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5 **Application of chemometric analysis to**
6 **infrared spectroscopy for the identification of**
7 **wood origin**

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19 Chemical characteristics of wood are used in this study for plant taxonomy classification based on
20 the current Angiosperm Phylogeny Group classification (APG III System) for the division, class
21 and subclass of woody plants. Infrared spectra contain information about the molecular structure
22 and intermolecular interactions among the components in wood but the understanding of this
23 information requires multivariate techniques for the analysis of highly dense datasets. This article
24 is written with the purposes of specifying the chemical differences among taxonomic groups, and
25 predicting the taxa of unknown samples with a mathematical model. Principal component analysis,
26 t-test, stepwise discriminant analysis and linear discriminant analysis, were some of the chosen
27 multivariate techniques. A procedure to determine the division, class, subclass and order of
28 unknown samples was built with promising implications for future applications of Fourier
29 Transform Infrared spectroscopy in wood taxonomy classification.

30 *Plant taxonomy classification, Infrared spectroscopy, Multivariate analysis,*
31 *Wood, Angiosperm, Gymnosperm*

32 **Introduction**

33 Trees belong to seed-bearing plants which are subdivided into two major
34 botanical groupings: Gymnosperms (*Gymnospermae*) and Angiosperms
35 (*Angiospermae* or flowering plants). Coniferous woods or softwoods belong to the
36 first-mentioned category and hardwoods to the second group (Sjostrom, 1981).
37 These groups are subdivided into class, subclass, orders, families, genera and
38 species based on the current Angiosperm Phylogenetic System Classification
39 (APG III System) and classification of extant Gymnosperms (Chase and Reveal,
40 2009; Christenhusz *et al.*, 2011). Traditional methods of botanical classification
41 include a taxonomic system based on structural and physiological connections
42 between organisms and a phylogenetic system, based on genetic connections.
43 The method of “chemical taxonomy” consists of the investigation of the
44 distribution of chemical compounds in series of related or supposedly related
45 plants (Erdtman, 1963). Taxonomically, the species are difficult to classify
46 because there is great inter-species variability as well as narrow gaps between the
47 morphological characteristics of different species (Gidman *et al.*, 2003). The
48 chemical composition of softwoods (Gymnosperms) differs from that of
49 hardwoods (Angiosperms) in the structure and content of lignin and
50 hemicelluloses. Generally speaking Gymnosperms have less hemicelluloses and
51 more lignin (Martin, 2007). In hardwood the predominant hemicellulose is a
52 partially acetylated xylan with a small proportion of glucomannan. In softwoods,
53 the main hemicellulose is partially acetylated galactoglucomannan and
54 arabinoglucuronoxylan (Barnett and Jeronimidis, 2003; Ek, Gellerstedt and
55 Henriksson, 2009). The composition of xylans from various plants appears as
56 well to be related to their belonging to evolutionary families (Ek, Gellerstedt and
57 Henriksson, 2009). With regards to lignin, softwoods mainly contains only
58 guaiacyl *lignin*, while hardwood contains both guaiacyl (G) and syringyl (S)
59 lignin and the syringyl/guaiacyl (S/G) ratio varies among species (Obst, 1982;
60 Stewart *et al.*, 1995; Takayama, 1997; Barnett and Jeronimidis, 2003) (e.g.
61 species of the same genus can show a large variation in the S/G ratio (Barnett and
62 Jeronimidis, 2003)).
63 Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) is a non-destructive technique
64 suitable for representations of phylogenetic relationships between plant taxa, even
65 those that are closely related (Shen *et al.*, 2008). An advantage is that it can be

66 applied in the analysis of wood without pre-treatment, thus avoiding the tedious
67 methods of isolation which are normally required (Obst, 1982; Åkerholm, Salmén
68 and Salme, 2001). Infrared spectroscopy is quite extensively applied in plant cell
69 wall analysis (Kacuráková *et al.*, 2000). Furthermore, in combination with
70 multivariate analysis, FTIR has been used for the chemotaxonomic classification
71 of flowering plants, for example: the identification and classification of the
72 *Camellia* genus using cluster analysis and Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
73 (Shen *et al.*, 2008); the taxonomic discrimination of seven different plants that
74 belong to two orders and three families using a dendrogram based on PCA (Kim *et*
75 *al.*, 2004); and the differentiation of plants from different genera using cluster
76 analysis (Gorgulu, Dogan and Severcan, 2007). In woody tissues, FTIR has been
77 used to characterize lignin (Obst, 1982; Takayama, 1997), characterise soft and
78 hardwood pulps using Partial Least-Squares analysis (PLS) and PCA (Bjarnestad
79 and Dahlman, 2002). In our previous work (Carballo-Meilan *et al.*, 2014), FTIR
80 spectroscopic data in combination with multivariate statistical analysis was used
81 to classify wood samples at the lower ranks of the taxonomic system. The
82 discrimination of order (Fagales/Malpighiales) and family (Fagaceae/Betulaceae)
83 levels was successfully performed. Significant chemical differences in
84 hemicelluloses, cellulose and guaiacyl (lignin) were highlighted in the order
85 dataset. In addition, the interaction of wood polymers using Partial Least-Squares
86 regression (Åkerholm, Salmén and Salme, 2001) and differentiation of wood
87 species using Partial Least-Squares regression (Hobro *et al.*, 2010) has also been
88 investigated.

89

90 This paper reports on the chemical differences between wood samples using
91 spectral data and multivariate analysis. To the best of our knowledge, this is the
92 first time that unknown samples from trees have been successfully classified into
93 division, class, subclass and order through a linear model based on the chemical
94 features of wood using FTIR spectroscopy. As compared to our previous
95 publication, the present work expands the classification of woods using
96 chemometric techniques and the cross-sectional variations in wood in the higher
97 ranks of the taxonomic classification. The methodology developed relies on
98 multiple sub models (i.e., one model per taxonomic level) independently
99 constructed. This provides a systematic determination of every rank in the

100 taxonomic system currently included in the modelling. Even in the event of failure
101 of one of the sub models (i.e., more probable in the lower taxa such as family as
102 the differences between groups are smaller and therefore the classification is more
103 challenging), useful information can still be collected from the analysed sample.

104 **Materials and Methods**

105 Branch material was collected from 21 tree species in Lincoln (Lincolnshire, UK).
106 Five Gymnosperm trees and 16 Angiosperm trees (12 from Rosids class and 4
107 from Asterids class) were analysed. Table 1 provides a detailed description of the
108 samples. The samples were stored in a dry environment at ambient temperature
109 conditions.

110 **Sample preparation**

111 Sample preparation was reproduced in the same manner as described in detail in
112 another publication (Carballo-Meilan *et al.*, 2014). The dataset obtained from a
113 PerkinElmer Spectrum 100 FTIR Spectrometer was integrated by 3500 variables
114 and 252 observations recorded in pith, rings, sapwood and bark positions. Results
115 from the ring dataset (101 observations) are shown in the present article.

116 **Multivariate techniques**

117 The data set was processed with Tanagra 1.4.39 software. A range of
118 multivariable statistical methods were chosen to analyse spectra of the wood
119 samples including: Principal Component Analysis (PCA), t-test, Stepwise
120 Discriminant Analysis (STEPDISC) method, Partial-Least squares for
121 Classification (C-PLS), Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA) and PLS-LDA linear
122 models. The statistical methodology from the previous research (Carballo-Meilan
123 *et al.*, 2014) was used in this work.

124 **Results and discussion**

125 **Wood spectra dataset**

126 The raw spectra of 16 wood samples that belong to the Angiosperm division and 5
127 wood samples from the Gymnosperm division were statistically analysed. The
128 sample size available for chemometric analysis in the division dataset was 29 and

129 72 observations from Gymnosperm and Angiosperm, respectively. From the total
130 number of cases (101), 83 were assigned as a training set and 18 as a test set.
131 Equivalent procedure was executed with class (72) and subclass (18) datasets; the
132 former with 54 Rosids and 18 Asterids, and the later with 11 Euasterid I and 7
133 Euasterid II. In the case of the class dataset, the sample was divided to give 60
134 observations as training set and 14 as test set, and in the case of the subclass
135 dataset 11 cases were assigned as training set and 7 as test set. Vibrational spectra
136 from the growth rings of the wood samples are shown in Fig. 1-A, Fig. 2-A and
137 Fig. 3-A for division, class and subclass dataset, respectively; the arrows indicate
138 important bands in the discrimination of samples based on the STEPDISC results
139 (See section below).

140 **Exploratory data analysis**

141 A PCA mathematical technique was applied to over 101 samples of individual
142 spectra of trees to find the most relevant wavelengths, between the range 4000-
143 500 cm^{-1} , which contribute to sample discrimination between Gymnosperm versus
144 Angiosperm divisions, Rosids versus Asterids classes and Euasterid I versus
145 Euasterid II subclasses. The data set was standardized so each variable received
146 equal weight in the analysis. PCA of the spectra of wood from division, class and
147 subclass dataset gave five main factor loadings. Differences between groups,
148 using the first two factors, led to data with poor structure.
149 Student t-tests were used to determine which factors were more significant for
150 differentiating groups. The factor rotated loadings (FR) extracted from PCA were
151 used for interpreting the principal components and to determine which variables
152 are influential in the formation of PCs. Normality and homogeneity of variance
153 was checked. Mann-Whitney test (i.e., non-parametric alternative to the t-test)
154 was also performed, confirming the significance of the factors. The wavenumber
155 loading on those highlighted factors were chemically identified. In later
156 computations, STEPDISC method confirmed the importance of those chemicals in
157 the discrimination. The results of that probe showed that there are chemical
158 differences between Gymnosperms and Angiosperms that were condensed only
159 inside the fourth and fifth rotated factor (FR4 and FR5). The t-test was 2.902 with
160 an associated probability of 0.00456 for FR4, and 4.6767 ($p= 0.000009$) for FR5.
161 Therefore, the null hypothesis may be rejected at the 99.54% and 99.99% levels

162 for FR4 and FR5, respectively and it is concluded that there is a significant
163 difference in means due to the factor selected. A detailed band assignment of the
164 factors highlighted in the t-test is presented in Table 2. These factors are most
165 relevant and the most highly correlated wavenumbers are 1762-1719, 1245-1220
166 and 1132-950 cm^{-1} from FR4 and 2978-2832, 1713-1676 and 1279-1274 cm^{-1}
167 from FR5. As the STEPDISC method highlighted, it is highly likely that the C=O
168 stretching in hemicelluloses and lignin, wavenumbers 1730, 1712 and 1684 cm^{-1}
169 from feature selection (range 1762-1719 cm^{-1} in FR4 and 1713-1676 cm^{-1} in FR5)
170 play a key role in the classification.

171 In the case of Rosids vs. Asterids, the t-test emphasized FR3 and FR5 as main
172 descriptors of the chemical differences between class. The results were not
173 significantly different for FR5 ($t=1.7379$, $p=0.0865$), but was significant for FR3
174 ($p=0.00148$, $t=3.3062$). Major contributors to the FR3 formation are
175 wavenumber between 1171 and 884 cm^{-1} , and 2860-2847 cm^{-1} . The most highly
176 correlated wavenumbers with FR5 are 1687-1385 cm^{-1} . The C-H ring in
177 glucomannan, 874 and 872 cm^{-1} (associated with FR3), and the C=O stretching
178 and C-H deformation in lignin and carbohydrates, wavenumbers 1678, 1619,
179 1617, 1613 and 1438 cm^{-1} associated with FR5 are all important chemical signals
180 for differentiating Rosids from Asterids classes, based on PCA and STEPDISC
181 analysis. With regards to the differences between Euasterid I and Euasterid II,
182 FR4 was selected from the t-test analysis with a value of the probability greater
183 than 0.05 ($t=1.9179$, $p=0.0731$). This factor is highly correlated with the
184 wavenumbers 1763-1709 cm^{-1} and 1245-1212 cm^{-1} . Based on the feature selection
185 procedure, it could be that 1769, 1701 and 1697 cm^{-1} were significant for
186 distinguishing among the subclass groups but the results were limited by the small
187 sample size. The identity of the mentioned wavenumbers was associated with
188 C=O stretching in hemicelluloses and lignin. The wavenumbers responsible for
189 the classification between division, class and subclass are described in the next
190 section (STEPDISC analysis).

191 A subset of wavenumbers from the STEPDISC method was used as input in PCA
192 to emerge the underlined structure in division, class and subclass datasets. The
193 scores extracted from PCA were used for interpreting the samples and the loading
194 to determine which variables are in relation with the samples. The higher the
195 loading of a variable, the more influence it has in the formation of the factor and

196 vice versa. The score plot from division dataset (Fig. 1-B) showed that conifers
197 (Pinales and Cupressales) were highly correlated with FR3, and the loading plot
198 (Fig. 1-D) showed that the wavenumber 1684 cm^{-1} could be related with
199 Gymnosperm since it correlates more with its factor. A 3D plot (Fig. 1-C) with the
200 individual observations is shown to highlight the underline structure of the dataset
201 using the first three rotated factors. In the score plot from class dataset (Fig. 2-B),
202 the Asterids sample correlated highly with FR2 and the Rosids sample better with
203 FR1. The correlation plot (Fig. 2-D) suggested that the wavenumber 2031 cm^{-1} is
204 more highly correlated with FR2, and therefore would be more connected with the
205 Asterids group. With respect to the subclass dataset, loading plot is shown in Fig.
206 3-B. In this case Euasterid I observations were positively correlated with FR2, and
207 Euasterid II with FR1. The wavenumbers 1701 , 1697 and 1769 cm^{-1} were
208 correlated with FR1, suggesting some closeness with Euasterid II.

209 **STEPDISC analysis**

210 Supervised approach, based on the Wilks' partial lambda, known as STEPDISC
211 method was computed over the normalized wavenumbers to determine the most
212 significant variables for the classification process. Groups based on the current
213 Angiosperm Phylogeny Group classification (APG III System) were used to find
214 the discriminator wavenumbers. Forward strategy and computed statistic F to 3.84
215 as statistical criterion for determining the addition of variables was chosen. The
216 cut-off value selected as minimum conditions for selection of the variables was
217 $p=0.01$ significant level to find the most relevant variables. Seven biomarkers
218 (1730 , 1712 , 1420 , 3068 , 1684 , 1610 , and 1512 cm^{-1}) were successfully found to
219 discriminate between Angiosperms and Gymnosperms. The wavenumbers,
220 arranged in a descendent order based on their F-values (i.e. the variable's total
221 discriminating power, the greater contributor to the overall discrimination in the
222 STEPDISC method will show a better F-value (Klecka, 1980)) and have the
223 following band assignments: 1730 cm^{-1} (C=O stretching in acetyl groups of
224 hemicelluloses (xylan/glucomannan) (Marchessault, 1962; Stewart *et al.*, 1995;
225 Åkerholm, Salmén and Salme, 2001; McCann *et al.*, 2001; Bjarnestad and
226 Dahlman, 2002; Mohebbi, 2005, 2008; Gorgulu, Dogan and Severcan, 2007;
227 Rana *et al.*, 2009)), 1712 cm^{-1} (C=O stretch (unconjugated) in lignin (Hobro *et al.*,
228 2010)), 1420 cm^{-1} (aromatic ring vibration combined with C-H in-plane

229 deformation lignin (Rhoads, Painter and Given, 1987; Kubo and Kadla, 2005;
230 Wang *et al.*, 2009)), 3068 cm^{-1} (C-H stretch aromatic (Silverstein, Webster and
231 Kiemle, 2005; Larkin, 2011)), 1684 cm^{-1} (C=O stretch in lignin (Sudiyani *et al.*,
232 1999; Coates, 2000; Silverstein, Webster and Kiemle, 2005)), 1610 cm^{-1} (aromatic
233 skeletal vibration plus C=O stretching lignin (Kubo and Kadla, 2005; Wang *et al.*,
234 2009)), and 1512 cm^{-1} (aromatic skeletal vibration lignin (Kubo and Kadla, 2005;
235 Huang *et al.*, 2008; Wang *et al.*, 2009; Hobro *et al.*, 2010)). It seems that
236 differences between groups can be attributed to the lignin region. These spectral
237 differences between hard and softwood lignin were observed in the fingerprint
238 region between 1800 and 900 cm^{-1} by other authors (Pandey, 1999).

239 With regards to class dataset, 10 biomarkers (2031, 1678, 1619, 1617, 1613, 784,
240 771, 874, 872, and 1438 cm^{-1}) were found to successfully discriminate between
241 the Rosids and Asterids classes within the Angiosperm division. Differences
242 between groups can be attributed to C=O stretching in lignin and C-H deformation
243 in carbohydrates and lignin, based on their literature assignments (in order of
244 greater contribution to the overall discrimination): 2031 cm^{-1} (-N=C=S (Pavia *et al.*
245 *et al.*, 2009; Larkin, 2011)), 1678 cm^{-1} (C=O stretching aryl ketone of guaiacyl (G)
246 (Rhoads, Painter and Given, 1987)), 1619, 1617, 1613 cm^{-1} (C-O stretching of
247 conjugated or aromatic ketones, C=O stretching in flavones (Huang *et al.*, 2008;
248 Hobro *et al.*, 2010)), 784 cm^{-1} (Out of plane CH bend (Silverstein, Webster and
249 Kiemle, 2005)), 771 cm^{-1} (out of plane N-H wagging primary and secondary
250 amides in carbohydrates or OH out of plane bending (Marchessault, 1962;
251 Zugenmaier, 2007; Muruganatham, Anbalagan and Ramamurthy, 2009)), 874,
252 872 cm^{-1} (C-H ring glucomannan (Marchessault, 1962; Kacuráková *et al.*, 2000;
253 Åkerholm, Salmén and Salme, 2001; Bjarnestad and Dahlman, 2002)), and 1438
254 cm^{-1} (C-H deformation in Lignin and carbohydrates (Mohebbi, 2005)).

255 Thiocyanate was also seen by other authors to discriminate among Angiosperms
256 (Rana *et al.*, 2009).

257 The last probe was run over subclass dataset; 5 biomarkers (1769, 1697, 3613,
258 3610, and 1701 cm^{-1}) were found to successfully discriminate between Euasterid I
259 and Euasterid II subclass from Asterids class. As mentioned before, C=O
260 stretching in lignin and carbohydrates seems relevant for the classification. The
261 greater contributor to the discrimination between subclass groups was the
262 wavenumber 1769 cm^{-1} , attributed in the literature to C=O stretching in acetyl

263 groups of hemicelluloses (xylan/glucomannan) (Table 2; FR4), this contributor
264 was followed in order of importance (the second greatest F-value) by 1697 cm^{-1}
265 assigned to C=O stretching (Coates, 2000; Silverstein, Webster and Kiemle,
266 2005), 3613 and 3610 cm^{-1} (O-H stretching (Coates, 2000)), and lastly 1701 cm^{-1}
267 related to Conj-CO-Conj lignin (Hobro *et al.*, 2010; Larkin, 2011).
268 STEPDISC method was run over different split datasets from ring dataset, the
269 imbalance effect on the results was also checked; in such a way, the discriminator
270 wavenumbers from the output of STEPDISC method were selected and used to
271 construct linear regression models.

272 **Linear model and validation**

273 The next step after selecting the discriminator wavenumbers was to compute and
274 compare several linear models: C-PLS, LDA and PLS-LDA. The discrete class
275 attribute are the taxons based on the current taxonomic classification of trees and
276 the continuous attributes are the discriminator wavenumbers filtered through the
277 STEPDISC previous method. Wilks's lambda is a multivariate measure of group
278 differences over the predictors (Klecka, 1980) and it was used to measure the
279 ability of the variables in the computed classification function from LDA to
280 discriminate among the groups. Classification was carried out by using the
281 classification functions computed for each group. Observations were assigned to
282 the group with the largest classification score (Rakotomalala, 2005). LDA gave
283 the lowest error in the classification and was for that reason the only one shown in
284 this work.

285 Bias-variance error rate decomposition was used to adjust the correct number of
286 predictors in the model to the current sample size, as described in our previous
287 work (Carballo-Meilan *et al.*, 2014). The optimum model for classification by
288 division would be 4 wavenumbers instead of 7 (Fig. 4). However, in the case of
289 the class model, the overfitting region showed up above 8 and underfitting below
290 7. Similar approach was taken for the subclass model where 4 wavenumbers were
291 selected as the optimum model (Fig. 4). Table 3 shows the classification functions
292 with their statistical evaluation for division, class and subclass datasets. The
293 coefficients of the classification functions are not interpreted. Smallest lambda
294 values (not shown) or largest partial F indicates high discrimination (Klecka,
295 1980). The significance of the difference was checked using Multivariate Analysis

296 of Variance (MANOVA) and two transformations of its lambda, Bartlett
297 transformation and Rao transformation (Rakotomalala, 2005). According to Rao's
298 transformation (for small sample sizes, $p < 0.01$), it can be concluded that there is
299 a significant difference between groups in the three cases: division (Rao-F
300 (7,75)=46.417, $p=0.000$), class (Rao-F (7,75)=21.975, $p=0.000$) and subclass
301 (Rao-F (7,75)=35.028, $p=0.000$). The discriminant functions scores were plotted
302 in Fig. 5 to show the discrimination among division, class and subclass groups.
303 The separation looks greater in the case of class and subclass.
304 Validation of the model was carried out to evaluate the statistical and the practical
305 significance of the overall classification rate and the classification rate for each
306 group. Cross-validation (CV), bootstrap method, leave-one-out (LOO), Wolper
307 and Kohavi bias-variance decomposition, and an independent test set which was
308 not used in the construction of the model (test size appears in brackets in Table 3)
309 were used in the validation procedure. The bootstrap value shown in Table 3 is the
310 higher error obtained by the .632 estimator and its variant .632+. This error was
311 seen to be preferred for Gaussian population and small training samples size
312 ($n \leq 50$) (Chernick, 2011). Error rate estimation is presented to evaluate the
313 variance explained by the model; in division, 52% bias, 47% variance, 0.0671
314 error rate; in class, 64% bias, 36% variance, 0.1552 error rate; and in subclass,
315 57% bias, 43% variance, 0.0950 error rate. The model seems stable with a low
316 classification error. Further validation of the method was performed with an
317 unknown sample of wood. The division, class, subclass and order were
318 determined correctly. The samples were taken from a willow (*Salix fragilis*) and
319 belonged to Angiosperm > Rosids > Eurosoid I > Malpighiales. This result
320 corroborates our previous paper where we were able to discriminate between
321 order (Fagales/Malpighiales) and family (Fagaceae/Betulaceae) in a narrow range
322 of Angiosperm species.

323 **Conclusion**

324 A procedure was developed for the taxonomic classification of wood species
325 using samples from different division, class and subclass. First, a STEPDISC
326 method was used to select the predictor wavenumbers for classification. The
327 chemical differences between taxonomic groups were attributed mainly to the
328 differences in their lignin and hemicelluloses content, as well as some amide

329 contribution. The results were also confirmed by a t-test applied on the output
330 from PCA procedure. LDA, PLS-LDA and C-PLS linear models were computed
331 to calculate the classification functions with the predictor variables as dependent
332 variables and groups based on the APG III System as independent variables. LDA
333 provided the lowest classification error based on different validation techniques
334 such as bootstrap or LOO. For an unknown sample its division, class, subclass and
335 order were successfully determined. This study demonstrates that spectra data
336 obtained from wood samples have the potential to be used to discriminate trees
337 taxonomically.

338 A scaffold for the taxonomic classification of woody plants has been produced. A
339 procedure to statistically define differences among species and use them in a
340 model that classifies unknown samples is possible. With additional work to
341 increase the number of species represented, this may prove to be a useful tool to
342 aid in the taxonomic classification of plants. Naturally the current models should
343 only be applied to the species included in the model and, because of the
344 differences in chemical composition among species, it is important that new
345 models are developed to broaden its application.

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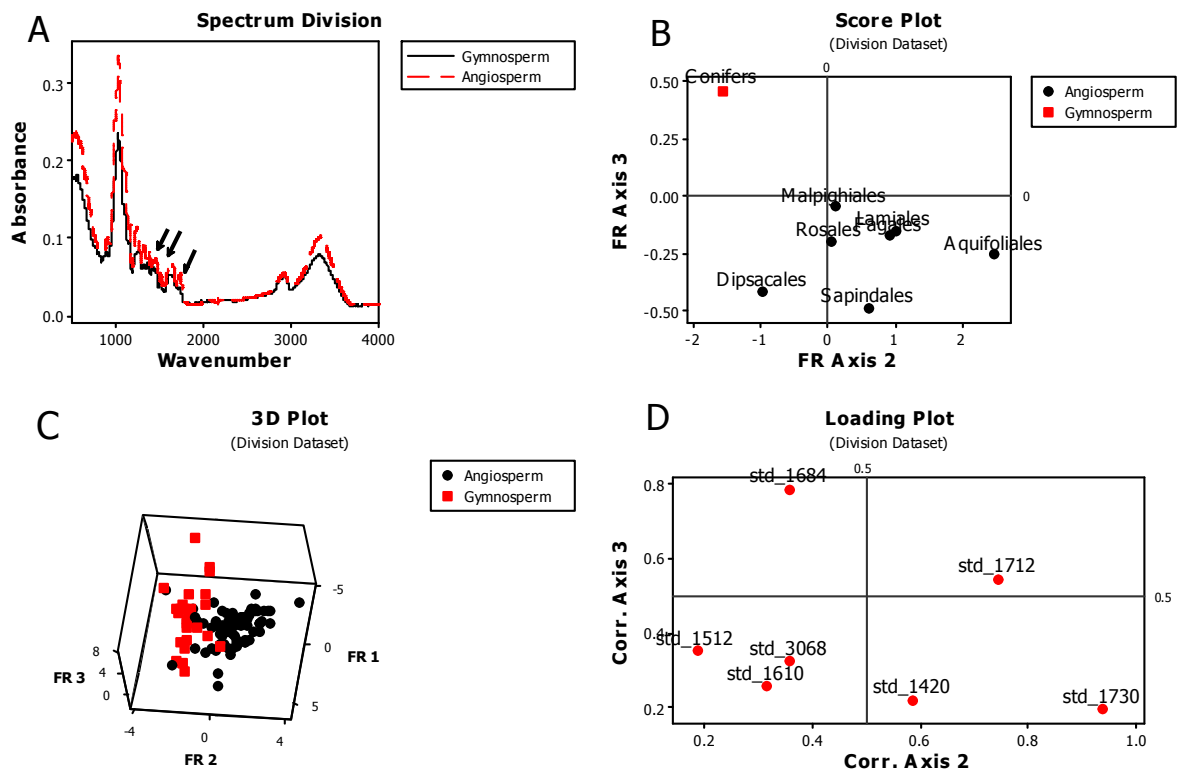
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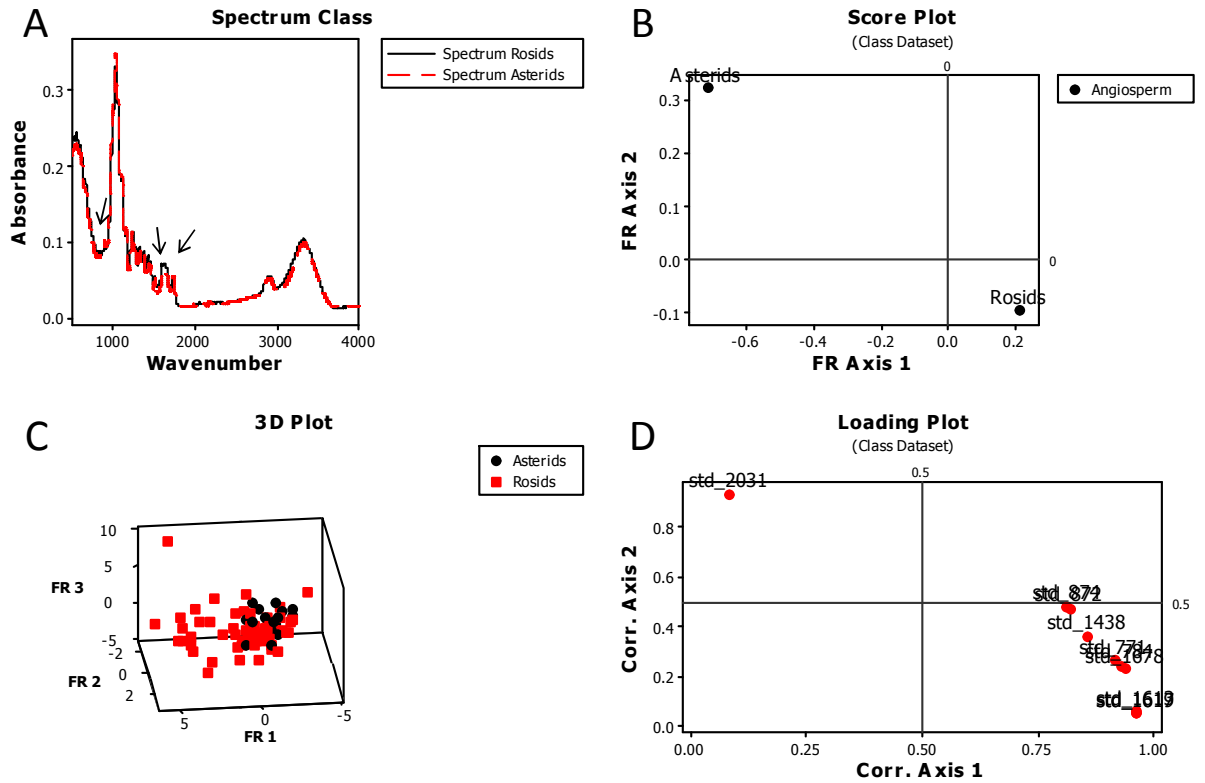
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509 3D plot (C) and loading plot (D) from Gymnosperm and Angiosperm dataset

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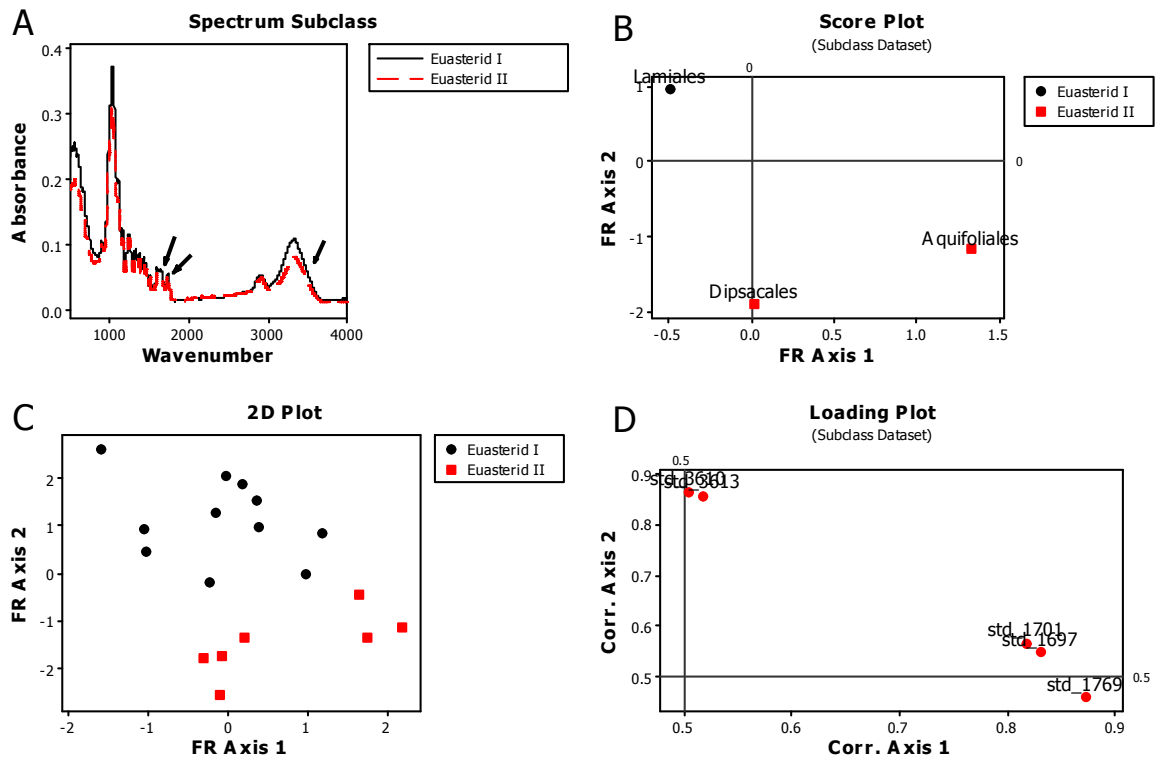


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Fig. 2 Average FTIR spectrum of class: Rosids versus Asterids (A), score plot (B), 3D plot (C) and loading plot (D) from Rosids and Asterids dataset

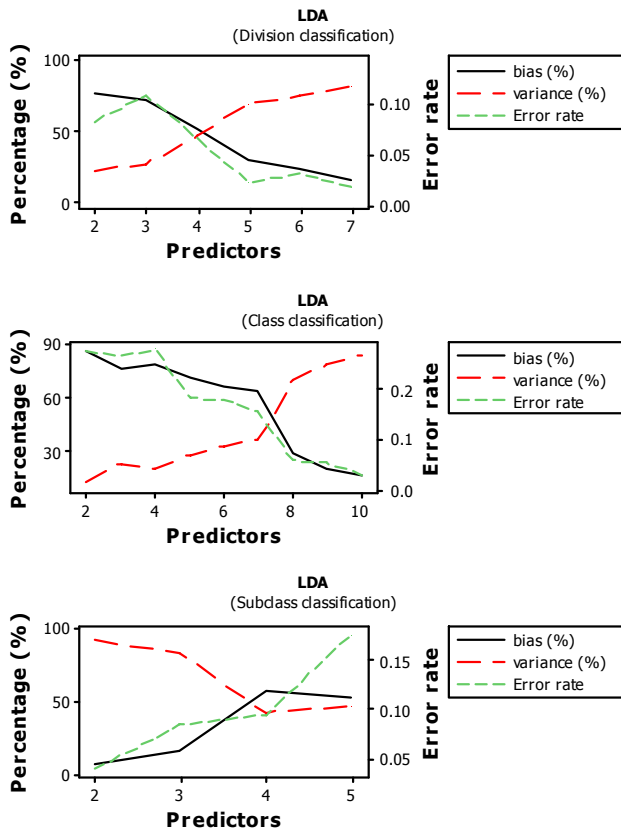


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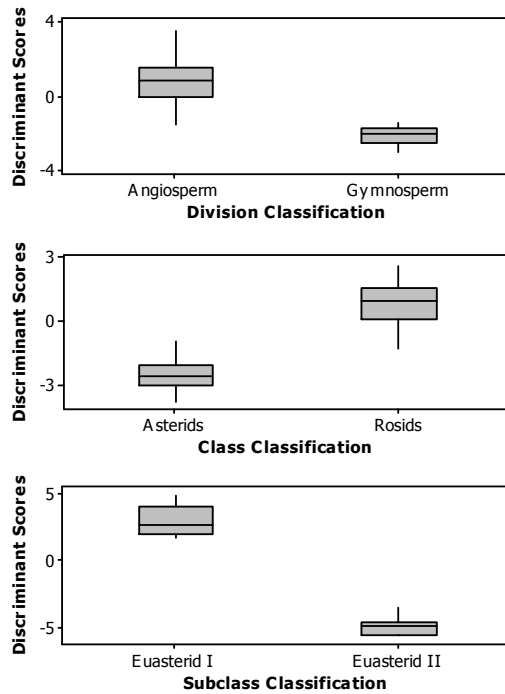
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Fig. 3 Average FTIR spectrum of subclass: Euasterid I versus Euasterid II (A), score plot (B), 2D plot (C) and loading plot (D) from Euasterid I and Euasterid II dataset



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Fig. 4 Bias-variance decomposition from division, class and subclass models



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Fig. 5 Boxplot of the discrimination function scores in division, class and subclass linear models

522 **Tables**

523 Table 1 Tree species based on APG III System Classification (The Angiosperm Phylogeny Group,
 524 2009) and classification of extant Gymnosperms (Chase and Reveal, 2009; Christenhusz *et al.*,
 525 2011)

| Division | Class | Subclass | Order | Family | Genus | Specie | Common name |
|-------------|--------------|--------------|---------------|---------------------|--------------------|----------------------|----------------------------|
| Gymnosperm | | Pinidae | Cupressales | Taxaceae | Taxus L. | Taxus baccata | Yew |
| | | | Pinales | Pinaceae | Pinus L. | Pinus sylvestris | Scot Pine (3 individual s) |
| | | | | | Larix | Larix decidua | Larch |
| Angiosperms | Rosids | Eurosid I | Rosales | Moraceae | Ficus | Ficus carica | Fig |
| | | | | Ulmaceae | Ulmus L. | Ulmus procera | Elm |
| | | | Fagales | Betulaceae | Alnus M. | Alnus glutinosa | Black Alder |
| | | | | | Corylus L. | Corylus avellana | Hazel |
| | | | | | Betula L. | Betula pubescens | Birch |
| | | | Fagaceae | Castanea | Castanea sativa | Sweet Chestnut | |
| | | Fagus L. | | Fagus sylvatica | Beech | | |
| | | Quercus | | Quercus robur | English Oak | | |
| | | Malpighiales | Salicaceae | Populus | Populus | Poplar | |
| | | | | Populus | Poplar nigra | Black Poplar | |
| | Salix | | | Salix fragilis | Willow | | |
| Eurosid II | Sapindales | Sapindaceae | Acer | Acer pseudoplatanus | Sycamore | | |
| Asterids | Euasterid I | Lamiales | Oleaceae | Fraxinus L. | Fraxinus excelsior | Ash (2 individual s) | |
| | Euasterid II | Aquifoliales | Aquifoliaceae | Illex L. | Illex aquifolium | Holly | |
| | | Dipsacales | Adoxaceae | Sambucus | Sambucus nigra | Elder | |

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528 Table 2 Band assignments of the third (FR3), fourth (FR4) and fifth (FR5) factor rotated loadings
 529 related to the variables obtained by PCA from ring dataset

| FR | v (cm-1) | Literature assignments and band origin |
|---|--|---|
| Division | | |
| 4 | 1762-1719 | 1740-1730, 1725 C=O stretching in acetyl groups of hemicelluloses (Marchessault, 1962; Marchessault and Liang, 1962; Stewart et al., 1995; Åkerholm, Salmén and Salme, 2001; McCann et al., 2001; Bjarnestad and Dahlman, 2002; Mohebbi, 2005, 2008; Gorgulu, Dogan and Severcan, 2007; Rana et al., 2009) |
| | 1245-1220 | 1245-1239 C-O of acetyl stretch of lignin and xylan 1238-1231 common to lignin and cellulose, S ring breathing with C-O stretching C-C stretching and OH in-plane bending (C-O-H deformation) cellulose, C-O-C stretching in phenol-ether bands of lignin (Liang and Marchessault, 1959; Marchessault, 1962; Rhoads, Painter and Given, 1987; Åkerholm, Salmén and Salme, 2001; Bjarnestad and Dahlman, 2002; Anchukaitis et al., 2008; Pandey and Vuorinen, 2008; Hobro et al., 2010) |
| | 1132-950 | 1125,1123,1113 aromatic C-H in-plane deformation syringyl in lignin (Rhoads, Painter and Given, 1987; Kubo and Kadla, 2005; Wang et al., 2009) |
| | | 1110,1112 antisymmetrical in-phase ring stretch cellulose (Liang and Marchessault, 1959) |
| | | 1090, 1092 C-C glucomannan (Kacuráková et al., 2000; McCann et al., 2001) |
| 1090 antisymmetric β C-O-C hemicelluloses (Sekkal et al., 1995) | | |
| 5 | 2978-2832 | 1064 C=O stretching glucomannan (Gorgulu, Dogan and Severcan, 2007) |
| | | 1059,1033 C-O stretch (C-O-H deformation) cellulose (Liang and Marchessault, 1959; Rhoads, Painter and Given, 1987) |
| | | 1030 aromatic C-H in-plane deformation guaiacyl plus C-O (Rhoads, Painter and Given, 1987; Kubo and Kadla, 2005; Wang et al., 2009) |
| | | 1034,941,898 C-H, ring glucomannan (Kacuráková et al., 2000; Åkerholm, Salmén and Salme, 2001; McCann et al., 2001; Bjarnestad and Dahlman, 2002; Gorgulu, Dogan and Severcan, 2007) |
| | 2957 2922, 2873, 2852 CH3 asymmetric and symmetric stretching: mainly lipids and proteins with a little contribution from proteins, carbohydrates, and nucleic acids (Gorgulu, Dogan and Severcan, 2007) | |
| 1713-1676 | 1279-1274 | 2945,2853 CH2 antisymmetric stretching cellulose (Marchessault, Pearson and Liang, 1960; Marchessault and Liang, 1962) |
| | | 2853 CH2 symmetric stretching xylan (Marchessault, Pearson and Liang, 1960; Marchessault and Liang, 1962) |
| | | 2940 (S), 2920(G), 2845-2835(S), 2820(G) C-H stretching (methyl and methylenes) lignin (Rhoads, Painter and Given, 1987) |
| Class | | |
| 3 | 2860-2847 | 1711 C=O stretch (unconjugated) in lignin (Hobro et al., 2010) Conj-CO-Conj (Larkin, 2011) |
| | 1171-884 | 1282,1280 C-H bending (CH2-O-H deformation) cellulose (Liang and Marchessault, 1959; Rhoads, Painter and Given, 1987) |
| 3 | 2860-2847 | 2852 CH2 symmetric stretching: mainly lipids with a little contribution from proteins, carbohydrates, and nucleic acids (Gorgulu, Dogan and Severcan, 2007) |
| | | 2853 CH2 stretching xylan and cellulose (Marchessault, Pearson and Liang, 1960; Marchessault and Liang, 1962) |
| | 1171-884 | 1168-1146 C-O-C antisymmetric stretching in cellulose and xylan; and characteristic pectin band (Liang and Marchessault, 1959; Marchessault, 1962; Marchessault and Liang, 1962; Rhoads, Painter and Given, 1987; Sekkal et al., 1995; Mohebbi, 2005; Gorgulu, Dogan and Severcan, 2007; Pandey and Vuorinen, 2008; Rana and Sciences, 2008) |
| 3 | 1171-884 | 1129-1088 out-of-plane ring stretch in cellulose and glucomannan, aromatic C-H in plane syringyl and C-O-C antisymmetric stretching hemicelluloses (Liang and Marchessault, 1959; Sekkal et al., 1995; Kubo and Kadla, 2005; Wang et al., 2009) |
| | | 1076-883 C-O-C symmetric stretching in hemicelluloses and celluloses; C-O stretch glucomannan and celluloses; and aromatic C-H deformation guaiacyl, amorphous cellulose and glucomannan (Liang and Marchessault, 1959; Rhoads, Painter and Given, |

| | | |
|----------|-----------|---|
| | | 1987; Sekkal et al., 1995; Kacuráková et al., 2000; Bjarnestad and Dahlman, 2002; Kubo and Kadla, 2005; Mohebbi, 2005; Gorgulu, Dogan and Severcan, 2007; Pandey and Vuorinen, 2008; Wang et al., 2009; Rana et al., 2009) |
| 5 | 2929-2927 | 2922 CH ₂ asymmetric stretching: mainly lipids with a little contribution from proteins, carbohydrates, and nucleic acids (Gorgulu, Dogan and Severcan, 2007) |
| | 1687-1385 | 1683-1512 C-O ketones, flavones and glucuronic acid; amides in proteins; water; OH intramolecular H-bonding glucomannan; lignin skeletal (Liang and Marchessault, 1959; Marchessault and Liang, 1962; Kubo and Kadla, 2005; Gorgulu, Dogan and Severcan, 2007; Chen et al., 2008; Huang et al., 2008; Rana and Sciences, 2008; Wang et al., 2009; Hobro et al., 2010; Revanappa, Nandini and Salimath, 2010) |
| Subclass | | |
| 4 | 1763-1709 | 1740-1730, 1725 C=O stretching in acetyl groups of hemicelluloses (Marchessault, 1962; Marchessault and Liang, 1962; Stewart et al., 1995; Åkerholm, Salmén and Salme, 2001; McCann et al., 2001; Bjarnestad and Dahlman, 2002; Mohebbi, 2005, 2008; Gorgulu, Dogan and Severcan, 2007; Rana et al., 2009) |
| | 1245-1212 | 1245-1239 C-O of acetyl stretch of lignin and xylan 1238-1231 common to lignin and cellulose, S ring breathing with C-O stretching C-C stretching and OH in-plane bending (C-O-H deformation) cellulose, C-O-C stretching in phenol-ether bands of lignin (Liang and Marchessault, 1959; Marchessault, 1962; Rhoads, Painter and Given, 1987; Åkerholm, Salmén and Salme, 2001; Bjarnestad and Dahlman, 2002; Anchukaitis et al., 2008; Pandey and Vuorinen, 2008; Hobro et al., 2010) |

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532 Table 3 Classification functions for Gymnosperm, Rosids and Euasterid I, and validation from
 533 division, class and subclass models

| Classification functions | | Statistical Evaluation | |
|------------------------------------|------------|------------------------|-----------|
| Descriptors | LDA | F(1,5) | p-value |
| Division | | | |
| 1730 | 3.3377 | 21.52445 | 0.000015 |
| 1712 | -3.0887 | 9.14461 | 0.003414 |
| 1684 | 0.7958 | 1.6519 | 0.202655 |
| 1512 | -2.9963 | 46.30463 | 0.000000 |
| constant | -1.1877 | - | |
| Class | | | |
| 1678 | -2.80427 | 23.71985 | 0.000011 |
| 1619 | 25.07698 | 14.33562 | 0.000398 |
| 1617 | -22.13934 | 10.37686 | 0.002203 |
| 1438 | 0.917706 | 2.02774 | 0.160424 |
| 874 | -1.413472 | 6.36166 | 0.014761 |
| 784 | -6.00400 | 14.4103 | 0.000386 |
| 771 | 6.421311 | 21.53428 | 0.000024 |
| constant | -0.52498 | | |
| Subclass | | | |
| 3614 | 179.3411 | 4.59063 | 0.08504 |
| 3610 | -224.9511 | 7.89394 | 0.037565 |
| 1768 | 58.8748 | 5.71739 | 0.062302 |
| 1701 | -102.0568 | 6.67082 | 0.049265 |
| constant | -22.1101 | - | |
| Validation and test (ring samples) | | | |
| | Division | Class | Subclass |
| CV | 0.0400 | 0.0900 | 0.0000 |
| .632+ | 0.0508 | 0.0899 | 0.0513 |
| Bootstrap | | | |
| LOO | 0.0396 | 0.1081 | 0.0000 |
| Train test | 0.0452 | 0.0435 | 0.0500 |
| Independent test (size) | 0.0556(18) | 0.2143(14) | 0.0000(7) |
| Error rate | 0.0671 | 0.1552 | 0.0950 |

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