, oak, van Krevelen diagrams

1. Introduction

Besides cellulose, hemicellulose, and lignin as the main structure components of cell walls, wood contains other non-structural substances known as extractives [1, 2]. Wood extractives may be extracted by water and/or organic solvents. Extractives in wood function to protect living trees from destructive pest agents and contribute to wood color and fragrance. Some extractive components show specific biological activities with medical applications [3]. They also play certain roles in wood processing and related applications [4, 5]. Shebani et al. [6] reported that the thermal stability of wood polymer composites made with four extractive-free wood species is higher than the untreated controls. This was because the higher extractive contents associated with lower crystallinity and lower cellulose crystallite size could accelerate the degradation process [7]. While wood extractives may include an array of compounds (e.g., aliphatic, terpenoid, and phenolic) in nature, the detailed characterization of their molecular compositions by advanced instrumental techniques are very limited [8].

Wood extractives can also change the wettability and the curing properties of wood adhesives, thus affecting the gluing bond strength and performance [5, 9, 10]. Maple and oak are two wood substrates frequently used in wood adhesive studies [11, 12, 13, 14, 15]. Increased knowledge on the water extractives from the two types of wood would be helpful in better understanding, and thus improving the strategies, of wood-adhesive bonding. However, there is limited documentation of compounds or extractives from maple and oak wood types. Therefore, the objective of this research was to identify and characterize the chemical composition of the water soluble materials (i.e., extractives) from maple and oak wood veneers. The long-term goal is to apply the knowledge of wood extractives to develop better strategies for improving the adhesive-wood bonding interactions by changing surface polarity, wettability and permeability of the bonding interface [16]. To do so, in this study, chemical compounds in maple and oak strips were extracted with water. The chemical composition of

the water extractives was compared and characterized by ultraviolet/visible (UV/vis) spectroscopy and ultrahigh resolution Fourier transform ion cyclotron resonance mass spectrometry (FT-ICR-MS) using both negative and positive electrospray ionization (ESI) modes.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Wood materials

Maple and white oak veneers (1.59 mm thick) were purchased from Certainly Wood, Inc. (East Aurora, NY, USA). The wood veneers were cut into strips (12 for each wood type) 25.4 mm wide by 88.9 mm long, with the wood grain parallel to the long side, and stored in sealed plastic bags until used. The maple density was 0.79 g cm^{-3} , and the moisture content under the conditioning environment was 9.16% on a dry basis. The oak density was 0.77 g cm^{-3} , with the moisture content under the conditioning environment being 9.29% on a dry basis [17, 18].

2.2. Sample extraction

The wood strips used in extractions were equilibrated in a humidity controller with 50% relative humidity (RH) for at least one week at 22 °C. Each set of 12 wood strips was soaked in distilled water (800 mL) for 2 days at 22 °C with occasional shaking. After removal of the soaked wood strips, 15 ml of the soaking water was retained, and the remaining was dried in a vacuum oven at 60 °C. The soaked wood strips were dried at 22 °C in the humidity controller with 50% RH (make, model, city of drier), and the weight loss was used to calculate the extraction efficiency (yield) on a dry weight basis. Triplicate extractions were conducted for each type of wood. The white oak extract was a dark brown/black solid, while the maple extract was an amber brown solid.

2.3. Ultraviolet-visible (UV–vis) spectral analysis

The UV-vis spectra of diluted water extractives of oak and maple using 1.5-ml quartz cuvettes were recorded at the wavelengths of 200-700 nm with an Evolution 60S UV-visible spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Madison, WI). The scan speed mode was set at medium level with the interval of 1 nm. Standard 10-mm path length quartz cells were used for measurement. To obtain the absorbance in the measurable range, the spectra were recorded with the undiluted samples, as well as after diluting by factors of 10-100 with water. UV-vis spectral features of E2/E3 and E4/E6 were calculated from the ratios of the absorbance at 250 and 365 nm and at 400 and 600 nm, respectively [19].

2.4. ESI FT-ICR mass spectrometry

The vacuum-dried wood extractives were dissolved at approximately 1 mg mL^{-1} in ultrahigh quality (UHQ) H_2O at pH 8 adjusted with NH₄OH. All solids appeared to dissolve completely, giving an amber brown solution for the oak sample and light brown solution for the maple sample. Each sample was then diluted by a factor of 4 to give a final sample composition of 1:1 H2O:MeOH (methanol, LC-MS grade, Fisher Scientific).

Samples were analyzed in both negative and positive ESI modes. The two diluted samples were continuously infused into an Apollo II ESI ion source of a Bruker Daltonics 12 Tesla Apex Qe FTICR-MS, introduced by a syringe pump operating at 120 μ L hr⁻¹ with the same parameter set-up as reported previously [20]. ESI voltages were optimized for each sample to maintain consistent and stable ion currents. In order to balance peak resolving powers with signal to noise (S/N) ratios, ions were accumulated for 1.0 sec in a hexapole before being transferred to the ICR cell, where 300 transients, collected with a 4 MWord time domain, were co-added, giving about a 30 min total run time. The summed FID signal was zero-filled once and Sine-Bell apodized prior to fast Fourier transformation and magnitude calculation using the Bruker Daltonics Data Analysis software.

Prior to mass spectral data analysis in both positive and negative ion modes, samples were externally calibrated with a polyethylene glycol (PEG) standard and internally calibrated with fatty acids, dicarboxylic acids, and other naturally present ions within the sample [21]. Formula assignments were based on a list of conservative rules that ensure the formulas are chemically possible in nature and would ionize in either positive or negative ion mode [22, 23]. Empirical formulas were generated by a molecular formula calculator using C, H, O, N, and S $(C_{5-50}H_5)$ $1000_{0.30}N_0$ -4S₀₋₂) within 1 ppm mass error. For positive ion mode, 1 Na atom was allowed per formula. Only m/z values with an S/N ratio above 3 were inserted into the molecular formula calculator. The assigned formulas, in the vast majority of cases, agreed within an error value of <0.5 ppm of the calculated exact mass of the assigned formulas.

2.5. Data collection and analysis

The yield and UV-vis parameters of wood extractives were analyzed by Proc Means of the Statistical Analysis System (SAS Version 9.2; SAS institute, Cary, NC) to generate means and associated standard errors. The UV-vis spectra, as well as the negative and positive ion ESI FT-ICR mass spectra, of the water extractives of maple and oak were obtained and graphically plotted to visualize their characteristics. The biomolecular compound classes of maple and oak extractives were categorized and plotted using two-dimensional van Krevelen diagrams. The total number of formulas and selected molecular-level parameters were computed and tabulated for treatment combinations. Similarly, the diversity (number and percentage of formulas), as well as their relative frequency or abundance, of biomolecular compound classes were also computed.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Extraction yield

The yield of water extraction was 3.14% and 2.93%, for maple and oak, respectively, on a dry mass basis (Table 1). These values were in the range of extraction efficiency of various wood materials. Generally, wood extractives account for 2-5% of wood content, even though higher yields could be reached in certain types of wood or by different extractants [8, 24]. For example, Malik and Santoso [4] reported extraction efficiencies in the range of 0.7-6.7% for oily keruing wood samples using solutions of water and ethanol in various proportions. Malik et al. [1] reported that the extraction yield of merbau extractives were 12.45%, 12.56%, and 1.34% when 80% ethanol, 60% ethyl acetate, and hot water were used, respectively. The organic solvents increase the extractive efficiency due to the fact that their polar and nonpolar functional groups dissolve more complicated compounds, such as tannins, resins, wax, and gum. The solvent choice should depend on the targeted extracted compounds and/or the purpose of the extraction. From a general environmental point of view, water is better than organic solvents, because it is relatively cheap, nontoxic, inflammable, and recyclable [1]. As the primary purpose of this work was characterizing the water-soluble materials in wood veneers, water was the best choice.

3.2. The UV-Vis spectral features

The triplicate samples of each type of wood extractive showed almost identical spectral features with minor strength differences (Fig. 1). The UV-vis spectral features of the oak extractives have monotonically-decreasing curves with increasing wavelength and two absorbance shoulders around 225 and 279 nm, except for a peak near 210 nm. This featureless characteristic of the UV-vis spectra is common for natural organic matter, which indicates that there were many different chromophores in this complex sample [19]. The abundant

chromophores could be aromatic and/or phenolic compounds with conjugated C=C and C=O double bonds, which have strong absorbances in the range of 200 nm to 300 nm, as described in earlier studies of wood extractives [25] and other plant extracts [26]. In the spectra of the maple extracts, the absorbance shoulder at 279 nm was a distinct absorbance peak. Therefore, in the maple extractives, some chromophores were apparently more abundant than in oak extractives. Malik et al. [1] attributed a strong UV-peak at the similar 279 nm in their merbau extractives to the phenolic compound resorcinol, by comparison to the UV-vis spectrum of the model compound.

Quantitatively, the value of E2/E3 was about 17 for the oak extractives per the measurements of A_{250} and A_{365} with the 1/100x and 1/20x diluted samples (Table 1). The value was near 6 for the maple extractives per the measurements with the 1/50x and 1/10x diluted samples. The visible absorbance, especially at 600 nm, was quite low, and as such, the undiluted samples were used to obtain the E4/E6 ratios. These data show that both of the E2/E3 and E4/E6 parameters were higher in the oak extractives than in the maple extractives. These two UV-vis ratios are widely used for the characterization of labile organic matter from various sources of soil and environmental samples [27, 28, 29, 30]. The E4/E6 value was also used as a colloidal parameter of the water-soluble materials in the composting of forestry waste (oak biomass) [31]. Higher E2/E3 values may reflect lower average molecular mass components. Higher E4/E6 values may be contributed by both lower average molecular mass components and less aromatic structures. Waldrip et al. [28] reported an E2/E3 value of about 7.2 for surface beef manure, but around 3.5 in its sediment samples. The authors attributed their observations that the surface manure was more recently excreted materials with lower molecular mass (i.e., no humification). In humic acid samples, He et al. [32] observed that E4/E6 values were 3.6 and 15, respectively, for the acid's high (> 3 KD) and low (<3 KD) molecular mass fractions. Based on these earlier observations, the two sets of E2/E3 and E4/E6 values recorded in this study imply that the maple extractives possessed higher molecular mass and more aromatic components than the oak extractives.

3.3. ESI FT-ICR mass spectral features

The broadband ESI FT-ICR mass spectra of the two extractives are shown in Fig. 2. For both samples, peaks were mainly detected at m/z 250-800. However, apparent differences were observed in the spectral features between the two samples, and between the different ionization modes of the same sample. For both ESI modes, the maple sample showed strong peaks in the range of m/z 320-380, with modestly strong peaks between m/z 500-700 using negative ion mode. In contrast, strong peaks were detected in the wider range of m/z 420-620 in the oak extractives with negative ion mode and a more narrow range of m/z 400-480 with positive ion mode. The ultrahigh resolving powers of FT-ICR-MS allowed for the separation of m/z values to a mass accuracy of less than 1 ppm. Thus, numerous peaks could be detected at each nominal mass within an error value of less than 0.5 ppm compared to the calculated exact mass of the assigned formulas (insets of Fig. 2). In total, negative ion mode analysis allowed for the assignment of 2781 formulas in the maple extractives and 2256 formulas in the oak extractives (Table 2). Positive ion mode detected fewer peaks (and thus less formulas), with 924 and 1009 formulas for the maple and oak samples, respectively. The difference between the two ion modes is due to the fact that positive ESI produces mostly proton adducts or cation adducts, i.e., $[M + H]^+$ or $[M + Na]^+$; and negative ESI produces mostly deprotonated compounds, i.e., [M - H]⁻ [33]. As a result, positive ESI could represent more of those molecules with high proton affinities, and negative ESI enhances ion signals for acidic compounds. It should be noted that low molecular weight compounds, such as resorcinol $(C_6H_6O_2, 110.112$ Da) featured in the UV-vis spectra (Fig. 1), are not efficiently detected by FT-ICR0MS, and thus, the bulk elemental compositions may differ [20, 34]. Other hyphened MS techniques could be applied to detect the smaller ions, such as GC-MS and analytical pyrolysis-MS [35, 36].

The average m/z for the water extractives of maple were 546 and 477 for negative and positive ion modes, respectively (Table 2). For the water extractives of oak in negative and positive ion mode, the average m/z values were 534 and 457, respectively, which are slightly lower than the values for maple, which is consistent with the absorbance ratio indications previously described from the UV-vis spectra. The average number of carbons and O/C ratios were similar between the two samples for each ion mode. H/C ratios are inversely proportional to DBE values, as high H/C ratios indicate a more aliphatic character and high DBE ratios indicate a more aromatic character. For both ion modes, the maple sample was less aromatic (i.e., had higher H/C and lower DBE) than the oak sample. These observations are consistent with oak having higher overall UV absorbances (Fig. 1), but inconsistent with the E4/E6 ratio that suggested that oak was less aromatic than the maple. This inconsistency likely points towards a fraction of the oak water extractive that is aromatic but not ionized by ESI in either ion mode, which suggests a pure hydrocarbon that would be ionized by atmospheric pressure photoionization (APPI). These data are in the range of other organic materials, such as bio-oil products, water extracts of plant, and organic humic acid fractions (Table 1). The average O/C ratios and DBE values of the two wood extractives are higher than other organic samples, but within the typical range for dissolved organic matter extracted from aquatic sources.

3.4. van Krevelen (V-K) analysis

Table 3 summarizes the distribution of the formulas (by both number and magnitude) based on the heteroatom content (CHO(Na), CHON (Na), and CHOS (Na), where Na was only included for positive ion mode data). For both extractives, more than 90% of the formulas fall in the CHO and CHON categories. Using negative ion mode, 6% of the formulas (accounting for 7% of the total spectral magnitude) were CHOS and were assigned in the maple extractives, but even less (2% of formulas accounting for 1% of the total spectral magnitude) were in the oak extractives.

To better visualize and compare the chemical compositions of the maple and oak water extractives, V-K diagrams were plotted and formulas were grouped into 7 biomolecular compound classes (Figs. 3 and 4). Nearly all formulas aligned within a compound classes, leaving only 2-3% of the formulas (accounting for 1-3% of the total spectral magnitude, Table 4) falling outside one of these ranges. While there are less formulas in the positive ion mode data, the patterns in the distribution of compound categories within the V-K diagrams between the two ion modes looks quite similar. The patterns of the V-K diagrams of the two extractives were similar to that of steam-treated pine biomass samples dominated by carbohydrates and lignins, although there were only 10 data points obtained from bulk elemental analysis [37]. While lignins are generally considered to be essentially hydrophobic (or lipophilic) [37], the lignin-like formulas in the water extractives may be devoted to the hydrophilic precursors and/or degradation products of lignins [38, 39]. The patterns of the V-K diagrams of the two extractives were also similar to that of the V-K diagram of short-rotation willow fast pyrolysis oil observed with negative ion mode FT-ICR MS, except more lipids, as expected, were observed in the bio-oil [24].

In general, the O/C averages are fairly similar between the extractives of maple and oak. However, maple sample possessed a higher average H/C (and thus lower DBE). As such, there are more aliphatic formulas in the maple samples, and more aromatic formulas in the oak samples. For both samples, most of the formulas contain CHO-only, but they do both contain some CHON and CHOS formulas. The V-K diagrams visually show that most of the formulas fall into the lignin-like (approximate boundaries of O/C 0.1-0.6 and H/C 0.5-1.7) and carbohydrate-like (approximate boundaries of O/C 0.6-1.2 and H/C 1.5-2.2) regions, with some contributions in the tannin-like (approximate boundaries of O/C 0.6-1.2 and H/C 0.5-1.5) and lipid-like (approximate boundaries of O/C 0.0-0.2 and H/C 1.7-2.2) regions. Quantitatively, lignin-like components are the most diversified, accounting for 53-75% of the formulas (and

35-81% of the total spectral magnitude, Table 4). Carbohydrate- and tannin-like compounds exist in moderate abundance and diversity, accounting for about 10-24% of detected formulas and 8-39% of the abundance. Peptide- and lipid-like are also present in both extractives but in small amounts (<3%). Positive ion mode did detect more peptide-like components, as peptides are N-containing compounds that are typically ionized more efficiently in positive mode. Condensed aromatics and unsaturated hydrocarbons were essentially negligible.

3.5. Characteristics of major compounds

Although thousands of formulas were identified in the wood extractives by FT-ICR-MS, the top 25 formulas detected in highest magnitude accounted for the much (nearly 50%) of the total spectral magnitude of all formulas in negative ion mode (Tables 5 and 6). Furthermore, the abundance of the top 5 formulas accounted for 30.1% and 49.3% of total magnitude in the maple extractives, and 32.2% and 19.0% in the oak extractives, using negative and positive ion mode, respectively. With the exception of one formula, all of the top 25 formulas belong to the lignin-like, carbohydrate-like, or tannin-like classes. The one exception is the peak at m/z 329.2333 with an abundance of 0.523%, assigned to $C_{18}H_{33}O_5$, which could be 9,12,13trihydroxyoctadecenoate or any of its structural isomers [40]. There are five formulas that appeared twice in the top 25 peaks of the maple and oak extractives. Three formulas $(C_{22}H_{37}O_{19},$ $C_{29}H_{31}O_{12}$, and $C_{27}H_{31}O_{10}$) were detected in negative ion mode of both the maple and oak extractives, and one formula $(C_{22}H_{26}O_9Na)$ appeared in positive ion mode of both extractives. These results implied that the four formulas should be major components in both wood samples. One formula $(C_{22}H_{27}O_8)$ appeared in both negative and positive ion mode spectra of the oak sample, probably representing the zwitterion properties of the compound. While two Scontaining lignins and one tannin were in the top 25 peaks of the maple extractives, no Scontaining compound was in the top 25 peaks of the oak extractives. Among the three Scontaining formulas, $C_{22}H_{25}O_{11}S$ has been reported as a fragment of paeoniflorin sulfonate

(C23H27O13S), a newly-generated marker due to sulfur-fumigation of Moutan Cortex (a root bark) [41]. While there is no information on the history of the two wood samples we studied, it would be of interest to investigate further the origin of these S-containing compounds in the maple sample.

We further explored possible identities of the top 5 peaks of each spectrum. The highest peak (13.6% of the total spectral magnitude) using negative ion mode for the maple extractives was at m/z 341.1087. Its formula was assigned to $C_{12}H_{21}O_{11}$, which could be dihexoside. Its abundance could be due to the presence of various dihexoside derivatives found in nature, such as pine cones [42]. The second highest peak (7.2%) at m/z 683.2246 seemed to be a dimer of dihexoside, having a formula of $C_{24}H_{43}O_{22}$. The third abundant peak was lignin-like but having 4 N atoms and 14 DBEs with the formula $C_{24}H_{25}O_{10}N_4$, which could not be found in the literature. The fourth abundant formula $(C_{31}H_{37}O_{11})$ is related to the products of natural hypolignification [43]. The fifth formula $(C_{18}H_{31}O_{16})$ could be a 6-kestose monohydrate [44].

The highest peak (30.7% of the total spectral magnitude) of the maple extractives in positive ion mode is at m/z 381.0792, assigned to $C_{15}H_{18}O_{10}Na$. This chemical is a glucuronoconjugate, which has not been well documented but found in neuroblastoma patients [45]. The second highest peak (9.5%) at m/z 365.1053 ($C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}Na$) could be a 6,6'-linked disaccharide, such as 6 -O- $(6$ -Deoxy-D-allos- 6 -vl)-D-allose and 6 -O- $(6$ -Deoxy- α - D -mannopyranos-6-yl)- α -D-mannopyranose, previously reported in their relevance to the root of the thorny palm *Acrocomia mexicana* [46]. The formula (C₁₈H₁₈O₈Na) and exact mass (385.0894) of the third peak are equal to the values of lepraric acid in metabolite profiling of lichens by an LC–MS method [47]. The fourth and fifth peaks could be classified as artoheterone (C₁₇H₁₆O₇Na) [48] and sucrose (C₁₂H₂₆O₁₁N, [M+NH4]⁺) [49], respectively.

In the oak extractives, the highest peak (14.2% of the total spectral magnitude) using negative ion mode was at m/z 419.1708 with a formula of $C_{22}H_{27}O_8$. This peak could be assigned to lyoniresinol, which has been documented in oak extractives and maple sap [50, 51]. As a major component of oak, it is also found in the positive ion mode spectrum of the oak extractives with an abundance of 1.8%, which is still in the top 25. This chemical is also present in the maple extractives, but with a much lower magnitude (0.03% and 0.02% using negative and positive ion modes, respectively). The second abundant peak $(C_{22}H_{31}O_{12}, 6.7\%)$ could be assigned to caffeoyl hexose-deoxyhexoside, which is found in fruit tree biomass, such as avocado (*Persea americana*) [52]. The formula $(C_{22}H_{37}O_{19})$ of the third peak (5.7%) is also in the top 25 formulas of the maple extractive with a relative abundance of 1.1%. It fits the molecular formulas for deaminoneuraminic acid- α -2,6-lactoside- β -OCH₃ and deaminoneuraminic acid- α -2,3-lactoside- β -OCH₃ [53]. The fourth peak with the formula of C28H37O¹³ could be a tinosposinenside, as detected in the stems of *Tinospora sinensis* plants [54]. The fifth peak at m/z 551.2134 still possessed a relatively high magnitude (1.4%), but no published information on its identity $(C_{21}H_{37}O_{12})$ was available.

The relative abundance of the first peak in the oak extractives using positive ion mode was 9.8%, which is lower than the relative abundance of the first peak of other spectra. However, the abundance was still much higher than the next 4 peaks in the top 5 that were all approximately 2.0% (Table 6). The first peak could be assigned to the formula $C_{25}H_{24}O_7Na$ with a structural possibility of tert-butyl 4-hydroxy-6'-methoxy-2'-methyl-2-oxo-2H,4'H- [3,4'-bichromene]-3'-carboxylate [55]. The formula of the second peak is similar to the first one but with one more DBE $(C_{25}H_{22}O_7Na)$, which could be artobiloxanthone or cycloartobiloxanthone found in evergreen trees *Artocarpus rigida* Blume (Moraceae, mulberry family) [56]. The third one $(C_{22}H_{23}O_7)$ could be 6-Oxo-6-{4-[(4propoxybenzoyl)oxy]phenoxy}hexanoate or yatein, a lignin isolated from evergreen trees and other sources [57]. The fourth formula $(C_{22}H_{28}O_8Na)$ could be a eupachinisin product that has been isolated from a whole plant extract of *Eupatorium chinense* [58]. There was no match found for the fifth formula $(C_{19}H_{26}O_{12}N)$ based on literature searches.

4. Conclusions

This work showed that about 3% of chemical components in maple and oak were extractable by water. UV-vis spectral data indicated that the maple extractives possessed higher molecular mass and more aromatic components than the oak extractives. UV-vis spectra indicated the presence of the phenolic compound resorcinol $(C_6H_6O_2, 110.112$ Da) in the maple extractives. ESI FT-ICR-MS analysis provided more molecular-level information on the composition of the wood extractives, which have a molecular weight range of 200-800 Da. For both extractives, more than 90% of the formulas fell into the CHO and CHON heteroatom categories. With negative ion mode, 6% of the formulas, which account for 7% of the total spectral magnitude, were CHOS formulas detected in the maple extractives, but only 2% of the formulas (1% of the total spectral magnitude) were in the oak extractives. Lignin-, carbohydrate-, and tannin-like compounds were the three major categories of biomolecules detected. In this research, negative ion ESI allowed for the detection of >2500 formulas, while positive ion mode allowed for the detection of about 1000 formulas. Moreover, the top 25 most abundant peaks (i.e., formulas) accounted for 47.1% and 63.8% of the total spectral magnitude of all formulas in the maple extractives using negative and positive ion mode, respectively. About 45.5% and 33.5% of the total spectral magnitude was due to the 25 most abundant peaks in the oak sample using negative and positive ion mode, respectively. The profiles of the top 25 formulas differed between the two wood samples, although 4 formulas appeared in the spectra of both samples. Among the 20 formulas of the top 5 from the 4 spectra, 17 could be connected to specific bioactive chemical compounds related to tree and other plant biomass, based on the literature comparisons. Thus, data and observations in this

research increased the knowledge of wood chemistry for exploration of bioactive chemicals

in wood extractives, as well as provided some information for further applications of FT-

ICR-MS for chemical markers useful in profiling and identification of wood types and

sources [36, 59].

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Fig. 1. UV-vis spectra of triplicate water extractives of oak and maple.Accep

Fig. 2. Negative and positive ion ESI FT-ICR mass spectra of water extractives of oak and maple wood.

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Fig. 3. The 2D van Krevelen diagrams of the maple water extractives. Overlain boxes show where the seven major biomolecular compound classes align.

Fig. 4. The 2D van Krevelen diagrams of the oak water extractives. Overlain boxes show where the seven major biomolecular compound classes align.

Table 1. Yield and UV-vis parameters of maple and oak water extractives. Absorbance values (A₂₅₀ and A₃₆₅) were with 1/100x (I), 1/50x (II), $1/20x$ (III), or $1/10x$ (IV) diluted extractives for the E2/E3 values. A₄₀₀ and A₆₀₀ were with undiluted extractives for the E4/E6 values. Data are presented with averages ± standard deviations (n=3).

Table 2. Total number of assigned formulas and selected average FT-ICR-MS peak parameters.

^a: Bio-oil oily fraction from defatted cottonseed meal; data related to [19].

^b: Water extracted organic matter (WEOM) of plant biomass, and soil mobile humic acid (MHA). Data were adopted from [59].

C is the number of carbons in the assigned formulas

O/C is the atomic ratio of oxygen to carbon

H/C is the atomic ratio of hydrogen to carbon

DBE (double bond equivalents) = $(2c + 2 + n + p - h)/2$ for any molecular formula $C_cH_hN_nO_0S_sP_p$

Table 3. The percentage of formulas (by number, num, and by peak magnitude, mag) of the

types of formulas assigned in the wood extractives.

Na was only included in positive ion mode

Table 4. Diversity (the number and % of formulas) and relative abundance (% of the total spectral magnitude) of the biomolecular compound classes in the water extractives of maple and oak, as identified by negative and positive ion mode ESI-FT-ICR-MS.

^a: Compounds that do not fit into any of the above categories

% form $=$ % of the total number of formulas

% mag $=$ % of the total spectral magnitude extractives. The peaks in red font are those found in the top 25 peaks of more than one spectrum of the maple and oak extractives. Formulas in black, dark blue, light blue, and pink are CHO, CHON, CHONa, and CHOS, respectively.

Table 5. Relative abundances (% of total spectral magnitude), formulas, double bond equivalents (DBE), and compound class of the top 25 peaks detected in the FT-ICR mass spectra of the maple extractives. The peaks in red font are those found in the top 25 peaks of more than one spectrum of the maple and oak extractives. Formulas in black, dark blue, light blue, and pink are CHO, CHON, CHONa, and CHOS, respectively.

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Table 6. Relative abundances (% of total spectral magnitude), formulas, double bond equivalents (DBE), and compound class of the top 25 peaks detected in the FT-ICR mass spectra of the oak extractives. The peaks in red font are those found in the top 25 peaks of more than one spectrum of the maple and oak extractives. Formulas in black, dark blue, light blue, and pink are CHO, CHON, CHONa, and CHOS,

respectively.

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